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# Pain Perception in Contact Sport Athletes: A Scoping Review

Amanda O'Farrell<sup>1,2</sup>, William Sauvé<sup>1</sup>, Maxime Bergevin<sup>1,2</sup>, Giuseppe Cimadoro<sup>3</sup>, Denis Arvisais<sup>4</sup>, Pierre Rainville<sup>2,5</sup>, Benjamin Pageaux<sup>1,2,6</sup>

<sup>1</sup> École de kinésiologie et des sciences de l'activité physique (EKSAP), Faculté de médecine, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>2</sup> Centre de recherche de l'Institut universitaire de gériatrie de Montréal (CRIUGM), Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>3</sup> Faculty of Sport, Applied Health and Performance Sciences (SAHPS), St Mary's University, Twickenham, UK

<sup>4</sup> Bibliothèques des Sciences de la Santé, Université de Montréal, Québec, Canada

<sup>5</sup> Département de Stomatologie, Faculté de médecine dentaire, Université de Montréal, Canada

<sup>6</sup> Centre interdisciplinaire de recherche sur le cerveau et l'apprentissage (CIRCA), Montréal, Canada

**Short title :** *Pain in contact sports*

## **Corresponding author :**

Benjamin Pageaux

École de kinésiologie et des sciences de l'activité physique (EKSAP)

Centre d'éducation physique et des sports (CEPSUM)

Faculté de médecine, Université de Montréal

2100, boul. Édouard-Montpetit

Montréal, QC H3T 1J4

Canada

+ 1 514-343-6111

benjamin.pageaux@umontreal.ca

29 **ORCID :**

30 Amanda O’Farrell: <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4146-199X>

31 William Sauvé: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9479-0984>

32 Maxime Bergevin: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0343-8900>

33 Denis Arvisais: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7727-4104>

34 Giuseppe Cimadoro: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5869-2757>

35 Pierre Rainville: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9801-757X>

36 Benjamin Pageaux : <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9302-5183>

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58

59 **ABSTRACT**

60 Contact sports athletes are regularly facing acute physical pain in part of their sport. However,  
61 the literature investigating pain perception in these athletes remains scarce. This scoping review  
62 aimed to explore the literature surrounding pain perception in contact sport athletes and to compile  
63 and understand how it is studied. The search strategy consisted of using index terms and keywords  
64 in Medline, EMBASE, SPORTDiscus, Web of Science, PsycINFO, CINAHL and ProQuest  
65 Dissertations & Theses Global search engines. Results from 11 studies revealed that a mix of team  
66 contact sports and combat sports are studied and included under the umbrella of contact sports.  
67 These athletes are being compared to non-athletes as well as athletes from non-contact sports. The  
68 cold pressor test and the pain pressure test are the two predominant methods used to investigate  
69 physical pain. This review highlights the need to clearly define sports based on contact levels  
70 expected in play to better define the types of pain athletes are facing in their practice. Athlete's  
71 level of play as well as years of experience should also be more rigorously reported. While contact  
72 sport athletes seem to have a higher level of pain tolerance than both active controls and non-  
73 contact athletes, the methods of pain testing are not always justified and appropriate in relation to  
74 the pain induced during contact sports. Future experimental studies should use pain testing  
75 methods relevant to the pain experienced during contact sports and better justify the rationale for  
76 the choice of these methods.

77  
78 243 words

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82 **Key points** (2-3 sentences summarizing, in non-technical language, the key findings/implications of the  
83 manuscript)

- 84 • Contact sports athletes are regularly facing acute physical pain in part of their sport.
- 85 • This scoping review identified a scarce literature on pain perception in contact sports  
86 athletes and highlights the need to dissociate combat sport from team sport athletes  
87 due to the nature of their respective sports.
- 88 • This scoping review also provide perspectives for future research and definitions to  
89 consider when investigating contact sports.

## 90 1 INTRODUCTION

91 Pain is “an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with, or resembling that  
92 associated with, actual or potential tissue damage” [1] and serves as an alarm for avoiding such  
93 damage. The primary purpose of that warning in sport is to caution against possible harm such as  
94 injury or overwork [2]. Sport participation can however encourage athletes to push past those  
95 signals in pursuit of performance goals [2]. Pain can interfere with athletes’ motor control,  
96 endurance, and cognitive performance, making it an important component of training or  
97 competition outcomes [3, 4]. It, therefore, stands that the relationship between athletes and pain is  
98 complex.

99 Not all painful stimuli encountered by athletes are the same. Pain can develop naturally in the  
100 muscle with repeated or continuous contractions [5], a sensation often alluded to with training  
101 slogans such as “no pain, no gain”[6]. This exercise-induced muscle pain, also referred to as  
102 naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise [5], is likely caused by a combination of increased  
103 internal pressure, tissue deformation during contraction and the accumulation of noxious  
104 metabolites [7]. Nociceptors (afferent type III and IV fibres or A $\delta$  and C respectively) respond  
105 differently to these stimuli with a subset of type IV responding preferentially to muscle contraction  
106 under ischaemic conditions, and both fibre types responding to metabolites [7]. Those in a sport  
107 where contact is encouraged or required, however, face the additional challenge of having to  
108 endure harm purposely done to them by other players. This can represent an additional external  
109 mechanical stimulus and would trigger pain pathways associated with skin and muscle  
110 deformation, associated or not with tissue damage, rather than those originating naturally in the  
111 muscle during exercise. The combination of these experiences result in the overall perception of  
112 pain [7]. While it does not exist exact ethical and objective methodologies to replicate the pain  
113 from contact sport, the literature in pain research provides several testing methods that could be  
114 used to explore pain perception in contact sport.

115 Pain exists on a spectrum that can be characterized as a function of stimulus intensity and can  
116 be investigated from pain threshold to pain tolerance. [8]. The pain threshold is widely defined as  
117 the point at which that sensation becomes painful to the participant, and pain tolerance is the  
118 maximum intensity of a pain-producing stimulus that a subject is willing to accept in a given  
119 situation [8]. Pain threshold and pain tolerance can be investigated via different ways of inducing

