Characterization of neuropathic component of back pain in patients with osteoporotic vertebral fractures

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- 10 Received 17 February 2022
- Accepted 21 April 2022 11
- Abstract. 12
- BACKGROUND: Osteoporotic vertebral fractures (OVFs) are often followed by chronic back pain which may have a 13 nociceptive, neuropathic, or mixed component. However, literature on this topic is lacking. 14
- **OBJECTIVE:** The objective of this cross-sectional study is to characterize the neuropathic component of chronic back pain 15 in patients with OVFs. 16
- METHODS: Spine fractures were detected by morphometric examination. Pain severity and its impact on daily living 17
- activities (ADL) were evaluated through the Brief Pain Inventory (BPI). Neuropathic pain was investigated through the 18 Italian Versions of the Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs pain scale (LANSS) and the painDETECT 19
- questionnaire (PD-Q). 20

RESULTS: We included 72 patients, mainly women (88.8%), with mean age of 69.2 years. The 70.8% of patients had 21

- multiple OVFs, of which 47% located at the thoracic spine, 43.1% at the thoracic and at lumbar spine, and 9.8% at the lumbar 22
- spine. The BPI showed moderate back pain in 23.6% of cases and severe in 8.3% of cases, with high interference with ADL 23 in 38.9% of patients. The PD-Q revealed the presence of neuropathic pain in 5.5% of cases, while the S-LANSS in 23.6% of 24
- 25 cases.
- CONCLUSIONS: In our study, the prevalence of neuropathic component of chronic back pain ranged from 5.5% to 23.6%, 26 according to PD-Q and LANSS respectively, in patients with OVFs. Further studies should investigate if the characterization 27 28 of chronic back pain might contribute to appropriateness of interventions for this population.
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Keywords: Osteoporosis, vertebral fractures, back pain, chronic pain, neuropathic pain

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1. Introduction

Osteoporosis (OP) is a systemic skeletal disease characterized by poor bone strength that predisposes to increased risk for fracture (Tella & Gallagher, 2014). Typically, fragility fractures of appendicular skeleton are a consequence of low energy trauma due to mechanical forces equivalent to a fall from upright

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or lower position, and which normally should not 37 cause a fracture (National Institute for Health and 38 Care Excellence, 2017). On the other hand, vertebral 39 fractures, the most common osteoporotic fractures, 40 are rarely related to a fall or trauma in general and 41 often go undiagnosed due to little or no acute pain; 42 therefore, their incidence in the general population is 43 underestimated. However osteoporotic vertebral frac-44 tures (OVFs) can lead to chronic back pain, disability, 45 and increased risk for new vertebral and non-vertebral 46 fragility fractures (Tarantino et al., 2010). 47

The pathophysiology of bone pain in patients with 48 OVFs is poorly understood and often assimilated to 49 the pain experienced in other diseases or present in 50 experimental models (Mediati et al., 2014). Noci-51 ceptors of the vertebral body are mainly located in 52 the trabecular tissue and at the center of the end-53 plate (Antonacci et al., 1998; Fagan et al., 2003), and 54 contain specific peptide, such as the Transient Recep-55 tor Potential Vanilloid 1 (TRPV1), an acid-sensing 56 receptor that are activated by acidic and inflamma-57 tory microenvironment resulting from osteoclastic 58 bone resorption that is responsible for increased 59 responsiveness of nociceptors (peripheral sensitiza-60 tion) (Nagae et al., 2006; Orita et al., 2010). In 61 osteoporotic animal models, also dorsal root gan-62 glia (DRG) neurons showed increased expression of 63 TRPV1 and in addition of calcitonin gene-related 64 peptide (CGRP), key mediators for the development 65 of neuropathic pain as well as of peripheral and cen-66 tral sensitization (Orita et al., 2010). Therefore, it has 67 been hypothesized that also neuropathic mechanisms 68 play a key role in the genesis of back pain following 69 OVFs (Suzuki et al., 2013). Neuropathic pain affects 70 7-10% of the general population and 37% of patients 71 with chronic back pain presents clinical features of 72 both neuropathic and nociceptive pain (Freynhagen 73 et al., 2006). 74

Literature about characterization of the neuro-75 pathic component of chronic back pain in patients 76 with OVFs is lacking. The aim of this study is there-77 fore to characterize the prevalence of neuropathic 78 component of chronic back pain in patients with 79 OVFs. 80

