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Human foot outperforms the hand in mechanical pain discrimination

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34

35 **Abstract**

36 Tactile discrimination has been extensively studied, but mechanical pain discrimination remains poorly
37 characterised. Here, we measured the capacity for mechanical pain discrimination using a two-
38 alternative forced choice paradigm, with force-calibrated indentation stimuli (Semmes-Weinstein
39 monofilaments) applied to the hand and foot dorsa of healthy human volunteers. In order to
40 characterise the relationship between peripheral nociceptor activity and pain perception, we recorded
41 single-unit activity from myelinated (A) and unmyelinated (C) mechanosensitive nociceptors in the skin
42 using microneurography. At the perceptual level, we found that the foot was better at discriminating
43 noxious forces than the hand, which stands in contrast to that for innocuous force discrimination,
44 where the hand performed better than the foot. This observation of superior mechanical pain
45 discrimination on the foot compared to the hand could not be explained by the responsiveness of
46 individual nociceptors. We found no significant difference in the discrimination performance of either
47 the myelinated or unmyelinated class of nociceptors between skin regions. This suggests the possibility
48 that other factors such as skin biophysics, receptor density or central mechanisms may underlie these
49 regional differences.

50 **Significance Statement**

51 Standard clinical practice for diagnosing neuropathies and pain disorders often involves assessing
52 thresholds for pain or light touch. The ability to discriminate between different stimulus intensities is
53 a separate but equally important sensory function, however this is not typically assessed in the clinic,
54 and so studying this may provide insights into pain signalling mechanisms. Here, we investigated the
55 ability of healthy individuals to discriminate between different forces of painful indentation. We found
56 that the foot was better at this than the hand. This difference could not be explained by the firing
57 activity of peripheral nociceptors (pain-signalling neurons) between the two regions, suggesting that
58 mechanisms other than nociceptor sensitivity are involved.

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Mechanical pain perception is considered a function of myelinated mechano-nociceptors, primarily
62 the small-diameter, thinly myelinated (A δ) mechano-nociceptors (Rolke et al., 2006), with recent
63 research also indicating a contribution from the large-diameter, thickly myelinated (A β) mechano-
64 nociceptors (Nagi et al., 2019). Pain intensity ratings are widely used in both experimental and clinical
65 settings. However, one caveat with pain ratings is that, while they may provide some insight into
66 discriminative ability, measures for discrimination (or difference) thresholds, such as just noticeable
67 difference (JND) or the Weber fraction (Holway and Pratt, 1936) cannot be easily determined from
68 ratings. Establishing the Weber fraction provides a measure for sensory discrimination which can be
69 compared across different conditions and modalities (Norwich, 1987). The processes of detection and
70 discrimination serve distinct functions and may underlie different neural mechanisms, as suggested in
71 studies on touch (Romo et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2014) and vision (Mazor et al., 2020; Schöpper et al.,
72 2020). While detection thresholds are widely used, exploring pain discrimination may offer additional
73 insights into the neural pathways involved in acute pain signalling.

74 In the current study, we used forced-choice psychophysical tests to investigate the human perceptual
75 capacity to discriminate between innocuous and noxious indentation forces. The primary advantage
76 of using a forced-choice approach is to overcome the bias, which would otherwise be introduced due
77 to differences in response criteria between participants during scaling (Clark and Clark, 1980). We also
78 compared the discrimination performance between hand and foot dorsa since the resolution of the
79 somatosensory system is not constant across skin sites. For example, the spatial acuity for pain in the
80 glabrous skin of the hand follows a proximal-to-distal gradient, with the fingertip being the area of
81 highest acuity, whereas in the hairy skin of the upper limb, nociceptive two-point discrimination
82 performance decreases in a proximal-distal direction (Mancini et al., 2014). Thus, it is of interest to
83 compare discrimination performance between skin sites and body domains.

