

The Pain-Related Cognitive Processes Questionnaire (PCPQ): Development and Validation

Journal:	<i>Pain Medicine</i>
Manuscript ID	PME-ORR-Sep-16-679.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original research
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
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Keywords:	Cognitive Process, Chronic pain, Assessment

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Running Head: MEASURING PAIN-RELATED COGNITIVE PROCESSES

The Pain-Related Cognitive Processes Questionnaire (PCPQ): Development and Validation

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Number of pages: 37 (including title page, abstract, and 7 tables)

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Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding: This study was supported by a Faculty Research Grant from the Australian Catholic University. The authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

Abstract

Objective. Cognitive processes may be characterized as *how* individuals think, whereas cognitive content constitutes *what* individuals think. Both cognitive processes and cognitive content are theorized to play important roles in chronic pain adjustment, and treatments have been developed to target both. However, the evaluation of treatments that target cognitive processes is limited because extant measures do not satisfactorily separate cognitive process from cognitive content. The current study aimed to develop a self-report inventory of potentially adaptive and presumed maladaptive attentional processes that may occur when someone is experiencing pain.

Methods. Scales were derived from a large item pool by successively applying confirmatory factor analysis to item data from 2 undergraduate samples (Ns of 393 and 233).

Results. Items, which were generated to avoid confounding of cognitive content with cognitive processes, represented 9 constructs: Suppression, Distraction, Enhancement, Dissociation, Reappraisal, Absorption, Rumination, Non-Judgment, and Acceptance. The resulting 9 scales formed the Pain-Related Cognitive Process Questionnaire (PCPQ), and scale correlations produced 4 conceptually distinct composite scales: Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, Pain Focus, and Pain Openness. Internal consistency reliabilities of the 9 scales were adequate ($\alpha \geq .70$) to good, and the four composite scales had $\alpha \geq .79$. Correlations with pain-related criterion variables were generally consistent with putative constructs.

Conclusions. The developed PCPQ scales offer a comprehensive assessment of important cognitive processes specific to pain. Overall, the findings suggest that the PCPQ scales may prove useful for evaluating the role of pain-related cognitive processes in studies of chronic pain.

Key Words: Cognitive Process, Chronic Pain, Assessment

Introduction

There is now compelling evidence demonstrating that the transition from acute to chronic pain entails complex structural, functional and chemical changes within the brain and central nervous system.(1, 2) Further, there is inherent overlap in the neural networks shared by these changes and cognitive factors.(3, 4) Hence, the interaction between pain and cognitions, including executive attentional function, has become an area of intensive investigation.(4, 5) A number of models hypothesizing an important role for central attentional cognitive processes in pain have been proposed, and include the Fear-Avoidance Model (FAM),(6, 7) the Neurocognitive Model of Attention,(8) the Misdirected Problem Solving Model,(9) and the Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) Stemming from these models, various treatments have been proposed, including exposure, mindfulness and acceptance-based approaches. Jensen and colleagues have proposed a key distinction between two types of cognitions: one representing cognitive *processes* (*how* individuals think about pain) and cognitive *content* (*what* individuals think).(11, 12) While there exist reliable and valid measures of pain-related cognitive content, there has been no systematic work to develop a comprehensive set of pain-specific measures that assess pain-related cognitive processes as distinct from cognitive content.

In a recent review of the measures used in pain research that could potentially be used to assess cognitive processes,(13) we identified that only 9% of retrieved measures provided a un-confounded assessment of cognitive process, and most of these were not pain-specific. Of the processes identified in these measures, results indicated an emerging conceptual framework suggesting six theoretically adaptive processes (distraction, enhancement, dissociation, non-judgment, acceptance, reappraisal), two maladaptive (absorption, rumination) and one process that has been viewed by different theories as either adaptive or maladaptive (suppression). Notably, no pain-specific measure was identified that provides a

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2
3 un-confounded assessment of absorption, rumination, enhancement or non-judgment.(13)

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5 Further, many of the pain-specific measures assessing the other cognitive processes consist of
6
7 only one or two items, which limits their reliability.
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10 Theoretically, the cognitive process of distraction has been described as “divided
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12 attention” and entails diverting attention away from pain by attending to something else; the
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14 cognitive process of enhancement is distraction that involves diverting attention to positive
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16 thoughts.(4) Suppression consists of diverting thoughts by conscious suppression, and
17
18 captures a form of cognitive avoidance. In contrast, dissociation (also known as “defusion”
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20 in the Psychological Flexibility Model) and reappraisal are ways of attending to pain that
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22 either distance oneself from the pain or make the pain more tolerable. Non-judgment
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24 encapsulates an open monitoring of experience (or “attention to the present” in the
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26 Psychological Flexibility Model), without conceptual overlay in the form of labels such as
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28 “good” or “bad”. Similarly, acceptance is viewed as the active process of allowing
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30 experience to *be* experience, without a need for it to be different. Finally, absorption refers to
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32 an intense, hypervigilant intentional or unintentional focusing on pain sensations (emphasized
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34 in the FAM), and rumination pertains to an unintentional preoccupation with pain, and is a
35
36 central tenet in the Misdirected Problem Solving Model.
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41 To various degrees, these nine cognitive processes are emphasized (to a greater or lesser
42
43 extent, depending on the model) in the extant attentional pain models. However, the lack of a
44
45 valid and reliable measure of these cognitive process domains limits our ability to test these
46
47 models and the mechanisms of the treatments stemming from these models. Thus, to
48
49 evaluate the unique role that these processes play in chronic pain coping and treatment, a
50
51 valid and reliable measure of pain-related cognitive processes is needed. To address this
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53 need, the focus of the current study was to develop a measure with a replicable factor
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55 structure that assesses each of the nine cognitive process responses to pain: the Pain-Related
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2
3 Cognitive Process Questionnaire (PCPQ). We hypothesized that items created for the
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5 measure would evidence a 9-factor solution, and that these factors might also load on to a
6
7 smaller set of composite cognitive process scales. To more closely examine the nature of the
8
9 PCPQ scales, we also investigated their association with theoretically-relevant, pain-related
10
11 criterion validity variables.
12

13 14 **Methods**

15
16 *Study Design.* This study employed a repeated measures online survey across two
17
18 undergraduate samples. The survey included the initial pool of developed PCPQ items and
19
20 pain-related validity criterion scales thought to reflect adaptive responses (e.g., measures of
21
22 perceived control over pain). These pain-related validity criterion scales were expected to be
23
24 positively associated with the adaptive PCPQ scales (Distraction, Enhancement, Dissociation,
25
26 Non-Judgment, Acceptance and Reappraisal) and negatively associated with the maladaptive
27
28 PCPQ scales (Absorption, Rumination). The survey also included validity criterion scales
29
30 thought to reflect maladaptive responses (e.g., pain catastrophizing, pain interference), which
31
32 were expected to show the opposite pattern of associations with the PCPQ scales as the
33
34 adaptive validity criterion measures. Because different theoretical perspectives identify
35
36 suppression as either adaptive or maladaptive, no *a priori* hypotheses were made regarding
37
38 this cognitive process.
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42
43 Sample 1 was recruited from the University of Alabama and sample 2 from the
44
45 University of Queensland. Participants in both samples completed the online survey, which
46
47 included the initial pool of developed PCPQ items as well as pain-related outcomes and
48
49 validity criterion variables. The battery of measures was completed twice by sample 1,
50
51 approximately one week apart. One other measure of the behavioral inhibition and activation
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53 systems in the context of pain was concurrently developed with the data obtained from
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55 sample 1 (assessing constructs theoretically distinct from those assessed by the PCPQ
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2
3 measure developed in the current study), and an article describing that measure is currently
4
5 under review. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of
6
7 Alabama (sample 1) and by the Behavioural & Social Sciences Ethical Review Committee at
8
9 the University of Queensland (sample 2).
10

11 *Item Pool Development.* Item development was informed via (1) induction from the
12
13 domains of pain-related cognitive processes emerging from our content review of coping
14
15 measures used in pain research (i.e., absorption, dissociation, reappraisal, distraction,
16
17 suppression, acceptance, rumination, enhancement, and a non-judgmental approach (13)), and
18
19 (2) deduction from theory that is closely aligned with those identified cognitive processes
20
21 (e.g., theories underlying cognitive therapy theory for reappraisal, acceptance and
22
23 commitment therapy for acceptance, mindfulness theory for a non-judgmental approach to
24
25 pain, as well as the other models described in the Introduction). Each author wrote items
26
27 designed to tap each domain until approximately 13-17 initial non-overlapping items were
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29 developed for each domain. Each item was confirmed by each member of the investigative
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31 team to capture a specific cognitive process that was not confounded by cognitive content;
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33 the only “content” of the item was specific to pain (e.g., not emotional or social response to
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35 pain or beliefs about pain).
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41 The content and structure of these initial items was further refined via communication
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43 and consensus among the investigators, resulting in a total of 130 items in the initial item
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45 pool. The items were reviewed to ensure that each one was related to pain, did not contain
46
47 double negatives to avoid confusion, and did not include complex sentence structure or
48
49 passive/ambiguous language. No reverse scored items were included such that assessment
50
51 was focused on what the process being assessed *is* vs. what it *is not*. We sought to initially
52
53 construct scales on the basis of *a priori* item assignment to the nine different cognitive
54
55 process domains. The readability of the instructions and items was considered in this initial
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2
3 item development stage, with all measure content and items calculated by the Flesch-Kincaid
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5 readability statistics to be at the 3rd grade reading level. A response format indicating degree
6
7 of endorsement for each pain-related cognitive process was selected to quantify how often
8
9 individuals engage in each process *when in pain*, which is similar to the response format of
10
11 the widely used Pain Catastrophizing Scale.(14)
12

13
14 *Setting and Participants.* The online nature of this research allowed the option for
15
16 undergraduate participants across both samples to complete the assessment batteries from a
17
18 location of their choosing. The study advertised that only individuals reporting chronic pain
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20 (i.e., pain most days of the month in the last 3-months) or recurrent pain (pain at least four
21
22 times in the last three months or twice in the past month) were allowed to sign-up to
23
24 participate. Within Sample 1, a total of 457 undergraduate students were recruited from the
25
26 University of Alabama subject pool, that consisted of first to fourth year undergraduate
27
28 students enrolled in psychology courses. Of those recruited, 395 participants completed the
29
30 Time 1 battery and met the study eligibility criteria (see analysis section), and 393 cases were
31
32 used to derive the scales after eliminating two cases with all PCPQ item data missing. A
33
34 subset of these participants did not endorse chronic or recurrent pain, hence these participants
35
36 were omitted from the planned validity analyses which were conducted with what is referred
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38 to henceforth as the ‘pain sample’ (n = 321; comprised of participants who did endorse
39
40 chronic or recurrent pain). Of the participants comprising the pain sample, 146 completed the
41
42 Time 2 assessment battery, and these data were used for the planned test-retest stability
43
44 analyses. Sample 2 was recruited as a replication sample from the University of Queensland
45
46 subject pool, which also consisted of first to fourth year undergraduate students enrolled in
47
48 psychology courses. A total of 246 undergraduates were recruited for participation and 233
49
50 completed the Time 1 assessment battery and met the eligibility criteria (see analysis section).
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52 These participants (n = 233; 10 of whom did not endorse recurrent or chronic pain) were used
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3 to test the replicability of the model derived from sample 1. Demographic information for the
4
5 total sample 1 and sample 2, and pain information for the pain sample is presented in Table 1.
6

7 [Insert Table 1 about here]
8

9
10 *Measures*

11 *Demographic and Pain Information.* Participant demographic characteristics were
12
13 gathered from a brief questionnaire that was developed for this research. The demographic
14
15 variables of interest were race/ethnicity, age, and sex. Participants were asked to provide
16
17 information pertaining to chronic and/or recurrent pain (utilized for determining
18
19 inclusion/exclusion for the validity analyses), pain type, pain site, pain duration, and other
20
21 medical diagnoses.
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25 *Pain Intensity.* Pain intensity data were collected via the Brief Pain Inventory
26
27 (BPI).(15) Pain severity scores were obtained from the mean of four items, in which
28
29 respondents rate their most severe pain, least severe pain, average pain over the past week,
30
31 and current pain on an 11-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = *No pain* to 10 = *Pain as bad as*
32
33 *you can imagine*. The BPI has demonstrated excellent internal consistency and concurrent
34
35 validity via its associations with other pain instruments in other samples of individuals with
36
37 pain.(15) The BPI Pain Intensity scale was used as one of the criterion measure in this study,
38
39 and therefore BPI data were analyzed for the pain sample only; its internal consistency in this
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41 sample was adequate ($\alpha = .78$).
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46 *Pain Interference and Depression.* Two Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement
47
48 Information System (PROMIS) short-form scales were used to assess pain interference and
49
50 depressive symptoms.(16) The scales consist of 4 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale
51
52 ranging from 1 to 5 with anchors unique to each construct. Higher scores indicate higher
53
54 levels of pain interference and depressive symptoms. The PROMIS scales were developed
55
56 using item-response theory and have been shown to have good construct validity and
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3 reliability.(16) Good internal consistency for the pain interference and depressive symptom
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5 scales was demonstrated in the pain sample of the current study ($\alpha = .86$ and $.89$,
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7 respectively).

