Alpha 2 Agonists and Magnesium As Adjuvants to Intrathecal Bupivacaine For Postoperative Analgesia

Essay

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List of Abbreviations

ACC : Anterior cingulate cortex

ACTH : Adrenocorticotrophic hormones

AF : Atrial fibrillation BBB : Blood brain barrier

cAMP : Cyclic adenosine monophosphate CGRP : Calcitonin gene-related peptide

CNS : Central nervous system

DEX : Dexmedetomidine hydrochloride DNIC : Diffuse noxious inhibitory control

DRG : Dorsal root ganglion ECG : Electrocardiogram

EDRF : Endothelium-derived relaxing factor

GDP : Guanyl di-phosphateGTP : Guanyl tri-phosphateGTPase : Guanyl tri phosphatase

IASP : International Association for the Study of Pain

IV : Intra-venous

MAC : Minimal alveolar concentration

Mg : Magnesium

MPQ : McGill Pain Questionnaire

NE : Norepinephrine

NMDA
 N-methyl-_{D-} aspartate
 NRM
 Nucleus raphe magnus
 NS
 Nociceptive specific
 OPS
 Objective Pain Score

PCA : Patient-controlled analgesia

PFC : Premotor cortices, prefrontal cortex

PTH : Parathyroid hormone

SAH : Subarachnoid HemorrhageSVR : Systemic vascular resistance

TDP : Torsades de pointes

List of Abbreviations (Con.)

TEG : Thromboelastography

TIH : Tourniquet-induced hypertension

TIVA : Total intravenous anesthesia

TNS : Transient neurological symptoms

VAS : Visual Analogue Scale
VF : Ventricular fibrillation
VRSs : Verbal Rating Scales
WDR : Wide dynamic range

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Introduction

Lower abdominal and lower limb surgeries may be performed under local, regional (spinal or epidural) or general anesthesia, but neuraxial blockade is the preferred mode of anesthesia. Spinal block is still the first choice because of its rapid onset, superior blockade, lower risk of infection as from catheter in situ, less failure rates and cost-effectiveness, but has the drawbacks of shorter duration of block and lack of postoperative analgesia (*Deepika Shukla et al., 2011*).

In recent years, use of intrathecal adjuvants has gained popularity with the aim of prolonging the duration of block, better success rate, patient satisfaction, decreased resource utilization compared with general anesthesia and faster recovery. Adequate pain management is essential to facilitate rehabilitation and accelerate functional recovery, enabling patients to return to their normal activity more quickly. The quality of the spinal anesthesia has been reported to be improved by the addition of opioids (such as morphine, and sufentanil) and fentanyl other drugs [such dexmedetomidine (DXM), clonidine, magnesium sulfate (Mg), neostigmine, ketamine and midazolam], but no drug to inhibit nociception is without associated adverse effects (Deepika Shukla et al., 2011).

Bupivacaine, is a drug with long lasting local anesthetic effect, in neuraxial anesthesia, provides an effective and safe anesthesia (*Coskuner et al.*, 2007).

Recently, Alpha 2-adrenoceptor agonists are being increasingly used in anesthesia and critical care as they not only decrease sympathetic tone and attenuate the stress responses to anesthesia and surgery; but also cause sedation and analgesia; they are also used as adjuvants during regional anesthesia.

Introduction and Aim of The Work

Dexmedetomidine is the most recent agent in this group approved by FDA in 1999 for use in human for analgesia and sedation (*G. E. Kanazi et al.*, 2006).

Mg is a noncompetitive antagonist to NMDA receptors and has the potential to prevent central sensitization from peripheral nociceptive stimulation. Intravenous (i.v.) administration of Mg, even at high doses, is associated with limited passage across the blood-brain barrier (*Hwang et al.*, 2010).

The addition of intrathecal magnesium sulfate (MgSO4) to 10 mg bupivacaine plus 25µg fentanyl prolonged spinal anesthesia in patients undergoing lower extremity surgery (M.B. Khezri et al., 2012).

