

## A review on Neuropathic Pain: A Comprehensive Guide to Diagnosis, pathophysiology and Management

Sheikh Irshad Ul Haq<sup>1</sup>, Shafkat Hussain Malik<sup>2</sup>, Hanumanthrao C Patil<sup>3</sup>, Simran Singh<sup>4</sup>,  
Rajesh Kumari Patil<sup>5\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Pharm.D (Student), Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda

<sup>2</sup>Pharm.D (Student), Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda

<sup>3</sup>Professor & Principal, Department of Pharmacy Practice, Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda

<sup>4</sup>Associate professor, Department of Neurosurgery, Adesh Institute of Medical Sciences and Research

<sup>5</sup> Professor and HoD , Department of Pharmacy Practice, Adesh Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, Adesh University, Bathinda

**\*Corresponding Author: Rajesh Kumari Patil**

<sup>5</sup>Professor & HoD , Department of Pharmacy Practice, Adesh Institute of Pharmacy &Biomedical Sciences, AU, Bathinda (rkpatil3014@gmail.com)

### ABSTRACT

International association for the study of pain describes neurological discomfort as a form of persistent pain brought on by a damage or dysfunction of the voluntary nervous system. A lesion is a harm to the voluntary system, whereas a disease is an indirect injury brought on by metabolic stress, autoimmune disorders, inflammatory diseases, and other factors. According to estimates, 6.9 to 10 percent of the people at large experiences neurological discomfort. The dorsal region of the spinal cord receives distress feedback normally through the delta- A and delta-C afferent fibers. Neurotransmitters including peptide P and glutamic are activated in the posterior horn to deliver sensations of pain to the receiving neuron. Allodynia, hypersensitive pain, numbness, Dysesthesias and sensory deficits within the affected region are a few examples of the painful and nonpainful signs and symptoms that typically accompany neuropathic pain. Quantitative sensory testing, electromyography, magnetic resonance imaging, and nerve conduction velocity testing are examples of special examinations. Based on a thorough evaluation, drugs were categorised as primary, secondary, and tertiary treatments. Gabapentinoids, SNRI's, and TCA's added as initial therapies. PGB, Venlafaxine, lamotrigine, and mild opioids, particularly tramadol, as secondary treatments for chronic neurological disorder resulting from spinal cord injury, stroke, and central neuropathic pain. Strong opioids like methadone and oxycodone in multiple sclerosis were all categorised as third-line treatment. Primary therapies Since more than ten years ago, first-line DMTs for RRMS have included interferon-βs and glatiramer acetate. Natalizumab, a second-line therapy, is typically used to treat patients who don't respond well to first-line DMTs. Stem cells have emerged as an innovative approach for the treatment of spinal cord injury their neuroregenerative, neuroprotective, and immunomodulatory abilities.

**Key words:** Neuropathic pain, IASP, hypersensitive pain, Substance P, Glutamate, EMG, NCV, MRI, Pregabalin, Gabapentin, Venlafaxine, Tramadol, DMTs, Glatiramer acetate, Natalizumab.

## **INTRODUCTION**

International association for the study of pain describes neurological discomfort a form of persistent distress brought on by a damage or dysfunction of voluntary nervous system. A damage is a harm to the voluntary system, whereas a disease is an indirect injury brought on by metabolic stress, autoimmune disorders, inflammatory diseases and other factors. Nerves that stimulate visceral organs as well as voluntary nerves are susceptible to such injury.[1] Numerous peripheral neuropathic pain syndromes exist, such as surgically induced neuropathic pain (SNPP), peripheral neuropathy brought on by chemotherapy, lumbar radicular pain, cervical radicular pain and diabetic peripheral polyneuropathy. MS, SCI pain, PHN, reflex sympathetic dystrophy, and tic douloureux are all central disorders.[2] Allodynia, hypersensitive pain, numbness, Dysesthesias and sensory deficits within the affected region are a few examples of the painful and nonpainful signs and symptoms that typically accompany neuropathic pain, which is pain induced by diseases of the nervous systems.[3] CRPS, diabetic nerve damage, and PHN are only a few examples of conditions with neuropathic pain as a symptom.[3,4]

"Douleur Neuropathique 4 Questions (DN4), painDETECT, Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs (LANSS), and Neuropathic Pain Questionnaire (NPQ) are tools commonly used to evaluate neuropathic pain.[5] According to estimates, 6.9 to 10 percent of the people at large experiences neurological discomfort. Numerous reasons, such as the ageing population, rising obesity rates, and greater survival of cancer patients receiving treatments that are likely to cause neuropathic pain, indicate that neuropathic pain will become more common in the future.[6]

Lack of recommendations and agreement to support central neuropathic pain management may result in unwanted side effects from inadequate prescriptions in addition to uncontrolled pain. The primary management for neurogenic central pain is typically regarded as pharmaceutical. Complete recovery from neuropathic pain is uncommon, despite major advancements in pharmacotherapy in recent 10 years. The effectiveness of monotherapy methods continues to be questionable, which encourages the repeated use of medications that are frequently not supported by research or expert advice.[7,8]

## **MECHANISM OF NEUROPATHIC PAIN**

The posterior horn of the neural cord receives pain impulses normally through the delta-A and delta-C afferent fibres. Neurotransmitters including peptide P and glutamic acid are activated in the posterior horn to deliver pain sensations to the receiving neuron. The posterior horn can modify this signal, allowing for either excitement or suppression. The combined effect is sent to upper brain centers where the pain sensation is built in the pain modulatory system through the ascending tract. To control the perception of pain, suppressing signals are transmitted from the brain to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord, the descending pathways are involved in pain modulation. Numerous neurotransmitters, including norepinephrine, serotonin and gamma-aminobutyric acid are released by the descending pathways, and these neurotransmitters ultimately prevent the transmission of pain signals from the brain to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord involves the propagation of excitatory pain impulses [9,10]

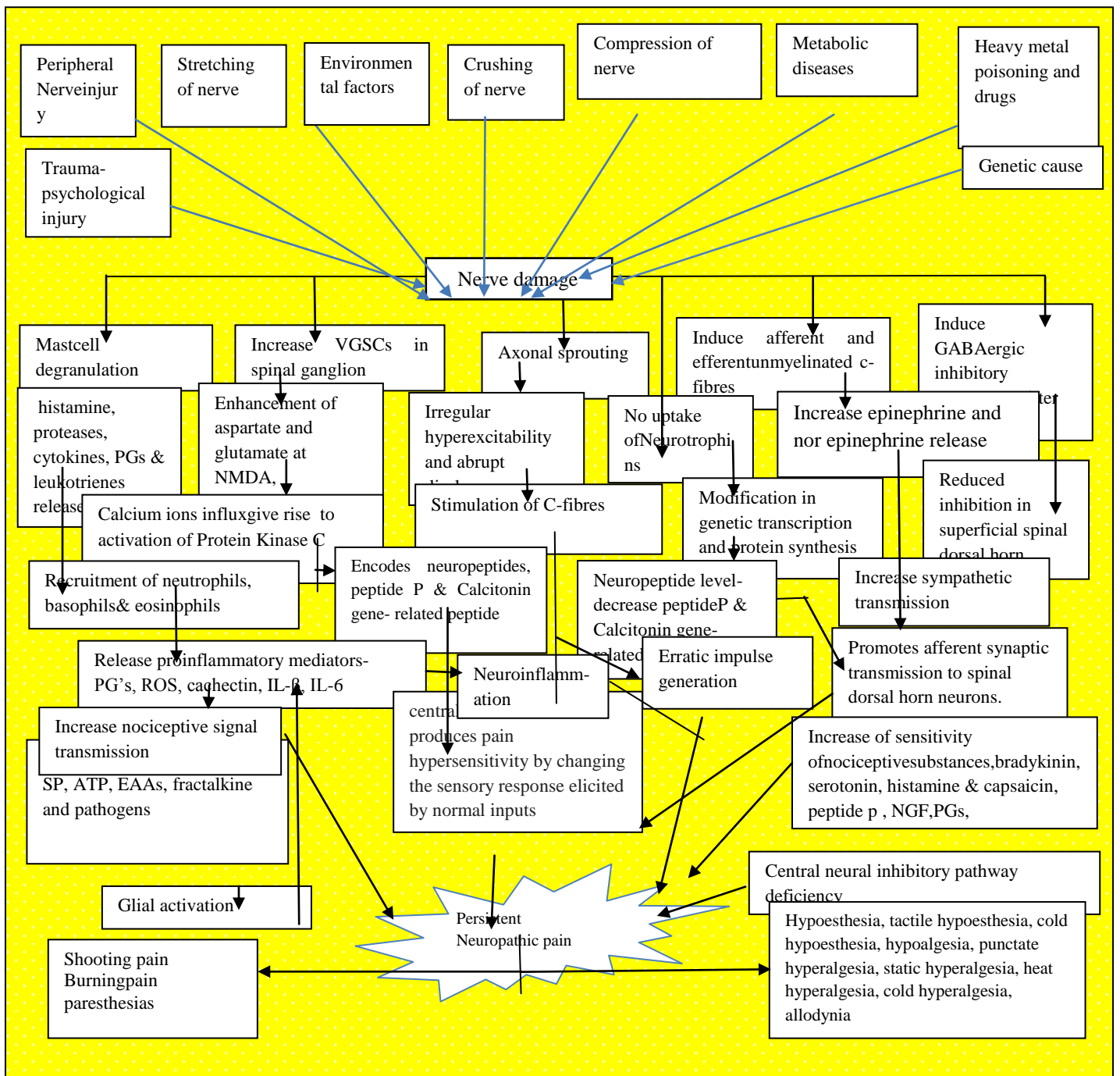
The various transformations that take place in neurological structure after nerve injury may be used to explain the pain hypersensitivity, allodynic pain, and another characteristics connected with neurological diseases:

