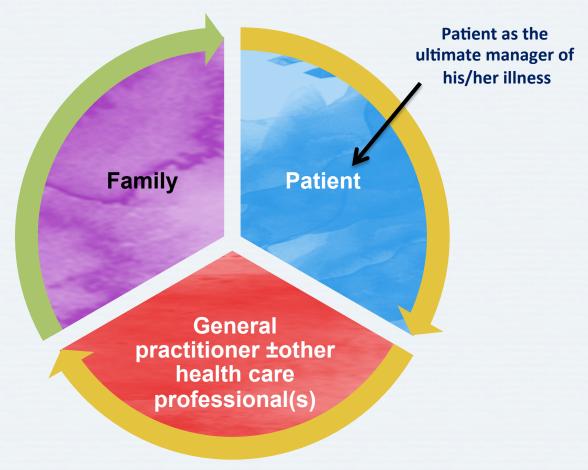
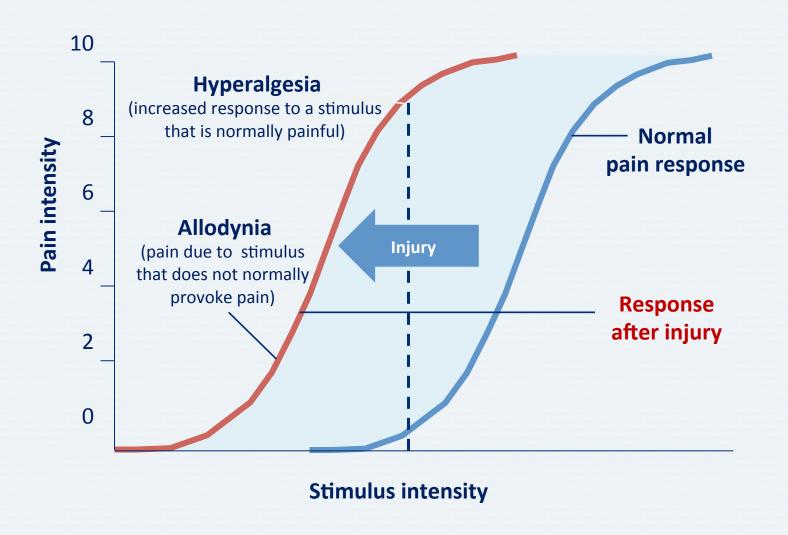
Goals of treatment in managing cancer-related pain

Deciding on the Best Course of Treatment for the Patient

Collaborative Care



Pain Is Characterized by Changes in Pain Response to Painful Stimuli



Non-Pharmacological Management of Cancer-Related Pain

- Non-pharmacological treatments can be used to improve
 - Pain control
 - Coping
 - Adaptation
 - Self-efficacy
- Non-pharmacological approaches include
 - Cognitive behavioral therapy
 - Mind-body approaches

CBT for Cancer-Related Pain

- Focuses on¹
 - Maintaining quality of life through improved self-efficacy
 - Developing a sense of control over the illness and its consequences
 - Learning self-regulation skills to improve emotional functioning
- Modifies thinking patterns² (dichotomous thinking, catastrophization, overgeneralization)
- Dysfunctional cognitive patterns typically arise from limited information and do not entirely reflect reality²
- Gives patients a reality-based alternative version/interpretation of events²
 - Elicits a more adaptive emotional response, improved coping²

Mind-Body Approaches to Cancer-Related Pain

- Usually an adjunct to pharmacological therapy
- Relaxation therapy
 - Can transiently reduce pain intensity²
 - May be associated with relaxation-induced panic³
- Imagery creates a positive cognitive and emotional state that can ameliorate pain through⁴
 - Recall of pleasant sights, smells, sounds, or tastes,
 - Somatic sensations (touch, movements, positions)

Non-pharmacological Interventions for Cancer-related Pain

Therapy Type	Examples			
Psychological	HypnosisRelaxationCBT			
Physical	 Acupuncture Transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation Healing touch and massage Occupational therapy 			
Clinical process	Pain assessmentPhysician advice and communicationEducation			

- Non-pharmacological interventions are commonly used in clinical practice
- It is challenging to design studies to obtain reliable evidence of efficacy

Psychological Therapies for Cancer-related Pain

- Individual and group counseling
- Biofeedback
- Relaxation techniques
- Self-hypnosis
- Visual imaging
- Learning or conditioning techniques
- Behavioral techniques
- Cognitive techniques
- Psychotherapy

Non-Pharmacological Management of Cancer-related Pain

- Can improve
 - Pain control
 - Coping
 - Adaptation
 - Self-efficacy
- Approaches include
 - Cognitive behavioral therapy
 - Mind-body approaches

NCCN Guideline: Non-pharmacological Treatment of Cancer Pain



Recommended

- Integrative interventions (cognitive and spiritual)
- Interventional strategies (nerve blocks, vertebroplasty, kyphoplasty, regional infusion of analgesics, RF ablation)



Not recommended

• Do not use interventional strategies in patients that are unwilling, suffer from infections or coagulopathy, or have very short life expectancies



Insufficient evidence

Pharmacologic therapy for cancer-related pain

Overview of Treatment Principles in the Management of Cancer-related Pain

- Pain control is an essential part of oncologic management¹
- A multidisciplinary team may be needed¹
- Psychosocial support must be available¹
- Analgesics for cancer pain should be given²
 - ✓ By the mouth
 - ✓ By the clock
 - ✓ By the ladder
 - ✓ For the individual
 - ✓ With attention to detail



Overview of Treatment Principles for Cancer-related Pain: Breakthrough Pain

- Give medication for continuous pain on a regular schedule¹
 - Give added doses for breakthrough pain
- Allow rescue doses of 10-20% of the 24 h oral dose every hour as needed¹
 - Ongoing need for rescue doses may indicate a need to increase regularly scheduled dose
- Opioids used as rescue medications should have²
 - Rapid onset of analgesic effect
 - Short duration analgesic effect

Management of Breakthrough Cancer Pain

- Offer short-acting drugs as needed during regular opioid treatment^{1,2}
 - Immediate release opioid
 - Opioid + non-opioid combination product
 - Rapid-onset, transmucosal fentanyl formulation
- Rapid-onset, transmucosal fentanyl formulations²
 - Indicated for cancer-related breakthrough pain
 - Allow rapid absorption through mucosa
 - Address mismatch between time course of typical breakthrough pain and slower onset of an oral drug

Bone Pain in Cancer

- Bone metastases are a frequent complication of cancer
- Metastatic bone disease is one of the most common causes of cancer pain
- Some patients have pain in the bones and others have pain due to complications, such as neurological impairment secondary to nerve compression in spine or the base of skull
- Pain can be unrelated to tumor size

