Acute aerobic exercise intensity does not modulate pain potentially due to differences in fitness levels and sex effects – results from a pharmacological fMRI study

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Abstract

Exercise might lead to a release of endogenous opioids, potentially resulting in pain relief. However, the neurobiological underpinnings of this effect remain unclear. Using a pharmacological within-subject fMRI study with the opioid antagonist naloxone and different levels of aerobic exercise and pain we investigated exercise-induced hypoalgesia (N = 39, 21 female). Overall, high-intensity aerobic exercise did not reduce pain as compared to low-intensity aerobic exercise. Accordingly, we observed no significant changes in the descending pain modulatory system. The μ-opioid antagonist naloxone significantly increased overall pain ratings but showed no interaction with exercise intensity. An exploratory analysis suggested an influence of fitness level (as indicated by the functional threshold power) and sex where males showed greater hypoalgesia after high-intensity exercise with increasing fitness levels. This effect was attenuated by naloxone and mirrored by fMRI signal changes in the medial frontal cortex, where activation also varied with fitness level and sex, and was reversed by naloxone. These results indicate that different aerobic exercise intensities have no differential effect on pain in a mixed population sample, but individual factors such as fitness level and sex might play a role. The current study underscores the need for personalised exercise interventions to enhance pain relief in healthy as well as chronic pain populations taking into account the sex and fitness status as well as the necessity to further investigate the opioidergic involvement in exercise-induced pain modulation.

Keywords: Exercise, Pain, Opioids, fMRI, Hypoalgesia, Naloxone, Sex, Fitness Level

Introduction

Exercise has been suggested to release endogenous opioids (Koltyn, 2000) resulting in an attenuation of pain, termed exercise-induced hypoalgesia. However, the underlying neural (Vaegter and Jones, 2020; Wu et al., 2022) and pharmacological mechanisms remain controversial (Koltyn, 2000; Naugle et al., 2012; Wewege and Jones, 2020) and results on the modulation of pain through exercise are heterogeneous (Klich et al., 2018; Koltyn et al., 2014; Padawer and Levine, 1992; Ruble et al., 2005; Sternberg et al., 2001; Vaegter et al., 2015, 2019). Given that exercise can potentially elicit hypo- and hyperalgesia (Vaegter and Jones, 2020) we have selected the term 'exercise-induced pain modulation' to reflect the range of effects of exercise on pain.

Previous rodent research has implicated the descending pain modulatory system, including the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), the medial frontal cortex including the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC), and the periaqueductal grey (PAG) in exercise-induced pain modulation (Lesnak and Sluka, 2020; Stagg et al., 2011). This is partly congruent with early imaging studies in humans (Boecker et al., 2008; Ellingson et al., 2016; Geisler et al., 2019; Saanijoki et al., 2018; Scheef et al., 2012), where the descending pain modulatory system, including the PAG and insula, seems to be involved in modulating pain perception following a 2-h run (Scheef et al., 2012) along with the fusiform gyrus and hippocampus (Geisler et al., 2019).

The activation of the endogenous opioid system during exercise has been the most widely discussed mechanism in exercise-induced pain modulation (Naugle et al., 2012; Sluka et al., 2018). Earlier studies found an analgesic response to thermal and ischaemic pain after long-distance (6.3 miles) running in male runners that was reversed after naloxone administration

(Janal et al., 1984). Even after a short-distance (1 mile) run, naloxone slowed the return of the analgesic effect (Haier et al., 1981). Previous imaging studies (Boecker et al., 2008; Saanijoki et al., 2018) further supported that exercise elicits the release of endogenous opioids in crucial opioidergic structures (i.e., the insula, ACC, and prefrontal regions). Still, the pharmacological underpinnings in humans have remained equivocal (Koltyn, 2000), where administering a μ-opioid antagonist in some studies decreased exercise-induced pain modulation (Droste et al., 1988; Haier et al., 1981; Janal et al., 1984; Olausson et al., 1986) whereas in others it did not affect exercise-induced pain modulation (Droste et al., 1991; Koltyn et al., 2014; Olausson et al., 1986). Notably, most studies investigating the pharmacological underpinnings of exercise-induced pain modulation have employed very different interventions using different administration protocols (i.e., different doses and different routes of administration of the μ-opioid receptor antagonist such as oral or intravenous), making it difficult to draw clear conclusions about the extent of central μ-opioid modulation through exercise in humans (Koltyn, 2000; Leknes and Atlas, 2020; Wewege and Jones, 2020).

In human studies, many findings on exercise-induced pain modulation are derived from studies in athletes or physically active individuals showing increased hypoalgesia following exercise compared to subjects with lower fitness levels (Crombie et al., 2018; Geva and Defrin, 2013; Naugle and Riley, 2014; Schmitt et al., 2020). Intriguingly, this observation might be related to greater exercise-induced opioid release in structures such as the periaqueductal grey (PAG) or the frontal medial cortex (including the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC)) in fitter individuals (Saanijoki et al., 2022; Sluka et al., 2018). Additionally, previous reviews have further emphasised sex differences in pain processing (Mogil, 2020, 2012) and analgesic sensitivity in rodents (Martin et al., 2019; Mogil, 2020) warranting

further investigation in humans (Mogil, 2020, 2012) in connection with exercise-induced pain modulation.

Furthermore, studies on exercise-induced pain modulation have been criticized (Padawer and Levine, 1992) for using single-arm pre-post measurements where pain is measured once before and once after the exercise intervention instead of randomised trials with the former not accounting for habituation to the noxious stimulus (for reviews see Naugle et al., 2012; Vaegter and Jones, 2020), as well as heterogeneous study designs (Vaegter and Jones, 2020), further limiting the interpretation of results (Naugle et al., 2012; Wewege and Jones, 2020).

In this study, we examined exercise-induced pain modulation between different exercise intensities in a healthy sample with a particular emphasis on the opioidergic system. This preregistered study (drks.de: DRKS00029064) comprised an initial calibration day and two experimental days (Figure 1). On the calibration day, individual exercise intensities, pain intensities, as well as objectively assessed fitness levels (functional threshold power; FTP_{20}) (Borszcz et al., 2018), were determined (Figure 1A). On each of the two experimental days, participants cycled during four blocks at high (100% FTP) and low (55% FTP; active recovery) intensity for 10 minutes per block. After each cycling block, functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) commenced, where participants received nine painful heat stimuli (alternating with nine painful pressure stimuli) with a 15-second plateau each and rated their painfulness on a visual analog scale (VAS) ranging between the calibrated pain threshold ('minimally painful') and pain tolerance ('almost unbearably painful'). Furthermore, we employed a double-blind cross-over pharmacological challenge across experimental days, where either saline (placebo; SAL) or the μ-opioid antagonist naloxone

(NLX) was administered intravenously before the experiment commenced and a constant dose was maintained throughout the experiment (see Methods for details) (Figure 1B).

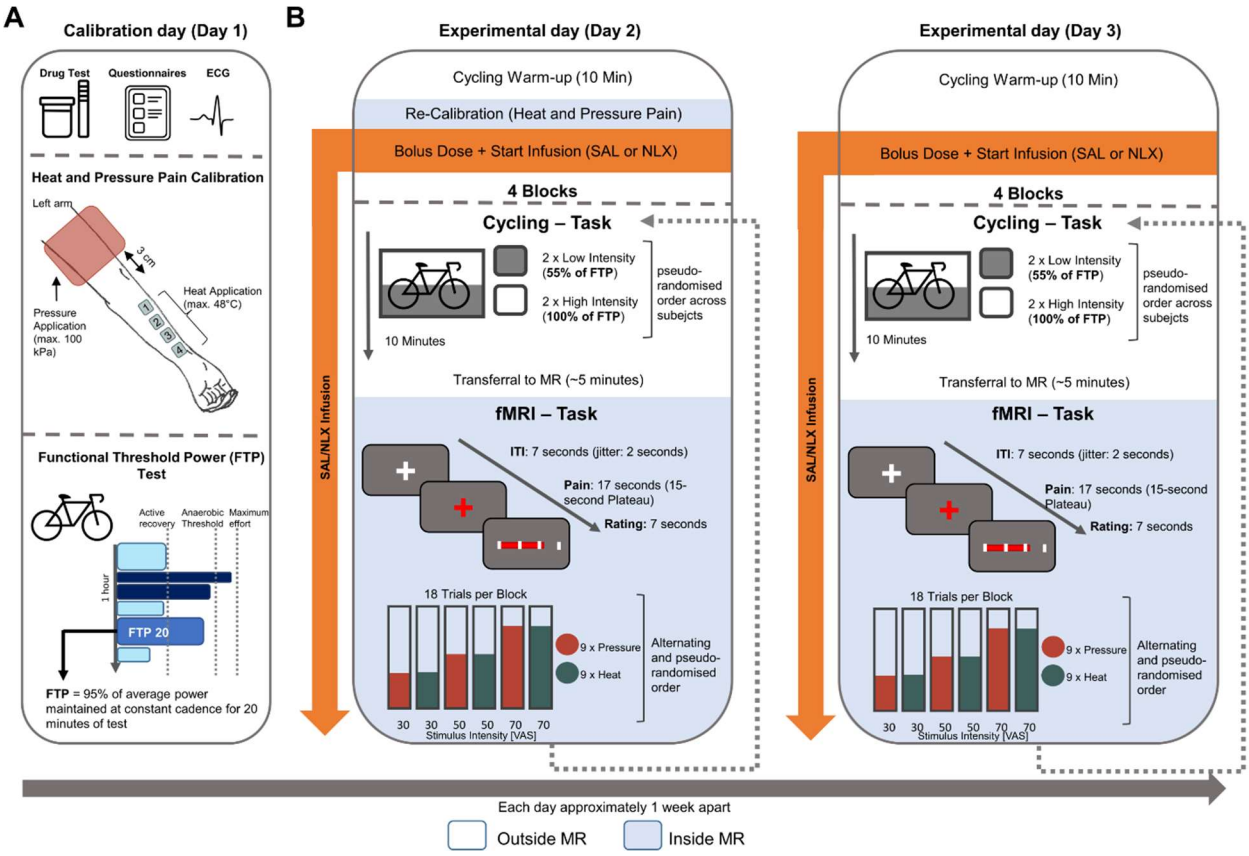

Figure 1. Experimental design. (**A**) Calibration day (Day 1) with heat and pressure pain calibration and Functional Threshold Power test (FTP) (see Table S1). (**B**) Experimental days (Day 2 and Day 3) with cycling task (outside MR) and fMRI task (inside MR) with the only difference in the drug treatment administered (SAL or NLX). ITI = inter-trial-interval; VAS = Visual Analog Scale.

