

1 **Vagally mediated heart rate variability promotes the perception of paradoxical pain**

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29 **Abstract**

30 Self-regulation mechanisms are governed by prefrontal inhibitory processes and play a crucial role in
31 the modulation of pain. In the present study the thermal grill paradigm was used to investigate the
32 association of vagally mediated resting heart rate variability, a psychophysiological marker of trait
33 self-regulatory capacity, with paradoxical pain sensations induced by non-noxious stimulation. This
34 thermal grill illusion is only perceived by part of the tested individuals. The mechanisms underlying
35 the observed inter-individual differences in paradoxical pain sensitivity are largely unknown. **During**
36 **the experimental task, a temperature combination of 15° C and 41° C was set at the glass tubes of the**
37 **thermal grill. The fifty-two healthy participants placed their dominant hand on the grill for a duration**
38 **of one minute.** The magnitude of sensory and affective pain sensations perceived during stimulation
39 was assessed with numerical rating scales. Before stimulation, a short-term electrocardiogram was
40 recorded to compute vagally mediated heart rate variability at rest. Logistic regression analyses
41 revealed that participants with higher vagal tone were significantly more likely to perceive the thermal
42 grill illusion than subjects displaying lower resting heart rate variability. Paradoxical pain sensations
43 were primarily predicted by normalized respiratory sinus arrhythmia. **Our results confirm that the**
44 **magnitude of vagally mediated resting heart rate variability is associated with the individual**
45 **disposition to illusive pain perceptions.** Since the latter is considered to be a marker of trait self-
46 regulation ability, the present findings may corroborate and complement previous evidence for an
47 impact of psychological characteristics on paradoxical pain sensitivity.

48

49 **Keywords**

50 Heart rate variability, paradoxical pain, responder, thermal grill illusion, emotional self-regulation.

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57 Pronounced unpleasantness and negative affect accompany the sensory experience of pain. Both
58 components may be intensified by adverse cognitive and emotional processes like increased attention
59 to pain, expectation of pain, anxiety, or pain catastrophizing (Arntz, Dreessen, & De Jong, 1994;
60 Sullivan et al., 2001; Van Damme, Crombez, & Eccleston, 2002). Rises in blood pressure (BP) and
61 heart rate (HR) often reflect acute pain and associated thoughts or emotions (Loggia, Juneau, &
62 Bushnell, 2011). Alterations in baroreceptor reactivity and concomitant changes in cardiac rhythm and
63 BP related to these processes contribute to the modulation of pain sensitivity (Bruehl & Chung, 2004;
64 Edwards et al., 2003; Guasti et al., 2002; Randich & Maixner, 1984; Thayer, Åhs, Fredrikson, Sollers
65 III, & Wager, 2012). **Self-regulatory ability** has been shown to support the flexible control of negative
66 emotional influences and cognitive responses to emotional stimuli during adverse demands (Park &
67 Thayer, 2014; Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2007; Solberg Nes, Roach, & Segerstrom, 2009; Thayer &
68 Lane, 2000; Thayer, Hansen, Saus-Rose, & Johnsen, 2009; Thayer et al., 2012). **The conceptualization**
69 **of pain as a homeostatic emotion (Craig, 2003) suggests that regulating actions are also promoted**
70 **during obtrusive pain states. As a consequence, adaptive behaviour may be guaranteed and the**
71 **organism's homeostatic drive for an equilibrated body condition (Appelhans & Luecken, 2008; Craig,**
72 **2003) may hence be satisfied.** In contrast, chronic pain conditions have been related to reduced self-
73 regulation ability and executive functioning (Solberg Nes et al., 2009).

74 The neural substrates of all homeostatic regulation processes overlap in the prefrontal cortex (PFC;
75 Thayer et al., 2009, 2012). The medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) plays a particularly important role in
76 ensuring flexible behavioural and autonomic nervous adaptability in response to inner and outer
77 requirements. This higher order regulation system coordinates actions by means of inhibitory
78 processes. The mPFC pathways are linked to the central autonomous network (CAN), a neural system
79 responsible for visceromotor, neuroendocrine, and behavioural homeostatic processes (Benarroch,
80 1993; Thayer & Lane, 2000) and to brain structures like the amygdala, anterior cingulate cortex
81 (ACC), insula, hypothalamus and diverse brainstem nuclei (Thayer et al., 2009). The CAN is
82 considered as a key feature in reciprocal cortico-cardiac interactions conveying flexible adaptation of
83 the organism to situational demands. Thayer and Lane (2000) included the CAN in their neurovisceral

84 integration model and suggested that it constitutes a functional unit regulating psychological and
85 physiological control processes via the described neural circuitry and related inhibitory processes.

86 In recent years, vagally mediated heart rate variability (HRV) measured at rest has been used as an
87 index of prefrontal inhibitory functioning and of cognitive control of responses to emotional stimuli
88 (Appelhans & Luecken, 2006; Park & Thayer, 2014). It has furthermore been specified that vagal
89 tone, as indexed in resting HRV, reflects the individual self-regulation ability predisposition
90 (Appelhans & Luecken, 2006; Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2007) and can predict emotional self-
91 regulation capacity in healthy and in clinical samples (Appelhans & Luecken, 2008; Koval et al.,
92 2013; Park, Vasey, Van Bavel, & Thayer, 2014; Solberg Nes et al., 2009; Thayer et al., 2009, 2012).
93 Resting HRV is determined by the quantification of the cardiorespiratory coupling causing systematic
94 fluctuations between heartbeat intervals and the respiratory cycle of inhaling (cardiac deceleration)
95 and exhaling (cardiac acceleration). The resulting respiratory sinus arrhythmia (RSA) is considered a
96 reliable proxy for vagally mediated variations in heart rate and thus for prefrontally modulated vagal
97 activation (Hayano et al., 1990; Grossman & Taylor, 2007).