Management of Cancer Bone Pain

- Non-pharmacological
 - Cutaneous stimulation, TENS, massage therapy, exercise
- Chiropractic or Osteopathic
 - Manipulation techniques
- Psychotherapeutic
 - Relaxation techniques, mindfulness-based stress reduction, hypnosis, psychotherapy
- Pharmacological
 - Calcitonin, bisphosphonates, corticosteroids, cannabinoids, analgesics
- Radiotherapy and Radionuclides
- Hormonal
- Interventional

Radiotherapy for Bone Pain

- Relieves pain
- Prevents impending pathological fractures
- Promotes healing of pathological fractures
- Successful in pain relief in 60-70% of patients
 - Takes up to 3 weeks for full effect
- Single fraction treatments have same response rate as multiple fractions

Medications for Bone Pain: Mechanisms of Action

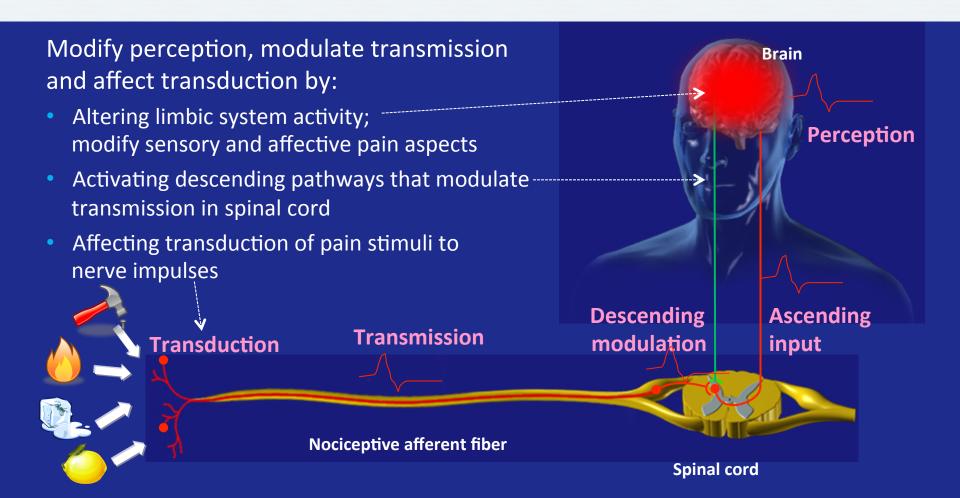
Drug Class	Mechanisms of Action			
Bisphosphonates ^{1,2}	 Decrease bone resorption Increase mineralization by inhibiting osteoclast activity Possible antitumor activity 			
Denosumab ³	 Antibody targeting the receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B ligand (RANKL) Prevents osteoclast formation 			

Medications for Bone Pain: Adverse Effects

Drug Class	Adverse Effects			
Bisphosphonates ¹⁻⁵	 Osteonecrosis of the jaw Hypocalcemia Proteinuria and renal insufficiency Acute phase response Ocular toxicity Bone, joint, or muscle pain Atrial fibrillation and stroke 			
Denosumab ^{1,2}	 Osteonecrosis of the jaw Hypocalcemia Renal effects Neutralizing antibodies Infections 			

Overview of Medication Classes for Cancer-related Pain

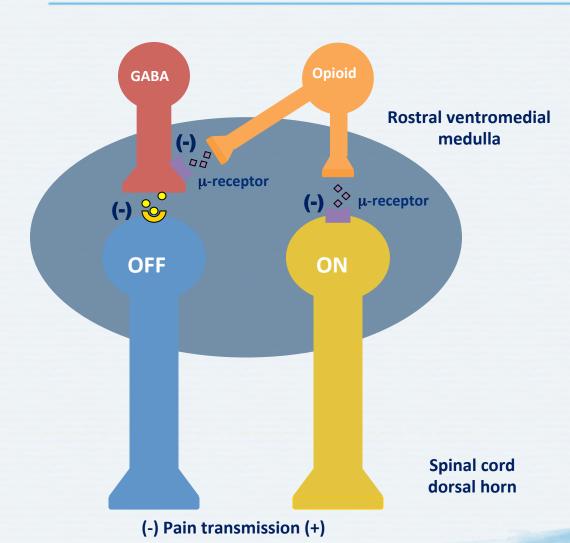
How Opioids Affect Pain



Opioids and Pain Management

Opioid Receptor	Response				
Mu	Supraspinal analgesia, respiratory depression, sedation, miosis, euphoria, cardiovascular effects, pruritis, nausea/vomiting, decreased gastrointestinal motility, dependence, tolerance				
Delta	Analgesia, euphoria, dysphoria, psychotomimetic effects				
Kappa Spinal analgesia, dysphoria, psychotomimetic effects, miosis, respiratory depression, sedation					

Opioids Modulate Control of "ON" and "OFF" Cells



- Opioid stimulation of mu-receptors on "ON" cells
 - Reduced "ON" cell activity
 - Reduced facilitation of pain transmission at dorsal horn
 - →Less pain
- Opioid stimulation of mu-receptors on GABA-ergic interneurons innervating "OFF" cells
 - Reduced GABA-ergic interneuron activity
 - Reduced inhibition of "OFF" cells
 - Increased "OFF" cell inhibition of pain transmission at dorsal horn
 - →Less pain

Opioids Can Induce Hyperalgesia

Primary hyperalgesia

- Sensitization of primary neurons → decrease threshold to noxious stimuli within site of injury
- May include response to innocuous stimuli
- Increase pain from suprathreshold stimuli
- Spontaneous pain
- Secondary hyperalgesia
 - Sensitization of primary neurons in surrounding uninjured areas
 - May involve peripheral and central sensitization

Opioids Can Induce Allodynia

- Pain evoked by innocuous stimuli
- Central sensitization \rightarrow pain produced by A β fibers
- Possibly mediated by spinal NMDA receptors

Adverse Effects of Opioids

System	Adverse effects			
Gastrointestinal	Nausea, vomiting, constipation			
CNS	Cognitive impairment, sedation, lightheadedness, dizziness			
Respiratory	Respiratory depression			
Cardiovascular	Orthostatic hypotension, fainting			
Other	Urticaria, miosis, sweating, urinary retention			

What Are NSAIDs (nsNSAIDs/Coxibs)?

