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## **Imprecise visual feedback about hand location increases a classically conditioned pain expectancy effect**

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1 **Imprecise visual feedback about hand location increases a classically conditioned**  
2 **pain expectancy effect**

3 **Short Running Title:** Disrupted visual hand feedback increases pain expectancy  
4

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43 **Abstract:** We tested the hypotheses that rendering sensory input about hand location  
44 imprecise increases a classically conditioned pain expectancy effect, increases  
45 generalization of the effect to novel locations and reduces extinction of the effect. Forty  
46 healthy volunteers performed movements with their right hand along predefined paths.  
47 Each path passed through two locations that were defined as either (i) the conditioned  
48 stimulus (CS+; paired with a painful unconditioned stimulus - UCS), and (ii) unpaired  
49 (CS-). During acquisition phase, participants watched their hand as they moved it.  
50 Participants were randomly allocated to an Imprecise group (IG), for whom visual  
51 feedback of the hand was offset 30-50mm from its true location, or a Precise group (PG),  
52 for whom vision was not disrupted. In the test phase, participants moved their hands to  
53 five locations – the CS+, CS- and three locations that lay between the two  
54 ('Generalisation stimuli'). Our first hypothesis was reported – pain expectancy was  
55 greater at the CS+ location in the IG than in the PG (6.9 [SD=1.9] vs 5.4 [SD=2.5],  
56  $p=0.02$ ). Pain expectancies generalised to novel locations similarly in both groups and  
57 there was no difference in extinction between groups. Our primary hypothesis was  
58 supported but our subsequent hypotheses were not.

59  
60 **Perspective:** We conditioned pain expectancy at a certain location of one hand, even  
61 though most participants were unaware of the contingency. Conditioned pain expectancy  
62 was greater when sensory information about location was less precise. This adds support  
63 to the possibility that associative learning may play a role in the progression of an acute  
64 pain episode to a more generalized pain disorder.

65  
66 **Key words:** Classical Conditioning, imprecise stimulus, illusion, pain expectancy, hand  
67 location  
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## 81 **Introduction**

82 Chronic musculoskeletal pain is a major health problem with a one-year prevalence of  
83 25% to 36% in the general population<sup>35</sup>. Costs related to persistent pain in the United  
84 States of America are between \$560 and \$635 billion annually<sup>18</sup>. Many persistent pain  
85 states are not associated with ongoing tissue pathology, an originally perplexing  
86 observation that is now explained by functional changes in the nociceptive system and  
87 brain<sup>79-81</sup>. Broadly speaking, these functional changes may be considered learning;  
88 stimulus-response profiles change such that stimuli that are not normally painful come to  
89 evoke pain, a situation termed allodynia, and normally painful stimuli come to evoke  
90 more pain, a situation termed hyperalgesia<sup>79</sup>.

91 The vast majority of research has considered this learning in the nociceptive system to  
92 reflect non-associative learning, whereby synaptic efficacy is enhanced by repeated  
93 signalling and the consequent long-term potentiation of the post-synaptic neurone results  
94 in 'central sensitisation'<sup>80</sup>. However, the vast majority of persistent pain states cannot be  
95 explained by this central sensitisation, a reality that led to a radical updating of the idea  
96 of central sensitisation to a clinical observation of allodynia and hyperalgesia in response  
97 to stimuli delivered outside the body area that was initially affected<sup>81</sup>. Even still, many  
98 pain states involve allodynia to a range of non-noxious somatosensory and, in fact, to  
99 non-somatosensory cues<sup>1, 59, 24</sup>, pointing to the possibility that associative learning may  
100 also contribute to persistent pain.

101 The possibility that associative learning, or classical conditioning processes, might  
102 contribute to persistent pain, is widely endorsed clinically<sup>45</sup>, even though supportive  
103 empirical data from humans has only emerged recently and inconsistent results between  
104 experiments point to a complex picture<sup>3, 27, 32, 42</sup>. It is critical to clearly differentiate this  
105 notion from that of associative learning of pain-related fear, for which there is a vast

106 literature <sup>13, 75, 76</sup>. In that work, pain is considered an unconditioned stimulus (US) and  
107 fear the conditioned response (CR). Here, however, nociception is considered the US and  
108 pain the CR<sup>60</sup>.

109 That non-noxious signals might come to evoke or magnify pain would be predicted by  
110 contemporary theories of brain function<sup>31, 78</sup> and the biopsychosocial model<sup>17</sup> of pain<sup>37,</sup>  
111 <sup>38</sup>, the latter of which posits that pain emerges from the interplay between contributors  
112 from across biological, psychological and environmental or contextual domains [see  
113 [Moseley and Butler<sup>55, 56</sup>, for extensive reviews](#)]. Empirical data are also supportive. For  
114 example, delivering a noxious cold stimulus with auditory or visual cues associated with  
115 heat evokes intense pain and often a feeling of intense heat, but delivering an identical  
116 noxious cold stimulus with auditory or visual cues associated with cool evokes less  
117 intense pain and usually a feeling of cold<sup>2, 55</sup>. Also, in people with neck pain, manipulating  
118 visual feedback during a head rotation task shifts the point at which they report the onset  
119 of pain, in a direction-specific manner<sup>27</sup>.

120 These converging lines of discovery led to and support the proposal known as the  
121 ‘Imprecision Hypothesis (IH) of chronic pain’<sup>60</sup>. It predicts that associative learning  
122 contributes to the progression of an episode of acute pain to a generalised pain disorder  
123 via over-generalisation of the conditioned response. Several studies have now supported  
124 that allodynia and hyperalgesia can be induced experimentally via classical conditioning  
125 procedures <sup>3, 25, 26, 32, 46, 49, 71</sup> as suggested by IH. Key to the IH is the notion that imprecise  
126 encoding of the multisensory CS that routinely coincides with the nociceptive input leads  
127 to over-generalisation of any classical conditioning effect<sup>60</sup>. Imprecise encoding might  
128 occur under situations in which sensory channels that dominate the multisensory CS are  
129 disrupted. Such disruptions have been documented in people with persistent pain<sup>9, 58, 68</sup>.

130 Relevant here are contemporary ideas in predictive processing, wherein perception is

131 argued to result from the integration of incoming sensory data and top-down predictions  
132 based on internal, generative models<sup>29</sup>. In contexts of precise or ecologically important  
133 predictions and imprecise sensory inputs, perceptions can deviate from the actual state of  
134 the world<sup>64</sup>. That is, in contexts of predictions that are fundamentally important to  
135 protection – for example pain – alongside imprecise sensory inputs, perceptions can  
136 deviate toward increased probability of pain. We have previously shown pain expectancy  
137 – the likelihood that pain will occur - to be higher when a CS occurred in anatomical areas  
138 of low somatosensory precision (back) than when it occurred in areas of high  
139 somatosensory precision<sup>26</sup>. However, that result leaves open the possibility that  
140 differences in somatosensory precision between the two anatomical areas did not  
141 underpin the difference in pain expectancy.

142 Here we interrogated Pain Expectancy - the probability of pain – under different  
143 conditions of sensory precision, induced by the MIRAGE illusion system<sup>66</sup>. Our first  
144 hypothesis (H1) was that imprecise sensory input during conditioning would result in  
145 greater expectation of pain (the ‘CR’) at the CS+ location. Our secondary hypotheses  
146 were that (i) generalization of the conditioned pain expectancy would be greater, and (ii)  
147 extinction of the effect slower, when sensory input during acquisition was less precise.

148

## 149 **Methods**

### 150 *Overview of the Procedure*

151 Forty participants underwent a differential classical conditioning experiment. First,  
152 participants were submitted to a calibration procedure to determine the individual  
153 intensity of electrical aversive stimulation delivered. Afterwards, using the MIRAGE  
154 system, participants were trained on how to move their right hand along paths (without  
155 aversive stimulation) while they watched a real-time video of their hand beneath the

156 mirror (see Figure 1). The MIRAGE illusion system has a camera, a customized software  
157 program, a monitor and mirrors to allow participants to watch a real-time video of their  
158 hand beneath the mirror, from the same perspective and in the same spatial location as if  
159 they were viewing the right hand directly.

160 During the *acquisition phase*, participants were randomly allocated to an Imprecise group  
161 – vision was disrupted to right or left – or a Precise group - vision was not disrupted. To  
162 manipulate the accuracy of visual input of hand location (imprecision), the MIRAGE  
163 system applied a shift in the apparent (i.e. visually encoded) hand location of 30 to 50  
164 mm (twice at each offset, order randomised), while the participants moved their right  
165 hand on the paths randomly determined. The paths were nonlinear trajectories starting  
166 and finishing always on the bottom right of the MIRAGE board and should include two  
167 locations: one on the far upper left side and one on the far upper right side of the  
168 movement path. One location was the conditioned stimulus (CS+), paired with an  
169 electrical aversive unconditioned stimulus (UCS). Another location was the CS- and was  
170 unpaired. The locations that lay between CS+ and CS- in the upper part of the MIRAGE  
171 board, but outside the predefined movement paths, were the generalization stimuli (GSs).  
172 In 50% of trials (n=6), when the hand crossed the CS+, the UCS was delivered to the  
173 hand.

174 In *test phase*, participants reported how likely they expected pain if their hand reached  
175 five specific locations (imagery task) marked with dots, including CSs and three novel  
176 locations (GSs - not available during acquisition). The locations were projected on the  
177 MIRAGE screen. The procedure was repeated randomly four times for each location (just  
178 one location was visible on the screen per trial) and Pain Expectancy ratings were  
179 obtained for each location.

180 The *extinction phase* required participants to move their hand along paths (12 times) that  
181 included the CS+ and CS- location, but no UCS was delivered. In each extinction trial, a  
182 movement path was shown on the screen, but this time the CS+ and CS- location were  
183 marked with dots (six trials for CS+ and six trials for CS-). Participants provided Pain  
184 Expectancy ratings as they had in the test phase, and then performed the movement as  
185 they had in the acquisition phase, but the UCS was never presented.

186

### 187 *Participants*

188 We calculated our sample size considering mean and standard deviations of Pain  
189 Expectancy for CS+ between groups, from the first 5 participants we enrolled in each  
190 group (n=10). We powered to detect a medium between-group effect size (Cohen's  
191  $f=0.43$ ); power of 90%,  $\alpha=0.05$ , correlation between measures =0.40; repeated measures  
192 between factors (G\*power, Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang; Institute of Psychology,  
193 University of Duesseldorf, Version 3.1, Germany). Accordingly, we required 17  
194 participants per group. To allow for withdrawals and technical errors, we aimed to recruit  
195 20 in each group.