120 pain experimentally. The pain pressure test, for instance, relies on increasing mechanical pressure  
121 applied externally over a body part [9]. Thermal pain can be induced in two ways, either by using  
122 a cold or hot temperature. The cold pressor test requires that the participant immerse a limb in cold  
123 water until they are no longer able to withstand the pain [10]. Alternatively, cutaneous heat can be  
124 applied similarly by immersing a limb in water or using radiant/laser heat sources or contact probes  
125 [7]. Transcutaneous electric stimulation can also be applied to induce pain [7]. On top of external  
126 methods applied on the skin, several options are available to induce pain within muscles. This can  
127 be induced by the application of topical stimuli or injection within the muscles known to stimulate  
128 muscle nociceptors or by the completion of physical exercise. In the context of the application of  
129 external stimuli, muscle ischemia involves interrupting blood flow using a cuff to induce local  
130 hypoxia and reduce clearance [11]. This method will stimulate the muscle nociceptors by trapping  
131 the metabolites within the muscles as well as by the application of mechanical pressure on the skin  
132 and the muscle where the cuff is located [12]. A more invasive method consists of the injection  
133 of noxious chemicals such as hypertonic saline or a mix of exercise-produced metabolites within  
134 a muscle to simulate claudication [7] as well as metabolite buildup [13]. In the context of muscle  
135 pain induced by physical exercise, naturally occurring muscle pain [14] and delayed onset muscle  
136 soreness (DOMS) are two methods used for the investigation of pain. Naturally occurring muscle  
137 pain during exercise occurs during aerobic exercise at an intensity and duration that creates an  
138 accumulation of metabolites within the muscles known to stimulate the nociceptors, such as  
139 bradykinin or hydrogen ions [5]. Delayed onset muscle soreness (DOMS) can be induced through  
140 exercise, causing muscle damage to create a painful condition that peaks 48h after completion  
141 [15].

142 As athletes progress in training and experience, they seem to be able to tolerate more pain than  
143 their non-trained counterparts. A review by Tesarz et al. [16] looked at different measurements of  
144 pain, both naturally occurring and externally occurring, to compare athletes to non-athletes and  
145 found that overall, athletes have a higher pain tolerance than normally active controls. They did  
146 not, however, make a distinction between different types of athletes in accordance with the nature  
147 of pain of their sport (e.g., endurance vs contact sport). More recent studies extended these results  
148 by demonstrating differences in pain perception between endurance and strength athletes [17], as  
149 well as triathletes and non-athlete participants [18]. Contact sport athletes differ from others in that  
150 they must accept opponents making physical contact with them as part of engagement in the game.

151 Team sports that fall under that category, such as rugby, have certain rules against excessive  
152 physical harm, but some roughness is to be expected, and can in fact be encouraged [19]. Combat  
153 sports not only have this expectation but require regulated aggressive, pain-inducing actions to win  
154 [20]. Pain during combat sports is caused primarily by external mechanical stimuli applied to the  
155 body. It is therefore likely possible that the pain experienced by contact sport athletes is different  
156 than the pain experienced by non-contact sport athletes, such as endurance athletes, who are  
157 predominantly facing pain induced by metabolic stimuli resulting from muscle contraction-  
158 induced metabolic accumulation within the muscle milieu. In this context, studying pain in contact  
159 sport as separate is necessary given the difference in pain profiles with other types of sport.

160 This scoping review aims to explore whether contact sport athletes perceive pain differently,  
161 paving the way for future research to test whether natural ability or specific athletic training can  
162 influence pain processing. It will explore how pain experienced during contact sport is researched  
163 through four research questions. It will ask i) what sports are being studied as well as ii) the  
164 expertise level of the athletes. Alongside the athletes in question, iii) the types of control groups  
165 being used will also be examined. Finally, iv) the methodology used to induce pain will be  
166 scrutinized. While some methods of inducing pain may be more practical, or accessible in a  
167 laboratory-controlled environment, not all may be appropriate when testing people with specific  
168 sports training if the goal is to generalize to the sport experience.

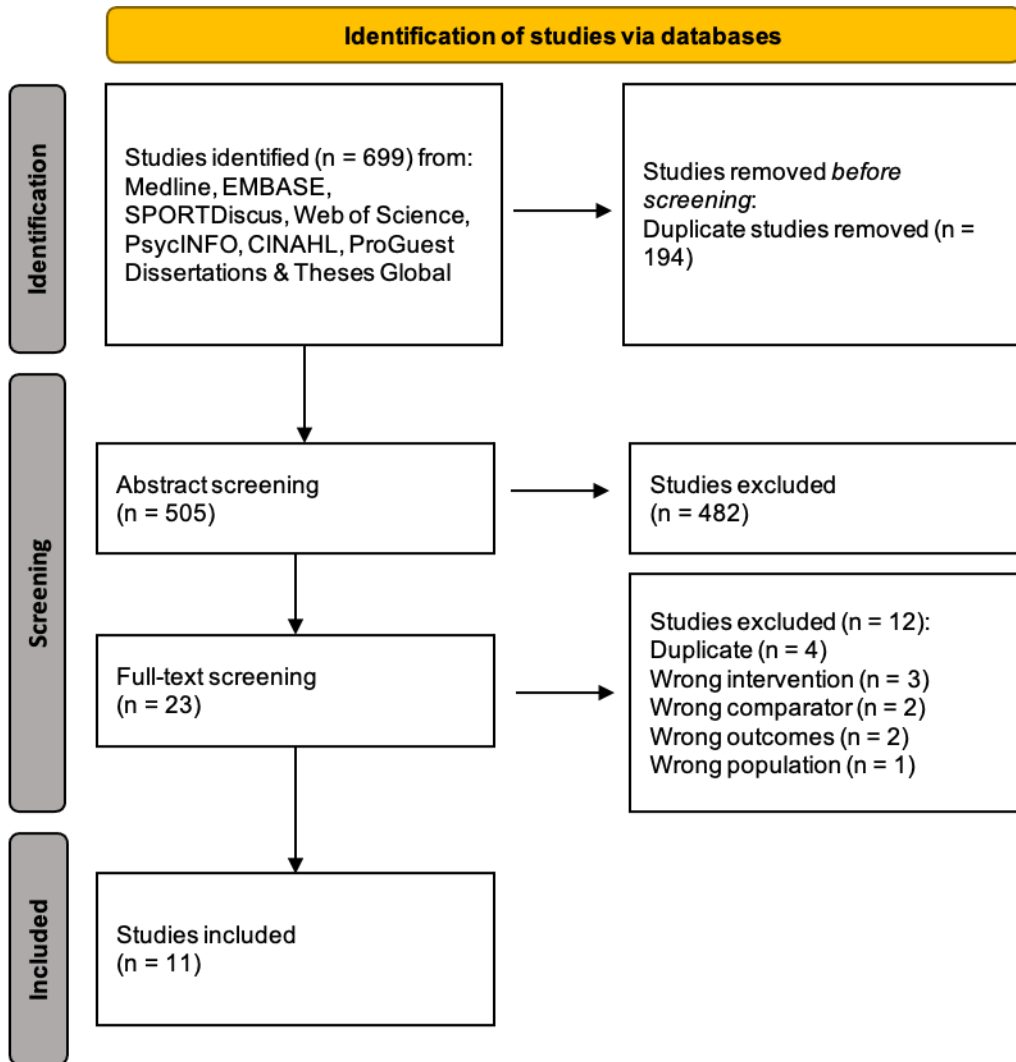
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## 170 2 METHODS