2. Materials and methods 81

2.1. Participants 82

We conducted a cross-sectional study, satisfying 83 the STROBE checklist criteria specific for this kind of 84

study. Participants were consecutively recruited at a rehabilitation outpatient service dedicated to the management of osteoporosis (Fracture Liaison Service, FLS). They were informed about the study protocol and provided informed consent to the processing of personal data. Patients who satisfied the following criteria were included: (1) presence of chronic back pain (persisting for more than 3 months) (2) history of at least one OVFs documented by a radiographic imaging or vertebral morphometry performed from at least 3 to 12 months from the enrollment. We excluded patients with (1) acute back pain or (2) a clinical history of other causes of neuropathic pain such as disc herniation, spinal stenosis or by (3) chronic widespread pain, including fibromyalgia. The current study was performed in accordance with the Decla-100 ration of Helsinki and its later amendments. 101

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2.2. Vertebral fractures and pain evaluation

Vertebral fractures were identified by morphometric analysis performed through dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA). Vertebral morphometry is a semi-quantitative method to detect OVFs through the measurement of the different body vertebral heights (Diacinti, & Guglielmi, 2010). The presence of a OVFs was defined as the reduction of at least one vertebral height over 20% (Genant et al., 1993), whose severity of OVFs was by the following grades: 0 = normal; 1 = mild (a decrease in a height of a vertebra of 20-25%; grade 2 = moderate (a decrease of 25-40%); and grade 3 = severe (a decrease of 40% or more) fracture. We calculated the Spine Deformity Index (SDI), by summing the grade of the severity for each vertebra from T4 to L4.

Back pain severity and its impact on activities of 118 daily living (ADL) were assessed through the Brief 119 Pain Inventory (BPI) (Caraceni et al., 1996). The pain 120 intensity section of the BPI includes four items (worst 121 pain in last 24 hours, least pain in last 24 hours, pain 122 on overage, pain right now) with a score ranging from 123 0 (no pain) to 10 (worst possible pain). Pain severity 124 is calculated from the mean of the four BPI inten-125 sity items: absence of pain (score 0), mild pain (score 126 1-4) moderate pain (score 5-6) severe pain (score 127 7-10) (Deandrea et al., 2008; Li et al., 2007). BPI 128 interference assessment is composed of seven items 129 (general activity, mood, walking ability, normal work, 130 relations with other people, sleep, enjoyment of life) 131 with a score ranging from 1 (no interference) to 10 132 (complete interference). Pain interference with ADL 133 is calculated from the mean of the BPI interference 134

items as low interference (score 1–4) or high interference (score 5–10) (Cleeland & Ryan, 1994).

To identify neuropathic component of back pain 137 in our population, we used the Leeds Assess-138 ment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs scale 139 (LANSS) and the painDETECT questionnaire (PD-140 Q) (Migliore et al., 2021). The LANSS is an assess-141 ment tool used to estimate sensory dysfunction and 142 the probable presence of a neuropathic mechanism 143 underlying the pain. The tool consists of two parts, 144 one of an interview with patient and the other one is a 145 specific clinical examination. It includes 7 items: first 146 5 questions concern pain-related symptoms experi-147 enced by the patient, and the last 2 questions consist 148 of clinical tests of non-painful (i.e., light touch) and 149 pin-prick stimulations to detect allodynia or hyperal-150 gesia, respectively. A score is assigned to each of the 151 7 items. For each item, the score is 0 in the absence 152 of symptoms, while it ranged from 1 to 5 in the pres-153 ence of symptoms or signs with a total score from 0 154 to 24. A score of 12 or more suggests the presence of 155 a neuropathic component. 156

PD-Q is a simple screening tool to identify neu-157 ropathic pain in patients suffering from back pain. It 158 includes 9 items of which 7 sensory symptom items 159 for pain (score from 0 = never to 5 = strongly), one 160 temporal item on pain-course pattern (score from 161 -1 to +1), and one spatial item on pain radiation 162 (score 0 = no radiation or +2 = radiating pain). The 163 total score ranges from -1 to 38. The presence of neu-164 ropathic component is considered ambiguous with a 165 score ranging from 12 to 18, while it is likely if the 166 score is > 19. 167

