



Caregiver Ratings of Toddler Pain: The Role of Caregiver Psychological Predictors

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Key Words:	Infancy and Early Childhood, Parents, Acute Pain, Parent psychosocial functioning

Caregiver Ratings of Toddler Pain: The Role of Caregiver Psychological Predictors

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Author Note

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Abstract

Introduction/Aim: Young children's limited ability to self-report pain necessitates an understanding of the factors that influence pain ratings. The current paper examines the relative prediction of caregiver psychological factors and toddler pain behaviours on caregiver pain ratings post-vaccination.

Methods: One hundred and fifty-six parent-toddler dyads were video recorded during pediatric vaccinations. Child pain behaviours were coded before, during, and after the needle using the Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, Consolability Scale (FLACC; Merkel et al., 2002) and the Neonatal Facial Coding System (NFCS; Grunau & Craig, 1987). Caregivers rated their child's pain after the needle, reported pre- and post-needle worry during the visit, and completed rating scales assessing other areas of psychological functioning within 2 weeks after the appointment. Regression models were estimated to examine the relative contribution of child and caregiver factors to the prediction of caregiver pain ratings.

Results: The regression model predicting caregiver pain ratings from the toddlers' pain-related distress (facial activity immediately after the needle, overall pain-related behaviour immediately after, 1-minute and 2-minutes post-needle) and caregiver worry were significant (adjusted R-square = 0.21), with caregiver pre- and post-needle worry being the only significant predictors of caregiver pain ratings.

Conclusions: This study outlines that although child distress behaviour remains a significant influence on pain ratings during toddlerhood, when caregiver worry (pre- and post-needle) was entered into the model, they were the only significant predictors of caregiver pain ratings.

Key Words: Infancy and Early Childhood, Parents, Acute Pain, Parent Psychosocial Functioning

Introduction

Caregivers play a crucial role in their young children's experience of pain (Pillai Riddell & Racine, 2009). The Development of Infant Acute Pain Responding- Revised Model (DIAPR-R 2022; Pillai Riddell et al., 2022; see Figure 1) outlines the dyadic feedback loops through which caregivers influence child pain responding. Caregivers' emotional state can trigger their own physiological and cognitive responses to their child's pain-related distress, informing how they assess their child's pain and ultimately the pain-management strategies that they enact. When examining pain assessment, caregiver judgements of their children's pain are critical to understanding children's pain experiences given their limited ability to self-report pain.

Misunderstanding child pain experiences such that caregivers or health care workers over- or under-estimate a child's pain, may impact both development and the care that the child receives. In chronic pain or more repetitive acute pain, inadequate responses to child pain due to misinterpretations of that pain could lead to lifelong psychological and physiological consequences for the child (i.e., abnormal brain development, lower cognitive function, increased pain sensitivity, behavioural problems, coping skills, etc.; Anand et al., 1997; Fitzgerald, 2005; Grunau et al., 2009; Vinall & Grunau, 2014). Moreover, in the acute pain context, underestimating child pain can impact pain management strategies (Pillai Riddell et al., 2022), whereas overestimating and catastrophizing about child pain can increase parents' anxiety also reducing their ability to manage acute pain (Gennis et al., 2018). Thus, caregiver pain judgements are an essential topic to address.

Importantly, research has challenged the accuracy of parental acute pain judgements by illustrating a number of factors, other than child pain behaviour, that can influence their pain ratings (Pillai Riddell et al., 2022). One would assume that parental pain ratings post-

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3 vaccination should be predominantly determined by the child's pain behaviour. However,
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5 longitudinal work with infants (Pillai Riddell et al., 2014) and pre-schoolers (Mamedova et al.,
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7 2019) showed this was not the case. Infant pain behaviour only explained 18 – 36% of the
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9 variance in parental pain ratings and similarly 28% of the variance in parent pain judgments of
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11 preschool children (Mamedova et al., 2019). These studies illustrate that there is a substantial
12
13 amount of variance in parent pain judgments that is still unaccounted for, particularly for young
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15 children. Moreover, the steep developmental trajectory in pain responding over the first years of
16
17 life compels building an understanding of the specific factors that influence parents' pain ratings
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19 at various stages of early childhood development (i.e., toddlers).
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24 Furthermore, Mamedova and colleagues (2019) outlined how parental assessment of their
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26 own, as well as their child's worry after the needle, predicted pain ratings over and above child
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28 pain behaviours. This research is in line with previous research (Akbarzadeh et al., 2018;
29
30 Bernard & Cohen, 2006), highlighting the importance of accounting for parent psychological
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32 variables when investigating factors shaping parent pain judgements. Similarly, previous
33
34 research also demonstrated that maternal recall of infant pain is impacted more by maternal
35
36 psychological distress than by child pain behaviour (Pillai Riddell et al., 2007). One particular
37
38 area of parent psychological functioning that may influence pain ratings is referred to as
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40 acculturative stress, which often encapsulates a myriad of stressors that are associated with
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42 adjusting to a culture that is different than one's heritage culture (Perreira et al., 2019).
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46 According to the Family Stress Model (FSM; Conger et al., 2000), life stressors exerted on
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48 parents tend to shape a variety of child outcomes. For example, a recent review paper focusing
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50 on acculturative stress and Latinx children outlines how acculturative stress impacts parent
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52 emotional distress, disrupts parenting, and compromises family functioning by interfering with
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3 relational dynamics (Miller & Csizmadia, 2022). Any added stress on the caregiver, in this case,
4 acculturative stress, may influence their ability to respond appropriately to the child during a
5 painful procedure. An inability to respond to the child's pain may decrease the caregiver's sense
6 of control, increase their own psychological and physiological responses, and thus impact their
7 assessment of the child's pain. Therefore, it is worth exploring the influence of acculturation as
8 a possible predictor of parent pain ratings due to the potential stressors that accompany it.
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11 The objective of the present study was to examine the relative contributions of child and
12 caregiver factors in predicting caregiver ratings of their children's pain during vaccination in
13 toddlers (18 months and 24 months vaccinations). In addition to studying this phenomenon
14 during an understudied developmental stage of childhood (toddlerhood), the current study goes
15 beyond previous work examining parent pain judgments by collecting samples of parents'
16 subjective reports of the emotional functioning that may be contextualizing their behaviour and
17 pain judgments during the vaccination appointment. Based on previous research, it was
18 hypothesized that, in addition to toddler pain behaviours, measures of caregiver emotional
19 functioning (i.e., worry, psychological distress, acculturation) would relate to the pain rating of
20 their child post-vaccination needle due to the influence of their own physiological and cognitive
21 responses on pain assessment. Given the importance of pain management for children and how
22 caregivers may alter their pain management strategies based on their judgements of the child's
23 pain, the results of this study will elucidate factors that contribute to their ratings of toddler pain
24 after a vaccination needle.
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49 **Methods**

50 **Participants**

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3 The sample included caregiver-toddler dyads recruited from two pediatrician clinics in
4 the greater Toronto area as part of a cohort-sequential longitudinal study during routine
5 vaccination appointments across their second year of life. Data were collected between
6 September 2015 and March 2020. One-hundred and fifty-six dyads participated at one time point
7 between 18 and 24 months of age. To qualify for the study, infants had to be healthy with no
8 chronic illnesses or developmental delays, no previous stays in the neonatal intensive care unit,
9 and born no more than three weeks premature. The primary caregiver had to be fluent in English.
10 The majority of caregivers were mothers who were educated with a university degree or higher.
11 Caregivers were diverse with approximately half the sample reporting a heritage culture of
12 Asian, Latin, Non-European, or Mixed. Toddlers were approximately 57% male and were
13 generally healthy. Table 1 includes demographic information for all participants.
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28 **Procedure**

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30 The study received approval from York University's Research Ethics Board. Caregivers
31 were approached at their child's routine vaccination appointments to participate in the study.
32 Immediately prior to the vaccination appointment, caregivers completed a participant
33 information sheet (PIS; demographic form) and provided written consent to participate in a
34 naturalistic observational study (minimal interference from research team). Before and after the
35 vaccination procedure, caregivers were asked to rate their own worry. Caregiver pain ratings
36 were collected approximately 3 minutes after the final needle was administered. Caregiver-
37 toddler dyads were videotaped during the immunization appointments for subsequent
38 behavioural coding using the Noldus Observer XT 15.0 software. Within 2 weeks of the study,
39 caregivers were asked to complete standardized questionnaires over the phone examining their
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3 emotional functioning. Toddlers received between 1-3 needles at their appointment, with most of
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5 the children receiving only one needle (~60%).
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7 **Measures**