84 Using the forced-choice psychophysical method, we found that the capacity for discriminating noxious
85 mechanical forces is significantly better in the foot than the hand. To explore whether this regional
86 difference could be explained by different sensitivity of primary afferent nociceptors, we performed
87 microneurography to record from myelinated (A) and unmyelinated (C) nociceptors innervating hand
88 and foot dorsa. We found no difference between the hand and foot in the discrimination
89 performance of either class of nociceptors, suggesting that a mechanism other than individual
90 nociceptor sensitivity underlies the observed perceptual difference.

91 **Materials and Methods**

92 We measured the psychophysical capacity to discriminate mechanical indentations of different forces
93 applied to the dorsum of the hand and the foot in two psychophysical experiments. In the first
94 experiment, high-intensity forces spanning a range of 100–3000 mN were used, targeting the noxious
95 range of mechanical forces in which nociceptors display selective tuning and are rated as painful (Nagi
96 et al., 2019). In the second experiment, low-intensity forces spanning a range of 6–80 mN were used,
97 targeting the innocuous range of mechanical forces that are clearly perceptible but not painful. To
98 acquire neural data, we used the *in vivo* electrophysiological technique of microneurography (Vallbo,
99 2018) to record from single nociceptive afferents in the radial and peroneal nerves of awake
100 participants. This was performed as a separate third experiment, using a subset of forces from both
101 intensity series.

102 **Participants**

103 For each of the two psychophysical experiments, we recruited 20 naïve healthy participants (noxious
104 force range: 10 females, 21–33 years; innocuous force range: 6 females, 18–40 years). One participant
105 took part in both experiments. For microneurography, we conducted new recordings with a separate
106 group of 36 healthy participants (18–47 years). This study was approved by the Swedish Ethical Review
107 Authority (2017/485-31 and 2020-04426), and the South West – Frenchay (20/SW/0138) and Liverpool

108 John Moores University (14/NSP/039) research ethics committees. Informed consent was
109 obtained from all participants in writing according to the revised Declaration of Helsinki.

110 **Equipment**

111 A standardised set of Aesthesio nylon monofilaments (DanMic, San Jose, CA, USA), also termed von
112 Frey hairs, was used to deliver innocuous and noxious mechanical stimuli. These filaments have
113 different lengths and diameters based on the Semmes-Weinstein monofilament set, providing a linear
114 scale of perceived intensity (Weinstein, 1993). The sizes of the monofilaments (1.65–6.65) correspond
115 to a logarithmic function with equivalent forces ranging from 0.08 to 3000 mN (corresponding to
116 pressures of 2.53 to 292 g/mm²). The monofilaments were applied manually (handheld), perpendicular
117 to the test sites until they bent, with a contact time of approximately 1 s (Fig. 1A). The experimenter
118 (O.L.) was trained to reliably apply the monofilaments in the intended way so that the filament always
119 bent, and the tip did not slip along the skin. If hairs were visible on the test sites, they were removed
120 by gently shaving the skin before applying the monofilaments (Cole et al., 2006). Participants were
121 blind to visual cues by placing pillows to obstruct their field of view.

122 In microneurography experiments, LabChart software was used to process data acquired from a
123 PowerLab 16/35 data acquisition system (ADInstruments, Sydney, Australia). An insulated high-
124 impedance tungsten microelectrode (FHC, Bowdoin, ME, USA) was inserted under real-time ultrasound
125 (GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL, USA) guidance into the radial nerve proximal to the elbow or the superficial
126 peroneal nerve proximal to the ankle. The reference (uninsulated) microelectrode was inserted just
127 under the skin near the insertion point of the recording microelectrode. Neural activity was amplified
128 using a headstage in conjunction with a low-noise high-gain Neuro Amp EX amplifier (ADInstruments).

129 **Force discrimination task**

130 To determine the difference threshold on the hand and foot dorsa, i.e. the radial and peroneal
131 territories respectively (Fig. 1B), we used a two-alternative forced choice (2AFC) psychophysical
132 procedure in which two mechanical forces (a standard stimulus and a comparison stimulus) were

133 presented successively in each trial, and the participants were asked to judge which stimulus was
134 “more painful” (with the noxious force experiment) or “more intense” (with the innocuous force
135 experiment) (Fig. 1C). The standard stimulus was always the same force within each experiment, and
136 the comparison stimuli varied in force.