### 171 2.1 Search Strategy

172 A librarian (DA) captained the database searches based on those used by Tesarz et al. [14], in  
173 collaboration with AOF. The search strategy consisted of using index terms and keywords in  
174 Medline, EMBASE, SPORTDiscus, Web of Science, PsycINFO, CINAHL and ProQuest  
175 Dissertations & Theses Global search engines. The terms “contact sport”, and “pain” were initially  
176 used to parse out studies where pain testing was done with the athletes of interest. The detailed  
177 equation search for MEDLINE is available in Supplementary Material 1. The search in the  
178 database was performed on the 26<sup>th</sup> of April 2021. Covidence software (Veritas Health Innovation)  
179 was used to perform article screening in three steps: removing some duplicates, titles and abstracts,  
180 and full texts. Two researchers (AOF and WS) agreed on inclusion at each step of the article  
181 screening. In the event of a disagreement, a discussion with a third researcher (BP) determined  
182 final inclusion. The initial literature search revealed 699 potential studies of interest, and the  
183 screening process led to the inclusion of 9 articles. From later exploration of the “cited by” feature  
184 of Google Scholar, a tenth and eleventh relevant article were identified and included. The  
185 reference list of all included papers was also screened for additional sources. A detailed flowchart  
186 of the inclusion process is available in Figure 1.



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Figure 1: Flowchart of sources screened and included in the present scoping review

## 192 2.2 Inclusion criteria

193 Publications in both French and English were included regardless of publication year. The  
194 inclusion of contact sport athletes was the first criterion. Contact sports are defined as any sport  
195 where regulated contact with opponents is necessary for play [17] and as such were determined to  
196 include combat sports and team sports such as American Football, lacrosse, rugby, roller derby,  
197 and hurling. Any additional sport was judged based on whether contact between players is  
198 encouraged or is considered part of the game. For example, contact is part of soccer, but not

199 encouraged as a tactical play method. Martial artists were included if their discipline involved  
200 physical contact, therefore excluding meditative arts such as tai chi. Controls were either athletes  
201 in non-contact disciplines such as tennis, or non-specifically active individuals.

202 Included studies had to measure pain threshold, tolerance, both, or a continuum from one to the  
203 other. Articles using these methods were included as well as reviews including such articles.  
204 Comparing pain perception can be done primarily using two different parameters, pain threshold  
205 and pain tolerance. Pain threshold is the minimal stimulus necessary perceived by a subject as  
206 painful. Tolerance is the upper limit of painful stimulus that a subject is willing or capable of  
207 enduring. Both were analyzed to get a better understanding of pain as a multifaceted experience.  
208 In some cases, a visual analog scale was used to monitor the pain intensity from the threshold to  
209 the point of maximum tolerance. Methods of pain testing had to be validated to be included and so  
210 studies using pain pressure test, cold pressor test, electric shock, heat pain, delayed onset muscle  
211 soreness, naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise, and ischaemic pain were retained.

212

### 213 **2.3 Data extraction**

214 Three authors (AOF, BP, WS) created a data extraction table. A first draft of the table was built  
215 by AOF and reviewed by BP and WS. This first data extraction table was then tested by AOF and  
216 WS with two articles. Few disagreements were observed, and the three authors updated the data  
217 extraction table consequently to obtain the final version available in Supplementary material 2.  
218 Data extraction was subsequently performed by AOF and WS, and standardization of the  
219 information presented in the table was performed by AOF, BP and WS (see Supplementary  
220 material 3). Briefly, for the eleven included articles, the following information was obtained:  
221 reference of the article, details of the contact sport and control group, pain tests performed, and  
222 other pain-related measurements collected.

223

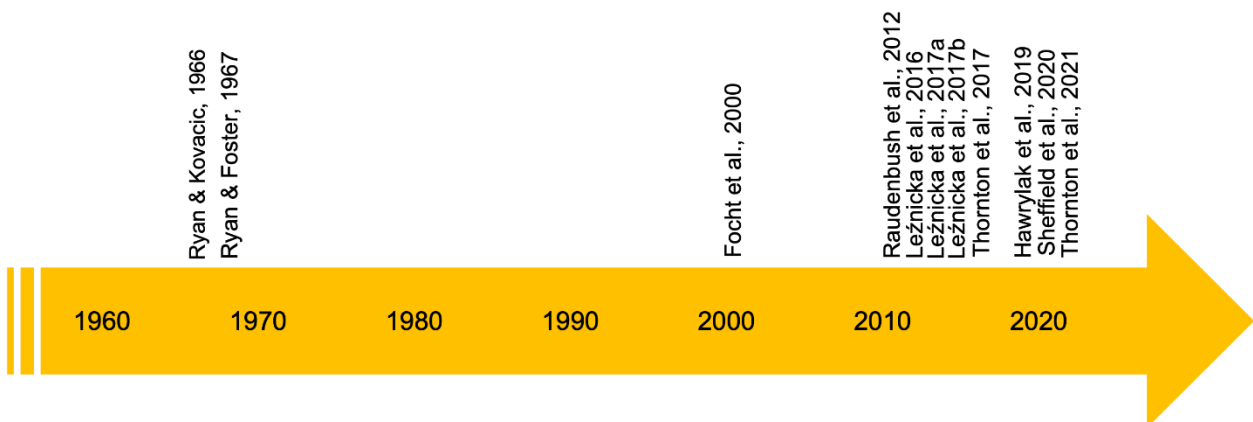
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## 225 3 RESULTS:

### 226 3.1 Studies included

227 To the best of our knowledge, no review focusing on pain in contact sports has been written.  
 228 Eleven articles were retained for data extraction from the initial 699, all from peer-reviewed  
 229 journals. Despite searching articles in French and English, all articles retained were in English.  
 230 Included articles originated from the USA (n = 4), the UK (n = 3), and Poland (n = 4). There was  
 231 very little overlap between authors from the USA except in the early publications where Ryan  
 232 appears in both. Two authors from the UK appeared in all three UK-based papers, another author  
 233 appeared in two. Among the Polish teams, the same first author appears in three of four papers.  
 234 This fact highlights how few researchers are currently working on pain in contact sports. Both  
 235 articles written in the 60s were first authored by the same researcher. A timeline of articles  
 236 published on the subject is represented in Figure 2.

