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# **Sleep and Pain: Relationship, Mechanisms, and Managing Sleep Disturbance in the Chronic Pain Population**

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## **Running Head:**

Relationship between Sleep and Pain

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**Abbreviations:**

CBT-I, cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia; CBT-P, cognitive behavioral therapy for pain; RCT, randomized controlled trial

## Abstract

It is well established that sleep and pain are associated in a bidirectional manner, with more recent research suggesting a stronger influence of sleep on pain than vice versa. The present review summarizes and critically evaluates the existing literature on the relationship between sleep and pain. Observational and experimental studies will be discussed to examine the temporal links between sleep and pain. These studies provide evidence that sleep disturbance could increase the risk of developing painful conditions or maintain existing chronic pain. Conversely, good sleep quality is associated with better musculoskeletal health. Several mechanisms may underlie the association between sleep and pain, including dopaminergic signalling, opioidergic signalling, inflammation, central pain modulation, mood and negative affect, and pain-related beliefs and coping behaviors. Moreover, future directions for managing sleep disturbance in patients with chronic pain will be explored. Developing hybrid interventions that target both sleep disturbance and pain could assist in improving health outcomes and providing coordinated care.

**Keywords:** sleep disturbance; insomnia; pain; chronic pain; mechanisms

## Introduction

Sleep is a vital and ubiquitous process that is essential for optimal bodily functioning and overall health (Luyster 2012). Despite the need for good quality sleep, non-restorative or reduced sleep has become an increasingly global issue (Stranges 2012). Several observational and experimental studies have shown the impact of sleep disturbance on pain processing and perception (Finan 2014, Lautenbacher 2006). Long-term dysregulation of the “pain system” could lead to chronic pain, which is characterized by pain persisting for three months or longer (Nicholas *et al.*, 2019). Prior studies on the prevalence of insomnia in the chronic pain population showed a range from 25% to 73% (Sun 2021 and Kalmbach *et al.*, 2016). These differences in point estimates among studies may be attributable to methodological heterogeneity such as differences in study samples, participant criteria, and various insomnia assessments. The prevalence of sleep disturbance may be higher in chronic pain samples than other chronic illnesses (e.g., asthma or diabetes) (Koyanagi *et al.*, 2014), and patients with chronic pain report more sleep problems (49%) than people without chronic pain (17%) (Taylor *et al.*, 2007). Further, the prevalence of chronic pain may be as high as 50% in individuals with chronic insomnia versus 18% in those without insomnia (Taylor 2007).

It is widely established that sleep and pain are reciprocally associated, such that pain could lead to sleep disturbance and sleep loss could exacerbate pain (Finan 2014). While previous reviews have summarized the literature on the bidirectionality of this relationship (Finan 2014, Anderson 2018, Smith 2004, Bjurstrom 2016, Lautenbacher 2006), there is some inconsistency on the included studies. Recent studies have begun to investigate the mechanisms underlying the sleep-pain association and treatment options for sleep disturbance

in the context of pain. The objectives of the present review sought to 1) discuss the current literature on the sleep-pain interaction and its bidirectionality; 2) summarize findings on the mechanisms contributing to the relationship between sleep and pain; and 3) describe the use of hybrid interventions to target sleep disturbance and pain in patients with chronic pain.

## Relationship between Sleep and Pain

### Observational and Experimental Research

It is widely established that the relationship between sleep and pain is bidirectional, such that pain negatively impacts sleep and sleep disruption can exacerbate pain. Table 1 showed the micro-longitudinal and longitudinal studies investigating the sleep-pain relationship. In a 1-year longitudinal population study, pain symptoms increase the risk of developing insomnia, and conversely, insomnia was a significant predictor of persistent pain (Jansson 2012). Similarly, a population-based cohort study found that total sleep time (< 6 or ≥ 9 hours) was predictive of pain frequency and more pain the next day, and pain predicted subsequent sleep duration (Edwards 2008). In patients with major burn injury, having insomnia at discharge was associated with more pain two years later, and greater levels of pain were predictive of sleep onset insomnia (Smith 2008).

