



Central aspects of pain associated with physical activity: results from the Investigating Musculoskeletal Health and Wellbeing cohort

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Abstract

Background: Knee pain reduces activity, while inactivity can increase pain. The central nervous system modulates both pain and activity. The 8-item Central Aspects of Pain (CAP) questionnaire measures self-reported symptoms associated with current and future knee pain severity and psychophysical evidence of central pain sensitivity. The objective was to explore associations between CAP and physical inactivity in people with knee pain.

Methods: Participants from the Investigating Musculoskeletal Health and Wellbeing cohort who reported their knee as their most troublesome joint with numerical rating scale pain severity $\geq 1/10$ completed questionnaires at baseline and 12 months addressing demographic and clinical characteristics, CAP questionnaire, and physical inactivity (Frail Non-Disabled questionnaire item). Chi-squared, correlations and multivariable logistic regression were performed.

Results: Seven hundred twenty-two participants provided baseline data and 404 longitudinal data. Higher baseline CAP scores were associated with higher baseline pain severity {OR: 1.25 (95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.02–1.53); $P = 0.032$ } and physical inactivity (OR: 1.18 [95% CI: 1.11–1.25]; $P < 0.001$). Increasing CAP scores over 12 months were associated with becoming physically inactive (OR: 1.16 [95% CI: 1.01–1.32]; $P = 0.032$). The effects of CAP on physical inactivity were not fully explained by pain severity nor by any single characteristic of widespread pain distribution, emotional or cognitive factors, sleep disturbance, or fatigue.

Conclusion: Central aspects of pain questionnaire displays cross-sectional and longitudinal associations with physical inactivity. Central nervous system manifestations of pain appear to link pain with physical activity and may be more important than pain severity.

Keywords: Pain, Physical activity, Barriers, Central pain hypersensitivity, Knee

1. Introduction

Pain is a leading cause of disability and a risk factor for deteriorating physical activity,^{16,30} making activities of daily living difficult.¹² Individuals adopt avoidance strategies, which hinder participation.^{25,32} Pain resolution results in minor increases in physical

activity,³¹ suggesting that factors other than the sensory experience of pain contribute to its adverse effects on physical activity.

Osteoarthritis is a leading cause of knee pain and significantly contributes to years lived with disability.²² Therapeutic exercise is recommended as the first-line treatment for osteoarthritis.⁴⁹

Sponsorships or competing interests that may be relevant to content are disclosed at the end of this article.

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Exercise has demonstrable benefits, including reducing pain and pain sensitivity,²⁸ and improving function and quality of life for individuals with osteoarthritis.^{23,24}

Physical activity is defined as any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscle that requires energy expenditure, referring to all movements, including during leisure time or as part of a person's work, such as exercise and transport.⁷⁰ Increasing physical activity, or moving more, may reduce all-cause mortality and the risk of several chronic medical conditions.⁶⁵ Physical activity can also help prevent or treat anxiety and depression.⁴² Despite current guidelines, individuals with osteoarthritis typically have lower physical activity levels than the general population.⁶¹

Pain is an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with the interplay between potential or threatened tissue damage and the processing of nociceptive signals by peripheral and central nervous systems (CNS). Distorted sensory processing in the CNS can amplify pain because of altered inhibitory and facilitatory pain pathways and long-term potentiation of neural synapses.⁶⁴ This altered pain processing has been associated with diverse characteristics, including fatigue,³⁷ disability,²⁶ mood disturbance, anxiety and depression,²⁶ neuropathic-like symptoms,^{9,47} sleep disturbance,⁶² catastrophising,⁴⁴ and widespread pain distribution.³⁵ Physical activity can moderate pain sensitivity in healthy individuals,^{6,20,50,51} whereby greater physical activity levels are associated with less pain sensitivity.^{6,20} Exercise therapies also aim to improve pain sensitivity.²⁸

