

1 **Abstract**

2 We conducted a bidirectional Mendelian randomization study to examine the causal effects of six
3 personality traits (anxiety, neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and
4 conscientiousness) on back pain associated with health care use and the causal effect of back pain
5 on the same risk factors. Genetic instruments for the personality traits and back pain were obtained
6 from the largest published genome-wide association studies conducted in individuals of European
7 ancestry. We used inverse weighted variance meta-analysis and Causal Analysis Using Summary
8 Effect for primary analyses and sensitivity analyses to examine evidence for causal associations.
9 We interpreted exposure-outcome associations as being consistent with a causal relationship if
10 results of at least one primary analysis were statistically significant after accounting for multiple
11 statistical testing ($p\text{-value} < 0.0042$), and the direction and magnitude of effect estimates were
12 concordant between primary and sensitivity analyses. We found evidence for statistically
13 significant bidirectional causal associations between neuroticism and back pain, with odds ratio
14 1.51 (95% confidence interval 1.37; 1.67) of back pain per neuroticism sum score standard
15 deviation, $p\text{-value} = 7.80e\text{-}16$; and $\beta = 0.12$, $se = 0.04$ of neuroticism sum score standard
16 deviation per log odds of back pain, $p\text{-value} = 2.48e\text{-}03$. Other relationships did not meet our
17 predefined criteria for causal association.

18 **Perspective**

19 The significant positive feedback loop between neuroticism and back pain highlights the
20 importance of considering neuroticism in the management of patients with back pain.

21

22 **Key words:** Big Five, anxiety, low back pain, risk factor, causality

23 **Introduction**

24 Back pain is a major cause of disability worldwide. According to the Global Burden of Disease
25 Study 2015, low back pain together with neck pain were the leading causes of global years lived
26 with disability in 1990-2015 ⁵⁰. The lifetime prevalence of back pain is as high as 39% and varies
27 widely depending on the population ¹⁹. There are many known risk factors of back pain, including
28 genetics, lifestyle traits, social status, psychological factors and personality ^{11,38,52}. Investigating
29 the causal relationships between possible risk factors and back pain is an important step toward
30 understanding the disease etiology and discovering new methods of pain management and medical
31 treatment. The gold standard of studying causal relations is randomized control trials (RCTs).
32 However, for most lifestyle, social and personality traits RCTs are not a feasible option. Modern
33 developments in genomics research offer an opportunity to conduct a good approximation of an
34 RCT – Mendelian randomization (MR) analysis. MR has a level of evidence somewhere between
35 traditional observational studies and RCTs ⁹.

36 Personality traits and mental health problems are an important group of back pain risk factors.
37 Among them depression is by far the most common mental disorder associated with back pain
38 ^{38,52}. Anxiety and the “Big Five” personality traits (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to
39 experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness) are associated with chronic back pain as well ^{20,43}.
40 Emotions and personality not only influence the risk of back pain but also modify the perception
41 of pain and can influence the results of treatment ^{1,14}. For instance, higher scores of agreeableness
42 may reflect that people are more likely to relieve their emotional distress through relying on social
43 support ²⁰. This may be protective against chronic back pain, since it is known that there is an
44 association between its development and stressful stimuli ⁸. Also, patients with high levels of
45 conscientiousness may suffer less from back pain because of acceptance of life with the condition

46 ²², whereas those with low levels of conscientiousness may have more difficulties due to lack of
47 motivation to follow recommendations for the treatment of pain ³⁷. Moreover, previously we have
48 shown that major depressive disorder (MDD) has a moderate-magnitude causal association with
49 chronic back pain (odds ratio [OR] = 1.41, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.27; 1.58) ⁵². This might
50 be partially explained by central sensitization being more likely to develop in patients with anxiety
51 and depression disorders and playing a vital role in the chronification of back pain ^{16,41}. On the
52 other hand, disease experience may alter patients' behavior, for instance making them less prone
53 to seeking new experiences and induce patients to control their movements carefully ²⁰. These
54 various examples illustrate why causal relationships of back pain with personality traits are an
55 important area of inquiry.

