The emotional and physical burden of pain in older people

Professor Harald Breivik

Professor emeritus, Faculty of Medicine, University of Oslo, Dept pain management and research, Oslo University Hospital, Norway

The effect of COVID-19 restrictions on mobility, mental well-being, and the perception and management of pain

Chronic, or persistent, pain is defined as pain that persists longer than the normal healing time and thus lacks the acute warning function characteristic of physiological nociception. Chronic pain constitutes a substantial healthcare burden, as it affects approximately 20% of people worldwide and accounts for 15–20% of physician consultations.¹

In older adults, persistent pain, defined as a painful experience that persists or recurs for more than three months,² is associated with anxiety, depression, falls, frailty, functional loss, gait change, higher health costs, low quality of life, polypharmacy, sleep disorder, social isolation, and weight loss.^{3,4} Factors linked to greater risk of pain developing or persisting include general physical health, mental health (e.g., depression, anxiety, and stress), physiological factors (e.g., obesity), and lifestyle factors (e.g., physical activity levels, smoking, and sleep).⁵

The experience of pain is determined by complex interactions between ascending peripheral signals and the modulation of these signals by the central nervous system through descending facilitatory and inhibitory systems. Many chronic pain syndromes display greater pain facilitation of pain and reduced pain inhibition. Additionally, ageing appears to be associated with a dysregulated pain profile, and the age-related imbalance of pain facilitation and inhibition makes older adults more susceptible to developing chronic pain compared with younger adults.

Physical activity is an important factor for healthy ageing, and low levels of physical activity are associated with non-communicable diseases such as cardiovascular disease and diabetes and an increased risk of all-cause mortality.⁸ Additionally, an accelerated deterioration of muscle mass and muscle function aggravates long-term health conditions prevalent among older adults such as cardiovascular disease, cognitive decline, depression, diabetes, frailty, and osteoporosis.^{9,10}

Before the emergence of the 2019 coronavirus pandemic, a majority of older adults were found to lead largely sedentary lives, with almost 60% of older adults sitting for more than 4 hours per day.⁸ This sedentary lifestyle among older adults was reinforced by the general quarantine, isolation, travel ban and social distancing response to the COVID-19 pandemic, and had an overall negative impact on the mobility and physical and mental well-being of older adults.^{9,11}

The vicious cycle of chronic pain and avoidance of physical activity

Although pain is normally a protective response to injury, prolonged reductions in muscle movement to avoid pain may contribute to disability and the chronicity of many pain conditions, especially in older adults.12,13 In general, older adults are typically less physically active than younger adults, and experience more chronic pain.¹⁴ However, physical activity helps preserve the endogenous pain inhibiting system into old age. Older adults who are physically inactive have weak endogenous pain inhibition, which may lead to a vicious circle where weaker pain inhibition leads to more pain, which leads to reduced physical activity and further reduced pain inhibition.7 Low levels of physical activity increase the risk of pain progression, which may lead to avoidance of physical activity and a reinforcement of the vicious cycle of chronic pain and inactivity.15 The reduced mobility and avoidance of physical activity as a consequence of pain may cause a 20%-30% increased risk of dying, particularly due to cancer and cardiovascular disease. 15 In older adults. physical activity needs to be personalised to the unique needs of each individual and should involve endurance, flexibility, and strength exercises. To improve motivation and reduce barriers to physical activity, educational initiatives are often helpful to communicate the rationale and benefits of moderate exercise.16

The impact of pain on quality of life

Pain and diseases associated with pain are leading causes of disease and disability burden globally,¹⁷ and chronic pain conditions such as neuropathic pain and multisite pain have a particularly detrimental effect on both physical and psychological health and wellbeing.¹⁸

Persistent and chronic pain has a wide-ranging impact both on quality of life and relationships and interferes with both physical and mental health aspects of daily living. 19,20 The impact and prevalence of musculoskeletal conditions, which increase with ageing, are leading causes of persistent pain, impaired function and mobility, reduced mental well-being, and reduced quality of life. 21 Pain may disrupt sleep, reduce the refreshing quality of sleep, aggravate anxiety and depression, and destroy self-efficacy, 22 and chronic pain patients with low self-reported health report high levels of loneliness, low friendship quality, and high levels of perceived rejection. 23

