Journal of Science and Technology
ISSN: 2456-5660 Volume 10, Issue 02 (Feb-2025)
www.jst.org.in *DOI:https://doi.org/10.46243/jst.2025.v10.i02.pp127- 141*

"Advancement in Neuromodulation Techniques for Neuropathic Pain: A Systematic Analysis"

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To Cite this Article
M Kishore Babu, R.V.S.Mounica, M Pavan Kumar, P.Swathi**,** "**Advancement in Neuromodulation Techniques for Neuropathic Pain: A Systematic Analysis**" *Journal of Science and Technology, Vol. 10, Issue 02- Feb 2025, pp127-141*

Article Info
Received: 24-12-2024 Revised: 02-02-2025 Accepted: 10-02-2025 Published: 20-02-2025

ABSTRACT: When the central nervous system—which includes the brain, spinal cord, and peripheral nerves—is injured or malfunctioning, it may lead to a persistent condition known as neuropathic pain. Thus, it is safe to say that neuropathic pain is a long-term condition that has enormous societal and healthcare systemic implications. It is anticipated that the prevalence of neuropathic pain will continue to climb, with estimates ranging from 7-8% in the general population. Neuropathy pain has a major effect on people's lives. Reducing the patient's symptoms of neuropathic pain and enhancing their quality of life is a challenge for the medical practitioner in India. Certain negative consequences, such as neuropathic pain, are more likely to manifest in the elderly. There has to be a distinct approach to managing neuropathic pain as it differs from nociceptive pain. A comprehensive literature study of neuropathic pain's causes, symptoms, progression, current treatment methods, and available pharmaceuticals formed the basis of this review paper. This study presents the clinical methods for neuropathic pain and their recommendations, as well as their practical application. Clinical data study with an emphasis on outcomes is used to alleviate neuropathic pain and related symptoms.

Keywords:
Neuropathic Pain, Models, Classification, Treatment

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INTRODUCTION: Tissue injury is a common cause of neuropathic pain (NP), a complex and persistent pain disease. When there is damage to or dysfunction in the nerve system, neuropathic pain may develop. In rare cases, neuropathic pain may be caused by malfunctioning or damaged nerve filaments. Any moment now, you might be experiencing neuropathic pain, which is brought on by an illness or damage to your central or peripheral nerve system. Erroneous signals are sent to different areas of pain by these damaged nerve fibers. Damage to nerve fibers at the lesion site and in the tissues around it causes a change in nerve function. A number of clinical signs may be present that point to neuropathic pain, including hyperalgesia, paresthesias, and spontaneous pain. As one expert put it, "the most horrifying of all the torments that a nerve wound may inflict" is neuropathic pain. 1. defined by sensory abnormalities such as dysesthesia, hyperalgesia, and allodynia, neuropathic pain is defined by an abnormally high sensitivity to painful stimuli. 2. Multiple diseases and disorders, such as cancer, may induce peripheral neuropathic pain. Infectious Agents

The Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS), diabetes mellitus type 2, lumbar disc syndrome, herpes simplex virus infection, multiple sclerosis, and stroke Common conditions linked to peripheral neuropathy pain include 3, 4 the time after a thoracotomy, herniorrhaphy, mastectomy, or sternotomy, and 5. Opioids and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are often prescribed pain treatments, although their efficacy in treating neuropathic pain has been inconsistent. Consequently, there is an immediate need to explore other treatment choices. Since the majority of stimuli might trigger neuropathic pain to cause permanent harm, measuring it in humans is challenging. Shocks that do not inflict long-term damage are therefore reserved for humans alone. More importantly, recruiting enough people to participate in such studies is challenging. Consequently, in order to investigate the origins of neuropathic pain and evaluate the analgesic efficacy of new pharmacotherapies, we need reliable and reproducible animal models of neuropathic pain. Reproducible sensory impairments including allodynia, hyperalgesia, and spontaneous pain should be elicited by ideal models. Animal models of sensory anomalies have allowed the study of potential pharmacotherapies for a number of human physiopathological diseases. For instance, in order to account for the wide variety of causes and symptoms associated with neuropathy, many models have been developed. These models include peripheral nerve injury (PNI) and spinal cord injury (SCI) produced peripheral and central pain. Pain models have been developed for a variety of medical conditions, including cancer, HIV/AIDS, postherpetic neuralgia (PHN), diabetes, chronic alcoholism, trigeminal neuralgia, and face pain. This study covers the epidemiology, pathophysiology, and categorization of neuropathic pain in great detail, as well as a plethora of animal models of the condition.

Classification of Pain: Based on the classifications established by Siddall, Taylor, and Cousins for spinal cord injury, the forms of pain are classified by symptom/sign combinations.

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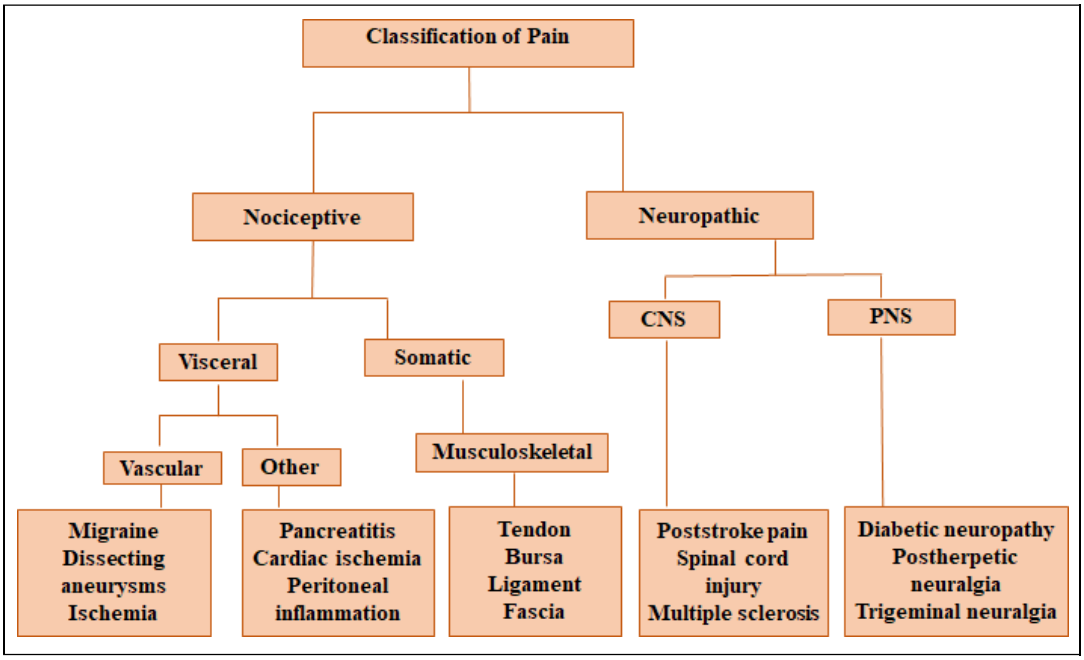