The relationship between sleep and pain appears to be dose-dependent (Mork, Wiklund, Pan, Odegard 2013, Tang 2015). A 11-year cohort study of older adults found a dose-dependent and reciprocal relationship between sleep disturbance and persistent pain severity and number of pain sites (Pan 2020). Similarly, a 11-year study of 19,271 adults found an increased risk of insomnia in those with headaches lasting ≥ 7 days per month (odds ratio = 2.2)

versus those with headaches of lower frequency (Odegard 2013). Another cohort study of 6,676 older adults found the risk of insomnia three years later was greatest in individuals reporting widespread pain (odds ratio = 2.31) versus those having some (odds ratio = 1.57) or no pain at baseline (Tang 2015).

A growing body of literature suggests that sleep disturbance may predict pain to a greater extent than pain predicts sleep disturbance (**Table 1**). Sleep disturbance may increase the likelihood of the development, exacerbation, or spreading of chronic pain or painful conditions (general 2017; Aili et al., 2018; Boardman, Gupta, Mork; Pan et al., 2020; agmon 2014, lin 2017, uhlig 2018, Quartana 2010, Nitter et al., 2012; Jones 2009; Wiklund et al., 2020, skarpsno 2021). At a 1-year follow-up visit, patients with fibromyalgia reported that poorer sleep quality predicted more pain, whereas pain was not related with sleep (Bigatti et al., 2008). In veterans with musculoskeletal pain, change in sleep at three months was a stronger predictor of change in pain at 12 months, than vice versa (Koffel et al., 2016). In older patients with osteoarthritis and insomnia, short-term improvements in sleep following treatment of insomnia and pain were more predictive of pain improvements at an 18-month follow-up, than vice versa (Vitiello et al., 2013). In patients with chronic non-cancer pain, sleep quality significantly predicted pain levels the next day, whereas pain did not reliably predict sleep (Tang et al., 2012). Better patient-reported sleep quality predicted less pain in the first half of the next day, which is consistent with greater physical activity (Tang & Sanborn, 2014) and physical functioning (Gerhart et al., 2017) following sleep with better quality. Overall, these studies demonstrate that sleep disturbance significantly and strongly predicts the onset or maintenance of chronic pain conditions, whereas pain does not reliably predict the risk of sleep

problems. Given that demographic characteristics, such as physical or psychological comorbidities, may influence the strength of the sleep-pain relationship, future studies should account for the confounding effects of these variables (Marr 2020, Dubrovsky 2017).

In healthy participants, experimental sleep restriction (i.e., one night sleep time reduced by 50%) can increase sensitivity to pain and spontaneous pain levels (Matre et al., 2015). In patients with rheumatoid arthritis versus healthy control subjects, four hours of continuous sleep restriction during one night led to increased patient-reported pain, fatigue, depression, and anxiety (Irwin et al., 2012). In pain-free participants, partial sleep deprivation through forced awakenings each hour increase spontaneous pain and reduce pain inhibition the next day (Smith et al., 2007). Hence, the causal effects of sleep disturbance on subsequent pain may be attributed to disruptions in sleep continuity, and treatment of sleep fragmentation could act as a viable target for managing chronic pain.

### Mechanisms Underlying the Sleep-Pain Relationship

While the relationship between sleep and pain is well known, the mechanisms contributing this association are not fully understood. Current literature suggests the potential roles of dopaminergic signalling, opioidergic signalling, central pain modulation, inflammation, negative affect, and pain-related beliefs and coping behaviors (**Figure 1**). The following section will describe these factors in more detail.

#### Dopaminergic Signalling

Dopamine is a neurotransmitter involved in regulating sleep, arousal, and responses to rewards (Oishi 2017). While dopamine signalling is increased during wakefulness, reduction of dopamine neurotransmission promotes sleepiness (Oishi 2017). Moreover, sleep disturbance

