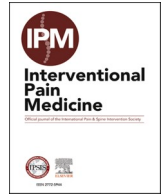




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# Interventional Pain Medicine

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## Trial or not trial in the practice of spinal cord stimulation. That's the question

The complex interplay of clinical and psychosocial factors that determine patients' eligibility for the implantation of spinal cord stimulation systems (SCS), for chronic pain control has led to selection criteria generally being based only on clinical and functional variables, mainly subjective, with wide differences between implant centers. The available guidelines [1–4] are not sufficiently explicit in their recommendations and certainly do not address the great heterogeneity of patients seen in daily clinical practice. Therefore, traditionally, it has been recommended to implant the SCS device in two phases, without an exact definition of the duration of the trial phase, but with the aim of identifying those patients who would benefit from the definitive implant, evaluating the ability of the device to cover the patient's expectations, meaning pain area and the level of associated paresthesia [5]. However, a 50% improvement in the long term has been demonstrated both in patients implanted after a satisfactory trial phase and in patients implanted in a single stage [6,7], and that false positive and false negative results can lead to long-term treatment failures [5].

In addition to the aspects previously outlined, the most common causes for the failure of the SCS trial phase were, the possible infection of the implant by the externalization of the electrode and its connection to the temporary battery [8,9], and the displacement and migration of the electrodes [10], due to the dressing detaching and, therefore pulling the electrode out of the target position set for the trial phase.

All these reasons make it clear that it is necessary to look for new alternatives that avoid the specific risks of the trial phase without diminishing the efficiency criterion that must mark at all times the process of implanting SCS in patients with chronic pain. In this sense, different authors [7,11,12], hypothesize that performing an implant in a single stage, is not only safer for the patient, but also cost-effective, since the trial phase requires the duplication of procedures, thus consuming more health resources and its consequent associated cost [13].

The studies published to date have questioned the prognostic value of the trial phase [14,15], given that its realization is based on expert opinion, and despite its habitual use, it does not have a consistent level of evidence.

In this issue of the journal is published the article of De Negri et al. [16], in which a single-stage SCS procedure, and subsequent evaluation at 3 and up to 12 months with an average follow-up of 408 days, is presented as a real world practice. In this study, patients were tested on-table prior to immediate implantation. The authors do not give more information on how the test was performed, its duration, or the objective of symptomatic control posed to the patient. A mean  $5.0 \pm 2.1$ -point improvement (from 8.1 to 3.1; n. 109) in overall pain was reported at 3 months post-implantation and sustained at 12 months follow-up. Weinand et al. [17], conducted a study to compare the results of a short (15

minutes intraoperative) and prolonged (5 days) trial phase, concluding that their predictive value is equivalent. The test, both short and long in time, appears to have equivalent predictive value for the long-term outcome of SCS in the control of chronic low back and/or lower extremity pain. Colombo et al. [18], evaluated the long-term clinical efficacy of SCS in patients who had a trial phase and in patients who, on the contrary, underwent an immediate permanent implant. Pain reduction, as measured by variation in visual analogue scale (VAS) score, was greater in patients who underwent a permanent implant directly without a trial phase (59.5% vs. 71.4%). The recent articles from Eldabe et al. [11,12], and more importantly that of Chadwick et al. [19], quarantine our way of working so far. Results<sup>196</sup> indicate an overwhelming preference among patients for a single-time SCS implantation procedure. The reasons for this preference include among others, time savings (outside of work, in the hospital, attending appointments); avoiding the worry of having "loose cables" and their possible complications; and saving health resources (time of doctors and other staff, medical devices and materials). In addition, the advantage of having a single surgical intervention and a recovery period.

The evidence accumulated in the different published clinical studies undoubtedly leads us to propose a new scenario of the global management of SCS implantation in patients with chronic pain. Clinical practice reinforces the need to redefine the characteristics of patients who can select responders to SCS therapy [20]. Recently, a tool for assessing patients to be implanted ([scstool.org](http://scstool.org)) has been created based on a consensus at European level [21]. This tool allows, in four cases (PSPS, ischemic pain, CRPS and peripheral neuropathic pain), to assess the probability of success of the therapy from a clinical and psychological point of view. But there are also unknowns, how to assess, and what to do with those patients in whom there is a higher risk of failure after implantation, or with pathologies not included in this assessment tool, but who frequently benefit from stimulation.

