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3 1 **Title:** Construct Validity of Movement-Evoked Pain Operational Definitions in Older Adults
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5 2 with Chronic Low Back Pain
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8 3 **Running Title:** Comparing Movement-Evoked Pain Operational Definitions
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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 **Objective:** Movement-evoked pain (MeP) may predispose the geriatric chronic low back pain
27 (LBP) population to health decline. Since there are differing operational definitions for MeP, the
28 question remains as to whether these different definitions have similar associations with health
29 outcomes in older adults with chronic LBP.

30 **Design:** Cross-sectional analysis of an observational study.

31 **Setting:** Clinical research laboratory.

32 **Subjects:** 226 older adults with chronic LBP.

33 **Methods:** This secondary analysis used baseline data from a prospective cohort study (n=250).
34 LBP intensity was collected before and after the Repeated Chair Rise Test, Stair Climbing Test,
35 and Six-Minute Walk Test; MeP change scores (i.e., sum of pretest pain subtracted from posttest
36 pain) and aggregated posttest pain (i.e., sum of posttest pain) variables were calculated. LBP-
37 related disability and self-efficacy were measured by the Quebec Back Pain Disability Scale
38 (QBPDS) and Low Back Activity Confidence Scale (LOBACS), respectively. Physical function
39 was measured with the Health ABC Performance Battery. Robust regression with HC3 standard
40 errors was used to evaluate adjusted associations between both MeP variables and disability,
41 self-efficacy and physical function.

42 **Results:** Greater aggregated posttest MeP was independently associated with worse disability
43 (b=0.593, t=2.913, p=0.004), self-efficacy (b=-0.870, t=-3.110, p=0.002), and physical function
44 (b=-0.017, t=-2.007, p=0.039); MeP change scores were not associated with any outcome (all
45 p>0.050).

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3 46 **Conclusions:** Aggregate posttest MeP, but not MeP change scores, was linked to poorer health
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5 47 outcomes in older adults with chronic LBP. Future studies should consider that the construct
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7 48 validity of MeP paradigms partially depends on the chosen operational definition.
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13 50 **Key words:** chronic pain, low back pain, movement-evoked pain, pain measurement, geriatrics
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51 INTRODUCTION

52 Advancing age is a risk factor for high-impact chronic pain (HICP, or pain on most days of the
53 week for ≥ 3 months that majorly limits at least 1 activity of daily living), which greatly
54 contributes to disability and healthcare costs.(1) The general population is aging,(2) and factors
55 such as advancing age and disability contribute to greater annual healthcare expenditure.(3, 4)
56 Low back pain (LBP) is the most prevalent form of HICP among older adults in the United
57 States,(5, 6) and is associated with markedly decreased function and overall health.(7-11) LBP
58 burden and resultant healthcare expenditure are therefore expected to continue increasing in
59 parallel with the aging population. To improve health outcomes for older adults with HICP, it is
60 critical to understand which aspects of the pain experience may lead to disability.

61 Attempts to understand the association between pain and disability have been hampered by the
62 manner in which pain is quantified. Compared to young- and middle-aged adults with chronic
63 LBP, typical measures of pain, such as measures of pain at rest (i.e., resting pain) and pain from
64 prior experiences (i.e., recall pain,) tend to be lower and less related to disability among older
65 adults with chronic LBP.(12, 13) Further, resting and recall measures do not distinguish between
66 different aspects of pain, limiting the ability to isolate which component of the pain experience is
67 contributing to disability. As LBP is most restrictive for older adults during functional activities,
68 (14, 15) it is critical to investigate if pain exacerbated by movement (i.e, movement-evoked pain)
69 is associated with health outcomes in older adults with chronic LBP.