196 The volunteers were recruited through flyers, social media and word of mouth at the  
197 University of South Australia. This study enrolled right-handed males and females (with  
198 normal or corrected-to-normal vision), aged between 18 and 50 years old. All eligible  
199 participants signed a consent form and received an honorarium of AUD \$20 per hour.  
200 Participants were not aware of the real aim of the study. Specifically, they were unaware  
201 that: i) they could experience a visual illusion during the acquisition phase of the study,  
202 and ii) that it was a classical conditioning study. However, we provided them with the  
203 information that they would receive a noxious stimulation to investigate the relationship  
204 between learning about movement and pain. The experimental protocol described that it



205 was a deception study and was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee from  
206 University of South Australia (HREC; protocol number: 200706).

207 The following exclusion criteria were applied: i) Neurological diseases (Cerebral  
208 paralysis, cerebrovascular accident or sequelae, epilepsy, Multiple Sclerosis, Parkinson's  
209 Disease, post-Herpetic neuralgia) or any history of trauma in the hand; ii) Chronic  
210 disorders (diabetes), vascular problems or chronic pain (pain which has lasted longer than  
211 12 weeks and is present on most days); iii) History of chronic pain within the last 6  
212 months, iv) Pregnancy, v) Acute pain (at any site); vi) Hand pain or recent hand injury  
213 within the previous 12 weeks; vii) diagnosed psychiatric disorder; viii) any skin  
214 sensitivity (dermatitis, psoriasis and eczema); ix) heart problems or a pace maker; and x)  
215 surgical pins or plates or metal-based tattoos in the hands.

216

### 217 ***Classical conditioning: stimuli and manipulation check***

218 This experiment used a classical conditioning procedure designed to create an association  
219 between the participant's hand being at a certain location (CS+) and the occurrence of a  
220 aversive stimulus (US).

221

### 222 ***Conditioning and generalisation stimuli***

223 A set of three different hand movement paths was created such that each path passed  
224 through two defined locations: one on the far upper left side and one on the far upper right  
225 side of the movement path (Figure 1A). One of the locations was defined as CS+ and was  
226 paired with an aversive electrical stimulus to the hand; the other was defined as CS- and  
227 was unpaired. The allocation of location (left/right) to CS was counterbalanced between  
228 participants within each group. Three distinct locations that lay between the two CSs, but  
229 outside the predefined movement paths, were defined as generalisation stimuli (GSs). The

230 GSs were numbered consecutively, with the numbers increasing with distance from the  
231 CS+. A picture illustrating the board with the five locations (marked with dots) and one  
232 of the paths adopted in the study can be found in the (Figure 1B).

233

#### 234 *Unconditioned stimulus*

235 The UCS was an electrocutaneous stimulation (square wave pulse of duration 100ms,  
236 400V) applied to the back of the hand in the space between the first and second metacarpal  
237 bones. A pushpin-type electrode resembling that of Inui et al.<sup>30</sup>, comprising a concentric  
238 anode and a blunt pin-type cathode in the center, was manufactured in house and attached  
239 to the skin with a circular adhesive sticker. Electrical current was passed across the  
240 electrode using a Digitimer device (DS7AH, SDR Scientific, Power: 12 Va, Freq: 47-63  
241 Hz, Hyde Way Welwyn, Garden City, UK) which was manually controlled by a  
242 researcher.

243

#### 244 *Contingency awareness*

245 Immediately after the end of the experiment, participants responded to four questions that  
246 aimed to investigate associations formed between locations, movement paths and painful  
247 stimulation or visual distortion during the experiment: (i) “*in which position did you feel*  
248 *a painful stimulation?*”, (ii) “*in which position(s) did you perceive visual distortion?*”,  
249 (iii) “*in which path(s) did you feel a painful stimulation?*” and (iv) “*in which path(s) did*  
250 *you perceive a visual distortion?*”. To help participants to answer the questions, the  
251 pictures of the locations and paths were projected on the screen.

252

#### 253 **The Precise and Imprecise conditions**

254 Participants were randomly allocated to one of two groups – Precise or Imprecise. The  
255 Precise group undertook the classical conditioning procedure with normal visual input.  
256 The Imprecise group undertook the classical conditioning procedure with modified visual  
257 input that shifted the seen position of the hand (Figure 1B). To manipulate the visual input  
258 for the Imprecise group, we used the MIRAGE illusion system (Figure 1A), which has a  
259 camera, a customized Labview software program (2010 National Instruments®), a  
260 monitor and mirrors to allow participants to watch a real-time video of their hand beneath  
261 the mirror, from the same perspective and in the same spatial location as if they were  
262 viewing the right hand directly (Figure 1B). The MIRAGE system was used for all  
263 participants, but the illusion was applied for the Imprecise group only. Participants sat on  
264 a chair and placed their hand into the lower level of the MIRAGE box, to lie on a  
265 horizontal board. Thus, when a participant looked down towards their hand, they saw a  
266 live footage of their right hand. A partition and bib secured around participants' necks  
267 prevented the participant from seeing their real hand. The participant's limb appeared in  
268 the same spatial location and from the same perspective as it would if they were viewing  
269 the limb directly (Figure 1B).

270 To manipulate the accuracy of visual input of hand location, the MIRAGE system applied  
271 a shift in the apparent (i.e. visually encoded) hand location of 30mm, 40mm or 50mm to  
272 the right or left (twice at each offset, order randomised), while the participant performed  
273 movements on paths during the acquisition phase (See Figure 1). The magnitude of the  
274 shift was determined through pilot testing (Supplementary Method S1 and Figure S2).

275 It was necessary to prevent the participant from updating or correcting the hand position  
276 to match visual estimates [proprioceptive recalibration<sup>12</sup>] as they performed the  
277 movements during the acquisition and extinction phases. To achieve this, a black  
278 rectangle obscured 70% of the board on the screen, so that the participant only saw his/her

279 hand once it reached the CS+ or CS- location. This limited the opportunity to adjust the  
280 movement path on the basis of visual input.

281

### 282 *Visual illusion manipulation check*

283 In order to verify that the actual and seen hand locations during painful stimulation had  
284 differed within the Imprecise group, we measured the seen and actual positions of the  
285 hand in the space at the moment when the painful stimulation was delivered  
286 ([Supplementary methods - Figure S3](#)). The tracking system (Labview customized  
287 software) was used to calculate the distance between the tip of the middle finger and the  
288 lateral border of the screen for the Precise group. For the Imprecise group, both the actual  
289 and the seen distances between the tip of the middle finger in relation to the lateral border  
290 of the screen were considered ([Supplementary methods - Figure S3](#)). The difference  
291 between the actual and seen distance was used to identify the “real visual shift” achieved  
292 for the Imprecise group.

293 The program ImageJ (Rasband, W.S., ImageJ, U. S. National Institutes of Health,  
294 Bethesda, Maryland, USA, <https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>, 1997-2016) was used to obtain the  
295 values in millimeters. To clarify – the true hand location at which the noxious stimulus  
296 was delivered was intended to consistently vary from the visually encoded location of the  
297 hand in the Imprecise Group via illusion. The above measures were used to confirm  
298 whether this occurred.

299

### 300 *Awareness of manipulation of visual input*

301 At the end of the study, before disclosing the real nature of the study, participants  
302 indicated how much they agreed (or not) with four statements: “*I felt as if I was looking*  
303 *at my own hand*”, “*I felt as if I was causing the movement I saw*”; “*Sometimes, I felt there*

304 *was something wrong during some movements; “Sometimes, I felt like an incongruence*  
305 *between my hand position and the visual feedback about my hand”*. The response options  
306 were Likert-type scale ranging from: strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree,  
307 disagree and strongly disagree. Although only the Imprecise group had received the visual  
308 manipulation, all participants responded to these questions.

309

### 310 **Outcomes and Questionnaires**

311 Primary hypothesis outcome: Pain expectancy ratings for the CS+ location during test  
312 phase. Secondary hypothesis outcomes: Pain expectancy ratings at the remaining  
313 locations during test phase, and Pain Expectancy ratings at each location during extinction  
314 phase. The question and anchors in both cases were: *‘How likely do you think it is that*  
315 *you will receive a painful stimulation?’*, with 0 meaning *“not at all likely”*, and 10  
316 meaning *“extremely likely”*.

317

#### 318 *Sensation and pain intensity*

319 To assess discomfort and pain during the calibration procedure, participants rated all  
320 stimuli using the Sensation and Pain Rating Scale (SPARS)<sup>43</sup> which has anchors of “no  
321 sensation” (-50), “the exact point at which what you feel transitions to pain” (0), and  
322 “most intense pain you can imagine” (+50). The SPARS performs well in the  
323 experimental context and overcomes limitations in scale range inherent to conventional  
324 pain rating scales<sup>43</sup>. We asked participants to rate their experience on the appropriate side  
325 of the scale, with -50 meaning *‘no sensation’*, +50 meaning *‘the most intense pain you*  
326 *can imagine’* and 0 meaning *‘the exact point at which what you feel transitions to pain’*.  
327 The written explanation of the SPARS emphasizes that ratings between -50 and 0 reflect  
328 a non-painful experience and ratings between 0 and 50 reflect a painful one.

329

330 *Questionnaires administered at the baseline*

331 To characterize the sample, participants completed the Positive and Negative Affect  
332 Schedule (PANAS)<sup>11</sup> and the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)<sup>67</sup>. Both have  
333 acceptable internal consistency ( $\alpha > .85$ ), construct validity and structural validity<sup>11, 67</sup>.  
334 Low positive affect and high trait anxiety have been linked to reduced extinction in fear  
335 conditioning experiments<sup>52</sup>.

336

337 *Questionnaire administered at the end of the experiment*

338 The extent to which participants engaged in catastrophic thinking during the application  
339 of individually calibrated painful stimuli<sup>16</sup> was assessed using the Catastrophizing  
340 Questionnaire. There are no widely accepted measures of catastrophizing in response to  
341 experimental pain stimulation. This questionnaire is a modified version of the Pain  
342 Catastrophizing Scale<sup>70</sup>. The wording of 6 items were modified to represent the three  
343 primary dimensions of catastrophizing in the context of laboratory procedures:  
344 rumination, magnification, and helplessness. Immediately after undergoing the  
345 experimental procedure, participants rated the degree of catastrophizing (during the  
346 painful stimulation) using the 6-item scale. The response options were: 0 (not at all), 1  
347 (to a slight degree), 2 (to a moderate degree), 3 (to a great degree) and 4 (all the time).  
348 Catastrophizing scores were obtained by summing the scores on the 6 items (maximum  
349 possible score: 24). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.87, suggesting a high degree of  
350 internal consistency.

