

17 ABSTRACT

18

19 Nociceptive withdrawal reflex (NWR) is a protective reaction to a noxious stimulus, resulting in withdrawal of
20 the affected area and thus preventing potential tissue damage. This involuntary reaction consists of neural
21 circuits, biomechanical strategies and muscle activity that ensure an optimal withdrawal. Studies of lower
22 limb NWR indicate that the amplitude of the NWR is highly modulated by extrinsic and intrinsic factors, such
23 as stimulation site, intensity, frequency, and supraspinal activity, among others. Whether the predictability of
24 the stimulus has an effect on the biomechanical strategies is still unclear. This study aimed to evaluate how
25 the predictability of impending noxious stimuli modulate the NWR reaction in the lower limb. NWR was
26 evoked on fifteen healthy participants by trains of electrical stimuli on the sole of the foot and was measured
27 in one distal (tibialis anterior) and one proximal (biceps femoris) muscle. The predictability was manipulated
28 by giving participants prior information about the onset of the stimulus trains and the number of delivered
29 stimuli per train. Results showed that the predictability of the incoming stimuli differentially modulates the
30 muscle activity involved in the NWR reaction. For the most unpredictable stimulus train, larger NWR at distal
31 muscles were evoked. Furthermore, the stereotyped temporal summation profile to repeated stimulation was
32 observed when the stimulus train was completely predictable, while it was disrupted in proximal muscles in
33 unpredictable conditions. It is inferred that the reflex response is shaped by descending control, which
34 dynamically tunes the activity of the muscles involved in the resulting reaction.

35 NEW & NOTEWORTHY

36 Innate defensive behaviors such as reflexes are found across all species, constituting preprogrammed
37 responses to external threats that are not anticipated. Previous studies indicated that the excitability of the
38 reflex arcs like spinal NWR pathways in humans are modulated by several cognitive factors. This study
39 assesses how the predictability of a threat affects the biomechanical pattern of the withdrawal response,
40 showing that distal and proximal muscles are differentially modulated by descending control.

41

42 **Keywords** *nociceptive withdrawal reflex · descending modulation · defensive behavior · predictability ·*
43 *temporal summation*

44

45 INTRODUCTION

46 The nociceptive withdrawal reflex (NWR) is a spinal reflex in response to a noxious stimulus inducing an
47 involuntary defensive reaction to withdraw the limb and protecting it from potential physical damage (Sandrini
48 et al. 2005). The NWR in humans, is typically assessed by applying an electrical stimulus to either the sural
49 nerve or the skin under the sole of the foot and by measuring the surface electromyographic (EMG)
50 responses from leg muscles (Jensen et al. 2015). The NWR is of special interest in pain research and
51 increasingly used as an objective biomarker of spinal nociceptive excitability and as an indirect measure of
52 pharmacological and non-pharmacological modulation of spinal nociceptive transmission (Von Dincklage et
53 al. 2009; Biurrun Manresa et al. 2011b, 2013; Lim et al. 2011, 2012; Lichtner et al. 2017; Alvisi et al. 2018).

54 The polysynaptic nature of the NWR open for the influence of numerous modulatory sources. Substantial
55 evidence indicates that supraspinal centers control the spinal circuits via a dynamic descending modulation.
56 Descending modulation is exerted via a number of brainstem regions, being the midbrain periaqueductal
57 gray (PAG) and the rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM) the most extensively studied (for review, Heinricher
58 et al. 2009). These descending pathways likely provide the neural substrate by which psychological factors
59 can influence spinal neural circuits. In fact, different cognitive and emotional states have been shown to
60 modulate the NWR (Rhudy et al. 2005; Bjerre et al. 2011; Hubbard et al. 2011; Roy et al. 2011, 2012; Shew
61 et al. 2011; Arsenault et al. 2013; Bartolo et al. 2013). Particularly, the stress and anxiety associated with
62 unpredictable stimuli are typical modulatory factors that can facilitate the NWR (Willer et al. 1979; Hubbard et
63 al. 2011; Quelhas Martins et al. 2015). Moreover, subjects tend to display smaller NWR responses when
64 they are aware of the upcoming stimulus intensity (Quelhas Martins et al. 2015). Similarly, subjects
65 stimulated by temporally predictable stimuli display reflexes that are smaller (Liebermann and Defrin 2009)
66 and habituate faster (Dimitrijevic et al. 1972) than those elicited by temporally unpredictable stimulations. It is
67 however unknown whether the predictability of different stimulus characteristics can have interacting effects
68 on the modulation of the NWR. Secondly, it is unknown how stimulus predictability affects the temporal
69 summation of NWR responses to repetitive stimulation (Arendt-Nielsen et al. 1994; Serrao et al. 2004; Rhudy
70 et al. 2011), since these stimulation paradigms configure a complex interaction between temporal
71 predictability and stimulus intensity.