Antinociceptive effect of Mg appears to be relevant not only to chronic pain but it also determines, in part, the duration and intensity of postoperative pain. These effects are primarily based on the regulation of calcium influx into the cell, i.e. natural physiological calcium antagonism (*Hwang et al.*, 2010).

Aim of the Work

To discuss the best drugs that achieve maximum post operative analgesic effects when used as adjuvants to intrathecal bupivacaine as regard efficacy and duration of the analgesic effect.

Anatomy and Physiology of Pain

Pain is defined by the International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP) as an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience that is primarily associated with tissue damage. It is a protective mechanism that occurs whenever tissues are being damaged, and it causes the individual to react to remove the pain stimulus (**Tenti and Hauri, 2004**).

Pain pathway

Specificity theory states that there is a specific pain system that transfers information about potential or actual tissue damage to the place of perception (the brain). Nociceptive energy is transduced into electrophysiological signals that are transmitted to perceptive apparatus. However, the pain pathway is not 'hard wired', but undergoes profound functional changes and modulation under certain conditions, such as tissue damage and inflammation (e.g. postoperative pain). This plasticity is mediated by many mechanisms, including peripheral/primary and central/secondary sensitization. The substrate for these changes is a plethora of chemical mediators peripherally and spinally, comparable in complexity to neurotransmitters in the brain (Smith, 2007).

I-Primary afferent neurons:

There are three classes of primary afferent fibers in skin that may be activated by a given cutaneous stimulus. The fibers that are largest and have the fastest conduction velocity are the large-diameter myelinated $(A\beta)$ fibers. These fibers, when activated, do not normally result in a sensation of pain, but rather of light touch, pressure, or hair movement. The axons of the nociceptive neurons are generally unmyelinated (C fibers) or thinly myelinated $(A\delta \text{ fibers})$ (**Dubner, 1994**).

Unmyelinated C polymodal nociceptors are activated by many potentially tissue-damaging modalities, are associated

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with prolonged 'burning' pain, and are slowly conducting (0.5-2.0 m/s). Some may have a differential sensitivity to heat or mechanical stimuli (**Smith, 2007**).

The $A\delta$ is thinly myelinated, mechano-heat receptors that thought to mediate a briefer 'sharp' pain. These larger fibers are more rapidly conducting (5-20 m/s). $A\delta$ fibers are also delineated into two types, depending on their differential responsiveness to intense heat. A final group of nociceptors do not appear to exhibit sensitivity to noxious stimuli. These 'silent' nociceptors develop novel sensitivity usually after tissue injury or inflammation. Silent nociceptors have been well characterized in the visceral domain, although there is some evidence to support the existence of somatic counterparts (Smith, 2007).

II-Spinal cord to brain:

Secondary afferents decussate and pass up the spinal cord to the midbrain via the spinothalamic, spinoreticular and spinomesencephalic tracts to the thalamus and to sensory cortex, but also have many other links, such as to reticular formations, limbic and hippocampus areas, Fig.(1). The different pathways may have functional correlates involving memory, cognition and emotion, which contribute to the neural network of overall pain perception. Moreover, neurons that project from these areas of the brain provide descending modulation of spinal cord processing. (**Brooks and Tracey, 2005**)

Anatomy and Physiology of Pain

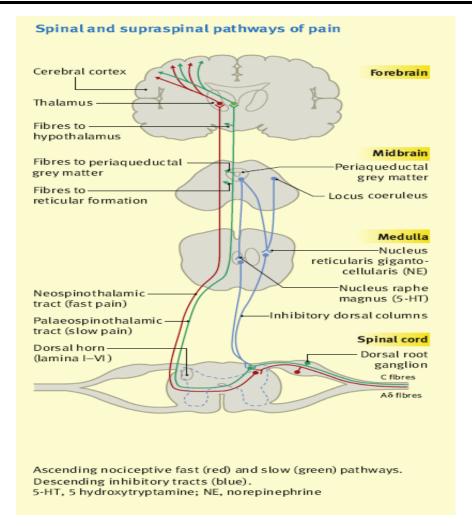


Fig.(1): Spinal and supraspinal pathways of pain (Smith, 2007)