Nociplastic pain is defined as pain that arises from altered nociception despite no clear evidence of actual or threatened tissue damage causing the activation of peripheral nociceptors or evidence of disease or lesions of the somatosensory system causing pain.²⁹ Central sensitisation, an increased responsiveness of nociceptive neurons in the CNS to their normal or subthreshold afferent input,²⁹ might contribute to nociplastic pain. Although nociplastic classification criteria also include comorbidities, including the characteristics such as sleep disturbance, fatigue, and cognitive problems. The Central Aspects of Pain (CAP) questionnaire was designed to reflect central pain mechanisms now referred to as nociplasticity. It was initially developed and validated in individuals with knee pain² and subsequently modified to be used by people with pain from other joints.⁴³ The CAP questionnaire consists of 8 items, each significantly associated with quantitative sensory testing (QST) evidence of central pain sensitivity. The 8 items loaded to a single unitary factor, which was more closely correlated with QST than is any of the original characteristics measured by questionnaires from which the CAP items were derived.^{2–4} High CAP scores were associated with worse knee pain prognosis even after adjusting for baseline pain severity, suggesting that nociplasticity might be a barrier to improving pain.⁴

Characteristics that have been associated with CAP scores and nociplasticity have also been associated with physical inactivity. Such characteristics include fatigue,^{21,48} neuropathic-like symptoms,⁵⁴ and catastrophising.^{38,69} We hypothesised that CAP measures a state that acts as a barrier to physical activity. This study aimed to evaluate the associations between CAP and self-reported physical inactivity using cross-sectional data and longitudinal analyses over 12 months from a cohort of individuals with knee pain.

2. Methods

2.1. Study population

Data analysed were from the Investigating Musculoskeletal Health and Wellbeing (IMH&W) prospective cohort study.⁴⁵ Investigating Musculoskeletal Health and Wellbeing was

designed to measure and characterise the development and progression of pain, frailty, and disability in adults with musculoskeletal problems in the East Midlands region of the United Kingdom. Data were from the first 5,500 people recruited into IMH&W between June 2018 and February 2020 who had completed the FRAIL questionnaire⁴⁶ at baseline and 12 months later were included. The study was approved by the Central London Research Ethics Committee (REC ref: 18/L.O./0870) and registered on clinicaltrials.gov (NCT03696134). Participants completed postal consent forms and questionnaires returned without consent forms implied consent. Individuals who reported the “knee” as the most bothersome joint based on the question, “Over the past 4 weeks, where was your most bothersome joint pain or aching feeling?” with pain levels ≥ 1 on the numerical rating scale (NRS) and answered the Frail Non-Disabled (FiND)¹⁰ physical activity question at baseline and at 12 months were included.

2.2. Investigating musculoskeletal health and well-being variables

The IMH&W questionnaire captured participant characteristics (eg, age, sex, BMI, alcohol, and smoking status) and previous joint replacement at baseline. Socioeconomic status was calculated based on postcode using indices of multiple deprivation.⁵² Average pain intensity in the most troublesome joint in the past 4 weeks was assessed on a 0 to 10 NRS using the question, “Over the past 4 weeks, how intense was your average pain or the average aching feeling in your most bothersome joint, where 0, is ‘no pain’ and 10 is ‘pain as bad as could be’?”.

The Central Aspects of Pain (CAP)—knee questionnaire was previously developed and validated in people with knee pain^{2–4} and subsequently modified from “knee” to “joint” for generalisability across musculoskeletal conditions.⁴³ The CAP questionnaire consists of 8 items associated with neuropathic-like symptoms, fatigue, cognitive impact, catastrophising, anxiety, sleep, depression, and pain distribution.^{2–4} Items 1 to 7 are Likert scales and scored as never = 0, sometimes = 1, often/always = 2, with item 7 reverse scored. Item 8 body manikin was scored as knee pain only = 0, knee plus other pain below the waist = 2, providing a summated CAP score from 0 to 16.³

Self-reported physical inactivity was classified using the self-reported Frail Non-Disabled (FiND) questionnaire item “Which is your level of physical activity?”.¹⁰ Participants reported their levels of physical activity as either “Regular (at least 2–4 hours per week)” or “None or mainly sedentary.” This question has demonstrated moderate agreement with physical/sedentary activity based on cut scores of sedentary activity <383 kcal/wk for men and <270 kcal/wk for women.¹⁰

2.3. Data analysis

Descriptive statistics for continuous or ordinal variables are reported as median and interquartile ranges (IQR), categorical variables as frequencies, and differences as mean and 95% confidence interval (95% CI). Minimal clinically important difference (MCID) was calculated as $0.5 \times \text{SD}$ for baseline scores rounded up to the nearest integer for CAP and pain NRS. Chi-squared and point-biserial Spearman (ρ) or Pearson (r) correlations were performed to assess cross-sectional and longitudinal associations at baseline and 12 months. Confounders were predefined as age, sex and BMI, chi-squared and point-biserial Spearman (ρ) or Pearson (r) correlations explored additional covariates of joint replacement, alcohol intake, and smoking

status. Bivariate and multivariable logistic regression with confounders assessed the associations between baseline or change in CAP scores or pain NRS (continuous measure calculated as change from baseline to 12 months) with physical inactivity or change in physical inactivity at 12 months (change in physical activity as change from active to inactive or vice versa).