8 ***Caregiver Demographic Information***

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12 Prior to the immunization appointment, caregivers were asked to complete a brief
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14 demographic questionnaire (Participant Information Sheet; PIS) indicating their relation to the
15
16 child, self-reported heritage culture (which was subsequently classified by continent or
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18 geographic area of origin whenever possible for reporting purposes), highest level of education,
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20 and their child's age and sex.
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23 ***Child Pain***

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26 **Pain Ratings.** Caregivers were asked to rate their child's pain using a numeric rating
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28 scale. Immediately after the immunization, parents were asked "On a scale from 0 to 10, how
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30 much pain do you think your child experienced?" where 0 indicated "No pain at all" and 10
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32 indicated "The worst possible pain". The 0-10 numeric rating scale (NRS) was also utilized in
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34 previous work by Mamedova and colleagues (2019). The inclusion of NRS for child pain and
35
36 caregiver worry (see below) was based on evidence from previous research outlining the
37
38 convergent validity between parents' NRS and children's reports (Brudvik et al., 2017).
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42 **The Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, Consolability Scale (FLACC).** FLACC (Merkel et al.,
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44 2002) is a reliable and valid measure of child pain-related behavioural distress between 2 months
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46 and 7 years of age. Distress is measured with five types of pain behaviours (face, legs, activity,
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48 cry, consolability), each coded on a 0-2 scale in 15-second epochs, resulting in a total score
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50 between 0 and 10 for each epoch (with higher scores indicating more child pain). FLACC was
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52 coded during four 1-minute periods: one minute before the first needle (pre-needle distress),
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3 immediately after the last needle (reactivity), one minute after the last needle, and two minutes
4 after the last needle. The first 15-seconds of each period was analyzed in the current study to
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6 facilitate comparison with previous work. Interrater reliability was obtained with 20% of the data
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8 double-coded for reliability, such that 20% of the videos were reviewed and coded by two
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10 separate coders to ensure an intra-class correlation coefficient of at least 0.80.
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15 **Neonatal Facial Coding System (NFCS).** The Neonatal Facial Coding System (Grunau
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17 & Craig, 1987) is a well-validated measure used to code infant pain facial expressions including
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19 brow bulge, eye squeeze, nasolabial furrow, open lips, vertical stretch mouth, horizontal stretch
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21 mouth, and taut tongue. This coding system has been validated for use in neonates (Guinsburg et
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23 al., 2000) as well as toddlers (Lilley et al., 1997; Peters et al., 2003). Each facial action is coded
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25 second-by-second based on whether the action is present (1) or absent (0). Facial activity was
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27 coded for a 10-second epoch before the first needle (baseline), immediately after the last needle,
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29 1-minute after the last needle and 2 minutes after the last needle. Scores were aggregated to
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31 create a total facial pain score, where a higher total score indicates more infant pain. Interrater
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33 reliability was obtained with 20% of the data coded for reliability, such that 20% of the videos
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35 were reviewed and coded by two separate coders to ensure an intra-class correlation coefficient
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37 of at least 0.80.
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41 42 ***Caregiver Emotional Functioning*** 43

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45 **Caregiver Worry.** Prior to the needle, caregivers were asked “On a scale from 0 to 10,
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47 how worried about the needle are you, right now, before the needle, where 0 is ‘no worry at all’
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49 and 10 is ‘the most worry possible’?”. Following the final needle, caregivers were then asked,
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51 “On a scale from 0 to 10, how worried about the needle are you, right now, after the needle,
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53 where 0 is ‘no worry at all’ and 10 is ‘the most worry possible’?”.
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3 **Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI).** The Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; Derogatis, 1977)
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5 is a reliable and valid self-report inventory that consists of 53 items where the individual is asked
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7 to rate the extent to which they have been bothered by various domains of psychological
8
9 functioning within the past week. Responses range from 0 (“not at all”) to 4 (“extremely”) and
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11 they are scaled using the t-score distribution (Mean of 50, Standard Deviation [SD] of 10). The
12
13 BSI consists of nine subscales: somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity,
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15 depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism. For the
16
17 current analysis, the Positive Symptom Distress Index score was used to represent overall
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19 psychological symptomology/distress over the past week.
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24 **Parenting Stress Index (PSI).** The Parenting Stress Index (PSI-4; Abidin, 1983) is a
25
26 reliable and valid measure used to determine the extent of stress within the parent-child dynamic.
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28 The PSI-4-SF (short form), utilized in this study, consists of an abbreviated 36-item inventory
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30 divided into three domains: Parental Distress (PD), Parent-Child Dysfunctional Interaction (P-
31
32 CDI), and Difficult Child (DC). Responses are scaled using a t-score distribution. The Parental
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34 Distress Score was used to reflect parental perception of their own parenting distress over the
35
36 past week.
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40 **Caregiver Acculturation Ratings.** Caregiver acculturation status was explored as an
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42 indicator of potential stress, as less identification with mainstream culture, coupled with high
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44 identification with heritage culture has been theorized to be a potential stressor (e.g., Berry,
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46 1980). Prior to the appointment, caregivers were asked “On a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is ‘Not
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48 at All’ and 10 is ‘Completely’, how much do you feel your way of life reflects your heritage
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50 culture?”. As added context, the following description of heritage culture was provided to
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52 participants, “It may be the culture of your birth, the culture in which you have been raised, or
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3 another culture that forms part of your background. Pick the culture that has influenced you
4 most. If you do not feel that you have been influenced by any other culture, please try to identify
5 the culture that may have had the most impact on previous generations of your family”.

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8 Caregivers were then asked, “On a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is ‘Not at All’ and 10 is
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12 ‘Completely’, how much do you feel your way of life reflects mainstream North
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14 American/Canadian culture?”. Higher scores reflect greater identification with mainstream or
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16 heritage culture.
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19 When possible, caregivers’ self-reported heritage culture was coded into the ethnic and
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21 cultural categories defined by Statistics Canada (2021), including North American, European,
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23 Caribbean, Latin/Central/South American, African, Asian, Oceanian, and Middle Eastern. Not all
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25 responses fit into ethnic and cultural categories based on geographic origin. Non-geographic
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27 based self-reported ethnic and cultural responses were listed together (e.g., Jewish, Christian,
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29 Muslim). Measuring acculturation allows researchers to better understand the extent to which
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31 mainstream North American culture and caregivers’ own heritage culture are reflected in
32
33 caregivers’ daily lives. It was adapted (see Pillai Riddell et al., 2018) from the Vancouver Index
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35 of Acculturation (Ryder et al., 2000) and Berry’s (1992) bi-dimensional model of acculturation.
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39 40 **Statistical Analysis Plan**

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42 Bivariate correlations between the predictor variables and caregiver pain ratings were
43
44 examined. Three linear regression models examined each of the clusters of predictors separately
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46 (FLACC, NFCS, and caregiver psychological/emotional functioning variables; child sex was
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48 used as a covariate) to parsimoniously build a final model that integrated both toddler pain
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50 behaviour and parent psychological variables. A final hierarchical linear regression model was
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52 estimated to examine the relative contribution of child and caregiver factors to the prediction of
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3 caregiver pain ratings. The fourth and final model included only the significant predictors from
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5 the first three models. Child sex was included as a covariate in the first three models because
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7 previous research has shown that infant sex predicts parental pain ratings (Moon et al., 2008;
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9 Pillai Riddell et al., 2014). However, child sex was not included in the final model as it was not a
10
11 significant predictor of pain ratings in this sample.
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15 This study experienced missing data across the different variables and this was examined
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17 qualitatively. Missing data most often randomly occurred for the child facial coding data due to
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19 equipment failure at the clinics. At most, missing NFCS data per time point (pre-needle, post-
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21 needles 1,2 and 3) reached 51 (out of 156) missing values (post-needle 2), though the other time
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23 points experienced less data loss. In terms of post-visit phone calls, 28 parents were unreachable
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25 for the BSI and 22 were missing for the PSI. All other variables experienced less than 10% of
26
27 data loss. Missing data were handled using pairwise deletion for each analysis. All assumptions
28
29 for multiple linear regression were tested and met. IBM SPSS Statistics Software (Version 28)
30
31 was used for all analyses. Power analyses indicated an adequate sample size to achieve 80%
32
33 power for a medium effect at a significance criterion of $\alpha = .05$. Data available on request.
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37 38 **Results**