98 Higher vagal tone at rest and self-regulation ability has been associated with more adaptive and
99 flexible homeostatic responses, positive emotionality, good health, and psychological recovery (Koval
100 et al., 2013; Solberg Nes et al., 2009; Thayer et al., 2009, 2012). Interestingly, both vagal tone indexed
101 by measures of RSA-related HRV and self-regulation features are considered as individually varying
102 but partially inheritable, stable trait characteristics (Appelhans & Luecken, 2006; Sinnreich, Kark,
103 Friedlander, Sapoznikov, & Luria, 1998; Thayer et al., 2009; Wang, Thayer, Treiber, & Snieder,
104 2005). Classical pain models based on noxious stimulation established an inverse relationship between
105 resting HRV and pain sensitivity (Appelhans & Luecken, 2008).

106 The thermal grill paradigm consists in applying interlaced non-noxious warm and cold
107 temperatures to adjacent skin areas and has commonly been used for the induction of the thermal grill
108 illusion of pain (TGI) (Thunberg, 1896), a kind of paradoxical pain sensation often described as
109 painful burning heat (Bouhassira, Kern, Rouaud, Pelle-Lancien, & Morain, 2005; Campero, Baumann,
110 Bostock, & Ochoa, 2009; Craig & Bushnell, 1994; Defrin, Ohry, Blumen, & Urca, 2002). The thermal
111 grill has been used as a valid model for the study of central pain processing (Craig, 2008) and of the

112 impact of psychological factors like sad mood, depression, and schizophrenia on central pain
113 (Boettger, Schwier, & Bär, 2011; Boettger, Grossmann, & Bär, 2013; Piñerua-Shuhaibar, Villalobos,
114 Delgado, Rubio, & Suarez-Roca, 2011). At this point it is interesting to note that only about one-third
115 to half of the tested individuals experience the painful grill illusion (Boettger et al., 2011, 2013;
116 Bouhassira et al., 2005; Lindstedt, Lonsdorf, Schalling, Kosek, & Ingvar, 2011a). These individuals
117 have been classified as “responders”, whereas those who did not perceive the grill illusion have been
118 denoted as “non-responders” The reasons for these inter-individual differences in the perception of the
119 TGI remain largely unknown. In a previous study devoted to the identification of psychological factors
120 that might increase the sensitivity to thermal grill stimulation, we could show that the traits rumination
121 and interceptive accuracy were major predictors of the occurrence of the TGI (Scheuren, Sütterlin, &
122 Anton, 2014).

123 The extent of HRV **respectively** of self-regulation capacity may constitute an additional factor
124 engaged in the individual receptiveness to illusive pain sensations. In the literature **on noxiously**
125 **induced pain states**, this assumption is supported by a described inverse relationship between vagal
126 tone and pain sensitivity (Appelhans & Luecken, 2008) or between self-regulatory trait features and
127 experimental or clinical pain processing (Appelhans & Luecken, 2006; Koval et al., 2013; Solberg Nes
128 et al., 2009; Treister, Kliger, Zuckerman, Aryeh, & Eisenberg, 2012). Furthermore, imaging studies
129 have revealed that brain structures **such as** the ACC and the insula that are activated during
130 paradoxical pain processing (Craig, Reiman, Evans, & Bushnell, 1996; Craig, Chen, Bandy, &
131 Reiman, 2000; Lindstedt, Lonsdorf, Schalling, Kosek, & Ingvar, 2011b) are also closely related to the
132 cardiovascular centres of the brain stem (Rau & Elbert, 2001) and to the regulation system attributed
133 to the mPFC (Thayer et al., 2009).

134 In the present study, we investigated the relationship between the psychophysiological marker
135 HRV measured at rest and paradoxical pain sensitivity. We hypothesized that responders to the
136 thermal grill paradigm would display lower vagal tone as indexed in resting HRV.

137

138 **Methods**

139 **Participants**

140 Sixty-six healthy students and staff members of the University of Luxembourg were recruited. The
141 study was approved by the National Research Ethics Committee and was conform to the ethical
142 guidelines of the International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP; Charlton, 1995). Exclusion
143 criteria were previous or current psychological- (e.g. depression, anxiety disorder), cardiovascular-,
144 neurological-, pain-, and skin-related problems, as well as drug and pain medication intake 24 hours
145 before the experimental session. All health-related items were addressed with a medical history
146 questionnaire. **One volunteer had to be excluded during recruitment due to depressive symptoms. Due**
147 **to an equipment failure, the electrocardiogram (ECG) data of eleven participants could not be used.**
148 **Two other participants dropped out because of incomplete HRV data.** The final total sample hence
149 comprised 52 participants (28 females). The mean age in the sample was 24.1 years ($SD = 6.1$, *range*:
150 18–51 years). All volunteers signed the informed consent and received financial compensation.

