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'Pacing' for management of myalgic encephalomyelitis/ chronic fatigue syndrome (ME/CFS): a systematic review and meta-analysis

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ABSTRACT

Background: Pacing typically comprises regulating activity to avoid post-exertional neuroimmune exhaustion, the worsening of symptoms after an activity. Yet, the efficacy of pacing to improve symptomology is unclear.

Objective: We aimed to undertake a PRISMA-accordant meta-analysis concerning the effect of pacing on ME/CFS patients' symptoms.

Data sources: Six electronic databases (PubMed, Scholar, ScienceDirect, Scopus, Web of Science and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials [CENTRAL]) were searched; and websites MEdia, Action for ME, and ME Action were also searched for grey literature.

Study selection: Studies ($k=5$) selected from the 210 identified included randomised controlled trials (RCTs; $k=2$), uncontrolled trials (UCTs; $k=1$), intervention case series ($k=1$), and sub-analysis of the PACE trial ($k=1$), all of which had a pacing component, and an outcome measure reported pre- and post-pacing.

Study appraisal and methods: Three separate meta-analyses were conducted on changes in symptoms using standardised mean differences (SMDs) and random-effects models.

Results: The overall SMD showed pacing improved physical function ($k=4$, SMD = 0.15 [95% CI = -0.39, 0.68], $p=0.5951$). Pacing improved pain ($k=4$, SMD = -0.11 [95% CI = -0.32, 0.10], $p=0.3090$). Pacing improved fatigue ($k=4$, SMD = -1.09 [95% CI = -2.38, 0.21], $p=0.0998$).

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Conclusions: Pacing exerted a trivial beneficial effect on physical function and pain. Fatigue was improved with a large effect, which did reach the $p < 0.05$ level. We cautiously conclude pacing likely exerts some beneficial effects on symptomology, particularly, fatigue, in people with ME/CFS. However, the level of empirical research is insufficient, and more high-quality RCTs are essential to support the NICE guidelines.

Abbreviations: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC); Chronic Pain Coping Inventory (CPCI); Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT); Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL); Graded exercise therapy (GET); Myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome (ME/CFS); Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro); Post-exertional neuroimmune exhaustion (PENE); Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA); Randomised control trial (RCT)

1. Introduction

1.1. Rationale

Myalgic Encephalomyelitis (ME) Chronic Fatigue Syndrome (CFS) and/or ME/CFS has been evident in the medical literature for decades and is thought to occur consequent to a viral infection [1]. ME/CFS is a debilitating condition characterised by severe fatigue, cognitive impairment, and a host of other symptoms, with no known cure or definitive treatment [2–6]. The condition has a prevalence of ~1%, equating to 670,000 people with ME/CFS living in the UK alone [7]. People with ME/CFS experience a severe and ongoing symptom load, and moreover half of the ME/CFS population are unemployed due to their condition [8]. To date, there is no pharmacological treatment or cure for ME/CFS, with symptom management being the primary therapeutic approach. There is a growing need for a standardised method of care for the management of symptoms associated with ME/CFS.

From a historical perspective, the 2007 NICE guidelines for people with ME/CFS advised that both cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) and graded exercise therapy (GET) should be offered to people with ME/CFS [9]. As of the 2021 update, the NICE guidelines for people with ME/CFS do not advise CBT or GET, and the only recommended management strategy is ‘pacing’ [10]. Pacing, initially described by health psychologist Ellen Goudsmit in 1989, advises patients to: ‘do as much as you can within your limits’ [11–13]. It is an activity management strategy to help ME/CFS patients attempt to limit the number and severity of relapses while remaining as active as possible. In the years between changes to the NICE guidelines, the landmark PACE trial [14] was published in 2011. This large, randomised control trial (RCT; $n = 639$) compared pacing, GET, and CBT and reported GET and CBT as more effective than pacing for improving symptoms. Yet, this study has come under considerable criticism from patient groups and clinicians alike [15–18], with patients often arguing that GET not only fails to address the underlying biological nature of their conditions but can also lead to symptom exacerbation, resulting in long-term harm. Moreover, changes to the way the main outcomes were analysed were implemented, and this has led to criticism. This may partly explain why NICE revised its

guidance and only recommended pacing for symptom management people with ME/CFS [10]. There has been some controversy over the best treatment for people with ME/CFS in the literature and support groups, potentially amplified by the ambiguity of evidence for pacing efficacy and how pacing should be implemented. As such, before pacing can be advised, it is imperative literature concerning pacing is systematically reviewed and meta-analysed for efficacy. Despite a number of systematic reviews concerning pharmacological interventions or cognitive behavioural therapy in people with ME/CFS [15,19,20], to date, there are no systematic reviews concerning pacing efficacy. In fact, our recent scoping review [6] was the first to aggregate previous research concerning pacing for people with ME/CFS, with a focus on methodologies utilised.

A comprehensive review of pacing efficacy in ME/CFS is an essential tool to guide symptom management advice. Yet, despite the widespread use of pacing, the literature base is limited and includes clinical commentaries, case studies, case series, and a few RCTs. Encouragingly, our recent scoping review [6] identified 17 studies or patient surveys concerning pacing in people with ME/CFS. We noted several studies considered the same symptoms or patient outcomes, so there was scope to consider a tightly focussed research question to evaluate the efficacy of pacing in people with ME/CFS.

