

Minireview Article

MECHANISM OF ACTION, CELLULAR TARGETS AND CLINICAL ADVANTAGE OR DISADVANTAGE OF ANALGETIC THERAPY IN POST-OPERATIVE PEDIATRIC PATIENTS: A BRIEF REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Pain is a distressing sensation that can cause alterations in several bodily systems, particularly in pediatric children after surgery. Efficient pain treatment is crucial for individuals seeking to minimize or eliminate pain and discomfort while experiencing minimal side effects. The objective of this study is to examine the mechanism of action, cellular targets, and clinical result of pain relief treatment in pediatric surgical patients after an operation. The literature search for this review was conducted using the Pubmed and Google Scholar databases, resulting in the acquisition of 30 publications as references. The authors of this review have included three categories of analgesic drugs: Acetaminophen, NSAIDs, and opioids. These categories are compared using three specific indicators, as stated in the aim of the review. This concise study demonstrated unanimous agreement among researchers and clinicians that the preferred approach to postoperative analgesic management in children is to initiate treatment with acetaminophen as the primary therapy, followed by NSAIDs, and reserving opioids as a last choice.

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Keywords: Analgetic therapy, Pediatric surgery, post-operative management.

1. INTRODUCTION

Pain in children is identical to that in adults and can harm the body. Anticipating and treating pediatric pain is critical. An unpleasant experience like pain can affect all physiological systems. Pain can be precisely quantified in children utilizing age-specific pain scoring systems. Analgesics should be used early and in sufficient amounts to work. A multimodal approach combining milder analgesics and localized blocks can control pain and prevent severe side effects from potent analgesics. Recent advances in analgesic pharmacology allow for broad use with minimal adverse effects. Patient- or nurse-controlled analgesia and continuous regional nerve blocks with indwelling catheters can improve pediatric pain management.¹ Pain alleviation has physiological benefits, therefore monitoring it is becoming a key postoperative quality measure. Pain management after surgery aims to relieve discomfort with minimal side effects.^{2,3}

Postoperative pain therapy is crucial for hospitals for many reasons. Proper therapy affects patient care, hospital costs, and comorbidities. Acute postoperative pain remains a barrier for modern medicine despite pharmacological and

42 technological improvements. However, acute postoperative pain should be treated
43 based on the intensity of the surgical procedure, the analgesics, and adequate
44 combination that enhance analgesic effects rather than side effects, as well as
45 local regional techniques associated with the surgical site.^{4,5} This study aims to
46 investigate the mechanism of action, cellular targets, and clinical outcome of
47 analgesic therapy in post-operative pediatric surgical patients.

50 2. METHODOLOGY

51 The literature research in this review was carried out using Pubmed and
52 Google Scholar databases with three main keywords: pediatric surgery, analgesic
53 therapy, and post-operative management. The articles were selected based on
54 language, type of publication, suitability of methods, case characteristics, exposure,
55 and outcome. All references that match the inclusion criteria are processed using
56 the Mendeley@citation manager, whereas 30 articles are obtained as references. In
57 this review, authors include three types of analgesic drug: Acetaminophen, NSAID,
58 and opioids with three indicators of comparison: Mechanism of action, cellular
59 targets and the clinical outcome of the patient.

62 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

64 *Acetaminophen*

- 65 • Mechanism of action

66 Paracetamol is the most common use acetaminophen drug is a first-line
67 oral analgesic for long-term usage. Children's paracetamol users require specific
68 attention and age-appropriate dosage, unlike adults'. Paracetamol metabolism
69 determines toxicity, notably hepatotoxicity, hence children's dosage is based on
70 this. Younger children use the sulfation pathway to eliminate paracetamol, which
71 is mature at birth, while the glucuronidation pathway takes two years to mature.
72 In humans, paracetamol is metabolized in the liver through glucuronidation (50-
73 60%), sulfation (25-30%), and oxidation (<10%). Central function of paracetamol
74 is its stimulation of descending serotonergic pathways, which reduce pain. In
75 vivo tests on animals and humans validated this notion, showing that this drug's
76 central antinociceptive impact involves the 5-HT₃ subtype of serotonin
77 receptors.^{6,7}

- 79 • Cellular targets

80 The mechanisms of acetaminophen's clinical selectivity remain unknown.
81 Traditional NSAIDs block or change the active site of cyclo-oxygenase, however
82 acetaminophen may not. Two main theories exist. First, acetaminophen may
83 preferentially block a central nervous system cyclooxygenase isoform, maybe
84 the canine brain's putative cyclooxygenase-3. Second, acetaminophen may
85 impede cyclo-oxygenase action by converting its active oxidized form to an
86 inactive form rather than binding to its active site. Thus, low peroxide
87 concentrations make acetaminophen inhibition more effective. This theory
88 explains acetaminophen's nerve-specific therapeutic selectivity. Nerves, which
89 are sensitive to intracellular oxidants, actively minimize oxidation. The
90 inflammatory location may have high oxidant levels, making acetaminophen's
91 lowering effects ineffective. Acetaminophen preferentially inhibits cyclo-
92 oxygenase activity in endothelial cells but not platelets, and increasing