56 The aim of this study was to conduct a bidirectional MR study between back pain and six
57 personality traits: anxiety and the "Big Five" personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness,
58 openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism). We hypothesized that personality traits would have
59 causal effects on back pain and that, conversely, back pain would have causal effects on personality
60 traits.

61

62

63 **Methods**

64 *Data used*

65 The study was conducted using the largest publicly available genome-wide association study
66 (GWAS) results for the respective traits. Research approvals involved the UK Biobank Research
67 Ethics Committee (#11/NW/0382) and the VA Puget Sound Health Care System (MIRB 00903).
68 The informed consent was obtained from each subject involved in the study. All the data were
69 obtained from individuals of European ancestry, providing greater sample size and statistical
70 power and mitigating confounding by ancestry⁹. Each dataset passed the quality control and
71 unification procedure employing tools integrated into the GWAS-MAP platform⁴².

72 In the primary analyses, we utilized GWAS data on six personality traits (anxiety, neuroticism,
73 extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) and a GWAS meta-
74 analysis of back pain (Table 1). Anxiety was measured in the UK Biobank⁴⁵ sample and defined
75 as a binary trait with 1,092 cases and 360,102 controls. Results of GWAS were obtained from the
76 open access Neale Lab database (<http://www.nealelab.is/uk-biobank>). This GWAS was conducted
77 using linear regression analysis. The phenotype “Anxiety disorders” is coded in the Neale Lab
78 database as “KRA_PSY_ANXIETY”, which is a code manually curated by collaborators from the
79 FinnGen project²⁵. It combines the F40 through F48 medical codes (“Neurotic, stress-related and
80 somatoform disorders”) from the 10th Revision of the International Statistical Classification of
81 Diseases (ICD-10) (see https://risteys.finnngen.fi/endpoints/KRA_PSY_ANXIETY for more
82 details on phenotype definition). GWAS results for neuroticism were also provided by UK
83 Biobank³⁶. The phenotype was evaluated based on a summed neuroticism score obtained from 12
84 dichotomous items of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised Short Form (EPQ-RS)¹²,
85 and then standardized before association analysis. Data on other personality traits were obtained

86 from the Genetics of Personality Consortium (GPC) (<https://tweelingenregister.vu.nl/gpc>).

87 Phenotypic values of openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness were assessed

88 as summed scores from NEO Five-Factor Inventory ¹⁰, while the extraversion latent score was

89 calculated using an Item-Response Theory (IRT) approach harmonizing data from various

90 inventories ^{47,48}. Unlike the GWAS on back pain, GWASs on all personality traits were conducted

91 using linear regression models. The back pain GWAS used for main analyses represents the results

92 of meta-analysis performed by the DBDS Genetic Consortium and GO consortium ², comprising

93 119,110 cases and 909,847 controls in the total sample. The binary back pain phenotype was

94 reconstructed from the ICD-10 M54 code “Dorsalgia”. Here we refer to this phenotype as “back

95 pain associated with health care use” (BP-HC). The corresponding GWAS results were transferred

96 from the GRCh38 to GRCh37 genomic build using the liftOver tool

97 (<https://github.com/broadinstitute/liftover/>) prior to the analyses.

98

99 **Table 1.** GWAS summary statistics for personality traits and back pain associated with health care

100 use (BP-HC) employed in the main analyses

101 Another GWAS on back pain was employed for *post hoc* MR analyses excluding sample overlap

102 between exposure and outcome. These data were derived from the seventh release of the FinnGen

103 study ²⁵. The phenotype was defined as “M13 Dorsalgia” based on ICD-10 codes from electronic

104 health records (see https://r7.risteys.finnngen.fi/phenocode/M13_DORSALGIA for more details).

105 The GWAS was performed with logistic regression and included 44,509 cases and 227,388

106 controls.

107 Additionally, we used data on sixteen potential confounders representing psychosocial (smoking,
108 education, alcohol consumption, physical activity, sleep duration and depression) and
109 cardiovascular (blood pressure, plasma lipid levels, type 2 diabetes and obesity) risk factors of
110 back pain to conduct sensitivity analyses. More information on all the data used is provided in
111 Supplemental Table 1.