151

152 **Material and measures**

153 **Thermal grill device**

154 A custom-built and water-bath driven thermal grill device (Curio, I., PhD, Medical Electronics,
155 Bonn/Germany) composed of eight alternating cold and warm glass tubes (rectangular surface of 20 x
156 10 cm; contact area of the skin to the glass tubes of about 71 cm²) was used to elicit the TGI. Two
157 separate thermoelectric recirculating chillers (T255P, ThermoTek, Inc.) regulated the temperatures of
158 the water delivered to the grill tubes. A digital thermometer (PL-120 T2, Voltcraft; visual display of
159 T1-T2 temperatures in °C) allowed a continuous control of the temperatures by the experimenter. **The**
160 **participants were blinded regarding the exact temperatures presented in the different experimental**
161 **conditions.**

162 During the experimental thermal grill condition (TG; see Figure 1), participants placed the palmar
163 surface of their dominant hand on the interlaced cold and warm bars of the thermal grill. The cold
164 temperature of 15°C was set together with the warm temperature of 41°C. A cuff inflated with a
165 sphygmomanometer was used to induce a weak pressure of 0.7 MPa (0.071 kp/cm²) holding the hand
166 at the grill surface. TG stimulation phases lasted one minute and were repeated two times. In the inter-
167 stimulus-intervals (ISI) of three minutes, the hand was removed from the grill tubes. The TG condition

168 was followed by two control conditions (CC1 and CC2; see Figure 1). In CC1, the temperature of
169 15°C was presented in combination with the average baseline skin temperature of 32°C (Kräuchi &
170 Wirtz-Justice, 1994). In CC2, the warm 41°C was paired with the baseline 32°C. The same temporal
171 procedure was used in all conditions.

172

173 **Psychophysical measures**

174 Participants assessed the intensity and the unpleasantness of paradoxical pain perceived during **TG and**
175 **CC** stimulation by means of 100 mm numerical rating scales (NRS; Gracely, 2006; Lindstedt et al.,
176 2011a). They were instructed to refer to a list of verbal descriptors of the various numerical scale
177 increments: 0 = *no sensation*; 10 = *warm/cold*; 20 = *grill pain threshold* (GPT); 30 = *very weak*
178 *pain/unpleasantness*; 40 = *weak pain/unpleasantness*; 50 = *moderate pain/unpleasantness*; 60 =
179 *slightly strong pain/unpleasantness*; 70 = *strong pain/unpleasantness*; 80 = *very strong*
180 *pain/unpleasantness*; 90 = *nearly intolerable pain/unpleasantness*; 100 = *intolerable*
181 *pain/unpleasantness*. Through thorough instructions and confirmation by the participants, we made
182 sure that that values ranging from 0 to 20-NRS were used to rate no- or non-painful warm or cold
183 sensations, whereas values \geq 20-NRS quantified the intensity and unpleasantness of pain sensations.
184 The magnitude of the sensory-discriminative component of pain was measured before the affective-
185 motivational pain dimension. During each one-minute stimulation trial, the instructor orally invited the
186 participants to rate the perceived perceptions in intervals of 15 seconds.

187

188 **Psychophysiological recording**

189 We used the BIOPAC MP150 data acquisition system for the continuous measurement of HR. For this
190 purpose a standard precordial lead II electrocardiogram (ECG 100C; 0.5 Hz high pass filtering, R-
191 wave output mode, signal gain 500, 1000 Hz sample rate) was performed via disposable pre-gelled
192 Ag-AgCl electrodes (diameter 35 mm, EL502) placed below the right clavicle and below the left
193 lower rib. A similar Ag-AgCl electrode positioned below the right lower rib served for grounding. The
194 HR data were monitored and analysed using the AcqKnowledge Software package (BIOPAC Systems
195 Inc., USA).

196

197 ***Reduction of ECG-related data***

198 Artifact identification, correction, and HRV analysis were performed via ARTiiFACT software (V.
199 2.07; Kaufmann, Sütterlin, Schulz, & Vögele, 2011). R-R intervals (RRI) were extracted from the
200 ECG measurements recorded during the pre-experimental resting condition (last five minutes of the
201 10-min recordings). We included time- and frequency domain measures as well as respiratory sinus
202 arrhythmia **normalized for mean RRI** (RSA_{norm}) in our analysis since these parameters have been
203 considered as equally valid indicators of vagally mediated HRV (Grossman & Taylor, 2007; Hayano
204 et al., 1990; Kaufmann, Vögele, Sütterlin, Lukito, & Kübler, 2012; Task Force, 1996). Both time- and
205 frequency domain measures of HRV have been shown to provide high temporal stability, reliability,
206 and reproducibility (Bertsch, Hagemann, Naumann, Schächinger, & Schulz, 2012; Sinnreich et al.,
207 1998; Task Force, 1996). Evidence has also been given for the repeatability and stability over time of
208 the RSA_{norm} index (Ritz, Thons, & Dahme, 2001; Stein, Rich, Rottman, & Kleiger, 1995), as well as
209 its particularly low confounding with sympathetic (beta-adrenergic) influences (for a discussion see
210 Grossman & Taylor, 2007).

211

212 ***Treatment of vagally mediated HRV indices***

213 Mean heart rate, RMSSD (square root of the mean squared differences of successive NN intervals)
214 and pNN50 (the proportion derived by dividing NN50 by the total number of NN intervals; the NN
215 intervals correspond to elapsed time between subsequent ECG-R-peaks in milliseconds) are reported
216 in the current study as time domain measures (Task Force, 1996). The spectral frequency measures
217 involved high-frequency (HF, 0.15–0.4 Hz) values as expressed in power (ms²).