1. Sensitization in the periphery: Chemical painkillers like peptide P, bradykinin peptide, and histamine can make pain receptors more sensitive to transfer painful sensations, even when such stimuli are below the innate pain threshold. [9]
2. Abnormal discharges: The recurrent firing of wounded axons due to the result of the gathering of sodium channels at the specific location a nerve injury can be mistaken for spontaneous pain. [9]
3. Central sensitization: Dorsal horn neurons become more sensitive under the condition of central sensitization, which lowers their activation threshold. It happens after the neurotransmitter glutamate activates the N-methyl D-aspartate receptor and calcium enters the cell through voltage-gated calcium channels. Following this calcium influx, a complex series of intracellular processes result in changed gene expression, long-lasting neural alterations, and a more sensitive nervous system. Following nerve damage, voltage-gated calcium channel expression is elevated. The clinical effectiveness of 2-voltage-gated calcium channel antagonists as analgesics in subjects with neurological pain diseases provides confirmation for this phenomenon. Additionally, more discomfort may move from a nerve's dermatome to nearby segments as well. [9,11,12]
4. Reorganisation in the centre: After a nerve injury, the spinal cord's pain fibres may reorganise so that regions that ordinarily exclusively get painful sensations through C-type fibres suddenly obtain painless inputs from the A beta fibers (because of A $\beta$  terminals "extending or growing into the outer layer of the dorsal horn, known as the superficial lamina). The clinical phenomenon of allodynia can now be explained by the fact that even gentle touch may be regarded as painful. A decrease in inhibitory control, Injury to peripheral nerves may also decrease the action of the spinal cord suppressing circuits, which makes contribution to people with neuropathic discomfort's aberrant pain perception. In conjunction with the other mechanisms, it is linked to an increase in the CNS sensitivity to sensations of pain, that may lead to spontaneous pain. [9,13]

## **DIAGNOSIS**

### **Physical examination**

Evaluation of pain intensity is crucial for NP diagnosis. The majority of patients have many pains, and those who suffer with neurological discomfort frequently defines their discomfort as "burning sensations," "sharp pain," "tingling," "cold," "pricking," or "lancinating," as well as non-painful symptoms like itching, crawling, numbness, pins and needles. The sensory examination, which also looks at the patient's reaction to various stimuli, such as touch, pressure, a pinprick, heat and vibration. Negative sensory symptoms include reduced light touch and temperature sensations in the afflicted nerve distribution, while positive sensory signs include allodynia and hyperalgesia. Skin colour changes, tropic changes in hair and nails, and motor weakness near the afflicted nerves are all indications of autonomic dysfunction. [9,14]



**mechanisms involved in pathophysiology of neuropathic pain**

N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA), Nitrogen monoxide(NO), Protein kinase(PK), Prostaglandin(PG), Reactive oxygen species(ROS), Excitatory aminoacids(EAA), Interleukin(IL), Nerve growth factor(NGF)

**Special investigations**

Quantitative sensory testing, electromyography, magnetic resonance imaging, and nerve conduction velocity testing are examples of special examinations. While many individuals with abnormal examinations do not experience pain, these investigations are frequently normal in patients with neuropathic pain, even though they may only rarely confirm or rule out a nerve lesion. Studies using Electromyography and Nerve conduction velocity only evaluate big nerve fibres, which are little involved in transmitting pain. Determining a patient

with neuropathic pain to be psychogenic in the absence of conclusive neurochemical or radiological investigations is therefore incorrect.[9,15,16]

### **PAINFULL POLYNEUROPATHY (PPN)**

A typical NP condition is painful polyneuropathy. Diabetes and non-diabetes PPN share similar symptoms and treatment outcomes in response.[17] In diabetic polyneuropathy, the peripheral and autonomic nervous systems are adversely impacted. Patients who have peripheral nerve involvement typically experience hyperesthesia in their upper and lower limbs. They may also have sudden "electrifying sensations" an increase in their susceptibility to pain or discomfort from allodynia. Sores and infected condition in injured leg or arm can develop while the injury is still unnoticed. Sleep and daily activities are frequently disrupted by the pain. Clinical signs include less sensitivity to vibration and light touch, as well as diminished ankle jerks and mild weakness.[18]

#### **Diagnosis**

A bedside examination should evaluate muscle strength, pinprick sensations, joint posture, touch and temperature in order to diagnose diabetic neuropathy. Hands and feet should both receive bilateral sensory examinations. Blood flow and cardiac pulse answers to a number of manoeuvres constitutes foundation of the autonomic tests frequently employed in diabetes mellitus. Examining gastrointestinal, urogenital, sudomotor and peripheral epidermal blood flow requires the use of specific assays. In order to find out the aetiology of neuropathy, a nerve biopsy may be helpful. Skin biopsy and quantity of protein gene are helpful in the evaluation of small fiber neuropathy. When patients with lower limb pain and reduced glucose screening test present with neuropathy, diabetes is diagnosed by ruling out other causes.<sup>13</sup> It has recently been revealed that confocal corneal microscopy can be used to evaluate diabetic polyneuropathy.[19,20] The verified DN4 questionnaire is a simple-to-use diagnostic tool.[21]

#### **Treatment**

Early diagnosis, excluding underlying causes, maintaining adequate glycemic control, and making the necessary lifestyle adjustments will delay the progression and emergence of problems through primary prevention.[18] As first-line treatments for PPN (particularly associated to diabetes), TCA, gabapentinoids and SNRI are used. With the exception of patients experiencing pain exacerbations (for the paracetamol and or tramadol combination) or the patients who have major comorbid non-neuropathic pain (given its well established efficacy in nociceptive pain), tramadol is advised as a second line medication. Strong opioids (morphine and oxycodone) are part of third-line therapy due to worries about the safety profile, particularly the possibility of dependence. Recent studies have reported the effectiveness of nicotinic agonist, nitrate derivatives, and type A botulinum toxin. [17,22,23]

### **POSTHERPETIC NEURALGIA**

Discomfort that lasts for more than 12 weeks following start of shingles can be called as postherpetic neuralgia. The level of pain can range from minor to severe, and its length might last for many years after the original infection, according to some case studies. Although the prevalence of PHN is unknown, it is uncommon in children and adolescents. The patient

complains of a dermatomal distribution of a sharp or scorching pain or aching. While some individuals have frequent, intense paroxysmal spells of shooting pain, the affected skin may be sensitive to touch (like bed covers).[18,24]

### **Diagnosis**

The patient's history indicates that standard questioning should be used to determine the underlying reason of patient's distress. Pain is usually distinct, unilateral, has a feeling of stinging, scorching, sharpness, stabbing, or throbbing. There are two sorts of pain: intermittent and enduring. The evaluation of PHN is strongly promoted by pain following a verified episode of AHZ. Including in a physical examination Skin scarring may be visible at the sites of prior AHZ infections. Both hypersensitivity and hyposensitivity to pain may be present in the affected area. The region that is hurting could experience allodynia. Affected areas may also experience autonomic changes, such as increased sweating. Herpes simplex and herpes zoster can be distinguished using viral culture or immunofluorescent labelling. Particularly in zoster sine herpette, the herpes zoster antibodies may aid in the identification of subclinical herpes zoster infection. Other laboratory tests, such as immunostaining, cytopathology, and the Tzanck cells, can be helpful in determining a herpes zoster infection. [25,26,27]

## **TREATMENT**

### **Tricyclic antidepressants**

Treatment for PHN typically involves the use of TCAs such as nortriptyline, desipramine, and amitriptyline. TCAs should be used cautiously in the elderly, as well as in people who have cardiac disorders, seizures, or glaucoma, despite the fact that they are commonly utilized. The doctor should be aware of the pharmacological action of TCAs and the patient should be informed that adverse effects (mostly cardiac toxicity) may occur before the medicine becomes fully effective.[28,29]

### **Antiepileptics**

In a subsequent comparison trial, there was no variation between anticonvulsant (gabapentin) and TCA (nortriptyline), demonstrating the effectiveness of gabapentinoids in postherpetic neuralgia. A gabapentin formulation with a prolonged release was superior to a placebo. In a short RCT, divalproex sodium was found to have good efficacy, but only complete findings were reported.[17,30]

### **Opioids**

In one comparison trial, oxycodone, morphine, and methadone were comparable to or slightly more efficacious than TCA in treating PHN, but they were also more frequently stopped due to side effects.[17,31]

### **Topical Agents**

Patients' physical, mental and spiritual status and discomfort levels have been established to improve with the utilization of patches of drug lidocaine in clinical practice and numerous

clinical studies, especially when paired with other effective analgesics for PHN. Clinical investigations using capsaicin 0.075% cream have yielded variable results and only limited efficacy, and according to the most recent recommendations, the analgesia that the cream produces is not clinically significant.[28,32]

### **Combination Therapy**

Pregabalin and the lidocaine 5% patch were successful in treating PHN in patients who had not responded to either drug on its own. Pregabalin and the lidocaine patch both have side effects, with application site reactions, dizziness and somnolence being the most frequent ones. Furthermore, a clinical investigation found that the combined gabapentin (about 3,600 mg in 24 hour) and nortriptyline (about 100 mg in 24 hour) effectively reduced pain compared to either drug used alone, with no new or increased incidence of side effects.[28,33]

### **Other therapy**

By generating IgG antibodies, paediatric immunisation lowers the risk of contracting varicella. Adult vaccination increases T-cell mediated immunity and could lower the prevalence of both PHN and herpes zoster. It has been demonstrated that early antiviral treatment can lessen the intensity and duration of an acute herpes zoster infection. Oxycodone and corticosteroids both lessen the discomfort felt during the acute infectious phase. [18,34]