NSAID = Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug

- Analgesic effect via inhibition of prostaglandin production
- Broad class incorporating many different medications:

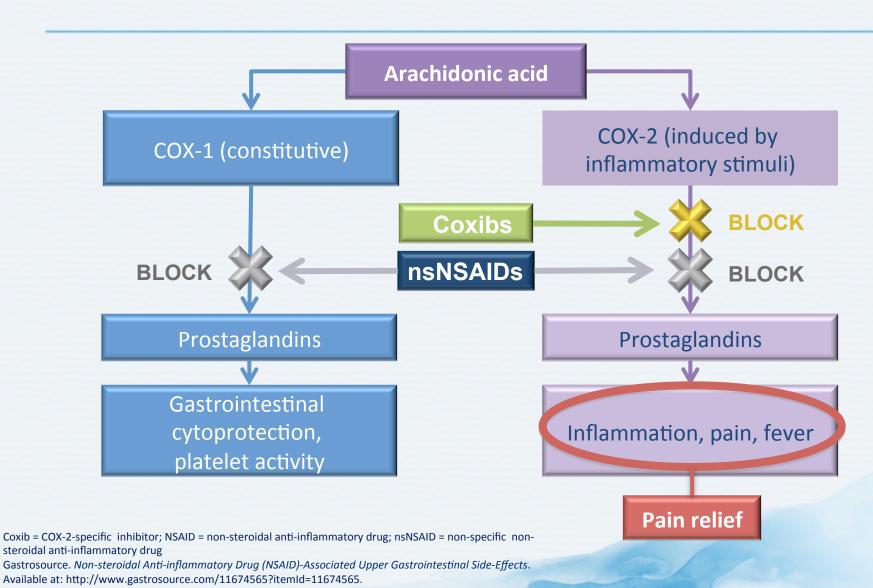
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- Diclofenac
- Ibuprofen
- Naproxen

Examples of Coxibs:

- Celecoxib
- Etoricoxib
- Parecoxib

How Do nsNSAIDs/Coxibs Work?



Accessed: December 4, 2010; Vane JR, Botting RM. Inflamm Res 1995;44:1-10.

COX-2 Is Expressed in the CNS

- PGs in the CNS are important in central sensitization and hyperalgesia¹
- Peripheral inflammation

 central induction of COX-2
 - Occurs even with complete sensory nerve block³
 - Humoral signal (IL-6?) may play a role in signal transduction across blood-brain barrier³
 - IL-1beta plays an important role centrally³
 - Elevation of PGs in CSF lead to hyperalgesia³
 - Inhibition of IL-1beta synthesis or receptors reduce CSF levels of COX-2,
 PGs and hyperalgesia³
 - Central inhibition of COX-2 has similar effects^{3,4}

COX-2 Results in Sensitization to Pain

- Peripheral Sensitization
 - COX-2 is expressed following tissue injury
 - PGs produced increase nociceptor sensitivity to pain
- Central Sensitization
 - Peripheral inflammation → induction of COX-2 in CNS
 - Occurs even with complete sensory nerve block, possibly due to a humoral signal
 - PGs produced by COX-2 in CNS → further sensitization to pain
- Result: hyperalgesia and allodynia

COX-2 Is Involved in Central Sensitization

- Central induction of COX-2 → increased PG production
- PGE2 stimulation of EP receptors in dorsal horn will:
 - Activate PKC → phosphorylation and further enhancement of NMDA channel opening
 - Directly activate certain dorsal horn neurons by opening EP2 receptorlinked ion channels
 - Reduce inhibitory transmission of glycinergic inter-neurons
 - Increase depolarization and excitability of dorsal horn neurons

COX-2 Inhibition Minimizes Sensitization

- Signal for COX-2 induction likely to persist with peripheral inflammation
- To minimize sensitization, COX-2 should be inhibited both centrally and in the periphery as early as possible
 - Continue until peripheral inflammation resolved

Ideal COX-2 inhibitor should be able to act peripherally as well as centrally and should readily cross the blood-brain barrier

Adverse Effects of NSAIDs/Coxibs

All NSAIDs

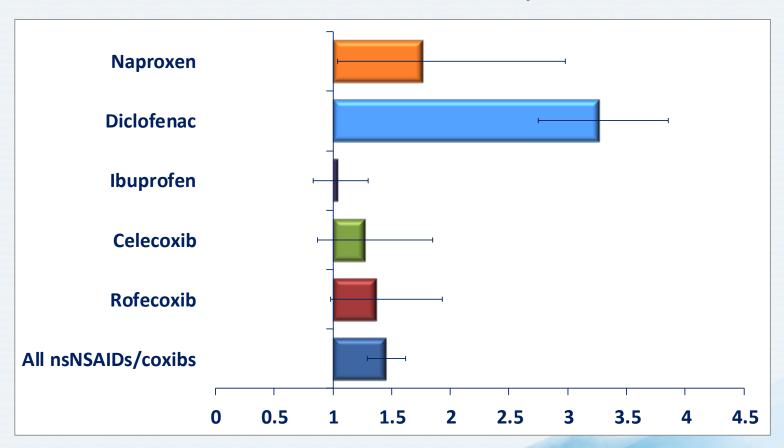
- Gastroenteropathy (e.g., gastritis, bleeding, ulceration, perforation)
- Cardiovascular thrombotic events
- Renovascular effects
 - Decreased renal blood flow
 - Fluid retention/edema
 - Hypertension
- Hypersensitivity

Cox-1-mediated NSAIDs (nsNSAIDs)

Decreased platelet aggregation

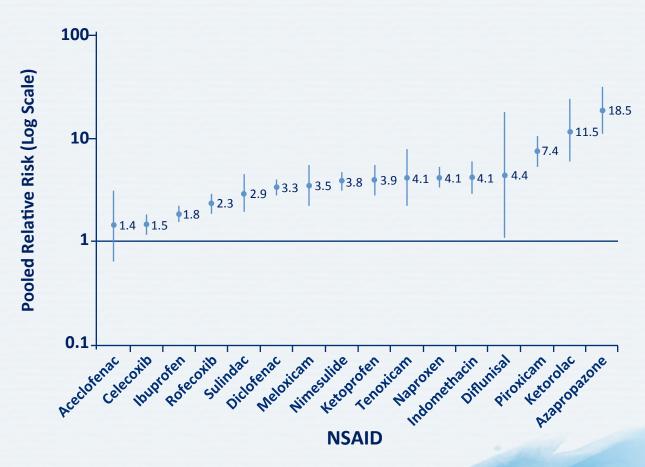
CV Risk of nsNSAIDs/Coxibs in Acute Pain*

Risk of Death/Myocardial Infarction within First 7 Days of nsNSAID/Coxib
Treatment in Patients with Previous Death/Myocardial Infarction