351

352 **Procedure**

353 In the first contact with the volunteers (email or phone call), they were screened for right  
354 hand dominance (using the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory<sup>63</sup> and exclusion criteria  
355 were applied. Upon arrival at the laboratory, participants completed the informed consent  
356 form, filled in the baseline questionnaires and we obtained anthropometric data (weight,  
357 height and age). The skin on the dominant hand was exfoliated and cleaned with alcohol,  
358 and the electrode was taped to the skin. Micropore hypoallergenic medical tape fixed the  
359 cable to the dorsal surface of the wrist.

360 Participants were then allocated to one of the groups (Precise or Imprecise) via concealed  
361 randomisation. Also, the CS+ location and the sequence of administration of the CS+ and  
362 CS- were determined via a concealed simple randomization from five pre-defined  
363 possible sequences. This procedure guaranteed that half the participants would receive  
364 the US on each side of the board in each group. The randomization order was predefined  
365 using study randomizer online (<https://studyrandomizer.com/>).

366

### 367 *Calibration procedure*

368 We used an established calibration procedure to determine the intensity of electrical  
369 stimulation needed to elicit a self-report of moderate pain, defined as ‘painful and requires  
370 effort to tolerate’ and corresponding to a SPARS rating of between +25 and +35<sup>71</sup>. First,  
371 participants were submitted to the following electrical stimuli with a 30-second inter-  
372 stimulus interval: 1mA (presented twice), 2mA (twice), 4mA (twice), 6mA (once) and  
373 8mA (once). During this time, if any impedance occurred, then the electrode was  
374 repositioned until the impedance no longer occurred and the procedure was restarted.  
375 Next, a series of electrocutaneous stimuli of increasing intensity was administered to the  
376 participant’s hand, starting with 2mA<sup>71</sup>. The final higher electrical stimulus, in which the  
377 participant rated four in six trials as painful and greater than +25 using the SPARS, was

378 used as the US during Acquisition phase. After three minutes of rest, the acquisition phase  
379 has started.

380

### 381 *Training phase*

382 After calibration, participants sat at the MIRAGE and placed their right hand inside the  
383 lower level of the MIRAGE box (Figure 1A), such that they could see the real-time  
384 footage of their hand. First, each pre-defined movement path was projected onto the  
385 MIRAGE screen (mirror reflecting the monitor), and the participant memorized the path,  
386 including the direction of movement, as cued by visible arrows. Participants practised  
387 performing a 15-second movement of their hand along the path in a clockwise or counter-  
388 clockwise direction, 2 or 3 times per path, with feedback given to improve accuracy. The  
389 time was controlled by a chronometer. To maintain the accuracy of the movement  
390 tracking system, the prescribed position of the hand was with the fingers pointing  
391 forward, the hand held flat, the thumb in adduction and the fingers held together.  
392 Participants were also instructed to begin the movement after verbal cuing, to keep the  
393 hand within the visible area of the screen, and to return to the start position after the end  
394 of each movement. During training phase, the participants on both groups were not  
395 submitted to any illusion.

396

### 397 *Acquisition phase*

398 The Acquisition phase consisted of 12 trials. Each trial involved one cued movement  
399 along a prescribed movement path. There were three different possible movement paths  
400 (three in clockwise and three in counter-clockwise direction), each presented twice in a  
401 variable counterbalanced fashion. Every prescribed movement path passed through the



402 CS+ and CS- locations but did not pass through any of the GSs locations ([Figure 2](#) and  
403 [Supplementary files - Figures S4 and S5](#)).

404 In 50% of Acquisition trials, the US was delivered at the moment when the participant's  
405 hand crossed the CS+ location. Participants received CS-UCS pairings just 50% of the  
406 trials (6 times), because in all the trials participants had to move on paths crossing the  
407 CS+ position. This was based on pilot trials. If we administered the aversive stimulus  
408 every time the participant crossed the CS+ position, there was a risk that participants  
409 would pair 'movement' and 'pain', rather than a particular location and pain, thus  
410 confounding our intended manipulation .

411 Participants were requested to move the hand along each path spending approximately  
412 15-seconds as they were trained. This time interval was determined during the pilot study  
413 as a comfortable speed. Feedback was provided at the end of each trial, with instructions  
414 to move fast or slow. We controlled the time spent and gave instructions to improve  
415 accuracy. The time was controlled by a chronometer.

416 For the Imprecise group, the visual image of the hand was offset by 30mm, 40mm or  
417 50mm to the right or left (two trials of each, order randomised). A snapshot was captured  
418 on the researcher's screen and stored at each moment when the hand reached the CS  
419 locations mandatory in that trial (i.e.: if the trial was related to CS+, the snapshot was  
420 obtained just for such hand position) so as to later confirm the visual shift in the hand  
421 position when the electrocutaneous stimulus was administered ([Supplementary methods](#)  
422 [Figure S6](#)).

423 To avoid proprioceptive recalibration (for further details see the section "The Precise and  
424 Imprecise conditions") the participants were required to move their hand along the paths  
425 without visual information until they reached the position of the CS+. A rectangular zone  
426 (10 cm wide, 16 cm long) at the location of each CS was designated as a 'target zone' in

427 the customized Labview tracking system. During the acquisition phase, as soon as the  
428 tracking system detected that a participant's hand had entered the CS+ "target zone", the  
429 UCS was delivered ([Supplementary methods Figure S6](#)). After three minutes of rest, we  
430 started the test phase.

431

#### 432 *Test phase*

433 The test phase involved no presentation of CS or UCS, was identical for both groups, and  
434 involved no visual illusions. In each of 20 trials, the participant was shown one of the five  
435 locations (marked with dots) corresponding to Stimulus type: both CSs and three  
436 intermediate positions between CS+ and CS- (GSs positions). Then, they were invited to  
437 report "... *how likely do you think is that you will receive a painful stimulation?*" if they  
438 move their hand to a specific location illustrated on the screen ([Figure 2](#)).

439 Each location was presented in 4 trials, and the order of trials was chosen by lot (five  
440 sequences pre-defined) ([Supplementary file S2](#)).

441

#### 442 *Extinction phase*

443 The extinction phase started just after the test phase (2 minutes of rest). The extinction  
444 phase consisted of 12 trials, 6 trials for CS+ location and 6 trials for CS- location, was  
445 identical for both groups, and involved no visual illusion. In each extinction trial, a  
446 movement path was shown on the screen, but this time the CS+ and CS- locations were  
447 marked with dots. The volunteers were invited to move on the same paths performed  
448 during acquisition. Participants provided Pain Expectancy ratings as they had in the test  
449 phase, and then performed the movement as they had in the acquisition phase, but the US  
450 was never presented ([Figure 2](#)).

451

452 *Post-experiment questions and debriefing*

453 Finally, participants completed the catastrophizing questionnaire, responded to the  
454 conditioned stimuli recognition test, were asked about contingency awareness and visual  
455 manipulation awareness, and, finally, the real nature of the study was explained.

456

### 457 **Statistical Analysis**

458 The primary analysis for this study used Pain Expectancy ratings provided during the test  
459 phase. We used Mixed-Design ANOVAs to compare expectancy ratings across locations  
460 and between groups. Our primary aim was to compare Pain Expectancy for CS+ between  
461 groups (H1). Our secondary aim was to compare pain expectation generalization (H2)  
462 and delay in extinction (H3), within and between-groups.

463 To test the primary hypothesis, we ran a Mixed-Design ANOVA considering Pain  
464 Expectancy to CS+ and CS- (4 levels) as repeated measures and Groups (2 levels: Precise  
465 or Imprecise) as between-subjects factor. Considering test phase results, we ran another  
466 Mixed-Design ANOVA to test our secondary hypothesis (H2), in which GS1, GS2 and  
467 GS3 (4 levels) were the repeated measures and Groups (2 levels: Precise or Imprecise) as  
468 the between-subjects factor. With the aim to test our secondary hypothesis (H3), we also  
469 performed a Mixed-Design ANOVA with Pain Expectancy to CS+ and CS- (6 levels) as  
470 repeated measures and Groups (2 levels: Precise or Imprecise) as between-subjects factor.

471 In addition, separate repeated measures ANOVAS on both the Precise and Imprecise  
472 groups were conducted to test H2, considering the mean Pain Expectancy on test phase  
473 trials (average of Pain Expectancy across trials) for each stimulus (CS, GS1, GS2, GS3,  
474 CS-, five levels). And two separate repeated measures ANOVAs on both Precise and  
475 Imprecise groups to investigate within-subject effect of trials on Pain Expectancy during  
476 extinction phase.

477 The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the M Box test were applied to assess the normality  
478 of the distribution and homogeneity of variance of our data, respectively. The Mauchly's  
479 test was used to verify the assumption of sphericity. To compare the means between the  
480 different levels of independent variables (pairwise comparisons), Bonferroni test  
481 (correction) was used to control for type I error. The comparison between the Precise and  
482 Imprecise groups for anthropometric data and psychosocial variables was carried out  
483 using a simple multivariate ANOVA ( $p < 0.05$ ) considering Group as the between-subjects  
484 factor. Also, the chi-square test was used to analyze percentage values. Data were  
485 analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Chicago, IL) 22 for  
486 Macbook and were expressed as estimated mean and standard deviation (SD).

487

## 488 **Results**

489 Fifty participants volunteered. Four were excluded: one participant reported isopropyl  
490 alcohol allergy, one participant reported a rare skin disease (*Dermatographic urticaria*),  
491 one participant reported a heart disorder (prolapsed mitral valve) and one participant  
492 reported Raynaud's syndrome. Additional four volunteers were excluded after changes  
493 to the experiment (pilot study) and two participants were excluded from analysis after the  
494 procedure because they did not report moderate pain on the SPARS (score of at least  
495 25/50) even when exposed to a high intensity noxious stimulation (more than 60 mA) –  
496 suggesting a possible nerve accommodation/habituation phenomenon<sup>28</sup>. Finally, 40  
497 participants (n=20/group) were included in the study. Baseline questionnaire results are  
498 provided in Table 1. No differences were observed between groups for age. The Precise  
499 group had a higher body mass index (BMI) than the Imprecise group, however, both  
500 groups showed a BMI score of normal weight (18.5–24.9). Nevertheless, we investigated  
501 the effect of the BMI as a confounding variable on the Pain Expectancy ratings.