### **TRIGEMINAL NEURALGIA:**

It is characterized as acute, intense, fleeting, sharp pain and repeated pain that affects one or more trigeminal nerve branches (TRN). For carefully chosen circumstances, a variety of destructive and nondestructive procedures are available. The most widely recognised idea is that neurovascular conflict arises from a combination of factors including peripheral diseases at the compression of root, abnormal functions of the brain stem, extrapyramidal motor systems, and pain modulatory mechanisms. Usually, an artery or vein is squeezing the TRN close to the pons, damaging the myelin sheath and causing the nerve to work erratically and excessively. TN can also be brought on by tumors in the cerebella pontine angle (CPA), aneurisms, localized arachnoid fibrosis, angulation, adhesion or torsion, fibrous rings around the root, and arteriovenous malformations (AVM). Reduced opioid receptors in the basal ganglia and altered grey matter (GM) in the sensory and motor cortex have both been hypothesised as central causes of the disease for TN. [35,36 ]

Trigeminal neuralgia, also known as tic douloureux, is an aching condition that affects various branches of the fifth cranial nerve and is distinguished by sudden, severe, brief and recurring stabbing episodes. Jaw pain is one of the signs of TGN and may be made worse by eating, swallowing, talking, touching, or drinking hot or cold food and beverages. Shaving or wind blowing across the face might cause the pain. 'Shooting','sharp', or 'electric' are common adjectives used to characterise intense pain paroxysms. Trigeminal neuralgia can affect one, two, or all three branches, however the maxillary and mandibular branches are affected in the majority of instances, with the ophthalmic branch being affected in just 2% of cases. [18]

### **Diagnosis**

Recently, precise clinical standards for diagnosing TN were established by the International Headache Society. Evaluation of trigeminal neuralgia can be made based on various episodes of one-sided facial pain that meet the following requirements: 1) The patient experiences pain that exhibits at least three out of the following four characteristics: 2) confined to one or more divisions of the trigeminal nerve, with no extension beyond the trigeminal distribution. Furthermore, the pain attacks must meet the specific criteria of being triggered by harmless stimuli applied to the affected side of the face, recurrent in paroxysmal attacks ranging from a fraction of two minutes with extreme severity, pain like electric shocks, shooting or sharp in character. Absence of a clear neurologic deficiency and discomfort that cannot be attributed to another condition are additional crucial factors in clinical diagnosis. Additionally, a new classification system has just been developed that classifies facial pain into a number of different categories in order to rationalise the various subtypes of pain. Trigeminal reflex neurophysiological testing appears to have the identical sensitivity (95%) and specificity (93%) as magnetic resonance imaging in patients of symptomatic TN. In the diagnosis, particularly in the presurgical examination of trigeminal neuralgia patients for the purpose to uncover other causes of trigeminal neuralgia and/or the neurovascular contention, advances in MRI have been playing a significant role.[37, 38]

### **Treatment**

The initial dose of 200–400 mg/day, carbamazepine is the cornerstone of pharmacological management. Oxycarbazepine is an additional option. Although baclofen has been described as effective, a Cochrane review found inadequate data to promote its utilization as a single modality of management for TGN. In refractory cases, gabapentin, pregabalin, topiramate and earlier anticonvulsants have also been utilized. Both decompressive and ablative surgical procedures are available. The procedure with the highest success rate is microvascular decompression, which has a 76% chance of providing pain relief at five years with little problems. Other options to think about include balloon microcompression, gamma knife surgery, radiofrequency or glycerol ablation (rhizotomy), which has a 45% chance of reducing pain after five years.[18,39]

### **COMPLEX REGIONAL PAIN SYNDROME**

According to its definition, it is a syndrome characterized by continuous discomfort that appears out of proportion to the general course of any relevant injury in terms of duration or intensity. The pain is localised, not dermatomal and typically exhibits sensory, motor, sudomotor, vasomotor, and trophic deformity in the lateral majority. Depends on whether an initial nerve lesion is present or not, there are various classifications for CRPS. When there is no discernible severe nerve damage, type I is suitable with reflex sympathetic dystrophy syndrome, while type II is compatible with causalgia when there is a nerve tissue lesion. [40,41] Complex regional pain syndrome has inflammatory and autonomic characteristics. About 7% of people who undergo limb fractures, limb surgery, or other injuries experience it acutely. [42]



### Diagnosis

Allodynia and/or claims of hyperesthesia are examples of sensory symptoms. Vasomotor symptoms include reports of, or the existence of, temperature asymmetries, as well as changes in or asymmetries in skin colour. Symptoms of sudomotor/edema include reports of edema, its presence, alterations in sweating and asymmetry in sweating. Impaired range of movement, motor dysfunction (like weakness etc), and/or trophic changes ( nail, skin and hair) are all examples of motor/trophic symptoms.[43]

Bone scintigraphy can reveal details regarding vascular changes in the bone. Plain radiographs can be utilized to assess mineralization status, however they only show favourable results in chronic stages. Vibration threshold testing is another method that QST used to assess the condition of big medullated nerves that are extruding to the dorsal horns. Laser Doppler flowmetry, infrared thermography, and the quantitative sudomotor axon reflex test are examples of autonomic functions. Dermal temperature variations can be useful for CRPS examination.[44]

### Treatment

Physical and occupational therapy is advised as the initial course of treatment for CRPS patients. Cognitive behavioural therapy, developing relaxation techniques, and biofeedback are used to speed up recovery, lessen the severity of pain, and give patients greater control. [45,46] Inflammation is reduced by NSAIDs and corticosteroid medications, which has been utilized to treat CRPS. Dimethyl sulfoxide and NAC are two topical antioxidant formulations that have been successful in relieving pain. Vitamin C's anti-oxidant qualities can be credited for its strong preventative effect in stopping the development of CRPS. Anti-convulsant medications, including gabapentin are frequently utilized as part of the pharmacological care of CRPS because they have shown promise in relieving the neurological pain. The effectiveness of ketamine administration by topical and intravenous routes causing complete remission in subjects who are resistant to intervention has been determined in placebo-controlled study, demonstrating the potential of this strategy. Phenoxybenzamine has demonstrated promise in achieving total pain relief. Calcitonin have been proven to be beneficial in managing the neuropathic pain because it protects bone mass, affects the microvasculature, and has anti-nociceptive properties. It is widely established that bisphosphonates are effective at reducing pain because they block osteoclasts, which slows down bone resorption and increases bone mineral density. In order to extend the duration of analgesia, sympathetic blocks can be used with botulinum toxin to treat pain that is sympathetically mediated. Additionally, neuromodulation may be used to treat CRPS, especially in patients who do not react to sympathetic block. [45,47,48,49]

The use of thalidomide as a CRPS treatment has drawn a lot of interest. This is supported by the theory that CRPS may be influenced by inflammatory cytokines, and by the fact that thalidomide inhibits tumor necrosis factor alpha. [50]

The best researched class of pharmaceuticals for treating neuropathic pain, tricyclic antidepressants (e.g amitriptyline), exhibit analgesic effects. The anti-arrhythmic medications (like mexiletine, tocainide and lidocaine) as well as the antiepileptic carbamazepine have an impact on voltage gated sodium channels and may alleviate neuropathic pain. [44]

## **SCIATICA**

Radiating posterior or posterolateral leg pain is the hallmark of sciatica, which can also cause sensory loss, paralysis or aberrant reflexes.[51] With a male predominance, the yearly sciatica prevalence ranges greatly (about 1.5- 42%). 30% of low back ache patients who visit health center offices has continue pain for more than a year and 5% of those people have sciatica. [52,53]

Sciatica is a condition characterized by pain radiating along the path of the sciatic nerve, which runs from the lower back through the hips and down each leg. While a herniated or bulging lumbar intervertebral disc is indeed a common cause of sciatica, there are other potential causes as well. These include lumbar spinal stenosis it involves a narrowing of the spinal canal in the lower back, often due to age-related changes. It can put pressure on the nerves, including the sciatic nerve, leading to sciatica symptoms, especially in the elderly. Another is spondylolisthesis, this involves one vertebra slips forward or backward in relation to an adjacent vertebra. The displaced vertebra can compress the nerve roots, including the sciatic nerve, causing sciatica symptoms. Muscle spasm, inflammation, or nerve impingement: Sciatic pain can result from muscle spasms or inflammation in the lower back or pelvic region. Additionally, if a lumbar or sacral nerve root is compressed or pinched by surrounding structures, such as a bone spur or a herniated disc, it can lead to sciatica symptoms. Spinal or paraspinal masses: Rarely, sciatica symptoms can be caused by the presence of abnormal growths in or around the spine, such as tumors, epidural hematomas (blood clots), or epidural abscesses. These masses can exert pressure on the nerves, including the sciatic nerve, resulting in sciatica.