72 The present study aimed to investigate how stimulus predictability modulates the NWR in response to
73 repetitive noxious stimulation in healthy volunteers. The predictability of the number of repeated stimuli

74 (resembling changes in intensity) in the train and the predictability of the stimulus train onset (resembling
75 changes in timing) were manipulated during stimulation. It was hypothesized that participants would exhibit
76 larger reflexes when the incoming stimuli were unpredictable both in intensity and time, compared to when
77 they had prior knowledge about the stimulus parameters. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that
78 unpredictable stimuli would disrupt the typical temporal summation of NWR responses that is generally
79 associated to repetitive noxious stimuli.

80

81 **METHODS**

82 **Subjects**

83 The experiment was conducted on fifteen healthy subjects (eight males, mean age: 25 years, range 20-35
84 years). The study protocol was approved by the local ethics committee of Region Nordjylland (case number
85 VN 2015-0038) and performed according with the Helsinki declaration. All subjects gave their written
86 informed consent before participating in the study.

87 **Electrical Stimulation**

88 The NWR was elicited by transcutaneous electrical stimulation, delivered by a computer-controlled electrical
89 stimulator (Noxitest IES 230, Aalborg University, Denmark) through a self-adhesive surface electrode (type
90 700, 20 x 15 mm, Ambu A/S, Denmark), mounted on the arch of the foot. The anode electrode (50 x 90 mm,
91 Pals, Axelgaard Ltd., Fallbrook, California, USA) was placed on the dorsum of the foot to ensure that
92 nociceptors were activated at the arch of the foot (Frahm et al. 2013). Each stimulus consisted of a constant-
93 current burst of five 1-ms pulses delivered at 200 Hz; the subjects perceived each burst as a single stimulus.
94 Stimulation was delivered as trains of three or four of these burst stimuli (see Fig. 1), with a constant inter-
95 stimulus interval (ISI) of 1 s. The inter-train interval length was random, ranging from 10 to 15 s. Stimulation
96 intensity was set to 1.2 times the pain threshold (PTh) to a single stimulus to ensure the presence of
97 reflexes.

98 **EMG recordings**

99 Surface EMG was recorded using a single differential configuration with electrodes (type 720, Ambu A/S,
100 Denmark) placed 2 cm apart over the belly of the tibialis anterior (TA) and biceps femoris (BF) muscles,
101 along the main direction of the muscles fibers. The skin was lightly abraded before the placement of the
102 electrodes in order to decrease the impedance. EMG signals were sampled at 2400 Hz, amplified (up to
103 20000 times), band-pass filtered (5-500 Hz), displayed and stored between 500 ms of pre-stimulus and 6000
104 ms after stimulation onset.

105 **Reflex and pain thresholds to electrical stimulation**

106 The NWR threshold (RTh) and the PTh to single stimulation were determined using a standardized staircase
107 procedure. The RTh was obtained by first administering an ascending staircase using steps of 2 mA until a
108 NWR was detected in the TA muscle. Afterwards, the intensity was decreased in steps of 1 mA until the
109 NWR was not elicited. The intensity was again increased in steps of 1 mA until a NWR was detected again.
110 Three ascending and three descending staircases were applied, and the RTh was defined as the average
111 intensity of the last three peaks and troughs. The NWR detection was performed in the TA and it was based
112 on the interval peak z-score criterion (Rhudy and France 2007). The interval peak z-score was calculated as
113 the difference between the peak amplitude in the NWR quantification interval (60 to 180 ms; post-stimulus
114 window) and the baseline mean amplitude (-200 to -80 ms; pre-stimulus window), divided by the standard
115 deviation of the baseline EMG amplitude. A NWR was considered as present if the interval peak z-score of
116 the EMG signal exceeded 12 (France et al. 2009).

