

The Language of Pain: Is there a relationship between metaphor use and adjustment to chronic pain?

Journal:	<i>Pain Medicine</i>
Manuscript ID	PME-ORR-Jul-20-768.R2
Manuscript Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Munday, Imogene; University of Technology Sydney, Graduate School of Health Kneebone, Ian; University of Technology Sydney, Graduate School of Health Rogers, Kris; University of Technology Sydney, Graduate School of Health Newton-John, Toby; University of Technology Sydney, Graduate School of Health
Keywords:	Chronic pain, Language, Conceptual Metaphor Theory, Assessment

SCHOLARONE™
 Manuscripts

1
2
3 **Title: The Language of Pain: Is there a relationship between metaphor use and**
4 **adjustment to chronic pain?**
5
6
7

8 Authors: Imogene Munday, Ian Kneebone, Kris Rogers, Toby Newton-John
9

10
11 Imogene Munday (Corresponding author)
12

13
14 MClInPsych, Discipline of Clinical Psychology, Graduate School of Health, University of
15
16 Technology Sydney
17

18
19 +61 414 988 912
20

21 imogene.munday@uts.edu.au
22

23 University of Technology Sydney
24 PO Box 123
25 Broadway NSW 2007
26
27 Australia
28

29
30
31 Ian Kneebone
32

33 PsychD, Discipline of Clinical Psychology, Graduate School of Health, University of
34
35 Technology Sydney
36
37

38
39 Kris Rogers
40

41 PhD, Graduate School of Health, University of Technology Sydney
42
43

44
45 Toby Newton-John
46

47 PhD, Discipline of Clinical Psychology, Graduate School of Health, University of
48
49 Technology Sydney
50
51

52 Funding: none
53

54
55 Declarations of interest: none
56
57

58 Running Title: Metaphor Use and Chronic Pain
59
60

Abstract

Objective. Metaphor, frequently used in chronic pain, can function as a communicative tool, facilitating understanding and empathy from others. Previous research has demonstrated that specific linguistic markers exist for areas such as pain catastrophizing, mood, as well as diagnostic categories. The current study sought to examine potential associations between the types of pain metaphors used and diagnostic category, disability, and mood. **Design.** Online cross-sectional survey in Sydney, Australia. **Subjects.** ~~Chronic pain sufferers~~ People with chronic pain (n = 247, age 19-78 years, M = 43.69). **Methods.** The data collected included demographics, pain metaphors, the Brief Pain Inventory (BPI) and the Depression, Anxiety, and Stress Scales (DASS-21). Associations between metaphor source domains, obtained via Systematic Metaphor Analysis, and scores on the BPI, DASS-21, as well as diagnostic group were considered using binary logistic analysis. **Results.** Use of different pain metaphors was not associated with pain intensity, however the extent to which pain interfered with daily life did have a relationship with use of metaphorical language. Preliminary support was found for an association between the use of certain pain metaphors and self-reported diagnostic categories, notably Endometriosis, Complex Regional Pain Syndrome, and Neuropathic pain. **Conclusions.** There may be specific linguistic metaphorical markers to indicate pain interference and for particular diagnoses. Appreciation of pain metaphors has potential to facilitate communication and enhance understanding in interactions between clinicians and people with chronic pain. ~~in patient-clinician interactions.~~

Keywords: chronic pain, conceptual metaphor theory, language, assessment

1. INTRODUCTION

Pain persisting longer than three months is defined as chronic and is associated with numerous psychological comorbidities such as depression, anxiety, and substance abuse (1, 2). In the absence of objective assessment measures for pain, those affected rely on language, as well as non-verbal pain behaviours such as facial expressions, to communicate their subjective experiences.

Although pain is quintessentially private and elusive, metaphor provides people experiencing painsufferers with the means to turn a private experience into a public one (3). Metaphor is a well-documented linguistic tool for pain communication (4-6). Eliciting metaphors is a way of accessing individual sensemaking around particular experienced phenomena. Metaphor analysis facilitates the exploration of this individual sensemaking (7). A recent systematic review concluded that metaphors may provide pain-suffererspeople with pain with therapeutic value, but that additional research is needed to see how they can be best applied in practice settings (8). Loftus (9) meanwhile asserts that dialogical study of healthcare metaphors, including those used in pain, will deepen the understanding of healthcare itself and how to conduct it more compassionately.

Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT; 10) posits that metaphor is a conceptual tool for thinking, organizing, and shaping reality. In CMT, a conceptual metaphor is the understanding of one domain of experience (the target domain) in terms of another (the source domain). For instance, “*Life is a Journey*,” which can be seen linguistically through statements such as “I’m at a crossroads in my life” or “She’ll go places in life.” Thus, taking what we know of “journeys,” we apply it to the target domain of “life” and understand it as a

1
2
3 path people move along. Another example of a conceptual metaphor is “*Argument is War*.”

4
5 Some researchers have further argued that metaphorical thought and language are grounded
6
7
8 in embodied experience – e.g. “*desire-Desire is Hunger*” (11).
9

10
11
12
13
14 Research on metaphor use in chronic pain has focussed on people with spinal cord injury and
15
16 specific neuropathic pain ~~patients~~, as well as ~~endometriosis populations~~people with
17
18 endometriosis (12, 13). In terms of the utility of metaphor use, Semino (14) posits that
19
20 describing chronic pain in terms of acute or nociceptive pain may result in a form of internal
21
22 embodied simulation of pain experiences for the listener, which may in turn engender a
23
24 greater empathic response. That is, although chronic pain is unknowable unless personally
25
26 experienced, the use of more familiar acute pain metaphors may facilitate a listener’s
27
28 understanding. Metaphor may also help to explain disability, aiding understanding of why
29
30 someone may not be able to do certain activities, over and above a simple “because it hurts.”
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 In addition to this, the pain metaphors that someone uses may reveal certain other
39
40 information about that individual. For instance, there are linguistic indicators that can contain
41
42 information linking to psychological factors such as depression. Research has shown that
43
44 depression is linked to elevated use of personal pronouns and negative emotion words (15).
45
46 Al-Mosaiwi and Johnstone (16) found, via text analysis of internet forums, that those
47
48 focussing on anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation contained significantly more absolutist
49
50 words (e.g. always, totally) than control forums.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57

58 Linguistic indicators of pain catastrophizing were explored in a study of people with chronic
59
60 musculoskeletal pain ~~patients~~ (17). Seventy-one ~~participants~~patients completed the Pain

1
2
3 Catastrophizing Scale and were asked to write about their deepest thoughts and feelings about
4 their life with chronic pain. Using quantitative word count analysis, the authors found that
5
6 catastrophizing was associated with increased use of first person singular pronouns, pronouns
7
8 referencing other people, as well as greater use of sadness and anger words. When the authors
9
10 controlled for task engagement, age, gender, pain intensity, and neuroticism, these linguistic
11
12 indicators together uniquely explained 13.6% of the variance in catastrophizing. This study
13
14 demonstrates there may be a linguistic profile associated with higher rates of pain
15
16 catastrophizing.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 Language may also convey information useful for diagnosis. With the advent of the McGill
26
27 Pain Questionnaire (MPQ; 18), a number of studies have sought to determine whether it
28
29 could have a diagnostic function. Using multiple group discriminant analysis, Dubuisson and
30
31 Melzack (19) found a high degree of specificity for pain language amongst a variety of diagnostic
32
33 categories, correctly classifying 77% of ~~their patients~~ people into the correct category using pain
34
35 descriptors alone. Boreau, Doubrere, and Luu (20) were able to classify 77% of patients
36
37 people with neuropathic pain and 81% of ~~non-neuropathic pain patients~~ people with non-
38
39 neuropathic pain using pain descriptors from a French adjective list similar to the MPQ. More
40
41 recently, pain descriptors have been found to aid screening to identify neuropathic pain (21).
42
43
44
45 The Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs (LANSS; 22) consists of a
46
47 bedside examination of sensory dysfunction, in conjunction with an analysis of neuropathic
48
49 pain sensory descriptors, featuring terms such as “pins and needles”, “electric shocks”, and
50
51 “burning”. It should be noted however, that not all research has supported the use of pain
52
53 language analysis. For example, one study found few and only marginally significant
54
55 relationships between single word semantic pain descriptors and other pain-related disability
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 and psychological measures, concluding that the presentation of ~~chronic pain patients~~
4 chronic pain is too complex to be reliably discriminated via a simple word set (23).
5
6
7
8
9

