

A Comprehensive Evaluation of Multimodal Analgesia Techniques in Postoperative Pain Administration: Dealing with the Opioid Crisis by Novel Orthopedic Surgery Approach

Adel Abdullah Ali Al-Qarni¹, Ghada Abodosa Jaber Dagherri², Saleh Mohammed Ahmed Alamri³, Laila Abodosa Jaber Dagherri⁴, Noora Abudossa Jaber Dagherri⁵, Saad Abdullah Almalki⁶, Ashwaq Ali Alghamdi⁷, Ghazi Saud Marzoq Alotebi⁸, Rumayh Abdulah Alrumayh⁹, Noha Ashari Malakah¹⁰, Hatim Hamad Ibrahim Faqiri¹¹, Abdullah Awad Shujaa Al-Qahtani¹², Abdulmajeed Inad Alotaibi¹³, Abdullah Mushabab Saeed Alqahtani¹⁴, Zaid Abdulrahman Al-Hadlaq¹⁵

Abstract

The opioid epidemic has made efficient painkillers with little dependency on opioids desperately needed. Especially in orthopedic operations, multimodal analgesia (MMA) has become a complete strategy for controlling postoperative pain. With an eye on their effectiveness in lowering postoperative pain and opioid use, this review looks at the present research on multimodal pain treatment techniques. Studies on many analgesic approaches—including pharmacological and non-pharmacological approaches—were searched methodically through several databases. The study shows that multimodal analgesia—which incorporates many types of analgesics and approaches—significantly lowers the pain management need for opioids using diverse class of analgesics. Positive results have come from regional anesthetic, systemic non-opioid analgesics, and auxiliary treatments (e.g., physical therapy, and psychological support). Research shows that MMA could cause shorter hospital stays, lower pain levels, and more patient satisfaction. In orthopedic patients, multimodal analgesia is a good approach for controlling postoperative pain. Combining many approaches to pain management helps doctors maximize healing and reduce the risk of problems connected to opioids. To help further enhance patient outcomes, future studies should concentrate on standardizing multimodal procedures and investigating creative analgesic approaches.

Keywords: Pain Management, Orthopedic Surgery, Multimodal Analgesia, Opioid Crisis, Postoperative Recovery.

Introduction

Drug overdose deaths now constitute a crisis as more than 600,000 persons passed away from overdoses of drugs in 1999 as well as 2016, largely from opioids recommended for pain [1,2]. About half of those who have been on opioids for no less than three months continue to use them five years later and most likely will become lifetime users [3-6]. Considered among the most agonizing treatments a patient may have been orthopedic ones. Pain is "An unbearable emotional as well as sensory experience related to or

¹ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Umm Sarar

² Ksa, Ministry of Health, Umm Sarar.

³ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Umm Sarar.

⁴ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Al Harth General Hospital.

⁵ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Khamis Mushayt Maternity and Children Hospital

⁶ Ksa, Ministry of Health, King Khaled Hospital in Alkharij

⁷ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Diriyah Hospital

⁸ Ksa, Ministry of Health

⁹ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Biomedical Specialist, Third Health Cluster, Riyadh

¹⁰ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Riyadh Second Health Cluster

¹¹ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Dariya Hospital

¹² Ksa, Ministry of Health, Dharma General Hospital

¹³ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Ad Diriyah Hospital

¹⁴ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Riyadh First Health Cluster

¹⁵ Ksa, Ministry of Health, Prince Sultan Military Medical City

comparable to that connected with, real or possible tissue harm," according to the new International Assembly for the Scientific Study of Pain (IASP) description [7].

Most individuals who have orthopedic surgery—especially complete joint replacement—experience some severe pain. Among the most significant developments in the procedure of complete joint replacement operation have been pain control enhancements [8]. For these individuals, appropriate pain management encourages healing, reduces time of recovery, and enhances their standard of life following surgical procedures. Viewed by the Joint Commission's Committee on the Accreditation of Health Services Organizations (JCAHO), pain has evolved as the "fifth vital sign" and requires attention in the treatment of every patient. Pain should be taken into account at the discharge choice and throughout the whole hospitalized and outpatient care course [9]. Pain requires therapy; failure to offer sufficient treatment may lead to medical legal proceedings [10]. Since Professor Henrik Kehlet proposed the idea of enhancing recovery After surgical intervention (ERAS), multimodal analgesia started to be a favored approach to pain control. It requires multidisciplinary cooperation among individuals, surgeons, anesthesia professionals, physical therapists, occupational professionals, and nursing personnel including preoperative, perioperative recovery, as well as post-operative elements.