FIG. 1: CLASSIFICATION OF PAIN

Epidemiology: An important challenge in assessing the incidence and prevalence of neuropathic pain is the absence of precise diagnostic criteria for large epidemiological surveys in the general population. This highlights the importance of research conducted by the specialist center for certain diseases, such as postherpetic neuralgia, diabetic polyneuropathy, post-operative neuropathic pain, and uncomfortable post-herpetic neuralgia. Multiple sclerosis, spinal cord injury, stroke, and cancer have mostly been used to assess the prevalence of neuropathic pain in the chronic pain population. six, seven. The development of simple question-based screening procedures has lately aided the execution of several large-scale epidemiological surveys in countries like Brazil, the US, France, and the UK. According to recent data collected from screening instruments like the Douleur Neuropathique, the frequency of chronic pain characterized by neuropathic pain is believed to be between 7 and 10%. Numbers 8, 9. The most frequent locations affected by chronic neuropathic pain are the lower back and lower limbs, neck and upper limbs. It is more prevalent in women (8.2% vs. 5.7% in males) and patients over 50 years old (8.9% vs. 5.6% in those under 49 years old). 10. Lumbar and cervical painful radiculopathies are the leading causes of persistent neuropathic pain. Patients with chronic back pain and radiculopathy are especially impacted, with 40% of all patients referred to pain specialists in Germany experiencing some neuropathic pain symptoms, including burning sensations, numbness, and tingling. This includes both nociceptive and neuropathic chronic pain 11, 25.

Pathophysiology: Visceral pain (originating from internal organs like the pancreas or large intestine) and somatic pain (originating from skin, bone, joint, muscle, or connective tissue) are two distinct kinds of pain.

One of the first steps in creating pain is stimulating nociceptors, which are free nerve endings. These receptors are situated in visceral and somatic areas, and they are activated by mechanical, thermal, and chemical factors. It is known that nociceptors may be sensitized or activated by substances such as potassium, prostaglandins, histamine, leukotrienes, serotonin, and substrate-P. The activation of receptors and the subsequent transmission of signals to the spinal cord via afferent nerve fibers cause the generation of action potentials. From the site of the painful stimuli, action potentials travel up the spinal cord to the dorsal horn.

In order for central structures to interpret pain signals, the thalamus acts as a relay station. The body has several systems that regulate pain. In the Central Nervous System (CNS), you may find neurotransmitters like enkephalins, dynorphins, and β-endorphins, as well as receptors like ν, δ, and κ. These components comprise the endogenous opiate system. Opioid receptors bind endogenous opioids, which change the transmission of pain impulses. Additionally, the central nervous system has a descending mechanism that controls the transmission of pain signals. This brain-based mechanism has the ability to inhibit dorsal horn synaptic pain transmission. Important neurotransmitters in this region include endogenous opioids, serotonin, norepinephrine, γ-aminobutyric acid, and neurotensin.