117 The PTh was defined using the same staircase procedure, but the criterion to decrease/increase the
118 stimulus intensity was the verbal report of the evoked sensation as being painful/non-painful. The PTh was
119 also defined as the average stimulus intensity of the last three peaks and troughs.

120 **Experimental procedure**

121 Subjects received a verbal explanation of the experiment while being placed in supine position with back
122 support in 120°, relative to the horizontal level, and with their knees flexed approximately 30°. They were
123 familiarized with electrical stimulation by applying a single stimulus and then 3-4 stimulus trains.
124 Subsequently, the RTh and PTh were determined. The experiment consisted of a single session divided into
125 three stimulation blocks (Fig. 1). The order of the stimulation blocks was randomized across subjects and
126 separated by 5-min breaks.

127 Block A: *Predictable stimulus onset, predictable number of given stimuli per train* (**Error! Reference source**
128 **not found.**, PO-PN). In this block, 12 trains of stimuli were delivered, each train consisting of three stimuli
129 (S1, S2 and S3). Each train was preceded by a single auditory stimulus, signaling the onset of a train. The
130 auditory stimulus consisted of an 800 Hz tone (duration: 20 ms), delivered 1 s before the train onset through

131 a speaker placed close to the site of the electrical stimulation (i.e. the foot). Subjects were verbally informed
132 that the auditory stimulus cued an incoming train of three identical stimuli.

133 Block B: *Unpredictable stimulus onset, predictable number of repeated stimuli per train* (**Error! Reference**
134 **source not found.**, UO-PN). In this block, 12 trains of stimuli were delivered, each train consisting of three
135 stimuli (S1, S2 and S3). Subjects were verbally informed that they would receive trains of three identical
136 stimuli, but the onset of each train was unpredictable, i.e. no auditory cue.

137 Block C: *Unpredictable stimulus onset, unpredictable number of repeated stimuli per train* (**Error! Reference**
138 **source not found.**, UO-UN). In this block, 24 trains of three or four stimuli were delivered. The fourth
139 stimulus was randomly present in 50% of the trials. The purpose of adding a fourth stimulus to the train was
140 to reflect changes in stimulus intensity, since longer trains are usually reported as more intense and
141 unpleasant (Arendt-Nielsen et al. 1994). Subjects were uncertain about the onset and the number of
142 repeated stimuli of each train. For this experimental condition, only the 12 trials where a train of three stimuli
143 was given were included in the analysis.

144 - FIGURE 1 -

145 **Data Analysis**

146 The NWR size was quantified by calculating the root-mean-square (RMS) amplitude in the 60 - 180 ms post-
147 stimulus window (Biurrin Manresa et al. 2011a). The RMS was calculated for each stimulus of the train (S1,
148 S2 and S3), for each trial and for each muscle (TA and BF). In total, 3240 RMS values were obtained (3
149 stimuli × 12 trials × 3 conditions × 2 muscles × 15 subjects).

150 **Statistics**

151 To examine the effect of unpredictability on the NWR size, two generalized linear mixed models (RMS TA
152 and RMS BF) were designed using SPSS 25.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The models used a gamma
153 distribution and a log link function, since data was non-normally distributed and right skewed. The fixed
154 factors were *condition* (PO-PN, UO-PN and UO-UN), *stimulus number* (S1, S2 and S3) and their interaction.
155 The models controlled for the within-subjects variation by including a random intercept and random slopes
156 for the condition, stimulus number and trial number for each subject. A first-order autoregressive covariance

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157 structures was used, in which all variances are equal and co-variances are highest for adjacent elements
158 and decrease systematically with increasing distance.

159 The model parameters were estimated by maximum pseudo-likelihood, and the criterion for convergence
160 was that the absolute changes of the parameters estimates was less than $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$. The adjusted sequential
161 Sidak test was used for post hoc comparisons.

162 In line with current statistical trends (Wasserstein et al. 2019), no fixed threshold for statistical significance
163 was established. Instead, the results were analyzed in terms of the effect sizes and their experimental
164 relevance.

165

166 **RESULTS**167 **Thresholds to electrical stimulation**

168 All subjects were able to complete the experiment. The mean RTh in the TA muscle was 5.8 mA (range 3.3 -
169 9.5 mA), whereas the mean PTh was 13.8 mA (range 8.0 – 24.5 mA). Subjects reported the stimulation at
170 PTh intensity as a sharp, pinpricking sensation localized at the arch of the foot.

