Pharmacologic Management of Neuropathic Pain

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Disclosure Statement

I have nothing to disclose
True or False

- Opioids are not effective analgesic agents for neuropathic pain
  
  A. True
  B. False
Pregabalin doses do not need to be adjusted in a patient with chronic kidney disease stage IV

A. True  
B. False
All of the following agents may be considered first line medications for the treatment of neuropathic pain except:

A. Nortriptyline
B. Duloxetine
C. Desipramine
D. Oxycodone CR
E. Venlafaxine
NEUROPATHIC PAIN DEFINITION

»
The IASP has defined neuropathic pain as “pain initiated or caused by a primary lesion or dysfunction in the nervous system.”

Controversy exists regarding the definition of neuropathic pain and what it entails. Max has argued for removal of the words “or dysfunction” from the IASP definition and proposed that the definition for neuropathic pain be “pain initiated or caused by a primary lesion of the nervous system.”

Conversely, Jensen and coworkers have opined that on the other hand, going back to a pure neuroanatomic description of neuropathic pain overlooks the plasticity of the nervous system and its continuous modulation, which may change after activation or injury.

IASP has recently published a new definition of neuropathic pain according to which neuropathic pain is defined as “pain caused by a lesion or disease of the somatosensory system” (www.iasp-pain.org/resources/painDefinition).

This definition replaces the 17-year old definition that appeared in the *Classification of Chronic Pain* published by IASP in 1994, which defined neuropathic pain as “pain initiated or caused by a primary lesion, dysfunction, or transitory perturbation of the peripheral or central nervous system”

Two important changes in the new version:
- The word “dysfunction” has been removed
- A lesion or disease affecting the nervous system has been specified to be a lesion or disease of the somatosensory system.
Treede and associates proposed that neuropathic pain (NP) be redefined/reworded as “pain arising as a direct consequence of a lesion or disease affecting the somatosensory system”. Peripheral NP and central NP are proposed to refer to lesions/disease of the peripheral nervous system (PNS) and central nervous system (CNS), respectively.

The NP grading system is used to decide on the level of certainty with which the presence or absence of neuropathic pain can be determined in an individual patient. The grading of certainty for the presence of NP consists of:

- **Definite NP**: all (1–4)
- **Probable NP**: 1 and 2, plus either 3 or 4
- **Possible NP**: 1 and 2, without confirmatory evidence from 3 or 4

Neuropathic Pain – Definition, Identification, and Implications for Research and Therapy

If a patient does not fulfill the criteria for any of these three levels, it is considered unlikely that this patient has NP.

The criteria to be evaluated for each patient are:

1) Pain with a distinct neuroanatomically plausible distribution
2) A history suggestive of a relevant lesion of disease affecting the peripheral or central somatosensory system
3) Demonstration of the distinct neuroanatomically plausible distribution by at least one confirmatory test
4) Demonstration of the relevant lesion or disease by at least one confirmatory test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of peripheral and central neuropathic pain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peripheral</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osteoarthritis/disc disease with nerve root pain (usually C5 and C6, and L5 and S1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postherpetic neuralgia (may have a central component)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Painful neuropathies (diabetes, alcohol/nutritional, HIV, etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancer-associated neuropathic pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phantom limb pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nerve trauma (causalgia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incisional neuralgias (post-thoracotomy, postmastectomy, etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brachial plexus avulsion (likely a central component)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuropathic facial pain exclusive of trigeminal neuralgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trigeminal neuralgia*, glossopharyngeal neuralgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Central</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central poststroke pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spinal cord injury pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traumatic brain injury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple sclerosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syringomyelia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Trigeminal neuralgia is a unique and common form of neuropathic pain with a differing medical and surgical approach from other forms of neuropathic pain (except the rare condition of glossopharyngeal neuralgia)*
The prevalence of NP derived from the survey of Weingarten and coworkers (8.8%) is very close to that reported by Torrance and associates (7-8%).

Epidemiology of Refractory Neuropathic Pain

- Two postal surveys, carried out in a large community samples from UK and France, using different NP pain questionnaires (S–LANSS in UK and DN4 in France), reported similar estimates of the prevalence of chronic pain with NP characteristics in the general population around 7–8%.
Prevalence of some forms of peripheral neuropathic pain.

**DDD** Degenerative disc disease.
NEUROPATHIC PAIN PATHOPHYSIOLOGY
Descending Pain Modulating Circuits

- ① ACC
- ② Several Regions of the Frontal Neocortex
- ③ Hypothalamus
- ④ Central Nucleus of the Amygdala

PAG: Periaqueductal Grey
ACC: Anterior Cingulate Cortex
DLF=dorsolateral funiculus;
DLPT = dorsolateral pontomesencephalic tegmentum; RVM = rostral ventral medulla.

Rexed Lamini I, II, V
Potential Supraspinal Mechanisms of Prostanoid Effects on Modulation of Nociception
Peripheral Nerve Injury

- Altered Channel Expression
  - \( \uparrow \text{NaV1.8} \) – Eutopic Spontaneous Discharge
  - \( \uparrow \alpha2\delta1 \) auxiliary subunit – Cav2.1

- Altered Spinal Receptors
  - \( \text{NGF} = \text{TrkA} \)
  - Recruitment of silent nociceptors
  - \( \uparrow \text{Responsiveness to BK} \)
  - Stimulation Mast Cells/SNS
  - \( \uparrow \text{TRP1/ASICs (sensitzation of nociceptors)} \)

- Activity Induced Facilitation
  - \( \text{Glu} \rightarrow \text{NMDA} \)
  - \( \uparrow \text{AMPA subunit expression} \)

- Loss of Inhibition (Disinhibition)
  - \( \uparrow \text{PG2} \rightarrow \text{Gly} \)

- Increased Descending Spinobulbospinal Facilitatory Serotonergic Pathways
  - \( \text{SP} \rightarrow \text{NK} \)

- Activation of non-neuronal (Glial) cells
  - \( \uparrow \text{Fractalkine/IL-6} \rightarrow \text{p38MAPK} \rightarrow \text{p} \beta8\text{MAPK} \rightarrow \uparrow \text{CX3CR1} \)
  - \( \uparrow \text{ATP} \rightarrow \uparrow \text{BDNF} = \text{TrkB} \rightarrow \uparrow \text{KCC2} \rightarrow \uparrow \text{Intracellular Cl} \rightarrow \downarrow \text{efficacy of GABAergic Inhibition (Disinhibition)} \)
Comprehensive H & P Laboratory Studies Imaging Studies Ancillary Diagnostic Studies
Disease-Specific Treatment of Neuropathic Pain

- Painful
- Diabetic
- Polyneuropathy
Painful Neuropathy may be the presenting symptom and may antedate DM onset by up to FOUR years.

Polydefkis M, et al. JAMA. 2003; 290
# Classification of Diabetic Neuropathy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generalized Neuropathies</th>
<th>Focal or Multifocal Neuropathies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Distal symmetric polyneuropathy</td>
<td>- Compressive focal neuropathies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Large fiber sensory</td>
<td>- Carpal tunnel syndrome, ulnar neuropathy, peroneal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Small fiber painful sensory</td>
<td>neuropathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Subclinical neuropathy</td>
<td>- Noncompressive focal and multifocal neuropathies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Acute Painful diabetic neuropathy</td>
<td>- Diabetic amyotrophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Autonomic neuropathy</td>
<td>- Mononeuritis multiplex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Cranial neuropathies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Femoral, sciatic, ulnar, peroneal neuropathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Trunal neuropathies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TREATMENT OF PAINFUL DIABETIC NEUROPATHY

Tight Control
POLYOL PATHWAY THEORY

Excess Fructose and Sorbitol via ↑ AR

↓ Expression of Na⁺/myoinositol cotransporter

↓ myoinositol levels

↓ phosphoinositide

↓ Na/K – ATPase activity
Multiple ARIs including sorbinil, tolrestat, ponalrestat, zopolrestat, zenarestat, lidsorestat, fidarestat, rainrestat (AS–3201) and epalrestat have been studied.

