

1 **Title**

2 Sensory disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflicts are higher in complex regional
3 pain syndrome and fibromyalgia compared to arthritis and healthy people, and positively
4 relate to pain intensity

5

6 **Running head**

7 Sensorimotor conflicts: chronic pain & healthy people

8

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30

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44

45 **Conflicts of interest**

46 None of the authors have any conflicts of interest.

47

48 **Significance**

49 Individuals with complex regional pain syndrome and fibromyalgia were more sensitive
50 to sensorimotor conflicts than arthritis patients and controls. Moreover, conflict-induced
51 sensory disturbances were specific to higher pain intensity and higher sensory
52 abnormalities in all groups, suggesting that pain lowers the threshold for the detection of
53 sensorimotor conflicts.

54

55

56 **ABSTRACT**

57 **Background:** Sensorimotor conflicts are well-known to induce sensory disturbances.
58 However, explanations as to why patients with chronic pain are more sensitive to
59 sensorimotor conflicts remain elusive. The main objectives of this study were 1) to assess
60 and compare the sensory disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflict in complex
61 regional pain syndrome (n=38), fibromyalgia (n=36), arthritis (n=34) as well as in healthy
62 volunteers (n=32); 2) to assess whether these disturbances were related to the intensity
63 and duration of pain, or to other clinical variables assessed using questionnaires
64 (abnormalities in sensory perception, depression and anxiety); and 3) to categorize
65 different subgroups of conflict-induced sensory disturbances. **Methods:** 140 participants
66 performed in phase or anti-phase movements with their arms while viewing a reflection of
67 one arm in a mirror (and the other arm obscured). They were asked to report changes in
68 sensory disturbances using a questionnaire. **Results:** First, results showed that patients
69 with complex regional pain syndrome and fibromyalgia were more prone to report sensory
70 disturbances than arthritis patients and healthy volunteers in response to conflicts (small
71 effect size). Secondly, conflict-induced sensory disturbances were correlated to pain
72 intensity (large effect size) and abnormalities in sensory perception (only in the CRPS
73 group), but were not related to the duration of the disease or psychological factors. Finally,
74 we identified two distinct subgroups of conflict-induced sensory disturbances.
75 **Conclusions:** Our results suggest that pain lowers the threshold for the detection of
76 sensorimotor conflicts, a phenomenon that could contribute to the maintenance of pain in
77 clinical populations.

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83 **1. INTRODUCTION**

84

85 Incongruence between motor intentions and sensory feedback arising from actions (i.e.
86 sensorimotor conflict) might contribute to pain and other sensory disturbances in chronic
87 pain pathologies, phantom limb pain being the most cited example (Harris, 1999; McCabe
88 et al., 2000; McCabe and Blake, 2008). Sensorimotor conflicts can also occur in other
89 chronic pain conditions associated with altered body perception. Individuals with complex
90 regional pain syndrome (CRPS) report pain disproportionate to the original injury, perceive
91 alterations in the size and shape of their painful limb (Moseley, 2008; Peltz et al., 2011),
92 and overestimate the force exerted in observed hand actions (Hotta et al., 2015).
93 Individuals with fibromyalgia (FM) and arthritis report sensations of excessive swelling
94 (McCabe et al., 2000). These alterations of body perception are positively related to pain
95 intensity (Lewis and Schweinhardt, 2012; Valenzuela-Moguillansky, 2013). As motor
96 deficits are also often observed in chronic pain conditions (Burgunder, 1998; Schilder et
97 al., 2012), both sensory and motor deficits could contribute to a greater mismatch between
98 motor intentions and sensory feedback.

99

100 Harris' theory (Harris, 1999) suggesting that sensorimotor conflict could be the origin of
101 pain in some pathologies has been challenged by recent reviews failing to show that
102 sensorimotor conflicts induce pain in healthy volunteers (HV) (Boesch et al., 2016; Don et
103 al., 2016). However, various sensory disturbances are being evoked, and those appear to
104 be more intense in people with pain (Don et al., 2016). Therefore, rather than conflicts
105 being the primary cause of pain, it could be hypothesized that the presence of pain makes
106 people more vulnerable to conflicts, which in turn contribute to the presence of sensory
107 disturbances and the maintenance of pain.

