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Running head: REMEMBERING THE PAIN OF SURGERY

**Remembering the pain of surgery one year later: a longitudinal examination of anxiety in children's pain memory development**

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## Introduction

Chronic pain in adolescence has been coined a “modern public health disaster” [9] yet we know little about the mechanisms by which acute pain becomes chronic. One risk factor may involve a memory bias. Pain experiences in childhood and adolescence are remembered long after they end. These memories leave a lasting impression on the developing child and set the stage for future pain experiences [21,26]. Pain memories can be accurate or biased. Children who develop more negatively biased recall of pain (recalled pain is higher than the initial pain report) are at heightened risk of developing fears of medical care [34] and higher pain and distress at subsequent pain experiences [8,21]. Pain memories have been implicated in the development of chronic pain [12]. A recent study of adolescents undergoing spinal fusion/pectus repair revealed that more negatively-biased memories of pain 2-4 months after surgery predicted higher reports of pain 2 months later, precisely when pain is at risk of becoming chronic [27]. Given the rising prevalence and debilitating impact of pediatric chronic pain [17], greater understanding of underlying mechanisms, such as pain memory, is timely.

Identifying youth at risk of developing greater negatively-biased recall of pain is a high priority since remembering pain as more intense than it was predicts greater subsequent pain intensity [21,27]. Pain-specific (pain anxiety, pain catastrophizing) and general anxiety factors (anxiety sensitivity) have been posited as risk factors for pain memory biases. Theoretical models [3,23] posit that individuals with high levels of general anxiety selectively attend to and encode threatening information, which subsequently leads to overestimation in pain recall. Empirical research with 8-12 year olds revealed that higher trait and state anxiety, and anxiety sensitivity, predicted more

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4 negatively-biased recall of cold pressor pain intensity 2 weeks later [22]. Similarly,  
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7 higher levels of pain catastrophizing among adolescents prior to major surgery were  
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9 linked to greater negatively-biased recall of pain 2-4 months later [28]. Nevertheless, the  
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11 roles of other general and pain-specific anxiety factors on children's longer-term recall of  
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13 post-surgical pain have not been investigated. Furthermore, the role of anxiety in  
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15 children's pain memory biases has not been prospectively examined at multiple time  
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17 points before and after a painful event. This is important for informing intervention  
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19 efforts aimed at modifying factors that lead to biased pain memories over time.  
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24 The present study aimed to fill these gaps. Youth undergoing major general and  
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26 orthopaedic surgeries known to lead to a 15-20% one-year incidence of chronic pain  
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28 [33,36,37,40] were prospectively followed for 1 year. Anxiety risk factors were assessed  
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30 at multiple time points over the follow-up period and their relationship to pain memories  
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32 was examined 1 year after surgery. We hypothesized that youth with higher levels of  
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34 pain-related anxiety constructs (catastrophizing, pain anxiety, anxiety sensitivity) would  
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36 develop greater negatively-biased recall of post-surgical pain. We did not have specific  
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38 hypotheses regarding the time points at which the various anxiety factors would be  
39  
40 related to pain memories, or which aspects of recall (i.e., sensory versus affective, pain at  
41  
42 rest versus during movement) would be most susceptible to bias. We expected that pain  
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44 at 6- and 12-months post-surgery would be related to 12-month negative memory biases.  
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## 50 51 **Method**

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54 The present article reports results from a larger study examining risk factors for  
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56 chronic post-surgical pain in children and youth that has not yet been published. The  
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58 methods below pertain only to the aim of the present paper, which was to examine the  
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4 influence of general and pain-specific anxiety-related factors on children's pain memory  
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7 biases 1 year after surgery.  
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### 10 ***Participants***

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13 Patients aged 8-17 years undergoing either orthopedic surgery (i.e., osteotomy,  
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15 plate insertion tibial/femur, surgery for scoliosis) or general surgery (i.e., thoracotomy,  
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17 thoracoabdominal, Nuss/Ravitch, sternotomy, laparotomy, laparoscopic-assisted;  
18  
19 colectomy, ileostomy, J-pouches) and their parents were eligible to participate in this  
20  
21 study. Children were excluded if (1) they had a documented developmental or cognitive  
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23 impairment or disability, (2) they had a diagnosis of cancer, (3) they did not speak or read  
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25 English, or (4) their parent or guardian did not speak or read English.  
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### 31 ***Measures***

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34 *The Numerical Rating Scale (NRS)*. The NRS is an 11-point verbally administered  
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36 scale that measures the subjective experience of pain intensity (I), movement-evoked pain  
37  
38 (M), or pain unpleasantness (U). The NRS-I ranged from 0 (*no pain at all*) to 10 (*worst*  
39  
40 *possible pain*). The NRS-U ranged from 0 (*not at all unpleasant/horrible/yucky*) to 10  
41  
42 (*most unpleasant/horrible/yucky*). The NRS has excellent reliability and validity, and has  
43  
44 been validated for acute postsurgical pain in children aged 7-17 years [46].  
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49 *Childhood Anxiety Sensitivity Index (CASI)*. The CASI [41] is an 18-item scale  
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51 that measures the extent to which the symptoms of anxiety (e.g., increased heart rate,  
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53 shortness of breath, racing thoughts) are feared due to the belief that they will have  
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55 harmful somatic, psychological, and/or social consequences. Each item is rated on a scale  
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57 of 1 (*none*) to 3 (*a lot*). Total scores range from 18 to 54 with higher scores indicative of  
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4 greater anxiety sensitivity. The CASI has very good internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ),  
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6 satisfactory test-retest reliability ( $r = 0.76$ ) and adequate construct validity [41]. Internal  
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8 consistency for the present study was very good T0 ( $\alpha = 0.864$ ), T1 ( $\alpha = 0.872$ ), T2 ( $\alpha =$   
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10 0.850), and T3 ( $\alpha = 0.856$ ).  
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14 *Pain Catastrophizing Scale-Children (PCS-C)*. The 13-item PCS-C [10] is a  
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16 child version of the PCS [42] that measures the thoughts and feelings children may  
17  
18 experience when they are in pain, including unrealistic beliefs that the current situation  
19  
20 will lead to the worst possible pain outcome, negative thoughts about the future and self,  
21  
22 and “an exaggerated negative ‘mental set’ brought to bear during actual or anticipated  
23  
24 pain experience” (p. 53) [43]. Each item is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 (not at  
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26 all) to 4 (all the time). The PCS-C yields a total score and three subscale scores assessing  
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28 1.) rumination, 2.) magnification, and 3.) helplessness. The PCS-C has excellent internal  
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30 consistency ( $\alpha = 0.90$ ) and strongly correlates with pain intensity ( $r=0.49$ ) and disability  
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32 ( $r=0.50$ ) [10]. Internal consistency for the present study was excellent at T0 ( $\alpha = 0.935$ ),  
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34 T1 ( $\alpha = 0.942$ ), T2 ( $\alpha = 0.926$ ), and T3 ( $\alpha = 0.932$ ).  
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41 *Child Pain Anxiety Symptoms Scale (CPASS)*. The CPASS [32] is a 20-item scale  
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43 that measures the fear and anxiety-related thoughts, feelings, behaviors, and physical  
44  
45 sensations that accompany the experience and anticipation of pain. It is a modified  
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47 version of the adult PASS-20 [20] and can be administered to children as young as eight  
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49 years old [20]. Each item is rated on a scale of 0 (*never*) to 5 (*always*) and overall scores  
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51 range from 0 to 100 with higher scores indicative of greater pain-related anxiety. The  
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53 CPASS has excellent internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.89$  to 0.903) and strong construct  
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4 validity [13,31,32]. Internal consistency for the present study was excellent at T0 ( $\alpha =$   
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7 0.920), T1 ( $\alpha = 0.941$ ), T2 ( $\alpha = 0.925$ ), and T3 ( $\alpha = 0.932$ ).  
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9         *Pain Memory Interview.* Similar to previous research with adolescents undergoing  
10 spinal fusion and pectus repair [27,28], youth completed a memory interview that probed  
11 their recall of the post-surgical pain experience while in hospital. First, youth were asked  
12 to think back to their in-hospital experience (i.e., the first day after surgery and during  
13 their entire hospital stay) and then rate the pain intensity (NRS-I), pain unpleasantness  
14 (NRS-U), and movement-evoked pain intensity (NRS-M) as they remembered  
15 experiencing these using the same scales previously administered at those time points.  
16 The pain intensity questions probed both the pain intensity at rest (stem: *when you were*  
17 *resting quietly but not sleeping*) and while moving about (stem: *when you moved around*  
18 *in your bed or tried to walk*).  
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### 33 **Procedure**