OXIDATIVE STRESS

↑ Glucose

- Aldose Reductive Activity
- ALG II RAGE
- COX-2 mRNA Induction
- COX-2 Protein Expression
- COX-2 Inhibitors
- Altered PKC-β Activity
- Prostanoid Imbalances
- Mitochondrial Abnormalities
- Anti-apoptotic Agents (Insulin)
- Anti-inflammatory Insulin
- NF-κB Activation
- ARI
- PKCβ1 inhibitors
- COX-2 inhibitors
- Carnitine

↓ NO
↓ Prostacyclin Release
↑ Glucose

↓ NBF

Antioxidants (α-Lipoic Acid)

Apoptosis

Caspase Inhibitors

Pain
α-Lipoic acid, also termed thiocytic acid, is an antioxidant that is available for treatment of DPN.

At least seven randomized controlled clinical trials of thiocytic acid in patients with DPN have been completed (ALADIN I–III [Alpha-Lipoic Acid in Diabetic Neuropathy], DEKAN [Deutsche Kardiale Autonome Neuropathie], ORPIL [Oral Pilot], SYDNEY [Symptomatic Diabetic Neuropathy] and NATHAN [Neurological Assessment of Thiocytic Acid in Neuropathy] II) using different study designs, durations of treatment, doses, sample sizes and patient populations.

Ziegler et al. performed a meta-analysis on four trials (ALADIN I, ALADIN III, SYDNEY and NATHAN II); 1258 patients (\(\alpha\)-lipoic acid, \(n = 716\); placebo, \(n = 542\)).

This meta-analysis demonstrates that treatment with intravenous \(\alpha\)-lipoic acid 600 mg/day for 3 weeks improves the chief symptoms of PDPN to a clinically meaningful degree.

A statistically significant difference in the TSS between \(\alpha\)-lipoic acid and placebo was observed from the second week of treatment onward and continuously increased until the end of treatment.

## Rational Polypharmacy for Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathic Pain*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First-tier agent</th>
<th>Add-on therapy</th>
<th>Avoid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SNRIs</td>
<td>$\alpha_2\delta$ ligands, opioids, topical agents</td>
<td>Other SNRIs, TCAs, tramadol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_2\delta$</td>
<td>ligands SNRIs, TCAs, opioids, tramadol, topicals</td>
<td>Other $\alpha_2\delta$ ligands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCAs</td>
<td>$\alpha_2\delta$ ligands, opioids, topicals</td>
<td>SNRIs, tramadol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opioids</td>
<td>SNRIs, $\alpha_2\delta$ ligands, TCAs, topicals</td>
<td>Other opioids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tramadol</td>
<td>$\alpha_2\delta$ ligands, opioids, topicals</td>
<td>SNRIs, TCAs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topical agents</td>
<td>SNRIs, $\alpha_2\delta$ ligands, TCAs, opioids, tramadol, topicals</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Rationale for polypharmacy includes the ability to decrease toxicity, address treatment failures, take advantage of complementary mechanisms of action, and decrease drug-drug interactions. SNRI = serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor; TCAs = tricyclic antidepressants.

Painful Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy: Consensus Recommendations on Diagnosis, Assessment and Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peripheral Mechanisms</th>
<th>Central Mechanisms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Changes in sodium channel distribution and expression</td>
<td>• Central sensitization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Changes in Calcium Distribution and Expression</td>
<td>• Aβ fibre sprouting into Channel lamina II of the dorsal horn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Altered neuro–peptide expression</td>
<td>• Reduced inhibition via descending pathways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sympathetic sprouting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Peripheral sensitization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Altered peripheral blood flow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Axonal atrophy, degeneration or regeneration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Damage to small fibres</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Glycaemic flux</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recommendations were linked to the strength of the evidence. The results indicate that pregabalin is established as effective and should be offered for relief of PDN (Level A). Venlafaxine, duloxetine, amitriptyline, gabapentin, valproate, opioids (morphine sulfate, tramadol, and oxycodone controlled-release), and capsaicin are probably effective and should be considered for treatment of PDN (Level B). Other treatments have less robust evidence, or the evidence is negative.

Figure 1. Treatment Algorithm for Painful DPN

Painful diabetic neuropathy

Consideration of contraindications and comorbidities

$\alpha_2$-δ agonist (pregabalin or gabapentin)  TCA  SNRI (duloxetine)

If pain control is inadequate and considering contraindications

TCA or SNRI  SNRI or $\alpha_2$-δ agonist (pregabalin or gabapentin)  TCA or $\alpha_2$-δ agonist (pregabalin or gabapentin)

If pain control is still inadequate

Add opioid agonist as combination therapy

PDN = Peripheral diabetic neuropathy; SNRI = Serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor; TCA = Tricyclic antidepressants.

Toronto Expert Panel on Diabetic Neuropathy
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comorbidities</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Contraindication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glaucoma</td>
<td>TCAs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthostatic hypotension</td>
<td>TCAs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardiovascular disease</td>
<td>TCAs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hepatic disease</td>
<td>Duloxetine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oedema</td>
<td>Pregabalin, gabapentin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsteadiness &amp; falls</td>
<td>TCAs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight gain</td>
<td>TCAs, pregabalin, gabapentin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Toronto Expert Panel on Diabetic Neuropathy
TREATMENT OF NEUROPATHIC PAIN
Currently, optimal therapeutic approaches to NP involve interdisciplinary treatment teams working closely together with the appropriate use of behavioral medicine, physical medicine, interventional, and neuromodulation techniques in conjunction with pharmacologic regimes.

There currently are five medications approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of neuropathic pain, which include:

- Pregabalin 2004
- Duloxetine 2004
- Gabapentin 2002
- 5% lidocaine patch 1999
- Carbamazepine 1968
Antidepressant medications may be classified as follows:

1. Cyclic antidepressants, including the tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and tetracyclic antidepressants (e.g. maprotiline)
2. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs)
3. Serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs)
4. Dopamine norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (DNRIs)
5. Norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (NRIs)
6. Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs)
7. The miscellaneous category of “atypical antidepressants”
The tertiary amine TCAs include the following:

- amitriptyline
- imipramine
- trimipramine
- clomipramine
- doxepin
The secondary amine TCAs include the following:

- nortriptyline
- desipramine
- protriptyline
- amoxapine
TCAs

Mechanisms of Analgesia

- Inhibition of Monoamine Reuptake
- \( \text{Na}^+ \) Channel Blockade
  - Amitriptyline 8x as potent as Lidocaine
- NMDA Receptor Antagonism
- Stimulation of beta (2)–adrenoceptor
- \( \alpha \)–Adrenergic Receptor blockade
- Interactions with Other Receptors
  - Opioid
  - Adenosine
  - TRPV1
  - Nicotinic
  - Muscarinic
  - Histaminergic
Bet2-adrenoceptors are essential for desipramine, venlafaxine or reboxetine action in neuropathic pain

Yalcin et al. showed that the anticonvulsant gabapentin was still effective in beta(2)-AR deficient mice. Their results demonstrate that beta(2)-ARs are essential for the antiallodynic action of antidepressant drugs.

Anticholinergic adverse affects are common and include dry mouth, orthostatic hypotension, constipation and urinary retention. These affects can be reduced by starting with low dosages administered at bedtime and with slow titration to higher dosage as well as by using a secondary amine TCAs (e.g., nortriptyline or desipramine).
Limiting the dosages to less than 100 mg per day when possible and obtaining a screening electrocardiogram for patients older than 40 years
Antidepressants

- First-line agents for neuropathic across the board in 3 guidelines (IASP NeuroSig, Canadian, EFNS)

- European Federation of Neurological Societies (EFNS) guidelines – revised 2010
  - Antidepressants remained first-line agents “across the board” in all commonly studied neuropathic pain conditions except trigeminal neuralgia
Antidepressants for neuropathic pain: a Cochrane review

- Sixty-one randomized controlled trials (66 reports) of 31 antidepressants (3293 participants) were considered eligible for inclusion.
- Antidepressants are effective for a variety of neuropathic pains. Both TCAs and venlafaxine have a NNT of approximately 3. This means that for approximately every three patients with neuropathic pain who are treated with either of these antidepressants, one will have at least moderate pain relief who would not have done so with placebo.