1.2. Objectives

Despite the potential of pacing to improve health outcomes in people with ME/CFS, there was no meta-analysis to provide a pooled analysis of published studies to date. Therefore, the aim of this investigation was to conduct a PRISMA-accordant meta-analysis of studies examining the effect of pacing on physical function, pain, and fatigue.

2. Methods

2.1. Eligibility criteria

Studies that met the following criteria were included in this review: (1) published as a full-text manuscript; (2) not a review; (3) participants with ME/CFS; (4) studies employed a pacing intervention or retrospective analysis of pacing or a case study of pacing (5) written in English language. Where a study reported the same variable twice (e.g. a pain visual analogue scale and a pain subsection of a questionnaire), we included the study only once to avoid double weighting. The search strategy consisted of a combination of free-text and MeSH terms relating to ME/CFS and pacing, which were developed through an examination of published original literature and review articles. As an example, the search terms for PubMed were: 'ME/CFS' OR 'ME' OR 'CFS' OR 'chronic fatigue syndrome' OR 'PEM' OR 'post exertional malaise' OR 'pene' OR 'post-exertion neurogenic exhaust' AND 'pacing' OR 'adaptive pacing'. The search was performed within title/abstract.

2.2. Information sources

Six electronic databases [PubMed, Scholar, ScienceDirect, Scopus, Web of Science, and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL)] were searched to identify original research articles published from the earliest available date up until 16/11/2023.

Additional records were identified through reference lists of included studies. 'Grey literature' repositories including MEPedia, Action for ME, and ME Action were also searched with the same terms.

2.3. Study selection

Once each database search was completed and manuscripts were sourced, all studies were downloaded into a single reference list (Zotero, version 6.0.23) and duplicates were removed. Titles and abstracts were screened for eligibility by two reviewers independently and discrepancies were resolved through discussion between reviewers. Subsequently, full-text papers of potentially relevant studies were retrieved and assessed for eligibility by the same two reviewers independently. Any uncertainty by reviewers was discussed in consensus meetings and resolved by agreement. Descriptions were extracted with as much detail as was provided by the authors. Study quality was assessed using the Physiotherapy Evidence Database (PEDro) scale [21,22].

2.4. Data collection process

Data extracted from each study included; study sample size, intervention/control group descriptions, study design, analysis method, and outcome data. Data were extracted for pre- and post-pacing dependent variable values.

Where the SD for change between time points (i.e. pre- and post-training change) was not reported, it was calculated thusly:

$$SD_{\text{change}} = \sqrt{(SD_1^2 + SD_2^2 - (2 \cdot \text{corr} \cdot SD_1 \cdot SD_2))}$$

Whereby: corr: correlation coefficient, a value that describes the relationship between baseline and final measurements over time. The correlation coefficient used was 0.9 as a conservative estimate.

2.5. Data items

Analysis was carried out using the standardised mean difference (SMD), and interpreted as ≥ 0.2 = small effect, ≥ 0.5 = moderate effect, and ≥ 0.8 = large effect [23]. A random-effects model was fitted to the data. The amount of heterogeneity (i.e. τ^2), was estimated using the restricted maximum-likelihood estimator [24]. In addition to the estimate of τ^2 , the Q-test for heterogeneity [25] and the I^2 statistic [26] are reported. An I^2 value of 25% may be interpreted as low, 50% as moderate and 75% as high between study heterogeneity. Due to the low k , tests for funnel plot asymmetry were considered inappropriate [27], so funnel plots were only visually inspected. The analysis was carried out using R (version 4.2.2) (R Core Team) [28] and the metafor package (version 3.8.1) [24]. Three random-effect meta-analyses (physical function, pain, fatigue) were conducted as each of these outcomes was reported the most in the literature. No subgroup analyses were performed due to the small sample size. Furthermore, methodological quality was assessed using the modified 0–10 PEDro scale [21].