may lead to alterations in dopamine signalling, such that dopamine receptor (D2/D3) availability is reduced following acute sleep loss (Volkow 2008, 2012). While a prior study by Volkow et al. (2008) attributed this diminished availability to increased dopamine neurotransmission, subsequent research by the group found that a downregulation of D2/D3 receptors led to lower receptor availability (Volkow 2012). Nonetheless, changes in dopamine signalling caused by sleep disturbance may affect responses to rewards and chronic pain. For instance, imaging studies of patients with fibromyalgia have shown reduced dopamine metabolism (Wood 2007), which is associated with reduced gray matter density (Wood 2009). In a rodent model, modafinil (a dopamine reuptake inhibitor) administration reversed sleep loss-induced elevations in pain sensitivity (Alexandre 2017). Hyperalgesia caused by rapid eye movement (REM) sleep loss was associated with diminished activity of dopamine D2 receptors located in the nucleus accumbens, whereas injecting a D2 agonist prevented this hyperalgesia (Sardi 2018). Additionally, certain genotypes of chemicals involved in dopamine neurotransmission, such as the enzyme catechol-*O*-methyltransferase, could be associated with lower positive affect in the presence of greater pain in patients with fibromyalgia (Finan 2010). Women with fibromyalgia and the met/met genotype of catechol-*O*-methyltransferase reported more pain during days when pain attention or catastrophizing were greater than participants with other genotypes of the enzyme (Finan 2011). These findings suggest that altered dopamine signalling as a result of sleep disturbance may influence pain processes. More research is needed to understand the roles of dopamine signalling and the reward system on the sleep-pain relationship, and whether they act as mediators or moderators for this association. These findings could help develop interventions to regulate dopamine

neurotransmission or reward system functioning, thereby mitigating the deleterious effects of sleep disturbance on pain and responses to pain flare-ups.

### Opioidergic Signalling

Opioids exert their analgesic effects by activating mu-opioid receptors of the endogenous opioid system (Pasternak and Pan 2013). Patients with chronic pain have shown diminished mu-opioid activation during a painful experience in comparison to a neutral environment (Martikainen 2013). While opioids may be prescribed for non-cancer pain management, a recent meta-analysis of 96 randomized controlled trials (RCT) found significant but small associations between opioid use and improvements in chronic non-cancer pain and physical functioning versus placebo, and similar effects to non-opioid interventions (Busse *et al.*, 2018). However, chronic opioid use may have adverse effects, including nausea, excessive daytime sleepiness, sleep-disordered breathing, and hyperalgesia (Busse *et al.*, 2018; Tang *et al.*, 2019; Mubashir 2020).

Rodent models suggest that sleep deprivation reduces the analgesic effects of mu-opioid receptor agonists (Tomim 2016). Experimentally-induced partial (50%) or total sleep deprivation in healthy participants has shown to induce hyperalgesia and dysregulate endogenous pain inhibition processes, which are mediated by endogenous opioid peptides (Roehrs 2006, Schuh-Hofer 2013). While experimental administration of 0.1 mg/kg of morphine may decrease REM and slow wave sleep in pain-free individuals (Shaw 2005), a recent meta-analysis reported that opioid therapy may lead to improvements in self-reported sleep quality in patients with chronic pain. (Tang 2019). Additionally, the immediate negative impact of

opioid therapy on sleep may not be observed by patients without adequate access to sleep monitoring instruments. Future experimental studies should increase understanding on the potential mediating role of endogenous opioid systems on the sleep-pain association, and observational studies should investigate whether opioid therapy moderates the effects of sleep disturbance on pain outcomes in patients with chronic pain.

### Central Pain Modulation

Another mechanism underlying the sleep-pain relationship involves changes in central pain modulation processes. Central pain modulation is characterized by processes in the central nervous system that affect pain signal processing (Ossipov 2010). Impaired central pain modulation can result in enhanced pain facilitation (defined by temporal summation or enhanced pain perception in response to repeated exposure to painful stimuli) or decreased pain inhibition (defined as suppressed pain perception in response to repeated exposure to painful stimuli) (Ossipov 2010). Experimental studies have shown that sleep loss or disruption may elevate pain signals by increasing pain facilitation and reducing pain inhibition, tolerance, and habituation (Eichhorn 2018, Schuh-Hofer 2013, Edwards 2009, Simpson 2018, Smith 2019). Alterations in these central pain modulatory circuits have been found to increase the risk of chronic pain (Staud 2012, Lewis 2012, O'Brien 2018), suggesting that sleep disturbance in the form of sleep fragmentation or reduced sleep duration may contribute to the development of chronic pain through central pain pathways. Females may be more vulnerable to impairments in central pain modulation induced by total sleep deprivation than males (Eichhorn 2018). Further, the central pain modulatory processes underlying the relationship between sleep