10
11 On balance though it seems that language, particularly pain descriptors, can convey valuable
12 information, suggesting the possibility of depression and anxiety as well as information
13 useful for diagnosis. So far, the limited research in this area has relied on single word pain
14 descriptors, such as those in the MPQ. However, both the original MPQ as well as the more
15 recent short forms have been criticized (21, 24), with studies showing that participants may
16 instead speak in more complex metaphorical language (5, 13). The power of metaphor to
17 communicate complex abstract phenomena, facilitate understanding, and engender empathy,
18 suggests it can be a useful tool for people with chronic pain ~~sufferers~~ to communicate their
19 pain experience to others, including health professionals and family, over and above literal
20 language or single word adjectives. The current study seeks to further explore the link
21 between pain metaphors, mood and disability in chronic pain. Specifically, we sought to
22 determine whether pain and mood related information can be gleaned from the specific
23 metaphors people use to describe their pain. We were also interested to ascertain whether
24 individuals with different pain disorders used different pain metaphors to describe their pain.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 2. METHODS

47 48 49 50 51 52 2.1 Ethics Approval 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

1
2
3 Ethics approval was sought and obtained from the relevant local ethics committee -
4
5 *University of Technology Sydney HREC REF: ETH18-2192*. Informed consent was provided
6
7 during the first part of the online survey. Participants were unable to continue to the survey if
8
9 they did not provide consent. Participants had the option to withdraw from the study at any
10
11 time.
12
13
14
15
16
17

18 **2.2 Protocol**

19
20
21
22
23

24 The study was part of a broad investigation of metaphor use in chronic pain (25). To recruit
25
26 participants, advertisements for the study were promoted through several Australian chronic
27
28 pain organizations. Inclusion criteria for participation were being over 18 years old, a self-
29
30 reported diagnosis of chronic pain (defined as pain lasting longer than 12 weeks), pain
31
32 intensity of $\geq 3/10$, and competent English reading and writing ability. Participants who
33
34 completed the survey were eligible to enter a draw for one of five AUD\$100 Gift Cards. It
35
36 was made clear to participants that the survey was anonymous and voluntary. The survey was
37
38 hosted on the Qualtrics survey platform (www.qualtrics.com) and was made up of two parts:
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 1. Basic demographics, measures of pain outcomes such as intensity and interference using
47
48 the Brief Pain Inventory (BPI; 26) and measures of mood as assessed by the Depression,
49
50 Anxiety and Stress Scales (DASS-21; 27).
51
52
53
54
55

56 2. A request for participants to list the metaphors they commonly use to talk about and
57
58 describe their pain. The word metaphor was defined and examples and basic prompts were
59
60

1
2
3 given, which participants could use if they wished to. This explicit definition and request for
4 metaphors was provided so as to collect and investigate pain metaphors directly, in order to
5 analyse them in relation to diagnosis, mood, and disability. The metaphor definition, common
6 examples and response prompt are available in Appendix A.
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

16 **2.2.1 Measures**

17
18
19
20
21

22 **Brief Pain Inventory (BPI; 26)**

23
24
25
26
27

28 The BPI is a self-administered questionnaire commonly used for chronic pain conditions. It
29 comprises of 9 items, including pain drawing diagrams, four items regarding pain intensity
30 (worst, least, average, and current pain), two items regarding pain relief treatments and
31 medications, and one item regarding pain interference, which has seven sub items (general
32 activity, mood, walking ability, normal work, interpersonal relations, sleep, life enjoyment).
33 It uses Likert scales of 0 – 10 to give two main scores, a pain intensity and a pain interference
34 score. The BPI has sound validity and reliability (26, 28).
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 **Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale Short Form (DASS-21; 27)**

49
50
51
52

53 The DASS-21 is a 21 item self-report questionnaire used to measure emotional states of
54 depression, anxiety and stress, with three subscales comprising 7 items each. It uses a Likert
55 scale of 0 to 3 with participants rating the extent to which the given statements applied to
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 them over the past week. Acceptable reliability and validity levels have been reported by
4 numerous researchers for both the 42-item long form and shorter 21 item form of the DASS
5 (29, 30). In terms of factor validity, it appears that the DASS-21 subscales can validly
6 distinguish between depression, anxiety and stress, whilst each of these subscales also taps
7 into a more general dimension of psychological distress (31).
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17

18 **2.3 Participants**

19
20
21
22
23
24 In total, 323 participants began the survey. Of these, 279 (86%) completed all parts.
25
26 Exclusion criteria included participants who selected “No” to the question “Have you been
27 diagnosed with chronic pain by a health professional?” and those with Pain Intensity scores <
28 3 on the BPI. Eleven participants were excluded due to not having a chronic pain diagnosis
29 and 21 were excluded with Pain Intensity scores < 3, leaving a total of 247 participants. Table
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1 outlines sample characteristics. In the sample, 89.5% were female, 93.1% were white, and
38.5% were no longer working due to pain. The category of Hypermobility included Ehlers-
Danlos Syndrome, Hypermobility type, whilst Neuropathy included a variety of neuropathic
pain conditions. A specific chronic pain diagnosis was not provided by 13.8% of the sample,
53.4% gave one chronic pain diagnosis, 23.1% gave two diagnoses, and 9.7% gave three or
more chronic pain diagnoses.

[Table 1 around here]

2.4 Analysis

2.4.1 Metaphor Analysis

Systematic Metaphor Analysis (32) was utilized in order to identify and collate the metaphor source domains used by ~~the chronic pain~~ participants, in line with CMT (10). Firstly, the topic of analysis was chosen (chronic pain) and the authors familiarized themselves with the existing literature on metaphor and pain description, assembling a broad collection of background metaphors which related to the target topic via an NVivo mind map. Following this, inductive identification and coding of the metaphors into source domains was performed also via NVivo (Version 12). Qualitative analysis software such as this has been previously demonstrated to be a valuable tool for systematic metaphor analysis (33). The target domain was constant (chronic pain) and as such it was not coded separately. Broad metaphor source domain coding was done initially by the first author. Metaphors were identified when the word or phrase could “be understood beyond the literal meaning in context of what is being said” (32, p. 384). This literal meaning generally stems from an area of physical or cultural experience (source domain), but in the metaphorical context is transferred to a second area (target domain – here, chronic pain). For example, the expression “stabbing pain,” in the context of chronic pain description can be understood beyond its literal meaning, which is “to wound or pierce by the thrust of a pointed object or weapon” (34). Similes are defined by Semino (35) as “an explicit statement of comparison between two different things, conveyed through the use of expressions such as ‘like, ‘as’, ‘as if’ and so on” (p.16). Metaphors directly state a comparison without the use of these expressions, however similes are nonetheless metaphors in the sense that they compare one concept in terms of another (13). Research has also shown that the strength of individual metaphors and similes ~~isare~~ equivalent in most

1
2
3 cases (36). As such we have coded both similes and metaphors into conceptual metaphor
4
5 source domains.
6
7
8
9

10
11 Initial metaphor source domain coding resulted in 60 categories. Meetings were then held
12
13 with all authors in order to refine and collate these categories, identify any further source
14
15 domains, and construct overarching metaphorical concepts from these. Agreement on the
16
17 final metaphor source domains was reached via discussion until consensus was achieved.
18
19 These final categories were then re-examined to ensure they accurately represented the data.
20
21 As a final step, the coding system was checked against that of an independent assessor (a
22
23 Masters qualified registered psychologist) and Cohen's κ was calculated to estimate
24
25 reliability. Owing to the large amount of data, a random sample of 10% of the data was
26
27 utilized for this purpose. There were high levels of agreement between the two independent
28
29 coders, $\kappa = .831$ (95% CI, .76 to .90), $p < .0005$.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 2.4.2 Statistical Analysis 39 40 41 42 43