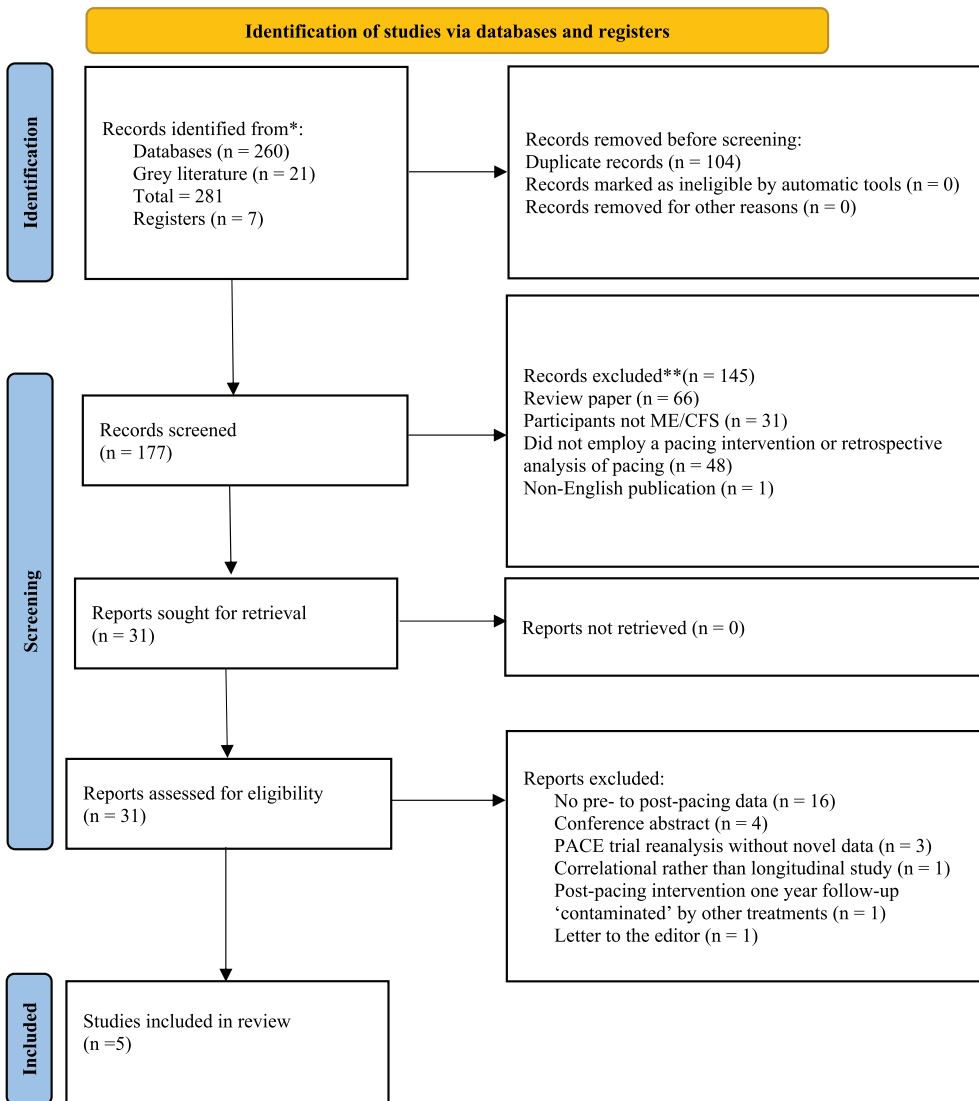


Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagram outlining exclusions of potential studies and final number of studies.

3. Results

3.1. Study selection

After the initial database search, 322 records were identified (see Figure 1). Once duplicates were removed, 210 titles and abstracts were screened for inclusion resulting in 31 studies being retrieved as full text and assessed for eligibility. Of those, 25 were excluded, and five articles remained and were used in the final quantitative synthesis. In one case, a paper [29] was a reanalysis of the PACE trial [14], but reported a different variable to the original study, and so we included this paper as it did not double-weight the SMD. Of these five articles, none reported all dependent variables of interest, thus why each meta-analysis and forest plots have $k < 5$.

Table 1. Description of included studies and data sets.

Ref.	Type of pacing and duration of intervention (if relevant)	Study design (RCT, observational cohort, etc.)	Participants (<i>n</i> , age, gender, ethnicity, time since diagnosis)	Comorbidities	Location	Recruitment setting and study setting	Outcome measures	PEDro Score
Antcliff et al. [31] ^a	Six-week rehabilitation programme using the activity pacing framework (6 × 3.5 h sessions). Programme included understanding of graded exercise, relaxation and goal setting etc. Pacing was instructed in one session but not informed or standardised by any particular guide or framework.	Single-arm, repeated measures study, a non-randomised feasibility study	<i>n</i> = 6 Mean age 46 ± 12 years 100% female 80% white		UK	One National Health Service (NHS) pain service	Chalder fatigue scale 0–10 pain numerical pain rating scale. SF-12	5; fair
Bourke et al. [29]	PACE Trial reanalysis with activity pacing therapy. Duration of 52 weeks.	RCT with Specialist medical care (SMC) as comparator	<i>n</i> = 641 Mean age 39 years Mostly female 76% Around 90% Caucasian Time since diagnosis not reported.	Depressive disorder (34%)	UK	Patients from secondary-care specialist CFS clinic	0–4 muscle pain numerical rating scale from the international (CDC) criteria for CFS	6; good
Kos et al. [30]	Coached activity pacing self-management. Three individual therapy sessions of 60–90 min/wk for three consecutive weeks of 'activity pacing self-management'.	RCT with 'relaxation' as control	<i>n</i> = 33 (<i>n</i> = 16 in the experimental group, <i>n</i> = 17 in the control group) Mean age 41 ± 11 years All female Ethnicity and time since diagnosis not reported.	Not reported	Belgium	Waiting list for multidisciplinary rehabilitation and informed about the study through email University Hospital	Checklist individual strength SF-36	6; good

<p>Nijls et al. [32]</p>	<p>Pacing self-management. Five different visits at 1-week intervals. Wore accelerometer for 24 h for a week.</p>	<p>Case series</p>	<p><i>n</i> = 7 Mean age 43 ± 13 years All female Ethnicity not reported. Median illness duration of 96 ± 44 months</p>	<p>Not reported</p>	<p>Belgium</p>	<p>University-based chronic fatigue centre University Hospital</p>	<p>Checklist individual strength SF-36 Fatigue VAS Pain VAS</p>	<p>6; good</p>
<p>White et al. [14]</p>	<p>One year (52 weeks) of activity pacing therapy</p>	<p>RCT with specialist medical care (SMC) as comparator</p>	<p><i>n</i> = 641 recruited, <i>n</i> = 630 analysed, <i>n</i> = 607 reported in results tables. <i>n</i> = 159 in pacing group, <i>n</i> = 160 in 'control' group Mean age 39 ± 12 years 76% women 94% white Duration of illness 32 (16–66) months</p>	<p>Co-morbid psychiatric condition (47%) Depressive disorder (33%)</p>	<p>UK</p>	<p>Outpatients attending six specialist chronic fatigue syndrome clinics</p>	<p>Chalder fatigue scale SF-36</p>	<p>6; good</p>

SF-12 = 12-Item Short Form Health Survey questionnaire. SF-36 = 36-Item Short Form Health Survey questionnaire. UK = United Kingdom. VAS = Visual Analogue Scale.
^aAntcliff et al. [31] data was sourced from the authors, and these data represent a larger cohort including chronic back pain and fibromyalgia.