112

113 ***Genetic correlations and heritability***

114 We assessed the genetic correlations between personality traits and BP-HC to check whether there
115 is a shared genetic background that can mediate their co-occurrence. At first, we reformatted the
116 GWAS data using GenomicSEM v0.0.2 R package¹³ and then utilized the LD Score regression
117 tool⁵ to compute SNP-based heritability of the traits and genetic correlations between them. The
118 statistical significance threshold for heritability estimates was set at $p\text{-value} < 0.007 = 0.05/7$ and
119 for genetic correlation coefficients it was defined as $p\text{-value} < 0.008 = 0.05/6$.

120

121 ***Mendelian randomization analysis***

122 *Overview of Mendelian randomization and analysis pipeline*

123 Mendelian randomization (MR) is an *in silico* approach that aims to test for causal relationship
124 between two traits: an exposure (considered as a cause) and an outcome (considered as a
125 consequence of the exposure). The concept of MR is quite similar to the one utilized in RCTs. In
126 MR, genetic variants associated with a higher risk of development of exposure trait are analogues
127 to the intervention in RCTs. Thus, the carriers of such exposure-associated genetic variants can be

128 related to the affected group and the non-carriers refer to the control group. The genetic variants
129 are usually represented as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and traditionally called
130 instrumental variables (IVs). Classical MR requires IVs to meet specific assumptions: (i) IVs must
131 be associated with the exposure; (ii) IVs should not affect the outcome apart from through the
132 exposure (no horizontal pleiotropy); and (iii) there should be no association of IVs with any of the
133 confounders of the exposure-outcome relationship. The information on association between the
134 genetic variants and exposure or outcome is commonly taken from the results of GWAS of a
135 corresponding trait. Similar to the randomization of intervention in RCTs, there is a random
136 allocation of genetic variants in MR, but unlike RCTs, this is a “natural” randomization due to the
137 random distribution of genotypes in populations under the genetic laws, such as Mendel’s laws of
138 segregation and independent assortment, crossing over and random fertilization. Genetic variants
139 are independent of environmental factors, so these environmental factors are assumed to be equally
140 distributed between individuals with different genotypes. This makes MR less prone to
141 confounding in comparison to observational studies ⁴⁴. The notable distinction between effect
142 estimates in MR and RCTs is that MR provides estimates of a life-long “intervention”, whereas
143 RCTs assess short-term effects ⁴⁶. Negative MR results should be interpreted with caution: absence
144 of the statistically significant signal does not necessarily mean no causality between traits.

145 In the current study, we used a protocol which we developed previously ⁵². This protocol applies
146 two MR methods: inverse variance weighted meta-analysis, IVW ^{18,23}, and Causal Analysis Using
147 Summary Effect estimates, CAUSE ³⁴ and includes primary, sensitivity and *post hoc* analyses.
148 This protocol was previously used for studying causal effects of psychosocial ⁵² and cardio-
149 vascular (Suri, 2023) risk factors on back pain and *vice versa*. The present study continues this

150 earlier work, considering these risk factors as potential confounders of causal relationships
151 between personality traits and back pain (Supplemental Table 1).

152 *Selection of instrumental variables*

153 Instrumental variables for both IVW and CAUSE were selected in three steps. First, we found
154 genetic variants overlapping between exposure and outcome datasets. Then, we performed
155 clumping of these variants utilizing PLINK 1.9 ^{7,39} (10000 kb window, $r^2 > 0.001$ threshold for
156 correlation between SNPs, minor allele frequency (MAF) < 0.05 filter, p-value $\leq 5e-08$ and p-
157 value $\leq 1e-03$ statistical significance thresholds for IVW and CAUSE, respectively). Finally, we
158 kept only those SNPs that passed the harmonization of exposure and outcome data procedure
159 implemented in the TwoSampleMR v0.5.5 ¹⁸ and cause v1.0.0.0274
160 (<https://github.com/jean997/cause>) R packages. The selected IVs can be considered as strong (F-
161 statistic > 10) and meeting the first MR assumption, though we did not require IVs to be replicated
162 in other GWASs as it is recommended for the IVW analysis ¹⁸.