44 Use of metaphor source domains was coded as a binary variable, with the source domain
45
46 being either "Used" or "Not Used" by the participant.
47
48
49
50
51

52 Binary logistic regression was used to estimate odds ratios for the association between
53
54 diagnostic groups and the use of each metaphor source domain. As some combinations of
55
56 condition and metaphor use had data that were below the minimum recommended number of
57
58 events per condition group (<5 events), we estimated these with shrinkage (Firth Correction;
59
60

1
2
3 37) to overcome issues of sparse data. A similar analysis was used to ascertain whether scores
4
5 on either the BPI or DASS-21 were associated with use of particular metaphor source
6
7 domains.
8
9

10 11 12 13 **3. RESULTS** 14 15

16
17
18
19 Seven overarching metaphor source domains were generated from the data: *Causes of*
20
21 *Physical Damage, Common Pain Experiences, Electricity, Insects, Rigidity, Bodily*
22
23 *Misperception, and Death and Mortality*. Source domains and their associated subdomains
24
25 are presented in Table 2. These source domains have been reported on in more detail in a
26
27 previous paper (25). Participants on average used 5 (SD = 3) distinct metaphor source
28
29 domains in their pain description.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36

37 [Table 2 around here]
38
39
40
41
42

43 Odds ratios calculations for use of metaphor source domains by diagnosis are reported in
44
45 Table 3, illustrating the odds of the specific diagnostic group's use of each metaphor source
46
47 domain. Migraine, fibromyalgia or musculoskeletal reported pain diagnoses did not show any
48
49 important level of association with any source domains and as such were excluded from
50
51 Table 3 (and can be found in Appendix B).
52
53
54
55
56
57

58 [Table 3 around here]
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 A reported diagnosis of Endometriosis was associated with increased odds of use of the
7
8 following source domains: *Childbirth and Pregnancy* (OR; 9.81, 95% CI; 1.74 – 55.22; e.g.
9
10 “...in full blown labour with no pain relief,” P188), *Physical Damage via Sharp Object* (OR;
11
12 3.44, 95% CI; 1.01 – 11.64; e.g. “...like knives twisting and stabbing through my pelvis,”
13
14 P37), *via Pulling/rubbing/tearing* (OR; 8.74, 95% CI; 3.09 – 24.70; e.g. “...like something
15
16 pulling at me from the inside,” P138), and *via Bruise/fracture/dislocation* (OR; 3.93, 95% CI;
17
18 1.05 – 14.73; e.g.“like I’m about to walk on glass with a broken ankle,” P188).
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

26 A reported diagnosis of Complex Regional Pain Syndrome (CRPS) was associated with
27
28 increased odds of use of the following source domains: *Bodily Misperception* (OR; 7.00, 95%
29
30 CI; 1.28 – 38.41; e.g. “my foot does not belong to me,” P113), *Temperature* (OR; 6.43, 95%
31
32 CI; 1.97 – 20.98), including all its subdomains: *Cold* (OR; 4.40, 95% CI; 1.45 – 13.37; e.g.
33
34 “...as though my bones are blocks of ice,” P4), *Hot* (OR; 7.29, 95% CI; 2.23 – 23.78; e.g.
35
36 “...someone poured gas on me and lit me on fire,” P74, “like a blow torch on my skin,”
37
38 P214), *Hot-Cold* (OR; 5.42, 95% CI; 1.06 – 27.63; e.g. “The pain feels like burning and cold
39
40 to the point of torture,” P113), and *Childbirth and Pregnancy* (OR; 7.00, 95% CI; 1.28 –
41
42 38.41; e.g. “contractions” P84).
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 A reported diagnosis of Neuropathic pain was associated with increased odds of use of the
51
52 following source domains: *Physical Damage via Sharp Object* (OR; 2.57, 95% CI; 1.21 –
53
54 5.48; e.g. “A sharp hot or cold knife going straight up my neck into my brain,” P61, “shards
55
56 of glass buried deep in my feet when I walk on them,” P121), *Temperature* (OR; 2.56, 95%
57
58 CI; 1.25 – 5.26), including all its subdomains: *Cold* (OR; 3.57, 95% CI; 1.32 – 9.67; e.g. “ice
59
60

1
2
3 inside my bones” P117), *Hot* (OR; 2.58, 95% CI; 1.27 – 5.23; e.g. “like my skin is being
4 burnt constantly,” P227), *Hot-Cold* (OR; 9.51, 95% CI; 1.93 – 46.82; e.g. “... freezing but
5 burning hot feet,” P 248), and *Physical Attack* (OR; 2.14, 95% CI; 1.06 – 4.31), notably via
6 an *Embodied Other* (OR; 2.20, 95% CI; 1.04 – 4.63; e.g. “someone using a hand drill to drill
7 a hole in my head,” P70).

8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18 A reported diagnosis of Arthritis was associated with increased odds of use of the *Insects*
19 source domain (OR; 3.29, 95% CI; 1.47 – 7.36; e.g. “ants under my skin,” P151). Of
20 relevance here, 26.2% of those with arthritis also experienced neuropathic pain and rates of
21 use of this source domain were similar in arthritis and neuropathic pain (20% vs 19%).
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30

31 A reported diagnosis of Hypermobility was associated with increased odds of use of the
32 *Physical Damage via Blunt Object* source domain (OR; 6.53, 95% CI; 2.05, 20.80; e.g. “It
33 feels like my body is being hit with a hammer repeatedly,” P80).
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41

42 BPI Intensity scores were not significantly associated with the use of any of the metaphor
43 source domains. However, BPI Interference scores were associated with increased odds of
44 using the *Death and Mortality* metaphor source domain (OR; 2.42, 95% CI; 1.16 – 5.04; e.g.
45 “...like my insides are being cut off from blood circulation and I can feel pieces of myself
46 die” P187). and with increased odds of using the *Physical Damage via Sharp Object* source
47 domain (OR; 1.25, 95% CI; 1.08 – 1.45; e.g. “like a knife stuck in between my ribs”, P30).
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 BPI Interference scores were not significantly associated with any of the other metaphor
55 source domains.
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6 Higher scores on both the Depression and Stress indices of the DASS-21 were associated
7
8 with decreased odds of use of the *Pressure and Weight* metaphor source domain (OR; 0.98,
9
10 95% CI; 0.95 – 1.0, OR; 0.97, 95% CI; 0.94 – 1.0 respectively; e.g. “like I am wearing a lead
11
12 suit,” P228). Scores on the Anxiety index of the DASS-21 were not associated with any
13
14 metaphor source domains.
15
16
17
18
19
20

21 **4. DISCUSSION**

22
23
24
25
26
27 This study found the use of different pain metaphors was not associated with the pain
28
29 intensity levels reported by individuals with chronic pain, however the extent to which pain
30
31 interferes with daily life did have a relationship with the use of metaphorical language.
32
33 Further, the study provided preliminary support for an association between the use of certain
34
35 pain metaphors by individuals with chronic pain and their diagnostic category, in particular
36
37 for those reporting Endometriosis, CRPS and Neuropathic pain diagnoses.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 **4.1 Diagnostic Group**

46
47
48
49
50 Individuals with self-reported diagnoses of either migraine, musculoskeletal pain, or
51
52 fibromyalgia did not report significantly increased or decreased odds of using any particular
53
54 metaphor source domains. That is, from these results, there does not appear to be particular
55
56 metaphoric indicators for these diagnoses. Instead, participants in these categories employed
57
58 a wide range of metaphor types to communicate their pain, without relying on particular
59
60

1
2
3 source domains. In the case of musculoskeletal pain, this may be due to the fact that this is a
4 broad category, comprising many different subtypes and pain locations, whilst fibromyalgia
5 pain is also often variable and widespread. Further research into the language of these
6 subgroups is warranted to explore their specific metaphor use in greater detail.
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