137 In the innocuous force series, the standard stimulus was 20 mN, and the comparison stimuli were 6,
138 10, 14, 20, 40, 60 and 80 mN (three stronger, three weaker and one equal to the standard stimulus).
139 In the noxious force series, the standard stimulus was 600 mN, and the comparison stimuli were 100,
140 150, 260, 600, 1000, 1800 and 3000 mN. These intensities were chosen based on the psychophysical
141 pain ratings in response to von Frey stimulation from previous work (Nagi et al., 2019). In a
142 pseudorandom sequence, each of the comparison stimuli was paired 10 times with the standard
143 stimulus to obtain a reliable estimate of the proportion of responses rated greater than the standard
144 stimulus. The standard stimulus was presented first on half of the trials and second on the other half
145 of the trials, in a random order, to minimise bias. All stimuli were applied for ~1 s at inter-stimulus
146 intervals of 5 s.

147 The stimuli (standard and comparison) were applied at different locations within the radial and
148 peroneal territories. These locations were chosen randomly after each trial to avoid receptor fatigue
149 or sensitisation. For each participant, the stimuli were delivered in two separate sessions during the
150 same experimental sitting. In each session, the stimuli were delivered either on the hand dorsum or
151 the foot dorsum. The order of sessions was counterbalanced across participants. The order sequence
152 and timing of stimulus application was guided by a custom Python script (code available at
153 https://github.com/SDAMcIntyre/Expt_MonofilamentDiscrimination). Participants were provided
154 with a computer mouse to choose the more intense (innocuous series) or the more painful (noxious
155 series) stimulus within each pair, and all the responses were registered automatically by the same
156 program.

157

158 **Unit identification in microneurography**

159 Isolated single afferents were searched by brushing the skin using a soft or course brush, while making
160 small adjustments to the position of the microelectrode. The A and C fibres were distinguished based
161 on differences in spike morphology and response latency, with the C fibres displaying a characteristic
162 delayed response to stimulation. In distinguishing between nociceptors and touch receptors, their
163 response to soft brushing was a key criterion. All touch receptors are highly sensitive to soft brushing
164 over their receptive field, whereas mechano-nociceptors do not respond to a soft brush but they may
165 respond to a coarse brush and almost always respond to a pinch (Vallbo et al., 1999; Nagi et al., 2019;
166 Bouchatta et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2023). The units insensitive to soft brushing tend to have higher von
167 Frey activation thresholds than touch receptors and display the capacity to encode noxious forces, as
168 reported in the aforementioned citations and demonstrated in the study results – characteristics that
169 classify them as nociceptors. The von Frey forces delivered during the microneurography experiment
170 were 4, 10, 20, 60, 100, 260, 1000 and 3000 mN.

171 **Data analysis**

172 For the psychophysical data, curve fitting was performed using R and the quickpsy package (Linares
173 and López-Moliner, 2016). Psychometric functions were constructed for each site (hand and foot) in
174 every participant by plotting the proportion of responses called greater than the standard stimulus
175 against the intensities of comparison stimuli obtained from the 2AFC experiments. Curves were fitted
176 to the data using a logistic function. The difference threshold or JND was taken as one-half the
177 difference between the values of the comparison stimulus at the 75% and 25% points on the
178 psychometric function (Sharma et al., 2022). The Weber fraction, which represents the ratio of the JND
179 to the standard stimulus, was then calculated for each site in each participant. Paired t-tests were used
180 to compare the differences between both skin sites. Statistical analyses were performed using Prism
181 software (Graphpad, San Diego, CA, USA)

182 The microneurography data were processed using LabChart, with action potentials or spikes identified
183 from background noise using threshold crossing and template matching. We considered neural activity
184 within the first 500 ms window following the first evoked spike for analysis, which has been shown
185 previously as a reliable metric for nociceptor tuning to indentation forces (Nagi et al., 2019). This time
186 window has also been shown to be sufficient to achieve the target indenting force across a wide range,
187 as confirmed through testing with electronic von Frey monofilaments that provide force readouts (Nagi
188 et al., 2019). Furthermore, the reaction time to punctate tactile stimulation is ~300 ms (Lele et al.,
189 1954), indicating rapid signalling and information processing.