218 RSA is a cardiorespiratory phenomenon resulting from the interaction between cardiovascular and
219 respiratory systems and reflecting cardiac vagal tone (Grossman & Taylor, 2007; Task Force, 1996).
220 In the current study, the RSA_{norm} index (also called Hayano index; Hayano et al., 1990) was used as
221 an indicator of vagal activity and inhibitory capacity. It has been suggested that the normalization of
222 HF (ms²) with mean interbeat interval allows correcting for the potential influence of sympathetically

223 induced changes in mean RRI (Grossman & Taylor, 2007; Hayano et al., 1990; Kaufmann et al.,
224 2012).

225

226 **Experimental Protocol**

227 We informed the participants that the experiment would start with a 10-minute **baseline** resting
228 condition (BL) that would be followed by the three thermal grill stimulation conditions TG, CC1, and
229 CC2 (see Figure 1). **The volunteers were furthermore told that the thermal grill stimulations would**
230 **generate warm and/or cold sensations, which might be perceived as painful.** After familiarization with
231 the pain rating scales, **the participants were seated in a reclined test chair ($\pm 110^\circ$) and the** ECG-related
232 **electrodes were placed.** **The participants were instructed to breathe normally and to sit quietly and**
233 **relax during the resting state HR acquisition.** The temperature combination of 15°C and 41°C was then
234 set at the thermal grill and the experimental TG condition was initiated. Each control condition was
235 again preceded by a time interval of about 10–15 minutes (**inter-condition-interval, ICI, see Figure 1**)
236 to allow the water-bath driven grill temperatures to adjust. At the end of the experimental protocol, the
237 ECG-electrodes were detached and the participants were debriefed and financially compensated. All
238 experimental sessions were run in a temperature-controlled room (22° C) and by the same investigator.

239

240 **Statistical analyses**

241 The sample was divided in a group of responders and a group of non-responders on the basis of the
242 averaged pain intensity ratings obtained during the TG stimulation condition. We classified
243 participants scoring ≥ 25 -NRS as responders (Boettger et al., 2013; Bouhassira et al., 2005). Ratings
244 below the cut-off point of 25-NRS led to the classification as non-responder. The current 25-NRS
245 value may be considered as corresponding to 5/100-NRS on an NRS without a 0–20-NRS pre-pain
246 range (cf. paragraph on ‘psychophysical measures’) and is in line with the pain rating value of \geq
247 6/100-NRS used by Boettger et al. (2013) as a criterion for the responder/non-responder classification.
248 Our cut-off point was moreover situated between **pain threshold** scores of 20-NRS (GPT) and 30-NRS-
249 (very weak pain) to rule out contaminating variability in the near threshold range. The same 25-NRS-

250 based procedure was used for the identification of responders and non-responders to the affective-
251 motivational component of paradoxical pain.

252 Mean pain intensity and pain unpleasantness ratings assessed during the TG condition, as well as
253 HR and HRV parameters were analysed for the final total sample and separately for the groups of
254 responders and non-responders. Normality of distribution was verified with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov
255 test (Lilliefors significance correction). The data were log-transformed when the assumption of
256 normality was violated. Pearson's correlation analyses were performed to identify a possible
257 relationship between vagal activation components measured at rest and TG-related pain ratings. Post-
258 hoc comparisons tested potential differences between responder and non-responder values.

259 The data of the final total sample was included in logistic regression (LR) analyses to examine
260 whether vagal activation indices predicted the probability of the occurrence of the sensory or affective
261 component of the TGI. Separate analyses were run for pain intensity and pain unpleasantness. Thermal
262 grill responder values were coded as 1 and non-responder values as 0. HRV parameter [i.e. RMSSD,
263 pNN50, HF (ms^2) and RSA norm] values were analysed as absolute and logarithmically transformed
264 values and figured as continuous independent variables in the LR analyses. The pain rating data were
265 used as categorical (dichotomous) dependent variables.

266 All data were statistically analysed with SPSS, version 21 (IBM, Chicago/IL). The significance
267 level was set at 0.05 (two-tailed testing) in all analyses.

268

269 **Results**

270 **Pain ratings**

271 Mean pain intensity and pain unpleasantness values measured in the TG condition are presented in
272 Table 1. Less than half of the sample ($n = 23$ responders) perceived the intensity of paradoxical pain
273 when stimulated at the thermal grill, whereas $n = 29$ did not (non-responders). About one third of the
274 participants ($n = 17$ responders) rated unpleasant paradoxical pain sensations. Thirty-five participants
275 ($n = 35$ non-responders) did not perceive unpleasant pain sensations. The proportion of identified
276 responders and non-responders to TG stimulation in terms of pain intensity and pain unpleasantness
277 sensations is shown in Figure 2. The Mann-Whitney U Test revealed a significant difference in the

278 pain intensity ratings of responders ($Md = 38.4, n = 23$) and non-responders ($Md = 14.2, n = 29$), $U =$
279 $0.00, z = -6.15, p < 0.001, r = 0.12$; see Table 1). Furthermore, a significant difference was observed
280 between the pain unpleasantness ratings of responders ($Md = 31.7, n = 17$) and non-responders ($Md =$
281 $10.0, n = 35$), $U = 0.00, z = -5.81, p < 0.001, r = 0.11$; see Table 1). The ratings collected during the
282 control conditions (CC1 and CC2) were in the non-painful range (0–20-NRS).