108

109 However, the reasons why chronic pain patients are more sensitive to conflicts remains
110 elusive. A number of factors may contribute, including the intensity and duration of pain,
111 or co-morbidities such as anxiety or depression. FM patients self-report increased
112 sensitivities to somatosensory and non-somatosensory stimuli (Wilbarger and Cook,
113 2011), supporting the idea of a generalized hypervigilance (McDermid et al., 1996).
114 Moreover, chronic pain is well-known to be positively associated with mood and anxiety
115 disorders (McWilliams et al., 2003). Body perception disturbances in CRPS are related to
116 higher anxiety (Michal et al., 2016) and in FM patients higher pain intensity is related to
117 lower mood (Scheidt et al., 2014). Therefore, higher vulnerability to sensorimotor conflicts

118 in chronic pain conditions compared to HV might be explained by several clinical
119 characteristics as the origin of the pathology, intensity and duration of pain, altered
120 sensory perception, and anxiety and mood disorders.

121

122 Thus, the objectives of this study were (a) to assess and compare the sensory
123 disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflict in different chronic pain populations (CRPS,
124 FM, Arthritis) and in HV, (b) to assess whether these disturbances were related to the
125 intensity and duration of pain or other clinical variables (sensory perception abnormalities,
126 depression, anxiety), (c) to explore data for different subgroups of sensory disturbances
127 induced by sensorimotor conflict, which could lead to a simpler assessment of sensory
128 disturbances, and potentially explain underlying mechanisms.

129

130 **2. METHODS**

131

132 **2.1. Study design**

133 This study formed part of a larger multi-centre cross-sectional observational study which
134 investigated sensorimotor conflict and its relationship to behavioural and
135 neurophysiological variables, including data collection via electroencephalography (EEG).
136 The sample size for the whole study was determined by the pragmatic practical constraints
137 of collecting EEG data, and the primary outcome measure was motor response times, as
138 measured by EEG to innocuous and noxious stimuli.

139

140 The participants attended the Royal National Hospital for Rheumatic Diseases, Bath, UK
141 or Salford Hospital, Manchester, UK on a single occasion. Data were collected by the
142 same researcher at both sites. This research study protocol was devised in 2013 as part
143 of a larger study. It was not preregistered as it was submitted for ethical approval prior to
144 the current recommendations. However, the authors acknowledge that protocol
145 preregistration is now recognised as best practice in order to promote transparency and
146 prevent selective reporting (Keefe et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018). The study protocol was
147 peer reviewed by members of the NHS and University Ethics committees and the
148 hospital's Research and Development committee.

149

150 **2.2. Ethical approval**

151 Ethical approval was granted by the National Research Ethics Service Committee South
152 West – Frenchay (11/SW/0246). The University of the West of England, Bristol, UK,

153 sponsored the study and collaborated with the University of Manchester, UK. Written
154 informed consent was provided by all participants.

155

156

157 **2.3. Recruitment**

158

159 A convenience sample of 140 adult participants (≥ 18 years) were recruited, comprising
160 healthy volunteers (HV) (n=32) and those living with one of the following three chronic pain
161 conditions. Inclusion criteria for the latter were defined as;

162

- Fibromyalgia (FMS) (n=36): meeting the ACR criteria (Wolfe et al., 2010)

163

- Complex Regional Pain Syndrome Type 1 (CRPS) (n=38): meeting the Budapest
164 clinical criteria for unilateral CRPS in an upper or lower limb (Harden et al., 2010)

164

165

- Osteoarthritis / Rheumatoid Arthritis (n=34): meeting the American College of
166 Rheumatology (ACR) clinical criteria for Rheumatoid Arthritis (Aletaha et al., 2010)
167 or the UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence clinical criteria for
168 Osteoarthritis (National Clinical Guideline Centre (UK)., 2014).