Results

In our preregistration, we also included pressure pain to investigate exercise-induced pain modulation across different pain modalities. However, pressure pain did not show a significant effect of exercise in any of the analyses performed (Figure S1); therefore, this report focuses on heat pain. As the inter-trial interval (ITI) between heat pain stimuli needs to be about 30 seconds due to the stimulus length (Tran et al., 2010), the interspersed

132 pressure pain stimuli allowed us to additionally (i) characterize the brain responses to
133 pressure as compared to heat pain and (ii) investigate the effect of a μ-opioid antagonist on
134 these responses. However, these results are beyond the scope of this paper and will be
135 reported separately. The final sample included healthy female (n = 21) and male (n = 18)
136 participants of varying fitness levels. The equal distribution of menstrual phases (based on
137 self-report and divided into three phases: follicular, ovulatory, and luteal) for the
138 experimental days was estimated using a χ^2 -test (Wilson, 1927) and showed neither
139 significant differences on each experimental day nor between days (see Table S2).
140

141 **Effective induction of heat pain**

142 As a first step, we verified the successful application of the calibrated heat pain intensities
143 in the placebo (saline; SAL) condition. A significant main effect of stimulus intensity on
144 heat pain ratings was observed (β = 1.42, CI [1.37,1.48], SE = 0.03, t(1358.65)= 51.84, $P <$
145 2×10^{-16}; Figure 2A, Table S3, and S4). Corroborating this, our fMRI data showed blood
146 oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) activation changes in key brain regions associated
147 with pain processing such as the right anterior Insula (antIns; Figure 2B; MNI_{xyz}: 36, 6, 14,
148 T = 10.35, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} < 0.001$), right dorsal posterior Insula (dpIns; Figure 2C; MNI_{xyz}: 39, -
149 15, 18, T = 7.65, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} < 0.001$) and right middle cingulate cortex (MCC; Figure 2D;
150 MNI_{xyz}: 6, 10, 39, T = 7.47, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} = 0.001$). The parameter estimates from the respective
151 peak voxels mirrored the behavioural response pattern (Figure 2E-G). Overall, this confirms
152 the successful administration of thermal heat stimuli at the intended intensities. For an
153 uncorrected activation map at $P_{uncorr} < 0.001$ of the entire brain see Figure S2.

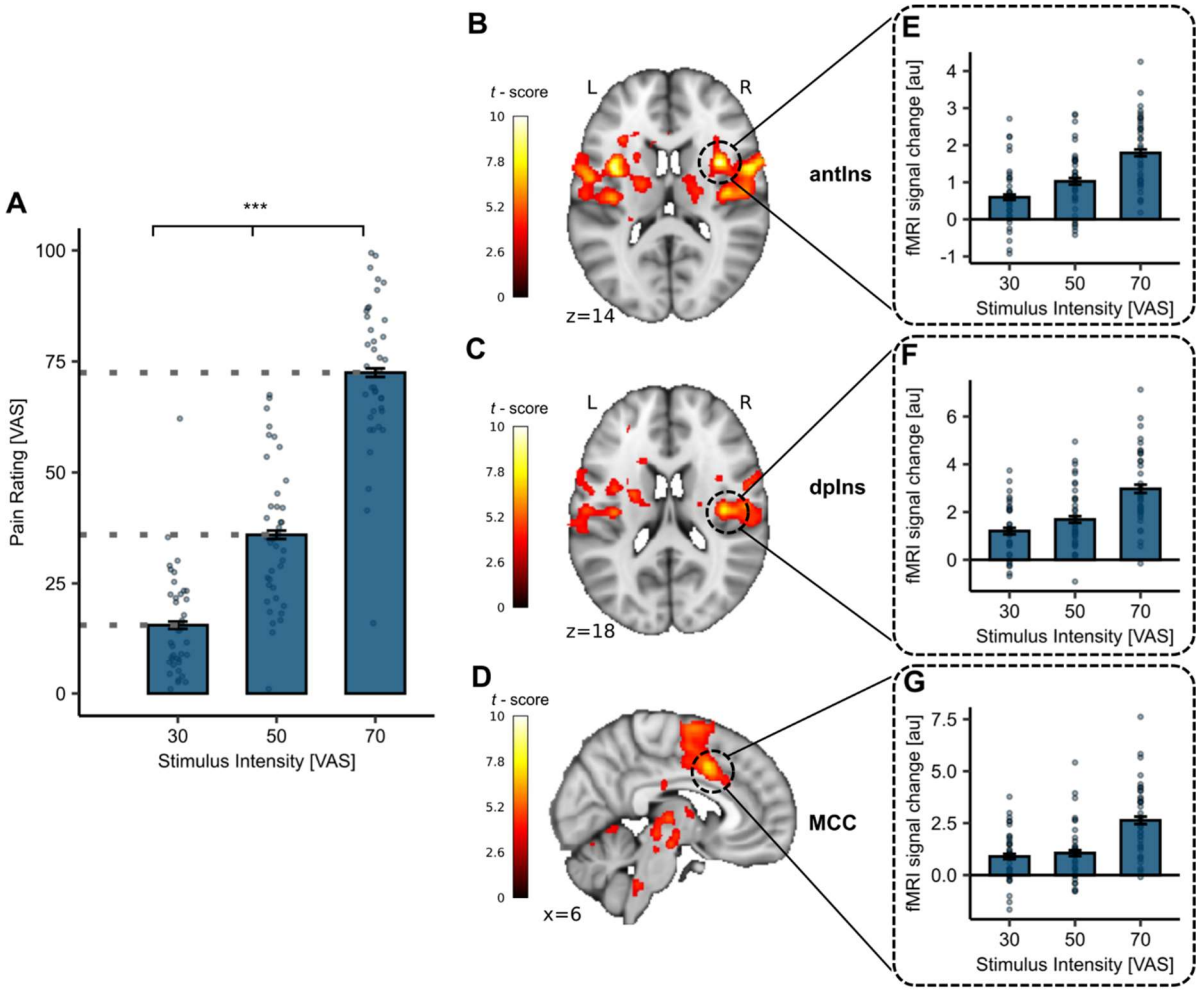

Figure 2. Behavioural and fMRI results for successful pain induction. (**A**) Heat pain ratings in the SAL condition for all stimulus intensities (VAS 30, 50, 70) showed a significant main effect of stimulus intensity ($P < 2\times10^{-16}$). The *P*-value reflects the significant main effect of stimulus intensity from the linear mixed effect model (LMER). (**B-D**) Significant activation for the parametric effect (Heat VAS 70 > 50 > 30) in the SAL condition in the (B) right antIns (MNI_{xyz}: 36, 6, 14; T = 10.35, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} < 0.001$), (C) right dpIns ($MNI_{xyz}$: 39, -15, 18, T = 7.65, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} < 0.001$) and (D) right MCC ($MNI_{xyz}$: 6, 10, 39; T = 7.47, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} = 0.001$). Displayed are the uncorrected activation maps ($P_{uncorr} < 0.001$) for visualisation purposes. (**E-G**) Bars depict mean parameter estimates from the respective peak voxels for all stimulus intensities across participants whereas dots display subject-specific mean parameter estimates at the respective stimulus intensity. *P*-values were calculated using the LMER model for the fixed effect of stimulus intensity. * $P < 0.05$, **, $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. Error bars depict SEM ($N = 39$).

Implementation of exercise intervention

As a next step, we aimed to confirm the successful implementation of our exercise intervention. This intervention comprised previously calibrated high-intensity (HI) and low-intensity (LI) exercise conditions, where the anticipated intensities were derived from the individual functional threshold power (FTP) value determined on Day 1 (Figure 1A). The anticipated power during HI power was set to 100% whereas LI power was set to 55% of FTP. As intended, the maintained power during cycling was significantly higher in the HI exercise condition compared to the LI exercise condition ($t(37) = 16.09$, $P < 2.2\times10^{-16}$, mean $\text{power}_{\text{diff}} = 60.26\text{W}$, $d = 0.61$, $n = 38$). Furthermore, the relative Power (as % of FTP) was significantly different between the exercise conditions ($t(37) = 44.58$, $P < 2.2\times10^{-16}$, $d = 6.46$, $n = 38$; Figure 3A). Supporting this, the mean absolute heart rate was significantly higher in the HI exercise condition compared to the LI exercise condition ($t(33) = 20.48$, $P < 2.2\times10^{-16}$, mean $\text{bpm}_{\text{diff}} = 26.92$, $d = 1.85$, $n = 34$, Figure 3B). In one participant the power recording was incomplete ($n = 38$) and five participants had faulty HR recordings in one session ($n = 34$) due to an instrumentation error. Nevertheless, the actual power and HR maintained throughout the blocks were also visually monitored. Furthermore, participants rated their perceived level of exertion (RPE) on a BORG scale from 6 to 20 following each exercise block. The mean RPE across all HI and LI exercise blocks was also significantly higher after HI compared to LI exercise ($t(38) = 19.65$, $P < 2.2\times10^{-16}$, mean $\text{RPE}_{\text{diff}} = 6.32$, $d = 3.69$, $n = 39$; Figure 3C). Thus, the calibration and implementation of the exercise intensities were successful. To account for a potential expectation about the effect of acute exercise on pain we have conducted a questionnaire (Lindheimer et al., 2020) on the calibration day (Day 1) to capture this. However, there were no significant expectation effects on different pain domains evident (Figure S3) suggesting that expectation is unlikely to have influenced the results.

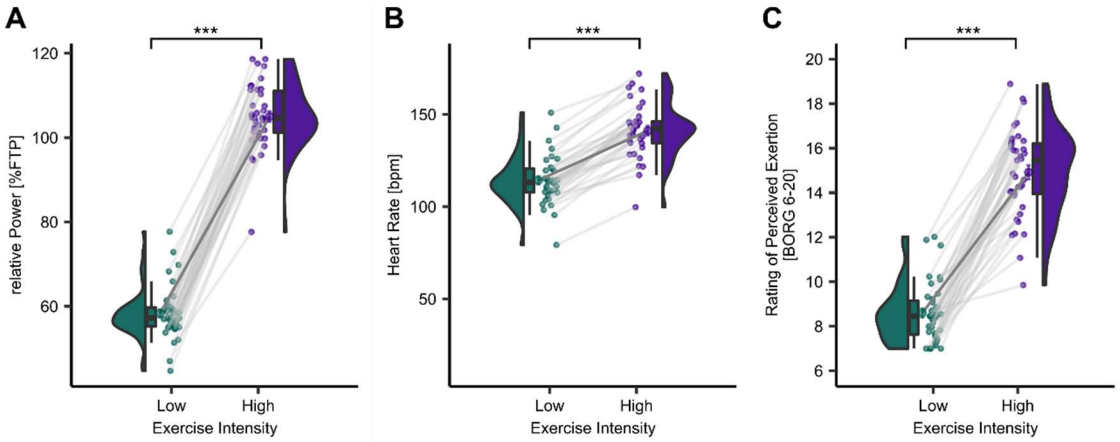

Figure 3. Successful implementation of high- (HI) and low-intensity (LI) exercise. (**A**) Relative Power (%FTP), (**B**) heart rate in beats per minute (bpm), and (**C**) rating of perceived exertion (RPE; BORG scale) during low- (LI; green) and high-intensity (HI; purple) cycling were all significantly different. *P*-values were calculated using a paired *t*-test (two-tailed, power: $N = 38$, heart rate: $N = 34$, BORG: $N = 39$). * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

The effect of drug treatment in response to stimulus intensity

Next, we investigated the effect of our drug treatment with the μ-opioid antagonist naloxone (NLX). Previous studies have shown that NLX can increase perceived pain by blocking the effect of endogenous opioids (Eippert et al., 2009; Schoell et al., 2010). In line with those findings, we observed a significant interaction of drug and stimulus intensity on heat pain ratings ($\beta = 0.10$, CI [0.02, 0.18], $SE = 0.04$, $t(2755) = 2.46$, $P = 0.01$; Figure 4A, Table S5, and S6), where, with increasing stimulus intensities the differences between ratings in the NLX and SAL condition increased ($\beta = 2.00$, *CI* [0.40, 3.61], $SE = 0.81$, $t(77) = 2.46$, $P = 0.02$; Figure 4B, Table S7). We also investigated this interaction of drug and stimulus intensity between sexes and observed this interaction in females ($\beta = 0.17$, *CI* [0.06, 0.28], $SE = 0.06$, $t(1471) = 3.00$, $P = 0.003$; Figure 4C and Table S8) but not in males ($\beta = 0.02$, *CI* [-0.09, 0.13], $SE = 0.06$, $t(1255) = 0.32$, $P = 0.75$; Figure 4D and Table S9). The difference in pain ratings between the drug treatment conditions revealed a significant main

effect of stimulus intensity (β = 3.41, *CI* [1.27, 5.54], *SE* = 1.09, $t(76)$ = 3.12, P = 0.003) and sex (β = 9.75, *CI* [1.23, 18.23], *SE* = 4.42, $t(101.60)$ = 2.21, P = 0.03; Figure 4E and Table S10). In contrast to females, males showed an overall large drug effect at every stimulus intensity. These findings demonstrate a robust drug effect, where pain ratings increased by blocking μ-opioid receptors. The increasing magnitude of the drug effect with increasing stimulus intensities indicates that the opioidergic system might be more extensively employed by more intense noxious stimuli. Since this magnitude differs for lower intensities between males and females it also indicates a possible sex-dependent effect regarding endogenous opioids.