Combining psychotherapy, physiotherapy, and general anesthesia local injections, nonopioid drugs to treat post-surgical pain yields better pain management and speeds up recovery with a lower requirement for opioids, thus lowering the possible risk of abuse. Multimodal analgesia has reportedly shortened the duration of stay and discomfort in the first 24 hours following ankle and foot operation according to past studies. Periarticular injections to regular pain management for hip hemiarthroplasty helped to lower postoperative narcotic use. For upper extremity surgeries and femoral fractures, surgical site injections indicated less pain and generally higher patient satisfaction [1]. The function of multimodal painkillers in adult individuals having orthopedic surgery is examined in this paper.

Post-Operative Pain Procedure

The causes of discomfort after surgical operations are many. Treatment of pain depends on an awareness of its physiology and transmission. Pain may be categorized as neuropathic or nociceptive based on how it is passed forward. Damage of tissue causes nociceptive receptors located in terminal nerve fibers to become active [11]. From there, impulses pass via afferent neurons through the dorsal horn, then via upward spinothalamic processes and thalamocortical projections to higher neuronal centers within the cerebral cortex [12]. Once there, the thalamus and cortical regulation define the pain sensation. Figure 1 shows how signals for pain from tissue damage are sent and handled. The patient's personality, sex, emotional status, pain behavior, and culture all influence this sensation. Further shifting takes place in the dorsal horn along the spinal cord, descending paths, as well as the medulla.

