

Clinical Study and Management of Phantom Limb Pain

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Abstract

Phantom limb pain is defined as abnormal sensation from an amputated limb. There is overwhelming evidence regarding central nervous system changes in phantom limb pain, however the role of peripheral mechanisms and psychological factors are as important in the pathogenesis of phantom limb pain. Phantom limb pain is a very common condition in patients with amputation. The phantom limb pain should be differentiated from non-painful phantom sensation, residual limb pain and stump pain secondary to bony overgrowths. The treatment of phantom limb pain is difficult. The evidence for the use of pharmacological approaches for phantom limb pain is weak and non-pharmacological approaches do not work for most of the patients. Prolonged phantom limb pain interferes with the ongoing rehabilitation and prosthetic fitting leading to poor functional outcome. Multi treatment approach, tailored to the individual needs of the patients, has the best chance of improving the symptoms of phantom limb pain and functional outcome.

Keywords: Phantom Limb; Pain; Amputation.

Introduction

Phantom limb pain can be defined as pain or discomfort felt by an amputee in the area of the missing limb [1]. Approximately 60 to 80% of

individuals with an amputation will experience phantom sensations in their amputated limb, and the majority of the sensations are painful

- a. Phantom limb pain: Painful sensations referred to the absent limb.
- b. Phantom limb sensation : Any sensation in the absent limb, except pain.
- c. Stump pain: Pain localized in the stump.

These elements often coexist in each patient and may be difficult to separate. A low incidence of 2% has been reported in earliest literature [1]. The occurrence of phantom pain seems to be independent of age in adults, gender and level, or side of amputation [37,45]. Phantom pain is less frequent in young children and congenital amputees. The incidence in congenital limb deficiency was 3.7% when compared to the traumatic group (48.5%). There is no relationship between the age in adults, gender, side or level of amputation, general health status and the phantom limb pain [2,6-8]. This original article discusses the nature, characteristics, mechanisms and treatment options available for phantom limb pain.

Method and Selection Criteria

Forty patients presenting with PVD with ischemic limb, diabetic foot with spreading cellulitis, and gangrenous foot, were admitted in our Hospital.

Duration of Study - 6 Months

Period of Study - 1st June 2016 to 30th December 2016

The method of the study consisted of taking a good clinical history in chronological order as soon as the patient was operated. This study discusses

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incidence, the nature and characteristics of phantom limb pain, risk factors such as stress, anxiety and depression associated with it. 40 patients studied over the period of 6 months at regular follow up was done for every 1 week, 2 week, one month and 3 month.

Inclusion Criteria

All amputated patients regardless cause of amputation in our Hospital.

Exclusion Criteria

Children and Congenital deficiency of limbs.

Results

1. *Incidence:* the study showed that incidence

phantom limb pain about 86%. However, more recent studies report incidences of 60-80%. The occurrence of phantom limb pain seems to be independent of age in adults, gender and level or side of amputation [46,47]. It is also generally agreed that the incidence of pain is similar following civilian or military accidents [32,37].

2. Nature and Characteristics of Phantom Limb

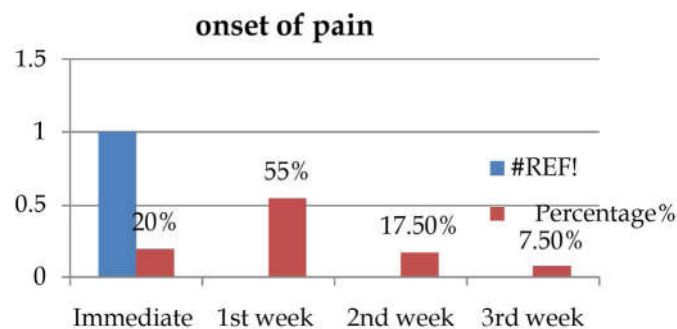
1. *Onset of pain:* onset of pain is very early. In our study it is shown that among 40 patients 8 patients developed pain immediately after amputation, 22 patients developed in first week, 7 patients in 2nd week and 3 patients in 3rd week. 75% patients develop pain in first week itself. Several studies show that 75% patients develop pain within the first few days after amputation.