Secondary analysis explored if individual components of CAP better explained the association with physical activity. Bivariate logistic regression models examined associations with physical inactivity at baseline or changes in physical inactivity at 12 months. Multivariable logistic regressions explored whether associations between individual CAP items and inactivity at baseline could fully explain observed associations between CAP and inactivity. All analyses were performed using summary-tools,¹³ psych,⁵⁷ glm2,⁴¹ dplyr,⁶⁸ tidyverse,⁶⁷ pander,¹⁵ epitools,⁷ and gmodels⁶⁶ packages in R statistical software (v4.2.2)⁵⁶ within the RStudio software (rstudio.com) with alpha set at 0.05.

This is a secondary analysis of data. Two-tailed logistic regression post hoc power calculation for the primary model of change in CAP and NRS associated with becoming active/sedentary. Based on a sample size of $N = 404$, log odds ratio = 0.464, proportion = 0.054, alpha = 0.05, normal distribution, multicollinearity = 0.375, probability of the outcome occurring ($y = 1$) in the treatment/exposure ($x = 1$) under the null hypothesis = 0.079, unstandardised regression coefficient for the predictor of interest = 0.462, and unstandardised regression coefficient for the reference group = 0 indicated 71% power.

3. Results

Of 5,500 IMH&W participants, 722 were eligible for the current study at baseline, of whom 404 participants also self-reported physical activity data at 12 months (**Fig. 1**). Participants with follow-up data reported similar characteristics at baseline to those of the entire baseline population (**Table 1**). For the 404 participants with follow-up data, the median (range) age was 72 (64–77) years, BMI 27.6 (24.8–31.6) kg/m², NRS pain 6 (4–8), and CAP 7 (5–11); 5 people with bilateral knee pain reported unilateral joint replacement. Of these, 177 (44%) reported bilateral knee pain at baseline. The minimal clinically important difference ($0.5 \times 3.6 = \pm 1.8$) for CAP scores was 2 units and for NRS ($0.5 \times$

$2.1 = \pm 1.1$) was 1 unit. Twenty-six percent ($n = 106$) were inactive at baseline.

3.1. Cross-sectional associations with physical inactivity at baseline

Higher pain NRS and CAP were associated with self-reported physical inactivity at baseline ($n = 722$, **Table 2**). Higher pain NRS was associated with higher CAP scores at baseline ($\rho = 0.63$, $P < 0.001$). Physical inactivity was associated with higher BMI ($r = 0.18$, $P < 0.001$) but not significantly associated with age ($r = 0.05$, $P = 0.182$), sex ($\chi^2 = 0.75$, $P = 0.386$), previous joint replacement ($\chi^2 = 2.08$, $P = 0.149$), alcohol consumption ($\chi^2 = 1.42$, $P = 0.234$), nor smoking status ($\chi^2 = 1.78$, $P = 0.140$). When adjusted for predefined confounders (age, sex, and BMI), associations of pain NRS or CAP with physical inactivity remained significant and of similar magnitude to bivariate analyses. When pain NRS and CAP were entered into a single regression model, CAP (but not pain NRS) remained significantly associated with physical inactivity (**Table 2**).

3.2. Longitudinal associations with 12-month physical inactivity

Of the 404 participants who reported physical activity data at baseline and 12 months, 74 (18%) reported being physically inactive both at baseline, and at 12 months, 262 (65%) were active at both time points, 36 (9%) transitioned from active to inactive, and 32 (8%) from inactive to active. Group mean pain NRS was similar between baseline and 12 months (mean difference: 0.20 [95% CI: -0.02 to 0.42]; $P = 0.068$). Ninety-six participants (25%) displayed pain increases ($\text{NRS} \geq 1$) and 66 (17%) decreases (≤ -1), whereas 228 (58%) indicated no change in pain NRS between baseline and 12 months. Mean CAP scores were slightly but significantly higher at 12 months compared with baseline (mean difference: 0.64 [95% CI: 0.27–1.00]; $P < 0.001$). Seventy-two participants (22%) displayed an improvement (decrease ≤ -2) in CAP scores, and 122 (36%) indicated an increase ≥ 2 in CAP scores. By contrast, for 141 participants (42%), the difference in CAP scores between baseline and 12 months did not exceed the MCID of 2. Baseline and 12-month physical inactivity were strongly intercorrelated ($\chi^2 = 131.52$, $P < 0.001$). Associations of baseline variables with 12-month physical inactivity replicated associations with baseline inactivity (see Table S1, supplemental digital content, <http://links.lww.com/PR9/A301>).