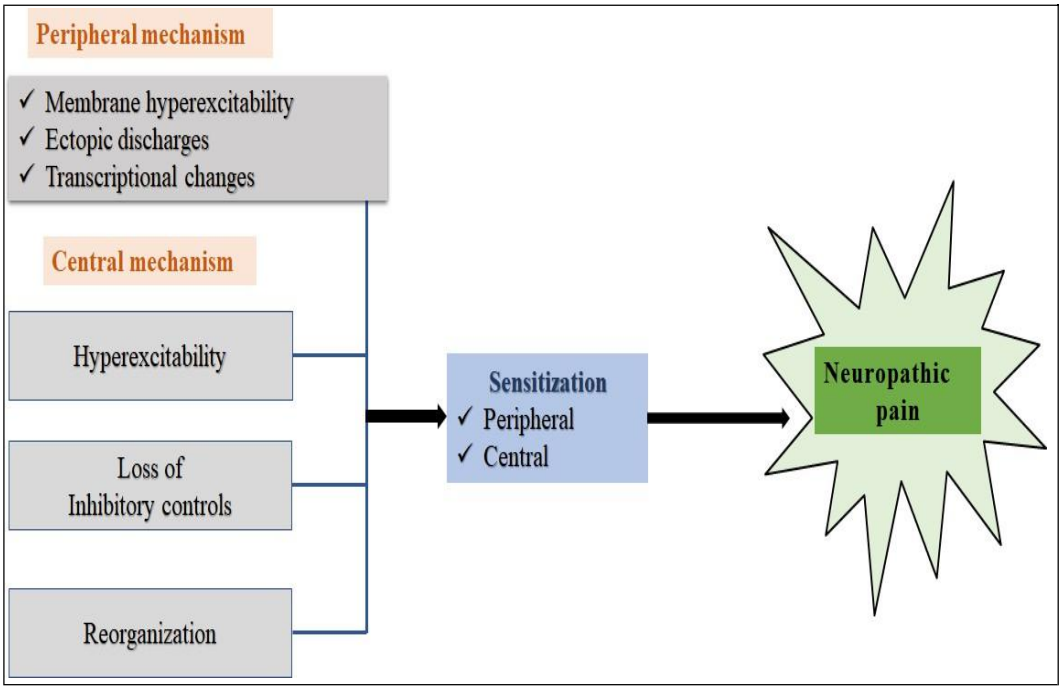

FIG. 2: PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF NEUROPATHIC PAIN

Signs & Symptoms: Acute pain signs such as hypertension, tachycardia, diaphoresis, mydriasis, and pallor are not diagnostic in nature. For those living with chronic pain, these symptoms are rather rare. It is typically possible to anticipate the consequences of therapy in cases of acute pain, and comorbid conditions are uncommon. The results of therapy for chronic pain patients are often unpredictable, and comorbid disorders are prevalent. The most reliable technique to determine the presence or absence of pain is to listen to the patient, review their medical history, and do a physical examination. In order to establish a standard for describing pain, it is helpful to evaluate the Palliative and Provoking, Quality, Radiation, Severity, and Timing (PQRST) aspects. Anxiety, despair, exhaustion, rage, and terror are mental factors that might reduce the pain threshold.

Behavioral, mental, social, and cultural factors may all have an impact on how someone experiences pain. Traditional painkillers are ineffective in treating neuropathic pain, which is often persistent and poorly understood. Hyperalgesia, an exaggerated painful reaction to normally unpleasant stimuli, and allodynia, a painful response to normally unpleasant stimuli, are both conceivable.

Pain that is either sharp or dull, electric-like, tingly, shooting, radiating, of changing intensity, location-dependent, and occurring in reaction to identifiable harmful stimuli in time is known as acute pain. There are many different manifestations of chronic pain, and it is very uncommon for there to be no obvious cause. Over time, the manifestation of chronic pain might shift from being acute to being more subtle or even nebulous.

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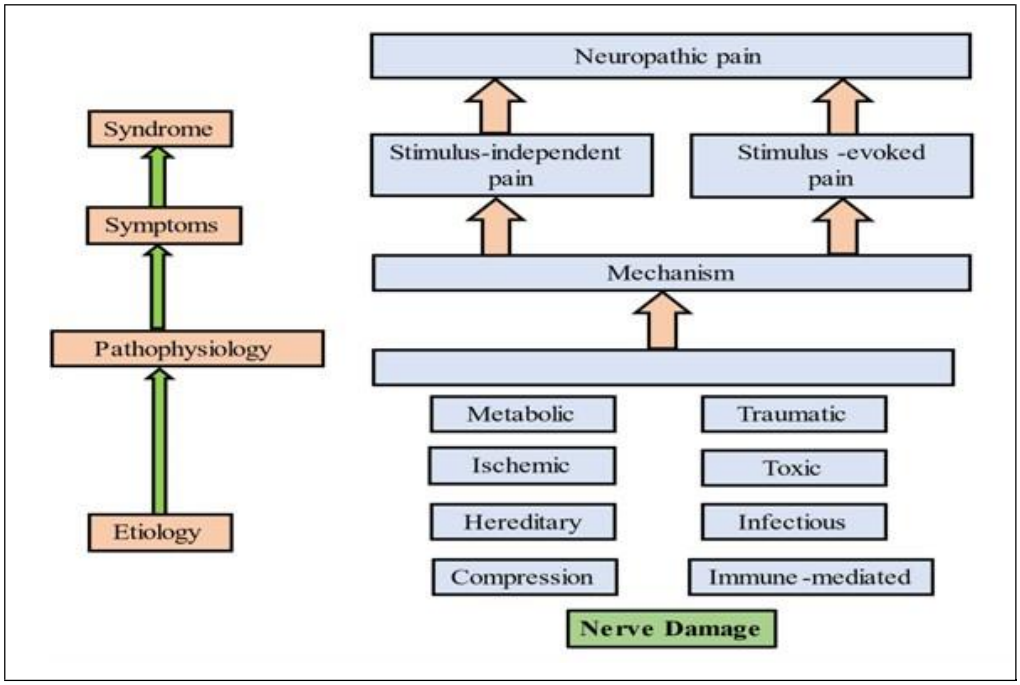

FIG. 3: ETIOLOGY, SYMPTOM AND MECHANISM

Causes and Distributions: Central neuropathic pain may be caused by problems with the spinal cord or brain. One major cause of central neuropathic pain is cerebral vascular disease, which may disrupt the central somatosensory pathways. Another prevalent cause is neurodegenerative illnesses. 26. Syringomyelia, multiple sclerosis, transverse myelitis, and neuromyelitis optica are demyelinating illnesses; spinal cord injuries and syringomyelia are other spinal cord lesions or diseases that may produce neuropathic pain. 27. The pathology involves short, unmyelinated C fibers and myelinated A-fibers, which are called Aβ and Aδ fibers, respectively.

neuropathic pain is caused by peripheral diseases. It is anticipated that peripheral neuropathic pain would increase in prevalence with the global aging population, the prevalence of diabetes mellitus, and the increasing incidence of cancer and chemotherapy side effects affecting all sensory fibers (Aβ, Aδ, and C fibers). One kind of peripheral neuropathic pain disease has a limited distribution, whereas the other has a more widespread (and often symmetrical) pattern. Critically crucial for clinical practice There are two main types of peripheral neuropathic pain disorders:

both those whose distributions are limited and those whose distributions are more generalized, often symmetrical. Painful generalized peripheral neuropathies can be caused by a variety of medical conditions, but some of the most significant ones include metabolic dysfunctions (such as pre-diabetes in diabetes), infectious diseases, inflammatory disorders, inherited neuropathies, and channelopathies (like inherited erythromelalgia, a disorder where blood vessels are episodically blocked). Infectious diseases, inflammatory disorders, metabolic dysfunctions (such as pre-diabetes and diabetes), inherited neuropathies and channelopathies (like inherited erythromelalgia, a disorder in which blood vessels are episodically blocked), and other genetic disorders are all examples of generalized peripheral neuropathies.