190 Curve fitting and analysis of the processed neural data was then completed using Prism (Graphpad,
191 San Diego, CA, USA). We fitted a semi-log line to the data comparing von Frey forces and the firing rate
192 of recorded afferents, where indentation force on the x-axis was logarithmic. For units where data
193 were collected from repeated stimulus applications, the trial which provided the highest firing rate at
194 that particular force was chosen for the purposes of curve fitting. To compare if the neural responses
195 differed between the hand and foot sites, we performed an extra sum-of-squares F test between two
196 models. This computes which of the two models provides a better explanation for the data: one where
197 a single slope could be fitted to the pair of datasets being compared, and another where each dataset
198 has their own slope.

199 **Results**

200 **Discrimination sensitivity**

201 We constructed psychometric curves for each participant based on the results from the 2AFC task in
202 the noxious force (Fig. 2) and innocuous force (Fig. 3) range to calculate Weber fractions. A steeper
203 slope indicates greater discrimination ability, i.e. lower Weber fractions.

204 The mean Weber fraction for discrimination of noxious mechanical stimuli was 0.88 (95% CI 0.78–0.99)
205 in the hand and 0.52 (95% CI 0.46–0.58) in the foot. That is, at a force of 600 mN, a change of

206 approximately 88% and 52% is required to be reliably perceived as more painful in the hand and foot,
207 respectively. The Weber fraction in the foot was significantly lower ($t(19) = 8.580$, $p < 0.0001$) than
208 that in the hand, as shown in Figure 4A. This contrasts with the results in the innocuous range (Fig. 4B),
209 where discrimination performance in the hand (WF = 0.47, 95% CI 0.41–0.53) was better than that in
210 the foot (WF = 0.57, 95% CI 0.53–0.62). This difference was also statistically significant ($t(19) = 2.940$,
211 $p = 0.0084$).

212 **Microneurography data**

213 We recorded from 31 new units and incorporated data from 9 units previously published in Nagi et al.
214 (2019), resulting in a total of 40 units evenly split between myelinated and unmyelinated nociceptors
215 and upper and lower limbs. The soft-brush responsive units had thresholds ≤ 1.6 mN, while the soft-
216 brush unresponsive units had thresholds ≥ 4.0 mN, consistent with literature on touch receptors and
217 nociceptors in hairy skin, spanning both myelinated and unmyelinated classes (Vallbo et al., 1999; Nagi
218 et al., 2019; Bouchatta et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2023). Conduction velocities, where measured, were >30
219 m/s for A fibres, suggesting A β range, and ~ 1 m/s for C fibres, in line with the aforementioned citations.
220 For each recording, the mean discharge rates during the dynamic phase (500 ms onset) of indentation
221 were determined (Fig 5A). For the A nociceptors, fitting individual slopes for each skin site provides
222 the following values: 13.33 (95% CI 9.50–17.16; $R^2 = 0.40$) for the foot and 10.15 (95% CI 5.92–14.39;
223 $R^2 = 0.25$) for the hand (Fig 5B). However, the model where a single slope (11.82, 95% CI 9.00–14.65;
224 $R^2 = 0.33$) was fitted to both datasets can sufficiently explain the data, and so the slopes were not
225 significantly different ($F(1, 140) = 1.231$, $p = 0.2692$). Similarly, when comparing the responses of the
226 C nociceptors between the foot (slope = 8.23, 95% CI 6.51–9.94; $R^2 = 0.59$) and hand (7.83, 95% CI
227 6.39–9.26; $R^2 = 0.66$) (Fig 5C), no significant difference was found between the sites ($F(1, 124) = 0.1244$,
228 $p = 0.7249$) as a single common slope (8.04, 95% CI 6.92–9.15; $R^2 = 0.62$) could adequately fit both
229 datasets.