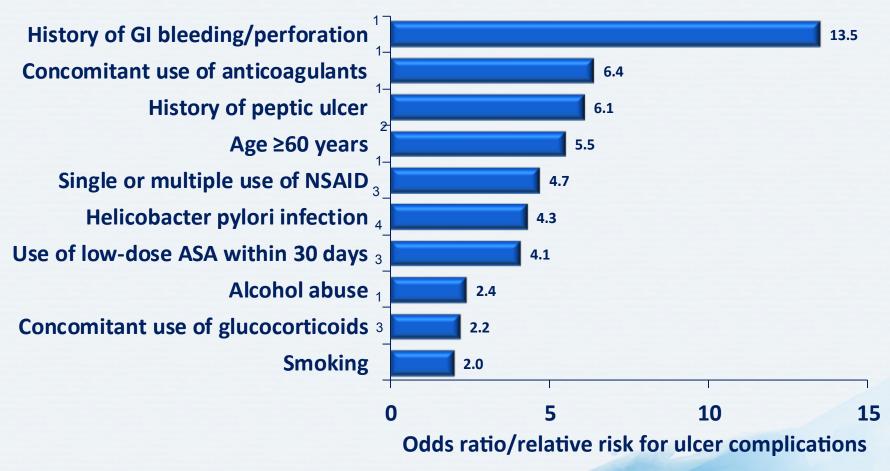


Gastrointestinal Risk of nsNSAIDs/ Coxibs

Pooled Relative Risks and 95% Cls of Upper Gastrointestinal Complications



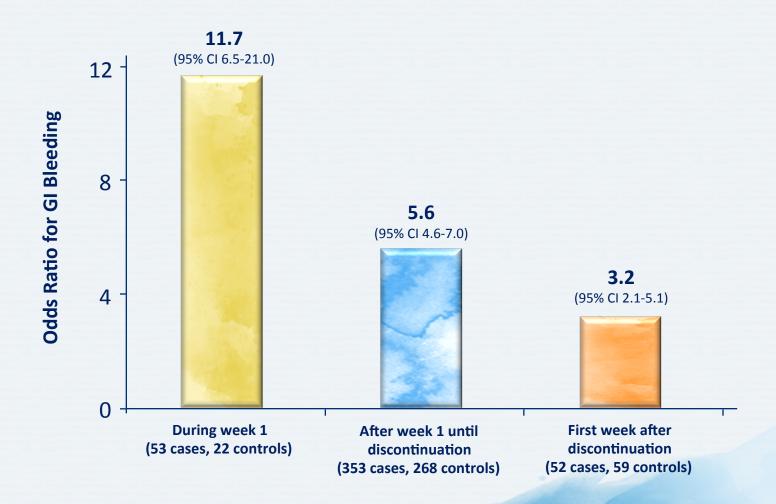
Risk Factors for Gastrointestinal Complications Associated with nsNSAIDs/Coxibs



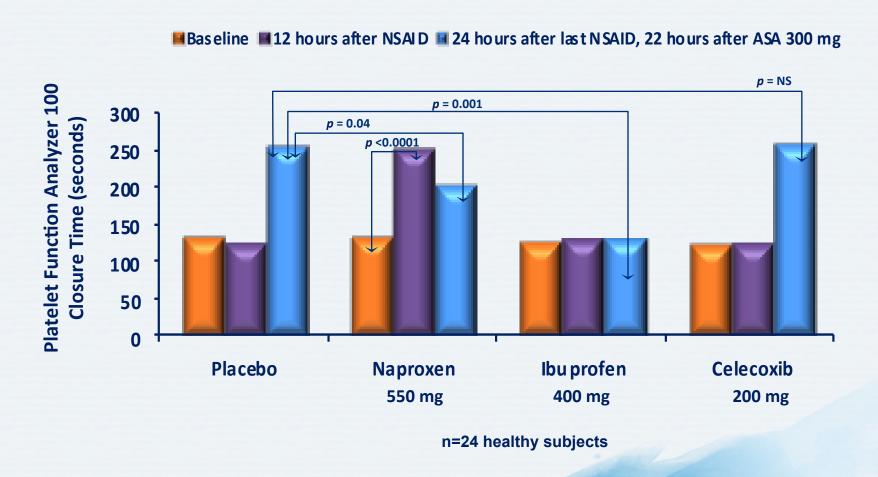
ASA = acetylsalicylic acid; coxib = COX-2-specific inhibitor; GI = gastrointestinal; NSAID = non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; nsNSAID = non-specific non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; SSRI = selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor

^{1.} Garcia Rodriguez LA, Jick H. *Lancet* 1994;343:769-72; 2. Gabriel SE *et al. Ann Intern Med* 1991;115:787-96; 3. Bardou M. Barkun AN. *Joint Bone Spine* 2010;77:6-12; 4. Garcia Rodríguez LA, Hernández-Díaz S. *Arthritis Res* 2001;3:98-101.

GI Risk of nsNSAIDs/Coxibs in Acute Pain*



Effects of nsNSAIDs/Coxibs + ASA on Platelet Function

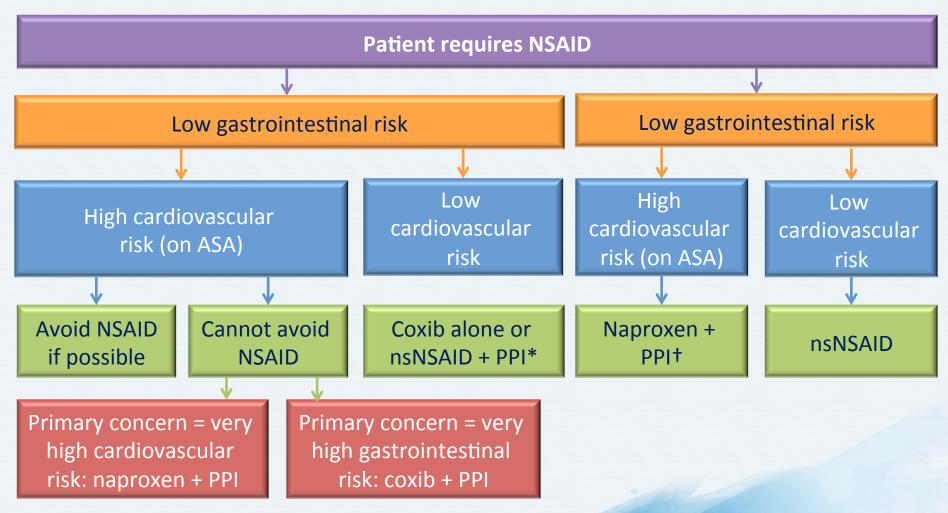


Guidelines for ASA + NSAID Use

- Individuals taking low-dose ASA (75–162 mg/day) for vascular protection should avoid the concomitant use of nsNSAIDs
- If a patient taking low-dose ASA for vascular protection requires an anti-inflammatory drug, coxibs are preferred to nsNSAIDs

Both coxibs and nsNSAIDs increase cardiovascular risk and should be avoided if possible in patients at risk of ischemic vascular events