168 2.3. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using STATA 169 11.0. Study data were collected in a dedicated 170 database. Data for continuous variables are given 171 as means \pm standard deviations (SD) and categori-172 cal variables as counts (percentages). The normal 173 distribution was investigated through the Shapiro-174 Wilk test for all the outcomes data. If data observed 175 had a normal distribution, the Student's t-test 176 was used to compare continuous variables across 177 groups; if not the two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum 178 (Mann-Whitney) test and Chi-square exact test were 179 used when appropriate. To compare the means of 180 three or more independent groups, one-way ANOVA 181 test was performed. Correlation between SDI and 182 type of pain was performed using Pearson's cor-183 relation coefficient or Spearman's rank correlation, 184

 Table 1

 Demographic and clinical data of study population

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	Total
n	72
Age (years)	69.2 ± 8.9
Female sex	64 (88.9%)
Male sex	8 (11.1%)
Usage of pain medication	18 (25%)
Anti-osteoporotic therapy	62 (86.1%)
Bisphosphonates	20 (27.8%)
Denosumab	32 (44.4%)
Teriparatide	10 (13.9%)
Single vertebral fracture	21 (29.2%)
Multiple vertebral fractures	51 (70.8%)

Note: The values are expressed as means \pm standard deviations (SD) for continuous data and counts (percentages) for categorical data.



Fig. 1. Sites of single vertebral fragility fracture in our population.

in case of non-parametric variables. All tests were judged statistically significant if two-sided p-values were < 0.05.

3. Results

Seventy-two patients were included (mainly women, 88.8%). The mean age of the participants was 69.2 ± 8.9 years. Most individuals had multiple vertebral fractures (n = 51, 70.8%) (Table 1). All patients taking pain killers (25%) received paracetamol "as needed", and none were on antidepressants or anticonvulsants. The most common site of OVFs was thoracic spine, both as single (n = 13, 61.9%) or multiple (n = 24, 47%) vertebral fractures (Figs. 1, 2). Considering pain intensity, our patients showed mild pain at BPI severity index (S.I.) (mean score 4.0 ± 1.8) and a low interference with ADL (mean

201	BPI interference score 4.3 ± 2.1) (Table 2). Accord-
202	ing to the PD-Q, 82% (n = 59) of patients reported
203	nociceptive pain, while neuropathic component was
204	present only in 5.5% $(n=4)$ of cases. On the other
205	side, the LANSS detected probable neuropathic
206	mechanism in 23.6% $(n = 17)$ of cases (Table 3). No
207	significant differences were found about mean values
208	of BPI S.I., BPI I.I., PD-Q and LANSS in patients
209	with single OVFs versus those with multiple OVFs
210	(Table 3). Among individuals with single fracture,
211	neuropathic pain was significantly more prevalent in
212	those with thoracic OVFs compared to patients with
213	lumbar OVFs (Table 4). In participants with mul-
214	tiple fractures, only PD-Q identified a neuropathic
215	component of back pain that was significantly more
216	prevalent in patients with lumbar OVFs (Table 5).
217	Finally no correlation among the SDI and the type
218	of pain was found in our population $(p=0.551 \text{ and }$
219	p = 0.863 for PD-Q and LANSS, respectively).



Fig. 2. Sites of multiple vertebral fragility fractures in our population.

4. Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study evaluating neuropathic component of chronic back pain in patients with OVFs.

Pain in osteoporotic patients is mostly nociceptive. Persistence of pathogenic mechanisms (e.g., inflammation or mechanical) contributes to sensitization of peripheral and central nervous system resulting in development of chronic pain (Mediati et al., 2014). Although the incidence of neuropathic component in patients with non-specific chronic back pain has been reported (Orita et al., 2016), data about neuropathic component in OVFs-related pain are lacking.

In our population, the percentage of patients experiencing neuropathic pain was 23.6% when neuropathic component was evaluated through LANSS, while this percentage decreased to 5.5% when it was assessed by the PD-Q.