The pain in these conditions often radiates to the distal extremities, causing a "glove and stocking" distribution, since the affected areas are most noticeable—the feet, calves, hands, and forearms. The distal-proximal

progressive sensory loss, discomfort, and distal weakening that define distal peripheral neuropathies are often seen in this pattern 28, 29. A proximal distribution of pain affecting the trunk, thighs, and upper arms is seen when the illness involves the sensory ganglia. One or more peripheral nerves or nerve roots might be involved in pathological processes, which can lead to painful localized peripheral illnesses. Some examples of these conditions are trigeminal neuralgia, postherpetic neuralgia, complicated regional pain syndrome type 2, leprosy, diabetes mellitus, post-traumatic neuropathy, postsurgical neuropathy, cervical and lumbar polyradiculopathies, pain associated with HIV infection, and more (30). Rare genetic channelopathies may cause pain in unique ways and have different triggers. As an example, inherited erythromelalgia is brought on by mutations in SCN9A, the gene that codes for voltage-gated sodium channel Nav 1.7 (part of the machinery that generates and conducts action potentials). This condition, which manifests as pain and redness in the limbs, is worsened by high temperatures. It is possible for mechanical stimulation to cause pain in humans. associated with a cluster of SCN9A mutations that trigger painful and reddening episodes in the sacrum and mandible 32; this condition is known as severe paroxysmal pain disorder.

A Discordance Between Central Excitatory and Inhibitory Signaling, Impact on Inhibitory Interneurons, and the Descent Control System: Peripheral Neuropathy Modifies the Electrical Characteristics of Sensory Nerves No. 33. Because of this, the disinhibition or facilitation processes in the dorsal horn neurons of the spinal cord are altered, and sensory signal transmission is impacted. Preclinical research has given light on neuropathic pain and potential treatments by revealing a cascade of changes in anatomy, chemistry, and electrical activity that lead to a centralization of nervous system function. Excitement and facilitation are amplified, but inhibition is absent, in the brain, spinal cord, and periphery.

A gradual buildup of hyperexcitable sensory pathways may play a role in the onset of chronic neuropathic pain as a result of a cascade of alterations beginning in the periphery and progressing to the brain. After peripheral nerve injury, neuropathic pain may occur, and ectopic activity in primary afferent fibers is a possible contributor. Individuals suffering from severe diabetic polyneuropathy and traumatic peripheral nerve damage showed a complete alleviation of ipsilateral spontaneous and evoked pain after undergoing a peripheral nerve block. A lidocaine intraformational epidural injection reduced both painful and non-painful sensations in patients with phantom limb pain by blocking the dorsal root ganglion 35. There may be a peripheral foundation for neuropathic pain, since microneurography experiments have also shown pain-related spontaneous activity, especially in C fibers (36, 37). The underlying hyperexcitability in neuropathic pain is driven by changes in ion channel function and expression, second-order nociceptive neuronal function, and interneuronal inhibitory activity.

Damage to Nerve Ion Channels: Damage to nerve ions (sodium, calcium, and potassium) in nerves (which may include all afferent fibers) is one way that neuropathy impacts spinal and brain sensory signaling. There is an increase in excitability signal transduction and neurotransmitter release due to the increased expression and activity of sodium channels at the spinal cord terminal of sensory neurons, which is paralleled by higher expression of the $\alpha 2^{\delta}$ subunit of calcium channels. In patients with hereditary channelopathies, sodium channels are either absent or severely impaired, demonstrating the critical role they play in pain regulation. Also seen is a deficiency of potassium channels, which are responsible for controlling most brain functions. When an afferent fiber is severed from the periphery as a result of a lesion or injury, sensory loss occurs. However, a 'numb' region 38 could be the source of ectopic activity caused by remnants of fibers near the lesion site, such as neuroma C fiber afferents. The undamaged hyperexcitable fibers 39 are known as irrigatable nociceptors. Consequently, the patient can experience numbness, provoked pains, or persistent pain. A combination of altered spinal cord inputs and elevated calcium channel activity leads to an upregulation of the nociceptive circuit's excitatory synaptic transmission and an increase in neurotransmitter release at the nerve terminal.
Changes in Nociceptive Neurons of the Second Order: When the excitability of spinal neurons is increased,

it improves the way the brain responds to different types of sensory input. This is because low-threshold mechanosensitive Aβ and Aδ afferent fibers can activate second-order nociceptive neurons, which send sensory information to the brain. As a result, the receptive fields of these neurons are expanded, leading to central sensitization (40,41). A surplus of signaling caused by phosphorylation of N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) and α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptors, as well as other postsynaptic alterations in second-order nociceptive neurons, are resulted from the continuous discharge of peripheral afferent fibers along with the simultaneous release of excitatory amino acids and neuropeptides 42, 43.

Animal and human studies have shown that these second-order modifications, together with enhanced sensory thalamic neuronal activity, might provide a plausible explanation for physical allodynia. Hyperexcitability 44 may result from the degeneration of inhibitory interneurons that release gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), which enables them to switch to excitatory activity at the spinal level. The role of less-well-known functional changes in the development of hypersensitivity in microglia and astrocytes, two non-neuronal cells found in the spinal cord, is unclear.