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10 *Life Satisfaction.* The Quality of Life Scale (QOLS) assesses life satisfaction in several
11
12 areas.(17) A life satisfaction score was obtained by summing the respondent's ratings on the
13
14 7 items rated on a 7-point self-report scale ranging from 1 = *Totally unsatisfying* to 7 =
15
16 *Completely satisfying*. Total scores range from 7 to 49 with higher scores indicating greater
17
18 satisfaction. The QOLS taps a unique construct that differs from pain or disability, as
19
20 demonstrated by its only moderate correlations with distress, and weak correlations with
21
22 measures of functioning and pain intensity.(17) The QOLS has been demonstrated to be
23
24 internally consistent, reliable across time, and representative of a single construct.(17) The
25
26 internal consistency of the QOLS in the pain sample of the current study was good ($\alpha = .84$).
27
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29
30 *Pain Catastrophizing.* The Pain Catastrophizing Scale (PCS) was used to assess patient
31
32 report of catastrophic thinking.(14) The total score of the 13-item measure was used, and
33
34 asks respondents to rate, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *All the*
35
36 *time*, the degree to which they have certain thoughts and feelings when experiencing pain.
37
38 The raw scores are summed and higher scores indicate greater use of catastrophic thinking.
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40 The PCS has exhibited strong internal consistency, concurrent and discriminant validity, and
41
42 high test-retest reliability over a 6-week period.(14, 18, 19) Excellent internal consistency for
43
44 the PCS total score in the pain sample was shown ($\alpha = .93$).
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48 *Activity Engagement & Need for Pain Control.* The Chronic Pain Acceptance
49
50 Questionnaire-8 item (CPAQ-8) was used to measure acceptance of pain.(20) Participants
51
52 rate the extent to which the eight statements about pain acceptance are true for them on a
53
54 Likert scale ranging from 0 = *Never true* to 6 = *Always true*, and higher scores indicate
55
56 greater levels of acceptance. The CPAQ-8 consists of two subscales originally labelled
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3 Activity Engagement and Pain Willingness. However, given a recent evaluation determined
4 that *all* of the item content assessing “pain willingness” reflects a perceived need or desire for
5 pain control (not a willingness to experience pain) it was recommended that the labels
6 Activity Engagement and Pain Control be used by researchers.(21) In the current study, to
7 distinguish the latter scale from other measures of adaptive beliefs assessing perceived
8 control over pain (e.g., (22)), we use the label “Need for Pain Control”, which taps a
9 maladaptive approach to chronic pain. The CPAQ-8 has demonstrated adequate-good internal
10 reliability ($\alpha = .77$ to $.89$), strong convergent validity, and good concurrent criterion
11 validity.(20, 23) Good internal consistency was found in the pain sample for the current
12 study for the Activity Engagement subscale ($\alpha = .81$), and internal consistency was adequate
13 for the Need for Pain Control subscale ($\alpha = .67$).

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Pain Control Beliefs. The Survey Of Pain Attitudes (SOPA) was used to assess pain
control beliefs.(24, 25) Each of the five pain control belief items are rated on a 5-point scale
ranging from 0 = *This is very untrue for me* to 4 = *This is very true for me*. Higher scores
indicate greater endorsement of pain control beliefs. The SOPA pain control beliefs scale has
been shown to provide a reliable and valid assessment of this domain.(24, 25) In the pain
sample, the SOPA pain control beliefs scale showed adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .65$).

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Procedures. Participants located at both universities learned about the study through
the Psychology Subject Pool website, and if they chose to sign up for study participation they
were provided access to the online study link. Upon accessing the link (through Qualtrics),
potential participants were asked to read a Participant Information Sheet, which informed
them about the study procedures and their rights as a participant. If they agreed to
participate, they were then asked to complete each of the Time 1 survey questionnaires. At
Time 2, one week later, the sample 1 participants were emailed a link to respond to the same
assessment battery as that completed at Time 1, minus the demographic and pain questions.

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3 Participants were given course credit and were provided with a debriefing sheet at completion
4 of each survey. Each of the measures in the assessment batteries was presented in a
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6 randomized delivery format to control for potential method bias; individual item
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8 administration for the PCPQ items was also random, although the items of all other measures
9
10 were delivered in the order in which they were validated in their respective measures.
11
12

13 *Statistical Analyses*

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15
16 Statistical analyses were accomplished with SPSS version 22 and Mplus version
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18 7.4.(26) SPSS was used primarily for assessment of scale reliabilities, whereas Mplus
19
20 analyses included exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
21
22 with weighted least squares mean and variance adjusted (WLSMV) estimation for ordered
23
24 categorical item data and robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation for continuous data
25
26 (more than five values or ordered categories). MLR corrects the chi-square test and standard
27
28 errors of parameter estimates for non-normality.(26) Mplus uses all available information for
29
30 analysis but does eliminate cases when data are missing for an exogenous variable or for an
31
32 entire case. A few cases were excluded beforehand because they were missing all or most
33
34 data for the PCPQ items. Mplus handled missing data with full information maximum
35
36 likelihood (FIML) estimation, whereas analyses with SPSS used listwise deletion. Cases with
37
38 a completion time of less than 15 minutes were also excluded, as below 15 minutes was more
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40 than 2 SDs below the mean time of completion, suggesting a random, or otherwise biased
41
42 response pattern.
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47 Model fit in Mplus analyses was judged by the chi-square goodness-of-fit test and by
48
49 fit indices. The goodness-of-fit test provides the statistical significance of the deviation of the
50
51 model-generated covariance from the actual covariance matrix, but it is sensitive to sample
52
53 size, because the power to detect differences increases with sample size. Fit indices, which
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55 were chosen based on recommendations of Brown (27) and Hu and Bentler,(28) were the
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3 root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the comparative fit Index (CFI) for
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5 all analyses, and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was computed for MLR
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7 analyses. $RMSEA \leq .06$ and $CFIs \geq .95$ represent good fit, according to the research of Hu
8
9 and Bentler,(28) but Brown (27) suggests that values of $CFI \geq .90$ and $RMSEA \leq .08$ are
10
11 often considered to indicate acceptable fit. An $SRMR \leq .08$ is indicative of adequate fit.(27,
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15 28)

16 17 Results

18
19 Statistical analyses were used first to derive a set of nine PCPQ scales from the initial
20
21 pool of 130 items and then to evaluate the nine scales in relation to published scales that were
22
23 deemed relevant to the concurrent validity of the PCPQ scales. The data from sample 1 who
24
25 had taken 15-minutes or longer to complete the tests ($n = 393$) were used to construct the
26
27 PCPQ scales and determine their internal consistency. The data from participants in sample 2
28
29 who completed the survey in ≥ 15 minutes ($n = 233$) were used to investigate replicability of
30
31 the factor structure. The concurrent validity analyses were conducted only on a subsample of
32
33 sample 1 participants – the pain sample – which consisted of 321 students (249 women and
34
35 72 men), who were predominantly Caucasian (83%), and 18 to 23 years of age ($M = 18.84$,
36
37 $SD = 0.96$). A smaller subset of the pain sample completed the Time 2 assessment battery,
38
39 and these data were used to examine the one-week test-retest stability of the scales ($n = 146$);
40
41 this subsample was mostly female ($n = 111$), Caucasian (86%), with a mean age of 18.9 (SD
42
43 $= .91$).

44 45 46 47 *Derivation of the Nine PCPQ Scales*

48
49 Because the large number of initial items made Mplus analysis with WLSMV
50
51 intractable, the item data for the prospective nine scales were split into two parts (5 scales and
52
53 4 scales) for separate analyses, and 393 participants were randomly assigned to a derivation
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55 sample ($N = 194$) and a cross-validation sample ($N = 199$). CFAs with items assigned
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3 according to *a priori* theoretical specification to oblique factors were conducted on the two
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5 sets of prospective scales in the derivation sample, and items with low loadings or large
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7 cross-loadings were excluded until adequate model fit was achieved. The two models, one
8
9 with five factors and the other with four, were applied to the data in the cross-validation
10
11 sample to assess shrinkage, which was deemed reasonable. The two models with a reduced
12
13 number of items were then combined to form nine factors, and further modifications were
14
15 made to improve model fit in the full sample (N = 393) until each of the nine scales had 5-6
16
17 items. The final nine-factor model fit the data well. Fit indices were respectable (RMSEA =
18
19 .038, CFI = .95), but the goodness-of-fit test was significant, $\chi^2(1289, N = 393) = 2037.16, p$
20
21 $< .001$. However, sample 2, was available to assess fit shrinkage in replication. As expected,
22
23 model fit in replication was reduced, but indices suggested an adequate fit (RMSEA = .046,
24
25 CFI = .92). The goodness-of-fit statistic was significant, $\chi^2(1289, N = 233) = 1914.65, p <$
26
27 $.001$.

31
32 Table 2 shows items for the nine PCPQ scales with standardized factor loadings from
33
34 CFAs for the final model with the full derivation sample (sample 1: N = 393) and the
35
36 replication sample (sample 2: N = 233). Factor correlations ranged from -.39 between
37
38 Rumination and Enhancement to .89 between Rumination and Absorption in sample 1 and
39
40 from -.50 between Rumination and Enhancement to .87 between Distraction and
41
42 Enhancement in sample 2.