At least three prospective studies have examined

Table 1:

Duration	No of Patients	Percentage%
Immediate	8	20%
1 st week	22	55%
2 nd week	7	17.5%
3 rd week	3	7.5%

Fig. 1: Onset of pain



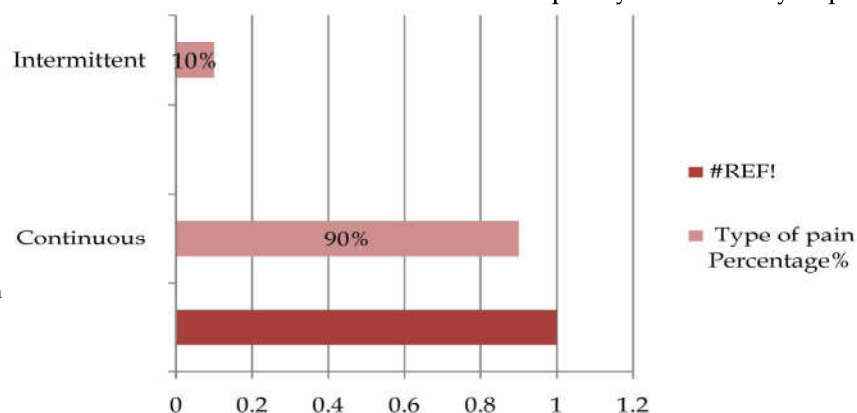
the duration phantom pain. Parkes found that 85% of 46 amputees had phantom pain immediately after amputation.

Continuous or intermittent: study shows 36

patients had intermittent pain and 4 patients had continuous pain. Some studies show phantom pain is usually intermittent and few patients are in constant pain [46].

2. Frequency and intensity of pain: incidence and

Fig. 2: Type of pain



Type of Pain	Total No Patients	Percentage%
Continuous	36	90%
Intermittent	4	10%

intensity of pain remained constant during follow up, both frequency and duration of pain attacks decreased significantly..

3. Type of pain: studied shows that 70% patients

had shooting type of pain, 10% patient had stabbing type and 10% patients had squeezing or burning and boring type.

4. Location of phantom pain: location of phantom

Table 2:

Character of Pain	No of Patients	Percentage %
Shooting	28	70%
Stabbing	4	10%
Squeezing or burning or boring	4	10%

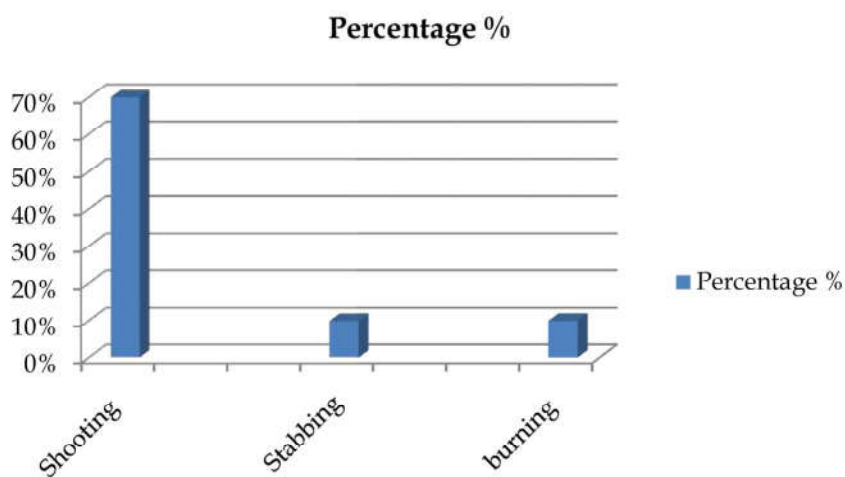


Fig. 2: Character of pain

limb is usually distal part of amputated limb, toes instep, top of the foot, ankle [38]. In our study it is shown that 30 patients had pain over foot, 6

patients had over the ankle joint and 4 patients shown over the foot.