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37         The study was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Boards at The  
38 Hospital for Sick Children (SickKids) (REB file # 1000019644) and the Human  
39 Participants Review Committee at York University (Certificate # 2010 – 276). Children  
40 and their parents were recruited to participate either at the pre-operative assessment clinic  
41 or by telephone if they did not attend the pre-operative clinic. Parents provided consent to  
42 participate and children provided assent for their participation. This prospective study  
43 involved four assessment time points over the course of a year: pre-operative (T0), in-  
44 hospital recovery (T1), and 6 (T2) and 12 (T3) months after surgery.  
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56         *Pre-operative Assessment.* The baseline assessment included administration of  
57 child questionnaires that assessed previous and current pain experiences, as well as  
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4 relevant psychological and emotional functioning. The order of questionnaire  
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6 administration was randomized within subjects to minimize fatigue and order effects. The  
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8 child's pre-operative medication use (analgesics and others) was obtained from the  
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10 parents and confirmed by the patient's hospital medical record.  
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15 *Intraoperative Anaesthetic Management.* Each patient received a general  
16  
17 anaesthetic in accordance with SickKids clinical practice. The following intraoperative  
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19 factors were recorded from the surgical and anaesthetic records: duration of surgery,  
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21 analgesic/anaesthetic regime including use of epidural/regional anaesthetic techniques,  
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23 systemic opioids (i.e., opioids given for the surgical procedure).  
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28 *In-hospital Post-operative Assessment.* Pain intensity scores (NRS-I), movement-  
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30 evoke pain scores (NRS-M), and pain unpleasantness scores (NRS-U) were obtained  
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32 daily by a research assistant. Daily NRS scores from the first three postoperative days of  
33  
34 hospital stay were averaged to obtain mean in-hospital pain ratings. Postoperative  
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36 analgesic use was recorded from the child's medical record. In addition, 48-72 hours after  
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38 surgery children completed the CPASS, PCS-C, and CASI.  
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44 *Six and 12 Month Post-operative Follow-ups.* Six and 12 months after surgery,  
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46 patients were contacted by telephone to complete a series of measures to assess pain  
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48 experienced over the past week (NRS-I, NRS-U, NRS-M) and anxiety (CPASS, PCS-C,  
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50 CASI). At the 12-month follow-up, a research assistant conducted the pain memory  
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52 interview (described above) with children.  
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56 We did not record the percentage of questionnaires completed by the child alone;  
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58 however, the only time point when the child/adolescent might not have completed them  
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4 by themselves was pre-operatively when participants either took them home to complete  
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6 and return on the day of surgery or in the pre-anaesthesia clinic (in which case a  
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8 researcher was present and could see that the participants were completing the forms  
9  
10 themselves and were there to help if help was needed). However, for the remaining time  
11  
12 points, it was the child/adolescent alone who completed the questionnaires: For the in-  
13  
14 hospital time point, questionnaires were completed by the child/adolescent and, at times,  
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16 the questionnaires were read to the participants who responded verbally (e.g., when the  
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18 surgery type made it difficult for the child to write). The 6- and 12-month questionnaires  
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20 were completed over the phone with the research assistant reading the questions to the  
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22 children. This was done to ensure that the child was the one completing the  
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24 questionnaires and also to avoid missing data.  
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### 31 ***Recruitment***

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33 Recruitment took place between February 2011 and August 2015. See Figure 1  
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35 for recruitment details and participant flow through the study. Research records of  
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37 children assessed for eligibility between February 2011 and August 2014 were lost;  
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39 therefore, Figure 1 shows eligibility numbers between September 2014 and August 2015.  
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43 Of the 349 approached for consent, 270 children and their parents consented to  
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45 participate. Three children withdrew consent before participating in any part of the study,  
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47 one patient's surgical procedure was changed and they no longer met study criteria, and  
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49 26 children were missed (i.e., the research assistant was unable to locate or reach them)  
50  
51 for their T0 assessment. One patient was diagnosed with cancer after consent and was  
52  
53 withdrawn from the study. A total of 265 patients completed some part of the in-hospital  
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55 (T1) assessment (e.g., questionnaires, daily pain measures). Twenty-seven patients were  
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4 admitted directly to the intensive care unit (ICU) from the operating room and therefore  
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6 the research assistant was unable to obtain daily pain measures. The 6- and 12-month  
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8 retention rates of participants in this study were 81.13% and 85.28%, respectively.  
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### 10 11 **Statistical Analyses**

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13 Data analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social  
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15 Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0. Descriptive, correlational, and regression analyses were  
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17 conducted using two-tailed hypothesis testing.  
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21 Differences between key variables were examined using t-tests, chi-squared tests,  
22  
23 and repeated measures ANOVAs. Paired-tests were used to compare mean 12-month pain  
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25 recall scores of initial pain intensity for rest pain, movement-evoked pain, pain  
26  
27 unpleasantness, with their respective actual initial pain scores on day 1 and across the  
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29 first 3 days after surgery. Mean 12-month pain recall scores for all measures (rest,  
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31 movement, unpleasantness) also were compared to their respective peak pain scores  
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33 across the first 3 days after surgery. In line with previous research [21,28], biases in pain  
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35 recall were assessed using partial correlations and hierarchical regressions. Specifically,  
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37 the correlations between criteria (i.e., children's recalled levels of pain) and predictors all  
38  
39 controlled for children's initial reports of pain. For instance, when assessing biased recall  
40  
41 of in-hospital pain at-rest, children's initial report of pain at-rest within the first 48-72  
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43 hours post-surgery was controlled/used as a covariate. Peak pain scores were defined for  
44  
45 each measure (rest, movement, unpleasantness) as the highest pain score reported across  
46  
47 the first 3 days after surgery. Partial bivariate Pearson correlations were conducted  
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51 between the child psychological variables and memories for pain to justify their inclusion  
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53 in regression models. Similar to Noel et al. [28], to be included in the regression models,  
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4 anxiety sensitivity, child pain catastrophizing, and pain anxiety had to be significantly  
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6 correlated with children’s memories for pain at rest, movement, or pain unpleasantness  
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8 after controlling for initial pain ratings that corresponded to each memory question (e.g.,  
9  
10 memory for pain intensity at rest on the first day post-surgery controlled for initial pain  
11  
12 intensity at rest rating obtained on the first day post-surgery). Hierarchical linear  
13  
14 regression models were used to test the relationships between the various anxiety factors  
15  
16 and children’s memories for pain one year after surgery. All regression models controlled  
17  
18 for the initial pain ratings that corresponded to each memory question/outcome.  
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21 Additionally, we conducted partial correlational analyses to determine if age should be  
22  
23 included as a covariate in the hierarchical regression models. To examine distinct  
24  
25 contributions of individual predictors (anxiety sensitivity, pain catastrophizing, pain  
26  
27 anxiety) to biases in children’s recall of post-surgical pain, we conducted dominance  
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29 analyses [5]. Dominance analysis computes an average increase in the amount of  
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31 explained variance in the criterion variable with the inclusion of each predictor across all  
32  
33 possible regression models.  
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41 Finally, to confirm the association between greater negatively biased recall of  
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43 pain (i.e., recall that was greater than the initial pain ratings) and chronic post-surgical  
44  
45 pain, a series of bivariate partial correlations were conducted between the pain memory  
46  
47 measures and pain ratings at 6 and 12 months, while controlling for initial pain ratings  
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49 that corresponded to each memory measure.  
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## 52 53 **Results**