169

170 Exclusion criteria for all groups were co-morbidities that affected sensory processing or
171 any asymmetrical disfigurement on their upper limbs which was unrelated to their chronic
172 pain condition (patients only). For example, co-morbidities that could potentially influence
173 sensory processing would include diabetic neuropathy or stroke. The total study sample
174 size was calculated to answer the overarching study questions of the larger cross-
175 sectional study and the overall patient group was matched with the HV by gender and age
176 (≤ 10 years). In the HV group, participants who reported brief acute pain episodes (e.g.
177 headache) were excluded from the study.

178

179 Participants were recruited from the outpatient department and wards at the Royal
180 National Hospital for Rheumatic Diseases, Bath, UK and the musculoskeletal pain clinic
181 at Salford Royal Hospital, Salford, UK. Healthy volunteers were recruited from hospital
182 staff, family members of patient participants and other professional contacts known to the
183 researchers. Participants were informed that the study was being undertaken to
184 investigate the commonalities and differences between people living with chronic pain and
185 those who do not have pain; for example if the brain reacts to tests in similar ways. They
186 were informed that some of the testing may cause brief discomfort, but that this would
187 settle back to normal very quickly. This information was provided as part of a requirement

188 of informed consent for ethical approval as the majority of participants had chronic pain,
189 which commonly is exacerbated by movement. No further information was provided
190 regarding possible sensory perceptions.

191

192 **2.4. Experimental conditions and procedure**

193 Two conditions of mirror Visual feedback (VF) were investigated; Congruent or
194 Incongruent VF. Participants were required to perform in phase or anti-phase bilateral arm
195 movements. These active arm movements, performed when participants were asked to
196 flex and extend both arms at the elbow, assessed visual sensorimotor conflict. When
197 viewing their moving arms via the mirror, the anti-phase movements were perceived by
198 the participant as if they were moving their limbs in the same direction (Incongruent VF
199 condition).

200

201 Prior to the study visit, the baseline documentation (see 2.5.1 and 2.5.2) was posted to
202 each participant and it was requested that this was completed either the night before, or
203 the morning of the assessment (preferably the latter).

204 At the visit, and following completion of written consent, they were asked to remove
205 watches and jewellery prior to the start of the study procedures. There were four
206 experimental conditions (in phase and anti-phase movements with the left and right arms),
207 and each was undertaken for a timed 20 seconds. Participants were seated at a table with
208 a mirror in front of them, positioned vertically at waist height and at right angles to their
209 body. An arm was placed either side of the mirror, so that one arm was hidden. Participants
210 were asked to flex and extend both arms at the elbow in phase, either side of the mirror
211 (Fig. 1A). The participant viewed the mirror side. This exercise was repeated with the arms
212 moving in an anti-phase manner (Fig 1B). On completion of the experiment, the mirror was
213 turned and the other arm viewed in the same manner.

214 The researcher alternated, between participants, as to whether the first condition was
215 conducted by the left or right arm. In phase movements were conducted before anti-phase
216 movements.

217

218 *« Insert Fig. 1 approximately here »*

219

220 **2.5. Outcome measures**

221 Demographic measures included age, gender, as well as a brief medical history including
222 disease duration (patient groups only). Participants were asked to complete the following
223 questionnaires:

224

225 **2.5.1. Psychological Measures**

226 **2.5.1.1. The Hospital and Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS)** (Zigmond and Snaith,
227 1983): This is a self-report measure used to screen for anxiety and depression in non-
228 psychiatric patients. It consists of 14 items on 2 sub-scales and the participant is asked to
229 assess their emotional state over the past week using a 4-point Likert scale. It excludes
230 items referring to somatic manifestations of mood disorders as these may be present in
231 patients as a result of their illness.

232 **2.5.1.2. The Cardiff Anomalous Perceptions Scale (CAPS)** (Bell et al., 2006) is a
233 measure which asks questions about a broad range of sensations and perceptions, some
234 of which are unusual and some of which are everyday. It is not condition specific and is
235 appropriate for use across a wide population.

236

237 **2.5.2. Assessment of pain**

238 Participants completed a 0-10 Visual Analogue Score (VAS) to report the mean pain
239 during the last 24H.

240 **2.5.2.1. The Brief Pain Inventory (BPI) – short form** (Cleeland and Ryan, 1994): a self-
241 report questionnaire which measures current pain intensity over the previous week and
242 the extent to which pain has interfered with physical, social and psychological aspects of
243 functioning.