502

503 *Actual and seen hand measures*

504 We calculated the actual and seen hand distances (mm) from the top middle finger to the  
505 closest border of the picture (screen) in the exact moment the participants received the  
506 painful stimulation. The mean difference in distance [actual<sub>hand</sub> – seen<sub>hand</sub>] was similar  
507 to the shift intended, except when the leftwards shift of 50mm was administered to the  
508 group with CS+ on the right side of the board, when the actual shift was -42mm  
509 (Supplementary results - Table 1S). Regardless, these findings confirm that in the  
510 Imprecise condition, a difference between seen and actual hand locations was always  
511 introduced, reflecting a consistent imprecision in sensory input as intended.

512

513 *General statistics*

514 The assumption of normality was not met for all variables: the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test  
515 showed a significant deviation from normality ( $p < 0.05$ ) for two ratings of two locations  
516 (GS2, CS-) during test phase. However, the literature suggests that the F-test is robust, in  
517 terms of power, tolerating violations of normality even with very small sample sizes<sup>33</sup>.  
518 Also, because the assumption of sphericity was violated (significant Mauchly's test), we  
519 adopted the results as recommended according to the epsilon boundary of 0.75<sup>19</sup>. Huynh-  
520 Feldt-corrected results were adopted for both test and extinction phases ( $\epsilon > 0.75$ ).

521

522 *Pain expectancy during test phase*

523 To test our first hypothesis (H1), we ran a mixed model ANOVA which showed a main  
524 effect of Group on Pain Expectancy at the CS+ ( $F_{(1,692,64,278)} = 4,95$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.12$ ). We  
525 ran the analysis twice, with and without adjustment for seven predictors: positive affect,  
526 negative affect, anxiety, catastrophising, pain rating obtained during calibration, sex and

527 BMI. None of the predictors showed a significant effect on Pain Expectancy and did not  
528 change the main effect of Group on Pain Expectancy, hence we considered the results of  
529 the analysis with no adjustment. In pairwise comparison, the Imprecise group showed a  
530 higher Pain Expectancy for CS+ than the Precise group did (6.9 vs. 5.4,  $p=0.03$ ) which  
531 upheld our first hypothesis (H1) (Table 2).

532 Between-group comparison on Pain Expectancy at each of the generalization stimuli was  
533 conducted with the aim to test our secondary hypothesis (H2). There was no difference  
534 between-groups for GS1 ( $F_{(1, 38)}=0.005$ ,  $p<0.92$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0$ ), GS2 ( $F_{(1, 38)}=0.36$ ,  $p<0.54$ ,  $\eta_p^2=$   
535  $0$ ) and GS3 ( $F_{(1, 38)}=0.23$ ,  $p<0.63$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0$ ) (Table 2). We also ran separate repeated  
536 measures ANOVA for Precise and Imprecise groups to investigate within-subject  
537 differences in Pain Expectancy between different stimuli (across locations), particularly  
538 differences between CS+ and the GSs. We showed a significant effect of stimulus  
539 location (conditioned or generalization stimulus) on Pain Expectancy for both the Precise  
540 ( $F_{(1,68 36,750)}=3.8$ ,  $p=0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.23$ ) and the Imprecise groups ( $F_{(3,190, 41,472 36,750)}=3.77$ ,  
541  $p=0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.22$ ). Pairwise comparisons (Bonferroni correction) showed a lower Pain  
542 Expectancy at GS3 and CS- than at CS+ for both groups (Table 3). The pain expectancies  
543 for each group and each location showed a gradual decrease in Pain Expectancy as the  
544 distance from the CS+ increased (Table 3).

545

#### 546 *Pain expectancy during extinction phase*

547 To investigate our third hypothesis, we ran a Mixed Model ANOVA on Pain Expectancy  
548 ratings during extinction phase. This ANOVA showed no main effect of Group on Pain  
549 Expectancy at CS+ ( $F_{(3,107, 118,05)}=0.91$ ,  $p=0.44$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.02$ ) and CS- ( $F_{(3,56, 118,05)}=0.20$ ,  
550  $p=0.67$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.01$ ). We ran also the analysis twice with and without adjustment for the  
551 same seven predictors as adopted for the test phase: positive affect, negative affect,

552 anxiety, catastrophising, pain rating obtained during calibration, sex and BMI. We found  
553 a significant main effect of anxiety for CS+ ( $F_{(1, 24)}=4.35$ ,  $p=0.05$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.15$ ), however,  
554 this effect did not change the mean effect of Group on mean Pain Expectancy for CS+  
555 during extinction.

556 We also ran separate repeated measures ANOVA for the Precise and the Imprecise group  
557 data. These analyses demonstrated extinction of Pain Expectancy ratings for the Precise  
558 group at CS+ ( $F_{(2,500, 47,497)}=8.92$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.32$ ) and CS- ( $F_{(3,545, 67,532)}=4.63$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  
559  $\eta_p^2= 0.20$ ) and for the Imprecise group at CS+ ( $F_{(3,532, 67,104)}=3.92$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2= 0.18$ ).

560 Pairwise comparisons showed that for the Precise group, Pain Expectancy at the CS+ had  
561 lowered by the 5<sup>th</sup> extinction trial and for the Imprecise group, Pain Expectancy had not  
562 lowered by the final extinction trial (Table 4). The Pain Expectancy across trials for each  
563 group during extinction phase shows a gradual decrease with subsequent trial (Table 4).

564

#### 565 *Manipulation check – evidence of classical conditioning*

566 As a confirmation of the classical conditioning effect, we expected a main effect of  
567 Stimulus type (higher expectation for CS+ than CS-) during test phase. Higher Pain  
568 Expectancy for CS+ than CS- was observed on both groups (Precise group -  $F_{(1, 19)}= 6.31$ ,  
569  $p=0.02$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.12$ , Imprecise Group -  $F_{(1, 19)}= 25.92$ ,  $p<0.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.57$ ). Pairwise  
570 comparisons showed a significant mean difference between CS+ and CS- of 3.9 (95%CI:  
571 1.8-6.0,  $p<0.01$ ) for the Imprecise group and 2.15 (95%CI: 0.2-4.0,  $p=0.02$ ) for the  
572 Precise group.

573

#### 574 *CS-US contingency awareness and the visual illusion*

575 For both groups, we classified a participant as having been contingency aware if they  
576 identified either CS+ or GS1 as the location in which they had received painful

577 stimulation. In the Precise group, 8 participants (40%) accurately reported the CS+ as the  
578 location in which they had received noxious stimulation. Of these 8 participants, four  
579 responded to this question by reporting two locations, one of which was either the CS+  
580 or GS1. In the Imprecise group, 3 participants (15%) accurately reported the CS+ as the  
581 location in which they had received painful stimulation.

582 The assessment of awareness of the visual manipulation showed that only two participants  
583 (one from each group) disagreed with the statement “*I felt as if I was looking at my own*  
584 *hand*” during the procedure. However, 21% (n=4) from the Precise group and 40% (n=8)  
585 from the Imprecise group agreed that “*...something was wrong during some movements*”,  
586 and 11% of the participants from the Precise group and 20% of the Imprecise group  
587 agreed that there had been some “*incongruence between visual information and the actual*  
588 *position of the hand*” during some movements.

589

## 590 **Discussion**

591 The main objective of this study was to investigate whether imprecise sensory feedback  
592 increases conditioned pain expectancy, and generalization and extinction of that  
593 conditioned effect, when a specific location is used as the CS+. Our results supported our  
594 primary hypothesis that imprecise sensory input during conditioning would result in  
595 greater pain expectancy at the CS+ location. That is, pain expectancy was significant  
596 increased when the hand was at a location previously associated with pain when visual  
597 feedback had been disrupted via illusion than it was when visual feedback had not been  
598 disrupted. Our results also showed generalization of pain expectancy but, contrary to the  
599 first of our secondary hypotheses, generalization was not affected by rendering sensory  
600 input imprecise during conditioning. Our final hypothesis was not supported either – we  
601 detected no difference between groups in the rate at which extinction of the elevated pain



602 expectancies occurred. Post-hoc separate analysis on group-specific data raise the  
603 possibility that an effect was present and we were not powered to detect it.

604 The main finding of the current study was that rendering sensory input imprecise  
605 increased pain expectancy at the CS+ location. To put this finding into context, it is  
606 important to consider it in light of the broader context of the IH<sup>60</sup>. The IH appreciates  
607 that, just as visual stimuli are encoded as meaningful singular percepts, not as an array of  
608 features or simply a retinal ‘impression’<sup>41</sup> (which allows us to be tricked by illusions such  
609 as the Necker cube<sup>61</sup>), so too painful movements and events are encoded as meaningful  
610 singular multisensory events, not as an array of nociceptive and non-nociceptive sensory  
611 features or simply a nociceptive ‘impression’. Such high-order integrated percepts present  
612 an excellent situation for associative learning, which permits rapid protective responses.  
613 That the current experiment induced elevated pain expectancies associated with a given  
614 location supports that principle. A mean difference of 1.47 on an 11-point pain  
615 expectancy rating should be considered a small effect, although it is comparable in  
616 magnitude with previously reported differences between patients and healthy controls<sup>48</sup>  
617 and may well be clinically important – further work is clearly required to determine if  
618 this is the case.

619 That imprecise sensory input increased pain expectancies extends a previous result from  
620 our group in which differential learning between CS+ vs. GSs and CS- locations in a skin  
621 area with low tactile precision (the lower back), was poorer than it was in a skin area with  
622 high tactile precision (the hand)<sup>26</sup>. Notably however, the current research question was  
623 different in two critical ways. First, we aimed to define a specific *location* of the hand in  
624 space as the CS+. That spatial data can influence the learning of associations was  
625 established in early studies<sup>72, 73</sup>, and associating certain environments with aversive  
626 stimuli is a well-used paradigm to study fear conditioning and learned helplessness in

627 rats<sup>34</sup>. Moreover, the notion that spatial cues might sufficiently signal threat so as to  
628 modulate pain expectancies is well recognized clinically<sup>45</sup>.