16 A diagnosis of endometriosis was associated with significantly increased odds of use of the
17 following source domains: *Childbirth and Pregnancy*, *Physical Damage via Sharp Object*
18 *Physical Damage via Pulling/rubbing/*, and *Physical Damage via Bruise/fracture/dislocation*.
19
20
21

22 Endometriosis is a gynaecological disorder which is often difficult to identify, such that
23 delays of between 7 to 11 years have been reported before a definitive diagnosis is made (38).
24
25

26 More recently, Bullo (13) found a diagnosis delay of 8.6 years for this disorder. Multiple
27 reasons have been hypothesized for this delay, including difficulty describing endometriosis
28 pain, dismissal and normalization of pain as part of the female condition, and the perceived
29 stigma of talking about menstruation (13, 39, 40). Bullo (13) found that a majority of pain
30 expressions by people with endometriosis ~~sufferers~~ used the metaphor of describing pain as
31 physical damage. Our data reflect this, but go further by identifying which physical damage
32 metaphors those with endometriosis are significantly more likely to use, in contrast to those
33 used by participants/patients with chronic pain conditions of other origins. Understanding the
34 types of metaphors used ~~by sufferers~~ provides clues as to the quality of the pain, for example
35 characterizing the pain as feeling like being stabbed, as being bruised, or as a wrench like,
36 tearing pain. These results can also potentially improve diagnostic information by providing
37 clues as to the language that health practitioners should look out for in early consultations.
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 For example, for people with endometriosis ~~sufferers~~ the odds of using a *Physical Damage*
56 *via pulling/rubbing/tearing* metaphor were 8.74 times greater than for those with other
57 chronic pain syndromes, whilst the odds of using a *Sharp Object* metaphor were 3.44 times
58
59
60

1
2
3 greater in this population. Although not exclusive to this population, our finding of increased
4 odds of use of the *Sharp Object* source domain may indicate a need to convey the intensity of
5 pain, in the face of disbelief from medical practitioners.
6
7
8
9

10
11
12
13
14 Complex Regional Pain Syndrome remains a poorly understood chronic pain condition. It
15 involves sensory, motor, autonomic, and neuropsychological changes (41), and is notoriously
16 difficult to treat (42). In our data, a diagnosis of CRPS was associated with significantly
17 increased odds of use of the source domains of all temperature related categories, including
18 *Hot Temperature*, *Cold Temperature*, as well as the *Hot-Cold Temperature* subdomain. It is
19 interesting to note that although a majority of the overall sample utilized at least one
20 temperature based metaphor, the CRPS and Neuropathy subsets were the only distinct groups
21 to have significantly increased odds of use of these source domains. Those with a CRPS
22 diagnosis had odds of using a temperature metaphor 6.43 times greater than non-CRPS pain
23 conditions. This is reflective of the specific symptoms of CRPS, which often involve changes
24 in skin temperature (43). The *Bodily Misperception* source domain in our sample was small
25 but distinct, comprising participants who described feeling as if their limb did not belong to
26 them, was deformed, differing in size, or as a lack of control over the body part in pain. Such
27 metaphorical descriptions are in accord with both quantitative and qualitative CRPS research
28 findings (44). Frettlöh, Hüppe and Maier (45) found that ~~CRPS patients~~ participants with
29 CRPS reported significantly more “neglect-like” symptoms (whereby the affected limb is
30 seen as strange, disordered, and not belonging to the person’s body) on a survey than a
31 control group, with survey scores providing good specificity for a CRPS diagnosis. In our
32 sample, those with a CRPS diagnosis had odds 7 times greater than those without for use of
33 this *Bodily Misperception* metaphor source domain, suggesting that spontaneous use of these
34 metaphors in pain description can provide helpful clues to a CRPS diagnosis. Lastly, the fact
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 that respondents with CRPS ~~respondents~~ also had significantly increased odds of using a
4
5
6 Childbirth and Pregnancy type metaphor is difficult to interpret, but may be indicative of how
7
8 severe CRPS pain can be. Our sample was primarily female and likely to draw on familiar
9
10 pain experiences to describe their pain. They may have used childbirth as a reference point
11
12 for extreme pain, seeking to convey their pain intensity through metaphor.
13
14

15
16
17
18 Neuropathic pain is caused by a lesion or disease of the somatosensory system and symptoms
19
20 typically include burning and electrical-like sensations, as well as allodynia (46). Having
21
22 some form of chronic neuropathic pain was, like CRPS, associated with increased odds of use
23
24 of all of the temperature related source domains. This utilization of temperature based
25
26 metaphors is most likely reflective of the symptomology of neuropathic pain, which can
27
28 include “burning” or “freezing pain”. Multiple well validated assessment tools for
29
30 neuropathic pain feature questions regarding temperature, for example “hot or burning
31
32 sensations” in the LANSS (22) or “burning pain” and “freezing pain” in the Neuropathic Pain
33
34 Questionnaire (47). In addition to this, having neuropathic pain was associated with increased
35
36 odds of use of the *Sharp Object* subdomain. This included multiple descriptions of pain
37
38 which was “stabbing” or which felt like “pins and needles,” which are also descriptors found
39
40 in multiple neuropathic pain assessment measures (46). Moving away from the more
41
42 straightforward symptom related pain metaphors, those with neuropathic pain were also
43
44 found to have odds 2.2 times greater for use of the *Physical Attack via Embodied Other*
45
46 source domain. This domain was comprised of metaphors depicting an external malevolent
47
48 agent which did harm to the participant, a “something” or “someone” inflicting pain upon
49
50 them. The tendency to externalize pain generally as an intruder or malevolent agent has been
51
52 previously documented, notably via in depth explorations of Greek pain lexicalizations (5, 6,
53
54 48). Looking specifically at neuropathic pain however, one of the three metaphorical themes
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 found by Hearn, Finlay, and Fine (12) in a sample of individuals with chronic neuropathic
4 pain ~~individuals~~ was “pain as a personal attack,” in which participants likened their pain to an
5 attacking embodied entity. People with nNeuropathic pain-~~sufferers~~ experience complex
6 symptoms, impaired quality of life, and difficult treatment decisions (49). Through this type
7 of personifying metaphor they may thus seek to externalizse their pain in a way that renders it
8 tractable, creating something to fight against. As an example, one participant described their
9 pain as “someone using a hand drill to drill a hole in my head” (P70). Here pain is
10 externalizsed and placed outside of the self – pain is being inflicted onto them by an
11 embodied other. Externalizing, where a problem is considered to be outside of the self, is a
12 coping strategy which makes the problem more controllable. It also works to separate the
13 embodied unpleasantness of chronic pain from a preferred pain-free self (50). This can
14 promote coping, but hinder long term acceptance.

15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34 A diagnosis of Hypermobility was associated with increased odds of use of the *Physical*
35 *Damage via Blunt Object* source domain. This domain included descriptions of pain such as
36 being hit with a large rubber mallet, or hammer, and seems to indicate a duller, more diffuse
37 kind of pain, in contrast to the sharper pain associated with neuropathic pain.

38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47 Lastly, it was somewhat unexpected to see a correlation between the Arthritis-related pain
48 diagnosis and increased odds of use of the *Insects* source domain. However, 26.2% of those
49 with arthritis also experienced neuropathic pain, which may explain the result. Dysaesthesias
50 are a common feature of neuropathic pain, which would include formication and the rates of
51 use were equivalent between the groups.

4.2 Pain Intensity and Interference

An interesting finding from this study was that pain intensity scores were not significantly associated with increased (or decreased) use of any particular metaphor source domains.

However, this may be explained by several factors. Schlaeger et al. (51) had 248

participants ~~inpatients~~ assign a pain intensity value, using a 0-100mm visual analogue scale, to 26 pain intensity descriptors. They found large across-person variability, with the descriptor “distressing” for example having a mean of 55.3mm, but standard deviation of 24mm. In the same way that there was a large amount of variation in how participants rank single word pain intensity descriptors, the same may well apply to longer, metaphorical pain descriptions. That is, different types of pain metaphors are likely to indicate different levels of intensity to each participant.