230

231 **Discussion**

232 In the current study, the human perceptual capacity to discriminate innocuous and noxious mechanical
233 forces in the hand and foot dorsa was investigated. Our findings show that the foot is significantly
234 better at discriminating noxious mechanical forces than the hand. In contrast, the hand is significantly
235 better at discriminating innocuous mechanical forces. Our results align with the mechanical detection
236 and pain thresholds reported in the normative quantitative sensory testing dataset of the widely used
237 German Research Network on Neuropathic Pain, showing lower mechanical detection thresholds in
238 the hand and lower mechanical pain thresholds in the foot (Rolke et al., 2006).

239 Both A and C mechanonociceptors display encoding of noxious indentation forces. The very fast
240 conducting (A β -range) myelinated nociceptors have some unique features; for example, they exhibit
241 much higher peak firing rates and much less propensity for fatigue during repeated stimulation
242 compared to their unmyelinated counterparts (Nagi et al., 2019). In the current study, when we
243 compared the responses between the two skin sites, we found no differences within the overall
244 responses of either A or C nociceptors. Thus, the psychophysical differences between the skin sites
245 cannot be explained by the response properties of individual nociceptors of either class, and other
246 peripheral or central factors should be examined.

247 One possible explanation of the body region differences might relate to the innervation density. A
248 better sensitivity for innocuous mechanical stimulation in the hand has been attributed to the higher
249 innervation density of touch fibres in that region (Corniani and Saal, 2020). Quantification of intra-
250 epidermal nerve fibre density (IENFD), a method involving examination of skin biopsies for diagnosis
251 of small-fibre neuropathies, has revealed that the hand dorsum has a higher density of small fibres
252 than the foot dorsum (Ling et al., 2015). However, there is contrasting evidence with one study
253 showing that the spatial acuity for heat pain was higher on the fingertips compared to the hand
254 dorsum, despite the lower IENFD on the fingertips (Mancini et al., 2013). Nonetheless, both tactile A
255 and C fibres have been demonstrated to have modulatory functions on pain signalling (Arcourt et al.,

256 2017; Larsson and Nagi, 2022), which have a higher density in the upper limb (Corniani and Saal, 2020;
257 Löken et al., 2022), and this could potentially influence pain sensitivity.

258 Skin biomechanics is another important factor to consider, as it can vary between different anatomical
259 sites. These variations could be due to differences in underlying anatomical structures (Biesecker et
260 al., 2009) or skin thickness (Oltulu et al., 2018), which can influence the distribution of mechanical
261 forces on the skin (Pawlaczyk et al., 2013). Because of this, the same mechanical force applied to
262 different sites could potentially recruit a different number or class of nociceptors even if their
263 innervation density would be the same between sites. In the current study, the psychophysical testing
264 was conducted on skin sites without an underlying thick layer of fascia or muscle bulk. However, other
265 factors contributing to biophysical differences cannot be ruled out.

266 Studies investigating the neural coding of non-painful indentation and vibrotactile stimuli suggest that
267 the activity of several different classes of tactile afferents contributes to an overall percept of intensity,
268 with each afferent class having different weights or contributions to the sensation (Cohen and Vierck,
269 1993; Muniak et al., 2007). It might be that pain perception also depends on the overall activity in the
270 population, comprising inputs from different nociceptor classes or even tactile classes. However,
271 microneurography recordings from field afferents, a class of tactile afferents abundantly found in the
272 lower limb (constituting >40% of A fibres in the peroneal sample), show that their response to
273 indentation forces plateaus before reaching painful intensities (Nagi et al., 2019). This was also recently
274 observed for another type of mechanical pain evoked by hair pulling, where the responses of all tactile
275 afferent classes plateaued or, in some cases, even dropped in the painful range of pull forces
276 (Bouchatta et al., 2023). Further, when weak electrical pulses are delivered through the
277 microneurography recording electrode to selectively activate an A β nociceptor, painful percepts – such
278 as sharp or pinprick pain – are produced, whereas, at the same intensities, selective activation of
279 individual A β tactile afferents produces non-painful percepts, such as pressure or vibration (Nagi et al.,
280 2019).