629 An important consideration is whether or not our manipulation to induce sensory  
630 imprecision may have had other pain-relevant effects unrelated to the conditioning  
631 procedure. Sensorimotor conflicts may deflagrate sensory disturbances in chronic pain  
632 patients<sup>7</sup> or exacerbate symptoms<sup>14</sup>. Also, experimentally induced pain has been  
633 associated with increased report of sensory disturbances in healthy volunteers, but the  
634 increase in sensory disturbances was not explained by an interaction between stimulation  
635 and sensorimotor incongruence<sup>7</sup>. Another consideration relates to previous findings that  
636 showed that lower stimulus predictability of pain is associated with higher reports of pain,  
637 fear and greater physiological arousal<sup>8, 62</sup>. We cannot exclude the possibility that  
638 processes similar to those interrogated in those studies were also at play here.

639 This approach (combining sensorimotor conflict + unpredictability) clearly has ecological  
640 limitations – there is no suggestion that the reliability of visual input is compromised  
641 during painful events outside of the laboratory. However, we selected this approach  
642 because we wanted to disrupt the final encoding of *location* and we can be sure, based on  
643 our previous work using the MIRAGE system, that we can achieve this aim<sup>4, 5, 20</sup>. The  
644 evaluation of participants' awareness of the visual input manipulation also confirmed that  
645 there was approximately a two-fold increase in reports of perceived incongruence  
646 between real and seen hand position in the Imprecise versus the Precise group, supporting  
647 the idea that participants would likely be less certain and/or accurate in localizing their  
648 hand under imprecise feedback.

649 In addition, we investigated the effect of several confounding variables on the pain  
650 expectancy. Our results showed just an effect of anxiety on pain expectancy during  
651 extinction phase, although, no interaction between anxiety and Group was observed,

652 suggesting anxiety, prior to the experiment, influenced both groups equally. On the other  
653 hand, we did not gather data regarding anxiety or arousal during the experiment. Future  
654 studies may investigate the pain anxiety evoked by contexts with different levels of  
655 predictability and sensorimotor conflict.

656 Regardless of the sensorimotor conflict and unpredictability, our paradigm was effective  
657 in inducing location specific expectancies - differential learning with higher pain  
658 expectancy at CS+ than at CS-. However, we did not reliably induce contingency  
659 awareness. Just 40% of participants from the Precise group and 15% from the Imprecise  
660 group, could accurately recall the location at which they received painful stimulation  
661 during acquisition phase. That is, more of the Precise group showed contingency  
662 awareness in post-experiment questioning, but 60% of that group still remained unaware.

663 The 50% reinforcement rate of the association between CS+UCS during acquisition phase  
664 may explain low contingency awareness, but not the between-group difference. In fact,  
665 such a low rate of contingency awareness with such a clear conditioning effect suggests  
666 that conditioning occurred outside of awareness. Whether or not this is possible is a long-  
667 standing debate – the first studies reporting fear conditioning outside of awareness  
668 emerged over 75 years ago [e.g. [Diven<sup>15</sup>](#), [Haggard<sup>23</sup>](#)] and studies reporting otherwise  
669 emerged a decade later, clearly linking both conditioning and generalization to both  
670 contingency awareness and ability to articulate it [e.g. [Chatterjee and Eriksen<sup>10</sup>](#)].

671 The current experiment demonstrated that once a pain expectancy was established during  
672 ‘acquisition’, the expectancy was elicited also by events that shared some features with  
673 it, a process called generalization. In conditioning experiments, generalisation is inversely  
674 related to the degree to which a stimulus can be differentiated from other functionally  
675 distinct stimuli, which allows optimisation of behavioural specificity<sup>22, 65</sup>. Contrary to our  
676 prediction, which was based on the IH, generalization of the conditioned response did not

677 increase, nor did the speed of extinction, when acquisition occurred under imprecise  
678 sensory input. Perhaps the alterations in the task during test phase limited differential  
679 generalization. That is, generalization was investigated using locations (GSs) outside of  
680 the learned movement paths, which may reduce generalization. In addition, CS-UCS  
681 reinforcement of 50% during acquisition phase, (i.e. 50% of the occasions on which  
682 participants crossed the CS+ location they did not receive a stimulus) may have reduced  
683 contingency awareness and perhaps conditioning effects and between group differences.  
684 However, a previous study showed that despite continuous CS–UCS pairings during  
685 acquisition showed stronger conditioned responses, it speeds the rate of extinction of  
686 differential UCS expectancies in a study of human fear conditioning<sup>21</sup>.

687         The current study has several limitations. First, we cannot disregard that we were  
688 underpowered for analysing all three hypotheses – that our secondary hypotheses were  
689 unsupported does not exclude the possibility that an effect exists. Observation of the data  
690 and planned pairwise comparisons raise that possibility particularly for our second  
691 secondary hypothesis – pain expectancies during extinction were lower after the 4<sup>th</sup> trial  
692 in the Precise group but were still not lower after the 6<sup>th</sup> trial in the Imprecise group. A  
693 second limitation was that the researchers in the current study were not blinded to group  
694 allocation because they had to administer the shock and the illusion. That our secondary  
695 hypotheses were not upheld suggests this did not impact results, but nonetheless it  
696 represents a shortcoming of the study. Third, only healthy subjects were enrolled in the  
697 current study, so results are not generalizable to clinical populations and it seems possible  
698 that differences may exist in contingency learning and generalization gradients between  
699 those with and without chronic pain<sup>27, 49, 51</sup>. Fourth, we were interested in pain expectancy,  
700 but we are unable to exclude the possibility that we inadvertently modulated fear of pain.  
701 We considered that within the current design, any change in fear of pain would be

702 secondary to changes in the expected likelihood of pain and saw no theoretical  
703 justification for why either condition would be associated with more or less fear of pain  
704 aside from that mediated by expectation. Future studies would be well served to evaluate  
705 fear of pain in order to verify these assumptions. Fifth, the CS-UCS reinforcement of 50%  
706 adopted in our study may not have been ideal - continuous and partial CS-UCS pairings  
707 can result in different outcomes. Finally, we did not lodge and lock our protocol and  
708 statistical analysis plan prior to data collection. When we commenced this study, such  
709 practice was uncommon in our field, but now it is recommended, and our group is among  
710 those at the forefront of this push<sup>36</sup>. Failure to do this clearly represents a shortcoming in  
711 transparency and reporting.

712

### 713 **Conclusion**

714 Our results supported our primary hypothesis that imprecise sensory input during  
715 conditioning would result in a small but increased pain expectancy at the CS+ location,  
716 even though most participants, particularly those in the Imprecise group, remained  
717 contingency unaware. Such a result adds to a growing body of literature centered around  
718 the Imprecision Hypothesis and to evidence for contingency unaware conditioning in pain  
719 conditioning studies. We also showed generalization of pain expectancy but, contrary to  
720 our hypothesis, neither generalization nor extinction were affected by rendering sensory  
721 input imprecise during conditioning. That a post-hoc analysis raised the possibility that  
722 an effect of imprecise sensory input on extinction may have gone undetected suggests  
723 appropriately powered studies to thoroughly test that hypothesis might be warranted.  
724 Future studies should also determine whether the results hold when participants are  
725 contingency aware and whether pain modulation is affected in a similar way to pain  
726 expectancy modulation.

727

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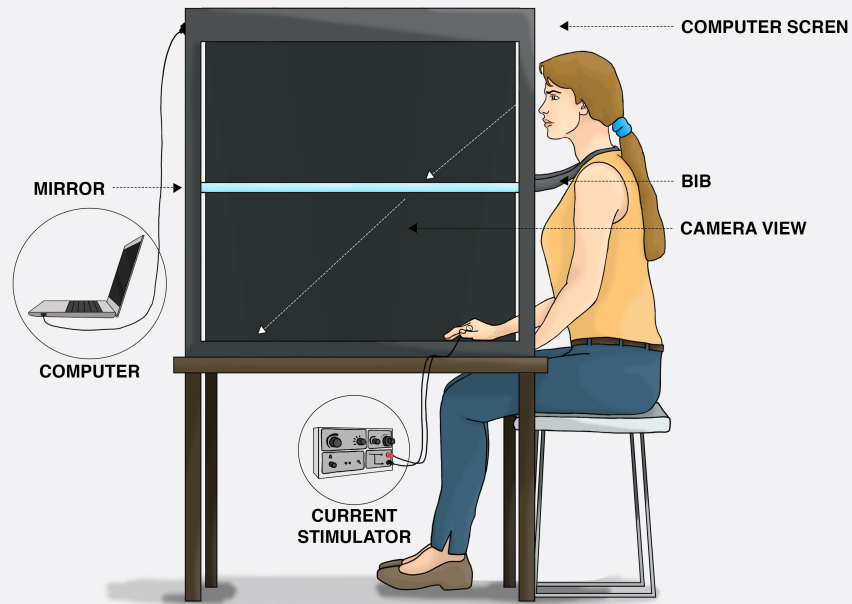
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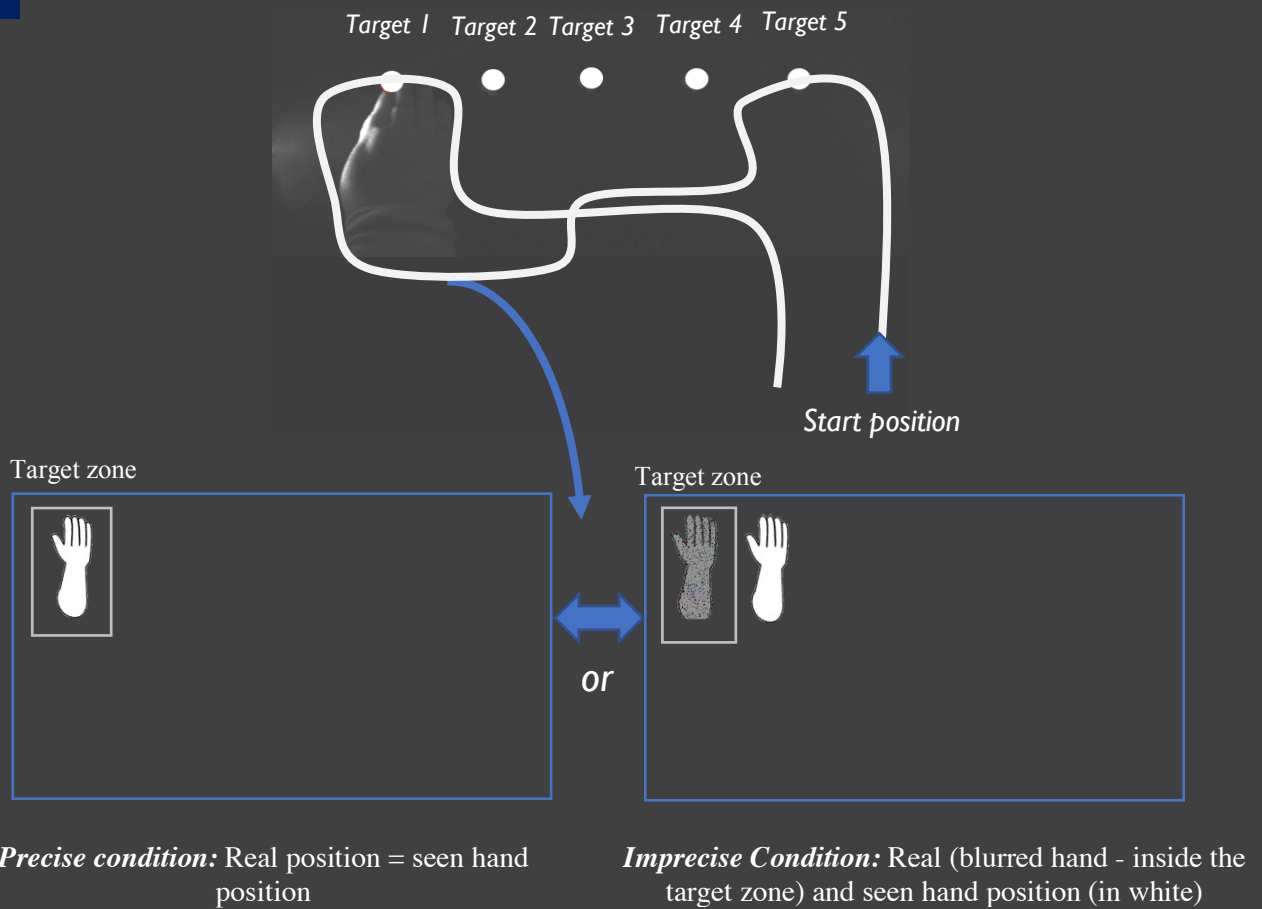
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# Figures