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45 [Insert Table 2 about here]

46
47 Correlations between the nine scale scores (average item scores) for sample 1 are
48
49 shown in Table 3, which also gives the means, SDs, and internal consistency reliabilities (α
50
51 coefficients). The α coefficients in sample 1 had a median of .84 with Rumination having the
52
53 highest reliability and Acceptance having the lowest. Reliabilities for sample 2 were similar
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55 to those in sample 1 and varied from .90 for Rumination to .66 for Acceptance (median =
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3 .84). With the exception of the Acceptance scale, reliabilities were adequate ($\alpha \geq .70$) in both
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5 samples, and the Rumination scale had the highest degree of internal consistency ($\alpha = .90$) in
6
7 both samples.
8

9
10 [Insert Table 3 about here]

11 12 *Derivation of Composite PCPQ Scales*

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14 The nine PCPQ factor scales proved to have adequate psychometric properties for the
15
16 most part, but correlations between scales were often high, indicating that broader (second-
17
18 order) factors could be important determinants of scale covariances. Consequently, the nine
19
20 PCPQ scales were submitted to EFA with MLR estimation and an oblimin rotation, and four
21
22 factors fit the data very well (RMSEA = 0.00, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = 0.003) and generated a
23
24 non-significant goodness-of-fit test, $\chi^2(6, N = 393) = 2.18, p = .9023$.
25
26

27
28 Standardized factor loadings from the EFA of the PCPQ scales in sample 1 are shown
29
30 in Table 4. Based on this analysis, four composite, superordinate scales were constructed.
31
32 The Pain Diversion scale ($M = 2.82, SD = .70, \alpha = .93$) was comprised of the 17 items from
33
34 the Suppression, Distraction, and Enhancement scales, and the 12 items from the Dissociation
35
36 and Reappraisal scales were combined to form the Pain Distancing scale ($M = 2.35, SD =$
37
38 $.74, \alpha = .90$). The Pain Focus scale ($M = 2.91, SD = .79, \alpha = .92$) contained the 12 items
39
40 from Absorption and Rumination, and the Pain Openness scale ($M = 2.69, SD = .58, \alpha = .79$)
41
42 consisted of the 12 items from the Acceptance and Non-Judgment scales.
43
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45
46 [Insert Table 4 about here]

47 48 *Test-Retest Stability of the PCPQ Scales and Composite Scales*

49
50 A subsample of the pain sample ($n = 146$) who repeated the full assessment battery
51
52 approximately one week following the first administration was used to examine the stability
53
54 of the scales. The test-retest statistics (correlations and t -tests) for the PCPQ specific and
55
56 composite scales from the pain sample are summarized in Table 5. As shown in these results,
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3 the test-retest stability for eight of the nine specific scales, and three of the four PCPQ
4
5 composite scales was comparable to the previously validated criterion measures (e.g., the
6
7 PCS) used in the analyses.
8

9
10 [Insert Table 5 about here]

11 *Criterion-Related Validity of the PCPQ Scales*

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13
14 The validity of the PCPQ specific and composite scales was examined by first
15
16 computing their correlations with validity criterion measures assessing pain intensity, pain
17
18 interference, depression, life satisfaction, pain catastrophizing, activity engagement, need for
19
20 pain control, and pain control beliefs. Zero order correlations are shown in Table 6.
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23 [Insert Table 6 about here]

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25 We hypothesized that adaptive and maladaptive cognitive processes would be
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27 associated with respectively better and worse pain-related criterion variables. The adaptive
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29 process of Pain Diversion (and associated Distraction and Enhancement scales) was
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31 correlated with the criterion variables in this expected direction, and as hypothesized, was
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33 significantly correlated with fewer depressive symptoms, lower pain catastrophizing, and
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35 higher life satisfaction, activity engagement and pain control beliefs. Although no *a priori*
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37 hypotheses were made for Suppression, which also loaded on to the Pain Diversion
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39 composite scale, this process emerged as adaptive in these analyses; that is, it was associated
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41 with higher life satisfaction, activity engagement, and pain control beliefs, and lower pain
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43 catastrophizing. The Pain Distancing domain (and associated Dissociation and Reappraisal
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45 scales) was expected to be an adaptive process and was correlated with higher pain control
46
47 beliefs. The composite Pain Openness scale was hypothesized to be adaptive, however it was
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49 not significantly correlated with any of the criterion variables. As expected, the Pain Focus
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51 domain was consistently associated with significantly worse scores on all of the pain-related
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53 criteria.
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3 The final set of analyses was a series of regression models further examining the
4 relation between the composite scales and the criterion variables, while controlling for pain
5 intensity. The regression findings are shown in Table 7.
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10 [Insert Table 7 about here]

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12 As shown in Table 7, parameter estimates determined that while controlling for pain
13 intensity, the PCPQ Pain Focus scale was associated with significantly worse scores on all of
14 the criterion variables; this is consistent with this domain representing a maladaptive process.
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16 The Pain Diversion scale predicted significantly higher activity engagement and stronger pain
17 control beliefs, however it was associated with a higher need for pain control. The Pain
18 Distancing scale significantly predicted variance in activity engagement and pain control
19 beliefs, with higher distancing scores predicting less engagement in activities, but stronger
20 pain control beliefs. The Pain Openness scale was significantly associated with lower pain
21 catastrophizing and need for pain control, and higher activity engagement.
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31 32 **Discussion**

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34 The primary purpose of this study was to develop and evaluate scales that could
35 measure cognitive attentional processes theorized by various models to be important in
36 chronic pain. The four PCPQ composite scales – Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, Pain
37 Focus, and Pain Openness – were found to yield a reliable assessment of *how* individuals
38 think about pain or the cognitive processes individuals typically engage in when they are in
39 pain. The nine scales that assess more specific cognitive processes were also generally
40 reliable and their pattern of correlations with pain-related criterion variables were largely
41 consistent with the putative adaptive vs. maladaptive theoretical conceptualizations. The
42 broad potential clinical and research utility of the scales was demonstrated as items were brief
43 and written at a 3rd grade reading level, thus reducing participant burden and requiring
44 minimal health literacy to comprehend.
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3 The development of a replicable factor structure assessing pain-related cognitive
4 processes suggested by the literature was a key emphasis.(6-10) Hence, a large initial item
5 pool was developed to tap the cognitive processes identified in our literature review.(13)
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10 Further, CFAs were conducted across two samples to confirm the replicability of adequate
11 model fit. Results found that not only did the nine-factor solution produce a good fit to data
12 in the derivation sample, but the model also had adequate fit in a replication sample. The
13 findings supported the existence of nine distinct cognitive process responses to pain:
14 suppression, distraction, enhancement, dissociation, reappraisal, absorption, rumination, non-
15 judgment, and acceptance.
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23 Although the scales emerging from the data were distinct, the correlations among
24 subsets of the specific scales were relatively high, and EFA showed that the 9-scales
25 differentially loaded on to four composite scales, all of which demonstrated adequate
26 reliability. The test-retest stabilities for Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, and Pain Focus
27 were satisfactory; the Pain Openness scale had test-retest stability that was low but not out of
28 keeping with values for several of the comparison scales, such as those from the SOPA and
29 CPAQ-8. We anticipate that the PCPQ composite scales will be most typically used in
30 research and clinical practice, although the individual scales could potentially facilitate more
31 nuanced empirical investigations.
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43 The Distraction, Suppression and Enhancement scales, which can provide a fine-
44 grained analysis of Pain Diversion, involve efforts to shift one's focus to something *other*
45 than the pain, but these processes, while overlapping, are conceptually distinct. Although
46 extant measures combine distraction and suppression,^{e.g.}(13, 29, 30) these processes may be
47 differentiated on the basis of the object that becomes the focus of awareness. Specifically, in
48 the process of distraction, the shift of attention is to *anything* other than the pain, whereas
49 suppression entails the intentional *ignoring* of pain, and enhancement is the deliberate
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3 deployment of attention directed towards enhancing the experience of a *positive*
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5 thought/experience. Thus, the composite Pain Diversion scale seems to tap the intentional
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7 engagement of cognitive processes associated with lessening the attention devoted to pain, or
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9 by diverting attention elsewhere. Seminowicz and Davis refer to this as “divided attention”
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11 because while one aspect of attention is directed towards non-painful information, pain still
12
13 demands attention; hence, it is likely rare that pain is completely unattended.(4) These
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15 authors state that the success of these cognitive pain diversion processes in coping with pain
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17 may be a function of the available, albeit limited, cognitive resources, as well as processing
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19 capacity.
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23 Dissociation and Reappraisal comprise the Pain Distancing composite scale.
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25 Dissociation involves a change in awareness or conscious experiencing to decrease the
26
27 intensity of pain by imaginably distancing or separating it from oneself.(13) Similarly,
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29 reappraisal is an attempt to change the conscious experience of pain by re-characterizing it as
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31 less negative and more bearable. Thus, both scales assess a form of changing one's
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33 perception or thoughts about the pain, but differ as to the type of change that is being
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35 attempted. In the mechanism of reappraisal, the observed, possibly emotion-eliciting
36
37 stimulus is reframed into non-emotional terms that are presumably more adaptive – a key
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39 strategy of Cognitive Therapy for pain.(31) Essentially, the composite Pain Distancing scale
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41 assesses a decentered, rational cognitive process, such that the pain is observed/manipulated
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43 as if “from a distance” or separate from self. Thus, this domain may assess a pain-specific
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45 form of cognitive defusion (as in the Psychological Flexibility Model),(10) which has also
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47 been referred to as reperceiving.(32)
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52 Absorption and Rumination were found to form the Pain Focus domain. Absorption is
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54 the immersion of oneself in a single experience, such as pain, and is conceived to be an
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56 intentional and perhaps effortful process. On the other hand, rumination has historically been
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3 conceptualized as a maladaptive, automatic process(33) that involves a “tape loop” type of
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5 repetitive focus on negative images, thoughts, or experiences, also referred to as worry in the
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7 Misdirected Problem Solving Model.(9) The composite Pain Focus scale has items designed
8
9 to capture cognitive processes that keep attention “locked” onto the pain stimulus. The Pain
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11 Focus scale may tap a hypervigilant attentional bias towards pain, which is a key component
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13 of both the Misdirected Problem Solving Model,(9) as well as the FAM,(6, 7) and is often
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15 assessed using computerized tasks of attentional bias.(34-36) Consistent with this, results
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17 indicated that the Pain Focus scale and its Rumination component are strongly related to pain
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19 catastrophizing, which has been hypothesized to amplify the pain experience via exaggerated
20
21 attention biases to sensory and affective pain information.(37) The difference between PCPQ
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23 Rumination and the PCS is primarily that the former avoids reference to specific conscious
24
25 cognitive content and isolates the *process* of rumination, whereas the latter emphasizes the
26
27 ruminative content and the severity of its emotional aspects.
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32 The fourth composite scale, Pain Openness, is comprised of the Non-Judgment and
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34 Acceptance scales, key processes in the Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) Non-judgment
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36 encapsulates a relationship to pain devoid of attachment and aversion in the form of
37
38 categories such as “acceptable” or “unacceptable”. The process of acceptance however, may
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40 function in parallel to this non-judgmental approach in the sense that acceptance also entails a
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42 flexible attention to the pain (just as it is) that is devoid of intellectual ideals of how that
43
44 experience *should* be. Therefore, although non-judgment and acceptance are theoretically
45
46 distinct processes, they do appear to share an inherent sense of “staying open to experience”,
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48 which is consistent with the proposed interconnected nature of these processes within the
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50 Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) While results support the use of the Non-Judgment
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52 scale emerging from this research, the Acceptance scale and the combined composite scale
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54 will need further refinement to optimize internal consistency, stability, and validity. A
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3 potential explanation for the less than optimal stability of response to the Pain Openness
4 items in this study may be that it is possible that without formal training in mindfulness or
5 acceptance-oriented coping skills, these items may lack relevance to the lay person.
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9 Critically, the Non-Judgment scale provides the first measure of a core aspect of mindfulness
10 specific to the context of pain.
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14 The correlation analyses provided initial insights into the nature of the scales and
15 demonstrated that the PCPQ scales are distinct from other important measures of responses to
16 pain. Although preliminary, the regression analyses showed that the Pain Diversion, Pain
17 Distancing, and Pain Openness composite scales were associated with variables that are
18 thought to assess adaptive functioning, and therefore could potentially be protective factors
19 facilitating effective adjustment to pain. The Pain Focus domain seems to tap maladaptive
20 attentional processes as it was associated with maladaptive functioning across all of the
21 criterion validity measures. Of each of the criterion measures examined, the PCPQ scales
22 most substantially added to the prediction of pain catastrophizing and pain control efforts,
23 while controlling for pain intensity. Further research is needed to validate the PCPQ scales
24 and to more precisely determine the extent to which the processes are related to adaptive and
25 maladaptive responses to pain.
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41 The present scales, like other similar measures are dispositional, in that they ask the
42 individual to retrospectively report methods of thinking that should predict future pain
43 responding. Experimental pain paradigms are well suited for predictive studies to validate
44 the PCPQ scales, provided that situational measures are developed. Experimental tasks also
45 permit a direct, though somewhat artificial, test of the adaptiveness of the processes that are
46 assessed by PCPQ scales and provide an evaluation of the extent to which the processes
47 occur during episodes of acute pain. Experimental research would also permit studies of the
48 effects of coupling particular processes with specific content.
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Limitations