# Serotonin Selective Reuptake Inhibitors (SSRIs) – Pharmacokinetic Selective Overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSRI-Pharmacotherapy</th>
<th>T12β</th>
<th>Css</th>
<th>CYP450 substrate</th>
<th>CYP450 Inhibitor</th>
<th>PG category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Citalopram</td>
<td>35 hrs</td>
<td>7d</td>
<td>2C19, 3A4</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escitalopram</td>
<td>30 hrs</td>
<td>7d</td>
<td>2C19, 3A4</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluoxetine (and active metabolite S-nor Fluoxetine)</td>
<td>1-16 days</td>
<td>2-4 wks</td>
<td>2C19, 2D6</td>
<td>2C19, 2D6, 3A4</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluvoxamine</td>
<td>16 wks</td>
<td>7d</td>
<td>1A2, 2D6</td>
<td>1A2, 2D6, 2C9, 3A4</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paroxetine</td>
<td>21 wks</td>
<td>10d</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sertraline (includes active desmethyl metabolite)</td>
<td>1-4 days</td>
<td>7d</td>
<td>2C19, 2D6, 3A4</td>
<td>2D6, 3A4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SNRIs
### Serotonin Norepinephrine Reuptake Inhibitors (SNRIs)—Pharmacokinetic Selective Overview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SNRI-Pharmacotherapy</th>
<th>T12β</th>
<th>Css</th>
<th>CYP450 substrate</th>
<th>CYP450 Inhibitor</th>
<th>PG category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duloxetine</td>
<td>8-17 hrs</td>
<td>3d</td>
<td>1A2, 2D6</td>
<td>1A2 (mild), 2D6 (moderate)</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venlafaxine</td>
<td>5 hr parent, 11 hr metabolite</td>
<td>3d</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desvenlafaxine</td>
<td>11-15 hr</td>
<td>3-5d</td>
<td>2D6</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milnacipran (includes active enantiomer; d-milnacipran)</td>
<td>8-10 hr</td>
<td>1 ½-2d</td>
<td>No CYP450 events</td>
<td>No CYP450 events</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relative Activity on Serotonin and Norepinephrine Reuptake Among Antidepressants

S=Serotonin, N=Norepinephrine
Pharmacologic Overview of Duloxetine

- Duloxetine is classified pharmacologically as a serotonin–norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) which possesses high $k_i$ values for monoamine transporters (e.g. serotonin and norepinephrine transporters).
- Duloxetine inhibits serotonin reuptake significantly more than norepinephrine reuptake (in an approximate 10:1 ratio).

Pharmacologic Overview of Duloxetine

- Duloxetine exhibits a peak effect on platelet serotonin reuptake at 4–6 hours. Its inhibition persists for a duration of action of 7 days.
- The maximum plasma concentration \((C_{\text{max}})\) is achieved 6 hours after a post-prandial dose.
- The pharmacokinetics of duloxetine exhibits linearity and the steady-state concentration \((C_{\text{ss}})\) is reached in approximately 3–5 days.

Pharmacologic Overview of Duloxetine

- Its absorption and bioavailability are demonstrated to be 30%-80%.
- Duloxetine exhibits a high degree of protein binding (90%) and binds primarily to albumin and alpha-1 acid glycoprotein.
- Duloxetine has a usual half-life of 8–17 hours. Its metabolic pathways include cytochrome P450 1A2 and 2D6.

Pharmacologic Overview of Duloxetine – *Adverse Effects*

- Adverse effects that may occur commonly (> 10%) in patients include somnolence, dizziness, headaches, and insomnia. Possible cardiovascular effects include increase in blood pressure, orthostatic hypotension, syncope, and palpitations. Possible gastrointestinal effects include nausea, xerostomia, diarrhea, and constipation. Other adverse effects reported in patients include hyperhidrosis, sexual dysfunction, diminished appetite, and urinary hesitancy.

Duloxetine for the management of diabetic peripheral neuropathic pain: evaluation of functional outcomes

- To assess the effectiveness of duloxetine, compared with placebo, on patient-reported health outcomes over a 12-week period, in the management of diabetic peripheral neuropathic pain (DPNP). Armstrong and colleagues pooled results from three 12-week multicenter, double-blind studies (N=1,139).

- In the SF-36 health survey and the BPI interference, duloxetine 60 mg QD and 60 mg BID were significantly superior to placebo in all the domains (P ≤ 0.03).

- In the analysis of the EQ-5D, duloxetine 60 mg QD (P = 0.004) and 60 mg BID (P < 0.001) were significantly better than placebo on all items.

- Acute treatment with duloxetine was associated with significant improvement in functional outcomes in persons with DPNP.

Safety and tolerability of duloxetine in the acute management of diabetic peripheral neuropathic pain: analysis of pooled data from three placebo-controlled clinical trials

Duloxetine was generally safe and well tolerated, with the three most commonly reported TEAEs being nausea, somnolence and constipation. Modest changes in glycemia were associated with duloxetine. Aspartate transaminase/alanine transaminase increases were transient and not considered predictive of more severe outcomes.

Lunn and colleagues published a Cochrane Systematic Review, selecting all randomized or quasi-randomized trials of any formulation of duloxetine, used for the treatment of painful peripheral neuropathy or fibromyalgia in adult participants.

Six trials were identified including 2220 participants.

Three studies included participants with painful diabetic neuropathy and three treated participants with fibromyalgia.

Duloxetine at 60 mg daily is effective in treating painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy in the short-term to 12 weeks with a risk ratio (RR) for 50% pain reduction at 12 weeks of 1.65 (95% confidence interval (CI) 1.34 to 2.03), number needed to treat (NNT) 6 (95% CI 5 to 10).

There is moderately strong evidence that duloxetine 60 mg and 120 mg daily are efficacious for treating pain in diabetic peripheral neuropathy and fibromyalgia but 20 mg daily is not.

The effect of venlafaxine HCl on painful peripheral diabetic neuropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus.

Venlafaxine HCl is a safe and well-tolerated analgesic drug in the symptomatic treatment of PPDN.

CALCIUM CHANNEL ALPHA 2–DELTA LIGANDS

- Gabapentin
- Pregabalin
- Gabapentin is absorbed slowly after oral administration, with maximum plasma concentrations attained within 3–4 hours.
- Orally administered gabapentin exhibits saturable absorption—a nonlinear (zero-order) process—making its pharmacokinetics less predictable.
- Plasma concentrations of gabapentin do not increase proportionally with increasing dose.
- Orally administered pregabalin is absorbed more rapidly, with maximum plasma concentrations attained within 1 hour.
- Absorption is linear (first order), with plasma concentrations increasing proportionately with increasing dose.
- The absolute bioavailability of gabapentin drops from 60% to 33% as the dosage increases from 900 to 3600 mg/day, while the absolute bioavailability of pregabalin remains at > or = 90% irrespective of the dosage.
Gabapentin adjunctive therapy in neuropathic pain states

A 2005 systematic review of 15 trials (1468 participants) evaluating gabapentin included 1 acute pain trial and 14 trials in neuropathic (7 in diabetic neuropathy, 2 in postherpetic neuralgia and 1 each in cancer related neuropathy, phantom limb pain, spinal cord injury, Guillain–Barré syndrome and miscellaneous neuropathies). In the 14 chronic neuropathic pain trials, 42% of the participants had pain relief of 50% or greater on gabapentin versus 19% on placebo, and the NNT for improvement in all trials with evaluable data was 4.3 (95% CI, 3.5–5.7).

In an updated 2011 Cochrane Review evaluating gabapentin for chronic neuropathic pain and fibromyalgia in adults, Moore and colleagues found that gabapentin provides pain relief of a high level in about a third of people who take it for painful neuropathic pain. Using the Initiative on Methods, Measurement and Pain Assessment in Clinical Trials (IMMPACT) definition of at least moderate benefit, gabapentin was superior to placebo in 14 studies with 2831 participants, 43% improving with gabapentin and 26% with placebo; the NNT was 5.8 (4.8 to 7.2). Using the IMMPACT definition of substantial benefit, gabapentin was superior to placebo in 13 studies with 2627 participants, 31% improving with gabapentin and 17% with placebo; the NNT was 6.8 (5.6 to 8.7).