1A



1B



**Figure 1A.** Schematic representation of the MIRAGE multisensory system. The angles of the camera and mirrors were adjusted to enable real-time video capture of the participants actual hand to be presented in the same spatial position and same visual perspective as if viewing the hand directly.

**Figure 1B. (top)** Path showing the movement executed during acquisition and extinction phases of the experiment. Participant's hand crossed just the positions related to target 1 and target 5 (conditioned stimulus - CS). This picture is merely illustrative. In other words, no target or path was visible during the acquisition phase, however during test phase the locations were marked with dots [one per trial] and no path was presented. Ultimately, at the beginning of each trial of the extinction phase the same paths performed during acquisition phase, marked with one dot over CS+ or CS- locations were shown to volunteers. The middle positions (Targets 1-3), represent the generalization stimuli locations. **Figure 1B. (bottom)** The schemas are depicting the real and seen hand locations in the precise condition (right) and imprecise conditions (left) when the participant crossed the target zone (the hand is on the location volunteers received the aversive stimulation). In the example, target 1 was the CS associated with Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS).

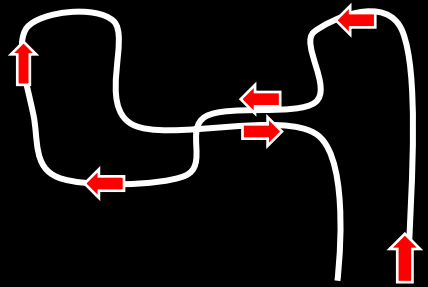


Screen 1

Please, move your hand according to the path and come back to the start position

Pay attention to the arrows that are showing the direction

Screen 2

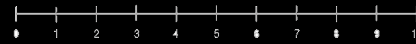


Screen 3



A

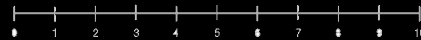
If move your hand to the location ...  
how likely do you think is that you will  
receive a painful stimulation?



Not at all  
likely

Extremely  
likely

If move your hand to the location ...  
how likely do you think is that you will  
receive a painful stimulation?

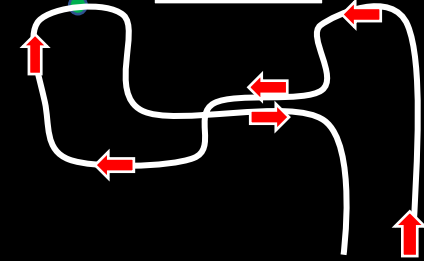


Not at all  
likely

Extremely  
likely

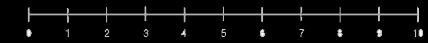
B

Screen 1



We want you to perform this path.  
Note the location of the dot.

Screen 2



Not at all  
likely

Extremel  
y likely

How likely do you think it is, that you  
will receive a painful stimulation, if  
you move your hand to that location?

Screen 3



C

**Figure 2B.** Flowchart depicting the acquisition phase of the group not submitted to the illusion (precise group). This block is describing the delivery of the conditioned stimulus with noxious stimulation (CS+, target 1). **Figure 2B.** Flowchart depicting the test phase from the classical conditioning experiment. The screen 1 is describing a trial related to target 1 position and the screen 2 is describing a trial related to target 3. **Figure 2C.** Flowchart depicting the extinction phase. Screen 1: Screen illustrating the path and the dot related to conditioned stimulus on target 1. Screen 2: Instructions on how to assess pain related expectancy. Screen 3: participant moving on the path – no noxious stimulation provided.

**Table 1.** Descriptive data (mean and standard deviation [SD]) for precise and imprecise groups.

<b>Anthropometric and clinical variables</b>	<b>Precise group (n=20)</b>	<b>Imprecise group (n=20)</b>	<b>p-value</b>
Age (years)	30 (12)	26 (6)	$F_{(1,38)}=1.80$ , $p=0.19$
Body Mass Index (BMI)	25 (3)	22 (3)	$F_{(1,38)}=5.16$ , $p=0.03^*$
Handedness (0-100%)	80 (21)	80 (27)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.03$ , $p=0.86$
Gender **	11F/9M	15F/5M	$X^2= 1.75$ , $p=0.32$
Noxious stimulus intensity (mA)	21 (19)	16 (14)	$F_{(1,38)}=1.03$ , $p=0.31$
SPARS (-50 to +50)	28.8 (3)	29 (3.1)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.22$ , $p=0.87$
Anxiety (20-80 points)	37.8 (9.3)	36.2 (8.3)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.32$ , $p=0.56$
Positive affect (10-50 points)	31 (7)	30 (8)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.05$ , $p=0.80$
Negative effect (10-50 points)	17 (7)	15 (6)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.06$ , $p=0.41$
Catastrophising (0-24 points)	6 (5)	5 (4)	$F_{(1,38)}=0.41$ , $p=0.53$

\*  $p<0.05$  (ANOVA)

\*\* Chi-square, fisher correction

Handedness - Edinburgh Handedness Inventory; Anxiety – State Trait anxiety

Inventory; The Catastrophizing Questionnaire; The Positive and Negative Affect Scale

(PANAS); SPARS (Sensation and Pain Rating Scale)

**Table 2. Pain expectancies at each location for each group.** Estimated means for pain related expectancy (mean along the trials) and Standard Deviations (SD) for the precise (P) and imprecise (IMP) groups during test phase

	<b>Estimated mean* (SD)</b>	<b>Estimated mean* (SD)</b>	<b>Mean difference</b>
	<b>Precise group</b>	<b>Imprecise group</b>	<b>(IMP-P)</b>
<b>CS+</b>	5.4 (2.48)	6.87 (1.93)	1.47**
<b>GS1</b>	4.87 (1.48)	5.6 (1.84)	0.72
<b>GS2</b>	4.04 (2.12)	4.75 (1.37)	0.71
<b>GS3</b>	3.48 (2.02)	3.58 (1.51)	0.1
<b>CS-</b>	3.27 (2.69)	2.97 (2.1)	-0.31

\*Estimated marginal mean (model precise and imprecise groups vs. conditioned stimuli)

\*\* p<0.05, ANOVA, Bonferroni correction

CS+: conditioned stimulus associated with noxious stimulation – right or left extreme position, GS1: Generalization stimuli closest to CS+; GS2: middle position; GS3:

Generalization stimuli closest to CS- and CS-: the opposite position regarding CS+.

**Table 3. Pain Expectancies at each location for each group during test phase.**

Estimated mean difference for pairwise comparisons between conditioned and/or generalization stimuli for the Imprecise group (top panel) and Precise group (bottom panel) during test phase.

	<b>CS+</b>	<b>GS1</b>	<b>GS2</b>	<b>GS3</b>	<b>CS-</b>
<b>Imprecise group</b> (estimated mean difference)					
<b>CS+</b>	NA	—	—	—	—
<b>GS1</b>	-1.27	NA	—	—	—
<b>GS2</b>	-2.13*	-0.84	NA	—	—
<b>GS3</b>	-3.28*	-2	-1.15	NA	—
<b>CS-</b>	-3.9*	-2.63*	-1.77	-0.62	NA
<b>Precise group</b> (estimated mean difference)					
<b>CS+</b>	NA	—	—	—	—
<b>GS1</b>	-0.53	NA	—	—	—
<b>GS2</b>	-1.35	-0.84	NA	—	—
<b>GS3</b>	-2.01*	-1.39	-0.56	NA	—
<b>CS-</b>	-2.15*	-1.6	-0.75	-0.2	NA

\*Significant difference (ANOVA, Bonferroni correction,  $p < 0.05$ )

NA= Not applicable, CS+ = conditioned stimulus associated with the noxious stimulus;

GS = Generalisation stimuli, with GS1 closest to CS+; GS2; CS- unpaired location in the opposite position (and furthest from) the CS+.

