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REVIEW 2

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TRANSLATIONAL NEUROPATHIC PAIN RESEARCH: 3 A CLINICAL PERSPECTIVE 4

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q Abstract-Neuropathic pain encompasses a broad range of conditions associated with a lesion or disease of the peripheral or central somatosensory system and its prevalence in the general population may be as high as 7-8%. The interest in the pathophysiology of neuropathic pain has increased over the last two decades with an exponential increase in the number of experimental studies. However, despite the hopes raised by scientific discoveries, there has been no rational development of a truly new class of drugs. This situation revealing the limitations of certain experimental models, also results of limitations in clinical research. One of the reasons for the therapeutic difficulties in these patients is probably due to the fact that treatments are used in a uniform fashion whatever the clinical picture, while these syndromes are in fact highly heterogeneous. Clinical advances have recently been made in this field, following the validation of new specific clinical tools and the standardization of quantitative sensory testing paradigms facilitating improvements in the clinical characterization of these syndromes. It has been clearly demonstrated that neuropathic pain is a consistent clinical entity, but it is multidimensional in terms of its clinical expression, with different sensory profiles, potentially reflecting specific pathophysiological mechanisms. This new conceptualization of neuropathic pain should improve the characterization of the responder profiles in clinical trials and provide valuable information for the development of new and more clinically sound translational approaches in experimental models in animals.

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Key words: chronic pain, clinical research, translational research, treatment strategies.

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INTRODUCTION

Chronic pain affects at least 20-30% of the general 30 population (Elliott et al., 1999; Bouhassira et al., 2008). 31 It is still essentially managed according to the empirical 32 classification established more than 60 years ago, in 33 which three major categories of pain syndromes can be 34 distinguished: (i) nociceptive pain of various causes 35 (e.g. burns, trauma, infections, tumors, surgery), which 36 may affect various tissues (skin, joints, muscles, viscera). 37 This type of pain is usually associated with inflammatory 38 processes and is treated with usual analgesics, such as 39 anti-inflammatory agents and weak or strong opioids; (ii) 40 neuropathic pain syndromes, which are related to periph-41 eral or central nervous system injuries. These chronic and 42 extremely incapacitating pain syndromes (Attal et al., 43 2011a,b) are among the most difficult to treat because 44 they do not respond to usual analgesics and respond only 45 partially to antidepressants, antiepileptic drugs or strong 46 opioids; (iii) 'dysfunctional', or 'primary' pain which 47 remains ill-defined and includes various chronic pain syn-48 dromes, such as irritable bowel syndrome and fibromyal-49 gia, not associated with an identifiable somatic, visceral or 50 neurological lesion (Treede et al., 2015). The treatment of 51 chronic pain syndromes remains a major clinical chal-52 lenge, as pain relief is generally only partial and achieved 53 in less than 50% of patients on currently recommended 54 treatments; success rate are particularly low for patients 55 with neuropathic pain (Finnerup et al., 2015).

Interest in neuropathic pain syndromes has increased 57 over the last two decades, with a large proportion of 58 experimental and clinical studies devoted to the 59 investigation of their mechanisms and the improvement 60

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of treatment outcomes. The multiple (>20) animal 61 models now available have considerably modified our 62 understanding of the pathophysiological concepts 63 relating to neuropathic pain. However, it remains unclear 64 whether the mechanisms identified in these models 65 actually operate in clinical pain conditions, as only a few 66 such mechanisms have been directly demonstrated in 67 68 patients. The exponential increase in the number of experimental studies conducted over the last 15 years in 69 the field of neuropathic pain has not yet led to any 70 major clinical applications. Thus, although classical first 71 line neuropathic pain treatments (i.e. antidepressants 72 73 and anticonvulsants) are now more widely and better used than in the past, there has been no rational 74 development of a truly new class of drugs, despite the 75 hopes raised by scientific discoveries and the 76 considerable investment in this area by many public and 77 private laboratories. One reason for this may be the 78 poor predictive value of pharmacological data for new 79 potential analgesics developed in animals (Percie du 80 Sert and Rice, 2014). These experimental models, which 81 have been shown to be highly sensitive to many current or 82 83 new pharmacological agents, unfortunately seem to lack 84 specificity for the identification of new compounds of 85 potential clinical relevance. We feel that this situation, 86 revealing the limitations and unsuitability of certain exper-87 imental models, also results from a lack of interaction 88 between clinicians and basic scientists and a lack of pathophysiological studies carried out directly on patients. 89 Indeed, a clinical approach of this type appears to be 90 essential for the formulation of new relevant scientific 91 questions, the adaptation of experimental models, the 92 confirmation of pathophysiological hypotheses and the 93 establishment of links between clinical questions and 94 basic research findings. The fascinating and highly 95 promising findings and hypotheses continually generated 96 97 by basic scientists, as a result of the extraordinary techno-98 logical developments occurring in molecular and cell biology, have probably overshadowed the lack of basic 99 clinical information. It therefore remains uncertain 100 whether further technological progress and the applica-101 tion of increasingly sophisticated methods based on cur-102 rent experimental models can make a significant 103 contribution to therapeutic applications in this field, unless 104 the clinical landscape is clarified. 105