Gabapentin extended release for the treatment of painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy: efficacy and tolerability in a double-blind, randomized, controlled clinical trial

The improvement in mean weekly pain scores from baseline to the end of treatment (primary endpoint) was significantly greater for GEn (−2.1) vs. placebo (−1.2), P = 0.0321. Significant improvements from GEn vs. placebo were also seen in sleep, mood, and patient global assessment (P < 0.05). With a 31% lower daily dose of gabapentin equivalents, GEn tablets provided a significant increase in average steady state gabapentin concentrations vs. gabapentin capsules in the same patients (n = 42; P = 0.0050).

Pharmacokinetic results for patients who received both gabapentin and GEn†

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pharmacokinetic Parameters</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Gabapentin (n = 42)</th>
<th>GEn (n = 42)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gabapentin equivalent Dose</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,800 mg</td>
<td>1,248 mg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{ss,ave}, μg/mL</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.93 (2.25)</td>
<td>8.10 (2.91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F, %</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.3 (19.8)‡</td>
<td>76.8 (26.4)‡</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUC_{(0-24)}, μg·h/mL</td>
<td></td>
<td>166 (54.1)</td>
<td>194 (69.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_{ss,max}, μg/mL</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.07 (3.00)</td>
<td>11.00 (3.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T_{max}, hours</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.31 (1.13)</td>
<td>4.63 (2.45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T_{1/2}, hours</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.23 (3.22)</td>
<td>7.37 (2.97)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† All values are means (standard deviation).
‡ n = 38.

AUC_{(0-24)} = daily area under the concentration vs time curve at steady state; C_{ss,ave} = steady state average plasma concentration; C_{ss,max} = steady state maximum plasma concentration; F = bioavailability; GEn = gabapentin enacarbil; T_{1/2} = apparent elimination half life; T_{max} = time to maximum steady state plasma concentration.

Comparison of mean SD steady-state concentrations of gabapentin in plasma of 42 patients with postherpetic neuralgia after repeated dosing of either gabapentin (600 mg three times daily) or gabapentin enacarbil (1,200 mg twice daily). GEn = gabapentin enacarbil.
**Pain Indications**
- Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy (300 mg/d)
- Postherptic Neuralgia (150–600 mg/d)
- Fibromyalgia (300)

**Dosing Strengths**
- 25 mg, 50 mg, 75 mg, 100 mg, 150 mg, 200 mg, 225 mg, 300 mg

**Initial Dose**
- 150 mg/d in 2–3 divided doses

**Half-life**
- 5–7 hours
# Selected Pharmacokinetic/Pharmacodynamic Parameters of Pregabalin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Absorption:</strong> well absorbed, ≥ 90% dose independent</th>
<th><strong>Metabolite:</strong> N-methylated derivative (0.9% of dose in urine)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Metabolism:</strong> negligible, not by CYP450 or phase II metabolism</td>
<td><strong>Tmax:</strong> 1.5 hour (fasting), 3 hour (postprandial) time to peak/maximum concentration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bioavailability:</strong> (F) = 90%, linear, not saturable</td>
<td><strong>Css:</strong> 24 to 48 hours (multiple dosing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T½ β:</strong> 6.3 hour (mean) 5.5–6.7 hour range, in presence of normal Clcr (67–80.9 ml/min)</td>
<td><strong>P-kin:</strong> Cmax (plasma concentration) AUC (plasma concentration time curve), Cmax decreased by 20% to 30% post prandial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plasma Protein Binding (PPB):</strong> none reported</td>
<td><strong>Vd:</strong> 0.5L/kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elimination:</strong> renal mechanism, a function of Clcr, renal tubular reabsorption</td>
<td><strong>Chiral Compound:</strong> S-enantiomer without racemization to R-enantiomer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excretion:</strong> renally (≥ 98% as unchanged parent compound)</td>
<td><strong>PG category:</strong> C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Clcr = creatinine clearance; ml/min = milliliters per minute.*
## Pregabalin and Gabapentin Pharmacology Facts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pregabalin</th>
<th>Gabapentin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FDA-approved pain indication</strong></td>
<td>Neuropathic pain associated with diabetic peripheral neuropathy and postherpetic neuralgia</td>
<td>Postherpetic neuralgia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Mechanism of action** | $\alpha_2$-$\delta$ ligand  
* Selectively binds to the $\alpha_2$-$\delta$ site in CNS tissues | $\alpha_2$-$\delta$ ligand  
* Selectively binds to the $\alpha_2$-$\delta$ site in CNS tissues |
| **Pharmacokinetic profile** | Linear
* Plasma concentration is dose proportionate | Nonlinear
* Plasma concentration increases disproportionately to dose |
| **Oral bioavailability** | $\geq 90\%$ all doses | 60% 900 mg
47% 1200 mg
34% 2400 mg
33% 3600 mg |
| **Dose potency for PHN** | Effective at 150 mg/d  
* Dose range from 150 mg/d to 600 mg/d* | Effective at 1800 mg/d  
* No additional benefit at higher doses |
| **Dosing (PHN)** | BID or TID | TID |
| **Time to effective dose (PHN)** | 1 day  
* Effective starting dose of 150 mg/d | 9 or more days  
* Titrate to effective dose of 1800 mg/d |

*Some patients with PHN may benefit from up to 600 mg/d given after 2 to 4 weeks of treatment with 300 mg/d.*

Adverse events may increase with dose. CNS = central nervous system.

## PREGABALIN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CC (ml/min)</th>
<th>Dose (mg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>≥60 BID/TID</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30–59 BID/TID</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15–29 PD/BID</td>
<td>25–50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100–150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 15 QD</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25–50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50–75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Moore et al. performed a 2009 Cochrane Review of pregabalin for acute and chronic pain. For chronic pain, pregabalin at 150 mg daily was generally ineffective. Efficacy was demonstrated for dichotomous outcomes equating to moderate or substantial pain relief, alongside lower rates for lack of efficacy discontinuations with increasing dose. The best (lowest) NNT for each condition for at least 50% pain relief over baseline (substantial benefit) for 600 mg pregabalin daily compared with placebo were 3.9 (95% confidence interval 3.1 to 5.1) for postherpetic neuralgia, 5.0 (4.0 to 6.6) for painful diabetic neuropathy, 5.6 (3.5 to 14) for central neuropathic pain, and 11 (7.1 to 21) for fibromyalgia. The FDA has improved pregabalin for treatment of neuropathic pain associated with diabetic peripheral neuropathy and postherpetic neuralgia and for treatment of fibromyalgia; evidence from these trials is discussed under specific disorders.

One hundred sixty-five (65%) had a $\geq 30\%$ pain improvement and 157 were randomized and treated, double blind, to either continue pregabalin (n=80) or to receive placebo (n=77) for 5 weeks.

Gilron et al. concluded that their results support previous evidence of pregabalin efficacy but further demonstrate efficacy and tolerability in a broader range of peripheral neuropathic pain conditions beyond DPN and PHN.
OPIOIDS
Lack of analgesic effect of opioids on neuropathic and idiopathic forms of pain

Are opioids effective to provide analgesia for patients with neuropathic pain?

YES
Circumstances in which opioid analgesics and tramadol can be considered for first-line treatment of neuropathic pain

- During titration of a first-line medication to an efficacious dosage for prompt pain relief
- Episodic exacerbations of severe pain
- Acute neuropathic pain
- Neuropathic cancer pain

Efficacy and safety of opioid agonists in the treatment of neuropathic pain of nonmalignant origin: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials

- Short-term studies provide only equivocal evidence regarding the efficacy of opioids in reducing the intensity of neuropathic pain.
- Intermediate-term studies demonstrate significant efficacy of opioids over placebo for neuropathic pain, which is likely to be clinically important.
- Reported adverse events of opioids are common but not life-threatening.
- Further RCTs are needed to establish their long-term efficacy, safety (including addiction potential), and effects on quality of life.