283 The proportion of males ($N = 24$) and females ($N = 28$) was not significantly different in the pain
284 intensity responder ($n = 10$ males, $n = 13$ females) and non-responder group ($n = 14$ males, $n = 15$
285 females). The *Chi*-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) did not reveal a
286 significant influence of gender on pain intensity ratings, $\chi^2 (1, n = 52) = 0.004, p > 0.05, \phi = 0.05$.
287 Both groups did also not significantly differ in age [responders: $M = 24.04, SD = 5.08$; non-
288 responders: $M = 24.21, SD = 6.86$; $t(50) = -0.09, p > 0.05$].

289

290 **Cardiac activity**

291 HR and HRV values measured at rest are presented in Table 2. Post hoc *t*-tests revealed a significant
292 group effect for resting RSA in the BL condition. Significantly higher resting RSA was measured in
293 responders ($M = 0.88, SD = 0.26$) vs. non-responders ($M = 0.74, SD = 0.20$; $t (50) = 2.18, p < 0.05$,
294 two-tailed) classified according to pain intensity ratings. The magnitude of the difference in the means
295 (mean difference = 0.14, 95% CI: 0.01 to 0.27) was moderate ($\eta^2 = 0.09$). The differences in resting
296 HRV values were not significant when considering the pain unpleasantness responders vs. non-
297 responders (all $p > 0.05$). No correlation was found between resting HRV and sensory or affective
298 pain ratings (all $p > 0.05$). In line with previous work, HRV measures were highly inter-correlated (all
299 $p < 0.05$) (Berntson et al., 1997; Berntson, Lozano, & Chen, 2005; Task Force, 1996).

300 The computation of the predictive power of resting HRV measures on paradoxical pain sensations
301 (sensory component) demonstrated that RSAnorm significantly influenced the LR model (see Table
302 3). The model [$\chi^2 (1, N = 52) = 4.65, p < 0.05$] explained between 8 % (Cox and Snell R square) and
303 11% (Cox and Snell R square) of the variation in the TGI responses. 75.9% of the responders and
304 52.2% of the non-responders were accurately identified (overall percentage: 65.4%). The RSAnorm-
305 related high odds ratio value of 14.58 (CI: 1.12, 190.29) indicated that the probability to experience

306 the illusive pain was 14 times higher in participants with significantly increased resting RSA. The LR
307 analysis of the set of other HRV predictor variables showed that pNN50 and RMSSD contributed
308 significantly to the considered model (see Table 3). The full model [$\chi^2 (4, N = 52) = 8.93, p < 0.05$]
309 explained between 15% (Cox and Snell R square) and 21% (Cox and Snell R square) of the variation
310 in the sensory pain responses. Overall 65.4% of the participants were accurately categorized either as
311 pain responders (72.4%) or as non-responders (56.5%). The pNN50-related odds ratio was 1.16 (CI:
312 1.03, 1.31). The lower RMSSD-related odds ratio of 0.88 (CI: 0.79, 0.99) pointed to an inverse
313 relationship between RMSSD and paradoxical pain perceptions.

314 In summary, it may be stated that the magnitude of vagal activation measured at rest and mainly as
315 expressed by RSA_{norm} was significantly higher in the responder than in the non-responder group. The
316 same psychophysiological marker could be identified as strong predictor of the likelihood of
317 paradoxical pain perceptions. Higher values in time domain measures of HRV also added to a higher
318 probability of illusive pain experiences.

319

320 **Discussion**

321 In the present thermal grill paradigm, we investigated vagally mediated HRV at rest to uncover
322 whether resting vagal tone might partly explain the observed inter-individual differences in
323 paradoxical pain sensitivity. We had hypothesized that lower resting HRV, an indicator of lower self-
324 regulation capacity (Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2007) and reduced regulation of emotions (Appelhans
325 & Luecken, 2006; Koval et al., 2013; Thayer et al., 2009), would be related to higher paradoxical pain
326 sensitivity. During the resting condition, we observed a predominance of vagal activation in the
327 thermal grill responders. The logistic regression analyses revealed that the probability to feel the TGI
328 was up to 14 times higher in participants displaying higher resting RSA. This result suggests that
329 higher dispositional self-regulation ability makes it much more likely for an individual to respond to
330 TG stimulation and to feel the TGI than lower self-regulatory capacity. Concerning the predictive
331 power of the RMSSD index of HRV, we observed that the low odds ratio result deviated to some
332 extent from the other vagal activation indicator outcomes. It has been claimed that the time component
333 RMSSD is contaminated by sympathetically mediated HRV despite its high but non-linear correlation

334 with pNN50, HF (ms^2) and RSAnorm (Berntson et al., 2005; Task Force, 1996). No inverse
335 relationship between resting HRV and paradoxical pain could be found. The positive association
336 uncovered between HRV at rest and illusive pain ratings disconfirms our hypothesis and is in contrast
337 with research findings on pain depending on noxious input.