281 A central factor influencing somatosensory performance is cortical magnification. The human primary
282 somatosensory cortex (S1) contains fine-grained topographic maps that reflect nociceptive inputs from
283 the skin (Mancini et al., 2012). It is possible that the degree of magnification of nociceptive signals in
284 S1 may correspond to discrimination ability at certain skin sites, mirroring that observed with tactile
285 acuity (Duncan and Boynton, 2007). Furthermore, several of the aforementioned factors may relate to
286 the hand and the foot having evolved differently to have distinct functional roles (Hashimoto et al.,
287 2013).

288 A limiting factor regarding our methodology is that the monofilaments we used had different
289 diameters, meaning that the contact areas were different. Previous studies have reported that the
290 probe size influences the perception of sharpness and mechanical pain thresholds (Greenspan and
291 McGillis, 1991, 1994). For this reason, mechanical pain is usually tested using custom-made weighted
292 pinprick stimuli that have a constant diameter (Rolke et al., 2006). However, we chose to use Semmes-
293 Weinstein monofilaments to avoid damaging the receptive field of recorded afferents. Moreover, they
294 are inexpensive, easy to administer, and widely used in clinical practice to screen for peripheral
295 neuropathy (Berquin et al., 2010; Katon et al., 2013). Using these filaments, we managed to
296 successfully measure both pain and touch discrimination with acceptable measurement variability and
297 found significant differences.

298 That chronic pain remains a significant clinical challenge with limited treatment options may, in part
299 at least, be due to our limited understanding of its underlying mechanisms (Schmelz, 2021). For
300 instance, the primary focus of quantitative sensory testing is on absolute thresholds (Krumova et al.,
301 2012), and other psychophysical studies involving mechanical pain have also focused on measuring
302 detection thresholds (Pfau et al., 2020; Suzuki et al., 2022). Thus, investigating discrimination
303 sensitivity for pain and collecting normative data for this function may help expand our knowledge
304 regarding the mechanisms that underlie acute pain signalling in humans.

305

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398 **Figure legends**

399 Figure 1. Schematic of the psychophysical experiment. (A) A von Frey filament is applied to the skin
400 until it bends to deliver the target force. (B) The shaded skin regions indicate the innervation area of
401 the radial and superficial peroneal nerves. The circled regions within this represent the stimulation
402 sites where the monofilaments were applied. Images created with BioRender.com. (C) The two-
403 alternative forced choice (2AFC) paradigm used for participants to judge which of the stimuli in the

404 pair was perceived as “more intense” (with the innocuous forces) or “more painful” (with the noxious
405 forces).

