



Ain Shams University- Faculty of Medicine  
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# **Comparative study between the effect of pre-emptive use of oral Gabapentin and Pregabalin on acute post-operative pain after elective gynecological surgeries performed under spinal anesthesia**

*Thesis*

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## List of Abbreviations

| Abb.                                                | Full Term                             |
|-----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <b>ASA</b>                                          | American society of anesthesiologists |
| <b>BMI</b>                                          | Body mass index                       |
| <b>BP</b>                                           | Blood pressure                        |
| <b>Cav<math>\alpha_2</math>-<math>\delta</math></b> | Calcium channel $\alpha_2$ -delta     |
| <b>CBC</b>                                          | Complete blood count                  |
| <b>CGRP</b>                                         | Calcitonin gene-related peptide       |
| <b>CLcr</b>                                         | Creatinine clearance                  |
| <b>DPN</b>                                          | Diabetic peripheral neuropathy        |
| <b>ECG</b>                                          | Electrocardiogram                     |
| <b>FDA</b>                                          | Food and Drug Administration          |
| <b>GABA</b>                                         | $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid           |
| <b>GLM</b>                                          | General linear model                  |
| <b>HS</b>                                           | Highly significant                    |
| <b>IM</b>                                           | Intramuscularly                       |
| <b>IV</b>                                           | Intravenous                           |
| <b>KFT</b>                                          | Kidney function tests                 |
| <b>LFT</b>                                          | Liver function tests                  |
| <b>NIBP</b>                                         | Non-invasive blood pressure           |
| <b>NS</b>                                           | Non-significant                       |
| <b>PACU</b>                                         | Post-anesthesia care unit             |
| <b>PHN</b>                                          | Postherpetic neuralgia                |

| <b>Abb.</b>                                      | <b>Full Term</b>                                                 |
|--------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>PONV</b>                                      | Postoperative nausea and vomiting                                |
| <b>POP</b>                                       | Pelvic organ Prolapse                                            |
| <b>PT</b>                                        | Prothrombin time                                                 |
| <b>PTT</b>                                       | Partial thromboplastin time                                      |
| <b>RBS</b>                                       | Random blood sugar                                               |
| <b>RSS</b>                                       | Ramsay sedation scale                                            |
| <b>S</b>                                         | Significant                                                      |
| <b>SD</b>                                        | Standard deviation                                               |
| <b>SpO<sub>2</sub></b>                           | Pulse oximetry                                                   |
| <b>SPSS</b>                                      | Statistical package of social science                            |
| <b>TAH BSO</b>                                   | Total abdominal hysterectomy and bilateral salpingo-oophorectomy |
| <b>TOT</b>                                       | Trans-obturator vaginal tape                                     |
| <b>USAN</b>                                      | United states adopted names                                      |
| <b>VAS</b>                                       | Visual analog scale                                              |
| <b>VH</b>                                        | Vaginal hysterectomy                                             |
| <b><math>\alpha 2</math>-<math>\delta</math></b> | Alpha <sub>2</sub> - delta                                       |

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## Introduction

Pain is defined by International Association for Study of Pain (IASP) as an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage. The relief of postoperative pain is a subject, which has been receiving an increasing amount of attention in the past few years (**Fassoulaki et al., 2012**). Pre-emptive analgesia is the administration of analgesics prior to onset of noxious stimuli, which modifies peripheral and central nervous system processing of noxious stimuli, thereby reducing hyperalgesia (increased pain from a stimulus that usually provokes pain) and allodynia (pain due to a stimulus that does not usually provoke pain) (**Kelly et al., 2001**) (**Jensen and Finnerup, 2014**).

The goals of pre-emptive analgesia are to decrease acute pain after tissue injury and to inhibit the persistence of post-operative pain and the development of chronic pain (**Levaux et al., 2003**). Various drugs such as local anesthetics, opioids, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitor, gabapentin, pregabalin, clonidine and dexmedetomidine have been used as pre-emptive analgesics (**Zhang et al., 2011**).



Central neuronal sensitization contributes to postoperative hypersensitivity to pain (**Dirks et al., 2002**). As such, postoperative pain may be considered as a transient type of “neuropathic” pain and, consequently there is a rationale for the exploitation of antihyperalgesic drugs for postoperative analgesia (**Dahl et al., 2004**).

Gabapentin is a structural analog of gamma amino butyric acid (**Bafna et al., 2014**), that was introduced as an antiepileptic drug in 1993. It has been extensively used to treat painful neuropathies in patients with diabetic polyneuropathy, postherpetic neuralgia, and neuropathic pain in general (**Dworkin et al., 2003**). It mainly has an antihyperalgesic and antiallodynic properties with only a minor effect on normal nociception (**Iannetti et al., 2005**). Pregabalin is another structural analog of  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid, which shows analgesic, anticonvulsant, and anxiolytic effects (**Shneker and McAuley, 2005**).

The mechanism of action of gabapentin and its successor, pregabalin is likely mediated by binding to the  $\alpha_2\delta$  subunits of the presynaptic voltage-gated calcium channels, which are up-regulated in the dorsal root ganglia and spinal cord after surgical trauma. Gabapentin may produce antinociception by inhibiting calcium influx via these channels, and subsequently inhibiting the release of

excitatory neurotransmitters (e.g., substance P, calcitonin gene-related peptide) from the primary afferent nerve fibers in the pain pathway **(Rose and Kam, 2002)**. Hence, reducing the hyperexcitability of dorsal horn neurons induced by tissue injury **(Gilron, 2002)**. Central sensitization of these neurons is important in chronic neuropathic pain, but also occurs after trauma and surgery. Reduction in central sensitization by an antihyperalgesic drug like gabapentin may reduce acute postoperative pain. Gabapentin may also prevent opioid tolerance **(Gilron et al., 2003)**. Both gabapentin and pregabalin have anxiolytic properties **(Menigaux et al., 2005)**.