Increases in CAP scores between baseline and 12 months were associated with an increased likelihood of those physically active at baseline becoming physically inactive at 12 months (**Table 3**). Changes in pain NRS were not significantly associated with changes in physical activity at 12 months (**Table 3**). When pain NRS and CAP scores were included in a single model, a change in CAP scores was associated with becoming physically inactive 12 months, and a change in CAP and baseline NRS and CAP were associated with becoming physically active (**Table 3**). Baseline physical activity was not associated with CAP (OR: 1.78 [95% CI: 0.21–15.50]; $P = 0.599$) or NRS (OR: 0.35 [95% CI: 0.06–1.75]; $P = 0.199$) at 12 months.

Associations between CAP and physical inactivity were not fully explained by any single CAP item (see Tables S2 and S3, supplemental digital content, <http://links.lww.com/PR9/A301>). In bivariate cross-sectional baseline analyses, fatigue-associated (OR: 1.82 [95% CI: 1.32–2.52]; $P < 0.001$) and depression-associated (OR: 1.77 [95% CI: 1.36–2.31]; $P < 0.001$) items were

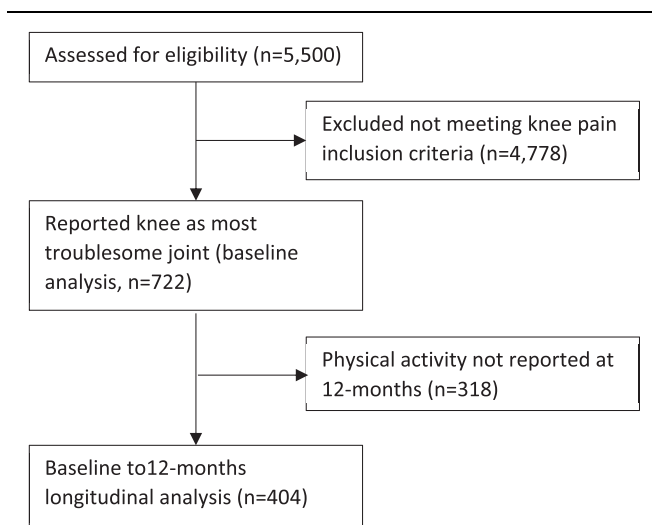


Figure 1. Consort diagram showing participant flow through the study.

Table 1
Baseline participant characteristics.

	Knee most troublesome joint (n = 722)	Knee most troublesome joint with 12-mo physical activity data (n = 404)
Demographics		
Sex; n (% female)	396 (55%)	219 (54%)
Age, y	72 (65–77)	72 (65–77)
BMI (kg/m ²)	28.1 (24.8–31.6)	27.7 (24.7–31.0)
Previous total knee replacement, n (%)	12 (2%)	5 (1%)
Bilateral knee pain	335 (46%)	177 (44%)
Alcohol consumption		
<3 units per day, n (%)	634 (88%)	354 (88%)
≥3 units per day, n (%)	88 (12%)	50 (12%)
Smoking status		
Never, n (%)	327 (45%)	184 (45%)
Ex-smoker, n (%)	357 (49%)	201 (50%)
Current smoker, n (%)	38 (5%)	19 (5%)
Socioeconomic status (10 least deprived, 1 most deprived)	8 (5–9)	8 (5–9)
Physical activity		
Active, n (%)	502 (70%)	298 (74%)
Inactive, n (%)	220 (30%)	106 (26%)
Pain measures		
NRS (possible range 1–10)	6 (4–8)	6 (4–7)
CAP (possible range 0–16)	8 (5–11)	7 (5–10)

Baseline characteristics of participants contributing data to the current study. The subgroup who provided both baseline and follow-up data displayed baseline characteristics similar to the total baseline population. Data are median (interquartile range) or n (%).