### 54 55 ***Recruitment***

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4 There were no significant differences on any of the measures at baseline between  
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6 participants who completed the study at 12 months compared to those who did not. For  
7  
8 the purposes of this paper, we included children who had a typical hospital trajectory and;  
9  
10 therefore, the 27 children who were admitted to the ICU are excluded from the present  
11  
12 analyses. This decision was made a priori. While we assume that pain was assessed  
13  
14 routinely in the ICU as part of clinical assessment, research assistants were not permitted  
15  
16 to enter the ICU based on hospital regulations, which precluded assessment of their 48-72  
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18 hours post-surgical pain. Patients who were transferred to ICU had significantly longer  
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20 surgical times ( $p < .001$ ) and hospital stays ( $p = .001$ ).  
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### 25 26 *Descriptive Statistics*

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28 The final sample consisted of 237 children [ $M_{age} = 14.11$  years ( $SD = 2.47$ ),  
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30 *Range* 8-18 years, female  $n = 140$ , 59.1%] and their parents or guardians. The majority of  
31  
32 children identified as white (59.5%; Table 1). Sixty-one percent of patients ( $n = 145$ ,  
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34 61.2%) had had a previous surgery, and 62.2% ( $n = 148$ ) had an ongoing pain problem  
35  
36 prior to the current surgery, most frequent pain locations were back/spine ( $n = 61$ , 25.7%)  
37  
38 and legs/hips ( $n = 44$ , 18.6%). Only 8.4% ( $n = 20$ ) of patients were taking pain  
39  
40 medications prior to their current surgery. No patients were using gabapentinoids at any  
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42 point during the study. The majority of children underwent surgery for scoliosis ( $n = 107$ ,  
43  
44 45.14%) and 39.24% ( $n = 93$ ) underwent an osteotomy. Nineteen children (8.0%) had a  
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46 Nuss or Ravitch procedure, two (0.8%) had a thoracotomy, and fourteen (5.9%) had  
47  
48 another type of surgery. The mean duration of surgery was 4.39 hours ( $SD = 2.0$  hours,  
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50 *Range* = 0.70 – 8.55 hours) and children stayed in hospital an average of 4.74 days [ $SD =$   
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52 2.93, *Range* 1-36 days].  
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4 At baseline, children reported a mean rating of 2.00/10 (SD = 2.35) for pain at  
5 rest; average pain at rest 48-72 hours post-surgery was 4.01/10 (SD = 2.29), 2.39/10  
6  
7 (SD= 2.31) at the 6-month follow-up, and 2.80/10 (SD = 2.54) at the 12-month follow-  
8  
9 up. Children, who had pain at surgical site (pain intensity rating > 0, n = 132), reported a  
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11 mean rating of 3.94/10 (SD = 1.63) for pain at the 6-month follow-up and 4.33/10 (SD =  
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13 1.83) at the 12-month follow-up (n of children who reported pain > 0 = 144). The  
14  
15 incidence of CPSP (pain ratings 4-10/10) was 35.1% (n =68/194) at the 6-month follow-  
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17 up and 38.2% (n = 78/204) at the 12-month follow-up.)  
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24 Further, 12 months after surgery, participant recall of initial pain intensity for rest  
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26 pain, movement-evoked pain, and pain unpleasantness was significantly higher than all  
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28 respective initial pain ratings. Pain recall scores 12 months after surgery were also  
29  
30 significantly higher than peak pain scores for all measures (Table 2). Table 2 provides  
31  
32 additional characteristics of the participants' pain. Descriptive statistics for anxiety  
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34 sensitivity (CASI), pain-related anxiety (CPASS), and pain catastrophizing (PCS-C), at  
35  
36 baseline, during the acute recovery period, and at 6- and 12-month follow-ups are  
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38 summarized in Table 3.  
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43 Boys and girls did not differ on reported pain characteristics or memories for pain  
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45 (all values of  $p > .05$ ).  
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#### 48 ***Associations between anxiety-related factors and memories for pain***

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50 All correlation analyses controlled for the initial pain rating that corresponded to  
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52 each memory question (i.e., when examining memory for pain at rest on the first day after  
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54 surgery, the NRS-R on the first day after surgery was used; when examining memory for  
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56 movement-evoked pain on the first day after surgery, the NRS-M on that was used; when  
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4 examining memory for pain during the hospital stay, an average of NRS-R or NRS-M on  
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6 the first three days was used). The bivariate correlations between predictors are reported  
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8 in Table 4.  
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11 Table 5 shows the partial correlation coefficients between the psychological  
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13 measures (pain catastrophizing, anxiety sensitivity, and pain-related anxiety) at T0-T3  
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15 and pain recall at 12 months. T0 pain catastrophizing and anxiety sensitivity scores were  
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17 positively correlated with greater negatively biased recall of pain at rest during the first  
18  
19 day after surgery. T1 pain catastrophizing, anxiety sensitivity, and pain anxiety scores  
20  
21 were positively correlated with greater negatively biased recall of movement-evoked  
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23 pain. The pattern of significant correlations for T2 and T3 was the same: Higher levels of  
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25 pain catastrophizing, anxiety sensitivity, and pain anxiety at 6 and 12 months were  
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27 significantly correlated with greater negatively biased recall of movement-evoked pain.  
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34 Based on the results of the correlation analyses, four hierarchical regression  
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36 models were tested (baseline [Model 1], in-hospital recovery [Model 2], and 6- and 12-  
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38 month follow-ups [Models 3 and 4]) to examine the predictive value of risk factors on  
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40 pain memory biases. Initial pain ratings that corresponded to each memory question were  
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42 entered in the first step of each model followed by the key variables. Results of the  
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44 regression analyses are summarized in Table 6. Only significant findings are presented.  
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49 Additionally, we conducted partial correlational analyses to determine if age  
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51 should be included as a covariate in the hierarchical regression models. After controlling  
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53 for initial pain ratings, the association between age and biases in children's recall of pain  
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55 intensity at rest during the first day after surgery was not significant,  $r = -.001, p > .05$ .  
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57 Therefore, age was not included as a covariate in Model 1. After controlling for initial  
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4 pain ratings, age was significantly associated with negatively biased recall for movement-  
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6 evoked pain intensity in the first days after surgery,  $r = .31, p < .01$ . Therefore, age was  
7  
8 included as a covariate in Models 2, 3, and 4.  
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#### 10 11 *Baseline Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 1)*