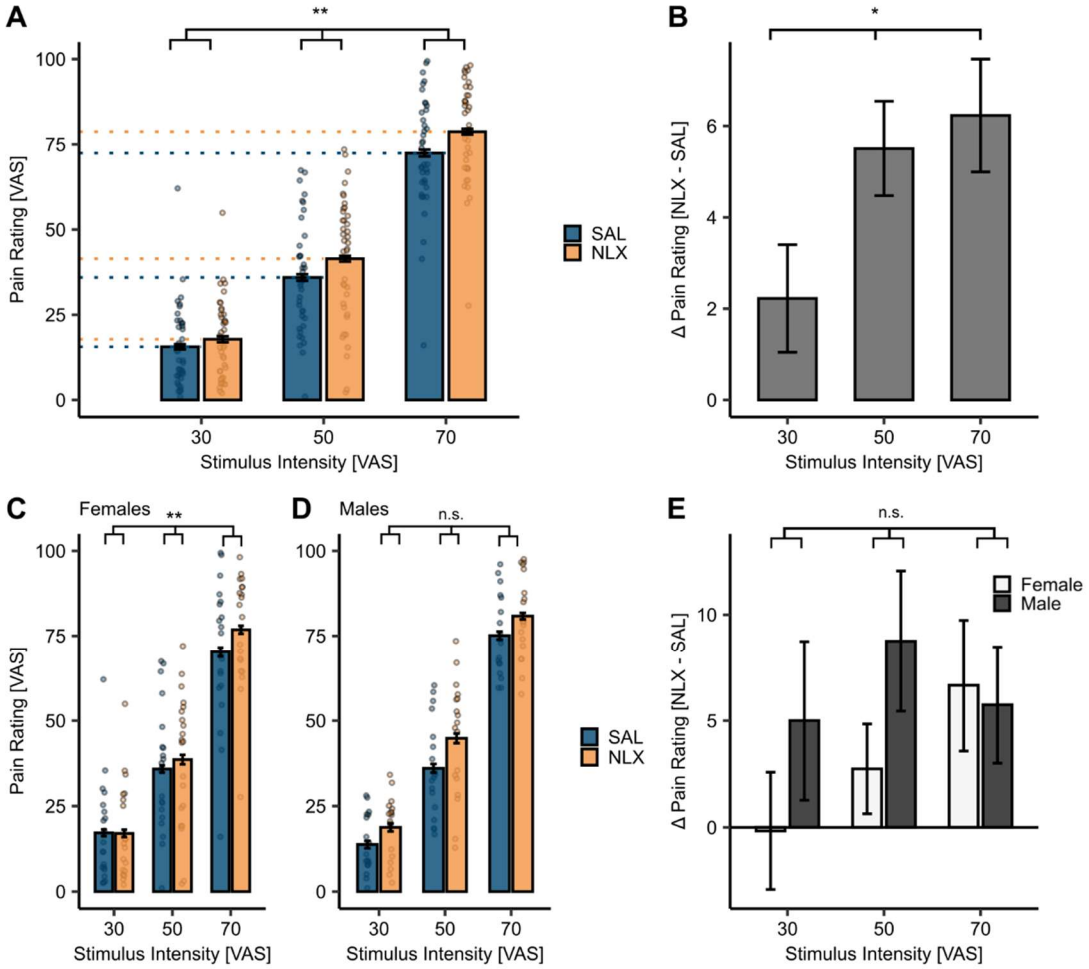

Figure 4. Behavioural results for the effect of drug treatment on pain. (**A**) Heat pain ratings revealed a significant interaction between drug and stimulus intensity (P = 0.01). Mean heat pain ratings were significantly higher under naloxone NLX treatment (orange) compared to placebo (SAL) (blue)

across stimulus intensities. The *P*-value indicates a significant interaction effect of stimulus intensity and drug. (**B**) Differences in heat pain ratings between NLX and SAL condition (NLX – SAL) at each stimulus intensity revealed a significant main effect of stimulus intensity ($P = 0.02$). (**C-D**) Heat pain ratings at all stimulus intensities in both drug treatment conditions are significantly higher in NLX (orange) compared to SAL (blue) conditions for both sexes. In females (C), a significant interaction of stimulus intensity and drug was evident ($P = 0.003$) but not in (D) males ($P = 0.75$). (**E**) Differences in heat pain ratings between NLX and SAL condition (NLX – SAL) at each stimulus intensity for females (white) and males (dark grey) revealed a significant main effect of stimulus intensity ($P = 0.003$) and sex ($P = 0.03$) with an interaction showing a trend ($P = 0.06$). *P*-values were calculated using the LMER model for the interaction of stimulus intensity and drug. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. Error bars depict the SEM ($N = 39$).

In the next step, we identified brain regions associated with pain processing and opioidergic pain modulation. We observed a significant activation (contrast interaction of stimulus intensity and drug treatment) in the PAG (MNI_{xyz}: -2, -24, -8, T = 5.17, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC} = 0.01$; Figure 5A). The extracted parameter estimates from the peak voxel showed that NLX increased activation compared to SAL, especially for the highest stimulus intensity (Figure 5B and 5C). We used post-stimulus averaging (Finite Impulse Response or FIR model) to extract the mean time course for the highest-intensity stimulus (VAS 70). A significant difference in activation was evident seven seconds after stimulus onset (BOLD response) for the remainder of the stimulus in the peak voxel in the PAG (Figure 5D; for an uncorrected map at $P_{uncorr} < 0.001$ see Figure S4). We also investigated the contrast heat NLX > heat SAL where activation in the right antIns showed a trend at whole-brain correction (MNI_{xyz}: 46, 8, 6, T = 5.70, $P_{corr\text{-}WB} = 0.08$; Figure S5).

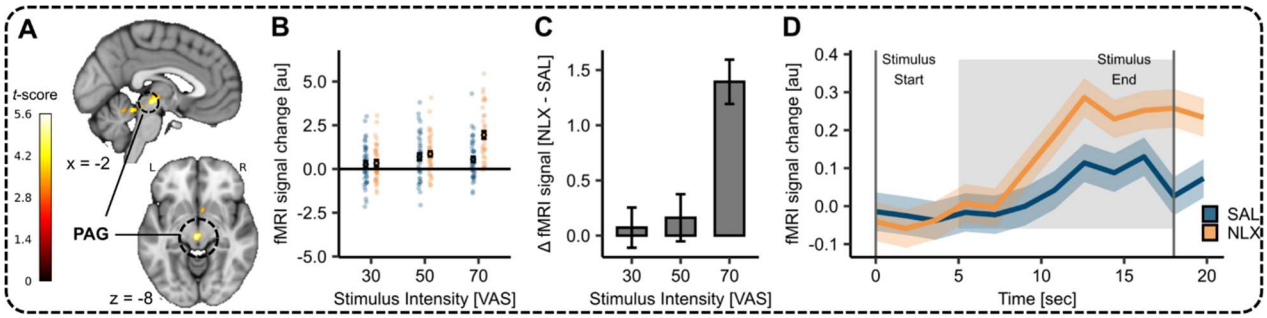

Figure 5. Effect of NLX in the periaqueductal grey (PAG). (**A**) Activation for the interaction of stimulus intensity and drug in the PAG (MNI_{xyz}: -2, -24, -8, T = 5.17, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC} = 0.01$) superimposed onto an MNI template brain. (**B**) Parameter estimates for SAL (blue) and NLX (orange) conditions for the respective peak voxel in the PAG (MNI_{xyz}: -2, -24, -8). (**C**) Difference between parameter estimates of the peak voxel between NLX and SAL condition at each stimulus intensity. (**D**) Time course of BOLD responses for SAL (blue) and NLX (orange) during high pain (VAS 70) in this voxel. The shaded areas depict the SEM. The grey solid lines indicate the start and end of the painful stimulus. The shaded grey area displays the approximate time window for BOLD response taking into account a 5s delay of the hemodynamic response function.

No difference between HI and LI aerobic exercise on pain modulation

After we established a successful exercise and drug intervention, we investigated the modulating effect of exercise intensity on pain ratings and neuronal responses in the SAL condition. We were unable to support our preregistered hypothesis of a main effect of exercise intensity on pain as there was no hypoalgesic effect evident in the behavioural pain ratings comparing HI to LI exercise in the SAL condition ($\beta = 1.19$, *CI* [-1.85, 4.22], $SE = 1.55$, $t(1354) = 0.77$, $P = 0.44$; Figure 6A, blue bars and Table S11). Furthermore, there were no significant differences in BOLD activation between both exercise conditions (contrasts: exercise high > low (SAL) or exercise low > high (SAL)). For the uncorrected activation maps at $P_{uncorr} < 0.01$ please refer to Figures S6 and S7. Additionally, we extracted the parameter estimates from the preregistered ROIs (RVM, PAG, and frontal midline; Figure 6B-D) and estimated the LMER models with exercise intensity on parameter

273 estimates in the SAL condition (Figure 6E-G, blue bars). None of these models yielded a
274 significant main effect of exercise intensity (Tables S12-S14).
275
276 Despite not detecting a hypoalgesic effect of exercise intensity in the SAL condition, we
277 investigated whether naloxone might alter the pain ratings depending on the exercise
278 intensity. We estimated an LMER model with exercise intensity and drug treatment which
279 yielded a significant main effect of drug treatment (β = 4.50, *CI* [1.36, 7.64], *SE* = 1.60,
280 $t(2755) = 2.81$, $P = 0.005$) but no significant interaction effect of exercise intensity and drug
281 treatment (β = 0.27, *CI* [-4.17, 4.71], *SE* = 2.27, $t(2755) = 0.12$, $P = 0.91$; Figure 6A and
282 Table S15). For completeness, we have extended this model to include stimulus intensity,
283 yielding no significant interaction of exercise intensity, drug treatment, and stimulus
284 intensity (β = -0.05, *CI* [-0.20, 0.11], *SE* = 0.08, $t(2751) = -0.56$, $P = 0.58$; Figure S8).
285 Corroborating this, there were no significant differences in BOLD activation for the
286 contrasts interaction drug treatment x exercise intensity (positive and negative weights). For
287 completeness, we visualised the uncorrected BOLD activation maps at $P_{uncorr} < 0.01$ in
288 Figures S9 and S10. We again extracted the parameter estimates from the preregistered ROIs
289 (Figure 6B-D) across both treatment conditions and estimated the LMER models with the
290 interaction of exercise intensity and drug treatment on parameter estimates from the
291 respective ROIs (Figure 6E-G). None of these models yielded a significant interaction effect
292 of stimulus intensity and drug treatment (Tables S16-S18). Since we could not establish a
293 difference in the hypoalgesic effect of HI and LI aerobic exercise in the SAL condition, our
294 preregistered hypothesis of reducing the hypoalgesic effect through naloxone administration
295 behaviourally and neuronally could not be confirmed at neither of the exercise intensities.
296