163 *Primary Mendelian randomization analysis*

164 For IVW and CAUSE analyses we employed standard functions (with default settings) from the
165 TwoSampleMR and cause R packages, respectively. The statistical significance threshold for MR
166 results was set at p-value $< 0.0042 = 0.05/(6*2)$, where 6 is the total number of exposure-outcome
167 trait pairs and 2 reflects the bidirectionality of the analyses. For those trait pairs that passed the
168 significance threshold at least in one of the methods in primary analysis (criterion 1) and provided
169 effect estimates concordant by direction and magnitude between IVW and CAUSE (criterion 2),
170 we conducted sensitivity analyses.

171 *Sensitivity Mendelian randomization analysis*

172 Sensitivity analyses attempted to control for horizontal pleiotropy and confounding effects
173 reflecting violation of the second and the third MR assumptions, respectively. In IVW sensitivity
174 analysis this was implemented in two steps: (i) we filtered out the IVs associated with potential
175 confounders and personality traits other than the one considered as exposure or outcome in each
176 exposure-outcome trait pair being analyzed; (ii) and we used the MR-PRESSO v1.0⁴⁹ tool to
177 identify and exclude horizontal pleiotropy outliers. In CAUSE sensitivity analysis, we used a
178 similar approach, but only controlled for potential confounding (without excluding horizontal
179 pleiotropy outliers); no manual correction for horizontal pleiotropy was made since it is embedded
180 in the model of the CAUSE method.

181 When all the sensitivity analyses were done, we collated the direction of the effect estimates from
182 all the primary and sensitivity analyses. If the direction of effect estimates were the same across
183 these analyses (criterion 3), we inferred the data to be concordant with the hypothesis of causal
184 effect of exposure on outcome.

185 *Post hoc analysis*

186 For exposure-outcome trait pairs that had statistically significant MR effects in the primary
187 analysis, but involved sample overlap, we conducted a *post hoc* analysis using an independent
188 GWAS of back pain from the FinnGen biobank to account for bias due to overlapping samples.
189 This analysis was restricted to the IVW method only, with no sensitivity analyses. If the effect
190 estimate was concordant by its direction and magnitude with estimates from the main MR analysis,
191 we concluded that the effect was observed not due to sample overlap but because of causality.

192

193 ***Rescaling the Mendelian randomization effect estimates to the logistic scale***

194 For anxiety, which is a binary trait analyzed using a linear regression model, we transformed the
195 IVW and CAUSE effect estimates from the linear to the logistic scale. We performed this both in
196 forward and reverse MR using the formulae described in ^{31,32}. Thus, in forward MR we multiplied
197 the effect estimate beta MR by the coefficient $pr * (1 - pr)$, while for the reverse MR the
198 coefficient was equal to $\frac{1}{pr*(1-pr)}$. We set the prevalence (pr) of anxiety to 0.003 based on the
199 number of cases and controls in the corresponding GWAS.

200

201 ***Estimation of the detectable Mendelian randomization effect***

202 To evaluate the magnitude of detectable MR effect under the defined statistical threshold p-
203 value < 0.0042 and statistical power of 80% we assessed the corresponding non-centrality
204 parameter (NCP) of the chi-squared distribution with one degree of freedom to be 13.74. Then for
205 every exposure-outcome pair we calculated the proportion of exposure trait variance explained
206 (R^2) by instrumental variables (IVs) as follows: $R^2 = \frac{\sum_i z_i^2}{N_{exposure}}$, where $z_i^2 = \left(\frac{\beta_{exposure_i}}{se_{exposure_i}}\right)^2$ is the
207 test statistics for the i th IV from the GWAS on exposure and $N_{exposure}$ is its sample size. Only the
208 IVs from primary IVW analyses were accounted for. Further we computed the linear beta MR
209 effect as $\beta_{MRlinear} = \sqrt{\frac{NCP}{R^2 * N_{outcome}}}$, where $N_{outcome}$ is the sample size of outcome GWAS.