244

245 **2.5.3. Sensory disturbances**

246 After each experimental condition, the participant completed a 9 item scale designed to
247 assess sensory disturbances and were required to rate the intensity of each item from 0
248 to 6 (0=not at all and 6=very strong): a perceived change in weight or temperature of the
249 limb, pain, discomfort, a perceived lost limb, a sense of gaining an extra limb or a report
250 of peculiarity of the limb. This scale is based on previous studies assessing the impact of
251 sensorimotor conflict on sensory disturbances in healthy volunteers (Foell et al., 2013;
252 McCabe et al., 2005) and in chronic pain populations (McCabe et al., 2007).

253

254 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

255 **2.6.1. Population**

256 For the demographic and clinical characteristics, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
257 was performed to assess whether groups differed. When a significant difference was
258 found, multiple comparisons were performed with Tukey correction.

259 **2.6.2. Effect of Group, Pain intensity and Visual Feedback on the Total score of**
260 **sensory disturbances**

261 As there was no statistical difference between the left and right arm for all groups (see
262 Table 1S in Supplementary Material) in sensory disturbances, statistical analyses were
263 performed on the mean of both arms. Sensory disturbances were assessed with a 9-item
264 scale (see section 2.5.3), the average of the 9 items was computed as a Total score of
265 sensory disturbances. To test the effect of Group and Visual feedback on the Total score
266 a 2x4 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with pain intensity as a covariate was used:
267 2[Visual feedback (Congruent or Incongruent)] x 4[Group (CRPS, FM, HV or Arthritis)].
268 The Pain intensity was included as a covariate as it was differed according to the Group
269 (see Table 2). When applicable, multiple comparisons were performed with Tukey
270 correction.

271 **2.6.3. Correlations analyses**

272 Correlation analyses were performed for each group to test the association between the
273 Total score of sensory disturbances during the Incongruent VF condition and clinical
274 outcomes. For the pain groups (CRPS, FM and Arthritis), Pearson's partial correlations
275 were performed to control the Pain intensity. For the HV group, Pearson's correlations
276 were performed.

277 **2.6.4. Subgroups of sensory disturbances**

278 We had previously observed that some sensory disturbance items seemed to be more
279 frequent in response to visual incongruence than others, and some appeared to occur
280 predominantly in the presence of pain in an acute pain model (Brun et al., 2017). A
281 principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the 9 items of the sensory
282 disturbances questionnaire measured during the Incongruent Visual feedback condition to
283 determine whether it was possible to identify subgroups of related items. All the
284 experimental groups were pooled together to do the PCA in order to have larger variability.
285 First, analyses with Bartlett's test and Kaiser Maier-Olkin (KMO) index were performed in
286 order to test whether the correlation matrix was adapted to perform a PCA. Bartlett's test
287 has to be significant and KMO index superior or equal to 0.60 to perform the PCA.
288 Secondly, a scree-plot, displaying the eigenvalues as a factor of each component, was

289 used to determine which components explained most of the variability in the data. Third,
290 items were related to one specific component if the absolute value of the loadings factors
291 was superior or equal to 0.45. Finally, internal consistency for each component was
292 measured with Cronbach's alpha.

293 PCA can convert a large set of sensory disturbances that are possibly correlated into
294 (smaller) subgroups of disturbance that are distinct from each other. Because the
295 subgroups obtained are independent from each other, they could vary differently
296 according to the Group and the Visual Feedback conditions. Therefore, the effect of Group
297 and Visual feedback was tested on each Subgroup of sensory disturbances using the
298 same design as used for the Total score. Therefore, the effect of Group and Visual
299 feedback was performed on each Subgroup of sensory disturbances in the same design
300 used for the Total score: a 2x4 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with pain intensity as a
301 covariate was used: 2[Visual feedback (Congruent or Incongruent)] x 4[Group (CRPS, FM,
302 HV or Arthritis)]. The Pain intensity was included as a covariate as it was different
303 according to the group (see Table 2). When applicable multiple comparisons were
304 performed with Tukey correction.