The observed preliminary psychometric properties of the PCPQ were strong; however research is needed to address the limitations of this study and further validate the measure. As is common in measure development research, the current study was conducted within an undergraduate population. Although most participants did report recent pain, as expected, the levels of disability and distress due to pain were lower than is typically found in clinical samples; therefore we cannot determine at this point the extent of the generalizability of the current findings to chronic pain populations. The reliability and validity of the scales within clinical samples needs to be established, as does the treatment sensitivity of the PCPQ scales, particularly in response to treatments designed to target specific cognitive processes. It is possible that the adaptive vs maladaptive nature of the scales might vary as a function of context (i.e., such as the context surrounding pain type, site and duration for example). Further, the lack of reverse scored items may engender acquiescence bias. However, we intentionally did *not* include reverse scored items such that assessment was focused on what the process being assessed *is* vs. what it *is not*; the problems associated with reverse scored items have been documented in regards to other cognitive measures used in pain research.(21) Another key limitation is that we do not yet know if cognitive content and process can be *functionally* separated; indeed, one needs some form of content to process (e.g., one cannot ruminate about nothing). In the PCPQ, the cognitive content was always related to the experience of pain. However, the degree of unique and shared variance between cognitive content and process, and whether treatments can actually specifically target only (or even mostly) one or both of these, needs to be investigated. Finally, future research is needed to examine the correlations between the PCPQ explicit self-report scales in relation to other measures (such as the Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire,(38) and the Experience of Cognitive Intrusion of Pain scale(39)) as well as to experimental implicit

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3 tests of cognitive processes (such as a computerized attention bias paradigm, for example) to
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5 further examine the validity of the PCPQ scales.
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7
8 *Conclusions*

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10 Although treatments such as mindfulness- and acceptance-based approaches have
11
12 been developed to target various cognitive processes, to date, there has not been a validated,
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14 un-confounded measure of cognitive processes specific to pain available to evaluate their
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16 precise influence on pain adjustment and treatment outcomes; the use of the PCPQ scales will
17
18 allow for such an evaluation.(40) Further, the psychological factors of distress and
19
20 emotional response have been implicated in the transition of acute to chronic pain.(1, 41) It
21
22 is possible that *how* individuals think about their pain in the acute phase (such as post-
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24 surgically) might also influence recovery and rehabilitation trajectory; therefore,
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26 administration of the PCPQ in this context might identify further potential risk factors
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28 contributing to the development of chronic pain and disability. Advancing our understanding
29
30 of the cognitive processes associated with pain and coping thus provides insight into
31
32 aetiology and maintenance of pain symptoms. Subsequently, this information has the capacity
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34 to target pain treatments, and match the most suitable type of treatment approach to each
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36 individual patient.
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For Review Only

Running Head: MEASURING PAIN-RELATED COGNITIVE PROCESSES

The Pain-Related Cognitive Processes Questionnaire (PCPQ): Development and Validation

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Number of pages: 37 (including title page, abstract, and 7 tables)

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Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding: This study was supported by a Faculty Research Grant from the Australian Catholic University. The authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

Abstract

Objective. Cognitive processes may be characterized as *how* individuals think, whereas cognitive content constitutes *what* individuals think. Both cognitive processes and cognitive content are theorized to play important roles in chronic pain adjustment, and treatments have been developed to target both. However, the evaluation of treatments that target cognitive processes is limited because extant measures do not satisfactorily separate cognitive process from cognitive content. The current study aimed to develop a self-report inventory of potentially adaptive and presumed maladaptive attentional processes that may occur when someone is experiencing pain.

Methods. Scales were derived from a large item pool by successively applying confirmatory factor analysis to item data from 2 undergraduate samples (Ns of 393 and 233).

Results. Items, which were generated to avoid confounding of cognitive content with cognitive processes, represented 9 constructs: Suppression, Distraction, Enhancement, Dissociation, Reappraisal, Absorption, Rumination, Non-Judgment, and Acceptance. The resulting 9 scales formed the Pain-Related Cognitive Process Questionnaire (PCPQ), and scale correlations produced 4 **conceptually distinct** composite scales: Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, Pain Focus, and Pain Openness. Internal consistency reliabilities of the 9 scales were adequate ($\alpha \geq .70$) to good, and the four composite scales had $\alpha \geq .79$. Correlations with pain-related criterion variables were generally consistent with putative constructs.

Conclusions. The developed PCPQ scales offer a comprehensive assessment of important cognitive processes specific to pain. Overall, the findings suggest that the PCPQ scales may prove useful for evaluating the role of pain-related cognitive processes in studies of chronic pain.

Key Words: Cognitive Process, Chronic Pain, Assessment

Introduction

There is now compelling evidence demonstrating that the transition from acute to chronic pain entails complex structural, functional and chemical changes within the brain and central nervous system.(1, 2) Further, there is inherent overlap in the neural networks shared by these changes and cognitive factors.(3, 4) Hence, the interaction between pain and cognitions, including executive attentional function, has become an area of intensive investigation.(4, 5) A number of models hypothesizing an important role for central attentional cognitive processes in pain have been proposed, and include the Fear-Avoidance Model (FAM),(6, 7) the Neurocognitive Model of Attention,(8) the Misdirected Problem Solving Model,(9) and the Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) Stemming from these models, various treatments have been proposed, including exposure, mindfulness and acceptance-based approaches. Jensen and colleagues have proposed a key distinction between two types of cognitions: one representing cognitive *processes* (*how* individuals think about pain) and cognitive *content* (*what* individuals think).(11, 12) While there exist reliable and valid measures of **pain-related** cognitive content, there has been no systematic work to develop a comprehensive set of pain-specific measures that assess pain-related cognitive processes **as distinct from** cognitive content.

In a recent review of the measures used in pain research **that could potentially be used** to assess cognitive processes,(13) we identified that only 9% of retrieved measures provided a un-confounded assessment of cognitive process, and most of these were not pain-specific. Of the processes identified in these measures, results indicated an emerging conceptual framework suggesting six theoretically adaptive processes (distraction, enhancement, dissociation, non-judgment, acceptance, reappraisal), two maladaptive (absorption, rumination) and one process that has been viewed by different theories as either adaptive or maladaptive (suppression). Notably, no pain-specific measure was identified that provides a

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2
3 un-confounded assessment of absorption, rumination, enhancement or non-judgment.(13)

4
5 Further, many of the pain-specific **measures** assessing the other cognitive processes consist of
6
7 only one or two items, which limits their reliability.
8

9
10 **Theoretically, the cognitive process of distraction has been described as “divided**
11 **attention” and** entails diverting attention away from pain by attending to something else; **the**
12 **cognitive process of** enhancement is distraction that involves diverting attention to positive
13
14 thoughts.(4) Suppression consists of diverting thoughts by conscious suppression, **and**
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16 **captures a form of cognitive** avoidance. In contrast, dissociation **(also known as “defusion”**
17
18 **in the Psychological Flexibility Model)** and reappraisal are ways of attending to pain that
19
20 either distance oneself from the pain or make the pain more tolerable. Non-judgment
21
22 encapsulates an open monitoring of experience **(or “attention to the present” in the**
23
24 **Psychological Flexibility Model)**, without conceptual overlay in the form of labels such as
25
26 “good” or “bad”. Similarly, acceptance is viewed as the active process of allowing
27
28 experience to *be* experience, without a need for it to be different. Finally, absorption refers to
29
30 an intense, **hypervigilant** intentional or unintentional focusing on pain sensations **(emphasized**
31
32 **in the FAM),** and rumination pertains to an unintentional preoccupation with pain, **and is a**
33
34 **central tenet in the Misdirected Problem Solving Model.**
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41 **To various degrees, these nine cognitive processes are emphasized (to a greater or lesser**
42
43 **extent, depending on the model) in the extant attentional pain models. However, the lack of a**
44
45 **valid and reliable measure of these cognitive process domains limits our ability to test these**
46
47 **models and the mechanisms of the treatments stemming from these models. Thus, to**
48
49 **evaluate** the unique role **that** these processes play in chronic pain coping and treatment, a
50
51 valid and reliable measure of pain-related cognitive processes is needed. To address this
52
53 need, the focus of the current study was to develop a measure with a replicable factor
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55 structure that assesses each of the nine cognitive process responses to pain: the Pain-Related
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3 Cognitive Process Questionnaire (PCPQ). We hypothesized that items created for the
4
5 measure would evidence a 9-factor solution, and that these factors might also load on to a
6
7 smaller set of composite cognitive process scales. To more closely examine the nature of the
8
9 PCPQ scales, we also investigated their association with theoretically-relevant, pain-related
10
11 criterion validity variables.
12

13 14 **Methods**

15
16 *Study Design.* This study employed a repeated measures online survey across two
17
18 undergraduate samples. The survey included the initial pool of developed PCPQ items and
19
20 pain-related validity criterion scales thought to reflect adaptive responses (e.g., measures of
21
22 perceived control over pain). These pain-related validity criterion scales were expected to be
23
24 positively associated with the adaptive PCPQ scales (Distraction, Enhancement, Dissociation,
25
26 Non-Judgment, Acceptance and Reappraisal) and negatively associated with the maladaptive
27
28 PCPQ scales (Absorption, Rumination). The survey also included validity criterion scales
29
30 thought to reflect maladaptive responses (e.g., pain catastrophizing, pain interference), which
31
32 were expected to show the opposite pattern of associations with the PCPQ scales as the
33
34 adaptive validity criterion measures. Because different theoretical perspectives identify
35
36 suppression as either adaptive or maladaptive, no *a priori* hypotheses were made regarding
37
38 this cognitive process.
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43 Sample 1 was recruited from the University of Alabama and sample 2 from the
44
45 University of Queensland. Participants in both samples completed the online survey, which
46
47 included the initial pool of developed PCPQ items as well as pain-related outcomes and
48
49 validity criterion variables. The battery of measures was completed twice by sample 1,
50
51 approximately one week apart. One other measure of the behavioral inhibition and activation
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53 systems in the context of pain was concurrently developed with the data obtained from
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55 sample 1 (assessing constructs theoretically distinct from those assessed by the PCPQ
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3 measure developed in the current study), and an article describing that measure is currently
4
5 under review. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of
6
7 Alabama (sample 1) and by the Behavioural & Social Sciences Ethical Review Committee at
8
9 the University of Queensland (sample 2).
10