Table 2. Diagnostic criteria used in included studies to define ME/CFS (if reported).

Study	Diagnostic criteria used
Antcliff et al. [31]	No diagnostic criteria included as this study included people with chronic low back pain, chronic widespread pain, fibromyalgia, and ME/CFS for ≥ 3 months'. Only the ME/CFS data were used in this meta-analysis.
Bourke et al. [29]	Oxford criteria (PACE trial sub-analysis).
Kos et al. [30]	Fukuda criteria.
Nijs et al. [32]	Fukuda criteria.
White et al. [14]	Oxford criteria (PACE trial).

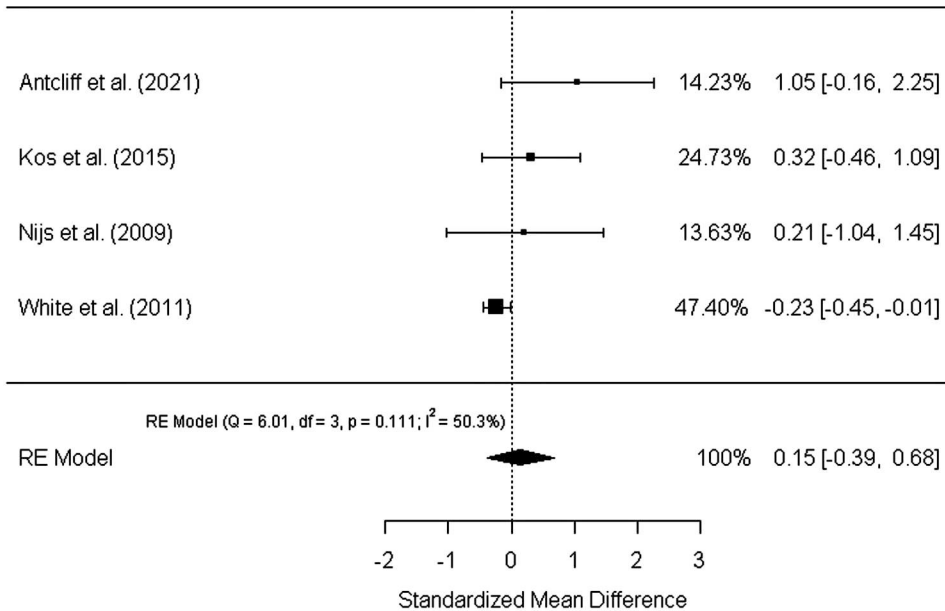


Figure 2. Summary of studies examining physical function following pacing. Note that symbol size of individual studies is representative of the weighting for the pooled standardised mean difference (SMD), which is also given as text as a percentage. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. A positive value (i.e. rightwards) represents a beneficial effect of pacing compared to control.

3.2. Study characteristics

Of the five studies included, two were randomised control trials (RCTs [14,30]), one was an uncontrolled trial [31], one was a case series [32], and one was a sub-analysis of the PACE trial reporting pain (not reported in the initial publication) [29] (Table 1). Diagnostic criteria for ME/CFS are summarised in Table 2.

3.3. Effect of pacing on physical function

A total of $k = 4$ studies were included in the physical function analysis. The observed SMDs ranged from -0.23 to 1.05 (for physical function, a higher value indicates a beneficial effect of pacing), with most estimates being positive (75%). The SMD was $\mu = 0.15$ (95% CI: $-0.39, 0.68, z = 0.5315, p = 0.5951$; Figure 2). According to the Q -test, the true