Canadian Consensus on Prescribing NSAIDs



^{*}In high-risk patients, a coxib and an nsNSAID + PPI show similar reductions of rebleeding rates, but these reductions may be incomplete

†Most patients on ASA + naproxen would need an added PPI, but naproxen alone may be appropriate for some patients at very low gastrointestinal risk

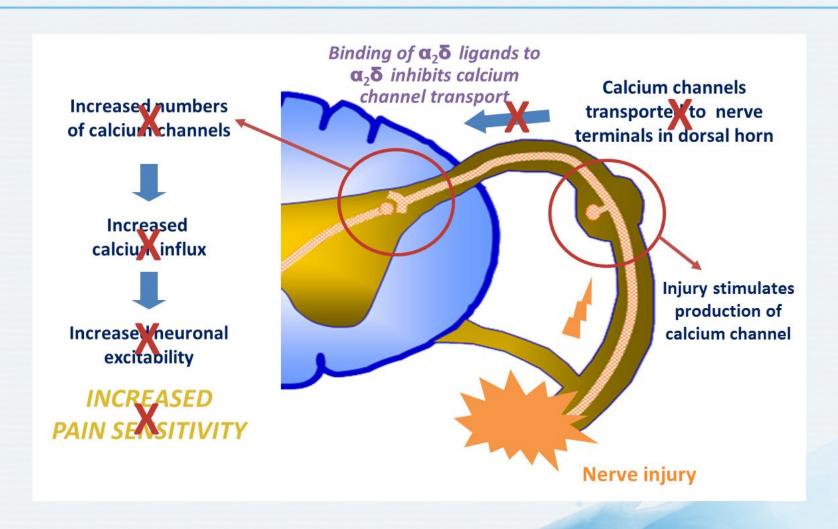
ASA = acetylsalicylic acid; coxib = COX-2-specific inhibitor; NSAID = non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; nsNSAID = non-specific NSAID; PPI = proton pump inhibitor

Rostom A et al. Aliment Pharmacol Ther 2009;29:481-96.

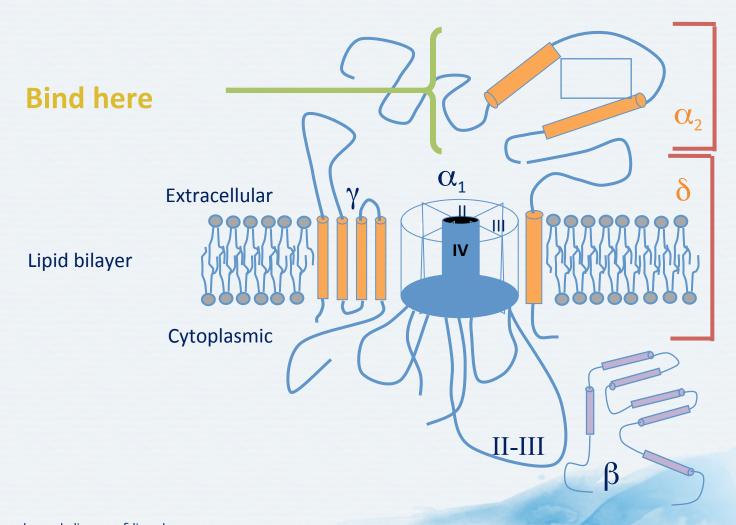
Guidelines for nsNSAIDs/Coxibs Use Based on Gastrointestinal Risk and ASA Use

	No Elevation in GI Risk	Elevated GI Risk
Not on ASA	nsNSAID alone	Coxib nsNSAID + PPI
On ASA	Coxib + PPI nsNSAID + PPI	Coxib + PPI nsNSAID + PPI

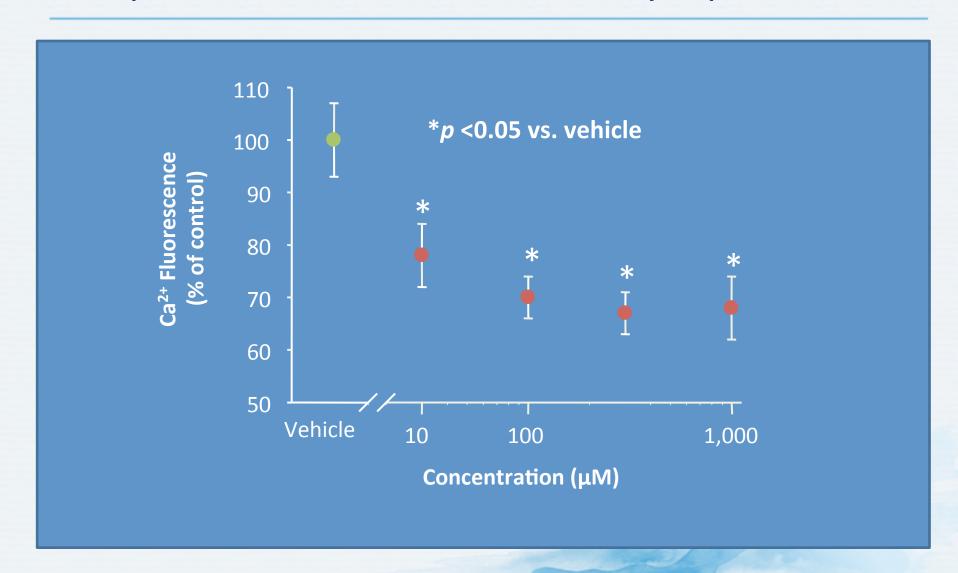
Role of $\alpha_2\delta$ -Linked Calcium Channels in Neuropathic Pain



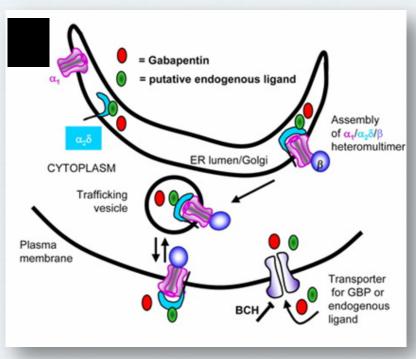
$\alpha_2\delta$ Ligands Bind to $\alpha_2\delta$ Subunit of Voltage-Gated Calcium Channels

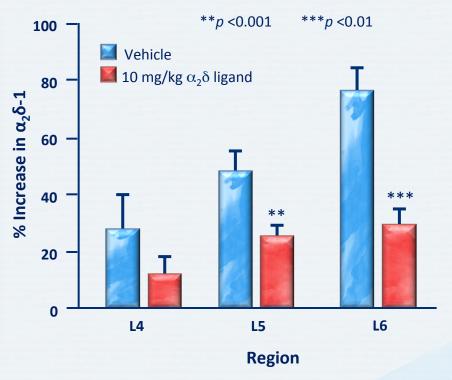


$\alpha_2\delta$ Ligands Reduce Calcium Influx in Depolarized Human Neocortex Synaptosomes