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14 After controlling for the initial ratings of pain intensity at rest, child anxiety  
15  
16 sensitivity at baseline and pain catastrophizing, accounted for a significant amount of  
17  
18 variance in children's memory for pain intensity,  $\Delta R^2 = .039, F(2, 143) = 3.22, p < .05$ .  
19  
20 Collectively, the baseline predictor model accounted for 14.1% of the variance in recalled  
21  
22 pain levels,  $F(3, 143) = 7.81, p < .001$ .  
23  
24

#### 25 26 *In Hospital Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 2)*

27  
28 After controlling for initial ratings of movement-evoked pain intensity in the first  
29  
30 three days after surgery and age, anxiety sensitivity, pain catastrophizing, and pain-  
31  
32 related anxiety accounted a significant amount of variance in children's pain recall of  
33  
34 pain intensity during the first day after surgery. Together, the predictors accounted for  
35  
36 8.4% of the variance above and beyond the initial pain ratings and age,  $F(3, 92) = 3.17, p$   
37  
38  $< .05$ . Collectively, the predictors accounted for 18.2% of the variance in recalled pain  
39  
40 levels,  $F(5, 92) = 4.09, p < .05$ .  
41  
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#### 45 46 *Six-Month Follow-Up Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 3)*

47  
48 After controlling for initial ratings of pain intensity during movement, anxiety  
49  
50 sensitivity, pain catastrophizing, and pain anxiety accounted for a significant amount of  
51  
52 variance in children's recall of pain intensity,  $\Delta R^2 = .078, F(3, 95) = 2.76, p < .05$ .  
53  
54 Collectively, the predictors accounted for 10.3% of the variance in recalled pain levels,  
55  
56  $F(4, 95) = 2.71, p < .05$ . However, after including age as a covariate, the set of predictors  
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4 no longer accounted for a significant amount of variance. Specifically, in Model 3 (Six-  
5  
6 Month Follow-Up Predictors of Memory Biases), the set of predictors accounted for  
7  
8 5.8% of variance in children’s recall of pain intensity during the first days after surgery,  
9  
10 above and beyond initial pain ratings and age,  $\Delta R^2 = .058$ ,  $F(3, 93) = 2.19$ ,  $p > .05$ .  
11  
12 Collectively, the predictors accounted for 18.2% of the variance in recalled pain levels,  
13  
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16  
17  $F(5, 93) = 4.14$ ,  $p < .05$ .  
18

19  
20 *Twelve-Month Follow-up Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 4)*  
21

22 Finally, after controlling for initial ratings of pain intensity during movement,  
23  
24 anxiety sensitivity, pain catastrophizing, and pain anxiety did not account for a significant  
25  
26 amount of variance in children’s recall of pain intensity,  $\Delta R^2 = .064$ ,  $F(3, 100) = 2.33$ ,  $p >$   
27  
28  $.05$ . Collectively, the predictors accounted for 8.6% of the variance in recalled pain  
29  
30 levels,  $F(4, 100) = 2.34$ ,  $p > .05$ . However, after including age as a covariate, the set of  
31  
32 predictors no longer accounted for a significant amount of variance. Specifically, in  
33  
34 Model 4 (Twelve-Month Follow-Up Predictors of Memory Biases), the set of predictors  
35  
36 accounted for 4.4% of variance in children’s recall of pain intensity during the first days  
37  
38 after surgery, above and beyond initial pain ratings and age,  $\Delta R^2 = .044$ ,  $F(3, 96) = 1.66$ ,  
39  
40  $p > .05$ . The overall model accounted for 15.9% of the variance in recalled pain levels,  
41  
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46  
47  $F(5, 96) = 3.62$ ,  $p < .05$ .  
48

49 ***Dominance analyses for Models 1 and 2.***  
50

51 To examine distinct contributions of individual predictors (anxiety sensitivity,  
52  
53 pain catastrophizing, pain anxiety) to biases in children’s recall of pain, we conducted  
54  
55 dominance analyses [5].  
56  
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58 *Baseline Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 1)*  
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4 In total, anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophizing accounted for 3.9% of  
5  
6 variance in children's memory for pain intensity, above and beyond initial pain ratings,  
7  
8  $F(2, 143) = 3.22, p < .05$ . Of the 3.9%, anxiety sensitivity accounted for 55.7% (2.2% of  
9  
10 total variance) and pain catastrophizing accounted for 44.3% (1.7% of total variance).  
11  
12

### 13 *In Hospital Predictors of Memory Biases (Model 2)*

14  
15 In total, anxiety sensitivity, pain catastrophizing, and pain anxiety accounted for  
16  
17 8.5% in children's recall of pain intensity during the first days after surgery, above and  
18  
19 beyond initial pain ratings and age,  $F(3, 92) = 3.17, p < .05$ . Of the 8.5%, pain  
20  
21 catastrophizing accounted for 70.1% (5.9% of total variance), pain anxiety accounted for  
22  
23 16.1% (1.4% of total variance), and anxiety sensitivity accounted for 13.9% (1.2% of  
24  
25 total variance).  
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### 30 *Association of memories for pain with CPSP*

31  
32 A series of bivariate partial correlations revealed significant associations between  
33  
34 greater negatively biased recall of pain and post-surgical pain at 6 and 12 months.  
35  
36 Specifically, at the 6-month follow-up, youth who at the 12-month follow-up were to  
37  
38 report greater negatively biased recall of in-hospital movement-evoked pain had higher  
39  
40 levels of pain at rest at the surgical site over the past week ( $r = .27, p = .008$ ). At 12  
41  
42 months after surgery, adolescents' report of higher pain levels at the surgical site over the  
43  
44 past week were significantly related to greater negatively biased recall of first day in-  
45  
46 hospital movement-evoked pain and pain at-rest ( $r = .17, p = .032, r = .19, p = .020$ ,  
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48 respectively).  
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## 55 **Discussion**