Efficacy of mu-opioid agonists in the treatment of evoked neuropathic pain: Systematic review of randomized controlled trials

- Short-term studies show that opioids can reduce the intensity of dynamic mechanical allodynia and perhaps of cold allodynia in peripheral NP.
- Insufficient evidence precludes drawing conclusions regarding the effect of opioids on other forms of evoked NP.
- A meta-analysis of intermediate-term studies demonstrates the efficacy of opioids over placebo for evoked NP.

Poorly Opioid Responsive

Opioid Responsive

- PNP
- SNP
- SSNP

CNP
Not all opioids are created equally---?

*Some opioids are particularly useful for providing analgesia from neuropathic pain*
OPIOIDS (Traditional or Typical Opioids) [Morphine] VS. ATYPICAL OPIOIDS (opioid-like analgesic agents) [Tramadol, Tapentadol]

OPIOIDS
Morphine
Tramadol
Tapentadol

OPIOIDS [Morphine] VS. CENTRALLY ACTING ANALGESIC AGENTS [Tramadol] VS. ATYPICAL OPIOIDS [Tapentadol]

OPIOIDS [Morphine] VS. Dual Mechanism Drugs [Tramadol, Tapentadol]
TRAMADOL
*Tramadol*, a centrally acting analgesic structurally related to codeine and morphine, consists of two enantiomers, both of which contribute to analgesic activity via different mechanisms.

Clinical Pharmacology of Tramadol

- (+)-Tramadol and the metabolite (+)-O-desmethyl-tramadol (M1) are agonists of the mu opioid receptor. (+)-Tramadol inhibits serotonin reuptake and (-)-tramadol inhibits norepinephrine reuptake, enhancing inhibitory effects on pain transmission in the spinal cord.

- Tramadol is available as drops, capsules and sustained-release formulations for oral use, suppositories for rectal use and solution for intramuscular, intravenous and subcutaneous injection.

### Tramadol hydrochloride tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHARMACOKINETICS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bioavailability*</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onset of activity</td>
<td>1 h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time to peak serum concentration</td>
<td>2 – 3 h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protein Binding</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metabolism</td>
<td>Extensively metabolized. One active metabolite – M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urinary excretion</td>
<td>30% unchanged, 70% metabolites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elimination half-life</td>
<td>6.3 h for the parent compound 7.4 h for the M1 Metabolite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Unaffected by food*
The results of this placebo-controlled trial showed that tramadol was effective and safe in treating the pain of diabetic neuropathy.

Randomized study of tramadol/acetaminophen versus placebo in painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy.

Tramadol/APAP was more effective than placebo and was well tolerated in the management of painful DPN.

Tapentadol Hydrochloride
Chemical structure of tapentadol HCl
Tapentadol is a novel centrally acting analgesic, initially formulated as an immediate-release preparation. It is a potent Schedule II analgesic approved for use by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2009.

Tapentadol immediate-release is available as 50, 75, and 100 mg tablets and provides 4–6 hours of analgesia. Tapentadol immediate-release was shown to provide analgesia comparable with that of 10–15 mg of immediate-release oxycodone in patients recovering from dental extraction pain and pain following bunionectomy.

It was also as effective as oxycodone in patients presenting with chronic osteoarthritis pain and chronic low back pain.

Of importance in the comparator trials was the finding that patients treated with tapentadol had a lower incidence of adverse gastrointestinal events, including nausea, vomiting, and constipation, than those treated with oxycodone.

Pharmacology

- Tapentadol produces potent analgesic effects via its dual mechanism of action, i.e., mu receptor agonism and norepinephrine reuptake inhibition.
- In animal models, tapentadol behaves as a weak opioid agonist, with 50 times less affinity than morphine for the mu receptor.
- Tapentadol exists as a single active enantiomer and is metabolized mainly by O-glucuronidation.
- Its principal metabolite is inactive, having no affinity for the mu receptor or the norepinephrine transporter.
- Because the analgesic activity of tapentadol is limited to the primary molecule, no enzymes are needed to convert it to an active metabolite, as is the case for tramadol and codeine.

Compared with placebo, tapentadol ER 100–250 mg bid provided a statistically significant difference in the maintenance of a clinically important improvement in pain and was well–tolerated by patients with painful DPN.


Extended-release preparation

The controlled release formulation provides a 12-hour duration of activity, as well as the convenience and analgesic uniformity associated with twice per day dosing.

The effects of hepatic dysfunction on Tapentadol Pharmacokinetics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pharmacokinetic Parameter</th>
<th>Mild Hepatic Dysfunction</th>
<th>Moderate Hepatic Dysfunction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AUC</td>
<td>1.7x</td>
<td>4.2x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cmax</td>
<td>1.4x</td>
<td>2.5x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T½β</td>
<td>1.2x</td>
<td>1.4x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With respect to neuropathic pain – ALL OPIOIDS MAY NOT BE CREATED EQUALLY

Certain opioids may be particularly well suited for the treatment of neuropathic pain
- Tapentadol
- Methadone
- Buprenorphine
Methadone in the management of intractable neuropathic noncancer pain

- A case series of 50 consecutive noncancer pain patients who were seen at a tertiary care centre who had failed multiple treatments including: antidepressants, anticonvulsants, opioids, spinal cord stimulation were treated with oral methadone for a variety of intractable neuropathic pain states.
- Twenty-six patients (52%) reported mild (4), moderate (15), marked (6) or complete (1) pain relief and continued on methadone at a mean maintenance dose of 159.8 mg/day for a mean duration of 21.3 months. Fourteen patients (28%) reported improved function on methadone relative to previous treatments.

- Methadone to treat non-oncologic neuropathic pain. Case reports.

- Management of chronic neuropathic pain with methadone: a review of 13 cases.

- Methadone for cancer-related neuropathic pain: a review of the literature.
## Characteristics of Buprenorphine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Partial mu receptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NoCiceptin Opioid Peptide (NOP) Receptor</strong> (Orphan-related ligand—1 receptor partial/full agonist)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kappa receptor antagonist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different G protein interactions than potent opioids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blocks central sensitization by several mechanisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prolonged receptor occupancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly lipophilic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large volume of distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long half-life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slow clearance by liver via CYP3A4 and conjugases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-cross tolerant to potent analgesics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Buprenorphine for Neuropathic Pain—Targeting Hyperalgesia

- The difference in analgesic responses between buprenorphine and other potent opioids may be due to different receptor G protein interactions.
- Buprenorphine and methadone demonstrate significant differences in activation of G proteins; G–a i1, G–a o1, and G–a 11 are necessary for methadone–induced analgesia but not buprenorphine antinociception.
- In turn, buprenorphine requires G–a o2 and G–a Q.

Buprenorphine Transdermal System

- Do not cut
- Worn for 7 days
- Apply upper outer arm, upper back, upper chest or the side of the chest (8 possible sites)
- Rotate sides —— wait 21 days before re-using same site; clip hairs as needed
Opioid-Naive

Oral Morphine Equivalent < 30 mg → Buprenorphine Transdermal System 5 mcg/h
↓
After 72 hrs
↓
Oral Morphine Equivalent 30-80 mg/d → Buprenorphine Transdermal System 10 mcg/h
↓
After 72 hrs
↓
Buprenorphine Transdermal System 20 mcg/h

Maximum Dose
Higher doses may ↑ QTc prolongation
Buprenorphine may show a distinct benefit in improving neuropathic pain symptoms, which is considered a result of its specific pharmacological profile.
Buprenorphine—a review of its role in neuropathic pain.

Transdermal Buprenorphine for Central Neuropathic Pain: Clinical Reports.