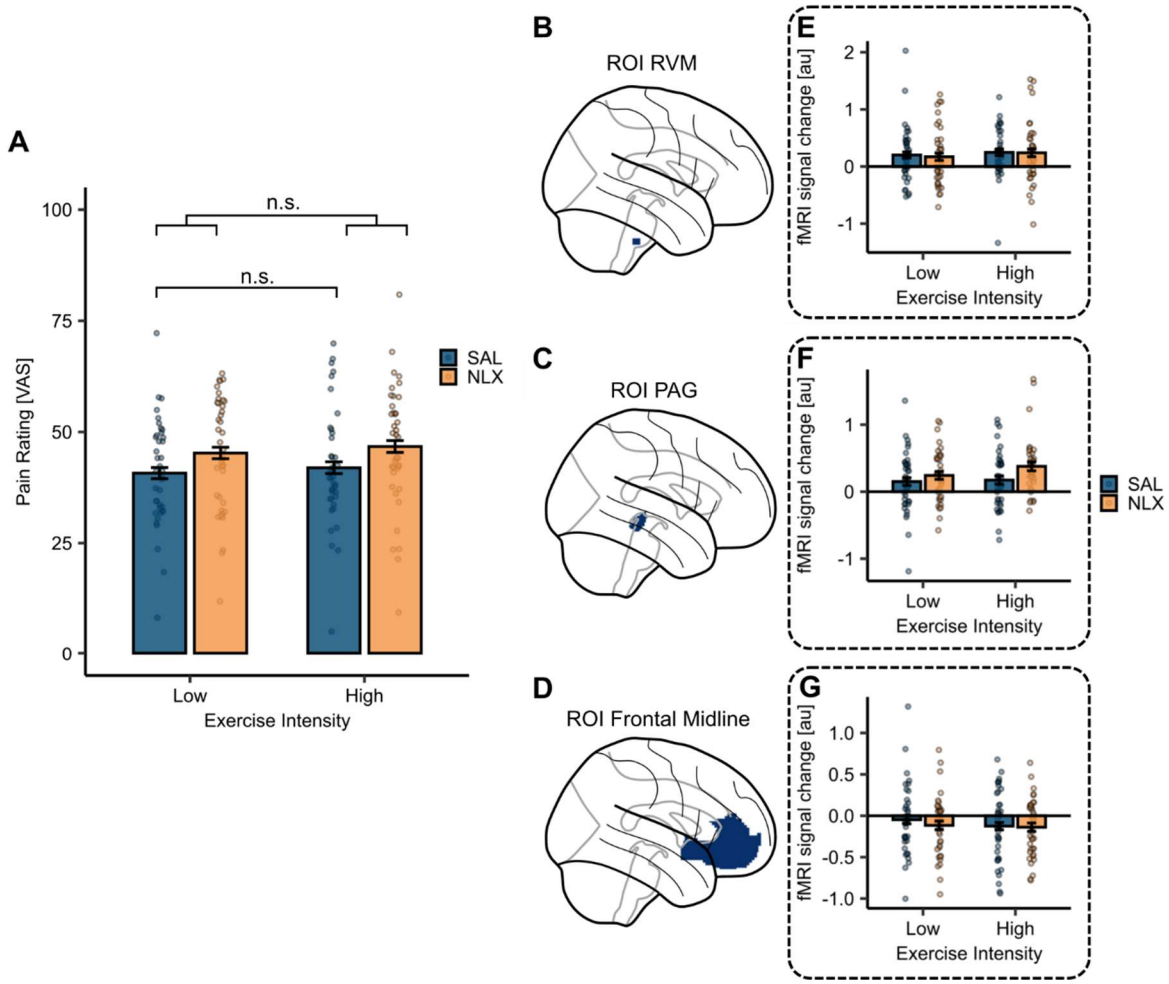

Figure 6. Effect of exercise intensity and drug treatment on pain modulation. (**A**) No significant main effect of exercise intensity on pain ratings in the SAL condition ($P = 0.44$, blue bars). The P-value was calculated using the LMER model with exercise intensity. In a separate LMER model for the interaction of exercise intensity and drug treatment, this interaction effect was not significant ($P = 0.91$) but a significant main effect of drug treatment ($P = 0.005$) was evident. Bars depict the average pain ratings in the SAL (blue) and NLX (orange) conditions in both exercise conditions averaged across all stimulus intensities and the dots represent the subject-specific average ratings averaged across all stimulus intensities. Error bars depict the SEM ($N = 39$). (**B-D**) Regions of interest (ROIs) in the (B) RVM, (C) PAG, and (D) frontal midline (comprised of ACC and vmPFC). (**E-G**) Parameter estimates extracted from both exercise and treatment conditions for the respective ROIs showed no significant effect of exercise intensity in the SAL condition (Tables S12 – S14) as

well as no interaction of stimulus intensity with drug treatment (Tables S16 – S18). n.s. = not significant, * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

Potential association of exercise-induced pain modulation with fitness level in the medial frontal cortex (mFC)

Although not preregistered, we additionally explored whether accounting for the different fitness levels of our participants in the statistical model can yield an exercise-induced analgesia effect. As a measure of fitness levels, we utilised the FTP (W/kg), and for ease of interpretation, we further used the difference scores between pain ratings after low- (LI) and high-intensity (HI) exercise bouts (LI – HI exercise pain ratings). Positive difference scores indicate hypoalgesia (i.e. higher pain ratings after LI exercise) whereas negative difference scores indicate hyperalgesia (i.e. higher pain ratings after HI exercise). This exploratory analysis showed a significant main effect of fitness level on differences in pain ratings in the SAL condition ($\beta = 6.45$, CI [1.25, 11.65], $SE = 2.56$, $t(38) = 2.52$, $P = 0.02$; Table S19) suggesting increased hypoalgesia with increasing fitness levels after HI compared to LI exercise, pooled across all stimulus intensities (Figure 7A). In the brain, the corresponding contrast (exercise high > exercise low with the mean-centered covariate FTP (W/kg)) was also investigated in the SAL condition. Here we observed a significant activation of the medial frontal cortex (mFC; MNI_{xyz}: 6, 45, 10; T = 4.59, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC} = 0.05$; Figure 7B). The parameter estimates from this voxel revealed that an increase in fitness level was negatively associated with the difference scores between parameter estimates from the drug treatment conditions (Figure 7C). These results suggest that the extent and direction of exercise-induced pain modulation potentially depend on the individual fitness levels and might be mediated by the mFC. (See Figure S11 for pain ratings and parameter estimates separately for HI and LI exercise and Figure S12 for an uncorrected activation map at $P_{uncorr} < 0.001$).

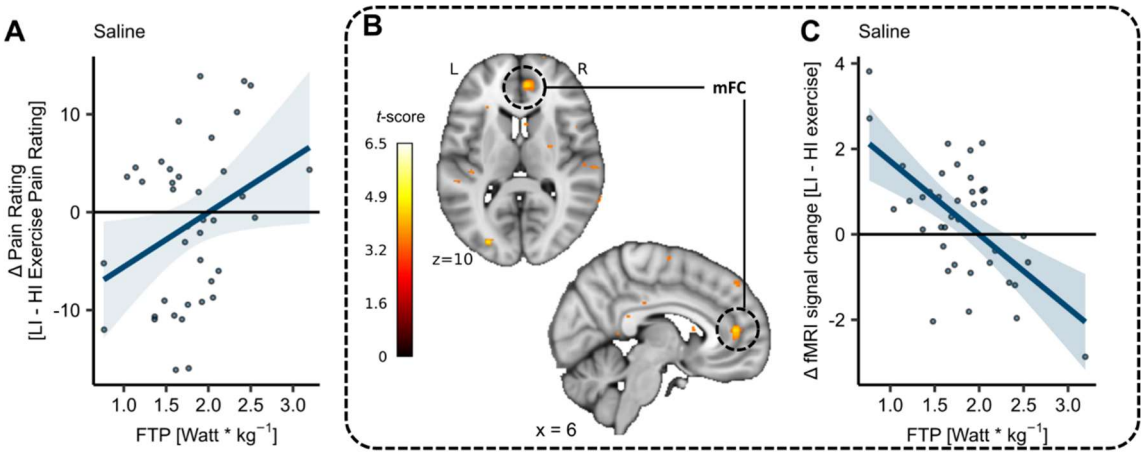

Figure 7. Fitness level on difference pain ratings (LI-HI exercise) and mFC activation. (**A**) Subject-specific differences in heat pain ratings (dots) between low-intensity (LI) and high-intensity (HI) exercise conditions (LI – HI exercise pain ratings) and corresponding regression line pooled across all stimulus intensities in the SAL condition. Fitness level (FTP) showed a significant positive relation to heat pain ratings with a significant main effect of FTP (P = 0.02) on difference ratings. (**B**) Cortical activation for contrast: exercise high > exercise low with mean-centred covariate FTP (weight-corrected) in the right mFC (MNI_{xyz}: 6, 45, 10; T = 4.59, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC}$ = 0.05) across all stimulus intensities in the SAL condition superimposed onto an MNI template brain. (**C**) Differences between parameter estimates of LI and HI exercise conditions (LI – HI exercise parameter estimates) from respective peak voxel, plotted for each subject as a function of fitness level (FTP). Regression lines are visualised and shaded areas represent the SEM (N = 39).