In addition to this, it may be that pain intensity is defined more by affective-evaluative than sensory descriptors. In an early study Bailey and Davidson (52) had a total of 183 participants, across two studies, rate 39 adjectives on a 130mm ~~13cm~~ scale of pain intensity. Using factor analysis, they found that ten of these adjectives loaded onto an “intensity” factor. However, utilizing research into pain descriptors by Melzack and Torgerson (53), they found that only two were “sensory” descriptors, with the remaining eight occurring in either the “affective” or “evaluative” domains. The sensory domain describes pain in terms of temporal, spatial, pressure, thermal, and other properties (e.g. sharp, burning), whilst the affective domain is in terms of tension, fear, and autonomic properties comprising the pain experience (e.g. nauseating, torturing), and the evaluative domain describes the subjective overall intensity of the total pain experience (e.g. annoying, unbearable). The systematic

1
2
3 metaphor analysis employed in our study focussed exclusively on sensory descriptions of
4 pain, without looking at the affective or evaluative components of pain description. Sensory
5 metaphorical descriptions alone may not be useful in identifying pain intensity levels.
6
7
8
9

10
11
12
13 Pain interference scores provide a measure of how much pain has interfered with various
14 domains of the individual's daily life (e.g. activity, sleep, work, enjoyment of life, etc.). In
15 this study, greater pain interference scores were associated with an increased likelihood of
16 using a *Death and Mortality* metaphor. Although this source domain was not often used in
17 this sample, its association with pain interference was significant. It may be that
18 metaphorically referencing death in pain description might be a form of pain catastrophizing,
19 defined as "an exaggerated negative 'mental set' brought to bear during actual or anticipated
20 painful experience" (54, p. 53). Participants whose pain greatly impacted their ability to
21 engage in normal daily activities were perhaps indicating "My life is over." Pain
22 catastrophizing has been shown to be a predictor of many pain related outcomes, including
23 pain-related activity interference and mood (55). Further research exploring the use of
24 metaphorical language in the context of pain catastrophizing is warranted.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

45 Those with higher pain interference scores were also more likely to use the overarching
46 *Causes of Physical Damage* source domain, with a focus on the subdomain of damage via
47 *Sharp Object*, which included descriptors of "stabbing" pains, and physical damage inflicted
48 by a wide variety of sharp instruments such as knives, machetes, metal spikes, and
49 ~~razors~~razers. For example, one participant described their pain as feeling like there was "a
50 knife stuck in between my ribs" (P30). It appears that although pain intensity may be better
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 predicted by affective-evaluative descriptors, these strong sensory metaphors can convey how
4
5 disrupted daily life is.²²
6
7
8
9

10 11 **4.3 Depression, Anxiety, and Stress** 12 13 14 15 16

17 There were significant associations for scores on the Depression and Stress indices of the
18 DASS-21, with higher scores corresponding to decreased odds of use of the *Pressure and*
19 *Weight* source domain. However, we note that that odds ratios are very close to 1, which
20 would suggest no association between these factors (OR of .98 and .97 respectively) and as
21 such this finding is unlikely to be of clinical significance.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 The lack of association between DASS-21 scores and particular metaphor source domains
33 was somewhat surprising, but could reflect a similar phenomenon to the lack of correlation
34 between pain intensity scores and source domains. That is, it appears that affective, rather
35 than sensory descriptors provide a better predictor of psychological disturbance. For example,
36 Kremer, Atkinson, and Kremer (56) found that, using the MPQ (18), affective descriptors
37 were more sensitive to psychological variables such as depression and anxiety, and that
38 sensory descriptors did not add significant predictive strength. Sist et al. (57) found that
39 ~~depressed~~-pain clinic outpatients-participants with depression chose significantly more
40 affective pain descriptors and scored significantly higher on the affective pain intensity
41 dimension of the MPQ than ~~non-depressed~~-participants without depressionpatients. In
42 contrast to this, no differences in sensory pain descriptors were found based on depression.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

4.4 Implications

Our research has begun the work of exploring and cataloguing the metaphors that people with chronic pain sufferers routinely use, as well as exploring whether these metaphors shed light on quantifiable pain related factors such as diagnosis or mood. It is unique in that it is one of the few quantitative explorations of metaphor use in a chronic pain population, and is, to our knowledge, the only quantitative exploration across a broad spectrum of conditions. It is also the only study to use inferential statistics to explore how metaphor source domains are associated with diagnostic categories, mood, and disability. A better understanding of pain language may engender a shared understanding between people with chronic pain patients and health professionals and aid communication. This study suggests there are specific linguistic markers (in the form of metaphor type) for certain diagnoses and pain related outcomes, such as pain interference. The metaphors that people choose to describe their pain has potential to inform health professionals in their communications with them patients. In time-poor consultations, considering metaphorical language to build upon data provided by standardized questionnaires can be of value. That is, careful listening to the metaphors that patients-people use could provide valuable insights to aid in diagnosis and associated healthcare planning.

In addition to this, increased understanding of pain metaphors has useful clinical applications. The current research may support the development of novel assessment tools focussing on the metaphors which people with chronic pain-patient's use, whilst identifying and targeting patient's-a person's specific metaphors may provide a new focus point for work in psychological therapy.

4.5 Study Limitations

Due to the online recruitment process, participants necessarily self-selected as having chronic pain, as well as self-reported their individual diagnoses. As our sample waswere predominantly female, well educated, white Australians, sample to population (statistical) generalisability may be limited (58). However, as the metaphors generated by participants are consistent with previous research, it may instead have naturalistic generalisability (59). An additional limitation is the potential for bias due to the pain metaphor examples provided. Although we felt it was necessary to have a clear explanation, participants may have been more likely to produce metaphors related to these prompts. Lastly, there is evidence that languages and cultures differ significantly from one another in terms of pain experience (60-62). Population groups differing on these grounds may have varying results.

4.6 Future Directions

Future research should aim to expand on the sample presented here in order to evaluate if results continue to be supported in other more varied settings. Future research may also focus on exploring pain metaphors from the clinician's point of view. For example, we have shown that participants readily use a wide variety of metaphors and that these are associated with factors such as diagnosis and disability. It has also been found that metaphor may have therapeutic benefit to people in pain (8). However, there is less research focussing on the clinician use and understanding. Given the frequency of use and the potential utility of metaphor, the next step may be to investigate the attitudes and interpretations of health

1
2
3 professionals towards these pain metaphors. It may be that a gap exists between what people
4
5 with chronic painpatients find helpful in the use of metaphor for communication of pain and
6
7
8 what health professionals find helpful.
9

10 11 12 13 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

14
15
16 This study has shown evidence of specific linguistic, metaphorical markers for both pain
17
18 interference levels, as well as certain diagnoses, notably Endometriosis, Complex Regional
19
20 Pain Syndrome, and Neuropathic pain. Increased awareness of and attention towards pain
21
22 metaphors may provide valuable information, enhance understanding, and facilitate
23
24 communication between people with chronic painpatients and health providers.
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Acknowledgements
4

5 None. No funding to declare. All authors have no conflict of interest to report.
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