Factors Contributing to Neuropathic Pain: Some persons with neuropathic pain have mild symptoms, while others have very severe symptoms. There is a wide range of variation in the types and doses of patient responses to pharmaceutical and non-pharmacological therapy. The central nervous system's role in the transformation of the pain message might be a critical factor in this variation 46, 47. From its entrance point (the dorsal horn), the pain signal may be enhanced or decreased as it passes through the central nervous system (CNS) and reaches the cerebral cortex (the region critical for awareness). There are a lot of channels and interference, thus it's possible to change the claimed association between peripheral pathology and pain syndrome severity. A pro-nociceptive pain modulation profile, shown by the amplification of pain signals in the central nervous system, is present in the majority of individuals suffering from neuropathic pain. Therefore, pain perception might be hindered by either decreased descending endogenous inhibition (as shown by less effective Chlorpheniramine (BOX-1)) or increased sensitization of ascending pain pathways (as shown in the larger temporal summation of painful stimulations), or perhaps both. Patients with neuropathic pain had a steeper rise in the slope of the enhanced temporal summation compared to those without neuropathic pain. Compared to healthy controls, those suffering from a range of pain disorders find CPM to be less effective.
49. Pain modulation as a means to tailor pain treatment to each patient's unique needs is an intriguing prospect. Pain modulation profiles may foretell when and how bad postoperative pain will be, according to the research 50, 54.
In smaller studies, drugs that decrease facilitation, like gabapentinoids, may be used to treat patients with a facilitatory pro-nociceptive profile. In larger studies, drugs that increase inhibitory capacity, like serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors, may be used to treat patients with an inhibitory pro-nociceptive profile. In people 55, both duloxetine (a selective serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor) and tapentadol (a noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor) restore CPM, suggesting that a combination of the two may be necessary for individuals with low CPM and high temporal summation. Additionally, a patient's changed pain modulation profile may be

Arthroplasty surgery in osteoarthritis patients demonstrates that the body may be returned to normal once the damaged joint is replaced, leading to pain relief and normalization of the central and peripheral processes for the majority of patients. An important factor in pain modulation is expectation-induced analgesia, which occurs when patients' preferences and beliefs affect how their bodies react to neuropathic pain treatments. Irritable Bowel Syndrome Pain and Expectation-Induced Analgesia in a Laboratory Setting unidentified pain and pain caused by nerves 56 and 61 looked explored the possibility of expectation-induced analgesia in

cases of post-thoracotomy neuropathic pain. Both the open (i.e., patients were informed, "The agent you have just been given is known to reduce pain in some patients powerfully") and concealed (i.e., this is a control condition for the) administration of lidocaine was performed on patients.

Using an established procedure, the open group demonstrated a significant decrease in chronic pain, maximal wind-up-like pain, and hyperalgesia in a specific location, corroborating earlier findings. These results suggest an internal mechanism that inhibits pain, which may help in phenotyping neuropathic pain sufferers and designing treatment trials. In order to get the most out of pain medication, it's best to keep these side effects to a minimum during clinical trials and intentionally ramp them up during routine clinical procedures.

Animal Models of Neuropathic Pain: There are various types of neuropathic pain models in **Table 1.**

TABLE 1: DIFFERENT TYPES OF ANIMAL MODELS FOR NEUROPATHIC PAIN [62]

S. no.	Name of models	Principle of injury	Species	References
1	Axotomy (complete sciatic nerve transection)	Axotomy (complete sciatic nerve transection)	Rats	63
2	Chronic constriction injury	Four loose ligatures around sciatic nerve	Rats & mice	64
3	Partial sciatic nerve ligation (Seltzer Model)	Tight ligation of one-third to half of sciatic nerve	Rats & mice	65
4	Spinal nerve ligation	Tight ligation of L5 and L6 spinal nerves tight ligation of L7 spinal nerve	Rats Rats	66 67
5	Spared nerve injury	Axotomy of tibial and common peroneal nerves	Rats & mice	68
6	Tibial and sural nerve transection	Axotomy of tibial and sural nerves	Rats	69
7	Ligation of common peroneal nerve	Ligation of common peroneal nerve	Mice	70
8	Sciatic cryoneurolysis	Freezing of the sciatic nerve	Rats	71
9	Caudal trunk resection	Resection of caudal trunk	Rats & mice	72
10	Sciatic inflammatory neuritis	Injection of zymosan, HMGand TNF-alpha aroundthe sciatic nerve	Rats & mice	73
11	Cuffing-induced sciatic nerve injury	Implantation of polyethylene cuff around the sciatic nerve	Rats & mice	74,75
12	Photochemical-induced sciatic nerve injury	Thrombosis in small vessels supplying sciatic nerve by photosensitizing dye and laser	Rats & mice	76
13	Laser-induced sciatic nerve injury	Radiation mediated reduction in blood supply to the sciatic nerve	Rats	77
14	Weight-drop or contusive spinal cord injury	Dropping a weight over the exposed spinal cord	Rats & mice	78,79
15	Excitotoxic spinal cord injury	Intraspinal injections of excitatory amino acids	Rats & mice	80
16	Photochemical spinal cord injury	Thrombosis in blood vessels supplying the spinal cord by photosensitizing dye and laser	Rats	81
17	Spinal hemisection	Laminectomy of T11-T12 segments.	Rats	82
18	Drugs-induced Anti-cancer agents (vincristine, cisplatin, oxaliplatin, paclitaxel) Anti-HIV agents (2,3 dideoxycytidine, didanosine)	Anti-HIV agents (2,3-dideoxycytidine,didanosine)	Rats & mice Guinea pigs Rabbits& rats	83 84,85
19	Diabetes-induced neuropathy Streptozotocin-induced Genetic models	Persistent hyperglycemia-induced changes in the nerves	Rats & mice	86,87
20	Bone cancer pain models Femur, calcaneus, tibial, humerus bone cancer pain (a) Neuropathic cancer pain (b) Skin cancer pain	Inoculation of cancerous cells into respective bones Growing a tumor in the vicinity of the sciatic nerve Injection of melanoma cells in the plantar region of the hind paw	Rats & mice Mice Mice	88,89 90,91 92
21	HIV-induced neuropathy	Delivery of HIV-1 protein gp 120 to the sciatic nerve	Rats	93

22	Post-herpetic neuralgia Varicella Zoster virus Herpes simplex virus (a) Non-viral model	Injection of virally infected cells in the footpad Depletion of capsaicin-sensitive Afferents with resiniferotoxin	Rats & mice Rats	94,95 96,97
23	Chronic ethanol consumption/withdrawal	Administration of ethanol over an extended period (around 70 days)	Rats	98
24	Pyridoxine-induced	Administration of high-dose pyridoxine for a long period	Dogs & rats	99
25	Trigeminal Neuralgia	Compression of trigeminal ganglion chronic constriction injury to the infraorbital nerve	Rats Rats	100 101
26	Orofacial pain	Injection of formalin, carrageenan into temporomandibular joints and maxilla	Rats & mice	102
27	Acrylamide-induced	Administration of acrylamide for a prolonged period	Rats	103,104

Pharmacological Treatment for Neuropathic Pain: Because of misunderstandings regarding the pathophysiology of their pain, the elderly and the young are at a higher risk of undertreatment. The process of pain management is shown in **Fig. 4**. The agents used for pain management are non- opioid and opioid agents respectively.