11 *Item Pool Development.* Item development was informed via (1) induction from the
12
13 domains of pain-related cognitive processes emerging from our content review of coping
14
15 measures used in pain research (i.e., absorption, dissociation, reappraisal, distraction,
16
17 suppression, acceptance, rumination, enhancement, and a non-judgmental approach (13)), and
18
19 (2) deduction from theory that is closely aligned with those identified cognitive processes
20
21 (e.g., theories underlying cognitive therapy theory for reappraisal, acceptance and
22
23 commitment therapy for acceptance, mindfulness theory for a non-judgmental approach to
24
25 pain, as well as the other models described in the Introduction). Each author wrote items
26
27 designed to tap each domain until approximately 13-17 initial non-overlapping items were
28
29 developed for each domain. Each item was confirmed by each member of the investigative
30
31 team to capture a specific cognitive process that was not confounded by cognitive content;
32
33 the only “content” of the item was specific to pain (e.g., not emotional or social response to
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35 pain or beliefs about pain).
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41 The content and structure of these initial items was further refined via communication
42
43 and consensus among the investigators, resulting in a total of 130 items in the initial item
44
45 pool. The items were reviewed to ensure that each one was related to pain, did not contain
46
47 double negatives to avoid confusion, and did not include complex sentence structure or
48
49 passive/ambiguous language. No reverse scored items were included such that assessment
50
51 was focused on what the process being assessed *is* vs. what it *is not*. We sought to initially
52
53 construct scales on the basis of *a priori* item assignment to the nine different cognitive
54
55 process domains. The readability of the instructions and items was considered in this initial
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3 item development stage, with all measure content and items calculated by the Flesch-Kincaid
4
5 readability statistics to be at the 3rd grade reading level. A response format indicating degree
6
7 of endorsement for each pain-related cognitive process was selected to quantify how often
8
9 individuals engage in each process *when in pain*, which is similar to the response format of
10
11 the widely used Pain Catastrophizing Scale.(14)
12

13
14 *Setting and Participants.* The online nature of this research allowed the option for
15
16 undergraduate participants across both samples to complete the assessment batteries from a
17
18 location of their choosing. The study advertised that only individuals reporting chronic pain
19
20 (i.e., pain most days of the month in the last 3-months) or recurrent pain (pain at least four
21
22 times in the last three months or twice in the past month) were allowed to sign-up to
23
24 participate. Within Sample 1, a total of 457 undergraduate students were recruited from the
25
26 University of Alabama subject pool, that consisted of first to fourth year undergraduate
27
28 students enrolled in psychology courses. Of those recruited, 395 participants completed the
29
30 Time 1 battery and met the study eligibility criteria (see analysis section), and 393 cases were
31
32 used to derive the scales after eliminating two cases with all PCPQ item data missing. A
33
34 subset of these participants did not endorse chronic or recurrent pain, hence these participants
35
36 were omitted from the planned validity analyses which were conducted with what is referred
37
38 to henceforth as the ‘pain sample’ (n = 321; comprised of participants who did endorse
39
40 chronic or recurrent pain). Of the participants comprising the pain sample, 146 completed the
41
42 Time 2 assessment battery, and these data were used for the planned test-retest stability
43
44 analyses. Sample 2 was recruited as a replication sample from the University of Queensland
45
46 subject pool, which also consisted of first to fourth year undergraduate students enrolled in
47
48 psychology courses. A total of 246 undergraduates were recruited for participation and 233
49
50 completed the Time 1 assessment battery and met the eligibility criteria (see analysis section).
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52 These participants (n = 233; 10 of whom did not endorse recurrent or chronic pain) were used
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3 to test the replicability of the model derived from sample 1. Demographic information for the
4
5 total sample 1 and sample 2, and pain information for the pain sample is presented in Table 1.
6

7 [Insert Table 1 about here]
8

9
10 *Measures*

11 *Demographic and Pain Information.* Participant demographic characteristics were
12 gathered from a brief questionnaire that was developed for this research. The demographic
13 variables of interest were race/ethnicity, age, and sex. Participants were asked to provide
14 information pertaining to chronic and/or recurrent pain (utilized for determining
15 inclusion/exclusion for the validity analyses), pain type, pain site, pain duration, and other
16 medical diagnoses.
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25 *Pain Intensity.* Pain intensity data were collected via the Brief Pain Inventory
26 (BPI).(15) Pain severity scores were obtained from the mean of four items, in which
27 respondents rate their most severe pain, least severe pain, average pain over the past week,
28 and current pain on an 11-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = *No pain* to 10 = *Pain as bad as*
29 *you can imagine*. The BPI has demonstrated excellent internal consistency and concurrent
30 validity via its associations with other pain instruments in other samples of individuals with
31 pain.(15) The BPI Pain Intensity scale was used as one of the criterion measure in this study,
32 and therefore BPI data were analyzed for the pain sample only; its internal consistency in this
33 sample was adequate ($\alpha = .78$).
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45 *Pain Interference and Depression.* Two Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement
46 Information System (PROMIS) short-form scales were used to assess pain interference and
47 depressive symptoms.(16) The scales consist of 4 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale
48 ranging from 1 to 5 with anchors unique to each construct. Higher scores indicate higher
49 levels of pain interference and depressive symptoms. The PROMIS scales were developed
50 using item-response theory and have been shown to have good construct validity and
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3 reliability.(16) Good internal consistency for the pain interference and depressive symptom
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5 scales was demonstrated in the pain sample of the current study ($\alpha = .86$ and $.89$,
6
7 respectively).

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10 *Life Satisfaction.* The Quality of Life Scale (QOLS) assesses life satisfaction in several
11
12 areas.(17) A life satisfaction score was obtained by summing the respondent's ratings on the
13
14 7 items rated on a 7-point self-report scale ranging from 1 = *Totally unsatisfying* to 7 =
15
16 *Completely satisfying*. Total scores range from 7 to 49 with higher scores indicating greater
17
18 satisfaction. The QOLS taps a unique construct that differs from pain or disability, as
19
20 demonstrated by its only moderate correlations with distress, and weak correlations with
21
22 measures of functioning and pain intensity.(17) The QOLS has been demonstrated to be
23
24 internally consistent, reliable across time, and representative of a single construct.(17) The
25
26 internal consistency of the QOLS in the pain sample of the current study was good ($\alpha = .84$).
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30 *Pain Catastrophizing.* The Pain Catastrophizing Scale (PCS) was used to assess patient
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32 report of catastrophic thinking.(14) The total score of the 13-item measure was used, and
33
34 asks respondents to rate, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *All the*
35
36 *time*, the degree to which they have certain thoughts and feelings when experiencing pain.
37
38 The raw scores are summed and higher scores indicate greater use of catastrophic thinking.
39
40 The PCS has exhibited strong internal consistency, concurrent and discriminant validity, and
41
42 high test-retest reliability over a 6-week period.(14, 18, 19) Excellent internal consistency for
43
44 the PCS total score in the pain sample was shown ($\alpha = .93$).
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48 *Activity Engagement & Need for Pain Control.* The Chronic Pain Acceptance
49
50 Questionnaire-8 item (CPAQ-8) was used to measure acceptance of pain.(20) Participants
51
52 rate the extent to which the eight statements about pain acceptance are true for them on a
53
54 Likert scale ranging from 0 = *Never true* to 6 = *Always true*, and higher scores indicate
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56 greater levels of acceptance. The CPAQ-8 consists of two subscales originally labelled
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3 Activity Engagement and Pain Willingness. However, given a recent evaluation determined
4 that *all* of the item content assessing “pain willingness” reflects a perceived need or desire for
5 pain control (not a willingness to experience pain) it was recommended that the labels
6 Activity Engagement and Pain Control be used by researchers.(21) In the current study, to
7 distinguish the latter scale from other measures of adaptive beliefs assessing perceived
8 control over pain (e.g., (22)), we use the label “Need for Pain Control”, which taps a
9 maladaptive approach to chronic pain. The CPAQ-8 has demonstrated adequate-good internal
10 reliability ($\alpha = .77$ to $.89$), strong convergent validity, and good concurrent criterion
11 validity.(20, 23) Good internal consistency was found in the pain sample for the current
12 study for the Activity Engagement subscale ($\alpha = .81$), and internal consistency was adequate
13 for the Need for Pain Control subscale ($\alpha = .67$).

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Pain Control Beliefs. The Survey Of Pain Attitudes (SOPA) was used to assess pain
control beliefs.(24, 25) Each of the five pain control belief items are rated on a 5-point scale
ranging from 0 = *This is very untrue for me* to 4 = *This is very true for me*. Higher scores
indicate greater endorsement of pain control beliefs. The SOPA pain control beliefs scale has
been shown to provide a reliable and valid assessment of this domain.(24, 25) In the pain
sample, the SOPA pain control beliefs scale showed adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .65$).

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Procedures. Participants located at both universities learned about the study through
the Psychology Subject Pool website, and if they chose to sign up for study participation they
were provided access to the online study link. Upon accessing the link (through Qualtrics),
potential participants were asked to read a Participant Information Sheet, which informed
them about the study procedures and their rights as a participant. If they agreed to
participate, they were then asked to complete each of the Time 1 survey questionnaires. At
Time 2, one week later, the sample 1 participants were emailed a link to respond to the same
assessment battery as that completed at Time 1, minus the demographic and pain questions.

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3 Participants were given course credit and were provided with a debriefing sheet at completion
4 of each survey. Each of the measures in the assessment batteries was presented in a
5
6 randomized delivery format to control for potential method bias; individual item
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8 administration for the PCPQ items was also random, although the items of all other measures
9
10 were delivered in the order in which they were validated in their respective measures.
11
12

13 *Statistical Analyses*

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15
16 Statistical analyses were accomplished with SPSS version 22 and Mplus version
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18 7.4.(26) SPSS was used primarily for assessment of scale reliabilities, whereas Mplus
19
20 analyses included exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)
21
22 with weighted least squares mean and variance adjusted (WLSMV) estimation for ordered
23
24 categorical item data and robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation for continuous data
25
26 (more than five values or ordered categories). MLR corrects the chi-square test and standard
27
28 errors of parameter estimates for non-normality.(26) Mplus uses all available information for
29
30 analysis but does eliminate cases when data are missing for an exogenous variable or for an
31
32 entire case. A few cases were excluded beforehand because they were missing all or most
33
34 data for the PCPQ items. Mplus handled missing data with full information maximum
35
36 likelihood (FIML) estimation, whereas analyses with SPSS used listwise deletion. Cases with
37
38 a completion time of less than 15 minutes were also excluded, as below 15 minutes was more
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40 than 2 SDs below the mean time of completion, suggesting a random, or otherwise biased
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42 response pattern.
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47 Model fit in Mplus analyses was judged by the chi-square goodness-of-fit test and by
48
49 fit indices. The goodness-of-fit test provides the statistical significance of the deviation of the
50
51 model-generated covariance from the actual covariance matrix, but it is sensitive to sample
52
53 size, because the power to detect differences increases with sample size. Fit indices, which
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55 were chosen based on recommendations of Brown (27) and Hu and Bentler,(28) were the
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3 root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the comparative fit Index (CFI) for
4 all analyses, and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was computed for MLR
5 analyses. RMSEA \leq .06 and CFIs \geq .95 represent good fit, according to the research of Hu
6 and Bentler,(28) but Brown (27) suggests that values of CFI \geq .90 and RMSEA \leq .08 are
7 often considered to indicate acceptable fit. An SRMR \leq .08 is indicative of adequate fit.(27,
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16 Results

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19 Statistical analyses were used first to derive a set of nine PCPQ scales from the initial
20 pool of 130 items and then to evaluate the nine scales in relation to published scales that were
21 deemed relevant to the concurrent validity of the PCPQ scales. The data from sample 1 who
22 had taken 15-minutes or longer to complete the tests (n = 393) were used to construct the
23 PCPQ scales and determine their internal consistency. The data from participants in sample 2
24 who completed the survey in \geq 15 minutes (n = 233) were used to investigate replicability of
25 the factor structure. The concurrent validity analyses were conducted only on a subsample of
26 sample 1 participants – the pain sample – which consisted of 321 students (249 women and
27 72 men), who were predominantly Caucasian (83%), and 18 to 23 years of age (M = 18.84,
28 SD = 0.96). A smaller subset of the pain sample completed the Time 2 assessment battery,
29 and these data were used to examine the one-week test-retest stability of the scales (n = 146);
30 this subsample was mostly female (n = 111), Caucasian (86%), with a mean age of 18.9 (SD
31 = .91).
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48 *Derivation of the Nine PCPQ Scales*

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50 Because the large number of initial items made Mplus analysis with WLSMV
51 intractable, the item data for the prospective nine scales were split into two parts (5 scales and
52 4 scales) for separate analyses, and 393 participants were randomly assigned to a derivation
53 sample (N = 194) and a cross-validation sample (N = 199). CFAs with items assigned
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3 according to *a priori* theoretical specification to oblique factors were conducted on the two
4
5 sets of prospective scales in the derivation sample, and items with low loadings or large
6
7 cross-loadings were excluded until adequate model fit was achieved. The two models, one
8
9 with five factors and the other with four, were applied to the data in the cross-validation
10
11 sample to assess shrinkage, which was deemed reasonable. The two models with a reduced
12
13 number of items were then combined to form nine factors, and further modifications were
14
15 made to improve model fit in the full sample (N = 393) until each of the nine scales had 5-6
16
17 items. The final nine-factor model fit the data well. Fit indices were respectable (RMSEA =
18
19 .038, CFI = .95), but the goodness-of-fit test was significant, $\chi^2(1289, N = 393) = 2037.16, p$
20
21 $< .001$. However, sample 2, was available to assess fit shrinkage in replication. As expected,
22
23 model fit in replication was reduced, but indices suggested an adequate fit (RMSEA = .046,
24
25 CFI = .92). The goodness-of-fit statistic was significant, $\chi^2(1289, N = 233) = 1914.65, p <$
26
27 $.001$.