disturbance (in the form of forced awakenings) and central sensitization (defined as more pain caused by an increased gain of nociceptive pathways) may differ between the sexes, whereby sleep disturbance causes hyperalgesia in males versus enhanced temporal summation in females (Smith 2019). Lower self-reported sleep quality and sleep efficiency have also been associated with impaired central pain modulatory processes in chronic pain samples (Klyne 2018, Edwards 2009). Patients with insomnia have also demonstrated decreased pain inhibition, which may indicate a “ceiling effect” on pain inhibitory processes caused by prolonged subthreshold pain (Haack 2012). Interestingly, changes in certain central pain modulation processes, specifically pain habituation, may only occur after chronic sleep deprivation, and prolonged sleep recovery may be needed to reverse these changes (Simpson 2018). Further research is needed to increase understanding on the role of central pain modulatory circuits in the sleep-pain relationship. Future studies should also determine the extent to which changes in central pain processes recover upon sleep restoration.

## Inflammation

Inflammatory mechanisms may play a role in elevating the pain response following sleep deprivation. Experimental sleep loss has shown to increase levels of proinflammatory markers, such as the tumor necrosis factor alpha, C-reactive protein, and interleukins (Haack 2007, Chennaoui 2011, Meier-Ewert 2004). Indeed, a recent meta-analysis of 72 studies found that sleep disturbance, shorter sleep duration < 7 hours, and longer sleep duration > 8 hours were associated with enhanced concentration of interleukin-6, and C-reactive protein (Irwin 2016). Elevations in these markers appear to be more exacerbated in females after partial sleep

deprivation of four hours (Irwin 2010), which may contribute to the increased risk of chronic pain in females versus males (Bartley 2013). Moreover, prior research has shown significant correlations between higher levels of interleukin-6 and sleep deprivation-induced increases in pain (Haack 2007). Longitudinal research has also shown that every one-hour reductions in sleep duration is related with increased levels of C-reactive protein and interleukin-6 five years later (Ferrie 2013). These findings indicate the need for experimental trials and longitudinal studies to determine the causality of these associations and whether restoring sleep could reduce the activation of proinflammatory markers.

#### Depressive Symptoms, Anxiety Symptoms, and Negative Affect

Both the chronic pain and insomnia populations commonly report comorbid depressive (Kwiatkowska et al., 2019; Sivertsen et al., 2014) and anxiety symptoms (Jackson et al., 2014; Radat et al., 2013). Conversely, prior research has investigated whether sleep influences pain indirectly via psychosocial factors. For instance, depressive symptoms (Generaal 2017, Harrison et al., 2015; Nicassio et al., 2011; Parmelee et al., 2014; O'Brien 2011), negative affect (Ravyts 2018, O'Brien et al., 2010), and anxiety symptoms (Jansson-Frojmark & Boersma, 2012, Dunietz 2017) may contribute to sleep disturbance reported by patients with chronic pain, and have shown to mediate the relationship between sleep disturbance and pain outcomes (e.g., pain severity, pain interference, disability, development of chronic pain). In turn, sleep may influence the relationship between pain and depressive symptoms (Diaz-Piedra et al., 2014; Miro et al., 2011), and sleep disturbance may predict the onset of depression in patients with chronic pain (Campbell et al., 2013). Further, pain may mediate the sleep-depression

association (Hamilton et al., 2012) and depressive symptoms may also mediate the association between insomnia or short sleep duration ( $\leq 6$  hours) and chronic pain development (Generaal et al., 2016). Further, depressive symptoms have shown to be greatest in patients with poorer sleep and pain, suggesting that sleep disturbance may increase the risk of depression in patients with severe chronic pain (Parmelee 2016). While it is postulated that poorer sleep could result in decreased positive affect, there are mixed findings on whether positive affect mediates the relationship between sleep and pain (Whibley 2019, Ravyts 2019, Kothari 2015). Further studies are needed to enhance knowledge on the interrelationships between sleep, pain, and mood outcomes in adults with chronic pain. Findings from this research could assist in developing interventions that identify and target sleep disturbance and negative affect in the context of chronic pain.