Gray cells = repeated comparisons

**Table 4. Pain expectancies during extinction phase.** Estimated mean pain expectancies (standard deviations) at the CS+ and CS- locations for the Precise group (left) and Imprecise group (right). Mean values adjusted by anxiety score

	CS-	CS+	CS-	CS+
	Precise group (SD)		Imprecise group (SD)	
	n=20		n=20	
<b>Trial 1</b>	4.05 (2.21)	6.25 (2.22)	3.6 (2.21)	6.4 (1.82)
<b>Trial 2</b>	3.9 (2.36)	5.9 (1.62)	3.65 (2.66)	6.3 (1.81)
<b>Trial 3</b>	3.5 (1.99)	5.4 (1.9)	3.05 (2.46)	5.45 (2.16)
<b>Trial 4</b>	2.9 (2.47)	4.9 (2.45)	2.65 (2.58)	5.2 (2.86)
<b>Trial 5</b>	2.40 (1.96)	3.6*#& (2.46)	2.6 (2.39)	4.95 (3.35)
<b>Trial 6</b>	2.25 (1.89)	4.0 # (2.71)	2.8 (2.65)	4.7 (2.9)

\* Different from Trial 1 in pairwise comparisons (p<0.05, Bonferroni)

# Different from Trial 2 in pairwise comparisons (p<0.05, Bonferroni)

& Different from Trial 3 in pairwise comparisons (p<0.05, Bonferroni)

CS+ = location that was paired with noxious stimulus during acquisition; CS- = the location that was unpaired during acquisition and furthest from the CS+.

**Supplementary results Table S8.** Description of the mean and standard deviations (SD) of the seen and actual hand position (mm) obtained from pictures captured during acquisition phase of classical conditioning for precise and imprecise groups.

	<b>Imprecise Group</b>						<b>Precise group</b>
	<b>Shift to left (SD)</b>			<b>Shift to right (SD)</b>			
<b>Target 1 – left side (n=10)</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>Mean of 6 pictures</b>
seen hand (mm)	118.7 (23.9)	108.6 (44.8)	98.6 (14.5)	136.3 (28.9)	145.6 (31.3)	163.8 (52)	115.1 (15.8)
actual hand (mm)	158.8 (32.5)	149.3 (44.8)	132.1 (24)	106.4 (29.4)	106.5 (30.3)	113.3 (52.1)	115.1 (15.8)
Actual <sub>hand</sub> – seen <sub>hand</sub> *	<b>47.5</b>	<b>40.7</b>	<b>33.5</b>	<b>-29.9</b>	<b>-39.1</b>	<b>-45.4</b>	
<b>Target 5 – right side (n=9)**</b>							
seen hand (mm)	160.9 (34.2)	133.2 (37.7)	145 (37.9)	108.8 (36.8)	123.1 (41)	86.6 (41.4)	128.4 (14.2)
actual hand (mm)	112.7 (36.4)	93.7 (37.4)	111.3 (42.6)	133 (35.4)	163.7 (40.4)	124.3 (26.2)	128.4 (14.2)
Actual <sub>hand</sub> – seen <sub>hand</sub> *	<b>-42.3</b>	<b>-39.6</b>	<b>-33.7</b>	<b>30.9</b>	<b>40.6</b>	<b>49.3</b>	

\* Mean value obtained after use the formula for each participant (not the subtraction between mean actual hand - mean seen hand positions)

\*\* During the experiment we missed the pictures from one participant

## **SUPPLEMENTARY FILES**

### **Supplementary Methods**

#### **Supplementary Methods file S1 - Determining the image shift used in the imprecise procedure**

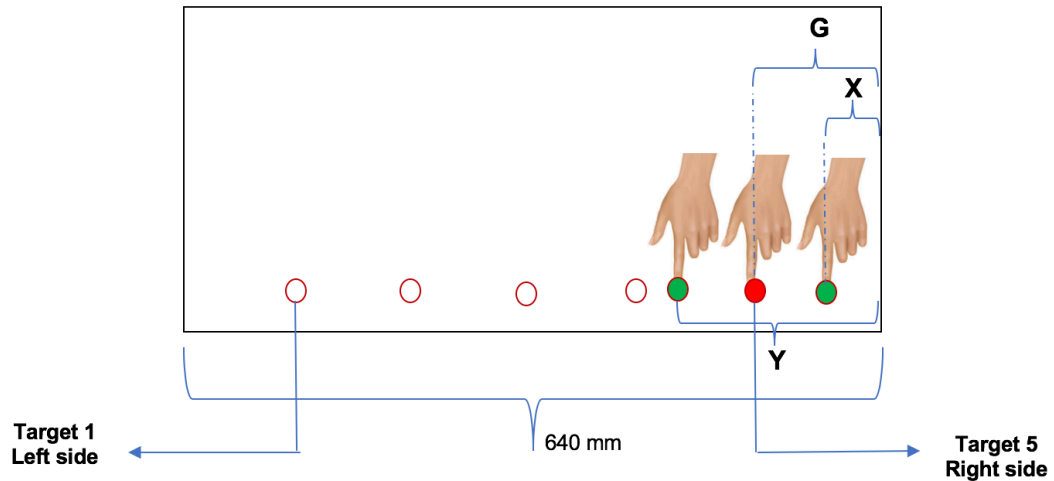
The amount of shift for the imprecise group was determined during a pilot study (n=3) in which we calculated the position of the tip of the index finger on the right hand (in millimeters - mm) with and without the shift. During the pilot testing, participants were asked to reach dots projected virtually on the board of the MIRAGE box in five positions (Figure S1). Afterwards the dot flashed, participants were instructed to move and reach the position and “to freeze the hand” in the final position. The participants repeated the trials in each position and at different shift ranges and directions (no shift: precise situation, imprecise: shift of 10-50mm to right and left) at least five times. For each final position of the hand, the researcher calculated the coordinates using the tip of index finger as a reference with Labview software (Figure S2). The mean value obtained for the coordinate (position on the board in mm) for imprecise condition was subtracted from the precise condition, to establish the “real shift”, or in other words, the final level of deviation from the correct position.

The standard error of the measurement (SEM) was obtained in an attempt to control the level of “real shift” we provided to participants. To calculate the standard error of the measurement (SEM), we adopted the formula described by Bland and Altman<sup>6</sup>. For the extreme positions, the SEM obtained in the pilot study in the precise condition were: extreme end right position (target 5) 9.71mm and extreme end left position (target 1) was 10.32mm. In order to guarantee that the shifts would surpass the SEM obtained, we adopted a minimum shift of 20 mm for the study. Values higher than 50 mm were not considered since the displacement of the screen would be too gross that was possible to



identify a dark rectangular area on the boundary which may provide cues regarding the manipulation of the image showed and introduce bias.

## Supplementary Methods file S2



G = position where the dot flashed - without shift (119 mm)

X (shift to right) = 70mm and Y (shift to left) = 167mm

$Final\ Shifted_{position} - Final\ non-shifted_{position} = Real\ Shift$

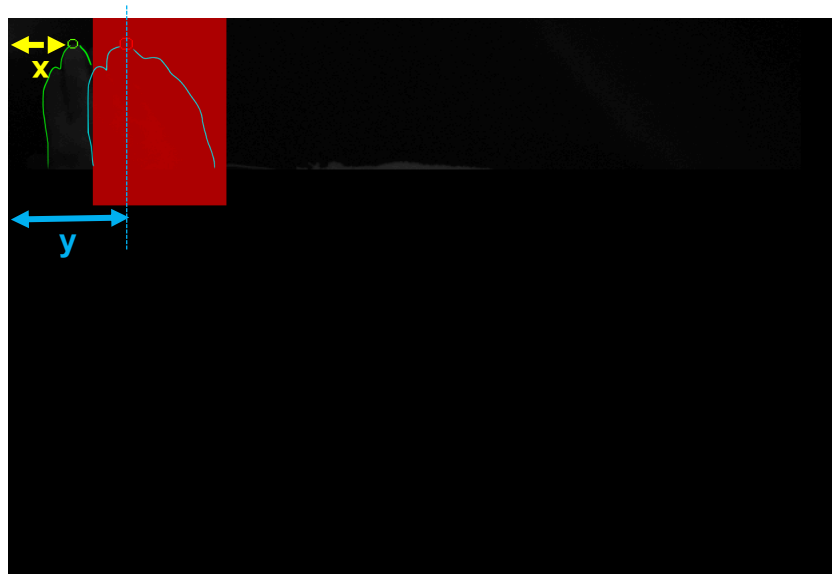
50mm shift to the right:  $167 - 119 = 48\text{mm of real shift}$

50mm shift to the left:  $70 - 119 = 49\text{ mm of real shift}$

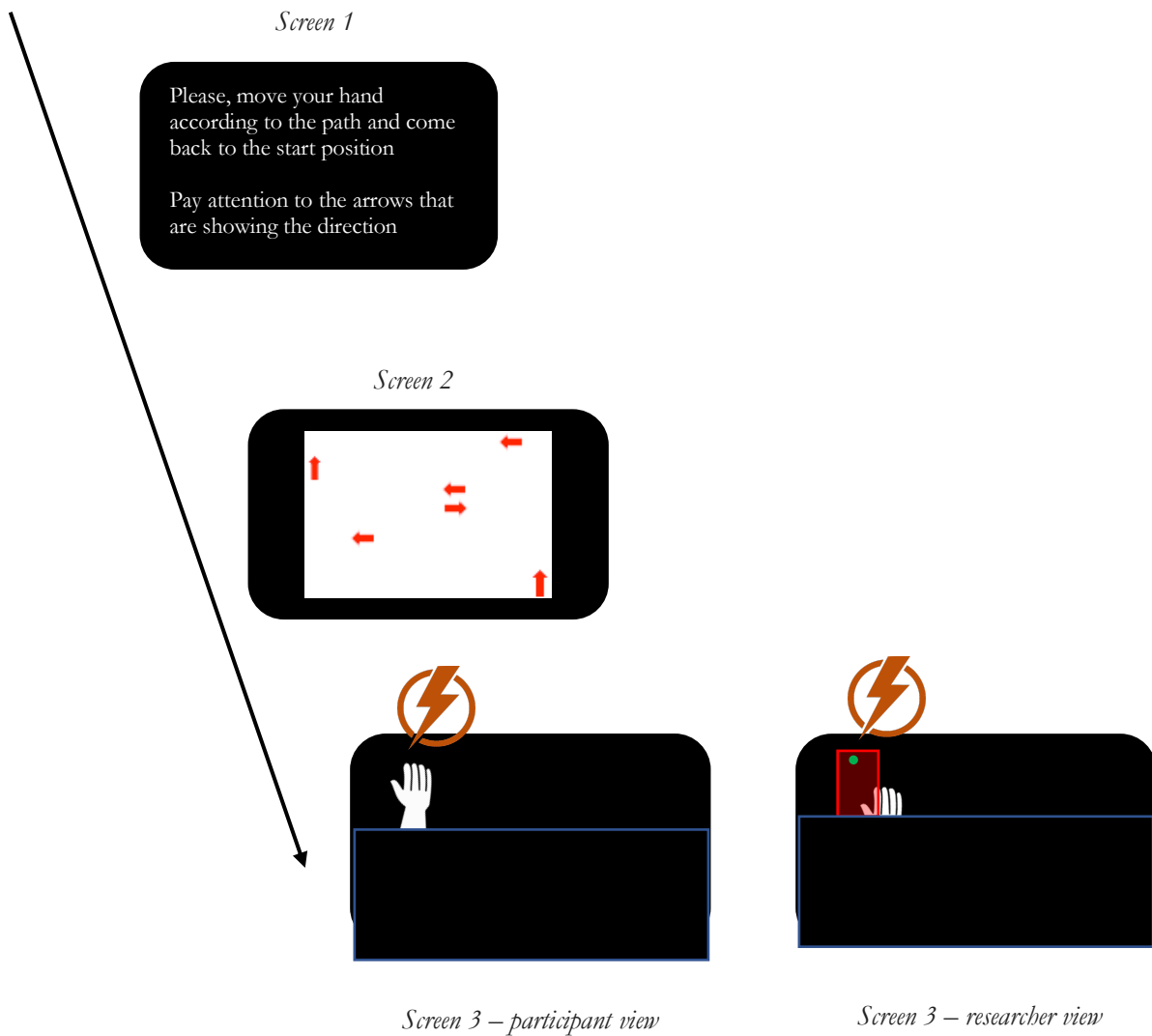
**Figure S2.** The picture is showing the calculation to obtain the mean difference for the index finger tip position from imprecise – precise position (Formula:  $Final\ Shifted_{position} - Final\ non-shifted_{position} = Real\ shift$ ). The illustration depicts position shifted by 5 cm (50 mm) to left and right for target 5 (right).