Exploring the effect of sex, fitness level, and endogenous opioids on exercise-induced pain modulation along the mFC

As a second, not preregistered, exploratory analysis we tested for sex effects in exercise-induced pain modulation. This was motivated by our preceding analyses suggesting that males and females differ in the modulation of pain by NLX administration at different stimulus intensities (Figure 4E). We observed a significant interaction of sex, fitness level, and drug (β = -13.12, CI [-23.69, -2.56], SE = 5.42, t(190) = -2.43, P = 0.016, Figure 8A

354 and Figure 8B; Table S20). In the SAL condition, males showed larger hypoalgesia with
355 increasing fitness levels (Figure 8A, red line) whereas females showed no hypoalgesic
356 response regardless of fitness levels (Figure 8A, blue line). In the NLX condition, however,
357 there was no significant association between fitness levels and difference in pain score in
358 males (Figure 8B, red line) but a small positive correlation in females (Figure 8B, blue line).
359 These results possibly hint at diverging pain modulatory mechanisms in males and females
360 depending on their fitness level and drug treatment. In the next step, we investigated this
361 interaction of fitness level, sex, and drug in the neuroimaging data, formally implemented
362 as a two-sample (male vs. female) *t*-test for the interaction contrast between exercise
363 intensity and drug with the subject covariate of individual FTP. This revealed significant
364 activation in the mFC (MNI_{xyz}: 12, 64, 2; T = 4.78, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC}$ = 0.039; Figure 8C). The
365 parameter estimates from the peak voxel are shown for both drug treatment conditions and
366 both sexes in Figures 8D and 8E. In the SAL condition, males showed a negative association
367 of the difference (EIH) parameter estimates with fitness level (Figure 8D, red line), whereas
368 females showed a positive association (Figure 8D, blue line). Importantly, this pattern was
369 abolished under NLX (Figure 8E; see Figure S13 for an uncorrected activation map at P_{uncorr}
370 < 0.001). Despite being an exploratory analysis, these findings suggest an interaction
371 between sex and fitness level in opioidergic mechanisms that might mediate exercise-
372 induced pain modulation.
373

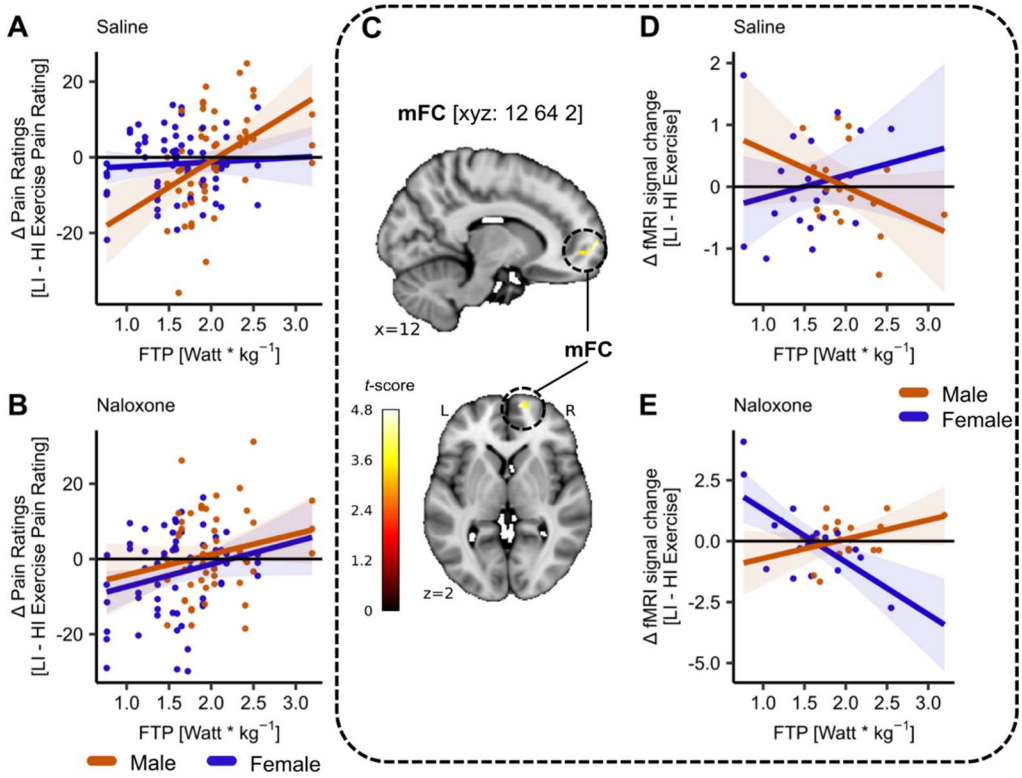

Figure 8. Exercise-induced pain modulation potentially depends on sex, fitness level, and drug treatment in mFC. (**A**) Exercise-induced pain modulation in the SAL condition for males (red) and females (blue). Males showed larger hypoalgesic responses with increasing fitness levels as indicated by positive difference ratings in the SAL condition. Females showed no association between fitness levels and difference ratings. (**B**) No exercise-induced pain modulation after blocking μ-opioid receptors with NLX in males (red) and females (blue). (**C**) The activation pattern in the mFC (MNI_{xyz}: 12, 64, 2; T = 4.78, $P_{corr\text{-}SVC} = 0.039$) resulting from a two-sample *t*-test (two-tailed) between males and females for contrast interaction of exercise and drug with covariate FTP superimposed onto an MNI template brain. (**D-E**) The difference in parameter estimates from the peak voxel in the mFC in (D) SAL and (E) NLX condition for males (red) and females (blue). Each dot represents the difference in parameter estimates between LI and HI exercise conditions (LI – HI exercise) for each subject averaged across all stimulus intensities. Shaded areas represent the SEM (female: $N = 21$, male: $N = 18$).

Discussion

This double-blind cross-over study aimed to disentangle the neural and pharmacological mechanisms of exercise-induced pain modulation in healthy individuals of varying fitness levels. Our data did not support our preregistered hypothesis of a main effect of exercise-induced pain modulation after high-intensity (HI) exercise compared to low-intensity (LI) exercise in the saline (SAL) condition. What is more, naloxone (NLX) administration resulted in increased pain ratings across both exercise conditions but showed no interaction with exercise intensity. These results suggest that there is no difference between HI and LI aerobic exercise on heat pain and, further, no direct involvement of the endogenous opioid system. In an exploratory analysis, we observed a significant interaction involving fitness level, sex, and drug administration where males exhibited greater hypoalgesia, particularly as fitness levels increased under the saline (SAL) condition. This effect was diminished upon administration of naloxone (NLX) and was also apparent in opioidergic regions of the pain modulatory system, namely the medial frontal cortex (mFC).

As expected, we were able to successfully induce heat pain at different stimulus intensities, mirrored by different levels of activation in the right anterior insula (antIns), right dorsal posterior insula (dpIns), and right midcingulate cortex (MCC). As part of a highly distributed pain processing system (Coghill, 2020; Tracey and Mantyh, 2007) the antIns has been established to encode pain intensity (Coghill, 2020) and salience (Wiech et al., 2010) whereas the dpIns has been shown to encode stimulus intensity and salience specific to heat pain (Horing et al., 2019; Segerdahl et al., 2015). The function of the MCC has been more equivocal since some studies attributed a domain-general function of integrating pain, negative affect, and cognitive control (Shackman et al., 2011) whereas others argued in favour of a domain-specific representation of painful stimulation (Kragel et al., 2018).

416

417 **Opioidergic mechanisms in heat pain**

418 Previous research has shown that heat pain is modulated by the descending pain modulatory
419 system including the PAG (Borras et al., 2004; Petrovic et al., 2002) mainly through
420 opioidergic mechanisms such as placebo analgesia (Eippert et al., 2009; Petrovic et al.,
421 2002; Tinnermann et al., 2022). Accordingly, studies showed VAS ratings of intense heat
422 stimuli to be increased after NLX administration (Borras et al., 2004; Kut et al., 2011), along
423 with a significant modulation of BOLD responses in the PAG (Eippert et al., 2009). In line
424 with this, we could show that NLX significantly increased perceived painfulness mirrored
425 by activation in the PAG (Corder et al., 2018). An important aspect of our study is that the
426 magnitude of opioidergic pain modulation increased with pain intensity in females, whereas
427 males showed a constant, but high magnitude of pain modulation across stimulus intensities
428 when NLX was administered. This finding suggests two things: firstly, endogenous pain
429 modulation through μ-opioid receptors increases with increasing pain intensity and,
430 secondly, the magnitude of this modulation differs between sexes. Since our study employed
431 a within-subject cross-over design with an established pharmacological intervention
432 (Leknes and Atlas, 2020; Trøstheim et al., 2022), we ensured our results were unbiased and
433 highly robust.

434

435 **No difference between HI and LI aerobic exercise on pain modulation**

436 We were unable to detect significant differences in pain ratings and BOLD signal between
437 the exercise conditions (HI and LI) in the SAL condition. Several factors might contribute
438 to this null finding. For one, the exercise intensities employed in this study might not have
439 been suitable to induce pain modulation. Most studies using peak oxygen consumption
440 (VO_{2max}) (Koltyn et al., 1996; Micalos and Arendt-Nielsen, 2016; Vaegter et al., 2014) or

441 the maximum heart rate (HR_{max}) (Gomolka et al., 2019; Gurevich et al., 1994; Jones et al.,
442 2017; M. D. Jones et al., 2019; Vaegter et al., 2014) as a measure of exercise intensity were
443 able to induce hypoalgesia with HI exercise ranging between 65%-75% VO_{2max} and above
444 70% HR_{max}. Previous research has further suggested that HI exercise produces greater
445 hypoalgesia compared to LI exercise (60-70% HR_{max} vs. light activity: M. D. Jones et al.,
446 2019; 70% vs. 50% HR_{max}: Naugle et al., 2014; 75% vs. 50% VO_{2max}: Vaegter et al., 2014).
447 What is more, previous studies have often employed a resting control condition, which
448 somehow limits the comparability of exercise conditions since a resting baseline does not
449 control for unspecific factors such as cognitive pain modulation (i.e. attentional load or
450 distraction) that is mediated by endogenous opioids (Brooks et al., 2017; Sprenger et al.,
451 2012) and, thus, potentially exercise. Furthermore, different aerobic exercise durations have
452 been shown to induce hypoalgesia with durations ranging between 8 minutes to 2 (for review
453 see Koltyn (2002)). Previous studies were able to induce hypoalgesia at 10-15 minutes of
454 HI aerobic exercise (75% VO_{2max}: Gomolka et al., 2019; 63% VO_{2max}: Gurevich et al., 1994;
455 self-paced: Haier et al., 1981; 60-70% HR_{max}: M. D. Jones et al., 2019; 85% HR_{max}:
456 Sternberg et al., 2001; 75% VO_{2max}: Vaegter et al., 2015). Thus, we opted for the control
457 condition of LI exercise instead of rest to also add to the knowledge of a dose-response
458 relationship of exercise intensity needed to induce a hypoalgesic effect. We confirmed the
459 intensities of both exercise conditions by physiological (heart rate (HR)) and behavioural
460 measures (rating of perceived exertion (RPE)). Participants indicated significant differences
461 in HR and RPE between both exercise conditions, confirming the actual and perceived
462 distinction between the exercise conditions.
463
464 Another factor to consider is that our study utilised the FTP_{20} test as a tool to determine the
465 highest power output a cyclist can maintain in a quasi-steady state (Allen and Coggan,

2006). It is frequently used in studies investigating athletes (Borszcz et al., 2020; Mackey and Horner, 2021; Mc Grath et al., 2019) and shows a high correlation with other measures such as the FTP_{60} test (r = 0.88) (Borszcz et al., 2018). Compellingly, the FTP_{20} test does not rely on approximations or self-reports but on the actual power maintained (Allen and Coggan, 2006). Previous reviews have shown that hypoalgesia following exercise is most reliably induced by HI (i.e., > 75% VO_{2max}) exercise (Koltyn, 2002; Naugle et al., 2012; Wewege and Jones, 2020). Thus, we decided to employ a HI exercise protocol using the FTP threshold as a reliable measure. Nevertheless, since our study is one of the first studies to employ this FTP_{20} test with a non-athlete, balanced sample of varying fitness levels, one could argue that the FTP_{20} test is not a reliable estimation of the HI exercise condition. Despite research showing that the FTP is a reliable marker of VO_{2max} (Denham et al., 2020), we did not directly measure blood lactate levels and VO_{2max} during the exercise and, thus, did not control for the intensity domains (i.e., moderate – heavy – severe). Since the FTP reflects the highest possible intensity by which a steady-state VO2 is maintained (Sørensen et al., 2019), the FTP might be a demarcation point between the heavy and severe domains (A. M. Jones et al., 2019); although this has been criticised (Wong et al., 2022). Consequently, some participants might have exercised in the severe domain during the HI exercise and in the moderate domain during the LI exercise. However, as mentioned above, the RPE and relative power (%FTP) still confirmed a successful implementation of the exercise intervention at the anticipated intensities suggesting the FTP_{20} test to be a reliable estimation of functional threshold power in our sample. Overall, we ensured the highest accuracy in determining the individual exercise intensities at HI and LI.