$\alpha_2\delta$ Ligands Modulate Calcium Channel Trafficking





Hendrich et al. 2008

Bauer et al., 2009

- $\alpha_2\delta$ ligands reduce trafficking of voltage-gated calcium channel complexes to cell surface in vitro
- $\alpha_2\delta$ ligands prevent nerve-injury induced up-regulation of $\alpha_2\delta$ in the dorsal horny

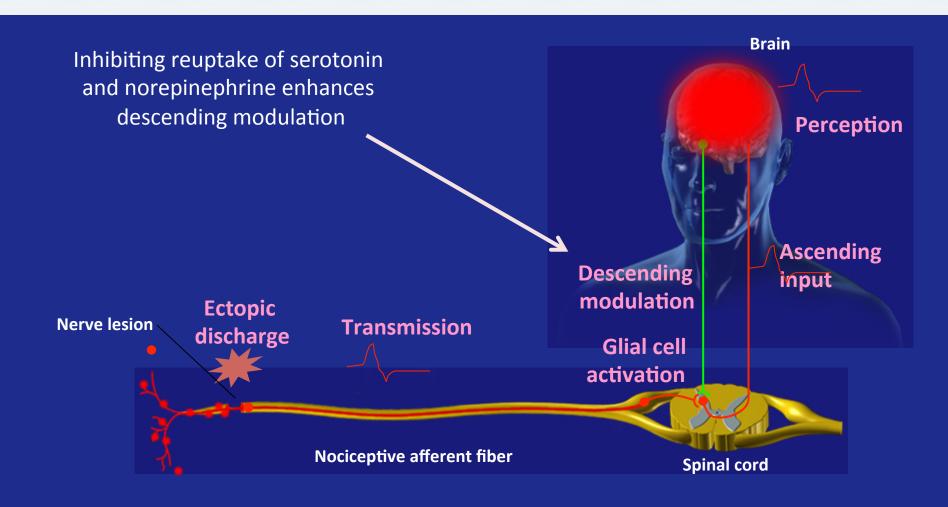
Adverse Effects of $\alpha_2\delta$ Ligands

System	Adverse effects	
Digestive	Dry mouth	
CNS	Dizziness, somnolence	
Other	Asthenia, headache, peripheral edema, weight gain	

Antidepressants for Cancer Pain

- Antidepressants
 - Can be used to treat pain in opioid-treated populations with advanced medical illness
 - Predominantly used for neuropathic pain
 - May also be considered for other types of chronic pain

How Antidepressants Modulate Pain



Suggested Mechanisms of Analgesic Action of Antidepressants

Mechanism of Action	Site of Action	TCA	SNRI
Reuptake inhibition	Serotonin Noradrenaline	+ +	+ +
Receptor antagonism	α-adrenergic NMDA	+ +	- (+) Milnacipran
Ion channel activation or blocking	Sodium channel blocker Calcium channel blocker Potassium channel activator	+ + +	(+) Venlafaxine/(-) duloxetine ? ?
Increasing receptor function	GABA _B receptor	+ Amitriptyline/ desipramine	?
Opioid receptor binding/ opioid-mediated effect	Mu- and delta-opioid receptor	(+)	(+) Venlafaxine
Decreasing inflammation	Decrease of PGE2 production decrease of TNFα production		

GABA = γ-aminobutyric acid; NDMA = N-methyl-D-aspartate; PGE = prostaglandin E; SNRI = serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor; TCA = tricyclic antidepressant; TNF = tumor necrosis factor Verdu B *et al. Drugs* 2008;68:2611-32.

Adverse Effects of Antidepressants

System	TCAs	SNRIs
Digestive system	Constipation, dry mouth, urinary retention	Constipation, diarrhea, dry mouth, nausea, reduced appetite
CNS	Cognitive disorders, dizziness, drowsiness, sedation	Dizziness, somnolence
Cardiovascular	Orthostatic hypotension, palpitations	Hypertension
Other	Blurred vision, falls, gait disturbance, sweating	Elevated liver enzymes, elevated plasma glucose, sweating

Acetaminophen

- Action at molecular level is unclear
- Potential mechanisms:
 - Inhibition of COX enzymes (COX-2 and/or COX-3)
 - Interaction with opioid pathway
 - Activation of serotoninergic bulbospinal pathway
 - Involvement of nitric oxide pathway
 - Increase in cannabinoid-vanilloid tone

Invasive Modalities for Cancer Pain Management

- May provide pain relief to patients who do not respond adequately to traditional analgesic therapies
- Use of neurolytic substances has found a niche in treating pain related to abdominal and pelvic cancers
- Simple percutaneous injections of alcohol or phenol can provide relief in pancreatic, colon, or gynecologic cancer
- Percutaneous catheters for infusion of spinal analgesics can provide relief anywhere in the body
- Internal or external infusion pumps can be managed at home

Invasive Modalities for Cancer Pain Management

- Neurolytic blocks
- Spinal analgesics
- Regional local anesthetic infusions
- Other techniques
 - Spinal cord stimulation
 - Vertebroplasty
 - Lumbar epidural steroid
 - Intracerebroventricular opioids
 - Human chromaffin cell transplants



Invasive Therapies for Cancer-related Pain: Neurolytic Therapies

- Neurolytic techniques produce analgesia by destroying
 - Afferent neural pathwaysor
 - Sympathetic structures involved in pain transmission
- Achieving neural destruction
 - Surgery
 - Cold (cryotherapy)
 - Heat (radiofrequency thermal coagulation)
 - Injection of a material that damages the nerve

Neurolytic techniques may produce deafferentiation pain

Invasive Therapies for Cancer-related Pain: Injection Therapies

- Soft tissue or joint injection of a dilute local anesthetic
 - Can reduce focal musculoskeletal pain
 - Should not be used in the presence of clinically significant coagulopathy or leukopenia

Invasive Therapies for Cancer-related Pain: Neurolytic Therapies

- Implanted catheters can be used for
 - Prolonged perineural or neuraxial infusion of analgesics
 - Electrical stimulation of peripheral nerves or spinal cord
- Both procedures avoid or limit side effects associated with systemic pharmacotherapy
- Disadvantages
 - Cost
 - Risk of infection
 - Mechanical failure

Co-Analgesics and Cancer Pain

- Drugs with a primary indication other than pain that have analgesic properties in some painful conditions
- Usually combined with a less than satisfactory opioid regimen in cancer pain
- Different types
 - Multipurpose
 - Neuropathic pain
 - Bone pain
 - Musculoskeletal pain
 - Bowel obstruction pain