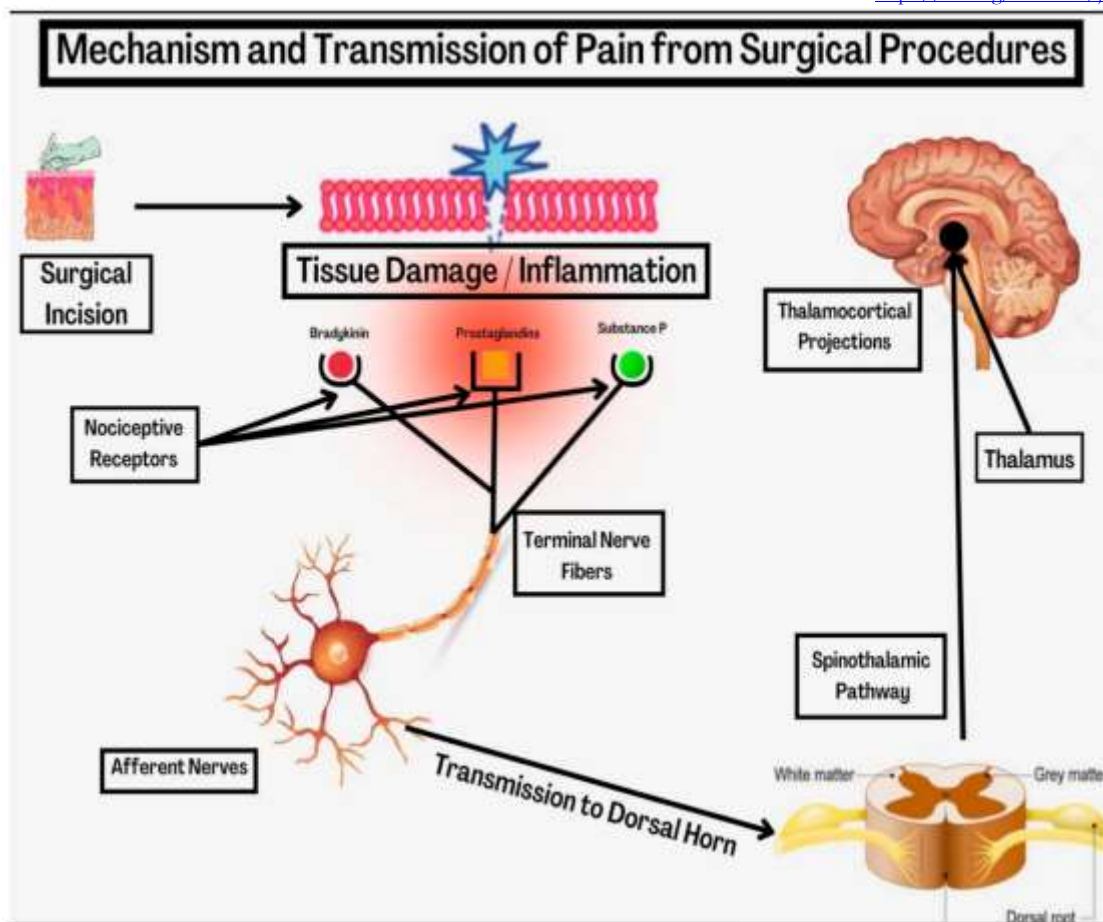


Figure 1. Mechanism for Pain Transmission During Surgical Operations

Neuropathic discomfort is the consequence of actual harm to the nervous system, particularly to the spinal cord, nerve roots, or peripheral nerves. Typically, A delta as well as C fibers regulate it, but also more prominent A beta fibers [9]. These kinds of fiber regulate internal structures such as the viscera, joints, periosteum, and muscles as well as skin. Large A beta fibers have been linked to reactions out of proportion to stimulus intensity including allodynia, hyperpathia as well as dysesthesia [9].

Peripheral nociceptors may be directly stimulated or sensitized by a wide range of compounds. Each of these ligands—that is, chemicals—has a brain receptor and may function as a neurotransmitter. They either promote local dissemination of inflammatory chemicals or release in reaction to tissue damage, hence intensifying neural stimulation or sensitization. Among these agents are prostaglandin, bradykinin, histamine, serotonin, acetylcholine, hydrogen ions, as well as potassium ions [12].

Directly activating nociceptors include Bradykinin, potassium, and acetylcholine. Although they do not immediately stimulate nociceptors, prostaglandins are quite successful in adapting them to additional stimulation by other molecules [12]. Action potentials in an excited neuron go not just from the peripheral region to the nervous system but additionally antidromically to the peripheral region, releasing neuropeptides via the nociceptive final [13]. This produces neurogenic inflammation. Another example of vasoactive neuropeptide causing extravasation as well as regional vasodilation is compound P. Regional free nerve terminals at the site of damage release it, and this is in charge of bradykinin releasing more [14]. Substance P additionally triggers serotonin as well as histamine release. The activity of phospholipase A generates prostaglandins. Local trauma as well as endogenous compounds like catecholamines might activate phospholipase A.

Should the peripheral pain signal be strong and of sufficient length, central sensitization and secondary hyperalgesia—hypersensitivity of the region around the original injury site—may develop. The N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors are supposed to be mediators of hyperalgesia [9]. The phenomena known as central sensitization or wind-up is a tiny amount of benign sensory stimuli triggering a reaction from nociceptive receptors typically responding solely to painful stimulation. This is tough to cure once it has been established.

The Anaesthesiologist's Function

It is impossible to overestimate the part the anesthesiologist plays within the perioperative doctor managing orthopedic patients. Optimizing patients with the help of anesthesiologists is crucial while they get ready for operation. Apart from treating common health issues, weaning individuals preoperatively off opioids tends to enhance the results in patients, particularly those having complete replacements of joints. Ensuring fast and safe patient recovery following surgery, the anesthesiologist is mostly responsible. By using methods that reduce or eliminate the requirement for general anesthesia, one lowers the likelihood of vomiting and nausea and shortens the healing time. Part of multimodal analgesia, using regional anesthetic treatments effectively when appropriate is evidence of the anesthesiologist's ability. While lowering the general cost of treatment, good pain management helps in recovery and raises general patient satisfaction.

Techniques for Analgesia

Multimodal analgesia is the application of multiple forms of pain management to provide efficient analgesia while lowering the negative effects associated with opioids [15]. Opioids were the mainstay of therapy for postoperative pain historically; this was not only inadequate but also often resulted in numerous side effects such as respiratory distress, ileus, vomiting and nausea, drowsiness, and urine retention which hampered recovery. Dependency on these drugs for too long causes persistent addiction. The evolution of many categories of drugs to treat pain has also progressed along with the knowledge of pain processes improving. The idea behind multimodal analgesia is that, by means of opioid-sparing, combining analgesics with many modes or sites of action would provide better pain management and fewer adverse effects. This adoption will speed functional recovery, save hospital costs, and raise patient fulfillment and results when included in improved recovery strategies.