For Review Only

References

1. Gormsen L, Rosenberg R, Bach FW, Jensen TS. Depression, anxiety, health-related quality of life and pain in patients with chronic fibromyalgia and neuropathic pain. *Eur J Pain*. 2010;14(2):127.e1 - .e8.
2. Manchikanti L, Cash KA, Damron KS, Manchukonda R, Pampati V, McManus CD. Controlled substance abuse and illicit drug use in chronic pain patients: An evaluation of multiple variables. *Pain Physician*. 2006;9(3):215-26.
3. Biro D. *The language of pain: Finding words, compassion, and relief*: WW Norton & Co; 2010.
4. Kugelmann R. Complaining about chronic pain. *Soc Sci Med*. 1999;49(12):1663-76.
5. Munday I, Kneebone I, Newton-John T. The language of chronic pain. *Disabil Rehabil*. 2019;1-8.
6. Lascaratou C. *The language of pain*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 2007.
7. Cassell C, Bishop V. Qualitative Data Analysis: Exploring Themes, Metaphors and Stories. *Eur Manag Rev*. 2019;16(1):195-207.
8. Stewart M, Ryan S-J. Do metaphors have therapeutic value for people in pain? A Systematic Review. *Pain Rehabil: J Physiother Pain Assoc*. 2020;48:10-23.
9. Loftus S. Pain and its metaphors: A dialogical approach. *J Med Humanit*. 2011;32(3):213-30.
10. Lakoff G, Johnson M. *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago. 1980.
11. Gibbs Jr RW, Lima PLC, Francozo E. Metaphor is grounded in embodied experience. *J Pragmat*. 2004;36(7):1189-210.
12. Hearn JH, Finlay KA, Fine PA. The devil in the corner: A mixed-methods study of metaphor use by those with spinal cord injury-specific neuropathic pain. *Br J Health Psychol*. 2016;21(4):973-88.
13. Bullo S. "I feel like I'm being stabbed by a thousand tiny men": The challenges of communicating endometriosis pain. *Health (N Y)*. 2019.
14. Semino E. Descriptions of pain, metaphor, and embodied simulation. *Metaphor Symb*. 2010;25(4):205-26.
15. Rude S, Gortner E-M, Pennebaker J. Language use of depressed and depression-vulnerable college students. *Cogn Emot*. 2004;18(8):1121-33.
16. Al-Mosaiwi M, Johnstone T. In an absolute state: Elevated use of absolutist words is a marker specific to anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation. *Clin Psychol Sci*. 2018;6(4):529-42.
17. Junghaenel DU, Schneider S, Broderick JE. Linguistic indicators of pain catastrophizing in patients with chronic musculoskeletal pain. *J Pain*. 2017;18(5):597-604.
18. Melzack R. The McGill Pain Questionnaire: major properties and scoring methods. *Pain*. 1975;1(3):277-99.
19. Dubuisson D, Melzack R. Classification of clinical pain descriptions by multiple group discriminant analysis. *Exp Neurol*. 1976;51(2):480-7.
20. Boureau F, Doubrere J, Luu M. Study of verbal description in neuropathic pain. *Pain*. 1990;42(2):145-52.
21. Bouhassira D, Attal N. Diagnosis and assessment of neuropathic pain: the saga of clinical tools. *Pain*. 2011;152(3):S74-S83.
22. Bennett M. The LANSS Pain Scale: the Leeds assessment of neuropathic symptoms and signs. *Pain*. 2001;92(1-2):147-57.
23. Fordyce WE, Brena SF, Holcomb RJ, De Lateur BJ, Loeser JD. Relationship of patient semantic pain descriptions to physician diagnostic judgements, activity level measures and NMPI. *Pain*. 1978;5(3):293-303.
24. Wilkie DJ, Savedra MC, Holzemer WL, Tesler MD, Paul SM. Use of the McGill Pain Questionnaire to measure pain: a meta-analysis. *Nurs Res*. 1990.

- 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5
 - 6
 - 7
 - 8
 - 9
 - 10
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14
 - 15
 - 16
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20
 - 21
 - 22
 - 23
 - 24
 - 25
 - 26
 - 27
 - 28
 - 29
 - 30
 - 31
 - 32
 - 33
 - 34
 - 35
 - 36
 - 37
 - 38
 - 39
 - 40
 - 41
 - 42
 - 43
 - 44
 - 45
 - 46
 - 47
 - 48
 - 49
 - 50
 - 51
 - 52
 - 53
 - 54
 - 55
 - 56
 - 57
 - 58
 - 59
 - 60
25. Munday I, Newton-John T, Kneebone I. 'Barbed wire wrapped around my feet': Metaphor use in chronic pain. *Br J Health Psychol.* 2020.
26. Cleeland CS, Ryan K. Pain assessment: global use of the Brief Pain Inventory. *Ann Acad Med Singap.* 1994.
27. Lovibond PF, Lovibond SH. The structure of negative emotional states: Comparison of the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS) with the Beck Depression and Anxiety Inventories. *Behav Res Ther.* 1995;33(3):335-43.
28. Keller S, Bann CM, Dodd SL, Schein J, Mendoza TR, Cleeland CS. Validity of the brief pain inventory for use in documenting the outcomes of patients with noncancer pain. *Clin J Pain.* 2004;20(5):309-18.
29. Antony MM, Bieling PJ, Cox BJ, Enns MW, Swinson RP. Psychometric properties of the 42-item and 21-item versions of the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales in clinical groups and a community sample. *Psychol Assess.* 1998;10(2):176.
30. Brown TA, Chorpita BF, Korotitsch W, Barlow DH. Psychometric properties of the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS) in clinical samples. *Behav Res Ther.* 1997;35(1):79-89.
31. Henry JD, Crawford JR. The short-form version of the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS-21): Construct validity and normative data in a large non-clinical sample. *Br J Clin Psychol.* 2005;44(2):227-39.
32. Schmitt R. Systematic metaphor analysis as a method of qualitative research. *Qual Rep.* 2005;10(2):358-94.
33. Kimmel M. Optimizing the analysis of metaphor in discourse: How to make the most of qualitative software and find a good research design. *Rev Cogn Linguistics.* 2012;10(1):1-48.
34. : Merriam Webster; n.d. [Available from: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/stabbing>].
35. Semino E. *Metaphor in discourse*: Cambridge University Press Cambridge; 2008.
36. Chiappe DL, Kennedy JM. Are metaphors elliptical similes? *J Psycholinguist Res.* 2000;29(4):371-98.
37. Firth D. Bias reduction of maximum likelihood estimates. *Biometrika.* 1993:27-38.
38. Hadfield R, Mardon H, Barlow D, Kennedy S. Delay in the diagnosis of endometriosis: a survey of women from the USA and the UK. *Hum Reprod.* 1996;11(4):878-80.
39. Bullo S. Exploring disempowerment in women's accounts of endometriosis experiences. *Discourse Commun.* 2018;12(6):569-86.
40. Seear K. The etiquette of endometriosis: stigmatisation, menstrual concealment and the diagnostic delay. *Soc Sci Med.* 2009;69(8):1220-7.
41. Ott S, Maihöfner C. Signs and symptoms in 1,043 patients with complex regional pain syndrome. *J Pain.* 2018;19(6):599-611.
42. Eldufani J, Elahmer N, Blaise G. A medical mystery of complex regional pain syndrome. *Heliyon.* 2020;6(2):e03329.
43. Bruehl S, Maihöfner C, Stanton-Hicks M, Perez RS, Vatine J-J, Brunner F, et al. Complex regional pain syndrome: evidence for warm and cold subtypes in a large prospective clinical sample. *Pain.* 2016;157(8):1674-81.
44. Halicka M, Vittersø AD, Proulx MJ, Bultitude JH. Neuropsychological Changes in Complex Regional Pain Syndrome (CRPS). *Behav Neurol.* 2020;2020.
45. Frettlöh J, Hüppe M, Maier C. Severity and specificity of neglect-like symptoms in patients with complex regional pain syndrome (CRPS) compared to chronic limb pain of other origins. *Pain.* 2006;124(1-2):184-9.
46. Colloca L, Ludman T, Bouhassira D, Baron R, Dickenson AH, Yarnitsky D, et al. Neuropathic pain. *Nat Rev Dis Primers.* 2017;3(1):1-19.
47. Krause SJ, Backonja M-M. Development of a neuropathic pain questionnaire. *Clin J Pain.* 2003;19(5):306-14.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 48. Marmaridou S. On the conceptual, cultural and discursive motivation of Greek pain
- 5 lexicalizations. *Cognitive Linguistics*. 2006;17(3):393-434.
- 6 49. Jensen MP, Chodroff MJ, Dworkin RH. The impact of neuropathic pain on health-related
- 7 quality of life: review and implications. *Neurology*. 2007;68(15):1178-82.
- 8 50. Osborn M, Smith JA. Living with a body separate from the self. The experience of the body in
- 9 chronic benign low back pain: an interpretative phenomenological analysis. *Scand J Caring Sci*.
- 10 2006;20(2):216-22.
- 11 51. Schlaeger JM, Cain KC, Myklebust EK, Powell-Roach KL, Dyal BW, Wilkie DJ. Hospitalized
- 12 patients quantify verbal pain intensity descriptors: methodological issues and values for 26
- 13 descriptors. *Pain*. 2020;161(2):281-7.
- 14 52. Bailey CA, Davidson PO. The language of pain: intensity. *Pain*. 1976;2(3):319-24.
- 15 53. Melzack R, Torgerson WS. On the language of pain. *Anesthesiology*. 1971;34(1):50-9.
- 16 54. Sullivan MJ, Thorn B, Haythornthwaite JA, Keefe F, Martin M, Bradley LA, et al. Theoretical
- 17 perspectives on the relation between catastrophizing and pain. *Clin J Pain*. 2001;17(1):52-64.
- 18 55. Quartana PJ, Campbell CM, Edwards RR. Pain catastrophizing: a critical review. *Expert Rev*
- 19 *Neurother*. 2009;9(5):745-58.
- 20 56. Kremer EF, Atkinson JH, Kremer AM. The language of pain: affective descriptors of pain are a
- 21 better predictor of psychological disturbance than pattern of sensory and affective descriptors. *Pain*.
- 22 1983;16(2):185-92.
- 23 57. Sist TC, Florio GA, Miner MF, Lema MJ, Zevon MA. The relationship between depression and
- 24 pain language in cancer and chronic non-cancer pain patients. *J Pain Symptom Manage*.
- 25 1998;15(6):350-8.
- 26 58. Polit DF, Beck CT. Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and
- 27 strategies. *Int J Nurs Stud*. 2010;47(11):1451-8.
- 28 59. Smith B. Generalizability in qualitative research: Misunderstandings, opportunities and
- 29 recommendations for the sport and exercise sciences. *Qual Res Sport Exerc Health*. 2018;10(1):137-
- 30 49.
- 31 60. Fabrega H, Tyma S. Language and cultural influences in the description of pain. *Br J Med*
- 32 *Psychol*. 1976.
- 33 61. Peacock S, Patel S. Cultural influences on pain. *Reviews in pain*. 2008;1(2):6-9.
- 34 62. Narayan MC. Culture's effects on pain assessment and management. *AJN The American*
- 35 *Journal of Nursing*. 2010;110(4):38-47.
- 36
- 37
- 38
- 39
- 40
- 41
- 42
- 43
- 44
- 45
- 46
- 47
- 48
- 49
- 50
- 51
- 52
- 53
- 54
- 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59
- 60