In a recent article, Pahapill et al. [22], attempt to find an answer to the selection of the right candidate for SCS, performing magnetic resonance imaging scans of functional anatomical connectivity and at rest (rs) in all cases of Persistent Spinal Pain Syndrome (PSPS) before your planned surgery for implantation of a permanent SCS system. The authors specifically present a quantitative and objective measure of chronic pain specific to PSPS patients, reporting a report of altered functional internetwork connectivity involving emotion/reward brain circuits that is related to individual patients' pain scores with a negative correlation.

The efficacy of functional magnetic resonance imaging to be sensitive to the detection and identification of functional brain networks, is definitely a candidate area to provide information to predict the

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outcomes of SCS implantation [23], or to show pairwise brain areas, and volumetric changes in left putamen [23], or gray and white matter [24], suggesting the reversibility of brain alterations after chronic pain treatment using SCS.

Smart or closed-loop neuromodulation [25] allows for personalized and adjustable neuromodulation that usually incorporates the recording of a biomarker, followed by the implementation of an algorithm that decides the timing (when?) and energy (how much?) of the stimulation. Closed-loop neuromodulation has been shown to have greater benefits compared to open-loop neuromodulation in the management of patients with chronic pain [26–28]. However, an important aspect of the technique is the selection of an appropriate biomarker, preferably neural. Neurochemical detection can provide high-resolution biomarker monitoring for various neurological disorders, as well as offer deeper insight into neurological mechanisms. The chemicals of interest that are measured can be ions such as potassium (K<sup>+</sup>), sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>), calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>), hydrogen (H<sup>+</sup>) or neurotransmitters such as dopamine, serotonin and glutamate [29].

Recent research reveals that the implantation of a SCS in patients with chronic pain can have effects at the level of expression and release of proteins. Lind et al. [30] observed alterations in 86 proteins with the use of DBS. The most relevant were Gelsolin, Clusterin, VEGF, Angiotensinogen, Amyloid Beta Protein A4, Apoprotein E, Apoprotein C1, DKK3, Mimosin and Secretogranin 1. Other studies also postulate a decrease in vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) in patients with neuropathic pain with functioning DBS [31]. Also, the implantation of the neurostimulator has been linked to changes in metalloproteinases. Specifically, MMP-2 levels increased after one month after implantation and remained high 3 months after implantation, but no change was observed in MMP-9 [32]. On the other hand, the implantation of DBS leads to an increase in the local production in the spinal cord of neurotransmitters such as serotonin, substance P, acetylcholine, glycin and GABA, with simultaneous decreases of amino acids glutamate and aspartate [30].

We carried out a research work [33], to determine the gene and protein expression of markers of the opioid system (mu, kapa and delta receptors and opioid peptides (proenkephalin (PENK))dynorphin), the cannabinoid system (CB1 and CB2 receptors) and the inflammatory process (interleukin 1beta, TNFalpha) before and at various times after neurostimulation in lymphocytes and plasma of these patients. A positive correlation was observed between changes in VAS scores and PENK, as PENK changes increased, so did pain intensity.

Therefore, there is growing evidence in the literature, both clinical and experimental, on the existence of potent adaptive interactions between the central and peripheral aspects of the neuroimmune system in the genesis and maintenance of chronic neuropathic pain in the extremities and nociceptive back pain and the possible interaction caused by SCS [34]. All of the findings presented above may have important implications for the potential applications of neurostimulation. as anti-inflammatory therapy and the role of molecular profiling as a pre-implant detection modality and validation of post-implant results. Therefore, clinical and experimental research conducted in the future is highly justified in this particular new field of neuromodulation.

As a final reflection we must conclude that the evidence indicates that, although there may be some diagnostic utility of a trial phase for the implantation of SCS, compared to a strategy without detection, there is no benefit in the result, in the medium and long term, of the patient, in addition to supposing an increase in costs that represents a poor value for money. Undoubtedly, technological advances will provide us tools [35], that allow optimized selection based on objective data together with the communication received from the patient, which will allow predicting the suitability of the candidate in the screening phase, as well as providing objective data on the effectiveness of the SCS system during its operation, being able to correlate them with the patient's clinical symptoms.

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