Pre-emptive pain relief is the use of painkillers or surgical operation preparation prior to the surgical puncture in order to avoid surgical discomfort. Starting it after surgery makes it less efficient than a comparable action [16]. Pre-emptive analgesia is meant to lower the prevalence of hyperalgesia, inhibit peripheral as well as central allergic reactions, and thus minimize the severity of pain following surgery [17]. Originally presented by Crile, over 100 years ago, according to clinical observations, Crile [18] and Woolf [19] subsequently investigated the idea. First mostly focused on animal research, subsequent human investigations developed from this idea. Pre-emptive analgesia protects the nociceptive system, therefore lowering the chance of chronic pain formation and maybe the degree of pain [19]. Set between thirty minutes and one hour before the operation, a mix of Cox-2 inhibitors as well as pregabalin appears to help accelerate recovery and lower the postoperative pain intensity after total joint replacements. Management of ketamine before incision, occasionally accompanied with an infusion, also greatly decreased the requirement for post-operative painkillers and appears to help to avoid formation of chronic pain by thus inhibiting neuromodulation. Where feasible, doing peripheral nerve blocks before the surgical incision helps to reduce the need for extra painkillers both during and after the operation. Though first clinical studies have proved equivocal, pre-emptive pain relief is a key component of multimodal analgesia programs.

One strategy employed by surgeons to extend the lifetime of local analgesia is sometimes combining penetration of regional anesthesia with other drugs. These drugs immediately stop the transmission of sensations from the puncture site, therefore preventing their generation. Slow-release bupivacaine intra-articular injections have been proven to prolong the period of pain alleviation and lower the requirement for replenishment [20]. Additionally in development are novel combinations of anti-inflammatory drugs with local anesthetics. Every one of these methods depends on operators, so the success rate might vary. Large dosages of local anesthetics have a danger of toxicity; hence their usage has been restricted;

moreover, when administered into the joints, these drugs have a potential for chondrolysis. Still, surgical site infiltration comprises a major component of multimodal analgesia and may be an effective adjuvant to systemic analgesics.

Techniques for analgesics might be non-pharmacological or pharmacological. Among pharmacological approaches are central neuraxial methods, regional anesthetic, and systemically distributed drugs. Among the non-pharmacological approaches include acupuncture treatments, aromatic therapy, musical treatment, hot and cold compress implementation, elevation of operative extremities, transcutaneous stimulation of nerves, peripheral stimulation of nerves as well as hypnosis.

Using epidural analgesia has proved to lower the need for opioids. It has been shown to lower thromboembolic phenomena, irregular heartbeats, pulmonary problems, early recovery of bowel function, and surgical response to stress. Furthermore, demonstrated to be successful is spinal analgesia with modest dosages of local anesthetics. One may combine both approaches under multimodal analgesia. Epidural treatment is inappropriate for outpatient operations and when quick mobility is sought [21]. When central neuraxial processes are combined with antithrombotic drugs, one should use caution.

Especially in orthopedic operations involving upper extremities, the most preferred method of pain treatment has developed into the application of local nerve blockages as additives [22]. Under ultrasonic instruction, brachial plexus blockades through interscalene, lateral, supraclavicular as well as infraclavicular approaches are very effective. Other nerve blocks in the elbow, and wrist, as well as digital nerve hindrances, offer perfect pain relief for several operations. Femoral nerve block, lumbar plexus block, popliteal block, and adductor canal block are also very useful for giving regional analgesia [22] in operations affecting the lower extremities. Under ultrasonic supervision, younger blocks such as Pericapsular Nerve Group Block 4 (PENG), Erector Spinae Plane (ESP), and Infiltration Between Popliteal Artery and Capule of the Knee (iPACK) administered by trained anesthesiologists also rather effectively reduce post-operative pain.

Through a programmed pump, patients may adjust the analgesia dosage they get. The pump reduces the maximum dosage, thereby lowering the possibility of harmful side effects [23]. Management of pain following surgery may be achieved with a continuous infusion sometimes coupled with bolus. Together with local anesthetic medicines, morphine, fentanyl, as well as hydromorphone are the most often utilized drugs. Individuals are prone to suffer the same adverse effects as parenteral opioids, including nausea, vomiting, pruritus, sleepiness, ileus, and urine retention; thus, these pumps have lost popularity [23].

Systematic Analgesics

Administration of systemic analgesics might be intravenously (IV), intramuscularly (IM), or orally (PO). IV drugs are given immediately after surgery to help manage discomfort. Considered for the time required for commencement of effect, oral drugs are given as early as practical. Some oral painkillers are given pre-emptively before the operation as part of improved recovery strategies so that analgesia takes action by the time the anesthetic wears off. Minimizing the IV pain medication dosage helps to lower the chance of side effects [24]. Among these drugs are non-opioids and opioids including acetaminophen, N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor antagonists, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), tranquilizers, transient receptor potential vanilloid receptor agonists (capsaicin), alpha-2 agonists, beta-blockers, magnesium as well as glucocorticoids.