Types of Co-Analgesics for Management of Cancer Pain

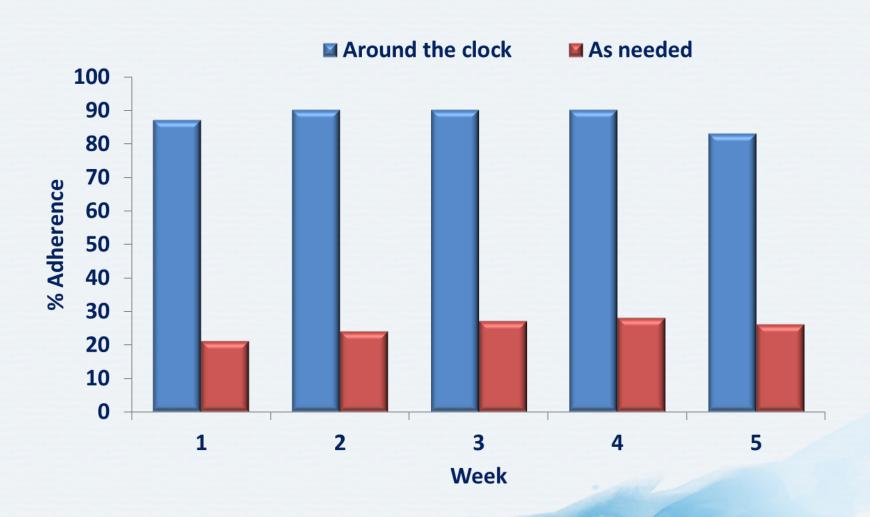
Type of Analgesic	Examples
Multipurpose	 Antidepressants Corticosteroids α₂-adrenergic agonists Neuroleptics
For neuropathic pain	 Anticonvulsants Local anesthetics N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonists Topic drugs (e.g., lidocaine)
For bone pain	CorticosteroidsCalcitoninBisphosphonatesRadiopharmaceuticals
For musculoskeletal pain	Muscle relaxantsTizanidineBaclofenBenzodiazepines
For bowel obstruction pain	OctreotideAnticholinergicsCorticosteroids

Summary: Co-Analgesics and Cancer Pain

- Consider optimizing opioid therapy before adding co-analgesic
- Consider burdens and potential benefits vs. other analgesic techniques
- Select most appropriate drug based on comprehensive patient assessment
- Prescribe based on knowledge of drug's pharmacological characteristics, actions, approved indications, unapproved indications, likely side effects, potential serious adverse events, and drug-drug interactions
- Use the co-analgesic with the best risk:benefit ratio
- Avoid initiating several co-analgesics simultaneously
- Initiate treatment with low doses; titrate according to analgesic response and adverse effects
- Reassess efficacy and tolerability regularly
 - Taper/discontinue medications if no additional pain relief
- Consider combining multiple co-analgesics in selected patients

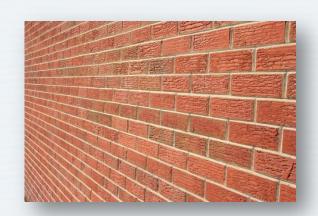
Drug Availability and Adherence

Prevalence of Non-adherence to Cancer Pain Therapy



Barriers to Optimal Management of Cancer Pain

- Institutional
 - Regulations regarding supply, prescription, and administration of opioids

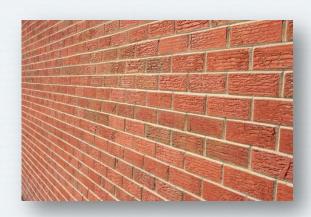


- Healthcare professionals (HCPs)
 - Lack of knowledge in key areas of pain management
 - Lack of continuity of care among different HCPs
- Patients and their family/caregivers
 - Beliefs and perceptions about pain and pain medications

Patient Barriers to Adherence to Cancer Pain Therapy

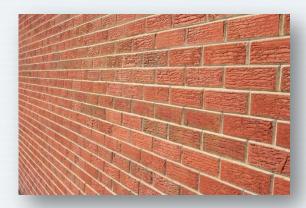
- Fear of addiction
- Fear of tolerance
- Concern analgesics side effects are inevitable and unmanageable
- Fear of injections
- Fatalistic belief about cancer pain or belief that it is impossible to control
- Belief that "good" patients do not complain about pain
- Belief that healthcare professionals find it annoying to talk about pain and that this talk distracts from treating the cancer

Patients believe there is a trade-off between treating the pain and treating the cancer



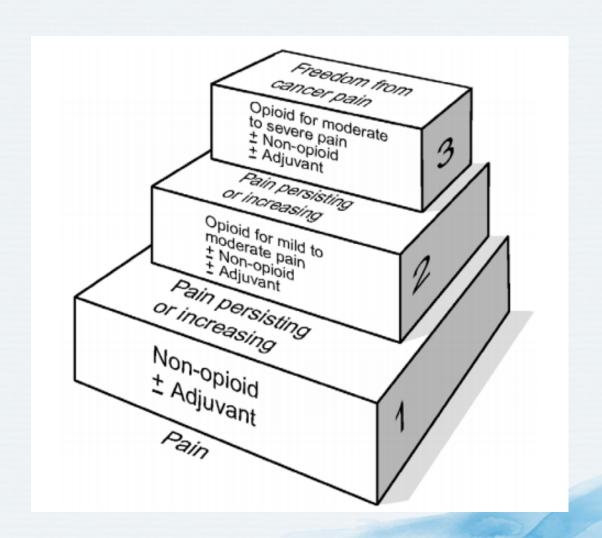
Healthcare Provider Barriers to Effective Management of Cancer Pain

- Insufficient knowledge of pain management
- Insufficient assessment of pain
- Unwillingness to prescribe opioids
- Nurses unwilling to give opioids to patients
- Insufficient time to pay attention to patients' pain needs
- Patients unwilling to report pain
- Patients refuse to take opioids
- Families unwilling to permit patients to take opioids
- Patients unable to pay for medications