210 Since back pain and anxiety are binary traits, we had to transform the linear effect estimates to the
211 logistic scale. This was done according to the formula: $\beta_{MRlogistic} = \beta_{MRlinear} *$

212 $\frac{\sqrt{pr_{exposure}*(1-pr_{exposure})}}{\sqrt{pr_{outcome}*(1-pr_{outcome})}}$, where $pr_{exposure}$ and $pr_{outcome}$ are the prevalence of exposure and

213 outcome, respectively. If one of the traits from the exposure-outcome pair was continuous, we
214 substituted the corresponding part of the fraction (numerator or denominator) with 1.

215 For those continuous personality traits that were not standardized (all of them apart from
216 neuroticism) we estimated the standard deviation (SD) of the phenotype to transform the estimates
217 of the detectable MR effect to the scale of the corresponding GWAS (see Supplemental Table 1).
218 The SD values were evaluated as the square root of the phenotypic variance calculated based on
219 the subset of independent statistically insignificant SNPs as described by Winkler et al.⁵³. A list
220 of independent genetic variants was obtained using PLINK v1.9 software, using the --indep-
221 pairwise option. The MR estimates were divided by SD in cases in which the personality trait was
222 considered as the exposure and was multiplied by SD otherwise.

223 Finally, we hypothesized the expected direction of the causal effect based on the other studies
224^{20,22,37}. Thus, we assumed neuroticism to be positively correlated with BP-HC, whereas
225 agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience to have a negative
226 direction of effect. Since anxiety is positively correlated with neuroticism, we expected anxiety to
227 have a positive correlation with BP-HC as well.

228 All the intermediate parameter values used for estimation of the detectable MR effect and the final
229 effect estimates are given in Supplemental Tables 2 and 3.

230

231 *Overlapping sample bias estimation*

232 The GWAS samples for analyses of BP-HC, anxiety and neuroticism involved UK Biobank
233 participants. According to Burgess et al.⁶, this could bias the causal effect estimate in IVW in case
234 of weak IVs. Although we performed our analyses using IVs strongly associated with the exposure

235 trait (p-value < 5e-08, F-statistic > 10), and reinforced the IVW results with estimates from
236 CAUSE method which is robust to sample overlap, we additionally evaluated the bias in IVW
237 effect estimates and inflation of type 1 error introduced by sample overlap between exposure and
238 outcome traits both in forward and reverse MR. To do this we employed the online tool
239 (<https://sb452.shinyapps.io/overlap/>) implementing the approach described by Burgess et al. ⁶. The
240 proportion of exposure variance explained by IVs (R^2) was assessed as described above and
241 represented in Supplemental Tables 2 and 3 alongside the information on outcome trait prevalence.
242 The sample sizes for corresponding traits are given in Supplemental Table 1. The observational
243 estimate bias was approximated as $1/E(F - statistic) = 0.1$.

244

245 **Results**

246 *Genetic correlations and heritability*

247 Analysis of trait heritability estimates showed that only four (BP-HC, neuroticism, extraversion
248 and openness to experience) out of seven traits demonstrated statistically significant SNP-based
249 heritability (Supplemental Table 4). These heritability estimates varied from 5.31% for
250 extraversion to 10.07% for openness to experience. Only two traits (neuroticism and openness to
251 experience) were statistically significantly genetically correlated with BP-HC. Both traits showed
252 moderate magnitude of genetic correlation of about 35%.

253

254 *Mendelian randomization analysis*

255 In the forward MR primary analysis, only neuroticism showed a statistically significant effect on
256 BP-HC (see Table 2, Supplemental Tables 5 and 6). Both IVW and CAUSE primary results passed
257 the significance threshold and demonstrated close effect estimates (IVW: $\beta = 0.41$, OR = 1.51,
258 95% CI 1.37; 1.67; CAUSE: $\gamma = 0.38$). We detected statistically significant heterogeneity
259 between the 91 IVs used in primary IVW analysis (see Supplemental Table 5), which was
260 eliminated after performing sensitivity analysis. Results of sensitivity analysis (Table 2,
261 Supplemental Tables 5 and 7) for neuroticism were concordant with the results from primary MR.
262 The *post hoc* analysis using GWASs without sample overlap was concordant with the primary MR
263 results as well (Supplemental Table 8). For other personality traits we did not observe a sufficient
264 number of IVs for IVW analyses. For anxiety, extraversion and conscientiousness there were no
265 IVs at all.