Buprenorphine for Neuropathic Pain --- Targeting Hyperalgesia.
TOPICAL THERAPIES
Lidocaine Patch

- 5% Lidocaine Patch
- 10x14 cm
- Contains 700mg Lidocaine
- 12 hours per day
Lidocaine Patch

Long term use ---
3 Patches/Day  
Max Lido Bld Conc ≤ 0.13 mcg/ml  
~ 1/10 Therapeutic conc (204 mcg/ml)  
~ 1/32 Toxic conc

4 Patches/Day (18 h/d) x3d  
Max conc < (0.3 mcg/ml)

4 Patches/Day x (24h/d) x 3d  
conc ≈ (0.186 mcg/ml)  
4 Patches/Day --- (12hon/12hon) x3d  
conc ≈ (0.225 mcg/ml)

Gammaitoni AR, et al  
Am J Health Syst Pharm. 2001

Cancer Pt 10 Patches/Day (24h/d)  
x4mon conc ≈ (0.47 mcg/ml)

Wilhelm IR, et al  
J Pain Sympt Mgt. 2005
An open-label study of the lidocaine patch 5% in painful idiopathic sensory polyneuropathy.

Topical lidocaine for the treatment of postherpetic neuralgia

There is insufficient evidence to recommend topical lidocaine as a first-line agent in the treatment of postherpetic neuralgia with allodynia.

A novel combination topical cream, consisting of isosorbide dinitrate (ISDN) 04%, capsaicin 0.075%, and lidocaine 3% appeared effective in ameliorating severe neuropathic pain with DPN.

TOPICAL CAPSAICIN
A high potency (8%) capsaicin patch is FDA approved for the treatment of postherpetic neuralgia pain. It is thought to diminish pain sensation by reducing transient receptor potential vanilloid 1 (TRPV1) expression and decreasing the density of epidermal nerve fibers in the application area. A single sixty minute application may provide up to twelve weeks of analgesia.
Tolerability of NGX-4010, capsaicin 8% patch, in conjunction with three topical anesthetic formulations for the treatment of neuropathic pain

Up to four NGX-4010 patches of 280 cm$^2$ could be used (maximum treatment area of 1120 cm$^2$).

NGX–4010, a high-concentration capsaicin dermal patch for lasting relief of peripheral neuropathic pain

NGX–4010 contains (640 mcg/cm^{2}) [8\% trans-capsaicin]) that can be applied for 60 minutes to the painful skin area up to a total surface area of 1120 cm^{2}. In phase I/II trials, NGX–4010 was well tolerated and effective in reducing pain in patients with post–herpetic neuralgia (PHN).

In a randomized, double-blind study, one 60-min application of NGX-4010 provided rapid and sustained pain relief in patients with postherpetic neuralgia. No adverse events were associated with treatment except for local reactions at the site of application and those related to treatment-associated pain.

Patients with postherpetic neuralgia who were randomly assigned to NGX-4010 (n=206) had a significantly greater reduction in pain during weeks two to eight than did patients who had the control patch (n=196). The mean changes in NPRS score were −29.6% vs −19.9% (difference −9.7%, 95% CI −15.47 to −3.95; p=0.001). 87 (42%) patients who received NGX-4010 and 63 (32%) controls had a 30% or greater reduction in mean NPRS score (odds ratio [OR] 1.56, 95% CI 1.03 to 2.37; p=0.03).

Derry and colleagues performed a Cochrane Review in 2009 which included six studies (389 participants) comparing 0.075% capsaicin cream with placebo cream and two studies comparing 8% capsaicin patch with placebo patch.

They concluded that capsaicin, either as repeated application of a low dose (0.075%) cream or a single application of an 8% patch may provide a clinically significant degree of pain relief to some patients with neuropathic pain.
NGX–4010, a Capsaicin 8% Dermal Patch, Administered Alone or in Combination With Systemic Neuropathic Pain Medications, Reduces Pain in Patients With Postherpetic Neuralgia

A single 60-minute NGX–4010 treatment reduces PHN for up to 12 weeks regardless of concomitant systemic neuropathic pain medication use.

Established treatments for neuropathic pain are limited as they provide only partial pain relief in an estimated 40–60% of patients, and many are associated with a variety of unwanted systemic effects and intensive daily regimens.

Capsaicin results in defunctionalization of TRPV1–expressing sensory nerve endings and reduced epidermal nerve fiber density.
Webster et al. conducted an open-label study to determine whether similar tolerability could be achieved with other commonly available 4% lidocaine formulations, and assessed the safety, tolerability, and efficacy of NGX-4010 following pre-treatment with either L.M.X.4, or the alternative products Topicaine Gel or Betacaine Enhanced Gel 4 and found there was little or no difference.
NMDA RECEPTOR ANTAGONISTS
Dextromethorphan and memantine in painful diabetic neuropathy and postherpetic neuralgia: efficacy and dose–response trials

- In the efficacy trial, among patients with DN, 400 of dextromethorphan reduced pain intensity by a mean of 33% from baseline, memantine reduced pain intensity by a mean of 17%, and lorazepam reduced pain intensity by a mean of 16%; the proportions of subjects achieving greater than moderate pain relief were 68% with dextromethorphan, 47% with memantine, and 37% with lorazepam.

- Dextromethorphan is effective in a dose–related fashion in selected patients with DN. This was not true of PHN.

 ALPHA-2 AGONISTS
## Current Therapy: Pharmacologic Properties of α₂-Agonists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Clonidine</th>
<th>Tizanidine</th>
<th>Dexmedetomidine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formulations available</td>
<td>Oral (Catapres)</td>
<td>Oral: tablet, capsule (Zanaflex)</td>
<td>Intravenous (Precedex)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transdermal (Catapres TTS)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epidural (Duraclon)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time to peak effect</td>
<td>Oral: 3-5 hours</td>
<td>1 hour (fasted state)</td>
<td>60 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transdermal: 48 hours</td>
<td>1.5-3 hours (fed state)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epidural: 19 minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T₁/₂</td>
<td>Elimination: 12-16 hours</td>
<td>2-2.5 hours</td>
<td>Distribution: 6 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Elimination: 2 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Route of metabolism/ elimination</td>
<td>Hepatic: 50% Renal: 40-60%</td>
<td>Hepatic: 95% with renal (60%) and fecal (20%) excretion of metabolites</td>
<td>Hepatic (nearly 100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dosage</td>
<td>Oral: 0.2-2.4 mg/day</td>
<td>4-36 mg total per day</td>
<td>Loading: 1 mcg/kg Maintenance: 0.2-0.7 mcg/kg/hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transdermal: 0.1-0.6 mg/day</td>
<td>(limited information exists for long term use of single doses greater than 8-12 mg or total daily doses greater than 24-36 mg)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Epidural: 30-40 mcg/hour; maximum single dose 700 mcg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dexmedetomidine and clonidine inhibit the function of Na(V)1.7 independent of α (2)–adrenoceptor in adrenal chromaffin cells.

OTHER AEDS
Carbamazepine is effective in chronic neuropathic pain

Topiramate is a sulfamate–substituted monosaccharide. Electrophysiological and biochemical studies show it to be associated with voltage-dependent Na\(^+\) and Ca\(^2+\) channel blockade, increased GABA activity and inhibition of \(\alpha\)-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid (AMPA) glutamate receptors.

Topiramate vs. placebo in painful diabetic neuropathy: analgesic and metabolic effects

Conclusions:

Topiramate monotherapy reduced pain and body weight more effectively than placebo in patients with painful diabetic neuropathy.

Topiramate in painful diabetic polyneuropathy: findings from three double-blind placebo-controlled trials

Conclusion:
These studies did not find topiramate to be significantly more effective than placebo in reducing pain scores in patients with painful diabetic polyneuropathy.

Thienel U, et al.
Most muscle relaxants are FDA approved for either spasticity (baclofen, dantrolene and tizanidine) or musculoskeletal conditions (carisoprodol, chlorzoxazone, cyclobenzaprine, metaxalone, methocarbamol or orphenadrine). The mechanism of action for the latter category of agents is unclear, but may be related in part to sedative effects.