5. Pain with duration of time: In our study it is

Location of Pain	No of Patients	Percentages%
Over the foot	30	75
Over the ankle	6	15
Toes	4	10

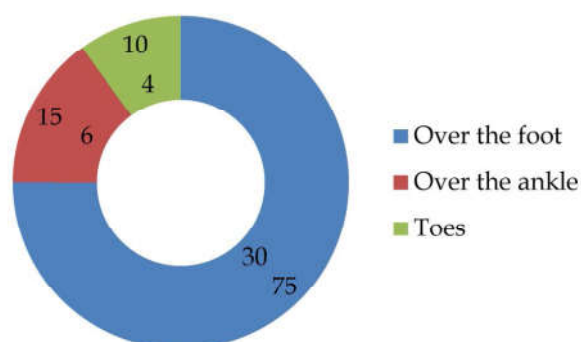


Fig. 4: Location of phantom pain

shown that 10 patients pain disappeared, decreased markedly in 12 patients, remain similar in 6 patients, increased in 2 patients. 59 Wartan and colleagues British vererans with longstanding amputations and reported that

phantom limb disappeared in 16%, decreased markedly in 37%, remained similar in 44% and increased in 3% of the respondents.

Table 3:

Pain with Duration of Time	No of Patients	Percentage ^o %
Disappeared	10	25
Decreased	12	30
Remain similar	6	15
Increased	2	5

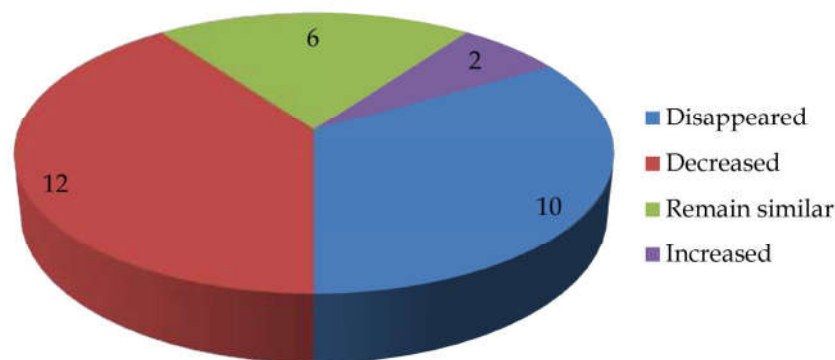


Fig. 3: Pain with duration of time

3. Risk Factors Associated with Pain

- Relationship between pre amputation pain and phantom limb pain: in our study it is shown that der is significant association between preamputation pain and phantom limb pain
- Factors that modulate the experience of phantom limb pain. Some patients with anxiety/ emotional distress had experienced phantom limb pain. Using prosthesis also aggravated phantom pain in some patients.
- Depression vs severity of pain
- Management of phantom limb pain: our study shows non steroidal anti inflammatory drugs more effective by its mechanism of inhibition of the enzymes needed for the synthesis of prostaglandin and decreasing the nociception peripherally and centrally.

Tricyclic antidepressants used in few patients but role is not well established. A recent study reported excellent phantom limb pain control with an average dose of 55mg amitriptyline.

Serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors had little role in phantom limbs as shows in our study.

Case Discussion

The first medical description of post-amputation sensation was given by Ambroise Pare (1510±1590), a French military surgeon, who noticed that patients may complain of severe pain in the missing limb following amputation. In his 'Haquebusses and other guns', Pare characterized the post amputation syndrome and proposed different models to explain the pain. 45 Subsequent studies by Charles Bell (1830), Magendie (1833), Rhone (1842), GueÂniot (1861) and others provided detailed descriptions of the phenomenon and, in 1871, Mitchell coined the term phantom limb [25].