Additionally, chronic pain makes people more vulnerable to social isolation, which may lead to exacerbation of symptoms.24 During the COVID-19 pandemic, increased loneliness and social isolation were found to be associated with increased incidence and prevalence of pain intensity and chronic pain.25 Furthermore, patients with pain and depression experience reduced physical, mental, and social functioning as opposed to patients with only depression or only pain.26 Importantly, major depression increases the risk of developing future chronic pain, and chronic pain and pain catastrophizing are mutually reinforcing determinants for chronic depression and form a vicious cycle of pain and depression.27

The challenges of pain management in older adults

Although more people live longer, many experience pain as a major part of their health problems, which increases the burden on healthcare systems. 16,28 Pain in older adults is frequently associated with frailty (i.e., unhealthy ageing) and treating pain as a stand-alone clinical symptom may therefore be of limited value if the older adult's overall life, social circumstances, and systemic health are not taken into consideration.5

Older adults frequently experience musculoskeletal pains due to osteoarthritis, low back pain, and neuropathic and cancer-related pain,16,29 and poorly controlled chronic pain affects approximately 40% of older adults living in the community and 80% of the nursing home population. Adding to this burden is the fact that it is also frequently under-reported and insufficiently assessed.30

Although older people often live with pain that negatively impacts their quality of life, some older adults have a tendency to stoically accept chronic pain, and demonstrate fear avoidance beliefs, which leads to treatment avoidance and poor engagement with healthcare recommendations. This may, unfortunately, further exacerbate disability and escalate disease chronicity.16

Pain in older adults is a challenging problem for healthcare professionals, as there are significant differences in the management of pain in older adults compared to younger patients. From a clinician point of view, concomitant chronic illnesses in older adults make pain evaluation and treatment more challenging in older adults. Additionally, older adults frequently respond differently to pharmacological therapies, and often experience reduced treatment effectiveness and more severe adverse events.31 Furthermore, most older adult patients living in nursing homes experience some degree of cognitive impairment which may impact on their ability to communicate pain to the healthcare provider and may therefore lead to inadequate assessment and management of pain.32,33

Additionally, comorbidities and associated polypharmacy complicate the evaluation management of pain in older adults. Importantly, adverse events related to pharmacological therapies are more frequent in older adults compared to younger adults, particularly in the presence of polypharmacy and comorbidities, such as age-related renal impairment.34 These factors need to be carefully considered when new treatments are being introduced so that the risk of drugdrug and drug-disease interactions are minimised.¹⁶