Furthermore, the composition of the sample, which included non-athletes with varying fitness levels and of both sexes, might have contributed to the missing difference between

HI and LI aerobic exercise on pain modulation. In human studies, many findings on exercise-induced pain modulation are derived from studies in athletes or physically active individuals showing increased hypoalgesia following exercise compared to subjects with lower fitness levels (Crombie et al., 2018; Geva and Defrin, 2013; Naugle and Riley, 2014; Schmitt et al., 2020). This observation might be related to greater exercise-induced opioid release in structures such as the periaqueductal grey (PAG) or the frontal medial cortex (including the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC)) in fitter individuals (Saanijoki et al., 2022; Sluka et al., 2018). Furthermore, exercise-induced analgesia in rodents and humans has predominantly been studied in all-male samples (Koltyn et al., 2014; Mogil, 2012; Niesters et al., 2010). Of those studies that have considered potential sex differences in exercise-induced pain modulation, some (Brellenthin et al., 2017; Koltyn et al., 2013; Naugle et al., 2014) could not reveal a sex effect, whereas others (Koltyn, 2000; Sternberg et al., 2001; Vaegter et al., 2014) revealed a stronger effect in females. This is in contrast to results in other domains, where opioid-dependent pain relief through conditioned pain modulation (Bulls et al., 2015; Ge et al., 2004; Granot et al., 2008) or placebo analgesia (Aslaksen et al., 2011; Desai et al., 2022) has been observed to be stronger in males. We deliberately did not employ professional athletes in this study but rather individuals of varying fitness levels of both sexes to make our results more applicable to the general population.

In the context of exercise-induced pain modulation, different types of pain have been investigated (i.e. thermal, pressure, and electrical) as well as different measurements of such (threshold, intensity, and tolerance) (for reviews see Koltyn, 2000; Naugle et al., 2012; Vaegter & Jones, 2020). For aerobic exercise, the highest effect sizes were reported for pressure pain (pain intensity: Cohen's d = 0.69) closely followed by heat pain (pain intensity: d = 0.59) (Naugle et al., 2012). Despite having successfully induced pressure pain

using computer-controlled cuff pressure algometry, we were unable to detect significant changes in pain ratings for different exercise intensities. However, most of the studies employing pressure pain used handheld algometry exerting local pressure which can be prone to experimenter bias (Vaegter and Jones, 2020) and those results obtained might not apply to cuff pressure pain. Thermal heat pain was the other chosen method to induce pain and, as mentioned above, we were able to successfully induce heat pain at different stimulus intensities, mirrored by different levels of activation in the right antIns, right dpIns, and right MCC. Since our method to induce thermal heat pain corresponds to the method used in previous studies, the results of this pain modality might be more comparable to those of existing studies.

Exploring the effect of fitness level and sex on exercise-induced pain modulation

Although not preregistered, we identified pain decreases following HI compared to LI exercise to be associated with higher individual fitness levels in the SAL condition. In agreement with previous studies (Geva and Defrin, 2013; Saanijoki et al., 2022; Schmitt et al., 2020; Tesarz et al., 2012), this suggests a dependence of exercise-induced pain modulation on individual fitness. Recent studies indirectly support this notion and observed higher self-reported physical activity levels to be associated with reduced temporal summation in heat pain (Naugle and Riley, 2014) and increased heat pain thresholds to be associated with individual fitness levels in males (Schmitt et al., 2020). In a larger cohort, an association between physical activity levels and pressure pain tolerance (Årnes et al., 2023) as well as cold pressor pain tolerance (Årnes et al., 2021) was observed. Along with our behavioural findings, we identified increased activation in the mFC after HI exercise to be associated with higher fitness levels in the SAL condition. Previous research has reported increased activation in the rACC to be associated with opioid analgesia (Petrovic et al.,

541 2002; Tinnermann et al., 2022), thus implying opioidergic involvement of this structure in
542 mediating exercise-induced pain modulation (Petrovic et al., 2002). Adding to this, the
543 pregenual ACC showed decreased activation in response to painful heat following a 2-h run
544 compared to before the run in trained male elite runners (Scheef et al., 2012). Furthermore,
545 larger decreases in μ-opioid receptor binding in regions including the ACC, bilateral insula,
546 and OFC in healthy males have been observed to be associated with higher self-reported
547 physical fitness levels (Saanijoki et al., 2022). This finding could support observations
548 showing that repeated exercise "trains" the mFC, which has a high μ-opioid receptor density
549 (Corder et al., 2018) and thus enables exercise-induced pain modulation even in the context
550 of brief bouts of HI exercise.
551
552 Furthermore, we explored the interaction between sex, fitness level, and drug, where males
553 exhibited larger hypoalgesia following HI exercise with increasing fitness levels, which was
554 attenuated by NLX. This pattern was not evident in females. Our brain data also showed
555 this three-way interaction in the mFC. More precisely, in the SAL condition, males showed
556 higher activation after HI exercise compared to LI exercise in association with higher fitness
557 levels, and this pattern was reversed in the NLX condition. Females showed the reversed
558 pattern to males in both, SAL and NLX, conditions. Since rodent and early human research
559 have also predominantly employed male samples to avoid hormonal-related fluctuations
560 (Mogil, 2012; Mogil and Chanda, 2005), this might have led to an over-generalisation of
561 opioidergic effects (Koltyn et al., 2014; Mogil, 2012) whilst neglecting sex differences in
562 opioid analgesia (Bodnar and Kest, 2010; Niesters et al., 2010). Hence, it comes as no
563 surprise that findings in humans are heterogeneous (Koltyn, 2000; Wewege and Jones,
564 2020) with some studies showing no difference in exercise-induced pain modulation
565 between males and females (Koltyn et al., 2014, 2013; Smith, 2004) whereas other studies

566 showed hypoalgesia from exercise to be greater in women (Vaegter et al., 2014) but most
567 research on exercise-induced pain modulation has been conducted in men. The few existing
568 imaging studies show that frontal midline structures (ACC, OFC) with high opioid receptor
569 concentration are involved in exercise-induced (pain) modulation (Boecker et al., 2008;
570 Saanijoki et al., 2022; Scheef et al., 2012). A recent meta-analysis has shown that increases
571 in the medial frontal cortex (including the vmPFC) activity along with reduced activation in
572 regions associated with noxious stimuli (i.e. ACC) could be linked to an expectation of
573 reduced pain, in this case, after HI exercise (Atlas and Wager, 2014). When comparing
574 athletes and non-athletes, one study identified an interaction of sex and athletic status where
575 female athletes displayed significantly lower cold pressor ratings than female non-athletes,
576 but there was no difference in men (Smith, 2004). These exploratory findings suggest sex-
577 dependent and fitness level-dependent effects in exercise-induced pain modulation but do
578 not provide a definite answer. Future research should further investigate the role of sex and
579 fitness levels concerning exercise-induced hypoalgesia, specifically investigating females
580 with higher fitness levels.
581
582 **Limitations**
583 One limitation that should be considered when interpreting the results is the influence of
584 other mediating factors in exercise-induced pain modulation such as endocannabinoids
585 (eCB; Crombie et al., 2018; Siebers et al., 2021). Previous animal studies have established
586 their crucial influence in modulating mood and promoting anxiolysis following exercise
587 (Fuss et al., 2015). In humans, however, the interpretability of results remains limited since
588 only peripheral eCB can be measured and central eCB blockage is difficult.
589

590 In conclusion, our study showed no difference in pain modulatory effects between HI and
591 LI aerobic exercise, neither behaviourally nor in brain responses. However, explorative
592 analyses suggested that there is, in fact, an interaction between sex and fitness level in
593 mediating exercise-induced pain modulation through opioidergic mechanisms in the mFC.
594 To thoroughly investigate this, future research should specifically address the link between
595 endogenous opioids, fitness levels, and sex-dependent differences in exercise-induced pain
596 modulation.
597

Materials and Methods

The study was preregistered with the WHO-accredited *Deutsches Register für Klinische Studien* (DRKS; Study ID: DRKS00029064; German Registry for clinical studies) before data acquisition.

Experimental Design

This randomized control fMRI study employed a pharmacological intervention with the μ-opioid antagonist NLX in a within-subject design and was divided into a calibration and two experimental days (Figure 1). On the experimental days, participants cycled outside the MR for 10 minutes at HI or LI on a stationary bike per block. Afterward, they rated the perceived painfulness of heat and pressure stimuli inside the MR. This procedure was repeated for four blocks per experimental day. The objective of this study was to identify the behavioural, pharmacological, and neuronal underpinnings of exercise-induced pain modulation.

Participants

Forty-eight healthy, right-handed participants were invited to take part in the study. In the framework of the within-subject design, all participants underwent all conditions which included an exercise factor (high vs. low exercise intensity) and a pharmacological intervention (NLX vs. SAL). All participants received the pharmacological intervention in a randomized double-blind fashion on separate study days, where the μ-opioid antagonist NLX or placebo SAL was administered i.v. Our final sample size was determined based on previous behavioural studies investigating exercise-induced pain modulation after aerobic exercise in a pre-post measurement design across different pain modalities ($d = 0.59$ for heat pain intensity, $d = 0.69$ for pressure pain intensity) (Naugle et al., 2012). According to this, a sample size of $N = 39$ was sufficient to reveal results at effect size $f = 0.3$, (via G*Power

3.1, α = .05, 1-α = 0.95, 1 group, 2 measurements with correlation r = 0.5). Based on previous fMRI studies it can also be assumed that a sample size of N = 30 would be sufficient to detect changes in the brain (Mumford, 2012). In this study, the term "sex" refers to "sex assigned at birth" as indicated by self-reports from the participants. Multiple options ("male", "female", "other", and free text field) were provided. All participants reported having been assigned the "female" of "male" sex at birth.

Exclusion of participants

Upon entering the study, participants were screened for anxiety (State and Trait questionnaires of the German short version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory; STAI) (Laux et al., 1981), depression (Beck Depression Inventory 2; BDI-II) (Beck et al., 2011) as well as potential MR contraindications. Furthermore, participants' body mass index (BMI) was required to range between 18 and 30. On the first day of the study, an electrocardiogram (ECG; cardiofax, Electrocardiograph-1250, Nihon Koden) was recorded to prove no cardiovascular irregularities. The age of participants was between 18 and 45 years. Eight participants were excluded from the study for the following reasons. Two participants withdrew from the study after the first day due to circumstantial reasons (moving, no appointment found). Two participants were excluded after day one due to an unreliable thermal calibration and a BMI score below 18, respectively. Two participants did not wish to continue the study after day two due to personal reasons. Two participants were excluded after day two due to a syncope when administering the drug (in both cases SAL has been administered). Upon data screening, one subject was excluded due to excessive movement (> 0.6 mm difference between volumes within runs in more than 5% of volumes in all runs) in the MR scanner. A total of thirty-nine participants (Age: M = 26.03, SD = 4.8, 21 female) were included in the final sample (Table S21).