A lumbar intervertebral disc that has herniated or bulged is the most frequent cause of sciatica. These symptoms can also be brought on by lumbar spinal stenosis in the elderly. Sciatic symptoms may also be brought on by spondylolisthesis or a relative misalignment of one vertebra in relation to another. Additionally, sciatic pains may be brought on by lumbar or pelvic muscle spasm, inflammation or impingement on a lumbar or sacral nerve root. Additionally, a mass-like effect and sciatica symptoms can be brought on by a spinal or paraspinal mass, such as a tumor, epidural hematoma, or epidural abscess. [54] Lower limb pain that elongates apart from the knee and into the feet and toes is the major clinical feature. [55]

### **Diagnosis**

Plain lumbar spine films with flexion and extension views, CT scans, MRI of the lumbar spinal cord, EMG and biochemical tests are always included in the diagnosis following a patient history and general examination. [56]

The lumbar region of spinal cord is usually the area for sciatica pain and the pain is virtually mainly one sided. The probability of sciatica pain that radiating to the homolateral afflicted periphery is a frequent trait. Patients usually describe paresthesia that goes along with the pain and sensation of burning deep in the buttocks and there is sometimes presence homolateral lower limb general weakness. The damaged lower limb can "feel heavy" to these patients. [54]

### **Clinical manifestations**

More severe than low back discomfort on one side of the body, Usually spreading posteriorly from the leg and below the knee, the Lower limb pain and/or loss of feeling in the damaged area, a positive lower limb tension test with pain in the damaged limb induced (femoral nerve test, straight leg raise test and slump test), neurological impairment linked to the affected nerve root. [57]

### **Treatment**

Taking care of oneself can help with sciatica symptoms relief and recurrence prevention. Use proper posture, exercise regularly each day, and use good sleeping posture, lift objects securely, avoid wearing high heels, avoid prolonged sitting or standing and perform belly crunches.[58] The mainstay of treatment for this illness is pharmacotherapy which includes basic and opioid-based analgesics, anti-seizure medications and tricyclic antidepressants. Physical therapy is a crucial component of the care of sciatica and is a crucial complement to pharmaceutical treatment. Other non-pharmacological treatment options to take into account include acupuncture, epiduroscopy with adhesion lysis, cognitive-behavioural therapy, spinal cord stimulation and psychotherapy.[59]

### **Drug treatment**

While analgesics like acetaminophen and tramadol can reduce pain, they lack the NSAIDs' anti-inflammatory properties. Aspirin, ibuprofen, naproxen and celecoxib are some examples of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medicines (NSAID's) used to treat pain and reduce inflammation. Baclofen, cyclobenzaprine, diazepam and clonazepam are examples of muscle relaxants that can be used to relieve discomfort brought on by spasticity and muscle spasms. [58] Gabapentin a recently licensed antiepileptic drug is used to treat specific types of neuropathic pain. Mellicks originally discussed the utilization of gabapentin for long term pain in 1995 when treating reflex sympathetic dystrophy. [60,61]

Both GBP and pregabalin were significantly effective. GBP, however reduced pain more effectively than PGB and was linked to fewer, moderate adverse effects. GBPhave to be started earlier than pregabalin to allow for the best cross-over.[62] During the initial weeks of a sciatica episode, administration epidural steroidinjection(ESI) that are given locally at the location of the injury are probably useful. [63]

Narcotics are extremely potent painkillers that actually dull a person's pain threshold. After an acute injury or surgery, they are used for only a brief (2 to 4 week) time. Codeine, meperidine, propoxyphene, hydrocodone and oxycodone are examples of common opioids. [58]

The epidural steroid with anaesthetic was inferior to the subcutaneous administration of anti-tumor necrosis factor in relieving lower back ache in patients with long term and short term sciaticapain. Comparing the subcutaneous anti-TNF- to the epidural steroid, the Oswestry disability index (ODI) showed that the epidural steroid performed better. [64]

### **CARPEL TUNNEL SYNDROME**

Compression of the nerves in the upper limb as they pass through the carpal tunnel can lead to the development of carpal tunnel syndrome, which is the most prevalent entrapment neuropathy affecting the upper extremity. The disorder typically affects 3% of the general

adult population and causes pain and paraesthesia in the median nerve's distribution, which includes the palmar aspect of the thumb, the index and middle fingers, and the radial part of the ring finger. Carpal tunnel syndrome is characterized by pain and paraesthesia (abnormal sensations) in the distribution of the median nerve. This includes the palmar aspect of the thumb, index and middle fingers, as well as the radial part of the ring finger. [65]

### **Clinical manifestations**

Primary clinical features of the disease include paraesthesia and dysesthesia which are more common and happen in waking time. After the disease development, due to significant loss of communication between neurons, loss of sensation also comes about along with weakening and thenar muscle atrophy. [66]

### **Diagnosis**

Accurate patient history should be obtained by the doctor. In addition to doing a sensory evaluation, examination of muscle of the upper periphery, provocative and/or other tests for alternate diagnosis and general physical evaluation. To distinguish between possible conditions, the doctor could order electro diagnostic tests. Additionally useful tests are sensorimotor tests in the hand, computed tomography, and magnetic resonance imaging. [67]

### **Treatment**

CTS is typically treated with corticosteroid injections of methylprednisolone. By reducing the inflammation of the tenosynovium that passes through the carpal tunnel, CSI is intended to reduce pressure inside the tunnel. [68] Oral administration of prednisone at 20 mg per 24 hour dosage, daily for two weeks enhances signs and symptoms contrasted with placebo, the enhancement lasts up to two months. [65]

The frequent hand and carpal surgery in America is carpal tunnel release (CTR), with an estimated 400,000 procedures carried out annually. High quality evidence supports CTR's efficacy as a CTS treatment. The CTR procedure comes in a variety of forms. Open carpal tunnel release and endoscopic carpal tunnel release are the two major forms. It has been proven that OCTR is the go-to surgical method for CTS since it is both efficient and generally safe. A technique for executing CTR utilizing an endoscope or an arthroscopic instrument is known as ECTR. At 12 weeks following surgery, endoscopic release delivers superior results than OCTR in treatment of pain. The duration until the individual can return to work and issues related to the wound are important considerations. With a one-inch incision, Open carpal tunnel release can also be categorized into full and mini open categories. The "mini" method uses a little surgical cut, open method to combine the ease of use and Open carpal tunnel release safety with the decreased stress and endoscopic carpal tunnel release postoperative morbidity. [69,70,71]

### **CENTRAL NEUROPATHIC PAIN(CNP)**

Structural injury to central nervous system is what causes central pain (CP). It is one of the major intricate, fascinating, challenging pain syndromes, it can result after the injury to central nervous system, including transient ischaemic attack, intracerebral hemorrhage and subarachnoid hemorrhage, infectious diseases (like abscess and encephalitis), multiple

cerebro-spinal sclerosis, traumatic brain or spinal cord injury or neoplasia. The majority of the time it is brought on by spinal cord injury, MS and stroke. [72] About 40% of people with rheumatic disease, arthritic psoriasis, degenerative joint disease, ankylosing spondylitis, and systemic lupus erythematosus experience the chronic broad pain found in centralized pain. About 15% percent of the population suffers from centralized pain with fibromyalgia being the most common cause. [73]

### **Clinical manifestations**

Many people report experiencing a searing, unpleasant cold, tingling, prickling, leaping, stabbing, pressing, or tightness. The appearance of painful sensation and hyperalgesia, which are specifically for neuropathic pain but less frequent in central pain, is also present and is considered to be equivalent to pain. [72]

### **Diagnosis**

Given that the majority of the blood tests (CBC, ESR, CRP, TSH and CK) are typically negative, the diagnosis of central pain is made mostly clinically. Therefore, laboratories are not recommended unless there is clinical impression of their value. Additionally, evaluation of centralized pain only uses a small number of genetic indicators. Unless an autoimmune illness is suspected, rheumatologic markers like RF and ANA are not necessary. Imaging can support the evaluation of centralized pain disorder. Study of central pain syndrome has benefited from the use of MRI and functional neuroimaging (fMRI). In individuals with various chronic pain syndromes, an fMRI can assist in differentiating between structural and functional brain abnormalities. [73,74]

### **Treatment**

Non-pharmacological treatments include CBT, TENS, deep brain stimulation, motor cortex stimulation and occupational therapy. Serotonin and noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors, anticonvulsants and cyclic antidepressants are among the pharmacological treatments suggested for central pain syndrome. Strong evidence supports the use of TCAs like amitriptyline, SNRIs like duloxetine or venlafaxine, anticonvulsants like pregabalin and gabapentin and TCAs like venlafaxine. Additionally, there is delicate support for the utilization of drug S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAME) and mild confirmation for the use of opioids (tramadol) or selective 5-HT reuptake inhibitors. Techniques for physical therapy (PT) include lumbar traction, kneading, ultrasound physical therapy, cryotherapy, patient positioning and flexibility exercises. These can be done independently or under the direction of a therapist. Myofascial physical therapy (MPT) can help female patients with chronic pelvic pain syndrome because it reduces sensitivity to experimental pain, alleviates hypertonicity, and improves endogenous inhibitory system functionality. Central, peripheral and refractory pain patients can benefit from deep brain stimulation and motor cortex stimulation, which are efficacious therapy techniques. [73,75,76]

### **MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS**

Multiple cerebral sclerosis is a long term autoimmune condition that influence the cerebrospinal nervous system. It is identified by the demyelination of nerve fibres, gliosis (scarring), and neuronal death. The immune response unintentionally attacks the medullary sheaths that protect the nerves, leading to the formation of perivascular lymphocytic

infiltrates and macrophages. The clinical features of multiple cerebral sclerosis can change generally dependent on the area and range of the damage within the cerebrospinal nervous system. Some ordinary neurological clinical features involve cognitive impairment, visual disruptions (such as blurred vision and double vision), numbness and tingling in the limbs, focal weakness or paralysis, bladder and bowel control problems. It's significant to record that the clinical features of MS may change from patient to patient and may also change over time. Some individuals may experience periods of relapse and remission, where symptoms worsen and then improve, while others may have a more progressive form of the disease with a gradual worsening of symptoms. Multiple sclerosis is a relatively common neurological disorder, with an estimated 400,000 people affected in the United States alone. Globally, it is estimated that around 2.5 million people are living with MS. The main aetiology of multiple cerebral sclerosis is still not completely apprehended, but it is considered to involve hereditary and environmental elements together.[77] Significant demyelination, varying degrees of axonal loss, and reactive gliosis are characteristics of pathology. Patients typically show with perivenular and parenchymal lymphocyte and macrophage infiltrates, transected axons, reduced numbers of oligodendrocytes, astrocyte growth with eventual gliosis, and focal inflammatory plaques. When compared to other T-cell subsets, B cells, or plasma cells, CD8+ cells are thought to predominate in MS, which is considered to be a T cell-mediated autoimmune condition. This illness is thought to start in inflammation-induced lesions that primarily contain CD8+ T cells and CD4+ T cells and activate microglia and macrophages. [78]