70 Recent evidence established the utility of standardized physical function tests to elicit
71 movement-evoked pain (MeP) in a cohort of older adults with chronic LBP; MeP, but not resting
72 and recall pain, was associated with poorer self-reported and performance based function.(16)
73 While this investigation demonstrated the functional relevance of this paradigm, the question

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3 74 remains as to whether the aggregate scoring method (i.e., summation of multiple pain ratings
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5 75 across the duration of movements) optimally captures the influence of MeP in this population. A
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7 76 recent review established that MeP can be operationally defined (and by default calculated) in
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10 77 other ways, including: the worst pain experienced with movement, or peak; or a quantified
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12 78 change pre- to post-movement, or change score.(17) Given that research to date has not directly
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14 79 compared different MeP methodologies, it is unclear which operational definition best
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16 80 characterizes the impact of MeP on physical function and disability (i.e., construct validity) in
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19 81 older adults with chronic LBP. This investigation sought to address this knowledge gap by
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21 82 determining whether MeP change scores or aggregate posttest MeP ratings are more strongly
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23 83 associated with health outcomes in older adults with chronic LBP. Therefore, the purpose of the
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25 84 investigation was to explore the construct validity of two MeP operational definitions (i.e.,
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27 85 summed MeP change scores and aggregate posttest MeP scores) by examining the strength of
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29 86 their associations with LBP-related disability, self-efficacy and physical function in older adults
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31 87 with chronic LBP. Based on previous reports of the considerable pain variability in LBP
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33 88 populations,(18, 19) and our use of several functional tests to elicit MeP, it is possible for pretest
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35 89 pain scores to sequentially increase and remain elevated across tests; change scores may
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37 90 resultantly mischaracterize MeP responses due to underestimation. Thus, we hypothesized that
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39 91 aggregate posttest MeP scores would be more strongly associated with disability, self-efficacy,
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41 92 and physical function than summed MeP change scores.
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46 47 93 **METHODS**

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50 94 This study is a secondary analysis of baseline data from a prospective cohort study of
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52 95 community-dwelling older adults with chronic LBP from March 2013 to December 2016 in the
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54 96 northern Delaware region.(20) Participants signed a consent form that was approved by the
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3 97 University of Delaware's Institutional Review Board. Participants provided demographic,
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5 98 anthropometric, and self-reported outcome measure data prior to the initiation of functional
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8 99 testing and concomitant MeP assessment.
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10 11 100 *Participants*

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14 101 Older adults (60-85 years old) with primary complaints of moderately intense chronic low back
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16 102 pain (i.e., intensity $>3/10$, frequency ≥ 4 days/week, duration ≥ 3 months) were recruited to
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18 103 participate. Individuals were excluded if they had LBP symptoms (e.g., unrelenting night pain)
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20 104 suggestive of a possible serious underlying condition, severely limited functional mobility (e.g.,
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22 105 needing more than a cane for household ambulation), a progressive neurological disorder (e.g.,
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24 106 Parkinson's disease), terminal illness, or cognitive impairment (i.e., a Mini Mental State
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27 107 Examination score $<18/30$).⁽²¹⁾ Ultimately, 250 individuals were enrolled (Figure 1).
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30 31 108 *Baseline Characteristics*

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34 109 At the baseline session, participants reported their age and sex, and had their body mass index
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36 110 (BMI) measured and calculated. Pain thermometers (range from 0-10, where 0=no pain and
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38 111 10=worst pain imaginable) were used to measure resting and recall pain.^(22, 23) Resting pain
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40 112 was defined as the current level of pain, whereas recall pain was measured by asking participants
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42 113 to rate their "best" and "worst" pain in the 24 hours preceding baseline evaluation. Resting and
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44 114 recall pain were averaged to form a composite pain intensity variable (hereafter referred to as
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46 115 composite resting and recall pain intensity).^(24, 25) Participants also reported the duration of
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48
49 116 their chronic LBP in units of years.
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51 52 53 117 *Movement-evoked Pain*

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3 118 The Repeated Chair Rise (RCR), Stair Climbing (SCT), and Six-minute Walk tests (6MWT)
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5 119 were used to elicit pain; methodological details have been previously published.(16) Each test is
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7 120 a reliable and valid measure of physical function,(26-31) and has previously demonstrated the
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9 121 ability to elicit pain in older adults.(16, 32-34) In short, participants were asked to completely
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11 122 stand from a chair five times for the RCR,(35) ascend and descend 12 steps at a self-selected
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13 123 pace for the SCT,(36) and to ambulate as far as possible within 6 minutes for the 6MWT;(37)
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15 124 participants were asked to report their LBP intensity levels (0=no pain, 10=worst pain
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17 125 imaginable) immediately before and after each performance test. MeP change scores were
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19 126 calculated by subtracting pretest pain from posttest pain for each test, and summing the change
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21 127 scores together. Aggregate posttest MeP was calculated by summing the posttest pain levels
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23 128 together.