171 **Effects of stimulus predictability on the NWR size**

172 A strong effect of the *condition* was found for the NWR size of the TA muscle ($F_{2,1611} = 8.830$, $p \leq 0.0005$,
173 **Error! Reference source not found.A**). Post hoc analysis revealed that subjects presented a larger NWR
174 size in the TA when the onset and the number of repeated stimuli of the train were unpredictable (UO-UN),
175 compared to the other two blocks (Adj. Sidak, [UO-UN compared with UO-PN] $t_{1611} = 3.580$, $p = 0.001$ and
176 [UO-UN compared with PO-PN] $t_{1611} = 3.744$, $p = 0.001$). Data suggest that the *stimulus number* ($F_{2,1611} =$
177 2.839 ; $p = 0.059$) or the interaction between *condition* and *stimulus number* ($F_{4,1611} = 2.355$; $p = 0.052$) could
178 indicate a small temporal summation effect at TA.

179 A strong effect of *condition* was found for the NWR size of the BF muscle ($F_{2,1611} = 6.241$; $p = 0.002$, **Error!**
180 **Reference source not found.B**). Although the *stimulus number* by itself did not show a strong effect on the
181 size of the BF muscle ($F_{2,1611} = 1.112$, $p = 0.329$), there was a clear interaction between *condition* and
182 *stimulus number* ($F_{4,1611} = 4.592$; $p = 0.001$). Post hoc analysis of the interaction revealed that subjects
183 presented a larger NWR size in the BF muscle in response to S1 when the onset of the train was
184 unpredictable (Adj. Sidak, [UO-UN compared with PO-PN], $t_{1611} = 5.049$, $p \leq 0.0005$ and [UO-PN compared
185 with PO-PN] $t_{1611} = 2.905$, $p = 0.01$). Additionally, data suggests that, when the stimulation is predictable,
186 there is a temporal summation effect, where the NWR to S3 is larger than the S1 response at the BF muscle
187 (Adj. Sidak, [S3 compared with S1], $t_{1611} = 2.342$, $p = 0.057$).

188 - FIGURE 2 -

189

190 **DISCUSSION**

191 The aim of this study was to evaluate how different degrees of predictability of impending noxious stimuli
192 modulate the involuntary withdrawal reaction of the stimulated limb. For that purpose, healthy participants
193 received trains of electrical stimuli on the sole of the foot to elicit the NWR, which was measured in one distal
194 and one proximal muscle of the ipsilateral limb. In three different stimulation blocks, the predictability of the
195 stimuli was manipulated by giving the participants prior information about the onset of the stimulus trains and
196 the number of given stimuli in each train. When the trains of electrical stimuli were predictable both in time
197 and intensity, participants displayed stereotypical temporal summation profiles of the NWR during the course
198 of the stimulus train, with the last NWR response being larger than the first. This temporal summation effect
199 was disrupted when participants lacked information about the timing of the stimulus trains. Moreover, when
200 the trains of electrical stimuli were neither predictable in time nor in intensity, participants displayed larger
201 NWR in the distal muscle, compared to when the stimulus trains had some degree of predictability.

202 **Dynamic descending control of spinal defensive behaviors**

203 Reflexes are innate defensive behaviors that are found across all members of the species, and which mainly
204 constitute preprogrammed responses to external threats that are not anticipated in time (Ledoux and Daw
205 2018). Although they are considered more or less hardwired circuits, the excitability of the reflex arcs such as
206 the spinal NWR pathways are subject to strong descending modulation from supraspinal structures. Studies
207 in spinalized animals (Schouenborg and Kalliomäki 1990; Schouenborg et al. 1992; Levinsson et al. 1999;
208 Carlson et al. 2005; Bence and Cleland 2019) and in spinal-cord injured human patients (Shahani and
209 Young 1971; Andersen et al. 2004; Hornby et al. 2006; Knikou 2007; Biurrun Manresa et al. 2014; Mackey et
210 al. 2016) provide substantial evidence that a lesion to the spinal cord leads to dysfunctional NWR responses
211 below injury, confirming that descending modulation is vital to maintain the integrity and functional
212 organization of spinal NWR pathways (Dietz 2010).