Table 1
Sample Demographics

Diagnosis	n	Age	Pain Duration	Education (years)	Brief Pain Inventory		Depression Anxiety Stress Scale		
					Pain Intensity	Pain Interference	Depression	Anxiety	Stress
Endometriosis	18	33.2 (5.6)	13.6 (7.8)	14.9 (3.7)	5.6 (1.5)	7.1 (2.0)	23.7 (11.9)	16.8 (7.8)	22.3 (10.1)
CRPS	24	42.8 (10.8)	11.5 (7.1)	15.5 (3.2)	5.8 (1.3)	6.8 (2.1)	19.1 (11.7)	14.4 (9.3)	21.8 (11.1)
Neuropathy	42	47.3 (12.7)	11.6 (8.5)	15.0 (2.8)	6.0 (1.6)	7.3 (1.6)	18.0 (11.6)	13.2 (8.8)	18.9 (8.3)
Arthritis	75	49.9 (10.8)	17.6 (11.2)	14.6 (3.9)	5.8 (1.4)	7.1 (1.7)	19.4 (10.8)	14.2 (9.5)	19.3 (9.5)
Hypermobility	18	34.9 (9.3)	19.5 (10.8)	14.8 (2.7)	5.8 (1.2)	7.0 (1.8)	16.2 (11.6)	13.3 (9.2)	18.9 (9.3)
Fibromyalgia	71	42.0 (10.1)	15.2 (9.7)	14.5 (2.9)	5.8 (1.2)	7.4 (1.5)	18.1 (11.6)	15.1 (9.2)	21.3 (9.9)
Migraine	21	44.4 (10.4)	17.8 (10.9)	14.8 (2.7)	6.0 (1.5)	7.3 (2.0)	17.1 (10.7)	15.0 (9.3)	20.4 (9.4)
Musculoskeletal	48	44.8 (12.5)	16.0 (9.4)	15.2 (2.8)	5.8 (1.3)	6.8 (2.0)	18.8 (11.6)	13.0 (8.7)	19.2 (9.6)
Other	6	43.0 (9.1)	13.1 (15.9)	11.2 (1.6)	6.4 (0.7)	7.1 (2.1)	18.3 (8.3)	16.7 (7.2)	18.3 (6.4)
TOTAL (n)	247	43.7 (11.7)	14.3 (10.2)	14.7 (3.1)	5.8 (1.3)	6.7 (1.8)	18.8 (11.1)	13.9 (8.8)	20.3 (9.3)

Note: There are no determined cut off points for the BPI, however both the pain intensity and pain interference scores are from 0 - 10.

DASS-21 scoring is as follows; Depression (0-9 normal, 10-12 mild, 13-20 moderate, 21-27 severe, 28+ extremely severe), Anxiety (0-6 normal, 7-9 mild, 10-14 moderate, 15-19 severe, 20+ extremely severe), Stress (0-10 normal, 11-18 mild, 19-26 moderate, 27-34 severe, 35+ extremely severe).

Table 2

Metaphor for chronic pain: source domain descriptions and examples of participant responses

Source Domains	Description of Source Domain and Example Metaphors
Causes of Physical Damage	Physical damage caused by a range of stimuli.
Motor Vehicle Accident	Physical damage caused by motor vehicle accidents, e.g. “like I’ve been run over,” “hit by a truck.”
Movement	Movement which would cause damage if it occurred within the body, e.g. “throbbing pain,” “heaving pain.”
Object - Sharp	Physical damage inflicted by a sharp object (knives, razors, glass, etc.), e.g. “a million hot needles all over my body.”
Object - Blunt	As above, but with a blunt object (mallet, hammer, cricket bat etc.), e.g. “hit repeatedly... with a large rubber mallet.”
Physical Attack	Damage from a physical attack. When this attack had no referenced subject (non-embodied other), they described it simply as having been “punched” or “kicked.” However, the majority featured a malevolent agent that harmed them (embodied other), e.g. “someone wringing my legs out like a towel” or “a giant is crushing my bones.”
Embodied Other	
Non-embodied Other	
Pressure/Weight	Physical damage caused by pressure, e.g. “like my head is in a vice,” or weight, e.g. “an anchor on my chest.”
Pulling/tearing/rubbing	Physical damage caused by pulling, tearing, or rubbing sensations, e.g. “a wrench like pain,” “pulling pain.”
Temperature	Physical damage arising from extreme temperatures, either via hot, cold, or hot and cold temperatures simultaneously.
Hot	e.g. “burning,” “having my arm in a furnace,” “lava flowing through my feet.”
Cold	e.g. “ice running through body,” “as though my bones are blocks of ice.”
Hot-Cold	e.g. “pain feels icy cold and burning all at once”
Common Pain Experiences	Acute pain experiences which others may have experienced.
Bruise-fracture-dislocation	Common injuries such as bruises and broken bones, e.g. “like walking with broken bones in my feet.”
Childbirth & Pregnancy	Aspects of childbirth such as “contractions,” or pain being “similar to those... during labour.”
Common Illness	Common illnesses such as colds, headaches, or toothaches, e.g. “a toothache in my right knee.”
Excessive Physical Exertion	Exercise related pain, e.g. “similar to a runner’s cramp but MUCH more intense.”
Electricity	Aspects of electricity such as “electric shock,” “lightning strike,” and “buzzing/humming” to describe pain.
Insects	e.g. “ants crawling under the skin,” “a million bee’s in my shoulders”
Rigidity	Stiffness or immobility, e.g. “like my muscles have turned into painful rocks.”
Bodily Misperception	A distorted perception of the painful body part, feeling as if it were not part of them, or was larger than it actually was, e.g. “like the original place of pain is not a part of me, sometimes my hand that is all deformed now is slimy.”
Death and Mortality	Death and the process of dying, e.g. “feels like rigamortus [sic] first thing every morning.”