338 To our knowledge, this is the first study investigating the relationship between the
339 psychophysiological marker HRV and paradoxical pain sensitivity. **HRV in healthy and pain-free**
340 **populations has so far only been studied in association with acute pain states induced by evidently**
341 **noxious input (Appelhans & Luecken, 2008; Koenig, Jarczok, Ellis, Hillecke, & Thayer, 2014;**
342 **Treister et al., 2012).** The study by Appelhans and Luecken (2008) on the relationship between indices
343 of resting HRV and acute pain sensitivity to noxious cold stimuli is of particular interest in this context
344 In line with our research, the authors used the HRV measures as independent variables to investigate
345 inter-individual differences in pain sensitivity. Their findings however contrast with our results insofar
346 as HF-related HRV measures were not significantly associated with pain sensitivity in their study and
347 HF did not allow predicting pain intensity. Low-frequency HRV was inversely related to pain
348 unpleasantness ratings, but not to pain intensity sensations. Treister et al. (2012) reported a higher HF
349 (ms^2) value measured at rest as compared to the lower HF (ms^2) value recorded during the subsequent
350 painful heat stimulations. In their review, Koenig and colleagues (2014) also described findings on the
351 impact of the magnitude of HRV reactivity on experimentally induced pain and emphasized that lower
352 vagal reactivity was mainly related to higher pain sensitivity. It seems that the attempt to offer
353 explanations for the present findings is hampered by the scarcity of findings and by the fact that in
354 contrast to this previous work, innocuous thermal grill stimuli were used in the current research to
355 investigate the association between vagal tone and the disposition to express pain. It has however been
356 shown that the neurophysiological mechanisms activated during thermal grill stimulation (Craig &
357 Bushnell, 1994) are distinct from those triggered by noxious thermal stimuli (Craig, 2008). This
358 functional neuroanatomical aspect suggests that the autonomic regulatory mechanisms acting during
359 the TGI are not identical to those acting during pain processing induced by noxious input. The higher
360 pain sensitivity in participants displaying increased vagal activation in the resting condition observed

361 in the present study may hence be attributable to the different neurophysiological substrates
362 underlying “true” and paradoxical pain.

363 In the framework of dispositional self-regulation ability as indexed by resting HRV (Appelhans &
364 Luecken, 2006; Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2007; Thayer et al., 2009, 2012), Solberg Nes and
365 colleagues (2009) also had analysed the relationship between trait self-regulation and pathological
366 pain states. The authors observed that chronic pain patients were characterized by lower self-
367 regulatory ability as compared to healthy individuals. In a number of studies, higher HRV indices have
368 been associated with more effortful and adaptive self-regulation, good impulse control, executive
369 performance, lower affective instability and positive emotionality (Koval et al., 2013; Park et al.,
370 2014; Park & Thayer, 2014). Lower HRV pointed to impaired coping processes, self-regulatory
371 fatigue, stress, affective instability and health-related problems like psychopathological disorders
372 (Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2007; Solberg Nes et al., 2009). It has moreover been shown that
373 participants with higher vagal activation react more easily when challenged by external demands
374 (Rottenberg, Salomon, Gross, & Gotlib, 2005). These findings imply that individuals displaying a
375 better trait self-regulation ability recover faster on an emotional level and adapt more efficiently to
376 challenging circumstances. They are also more likely to present enhanced attentiveness to external
377 demands and may hence react with increased sensitivity to thermal grill stimuli. Pain as a warning
378 signal against potential tissue damage and loss of homeostasis provides the drive for immediate
379 protective and regulatory reactions (Craig, 2003). The efficient self-regulation of our thermal grill
380 responders may therefore constitute a healthy reaction allowing them to set their priorities successfully
381 and to react faster and more adequately in the face of potentially threatening stimuli. The flexible
382 adaptability of responders and the inherent efficient control of the emotional and behavioural drive of
383 pain (Craig, 2003) promote their efficacy in reinstalling homeostasis.

384 In the context of our finding on a positive relationship between HRV-self-regulation and
385 paradoxical pain sensitivity, several studies on emotion regulation ability and interoceptive sensitivity
386 (IS) that may support the previously described coping and adaptation processes of our responders
387 should be pointed out. Füstos, Gramann, Herbert, & Pollatos (2013) and Kever, Pollatos, Vermeulen,
388 & Grynberg (2015) uncovered a positive association between emotion regulation ability and IS and

389 showed that a more accurate detection of bodily symptoms or changes facilitates emotional regulation
390 in aversive contexts. We had identified IS as a predictor of the occurrence of the TGI in a previous
391 study with higher IS increasing the probability of paradoxical pain perceptions in response to thermal
392 grill stimulation (Scheuren et al., 2014). The finding of a positive relationship between IS and pain
393 sensitivity had also be revealed for pain induced by noxious stimulation (Pollatos, Füstos, & Critchley,
394 2012). Based on all previous arguments, we would like to **propose** that higher emotional self-
395 regulation as indexed by higher HRV and previously identified higher IS, may have modulated pain
396 sensitivity in the present thermal grill paradigm.

397

398 **Conclusion**

399 Previous research from our laboratory (Scheuren et al., 2014) had shown that the personality traits
400 rumination and interoceptive accuracy as well as several interacting psychological characteristics
401 enhance the likelihood of the occurrence of the TGI. The identification of psychophysiological proxies
402 of vagal activation at rest as predictors of paradoxical pain sensitivity in the present study adds to our
403 knowledge about the reasons for the observed inter-individual differences in thermal grill-related pain
404 perceptions. **Considering that a higher level of vagally mediated RSA at rest reflects a greater**
405 **disposition to emotional and cognitive self-regulation ability, it may be stated that the current findings**
406 **point to an additional psychological characteristic involved in the susceptibility to paradoxical pain.**
407 Since thermal grill-related and central neuropathic pain processing share common neural pathways, it
408 could be interesting to study potential effects of the described psychological and psychophysiological
409 factors in clinical samples comprising neuropathic pain and other pain states that are not related to
410 peripheral noxious input. The analysis of vagal reactivity to acute paradoxical pain might be another
411 relevant topic, in particular in the context of a comparison with in literature described relationships
412 between vagal activation and acute pain states depending on noxious input.