Nonopioid Agents: Analgesia should be initiated with the most effective analgesic with the fewest side effects. Adult dosage, half-life, and selected pharmacodynamics of FDA-approved non-opioid analgesics are shown in **Table 2**.

Non-opioids are preferred over opioids for mild to moderate pain. Salicylates and Nonsteroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs) diminish the number of pain signals received by the CNS by reducing prostaglandins produced by the arachidonic acid cascade. NSAIDs may be especially beneficial in the treatment of cancer- related bone pain.

NSAIDs are more prone to induce gastrointestinal problems. Salicylate salts have fewer Gastrointestinal (GI) adverse effects than aspirin and don't stop platelets from clumping together. Reye's syndrome can occur if aspirin-like chemicals are administered to children or teenagers with influenza or chickenpox. Acetaminophen possesses analgesic and antipyretic properties but not much in the way of anti-inflammatory properties. When taken in excess, it is extremely hepatotoxic.

Opioid Agents: The beginning of action for oral opioids takes about 45m and the maximal effect takes about 1 to 2 h. Demonstration of equianalgesic dosages, dosing guidelines histamine-releasing properties, significant side effects and opioid pharmacokinetics are present in **Table 2** and **3**.

The equianalgesic doses are simply a suggestion; doses must be tailored to the patient's needs. Partially agonists and antagonists compete for opioid receptor sites with agonists, resulting in mixed agonist-antagonist action.

They may target analgesic receptor sites with greater selectivity, resulting in fewer adverse effects. Analgesics should be given around the clock in the early stages of acute pain therapy. Schedules can be employed on an as-needed basis as the unpleasant state subsidies. Chronic pain management can also benefit from round-the-clock administration. Patients with acute pain may be given extremely high doses of opioids with no negative side effects, but once the pain lessens, even low dosages may be too much for them.

Most itching and rash caused by opioids is due to histamine release and mast cell degranulation rather than an allergic reaction. When an opioid causes an allergic reaction, medication from a different structural class of opioids should be tried with caution. A mixture of agonist/antagonist classes performs like morphine-like agonists for these uses
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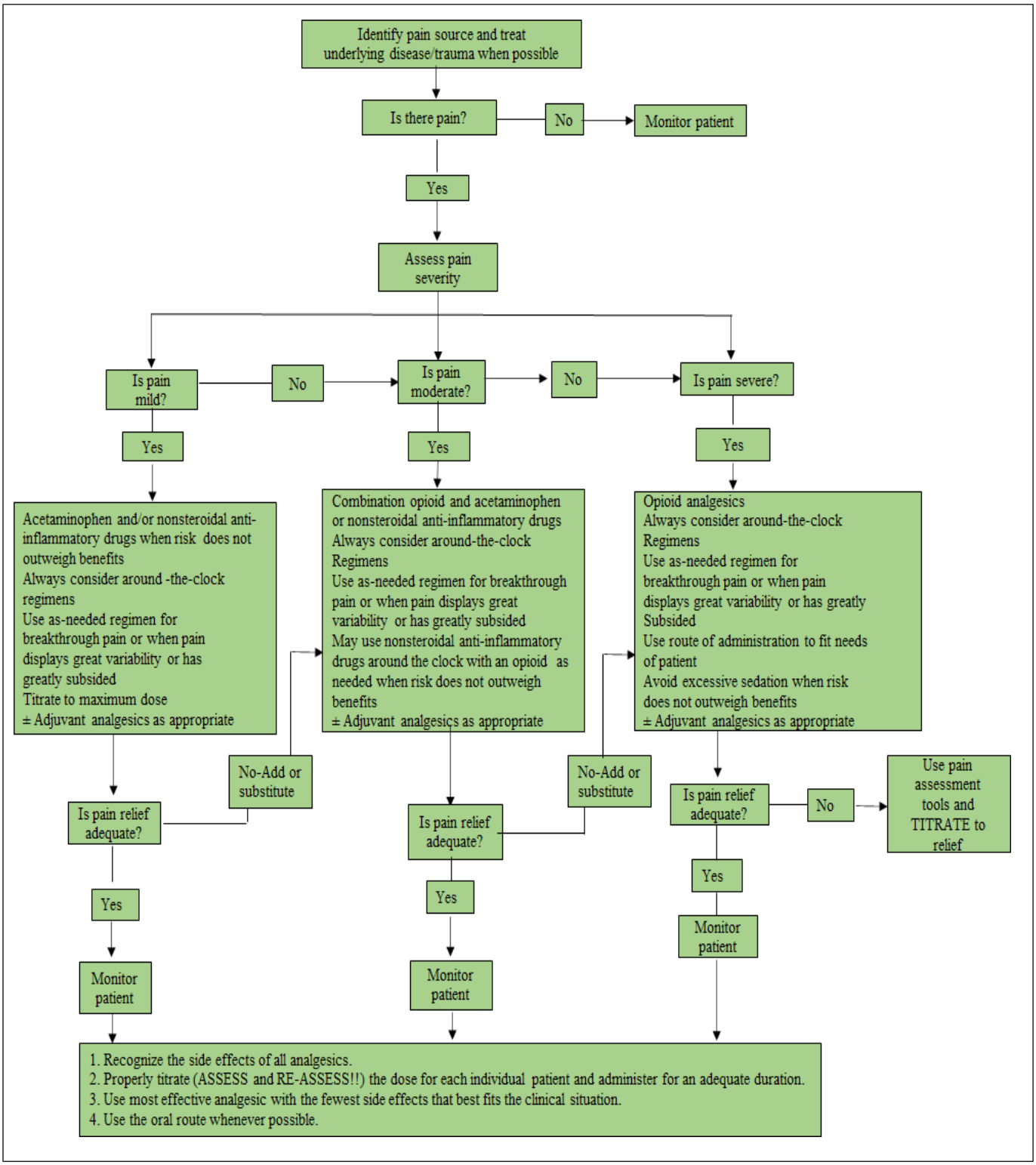