BMI, body mass index; NRS, pain numerical rating scale; CAP, Central Aspects of Pain.

associated with inactivity. No individual baseline CAP item was significantly associated with 12-month inactivity (see Table S2, supplemental digital content, <http://links.lww.com/PR9/A301>). Baseline CAP remained significantly associated with greater baseline inactivity in separate multivariable models adjusted for each CAP item (aORs: 1.09–1.20, see Table S3, supplemental digital content, <http://links.lww.com/PR9/A301>). Only the baseline depression item remained significantly associated with baseline inactivity after adjustment for CAP (aOR: 1.60 [95% CI: 1.12–2.30]; $P = 0.011$).

Table 2
Baseline cross-sectional associations with physical inactivity (active = 0, inactive = 1, n = 722).

	Odds ratio	95% confidence interval		<i>P</i>
		Lower	Upper	
Bivariate analyses				
Baseline CAP (0–16)	1.20	1.14	1.26	<0.001
Baseline pain NRS (0–10)	1.25	1.16	1.36	<0.001
CAP multivariable				
Baseline CAP (0–16)	1.19	1.13	1.25	<0.001
Age (y)	1.03	1.01	1.05	0.001
Sex (female)	1.06	0.74	1.51	0.753
BMI (kg/m ²)	1.07	1.03	1.11	<0.001
Pain NRS multivariable				
Baseline NRS (0–10)	1.21	1.11	1.32	<0.001
Age (y)	1.03	1.01	1.04	0.004
Sex (female)	0.97	0.68	1.37	0.842
BMI (kg/m ²)	1.07	1.04	1.11	<0.001
Combined multivariable				
Baseline CAP (0–16)	1.18	1.11	1.25	<0.001
Baseline NRS (0–10)	1.03	0.93	1.15	0.545
Age (y)	1.03	1.01	1.05	0.001
Sex (female)	1.07	0.75	1.53	0.709
BMI (kg/m ²)	1.07	1.03	1.10	<0.001

Bivariate associations are presented between Central Aspects of Pain (CAP) or pain numerical rating scale (NRS) and physical inactivity. Multivariable models adjusted for baseline CAP or/and NRS, in addition to predefined covariates of age, sex, and body mass index (BMI).

Statistically significant associations are shown in bold.

Higher baseline pain NRS was associated with increased CAP scores between baseline and 12 months (OR: 1.77 [95% CI: 1.17–2.68] per unit increase in pain NRS; $P = 0.007$). Higher baseline CAP scores were associated with increases in pain NRS at 12 months (OR: 1.25 [95% CI: 1.02–1.53] per unit increase in pain CAP; $P = 0.032$), and greater increases in CAP scores were associated with greater increases in NRS pain between baseline and 12 months (OR: 1.25 [95% CI: 1.18–1.34] per unit increase in CAP score; $P < 0.001$).

4. Discussion

This study examined associations between self-reported physical inactivity and central aspects of pain in people with knee pain. Central Aspects of Pain and pain NRS were each associated with self-reported physical inactivity in baseline bivariate cross-sectional analyses. Only CAP remained significantly related to physical inactivity after adjusting for confounders. In people physically active at baseline, increased CAP scores at 12 months was associated with becoming physically inactive, and increased pain NRS could not wholly explain this association. Central aspects of pain, therefore, might act as barriers to continuing physical activity, over and above any effect of pain severity. Conversely, low physical activity may lead to worsening nociplasticity.

Chronic pain is a complex sensory and emotional experience linked to evidence of widespread CNS dysfunction. CAP scores are associated with each of the 8 characteristics represented by its items; neuropathic-like pain, anxiety, depression, catastrophising, cognitive impact, sleep disturbance, fatigue, and widespread pain distribution. No single item explains the associations of CAP scores with pain severity² nor, we show here, with physical inactivity. We propose that CAP measures nociplasticity, an aspect of CNS dysfunction that might contribute to pain sensitivity. Our current data indicate that nociplasticity might also contribute to inactivity, over and above its effects on pain.

In people who were active at baseline, increasing CAP over 12 months was associated with becoming inactive. These findings demonstrate that, for some participants, CAP measures

Table 3
Associations between baseline or 12-mo change in pain NRS and CAP with 12-mo change in physical activity.