Table 3
Odds ratios for use of metaphor source domains by diagnosis

	<u>Endometriosis</u>		<u>CRPS</u>		<u>Neuropathy</u>		<u>Arthritis</u>		<u>Hypermobility</u>	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
Causes of Physical Damage										
Motor Vehicle Accident	1.49	0.25, 9.08	0.32	0.02, 5.85	1.04	0.25, 4.33	0.75	0.21, 2.60	1.49	0.25, 9.08
Movement	1.64	0.39, 6.93	0.19	0.01, 3.47	0.59	0.15, 2.33	0.74	0.27, 2.03	0.88	0.15, 5.15
Sharp Object	3.44*	1.01, 11.64	0.83	0.35, 1.92	2.57*	1.21, 5.48	1.02	0.59, 1.77	1.41	0.52, 3.88
Blunt Object	1.04	0.18, 6.18	0.75	0.13, 4.35	2.09	0.72, 6.04	0.92	0.33, 2.60	6.53*	2.05, 20.80
Physical Attack	1.60	0.58, 4.43	0.82	0.30, 2.25	2.14*	1.06, 4.31	1.13	0.61, 2.10	0.91	0.29, 2.81
Embodied Other	1.75	0.60, 5.10	1.17	0.42, 3.25	2.20*	1.04, 4.63	1.20	0.61, 2.34	1.29	0.42, 4.03
Non-embodied Other	1.79	0.29, 11.08	0.38	0.02, 6.99	0.20	0.01, 3.56	0.93	0.26, 3.37	1.79	0.29, 11.08
Pressure and Weight	0.95	0.34, 2.60	0.76	0.31, 1.91	1.32	0.67, 2.60	1.05	0.60, 1.86	0.95	0.34, 2.60
Pulling, Tearing, Rubbing	8.74*	3.09, 24.70	1.33	0.39, 4.52	0.44	0.11, 1.70	1.69	0.75, 3.81	0.66	0.11, 3.83
Temperature	1.81	0.66, 4.95	6.43*	1.97, 20.98	2.56*	1.25, 5.26	1.21	0.70, 2.09	0.71	0.27, 1.86
Cold	1.95	0.46, 8.41	4.40*	1.45, 13.37	3.57*	1.32, 9.67	0.92	0.33, 2.60	0.31	0.02, 5.76
Hot	1.27	0.48, 3.33	7.29*	2.23, 23.78	2.58*	1.27, 5.23	1.05	0.61, 1.81	0.80	0.31, 2.11
Hot and Cold	0.93	0.05, 18.48	5.42*	1.06, 27.63	9.51*	1.93, 46.82	0.61	0.10, 3.85	0.93	0.05, 18.48
Common Pain Experiences										
Bruise, Fracture, Dislocation	3.93*	1.05, 14.73	0.92	0.16, 5.40	0.88	0.22, 3.59	0.40	0.10, 1.61	2.43	0.56, 10.61
Childbirth and Pregnancy	9.81*	1.74, 55.22	7.00*	1.28, 38.41	0.43	0.02, 8.16	0.75	0.12, 4.93	1.10	0.05, 22.34
Common Illness	4.50	0.96, 21.16	0.46	0.02, 8.64	0.84	0.14, 5.01	0.75	0.17, 3.25	2.23	0.35, 14.14
Excessive Physical Exertion	1.99	0.32, 12.44	0.41	0.02, 7.73	0.75	0.13, 4.40	1.61	0.47, 5.57	1.99	0.32, 12.44
Electricity	1.54	0.49, 4.83	1.40	0.50, 3.92	1.72	0.78, 3.83	1.05	0.51, 2.14	1.54	0.49, 4.83
Insects	1.22	0.29, 5.07	1.33	0.39, 4.52	2.36	0.97, 5.75	3.29*	1.47, 7.36	1.22	0.29, 5.07
Rigidity	1.79	0.29, 11.08	2.51	0.57, 11.07	1.28	0.30, 5.43	1.39	0.42, 4.65	1.79	0.29, 11.08
Bodily Misperception	1.10	0.05, 22.34	7.00*	1.28, 38.41	1.62	0.24, 10.77	3.29	0.63, 17.20	1.10	0.05, 22.34
Death and Mortality	3.50	0.52, 23.66	0.68	0.04, 13.21	1.32	0.21, 8.41	1.27	0.26, 6.17	0.93	0.05, 18.48

Note: * $p < .05$

Appendix A

Prompt given to elicit metaphors

Many people use metaphors in order to describe their pain. Metaphors are figures of speech that describe something in a way that isn't literally true, but helps explain an idea or make a comparison.

These can be statements such as;

"It feels like ants in my body."

"It feels like a knife slicing into me."

"It feels like something that is burning inside you."

"It feels like I carry a very heavy load."

How would you describe your pain and what it feels like? What metaphors or descriptions do you use to talk about your pain?

Please feel free to write as many different metaphors or descriptions as you have used over the time you have had chronic pain. You may use the prompts below if you like to help you get started.

Living with pain is like...

The pain feels like...

Appendix B

Table 4
Odds ratios for use of metaphor source domains by diagnosis

	<u>Migraine</u>		<u>Fibromyalgia</u>		<u>MSK</u>	
	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI	OR	95% CI
Causes of Physical Damage						
Motor Vehicle Accident	0.37	0.02, 6.84	1.64	0.54, 5.00	0.88	0.21, 3.64
Movement	0.74	0.13, 4.27	1.62	0.65, 4.03	1.41	0.50, 3.93
Sharp Object	1.80	0.68, 4.76	0.82	0.47, 1.44	0.90	0.48, 1.70
Blunt Object	0.88	0.15, 5.12	1.00	0.35, 2.83	0.60	0.15, 2.38
Physical Attack	0.98	0.35, 2.76	0.93	0.49, 1.76	1.01	0.49, 2.09
Embodied Other	1.41	0.50, 3.99	1.18	0.60, 2.32	0.83	0.36, 1.88
Non-embodied Other	0.44	0.02, 8.17	1.51	0.45, 5.05	1.08	0.25, 4.56
Pressure and Weight	1.44	0.58, 3.56	0.85	0.47, 1.51	0.91	0.47, 1.77
Pulling, Tearing, Rubbing	0.55	0.10, 3.17	0.72	0.28, 1.82	1.58	0.64, 3.93
Temperature	0.66	0.27, 1.63	1.14	0.65, 1.97	0.72	0.38, 1.35
Cold	0.26	0.01, 4.81	0.53	0.16, 1.77	0.33	0.06, 1.83
Hot	0.75	0.30, 1.84	1.05	0.61, 1.82	0.82	0.44, 1.55
Hot and Cold	0.79	0.04, 15.45	0.18	0.01, 3.36	0.31	0.02, 5.70
Common Pain Experiences						
Bruise, Fracture, Dislocation	0.32	0.02, 5.86	1.75	0.62, 4.97	0.74	0.18, 3.01
Childbirth and Pregnancy	0.94	0.05, 18.67	0.82	0.12, 5.34	1.37	0.21, 9.09
Common Illness	0.53	0.03, 10.10	3.17	0.88, 11.44	0.21	0.01, 3.72
Excessive Physical Exertion	0.48	0.03, 9.04	1.75	0.51, 6.05	0.19	0.01, 3.32
Electricity	0.10	0.01, 1.82	0.65	0.30, 1.43	1.20	0.53, 2.68
Insects	0.17	0.01, 3.06	1.85	0.82, 4.17	0.37	0.10, 1.42
Rigidity	2.94	0.66, 13.11	2.17	0.67, 7.03	1.08	0.25, 4.56
Bodily Misperception	0.94	0.05, 18.67	0.22	0.01, 4.07	0.36	0.02, 6.90
Death and Mortality	2.95	0.44, 19.64	2.53	0.56, 11.53	4.32	0.94, 19.87

Note: * $p < .05$