FIG. 4: THE PROCESS OF NEUROPATHIC PAIN MANAGEMENT

TABLE 2: FDA-APPROVED NON-OPIOID DRUGS

Class and generic name	Half-life	Dosage (mg)	Maximal dose (mg)
Salicylates: Acetylsalicylic acid-aspirin	0.25	325-1,000 q 4-6 h	4,000
Magnesium-anhydrous (Doan's,	Nd/Nd	304-607 q 4 h	3,738
combinations of choline and magnesium	8-12	607-934 q 6 h	1,500
are available) Diflunisal (Dolobid,)		500-1,000 initial 250-500 q 8-12 h	
Para-Aminophenol: Acetaminophen[a]	2-3	325-1,000 q 4-6 h	4,000[b]

(Tylenol)			
Fenamates: Meclofenamate Mefenamic	0.8-2.1	50-100 q 4-6 h	400
acid (Ponstel)	2	Initial 500 250 q 6 h (maximum 7 days)	1,000[c]
Pyranocarboxylic acid: Etodolac (immediate release)	7.3	200-400 q 6-8 h	1,000
Acetic acid: Diclofenac potassium		In some patients, an initial 100, 50 three	150[d]
(Cataflam)	1.9	times per day	
Propionic acids: Ibuprofen[a] (Motrin)	2-2.5	200-400 q 4-6 h	3,200[e]
Fenoprofen (Nalfon) Ketoprofen Naproxen	3	200 q 4-6 h	2,400[e]
(Naprosyn, Anaprox) Naproxen sodium[a]	2	25-50 q 6-8 h	1,200[f]
(Aleve, various)	12-17	500initial	3,200
	12-13	500 q 12 h or	300
		250 q 6-8 h	1000[c]
		In some patients, 440 initial f	660[f]
		660f 220 q 8-12 hf	
Pyrrolizine carboxylic acid: Ketorolac-	5-6	30-60 (single) IM dose only)	30-60
parenteral Ketorolac-oral indicated for	5-6	15-30 (single) IV dose only)	15-30
continuation	11	10 q 4-6 h (maximum of 5 days,	60-120
with parenteral only		which includes parenteral	40
Cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitors: Celecoxib		doses) In some patients, initial oral	400
(Celebrex)		dose of 20 Initial 400 followed by	
		another 200 on the first day, then 200	
		twice daily	

a: available both as a non-prescriptionover-the-counter preparation and as a prescription drug. b: Some experts believe 4,000mg/high c: Up to 1,250 mg on the first-day d: Up to 200 mg on the first-day e: Some individuals may respond better to 3,200 mg as opposed to 2,400mg, although well-controlled trials show no better response; f: Nonprescription dose.

TABLE 3: OPIOID ANALGESIC

Class and name of drugs	Chemical source	Route	Equianalgesic dose in adults (mg)	Onset (minutes) /Half-life (hours)
Phenanthrenes (morphine-like	Naturally,	i.m, p.o, i.m	10, 30, 1.5, 7.5	10-20/2, 10-20/2-3
agonists): Morphine,	occurring	p.o, i.m	1, 5[a], 10, 2 (acute), 4	10-20/2-3, 10-
Hydromorphone, (Dilaudid)	Semisynthetic	R, p.o, i.m	(acute), 1 (chronic), 1	20/12-16, 10-30/3,
Oxymorphone (Numorphan, Opana)	Semisynthetic	p.o, i.m	(chronic), 15-30[b]	30-60/4, 30-60/2-3
Levorphanol Codeine Hydrocodone	Semisynthetic	p.o, i.m, p.o	15-30[b], 5-10[b], 20-30[c],	10-20/3-4, 7-15/3-4
(availableas a combination)	Naturally	p.o, p.o, i.m, p.o	75, 50-150[b]	
Oxycodone	occurring	i.m,	0.1, 25 mcg/hour [d]	
Phenylpiperidines (meperidine-like	Semisynthetic	Transdermal	Variable[e] Variable[f]	
agonists): Meperidine (Demerol)	Semisynthetic	Buccal,,	(acute)	
Fentanyl (Sublimaze, Duragesic)	Synthetic	transmucosal,		
Diphenylheptanes (methadone-like	Synthetic	i.m		
agonist): Methadone	Synthetic			
(Dolophine) Propoxyphene	Synthetic,	p.o, i.m	Variable[f] (acute)	30-60/12-190, 30-
(Darvon) Agonist-antagonist	Synthetic	p.o, p.o, i.m, p.o	Variable[f,] (chronic)	60/6-12, 15-30/2-3,
derivatives: Pentazocine (Talwin)	Synthetic,	i.m, Intranasal	Variable[f](chronic)	10-20/3-4 <15/5,
Butorphanol (Stadol) Nalbuphine	Semisynthetic,	i.m, i.m, i.v, p.o	65[b], Not	10-20/2-3, 1-2 (IV),
(Nubain) Buprenorphine (Buprenex)	Semisynthetic		recommended, 50[b], 2,	2-5(IM)/0.5-1.3,
Antagonists: Naloxone (Narcan)	Synthetic		1[b](one spray), 10,	<60/5-7
Central analgesic: Tramadol (Ultram)	Synthetic		0.4, 0.4-2[g], 50-100[b]	

a: The American pain society considers 5mg rectal morphine = 5mg rectal oxymorphone. b: Starting dose only (equianalgesic not shown). c: Starting doses lower (oxycodone 5-10mg, meperidine 50-150mg). d: Equivalent po morphine dose= 45-134 mg/day. e: For breakthrough pain only. f:The equianalgesic dose of methadone when compared with other opioids will decrease progressively the higher the previous opioid dose has been. g: Starting doses to be used in cases of opioid overdose.