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4 This study was the first to examine the relationship between anxiety-related risk  
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6 factors for children’s pain memory development one year after major surgery. It also  
7  
8 examined anxiety-related risk factors for long-term pain memory biases at multiple time  
9  
10 points before and after the inciting painful event. Findings revealed that baseline anxiety  
11  
12 sensitivity, pain anxiety, and pain catastrophizing predicted negative biases in children’s  
13  
14 recall of pain intensity at rest. Moreover, these anxiety constructs assessed in-hospital at  
15  
16 48-72 hours post-surgery significantly predicted biases in recall for movement-evoked  
17  
18 pain one year later. Dominance analyses to determine the relative strength/superiority of  
19  
20 predictors revealed that at baseline, anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophizing were  
21  
22 equally predictive of children’s recall. However, at 48-72 hours post-surgery, pain  
23  
24 catastrophizing was the strongest predictor of pain memory biases. Children who  
25  
26 developed greater negatively biased recall of pain reported higher pain scores at 6- and  
27  
28 12-months post-surgery. Thus, the results of the present study also show that postsurgical  
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30 pain intensity at 6 months is a risk factor for later pain memory distortion.  
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38 This study provides empirical support for the model of acute pain memory  
39  
40 development that posits general (anxiety sensitivity) and pain-specific (pain  
41  
42 catastrophizing, pain anxiety) anxiety are linked to greater exaggerations in recall of pain.  
43  
44 Previous research on post-surgical pain memories has exclusively focused on baseline  
45  
46 predictors of memory biases 2-4 months later[28]. Contrary to this past research, pain  
47  
48 catastrophizing (in addition to pain anxiety and anxiety sensitivity) was predictive of  
49  
50 children’s recall of the sensory but not the affective dimension of pain. To date, research  
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52 on children’s memories for pain in the context of surgery has not differentiated between  
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54 movement-evoked pain and pain at rest nor assessed recall at 1 year. These findings  
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4 support differentiated assessment of experienced and recalled pain at rest versus at  
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6 movement, particularly in the acute recovery phase. Moreover, different relationships  
7  
8 have been found between anxiety-related factors and memory for the sensory versus  
9  
10 affective aspects of pain [26]. This further supports the importance of assessing memory  
11  
12 for pain in a comprehensive way as initially argued Ornstein and colleagues [30].  
13  
14 Moreover, it was catastrophic thinking about pain that occurred while in the first 48-72  
15  
16 hours following surgery that was the most powerful predictor of negative biases in  
17  
18 children's memory, and specifically their recall of *movement-evoked* pain. It has been  
19  
20 argued that a new baseline for pain intensity may develop in the first few days after the  
21  
22 surgery due to a new experience of intense pain sensation (i.e., post-surgical pain) [16].  
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29 Catastrophic thinking about pain before surgery may not adequately reflect  
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31 catastrophic cognitions that youth develop *after* surgery [16]. Memory in the present  
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33 study was assessed at one-year post-surgery, which is much later than previous research  
34  
35 that used time frames of 2-4 months post-surgery [27,28]. It could be that catastrophic  
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37 thinking immediately after (versus before) surgery has a particularly lasting impact on  
38  
39 memory for pain because the new pain catastrophizing baseline represents a salient  
40  
41 negative cognitive and emotional experience that contributes to memory distortion and  
42  
43 bias. Indeed, pain catastrophizing assessed within 48-72 hours post-surgery was  
44  
45 significantly higher than pain catastrophizing at any other timepoint. Moreover, the pain  
46  
47 catastrophizing scale does not specify a pain incident to focus on and the surgery type  
48  
49 was novel for the vast majority of children. Thus, it is likely that assessment of pain  
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51 catastrophizing that occurred immediately after (versus before) surgery reflected  
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4 children's catastrophic thoughts specifically about this surgery, just as the memory  
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6 questions tapped pain associated with surgery, which could explain this finding.  
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10 Past research probed memories for post-surgical pain experienced in the first  
11 several weeks after surgery (following hospital discharge [28]) whereas the present study  
12 probed memory for pain experienced both at rest and during movement in the first few  
13 days while in hospital (i.e., when pain is arguably most severe, particularly when  
14 moving). Indeed, peak effects have been shown to create biases in recalled pain [39]. The  
15 pain memories assessed, while both specific to the post-surgical pain experience, are  
16 likely capturing different aspects of the broader post-surgical pain experience, thus  
17 explaining differences in their relationship to individual risk factors.  
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29 At baseline, anxiety sensitivity and pain catastrophizing were equally predictive  
30 of children's recall of pain intensity at 1-year follow-up. Anxiety sensitivity is a  
31 transdiagnostic risk factor that reflects the tendency to fear the symptoms of anxiety  
32 because of beliefs they have harmful cognitive, social, and physical consequences [44].  
33 Although the construct does not pertain specifically to the experience of pain itself, it is  
34 thought to be intricately tied to the pain experience [29] and the development and  
35 maintenance of pain problems in children [1] and adults [2]. As a shared vulnerability  
36 risk factor for both anxiety disorders and pain problems, anxiety sensitivity is posited to  
37 heighten internal awareness to physical sensations to both threat and pain, which can fuel  
38 catastrophic thinking, attentional biases favouring threat, and avoidance [2]. In youth  
39 with chronic headaches, higher anxiety sensitivity is linked to greater somatization and  
40 fear of pain, which drives avoidance [6]. The cognitive interruption caused by the  
41 experience of pain and being highly anxiety sensitive may impede memory encoding,  
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4 storage and retrieval [23]. Due to an excessive attentional focus on bodily sensations,  
5  
6 anxiety sensitivity may lead to more post-event cognitive processing and rumination that  
7  
8 may interfere with memory consolidation and introduce biases in recall. Only one study  
9  
10 revealed that higher anxiety sensitivity led to children developing greater negatively  
11  
12 biased recall of pain two weeks after exposure to an experimental pain task[22]. Core  
13  
14 differences in experimental and clinical pain contexts (e.g., uncontrollability,  
15  
16 unpredictability) require extension of this work to clinical samples [19], which this study  
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20  
21 achieved.