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40 Means and standard deviations of all variables are included in Tables 2-4, as well as
41
42 intercorrelations among predictor variables of interest and the outcome (caregiver pain ratings).
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44 45 **Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings: Models 1-3**

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47 Supplementary tables 1-3 present the details of the first three linear regression models
48
49 predicting caregiver pain ratings from FLACC scores, NFCS scores, and caregiver psychological
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51 variables separately. Based on these penultimate models, NFCS Reactivity, FLACC Reactivity,
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3 FLACC Minute 1, FLACC Minute 2, Pre-needle worry, and Post-needle worry were tested in the
4
5 final model.
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7 **Final Model: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings with All Significant Predictors**

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10 Table 5 presents the details of the final linear regression model predicting caregiver pain
11 ratings using the significant predictors from the first three models. The results of the regression
12 revealed that the model was significant $F(6,107) = 5.95, p < .001$, accounting for 20.8% of the
13 variance in caregiver pain ratings. Caregiver psychological variables, namely pre- and post-
14 needle worry, were the only predictors that remained significant ($\beta = .23, p < .05$ and $\beta = .21, p <$
15 $.05$ respectively), with more pre- and post-worry indicating higher pain ratings. Steps 1 and 2 in
16 the final model also significantly predicted pain ratings (accounting for 8% and 9% of the
17 variance in pain ratings), with greater behavioural child pain generally predicting a higher
18 caregiver pain rating (with the exception of FLACC minute 1). However, none of these variables
19 independently contributed to the outcome as did pre- and post-needle worry which emerged as
20 unique predictors in the final step.
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35 **Discussion**

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38 The goal of this study was to examine the relative contributions of child and caregiver
39 factors in predicting caregiver pain ratings during child immunizations over the second year of
40 life. Given the steep developmental trajectory in early childhood, this paper importantly
41 examines predictors of pain ratings in an understudied developmental period (toddlerhood).
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43 Further, this research builds on previous studies that outline the significance of infant pain-
44 related distress behaviour on pain ratings (Pillai Riddell et al., 2014) while also expanding on
45 influential caregiver factors previously shown to affect pain ratings in preschool children
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54 (Mamedova et al., 2019).
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3 Given that previous research shows that parent ratings of their child's pain do not highly
4 correlate with children's pain scores (Kelly et al., 2002) and that parents tend to underestimate
5 their child's pain (Kamper et al., 2016; St-Laurent-Gagnon et al., 1999), it is essential to outline
6 the factors that influence caregiver pain ratings to ensure appropriate pain management
7 techniques are utilized. The current study found that the final model accounted for 20.8% of the
8 variance in pain ratings. The only predictors that remained significant were caregiver worry prior
9 to and following the needle. In other words, when actual child pain-related distress behaviour
10 (both fine-grained facial action units and more gross body movements) were put in the model,
11 caregiver worry variables accounted for unique variance in pain ratings, while child behaviours
12 dropped out of the model as non-significant predictors. As mentioned earlier, the dyadic
13 feedback loop through which caregivers influence child pain responding is emphasized by the
14 Development of Infant Acute Pain Responding- Revised Model (DIAPR-R; Pillai Riddell et al.,
15 2022). As such, the findings of this study lend support to the DIAPR-R 2022 model, which
16 outlines how caregivers' own internal factors significantly influences their interpretation of the
17 pain, beyond the child's actual pain behaviour. This study adds further credence to a significant
18 concern in pediatric medicine that children's pain care is predicated on proxy ratings that have
19 been shown in numerous studies to under- or overestimate child reports, or not be significantly
20 related to the child's pain-related distress behaviour. It is particularly important for young
21 children who are not yet capable of self-report.

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47 This research underscores the importance of paying attention to the caregiver context and
48 managing caregivers' anxieties and worries during painful medical procedures. Even beyond
49 influencing pain judgements and pain care, studies show that parental anxiety significantly
50 predicts child pain and anxiety during medical events (Anthony et al., 2011; Jacobsen et al.,
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3 1990), with one study specifically reporting that parent anxiety prior to pediatric immunizations
4 significantly correlated with measures of infant distress during the immunization (Bernard &
5 Cohen, 2006). Another study found that the relationship between parent preprocedural anxiety
6 and child pain was mediated by children's procedural anxiety, such that the preprocedural
7 anxiety of the parent inadvertently influenced procedural anxiety within the child which, in turn,
8 increased the child's pain (Bearden et al., 2012). The current study's measure of worry asked
9 about the caregivers' worry in relation to the needle, which may encompass several concerns
10 surrounding the immunization. For example, parents may be worried about the child's reaction to
11 the needle, both emotionally and physically (i.e., side effects). They may also harbour negative
12 beliefs about vaccines or concerns surrounding the administration of the needle. Thus, all these
13 worries surrounding their child's vaccination may accumulate and ultimately impact their
14 responses before, during, and after the immunization. Therefore, it is essential that caregivers are
15 able to manage their own stress in order to prevent adding any additional stress to the child. It
16 should also be noted that in this sample, levels of worry and pain ratings were generally low
17 during these visits. This may be due to the toddlers' age, as both children and caregivers would
18 have had previous experiences with immunizations during infancy. Consequently, this research
19 should be reproduced in more stressful environments such as hospital settings.
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42 Although our final model did not find a significant relationship between broader
43 emotional functioning (i.e., outside the immediate immunization appointment) and caregiver
44 pain ratings, in the steps leading up to the final model, an interesting exploratory bivariate
45 relationship was elucidated. The relationship with the mainstream acculturation variable was
46 seen in the predicted direction (i.e., the more an individual reported they identified with
47 mainstream culture, the lower the pain scores). It is well-known in the literature that different
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3 ethnic or cultural groups employ different parenting styles (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002) and
4 thus may enact different behavioural responses to child pain. For example, one study found that
5 caregivers who self-identified highly with individualist heritage cultures tended to show greater
6 emotional availability, which in turn predicted lower pain scores for infants (O'Neill et al., 2016).
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8 Considering this effect on parental behaviour, cultural identification or level of acculturation
9
10 may also impact caregiver pain ratings. For example, in this sample, higher identification with
11 mainstream culture may indicate less stress associated with acculturation allowing for an
12 effective behavioural response to the child and in turn, a lower pain rating. Ultimately, a
13 reduction in stress in any manner, related to acculturation or any other factor that may increase
14 parent stress during a distressing child event such as vaccination, may allow caregivers to
15 respond more appropriately to their child's pain.
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28 From the DIAPR-R 2022 model perspective, the dyadic feedback loops between parent
29 responses to child pain strongly emphasize the interconnections between the parent and the child
30 in the context of child pain. Therefore, since parent mental health has been found to influence
31 parent responsiveness to child pain (i.e., parents with depressive symptoms engage in more
32 protective and catastrophizing responses to child pain; Fussner et al., 2018), it seems reasonable
33 to suggest that their ability to appropriately recognize the level of their child's pain would also be
34 impacted by emotional functioning. Future research should continue to explore the impact of
35 stress and other mental health factors that may impact caregivers' ability to interpret and respond
36 to their children's pain. Another area for future research is the potential role that parental locus
37 of control over their child's pain may play in their worry about their child's pain, their pain
38 ratings, and the pain-soothing behaviours they enact. Additionally, more research is needed to
39 specifically analyze the effect of caregiver pain schemas on the particular pain management
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3 strategies that they choose to enact, such as topical anesthetics, distraction, and comfort (Chou et
4 al., 2012; Pillai Riddell et al., 2023; Trottier et al., 2019). Research shows that these strategies
5 are effective in reducing pain in children. According to the DIAPR-R 2022 model, the
6 caregiver's pain management techniques depend on their assessment of the child's pain; greater
7 interpretation of pain may lead to an increase in soothing behaviours and lower assessment of
8 pain may lead to less soothing behaviours, which may in turn impact the child's pain behaviours.
9 Therefore, assessment of pain schemas and pain management strategies can reciprocally
10 influence one another and should further be analyzed concurrently. The current study does not
11 focus on specific pain management strategies nor does it touch upon the physiological
12 consequences for caregivers during child pain and thus cannot make any conclusions regarding
13 these important aspects of the DIAPR-R 2022 model. Finally, further to the use of our measure
14 of acculturation, while based on a strong theoretical framework, more work must be done to
15 validate a measure of acculturative stress that can be feasibly used in primary care settings.
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33 In terms of limitations, several caveats must be discussed. The generalizability of the
34 study results may be affected by the caregivers' high education level, English proficiency (which
35 would reduce acculturation variability in our sample), as well as our inclusion of only healthy
36 full-term toddlers. This may limit generalizing to individuals of lower education status and
37 children who have experienced greater pain in early infancy such as children who were born
38 premature, have had previous stays in the NICU and have chronic conditions or developmental
39 delays. Moreover, our team did not report race and ethnicity data but chose to ask participants to
40 report the heritage culture(s) that have influenced their way of life most and then how much both
41 their self-reported heritage culture and mainstream North American/Canadian culture influenced
42 their daily lives. This was done to get a sense of acculturative stress. The construct of
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3 acculturative stress was based on Berry's classic bi-dimensional model (Berry, 1992), and while
4 a more restrictive construct, was considered more appropriate for our research focus. As
5 explained earlier, acculturative stress serves as a hypothesized direct mechanism of *how* culture
6 would impact pain judgments. From our perspective, race and ethnicity are context-bound terms
7 that often vary in operationalization by both research participants and researchers. Moreover,
8 how race and ethnicity would link to pain judgements is more complex and indirect. However, it
9 is recognized that this makes it more difficult to generalize to studies that use race and ethnicity
10 to describe their participants and more work must be done due to evolving flaws in the bi-
11 dimensional model that do not account for the complexity of acculturation today (e.g., multiple-
12 stop migration/refugee journeys; routine access to other cultural influences from increased travel
13 and easy access to international movies, television/streaming shows, and music).