213 The descending modulation is dynamic and is mainly transmitted via the PAG in the midbrain and its
214 projections to the RVM. The PAG is a relay area that connect several limbic forebrain regions with the RVM,
215 such as the amygdala, the anterior cingulate cortex, the dorsomedial nucleus of the hypothalamus, and the
216 medial prefrontal cortex (Chen and Heinricher 2019). In anticipation of a forthcoming threat, the neural

217 activity of these brain areas appears to be dependent on the degree of attention and predictability of the
218 aversive stimuli (Brown et al. 2008; Peng et al. 2019).

219 The descending control of spinal nociception pivots between facilitation and inhibition due to the activation of
220 two classes of RVM neurons called ON and OFF cells respectively, which extend their projections to primary
221 afferent terminals in the dorsal horn (Zhang et al. 2015). This top-down pathway provides a neural substrate
222 by which exteroceptive stimuli and motivational states can modulate spinal transmission (Fields 2018).

223 The balance between inhibition and facilitation highly depends on the behavioral context (Heinricher et al.
224 2009). In particular, when a threat has an element of certainty, descending modulation may provide a
225 mechanism to inhibit the briskness of innate defensive behaviors. In the present study, the results showed
226 that when participants were certain about the incoming noxious stimuli, their overall NWR responses (i.e. the
227 net withdrawal response of the limb) were generally smaller than when they were uncertain about some of
228 the stimuli characteristics. This is in line with previous reports, which found larger NWRs in response to
229 unpredictable stimuli (Liebermann and Defrin 2009; Quelhas Martins et al. 2015). In contrast, NWR
230 responses tend to be smaller when either the timing (Dimitrijevic et al. 1972; Liebermann and Defrin 2009) or
231 the stimulus intensity (Quelhas Martins et al. 2015) are predictable. Nevertheless, predictable stimuli might
232 not always lead to smaller NWR responses. For instance, when blind-folded subjects receive an auditory cue
233 that indicates the arrival of an incoming stimulus and also the presence of a randomly approaching obstacle,
234 the synaptic transmission through NWR pathways can be facilitated (Michel et al. 2007). In the latter, the
235 certainty about the approaching obstacle given by the auditory cue could have led the participants to an
236 increased state of vigilance that enhanced their preparedness to avoid a threat in an uncertain environment.
237 Taken together, this suggests that the direction of descending modulation associated with stimulus
238 predictability likely depends on the behavioral circumstance in which the stimuli are received. Furthermore,
239 descending modulation triggered by stimulus predictability seems to have a strong modulatory effect on the
240 protective withdrawal associated with the NWR. Other processes that are known to modulate the NWR such
241 as systolic inhibition (Martins et al. 2009) or emotional modulation (Rhudy et al. 2006) are moderated when
242 stimuli are unpredictable. Altogether, the existing evidence suggests that stimulus predictability plays a
243 significant role in the dynamic descending modulation of the NWR pathways.

244 It might be hypothesized that unpredictable stimuli possibly produced an increased state of anxiety. It is well
245 described that the uncertainty of a potential future threat can lead anxious behaviors (Ploghaus et al. 2003).

246 The brain areas commonly reported to be involved in anxiety-related behaviors are functionally and
247 anatomically interconnected to midbrain and brainstem areas that mediate descending control (Gruepe and
248 Nitschke 2013; Tovote et al. 2015). In fact, it has been previously shown that threatening situations with
249 impending, unpredictable painful stimuli enhance the NWR responses measured at the BF muscle (Willer et
250 al. 1979; Hubbard et al. 2011; Terry et al. 2016). Yet, other studies have reported unchanged NWR
251 thresholds in the BF in subjects that had increased levels of acute anxiety (French et al. 2005) or high
252 measures of anxiety sensitivity (Terry et al. 2012). A key difference between these disagreeing findings is the
253 presence / absence of an experimental method to induce anxiety. While the studies that reported a positive
254 association between anxiety and enhanced NWR responses used the anticipation of a very painful stimulus
255 as threat, those that did not find such association only evaluated the state-trait anxiety before and after NWR
256 threshold assessment. In the present study, the psychological state was meant to be modulated by the
257 predictability of repeated trains of painful stimuli. Hence, it could be speculated that there was an induced
258 level of increased anxiety across the experimental blocks. Another important aspect to consider is that
259 previous studies estimated NWR thresholds in the BF in response to sural nerve stimulation. This procedure
260 has a high failure rate of NWR threshold estimation and involves higher stimulation intensities with higher
261 pain ratings, in comparison to foot sole stimulation (Jensen et al. 2015). Noteworthy, previous studies
262 considered only one muscle to describe the psychophysiological modulations of the withdrawal reaction. It is
263 possible that, by considering only one muscle of the kinetic chain, these studies did not observe the
264 differential modulations that may arise across the group of muscles involved in the withdrawal pattern.