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24 This study adopted an intrapersonal focus on the influence of *child* anxiety-  
25  
26 related factors on the development of biased pain memories. Recent research with  
27  
28 younger children undergoing tonsillectomies revealed that it was parents' (and not  
29  
30 children's) baseline anxiety that predicted biases in children's recall of pain-related  
31  
32 fear 1 month following surgery [11]. Differences across these studies could be due  
33  
34 to several factors. First, the present study examined older children and adolescents  
35  
36 undergoing major, invasive surgeries whereas the other study examined young (5-  
37  
38 7-year old) children undergoing tonsillectomies. These age and developmental  
39  
40 differences are important given that children's pain memory development is under  
41  
42 the influence of different cognitive and social influences across child and  
43  
44 adolescent development. Specifically, the developmental model of children's pain  
45  
46 memory development specifically isolates the period of early childhood as being a  
47  
48 time when parental influences are greatest on children's pain memory development  
49  
50 [25]. This may account for the primary influence of parental (versus child) anxiety  
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52 on young (5-7-year-old) children's pain memory development in the context of  
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4 tonsillectomies. When shifting to the later developmental period of adolescence,  
5  
6 parental influences become less predictive of longer-term pain outcomes (beyond  
7  
8 the acute recovery phase) [27]. Beyond developmental stage and age, we also note  
9  
10 that there are important differences in pain trajectories between these two surgical  
11  
12 contexts. Tonsillectomy is a surgery that involves acute pain in the first week post-  
13  
14 surgery that almost always resolves by the second week. This is not the case for  
15  
16 more major surgeries like spinal fusion, pectus repair, and a variety of orthopedic  
17  
18 surgeries which are characterized by high levels of moderate-to-severe pain that  
19  
20 often last for months, and unfortunately, for approximately 22% of youth, leads to  
21  
22 the development of persistent pain [33]. Puberty is also a time when rates of  
23  
24 pediatric chronic pain peak [17]; therefore, examining these types of surgeries in  
25  
26 adolescence is an important context to understand the development of pain  
27  
28 *problems*. These problems are not observed among young children undergoing  
29  
30 tonsillectomies. Pain is a key predictor of memory for pain [15,21,27,28]; therefore,  
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32 these differences in pain trajectories are important for understanding different  
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34 findings across pain and developmental contexts.  
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44         There were limitations to the present study. Pain memories were assessed at a  
45  
46 single time point 1 year after surgery. Thus, it is unknown whether memories for pain  
47  
48 became more or less biased for some children and how memories at 1 year compared to  
49  
50 memories assessed at 2-4 months as has been done in previous research. Moreover,  
51  
52 consistent with previous research [21,27,28], the present study assessed memories using  
53  
54 single item pain scales. Future research should expand memory assessment to include  
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56 free recall (e.g., open-ended questions that pull for a spontaneous account of the past) and  
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4 probed recall (single-item pain items) to provide a richer account of children’s memories  
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6 [25]. Furthermore, important anxiety-related constructs, such as fear of pain, that are  
7  
8 closely associated with anxiety sensitivity and the pain experience [6] were not assessed  
9  
10 in the present study. Finally, it could be argued that the negatively biased recall of pain  
11  
12 observed in the present study is not really a bias at all and instead is an accurate  
13  
14 representation of the initial, in-hospital pain experience. It is well-established that  
15  
16 postsurgical pain intensity fluctuates within and across days. Since pain was assessed  
17  
18 only once per day, it is possible that the participants’ recalled pain was significantly  
19  
20 higher than the specific measure of pain assessed, not because of a bias but because  
21  
22 participants were accurately recalling the pain intensity from a different time of day. This  
23  
24 is a difficult argument to refute empirically without a continuous record of in-hospital  
25  
26 pain, which clearly is not possible to obtain. To address this argument, pain recall was  
27  
28 compared with a variety of pain scores for each pain measure (intensity, movement-  
29  
30 evoked, and unpleasantness), including pain on day 1 as well as average and peak pain  
31  
32 scores across the first 3 days in-hospital. Recalled pain was significantly higher than all  
33  
34 in-hospital pain scores obtained, including peak pain, arguing in favour of the  
35  
36 interpretation that pain recall scores reflect a memory bias and not an accurate  
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38 representation of the initial pain experience.  
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48 This study exclusively focused on anxiety-related constructs based on conceptual  
49  
50 models of acute pain memory development [23]; however, there are other factors that  
51  
52 were not assessed in the study that likely play an influential role. Indeed, post-event  
53  
54 processing (i.e., language-based interactions about the past pain painful event after the  
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56 fact) have been shown to be critically important in shaping children’s memories of needle  
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4 pain [24], and should be examined in future research in the surgical context. Additionally,  
5  
6 we were unable to obtain in hospital pain ratings from youth who were admitted to the  
7  
8 ICU due to hospital and REB protocols. There could be key differences in the  
9  
10 experiences of youth who were versus who were not admitted to the ICU, which could  
11  
12 influence children's pain memory development. One key factor could be medical trauma,  
13  
14 experienced by both parents and youth (which could affect memory encoding and  
15  
16 retrieval), as well as consciousness of youth (which could affect memory encoding). This  
17  
18 is an interesting area for future research. Additionally, there was considerable  
19  
20 heterogeneity in the sample in terms of the types of surgeries performed and this could be  
21  
22 conceived of as a limitation. On the other hand, based on the past several decades of  
23  
24 research on memory for pain (see reviews in [23,26,30,45]) as well as empirical research  
25  
26 with pediatric [18,23,38] and adult samples [14], the relationship between negative  
27  
28 affect/anxiety and biased recall of pain is robust and found across ages, healthy and  
29  
30 illness populations, and clinical and experimental pain contexts. Past research linking  
31  
32 catastrophic thinking about pain to biased recall included different types of surgery (e.g.,  
33  
34 pectus repair, spinal fusion) [28]. Thus, extending these findings to a much larger,  
35  
36 heterogeneous sample of youth undergoing a variety of surgeries is important as it speaks  
37  
38 to the robustness of this relationship. Finally, in hospital pain ratings were collected  
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40 between 48-72 hours post-surgery. This time frame could be considered a limitation.  
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50 Memories for pain are by their nature, susceptible to distortion and highly  
51  
52 malleable [26]. Previous trials of brief memory reframing interventions to provide  
53  
54 children with post-event information (e.g., emphasizing positive details, correcting  
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56 negative exaggerations, promoting self-efficacy) following needle procedures were found  
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4 to lead to more accurate/positive pain memories [4,7,35]. Modification of risk factors for  
5  
6 distortions in pain memories is another avenue for intervention. The present findings  
7  
8 suggest that interventions that reduce levels of anxiety, and particularly anxiety  
9  
10 sensitivity and pain catastrophizing at baseline and pain catastrophizing during the in-  
11  
12 hospital acute recovery phase, may buffer children against the development of negatively  
13  
14 biased pain memories 1 year later. From a treatment perspective, the general approach of  
15  
16 reducing anxiety sensitivity, pain anxiety, and catastrophic thinking about pain could  
17  
18 involve a similar cognitive-behavioral approach. Interventions to reduce anxiety  
19  
20 sensitivity and anxiety related to pain sensations have been developed, albeit for use with  
21  
22 adults, and involve cognitive behavioral therapy, psycho-education, cognitive  
23  
24 restructuring, and interoceptive exposure [47]. Adaptations in these brief interventions  
25  
26 could be a fruitful area for pre- and post-operative interventions for youth. Similar  
27  
28 cognitive-behavioral interventions aimed reducing catastrophic thinking about pain in the  
29  
30 immediate acute recovery phase while in hospital, could also be protective. With  
31  
32 accumulating evidence for the maladaptive effects of anxiety on post-surgical pain  
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34 trajectories [36] and pain memories [28], this line of research could inform how to  
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36 prevent chronic post-surgical pain.  
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45 In summary, this prospective study examined the role of anxiety-related factors,  
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47 assessed at multiple time points over the course of a year, in children's memories of post-  
48  
49 surgical pain one year following surgery. Findings revealed that children who had higher  
50  
51 levels of anxiety at baseline and 48-72 hours post-surgery developed greater negatively  
52  
53 biased recall of pain intensity 12 months after surgery. Specifically, higher anxiety  
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55 sensitivity at baseline and greater tendencies to catastrophize about pain at baseline and  
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in the immediate acute recovery phase in hospital were most strongly linked to greater negatively biased recall of pain. Greater negatively biased recall of pain was related to higher pain at 6- and 12-months post-surgery. These findings provide empirical support for conceptual models of anxiety and pain memory biases and can inform intervention efforts to reduce anxiety in the pre- and post-op periods to foster more accurate and positive pain memories. Given the robust role of pain memories in subsequent pain experiences [26] and the development of chronic pain [12], this could inform how to foster more optimal pain trajectories in childhood and beyond.

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Children who had higher levels of anxiety at baseline and 48-72 hours post-surgery developed more negatively biased pain memories 12 months after surgery.