14
15 This study has important clinical implications that should be noted. Given how
16 caregivers' interpretation of their child's pain may impact their ability to respond to their child's
17 pain, it is essential that any factors that impact their pain assessments be addressed and managed.
18 As such, based on the study results, medical professionals are encouraged to be attentive to
19 caregivers who may present signs of worry and should attempt to alleviate their worry by
20 answering any questions they have, building their confidence with pain management techniques,
21 or addressing specific concerns they may have about the pain or the vaccination itself. In
22 addition, it may be helpful to inform caregivers about what to expect during their child's painful
23 procedure to ensure they are better prepared and can regulate their own emotional state,
24 particularly for new parents who may not know what to expect. Specifically, educating
25 caregivers on expectations surrounding a painful experience at key developmental periods of a
26 child's life may reduce internal stress and allow them to focus more on external indicators (i.e.,
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3 child's behaviour) when assessing their child's level of pain. Medical professionals working with
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5 young children, particularly those incapable of self-report, may want to consider care for young
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7 children as a dyadic context. By focusing on the parent (e.g., alleviating worry) they will likely
8
9 be able to improve medical care for the young child.
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12 In conclusion, this study highlights the importance of considering the various factors that
13
14 may be influencing caregivers' ratings of their child's pain at different developmental stages. It
15
16 is especially important to analyze these factors with younger children (infants and toddlers) who
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18 are unable to verbally communicate their pain and whose parents' pain ratings hold even more
19
20 weight. Given the potentially lasting effects of inadequate pain management, it is essential to
21
22 accurately assess and react to child pain, especially in the context of child vaccinations which are
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24 common routine appointments for young children. This study found that beyond the contribution
25
26 of child pain-related distress behaviours, caregiver worry plays a significant role in determining
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28 caregivers' ratings of their child's pain. In fact, worry (pre and post) contributed more to pain
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30 ratings than peak distress pain behaviours of the child. These findings lend support to the
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32 DIAPR-R 2022 model by highlighting the influence of caregiver factors on their appraisal of
33
34 their child's pain and adding results from a new developmental period to the existing literature.
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36 Future research should build on these findings by examining additional variables that may
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38 influence caregiver ratings of child pain as well as understanding these relationships at other key
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40 developmental stages.
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For Peer Review

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Caregiver Ratings of Toddler Pain: The Role of Caregiver Psychological Predictors

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Abstract

Introduction/Aim: Young children's limited ability to self-report pain necessitates an understanding of the factors that influence pain ratings. The current paper examines the relative prediction of caregiver psychological factors and toddler pain behaviours on caregiver pain ratings post-vaccination.

Methods: One hundred and fifty-six parent-toddler dyads were video recorded during pediatric vaccinations. Child pain behaviours were coded before, during, and after the needle using the Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, Consolability Scale (FLACC; Merkel et al., 2002) and the Neonatal Facial Coding System (NFCS; Grunau & Craig, 1987). Caregivers rated their child's pain after the needle, reported pre- and post-needle worry during the visit, and completed rating scales assessing other areas of psychological functioning within 2 weeks after the appointment. Regression models were estimated to examine the relative contribution of child and caregiver factors to the prediction of caregiver pain ratings.

Results: The regression model predicting caregiver pain ratings from the toddlers' pain-related distress (facial activity immediately after the needle, overall pain-related behaviour immediately after, 1-minute and 2-minutes post-needle) and caregiver worry were significant (adjusted R-square = 0.21), with caregiver pre- and post-needle worry being the only significant predictors of caregiver pain ratings.

Conclusions: This study outlines that although child distress behaviour remains a significant influence on pain ratings during toddlerhood, when caregiver worry (pre- and post-needle) was entered into the model, they were the only significant predictors of caregiver pain ratings.

Key Words: Infancy and Early Childhood, Parents, Acute Pain, Parent Psychosocial Functioning

Introduction

Caregivers play a crucial role in their young children's experience of pain (Pillai Riddell & Racine, 2009). The Development of Infant Acute Pain Responding- Revised Model (DIAPR-R 2022; Pillai Riddell et al., 2022; see Figure 1) outlines the dyadic feedback loops through which caregivers influence child pain responding. Caregivers' emotional state can trigger their own physiological and cognitive responses to their child's pain-related distress, informing how they assess their child's pain and ultimately the pain-management strategies that they enact. When examining pain assessment, caregiver judgements of their children's pain are critical to understanding children's pain experiences given their limited ability to self-report pain.

Misunderstanding child pain experiences such that caregivers or health care workers over- or under-estimate a child's pain, may impact both development and the care that the child receives. In chronic pain or more repetitive acute pain, inadequate responses to child pain due to misinterpretations of that pain could lead to lifelong psychological and physiological consequences for the child (i.e., abnormal brain development, lower cognitive function, increased pain sensitivity, behavioural problems, coping skills, etc.; Anand et al., 1997; Fitzgerald, 2005; Grunau et al., 2009; Vinall & Grunau, 2014). Moreover, in the acute pain context, underestimating child pain can impact pain management strategies (Pillai Riddell et al., 2022), whereas overestimating and catastrophizing about child pain can increase parents' anxiety also reducing their ability to manage acute pain (Gennis et al., 2018). Thus, caregiver pain judgements are an essential topic to address.