### **Clinical manifestations**

Sensory symptoms of multiple sclerosis could be caused by demyelinating lesions in the spinothalamic pathways or the myelinated axons of the dorsal columns. When the neck is bent, patients frequently experience pins and needles, insensibility, band-line tension throughout the trunk when there is inflammation), or a sensation of an electrical shock-like travelling the spine downwards. Certain clinical signs of MS point to brainstem collaboration in the disease. Multiple sclerosis patients can also experience eye movement abnormalities such as horizontal rotatory nystagmus and upbeat nystagmus as well as oscillopsia, or the sensation of pictures flashing in front of their eyes. MS patients typically experience one-sided or two-sided internuclear ophthalmoparesis, a condition that affects conjugate lateral gaze palsy.[79]

### **Diagnosis**

The radiological test which can be used to diagnose the multiple sclerosis is magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) using an intravenous administration of contrast containing gadolinium. The nature of the injury (central demyelination and inflammation) and spreading within the cerebrospinal nervous system can be presented in this for differential diagnosis. Spinal puncture for cerebrospinal fluid evaluation, basic cerebrospinal fluid chemistry tests (protein, urea and creatinine, electrolytes, lactate and lactate dehydrogenase, glutamine and immunoglobulin G levels), and microbiology tests (blood cell count and others if necessary, further microbiological and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) are additional crucial procedures in the diagnosis of MS. Testing for intrathecal IgG production (IgG index) and

cytopathological evaluation (screening for malignant cells) can also be performed. In addition to those, electrophysiological studies (somatosensory evoked response test and visual evoked response test) may also be performed as needed. The McDonald criteria offer distinct suggestions for PPMS diagnosis that incorporate CSF abnormalities in addition to MRI. [80]

## **TREATMENT**

### **Corticosteroids**

Short courses of corticosteroids with large doses, like methylprednisolone 500mg each day orally for five days, should be administered to patients who present with exacerbations. Patients who are unable to take oral corticosteroids or the patients whose clinical features don't improve may receive 1 g of methylprednisolone intravenously per day. Oral and intravenous methylprednisolone show comparable efficacies. [81]

### **Disease modifying agents**

Primary therapies Since more than ten years ago, first-line DMTs for RRMS have included interferon-βs and glatiramer acetate. Natalizumab, a second-line therapy, is typically used to treat patients who don't respond well to first-line DMTs or who have extremely aggressive initial illness courses. The first oral medication for RRMS, fingolimod (FTY720), was added to the PBS on September 1, 2011. Preclinical trials are now being conducted using laquinimod, teriflunomide, and BG12. These oral medications for MS have yet to be determined in terms of their precise function and long-term safety. Immunosuppression with cyclophosphamide or mitoxantrone, high dosage chemotherapy, and autologous hematopoietic stem cell transplant are further alternatives for third line treatment patients with severe disease who do not react to treatment. These techniques reduced tolerability and potentially major side outcomes place restrictions on their use.[82]

### **Symptomatic treatment**

Pharmacological and physiotherapy treatments that concentrates on clinical manifestations caused by central cerebrospinal damage are indicated as supportive treatment. These treatments are frequently not specific for multiple cerebral sclerosis. They involve drugs for neuropathic discomfort (usually cyclic antidepressants or gabapentin), as well as anticholinergic drugs for urinary bladder disorders (which can cause neurocognitive disability, necessitating an individualised strategy).[83]

### **CENTRAL POST STROKE PAIN**

After a cerebrovascular accident, a neuropathic discomfort leads to condition called central poststroke pain. may develop. Sensory abnormalities and discomfort in bodily regions that relate to the brain region affected by the cerebrovascular lesion are the hallmarks of this syndrome. Patients with CPSP who exhibit sensory impairment and symptoms of hypersensitiveness in the distressing region may also have deafferentation, which leads to the progression of nerve cell excitability.[84] Although the precise widespread presence of central poststroke pain is unknown, it is predicted that it can range from 1 to 35%. This broad estimate may result from differences in how this kind of discomfort is defined, the eligibility, and the duration of person's poststroke evaluation. A clinical and sensory examination, the history and imaging of the vascular lesion with computed tomography or MRI should all be

used to make the diagnosis. Somatosensory evoked potentials (SEPs), which were found to be aberrant in 68% of CPSP patients, are another helpful diagnostic test. [85]

### **Clinical manifestations**

Pain from central post-stroke is frequently reported as scorching, throbbing, pressing or freezing which was cited earlier categorised aberrations in provocation as extreme sensitivity to touch, extreme pain, numbness, prickling and sensation, burning and tingling, pain due to mild change of temperature, suggested that they might be related to temporal and spatial summation.[86]

### **Treatment**

It is difficult to treat CPSP pharmacologically, and the findings of this topic's MEDLINE search show how inadequate and constrained current treatments are. Antidepressants (like amitriptyline), selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (like fluvoxamine), anticonvulsants (like gabapentinoids, lamotrigine etc), opiates (like tramadol) and lidocaine and propofol with less advantage, and ketamine are the medications utilized in the treatment of poststroke discomfort. Contrarily, tricyclic antidepressant drugs, gabapentin or pregabalin may be used as the first line of treatment. If those drugs are ineffective, other options may include lamotrigine, opioids, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and medication combinations.[87,88]

Compared to the traditional antiepileptic medications (like the phenytoin and carbamazepine) lacked any confirmation of effectiveness from placebo-controlled studies, drugs like GBP, lamotrigine and amitriptyline offer better efficacy and less adverse effects.[89] In both vivo and in vitro settings, epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs) have different pharmacological actions and prevention of apoptosis, inflammation and oxidative stress. The hypothesised pathophysiological processes of neuropathic pain include neuroinflammation and apoptosis. This study sought to determine whether the anti-apoptotic effect and anti-inflammatory effect of 14,15-epoxyeicosatrienoic acid have any antinociception effects in rats. [90]

### **SPINAL CORD INJURY**

Ultimately, spinal cord damage or injury has an impact on a patient's quality of life because it causes abnormalities to functions of afferent neurons and efferent neurons. Preclinical data imply that persistent pressing of the spine following the major damage is a retrievable form of secondary damage which if managed rapidly can result in less nervous tissue damage and best results from a biological standpoint. [91,92,93,94] spinal cord damage can be caused by a number of different things including trauma, inflammation, and tumour compression, results in lack of sensory response and motor response beneath the affected part and can also induce loss of respiratory function. A global epidemiological survey found that the number of SCIs caused by accidents is rising, with 500,000 cases worldwide per year. [95,96,97] Spain has the lowest incidence 8 cases per million and New Zealand has the highest 49 cases per million. 154 Over a million persons with SCI live solely in North America. [98,99]

### **Clinical manifestations**

The motor function, pain, temperature, proprioception, vibratory sensation, and tactile sensitivity below the level of injury are often completely bilaterally lost in these injuries.



hypoesthesia in lower extremities also paralysis are common clinical feature of lumbosacral injuries. In addition to losing the ability to control one's bowels and bladder, these injuries may also cause sexual dysfunction. Thoracic injuries cause the same impairments as lumbosacral injuries and may also cause the torso's muscles to lose function, making it difficult to maintain proper posture. Cervical injuries cause the same impairments as thoracic injuries and can also cause tetraplegia by causing loss of function in the upper extremities. pulmonary impairment may also result from injuries above C5 because to a loss of innervation to the diaphragm. [100,101]

## **TREATMENT**

### **Neuroprotective and Neuroregenerative Agents**

#### **Methylprednisolone**

Methylprednisolone, a well-known neuroprotective drug, has been linked to better neurological results. It lessens posttraumatic inflammation and membrane lipid peroxidation. The recommendations now state that methylprednisolone infusion within 8 hours of damage should only be carried out in specific circumstances, taking into account the difficulties that may arise. [102,103,104]

#### **Naloxone, Nimodipine and Tirilazad**

In the Study II trial of National Spinal Cord Injury, naloxone, an opioid antagonist was examined alongside MP and a placebo. No variations in motor scores across groups were found in the study, which was negative. An L-type calcium channel blocker called nimodipine is hypothesised to stop calcium-dependent apoptotic enzymes and stop glutamate from being released presynaptically. However, one year later discernible variation between the neural status and placebo. In the Study II trial of National Spinal Cord Injury, tirilazad medication reduces the oxidative damage to nervous tissue membranes were examined alongside MP with no change between groups. [105,106,107]

#### **Minocycline**

Previous research has indicated that the tetracycline antibiotic minocycline has notable neuroprotective properties in multiple sclerosis and Huntington's illness. Following SCI, minocycline can dramatically prevent the activation of IL1, TNF, COX2, and MMPs. Additionally, minocycline treatment can significantly reduce interleukin-1 converting enzyme and the levels of caspase-3 after spinal cord injury. Inducible nitric oxide synthase is similarly inhibited by minocycline, which causes microglial activation after SCI. Minocycline shields neurons in the damaged spinal cord tissue area from glutamate excitotoxicity. Minocycline is a helpful medicine because it targets several mechanisms that are associated with apoptosis and stops the development of extra damage after spinal cord injury. [108,109,110] Minocycline's neuroprotective properties could be applied in clinical settings to treat spinal cord injuries and other neurodegenerative illnesses. [111]

#### **Vasoactive agents**

The medications like Dopamine (upto 10 mg/kg/min), adrenaline (upto 8 mg/kg/min), noradrenaline (upto 20 mg/min), dobutamine (upto 15 mg/kg/min), and phenylephrine (10–100 mg/min) are a few pharmacological agents that might be taken into consideration (124). Dopamine and norepinephrine increase heart activity and cause vasoconstriction. [108,112]