266 **Table 2.** Causal effect of personality risk factors on back pain associated with health care use (BP-
267 HC)

268 Similar to the forward MR analysis, in the reverse MR we observed only one statistically
269 significant signal, for neuroticism (see Table 3, Supplemental Tables 9 – 11). It was significant in
270 both methods used in the primary analysis and the effect estimates for each were consistent (IVW:
271 $\beta = 0.12$; CAUSE: $\gamma = 0.10$). IVs used in primary IVW analysis were heterogeneous
272 (Supplemental Table 9). The heterogeneity was removed after sensitivity IVW analysis. Although
273 there were only two IVs that remained in sensitivity IVW analysis, the direction of the effect
274 observed for these was the same as that in the primary MR and sensitivity CAUSE analyses. In
275 *post hoc* analysis (Supplemental Table 8) we obtained an effect estimate which was close to the
276 values from the primary MR. No other personality traits had statistically significant associations
277 in the reverse MR.

278 **Table 3.** Causal effect of back pain associated with health care use (BP-HC) on personality risk
279 factors

280 *Detectable Mendelian randomization effect*

281 We evaluated the magnitude of detectable MR effect in forward (Supplemental Table 2) and
282 reverse (Supplemental Table 3) primary analyses assuming 80% statistical power. The largest
283 detectable effect in forward MR was found for neuroticism ($\beta = 0.11$, OR = 1.12) assuming a
284 positive direction of the effect. For conscientiousness and openness to experience the estimated
285 detectable MR effect on BP-HC was $\beta = -0.04$ assuming a negative correlation, which
286 corresponds to OR = 0.96. In reverse MR detectable effect estimates on average were more
287 extreme and varied from $\beta = -2.40$ for conscientiousness to $\beta = 1.25$ for anxiety (OR = 3.50).

288 Notably, a large detectable effect in the reverse MR was also estimated for openness to experience
289 (beta = -2.28).

290

291 *Overlapping sample bias*

292 Analysis of relative bias in IVW effect estimates from forward and reverse MR analyses
293 considering anxiety and neuroticism showed modest bias of 0.003 and stable type 1 error of 0.05.
294 It should be noted that for these traits the detected CAUSE effects were similar to those obtained
295 in IVW in both magnitude and direction, and the results from *post hoc* analysis for neuroticism
296 confirmed findings from the main analysis. This all adds credibility to the observed IVW effect
297 estimates and allows us to conclude that IVW results are reliable, despite the sample overlap.

298

299 **Discussion**

300 Investigating the causal relationships between risk factors and back pain is an important step
301 toward understanding its underlying mechanisms and developing novel trajectories of pain
302 management and treatment. We have demonstrated bidirectional causal associations between
303 neuroticism level and BP-HC. These results are concordant with epidemiological observations that
304 a high level of neuroticism increases the risk of pain in general, modifies pain perception and
305 treatment response, and increases chances of pain chronification ^{4,24,26,37}. One of the possible
306 mechanisms of the neuroticism influence on BP-HC is through pain catastrophizing and increasing
307 of pain anxiety ²⁸. Possible mechanisms of the reverse influence (BP-HC on neuroticism levels)
308 could be partially explained by the fact that the quality of life of patients with back pain decreases
309 as back pain severity increases. To our knowledge, this is the first time a causal effect of back pain
310 on neuroticism has been reported. Both forward and reverse effects were positive in the current
311 work, indicating a possible positive feedback loop between neuroticism and BP-HC, meaning that
312 back pain could lead to greater neuroticism, which in turn can cause more pain. Our findings are
313 in line with the diathesis-stress model of personality and pain ⁵¹ which assumes that a diathesis
314 (such as a personality trait or premorbid personality functioning) and stressors (such as
315 physiological stress of pain and the psychosocial stress associated with chronic pain disability)
316 interact in a nonlinear way and may aggravate each other. It means that not only may a diathesis
317 influence the probability of being exposed to stressful stimuli, but also diatheses may determine
318 which types of events a person interpret as stressors ³³. The diathesis-stress model shows that
319 comprehensive assessment of both personality function and stressful factors prior to manifestation
320 of pain is crucial for better understanding of the aims, expectations, and limitations of pain
321 treatment.