For a long time, opioids have served as the primary treatment for postoperative pain. Along with a great risk of addiction, adverse symptoms like vomiting and nausea, difficulty breathing, ileus, pruritus, and urine retention restrict their usage [25,26]. When discomfort is not successfully managed with other approaches, opioids may be mostly utilized as rescue drugs with effective usage of nonopioids. A good analgesic for minor to severe pain is acetaminophen. Oral or rectal acetaminophen lowers pain severity and opioid intake by up to 30% [27,28] when administered as an opioid adjunct. NSAIDs and acetaminophen both function by blocking prostaglandin production. Acetaminophen has a rather good safety profile and side effects are uncommon [29].

NSAIDs fall under either nonspecific inhibitors of COX 1 as well as COX 2 or selective cyclooxygenase (COX) 2 inhibitors. A greater likelihood of wound-related bleeding, gastrointestinal ulcers, and kidney failure is linked to COX 1 inhibitors [30]. Fewer side effects and evidence of COX 2 inhibitors lowering opioid demand and speeding up healing following surgery point to their benefits [31]. Pathological pain states like hyperalgesia and the occurrence of chronic pain are caused in part by NMDA receptors. Given before the incision, ketamine is an NMDA antagonist demonstrated to reduce opioid need and the development of persistent postsurgical pain [32]. Less predictable responses occur with other NMDA receptor antagonists' dextromethorphan, memantine, as well as magnesium sulfate. Particularly in sensitive individuals with a background of mental diseases, NMDA receptor antagonists possess possibly negative side effects including psychosis. Still, in modest dosages, they have been included into multimodal analgesia without adverse effects as painkillers [33].

Two oral GABA counterparts available are pregabalin and gabapentin. They have been demonstrated to decrease the need for narcotic painkillers and may be administered prior to and following surgical operations. GABA analogs have negative effects including drowsiness, visual abnormalities, vertigo, and headache [34]. Using beta-blockers, such as short-acting esmolol, intraoperatively additionally decreases the heart's reaction to surgical stimulation, including tachycardia as well as hypertension, so lowering the incidence of adverse cardiac incidents; but, because of their anti-nociceptive action, analgesic needs postoperatively are also reduced [35,36]. Systemic alpha-2 agonists Dexmedetomidine and Clonidine may lower postoperative opioid use, discomfort severity, and opioid-related adverse effects—that is, nausea. Many times, these drugs are included in a regimen based on opioids [37]. These drugs may be taken at different times and via multiple different ways of delivery. Additionally available orally, intravenously, as well as transdermally is clonidine [38]. Usually administered as an intravenous injection begun before wound closure, dexmedetomidine is Capsaicin preferentially activates unmyelinated C-fiber afferent nerve cells, producing the continuous release and consequent depletion of substance P, hence reducing C-fiber activity [39]. It has to be ingrained right at the location of surgery during application [40]. Originally used for managing neuropathic pain in burn sufferers in the 1940s, lidocaine was It functions by changing the structure of sodium channels [41]. By lowering circulatory inflammatory cytokines, secondary hyperalgesia, and cerebral sensitization an intravenous lidocaine infusion uses its anesthetic qualities [42].

Lidocaine's mode of action raises a risk of neurological and cardiac adverse effects. Glucocorticoids help to lower nausea and vomiting following surgery as well as pain [43]. They possess anti-nociceptive impacts at the spinal stage, hinder the generation of cytokines associated with inflammatory discomfort, and stop the synthesis of inflammation-related prostaglandins as well as leukotrienes by so preventing the generation of arachidonic acid [44]. They thus produce their analgesic properties through several pathways. At high dosages, they have been reported to induce hyperglycemia—a condition that is unimportant at the normal dosages used. For orthopedic operations including joints, spinal facet connections are injected in a proportion of one to one of corticosteroid to anesthesia. While bigger joints, like the hip, knee, or sacroiliac, need 4–8 ccs of solution, including the corticosteroid as well as anesthetic, extremity joints, such the elbow or wrist, want 2–4 ccs of solution. With pain levels down, intravenous magnesium was proven to possess an opioid-sparing effect. It is given as a 30–50 mg/kg IV bolus dosage then, for four hours, 6–20 mg/kg/hour infusion. Extracellular magnesium might thereby stop the development of central sensitization by blocking NMDA receptors in a voltage-dependent way [45].