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29 129 *LBP-related Disability: Quebec Back Pain Disability Scale (QBPDS)*

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32 130 LBP-related disability was collected with the QBPDS,(38) a reliable and valid measure of
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34 131 condition-specific disability in older adults.(39) The 20-item QBPDS asks individuals to rate
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36 132 how their LBP impacts certain activities of daily living (e.g., walking) on a scale of 0 (not
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38 133 difficult at all) to 5 (unable to do). Scores range from 0-100, where higher scores equate to
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40 134 greater LBP-related disability.

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44 135 *LBP-related Self-efficacy: Low Back Activity Confidence Scale (LOBACS)*

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47 136 LBP-related self-efficacy was collected with the LOBACS, which has established reliability and
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49 137 validity as a measure of condition-specific self-efficacy in LBP populations.(40, 41) The
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51 138 LOBACS includes 15 items that ask individuals with LBP to rate their level of confidence in
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53 139 performing certain activities across three subscales: functional self-efficacy (e.g., confidence in
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3 140 carrying and lifting), self-regulatory self-efficacy (e.g., confidence in caring for LBP), and
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5 141 exercise self-efficacy (e.g., confidence in exercising to maintain health). For each item,
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7 142 responses range from 0%-100% (0%=no confidence, 100%=complete confidence). Subscales are
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9 143 averaged to yield a summary score; lower scores reflect decreased self-efficacy.
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13 144 *Physical Function: Health ABC Performance Battery*
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16 145 Physical function was measured with the Health ABC performance battery, which consists of
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18 146 repeated chair stands, standing balance tasks, gait speed, and a narrow walk test for evaluating
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20 147 dynamic balance.(42) For the RCR component, participants were asked to perform 5 chair stands
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22 148 from sitting as quickly as possible; time needed to complete the stands was measured in seconds.
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24 149 Participants completed this task once; both MeP and transitional mobility were gleaned from the
25
26 150 singular trial. Standing balance was measured in one trial across three separate postures (semi-
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28 151 tandem, full tandem, and single leg stance), in which participants were tasked with holding each
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30 152 position for up to 30 seconds. For gait speed, individuals were asked to walk at their self-selected
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32 153 pace along a 6-meter walkway; time was measured in seconds. The same 6-meter walkway was
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34 154 used for the narrow walk test. Individuals were asked to walk at their self-selected pace while
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36 155 keeping their feet within a 20cm wide area; time was measured in seconds, and two trials were
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38 156 averaged. Performance on each test was converted to four ratio scores: chair stands per second,
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40 157 total duration of standing balance divided by total possible time of 90 seconds, gait speed in
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42 158 meters per second, and narrow walk test speed in meters per second. These ratios were summed
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44 159 to yield a continuous scale of function from 0-4, where lower scores indicate poorer
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46 160 function.(42)
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53 161 *Statistical Analysis*
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3 162 All analyses were conducted with SPSS software version 28 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).
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5 163 Descriptive statistics were conducted for all study variables; means and standard deviations were
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7 164 calculated for continuous variables, while frequencies were observed for categorical variables. In
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10 165 subsequent analyses, listwise deletion was used for missing data. To test the suitability of this
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12 166 approach, means for study variables were compared between participants with and without
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14 167 missing data. These analyses demonstrated that participants with missing data had worse BMIs,
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16 168 composite resting and recall pain intensity, LBP-related disability, LBP-related self-efficacy, and
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18 169 physical function ($p < 0.05$). Given that participants with missing data were unique from the rest
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20 170 of the cohort, and MeP data was most commonly missing, data imputation was deemed
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22 171 inappropriate. Pearson correlations were used to test bivariate correlation relationships between
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24 172 independent variables (i.e., MeP change scores and aggregated posttest MeP) and dependent
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26 173 variables (i.e., disability, self-efficacy, and physical function). Associations between MeP
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28 174 variables and each respective dependent variable were initially evaluated by multiple linear
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31 175 regression models that accounted for five covariates that could confound associations with
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33 176 disability, self-efficacy, and/or physical function: age,(43) sex,(44, 45) BMI,(46) composite
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35 177 resting and recall LBP intensity,(47) and LBP duration.(45) For each of the three models, all
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37 178 variables were entered into one block. Variance inflation factors (VIF) were computed to test for
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39 179 multicollinearity. However, these models violated either normality (examined with Shapiro-Wilk
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41 180 and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests) or homoscedasticity (examined with White's test) assumptions
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43 181 ($p < 0.05$). To address these violations, robust regression with HC3 standard errors(48) was used
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45 182 to model the relationship between MeP variables and LBP-related disability (QBPDS), LBP-
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47 183 related self-efficacy (LOBACS), and physical function (Health ABC performance battery).
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49 184 Significance was set at < 0.05 for all analyses.
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185 **RESULTS**