237



238

239 **Figure 2. Timeline of studies examining pain perception in contact sport from the 1960s to 2021**

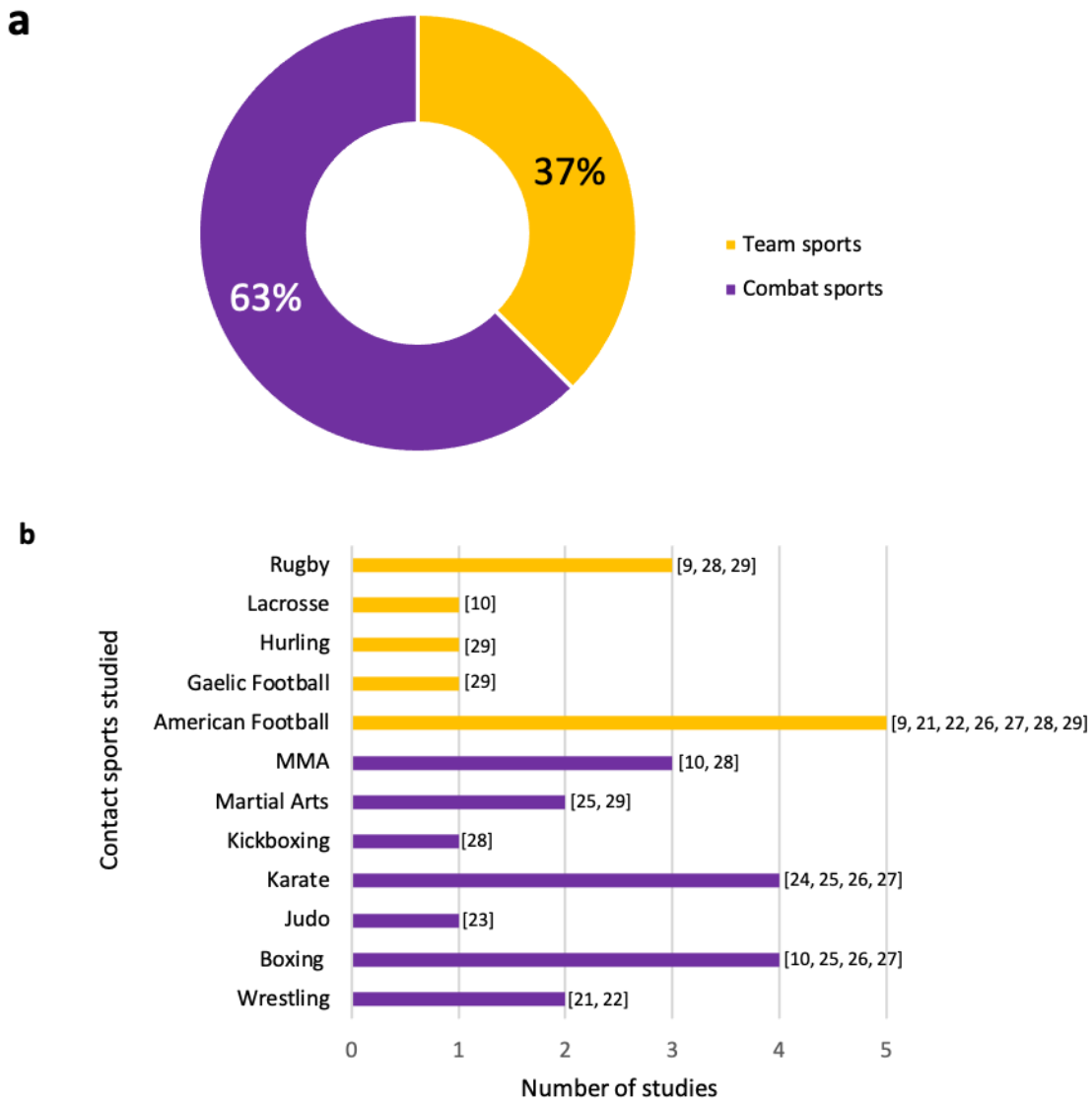
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241 Pain perception in contact sports was first studied in the late 1960s [21, 22]. Literature  
 242 contributing to the topic then ceased being produced until the year 2000 only to ramp up after  
 243 2010. The relative density of contributing articles has increased in recent years with eight articles  
 244 being published in the last ten years.

245

246 **3.2 Types of contact sport being studied**

247 Reviewed studies recruited athletes from 12 sports (Figure 3). In only two cases [23, 24] did  
 248 the study draw from a single sport, those being karate and judo, rather than recruit from multiple  
 249 disciplines. Six studies examined team contact sport and nine included combat sports. All  
 250 individual sports were combat sports.  
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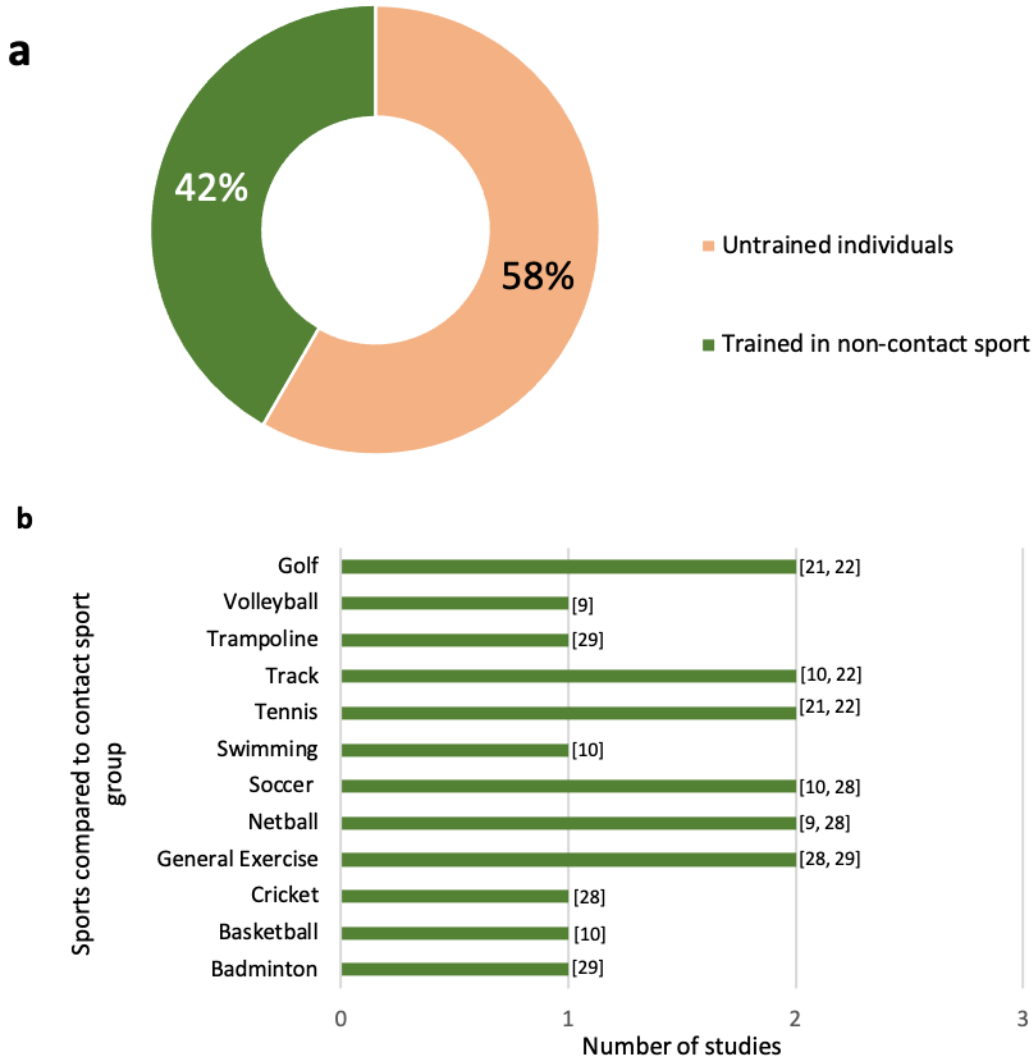