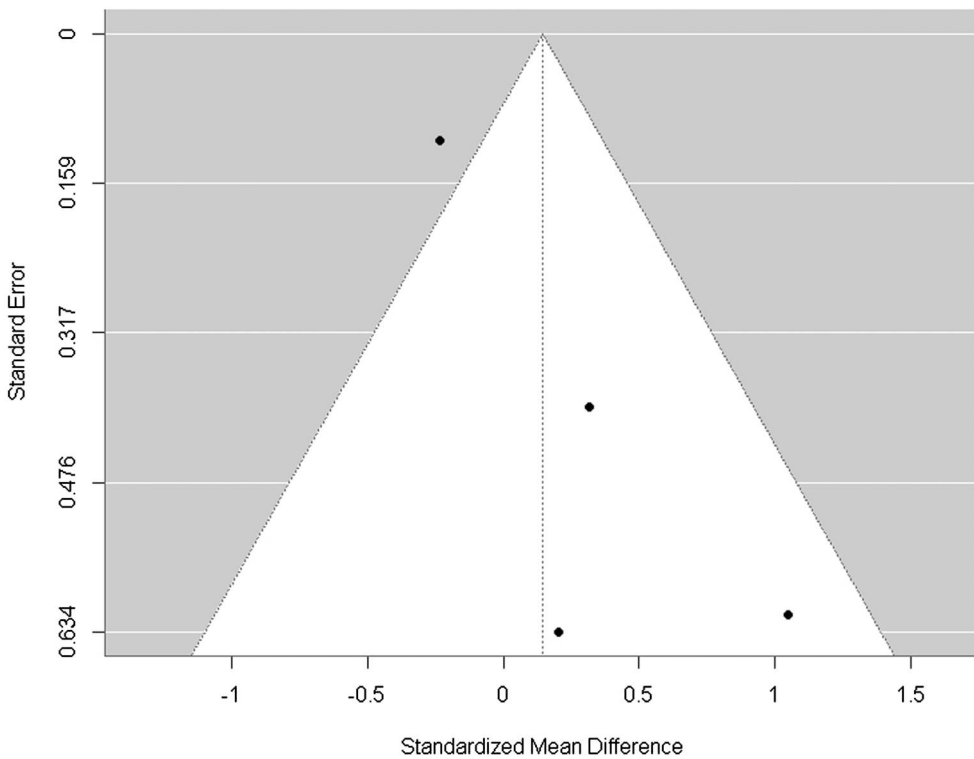


Figure 3. Funnel plot for evaluating the effect of pacing on physical function.

outcomes appeared to be heterogeneous ($Q(3) = 6.0134$, $p = 0.1110$, $\tau^2 = 0.1445$, $I^2 = 50\%$). A funnel plot of the estimates is shown in [Figure 3](#).

3.4. Effect of pacing on pain

A total of $k = 4$ studies were included in the pain meta-analysis. The individual study SMDs ranged from -1.17 to 0.01 (for pain, a low value indicated a beneficial effect of pacing), with most estimates being negative (75%). The overall SMD was $\mu = -0.11$ (95% CI: -0.32 , 0.10 , $z = -1.0174$, $p = 0.3090$; [Figure 4](#)). The Q -test heterogeneity p value did not reach <0.05 ($Q(3) = 3.2246$, $p = 0.3583$, $\tau^2 = 0.000$, $I^2 = 0\%$). A funnel plot of the estimates is shown in [Figure 5](#).

3.5. Effect of pacing on fatigue

A total of $k = 4$ studies were included in the fatigue meta-analysis. The observed SMDs ranged from -3.64 to -0.23 (for fatigue, a low value was preferential [i.e. less fatigued was better]), with all studies resulting in a lowering of fatigue with pacing. The pooled SMD was $\mu = -0.109$ (95% CI: -2.38 , 0.21 , $z = -1.6458$, $p = 0.0998$; [Figure 6](#)). According to the Q -test, the true outcomes appear to be heterogeneous ($Q(3) = 14.2895$, $p = 0.0025$, $\tau^2 = 1.4257$, $I^2 = 89\%$). A funnel plot of the estimates is shown in [Figure 7](#).

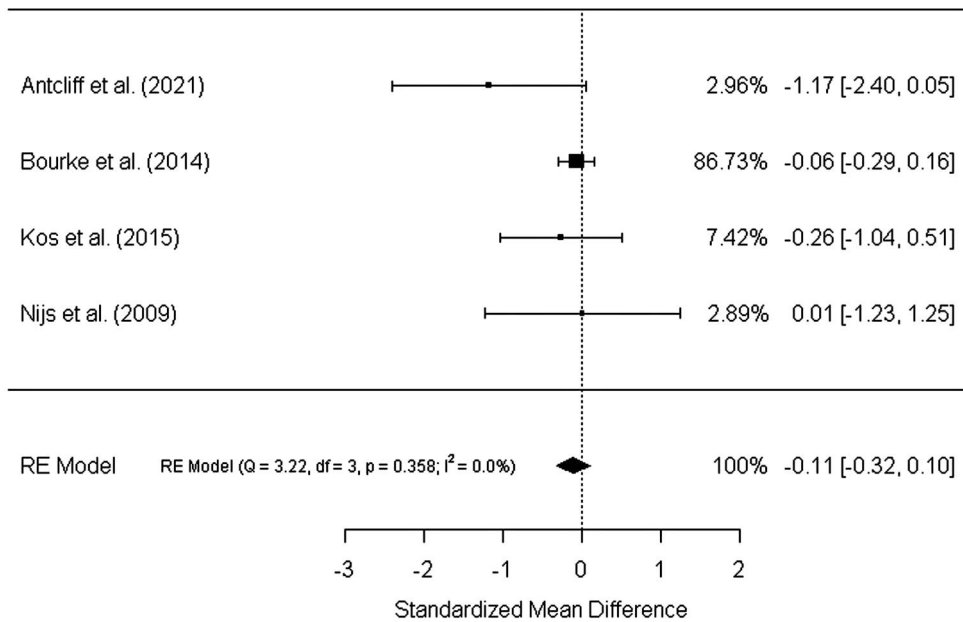


Figure 4. Summary of studies examining pain following pacing. Note that symbol size of individual studies is representative of the weighting for the pooled standardised mean difference (SMD), which is also given as text as a percentage. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. A negative value (i.e. leftwards) represents a beneficial effect of pacing compared to control (i.e. a reduction in pain).