648

649 **Ethics approval**

650 The study was approved by the Ethics committee of the medical board in Hamburg
651 ('Aerztekammer') and conducted following the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical
652 Association, 2013). All subjects provided informed consent upon entering the study after
653 having been informed about the study procedures including thermal and pressure
654 stimulation, the MR procedure, the double-blind nature of the pharmacological intervention,
655 and potential adverse effects of NLX by the study investigator and study physician. Upon
656 completing or leaving the study, participants were informed of the order of pharmacological
657 treatment received by the unblinded study physician.

658

659 **Thermal and Pressure Stimuli**

660 Thermal stimulation was applied using a thermode (TSA-2, Medoc, Israel) attached to the
661 left lower arm where four 2.5x2.5 cm squares were drawn below each other and numbered
662 (Figure 1A). For the calibration, the thermode head was positioned in the second square.
663 Each thermal stimulus lasted up to 17 seconds in total with a plateau of 15 seconds and a
664 ramp speed of 13°C/s (ramp-up, ramp-down). For the pressure calibration, a computer-
665 controlled cuff pressure algometer (CPAR; NociTech, Denmark, and Aalborg University,
666 Denmark) consisting of a compressor tube and 13 cm wide tourniquet cuff (VBM medical,
667 Sulz, Germany, 61 cm length) was used. The cuff was mounted to the left upper arm with a
668 3 cm distance to the cubital fossa to exert pressure on the upper arm tissue (Graven-Nielsen
669 et al., 2015). Additionally, a protective tubular elastic dressing (Tricofix, D/5, 6 cmx20 cm)
670 was positioned underneath the cuff to protect the bare skin from potential harm. The pressure
671 was applied by inflating the chambers of the cuff with a maximal pressure limit of 100

672 kilopascal (kPa) and a rise speed dependent on the target pressure. The stimulus length of
673 the pressure stimuli was also up to 17 seconds (ramp-up, 15s plateau, ramp-down).
674
675 **Calibration Procedure (Day 1)**
676 The first day of the study took place outside the MR scanner and served as a calibration day
677 (Figure 1A). Blood pressure, baseline heart rate (HR), and oxygen saturation (SPO2) were
678 measured using a blood pressure cuff (boso medicus uno, bosch+sohn) and a pulse oximeter
679 (pulox® Pusloximeter, Novidion GmbH), respectively. The thermal and pressure stimuli
680 were calibrated individually but with an identical protocol in a pseudo-randomized order
681 across participants. During calibration, participants remained in a supine position with the
682 blinds down to emulate the inside of the MR scanner bore. As an initial step, participants
683 received two low stimuli (10/20 kPa or 41°C/42°C) to get acquainted with the stimuli.
684 Following this, the pain threshold was estimated by applying six adaptive stimuli which
685 were rated on a binary scale (painful vs. not painful). The resulting pain threshold was used
686 as a basis for the following linear regression algorithm aiming to collect ratings across
687 different intensities on a Visual Analog Scale (10, 30, 50, 70, 90 VAS). After each stimulus,
688 participants had to rate its painfulness ('How painful was the last stimulus?") on a VAS
689 ranging from 0 (minimally painful) to 100 (almost unbearably painful) using the left and
690 right key of a pointer as a button box (Logitech) with their right hand. The calibration was
691 finished once sufficient rating coverage for all target intensities was reached. The thermal
692 and pressure calibration aimed to identify super threshold intensities (°C and kPa)
693 corresponding to 30, 50, and 70 on the VAS scale using this linear regression algorithm
694 yielding comparable intensities across subjects.
695
696 **Functional Threshold Power Test (Day 1)**

697 As a final step of the calibration day, a functional threshold power (FTP) test was conducted
698 on a stationary cycle ergometer (KICKR Bike, Wahoo, Atlanta, United States). The FTP
699 test was first described by Allen and Coggan (2006) and determines the maximum average
700 power output that can be maintained for one hour which serves as an approximation of the
701 anaerobic threshold (Allen and Coggan, 2012). The FTP_{20} test is derived from the original
702 FTP test but estimates 95% of FTP based on 20 minutes of steady cycling at maximum
703 possible power output. The test is divided into six stages lasting one hour in total (Figure
704 1A and Table S1). Within this test protocol, the average power output measured for the last
705 20-minute interval is taken as 95% of the actual FTP (Allen and Coggan, 2012). The FTP_{20}
706 Test allows the identification of individually calibrated power zones. In this present study,
707 we used HI exercise (Zone 4: Threshold, 91 - 106% of FTP) and LI exercise (Zone 1: Active
708 recovery, ~55% of FTP) as intensities. During the FTP_{20} test, participants were free to adjust
709 the resistance of the ergometer whilst maintaining a constant cadence. Power output in
710 Watts, heart rate (HR belt; Garmin® HRM-PRO™ PLUS) in beats per minute (bpm), and
711 cadence (in RPM) were monitored throughout the FTP_{20} test. The current power and HR as
712 well as the remaining time of each section were displayed on a 50-by-30 cm screen in front
713 of the participants to allow for self-monitoring. Participants were asked to refrain from any
714 exhausting physical activities the day of and before the calibration day. The FTP value from
715 the FTP_{20} test was corrected for participants' weight (FTP/weight) and served as an indicator
716 of individual fitness level in the analyses. The distribution of the weight-corrected FTP for
717 males and females is visualised in Figure S14. There was no significant association between
718 heat pain thresholds and weight-corrected FTP (r = -0.23, P = 0.16; Figure S15). On the
719 bike, the knee angle was adjusted to a 5-degree bend when the pedal stroke was at the bottom
720 (Vaegter et al., 2019). The knee was also set to be over the pedal axle when the cranks were

721 parallel to the ground. The upper body was adjusted to a forward lean with a slight bend of
722 the elbows to maintain a neutral spine position with a natural lumbar flexion.
723
724 **Experimental Paradigm (Day 2 and Day 3)**
725 The two experimental days were at least three days apart (*Median* = 7 days, *Mean* = 12.35
726 days, *SD* = 14.5 days) and identical with the only difference being the pharmacological
727 treatment (NLX vs. SAL) received (Figure 1B). Each visit took place in the morning with a
728 starting time of 8:15 a.m. and varied by a maximum of four hours between participants to
729 account for potential circadian influences. Blood pressure and SPO_2 were measured before
730 each cycling block and monitored throughout the investigation. On each experimental day,
731 a urine sample was tested for amphetamines, opiates, marijuana, methamphetamines,
732 morphine (Surestep, Multidrug Test, Innovacon Inc., San Diego, USA), and potential
733 pregnancies (only female participants; hCG Ultra Test, Serum/Urine 10mIU, Mexacare
734 GmbH, Germany). Each experimental day consisted of 4 blocks. Each block included a 10-
735 minute cycling block at a HI (100% FTP) or LI (55% FTP) in a pseudo-randomised order
736 across participants (i.e., participants completed 2 cycling blocks at HI and 2 at LI exercise).
737 The order of cycling blocks was kept constant across experimental days (Day 2 and Day 3).
738 Each cycling block was immediately followed by an MR scan including the pain stimulation
739 and ratings that lasted approximately 20 minutes. After this, participants' HR and SPO_2 were
740 measured outside the MR (approximately 5-10 minutes) before the next block commenced
741 starting again with 10-minute cycling. On the second experimental day (Day 3), an
742 anatomical scan (T1) was acquired alongside conducting a re-calibration of thermal and
743 pressure stimuli. The re-calibration was based on the previously calibrated intensities from
744 the calibration day (Day 1) and was adjusted based on the ratings provided in the scanner
745 corresponding to 30, 50, and 70 VAS. This procedure served to account for potential

differences in perception due to the different environment of the MR scanner but also to acquaint participants with the procedure inside the MR to minimize the time of transition between the cycle ergometer and MR scanner.

Drug administration

The procedure of drug administration and dosage was based on a previous study using NLX (Eippert et al., 2009) as well as a web-based application for detailed planning of μ-opioid antagonist administration (Trøstheim et al., 2022). Participants were positioned in a supine position before administering a bolus dose of NLX (0.15 mg/kg; Naloxon-ratiopharm® 0.4 mg/ml injection solution, Ratiopharm, Ulm, Germany) or SAL (Isotone Kochsalz-Lösung 0.9% Braun) via peripheral venous access (PVA) in the right antecubital vein. To ensure correct administration, two participants received intravenous access on the back of their right hand upon giving verbal consent and ensuring no pain was caused by the location of the intravenous line. Shortly after administering the bolus dose, the intravenous infusion dose of NLX (0.2 mg/kg/h diluted in SAL) or SAL was started using an infusion pump (Perfusor® Space, Braun, Munich, Germany). After ensuring that no pain was caused by the intravenous line and that participants felt comfortable, the first cycling block commenced. The first 10-minute cycling block also served to ensure that NLX reached a peak level in the blood plasma (Trøstheim et al., 2022) before positioning participants in the MR scanner. The infusion dose was constantly running throughout the whole duration of the study, including cycling blocks outside as well as pain stimulation inside the MR, providing a constant supply of NLX or SAL. Considering the relatively short half-life of NLX (~70 minutes in blood plasma; Summary of Product Characteristics, Ratiopharm), this procedure ensures a steady-state concentration of NLX for the duration of the study (Trøstheim et al., 2022) with an effective central opioid block throughout the study (Eippert

et al., 2009; Trøstheim et al., 2022). The experimenter (J.N.) and research assistants who interacted with the participants were blinded to the pharmacological intervention and remained blinded throughout the study. The research assistant administering the drug treatment was also blind to the treatment. Only the study physician (T. F.), who did not interact with the participants on the experimental days of the study was unblinded as to what drug was administered. Unblinding of the participants took place after the experiment by the study physician without anyone else present to prevent expectation induction in the experimenter and student assistants. Before unblinding the participants, they were asked what treatment they received on which experimental day (incorrect: $n = 4$, unsure/identical: $n = 19$, correct: $n = 16$).

Questionnaires

On the calibration day (Day 1) participants completed the short form of the Profile of Mood States (POMS) (Curran et al., 1995), STAI (Laux et al., 1981), Becks Depression Inventory 2 (BDI-2) (Beck et al., 2011), and a questionnaire on the expectation of exercise in psychological and physiological domains. Furthermore, participants' sleep quality, food intake, menstrual cycle phase, smoking, alcohol, and caffeine consumption on the study day and before the study days were assessed. The menstrual cycle phase was assessed by self-report on each experimental day where female participants indicated which phase applied to them (three phases: follicular, ovulatory, and luteal or hormonal contraceptives). Four female participants indicated they were on hormonal contraceptives. On both experimental days (Day 2 and Day 3) participants filled out the POMS before and after the study to monitor potential mood changes (results are reported in Table S22). Furthermore, participants were asked to fill out questionnaires including BDI, STAI, and a questionnaire concerning the side effects of NLX/SAL after both experimental days (Day 2 and Day 3;

796 results are reported in Table S23). On the last experimental day (Day 3) participants had to
797 indicate which pharmacological treatment they suspected to have received on which
798 experimental day to capture potential expectations about the pharmacological treatment.
799

800 **Data Acquisition**

801 **Behavioural Data Acquisition**

802 During the cycling blocks, heart rate, power output (Watts), and cadence (RPM) were
803 recorded using MATLAB 2021b. For each cycling block the required power as well as the
804 actual power maintained by the participant were displayed on a screen to allow for self-
805 monitoring. During cycling, participants' HR and SPO_2 were constantly monitored and
806 recorded. In one participant, the recording of the power output failed, and in five participants
807 HR recordings in one session failed due to equipment issues. However, power output and
808 HR maintained throughout cycling were visible and accessible at all times for the
809 participant. Upon completion of the 10-minute cycling, participants were asked to rate their
810 perceived exertion (RPE) on the BORG scale (no exertion (6) – maximal exertion (20))
811 (Borg, 1998) as well as to indicate their current mood (sad (0) – happy (10)). The transfer
812 to the MR scanner commenced as quickly as possible (Time: *Mean* = 5 min, *SD* = 1 min)
813 whilst maintaining the participants' safety at all times. Inside the MR scanner, all stimulus
814 presentation was realized using MATLAB R2016b and Psychophysics Toolbox (Version
815 3.0.19). Physiological data, including respiration and heart rate, was recorded at 1000 Hz
816 with the Expression System (In Vivo, Gainesville, USA) using the spike2 software and a
817 CED1401 system (Cambridge Electronic Design). A fixation cross and VAS scale were
818 displayed on a screen inside the scanner bore. Thermal stimuli were applied using a TSA-2
819 Thermode with a 2.5x2.5 cm probe attached to the left volar forearm. Pressure stimuli were
820 applied using a pressure cuff attached to the left upper arm and a CPAR outside the MR.