413

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417

418

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Table 1. Pain intensity and pain unpleasantness ratings in responders and non-responders

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i> ^a	<i>r</i>
<i>All participants:</i>									
<i>(N = 52):</i>									
Pain intensity	24.9	14.2	2.5	63.3	18.7	0.00	-6.1	< 0.01**	0.1
Pain unpleasantness	19.6	14.9	0	64.2	18.6	0.00	-5.8	< 0.01**	0.1
<i>Pain intensity – Responders:</i>									
<i>(n = 23):</i>									
Pain intensity	38.4	9.9	25.4	63.3	35.8				
<i>Pain intensity – Non-Responders:</i>									
<i>(n = 29):</i>									
Pain intensity	14.1	4.2	2.5	24.6	14.6				
<i>Pain unpleasantness – Responders:</i>									
<i>(n = 17):</i>									
Pain unpleasantness	36.1	11.5	25.8	64.2	31.7				
<i>Pain unpleasantness – Non-Responders</i>									
<i>(n = 35):</i>									
Pain unpleasantness	11.6	8.2	0	23.8	10.0				

^a Significance values of Mann-Whitney *U* tests: *p*-values < 0.01** (two-tailed) were considered highly significant.

Table 2. HR and HRV values measured at rest

	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum	t-test	p ^a	Mean difference	95.0% C.I. of the difference	E _s
All participants (N = 52):									
Mean HR (bpm)	71.9	10.4	50.2	95.3		> 0.05*			
RMSSD ^b	49.7	17.5	22.4	94.0		> 0.05*			
pNN50 ^c	23.1	17.2	0	61.7		> 0.05*			
HF (ms ²) ^d	634.4	409.9	88.3	1976.2		> 0.05*			
HF (n.u.) ^e	42.2	19.6	7.9	84.9		> 0.05*			
RSAnorm ^f	0.8	0.2	0.4	1.4	t (50) = 2.2	< 0.05*	0.1	CI: 0.01–0.3	η ²
Pain intensity – Responders (n = 23):									
Mean HR (bpm)	70.3	8.5	51.0	82.9					
RMSSD	52.7	16.7	23.2	85.3					
pNN50	28.2	16.5	2.2	59.6					
HF (ms ²)	731.4	357.2	88.3	1510.2					
HF (n.u.)	46.5	17.8	14.9	84.9					
RSAnorm	0.9	0.3	0.4	1.4					
Pain intensity – Non-Responders (n = 29):									
Mean HR (bpm)	73.2	11.7	50.2	95.3					
RMSSD	47.4	18.1	22.4	94.0					
pNN50	19.1	16.9	0	61.7					
HF (ms ²)	572.1	442.72	129.2	1976.2					
HF (n.u.)	38.8	20.5	7.9	84.1					
RSAnorm	0.7	0.2	0.5	1.2					
Pain unpleasantness – Responders (n = 17):									
Mean HR (bpm)	69.5	9.2	51.1	82.9					
RMSSD	51.9	18.2	23.2	85.3					
pNN50	26.6	18.5	0	59.6					
HF (ms ²)	595.4	281.4	88.3	1094.8					
HF (n.u.)	46.0	17.6	14.9	84.1					
RSAnorm	0.8	0.2	0.4	1.2					
Pain unpleasantness – Non-Responders (n = 35):									
Mean HR (bpm)	73.1	10.8	50.2	95.3					
RMSSD	48.7	17.4	22.4	94.1					
pNN50	21.3	16.5	.4	61.7					
HF (ms ²)	649.8	462.7	129.25	1976.2					
HF (n.u.)	40.4	20.4	7.9	84.9					
RSAnorm	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.4					

^a Significance values of independent t-tests comparing HRV scores for responders and non-responders: p-values < 0.05 (two-tailed) were considered significant. ^b Square root of the mean squared differences of successive NN intervals; ^c Proportion derived by dividing NN50 by the total number of NN intervals; ^d high-frequency (HF, 0.15–0.4 Hz) values as expressed in power (ms²) and ^e normalized units (n.u.); ^f Normalized respiratory sinus arrhythmia.

Table 3. Predictors of thermal grill illusion perceptions

	<i>B</i>	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> ^a	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>95.0% C.I. for Odds Ratio</i>	
<i>Predictors for pain intensity sensations:</i>								
RSAnorm ^b	2.68	1.31	4.18	1	0.04*	14.58	1.12	190.29
RMSSD ^c	-0.12	0.06	4.42	2	0.03*	0.88	0.79	0.99
pNN50 ^d	0.15	0.06	6.38	2	0.01*	1.16	1.03	1.31

^a *p*-values < 0.05 (two-tailed tested) were considered significant in the logistic regression analyses. ^b Normalized respiratory sinus arrhythmia; ^c Square root of the mean squared differences of successive NN intervals; ^d Proportion derived by dividing NN50 by the total number of NN intervals.