186 Participants' baseline characteristics are detailed in **Table 1**. Our cohort reported an average age
187 of 69.7 years (± 6.8 years) and consisted of marginally more females than males (51.2% vs.
188 48.8%). The majority of participants were Caucasian (85.5%) and retirees (64.7%). On average,
189 participants reported mild-to-moderate composite resting and recall LBP intensity 3.1 (± 1.5).
190 Average MeP change scores were 0.7 ± 2.0 , with a range of values from -6 to 11. In turn,
191 aggregated posttest MeP was 5.9 ± 5.4 on average, with a range from 0 to 25. Prevalence
192 estimates of MeP, as defined by change scores or aggregated ratings ≥ 1 , were 41% for MeP
193 change scores and 81.3% for aggregate posttest MeP.

194 **Table 2** contains bivariate correlations between MeP calculation methods and LBP-related
195 disability, self-efficacy, and physical function. Aggregated posttest MeP demonstrated larger
196 correlations with disability and self-efficacy ($r=0.414$, $p<0.001$ and $r=-0.346$, $p<0.001$,
197 respectively) than MeP change scores ($r=0.159$, $p=0.017$ and $r=-0.004$, $p=0.955$, respectively).
198 Neither aggregated posttest MeP nor MeP change scores were significantly correlated with
199 physical function; however, aggregated posttest MeP had larger correlation and lower p-values
200 than MeP change scores ($r=-0.125$, $p=0.059$ vs. $r=-0.048$, $p=0.471$). Though the respective MeP
201 calculations were significantly correlated ($r=0.311$, $p<0.001$), the magnitude reflects a moderate
202 effect size,(49) suggesting the calculation methods are related yet distinct.

203 Adjusted associations between MeP calculation methods and LBP-related disability are
204 presented in **Table 3**; multicollinearity was not present among model inputs (VIFs from 1.023 to
205 1.698). The overall model accounted for 31.1% of variance in LBP-related disability ($F=14.054$,
206 adjusted or $aR^2=0.289$, $p=<0.001$). Aggregated posttest MeP independently contributed to the
207 model, such that a one-unit increase corresponds to greater perceived disability ($b=0.593$,

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3 208 $t=2.913, p=0.004$); MeP change scores were not associated with LBP-related disability
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5 209 ($p=0.407$). Composite resting and recall pain intensity were also associated with greater
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8 210 perceived disability ($b=3.044, t=3.611, p<0.001$).

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11 211 Multicollinearity was not present among inputs to model associations between MeP and LBP-
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13 212 related self-efficacy (VIFs from 1.025 to 1.694); results for these associations are presented in
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15 213 **Table 4**. The overall model accounted for 29.3% of variance in LBP-related self-efficacy
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17 214 ($F=12.876, aR^2=0.270, p<0.001$). Aggregated posttest MeP was independently associated with
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19 215 poorer self-efficacy after adjusting for covariates ($b=-0.870, t=-3.110, p=0.002$), while MeP
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21 216 change scores were not associated with LBP-related self-efficacy ($p=0.056$). Composite resting
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23 217 and recall pain intensity were also associated with poorer self-efficacy ($b=-2.447, t=-2.046,$
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25 218 $p=0.042$).

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30 219 **Table 5** contains adjusted associations between MeP and physical function. Based on VIF values
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32 220 from 1.023 to 1.688, multicollinearity was not present. The overall model accounted for 35.7%
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34 221 of variance in physical function ($F=17.424, aR^2=0.336, p<0.001$). Similar to the results for self-
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36 222 reported outcomes, aggregated posttest MeP was associated with poorer physical function ($b=-$
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38 223 $0.017, t=-2.007, p=0.039$), while MeP change scores were not associated with physical function
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40 224 ($p=0.673$). Of note, composite resting and recall pain intensity also were not associated with
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42 225 physical function ($p=0.309$).