Methylated Derivation of Diphenhydramine

Doses
- Oral: 100 mg
- Parent: 60 mg
Orphenadrine is known to have the following pharmacology:

- mACh receptor antagonist (anticholinergic)
- H₁ receptor antagonist (antihistamine)
- NMDA receptor antagonist
- NET blocker (norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor)
- Naᵥ 1.7, Naᵥ 1.8, and Naᵥ 1.9 sodium channel blocker
- HERG potassium channel blocker
Chemical structures of cyclobenzaprine (A), amitriptyline (B) and cyproheptadine (C).
Baclofen

- GABA-B Agonist
- Pre- and Post-synaptic action
- Pre-synaptic ↓ Ca^{++} conduction with resultant ↓ EAA/SP release
- Post-synaptic ↓ K^{+} Conductance → Neuronal hyperpolarization
Baclofen as an adjuvant analgesic for cancer pain

Of the cancer patients reviewed, 80% had a component of neuropathic pain such as paroxysmal or lancing, sharp, or like an electric shock. Overall, baclofen was effective in 84% of patients and significantly reduced Numeric rating Scale pain Score, 0–10; P > .0001).

INTRAVERNOS LIDOCAINE
Systematic administration of local anesthetic agents to relieve neuropathic pain

Lidocaine and oral analogs were safe drugs in controlled clinical trials for neuropathic pain, were better than placebo, and were as effective as other analgesics.
INTRATHECAL ANALGESICS
Intrathecal Opioids

Cerebrum

Spinal Cord

Fentanyl → Sufentanil → Merperidine → Hydromorphone → Morphine

Intrathecal Analgesic Therapies

1st Line
- Morphine (M)

2nd Line
- Fentanyl (F)
- M/HM + Z
- M/HM + Bupivacaine (B)/Clonidine (C)

3rd Line
- Sufentanil (S)
- S + B/C + Z
- M/HM/F + B/C + Z

4th Line
- Other Combo/Agents

# Recommended Maximum Intrathecal Dosages and Concentrations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Dosage (mg/day)</th>
<th>Concentration (mg/mL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morphine</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydromorphone</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bupivacaine</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clonidine</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hassenbush S, et al.  
Botulinum Toxins for Analgesia

- In a landmark 2008 article in *Annals of Neurology*, Ranoux et al. have convincingly demonstrated that botulinum toxin type A (BTX–A) may provide direct analgesic effects in patients with focal chronic neuropathic pain independent of its effects on tone.

Smith HS. Pain Physician 2009; 12:479-481
Subcutaneous administration of botulinum toxin a is beneficial in postherpetic neuralgia

Subcutaneous administration of BTX–A significantly decreased pain in PHN and reduced opioid use compared with lidocaine and placebo at day 7 and 3 months post–treatment. It also increased subjects’ sleep times.

The mechanical allodynia was significantly attenuated by peripheral administration of the P2X receptor antagonists, PPADS or TNP–ATP.

The expression of P2X3 receptor proteins in the plasma membrane of L4–6 DRGs of STZ rats was significantly enhanced while the total expression of P2X3 receptors remained unaltered.

Suggesting that an increase in the membrane expression of P2X3 receptors contribute to the development of chronic pain in STZ–induced diabetic rats.

Botulinum Toxin Decreases Hyperalgesia and Inhibits P2X(3) Receptor Over-Expression in Sensory Neurons Induced by Ventral Root Transection in Rats

INTRATHECAL ZICONOTIDE
Safety and efficacy of intrathecal ziconotide in the management of severe chronic pain

- The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved ziconotide on December 28, 2004 for the management of severe chronic pain in patients whom intrathecal (IT) therapy is warranted, and who are intolerant of or refractory to other treatments, such as systemic analgesics, adjunctive therapies, or IT morphine.

Possible side effects of ziconotide may include:

- an allergic reaction,
- nausea, vomiting, seizures, fever, headache, and/or stiff neck (e.g., meningitis),
- a change in mental status (cognitive and neuropsychiatric alterations) (extreme tiredness, asthenia, confusion, disorientation or decreased alertness),
- a change in mood or perception (hallucinations, unusual feelings in the mouth),
- postural hypotension, abnormal gait, urinary retention, nystagmus/amblyopia
- drowsiness/somnolence (reduced level of consciousness),
- dizziness or lightheadedness, weakness,
- visual problems (e.g., double vision),
- elevation of serum creatine kinase, or
- vestibular side effects.

*Vestibular side effects may be due to ziconotide blocking N-type calcium channels in the granular cell layer of the cerebellum.*

Regulation of spinal substance P release by intrathecal calcium channel blockade

- Takasuski and Yaksh suggested that ziconotide contributes to antinociception at least in part by inhibiting spinal N-type not voltage sensitive calcium channel resultant with inhibition of the stimulus-evoked substance P release from small primary afferents.

Experience in treatment of patients with neuropathic facial pain using ziconotide

Trigeminal neuralgia relief with intrathecal ziconotide

Twenty-eight articles met the inclusion criteria: 5 were preclinical studies and 23 were clinical studies. In the preclinical studies, ziconotide demonstrated antiallodynic effects on neuropathic pain. Data from double-blind, placebo-controlled (DBPC) trials indicated that patients with neuropathic pain reported a mean percent improvement in pain score with ziconotide monotherapy that ranged from 15.7% to 31.6%.

A low starting dose and slow titration of ziconotide resulted in an improved safety profile in the aforementioned trials. Common AEs associated with ziconotide include nausea and/or vomiting, dizziness, confusion, urinary retention, and somnolence. Evidence from DBPC trials, open-label studies, case series, and case studies suggests that ziconotide, as either monotherapy or in combination with other IT drugs, is a potential therapeutic option for patients with refractory neuropathic pain.

Additional studies are needed to establish the long-term efficacy and safety of ziconotide for neuropathic pain.
# Ziconotide or MVIIA in Rat Models of Neuropathic Pain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Model(s) Studied</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bowersox et al.</td>
<td>SSNL</td>
<td>Both bolus IT injections and continuous IT infusions of ziconotide reversibly blocked mechanical allodynia; no evidence of tolerance was noted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chaplan et al.</td>
<td>SSNL</td>
<td>IT bolus injections of ziconotide produced dose-dependent suppression of tactile allodynia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott et al.</td>
<td>SSNL</td>
<td>IT bolus injections of MVIIA attenuated tactile allodynia in a dose-dependent manner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiao and Bennett</td>
<td>CCI</td>
<td>Ziconotide applied to the site of nerve injury reduced heat hyperalgesia and mechanical allodynia; mechanical hyperalgesia was not affected by ziconotide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yamamoto and Sakashita</td>
<td>CCI</td>
<td>Bolus IT injection of MVIIA decreased thermal hyperalgesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSNL</td>
<td>Bolus IT injection of MVIIA had no significant effect on thermal hyperalgesia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SSNL, segmental spinal nerve ligation; IT, intrathecal; CCI, chronic constriction injury; PSNL, partial sciatic nerve ligation.*

# Efficacy of Ziconotide in the Treatment of Neuropathic Pain Among Populations in Double-blind, Placebo-Controlled Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Ziconotide-Treated Patients With Neuropathic Pain, No.</th>
<th>Duration of Titration Period</th>
<th>Mean Improvement in VASPI Score From Baseline to End of Titration, %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rauck et al.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wallace et al.</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>6 days</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collins et al.†</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Varied</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† Analyses included patients from 3 double-blind, placebo-controlled trials of ziconotide. NA, not available.
The efficacy of most agents against neuropathic pain is roughly in the same ball park.
Gabapentin was shown to be equally efficacious but was better tolerated to nortriptyline and can be considered a suitable alternative for the treatment of PHN.

Comparison of the efficacy and safety of tramadol/acetaminophen combination therapy and gabapentin in the treatment of painful diabetic neuropathy

- Subjects were randomized to receive either tramadol (37.5 mg)/acetaminophen (325 mg) or gabapentin (300 mg) for 6 weeks.
- At the final visit, the mean doses were 1575 mg/day for gabapentin and 4.22 tablets/day for T/A.
- Both groups had similar improvements in every Short Form Health Survey category and Brief Pain Inventory subcategory, and in the mean pain relief scores.
- This study suggests that the T/A combination treatment is as effective as gabapentin in the treatment of painful diabetic neuropathy in patients with Type 2 diabetes.


Venlafaxine ER appears effective and safe in relieving pain associated with diabetic neuropathy. NNT values for higher dose venlafaxine ER are comparable to those of tricyclic antidepressants and the anticonvulsant gabapentin.