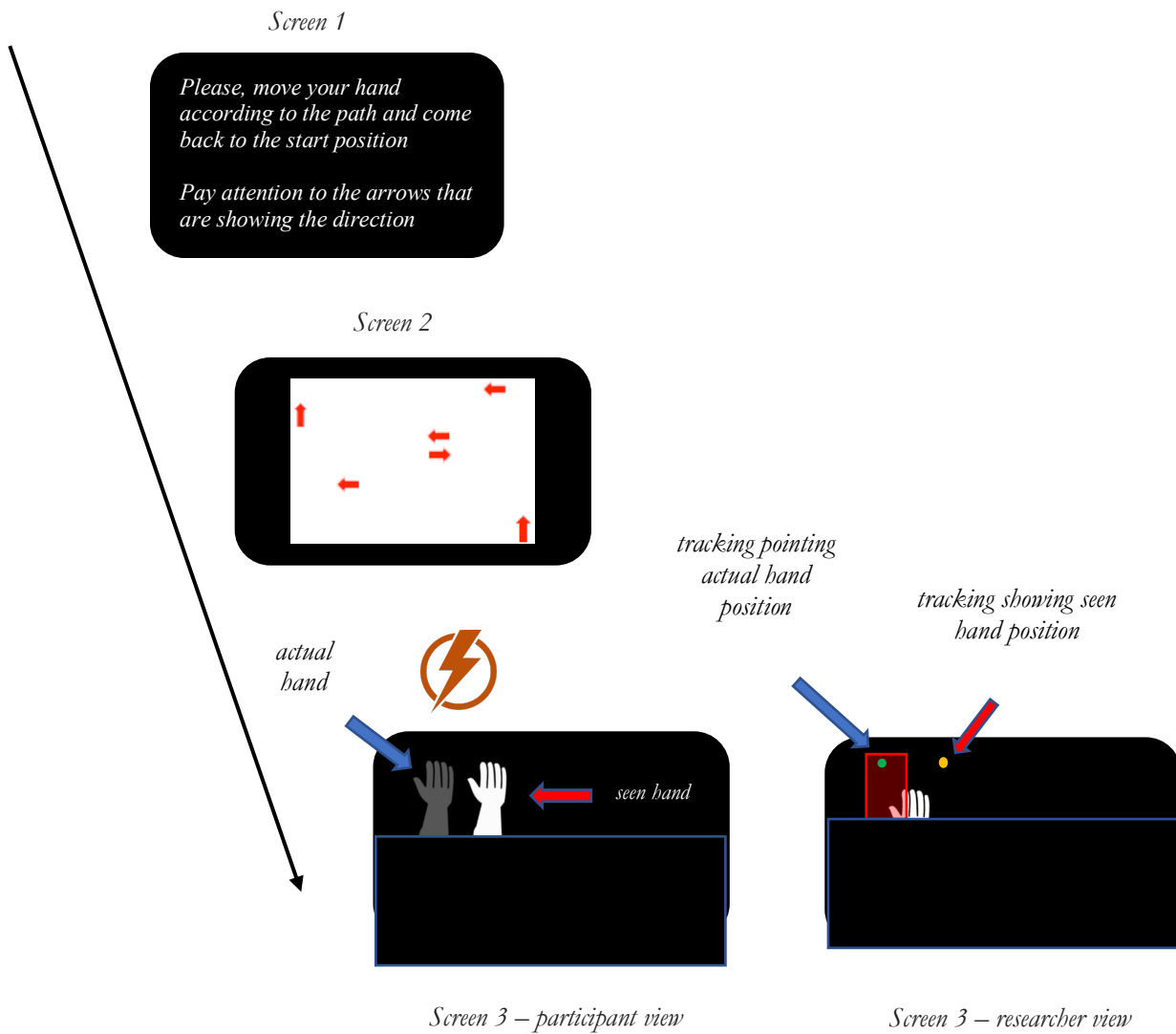
**Figure S3a.** Illustration depicting the measure of the distance between the target 1 (extreme end - left) and the left border of the screen on the picture. In this picture the seen hand and actual hand are the same (precise context). The distance “x” is 137mm.



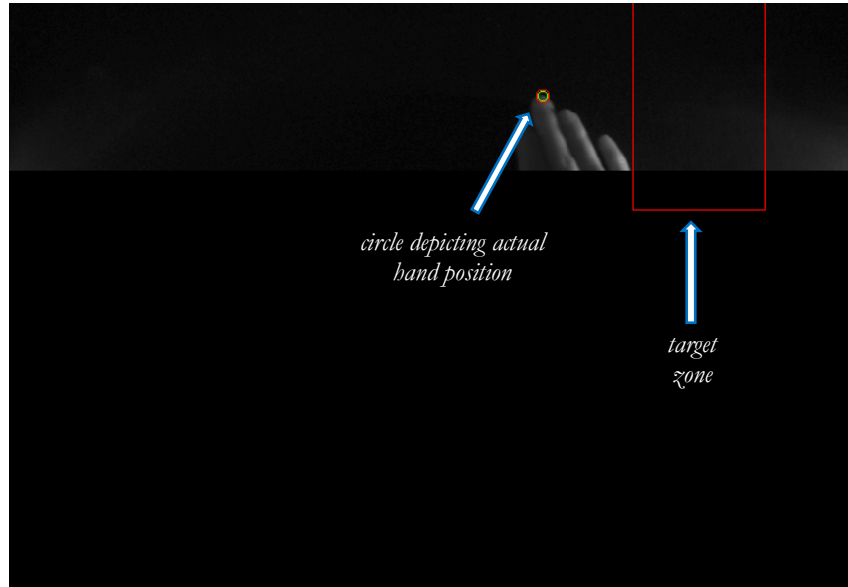
**Figure S3b.** Illustration depicting the measurement of the distance between the target 5 (extreme end - right) and the right border of the screen on the picture. In this picture the seen hand is the green one and the actual hand is the hand marked with a red dot (imprecise context). It is possible to see the image shifted to the right (40 mm), considering the participant perspective. The distance “y” is 126mm and the distance x is 83 mm.



**Figure S4.** Flowchart depicting the acquisition phase of the group not submitted to the illusion (precise group) showing participant and researcher views. This block is describing the delivery of the conditioned stimulus with high noxious stimulation (CS+, target 1). The blue rectangle was used during the experiment to avoid the participant to update/correct the hand position to match the visual estimate (proprioceptive recalibration).



**Figure S5.** Flowchart depicting the acquisition phase of the group submitted to the illusion (imprecise groups) showing participant and researcher views. This block is describing the delivery of the conditioned stimulus with noxious stimulation (CS+, target 1). The blue rectangle was used during the experiment to avoid the participant to update/correct the hand position to match the visual estimate (proprioceptive recalibration).



**Figure S6a.** Picture of the participant moving on the path (left to right) and showing the target zone deactivated, as the hand did not reach the perimeter of the target zone. This view was not available for the participants.



**Figure S6b.** Picture of the participant moving on the path (left to right) when crossing the position related to conditioned stimulus (in this case target 5) and triggering the target zone. This view was not available for the participants.

**Supplementary Methods file S7.**

Five different sequences - Test phase (chosen by lot)

Trial order	Sequence A	Sequence B	Sequence C	Sequence D	Sequence E
1	TARGET 1	TARGET 3	TARGET 5	TARGET 4	TARGET 1
2	TARGET 2	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 3
3	TARGET 5	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 3	TARGET 5
4	TARGET 4	TARGET 4	TARGET 4	TARGET 5	TARGET 2
5	TARGET 3	TARGET 2	TARGET 2	TARGET 2	TARGET 4
6	TARGET 2	TARGET 1	TARGET 2	TARGET 5	TARGET 3
7	TARGET 5	TARGET 4	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 1
8	TARGET 4	TARGET 3	TARGET 4	TARGET 2	TARGET 2
9	TARGET 1	TARGET 2	TARGET 1	TARGET 4	TARGET 4
10	TARGET 3	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 1	TARGET 5
11	TARGET 1	TARGET 4	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 5
12	TARGET 4	TARGET 1	TARGET 3	TARGET 4	TARGET 3
13	TARGET 3	TARGET 2	TARGET 4	TARGET 2	TARGET 2
14	TARGET 2	TARGET 5	TARGET 5	TARGET 5	TARGET 4
15	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 2	TARGET 3	TARGET 1
16	TARGET 4	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 3	TARGET 5
17	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 1	TARGET 1
18	TARGET 5	TARGET 3	TARGET 5	TARGET 5	TARGET 3
19	TARGET 2	TARGET 2	TARGET 4	TARGET 4	TARGET 2
20	TARGET 3	TARGET 4	TARGET 2	TARGET 2	TARGET 4