305

306 Data analyses were performed with R 3.4.4 and IBM SPSS Statistics 24 (IBM Corp.
307 Released 2016. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 24.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp).
308 Normality of the data were assessed with Komolgorov-Smirnov test for the eight
309 experimental conditions (Congruent_CRPS ($p>0.22$), Incongruent_CRPS ($p>0.70$),
310 Congruent_FM ($p>0.35$), Incongruent_FM ($p>0.87$), Congruent_Arthritis ($p>0.19$,
311 Incongruent_Arthritis ($p>0.65$), Congruent_HV ($p<0.05$), Incongruent_HV ($p>0.29$)).
312 When necessary, p-values were Greenhouse-Geisser corrected for sphericity. Moreover,
313 all analyses of variance were assessed with a Type II model designed for unequal sample
314 sizes. The statistical significance was set at $p<0.05$.

315

316 **3. RESULTS**

317

318 **3.1 Population**

319 Table 1 presents the demographic and clinical characteristics for each group. Table 2
320 presents the results of the ANOVA. For most variables, CRPS and FM participants were
321 different from HV and Arthritis participants, but never different from each other (but see
322 Table 2 for details for each variable).

323

324

« Insert Table 1 approximately here»

325

« Insert Table 2 approximately here»

326

327 **3.2. Effect of Group, Pain intensity and Visual Feedback on the Total score of**
328 **sensory disturbances**

329 Table 1S in Supplementary Material reports mean and SD for each experimental condition
330 in each group. Fig. 2 displays intensity of sensory disturbances for each group and each
331 item and Fig. 3 displays the Total score of the sensory disturbances questionnaire
332 according to the Visual feedback conditions and the Pain intensity. Table 3 displays the
333 ANCOVA results (F and p-values). As shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, and consistent with
334 previous observations (for a review, see Don et al. 2016 (Don et al., 2016)), all participants
335 reported more sensory disturbances during the Incongruent VF than the Congruent VF
336 condition (Table 3). Moreover, the Pain intensity (the covariate) was positively associated
337 with the intensity of sensory disturbances. After controlling for Pain intensity, there was no
338 significant main effect of Group. However, there was a significant interaction between the
339 Group and the Visual feedback conditions, meaning that CRPS and FM were more
340 sensitive to sensorimotor conflicts than HV and OA. Finally, a significant interaction
341 between Visual Feedback and Pain intensity was observed, meaning that more severe
342 pain was associated with a larger increase in sensory disturbances during the Incongruent
343 VF condition relative to the Congruent VF condition.

344

345

« Insert Table 3 approximately here»

346

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« Insert Fig. 2 approximately here»

348

349

« Insert Fig. 3 approximately here»

350

351

352 **3.3. Correlations analyses**

353 Table 4 displays partial correlation analyses for each pain group (CRPS, FM and Arthritis).
354 After controlling for Pain intensity for the pain groups, sensory disturbances evoked by the
355 sensorimotor conflict were not significantly related to the duration of the disease, the level

356 of depressive symptoms and anxiety. However, a positive relationship was found with the
357 amount of anomalous sensations and perceptions for the CRPS group.

358

359 « *Insert Table 4 approximately here* »

360

361 **3.4. Subgroups of sensory disturbances**

362 The type and the intensity of sensory disturbances induced by the VF incongruence
363 appears to differ across groups. Indeed, as shown on Fig. 2, during the Incongruent VF
364 condition HV reported mainly feelings of peculiarity and a perceived extra-limb, while the
365 three pain groups reported other additional disturbances such as pain, discomfort,
366 changes in weight and temperature and a perceived lost limb. Therefore, a PCA was
367 performed in order to identify different subgroups of sensory disturbances.