265 Effects of stimulus predictability on NWR temporal summation

266 Another fundamental result from this study was the observation that stimulus unpredictability disrupted the
267 temporal summation of NWR responses to repeated stimulation. The characterization of temporal summation
268 of the NWR has important clinical implications, since temporal summation has been extensively proposed as
269 a measurement of central sensitization (Terry et al. 2011). For instance, in chronic pain patients it was
270 proposed that upregulated central integrative pain mechanisms could be one of the mechanisms that may
271 result in facilitated temporal summation of pain (Arendt-Nielsen et al. 2010; Petersen et al. 2017).
272 Interestingly, the typical temporal summation profile described in the literature (Arendt-Nielsen et al. 1994;
273 Guirimand et al. 2000), where the NWR increases gradually in response to repetitive stimuli, was clearly
274 observed only when the stimulus train were predictable in both time and intensity. Contrary to the

275 established assumptions, subjects displayed larger NWR responses to the first stimulus of the train in the
276 proximal muscle, when the stimulus onset was unpredictable.

277 The role of descending modulation on NWR temporal summation has been highlighted in studies that
278 reported enhanced wind-up in spinalized rodents, compared to spinally intact animals (Gozariu et al. 1997).
279 Similarly, SCI patients also display facilitated NWR temporal summation (Shahani and Young 1971; Hornby
280 et al. 2006). Previous psychophysical studies, however, provide conflicting results. On one hand, studies that
281 investigated the effects of pain catastrophizing (Rhudy et al. 2011) and distraction (Ruscheweyh et al. 2011)
282 reported effects on pain perception but not on temporal summation of the NWR. On the other hand, studies
283 that investigated the mechanisms behind conditioned pain modulation (CPM) reported a concomitant
284 inhibition of both pain perception and NWR responses (Serrao et al. 2004; Lautenbacher et al. 2008). In line
285 with this, reduced pain intensity and NWR size has also been reported for the last part of an extended
286 repetitive stimulus trains (5 seconds), suggesting triggering of descending inhibition (Gozariu et al. 1997;
287 Bajaj et al. 2005). In addition, a recent psychophysical study from Holden and co-workers (Holden et al.
288 2019) have showed that CPM affects only the first stimulus in the temporal summation of pain but not the
289 temporal summation per-se, which is in agreement with the findings of present study.

290 Towards a differential descending modulation of defensive responses

291 The results showed that the two investigated muscles responded differently to the different levels of stimulus
292 unpredictability. Subjects displayed larger NWR responses in BF, and no noticeable changes in the TA when
293 the stimulus onset was unpredictable but the stimulus intensity was predictable. On the other hand, subjects
294 displayed larger responses on both proximal and distal muscles when both the stimulus onset and the
295 stimulus intensity were unpredictable. Since the modular organization of the NWR considers each muscle or
296 a set of synergistic muscles as isolated components in isolated scenarios, the different behavior displayed by
297 the two muscles under the same experimental conditions in this study cannot be explained only by its
298 modular organization. The biomechanical pattern of the NWR is functionally determined by its contribution to
299 the optimal withdrawal (Schouenborg and Kalliomäki 1990; Andersen et al. 1999). However, there is no
300 evidence on what 'optimal' withdrawal means in more complex scenarios, for example those involving
301 different postures, during locomotion or different degrees of predictability. Particularly, as stated above,
302 different degrees of predictability might affect cortical regions possibly influencing the descending control
303 onto the spinal cord. Studies in animal preparations have indicated that the integration of exteroceptive,