93 intracellular peroxide levels prevents its inhibitory effects.⁸

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95 Another possibility for cellular selectivity in acetaminophen response is
96 that the drug's metabolic destiny changes among cells, which could affect its
97 efficacy by forming an active metabolite or accelerating drug inactivation.
98 Acetaminophen biotransformation data is plentiful and suggests selectivity.
99 Acetaminophen is metabolized in the liver by glucuronidation and sulfate
100 conjugation. Acetaminophen is deacetylated to produce p-aminophenol, a
101 powerful nephrotoxicant. Substance of p-aminophenol inhibits thromboxane A₂
102 production in washed platelets more than acetaminophen, based on this and
103 evidence that it inhibits PGHS in the rat renal medulla. These findings provide a
104 clear rationale for determining the extent of acetaminophen deacetylation in
105 relation to cellular selectivity, but the role of cell- or tissue-specific deacetylation
106 in clinical behavior remains to be explored. A recent study suggests that
107 acetaminophen's analgesic qualities come from a downstream metabolite of p-
108 aminophenol. Additional research is needed to prove that this metabolic
109 pathway for acetaminophen is necessary for its analgesic effects and that
110 humans have such pathways.⁹

111
112 • **Clinical outcome**

113 Acetaminophen can damage the liver in large doses, however liver
114 failure risk depends on health and other factors. Because an intricate system of
115 intra- and extracellular molecular signaling regulates APAP-induced liver injury
116 and recovery, we aim to quantify the importance of specific modules in
117 determining the outcome after an APAP insult and of potential targets for
118 therapies that mitigate adversity.¹⁰ Because it inhibits prostaglandin synthesis,
119 acetaminophen has extremely selective analgesic and antipyretic effects.
120 Arachidonic acid-derived PGs are key mediators of inflammation, fever, and
121 discomfort. A practical investigation showed that intraoperative IV
122 acetaminophen was safe and beneficial for postoperative pain following pediatric
123 skin laser irradiation. In that study, the acetaminophen IV group had lower pain
124 levels than the placebo group up to 2 hours postoperatively, except for
125 emergence.¹¹

126
127 **Non-Steroid Antiinflammatory Drugs (NSAID)**

128 • **Mechanism of action**

129 Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are utilized for their
130 powerful analgesic, anti-inflammatory, and antipyretic properties. NSAIDs work
131 by inhibiting COX enzyme, which biosynthesizes prostaglandins and
132 thromboxane. Fever, pain, and inflammation are mediated by PGs and TXs. The
133 pathophysiology of many diseases involves inflammation. PGs, coagulation
134 cascade-derived peptides, IL-2, IL-6, and TNF are affected by NSAIDs.
135 Arachidonic acid-derived prostanoids promote inflammation.^{12,13}

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137 The immune system is directly activated by surgical injury through the
138 binding of danger-associated molecular patterns to pattern recognition receptors
139 in the innate immune system. Additionally, the neuroendocrine system is
140 indirectly activated through the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis. Upon
141 activation, a cascade of hormones, cytokines, chemokines, and prostanoids are
142 produced in order to restore the body's internal balance, promote tissue healing,

143 and combat infections. Anti-inflammatory nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
144 (NSAIDs) may be beneficial for this condition as they inhibit the sensitivity of
145 both the peripheral and central nociceptive pathways. Ibuprofen, diclofenac,
146 ketorolac, naproxen, and flurbiprofen were employed, however COX-2 inhibitors
147 shown a greater reduction in postoperative analgesic consumption compared to
148 nonselective NSAIDs.¹⁴
149