368 Bartlett's test and ($p < 10^{-16}$) and KMO index (0.85) authorized the realisation of the PCA.
369 Based on the Kaiser criteria, two components were retained (component 1: eigenvalue of
370 5.1; component 2: eigenvalue of 0.97 and all others eigenvalues < 0.70). The first and the
371 second components explained respectively 41% and 19% of the variance, with a very
372 good internal consistency for the first component (Cronbach's alpha 0.90) and good for
373 the second component (Cronbach's alpha 0.72). For each component, the average score
374 of the items was computed and used for further analysis. Subgroup 1 of items (component
375 1) includes the items 'pain', 'discomfort', 'losing a limb', 'heavier', 'lighter', 'hotter' and
376 'colder', and Subgroup 2 (component 2) included 'having an extra limb' and 'feelings of
377 peculiarity'.

378

379 **3.4. Effect of Group, Pain intensity and Visual Feedback on each Subgroup of** 380 **sensory disturbances**

381 Table 3 displays the ANCOVA results (F and p-values) for the Subgroup 1 and Subgroup
382 2 in comparison to the Total score of the sensory disturbances questionnaire. Fig 1S in
383 supplementary material depicts the intensity of sensory disturbances according to the
384 Visual feedback conditions and pain intensity for each Subgroup.

385 Subgroup 1. The results were similar to the Total score of the sensory disturbances
386 questionnaire.

387 Subgroup 2. While higher Pain intensity was associated with more report of Subgroup 2
388 sensations, it did not make participants more prone to report Subgroup 2 sensations
389 specifically in the condition of Incongruent VF. This effect was contrary to what was

390 observed in the Total score and Subgroup 1 sensations. However, similar to what was
391 observed for the Total Score and Subgroup 1, participants reported more Subgroup 2
392 sensations during Incongruent VF compared to Congruent VF.

393

394 **4. DISCUSSION**

395

396 The first objective of this study was to assess and compare the sensory disturbances
397 induced by sensorimotor conflicts in three chronic pain populations as well as in HV. In
398 accordance with previous studies (Brun et al., 2017; Daenen et al., 2010; Foell et al., 2013;
399 Katayama et al., 2016; McCabe et al., 2005, 2007; Roussel et al., 2015), Incongruent VF
400 induced more sensory disturbances than the Congruent VF condition in all groups. This
401 effect was stronger in the CRPS and FM groups compared to the Arthritis group, which
402 might be explained by the different origin of these pathologies and by the fact that they
403 differ on several clinical characteristics. However, the effect size of the Group was very
404 small ($\eta^2_p < 0.10$) suggesting that higher sensitivity to sensorimotor conflict in the presence
405 of pain is not mainly explained by the origin of the pathology.

406

407 The second objective of the study was to assess whether sensory disturbances induced
408 by sensorimotor conflict are related to the intensity and duration of pain or to other clinical
409 variables such as sensory perception abnormalities, depression and anxiety. Our results
410 show that the extent of sensory disturbances is strongly related to the intensity of pain,
411 regardless of the pathology. This result extends previous results showing that in the
412 presence of acute (Brun et al., 2017; Daenen et al., 2012a) and chronic pain (Daenen et
413 al., 2010, 2012b; McCabe et al., 2007), people are more prone to report changes in
414 sensory perception in response to sensorimotor conflicts compared to pain-free individuals
415 (for a systematic review see Don et al., 2016). Moreover, conflict-induced sensory
416 disturbances were related to sensory perception abnormalities (assessed with the CAPS)
417 in the CRPS group, but not to the duration of the disease or the psychological factors of
418 anxiety and depression. The CAPS assesses the perceptual anomalies for the five senses,
419 for example a perceived change in sensory intensity, a distorted sensory perception and
420 a distorted perception of one's own body (Bell et al., 2006). Inaccurate sensory perception,
421 inducing a greater mismatch between sensory feedback and motor intentions, could
422 explain why people with pain are more vulnerable to sensorimotor conflict. Indeed,
423 proprioceptive deficits are observed in CRPS (Bank et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2010; Peltz

424 et al., 2011) and women with fibromyalgia self-report an increase in sensory sensitivities
425 in somatosensory and non-somatosensory stimuli (Wilbarger and Cook, 2011). Altogether,
426 our results suggest that sensory disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflicts are
427 specific to pain and sensory perception abnormalities.