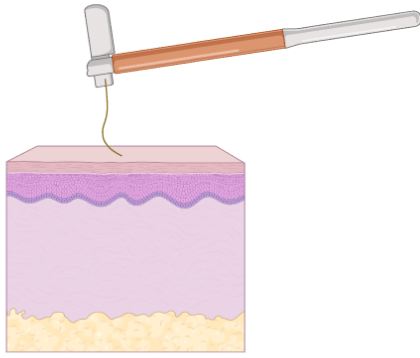
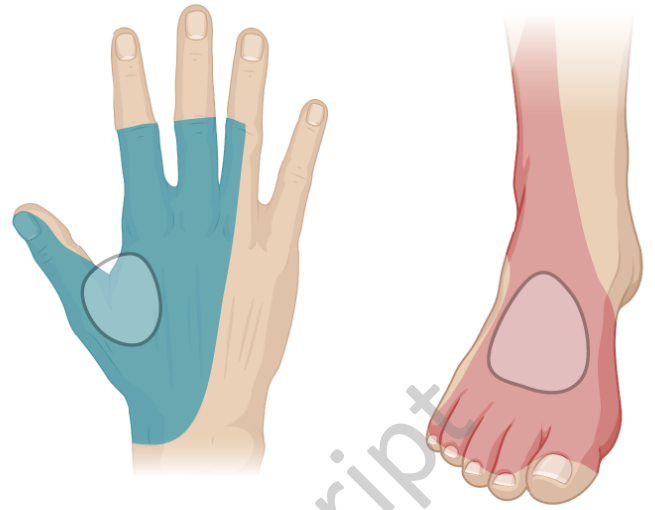
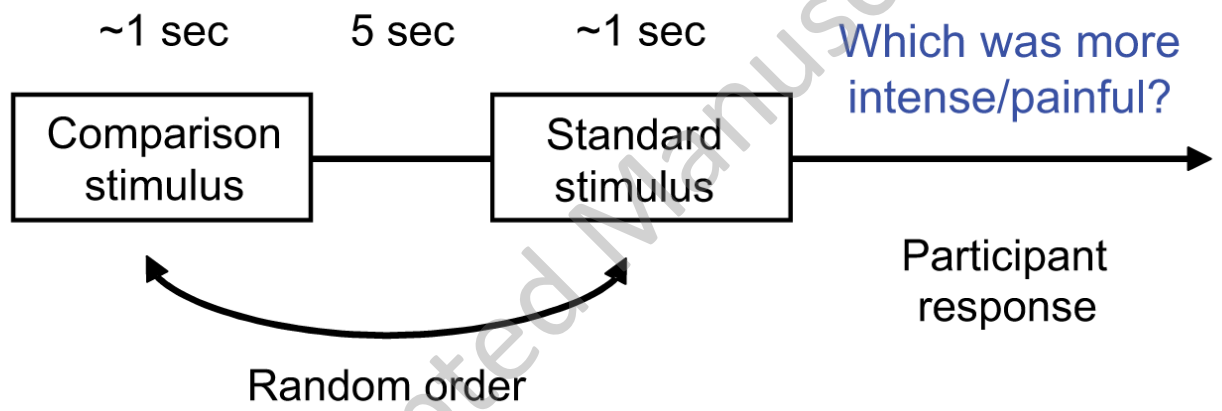
406 Figure 2. Psychometric function curves for mechanical force discrimination in the noxious force range
407 (100–3000 mN) obtained from the psychophysical 2AFC task in the hand and foot of each participant
408 (n = 20). Each data point was computed from 10 trials. Note the logarithmic scale on the x-axis.

409 Figure 3. Psychometric function curves for mechanical force discrimination in the innocuous force
410 range (6–80 mN) obtained from the psychophysical 2AFC task in the hand and foot of each participant
411 (n = 20). Each data point was computed from 10 trials. Note the logarithmic scale on the x-axis.