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31
32 Table 2 shows items for the nine PCPQ scales with standardized factor loadings from
33
34 CFAs for the final model with the full derivation sample (sample 1: N = 393) and the
35
36 replication sample (sample 2: N = 233). Factor correlations ranged from -.39 between
37
38 Rumination and Enhancement to .89 between Rumination and Absorption in sample 1 and
39
40 from -.50 between Rumination and Enhancement to .87 between Distraction and
41
42 Enhancement in sample 2.

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45 [Insert Table 2 about here]

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47 Correlations between the nine scale scores (average item scores) for sample 1 are
48
49 shown in Table 3, which also gives the means, SDs, and internal consistency reliabilities (α
50
51 coefficients). The α coefficients in sample 1 had a median of .84 with Rumination having the
52
53 highest reliability and Acceptance having the lowest. Reliabilities for sample 2 were similar
54
55 to those in sample 1 and varied from .90 for Rumination to .66 for Acceptance (median =
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3 .84). With the exception of the Acceptance scale, reliabilities were adequate ($\alpha \geq .70$) in both
4
5 samples, and the Rumination scale had the highest degree of internal consistency ($\alpha = .90$) in
6
7 both samples.
8

9
10 [Insert Table 3 about here]

11 12 *Derivation of Composite PCPQ Scales*

13
14 The nine PCPQ factor scales proved to have adequate psychometric properties for the
15
16 most part, but correlations between scales were often high, indicating that broader (second-
17
18 order) factors could be important determinants of scale covariances. Consequently, the nine
19
20 PCPQ scales were submitted to EFA with MLR estimation and an oblimin rotation, and four
21
22 factors fit the data very well (RMSEA = 0.00, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = 0.003) and generated a
23
24 non-significant goodness-of-fit test, $\chi^2(6, N = 393) = 2.18, p = .9023$.
25
26

27
28 Standardized factor loadings from the EFA of the PCPQ scales in sample 1 are shown
29
30 in Table 4. Based on this analysis, four composite, superordinate scales were constructed.
31
32 The Pain Diversion scale ($M = 2.82, SD = .70, \alpha = .93$) was comprised of the 17 items from
33
34 the Suppression, Distraction, and Enhancement scales, and the 12 items from the Dissociation
35
36 and Reappraisal scales were combined to form the Pain Distancing scale ($M = 2.35, SD =$
37
38 $.74, \alpha = .90$). The Pain Focus scale ($M = 2.91, SD = .79, \alpha = .92$) contained the 12 items
39
40 from Absorption and Rumination, and the Pain Openness scale ($M = 2.69, SD = .58, \alpha = .79$)
41
42 consisted of the 12 items from the Acceptance and Non-Judgment scales.
43
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45
46 [Insert Table 4 about here]

47 48 *Test-Retest Stability of the PCPQ Scales and Composite Scales*

49
50 A subsample of the pain sample ($n = 146$) who repeated the full assessment battery
51
52 approximately one week following the first administration was used to examine the stability
53
54 of the scales. The test-retest statistics (correlations and t -tests) for the PCPQ specific and
55
56 composite scales from the pain sample are summarized in Table 5. As shown in these results,
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3 the test-retest stability for eight of the nine specific scales, and three of the four PCPQ
4
5 composite scales was comparable to the previously validated criterion measures (e.g., the
6
7 PCS) used in the analyses.
8

9
10 [Insert Table 5 about here]

11 *Criterion-Related Validity of the PCPQ Scales*

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13
14 The validity of the PCPQ specific and composite scales was examined by first
15
16 computing their correlations with validity criterion measures assessing pain intensity, pain
17
18 interference, depression, life satisfaction, pain catastrophizing, activity engagement, need for
19
20 pain control, and pain control beliefs. Zero order correlations are shown in Table 6.
21

22
23 [Insert Table 6 about here]

24
25 We hypothesized that adaptive and maladaptive cognitive processes would be
26
27 associated with respectively better and worse pain-related criterion variables. The adaptive
28
29 process of Pain Diversion (and associated Distraction and Enhancement scales) was
30
31 correlated with the criterion variables in this expected direction, and as hypothesized, was
32
33 significantly correlated with fewer depressive symptoms, lower pain catastrophizing, and
34
35 higher life satisfaction, activity engagement and pain control beliefs. Although no *a priori*
36
37 hypotheses were made for Suppression, which also loaded on to the Pain Diversion
38
39 composite scale, this process emerged as adaptive in these analyses; that is, it was associated
40
41 with higher life satisfaction, activity engagement, and pain control beliefs, and lower pain
42
43 catastrophizing. The Pain Distancing domain (and associated Dissociation and Reappraisal
44
45 scales) was expected to be an adaptive process and was correlated with higher pain control
46
47 beliefs. The composite Pain Openness scale was hypothesized to be adaptive, however it was
48
49 not significantly correlated with any of the criterion variables. As expected, the Pain Focus
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51 domain was consistently associated with significantly worse scores on all of the pain-related
52
53 criteria.
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3 The final set of analyses was a series of regression models further examining the
4 relation between the composite scales and the criterion variables, while controlling for pain
5 intensity. The regression findings are shown in Table 7.
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10 [Insert Table 7 about here]

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12 As shown in Table 7, parameter estimates determined that while controlling for pain
13 intensity, the PCPQ Pain Focus scale was associated with significantly worse scores on all of
14 the criterion variables; this is consistent with this domain representing a maladaptive process.
15 The Pain Diversion scale predicted significantly higher activity engagement and stronger pain
16 control beliefs, however it was associated with a higher need for pain control. The Pain
17 Distancing scale significantly predicted variance in activity engagement and pain control
18 beliefs, with higher distancing scores predicting less engagement in activities, but stronger
19 pain control beliefs. The Pain Openness scale was significantly associated with lower pain
20 catastrophizing and need for pain control, and higher activity engagement.
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31 Discussion

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33 The primary purpose of this study was to develop and evaluate scales that could
34 measure cognitive attentional processes theorized by various models to be important in
35 chronic pain. The four PCPQ composite scales – Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, Pain
36 Focus, and Pain Openness – were found to yield a reliable assessment of how individuals
37 think about pain or the cognitive processes individuals typically engage in when they are in
38 pain. The nine scales that assess more specific cognitive processes were also generally
39 reliable and their pattern of correlations with pain-related criterion variables were largely
40 consistent with the putative adaptive vs. maladaptive theoretical conceptualizations. The
41 broad potential clinical and research utility of the scales was demonstrated as items were brief
42 and written at a 3rd grade reading level, thus reducing participant burden and requiring
43 minimal health literacy to comprehend.
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3 The development of a replicable factor structure assessing pain-related cognitive
4 processes suggested by the literature was a key emphasis. (6-10) Hence, a large initial item
5 pool was developed to tap the cognitive processes identified in our literature review. (13)
6
7 Further, CFAs were conducted across two samples to confirm the replicability of adequate
8 model fit. Results found that not only did the nine-factor solution produce a good fit to data
9 in the derivation sample, but the model also had adequate fit in a replication sample. The
10 findings supported the existence of nine distinct cognitive process responses to pain:
11 suppression, distraction, enhancement, dissociation, reappraisal, absorption, rumination, non-
12 judgment, and acceptance.
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23 Although the scales emerging from the data were distinct, the correlations among
24 subsets of the specific scales were relatively high, and EFA showed that the 9-scales
25 differentially loaded on to four composite scales, all of which demonstrated adequate
26 reliability. The test-retest stabilities for Pain Diversion, Pain Distancing, and Pain Focus
27 were satisfactory; the Pain Openness scale had test-retest stability that was low but not out of
28 keeping with values for several of the comparison scales, such as those from the SOPA and
29 CPAQ-8. We anticipate that the PCPQ composite scales will be most typically used in
30 research and clinical practice, although the individual scales could potentially facilitate more
31 nuanced empirical investigations.
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43 The Distraction, Suppression and Enhancement scales, which can provide a fine-
44 grained analysis of Pain Diversion, involve efforts to shift one's focus to something *other*
45 than the pain, but these processes, while overlapping, are conceptually distinct. Although
46 extant measures combine distraction and suppression,^{e.g.} (13, 29, 30) these processes may be
47 differentiated on the basis of the object that becomes the focus of awareness. Specifically, in
48 the process of distraction, the shift of attention is to *anything* other than the pain, whereas
49 suppression entails the intentional *ignoring* of pain, and enhancement is the deliberate
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3 deployment of attention directed towards enhancing the experience of a *positive*
4 thought/experience. Thus, the composite Pain Diversion scale seems to tap the intentional
5 engagement of cognitive processes associated with lessening the attention devoted to pain, or
6 by diverting attention elsewhere. Seminowicz and Davis refer to this as “divided attention”
7 because while one aspect of attention is directed towards non-painful information, pain still
8 demands attention; hence, it is likely rare that pain is completely unattended.(4) These
9 authors state that the success of these cognitive pain diversion processes in coping with pain
10 may be a function of the available, albeit limited, cognitive resources, as well as processing
11 capacity.