428

429 A third objective, focusing more on methodological aspects, was to categorize conflict-
430 induced sensory disturbances in to different subgroups. Two subgroups were identified.
431 This suggests that sensory disturbances are potentially related to two different processes,
432 the corollary being that they should be considered separately. This result is consistent with
433 recent findings showing that the presence of acute pain influences the nature of sensory
434 disturbances evoked by sensorimotor conflicts (Brun et al., 2017). In the absence of acute
435 pain, participants mainly reported conflict-induced disturbances such as feelings of
436 peculiarity, perception of an extra limb and perception of losing control, and these
437 sensations were not influenced by the presence of acute pain. However, in the presence
438 of acute pain, participants reported changes in pain, discomfort, temperature and a
439 perceived lost limb (Brun et al., 2017). Interestingly, two electroencephalography (EEG)
440 studies in pain-free individuals (Katayama et al., 2016; Nishigami et al., 2014) also support
441 the presence of two distinct mechanisms in response to sensorimotor conflicts. Nishigami
442 and collaborators (Nishigami et al., 2014) found that the effect of sensorimotor conflict was
443 related to an increased activity of the right posterior parietal cortex compared to the
444 congruent visual feedback condition. Using functional imaging, a previous study found
445 similar activation in the parietal cortex and activation in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex
446 during exposure to sensorimotor conflicts (Fink et al., 1999). Moreover, the specific
447 sensation “feelings of peculiarity” evoked during sensorimotor conflict was also related to
448 activation of the parietal cortex (Katayama et al., 2016). However, the activity of two pain
449 related areas – the anterior cingulate and the posterior cingulate cortex – was more
450 pronounced in participants who reported higher discomfort during sensorimotor conflict
451 (Nishigami et al., 2014). Thus, it could hypothesized that Subgroup 1 sensations are
452 related to activation of the cingulate cortex while the Subgroup 2 sensations are related to
453 activation of the parietal cortex.

454

455 Moreover, our results suggest that sensorimotor conflicts induce feelings of peculiarity and
456 the perception of having an extra limb (Subgroup 2 sensations), no matter whether
457 individuals have pain or not. However, the presence of pain appears to lower the threshold

458 for the detection of sensorimotor conflicts. Indeed for the Subgroup 2 sensations, people
459 with pain reported higher sensory disturbances even in the Congruent VF condition,
460 suggesting that the Congruent VF can be interpreted as a sensorimotor conflict for
461 individuals with pain, consistent with previous observations (Brun et al., 2017; McCabe et
462 al., 2007). This inaccurate perception of a sensorimotor conflict might be explained by the
463 fact that in the presence of acute (Gandevia and Phegan, 1999) and chronic pain
464 (Bultitude and Rafal, 2010; Lewis et al., 2007; Valenzuela-Moguillansky, 2013) alterations
465 of body perception are frequently observed. As pain did not make people more prone to
466 report higher Subgroup 2 sensations (feelings of peculiarity and the perception of having
467 an extra limb) during sensorimotor conflict, we suggest that these two items could be
468 removed from the sensory disturbances questionnaire.

469

470 Finally, we showed that in the presence of pain, people report new conflict-induced
471 sensory disturbances (Subgroup 1 sensations), including an increase in painful and
472 discomfort sensations, changes in weight and temperature of the limb and having the
473 impression of a lost limb. In contrast with the theory suggesting that sensorimotor conflicts
474 trigger painful sensations (Harris, 1999), the present results rather suggest that
475 sensorimotor conflicts would contribute to the manifestation of sensory disturbances and
476 pain maintenance. Recent systematic reviews and meta-analyses (Boesch et al., 2016;
477 Don et al., 2016) showed that there is no clear evidence that sensorimotor conflicts trigger
478 painful sensations in both clinical and healthy populations. Our results rather suggest that
479 sensorimotor conflicts might influence painful sensations and other sensory abnormalities
480 in chronic pain populations. These results can be interpreted in line with the body matrix
481 model (Moseley et al., 2012), defined as a body-centred representation depending on
482 multisensory integration in order to maintain the integrity of the body. This model suggests
483 that the body matrix might be altered in consequence to abnormal feedback (e.g. altered
484 sensory inputs, brain damage (Moseley et al., 2012), or brain adaptation (Tabor et al.,
485 2017)) and such alterations might impact on the homeostasis and thermoregulation of the
486 body (Moseley et al., 2012). For example, using the rubber hand illusion, a study showed
487 that participants in whom the illusion of ownership of the rubber hand was stronger were
488 those with a higher drop in temperature in their hand (Moseley et al., 2008). Moreover, a
489 previous study showed that sensorimotor conflicts also altered body ownership in healthy
490 people (Salomon et al., 2016). Therefore, in our study we could hypothesize that
491 sensorimotor incongruence disrupts the body matrix due to altered visual feedback about