150 • Cellular targets

151 NSAIDs are highly effective analgesics and are among the most
152 commonly purchased medications. It is necessary to investigate the molecular
153 interactions that are responsible for both the physiological activity and the
154 detrimental effects of these substances. Ibuprofen, naproxen, and diclofenac,
155 which are widely used NSAIDs, have an interaction
156 with dimyristoylphosphatidylserine, a prominent phospholipid found in euka-
157 ryotic cells. Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and differential scanning
158 calorimetry (DSC) are employed to observe the change from gel to liquid
159 crystalline phase of the acyl chains, both in the absence and presence of the
160 NSAID. The interactions between NSAIDs and functional groups in the DMPS
161 spectrum, such as the ester carbonyl and phosphate vibrational bands, are
162 detected and recorded using Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) in
163 reflection mode with Attenuated Total Reflection (ATR) technique. The
164 thermodynamics of the interaction between NSAID-DMPS liposomes are
165 assessed using isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) and Förster resonance
166 energy transfer (FRET). The data indicate that the NSAID interacts with this lipid
167 in a specific manner, while exhibiting distinct differences in other parameters.
168 This provides a comprehensive understanding of the interaction processes. Our
169 investigation revealed that NSAIDs such as ibuprofen, naproxen, and diclofenac
170 caused the destabilization of DMPS bilayers, resulting in detrimental effects on
171 their thermodynamic properties. Drug-membrane interaction is influenced by
172 multiple aspects. Hydration is essential for the stabilization of bilayers. The
173 presence of a hydration shell and the arrangement of lipids can have an impact
174 on cell membranes, influencing their semipermeable properties, the rate and
175 efficiency of cell development, and the activity of enzymes linked with the
176 membrane.¹⁵
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178 • Clinical outcome

179 Ibuprofen is the most extensively researched and utilized nonsteroidal
180 anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) in children for the treatment of sudden pain, and
181 it is the sole NSAID authorized for use in children as young as 6 months. All of
182 the studies on ibuprofen examined adverse events (AEs) and other factors
183 related to safety and tolerability, such as nausea, vomiting, drowsiness, and
184 dizziness.¹⁶ The ideal pediatric ibuprofen dose is 10 mg/kg body weight every 8
185 h, with the maximum single dose and daily dose being 800 mg and 2400 mg,
186 respectively. Severe ibuprofen toxicity in children at doses less than 100 mg/kg
187 by history throughout treatment is rare. More than 400 mg/kg body weight can
188 cause serious or life-threatening toxicities include gastrointestinal hemorrhage,
189 thrombocytopenia, pulmonary edema, severe acute kidney failure, and
190 metabolic acidosis. Since there is no antidote, main supportive measures should
191 be used.¹⁷

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NSAIDs have many advantages and disadvantages due to the organ system. In the urinary system, NSAIDs inhibit kidney COX-1 and intravascular volume-dependent inducible COX-2. While COX-1 controls glomerular filtration rate and renal hemodynamics, COX-2 controls salt and water excretion. In the nervous system, NSAIDs may delay Alzheimer's. Inhibiting COX-2 disrupts the β -amyloid cascade, which suppresses memory and synaptic plasticity.¹⁸ Moreover, NSAIDs can affect the GI system by deteriorating this process. These harms can be caused by PGE₂ or non-PGE₂ methods. A gastric lesion caused by increased mucosal permeability and myeloperoxidase activity increases gastric hypermotility. In the cardiovascular system, selective COX inhibitors lower PGI₂, which is essential for endothelial cell vasodilation and platelet inhibition, increasing the risk of thrombosis. PGI₂ and TXA₂, a vasoconstrictor, can become imbalanced, causing platelet aggregation and thrombus development.¹²

In the general population, 0.3% of adults and 0.5% of children have hypersensitivity reactions to NSAIDs. Ibuprofen was the most commonly implicated NSAID (7.6% of cases). Treatment duration and drug doses should be frequently assessed and manufacturer or expert committee maximum dose limits and other guidelines followed. The medical team should start NSAID medication with the lowest stage- or weight-based dose to improve safety in newborns and children. Because NSAIDs are used by a significant number of children, hypersensitivity should always be considered as a drug-induced adverse event that must be monitored and handled.¹⁹⁻²¹

Opioids

- Mechanism of action

Opioids affect the afferent and efferent pain pathways. They block pain transmission from primary afferent to ascending neurones by lowering neurotransmitter release. K⁺ and Ca²⁺ channels play a major role in these processes, with activation increasing K⁺ efflux and hyperpolarization, while inhibition decreases Ca²⁺ influx and limits transmitter release. Second- to third-order transmission and descending inhibitory control activities are enhanced by reducing GABAergic inhibitory transmission. Plasticity exists in NOP receptor and pain processing.²² NOP, MOP (m), KOP (k), and DOP (d) are classical opioid receptors according to IUPHAR. All four G-protein-coupled receptors have a seven-transmembrane topology. Instead of directly communicating with

229 effector proteins, G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) convey the message.
230 MOP with morphine closes voltage-sensitive calcium channels (VSCCs),
231 stimulates potassium efflux, hyperpolarizes cells, and reduces cyclic adenosine
232 monophosphate (cAMP) production by inhibiting adenylyl cyclase. All four
233 receptor subtypes preferentially couple to inhibitory G-proteins. This decreases
234 neuronal cell excitability, reducing nerve impulse transmission and
235 neurotransmitter release.²³