	Become inactive (0 = active baseline and follow-up, 1 = active baseline then inactive follow-up)				Become active (0 = inactive baseline and follow-up, 1 = inactive baseline then active follow-up)			
	Odds ratio	95% confidence interval		<i>P</i>	Odds ratio	95% confidence interval		<i>P</i>
		Lower	Upper			Lower	Upper	
Bivariate analyses								
Baseline CAP	1.05	0.95	1.17	0.339	0.96	0.86	1.07	0.488
Baseline pain NRS	1.15	0.97	1.35	0.106	1.07	0.87	1.32	0.488
CAP change	1.16	1.03	1.30	0.012	0.89	0.78	1.01	0.065
NRS change	1.12	0.94	1.33	0.195	1.00	0.83	1.21	0.995
CAP change multivariable								
CAP change	1.16	1.01	1.32	0.032	0.90	0.77	1.05	0.193
Baseline CAP	1.05	0.91	1.22	0.489	0.94	0.79	1.11	0.464
Age (y)	1.03	0.98	1.09	0.237	0.97	0.92	1.02	0.269
Sex (female)	1.54	0.62	3.79	0.352	3.38	1.05	10.93	0.042
BMI (kg/m ²)	1.14	1.06	1.23	<0.001	1.03	0.94	1.13	0.502
NRS change multivariable								
NRS change	1.25	0.99	1.57	0.055	1.02	0.82	1.26	0.891
Baseline NRS	1.25	1.00	1.58	0.051	1.07	0.84	1.38	0.575
Age (y)	1.02	0.97	1.07	0.407	0.97	0.93	1.02	0.229
Sex (female)	1.03	0.45	2.35	0.944	4.67	1.57	13.90	0.005
BMI (kg/m ²)	1.13	1.05	1.22	<0.001	0.99	0.91	1.08	0.896
Full multivariable								
CAP change	1.20	1.04	1.38	0.013	0.79	0.66	0.94	0.007
NRS change	1.15	0.89	1.50	0.285	1.24	0.94	1.62	0.128
Baseline CAP	1.05	0.89	1.25	0.552	0.80	0.65	0.99	0.039
Baseline NRS	1.29	0.96	1.72	0.089	1.52	1.06	2.17	0.022

Bivariate associations are presented for baseline or change in Central Aspects of Pain (CAP) or pain numerical rating scale (NRS) with changing physical activity. Increases in CAP scores and NRS were allocated positive values so that an OR > 1.0 indicates that an increase in CAP or NRS was associated with an increased likelihood of becoming active or inactive. Multivariable models are presented for changes in CAP or NRS, and adjusted for baseline CAP or NRS, as well as predefined covariates of age, sex, and body mass index (BMI), or change in both CAP and NRS.

Statistically significant associations are shown in bold.

a changeable state rather than a fixed trait and that changing CAP scores might have biological importance by influencing physical inactivity. This also raises the possibility that CAP scores might be amenable to therapeutic interventions, that CAP might measure the effects of such interventions, and that reducing CAP scores might help prevent or reverse physical inactivity.

Central Aspects of Pain should not be considered the only (or necessarily the most important) moderator of physical activity. We showed that responses to the depression item in the CAP questionnaire were associated with physical inactivity, over and above any effect of CAP itself. Depressive symptoms might, for example, be associated with reduced motivation to remain physically active.²⁷ Furthermore, only changes in CAP were related to becoming less physically active not CAP at baseline. Therefore, other factors influencing physical activity and CAP, such as injury or disease activity, may explain these changes. It is possible that increases in CAP scores are a consequence rather than (or as well as) cause of decreased physical activity. Exercise and physical activity might moderate central pain processing and thereby reduce nociplasticity.¹¹

Pain resulting from altered CNS processing may play a role in being physically inactive in individuals with knee pain. Nociplasticity might be associated with an increased responsiveness of nociceptive neurons in the CNS to their normal or subthreshold afferent input (central sensitisation),¹ although central sensitisation cannot be directly measured in humans. Quantitative sensory testing evidence of central sensitisation has been associated with fatigue, catastrophising, widespread pain, neuropathic symptoms, mood, sleep, and widespread pain.^{9,26,35,37,44,47,62} Furthermore, some of these characteristics are recognised as part of the IASP nociplastic pain classification criteria.³⁴ Fatigue, mood disturbance, and catastrophising have been associated previously with physical inactivity.^{42,48,53,54,69} Rather than pain

intensity, these characteristics might influence participation in physical activity and explain the associations we show between CAP and physical inactivity. Catastrophising and mood disturbance might lead to activity avoidance beliefs and behaviours,^{17,39,40,60} and a fear of causing greater pain and or damage might lead to physical inactivity.