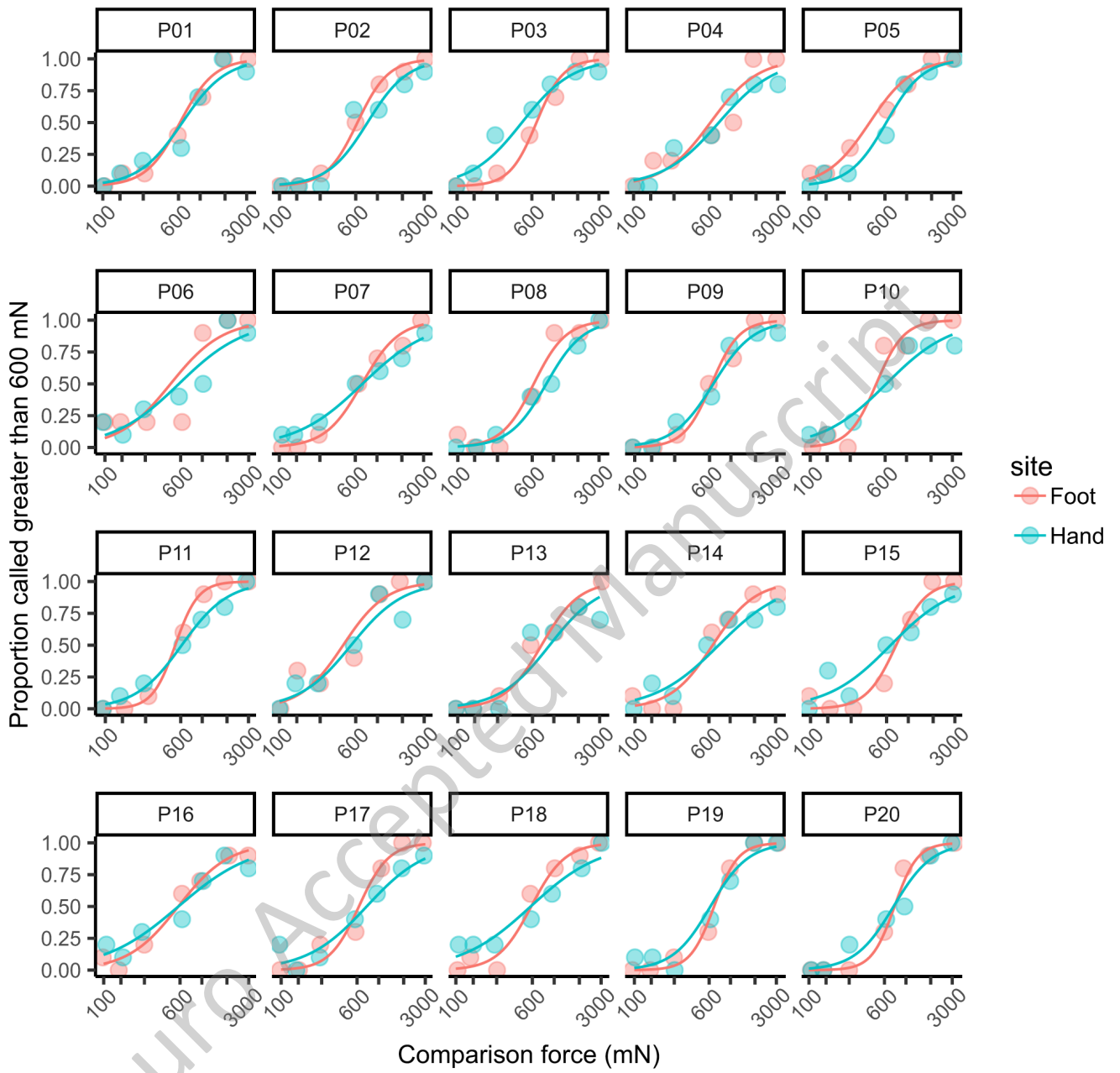
412 Figure 4. Within-participant comparison of Weber fraction between the hand and foot dorsa in both
413 ranges of stimulation forces. (A) The foot is better at discriminating noxious mechanical forces than
414 the hand. (B) The hand is better at discriminating innocuous mechanical forces than the foot. Each pair
415 of circles connected by a line represents an individual participant (n = 20 each for innocuous and
416 noxious force range experiments).

417 Figure 5. Responses of nociceptors during the dynamic phase (500 ms onset) of von Frey stimulation
418 with different forces. (A) Recording traces of A and C nociceptors from the hand during the onset
419 period at three different stimulation forces. (B) Comparison of mean firing rates of hand and foot A
420 nociceptors (n = 10 units each site). (C) Comparison of mean firing rates of hand and foot C nociceptors
421 (n = 10 units each site). Error bars represent SEM. Note the logarithmic scale on the x-axis.

422

A**B****C**

Noxious force range



Innocuous force range