- 1. Treede RD, Rief W, Barke A, et al. A classification of chronic pain for ICD-11. Pain. 2015:156(6):1003-1007.
- 2. Treede RD, Rief W, Barke A, et al. Chronic pain as a symptom or a disease Classification of Chronic Pain for the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11), Pain,
- 3 Saraiya MD Suzuki GS Lin SM et al Persistent pain is a risk factor for frailty a systematic review and meta-analysis from prospective longitudinal studies. Age Ageing. 2018:47(6):785-793.
- 4. Persons AGSPoPPiO. The management of persistent pain in older persons. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2002;50(6 Suppl):S205-224
- 5. O'Neill A, O'Sullivan K, O'Keeffe M, et al. Development of pain in older adults: a latent class nalysis of biopsychosocial risk factors, Pain, 2018;159(8);1631-1640.
- 6. Staud R. Abnormal endogenous pain modulation is a shared characteristic of many chronic pain conditions. Expert Rev Neurother. 2012;12(5):577-585
- 7. Naugle KM, Ohlman T, Naugle KE, et al. Physical activity behavior predicts endogenous pain modulation in older adults. Pain. 2017;158(3):383-390. 8. Harvey JA, Chastin SF, Skelton DA. Prevalence of sedentary behavior
- systematic review. Int J Environ Res Public Health, 2013;10(12):6645-6661.
- 9. Lavie CJ, Ozemek C, Carbone S, et al. Sedentary Behavior, Exercise, and Cardiovascular Health, Circ Res. 2019:124(5):799-815.
- 10. Kirwan R, McCullough D, Butler T, et al. Sarcopenia during COVID-19 lockdown re
- long-term health effects of short-term muscle loss. Geroscience. 2020;42(6):1547-1578. 11. Jaul E, Barron J. Age-Related Diseases and Clinical and Public Health Implications for the 85 Years Old and Over Population, Front Public Health, 2017;5:335.
- 12. UK A. The impact of COVID-19 to date on older people's mental and physical health. 2020; https://www.ageuk.org.uk/globalassets/age-uk/documents/reports-and-publications/ reports-and-briefings/health-wellbeing/the-impact-of-covid-19-on-older-people_age-uk.pdf. 13. Merkle SL, Sluka KA, Frey-Law LA. The interaction between pain and movement. J Hand Ther. 2020;33(1):60-66
- 14. Rezus E, Burlui A, Cardoneanu A, et al. Inactivity and Skeletal Muscle Metabolism: A
- 15. Law LF, Sluka KA. How does physical activity modulate pain? Pain. 2017;158(3):369-
- 16. O'Neill A. O'Sullivan K. McCreesh K. Lower levels of physical activity are associated with pain progression in older adults, a longitudinal study. Eur J Pain. 2021;25(7):1462-1471
- 17. Schofield Pea, National Guidelines for the Management of Pain in Older Adults, 2019: https://www.britishpainsociety.org/static/uploads/resources/files/National_Guidelines_ for the Management of Pain in Older Adults Consultation Doc.pdf.
- 18. Disease GBD, Injury I, Prevalence C. Global, regional, and national incidence, prevalence, and years lived with disability for 328 diseases and injuries for 195 countries 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. Lancet. 2017:390(10100):1211-1259.
- 19. Kawai K, Kawai AT, Wollan P, Yawn BP. Adverse impacts of chronic pain on health-related quality of life, work productivity, depression and anxiety in a community-based study. Fam Pract. 2017;34(6):656-661.
- 20. Breivik H, Collett B, Ventafridda V, et al. Survey of chronic pain in Europe: prevalence, pact on daily life, and treatment. Eur J Pain. 2006;10(4):287-333.
- 21. Tsang A. Von Korff M. Lee S. et al. Common chronic pain conditions in developed and developing countries: gender and age differences and comorbidity with depression-anxiety disorders. J Pain. 2008;9(10):883-891.
- 22. Briggs AM, Cross MJ, Hoy DG, et al. Musculoskeletal Health Conditions Represent a Global Threat to Healthy Aging: A Report for the 2015 World Health Organization World Report on Ageing and Health. Gerontologist. 2016;56 Suppl 2:S243-255. 23. Finan PH, Goodin BR, Smith MT. The association of sleep and pain: an update and a path
- forward. J Pain. 2013;14(12):1539-1552.
- 24. Philpot LM, Schumann ME, Ebbert JO. Social Relationship Quality Among Patients With Chronic Pain: A Population-Based Sample. J Patient Exp. 2020;7(3):316-323.
- 25. Bannon S, Greenberg J, Mace RA, et al. The role of social isolation in physical and emotional outcomes among patients with chronic pain. Gen Hosp Psychiatry. 2021;69:50-
- 26. Yamada K, Wakaizumi K, Kubota Y, et al. Loneliness, social isolation, and pain following the COVID-19 outbreak: data from a nationwide internet survey in Japan. Sci Rep. 2021:11(1):18643
- 27. IsHak WW, Wen RY, Naghdechi L, et al. Pain and Depression: A Systematic Review. Harv Rev Psychiatry. 2018;26(6):352-363.
- 28. Glette M, Stiles TC, Jensen MP, et al. Impact of pain and catastrophizing on the long-term course of depression in the general population: the HUNT pain study. Pain. 2021;162(6):1650-1658.
- 29. McQueenie R, Jani BD, Siebert S, et al. Prevalence of chronic pain in LTCs multimorbidity: A cross-sectional study using UK Biobank. J Comorb. 2021:11:26335565211005870.
- 30. Duffield SJ, Ellis BM, Goodson N, et al. The contribution of musculoskeletal disorders in multimorbidity: Implications for practice and policy. Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol. 2017;31(2):129-144.
- 31. Schofield P. Pain in Older Adults: Epidemiology, Impact and Barriers to Management. Rev Pain. 2007;1(1):12-14.
- 32. Ali A, Arif AW, Bhan C, et al. Managing Chronic Pain in the Elderly: An Overview of the Recent Therapeutic Advancements. Cureus. 2018;10(9):e3293.
- 33. Ruoff GE. Challenges of managing chronic pain in the elderly. Semin Arthritis Rheum. 2002;32(3 Suppl 1):43-50.
- 34. Musso CG, Belloso WH, Scibona P, et al. Impact of renal aging on drug therapy. Postgrad Med. 2015;127(6):623-629