821 The infusion pump was positioned outside the scanner with a ten-meter tube reaching into
822 the scanner room to maintain a constant dose of NLX or SAL. After two pre-exposure
823 stimuli of each modality, thermal and pressure stimuli were applied in an alternating fashion
824 and at different calibrated intensities (randomized at 30, 50, 70 VAS). Each stimulus lasted
825 17 s in total (ramp-up, plateau 15 s, ramp-down) indicated by a visual cue (red fixation
826 cross). Following each stimulus, the painfulness was rated on a VAS from 'minimally
827 painful' (converted to 0 for analyses) to 'almost unbearably painful' (converted to 100 for
828 analyses) by using a button box. The rating took place within 7 seconds after which an ITI
829 of 7 seconds (jittered by 2 seconds) was introduced before commencing with the next trial.
830 One MRI block consisted of nine thermal and nine pressure stimuli at three intensity levels
831 (30, 50, 70 VAS). In total, participants spent 15 minutes per block inside the MR scanner.
832

833 **MRI Data Acquisition**

834 Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) data was acquired using a 3 Tesla Siemens
835 system (Magnetom PRISMA; Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) with a 64–channel
836 head coil. Sixty slices were acquired (2 mm slice thickness) using T2*-weighted echo-planar
837 imaging (EPI) with multiband factor 2 (repetition time (TR): 1.8 seconds; echo time (TE):
838 26ms; flip angle: 70°). The Field of View (FOV) was 240 mm and positioned to include
839 the upper part of the medulla and the brainstem. The voxel size was thus 2 x 2 x 2 mm^3.
840 Four volumes at the beginning of each run were discarded. Furthermore, T1-weighted
841 images were acquired for each subject using an MPRAGE sequence on the first
842 experimental day (Day 2). Due to the nature of the study where participants cycled outside
843 the MR scanner and had to be repositioned for each run, shimming and auto-align took place
844 at the beginning of each run and before acquiring EPI images.
845

Statistical Analyses

Behavioural Statistical Analyses

Behavioural statistical analyses were performed using MATLAB 2021b and RStudio (Version 2021.09.1). We used the *lmer* function from the *lme4* package (Version 1.1-35.1) (Bates et al., 2014) and the *lm* function from the *stats* package (Version 3.6.2) (*R: The R Project for Statistical Computing*) to conduct linear mixed effect (LMER) and linear models (LM) in R, respectively (Hox et al., 2010; Raudenbush and Bryk, 2001). See supplemental information (supplemental methods) for a detailed description of the statistical models used.

MRI Analyses

Preprocessing

All MRI data was analysed using SPM12 (Wellcome Trust Centre for Neuroimaging, London, UK) and MATLAB 2021b (The Mathworks Inc. 2021b). The brain data was processed using a standardized SPM12-based pipeline (https://github.com/ChristianBuechel/spm_bids_pipeline.git) in BIDS format (Gorgolewski et al., 2016) to ensure data accessibility and reproducibility. The T1-weighted anatomical image was acquired on the first of the experimental days. The functional images from both experimental days were pre-processed together. After discarding the first four images of each run (dummy scans), the functional images were slice time corrected and realigned using rigid-body motion correction with six degrees of freedom. Next, a non-linear coregistration was performed using the mean EPI from the realignment and the T1 image. After this, the T1 image was normalized to MNI space (MNI152NLin2009cAsym as provided by CAT12 toolbox) using DARTEL. After this, transformation fields were created by combining the deformation field from the non-linear coregistration with the DARTEL flow fields to map the EPI images to T1 space and template space. A mask for the 1st-level

871 GLMs was created based on the GM and WM from the T1 image and then warped into the
872 EPI space and finally smoothed with a 3mm FWHM Gaussian kernel. After this, a second
873 realignment took place but was constrained by a brain mask to minimize the effects of the
874 eye movements. Finally, all EPI images were resliced in their individual space. Noise
875 regressors for the first level analysis were created using six principal components of white
876 matter responses and six principal components of CSF responses as well as a ROI at the
877 posterior tip of the lateral ventricle (as used in Horing et al., 2019). As a final step, careful
878 quality checks took place of all functional images generated after realignment, nonlinear co-
879 registration, and normalization through visual inspection, focusing especially on the
880 successful alignment across both fMRI sessions to allow for subsequent analyses.
881
882 **First-level analyses**
883 The single-subject analyses of the brain data were performed in native space using a General
884 Linear model (GLM) approach. The design matrices for each subject comprised eight blocks
885 in total, each containing the stimulus onsets for heat and pressure stimuli at all three intensity
886 levels (VAS 30, 50, 70) and a session constant. Additionally, the six motion parameters
887 were augmented by their derivatives (12 parameters) and the squares of parameters and
888 derivatives resulting in a total of 24 motion parameters (Friston et al., 1996). An additional
889 spike correction was performed, where individual volumes with voxels with a deviation of
890 0.6 mm between each volume with its preceding volume of each run were flagged and
891 individually modeled. In addition, we included RETROICOR (Glover et al., 2000) based
892 physiological noise regressors to account for cardiac and respiratory-related motion (Brooks
893 et al., 2008). This technique determines cardiac- and respiratory-related noise by allotting
894 cardiac and respiratory phases to individual volumes within a time series. Subsequently,
895 these assigned phases are utilized in a low-order Fourier expansion to generate time-course

896 regressors elucidating signal variations attributed to cardiac or respiratory activities. A
897 refined physiological noise model was applied, computing three cardiac and four respiratory
898 harmonics, along with a multiplicative term incorporating interactions between cardiac and
899 respiratory noise resulting in 18 regressors (Harvey et al., 2008). These resulting noise
900 regressors were included in the first-level analyses. The contrast images from the first level
901 analysis were then spatially normalized to MNI space using individual deformation fields
902 (i.e. combining nonlinear coregistration and DARTEL spatial normalization) and finally
903 smoothed using a 6mm full width at half maximum (FWHM) Gaussian smoothing kernel.
904 In addition to a hemodynamic response function (HRF) model, we also used a Finite
905 Impulse Response model (FIR). This model was used to visualize the time course of BOLD
906 responses after the onset of the pain stimulus. In this analysis, the stimulus duration was
907 divided into 12 bins, each covering the duration of one TR spanning a total of 21.6 seconds
908 after stimulus onset.
909
910 **Second-level analyses**
911 Subsequently, the spatially normalized and smoothed contrast images from the first-level
912 analysis were used for random-effects group-level statistics. The successful application of
913 heat pain was established by investigating the parametric contrast heat VAS 70 > 50 > 30,
914 where higher stimulus intensities would recruit a more widespread (sub-)cortical pain
915 network than lower intensities. To explore the effect of drug treatment in the brain, the
916 contrast for the interaction of drug (SAL and NLX) and stimulus intensity (VAS 30, 50, 70)
917 was calculated. Furthermore, we estimated the contrast heat NLX > heat SAL. To
918 investigate the pain modulatory effect of exercise intensity in the SAL condition, the
919 contrasts exercise high (SAL) > exercise low (SAL) and exercise low > high (SAL) were
920 estimated. Furthermore, we extracted the parameter estimates from preregistered

921 opioidergic ROIs (RVM, PAG, frontal midline) and estimated the LMER model
922 corresponding to the behavioural analyses in the SAL condition. To confirm if NLX reduced
923 the hypoalgesic effect, we estimated the contrasts interaction exercise intensity and drug
924 treatment (positive and negative weight) as well as extracting the parameter estimates from
925 the ROIs to conduct LMER models. To investigate the pain modulatory effect of exercise
926 and fitness level in the SAL condition, the contrast exercise high (SAL) > exercise low
927 (SAL) with the mean-centered covariate fitness level (weight-corrected FTP) was estimated.
928 The parameter estimates from each condition were subtracted (LI exercise – HI exercise)
929 and the difference in parameter estimates between both exercise conditions was visualised.
930 To test the three-way interaction of fitness level, sex, and drug in the brain, a two-sample *t*-
931 test of the contrast interaction exercise intensity and drug with the covariate fitness level has
932 been conducted between males and females.
933
934 **Correction for multiple comparisons**
935 For whole-brain analyses, we used family-wise-error (FWE) rate as correction for multiple
936 comparisons, and the according *P*-values are reported as $P_{corr\text{-}WB}$ = x.xx. Furthermore, we
937 used a small volume correction mask (SVC) to correct for multiple comparisons, and the
938 corrected *P*-values are reported as $P_{corr\text{-}SVC}$ = x.xx. This mask was based on the preregistered
939 ROIs (rACC, vmPFC, PAG, RVM with an additional 1 mm FWHM Gaussian smoothing
940 kernel (Figure S16 and Table S24). All thresholds for statistical significance were set to P
941 < 0.05. Activation maps at an uncorrected level ($P_{uncorr} < 0.001$) for each contrast are
942 reported in the supplement.
943

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953

954 **Author Contributions**

955 Conceptualization, C.B. and J.N.; Methodology, C.B. and J.N.; Investigation, C.B., J.N. and
956 T.F.; Visualisation, J.N.; Writing – Original Draft, C.B. and J.N.; Funding Acquisition,
957 C.B.; Resources, C.B.; Supervision, C.B.

958

959 **Declaration of Interests**

960 C.B.: Senior editor, *eLife*. The other authors declare no competing interests.

961

962 **Ethics**

963 Human subjects: All participants gave informed written consent. The study was approved
964 by the Ethics Board of the Hamburg Medical Association (PV4932). We support inclusive,
965 diverse, and equitable conduct of research.

966

967 **Additional Files**

968 Supplemental Information: Supplemental Methods, Figures S1–S16, Tables S1-S24, and
969 Supplemental References.

Data availability

The datasets for the raw behavioural and fMRI data generated in the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request and after publication. All necessary data to evaluate the results of the study are included in the manuscript and supplementary materials.

Code availability

This study was programmed using MATLAB 2021b and Psychophysics Toolbox (Version 3.0.19). A custom fMRI preprocessing pipeline was used (https://github.com/ChristianBuechel/spm_bids_pipeline.git). The custom behavioural and fMRI analyses pipelines are available on the public repository https://github.com/jannenold/peep_analyses_mri_behavioural. For fMRI data visualisation, we used python-based software Nilearn (https://nilearn.github.io/dev/index.html#) and an MNI template with 1mm smoothing (MNI152_T1_1mm_brain).

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