Physical activity is recommended to prevent and manage painful conditions such as arthritis, and physical activity might moderate pain. It has been suggested that physical activity can influence affective pain networks more than sensory pain networks⁵⁹ and decrease central excitability while increasing central inhibition of nociceptive transmission.³⁶ Physical activity might reduce pain sensitivity in people without chronic pain,^{6,19,20,36,50,51,59} across different pain conditions.^{8,18} Conversely, amplification of pain signals (pain hypersensitivity) as a result of altered CNS processing can lead to functional limitations.¹¹ Nociplasticity has been shown to affect physical activity and physical function,⁵⁸ potentially through the avoidance of movements, neural adaptations in the sensory and motor areas, and neurophysiological and neuromuscular changes.^{11,58} Our longitudinal findings are consistent with either nociplasticity altering activity levels or activity levels altering nociplasticity.

The impacts of central aspects of pain and physical inactivity might be bidirectional, and optimal interventions might address both concurrently. It seems that reductions in pain sensitivity alone may be insufficient to reverse physical inactivity because decreasing CAP scores were not associated with increased activity in those who were inactive at baseline. In individuals with a reduction of at least -2 (MCID) in CAP scores, only 6 (5%) became active, 12 (10%) became sedentary, and 99 (85%) did not change their activity levels. Similarly, removing the peripheral nociceptive drive in osteoarthritis by joint replacement surgery often does not alone lead to a return to physical activity.⁵ Treatments that solely target pain sensitivity might help

people maintain their physical activity but might be insufficient to increase physical activity and quality of life for those who are already inactive. Current NICE guidelines recommend therapeutic exercise as a first-line treatment for osteoarthritis knee pain⁴⁵ to improve pain and function.⁶³ Although exercise has been shown to be beneficial for improving nociceptivity,²⁸ more holistic biopsychosocial approaches may be required to enable individuals who are not currently active to undertake exercise and increase physical activity. Combining therapeutic exercise with cognitive behavioural therapy, which targets pain sensitivity, the associated characteristics, and function, might be more beneficial in reducing the impact on physical activity from pain sensitivity.

This study has several limitations. Physical activity was self-reported based on the categorical FIND questionnaire item “What is your level of physical activity?” Participants reported whether they undertook “regular (at least 2–4 hours per week)” or “none or mainly sedentary” physical activity. Although previously validated against gait speed,¹⁰ this dichotomous outcome may fail to take into account all activities, such as travel to work and household chores, and might underestimate or overestimate the true prevalence of physical inactivity.⁵⁵ Changing physical activity might also be difficult to detect based on the above definition, and more granular data could be measured by self-report or directly measured physical activity. Increased or new activity may take some time to be considered regular. Direct measures of physical activity also have limitations of participant burden, cost, and the need for specialised training,⁵⁵ with no gold standard, making them difficult to use in extensive cohort studies like IMH&W. We found that low physical activity was associated with higher BMI, and BMI was adjusted in our multivariable models. However, we were unable to explore all potential confounders, such as pain duration, change in medication, injury or treatment between time points, which might explain some of the observed associations. Minimal clinically important difference was used to determine if participants had important changes in NRS or CAP between baseline and 12 months. Minimal clinically important difference was estimated using the “distribution-based” approach ($SD \times 0.5$), which has some limitations compared with the “gold standard”, “anchor-based” approach. The “distribution-based” approach lacks clinical context to define what constitutes meaningful change; it is also sensitive to the characteristics of the sample, eg, baseline severity, sample size, and heterogeneity.^{14,33} This was an exploratory study with multiple analyses, increasing the risk of type I errors. Post hoc power calculations indicated that the study showed 71% power; additional dedicated studies need to confirm these results.

In conclusion, as measured by CAP, central aspects of pain display cross-sectional and longitudinal associations with physical inactivity. Increasing CAP scores were associated with becoming physically inactive at 12 months, but a decrease in CAP scores was not significantly associated with becoming active. Central aspects seem to link pain with physical inactivity and may be more important than pain severity itself in posing a barrier to maintaining physical activity in people with knee pain. Addressing central aspects might help people with chronic knee pain remain active.

Disclosures

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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