252  
 253 **Figure 3. Overview of the contact sports studied:** (a) distribution of combat sports and team  
 254 sports being studied; (b) specific sports. *MMA = Mixed Martial Arts*  
 255

### 256        **3.3 Groups being compared to contact sport athletes**

257        Contact sport athletes were compared to either untrained individuals or fellow athletes trained  
258 in non-contact sports (Figure 4). When untrained or non-athletes represented the control group,  
259 general levels of physical activity were unclear. In the case of Leźnicka et al. [25-27], the control  
260 group was identified as students from the “Physical Culture” department of the university, and no  
261 additional information was offered to determine if these students were otherwise active or inactive  
262 despite being classified as untrained individuals. In the case of Hawrylak et al. [17], students were  
263 also used as a control group, but similarly, no precision was given about the level of physical  
264 activity. Sheffield et al. [24] has both types of controls, trained individuals, and untrained  
265 individuals. Trained individuals were picked from netball, volleyball, soccer, basketball, track,  
266 swimming, and cricket. In no case was a distinction made for low contact team sports such as  
267 basketball differing from no contact individual sports such as swimming.

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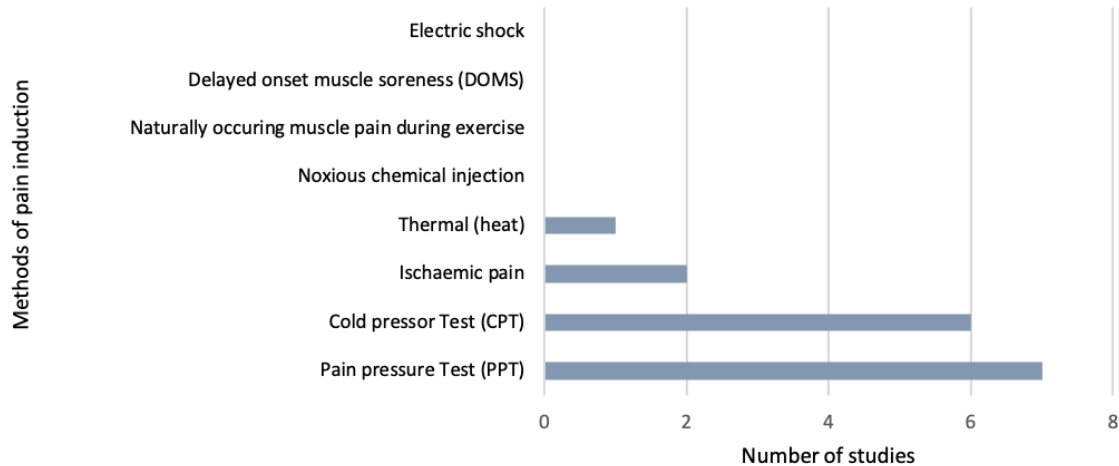
271 Figure 4. **Overview of groups compared to contact sport athletes:** (a) distribution of  
272 untrained individuals compared to individuals trained in a non-contact sport; (b) specific sports  
273 practised by the trained individuals.

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### 279 3.4 Methods of pain testing

280 Figure 5 represents the methods of pain testing used in the studies included in the scoping  
281 review. Of all available methods of pain testing, only four are used across the 11 studies selected:

282 The pain pressure test, cold pressor test, muscle ischemia, and thermal pain through heat. Two  
 283 studies used ischaemic pain [22, 23] and it was paired with other methods. Heat pain was used  
 284 once in the earliest published article [23].  
 285



286  
 287 **Figure 5. Methods of experimental pain induction.**

288  
 289

290 In the case of pain induced by the pain pressure test (Table 1), all studies showed lower pain  
 291 perception as reported by contact sport athletes. This is apparent in four studies that showed higher  
 292 pain threshold, three studies that showed higher pain tolerance, and two studies that showed  
 293 differences in pain intensity perception.

294 When studies used the cold pressor test (Table 1), a difference can be seen in pain thresholds.  
 295 Contact sport athletes, while having similar results in pain tolerance to the pain pressure test, seem  
 296 to have a similar threshold to cold pain than their counterparts.

297 An ischemic pain testing protocol (Table 1) found that both contact team and combat sport  
 298 athletes started out with higher pain tolerance than their counterparts, but that the difference in  
 299 tolerance increased over time and with added experience (here over 8 months) [28]. Additionally,  
 300 contact sport athletes showed a higher tolerance than non-contact athletes who in turn showed  
 301 better tolerance than non-athletes [21].