### Pain-Related Beliefs and Coping Behaviors

Several cognitive processes may contribute to the severity of sleep disturbance, including pain-related dysfunctional beliefs and attitudes about sleep (Afolalu et al., 2016), the belief that sleep is an “escape” from pain (Tang et al., 2009), worries about sleep (Dillon et al., 2012), and pre-sleep arousal (Smith 2001). Pain catastrophizing is the tendency to exaggerate the threat level of a painful stimulus, feel helpless, and show an inability to reduce pain-related thoughts during a painful experience (Turner 2001). Pain catastrophizing has shown to be a risk factor for sleep disturbance in patients with chronic pain, and indirectly influence pain severity and interference through sleep disturbance (Beunaver 2012). In patients with knee osteoarthritis, pain catastrophizing moderated the association between sleep efficiency and

central sensitization, such that patients with lower sleep efficiency and greater catastrophizing had increased central sensitization (Campbell 2015). Pain catastrophizing is increased in patients with both chronic pain and insomnia (MacDonald 2008). Moreover, having comorbid chronic pain and insomnia is associated with increased avoidance of cognitive tasks that were perceived to worsen symptoms or exceed the participant's mental capacity (MacDonald 2008).

Behavioral mechanisms may also play a role in sleep disturbance among patients with chronic pain. Due to their pain, patients are often underactive and report low levels of physical activity (Larsson et al., 2017). It is well established that engaging in physical activity throughout the day will elevate levels of adenosine, a sleep-promoting neurochemical, thereby increasing the pressure to fall asleep (i.e., sleep drive) and facilitating slow wave sleep at night (Dworak et al., 2007). Anticipating pain or avoiding activity can also worsen pain intensity (Kroska, 2016) and lower physical functioning (Merriwether et al., 2018). Additionally, patients may spend a significant portion of their day in a lying position to cope with their pain or fatigue, perform their daily tasks in the bedroom environment, or take naps in an attempt to "catch up on their sleep" (Raheim & Haland, 2006; Theadom & Cropley, 2010). However, these behaviors may exacerbate sleep disturbance, reduce sleep drive, and strengthen the bedroom environment as a conditioned stimulus for arousal instead of sleepiness (Edinger & Carney, 2014). Indeed, patients with chronic pain and insomnia engage in more safety-seeking behaviors than those with pain or insomnia alone (MacDonald 2008). Due to their sleep-interfering effects, these behaviors are often identified and challenged during treatment for insomnia.

## Other Factors Influencing the Sleep-Pain Relationship

Other potential mediators of the sleep-pain association include fatigue (Bonvanie 2016), cortisol reactivity (Goodin 2012) and pain helplessness (Hamilton 2012). While diet and physical activity are not indicated as mediators, both factors have been related with sleep (Grandner 2014; Banno 2018) or pain (Choi 2014, Segura 2019) alone. Future studies should conclusively determine whether these factors play mediating roles on the impact of sleep disturbance on pain.

## Managing Sleep Disturbance in Patients with Chronic Pain

### Hybrid Interventions for Managing Sleep Disturbance and Chronic Pain

Given the prominent co-occurrence of chronic pain and sleep disturbance, an emerging trend in research is the development of hybrid programs involving cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia (CBT-I) and chronic pain (CBT-P) (Tang 2018). CBT-I is the first-line recommended treatment for insomnia (Qaseem et al., 2016; Riemann et al., 2017), and involves a multicomponent approach to targeting cognitive and behavioral processes that contribute to persistent sleep disturbance (Edinger & Carney, 2014). Common CBT-I components include psychoeducation on sleep, relaxation training, stimulus control (instructions to strengthen the bed/bedroom as a cue for sleepiness, such as avoiding to perform wakeful activities in the bed), sleep restriction (increase the proportion of time spent in bed asleep versus awake), cognitive restructuring, and strategies to prevent relapses (Edinger & Carney, 2014). Several RCTs have investigated the effectiveness of CBT-I in patients with comorbid insomnia and chronic non-

cancer pain. In a meta-analysis of 12 RCT, Selvanathan *et al.* reported significant treatment effects on self-reported sleep questionnaires (e.g., Insomnia Severity Index, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index), sleep diary variables (sleep onset latency, wake after sleep onset, and sleep efficiency), pain, and depressive symptoms at post-treatment (Selvanathan et al., 2021).