Importantly, research has challenged the accuracy of parental acute pain judgements by illustrating a number of factors, other than child pain behaviour, that can influence their pain ratings (Pillai Riddell et al., 2022). One would assume that parental pain ratings post-

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3 vaccination should be predominantly determined by the child's pain behaviour. However,
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5 longitudinal work with infants (Pillai Riddell et al., 2014) and pre-schoolers (Mamedova et al.,
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7 2019) showed this was not the case. Infant pain behaviour only explained 18 – 36% of the
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9 variance in parental pain ratings and similarly 28% of the variance in parent pain judgments of
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11 preschool children (Mamedova et al., 2019). These studies illustrate that there is a substantial
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13 amount of variance in parent pain judgments that is still unaccounted for, particularly for young
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15 children. Moreover, the steep developmental trajectory in pain responding over the first years of
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17 life compels building an understanding of the specific factors that influence parents' pain ratings
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19 at various stages of early childhood development (i.e., toddlers).
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24 Furthermore, Mamedova and colleagues (2019) outlined how parental assessment of their
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26 own, as well as their child's worry after the needle, predicted pain ratings over and above child
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28 pain behaviours. This research is in line with previous research (Akbarzadeh et al., 2018;
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30 Bernard & Cohen, 2006), highlighting the importance of accounting for parent psychological
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32 variables when investigating factors shaping parent pain judgements. Similarly, previous
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34 research also demonstrated that maternal recall of infant pain is impacted more by maternal
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36 psychological distress than by child pain behaviour (Pillai Riddell et al., 2007). One particular
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38 area of parent psychological functioning that may influence pain ratings is referred to as
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40 acculturative stress, which often encapsulates a myriad of stressors that are associated with
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42 adjusting to a culture that is different than one's heritage culture (Perreira et al., 2019).
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45 According to the Family Stress Model (FSM; Conger et al., 2000), life stressors exerted on
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47 parents tend to shape a variety of child outcomes. For example, a recent review paper focusing
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49 on acculturative stress and Latinx children outlines how acculturative stress impacts parent
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51 emotional distress, disrupts parenting, and compromises family functioning by interfering with
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3 relational dynamics (Miller & Csizmadia, 2022). Any added stress on the caregiver, in this case,
4 acculturative stress, may influence their ability to respond appropriately to the child during a
5 painful procedure. An inability to respond to the child's pain may decrease the caregiver's sense
6 of control, increase their own psychological and physiological responses, and thus impact their
7 assessment of the child's pain. Therefore, it is worth exploring the influence of acculturation as
8 a possible predictor of parent pain ratings due to the potential stressors that accompany it.
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11 The objective of the present study was to examine the relative contributions of child and
12 caregiver factors in predicting caregiver ratings of their children's pain during vaccination in
13 toddlers (18 months and 24 months vaccinations). In addition to studying this phenomenon
14 during an understudied developmental stage of childhood (toddlerhood), the current study goes
15 beyond previous work examining parent pain judgments by collecting samples of parents'
16 subjective reports of the emotional functioning that may be contextualizing their behaviour and
17 pain judgments during the vaccination appointment. Based on previous research, it was
18 hypothesized that, in addition to toddler pain behaviours, measures of caregiver emotional
19 functioning (i.e., worry, psychological distress, acculturation) would relate to the pain rating of
20 their child post-vaccination needle due to the influence of their own physiological and cognitive
21 responses on pain assessment. Given the importance of pain management for children and how
22 caregivers may alter their pain management strategies based on their judgements of the child's
23 pain, the results of this study will elucidate factors that contribute to their ratings of toddler pain
24 after a vaccination needle.
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49 **Methods**

50 **Participants**

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3 The sample included caregiver-toddler dyads recruited from two pediatrician clinics in
4 the greater Toronto area as part of a cohort-sequential longitudinal study during routine
5 vaccination appointments across their second year of life. Data were collected between
6 September 2015 and March 2020. One-hundred and fifty-six dyads participated at one time point
7 between 18 and 24 months of age. To qualify for the study, infants had to be healthy with no
8 chronic illnesses or developmental delays, no previous stays in the neonatal intensive care unit,
9 and born no more than three weeks premature. The primary caregiver had to be fluent in English.
10 The majority of caregivers were mothers who were educated with a university degree or higher.
11 Caregivers were diverse with approximately half the sample reporting a heritage culture of
12 Asian, Latin, Non-European, or Mixed. Toddlers were approximately 57% male and were
13 generally healthy. Table 1 includes demographic information for all participants.
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28 **Procedure**

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30 The study received approval from York University's Research Ethics Board. Caregivers
31 were approached at their child's routine vaccination appointments to participate in the study.
32 Immediately prior to the vaccination appointment, caregivers completed a participant
33 information sheet (PIS; demographic form) and provided written consent to participate in a
34 naturalistic observational study (minimal interference from research team). Before and after the
35 vaccination procedure, caregivers were asked to rate their own worry. Caregiver pain ratings
36 were collected approximately 3 minutes after the final needle was administered. Caregiver-
37 toddler dyads were videotaped during the immunization appointments for subsequent
38 behavioural coding using the Noldus Observer XT 15.0 software. Within 2 weeks of the study,
39 caregivers were asked to complete standardized questionnaires over the phone examining their
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3 emotional functioning. Toddlers received between 1-3 needles at their appointment, with most of
4 the children receiving only one needle (~60%).
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7 **Measures**

8 ***Caregiver Demographic Information***

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12 Prior to the immunization appointment, caregivers were asked to complete a brief
13 demographic questionnaire (Participant Information Sheet; PIS) indicating their relation to the
14 child, self-reported heritage culture (which was subsequently classified by continent or
15 geographic area of origin whenever possible for reporting purposes), highest level of education,
16 and their child's age and sex.
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24 ***Child Pain***

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26 **Pain Ratings.** Caregivers were asked to rate their child's pain using a numeric rating
27 scale. Immediately after the immunization, parents were asked "On a scale from 0 to 10, how
28 much pain do you think your child experienced?" where 0 indicated "No pain at all" and 10
29 indicated "The worst possible pain". The 0-10 numeric rating scale (NRS) was also utilized in
30 previous work by Mamedova and colleagues (2019). The inclusion of NRS for child pain and
31 caregiver worry (see below) was based on evidence from previous research outlining the
32 convergent validity between parents' NRS and children's reports (Brudvik et al., 2017).
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42 **The Face, Legs, Activity, Cry, Consolability Scale (FLACC).** FLACC (Merkel et al.,
43 2002) is a reliable and valid measure of child pain-related behavioural distress between 2 months
44 and 7 years of age. Distress is measured with five types of pain behaviours (face, legs, activity,
45 cry, consolability), each coded on a 0-2 scale in 15-second epochs, resulting in a total score
46 between 0 and 10 for each epoch (with higher scores indicating more child pain). FLACC was
47 coded during four 1-minute periods: one minute before the first needle (pre-needle distress),
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3 immediately after the last needle (reactivity), one minute after the last needle, and two minutes
4 after the last needle. The first 15-seconds of each period was analyzed in the current study to
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6 facilitate comparison with previous work. Interrater reliability was obtained with 20% of the data
7
8 double-coded for reliability, such that 20% of the videos were reviewed and coded by two
9
10 separate coders to ensure an intra-class correlation coefficient of at least 0.80.
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14 **Neonatal Facial Coding System (NFCS).** The Neonatal Facial Coding System (Grunau
15 & Craig, 1987) is a well-validated measure used to code infant pain facial expressions including
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17 brow bulge, eye squeeze, nasolabial furrow, open lips, vertical stretch mouth, horizontal stretch
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19 mouth, and taut tongue. This coding system has been validated for use in neonates (Guinsburg et
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21 al., 2000) as well as toddlers (Lilley et al., 1997; Peters et al., 2003). Each facial action is coded
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23 second-by-second based on whether the action is present (1) or absent (0). Facial activity was
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25 coded for a 10-second epoch before the first needle (baseline), immediately after the last needle,
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27 1-minute after the last needle and 2 minutes after the last needle. Scores were aggregated to
28
29 create a total facial pain score, where a higher total score indicates more infant pain. Interrater
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31 reliability was obtained with 20% of the data coded for reliability, such that 20% of the videos
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33 were reviewed and coded by two separate coders to ensure an intra-class correlation coefficient
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35 of at least 0.80.
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42 ***Caregiver Emotional Functioning***