Morphine and Congeners (Phenanthrenes): When dealing with moderate to severe pain, many doctors recommend morphine as a first therapy option. Nausea and vomiting are more common in outpatient patients particularly during the first dosage. The degree of respiratory depression increases in direct proportion to the dosage. A slowing of the respiratory rate and a diminished cough reflex are common symptoms. Respiratory issues are more common in patients who already have pulmonary impairment. Reversal of respiratory depression is possible with the use of naloxone. Combining opioid analgesics with alcohol or other central nervous system depressants amplifies CNS depression, making the combination more dangerous and potentially fatal. When you take morphine, your blood vessels and arteries dilate, which lowers your blood pressure, a condition known as orthostatic hypotension. Morphine may cause hypotension, and individuals who are dehydrated are more likely to experience it. Myocardial infarction pain is often alleviated by morphine because it reduces myocardial oxygen demand. Morphine has a number of undesirable side effects, including constipation, sphincter of Oddi spasms, urine retention, and itching (caused by histamine release). Respiratory depression caused by morphine in non-ventilated head trauma patients has the potential to increase intracranial pressure and skew neurologic test findings.
Combinations of Meperidine with Phenylpiperidines: When used in large doses or by those with renal disease, the active metabolite normeperidine may build up and cause tremors, muscular twitching, and even seizures; meperidine is also less effective and has a shorter duration of action than morphine. Do not take it for an extended period of time since it is not better than morphine in the majority of cases. The elderly or those with renal impairment should not take meperidine with monoamine oxidase inhibitors since it might cause serious respiratory depression, excitement, delirium, hyperpyrexia, and convulsions. The synthetic opioid fentanyl has a molecular structure similar to that of meperidine. In the field of anesthesiology, it is often administered with general anesthesia. When compared to meperidine, its efficacy is stronger, but its duration of effect is shorter. Transdermal fentanyl is an option for those with chronic pain who need opioid analgesics. The maximum analgesic benefit of a patch takes 12–24 hours to take effect, and the pain relief may last for up to 72 hours following application. Reaching new steady-state levels after a dosage increase might take up to six days. Therefore, you shouldn't use the fentanyl patch if you're experiencing severe pain. If you're experiencing pain after a cancer breakout, you may take a fentanyl lozenge orally.

In comparison to its congeners, diphenyl heptanes, methadone is more effective when taken orally, has a longer half-life, and may alleviate heroin withdrawal symptoms. As the analgesic methadone is taken in many dosages, the

the effects last longer, but you can feel very sleepy as a side effect. Although it may alleviate short-term pain, its main use is in the treatment of chronic pain caused by cancer.
Opioid receptor agonist and antagonist This family of opioids produces analgesia and, because of its ceiling impact on respiratory depression, is less likely to be misused than morphine. The possibility to produce withdrawal in those addicted on opioids, psychotomimetic effects (such as distress and hallucinations with pentazocine), and a ceiling analgesic effect have all restricted their usage.
Analgesics for Opioids: Although it binds competitively to opioid receptors, the analgesic effects of naloxone are negligible. The side effects of opioid agonists and agonist-antagonists may be mitigated with its help. Tramadol is an analgesic that acts centrally; it binds to opiate receptors and somewhat inhibits norepinephrine and serotonin reuptake. When taken for moderate to severe pain, it provides relief. The adverse effects of tramadol are comparable to those of other opioid analgesics. Additionally, it might increase your risk of having a seizure. While it doesn't work better than other opioid analgesics for acute pain, it could help with chronic pain, especially neuropathic pain.
The use of a combination of an opioid and a non-opioid oral analgesic, with lower dosages of each medicine, is often more effective than monotherapy for pain relief. If you're experiencing pain from bone metastases, it may be helpful to take an NSAID with an opioid dosage that is timed.
Assessing the Results of Treatment: It is crucial to regularly check the intensity of pain, the level of alleviation,

and any adverse effects of medication. The time and frequency of evaluations are determined by the kind of pain and the drugs that are utilized. While surgical pain and acute cancer pain may need hourly examination, chronic nonmalignant pain may simply require daily (or less frequent) monitoring. Ongoing evaluation of the patient's quality of life is essential. Avoiding opioid-induced constipation is the best course of action. Patients using opioids for an extended period of time should be given a laxative and instructed to drink plenty of water and fiber.

Additional investigation into the reason is warranted if acute pain persists beyond the usual duration of 1 to 2 weeks.

CONCLUSION: A lot of people deal with the debilitating effects of neuropathic pain, which is rather prevalent. Clinical practice recommendations for the diagnosis and treatment of neuropathic pain have been produced by a number of professional organizations. The conceptual and methodological challenges that surround these recommendations make it difficult for them to be used in everyday clinical practice and cast doubt on the validity of the research that supports them. Problems with current pain management methods and the low quality of life experienced by those who suffer from neuropathic pain need the development of new pharmaceutical treatments.
Several animal models of neuropathic pain have been created due to the fact that neuropathic pain may have different causes. The use of models that include peripheral nerve damage as a result of ligation has become more common. Conversely, models based on peripheral nerve branches are seeing more use due to their clear benefits.
In order to research the mechanisms that lead to central pain, spinal hemisection and excitotoxin-induced spinal cord injuries are the preferred models. To further our understanding of the pathogenesis and improvement of pain management in clinical settings, several research groups have used pain models induced by chemotherapeutic drugs, diabetes, HIV, alcoholism, and other causes.

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