### **Caspase inhibitors**

A broad-spectrum caspase inhibitor like ZVAD FMK, whose therapeutic window is increased by 9 hour after acute brain ischemia, may be used to treat post-traumatic injury and neurological deficiency. This therapy plan can protect the neurons from injury and extend drug's pharmaceutical window after SCI, it can be assumed. Patients with SCI may benefit from Bcl2 gene therapy with cephalon, a protease/calpain inhibitor according to preclinical research.[ 108,113,]

### **Monosialotetrahexosylganglioside (GM-1)**

Injuries to the central nervous system can be treated with GM-1, which has anti-neurotoxic, anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective properties and is crucial for neuronal excitability. In all spinal cord damage situations, GM-1 seems to be dependable. According to ASIA/ISCOS standardisation, individuals who received GM-1 experienced a neurological improvement that was significantly greater than those who got a placebo starting in the sixth week following spinal cord injury. The data that performance was enhanced for up to two years leads one to believe that GM-1 is beneficial for acute and subacute spinal cord injury. In addition to new experimental trials using relations of nerve growth factors and neurological protectors, among other fragments, it would be attractive to re-examine that advantages with a huge sample and various other bone marrow investigations like diagnostic electron microscopy and other techniques of neuroregeneration. [104,115]

### **Fibroblast growth factors**

The capacity of Fibroblast growth factors(FGF1 and FGF2) to promote the viability and expansion of several types of nerve cell such as neocortex, hippocampus, cerebellum, dopaminergic neurons, spinal column and afferent neurons separated is evidence of their mitogenic and neurotrophic actions. Recent years have seen the discovery of new FGF activities, as well as advancements in our comprehension of the actions of FGFs in SCI. it appears from results of nonclinical studies and clinical studies that fibroblast growth factors could effectively increase functional improvement after spinal cord injury. The use of FGFs still faces significant difficulties because to their short half-lives, vulnerability to deactivation, and quick preparation and biotransformation when applied on skin. In the study of alterations to cell replacement and bioactive material scaffolds for continuous deliver of nerve growth factors in the spinal cord injury, significant advancements have been made. Before big multicenter, studies are started, more research must be done to guarantee the safety and effectiveness of FGF. [116,117,118]

### **Hepatocyte growth factor**

The life expectancy, neovascularisation, and axon reconstruction of nerve cell and oligodendroglia after spinal cord injury in rats are significantly improved by injecting an hepatocyte growth factor expression vector into the spinal cord. The damaged area shrinks, and functions recovered. In acute SCI, exogenous HGF treatment can inhibit glial scar formation, inhibit astrocyte activation and have anti-inflammatory effects. It can also inhibit leukocyte infiltration. Administration of Recombinant, human hepatic growth factor injection enhances the neural functions in the nonhuman monkeys after cervical trauma.[108,119]

### **Cethrin and Anti-Nogo**

Cethrin is a biohemostatic adhesive and bacterial toxin which may be placed to the spinal cord after injury. It is the permeable paste. In vitro investigations show that cethrin suppresses the Rho route of suppressor proteins and stimulates nerve fiber development. The ASIA motor score increased in cervical injury patients who were given cethrin. Anti-Nogo, a monoclonal antibody known as anti- Nogo designed to attach on Nogo-A, is another neuroregenerative medication that has been demonstrated to support neuronal regeneration. Future research will be useful in determining the efficacy of several drugs that will protect the neurons from injury because they have demonstrated the hopeful results.[102,120]

### **Neuromodulation**

Making neuromodulation a possibility for people with SCI. One type of neuromodulation, spinal cord stimulation, is a treatment option for SCI that is expanding quickly. Epidural or transcutaneous techniques for spinal cord stimulation are options, and clinical investigations have previously shown a certain amount of progress in the function of efferent neurons with these approaches. Other techniques of neuromodulation in SCI include deep brain stimulation, direct electrical stimulation of nerve and neuromodulation with spinal cord stimulator techniques.[102 ,121]

### **Stem cell therapy**

In spinal cord injury, the treatment with stem cell therapy provide an explanation to illnesses that can't be treated by presently accessible medical techniques. Treatment with Stem cells are a new approach for spinal cord injury treatment due to their neuroregenerative, neurorestoration and immune system modulator capabilities. The possibility of modulating an endogenous regenerating process is increased by the existence of NSC in the adult CNS. Therapies for the mobilising endogenic stem cell populace has been observed as a applicable treatment approach to the improvement for restoration mechanisms in spinal cord injury, while further clinical studies are needed to determine the effects on nervous system by altering various doses and administration of the medicaments. [122]

### **Prosthetic devices**

Robotic or powered outer skeletons have become popular effective physical treatment tools to some impaired people with SCI. The research offered preliminary proof of the effectiveness of outer skeletons on neuropathic pain, heart and vascular health, energy consumption, body organization, characteristics of gait patterns, degree of exercising and well being. Years after an accident, they might be applied to reestablish a specific degree of physical activity. powered exoskeletons enable SCI patients to carefully walk in the world environments at the level of physical exertion that is suitable for ongoing utilization and is established to have positive body effects. [123,124]

### **CONCLUSION**

Neuropathic pain is a exhausting long term sickness that can normally be determined by the medical history of patient and physical examination outcomes. The typical descriptions of neuropathic pain include burning, severe, chilly or electric shocks. It may also include tingling, pins & needles, numbness, or itching. To assist in directing the care of neuropathic pain, the therapeutic choices for management are offered along with the drugs accessible in

the nation, along with their efficacy as shown in clinical studies, as well as their benefits and drawbacks. Multidisciplinary care, TCAs, gabapentinoids, SNRIs, topical lignocaine and capsaicin are all included in first-line therapy. Due to its negative side effects, it is typically advised to utilise opioids in second- and third-line treatments. While FDA-approved tapentadol and tramadol are indicated as the secondary treatment. There are some therapies used in the treatment of neuropathic pain syndromes that are adequate and produce outstanding relief to maximum number of patients. Various patients experience intolerable and horrible pain, demanding the urgent need for new therapeutic techniques. We anticipate the summary relating to the utilization of stem cells for the management of neuropathic discomfort, which can provide the theoretical guide for further preclinical and the human clinical research and advance the speciality of treatment with stem cells and the advancement of better therapies for the patients that are suffering from these debilitating conditions.

### References

1. Xu, B., et.al (2012). Translational investigation and treatment of neuropathic pain. *Molecular pain*, 8, 1744-8069.
2. Bates, D., et.al (2019). A comprehensive algorithm for management of neuropathic pain. *Pain Medicine*, 20(Supplement\_1), S2-S12.
3. Attal, N. (2001). Pharmacologic treatment of neuropathic pain. *Acta Neurologica Belgica*, 101(1), 53-64.
4. Collins, S., et.al (2010). NMDA receptor antagonists for the treatment of neuropathic pain. *Pain medicine*, 11(11), 1726-1742.
5. Bailly, F., et.al(2020). Part of pain labelled neuropathic in rheumatic disease might be rather nociplastic. *RMD open*, 6(2), e001326.
6. Cruccu, G., & Truini, A. (2017). A review of neuropathic pain: from guidelines to clinical practice. *Pain and therapy*, 6, 35-42.
7. Oliveira, R. A. A et.al (2020). Pharmacological treatment of central neuropathic pain: consensus of the Brazilian Academy of Neurology. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria*, 78, 741-752.
8. H Vranken, J. (2012). Elucidation of pathophysiology and treatment of neuropathic pain. *Central Nervous System Agents in Medicinal Chemistry (Formerly Current Medicinal Chemistry-Central Nervous System Agents)*, 12(4), 304-314.
9. Meyer, H. P. (2008). Neuropathic pain-Current concepts. *South African Family Practice*, 50(3), 40-49.
10. Torrance, N., et.al (2007). Medication and treatment use in primary care patients with chronic pain of predominantly neuropathic origin. *Family practice*, 24(5), 481-485.
11. Woolf, C. J. (2004). Dissecting out mechanisms responsible for peripheral neuropathic pain: implications for diagnosis and therapy. *Life sciences*, 74(21), 2605-2610.
12. Schwarz, J., & Naff, N. (2004). The management of neuropathic pain. *Neurosurgery Clinics*, 15(2), 231-239.
13. Woolf, C. J., & Mannion, R. J. (1999). Neuropathic pain: aetiology, symptoms, mechanisms, and management. *The lancet*, 353(9168), 1959-1964.