Phantom limb pain can be defined as pain or discomfort felt by an amputee in the area of the missing limb [1]. Approximately 60 to 80% of individuals with an amputation will experience phantom sensations in their amputated limb, and the majority of the sensations are painful [1]. Phantom limb pain is more common in upper limb amputee as compared to lower limb amputee [3] and in females than males

The phantom complex includes three different

elements.

- Phantom limb pain: Painful sensations referred to the absent limb. .
- Phantom limb sensation: Any sensation in the absent limb, except pain.
- Stump pain: Pain localized in the stump

These elements often coexist in each patient and may be difficult to separate.

It is now clear that nerve injury is followed by a series of changes in the peripheral and the central nervous system and that these changes may play a role in the induction and maintenance of chronic phantom pain. Although phantom pains may occur following amputation of body parts other than limbs. There is no relationship between the age in adults, gender, side or level of amputation, general health status and the phantom limb pain. This study discusses risk factors, the nature, characteristics, mechanisms and treatment options available for phantom limb pain.

The risk factors for the development of phantom limb pain following an amputation are female sex, upper extremity amputation, and presence of pre-amputation pain, anxiety, depression and stress [17].

The amputees describe phantom pain as stabbing, boring, shooting, squeezing, throbbing or burning in nature. It is usually intermittent and very occasionally constant. The phantom pain attacks can range from few times per day to few per week [12]. The location of the phantom limb pain is usually in the distal parts of the amputated limb. Hence upper limb amputee pain is experienced in fingers and palms and for lower limb amputee painful areas are toes, top of the foot and ankle [8,13].

Phantom limb pain usually develops very early following the amputation. The literature suggests that 75% of patients develop phantom limb pain within the first week of their amputation [8,9]. However phantom limb pain has also been reported to occur months or years following the amputation [10]. Phantom limb pain is usually intermittent. The frequency and intensity of the pain is variable and generally tends to decrease with time in 44% and increased in 3% of the respondents.

Etiology and Mechanisms of Phantom Limb Pain

Different theories have been proposed for phantom limb pain over the years. Initially it was thought to be a psychiatric illness [17]. Later the dominant theory for the cause of phantom limb pain was severed nerve endings and formation of neuroma.

With the accumulation of research in recent years, phantom limb pain is thought to develop due to the changes in the both peripheral and central nervous system. However, none of these theories tends to explain the phenomenon of phantom limb pain very clearly and multiple mechanisms are likely responsible [17].

A. Peripheral Mechanisms

Phantom pain is significantly more prevalent in those amputees who have long-term stump pain than without any stump pain [13]. During the amputation operation various peripheral nerves are cut, resulting in massive tissue and neuronal injury. The severed nerve endings then sprout to form neuromas. There is increased accumulation of sodium channels in these neuromas that causes increased excitability and spontaneous discharge (abnormal peripheral activity). This abnormal peripheral activity secondary to up-regulation of sodium channel causes stump and phantom pain [18]. The cells in the dorsal root ganglion also undergo changes following injury to the nerves resulting in upregulation of the sodium channel. The upregulated sodium channels in the dorsal root ganglion cells have increased sensitivity to mechanical and neurochemical stimulation causing stump and phantom limb pain [21].

B. Role of Sympathetic Nervous System in Phantom Pain

The role of sympathetic nervous system has been studied in animal models whereby application of norepinephrine or activation of the post-ganglionic sympathetic fibres excites and sensitizes damaged but not normal nerve fibers [22]. Sympatholytic blocks have been shown to abolish phantom limb pain and injection of norepinephrine into the skin causes the phantom pain to return [23]. Similarly injection of norepinephrine around the stump neuroma is painful even long after an amputation [24].