4. Discussion

The main finding from this meta-analysis was that pacing exerted trivial effects in people with ME/CFS, but the magnitude and *p*-value varied with outcome measures. For example, pacing exerted a large beneficial effect on fatigue (-1.09 , 95% CI: -2.38 , 0.21) which did not reach statistical significance. However, pacing exerted a trivial effect on physical function (0.15 , 95% CI: -0.39 , 0.68) and pain (-0.11 , 95% CI: -0.32 , 0.10). Given that in most studies, pacing was no more harmless than control, and in some instances, was beneficial, we think it pragmatic that pacing should still be considered as a primary management strategy for people with ME/CFS. Given that pacing is currently the sole management strategy for people with ME/CFS (NICE guidelines [10]), this meta-analysis provides timely insight into the effect of pacing on health outcomes following the only suggested management strategy. However, there were several concerning observations. Study quality was generally 'good' according to the PEDRO ratings, but this rating does not consider statistical power, and the low *n* of many studies limits the strength of available evidence.

4.1. Effect of pacing on physical function

The pooled effect of pacing was trivial for physical function. Besides the original PACE trial [14], all other studies reported small to large improvements with pacing although none of the reported findings were statistically significant. However, it is worth noting that the PACE trial was the largest sample ($n = 159$ and $n = 160$ in the pacing and specialist medical care [SMC] control group respectively), and therefore these results weigh

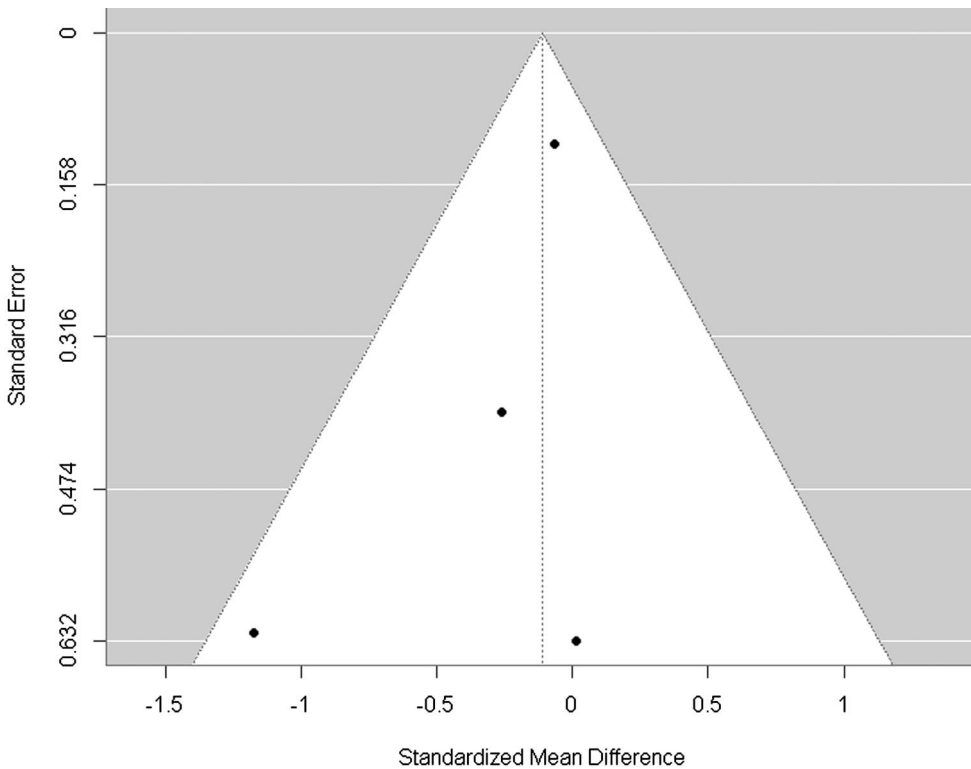


Figure 5. Funnel plot for evaluating the effect of pacing on pain.

heavily on the SMD (47% weighting). This was also the most robustly designed study compared to the other studies, which were either uncontrolled [31,32], or underpowered [30]. The study with the largest effect was a subset of participants in a single-arm feasibility study, and therefore this large change from baseline may overestimate the true effect without a control group comparison [31]. It is also clear from the forest plot (Figure 2) that the variance was large, with 95% confidence intervals crossing zero for three of the four studies. There is a pressing need for more high-quality RCTs considering how pacing influences physical function in people with ME/CFS, as even a small effect may have a meaningful effect of peoples' lives.

4.2. Effect of pacing on pain

The pooled effect of pacing was generally beneficial for pain. All other studies reported general improvements with pacing except Nijs and colleagues [32] whose study resulted in an SMD of 0.01. However, much like the results for physical function, a reanalysis of the PACE trial [29] was the largest sample ($n = 159$ and $n = 160$ in the pacing and specialist medical care [SMC] control group respectively), and therefore these results contributed 87% weighting to the pooled SMD. As Bourke et al. [29] observed no change to pain (SMD = -0.06) it is unsurprising the overall effect was trivial (-0.11) and did not reach statistical significance. Much like the physical function results above, the study with the