The comparison of these assessment tools for defining the presence of the neuropathic component of pain has been performed in other studies. In particular, the greater sensitivity of LANSS has already been found in a study investigating pain type in individuals with carpal tunnel syndrome (Ceceli et al.,

Assessment tool	No.%	Score (SD)	
BPI severity index			
Mild (1–4)	49 (68.1)	3.0 ± 1.0	
Moderate (5–6)	17 (23.6)	5.9 ± 0.4	
Severe (7–10)	6 (8.3)	7.2 ± 0.3	
BPI interference index			
Low (1-4)	44 (61.1)	2.9 ± 1.2	
High (5–10)	28 (38.9)	6.6 ± 0.8	

Table 2

Note: %=percentage; SD=standard deviation. BPI=Brief Pain Inventory.

Table 3 Pain classification through BPI and its indexes, painDETECT questionnaire and LANSS scale and its characterization according to the number of vertebral fragility fractures

Assessment tool	n (%)	Score	Single vertebral fractures $(n=21)$	Multiple vertebral fractures $(n=51)$	<i>p</i> -values
BPI S.I.	72 (100%)	4.0 ± 1.8	3.9 ± 1.7	4.1 ± 1.8	0.58*
BPI I.I.	72 (100%)	4.3 ± 2.1	4.5 ± 2.1	4.3 ± 2.1	0.72**
PainDETECT questionnaire			7.7 ± 5.5	7.1 ± 5.9	0.51**
Nociceptive (0–12)	59 (82.0)	5.1 ± 3.6			
Mixed (13–18)	9 (12.5)	14.7 ± 1.2			
Neuropathic (19–38)	4 (5.5)	22.2 ± 2.0			
LANSS scale			5.8 ± 5.6	5.9 ± 6.6	0.74**
Likely neuropathic pain (\geq 12)	17 (23.6)	15.9 ± 2.1			
Unlikely neuropathic pain (<12)	55 (76.4)	2.8 ± 3.2			

Note: % = percentage; SD = standard deviation. BPI = Brief Pain Inventory. S.I. = Severity Index. I.I. = Interference Index. LANSS = Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs. *Student *t*-test. **Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann–Whitney) test.

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Table 4			
Relationship between vertebral fracture site and neuropathic pain			
in individuals with single fractures			

	Thoracic spine $(n = 13)$	Lumbar spine $(n=8)$	p-Value
pain DETECT \geq 19	10.4 ± 5.2	3.3 ± 2.1	0.002*
LANSS \geq 12	7.8 ± 5.8	2.6 ± 3.0	<0.05**

Note: Values are expressed as means \pm standard deviations (SD). LANSS = Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs. *Student *t*-test. **Two-sample Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann–Whitney) test.

Table 5 Relationship between vertebral fracture site and neuropathic pain in individuals with multiple fractures

	Thoracic spine $(n=24)$	Lumbar spine (n=5)	Thoracic- lumbar spine $(n=22)$	p-Value
pain DETECT \geq 19	5.0 ± 4.3	12.4 ± 7.0	8.1 ± 6.3	*0.022
LANSS ≥ 12	4.0 ± 5.5	7.8 ± 4.8	7.5 ± 7.4	*0.16

Note: Values are expressed as means ± standard deviations (SD). LANSS = Leeds Assessment of Neuropathic Symptoms and Signs. *One-way ANOVA test.

2018), while this finding has not been confirmed 244 in patients with knee osteoarthritis (Moreton et al., 245 2015). In our opinion, the higher percentage of neuro-246 pathic pain detected by LANSS in our study might be 247 related to the physical examination section included 248 in this tool, performed by a physician able to investi-249 gate for example allodynia and hyperalgesia by skin 250 stimulation. Moreover, while PD-Q scores provide 251 a definition of three categories (i.e., "nociceptive", 252 "mixed" and "neuropathic" pain), in the LANSS we 253 have only a distinction between likely or unlikely 254 neuropathic pain mechanism. Therefore, it should 255 be considered that the decreased percentage of cases 256 reporting neuropathic pain might be explained by the 257 fact that some patients had "mixed" pain (nociceptive 258 with a neuropathic component) and so they have been 259 included in the mixed pain category. 260

Regarding the prevalence of neuropathic component in osteoporotic patients, Fujimoto et al. conducted a study in 113 patients with back pain, reporting similar percentage (84.8% nociceptive, 11.6% mixed and 3.6% neuropathic pain) using PD-Q, although only 23% of their population had OVFs (Fujimoto et al., 2017).

In our study, no significant differences were found about pain intensity and interference with ADL as well as pain type in patients with single vertebral fracture versus those with multiple vertebral fractures. However, it has been reported that it is not so much the number but the severity of OVFs to be relevant for back pain-related loss of function and quality of life (Moretti et al., 2015).