304 proprioceptive and corticospinal projections possibly occurs in a nodal point at the laminae V and IV of the
305 spinal cord (Granmo et al. 2008; Schouenborg 2008; Tripodi et al. 2011; Levine et al. 2014), and from this
306 nodal point intermediate neurons projects neuronal connections onto the ventral area of the spinal cord
307 (Hilde et al. 2016). Findings from Levine and co-workers (2014) suggest that intermediate premotor neuronal
308 cells, coined motor synergy encoders, excite motor pools in the ventral horn, driving the activation of the
309 muscles involved in the withdrawal reaction to “optimally” disengage the affected area from the noxious
310 stimulus (see Osseward and Pfaff 2019 for a review). In this line of thought, distal and proximal muscles may
311 contribute differently to the optimal pattern. For instance, distal muscles could contribute to subtle
312 movements while proximal muscles ensure a robust withdrawal. Altogether, it could be speculated that there
313 is a differential descending control of the muscles involved in the NWR pattern that could take advantage of
314 its modular organization; this differential modulation across group of muscles would increase the efficacy of
315 the defensive responses to unpredictable threats.

316 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study in which the influence of the stimulus predictability on the
317 NWR is studied in two muscles simultaneously. Based on the present observations, it is likely that
318 descending modulation acts differently across different muscles. This reinforces the view of the NWR as a
319 complex pattern across several joints, rather than a stereotyped reaction of individual muscles. Hence, it is
320 advisable that future studies consider the inclusion of several muscles when investigating the
321 psychophysiological effects over the NWR.

322 **Limitations and future perspectives**

323 The present study has some limitations. First, the results were obtained from a healthy population, which
324 may not translate to patients, for instance those with chronic pain. Second, the experimental protocol did not
325 include an assessment of the current psychological state of the participants during the stimulation blocks,
326 which could have helped to make better inferences about the effects of e.g. anxiety. Third, the stimulation
327 intensities used in this study were all above the pain threshold. This could have led to a ceiling effect on the
328 reflex sizes for some of the subjects.

329 The present study also has some implications. The modulatory effects of stimulus predictability can become
330 problematic in clinical examinations of the NWR, where clinicians would like to control these psychological
331 confounding factors to minimize their influence over spinal excitability. These effects pose a practical

332 compromise since the predictability of the stimuli is a typical parameter that is manipulated to reduce the
333 habituation of the NWR (Dimitrijevic et al. 1972).

334 **Conclusions**

335 The results of this study suggest that the predictability of different stimulus characteristics differentially
336 affects the muscles involved in the defensive withdrawal reaction. Moreover, stimulus predictability seems to
337 disrupt the stereotyped temporal summation profile in response to repeated stimulation. These observations
338 suggest that the specific response of spinal withdrawal reflexes are strongly influenced by the prior
339 information of an incoming threat, so that the dynamic descending control may increase the efficacy of the
340 defensive responses by differentially modulating the muscle activity involved in the reaction. Finally, these
341 findings have important methodological implications for futures studies in which the NWR is used as a
342 quantitative tool to assess the response of the nociceptive system.