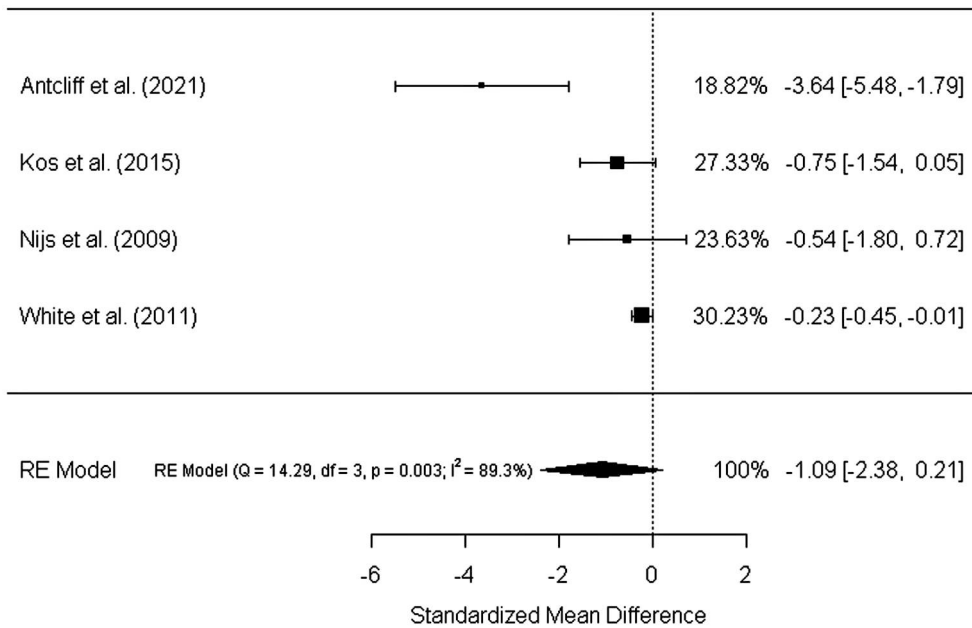


Figure 6. Summary of studies examining fatigue following pacing. Note that symbol size of individual studies is representative of the weighting for the pooled standardised mean difference (SMD), which is also given as text as a percentage. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. A negative value (i.e. leftwards) represents a beneficial effect of pacing compared to control (i.e. a reduction in fatigue).

largest effect was a subset of participants from a single-arm feasibility study and therefore the SMD may overestimate the true effect. Again, the variance was large, with 95% confidence intervals crossing zero for three of the four studies. The relatively small number of studies did hamper any interpretation of whether pacing influences pain in people with ME/CFS, and more high-quality RCTs concerning pain are yet again needed.

4.3. Effect of pacing on fatigue

The effects of pacing on fatigue are somewhat more convincing than concerning physical function or pain, as all studies reported small to very large statistically insignificant improvements with pacing and the pooled magnitude was large (-1.09) and not statistically significant. Encouragingly, the PACE trial [14] reported a positive effect of pacing compared to the control group for fatigue. This is encouraging because in the PACE trial, the control group was not a no-treatment group, and was provided with specialist medical care, which is beyond what many people with ME/CFS experience [33]. Despite this encouraging finding, more high-quality RCTs are yet again needed to confirm this preliminary observation.

4.4. Pacing interventions

Interventions were of varying durations, from 3-weeks consisting of 1 session/week pacing self-management [32], to 3×60 -90-min sessions/week of 'activity pacing self-

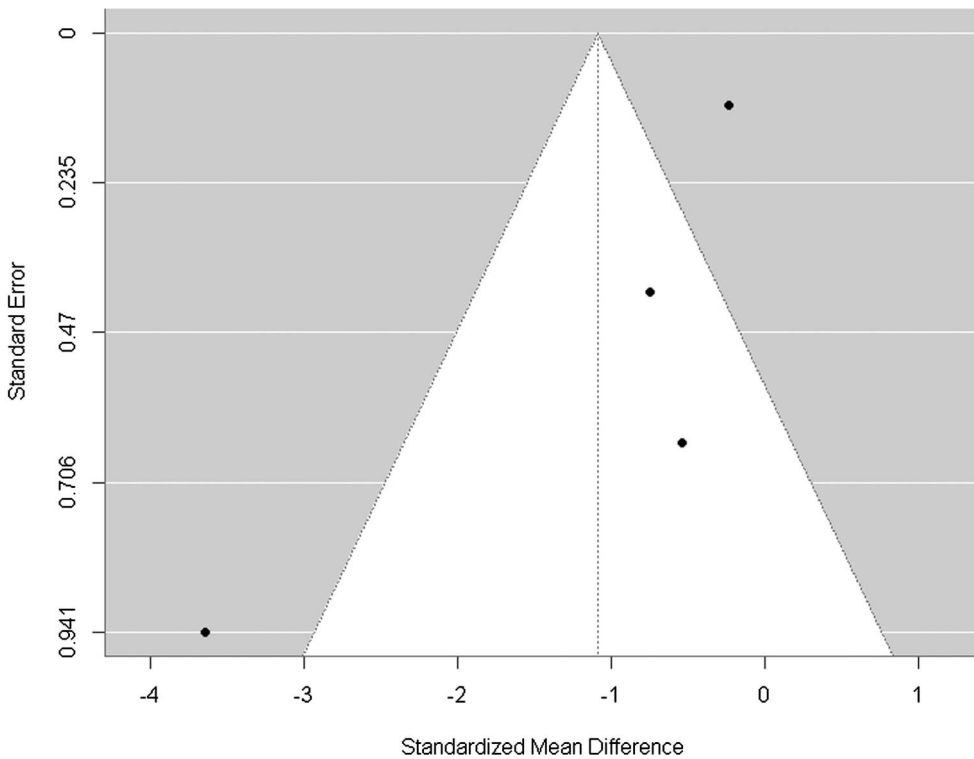


Figure 7. Funnel plot for evaluating the effect of pacing on fatigue.