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46 226 We performed an exploratory post-hoc multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) to
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48 227 determine the extent to which aggregate versus change scores were associated with a global
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50 228 measure of physical function beyond covariates (i.e., age, sex, BMI, composite resting and recall
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52 229 LBP intensity, and LBP duration), which takes into account complementary but distinct aspects
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55 230 of both self-report and physical performance measures.(50) The residual correlation between

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3 231 QBPDS and Health ABC performance battery scores was modest (-0.283) and thus justifies the
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5 232 rationale for running this additional model. Results from the MANCOVA ($p < 0.05$) corroborate
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7 233 findings from individual robust regression models for LBP-related disability and physical
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9 234 function; aggregate posttest MeP explained 4.3% of variance in the global physical function
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11 235 measure after controlling for covariates, while MeP change scores explained 0.6% of variance in
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13 236 the combined dependent variable.
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16 17 237 **DISCUSSION**

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20 238 This investigation is the first to examine the methodological question of whether distinct
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22 239 operational definitions of MeP differentially influence associations with health outcomes in a
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24 240 high-impact chronic pain population (as defined by Pitcher et al.(1)). Aggregated posttest MeP
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26 241 was independently associated with worse cross-sectional measures of disability, self-efficacy and
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28 242 performance-based physical function in older adults with chronic LBP. Conversely, MeP change
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30 243 scores were not associated with any of the dependent variables. Therefore, our hypotheses were
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32 244 fully supported, demonstrating that different calculation methods may influence the observed
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34 245 associations between MeP and health outcomes. As such, it appears that the specificity and
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36 246 relevance of MeP paradigms in chronic pain populations partially depends on how MeP is
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38 247 operationally defined and subsequently calculated.
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44 248 Our data demonstrates that aggregate posttest MeP may be a more meaningful method to
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46 249 quantify MeP in older adults with chronic LBP, as it is associated with worse outcomes across
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48 250 distinct domains: LBP-related disability, LBP-related self-efficacy, and a physical performance
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50 251 battery that includes transitional mobility, gait speed, and both static and dynamic balance tasks.
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52 252 This evidence augments prior findings in older adults with chronic LBP, which established a link
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54 253 between aggregate posttest MeP and poorer function as measured by a generalized self-report
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3 254 outcome (i.e., the Late Life Function and Disability Instrument, or LLFDI) as well as a
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5 255 performance-based task (i.e., the Timed Up-and-Go test).(16) Given that worse disability, self-
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7 256 efficacy, and physical function are predictive of poor longitudinal health outcomes,(51-53)
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10 257 aggregate posttest MeP may be a risk factor for health decline in older adults with chronic LBP.
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12 258 Collectively, it appears that aggregate posttest MeP is clinically relevant as evidenced by its
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14 259 associations with a cadre of diverse yet interrelated health outcomes. Therefore, our results
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16 260 support the construct validity of aggregated posttest MeP among older adults with chronic LBP.
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19 261 Future research is warranted to build upon this clinical relevance by investigating if aggregated
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21 262 posttest MeP is associated with other meaningful health outcomes (e.g., health-related quality of
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23 263 life and physical activity levels) in this patient population.
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27 264 The relative superiority of aggregated posttest MeP as compared to MeP change scores may be
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29 265 due to characteristics of the patient population. Since the factors underlying chronic LBP in older
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31 266 adults are highly heterogeneous,(54, 55) it is unlikely that the same movement will elicit pain
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33 267 across individuals in this population. Therefore, multimodal paradigms (e.g., ambulation and
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35 268 transitional mobility in combination) may induce MeP more reliably than unimodal tasks (e.g.,
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37 269 ambulation or transitional mobility in isolation) in this population. The measurement of MeP
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40 270 across several physical function tasks is complicated by the fact that pain behavior is known to
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42 271 be variable in geriatric and LBP populations,(18, 19, 56) and MeP may be driven by peripheral
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44 272 and central pain mechanisms.(17) Due to these factors, pain may fluctuate between tests that are
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46 273 used to elicit MeP, and pain may not linearly or consistently increase during one or all tasks of
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48 274 an MeP paradigm. As such, pretest pain levels may increase during the testing session and result
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50 275 in minimal change in pain with testing done later in the session, thereby yielding resultantly low
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52 276 MeP change scores, even if posttest pain is comparatively greater than resting and recall
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3 277 measures of pain. Thus, summing change scores across tests may misrepresent the occurrence of
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5 278 MeP. Instead, aggregate posttest MeP may better measure the burden associated with MeP