Figure

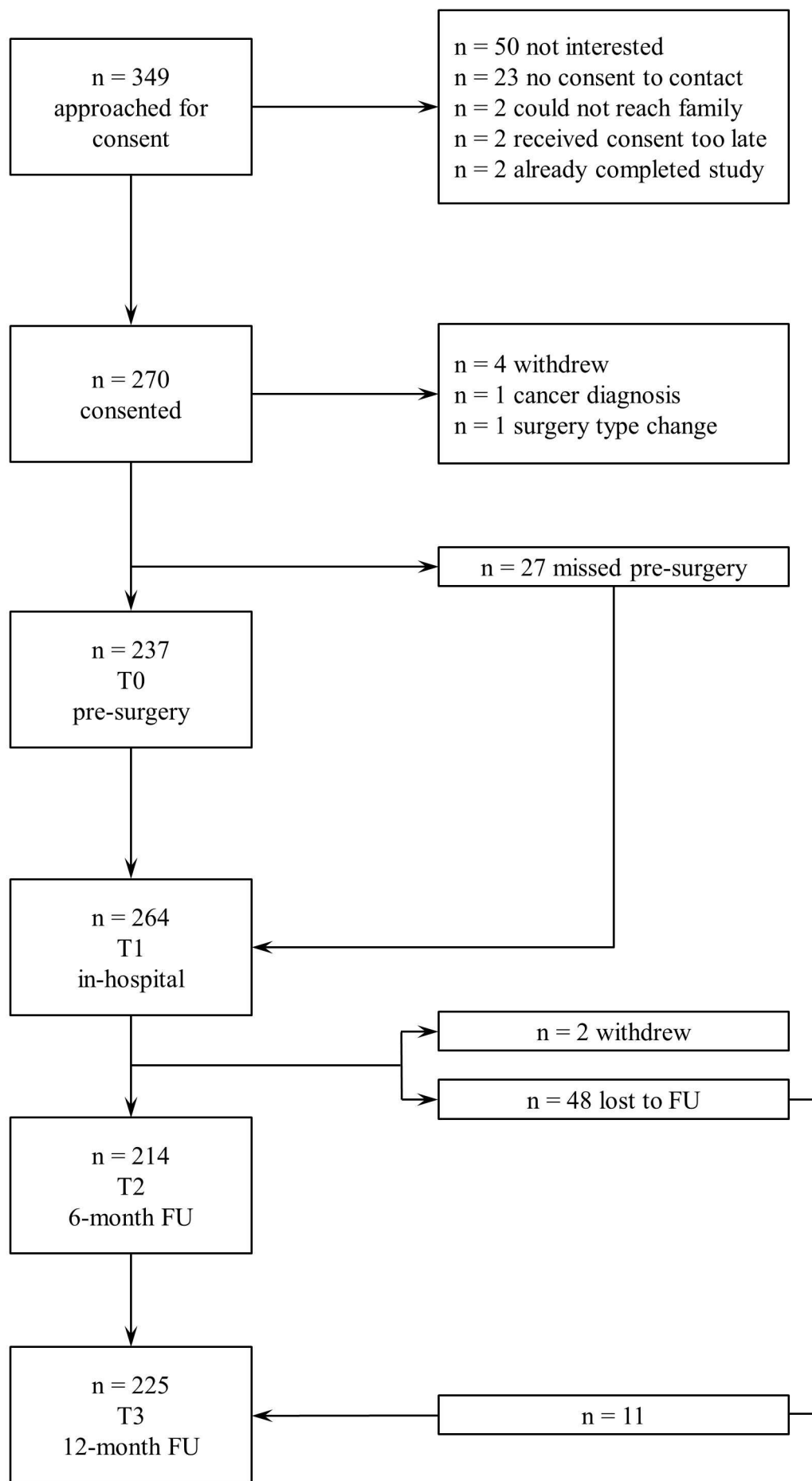


Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample.

Demographic Characteristic	<i>N</i> = 237
Age, <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	14.11 (2.47)
Sex, %	
Female	59.1
Ethnicity, %	
White	59.5
Other	11.0
African Canadian	5.5
South Asian	5.1
East Asian	4.6
African Caribbean	1.7
Hispanic	1.7
Aboriginal	1.3
Middle Eastern	0.4
Grade, %	
3	2.1
4	3.0
5	3.8
6	8.4
7	8.4
8	7.6
9	13.5
10	13.1
11	13.1
12	12.2
Participating parent sex, %	

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Female	73.8
Parent education, %	
Elementary	2.5
High School	22.4
Undergraduate/College degree	43.0
Graduate/University degree	17.7
Other	3.8

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Table 2. Pain characteristics of the sample.

Pain Characteristic	<i>N</i> = 237
Ongoing pain problem at baseline, %	
Yes	62.2 (148)
Ongoing pain location at baseline	
Back/spine	25.6
Foot/leg/hip	20.6
Chest/ribs/shoulder	6.3
Two or more locations	3.4
Other	3.4
Abdomen	2.1
Pain at baseline before surgery, <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	
Pain at rest	2.00 (2.36)
Pain at movement	2.66 (2.76)
Pain unpleasantness	2.52 (2.98)
Pain on the first day while in hospital, <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	
Pain at rest <sup>a</sup>	3.72 (2.18)
Pain at movement <sup>b</sup>	5.86 (2.36)
Pain unpleasantness <sup>c</sup>	4.84 (2.56)
Pain on the first three days while in hospital, <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	
Pain at rest <sup>d</sup>	3.55 (1.81)
Pain at movement <sup>e</sup>	5.59 (1.92)
Pain unpleasantness <sup>f</sup>	4.68 (1.98)
Peak pain across the first three days while in hospital, <i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	
Pain at rest <sup>g</sup>	4.52 (2.18)
Pain at movement <sup>h</sup>	6.42 (2.28)
	5.76 (2.50)

Pain unpleasantness <sup>i</sup>	
Pain at 6-month follow-up, <i>M(SD)</i>	
Pain at rest	2.39 (2.31)
Pain unpleasantness	2.73 (2.56)
Pain at rest in the last week	4.08 (1.82)
Pain unpleasantness in the last week	4.14 (2.16)
Pain at 12-month follow-up, <i>M(SD)</i>	
Pain at rest	2.80 (2.54)
Pain unpleasantness	2.81 (2.66)
Pain at rest in the last week	4.22 (2.15)
Pain unpleasantness in the last week	4.17 (2.21)
Memory for day 1 post-surgical pain at 12-month follow-up, <i>M(SD)</i>	
Pain at rest	6.48 (2.69)
Pain at movement	7.71 (2.23)
Pain unpleasantness	7.34 (2.18)
Memory for average post-surgical pain during acute recovery (days 1-3) at 12-month follow-up, <i>M(SD)</i>	
Pain at rest	5.81 (2.08)
Pain at movement	6.98 (1.95)
Pain unpleasantness	6.82 (1.99)

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*Note.* The following reported pain intensity scores were significantly different from the corresponding recalled pain intensity levels: <sup>a</sup>*t*(158) = -12.03, <sup>b</sup>*t*(157) = -7.69, <sup>c</sup>*t*(158) = -10.42, <sup>d</sup>*t*(108) = -11.49, <sup>e</sup>*t*(106) = -5.75, <sup>f</sup>*t*(107) = -9.62, <sup>g</sup>*t*(171) = -6.99, <sup>h</sup>*t*(171) = -2.47 (*p* = .014), <sup>i</sup>*t*(170) = -5.46, *ps* < .001.

*Table 3.* Participant pain catastrophizing (PCS-C), anxiety sensitivity (CASI), and pain-related anxiety (CPASS) scores at baseline, in-hospital recovery phase, and 6-month and 12-month follow-ups.