Summary

In summary, the use of multimodal analgesia as a common practice in postoperative pain management has major benefits in improving recovery results for patients having orthopedic surgery. Healthcare professionals may efficiently handle the complexity of pain management and reduce the dependence on opioids by integrating many analgesic modalities, including non-opioid drugs, regional anesthetic, and auxiliary treatments. According to the data, multimodal approaches not only help to lower pain but also raise patient satisfaction and maybe cut hospital stays. Successful incorporation into clinical practice depends on thorough education and training for healthcare workers in the ideas of multimodal analgesia. Moreover, continuous study should try to evaluate long-term results, improve and standardize multimodal

treatments, and investigate new analgesic drugs and approaches. Adoption of multimodal analgesia is a crucial route toward safer and more efficient pain management procedures as the healthcare community faces the problems presented by the opioid epidemic, therefore helping to enhance patient quality of life.

References

- Hsu, J.R.; Mir, H.; Wally, M.K.; Seymour, R.B. Clinical Practice Guidelines for Pain Management in Acute Musculoskeletal Injury. *J. Orthop. Trauma* 2019, **33**, 1.
- Bernard, S.A.; Chelminski, P.R.; Ives, T.J.; Ranapurwala, S.I. Management of Pain in the United States—A Brief History and Implications for the Opioid Epidemic. *Health Serv. Insights* 2018, **11**, 117863291881944.
- Rudd, R.A.; Seth, P.; David, F.; Scholl, L. Increases in Drug and Opioid-Involved Overdose Deaths—United States, 2010–2015. *MMWR. Morb. Mortal. Wkly. Rep.* 2016, **65**, 1445–1452.
- Braden, J.B.; Fan, M.-Y.; Edlund, M.J.; Martin, B.C.; DeVries, A.; Sullivan, M.D. Trends in Use of Opioids by Noncancer Pain Type 2000–2005 among Arkansas Medicaid and HealthCore Enrollees: Results from the TROUP Study. *J. Pain* 2008, **9**, 1026–1035.
- Martin, B.C.; Fan, M.-Y.; Edlund, M.J.; DeVries, A.; Braden, J.B.; Sullivan, M.D. Long-Term Chronic Opioid Therapy Discontinuation Rates from the TROUP Study. *J. Gen. Intern. Med.* 2011, **26**, 1450–1457.
- Korff, M.V.; Saunders, K.; Thomas Ray, G.; Boudreau, D.; Campbell, C.; Merrill, J.; Sullivan, M.D.; Rutter, C.M.; Silverberg, M.J.; Banta-Green, C.; et al. De Facto Long-Term Opioid Therapy for Noncancer Pain. *Clin. J. Pain* 2008, **24**, 521–527.
- Raja, S.N.; Carr, D.B.; Cohen, M.; Finnerup, N.B.; Flor, H.; Gibson, S.; Keefe, F.J.; Mogil, J.S.; Ringkamp, M.; Sluka, K.A.; et al. The Revised International Association for the Study of Pain Definition of Pain: Concepts, Challenges, and Compromises. *Pain* 2020, **161**, 1976–1982.
- Maheshwari, A.V.; Blum, Y.C.; Shekhar, L.; Ranawat, A.S.; Ranawat, C.S. Multimodal Pain Management after Total Hip and Knee Arthroplasty at the Ranawat Orthopaedic Center. *Clin. Orthop. Relat. Res.* 2009, **467**, 1418–1423.
- Phillips, W.J.; Currier, B.L. Analgesic Pharmacology: I. Neurophysiology. *J. Am. Acad. Orthop. Surg.* 2004, **12**, 213–220.
- Skinner, H.B.; Shintani, E.Y. Results of a Multimodal Analgesic Trial Involving Patients with Total Hip or Total Knee Arthroplasty. *Am. J. Orthop.* 2004, **33**, 85–92, discussion 92.
- Dafny, N. Pain Principles (Section 2, Chapter 6) Neuroscience Online: An Electronic Textbook for the NNeurosciences | Department of Neurobiology and Anatomy-The University of Texas Medical School at Houston. 2022.
- Levine, J.D.; Reichling, D.B. Peripheral mechanisms of inflammatory pain. In *Textbook of Pain*, 4th ed.; Wall, P.D., Melzack, R., Eds.; Churchill Livingstone: Edinburgh, Scotland, 1999; pp. 59–84.
- Ghori, M.K.; Zhang, Y.-F.; Sinatra, R.S. Pathophysiology of Acute Pain. 2022.
- Graefe, S.B.; Mohiuddin, S.S. Biochemistry, Substance P. 2022.
- Kehlet, H.; Dahl, J.B. The Value of Multimodal Or Balanced Analgesia In Postoperative Pain Treatment. *Anesth. Analg.* 1993, **77**, 1048–1056.
- Pogatzki-Zahn, E.M.; Zahn, P.K. From Preemptive to Preventive Analgesia. *Curr. Opin. Anaesthesiol.* 2006, **19**, 551–555.
- Li, J.; Ma, Y.; Xiao, L. Postoperative Pain Management in Total Knee Arthroplasty. *Orthop. Surg.* 2019, **11**, 755–761.
- Crile, G. The Kinetic Theory of Shock and Its Prevention through Anoci-Association (Shockless Operation). *Lancet* 1913, **182**, 7–16.
- Woolf, C.J. Evidence for a Central Component of Post-Injury Pain Hypersensitivity. *Nature* 1983, **306**, 686–688.
- Joshi, G.P.; Machi, A. Surgical Site Infiltration: A Neuroanatomical Approach. *Best Pr. Res. Clin. Anaesthesiol.* 2019, **33**, 317–324.
- Moraca, R.J.; Sheldon, D.G.; Thirlby, R.C. The Role of Epidural Anesthesia and Analgesia in Surgical Practice. *Ann. Surg.* 2003, **238**, 663–673.
- Krishna Prasad, G.V.; Khanna, S.; Jaishree, S.V. Review of Adjuvants to Local Anesthetics in Peripheral Nerve Blocks: Current and Future Trends. *Saudi J. Anaesth.* 2020, **14**, 77–84.
- Stewart, D. Palliative Care Clinical PharmacistMedStar Washington Hospital CenterWashington, Pearls and Pitfalls of Patient-Controlled Analgesia. 2022.
- Portenoy, R.K.; Mehta, Z.; Ahmed, E. Cancer Pain Management with Opioids: Optimizing Analgesia. 2022.
- Mariano, E.R. Management of Acute Perioperative Pain. 2021.
- Tan, H.S.; Habib, A.S. Oliceridine: A Novel Drug for the Management of Moderate to Severe Acute Pain—A Review of Current Evidence. *J. Pain Res.* 2021, **14**, 969–979.
- Wong, I.; St John-Green, C.; Walker, S.M. Opioid-Sparing Effects of Perioperative Paracetamol and Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs) in Children. *Pediatr. Anesth.* 2013, **23**, 475–495.
- Cobby, T.F.; Crighton, I.M.; Kyriakides, K.; Hobbs, G.J. Rectal Paracetamol Has a Significant Morphine-Sparing Effect after Hysterectomy. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 1999, **83**, 253–256.
- Zukowski, M.; Kotfis, K. Safety of Metamizole and Paracetamol for Acute Pain Treatment. *Anestezjol. Intensywna Ter.* 2009, **41**, 170–175.
- Maund, E.; McDaid, C.; Rice, S.; Wright, K.; Jenkins, B.; Woolacott, N. Paracetamol and Selective and Non-Selective Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs for the Reduction in Morphine-Related Side-Effects after Major Surgery: A Systematic Review. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 2011, **106**, 292–297.
- Fosbøl, E.L.; Folke, F.; Jacobsen, S.; Rasmussen, J.N.; Sørensen, R.; Schramm, T.K.; Andersen, S.S.; Rasmussen, S.; Poulsen, H.E.; Køber, L.; et al. Cause-Specific Cardiovascular Risk Associated with Nonsteroidal Antiinflammatory Drugs among Healthy Individuals. *Circ. Cardiovasc. Qual. Outcomes* 2010, **3**, 395–405.