C. Changes at the Level of Spinal Cord

Abnormal connections are established between the proximal section of the amputated peripheral nerve and the neurons in the spinal cord. This abnormal sprouting causes increased neuronal activity, expansion of the neuronal receptive field and hyperexcitability within the spinal cord, a process called central sensitization. At the same neurotransmitters like substance P, tachykinins and neurokinins mediate increased activity at the NMDA receptors [25]. All these changes at the spinal cord

level causes upregulation of the re-ceptors at the spinal cord level and this phenomenon is called “windup phenomenon” [25]. Changes in the de-scending inhibitory pathways are also observed in phantom limb pain where the target neurons for these inhibitory pathways may be lost resulting in the nociceptive inputs reaching the supra spinal centres without any spinal cord inhibition.

D. Changes at the Level of Brain (Cortical Reorganization and Body Schema)

The reorganization of the motor and sensory cortex can help to explain the painful sen-sations in the phantom limb pain. This phenomenon has been studied extensively in both animals and hu-man models following amputation and deafferentation. The process of cortical reorganization means that the areas of the brain representing the amputated limb are taken over by the neighboring zones in both the primary motor and sensory cortex [18,26,27]. The extent of cortical reorganization is directly related to the degree of pain. Several imaging studies have correlated that greater extent of somatosensory cortex involvement is associated with more intense phantom limb experience [28,29,30].

E. Psychogenic Mechanism

The liter-ature does not support the concept that phantom limb pain is psychogenic in nature despite the fact that stress, exhaustion and depression tends to aggravate the phantom limb pain³⁵. A recent cross-sectional study found that amputation in people with personality traits characterized by passive coping styles and catastro-phizing behavior was associated with the development of phantom limb pain independent of anxiety and depression [36]. Most research on the relationship between psychological symptoms and phantom limb pain has been retrospective and cross sectional rather than longitudinal and thus limited inferences can be derived from them effective in There are no agreed specific treat-ment guidelines for phantom limb pain. The aim is self-management of the pain and rehabilitation of the patient with multidisciplinary involvement. This can be done through pharmacological and no-pharmacological approaches.

Pharmacological Approaches

Var-ious medications have been used to treat phantom limb pain with varying results.

- *Preemptive Use of Analgesics and Anesthetics:* during the preoperative period is believed to prevent the noxious stimulus from the amputated site from triggering changes and central neural sensitization. This in turn may prevent the amplification of future impulses from the am-putation site [37]. Karanikolas et al [19] in a prospective randomized clinical trial in 2011 showed a decrease in phantom limb pain at six months following amputation when optimized epidural analgesia or intravenous patient controlled analgesia was started between 48 hours preoperatively and 48 hours postoperatively.
- *Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflamma-tory Drugs (NSAIDs)* in a cross sectional study was found to be the most common medications used in the treatment of phantom limb pain [39]. The analgesic mecha-nism of NSAIDs is inhibition of the enzymes needed for the synthesis of prostaglandin and decreasing the nociception peripherally and centrally.
- *Tricyclic Antidepressants (TCA)* are among the most com-monly used medications for var-ious neuropathic pains including phantom limb pain. Although the TCAs are very effective in treating neuropathic pain but their role in treating phantom limb pain is not very well established. The analgesic action of tricyclic anti-depressant is mainly due to the inhibition of serotonin-norepi-nephine uptake blockade, NMDA receptor antagonism, and sodium channel blockade [40]. A recent study reported excellent phantom limb pain control with an average dose of 55mg of amitriptyline [41], but there are others in which tricyclic antidepressants had no effect on phantom limb pain control [42]. Nortriptyline, imipramine and de-sipramine are equally effective in treating phantom limb pain when compared with amitriptyline with fewer side effects [43].
- *Serotonin Norepinephrine Reuptake Inhibitors (SNRI)* like duloxetine is very effective in peripheral diabetic neuropathy. There is no strong evidence in the literature to suggest its ef-fectiveness in phantom limb pain and further research is need in this field. There are case reports demonstrating good effect of duloxetine in the treatment of phantom limb pain [44]. A small case series also demonstrated the effectiveness of mirtazapine, an alpha 2-receptor antagonist with fewer side effects than tricyclic antidepressants in the treatment of phantom limb pain [45].
- *Anticonvulsants* like antidepres-sants have shown