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44 **Caregiver Worry.** Prior to the needle, caregivers were asked “On a scale from 0 to 10,
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46 how worried about the needle are you, right now, before the needle, where 0 is ‘no worry at all’
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48 and 10 is ‘the most worry possible’?”. Following the final needle, caregivers were then asked,
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50 “On a scale from 0 to 10, how worried about the needle are you, right now, after the needle,
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52 where 0 is ‘no worry at all’ and 10 is ‘the most worry possible’?”.
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3 **Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI).** The Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; Derogatis, 1977)
4
5 is a reliable and valid self-report inventory that consists of 53 items where the individual is asked
6
7 to rate the extent to which they have been bothered by various domains of psychological
8
9 functioning within the past week. Responses range from 0 (“not at all”) to 4 (“extremely”) and
10
11 they are scaled using the t-score distribution (Mean of 50, Standard Deviation [SD] of 10). The
12
13 BSI consists of nine subscales: somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity,
14
15 depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism. For the
16
17 current analysis, the Positive Symptom Distress Index score was used to represent overall
18
19 psychological symptomology/distress over the past week.
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24 **Parenting Stress Index (PSI).** The Parenting Stress Index (PSI-4; Abidin, 1983) is a
25
26 reliable and valid measure used to determine the extent of stress within the parent-child dynamic.
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28 The PSI-4-SF (short form), utilized in this study, consists of an abbreviated 36-item inventory
29
30 divided into three domains: Parental Distress (PD), Parent-Child Dysfunctional Interaction (P-
31
32 CDI), and Difficult Child (DC). Responses are scaled using a t-score distribution. The Parental
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34 Distress Score was used to reflect parental perception of their own parenting distress over the
35
36 past week.
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40 **Caregiver Acculturation Ratings.** Caregiver acculturation status was explored as an
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42 indicator of potential stress, as less identification with mainstream culture, coupled with high
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44 identification with heritage culture has been theorized to be a potential stressor (e.g., Berry,
45
46 1980). Prior to the appointment, caregivers were asked “On a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is ‘Not
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48 at All’ and 10 is ‘Completely’, how much do you feel your way of life reflects your heritage
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50 culture?”. As added context, the following description of heritage culture was provided to
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52 participants, “It may be the culture of your birth, the culture in which you have been raised, or
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3 another culture that forms part of your background. Pick the culture that has influenced you
4 most. If you do not feel that you have been influenced by any other culture, please try to identify
5 the culture that may have had the most impact on previous generations of your family”.

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8 Caregivers were then asked, “On a scale from 0 to 10, where 0 is ‘Not at All’ and 10 is
9 ‘Completely’, how much do you feel your way of life reflects mainstream North
10 American/Canadian culture?”. Higher scores reflect greater identification with mainstream or
11 heritage culture.

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19 When possible, caregivers’ self-reported heritage culture was coded into the ethnic and
20 cultural categories defined by Statistics Canada (2021), including North American, European,
21 Caribbean, Latin/Central/South American, African, Asian, Oceanian, and Middle Eastern. Not all
22 responses fit into ethnic and cultural categories based on geographic origin. Non-geographic
23 based self-reported ethnic and cultural responses were listed together (e.g., Jewish, Christian,
24 Muslim). Measuring acculturation allows researchers to better understand the extent to which
25 mainstream North American culture and caregivers’ own heritage culture are reflected in
26 caregivers’ daily lives. It was adapted (see Pillai Riddell et al., 2018) from the Vancouver Index
27 of Acculturation (Ryder et al., 2000) and Berry’s (1992) bi-dimensional model of acculturation.

28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 **Statistical Analysis Plan**

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42 Bivariate correlations between the predictor variables and caregiver pain ratings were
43 examined. Three linear regression models examined each of the clusters of predictors separately
44 (FLACC, NFCS, and caregiver psychological/emotional functioning variables; child sex was
45 used as a covariate) to parsimoniously build a final model that integrated both toddler pain
46 behaviour and parent psychological variables. A final hierarchical linear regression model was
47 estimated to examine the relative contribution of child and caregiver factors to the prediction of
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3 caregiver pain ratings. The fourth and final model included only the significant predictors from
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5 the first three models. Child sex was included as a covariate in the first three models because
6
7 previous research has shown that infant sex predicts parental pain ratings (Moon et al., 2008;
8
9 Pillai Riddell et al., 2014). However, child sex was not included in the final model as it was not a
10
11 significant predictor of pain ratings in this sample.
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15 This study experienced missing data across the different variables and this was examined
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17 qualitatively. Missing data most often randomly occurred for the child facial coding data due to
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19 equipment failure at the clinics. At most, missing NFCS data per time point (pre-needle, post-
20
21 needles 1,2 and 3) reached 51 (out of 156) missing values (post-needle 2), though the other time
22
23 points experienced less data loss. In terms of post-visit phone calls, 28 parents were unreachable
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25 for the BSI and 22 were missing for the PSI. All other variables experienced less than 10% of
26
27 data loss. Missing data were handled using pairwise deletion for each analysis. All assumptions
28
29 for multiple linear regression were tested and met. IBM SPSS Statistics Software (Version 28)
30
31 was used for all analyses. Power analyses indicated an adequate sample size to achieve 80%
32
33 power for a medium effect at a significance criterion of $\alpha = .05$. Data available on request.
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37 38 **Results**

39
40 Means and standard deviations of all variables are included in Tables 2-4, as well as
41
42 intercorrelations among predictor variables of interest and the outcome (caregiver pain ratings).
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44 45 **Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings: Models 1-3**

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47 Supplementary tables 1-3 present the details of the first three linear regression models
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49 predicting caregiver pain ratings from FLACC scores, NFCS scores, and caregiver psychological
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51 variables separately. Based on these penultimate models, NFCS Reactivity, FLACC Reactivity,
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3 FLACC Minute 1, FLACC Minute 2, Pre-needle worry, and Post-needle worry were tested in the
4
5 final model.
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7 **Final Model: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings with All Significant Predictors**

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10 Table 5 presents the details of the final linear regression model predicting caregiver pain
11 ratings using the significant predictors from the first three models. The results of the regression
12 revealed that the model was significant $F(6,107) = 5.95, p < .001$, accounting for 20.8% of the
13 variance in caregiver pain ratings. Caregiver psychological variables, namely pre- and post-
14 needle worry, were the only predictors that remained significant ($\beta = .23, p < .05$ and $\beta = .21, p <$
15 $.05$ respectively), with more pre- and post-worry indicating higher pain ratings. Steps 1 and 2 in
16 the final model also significantly predicted pain ratings (accounting for 8% and 9% of the
17 variance in pain ratings), with greater behavioural child pain generally predicting a higher
18 caregiver pain rating (with the exception of FLACC minute 1). However, none of these variables
19 independently contributed to the outcome as did pre- and post-needle worry which emerged as
20 unique predictors in the final step.
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35 **Discussion**

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38 The goal of this study was to examine the relative contributions of child and caregiver
39 factors in predicting caregiver pain ratings during child immunizations over the second year of
40 life. Given the steep developmental trajectory in early childhood, this paper importantly
41 examines predictors of pain ratings in an understudied developmental period (toddlerhood).
42
43 Further, this research builds on previous studies that outline the significance of infant pain-
44 related distress behaviour on pain ratings (Pillai Riddell et al., 2014) while also expanding on
45 influential caregiver factors previously shown to affect pain ratings in preschool children
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54 (Mamedova et al., 2019).
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3 Given that previous research shows that parent ratings of their child's pain do not highly
4 correlate with children's pain scores (Kelly et al., 2002) and that parents tend to underestimate
5 their child's pain (Kamper et al., 2016; St-Laurent-Gagnon et al., 1999), it is essential to outline
6 the factors that influence caregiver pain ratings to ensure appropriate pain management
7 techniques are utilized. The current study found that the final model accounted for 20.8% of the
8 variance in pain ratings. The only predictors that remained significant were caregiver worry prior
9 to and following the needle. In other words, when actual child pain-related distress behaviour
10 (both fine-grained facial action units and more gross body movements) were put in the model,
11 caregiver worry variables accounted for unique variance in pain ratings, while child behaviours
12 dropped out of the model as non-significant predictors. As mentioned earlier, the dyadic
13 feedback loop through which caregivers influence child pain responding is emphasized by the
14 Development of Infant Acute Pain Responding- Revised Model (DIAPR-R; Pillai Riddell et al.,
15 2022). As such, the findings of this study lend support to the DIAPR-R 2022 model, which
16 outlines how caregivers' own internal factors significantly influences their interpretation of the
17 pain, beyond the child's actual pain behaviour. This study adds further credence to a significant
18 concern in pediatric medicine that children's pain care is predicated on proxy ratings that have
19 been shown in numerous studies to under- or overestimate child reports, or not be significantly
20 related to the child's pain-related distress behaviour. It is particularly important for young
21 children who are not yet capable of self-report.