- Remérand, F.; Le Tendre, C.; Baud, A.; Couvret, C.; Pourrat, X.; Favard, L.; Laffon, M.; Fusciardi, J. The Early and Delayed Analgesic Effects of Ketamine after Total Hip Arthroplasty: A Prospective, Randomized, Controlled, Double-Blind Study. *Anesth. Analg.* 2009, 109, 1963–1971.
- Maher, D.P.; Chen, L.; Mao, J. Intravenous Ketamine Infusions for Neuropathic Pain Management. *Anesth. Analg.* 2017, 124, 661–674.
- Zhang, J.; Ho, K.-Y.; Wang, Y. Efficacy of Pregabalin in Acute Postoperative Pain: A Meta-Analysis. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 2011, 106, 454–462.
- Palliative Drugs. Pregabalin-palliativedrugs.com. 2022.
- Chia, Y.Y.; Chan, M.H.; Ko, N.H.; Liu, K. Role of β -Blockade in Anaesthesia and Postoperative Pain Management after Hysterectomy. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 2004, 93, 799–805.
- Blaudzun, G.; Lysakowski, C.; Elia, N.; Tramer, M.R. Effect of Perioperative Systemic Alpha-2 Agonists on Postoperative Morphine Consumption and Pain Intensity: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials; Centre for Reviews and Dissemination: Heslington, UK, 2012.
- Royster, R.L. Perioperative beta-blockade II: Practical clinical application. *Anesthesia Patient Safety Foundation*. 2021.
- Young, A.; Buvanendran, A. Recent Advances in Multimodal Analgesia. *Anesthesiol. Clin.* 2012, 30, 91–100.
- Hartrick, C.T.; Pestano, C.; Carlson, N.; Hartrick, S. Capsaicin Instillation for Postoperative Pain Following Total Knee Arthroplasty. *Clin. Drug Investig.* 2011, 31, 877–882. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef]
- Anand, P.; Bley, K. Topical Capsaicin for Pain Management: Therapeutic Potential and Mechanisms of Action of the New High-Concentration Capsaicin 8% Patch. *Br. J. Anaesth.* 2011, 107, 490–502.
- Jeng, C.L. Overview of peripheral nerve blocks. *UpToDate*. 2020.
- Pujari, V.; Siddaiah, J.; Madalu, A.; Bevinaguddaiah, Y.; Parate, L. A Comparative Study on the Effect of Addition of Intrathecal Buprenorphine to 2-Chloroprocaine Spinal Anesthesia in Short Duration Surgeries. *J. Anaesthesiol. Clin. Pharmacol.* 2019, 35, 533.
- Lennard, T. Corticosteroid Use in Pain Management. *Pract. Pain Manag.* 2000.
- Mayer, M.L.; Westbrook, G.L.; Guthrie, P.B. Voltage-Dependent Block by Mg^{2+} of NMDA Responses in Spinal Cord Neurones. *Nature* 1984, 309, 261–263.