302 The one study that used heat as a method of pain induction (Table 1) used it exclusively to  
 303 determine threshold. The authors noted that beyond a certain point there is no perceptible increase  
 304 in pain and a ceiling effect could appear [21]



305  
306

Pain pressure test

<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Contact sport included</i>	<i>Control group for comparison</i>	<i>Results</i>
<b>Threshold</b>	Combat sport [23, 24, 25, 26]	Non-athletes [23, 24, 25, 26]	Higher pain threshold in contact sport athletes
<b>Tolerance</b>	Team sport [9, 21, 22] Combat sport [21, 22, 25, 26]	Non-athletes [9, 21, 22, 25, 26] Non-contact athletes [9, 21, 22]	Higher pain tolerance in contact sport athletes
<b>Intensity</b>	Team sport [9] Combat sport [24]	Non-athletes [24] Non-contact athletes [9]	Contact sport athletes perceive the stimulus as less painful Decrease in intensity ratings after contact sport training

Cold pressor test

<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Contact sport included</i>	<i>Control group for comparison</i>	<i>Results</i>
<b>Threshold</b>	Team sport [10] Combat sport [25, 26, 27]	Non-athletes [25, 26, 27] Non-contact athletes [10]	Similar pain threshold to control
<b>Tolerance</b>	Team sport [10, 28] Combat sport [25, 26, 27, 28]	Non-athletes [25, 26, 27, 28] Non-contact athletes [10, 28]	Higher pain tolerance than the control group
<b>Intensity</b>	Team sport [29] Combat sport [29]	Non-athletes [29] Non-contact athletes [29]	Contact sport athletes reported lower pain intensity ratings than controls

Ischaemic pain

<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Contact sport included</i>	<i>Control group for comparison</i>	<i>Results</i>
<b>Tolerance</b>	Team sport [21, 28] Combat sport [21, 28]	Non-athletes [21, 28] Non-contact athletes [21, 28]	Higher pain tolerance than the control group with a wider gap between groups after experience gain [28] Higher pain tolerance in contact sport group than non-contact sports group. Higher tolerance in non-contact sports group than non-athletes [21]

Thermal pain (heat)

<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Contact sport included</i>	<i>Control group for comparison</i>	<i>Results</i>
<b>Threshold</b>	Team sport [21] Combat sport [21]	Non-athletes [21] Non-contact athletes [21]	No significant difference in heat pain threshold between contact sport athletes, non-contact sport athletes and non-athletes

307 **Table 1: Outcomes measured, populations and results of each included study.**

308

309

### 310 **3.1 Motor and cognitive performance in presence of experimentally induced pain**

311 Motor performance tests [9, 29] were performed simultaneously with the pain condition in two  
312 studies to assess the interfering effects of pain. In both cases, the task required participants to throw  
313 a tennis ball at numbered targets in a given order. Participants were scored based on their accuracy  
314 and speed in completing the task. In Sheffield et al. [8], two conditions were used. In one, the  
315 participants had ten targets that they had to hit in numerical order, moving on to the next number  
316 regardless of whether they hit the target or not. In the more difficult condition, ten additional targets  
317 were added that displayed letters or symbols that had to be disregarded. In Thornton et al. [24], 20  
318 targets were given, and participants were required to hit the one indicated by researchers  
319 immediately before the attempt. A total of ten targets were given, and as with Sheffield et al. [8],  
320 the participant moved on regardless of having hit the target or not. The grading was also based on  
321 time and accuracy.

322 In both studies, contact sport athletes differed from control groups. In Sheffield et al. [8], high  
323 contact athletes' motor performance (both in time and accuracy) was not altered by the pain  
324 condition while the low-contact athletes and non-athletes performed significantly worse in the  
325 presence of pain. In Thornton et al. [24], experienced contact sport athletes not only maintained  
326 their motor performance in the pain condition but hit the targets faster than in the non-pain  
327 condition. Novice contact athletes maintained their performance in both speed and accuracy. Non-  
328 contact athletes performed significantly worse in both testing parameters when in the pain  
329 condition.

330 Sheffield et al. [8] also had participants perform a cognitive task in both a pain and non-pain  
331 condition. The task required participants to check off numbers appearing randomly on a grid in the  
332 correct order using pen and paper. The grid contained the numbers one to twenty-five in random  
333 order. Performance was assessed using the time taken to complete the task. The difficulty was  
334 increased by adding 25 additional numbers that were to be ignored. The pain condition did not  
335 alter the performance of the groups regardless of sport expertise.

336

## 337 4 DISCUSSION

338 This scoping review presents an overview of the literature on pain perception in contact sports.  
339 It identifies the types of sports being considered when studying contact sports, the groups they are  
340 being compared to, and the various methods used to study pain in those populations. Eleven studies  
341 were included, and the literature search did not reveal any reviews focusing on contact sports. The  
342 main outcomes of this scoping review were i) an assortment of contact sports were considered  
343 across team sports and combat sports; ii) these groups were compared to both non-athletes and  
344 non-contact sport athletes; iii) of all available pain testing methods, four were used, two of which  
345 may be inappropriate for studying the pain experienced by contact sport athletes in their sport.

346

### 347 *4.1 What contact sports are being studied?*

348 The first research question sought to determine which contact sports were being studied. A mix  
349 of team sports and combat sports is represented. In two articles, [19, 24] the list of participants'  
350 sport affiliations includes "martial arts" with no additional information on the type, expertise level,  
351 or contact expected in the sport. As an example, tai chi is a martial art that could technically fall  
352 under that umbrella, but it is a meditative discipline where no contact is made as is qigong and  
353 non-competitive capoeira [30]. Their inclusion as martial arts can therefore be misleading and  
354 introduce population heterogeneity when it comes to pain experience. Similarly, the expertise of  
355 participants in contact sports is not thoroughly described in all included studies. Specifying the  
356 level of expertise of combat sport athletes as well as their number of years of training is crucial as  
357 it conditions the existence and/or intensity of the contact during the activity. To illustrate, it is  
358 possible to train in karate without contact while still being considered a martial artist and contact  
359 sport athlete. This would be the case for a kata specialist, where performance involves precise  
360 movement, but no contact with another karateka [31].

361 Another challenge with the contact sport groups is the mix of team and combat sport within the  
362 same group. It remains difficult to ensure that the level of expertise is similar across dissimilar  
363 gameplay requirements [28, 29]. For example, it is not possible to reliably claim that a certain belt  
364 in karate is equivalent to a certain level of American Football. Each sport has demands and  
365 classifications systems that do not necessarily overlap, and consequently, the quantity and intensity  
366 of contact during sport can widely differ between team and combat sports. For instance, light (e.g.,

367 knock-out forbidden but continuous actions allowed), semi (e.g., fight stopped at each effective  
368 striking scoring a point) and full (e.g., knock-out allowed) contact combat sports regulations  
369 indicate different fighting rhythms resulting in distinct contact intensities, still difficult to quantify  
370 in practice. In fact, in addition, quantifying any striking on a mobile target (source of contact  
371 absorption) is hard to standardise, most of the impact sensors devices are historically bespoke tools  
372 relying on gold standard sensing systems such as force plates (REF1) or more recently wearable  
373 technologies such as accelerometers attached to limbs or connected to punching bags/pads (REF2,  
374 REF3). Moving forward, standardisation of impact sensors tools to produce normative data would  
375 be beneficial for future studies. Therefore, by integrating these observations, it appears crucial that  
376 future studies adopt a more precise and thorough description of contact sports athletes by providing  
377 clear information on sport type and expertise level. Also, due to the different nature between  
378 combat sports and team sports, a distinction should be made when pooling participants from both  
379 types. We do however keep in mind that such dissociation between combat and team sports could  
380 lead to more difficulties in reaching an important sample size depending on the sports clubs  
381 existing around the research group performing the studies.