mixed results in phantom limb pain. Gabapentin is the agent with most convincing evidence in phantom limb pain but again with mixed results [46-48]. Carbamazepine, a non-specific sodium channel blocker, has been reported to reduce the brief stabbing and lancinating pain associated with phantom sensations [17]. Oxcarbazepine, pregabalin and Lamotrigine all may have a role in the treatment of phantom limb pain, but further studies are required [17,49].

- *Opioids* use in phantom limb pain is controversial and their use is limited due to the side effects and potential for abuse. Opioids bind to the peripheral and central opioid receptors and provide analgesia. They may also diminish cortical reorganization and disrupt one of the proposed mechanisms of phantom limb pain [50]. Randomized controlled trials have demonstrated the effectiveness of opioids (oxycodone, methadone, morphine, and levorphanol) for the treatment of neuropathic pain including phantom limb pain [17]. Comparative trials have also shown benefit with opioids when compared with tricyclic antidepressants and gabapentin though the opioids were associated with more frequent side effects. The total amount of opioid required to achieve analgesia may be less when used together with other agents, such as tricyclic antidepressants or anticonvulsants, which also have use in neuropathic pain modulation [17]. Tramadol is an analgesic with both with mono-aminergic and opioid activity and can be used as an alternative to strong opioids as tolerance and dependence with tramadol long-term use are uncommon.

Nonpharmacological Approaches

The combination of pharmacological and nonpharmacological approaches together can help to manage the phantom limb pain.

- *Transcutaneous Electrical Nerve Stimulation (TENS)* has been traditionally used in the management of phantom limb pain. It is portable, easy to use, cheap and without any side effects. There have been various studies showing the effectiveness of TENS in the phantom limb pain.
- *Mirror Therapy* was first introduced by Ramachandran in 1996, and help to resolve the visual-proprioceptive dissociation in the brain. Although the use of mirror therapy has been shown to be some cases there is still no widely accepted theory of how it works. In a 2010 study

of phantom limb pain, Martin Diers and his colleagues in a randomized, controlled trial that used graded motor imagery and mirror training, found that patients with phantom limb pain showed a decrease in pain as well as an improvement in function post-treatment and at the 6-month follow-up. However, they also showed that mirrored imagery produced no significant cortical activity in patients with phantom limb pain and concluded that the optimal method to alter pain and brain representation, and the brain mechanisms underlying the effects of mirror training or motor imagery, are still unclear.

Surgical Interventions

Surgical Interventions are usually used when other treatment methods have failed. Stump revision is offered only when the cause of phantom limb pain is secondary to stump or wound problems. If a neuroma is diagnosed clinically and confirmed on the scan then neurectomy is the treatment of choice. There is no role of sympathectomy, cordotomy and local nerve blocks in the treatment of phantom limb pain. A case report showed that, for selected patients, who have not obtained adequate relief with medical management, spinal cord stimulation was found to be effective. Case reports of improvement of phantom limb pain with deep brain stimulation of the periventricular gray matter and thalamic nuclei have been published. Motor cortex stimulation was also found to be helpful in a case of phantom limb pain. A case report of electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) showed positive outcome even though the mechanism and role of ECT in phantom limb pain is unclear.

Conclusion

Phantom limb pain is relatively common condition and causes marked functional and psychological disability. These are no agreed pathophysiological mechanism for the condition. Specific treatments are still evolving and majority of the treatments are based on the treatment recommendations for chronic neuropathic pain. Multi-treatment approach, tailored to the individual needs of the patient, has the best chance of improving the symptoms of phantom limb pain and the functional outcome. Moreover pre-amputation consultation with a specialist in pain or rehabilitation medicine with regular follow-up in the post-amputation period can have positive impact of functional outcomes.

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