In this review we will summarize the main clinical 106 aspects on the definition, diagnosis, assessment and 107 pharmacological management of neuropathic pain in the 108 clinical setting. We will then address specific issues 109 relating to clinical research in this field, including 110 111 possible changes to the design of future clinical trials, that might facilitate translational research in the future. 112

GENERAL CLINICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF 113 **NEUROPATHIC PAIN** 114

According to the definition proposed by the International 115 Association for the Study of Pain (IASP) the term 116 neuropathic pain (NeP) refers to pain caused by a 117 lesion or disease of the somatosensory system. Thus, 118 neuropathic pain syndromes encompass a very large 119

number of etiologies and, unsurprisingly, epidemiological 120 studies have shown that their prevalence in the general population may be as high as 7 to 8% (Torrance et al., 2006; Bouhassira et al., 2008), accounting for 20 to 25% of those with chronic pain.

Clinical manifestations include both positive and 125 negative phenomena (Baron et al., 2010). The positive 126 phenomena include various painful symptoms (see 127 below), paresthesia and/or dysesthesia, which, by defini-128 tion, are abnormal *nonpainful* sensations (e.g. tingling, 129 numbness, pins and needles). Negative phenomena usu-130 ally include neurological sensory deficits in the painful 131 area, together with other deficits (motor, cognitive etc.), 132 depending on the location of the lesion. Such symptoms 133 have been reported for a number of lesions or diseases 134 affecting the peripheral or central nervous system. Painful 135 peripheral neuropathies include multiple conditions, such 136 as diabetic neuropathy, post-herpetic neuralgia, traumatic 137 or post-surgical nerve injury and HIV neuropathy. Many 138 patients present with mixed pain syndromes involving 139 both neuropathic and non-neuropathic mechanisms, such 140 as lumbar or cervical radiculopathies, which are among 141 the most frequent causes of peripheral neuropathic pain 142 in the general population (Bouhassira et al., 2008). Cen-143 tral pain syndromes are not uncommon, as they are 144 observed in up to 8% of patients after a stroke, in approx-145 imately 30-50% of patients with a spinal cord injury, a 146 large majority of whom present with a syringomyelia, 147 and up to 20 -25% of patients with multiple sclerosis 148 (Klit et al., 2009; Finnerup and Baastrup, 2012; Foley 149 et al., 2013). 150

Neuropathic pain symptoms include spontaneous pain, continuous or paroxysmal and evoked pain (Baron et al., 2010). Evoked pain, which can be more distressing than spontaneous pain, is termed allodynia when it is triggered by normally non-noxious stimuli and hyperalgesia when it corresponds to an exaggerated response to a normally noxious stimulus. Evoked pain can be triggered by mechanical or thermal stimuli. Mechanical allodynia can be preferentially triggered by moving stimuli (i.e. dynamic mechano-allodynia), or by pressure or punctate stimuli (i.e. static mechano-allodynia). Evoked pain can also be triggered by thermal stimuli, either heat or cold, but cold allodynia/hyperalgesia is much more frequent than heat allodynia/hyperalgesia in these patients (Attal et al., 2008; Maier et al., 2011).

It has repeatedly been shown over the last 10 years 166 that the words that patients used to describe their pain 167 (i.e. pain descriptors) differ between patients with 168 neuropathic and non-neuropathic pain. Indeed, despite 169 its many causes, neuropathic pain is characterized by 170 the combination of a relatively small number of "core" 171 pain qualities (particularly burning pain, electric shock-172 like pain, dysesthesia and brush allodynia) that 173 distinguish it from other types of chronic pain 174 (Bouhassira and Attal, 2011). This observation has led 175 to the development and validation of a number of clinical 176 tools in the form of simple symptom-based questionnaires 177 for the screening and identification of neuropathic pain in 178 clinical practice (e.g. Bennett, 2001; Bouhassira et al., 179 2005; Freynhagen et al., 2006). None of the individual 180

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