management' [30], a 6-week rehabilitation programme using the activity pacing framework (6×3.5 -hours sessions) [31], and 1-year of activity pacing therapy [14,29]. In addition to varying durations, interventions were also delivered in different ways across studies. However, all used approaches that required participants to implement strategies learned in educational sessions into practice in their day-to-day lives. While not all five intervention studies explicitly mentioned the 'Energy Envelope Theory' [34,35], which suggests that people with ME/CFS should not necessarily amplify or reduce their activity levels but rather engage in moderate activity and conserve energy, all these studies employed language resembling this theory, emphasising that participants should operate within 'limits', within their 'capacity', or similar phrasing. No contemporary studies using direct contemporaneous support (i.e. activity tracking and alerts for example) were evident.

4.5. Limitations

The major limitation of the present meta-analysis is the lack of studies, particularly high-quality and sufficiently powered RCTs. Not only would a larger sample of RCTs add weight to conclusions made herein, but it would also enable sub-analysis of different cohorts or approaches. As such, the current literature is some considerable way from such nuanced analysis. Consequently, our conclusions are conservative and preliminary, until a greater depth of literature is available concerning pacing in people with ME/CFS. Another

significant limitation of the research included in this meta-analysis is, with the exception of Antcliff et al. [31], most studies predate the widespread availability of mobile technology and, consequently, there is a lack of evidence regarding technology-informed pacing. Given the proliferation of global smartphone usage [36], and the power of smartphones (and associated wearables) to track physical activity in the form of steps and/or heart rate [37–40], we find it perplexing that no pacing studies have been completed through digital health means. We expect this to change in the coming years, given the benefits of digital health interventions [41–45], which can remove barriers to research participation [46–48]. Indeed, the NICE guidelines speak to this necessity with specific mention of improved self-monitoring strategies, sleep strategies, and dietary strategies as research priorities [10], all of which can be measured using digital health approaches, in a scalable and labour-inexpensive way.

In this meta-analysis, we included pacing over any duration. The PACE trial [14] delivered pacing for 52 weeks, whilst Kos et al. [30] delivered only three weeks of pacing. It is impossible to know whether longer studies such as the PACE trial may experience a ‘voltage drop’ once participants have been in a study for a long time, or whether pacing requires a significant amount of time before it exerts a positive effect. If there were a larger number of studies within this meta-analysis, we could have interrogated this effect through meta-regression but due to the limited k , this was not possible. Moreover, we included studies which utilised any type of pacing. Pacing was implemented through educational sessions and, use of accelerometers and diaries, but generally, it was difficult to ascertain how this was completed. In fact, 100% of the studies were too vague in methodological description to replicate, which is a limitation of the existing research.

Whilst the literature assessment was comprehensive, it is possible that studies may have been missed from the analysis, but as six databases were searched, it is unlikely enough were missed to create a large change to SMDs. Furthermore, having two authors ensured agreement on inclusion and exclusion, which limited potential bias. To ensure a suitable k for meta-analysis, we included all studies which incorporated pacing, regardless of study design (i.e. RCT, single-arm, case series). Finally, the diagnostic criteria that studies employed to identify ME/CFS are described as having ‘very serious limitations’ by the 2021 NICE guidelines. Studies like Antcliff et al. [31], which lack specific diagnostic criteria, are particularly vulnerable to misclassification, increasing the risk of including individuals who do not actually meet the diagnostic threshold for ME/CFS but have fatigue caused by other underlying conditions. This misclassification bias can lead to overgeneralised conclusions regarding treatment effectiveness and the underlying mechanisms of the condition, ultimately weakening the quality and validity of the evidence. These issues underscore the urgent need for more precise and consistent diagnostic criteria in future research, ensuring that studies accurately capture ME/CFS patients and avoid including individuals with other conditions that may present similar symptoms.

5. Conclusion

There is insufficient evidence to conclude that pacing exerts a positive effect in people with ME/CFS for physical function, pain, and fatigue; although pacing may reduce

fatigue in ME/CFS patients. Therefore, further studies with greater sample sizes and quality are needed to validate these initial findings and determine the overall effectiveness of pacing in ME/CFS management. Given that we are 16 years after the earliest pacing study, and 13 years since the landmark PACE trial (at the time of writing), research has advanced at a slow rate. This is surprising seeing as pacing is the only NICE-recommended symptom management strategy, and more research funding is required to provide confidence in these recommendations.

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Authors' contributions are given according to the CRediT taxonomy as follows: Conceptualisation, N. E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; methodology, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; software, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.B.; validation, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; formal analysis, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; investigation, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; resources, L.D.H., J.O., D.C., N.H., J.L.M., and N.F.S.; data curation, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; writing – original draft preparation, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; writing – review and editing, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., J.O., D.C., N.H., R.M., J.L.M., J.I., and N.F.S.; visualisation, N.E.M.S-H. and M.M., supervision, N.F.S; project administration, N.E.M.S-H., M.M., L.D.H., and N.F.S.; funding acquisition, L.D.H., J.O., D.C., N.H., J.L.M., J.I., and N.F.S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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