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8 279 among older adults with chronic LBP; replication studies are required to support this theory.
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11 280 Though the intent of this study was to establish construct validity of distinct operational
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13 281 definitions for MeP, it is important to note that aggregate posttest MeP was the lone variable
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15 282 associated with performance-based physical function. Our results are reinforced by other
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18 283 evidence in older adults with chronic LBP that established aggregate posttest MeP is more
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20 284 strongly related to performance-based measures of physical function than resting and recall pain
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22 285 intensity.(16) These quantitative findings are consistent, and align with other qualitative studies
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24 286 which indicate that LBP is most restricting during activities or movements in the older adult
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27 287 population.(14, 15) Regarding perception based outcomes, a prior study established that
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29 288 aggregate posttest MeP, but not composite resting and recall, was associated with a general
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31 289 measure of perceived function (i.e., LLFDI).(16) In the current study, greater composite resting
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34 290 and recall pain intensity was associated worse QBPDS scores; therefore, resting and recall pain
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36 291 may be more strongly associated with condition-specific (e.g., QBPDS) rather than general
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38 292 measures of perceived function (e.g., LLFDI). Altogether, clinicians and researchers may want to
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41 293 consider capturing both MeP and composite resting and recall pain in their assessments of older
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43 294 adults in order to better characterize how LBP impacts function and disability.
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46 295 This study has several strengths that should be considered. Most importantly, this study directly
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48 296 addresses a methodological knowledge gap that pertains to all MeP investigations, irrespective of
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51 297 patient population. We expanded evidence for an MeP paradigm that was initially established in
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53 298 older adults with chronic LBP: the practice of using standardized tasks to elicit MeP, combined
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55 299 with the aggregated posttest calculation method, may advance our understanding of pain-related
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3 300 health decline in this population. Relative to other MeP literature, our study included a large
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5 301 cohort of older adults with high-impact chronic pain and incorporated analyses that adequately
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7 302 accounted for factors that may confound observed associations with disability, self-efficacy and
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9 303 physical function. Finally, consistency was observed across the robust regression models, such
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11 304 that aggregated posttest MeP was associated with poorer disability, self-efficacy, and physical
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13 305 function outcomes.
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17 306 Study results should be viewed in the context of limitations. The study design was cross-
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19 307 sectional and observational; thus, the associations do not amount to causality. Participants with
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21 308 missing data had generally poorer measures of function and disability, suggesting that
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23 309 associations in the study may be biased towards underestimation. Further, our results may be
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25 310 dependent upon the tests used to elicit MeP, as well as the chosen outcomes. It is possible that
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27 311 change scores are more influential in different MeP paradigms, with different health outcomes,
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29 312 or in different patient populations. Additionally, repeated chair rises were utilized to elicit MeP
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31 313 as well as to measure transitional mobility performance. It is possible for pain exacerbation to
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33 314 have interacted with transitional mobility performance; however, this interaction is actually a
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35 315 strength of the study, as it provides context for how MeP may impart disability in this
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37 316 population. Further, the other components of the Health ABC performance battery were not
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39 317 intended to elicit MeP; thus, the finding that greater MeP is associated with poorer physical
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41 318 function cannot be entirely driven by repeated chair rises. Finally, our cohort had mild-to-
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43 319 moderate pain characteristics and were recruited for study participation rather than seeking
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45 320 medical care, which may impact the generalizability of findings.
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53 321 *Conclusion*
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3 322 In older adults with chronic LBP, the amount of pain reported following multimodal functional
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5 323 testing may better represent MeP than the amount that pain changes as a result of functional
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7 324 testing. These findings have both clinical and research implications; clinicians should view MeP
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10 325 as a characteristic that is unique from resting and recall pain, while researchers should consider
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12 326 how the validity of MeP paradigms is related to the procedures that evoke pain as well as the
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14 327 operational definition (i.e., the calculation method) of MeP. Future research is needed to
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16
17 328 corroborate if aggregate posttest MeP is associated with poorer health outcomes in other cohorts
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19 329 of older adults with chronic LBP, and to determine whether aggregate posttest MeP is
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21 330 detrimental in other geriatric chronic pain populations (e.g., lower extremity osteoarthritis).
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3 507 Figure 1: Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) study flow diagram
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Figure 1