Common CBT-P components include psychoeducation on pain, relaxation/mindfulness exercises, activity pacing, training to improve pain-related communication, cognitive restructuring, and coping strategies for pain flare-ups (British Pain Society, 2018). While their long-term efficacy remains unclear, CBT-P could lead to small to moderate improvements on pain interference and intensity (Williams 2020). Our recent meta-analysis demonstrated that combining CBT-I with CBT-P can lead to significant effects on pain intensity and interference at post-treatment versus control (i.e., no or passive intervention), but not at follow-up (Selvanathan *et al.*, 2021). However, these effects on pain were similar to trials utilizing CBT-I alone (Selvanathan *et al.*, 2021).

Evidently, future studies incorporating robust and randomized controlled designs are warranted to further investigate the effectiveness of hybrid treatments in patients with chronic pain and sleep disturbance. Future studies should utilize longer follow-up periods and compare the effects of hybrid treatments in patients with different levels of pain. Research on hybrid treatments could provide valuable insight on providing patient care through a more holistic and efficient approach, whereby multiple comorbidities can be simultaneously treated through one program (Tang *et al.*, 2018). In turn, these programs can increase the accessibility of sleep and pain care by reducing wait-times and the need to obtain referrals to separate sleep or pain

management services, which can ultimately lead to enhanced, comprehensive, and coordinated patient care.

## Conclusions

Sleep disturbance is a common complaint in patients with chronic pain. The relationship between sleep and pain is bidirectional, with evidence suggesting that sleep is a stronger predictor of pain than vice versa. Experimental and observational research have elucidated the potential direct (dopaminergic and opioidergic neurotransmission, central pain modulation, inflammation) or indirect (mood, pain-related beliefs and coping behaviors) mechanisms underlying the relationship between sleep and pain. In patients with chronic pain, CBT-I is an established therapy for sleep disturbance improving health outcomes beyond sleep and pain, including depressive and anxiety symptoms. Despite the growing body of literature on this topic, further research is warranted on the following areas: 1) examine longitudinal data to conclusively determine whether sleep disturbance predicts the onset and persistence of chronic pain, 2) utilize preclinical models, imaging methods, and epidemiological studies to investigate the mechanisms underlying the sleep-pain association, and 3) conduct experimental trials to assess the feasibility and efficacy of delivering CBT-I in a hybrid (e.g., CBT-I/CBT-P) format in individuals with chronic pain and sleep disturbance. Given the significant variability in sleep and pain assessments in the reviewed studies, future studies should consider the suitability of an assessment based on the aspect of sleep or pain it measures, along with the need to include self-reported and objective instruments. As chronic pain and sleep disturbance have both shown to impair overall health and increase burden on the individual and society, developing

methods to prevent and manage sleep disturbance and pain would be an important step towards addressing these global health issues.

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**Table 1. Micro longitudinal and longitudinal studies investigating the sleep-pain relationship.**