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47 This research underscores the importance of paying attention to the caregiver context and
48 managing caregivers' anxieties and worries during painful medical procedures. Even beyond
49 influencing pain judgements and pain care, studies show that parental anxiety significantly
50 predicts child pain and anxiety during medical events (Anthony et al., 2011; Jacobsen et al.,
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3 1990), with one study specifically reporting that parent anxiety prior to pediatric immunizations
4 significantly correlated with measures of infant distress during the immunization (Bernard &
5 Cohen, 2006). Another study found that the relationship between parent preprocedural anxiety
6 and child pain was mediated by children's procedural anxiety, such that the preprocedural
7 anxiety of the parent inadvertently influenced procedural anxiety within the child which, in turn,
8 increased the child's pain (Bearden et al., 2012). The current study's measure of worry asked
9 about the caregivers' worry in relation to the needle, which may encompass several concerns
10 surrounding the immunization. For example, parents may be worried about the child's reaction to
11 the needle, both emotionally and physically (i.e., side effects). They may also harbour negative
12 beliefs about vaccines or concerns surrounding the administration of the needle. Thus, all these
13 worries surrounding their child's vaccination may accumulate and ultimately impact their
14 responses before, during, and after the immunization. Therefore, it is essential that caregivers are
15 able to manage their own stress in order to prevent adding any additional stress to the child. It
16 should also be noted that in this sample, levels of worry and pain ratings were generally low
17 during these visits. This may be due to the toddlers' age, as both children and caregivers would
18 have had previous experiences with immunizations during infancy. Consequently, this research
19 should be reproduced in more stressful environments such as hospital settings.
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42 Although our final model did not find a significant relationship between broader
43 emotional functioning (i.e., outside the immediate immunization appointment) and caregiver
44 pain ratings, in the steps leading up to the final model, an interesting exploratory bivariate
45 relationship was elucidated. The relationship with the mainstream acculturation variable was
46 seen in the predicted direction (i.e., the more an individual reported they identified with
47 mainstream culture, the lower the pain scores). It is well-known in the literature that different
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3 ethnic or cultural groups employ different parenting styles (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002) and
4 thus may enact different behavioural responses to child pain. For example, one study found that
5 caregivers who self-identified highly with individualist heritage cultures tended to show greater
6 emotional availability, which in turn predicted lower pain scores for infants (O'Neill et al., 2016).
7
8 Considering this effect on parental behaviour, cultural identification or level of acculturation
9
10 may also impact caregiver pain ratings. For example, in this sample, higher identification with
11 mainstream culture may indicate less stress associated with acculturation allowing for an
12 effective behavioural response to the child and in turn, a lower pain rating. Ultimately, a
13 reduction in stress in any manner, related to acculturation or any other factor that may increase
14 parent stress during a distressing child event such as vaccination, may allow caregivers to
15 respond more appropriately to their child's pain.
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28 From the DIAPR-R 2022 model perspective, the dyadic feedback loops between parent
29 responses to child pain strongly emphasize the interconnections between the parent and the child
30 in the context of child pain. Therefore, since parent mental health has been found to influence
31 parent responsiveness to child pain (i.e., parents with depressive symptoms engage in more
32 protective and catastrophizing responses to child pain; Fussner et al., 2018), it seems reasonable
33 to suggest that their ability to appropriately recognize the level of their child's pain would also be
34 impacted by emotional functioning. Future research should continue to explore the impact of
35 stress and other mental health factors that may impact caregivers' ability to interpret and respond
36 to their children's pain. Another area for future research is the potential role that parental locus
37 of control over their child's pain may play in their worry about their child's pain, their pain
38 ratings, and the pain-soothing behaviours they enact. Additionally, more research is needed to
39 specifically analyze the effect of caregiver pain schemas on the particular pain management
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3 strategies that they choose to enact, such as topical anesthetics, distraction, and comfort (Chou et
4 al., 2012; Pillai Riddell et al., 2023; Trottier et al., 2019). Research shows that these strategies
5 are effective in reducing pain in children. According to the DIAPR-R 2022 model, the
6 caregiver's pain management techniques depend on their assessment of the child's pain; greater
7 interpretation of pain may lead to an increase in soothing behaviours and lower assessment of
8 pain may lead to less soothing behaviours, which may in turn impact the child's pain behaviours.
9 Therefore, assessment of pain schemas and pain management strategies can reciprocally
10 influence one another and should further be analyzed concurrently. The current study does not
11 focus on specific pain management strategies nor does it touch upon the physiological
12 consequences for caregivers during child pain and thus cannot make any conclusions regarding
13 these important aspects of the DIAPR-R 2022 model. Finally, further to the use of our measure
14 of acculturation, while based on a strong theoretical framework, more work must be done to
15 validate a measure of acculturative stress that can be feasibly used in primary care settings.

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33 In terms of limitations, several caveats must be discussed. The generalizability of the
34 study results may be affected by the caregivers' high education level, English proficiency (which
35 would reduce acculturation variability in our sample), as well as our inclusion of only healthy
36 full-term toddlers. This may limit generalizing to individuals of lower education status and
37 children who have experienced greater pain in early infancy such as children who were born
38 premature, have had previous stays in the NICU and have chronic conditions or developmental
39 delays. Moreover, our team did not report race and ethnicity data but chose to ask participants to
40 report the heritage culture(s) that have influenced their way of life most and then how much both
41 their self-reported heritage culture and mainstream North American/Canadian culture influenced
42 their daily lives. This was done to get a sense of acculturative stress. The construct of
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3 acculturative stress was based on Berry's classic bi-dimensional model (Berry, 1992), and while
4 a more restrictive construct, was considered more appropriate for our research focus. As
5 explained earlier, acculturative stress serves as a hypothesized direct mechanism of *how* culture
6 would impact pain judgments. From our perspective, race and ethnicity are context-bound terms
7 that often vary in operationalization by both research participants and researchers. Moreover,
8 how race and ethnicity would link to pain judgements is more complex and indirect. However, it
9 is recognized that this makes it more difficult to generalize to studies that use race and ethnicity
10 to describe their participants and more work must be done due to evolving flaws in the bi-
11 dimensional model that do not account for the complexity of acculturation today (e.g., multiple-
12 stop migration/refugee journeys; routine access to other cultural influences from increased travel
13 and easy access to international movies, television/streaming shows, and music).

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This study has important clinical implications that should be noted. Given how caregivers' interpretation of their child's pain may impact their ability to respond to their child's pain, it is essential that any factors that impact their pain assessments be addressed and managed. As such, based on the study results, medical professionals are encouraged to be attentive to caregivers who may present signs of worry and should attempt to alleviate their worry by answering any questions they have, building their confidence with pain management techniques, or addressing specific concerns they may have about the pain or the vaccination itself. In addition, it may be helpful to inform caregivers about what to expect during their child's painful procedure to ensure they are better prepared and can regulate their own emotional state, particularly for new parents who may not know what to expect. Specifically, educating caregivers on expectations surrounding a painful experience at key developmental periods of a child's life may reduce internal stress and allow them to focus more on external indicators (i.e.,

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3 child's behaviour) when assessing their child's level of pain. Medical professionals working with
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5 young children, particularly those incapable of self-report, may want to consider care for young
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7 children as a dyadic context. By focusing on the parent (e.g., alleviating worry) they will likely
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9 be able to improve medical care for the young child.
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12 In conclusion, this study highlights the importance of considering the various factors that
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14 may be influencing caregivers' ratings of their child's pain at different developmental stages. It
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16 is especially important to analyze these factors with younger children (infants and toddlers) who
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18 are unable to verbally communicate their pain and whose parents' pain ratings hold even more
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20 weight. Given the potentially lasting effects of inadequate pain management, it is essential to
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22 accurately assess and react to child pain, especially in the context of child vaccinations which are
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24 common routine appointments for young children. This study found that beyond the contribution
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26 of child pain-related distress behaviours, caregiver worry plays a significant role in determining
27
28 caregivers' ratings of their child's pain. In fact, worry (pre and post) contributed more to pain
29
30 ratings than peak distress pain behaviours of the child. These findings lend support to the
31
32 DIAPR-R 2022 model by highlighting the influence of caregiver factors on their appraisal of
33
34 their child's pain and adding results from a new developmental period to the existing literature.
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36 Future research should build on these findings by examining additional variables that may
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38 influence caregiver ratings of child pain as well as understanding these relationships at other key
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40 developmental stages.
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For Peer Review