322 Since neuroticism is a risk factor for depression ⁵⁵, bidirectionality of the association between
323 neuroticism and BP-HC contrasts with our findings for MDD. Previously we have observed causal
324 relationship of MDD on back pain but not *vice versa* ⁵². Given the current results for neuroticism
325 and conservative nature of our MR protocol, which resulted in a single IV in sensitivity analysis
326 of back pain against MDD in our recent study, we may speculate, that back pain still can have
327 reverse causation on MDD as on neuroticism level. However, further studies are needed.

328 We did not observe evidence for causality between other personality traits and back pain. This
329 might be due to the lack of statistical power and absence of IVs for the IVW MR for several traits.
330 However, the CAUSE method was not impacted by a paucity of IVs, yet it also failed to find
331 evidence of statistically significant causal associations for other personality traits. The GWASs for
332 extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness had smaller sample
333 sizes than the one for neuroticism ($N < 65,000$). We did not detect significant result for anxiety
334 either and had no IVs in forward IVW analysis at all; however, anxiety had sample size comparable
335 with neuroticism. Most likely, we simply had low statistical power for anxiety, as for other
336 personality traits but neuroticism. We may also speculate that alternative approaches to anxiety
337 phenotype measurement may have resulted in a bigger number of cases, providing greater
338 statistical power in GWAS and more IVs for MR analyses. For the given sample sizes and current
339 phenotype definitions available, the estimated detectable effects were substantial, varying from
340 $\beta = -2.40$ to $\beta = 1.25$. We cannot claim the absence of causal signals before much bigger
341 GWASs are incorporated in frames of the MR analysis.

342 Beside the modest sample size for several personality traits, the study has other limitations. Firstly,
343 for the primary analyses for neuroticism and anxiety, we used GWASs that had sample overlap
344 with the GWAS of BP-HC. This potentially increases the type 1 error of the analysis and could

345 bias effect estimates ⁶. However, our estimates of overlapping sample bias suggested that the
346 likelihood of such bias is negligible. Moreover, the results of *post hoc* analyses when using non-
347 overlapping samples were concordant with the main analyses. Secondly, the results are applicable
348 only for European population. GWASs of samples with other ancestries are much needed so that
349 the relationships between personality traits and BP-HC in other populations can be studied using
350 MR. Thirdly, it is known that personality traits as well as back pain are vulnerable to assortative
351 mating bias ^{29,30}. There is no general solution for this possible issue, but there is a growing evidence
352 for efficiency of a family-based design in MR ^{3,17}. However, our *post hoc* results obtained on
353 GWAS from another population (from Finland biobank) increases the confidence that our results
354 are valid. Finally, in the current study we utilized medical codes to identify back pain cases, which
355 creates a heterogeneous sample with highly varying pain locations and duration. In general, this
356 might decrease the statistical power of the analysis and reduce the number of IVs, though in this
357 case it could be compensated by a very large sample size ²⁷. In addition, it is possible that we did
358 not detect the expected causal effects of psychological factors because the back pain phenotype
359 we used was not restricted to chronic back pain exclusively, while many previously described
360 associations were observed specifically in the setting of chronic back pain ^{16,20,43}. Although we can
361 hypothesize that patients with back pain seeking healthcare treatment most likely have chronic
362 pain ^{15,21,35}, there may still be a substantial proportion of people with acute back pain in our GWAS
363 sample and this might have affected our findings.

364 Our results support the general clinical practice of considering personality traits in
365 multidisciplinary treatment programs for chronic back pain ^{20,37,40,54}. The significant positive
366 feedback loop between neuroticism and back pain highlights the potential importance of
367 recognizing neuroticism in patients with back pain.

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371

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