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23 Dissociation and Reappraisal comprise the Pain Distancing composite scale.
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Dissociation involves a change in awareness or conscious experiencing to decrease the
intensity of pain by imaginably distancing or separating it from oneself.(13) Similarly,
reappraisal is an attempt to change the conscious experience of pain by re-characterizing it as
less negative and more bearable. Thus, both scales assess a form of changing one's
perception or thoughts about the pain, but differ as to the type of change that is being
attempted. In the mechanism of reappraisal, the observed, possibly emotion-eliciting
stimulus is reframed into non-emotional terms that are presumably more adaptive – a key
strategy of Cognitive Therapy for pain.(31) Essentially, the composite Pain Distancing scale
assesses a decentered, rational cognitive process, such that the pain is observed/manipulated
as if “from a distance” or separate from self. Thus, this domain may assess a pain-specific
form of cognitive defusion (as in the Psychological Flexibility Model),(10) which has also
been referred to as reperceiving.(32)

Absorption and Rumination were found to form the Pain Focus domain. Absorption is
the immersion of oneself in a single experience, such as pain, and is conceived to be an
intentional and perhaps effortful process. On the other hand, rumination has historically been

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3 conceptualized as a maladaptive, automatic process(33) that involves a “tape loop” type of
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5 repetitive focus on negative images, thoughts, or experiences, also referred to as worry in the
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7 Misdirected Problem Solving Model.(9) The composite Pain Focus scale has items designed
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9 to capture cognitive processes that keep attention “locked” onto the pain stimulus. The Pain
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11 Focus scale may tap a hypervigilant attentional bias towards pain, which is a key component
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13 of both the Misdirected Problem Solving Model,(9) as well as the FAM,(6, 7) and is often
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15 assessed using computerized tasks of attentional bias.(34-36) Consistent with this, results
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17 indicated that the Pain Focus scale and its Rumination component are strongly related to pain
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19 catastrophizing, which has been hypothesized to amplify the pain experience via exaggerated
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21 attention biases to sensory and affective pain information.(37) The difference between PCPQ
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23 Rumination and the PCS is primarily that the former avoids reference to specific conscious
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25 cognitive content and isolates the *process* of rumination, whereas the latter emphasizes the
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27 ruminative content and the severity of its emotional aspects.
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32 The fourth composite scale, Pain Openness, is comprised of the Non-Judgment and
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34 Acceptance scales, key processes in the Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) Non-judgment
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36 encapsulates a relationship to pain devoid of attachment and aversion in the form of
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38 categories such as “acceptable” or “unacceptable”. The process of acceptance however, may
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40 function in parallel to this non-judgmental approach in the sense that acceptance also entails a
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42 flexible attention to the pain (just as it is) that is devoid of intellectual ideals of how that
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44 experience *should* be. Therefore, although non-judgment and acceptance are theoretically
45
46 distinct processes, they do appear to share an inherent sense of “staying open to experience”,
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48 which is consistent with the proposed interconnected nature of these processes within the
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50 Psychological Flexibility Model.(10) While results support the use of the Non-Judgment
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52 scale emerging from this research, the Acceptance scale and the combined composite scale
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54 will need further refinement to optimize internal consistency, stability, and validity. A
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3 potential explanation for the less than optimal stability of response to the Pain Openness
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5 items in this study may be that it is possible that without formal training in mindfulness or
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7 acceptance-oriented coping skills, these items may lack relevance to the lay person.
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10 Critically, the Non-Judgment scale provides the first measure of a core aspect of mindfulness
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12 specific to the context of pain.

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14 The correlation analyses provided initial insights into the nature of the scales and
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16 demonstrated that the PCPQ scales are distinct from other important measures of responses to
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18 pain. Although preliminary, the regression analyses showed that the Pain Diversion, Pain
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20 Distancing, and Pain Openness composite scales were associated with variables that are
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22 thought to assess adaptive functioning, and therefore could potentially be protective factors
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24 facilitating effective adjustment to pain. The Pain Focus domain seems to tap maladaptive
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26 attentional processes as it was associated with maladaptive functioning across all of the
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28 criterion validity measures. Of each of the criterion measures examined, the PCPQ scales
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30 most substantially added to the prediction of pain catastrophizing and pain control efforts,
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32 while controlling for pain intensity. Further research is needed to validate the PCPQ scales
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34 and to more precisely determine the extent to which the processes are related to adaptive and
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36 maladaptive responses to pain.
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41 The present scales, like other similar measures are dispositional, in that they ask the
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43 individual to retrospectively report methods of thinking that should predict future pain
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45 responding. Experimental pain paradigms are well suited for predictive studies to validate
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47 the PCPQ scales, provided that situational measures are developed. Experimental tasks also
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49 permit a direct, though somewhat artificial, test of the adaptiveness of the processes that are
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51 assessed by PCPQ scales and provide an evaluation of the extent to which the processes
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53 occur during episodes of acute pain. Experimental research would also permit studies of the
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55 effects of coupling particular processes with specific content.
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Limitations

The observed preliminary psychometric properties of the PCPQ were strong; however research is needed to address the limitations of this study and further validate the measure. As is common in measure development research, the current study was conducted within an undergraduate population. Although most participants did report recent pain, as expected, the levels of disability and distress due to pain were lower than is typically found in clinical samples; therefore we cannot determine at this point the extent of the generalizability of the current findings to chronic pain populations. The reliability and validity of the scales within clinical samples needs to be established, as does the treatment sensitivity of the PCPQ scales, particularly in response to treatments designed to target specific cognitive processes. It is possible that the adaptive vs maladaptive nature of the scales might vary as a function of context (i.e., such as the context surrounding pain type, site and duration for example). Further, the lack of reverse scored items may engender acquiescence bias. However, we intentionally did *not* include reverse scored items such that assessment was focused on what the process being assessed *is* vs. what it *is not*; the problems associated with reverse scored items have been documented in regards to other cognitive measures used in pain research.(21) Another key limitation is that we do not yet know if cognitive content and process can be *functionally* separated; indeed, one needs some form of content to process (e.g., one cannot ruminate about nothing). In the PCPQ, the cognitive content was always related to the experience of pain. However, the degree of unique and shared variance between cognitive content and process, and whether treatments can actually specifically target only (or even mostly) one or both of these, needs to be investigated. Finally, future research is needed to examine the correlations between the PCPQ explicit self-report scales in relation to other measures (such as the Pain Vigilance and Awareness Questionnaire,(38) and the Experience of Cognitive Intrusion of Pain scale(39)) as well as to experimental implicit

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3 tests of cognitive processes (such as a computerized attention bias paradigm, for example) to
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5 further examine the validity of the PCPQ scales.
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7
8 *Conclusions*

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10 Although treatments such as mindfulness- and acceptance-based approaches have
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12 been developed to target various cognitive processes, to date, there has not been a validated,
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14 un-confounded measure of cognitive processes specific to pain available to evaluate their
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16 precise influence on pain adjustment and treatment outcomes; the use of the PCPQ scales will
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18 allow for such an evaluation.(40) Further, the psychological factors of distress and
19
20 emotional response have been implicated in the transition of acute to chronic pain.(1, 41) It
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22 is possible that how individuals think about their pain in the acute phase (such as post-
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24 surgically) might also influence recovery and rehabilitation trajectory; therefore,
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26 administration of the PCPQ in this context might identify further potential risk factors
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28 contributing to the development of chronic pain and disability. Advancing our understanding
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30 of the cognitive processes associated with pain and coping thus provides insight into
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32 aetiology and maintenance of pain symptoms. Subsequently, this information has the capacity
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34 to target pain treatments, and match the most suitable type of treatment approach to each
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36 individual patient.
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Table 1. *Sample characteristics*

Variable	Sample 1 (n = 391 ¹)		Sample 2 (n = 233)	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	%	<i>M (SD)</i>	%
Age	19(.96)		20(5.18)	
Sex				
Male		24		24
Female		76		76
Race				
Caucasian		82		63
African-American		11		0
Asian		.5		27
Other		6.5		10
Relationship status				
Single		66		58
In a relationship/Married		34		42
Employment status				
Not working		71		50
Employed full-time		1		2
Employed part-time		28		48
<i>Pain Sample (sample 1 subsample; n = 321)</i>				
Average Pain Duration (months)	28(29)			
Primary pain region				
Head, face, mouth		24		
Lower back, sacrum, coccyx		22		
Lower limbs		16		
Abdominal (stomach)		14		
Upper shoulder and upper limbs		10		
Other		14		
Primary pain type				
Pain from injury		34		
Headache		22		
Soft tissue or muscle pain		21		
Menstrual		10		
Other (e.g., arthritis, neuropathic)		13		

¹Note, sample size is 391 as two cases had missing demographic data

Table 2. Standardized Loadings from CFAs of PCPQ Scales for Sample 1 and Sample 2 (in parentheses)

Items (in response to "When in Pain...")	PCPQ Factor		
	Suppression	Distraction	Enhancement
I stop myself from thinking about the pain	.68	(.72)	
I clear my mind of thoughts about the pain	.74	(.78)	
I pretend the pain doesn't exist	.66	(.49)	
I prevent myself from thinking about the pain	.70	(.74)	
I push down thoughts about the pain	.68	(.69)	
I avoid thinking about pain	.70	(.70)	
I focus on something other than the pain		.81	(.82)
I divert my attention away from the pain, on to something else		.76	(.72)
I think of something other than the pain		.77	(.80)
I let my mind wander from the pain		.71	(.71)
I take my mind off the pain by thinking about other things		.78	(.71)
I concentrate on pleasurable thoughts when I feel the pain			.78 (.73)
I give pleasant sensations my full attention			.61 (.69)
I focus on positive thoughts when I feel the pain			.78 (.77)
I focus on being aware of the positive things in my life			.80 (.76)
I pay attention to sensations that are more comfortable than the pain			.68 (.78)
I savor pleasant experiences other than the pain			.64 (.63)

Table 1 Continues

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Items (in response to "When in Pain...")	PCPQ Factor		
	Dissociation	Reappraisal	Absorption
I observe the pain sensations as if from a distance	.73	(.73)	
I imagine the pain sensation as an image or object that is separate from me	.78	(.76)	
I tell myself that the pain is not real	.69	(.81)	
I think of the pain as something separate from me	.72	(.79)	
I imagine that the pain is not a part of me	.80	(.75)	
I let myself have the feeling of being a detached observer of the pain	.74	(.73)	
I think about the pain in a new, more positive way		.74	(.75)
I think about the pain in a different way, so that it is more bearable		.69	(.78)
I change my thinking about pain		.72	(.66)
I change my view of the pain to make it more helpful		.78	(.78)
I alter my outlook of the pain so that it seems better		.75	(.72)
I shift my perspective of the pain so it isn't so negative		.77	(.79)
I concentrate intensely on my experience of pain			.75 (.75)
I pay close attention to the pain I am experiencing			.81 (.69)
I pay close attention to feelings of physical tension and discomfort			.73 (.71)
I deliberately notice the sensations of pain			.63 (.51)
I closely attend to the sensation of the pain			.64 (.60)
I closely examine the painful sensations			.70 (.66)

Table 1 Continues

Items (in response to "When in Pain...")	PCPQ Factor		
	Rumination	Non-Judgment	Acceptance
I am unable to think of anything other than the pain	.77	(.82)	
I become preoccupied with the pain	.85	(.73)	
I keep thinking about the pain	.85	(.84)	
Pain is the only thing on my mind	.80	(.85)	
I cannot stop thinking about the pain	.81	(.82)	
I have a hard time focusing on things other than the pain	.75	(.79)	
I do not make judgments about the pain as a "good" or "bad" experience		.63	(.73)
I do not make judgments about the pain as "acceptable" or "unacceptable"		.50	(.46)
I acknowledge the pain without judgment		.67	(.65)
I am aware of my pain but do not see it as good or bad		.68	(.73)
I do not give the pain any meaning		.61	(.62)
I do not put any labels on the pain		.54	(.52)
I allow the pain to be part of my experience			.62 (.35)
I do not fight against the pain			.40 (.32)
I allow any pain I have to be present without needing it to be different			.43 (.65)
I consent to the experience of pain			.68 (.37)
I am aware of the pain without needing it to be different than how it is			.48 (.77)
I am able to stay in touch with all sensations, including the pain, and allow them to be present			.56 (.52)

Note. All factor loadings are statistically significant ($p < .001$). $N = 393$ for sample 1, and $N = 233$ for sample 2.