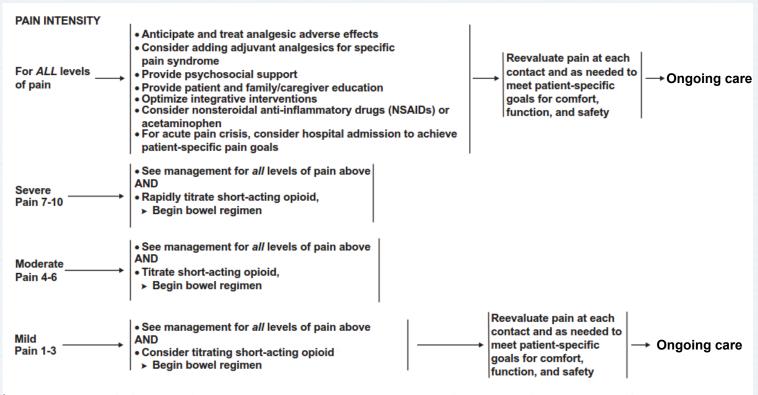


Guidelines

WHO Pain Ladder for the Management of Cancer Pain

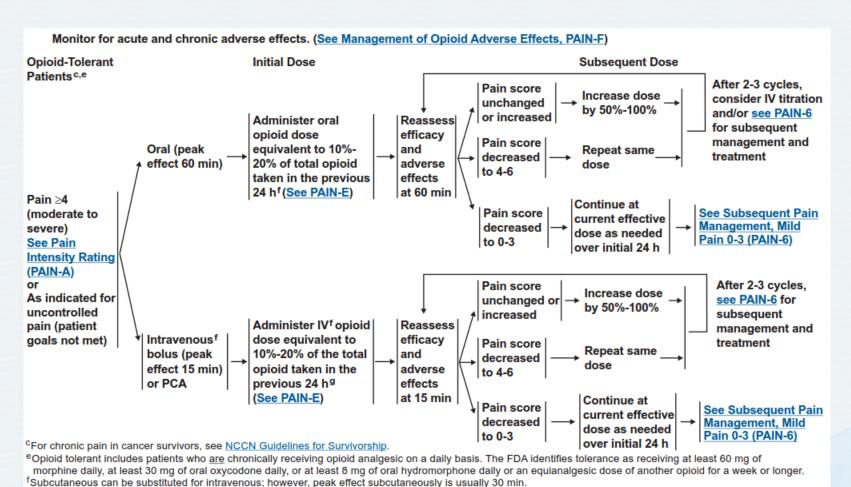


NCCN Guidelines for Management of Cancer Pain in Opioid-Naïve Patients*



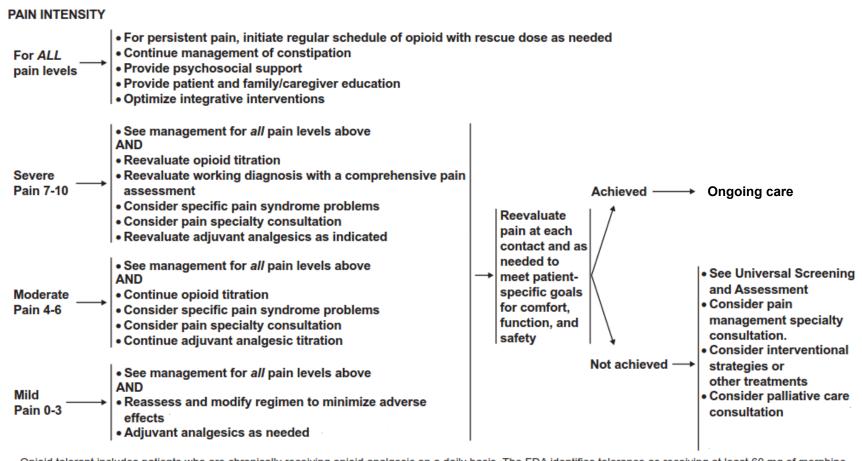
^{*}Opioid naïve includes patients who are not chronically receiving opioid analgesic on a daily basis and therefore have not developed significant tolerance. The FDA identifies tolerance as receiving at least 60 mg of morphine daily, at least 30 mg of oral oxycodone daily, or at least 8 mg of oral hydromorphone daily or an equianalgesic dose of another opioid for a week or longer.

NCCN Guidelines for Management of Cancer Pain in Opioid-Tolerant Patients



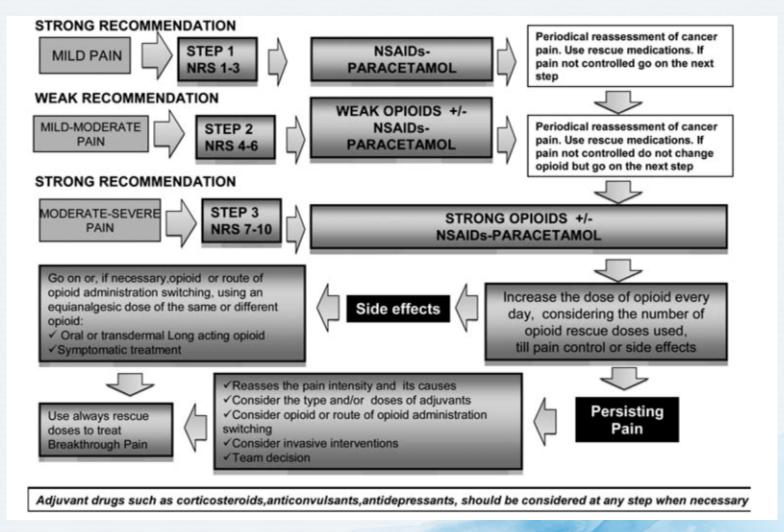
^gNot including transmucosal fentanyl dose.

NCCN Guidelines for Subsequent Pain Management in Patients with Cancer*



Opioid tolerant includes patients who <u>are</u> chronically receiving opioid analgesic on a daily basis. The FDA identifies tolerance as receiving at least 60 mg of morphine daily, at least 30 mg of oral oxycodone daily, or at least 8 mg of oral hydromorphone daily or an equianalgesic dose of another opioid for a week or longer.

ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for Management of Cancer Pain



EAPC Guidelines for the Use of Opioids for Cancer Pain

- For patients with mild to moderate pain or whose pain is not controlled by paracetamol or an NSAID, addition of a WHO step 2 opioid given orally may provide good pain relief
 - Alternatively, low doses of a step 3 opioid may be used
- There are no important differences between step 3 opioids given orally; any one may be used as the first choice for moderate to severe cancer pain
- Weak recommendation that immediate-release and slow-release oral formulations of morphine, oxycodone, and hydromorphone can be used for dose titration
- Transdermal fentanyl and buprenorphine are alternatives to oral opioids

EAPC Guidelines for the Use of Opioids for Cancer Pain

- Weak recommendation that methadone can be used as a step 3 opioid for moderate to severe cancer pain
- Weak recommendation that patients not achieving adequate pain relief on a step 3 opioid may benefit from switching to an alternative opioid
- Strong recommendation that breakthrough pain should be treated with additional doses of immediate-release oral opioids
- Appropriate titration of around-the-clock therapy should always precede the recourse to potent rescue opioid medications
- Weak recommendation to add NSAIDs to step 3 opioids to improve analgesia or reduce opioid dose required for pain relief
- Use of NSAIDs should be restricted due risks of serious adverse events
- Strong recommendation that amitriptyline or gabapentin should be considered for patients with neuropathic cancer pain that is only partially responsive to opioids

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