382

383

#### 384 *4.2 To whom are contact sport athletes being compared?*

385 The participants included in control groups across the studies varied in level of physical activity.  
386 In all cases, those identified as non-athletes were students, and their level of activity was generally  
387 unclear or unspecified. This would be important to note since we can refer to Thornton et al. [23]  
388 where pain perception changed over months of exposure to contact sports. The literature also  
389 suggests that sport practice could alter pain perception regardless of the discipline of contact sport  
390 [32]. A thorough description of the history of exposure to contact sport as well as other sports is  
391 necessary when comparing pain perception between sport expertise or across physical activity  
392 levels in future studies.

393 As previously mentioned, an identification system detailing the level of contact of each sport  
394 should exist to properly classify athlete control groups. For instance, in Sheffield et al. [24], the  
395 no contact group was represented by students while the “low-contact group” was comprised of  
396 normally active individuals, tennis players, badminton players, and trampolinists. In none of those  
397 sports is contact either required or expected for adequate play. The classification of these sports as

398 “low-contact sports” is confusing as the nature of this sport and their rules do not involve contact.  
399 Furthermore, as contact sport involves contact with opponents, these sports could not be  
400 considered as low contact as the separation between the opponent with a net prevents any contact  
401 with the opponent. It appears more appropriate to classify these sports as no-contact sports and to  
402 classify team sports such as basketball or soccer as low contact sports. Indeed, in these two sports,  
403 while contact between opponents is not predominant, the tactical aspects of the sports require few  
404 contacts, such as shoulder to shoulder in soccer or performing a pick and roll in basketball. A more  
405 rigorous classification of the control group would therefore be beneficial in future research to truly  
406 understand how practitioners of different sports can vary in their pain modulation.

407

408

#### 409 *4.3 Proposed definitions for studying contact sports*

410 As presented in the previous section, it exists inconsistencies in the categorisation of the  
411 contact sports included in the studies presented in this scoping review. These inconsistencies are  
412 apparent in terms of the categorisation of whether a sport is a contact sport or not, as well as in  
413 terms of the categorisation of sports according to contact level. As suggested by a reviewer during  
414 the peer-review process, this scoping review is therefore an opportunity to provide some  
415 clarifications to help conceptualize the notion of (non-)contact sport and low/high-contact sport.  
416 To do so, this section will provide brief information on the nature of the contact needed to allow a  
417 sport to be categorized as a contact sport, and then offer some definitions.

418 It is important to clarify that to be categorized as a contact sport, a sport must include contact  
419 between at least two opponents. This important detail is explicit in the Collins and Oxford  
420 dictionaries where contact sports are defined as “a sport that involves physical contact between  
421 participants” and “a sport in which the participants necessarily come into bodily contact with one  
422 another”, respectively. While some may argue that a certain level of contact may exist in other  
423 sports due to the contact with the ground when jumping or running, or the contact with a compliant  
424 surface when practicing trampoline for example, we believe that the inclusion of sports including  
425 such contact as contact sport is not appropriate. One of the best illustrations may be a marathon  
426 runner. During 26.2 miles, a marathon runner will face a contact between her/his foot and the road  
427 at each step. However, marathon, as other endurance sports such as trail or other long-distance

428 events are classified as endurance sports due to the nature of the sports not involving contacts  
429 between opponents. In this context we propose the definitions below:

430 - No contact sports: Any sports in which the nature of existing contacts is not between  
431 opponents.

432 - Contact sports: Any sports involving contacts with at least one opponent, and where  
433 contacts are regulated by the rules. Contact sports include most of the combat sports and  
434 specific team sports.

435 Special attention should be given to “martial arts” as some disciplines do not involve  
436 contact (e.g., tai chi or qigong), and the level of expertise and years of training may  
437 condition the existence or not of contact (e.g., non-competitive capoeira or kata specialist).

438 - Low contact sports: Any sports in which contacts with opponents may occur but are not  
439 essential for play. These contacts are a minor part of the sport and are not extensively  
440 encouraged. Such sport may include for example basketball or soccer.

441 - High contact sports: Any sports in which contacts with opponents are encouraged and  
442 essential for play. These contacts are a major part of the sport and are extensively  
443 encouraged, albeit compulsory to reach the victory during a game. Such sport may include  
444 for example rugby or boxing.

445

446

#### 447 *4.4 What methods of pain testing are being used?*

448 Among the available methods existing to study pain in an experimental setting, four were used  
449 in the studies included in this scoping review: pain pressure test, cold pressor test, ischaemic pain,  
450 and heat pain. The use of the pain pressure test and the cold pressor test dominated within the  
451 included studies. When studying pain in contact sports, some methods of testing are less  
452 appropriate given that they are not normally encountered in training or competition context (e.g.,  
453 thermal pain, whether heat or cold, is not typically a painful condition of boxing or rugby). It is  
454 however important to note that certain athletes use ice baths for therapeutic or recovery purposes  
455 [33], and may therefore be more habituated to the cold feeling or interpret it as healing rather than  
456 painful. It would be necessary to ask athletes about their history with this method if using it to  
457 induce pain in future studies.

458 In pain research, certain safeguards are put into place to avoid causing damage to participants.  
459 For this reason, the cold pressor test has an upper time limit. This limit is usually not communicated  
460 to the participant to avoid creating a target [27]. This can however limit results when it comes to  
461 measuring the tolerance of individuals who frequently experience high levels of pain. An  
462 individual in a control group and a contact sport group can therefore both have a ceiling effect  
463 despite one being able to continue and the other not. It is a crucial limitation to testing that must  
464 be considered in the development of further studies.

465 The source of pain in a combat sport is clear, it is predominately due to mechanical contact with  
466 the opponent, however, the pain profile of team sports may have another component, naturally  
467 occurring muscle pain that comes with prolonged muscle use. Interestingly, none of the included  
468 studies considered the investigation of naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise. This would  
469 imply that the choice of the type of pain being induced does not take into consideration possible  
470 habituation by a contact sport athlete. The expertise, and therefore possible adaptation, provided  
471 by training is not cited as a determining factor. It would therefore be of interest to test this type of  
472 pain with other sports to better understand specific pain type modulation required in different  
473 sports. Examples include, studying naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise in endurance  
474 athletes, or further differentiating pain profiles of team contact sports and combat sports.  
475 Additionally, since each athletic pursuit focuses on different aspects of performance (intensity,  
476 time, continuity of movement), the muscle pain involved and investigated should have a specific  
477 profile based on the sport's parameters.