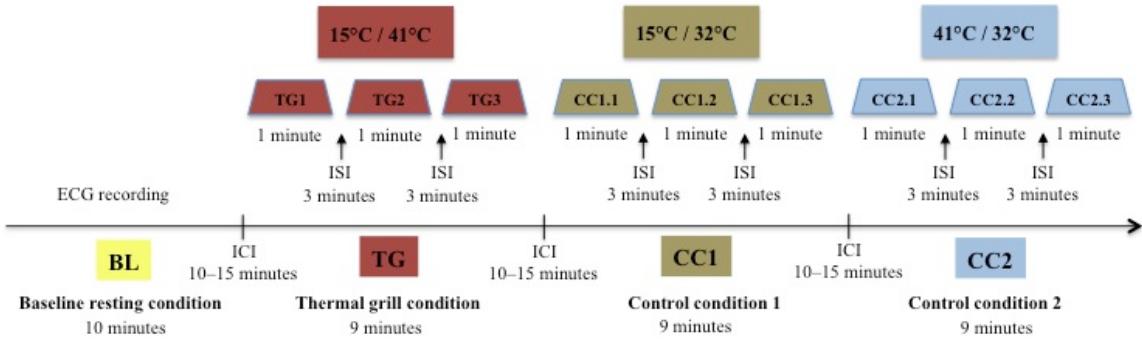


Figure 1. Experimental protocol and thermal grill (TG) stimulation procedure. Three stimulation trials were presented in the TG and control (CC) conditions, each trial lasting one minute. The stimulation trials of each condition were separated by inter-stimulus-intervals (ISI) of three minutes where the participant removed the hand from the grill tubes. Each inter-condition-interval lasted 10–15 minutes to allow for temperature adjustment of the thermal grill-related water-baths.

Figure 2 with legend in JPEG format:

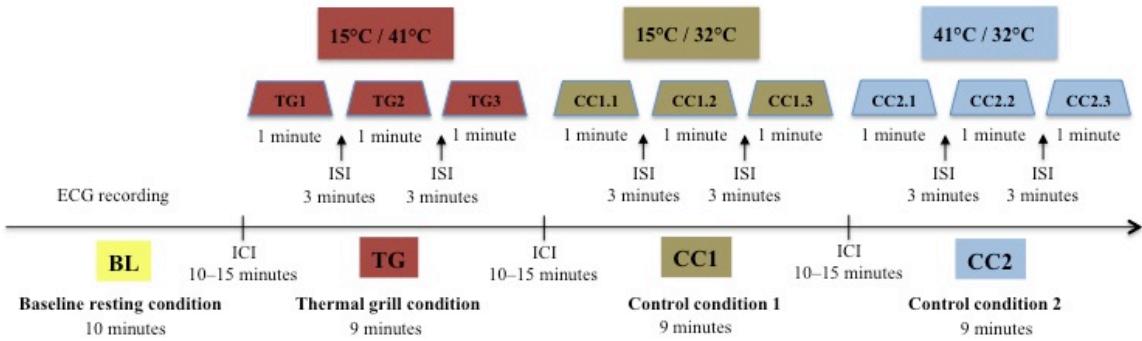


Figure 1: Experimental protocol and thermal grill (TG) stimulation procedure. Three stimulation trials were presented in the TG and control (CC) conditions, each trial lasting one minute. The stimulation trials of each condition were separated by inter-stimulus-intervals (ISI) of three minutes where the participant removed the hand from the grill tubes. Each inter-condition-interval (ICI) lasted 10–15 minutes to allow for temperature adjustment of the thermal grill-related water-baths.

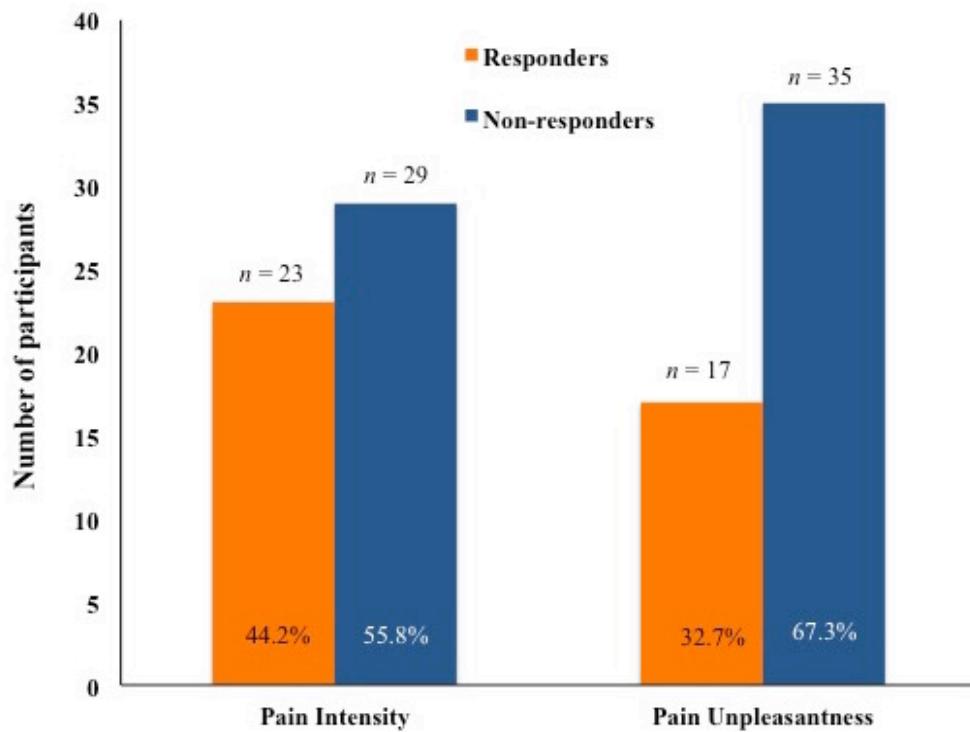


Figure 2. Proportion of responders and non-responders to thermal grill stimulation with respect to pain intensity and pain unpleasantness ratings. Participants displaying pain ratings \geq to 25 on the NRS were classified as responders. Ratings below this cut-off point of 25-NRS led to the classification as non-responder.