According to our data, it seems that a different location of OVFs would be a main role in determining neuropathic component of back pain, since single thoracic fractures were significantly associated with higher prevalence of this type of pain. A possible hypothesis to explain this finding is that, compared to vertebral fractures in other sites, thoracic fractures had worse prognosis in terms of pain relief (Gerdhem, 2013). If back pain becomes chronic it is more probable the establishment of neuropathic mechanisms (Baron et al., 2016).

Our data showed that the association of fracture location and neuropathic component was not significant in patients with thoracic multiple OVFs, while it became significant, with higher prevalence in those with lumbar vertebral fractures. This is surprising considering that lumbar spine is less commonly involved by osteoporotic fractures.

In our study, these fractures affected only 9.8% of participants with multiple OVFs. It should be underlined that OVFs at lumbar spine have a significant higher incidence of radiculopathy that might explain the occurrence of neuropathic pain (Kim et al., 2015; Ploumis, Transfledt, & Denis, 2007).

Back pain associated to OVFs may occur as a consequence of fracture per se (e.g., due to trauma and/or inflammation that activate nociceptors in acute fractures) as well as because of biomechanical changes of the spine (e.g., in persistent back pain progressively evolving in increased thoracic kyphosis) (Lindsay et al., 2001; Fechtenbaum et al., 2005). Moreover, persistent back pain may be associated to bone marrow edema that might occur either in the fractured or in the adjacent non-fractured vertebral bodies (Wang et al., 2013; Nakamura T, 2003). The transition from acute to chronic back pain may be due to both peripheral and central sensitizations, depending on nociceptive inputs from damaged bone tissue or from involvement of peripheral nerves that triggers central pain mechanisms (e.g., maladaptive neuroplasticity), respectively (Francis et al., 2008).

Unexpectedly, our patients showed mild pain and low interference with ADL, independently from number and site of OVFs. These findings can be attributable to the fact that most patients started anti-osteoporotic drug therapy immediately after the diagnosis of OVF, as expected by the specialized setting of study participants' recruitment (i.e., FLS). Indeed, some analgesic effects have been described for anti-osteoporotic drugs (Ahn, Shin & Kim,

2017). Bisphosphonates improve pain acting with an 326 antiresorptive mechanism on osteoclasts as well as 327 inhibiting macrophages activation thus limiting neu-328 ropeptides and inflammatory cytokines production 329 (Paolucci, Saraceni, & Piccinini, 2016). Teriparatide 330 seems to reduce back pain not only by minimizing the 331 risk of new OVFs, but also through healing and sta-332 bilization of pre-existing fractures (Nakajima et al., 333 2002; Andreassen, Ejersted & Oxlund, 1999). Deno-334 sumab seems to exert analgesic effects by suppressing 335 production, differentiation, activation, and survival of 336 osteoclasts, thus reducing osteoclast-mediated acid-337 ification and consequent acid-sensitive nociceptor 338 stimulation, and by modulating NF- κ B production, 339 via RANK/RANKL inhibition that lead to reduced 340 neuroinflammation and chronic pain (Moretti et al., 341 2019; Moretti et al., 2015). 342

Our study presents some limitations, including 343 small sample size, the cross-sectional study design 344 and no data about the mean time of back pain dura-345 tion. Moreover, no tool for the assessment of risk of 346 bias had been used. Finally, among questionnaires 347 that we used to conduct this study, only the PD-Q 348 was designed specifically for patients with chronic 349 low back pain. 350

351 5. Conclusions

Our study pointed out for the first-time the charac-352 terization of chronic back pain in patients with OVFs, 353 investigating how much the neuropathic component 354 is involved in this population. Our data demonstrated 355 that neuropathic pain is present in over 20% of cases. 356 This type of pain is more prevalent in patients with 357 single OVF at the thoracic spine and in those with 358 multiple OVFs at the lumbar spine. 359

In our experience, LANSS identified higher percentage of patients with neuropathic component. Further studies should better characterize chronic back pain in terms of nociceptive and neuropathic contribution in people with OVFs, also to define an appropriate therapeutic strategy for optimal pain relief in this population.

367 Conflict of interest

368 None to report.

369 Acknowledgments

None to report.

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