492 limb movement and induces changes in ownership (having the impression of losing a
493 limb), thermoregulation (changes in temperature of the limb) and sensory perception (pain
494 and discomfort sensation). Furthermore, having pain makes people more vulnerable to
495 the consequences of a disrupted body matrix induced by sensorimotor conflict.

496

497 Some limitations of this study need to be highlighted. Firstly, visual conditions (Congruent
498 VF and Incongruent VF) were presented in a fixed order, rather than randomized
499 (confounder) and a convenience sample was used. However, the results of our study are
500 in line with previous studies showing that Incongruent VF induced more sensory
501 disturbances than Congruent VF (Brun et al., 2017; Daenen et al., 2010; Foell et al., 2013;
502 Katayama et al., 2016; McCabe et al., 2005, 2007; Roussel et al., 2015) suggesting that
503 these potential methodological biases had a minimal impact on our results. Secondly, in
504 order to provide an informed consent, participants were informed that the experimental
505 manipulations might cause brief discomfort and therefore it could have an impact on the
506 results. However, participants were not told about what experimental conditions
507 (Congruent or Incongruent VF) could lead to greater discomfort. Thirdly, for the third aim
508 two factors were extracted from the principal components analysis, although the
509 eigenvalue of the second factor was slightly inferior to 1 (0.97). This suggests that the
510 Subgroup 2 sensations could be removed from the sensory disturbances questionnaire,
511 which is also supported by the fact that pain did not make people more prone to report
512 Subgroup 2 sensations during sensorimotor conflict.

513

514 In conclusion, sensory disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflicts are higher in the
515 CRPS and FM groups compared to Arthritis and HV, but the effect size was very small.
516 Regardless of the pathology, conflict-induced sensory disturbances are mainly specific to
517 pain (large effect size). Indeed, the other clinical characteristics were not related to
518 sensory disturbances in each pain group, except for the sensory perception abnormalities
519 in the CRPS group. Moreover, sensory disturbances induced by sensorimotor conflict can
520 be categorized into two subgroups, suggesting they are potentially related to two different
521 processes. Finally, our results contrast with the theory suggesting that sensorimotor
522 conflicts trigger painful sensations and rather suggest that sensorimotor conflicts would
523 contribute to pain maintenance.

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526

527 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

528 All authors made substantial contributions to either the study design and methodology,
529 data acquisition or data analysis and interpretation. All authors discussed the study
530 findings, have been consulted in the drafting of the final article, and have given their
531 approval for publication.

532

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698 **Figure Captions**

699

700 **Fig. 1:** Mirror Visual Feedback (VF) depicting (A) Congruent VF and (B) Incongruent VF.

701 The arrows denote direction of limb movement.

702

703 **Fig. 2:** Type and intensity of sensory disturbances for the Congruent and Incongruent

704 Visual Feedback (VF) conditions for each group and each item of the questionnaire. From

705 left to right: 1:new pain, 2:discomfort, 3:losing a limb, 4:hotter, 5:colder, 6:heavier, 7:lighter,

706 8:having an extra limb and 9: feelings of peculiarity. Mean \pm SEM are reported. Score of

707 0 = no change in sensory perception, score of 6 = maximal change in sensory perception.

708 Grey and checkerboard bars correspond respectively to the Subgroup 1 and 2 of sensory

709 disturbances identified by the principal component analysis.

710

711 **Fig. 3:** Total score of sensory disturbances for each participant (all groups) according to

712 the Visual Feedback (VF) conditions and the pain intensity