343

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347 **DISCLOSURES**

348 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

349

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STIMULUS PREDICTABILITY MODERATES THE WITHDRAWAL RESPONSE

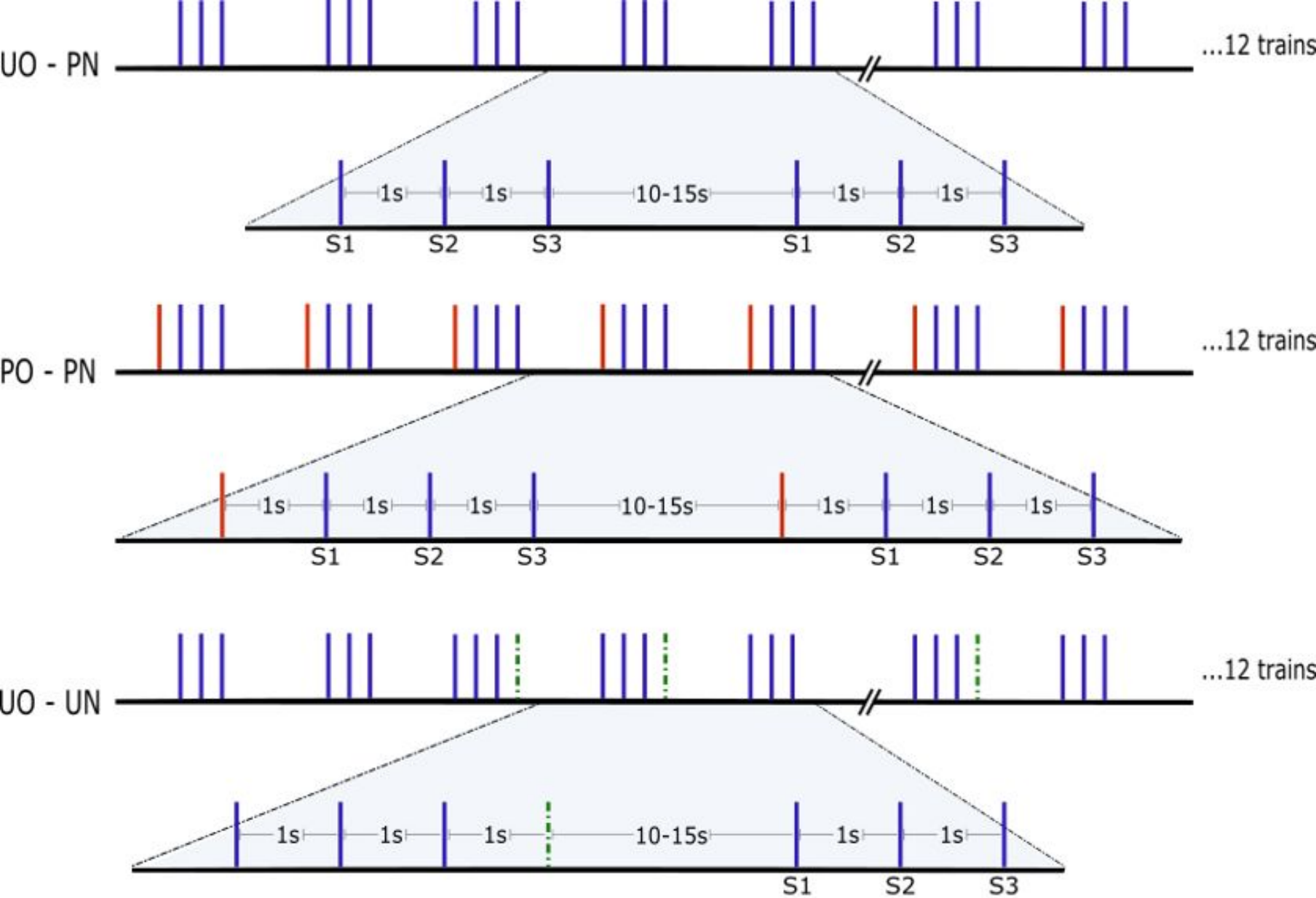
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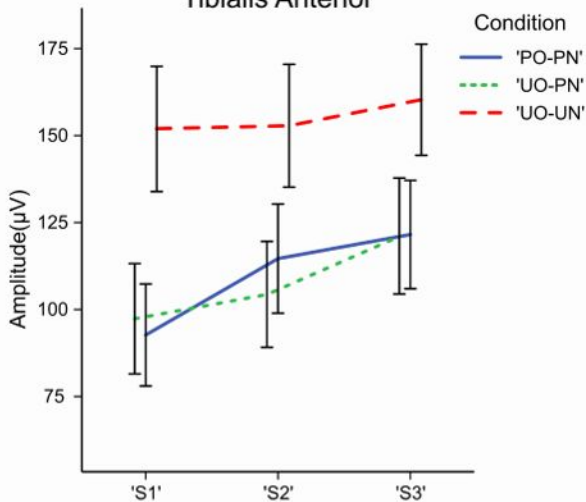
505 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

506 Fig. 1. Experimental design. Each stimulation block corresponded to a different experimental condition. The order of
507 blocks was randomized across subjects. Details are explained in the text.

508

509 Fig. 2. Averaged root-mean squared nociceptive withdrawal reflex (NWR) responses to the three stimuli of the train, for
510 the three different experimental conditions. The NWR responses were measured at the tibialis anterior muscle (A) and
511 biceps femoris muscle (B). (PO-PN: *predictable stimulus onset, predictable number of given stimuli per train*; UO-PN:
512 *unpredictable stimulus onset, predictable number of repeated stimuli per train*; UO-UN: *unpredictable stimulus onset,*
513 *unpredictable number of repeated stimuli per train*). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.



A**Tibialis Anterior****B****Biceps Femoris**