Randomized double-blind study comparing the efficacy of gabapentin with amitriptyline on diabetic peripheral neuropathy pain

Although both drugs provide pain relief, mean pain score and global pain score data indicate no significant difference between gabapentin and amitriptyline.

Toward a definition of pharmacoresistant neuropathic pain

“A neuropathic pain condition is resistant to pharmacotherapy when mono- or a rational combination treatment using drugs proven efficacious in RCTs fails in inducing useful pain relief from the patients/physicians point of view after an appropriate duration of treatment with adequate dosage, or if intolerable side effects occur”.

Toward a definition of pharmacoresistant neuropathic pain

Drug classes that have proven efficacious in RCTs including tricyclic antidepressants (e.g., amitriptyline and nortriptyline), serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (duloxetine and venlafaxine), alpha-2-delta ligands (gabapentin and pregabalin) and opioids (oxycodeone, morphine, methadone and tramadol). Also, topical lidocaine for small areas of pain/mechanical allodynia and sodium channel blockers (carbamazepine and oxcarbazepine) in trigeminal neuralgia should be considered.

Controlled studies have only provided evidence in favour of combining gabapentin with opioids or gabapentin and venlafaxine. A rational approach would be to combine drugs from the drug classes that have proved efficacious in relieving neuropathic pain.

Rational Polypharmacy

“Combination Treatment”

“Cocktail Therapy”
Morphine, gabapentin, or their combination for neuropathic pain

Gabapentin and morphine combined achieved better analgesia at lower doses of each drug than either as a single agent, with constipation, sedation, and dry mouth as the most frequent adverse effects.

In a rat model of neuropathic pain (Bennett model), gabapentin did not produce an anti-allodynic effect, whereas the morphine and gabapentin combination completely decreased allodynia behavior at 30 min post-injection, an effect that persisted until 120 min. The area under the curve (AUC) of the anti-allodynic or anti-hyperalgesic effects produced by the combinations were significantly greater than the theoretical sum of effects produced by each drug alone or similar to the theoretical sum.


Nortriptyline and gabepentin, alone and in combination for neuropathic pain: a double-blind, randomized controlled crossover trial

- Combined gabapentin and nortriptyline seems to be more efficacious than either drug given alone for neuropathic pain, therefore use of this combination is recommended in patients who show a partial response to either drug given alone and seek additional pain relief.
### Examples of between-class combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class combinations</th>
<th>Specific example</th>
<th>Example of usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centrally acting analgesic + opioid</td>
<td>Acetaminophen + Codeine</td>
<td>Nociceptive pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSAID + opioid</td>
<td>Ibuprofen + oxycodone</td>
<td>Inflammatory pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-convulsant + opioid</td>
<td>Gabapentin + morphine</td>
<td>Neuropathic pain [Gilron]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anti-convulsant + anti-depressant</td>
<td>Gabapentin + amitriptyline</td>
<td>Neuropathic pain [Sator-Katzenschlager] [Heughan]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug**

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Efficacy of tramadol in combination with doxepin or venlafaxine in inhibition of nociceptive process in the rat model of neuropathic pain: an isobolographic analysis

Wrzosek and colleagues conducted a series of experiments which demonstrated that the nature of interaction between tramadol and doxepin is synergistic, which is not the case for tramadol and venlafaxine.

Synergistic antihypersensitive effects of pregabalin and tapentadol in a rat model of neuropathic pain

The concept of dose-equivalent suggested an additive interaction of pregabalin and tapentadol (demonstrated by isobolographic analysis).

Potential Opioid Synergy

- Morphine + Gabapentin
- Morphine + Methadone
- Morphine + Clonidine or Dexmedetomodine
- Morphine + Ketamine
- Tapentadol + Pregabalin
- Clonidine + Dextromethorphan
- Tramadol + Venlafaxine
- Tramadol + Doxepin
- Gabapentin + C1–21021 (NK–1 Antagonist)
Guidelines or Algorithms for the Pharmacologic Treatment of Neuropathic Pain
1st-line treatments
- Certain antidepressants (ie, tricyclic antidepressants and dual reuptake inhibitors of both serotonin and norepinephrine)
- Calcium channel alpha2–delta ligands (ie, gabapentin and pregabalin)
- Topical lidocaine

2nd-line treatments that can be considered for 1st-line use in select clinical circumstances
- Opioid analgesics
- Tramadol

3rd-line treatments that could also be used as 2nd-line treatments
- Certain antiepileptic and antidepressant medications
- Mexiletine
- N–methyl–D–aspartate receptor antagonists
- Topical capsaicin

Medication selection should be individualized, considering side effects, potential beneficial or deleterious effects on comorbidities, and whether prompt onset of pain relief is necessary.
## Comparison of neuropathic pain treatment guidelines, excluding trigeminal neuralgia*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medication Class</th>
<th>Neuropathic Pain Special Interest Group Guidelines</th>
<th>Canadian Pain Society Guidelines</th>
<th>European Federation of Neurological Societies Guidelines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tricyclic antidepressants</td>
<td>First line</td>
<td>First line</td>
<td>First line for PPN, PHN, and CP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium channel $\alpha2$–$\delta$ ligands (gabapentin and pregabalin)</td>
<td>First line</td>
<td>First line</td>
<td>First line for PPN, PHN, and CP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSNRIs (duloxetine and venlafaxine)</td>
<td>First line</td>
<td>Second line</td>
<td>Second line for PPN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topical lidocaine</td>
<td>First line for localized peripheral NP</td>
<td>Second line for localized peripheral NP</td>
<td>First line for PHN if small area of pain/allodynia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opioid analgesics</td>
<td>Second line except in Selected circumstances†</td>
<td>Third line</td>
<td>Second third line for PPN, PHN, and CP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tramadol</td>
<td>Second line except in selected circumstances†</td>
<td>Third line</td>
<td>Second third line for PPN and PHN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Only medications considered first or second line in 1 of the guidelines are presented.
† Opioid analgesics and tramadol were considered first-line options in the following circumstances: for the treatment of acute NP, episodic exacerbations of severe NP, neuropathic cancer pain, and during titration of a first-line medication in patients with substantial pain.
CP = central pain; NP = neuropathic pain; PHN = postherpetic neuralgia; PPN = painful polyneuropathy; SSNRIs = selective serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors.

de Leon-Casaola O. Pain Med. 2011;12 Suppl 3:S100-8
Tricyclic antidepressants, dual reuptake inhibitors of serotonin and norepinephrine, calcium channel α₂-delta ligands (ie, gabapentin and pregablin), and topical lidocaine were recommended as first-line treatment options on the basis of the results of randomized clinical trials.

Opioid analgesics and tramadol were recommended as second-line treatments that can be considered for first-line use in certain clinical circumstances.
Potential Future Treatment Strategies
Contribution of peripheral endothelin ET(A) and ET(B) receptors in neuropathic pain induced by spinal nerve ligation in rats

SNL induces marked hind paw hypersensitivity to thermal stimulation in part via up-regulation of peripheral sensory nerve pronociceptive ET(A) and ET(B) receptor-operated mechanisms.

A 47-year-old man was treated with the selective endothelin-A antagonist, sitaxsentan, for pulmonary arterial hypertension. He had been referred with a history of gradually increasing dyspnea.

His sciatica had been managed with a number of medications, including paracetamol, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents, and narcotic analgesia, all with limited success.

He was given sitaxsentan 100 mg daily, with improvements in dyspnea and exercise tolerance reported at review 4 weeks later. He also volunteered that he had experienced a substantial improvement in his sciatica, allowing discontinuation of analgesia.
Opioids are not effective analgesic agents for neuropathic pain

A. True
B. False

Answer: B–False
Pregabalin doses do not need to be adjusted in a patient with chronic kidney disease stage IV

A. True
B. False

Answer: B–False
All of the following agents may be considered first line medications for the treatment of neuropathic pain except:

A. Nortriptyline
B. Duloxetine
C. Desipramine
D. Oxycodone CR
E. Venlafaxine

Answer: D – Oxycodone CR