14. Torrance, N., et.al (2007). Medication and treatment use in primary care patients with chronic pain of predominantly neuropathic origin. *Family practice*, 24(5), 481-485.
15. Gilron, I., et.al (2006). Neuropathic pain: a practical guide for the clinician. *Cmaj*, 175(3), 265-275.
16. Herr, K. (2004). Neuropathic pain: a guide to comprehensive assessment. *Pain Management Nursing*, 5, 9-18.
17. Attal, N., et.al (2010). EFNS guidelines on the pharmacological treatment of neuropathic pain: 2010 revision. *European journal of neurology*, 17(9), 1113-e88.
18. Votrubic, M., & Thong, I. (2013). Neuropathic pain: A management update. *Australian family physician*, 42(3), 92-97.
19. Bansal, V., Kalita, J., & Misra, U. K. (2006). Diabetic neuropathy. *Postgraduate medical journal*, 82(964), 95-100.
20. Kennedy, W. R., et.al (1996). Quantitation of epidermal nerves in diabetic neuropathy. *Neurology*, 47(4), 1042-1048.
21. Hartemann, A., et.al (2011). Painful diabetic neuropathy: diagnosis and management. *Diabetes & metabolism*, 37(5), 377-388.
22. Hollingshead, J., Dühmke, R. M., & Cornblath, D. R. (2006). Tramadol for neuropathic pain. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews*, (3), CD003726-CD003726.
23. Gilron, I., et.al (2009). Nortriptyline and gabapentin, alone and in combination for neuropathic pain: a double-blind, randomised controlled crossover trial. *The Lancet*, 374(9697), 1252-1261.
24. Helgason, S., Petursson, G., Gudmundsson, S., & Sigurdsson, J. A. (2000). Prevalence of postherpetic neuralgia after a first episode of herpes zoster: prospective study with long term followup. *Bmj*, 321(7264), 794.
25. Nalamachu, S., & Morley-Forster, P. (2012). Diagnosing and managing postherpetic neuralgia. *Drugs & aging*, 29, 863-869.
26. Johnson, R. W. (2010). Herpes zoster and postherpetic neuralgia. *Expert review of vaccines*, 9(sup3), 21-26.
27. Sampathkumar, P., Drage, L. A., & Martin, D. P. (2009, March). Herpes zoster (shingles) and postherpetic neuralgia. In *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* (Vol. 84, No. 3, pp. 274-280). Elsevier.
28. Mallick-Searle, T., Snodgrass, B., & Brant, J. M. (2016). Postherpetic neuralgia: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and pain management pharmacology. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare*, 447-454.
29. Fashner, J., & Bell, A. L. (2011). Herpes zoster and postherpetic neuralgia: prevention and management. *American family physician*, 83(12), 1432-1437.
30. Chandra, K., Shafiq, N., Pandhi, P., Gupta, S., & Malhotra, S. (2006). Gabapentin versus nortriptyline in post-herpetic neuralgia patients: a randomized, double-blind clinical trial--the GONIP Trial. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 44(8).
31. Hempenstall, K., et.al (2005). Analgesic therapy in postherpetic neuralgia: a quantitative systematic review. *PLOS medicine*, 2(7), e164.

32. Argoff, C. E. (2011). Review of current guidelines on the care of postherpetic neuralgia. *Postgraduate medicine*, 123(5), 134-142.
33. Nalamachu, S., & Morley-Forster, P. (2012). Diagnosing and managing postherpetic neuralgia. *Drugs & aging*, 29, 863-869.
34. Oxman, M. N., et.al (2005). A vaccine to prevent herpes zoster and postherpetic neuralgia in older adults. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 352(22), 2271-2284.
35. Yadav, Y., et.al (2017). Trigeminal neuralgia. *Asian journal of neurosurgery*, 12(04), 585-597.
36. Thomas, K. L., & Vilensky, J. A. (2014). The anatomy of vascular compression in trigeminal neuralgia. *Clinical Anatomy*, 27(1), 89-93.
37. Montano, N., et.al (2015). Advances in diagnosis and treatment of trigeminal neuralgia. *Therapeutics and clinical risk management*, 289-299.
38. Eller, J. L., Raslan, A. M., & Burchiel, K. J. (2005). Trigeminal neuralgia: definition and classification. *Neurosurgical focus*, 18(5), 1-3.
39. Tatli, M., Satici, O., Kanpolat, Y., & Sindou, M. (2008). Various surgical modalities for trigeminal neuralgia: literature study of respective long-term outcomes. *Acta neurochirurgica*, 150, 243-255.
40. Rand, S. E., Basu, S., & Khalid, S. (2019). Complex regional pain syndrome: current diagnostic and treatment considerations. *Current Sports Medicine Reports*, 18(9), 325-329.
41. Harden, R. N., et.al (2013). Complex regional pain syndrome: practical diagnostic and treatment guidelines. *Pain medicine*, 14(2), 180-229.
42. Bruehl, S. (2015). Complex regional pain syndrome. *Bmj*, 351.
43. Taylor, S. S., et.al (2021). Complex regional pain syndrome: a comprehensive review. *Pain and Therapy*, 10(2), 875-892.
44. Wasner, G., Schattschneider, J., Binder, A., & Baron, R. (2003). Complex regional pain syndrome—diagnostic, mechanisms, CNS involvement and therapy. *Spinal cord*, 41(2), 61-75.
45. Goh, E. L., Chidambaram, S., & Ma, D. (2017). Complex regional pain syndrome: a recent update. *Burns & trauma*, 5.
46. Karmarkar, A., & Lieberman, I. (2006). Mirror box therapy for complex regional pain syndrome. *Anaesthesia*, 61(4), 412-413.
47. Malik, V. K., et.al (1998). Intravenous regional phenoxybenzamine in the treatment of reflex sympathetic dystrophy. *The Journal of the American Society of Anesthesiologists*, 88(3), 823-827.
48. Van de Vusse, A. C., et.al (2004). Randomised controlled trial of gabapentin in Complex Regional Pain Syndrome type 1 [ISRCTN84121379]. *BMC neurology*, 4, 1-9.
49. Kharkar, S., Ambady, P., Venkatesh, Y. S., & Schwartzman, R. J. (2011). Intramuscular botulinum toxin in complex regional pain syndrome: case series and literature review. *Pain Physician*, 14(5), 419.
50. Mackey, S., & Feinberg, S. (2007). Pharmacologic therapies for complex regional pain syndrome. *Current pain and headache reports*, 11, 38-43.

51. Mathieson, S., et.al (2017). Trial of pregabalin for acute and chronic sciatica. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 376(12), 1111-1120.
52. Robertson, K., et.al (2018). Pregabalin versus gabapentin in the treatment of sciatica: study protocol for a randomised, double-blind, cross-over trial (PAGPROS). *Trials*, 19(1), 1-10.
53. Konstantinou, K., & Dunn, K. M. (2008). Sciatica: review of epidemiological studies and prevalence estimates. *Spine*, 33(22), 2464-2472.
54. Davis, D., Maini, K., & Vasudevan, A. (2018). Sciatica.
55. Valat, J. P., Genevay, S., Marty, M., Rozenberg, S., & Koes, B. (2010). Sciatica. *Best practice & research Clinical rheumatology*, 24(2), 241-252.
56. Aguilar-Shea, A. L., Gallardo-Mayo, C., Sanz-González, R., & Paredes, I. (2022). Sciatica. Management for family physicians. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 11(8), 4174-4179.
57. Jensen, R. K., Kongsted, A., Kjaer, P., & Koes, B. (2019). Diagnosis and treatment of sciatica. *bmj*, 367.
58. Kumar, M., et.al (2011). Epidemiology, pathophysiology and symptomatic treatment of sciatica: a review. *Int. J. Pharm. Biol. Sci. Arch*, 2(4), 1050-1061.
59. Stafford, M. A., Peng, P., & Hill, D. A. (2007). Sciatica: a review of history, epidemiology, pathogenesis, and the role of epidural steroid injection in management. *British journal of anaesthesia*, 99(4), 461-473.
60. SAMINA, Z. A. Q. J. K. (2012). Efficacy of Active Conservative Treatment for Patients With Acute Sciatica. *Journal of Fatima Jinnah Medical University*, 6(3).
61. Mellick, G. A., & Mellick, L. B. (1995). Gabapentin in the management of reflex sympathetic dystrophy. *Journal of pain and symptom management*, 4(10), 265-266.
62. Robertson, K., Marshman, L. A., Plummer, D., & Downs, E. (2019). Effect of gabapentin vs pregabalin on pain intensity in adults with chronic sciatica: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA neurology*, 76(1), 28-34.
63. Ter Meulen, B. C., et.al (2017). Treatment of acute sciatica with transforaminal epidural corticosteroids and local anesthetic: design of a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Musculoskeletal Disorders*, 18, 1-8.
64. Guo, J. R., et.al (2017). A comparison of the efficacy and tolerability of the treatments for sciatica: a network meta-analysis. *Annals of Pharmacotherapy*, 51(12), 1041-1052.
65. Wipperman, J., & Goerl, K. (2016). Carpal tunnel syndrome: diagnosis and management. *American family physician*, 94(12), 993-999.
66. Padua, L., et.al (2016). Carpal tunnel syndrome: clinical features, diagnosis, and management. *The Lancet Neurology*, 15(12), 1273-1284.
67. Keith, M. W., et.al (2009). Diagnosis of carpal tunnel syndrome. *The Journal of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons*, 17(6), 389.
68. Ostergaard, P. J., Meyer, M. A., & Earp, B. E. (2020). Non-operative treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome. *Current reviews in musculoskeletal medicine*, 13, 141-147.
69. Ono, S., Clapham, P. J., & Chung, K. C. (2010). Optimal management of carpal tunnel syndrome. *International journal of general medicine*, 255-261.