The first synapse in somatosensory signaling occurs either at the spinal dorsal horn or in the dorsal column nuclei at the spinal cord-brain stem junction. Evidence has accumulated to indicate that both nociceptive and non nociceptive fibers provide input to both of these initial targets. However, under normal circumstances, the dorsal column nuclei can be considered to selectively process inputs from the large myelinated fiber classes related to light touch, whereas the spinal dorsal horn primarily processes inputs of the nociceptive primary afferent fibers (**Pockett, 1995**).

At the spinal level, nociceptive afferent fibers from the periphery terminate in a highly ordered way in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord on the same side of the body as the dorsal root ganglion (DRG), where the primary sensory neurons are located. The dorsal horn is anatomically organized in the form of lamina (Rexed's) (Fig.2).

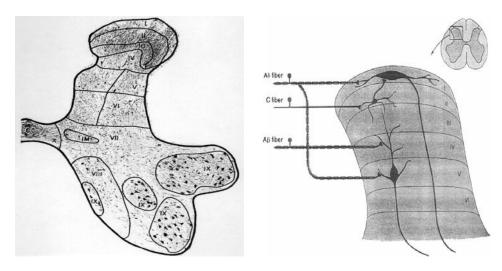


Fig.(2):Location of Rexed'slaminae at the L5 level of the spinal cord (Dubner, 1994).

The unmyelinated C fibers terminate primarily in lamina II, whereas the thinly myelinated $A\delta$ fibers end in lamina I and in laminae III to V. The collaterals of the large myelinated fibers $(A\beta)$ that terminate in the dorsal horn do so in laminae III to V (**Dubner**, 1994).

Two predominant types of second-order nociceptive spinal projection neurons have been identified in the spinal cord: wide dynamic range (WDR) neurons and nociceptive specific (NS) neurons. WDR cells are especially concentrated in the deeper laminae of the dorsal horn (laminae III to V) where they receive input from both low-threshold (A β) and nociceptive afferent fibers, and, hence, are activated by both non-noxious and noxious stimuli. However, the responses of WDR cells to these stimuli are graded so that noxious stimuli

evoke a greater response than non-noxious stimuli (**Dubner**, **1994**).

In contrast to WDR cells, NS projection cells respond only to noxious stimuli under physiologic conditions. The majority of NS cells are found in the superficial laminae of the dorsal horn (I and outer II). These cells have a lower rate of spontaneous activity than WDR cells, averaging about 3 to 5 Hz. The discharge rates to the noxious stimuli of NS cells are comparable to those of WDR cells, averaging about 50 Hz. (McMahon, 1992).

The axons of both WDR neurons and NS second-order neurons cross the midline near the spinal level of the cell body, gather into a bundle of ascending fibers in the contralateral anterolateral spinal region, and then ascend toward targets in the brain stem and diencephalon. The conduction velocity of the WDR cells is usually faster than that of the NS cells 30m/second (approximately versus. 12 m/second. Additionally, the axons of the NS cells, which largely arise from lamina I of the dorsal horn, and those of the WDR cells, which primarily arise from laminae III to V, tend to run in slightly different positions in the anterolateral spinal funiculus. In the anterolateral spinal column the NS cell axons are found in the dorsal medial region, whereas axons of WDR cells are more concentrated in the ventrolateral region (McMahon, 1992).

III- The pain matrix:

Usually pain experience is described along 2 main axes: the sensory discriminative dimension, comprising spatial, temporal, and intensity properties, and the affective-motivational dimension related to the unpleasantness of pain. Consistent with the multidimensional concept of pain, multiple brain regions, which composite the pain matrix, have been demonstrated to be involved in representing both the