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Table 3. Means, SDs, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Nine PCPQ Scales Constructed by CFA with Sample 1 (N = 391)

Scale	Mean	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Suppression	2.71	0.73	.82	1.00								
2. Distraction	3.03	0.82	.85	.70**	1.00							
3. Enhancement	2.76	0.80	.84	.71**	.72**	1.00						
4. Dissociation	2.15	0.79	.85	.50**	.29**	.46**	1.00					
5. Reappraisal	2.53	0.80	.86	.64**	.54**	.64**	.68**	1.00				
6. Absorption	2.89	0.79	.84	-.20**	-.26**	-.14**	.13**	.00	1.00			
7. Rumination	2.93	0.90	.90	-.28**	-.33**	-.21**	.01	-.12*	.76**	1.00		
8. Non-Judgment	2.63	0.72	.74	.41**	.34**	.34**	.34**	.38**	-.06	-.12*	1.00	
9. Acceptance	2.74	0.63	.68	.18**	.09	.11*	.28**	.24**	.35**	.24**	.46**	1.00

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 4. Standardized Loadings for EFA of Nine PCPQ Scales with Sample 1 Data (N = 393)

	Composite Scales			
	Pain Diversion	Pain Distancing	Pain Focus	Pain Openness
Suppression	.66	.21	-.10	.08
Distraction	.92	-.14	-.04	.03
Enhancement	.82	.12	.07	-.06
Dissociation	-.04	.91	.01	.03
Reappraisal	.39	.55	.02	.03
Absorption	.03	.04	.92	.04
Rumination	-.03	-.04	.82	-.01
Non-Judgment	.17	.12	-.20	.51
Acceptance	-.04	-.02	.07	.91

Note. Salient loadings are in boldface.

Table 5. Test-retest stability for the PCPQ specific and composite scales in sample 1
(N=146)

Scales	Time 1	Time 2	Test-retest		
	Mean(SD)	Mean(SD)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
<i>Composite Cognitive Processing Scales</i>					
Pain Diversion	2.93(.72)	2.85(.73)	1.66	.10	.69
Pain Distancing	2.35(.73)	2.35(.76)	-.002	.99	.71
Pain Focus	2.90(.81)	2.76(.82)	2.80	.01	.72
Pain Openness	2.73(.59)	2.68(.62)	.95	.34	.54
<i>Specific Cognitive Processing Scales</i>					
Suppression	2.76(.73)	2.75(.74)	.24	.81	.58
Distraction	3.20(.84)	3.02(.84)	2.87	.01	.59
Enhancement	2.88(.82)	2.82(.83)	1.09	.28	.68
Dissociation	2.15(.80)	2.18(.77)	-.50	.62	.63
Reappraisal	2.54(.82)	2.51(.89)	.49	.62	.68
Absorption	2.88(.81)	2.74(.79)	2.32	.02	.62
Rumination	2.91(.92)	2.76(.93)	2.56	.01	.72
Non-Judgment	2.67(.74)	2.64(.74)	.63	.53	.57
Acceptance	2.79(.64)	2.73(.69)	.92	.36	.41
<i>Criterion Measures</i>					
BPI Pain Interference	2.54(.89)	2.29(.88)	4.17	<.001	.67
PROMIS Depression	2.00(.87)	1.88(.89)	2.01	.05	.69
QoLS Life Satisfaction	5.17(.99)	5.18(1.03)	-.16	.87	.63
PCS Pain Catastrophizing	2.64(.86)	2.54(.85)	1.94	.05	.72
CPAQ Activity Engagement	5.61(1.00)	5.36(1.33)	2.28	.02	.38
CPAQ Need for Pain Control	3.97(1.05)	3.81(1.06)	1.87	.06	.56
SOPA Pain Control Beliefs	2.91(.86)	3.03(.81)	-2.01	.05	.58

Table 6. Correlations between the PCPQ scales and criterion variables (n=321)

PCPQ Scales	Criterion Variables							
	Pain Intensity	Pain Interference	Depression	Life Satisfaction	Pain Catastrophizing	Activity Engagement	Need For Pain Control	Pain Control Beliefs
<i>Composite PCPQ Scales</i>								
Pain Diversion	-.05	-.04	-.13*	.18**	-.26**	.15**	.01	.40**
Pain Distancing	.06	.05	.01	.07	-.09	-.08	.05	.33***
Pain Focus	.17**	.26**	.33**	-.21**	.67**	-.24**	.36**	-.26**
Pain Openness	.07	-.02	.07	.00	-.08	.07	-.04	.08
<i>Specific PCPQ Scales</i>								
Suppression	-.02	-.03	-.09	.12*	-.22**	.12*	-.03	.36**
Distraction	-.05	-.05	-.11*	.16**	-.29**	.22**	.00	.34**
Enhancement	-.06	-.03	-.14*	.20**	-.19**	.07	.06	.37**
Dissociation	.09	.09	.10	.00	-.01	-.17**	.02	.29**
Reappraisal	.01	.00	-.08	.13*	-.15**	.02	.07	.31**
Absorption	.15**	.22**	.28**	-.17**	.57**	-.19**	.32**	-.18**
Rumination	.17**	.27**	.33**	-.21**	.68**	-.25**	.36**	-.31**
Non-Judgment	.01	-.07	-.09	.08	-.22**	.06	-.10	.21**
Acceptance	.12*	.04	.22**	-.09	.11	.05	.04	-.10

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 7. Regression analysis results of the PCPQ composite scales predicting the criterion variables (n=321)

Step, Predictor Variable	R^2	ΔR^2	$F(R^2\Delta)$	β	t	p
Criterion Variable: BPI Pain Interference						
Step 1:	.22	.22	88.99			<.001
Pain Intensity				.47	.94	<.001
Step 2:	.26	.04	4.68			.001
Pain Intensity				.44	8.85	<.001
Pain Diversion				.07	1.01	.31
Pain Distancing				.03	.39	.70
Pain Focus				.22	3.99	<.001
Pain Openness				-.08	-1.52	.13
Criterion Variable: PROMIS Depression						
Step 1	.05	.05	15.41			<.001
Pain Intensity				.22	3.93	<.001
Step 2	.14	.09	8.09			<.001
Pain Intensity				.16	2.95	.003
Pain Diversion				-.04	-.47	.64
Pain Distancing				.03	.42	.67
Pain Focus				.29	4.93	<.001
Pain Openness				.05	.97	.34
Criterion Variable: QOLS Life Satisfaction						
Step 1	.001	.001	.34			.56
Pain Intensity				-.03	-.58	.56
Step 2	.05	.05	4.45			.002
Pain Intensity				.00	.06	.95
Pain Diversion				.13	1.70	.09
Pain Distancing				-.01	-.17	.86
Pain Focus				-.15	-2.46	.015
Pain Openness				-.03	-.59	.56
Criterion Variable: PCS Pain Catastrophizing						
Step 1	.08	.08	27.17			<.001
Pain Intensity				.28	5.21	<.001
Step 2	.49	.41	62.46			<.001
Pain Intensity				.18	4.34	<.001
Pain Diversion				.08	1.38	.17
Pain Distancing				-.06	-1.11	.27
Pain Focus				.66	14.47	<.001
Pain Openness				-.09	-2.02	.045
Criterion Variable: CPAQ Activity Engagement						
Step 1	.04	.04	14.77			<.001
Pain Intensity				-.21	-3.84	<.001
Step 2	.13	.09	7.93			<.001
Pain Intensity				-.17	-3.15	.002
Pain Diversion				.22	2.84	.005
Pain Distancing				-.26	-3.60	<.001
Pain Focus				-.15	-2.47	.014
Pain Openness				.12	2.07	.04

Table Continues

Criterion Variable: CPAQ Need for Pain Control						
Step 1:	.10	.10	33.38			<.001
Pain Intensity				.31	5.78	<.001
Step 2:	.23	.14	14.04			<.001
Pain Intensity				.26	5.15	<.001
Pain Diversion				.24	3.43	.001
Pain Distancing				-.05	-.72	.47
Pain Focus				.41	7.28	<.001
Pain Openness				-.11	-1.99	.048
Criterion Variable: SOPA Pain Control Beliefs						
Step 1	.05	.05	16.29			<.001
Pain Intensity				-.22	-4.04	<.001
Step 2	.23	.18	18.41			<.001
Pain Intensity				-.20	-3.91	<.001
Pain Diversion				.21	2.98	.003
Pain Distancing				.21	3.15	.002
Pain Focus				-.13	-2.26	.02
Pain Openness				-.04	-.74	.46

Note. The *p* value reported for Step 1 and 2 is the significance of the *F* change value.

The Pain-Related Cognitive Process Questionnaire (PCPQ)

Instructions: Listed below are a number of statements describing different ways of responding to pain. Use the following scale to indicate the degree to which you respond to pain in each of these ways. Please answer these questions based on your chronic and/or any intermittent pain that you experience.

0 = Not at all

1 = Rarely

2 = Sometimes

3 = Often

4 = All or most of the time

When in pain...

1. I let myself have the feeling of being a detached observer of the pain
2. I pay close attention to the pain I am experiencing
3. I think about the pain in a new, more positive way
4. I cannot stop thinking about the pain
5. I do not make judgments about the pain as a "good" or "bad" experience
6. I pay attention to sensations that are more comfortable than the pain
7. I closely examine the painful sensations
8. I become preoccupied with the pain
9. I divert my attention away from the pain, on to something else
10. I am able to stay in touch with all sensations, including the pain, and allow them to be present
11. I observe the pain sensations as if from a distance
12. I think about the pain in a different way, so that it is more bearable
13. I concentrate on pleasurable thoughts when I feel the pain
14. I alter my outlook of the pain so that it seems better
15. I am unable to think of anything other than the pain
16. I focus on something other than the pain
17. I closely attend to the sensation of the pain
18. I am aware of my pain but do not see it as good or bad
19. I prevent myself from thinking about the pain
20. I allow any pain I have to be present without needing it to be different
21. I imagine that the pain is not a part of me
22. I change my view of the pain to make it more helpful
23. I avoid thinking about pain
24. I let my mind wander from the pain
25. I do not make judgments about the pain as "acceptable" or "unacceptable"
26. I tell myself that the pain is not real
27. I focus on being aware of the positive things in my life

28. I take my mind off the pain by thinking about other things
29. I pretend the pain doesn't exist
30. I do not give the pain any meaning
31. I have a hard time focusing on things other than the pain
32. I think of something other than the pain
33. I focus on positive thoughts when I feel the pain
34. I keep thinking about the pain
35. I consent to the experience of pain
36. I give pleasant sensations my full attention
37. I concentrate intensely on my experience of pain
38. I change my thinking about pain
39. I am aware of the pain without needing it to be different than how it is
40. I stop myself from thinking about the pain
41. I imagine the pain sensation as an image or object that is separate from me
42. I savor pleasant experiences other than the pain
43. I do not put any labels on the pain
44. I pay close attention to feelings of physical tension and discomfort
45. I push down thoughts about the pain
46. I deliberately notice the sensations of pain
47. I do not fight against the pain
48. Pain is the only thing on my mind
49. I acknowledge the pain without judgment
50. I allow the pain to be part of my experience
51. I shift my perspective of the pain so it isn't so negative
52. I clear my mind of thoughts about the pain
53. I think of the pain as something separate from me

Scoring Instructions

Scale Scoring: Add all items and divide by the number of items in the scale.

Suppression: 19, 23, 29, 40, 45, 52

Distraction: 9, 16, 24, 28, 32

Enhancement: 6, 13, 27, 33, 36, 42

Absorption: 2, 7, 17, 37, 44, 46

Rumination: 4, 8, 15, 31, 34, 48

Dissociation: 1, 11, 21, 26, 41, 53

Reappraisal: 3, 12, 14, 22, 38, 51

Non-Judgmental: 5, 18, 25, 30, 43, 49

Acceptance: 10, 20, 35, 39, 47, 50

Global Scales: Add items from all first-order scales and divide by the number of scales in the global domain.

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Pain Diversion: Suppression, Distraction, Enhancement
Pain Distancing: Dissociation, Reappraisal
Pain Focus: Absorption, Rumination
Pain Openness: Non-Judgmental, Acceptance

For Review Only