70. Concannon, M. J., Brownfield, M. L., & Puckett, C. L. (2000). The incidence of recurrence after endoscopic carpal tunnel release. *Plastic and reconstructive surgery*, 105(5), 1662-1665.
71. Keith, M. W., et.al (2009). Treatment of carpal tunnel syndrome. *JAAOS-Journal of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons*, 17(6), 397-405.
72. Garcia, J. B. S., Barbosa Neto, J. O., Amâncio, E. J., & Andrade, E. T. F. D. (2016). Doresneuropáticascentrais. *Revista Dor*, 17, 67-71.
73. Dydyk, A. M., &Givler, A. (2020). Central pain syndrome.
74. Jensen, K. B., et.al (2013). Overlapping structural and functional brain changes in patients with long- term exposure to fibromyalgia pain. *Arthritis & Rheumatism*, 65(12), 3293-3303.
75. Grinberg, K., Weissman-Fogel, I., Lowenstein, L., Abramov, L., &Granot, M. (2019). How does myofascial physical therapy attenuate pain in chronic pelvic pain syndrome?. *Pain Research and Management*, 2019.
76. Moore, N. Z., Lempka, S. F., & Machado, A. (2014). Central neuromodulation for refractory pain. *Neurosurgery Clinics*, 25(1), 77-83.
77. Tafti, D., Ehsan, M., &Xixis, K. L. (2018). Multiple sclerosis.
78. Huang, W. J., Chen, W. W., & Zhang, X. (2017). Multiple sclerosis: Pathology, diagnosis and treatments. *Experimental and therapeutic medicine*, 13(6), 3163-3166.
79. Borazanci, A. P., et.al (2009). Multiple sclerosis: clinical features, pathophysiology, neuroimaging and future therapies.
80. Ömerhoca, S., Akkaş, S. Y., &İçen, N. K. (2018). Multiple sclerosis: diagnosis and differential diagnosis. *Archives of Neuropsychiatry*, 55(Suppl 1), S1.
81. Shull, C., Hoyle, B., Iannotta, C., Fletcher, E., Curan, M., &Cipollone, V. (2020). A current understanding of multiple sclerosis. *Jaapa*, 33(2), 19-23.
82. Tsang, B. K., & Macdonell, R. (2011). Multiple sclerosis: diagnosis, management and prognosis. *Australian family physician*, 40(12), 948-955.
83. Dobson, R., &Giovannoni, G. (2019). Multiple sclerosis—a review. *European journal of neurology*, 26(1), 27-40.
84. Klit H, Finnerup NB, Jensen TS. Central post-stroke pain: clinical characteristics, pathophysiology, and management. *Lancet Neurol*. 2009 Sep;8(9):857-68. doi: 10.1016/S1474-4422(09)70176-0. PMID: 19679277.
85. Seifert, C. L., Chakravarty, M. M., & Sprenger, T. (2013). A review with a focus on central post-stroke pain. *Panminerva Med*, 55, 1-10.
86. Betancur, D. F. A., Tarragó, M. D. G. L., Torres, I. L. D. S., Fregni, F., &Caumo, W. (2021). Central post-stroke pain: an integrative review of somatotopic damage, clinical symptoms, and neurophysiological measures. *Frontiers in Neurology*, 12, 678198.
87. Kumar, B., Kalita, J., Kumar, G., & Misra, U. K. (2009). Central poststroke pain: a review of pathophysiology and treatment. *Anesthesia& Analgesia*, 108(5), 1645-1657.
88. Siniscalchi, A., De Sarro, G., &Gallelli, L. (2014). Central Post-stroke Pain and Pharmacological Treatment: work in progress. *SOJ Neurol*, 1(1), 1-2.



89. Frese, A., Husstedt, I. W., Ringelstein, E. B., & Evers, S. (2006). Pharmacologic treatment of central post-stroke pain. *The Clinical journal of pain*, 22(3), 252-260.
90. Chen, X., et.al (2022). Antinociception role of 14, 15-epoxyeicosatrienoic acid in a central post-stroke pain model in rats mediated by anti-inflammation and anti-apoptosis effect. *Neurochemistry International*, 154, 105291.
91. Fehlings, M. G., et.al (2017). A clinical practice guideline for the management of patients with acute spinal cord injury and central cord syndrome: recommendations on the timing ( $\leq 24$  hours versus  $> 24$  hours) of decompressive surgery. *Global spine journal*, 7(3\_suppl), 195S-202S.
92. Guha, A., Tator, C. H., Endrenyi, L., & Piper, I. (1987). Decompression of the spinal cord improves recovery after acute experimental spinal cord compression injury. *Spinal Cord*, 25(4), 324-339.
93. Dimar, J. R., Glassman, S. D., Raque, G. H., Zhang, Y. P., & Shields, C. B. (1999). The influence of spinal canal narrowing and timing of decompression on neurologic recovery after spinal cord contusion in a rat model. *Spine*, 24(16), 1623.
94. Fehlings, M. G., & Perrin, R. G. (2006). The timing of surgical intervention in the treatment of spinal cord injury: a systematic review of recent clinical evidence. *Spine*, 31(11S), S28-S35.
95. Tan, J., et.al (2022). Electroacupuncture for Spinal Cord Injury: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomised Controlled Trials. *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 2022
96. Wyndaele, M., & Wyndaele, J. J. (2006). Incidence, prevalence and epidemiology of spinal cord injury: what learns a worldwide literature survey?. *Spinal cord*, 44(9), 523-529.
97. Furlan, J. C., Sakakibara, B. M., Miller, W. C., & Krassioukov, A. V. (2013). Global incidence and prevalence of traumatic spinal cord injury. *Canadian journal of neurological sciences*, 40(4), 456-464.
98. Badhiwala, J. H., Ahuja, C. S., & Fehlings, M. G. (2018). Time is spine: a review of translational advances in spinal cord injury: JNSPG 75th Anniversary Invited Review Article. *Journal of Neurosurgery: Spine*, 30(1), 1-18.
99. Singh, A., Tetreault, L., Kalsi-Ryan, S., Nouri, A., & Fehlings, M. G. (2014). Global prevalence and incidence of traumatic spinal cord injury. *Clinical epidemiology*, 309-331.
100. Bennett, J., & Emmady, P. D. (2020). Spinal Cord Injuries.
101. Waters, R. L., Adkins, R. H., & Yakura, J. S. (1991). Definition of complete spinal cord injury. *Spinal Cord*, 29(9), 573-581.
102. Shah, M., Peterson, C., Yilmaz, E., Halalmeh, D. R., & Moisi, M. (2020). Current advancements in the management of spinal cord injury: A comprehensive review of literature. *Surgical neurology international*, 11.
103. Hugenholtz, H., et.al (2002). High-dose methylprednisolone for acute closed spinal cord injury-only a treatment option. *Canadian journal of neurological sciences*, 29(3), 227-235.

104. Wilson, J. R., Forgione, N., & Fehlings, M. G. (2013). Emerging therapies for acute traumatic spinal cord injury. *Cmaj*, 185(6), 485-492.
105. Rouanet, C., Reges, D., Rocha, E., Gagliardi, V., & Silva, G. S. (2017). Traumatic spinal cord injury: current concepts and treatment update. *Arquivos de neuro-psiquiatria*, 75, 387-393.
106. Bracken, M. B., et al. (1990). A randomized, controlled trial of methylprednisolone or naloxone in the treatment of acute spinal-cord injury: results of the Second National Acute Spinal Cord Injury Study. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 322(20), 1405-1411.
107. Bracken, M. B., et al. (1997). Administration of methylprednisolone for 24 or 48 hours or tirilazad mesylate for 48 hours in the treatment of acute spinal cord injury: results of the third national acute spinal cord injury randomized controlled trial. *Jama*, 277(20), 1597-1604.
108. Zhang, Y., et al. (2021). Acute spinal cord injury: Pathophysiology and pharmacological intervention. *Molecular medicine reports*, 23(6), 1-18.
109. Squair, J. W., et al. (2018). Minocycline reduces the severity of autonomic dysreflexia after experimental spinal cord injury. *Journal of neurotrauma*, 35(24), 2861-2871.
110. Zhang, H., et al. (2018). Antitumor and anti-inflammatory effects of oligosaccharides from *Cistanchedeserticola* extract on spinal cord injury. *International journal of biological macromolecules*, 124, 360-367.
111. Venkatesh, K., Ghosh, S. K., Mullick, M., Manivasagam, G., & Sen, D. (2019). Spinal cord injury: pathophysiology, treatment strategies, associated challenges, and future implications. *Cell and tissue research*, 377, 125-151.
112. Mojtahedzadeh, M., et al. (2019). Management of hypotension and bradycardia caused by spinal cord injury. The usefulness of midodrine and methylxanthines. *Iranian journal of pharmaceutical research: IJPR*, 18(4), 2131.
113. Knoblach, S. M., et al. (2004). Caspase inhibitor z-DEVD-fmk attenuates calpain and necrotic cell death in vitro and after traumatic brain injury. *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism*, 24(10), 1119-1132..
114. Barros Filho, T. E. P., Araujo, F. F. D., Higino, L. D. P., MARCON, R., & Cristante, A. F. (2016). The effect of monosialoganglyoside (GM-1) administration in spinal cord injury. *Acta ortopedicabrasileira*, 24, 123-126.
115. Geisler, F. H., Coleman, W. P., Grieco, G., Poonian, D., & Sygen Study Group. (2001). The Sygen® multicenter acute spinal cord injury study. *Spine*, 26(24S), S87-S98.
116. Zhou, Y., Wang, Z., Li, J., Li, X., & Xiao, J. (2018). Fibroblast growth factors in the management of spinal cord injury. *Journal of cellular and molecular medicine*, 22(1), 25-37.
117. Clarke, W. E., Berry, M., Smith, C., Kent, A., & Logan, A. (2001). Coordination of fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 (FGFR1) and fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) trafficking to nuclei of reactive astrocytes around cerebral lesions in adult rats. *Molecular and Cellular Neuroscience*, 17(1), 17-30.

118. Koshinaga, M., Sanon, H. R., & Whittemore, S. R. (1993). Altered acidic and basic fibroblast growth factor expression following spinal cord injury. *Experimental neurology*, 120(1), 32-48.
119. Kitamura, K., et.al (2019). Application of hepatocyte growth factor for acute spinal cord injury: the road from basic studies to human treatment. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 20(5), 1054.
120. Wilson, J. R., Forgione, N., & Fehlings, M. G. (2013). Emerging therapies for acute traumatic spinal cord injury. *Cmaj*, 185(6), 485-492.
121. James, N. D., McMahon, S. B., Field-Fote, E. C., & Bradbury, E. J. (2018). Neuromodulation in the restoration of function after spinal cord injury. *The Lancet Neurology*, 17(10), 905-917.
122. Gazdic, M., et.al (2018). Stem cells therapy for spinal cord injury. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 19(4), 1039.
123. Gorgey, A. S. (2018). Robotic exoskeletons: The current pros and cons. *World journal of orthopedics*, 9(9), 112.
124. Miller, L. E., Zimmermann, A. K., & Herbert, W. G. (2016). Clinical effectiveness and safety of powered exoskeleton-assisted walking in patients with spinal cord injury: systematic review with meta-analysis. *Medical Devices: Evidence and Research*, 455-466.