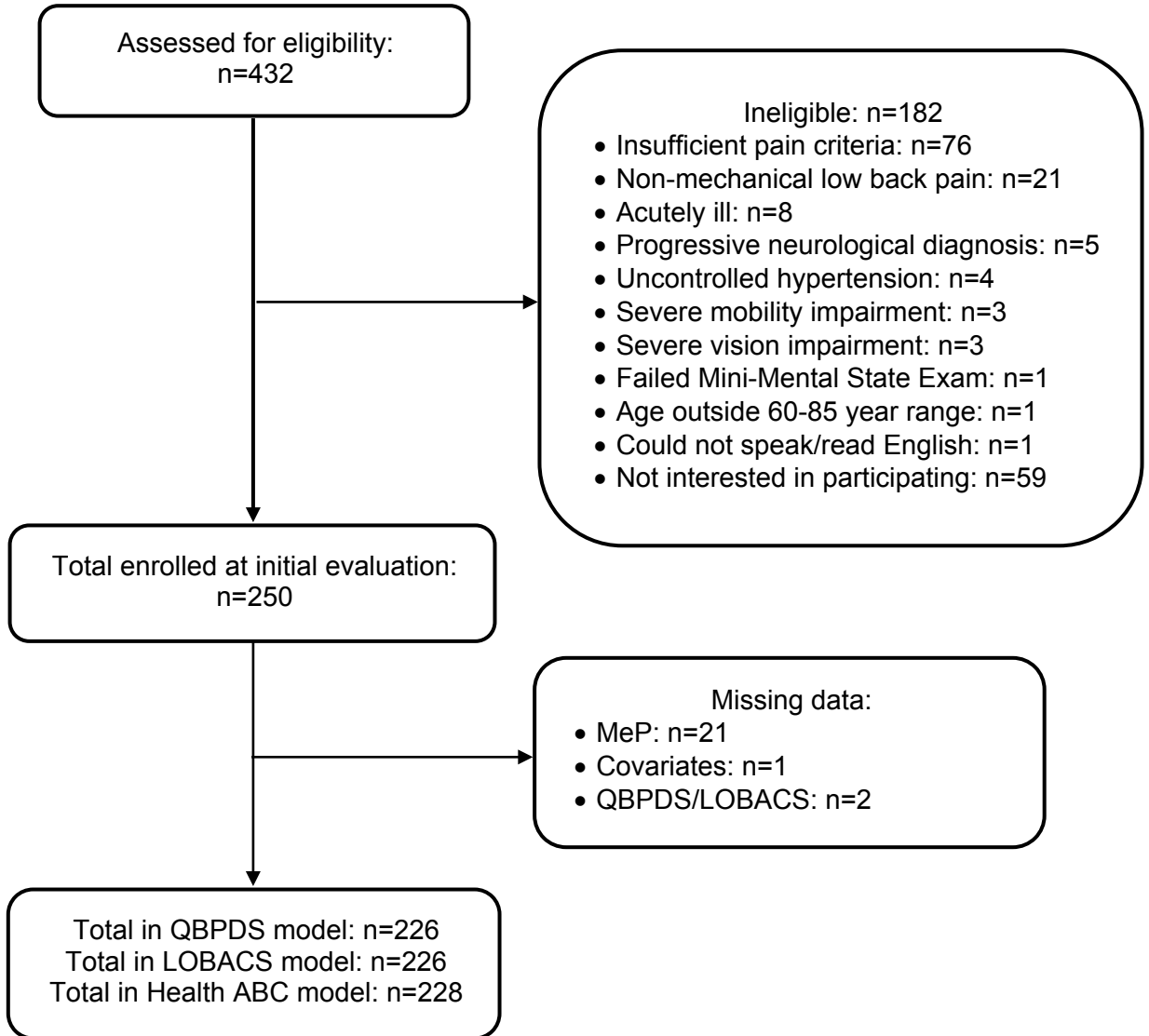


Table 1: Baseline participant characteristics

Variable	n	Mean±SD or n(%)
Age (y)	250	69.7±6.8
Sex (female)	250	128 (51.2%)
Race (Caucasian)	249	213 (85.5%)
Education (graduated college or more)	250	146 (58.4%)
Occupation Status (retired)	249	161 (64.7%)
BMI (kg/m ²)	248	29.4±5.7
LBP onset (years)	250	5.7±7.7
Composite LBP Intensity (0-10)	250	3.1±1.5
MeP Change Scores	229	0.7±2.0
Aggregate Posttest MeP	230	5.9±5.4
QBPDS (0-100)	248	28.3±16.6
LOBACS (0%-100%)	248	65.6±20.4
Health ABC (0-4)	250	2.0±0.6

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index; LBP = low back pain; MeP = movement-evoked pain;
QBPDS = Quebec Back Pain Disability Scale; LOBACS = Low Back Activity Confidence Scale;
Health ABC = Health ABC Performance Battery

Table 2: Pearson correlations (r) between movement-evoked pain calculation methods and disability, self-efficacy, and physical function.

	MeP Change Score	Aggregate Posttest MeP	QBPDS	LOBACS	Health ABC
MeP Change Score	1				
Aggregate Posttest MeP	0.311**	1			
QBPDS	0.159*	0.414**	1		
LOBACS	-0.004	-0.346**	-0.643**	1	
Health ABC	-0.048	-0.125	-0.392**	0.431**	1

Abbreviations: MeP = movement-evoked pain; QBPDS = Quebec Back Pain Disability Scale;

LOBACS = Low Back Activity Confidence Scale; Health ABC = Health ABC Performance

Battery

*= $p < 0.050$; **= $p < 0.010$

Table 3: Robust regression output for associations between movement-evoked pain and the Quebec Back Pain Disability Scale

Variable	b	HC3 Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age	0.027	0.143	0.189	0.851
Sex	-7.256	1.896	-3.828	<0.001*
BMI	0.552	0.161	3.428	<0.001*