<b>Study</b>	<b>Participants</b>	<b>Design</b>	<b>Assessments</b>	<b>Pain → Sleep</b>	<b>Sleep → Pain</b>
<b>Agmon 2014</b>	General population N = 3,421	Baseline; 3.7 year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and back pain onset	No	Yes*
<b>Aili 2018</b>	General population N = 1,249	Baseline; 5- year follow-up; 18-year follow- up	Self-report sleep problems and chronic widespread pain onset	N/A	Yes* (stronger for 5- year follow-up versus 18-year follow-up)
<b>Bigatti 2008</b>	Fibromyalgia N = 492	Baseline; 1- year follow-up	Self-report sleep quality and pain	No	Yes*
<b>Boardman 2006</b>	General population N = 1,589	Baseline, 1- year follow-up	Self-report sleep problems and headache onset	N/A	Yes
<b>Dzierzerski 2010</b>	Insomnia N = 50	Daily for 14 days	Actigraphy; self-report sleep diary and pain	N/A	Yes*
<b>Edwards 2008</b>	General population N = 971	Daily for 8 days	Self-report sleep and pain onset	Yes (weaker)**	Yes***
<b>Generaal 2017</b>	General population N = 1,860	Baseline, 6- year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and chronic multisite musculoskeletal pain onset	N/A	Yes***
<b>Gupta 2007</b>	General population N = 3,171	Baseline; 15- month follow- up	Self-report sleep problems and chronic widespread pain onset	N/A	Yes
<b>Jansson 2012</b>	General population N = 1,746	Baseline; 1- year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and pain persistence	Yes**	Yes**
<b>Jones 2009</b>	General population N = 1,881	Baseline; 4- year follow-up	Self-report sleep problems and musculoskeletal pain onset	N/A	Yes (good quality sleep was predictive of good musculoskeletal health)
<b>Koffel 2016</b>	Chronic musculoskeletal pain N = 250	Baseline; 1- year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and pain severity	Yes* (weaker)	Yes***

<b>Lin 2017</b>	Insomnia N = 1,579	Baseline; 10- year follow-up	Clinician-diagnosed myofascial pain syndrome	N/A	Yes***
<b>Mork 2012</b>	Women N = 12,350	Baseline; 10- year follow-up	Self-report sleep problems and fibromyalgia onset	N/A	Yes***
<b>Nitter 2012</b>	Women N = 1,338	Baseline; 17- year follow-up	Self-report sleep problems and chronic pain onset	N/A	Yes (disrupted sleep was a risk factor for chronic pain onset)
<b>O'Brien 2011</b>	Women N = 22	Daily for 14 days	Actigraphy; self-report sleep diary and daytime pain ratings	Yes***	Yes***
<b>Odegard 2013</b>	General population N = 19,271	Baseline; 11- year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and headache and chronic musculoskeletal complaints	Yes (stronger for headache pain versus chronic musculoskeletal pain)	N/A
<b>Pan 2020</b>	General population N = 1,099	Baseline; 10.7- year follow-up	Self-report sleep and pain; knee radiography	Yes (stronger for knee pain versus multisite pain)	Yes (stronger for multisite pain versus knee pain)
<b>Quartana 2010</b>	Temporomandibular joint disorder N = 53	Baseline; 3- month follow- up	Self-report insomnia and pain	No	Yes*
<b>Salwen 2017</b>	Knee osteoarthritis and insomnia N = 74	Baseline; 6- month follow- up	Actigraphy; self-report sleep diary and CBT-I- related reductions in pain	N/A	Yes* (sleep duration was predictive of pain reduction during CBT- I)
<b>Skarpsno 2021</b>	General population N = 6,033	Baseline; 10- year follow-up;	Self-report sleep quality and chronic pain onset	N/A	Yes (change from good to poor sleep between

		20-year follow-up			baseline and 10-year follow-up was predictive of chronic pain onset at 20-year follow-up)
<b>Smith 2008</b>	Insomnia and major burn injury N = 333	Baseline; 24-month follow-up	Self-report insomnia and pain	Yes**	Yes**
<b>Tang 2012</b>	Chronic pain and insomnia N = 119	Daily for 7 days	Actigraphy; self-report sleep and pain	No	Yes*** (sleep quality was predictive of pain the next day)
<b>Tang 2015</b>	General population N = 6,676	Baseline; 3-year follow-up	Self-report insomnia onset and musculoskeletal pain based on American College of Rheumatology criteria	Yes (stronger for widespread pain versus some pain)	N/A
<b>Uhlig 2018</b>	General population N = 13,429	Baseline; 11-year follow-up	Self-report insomnia and chronic musculoskeletal complaints	No	Yes
<b>Vitiello 2013</b>	Osteoarthritis and insomnia N = 367	Baseline; 18-month follow-up	Self-report insomnia and pain severity	No	Yes***
<b>Wiklund 2020</b>	Localized pain N = 959	Baseline; 24-month follow-up	Self-report insomnia and spreading of pain	N/A	Yes

Notes. \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001