478

479 *4.5 What are the conclusions of the included studies in pain perception in contact sports?*

480 While our scoping review did not aim to perform a meta-analysis due to the heterogeneity in  
481 athletes, control groups and pain testing methods in the literature, it remains possible to discuss  
482 the outcomes of these studies as presented by the authors. Regarding differences in pain  
483 perception, the retained articles measurements of pain threshold, tolerance and intensity were  
484 taken. When it comes to measuring threshold, all studies using the same method found similar  
485 outcomes for threshold. When using mechanical pain, contact sport athletes were reported to have  
486 a higher threshold, consistent with a decreased pain sensitivity. Studies using cold, however, stated  
487 that the pain threshold of all groups was similar. This similarity in pain threshold between the  
488 different groups is not intuitively surprising as contact sport athletes are not facing cold pain in

489 their practice, and therefore habituation to this specific painful stimulus is most likely not  
490 developed, except in the possible case mentioned earlier concerning ice baths. This highlights the  
491 possibility that the choice of testing method is crucial when studying contact sport athletes, and  
492 that sport expertise could develop pain experience differences that are specific to the nature of the  
493 sport performed (e.g., no contact sport athletes are regularly facing painful cold, but do face  
494 mechanical pain regularly)

495 As discussed in the review by Tesarz et al. [14], athletes have a higher pain tolerance than non-  
496 athletes. Further distinction between groups of athletes suggests that they are not homogeneous,  
497 and differ according to the type of sport. Evidence that tolerance differs across contact categories  
498 is consistent throughout all methods tested (pressure, cold, ischemia). Collectively, the results of  
499 the retained studies would imply that participation in a contact sport is associated with higher pain  
500 tolerance, independent of the pain modality and possibly explained by improved self-regulation of  
501 pain. Further study is obviously necessary.

502 Pain intensity was reported in three studies [9, 24, 29]. Across the cold pressor test and pain  
503 pressure test, it was reported that contact sport athletes signal lower pain intensity ratings  
504 throughout testing than their counterparts. This result also suggests a generalized hyposensitivity  
505 that may reflect a non-specific reduction in pain processing or improved pain-regulation. Future  
506 studies should test this observation with naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise and  
507 muscle ischemia, two kinds of pain more closely related to sport practice than cold pain.

508 While cognitive and motor performance in a pain condition was only included in two studies,  
509 it would seem like a promising avenue for future research. Maintenance of motor performance in  
510 contact sport athletes would imply an ability to endure pain when faced with a physical task and  
511 to overcome the interfering effect on motor activity [34, 35] This possibility is supported by the  
512 results of Sheffield et al. [8] and Thornton et al. [24]. Cognitively, Sheffield et al. [24] observed  
513 that pain did not alter performance and could perhaps be explained by the far more relatable  
514 experience of ignoring pain during day-to-day cognitive tasks. Another explanation would be  
515 because the negative effect of pain on cognitive performance solely appears in the context of highly  
516 demanding cognitive tasks [36]. Future studies interested in the effects of pain on cognitive  
517 performance in contact sport athletes should consider modulating the task difficulty to further  
518 explore this possibility. Due to the scarce investigation on the effects of pain on cognitive and



519 motor performance in contact sport athletes, future studies are required to a clear conclusion on  
520 the effects of pain on performance in this specific population.

521

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523

## 524 **5 CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES**

525 When testing pain in contact sport athletes, a heterogeneous spread of both team and combat  
526 sports are considered. These athletes are compared to non-athletes or athletes trained in non-  
527 contact sports. Pain perception is predominantly tested using the pain pressure test, the cold pressor  
528 test, and with ischaemic pain. Naturally occurring muscle pain during exercise being experienced  
529 by contact sport athletes, albeit predominantly in team sports, differences between athletes in this  
530 specific kind of pain should be considered in future studies. Similarly, DOMS being associated  
531 with the experience of muscle pain, and athletes sometimes train or compete in the presence of  
532 DOMS, future studies should investigate how the pain experienced in the presence of DOMS could  
533 impact contact sport athletes.

534 More generally, the specificity of the observed differences in a given pain modality should be  
535 assessed using within-subject designs including quantitative sensory testing across multiple pain  
536 modalities (e.g.[37, 38]).

537 Further research should consider a more thorough definition of contact sports in opposition to  
538 low, or no contact. It should also consider the nature of the pain that sports being tested require  
539 athletes to endure to better understand how pain perception can differ in contact sport athletes.  
540 Pain threshold and tolerance should be measured given the possibility that one or the other might  
541 differ depending on the pain induction technique used. The number of studies examining  
542 differences in pain perception in contact sports has increased in the last decade when compared to  
543 the first studies in the 60s. It is therefore crucial to adhere to rigorous definitions and justified  
544 testing methods to further homogenize the literature. A more rigorous classification of the exact  
545 pain profile of contact athletes could also help inform the optimal ways to study them. To our  
546 knowledge, no method was used to explore pain caused by impact to bone like that caused by  
547 shin-to-shin contact (low kick blocks), or shin to hard surface training equipment (heavy bag, pads)  
548 in certain striking sports such as Muay Thai, and Japanese kickboxing (K1)[39, 40]. Future studies

549 should consider using an experimental bone pain model [REF] where an algometer could be  
550 applied for example on the shin area rather than on a muscle area.

551 Further longitudinal studies like the one done by Thornton et al. [28], should also be considered  
552 to further parse the role of participation in contact sports in pain perception. If a change is indeed  
553 attributed to training, then it would imply that it is not a natural advantage that allows athletes to  
554 excel in their sport despite pain, but rather a developed ability. Such longitudinal studies could  
555 highlight the mechanisms associated with the development of pain reduction in contact sport  
556 athletes.

557 Finally, as pain is a perception and results from peripheral and central neurophysiological  
558 processes, referred to as nociception in the pain literature, future studies should be interested in  
559 differences in nociception between contact sport and other athletes. For example, future studies  
560 should investigate differences between sport expertise in nociceptive flexion reflex (R-III) which  
561 is considered as an index of spinal nociception with tonic supra-spinal influences [41]. Tests of  
562 central pain summation (e.g., [17, 38, 42]) or other pain modulation tests, such as heterotopic  
563 noxious counter-stimulation (conditioned pain modulation) [17], could be used to assess the  
564 efficacy of central pain regulatory mechanisms. Differences in brain responses to painful stimuli  
565 and to pain modulation tests between athletes with various sport expertise could further help  
566 document possible changes in these central processes.

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