Psychological Characteristic	<i>M(SD)</i>	<i>N</i>
T0 Baseline		
PCS-C <sup>a</sup>	19.56 (12.04)	210
CASI	29.44 (6.75)	212
CPASS	32.48 (18.51)	211
T1 In-hospital recovery		
PCS-C	22.27 (12.04)	202
CASI	30.57 (6.93)	201
CPASS	46.50 (21.33)	200
T2 6- month follow-up		
PCS-C <sup>b</sup>	17.67 (11.39)	194
CASI	29.89 (6.92)	194
CPASS	32.65 (18.73)	194
T3 12-month follow-up		
PCS-C <sup>c</sup>	17.88 (11.27)	202
CASI	29.79 (6.55)	202
CPASS	33.90 (19.24)	201

*Note.* Pain catastrophizing scores during in-hospital recovery were significantly higher than pain catastrophizing scores at other time points: <sup>a</sup> $t(182) = 3.01, p = .003$ ; <sup>b</sup> $t(174) = 5.76, p < .001$ ; <sup>c</sup> $t(180) = 5.85, p < .001$ .



Table 4. Bivariate correlations between baseline, in hospital, and six- and twelve-month follow-up predictors of recall biases.

	<b>Predictors</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
1	T0 Anxiety	-	<b>.45</b>	<b>.56</b>	.67	.37	.48	.58	.27	.36	.48	.22	.30
	Sensitivity	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	**	†
2	T0 Pain		-	<b>.78</b>	.44	.45	.39	.43	.50	.51	.42	.38	.44
	catastrophizing			†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
3	T0 Pain anxiety			-	.49	.44	.49	.48	.45	.53	.43	.30	.40
					†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
4	T1 Anxiety				-	<b>.54</b>	<b>.65</b>	.63	.42	.46	.57	.32	.40
	Sensitivity					†	†	†	†	†	†	†	†
5	T1 Pain					-	<b>.71</b>	.45	.50	.50	.43	.43	.34
	catastrophizing						†	†	†	†	†	†	†
6	T1 Pain anxiety						-	.47	.45	.54	.46	.31	.36
								†	†	†	†	†	†
7	T2 Anxiety							-	<b>.49</b>	<b>.61</b>	.71	.37	.47
	Sensitivity								†	†	†	†	†
8	T2 Pain								-	<b>.81</b>	.51	.64	.57
	catastrophizing									†	†	†	†
9	T2 Pain anxiety									-	.60	.56	.61
											†	†	†
10	T3 Anxiety										-	<b>.52</b>	<b>.63</b>
	Sensitivity											†	†
11	T3 Pain											-	<b>.76</b>
	catastrophizing												†
12	T3 Pain anxiety												-

\* significant at .05; \*\* significant at .01; † significant at .001. The correlation coefficients between variables included in the same regression models (e.g., T0 anxiety sensitivity, T0 pain catastrophizing, T0 anxiety sensitivity) are bolded.

Table 5. Partial correlations coefficients between the psychological measures at T0-T3 and pain recall at 12 months.

<b>Psychological Characteristic</b>	<b>Recall of pain at rest during day 1</b> <i>r(df), p values</i>	<b>Recall of movement-evoked pain during day 1</b> <i>r(df), p values</i>	<b>Recall of pain at rest during days 1-3</b> <i>r(df), p values</i>	<b>Recall of movement-evoked pain during days 1-3</b> <i>r(df), p values</i>
T0 Baseline				
PCS-C	.17*(144), <i>p</i> = .037	.15(143), <i>p</i> = .082	.13(99), <i>p</i> = .205	.24*(97), <i>p</i> = .015
CASI	.19*(146), <i>p</i> = .022	.16*(145), <i>p</i> = .049	.11(101), <i>p</i> = .281	.09(99), <i>p</i> = .368
CPASS	.15(146), <i>p</i> = .060	.09(145), <i>p</i> = .297	.11(101), <i>p</i> = .274	.13(99), <i>p</i> = .185
T1 In-hospital recovery				
PCS-C	.12(141), <i>p</i> = .123	.13(140), <i>p</i> = .138	.08(99), <i>p</i> = .441	.30**(97), <i>p</i> = .002
CASI	.13(141), <i>p</i> = .124	.16(140), <i>p</i> = .051	.08(99), <i>p</i> = .419	.22*(97), <i>p</i> = .029
CPASS	.14 (141), <i>p</i> = .094	.14(140), <i>p</i> = .101	.21*(99), <i>p</i> = .035	.26**(97), <i>p</i> = .010
T2 6- month follow-up				
PCS-C	.07(138), <i>p</i> = .426	.17(137), <i>p</i> = .052	.04(99), <i>p</i> = .687	.27**(97), <i>p</i> = .008
CASI	.09(138), <i>p</i> = .278	.11(137), <i>p</i> = .183	.17(99), <i>p</i> = .088	.21*(97), <i>p</i> = .042
CPASS	.01(138), <i>p</i> = .927	.10(137), <i>p</i> = .236	.05(99), <i>p</i> = .658	.20*(97), <i>p</i> = .047
T3 12-month follow-up				
PCS-C	.05(155), <i>p</i> = .544	.12(154), <i>p</i> = .135	.05(105), <i>p</i> = .584	.21*(104), <i>p</i> = .032
CASI	.02(156), <i>p</i> = .809	.14(155), <i>p</i> = .091	.03(106), <i>p</i> = .749	.20*(104), <i>p</i> = .044
CPASS	.03(154), <i>p</i> = .687	.14(153), <i>p</i> = .080	.09(104), <i>p</i> = .346	.23*(102), <i>p</i> = .017

Note. PCS-C – pain catastrophizing, CASI – anxiety sensitivity, CPASS – pain-related anxiety. The correlations are controlled for the corresponding initial pain ratings. \* significant at .05; \*\* significant at .01; † significant at .001.

Table 6. Regression analyses explaining children's recall of pain.

Criterion Variable	Step	Predictor	Beta	$\Delta R^2$	Cumulative $R^2$
<b>T0 Baseline predictors</b>					
Children's memory of pain at rest during the first day post-surgery	1	Day 1 pain ratings	.319	.102 <sup>†</sup>	.102 <sup>†</sup>
	2	T0 Anxiety sensitivity	.126	.039*	.133*
		T0 Pain catastrophizing	.104		
<b>T1 In-hospital recovery predictors</b>					
Children's memory of pain during movement during the first three days post-surgery	1	Days 1-3 pain ratings	.127	.097**	.097**
	2	Age	.276		
		T1 Anxiety sensitivity	.032	.084*	.182**
		T1 Pain catastrophizing	.291		
	T1 Pain anxiety	-.020			
<b>T2 6-month follow-up predictors</b>					
Children's memory of pain during movement during the first three days post-surgery	1	Days 1-3 pain ratings	.135	.124**	.124**
	2	Age	.313		
		T2 Anxiety sensitivity	.111	.058	.182**
		T2 Pain catastrophizing	.335		
	T2 Pain anxiety	-.217			
<b>T3 12-month follow-up predictors</b>					
Children's memory of pain during movement during the first three days post-surgery	1	Days 1-3 pain ratings	.134	.115**	.115**
	2	Age	.302		
		T3 Anxiety sensitivity	.059	.044	.159**
		T3 Pain catastrophizing	.162		
	T3 Pain anxiety	.026			

Note. \* significant at .05; \*\* significant at .01; <sup>†</sup> significant at .001. Regression analyses reported here only include variables that showed a significant univariate effect in correlational analyses.