تقييم شامل لتقنيات التخدير متعدد الوسائط في إدارة الألم بعد الجراحة: التعامل مع أزمة المواد الأفيونية من خلال نهج جديد في جراحة العظام

الملخص

الخلفية: جعلت أزمة المواد الأفيونية الحاجة إلى مسكنات فعالة للألم ذات اعتماد منخفض على المواد الأفيونية أمرًا ضروريًا. خاصة في عمليات جراحة العظام، أصبح التخدير متعدد الوسائط (MMA) استراتيجية متكاملة للتحكم في الألم بعد الجراحة.

الطرق: يستعرض هذا البحث الدراسات الحالية حول تقنيات علاج الألم متعدد الوسائط، مع التركيز على فعاليتها في تقليل الألم بعد الجراحة والحد من استخدام المواد الأفيونية. تم البحث بشكل منهجي في عدة قواعد بيانات عن الدراسات التي تناولت أساليب تخفيف الألم، بما في ذلك الأساليب الدوائية وغير الدوائية.

النتائج: تظهر الدراسة أن التخدير متعدد الوسائط، الذي يجمع بين عدة أنواع من المسكنات والأساليب العلاجية، يقلل بشكل كبير من الحاجة إلى المواد الأفيونية في إدارة الألم. وقد أثبتت التخديرات الإقليمية، والمسكنات الجهازية غير الأفيونية، والعلاجات المساعدة (مثل العلاج الطبيعي والدعم النفسي) فعاليتها. كما أظهرت الأبحاث أن استخدام التخدير متعدد الوسائط قد يؤدي إلى تقليل مدة الإقامة في المستشفى، وخفض مستويات الألم، وزيادة رضا المرضى.

الاستنتاجات: يُعتبر التخدير متعدد الوسائط نهجًا فعالًا للتحكم في الألم بعد الجراحة لدى مرضى جراحة العظام. إن الجمع بين العديد من أساليب إدارة الألم يساعد الأطباء على تحسين عملية الشفاء وتقليل مخاطر المشكلات المرتبطة بالمواد الأفيونية. ينبغي أن تركز الدراسات المستقبلية على توحيد إجراءات التخدير متعدد الوسائط واستكشاف أساليب جديدة لتخفيف الألم لتحسين نتائج المرضى بشكل أكبر.

الكلمات المفتاحية: إدارة الألم، جراحة العظام، التخدير متعدد الوسائط، أزمة المواد الأفيونية، التعافي بعد الجراحة.