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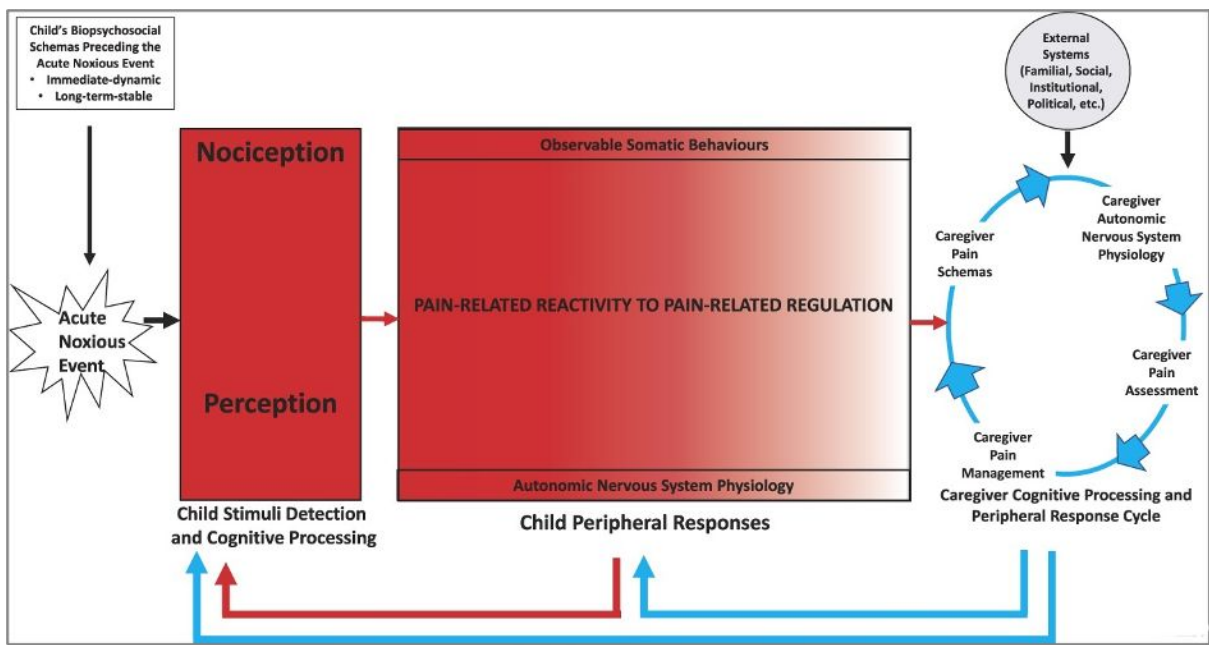
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Figure 1:
The Development of Infant Acute Pain Responding- Revised 2022 (DIAPR-R 2022).



Peer Review

Table 1: Demographic Information

Demographics	n=156
Relationship to Infant	
Mother	133 (85.3%)
Father	20 (12.8%)
Other	1 (0.6%)
Missing	2 (1.3%)
Child Age	
18 months	95 (60.8%)
24 months	61 (39.1%)
Child Sex	
Male	89 (57.1%)
Female	66 (42.3%)
Missing	1 (0.6%)
Parent Education Level	
Graduate School/Professional Training	75 (48.1%)
University Graduate (4 years college)	47 (30.1%)
Partial University (at least 1 year)	3 (1.9%)
Trade School/Community College	22 (14.1%)
High School Graduate	1 (0.6%)
Missing	8 (5.1%)
Reported Heritage Culture	
North American	36 (23.1%)
European	47 (30.1%)
Caribbean	1 (0.6%)
Latin, Central and South American	5 (3.2%)
African	3 (1.9%)
Asian	33 (21.2%)
Oceanian	2 (1.3%)
Middle Eastern	8 (5.1%)
<u>Non-Geographic based Cultures Reported</u>	12 (7.7%)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jewish • Catholic • Mennonite • Arabic • Islamic 	
Mixed	3 (1.9%)
Missing	6 (3.8%)

Table 2: Descriptive Information of FLACC Variables and Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	1	2	3	4
1. Pre-needle Distress (FLACC baseline)	9.32	9.93	0-40				
2. Pain-related Distress (FLACC reactivity)	21.73	9.57	0-40	.48**			
3. Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 1)	13.37	10.84	0-40	.46**	.60**		
4. Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 2)	11.17	11.22	0-40	.42**	.42**	.72**	
5. Parent Pain Ratings	4.15	2.45	0-10	.17*	.28**	.11	.20*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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Table 3: Descriptive Information of NFCS Variables and Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	1	2	3	4
1. Pre-needle Distress (NFCS baseline)	26.31	21.53	0-70				
2. Pain-related Distress (NFCS reactivity)	48.99	18.72	0-70	.47**			
3. Pain-related Distress (NFCS minute 1)	27.04	17.99	0-70	.30**	.39**		
4. Pain-related Distress (NFCS minute 2)	24.83	17.18	0-70	.23*	.16	.50**	
5. Parent Pain Ratings	4.15	2.45	0-10	.12	.29**	.14	.07

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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Table 4: Descriptive Information of Caregiver Psychological Variables and Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Positive Symptom Distress Index (Brief Symptom Inventory; T-scores)	51.48	6.02						
2. Parental Distress (Parental Stress Index; T-scores)	32.84	12.85	.18*					
3. Pre-needle Worry	2.17	2.41	.05	.03				
4. Post-needle Worry	1.43	2.00	-.06	.01	.41**			
5. Parent Heritage Rating	6.35	2.68	-.05	.17	-.05	.12		
6. Parent Mainstream Rating	7.87	2.01	-.17	.11	-.04	-.13	.06	
7. Parent Pain Rating	4.15	2.45	.05	-.05	.32**	.37**	.03	-.17*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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Table 5: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings- Combined Final Model

Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i> <i>B</i>	β	Adjusted R ²	R ² Change
<i>Step 1</i>				.08**	--
Pain-related Distress (NFCS Reactivity)	.02	.02	.12		
<i>Step 2</i>				.09**	.01
Pain-related Distress (FLACC reactivity)	.05	.04	.20		
Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 1)	-.02	.03	-.11		
Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 2)	.02	.03	.10		
<i>Step 3</i>				.21***	.12***
Pre-needle Worry	.23	.10	.23*		
Post-needle Worry	.26	.12	.21*		

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

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Supplementary Table 1: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings from Child Pain Behaviour (FLACC)

Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	Adjusted R^2	R^2
<i>Model 1</i>				.14***	.17***
Child Sex	-.09	.38	-.02		
Pre-needle Distress (FLACC baseline)	.03	.02	.10		
Pain-related Distress (FLACC reactivity)	.09	.03	.33***		
Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 1)	-.06	.03	-.26*		
Pain-related Distress (FLACC minute 2)	.06	.02	.27*		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

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Supplementary Table 2: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings from Child Pain Behaviour (NFCS)

Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	Adjusted R ²	R ²
<i>Model 2</i>				.03	.09
Child Sex	-.07	.54	-.02		
Pre-needle Distress (NFCS baseline)	-.003	.01	-.02		
Pain-related Distress (NFCS reactivity)	.04	.02	.29*		
Pain-related Distress (NFCS minute 1)	.004	.02	.03		
Pain-related Distress (NFCS minute 2)	.002	.02	.01		

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

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Supplementary Table 3: Predicting Caregiver Pain Ratings from Parental Psychological Variables

Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	Adjusted R^2	R^2
<i>Model 3</i>				.14***	.19***
Child Sex	.08	.43	.02		
Pre-needle Worry	.22	.10	.22*		
Post-needle Worry	.33	.12	.27**		
Mainstream Culture Rating	-.14	.11	-.11		
Heritage Culture Rating	.03	.08	.03		
Positive Symptom Distress Index	.01	.04	.03		
Parental Distress Score	-.02	.02	-.09		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

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