Some clinical trials of gabapentin, given before a variety of surgical procedures producing visceral and somatic injury, have found significant reduction in postoperative analgesic requirements and others have found a reduction in early and late postoperative pain **(Dahl et al., 2004)**.

Pregabalin which is several times more potent than gabapentin and rapidly absorbed orally with more than 90% bioavailability **(Frampton and Foster, 2005)**, was also shown to have a significant analgesic effect on acute postoperative pain according to other placebo-controlled studies **(Hill et al., 2001)**, **(Reuben et al., 2006)**.

## **Aim of the Work**

The aim of this work is to compare the effect of pre-emptive single dose of oral gabapentin and oral pregabalin on acute postoperative pain after elective gynecological surgeries performed under spinal anesthesia, in order to omit the possible analgesic effects of general anesthetics on the results of this study.

## **Mechanism of Postoperative Pain and Pre-emptive Analgesia**

In recent decades, major progress has been made in reducing perioperative morbidity and mortality. As anesthesia and surgery have become safer, there has been an increasing emphasis toward the improvement of secondary outcome measures including perioperative pain (Hurley et al., 2006).

Pain is more than a simple bodily reaction to noxious stimuli; rather, it is a complicated and individualized experience. Patients undergoing a surgical procedure are predisposed to pain postoperatively for a number of reasons. For example, pre-existing pain (both acute and chronic), psychological influences, fear of recurring additional pain, neurovascular tissue damage from a prior operation, in addition to the extent of the surgery which can all contribute to major postoperative discomfort (Kissin, 2000).

Systemic opioids are the most common medications administered for postoperative pain relief. However, opioids have many adverse effects including respiratory depression, constipation, nausea, vomiting, urinary

retention, and pruritus. Alternative treatments such as medications delivered via epidural catheters, peripheral nerve catheters, or given as single-administration peripheral nerve blocks are attractive choices but may not be possible in all patients or types of surgery (**Hurley et al., 2006**).

Unfortunately, inadequate treatment of postoperative pain persists, despite the presence of postoperative pain guidelines and advanced technologies (**Block et al., 2003**). Post operative pain which occurs as a consequence of tissue trauma, may further result in physical, cognitive, and emotional discomfort (**Parsons et al., 2013**).

In addition to poor patient satisfaction, the outcome of a surgical procedure can be affected by inadequate perioperative pain control. The pain-related changes can affect insulin, cortisol, catecholamine, and other hormone levels (**Dunwoody et al., 2008**). Also, it is associated with increased cytokine and acute-phase reactant release, activation of the renin-angiotensin- aldosterone cascade, impaired coagulability, and an altered immune response (**Cohen et al., 2004**).

Decrease in physical mobility due to postoperative pain can predispose an individual to pneumonia (**Pessaux et al., 2013**), and muscle splinting has the potential to

decrease blood flow to an extremity, resulting in thrombosis or embolism (**Bader et al., 2010**). Muscles can be further damaged by spasm, atrophy, and impairment of metabolism (**Dunwoody et al., 2008**). Muscles controlling urinary bladder motility can become impaired, resulting in urinary retention. Coronary vasoconstriction from activation of the sympathetic nervous system can result in cardiovascular effects such as angina or ischemia. Furthermore, unresolved postoperative pain may give rise to sleep deprivation, anxiety and depression (**Bader et al., 2010**).

Almost a century ago, researchers first described a possible relationship between intra-operative tissue damage and an intensification of acute pain and long-term postoperative pain, now referred to as central sensitization (**Crile, 1916**). Nociceptor activation is mediated by chemicals that are released in response to cellular or tissue damage (**Vadivelu et al., 2014**).

Numerous neurophysiologic or neurochemical mechanisms are involved in postoperative pain including peripheral nerve and central sensitization. These changes can contribute to enhanced pain sensitivity experienced by the patient and can include hypersensitivity of spinal cord neurons (**Woolf & Salter, 2000**), hypersensitivity of

peripheral pain transmitting C-fibers (**Banik & Brennan, 2004**), or changes in periphery surrounding the immediate area of the incision (**Woo et al., 2004**). These postoperative changes may therefore represent a corollary of neuropathic pain in the acute setting and may be responsive to treatments used in the palliation of neuropathic pain (**Hurley et al., 2006**).

It has been refined and evolved to a broader concept that surgical incision alone is not the trigger for central sensitization (**Katz, 1995**). Other factors, such as preoperative pain, additional noxious intraoperative inputs such as retraction, postoperative inflammatory processes, related peripheral and central neuromodulators, as well as ectopic neural activity can all cause an intensification of acute pain and development of long-term postoperative pain as a result of central sensitization (**Vadivelu et al., 2014**).

Hence, Central sensitization can occur for a variety of reasons, ranging from preoperative pain to intraoperative tissue injury and postoperative inflammatory processes that can occur immediately after surgery up to several weeks later (**Katz et al., 2011**).