LBP Duration	-0.098	0.103	-0.953	0.341
Composite LBP Intensity	3.044	0.843	3.611	<0.001*
MeP Change Scores	0.438	0.527	0.831	0.407
Aggregate Posttest MeP	0.593	0.204	2.913	0.004*

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index; LBP = low back pain; MeP = movement-evoked pain

*=p<0.010; b = unstandardized coefficient; male data displayed for "sex" variable

Table 4: Robust regression output for associations between movement-evoked pain and the Low Back Activity Confidence Scale

Variable	b	HC3 Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age	-0.337	0.171	-1.967	0.050
Sex	11.873	2.457	4.833	<0.001**
BMI	-0.843	0.225	-3.741	<0.001**
LBP Duration	0.105	0.147	0.711	0.478
Composite LBP Intensity	-2.447	1.196	-2.046	0.042*
MeP Change Scores	1.289	0.672	1.919	0.056
Aggregate Posttest MeP	-0.870	0.280	-3.110	0.002**

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index; LBP = low back pain; MeP = movement-evoked pain

*=p<0.050; **=p<0.010; b = unstandardized coefficient; male data displayed for "sex" variable

Table 5: Robust regression output for associations between movement-evoked pain and the Health ABC Performance Battery

Variable	b	HC3 Standard Error	t-statistic	p-value
Age	-0.041	0.005	-7.950	<0.001**
Sex	0.182	0.065	2.823	0.005**
BMI	-0.31	0.007	-4.525	<0.001**
LBP Duration	0.005	0.005	0.960	0.338
Composite LBP Intensity	0.029	0.029	1.020	0.309
MeP Change Scores	0.007	0.018	0.423	0.673
Aggregate Posttest MeP	-0.017	0.008	-2.077	0.039*

Abbreviations: BMI = body mass index; LBP = low back pain; MeP = Movement-Evoked Pain

*=p<0.050; **=p<0.010; b = unstandardized coefficient; male data displayed for "sex" variable