236

237 • Cellular targets

238 Numerous physiological functions depend on opioid receptors, which are
239 widely distributed in the body. These include central and peripheral nervous
240 system pain signaling, reproduction, growth, breathing, and immunological
241 response. Physiologically and pathophysiologically, opioid receptors are
242 important in the GI tract. GPCRs are targets for about one-third of FDA-
243 approved blockbuster medications, including analgesics, antihistamines,
244 neuroleptics, and numerous cardiovascular therapies. The opioid receptor family
245 is key GPCR. MOP, DOP, and KOP are prototypical naloxone-sensitive opioid
246 receptors. This family also includes the nonclassical nociceptin/orphanin FQ
247 (N/OFQ) receptor. Naloxone does not affect this receptor. Opioids bind to Gi/Go
248 G-proteins, causing neuron hyperpolarization, closing voltage-gated Ca²⁺
249 channels, and inhibiting adenylyl cyclase to reduce cyclic adenosine
250 monophosphate formation and membrane repolarization. The β -arrestin
251 pathway inhibits signaling. These coordinated cellular activities allow all family
252 members to produce analgesia (anti-nociception in non-humans) to varied
253 degrees and locales. G-protein and independent β -arrestin pathways link opioid
254 receptors to mitogen-activated protein kinases such as ERK, p38, and Jun
255 N-terminal kinase. All members of the family can provide analgesia, but MOP
256 receptor agonists are the mainstay in the clinic, with some developing instances
257 addressed next. The list includes morphine, fentanyl, and oxycodone. Opioids
258 have many side effects, including ventilatory depression, nausea and vomiting,
259 constipation, tolerance, and dependency. Tolerance causes dose escalation
260 (particularly in palliative care) and dependency, which is associated to
261 premature death and crime globally.^{24,25}

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263 • Clinical outcome

264 Studies suggest non-opioid medications are equally effective in
265 controlling post-operative pain after pediatric herniorrhaphy compared to opioid
266 medications. Routine opioid administration does not appear to positively affect
267 postoperative pain management in this population and is associated with a
268 high rate of medication-related side effects. Most studies suggest that opioid
269 prescriptions are more likely to cause harm in the form of worsened nausea and
270 vomiting than provide improved pain control.²⁶

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272 Dixit et al. 2022 reported that surgery is a risk factor for opioid use,
273 persistence, and misuse in children. In the experiment, 849 (63.1%) of 1344
274 pediatric ambulatory surgery patients responded. Survey respondents were 60%
275 male, 55% 2–12-year-olds, and 90% ASA 1 or 2 patients. The average
276 procedure took 1 h. 32.4% of 275 discharged patients received opioids. 164
(59.6%) postoperative opioid users did not use them on POD1. Orthopedic and

277 plasticsurgeryhad28–29%wastedopioidprescribing,whiledentistryand
278 ophthalmologyhad3–4%.Neurosurgicalpatientsreceived55%opioidsandall
279 usedthemonPOD1.Obstetrics,dentalandmaxillofacialsurgery,orthopedic
280 surgery,andplasticsurgerydischargedatleast60%ofpatientsonopioids,with
281 33–42%notusingopioidsonPOD1.Operativeandpatient-specificopioiddays
282 andOMEsperkilogramdifferedsubstantially.Somechildrenhad3-to7-day
283 opioidprescriptionsaftertonsillectomyandadenoidectomy,whileonereceived
284 >15 days.Some patients received opioids for10daysafterorchiopexy. Mostgot
285 2–4days.These findingsrepresentoralmorphineequivalentsperkilogram.
286 Olderpatients,thosewithprivateinsurance,thosewithlongersurgeries,and
287 thosefurthestfromthehospitalwereprescribedmoreopioids.Medicalopioid
288 exposuremakesadolescentsmorelikelytouserecreationally,share,and
289 developdrugdependenceandmisuse.Opioidexposureandchronicusageare
290 linkedtosurgery,with6-10%ofopioid-naïvepersonsconsumingopioidsfor
291 beyond3monthsorevenayearaftersurgery.Aftercholecystectomy,
292 arthroscopic kneesurgery,colectomy,andwisdomtoothextraction,5%of
293 pediatricpatientsfillopioidprescriptions2–6monthslater.²⁷

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295 Otheropioid-relatedissues,suchasopioidusedisorder,stemfrom
296 opioidusage.In2016,thereareabout153,000childrenin12–17-year-olds
297 theUSreportedopioidusedisorder.Mostopioidusedisordercases(99%)
298 involvedprescriptionopioids,withheroinaccountingfor1%.Opioidsarethe
299 leadingcauseofseriousinjuryordeathinchildren,andaccidentalopioid
300 overdosesintheUSDoubledfrom1999to2008.In2008,opioid-related
301 accidentaldeathswere0.1per100,000forchildren0–14and3.7per100,000
302 forteenagers15–18.After2008,opioid-relatedadolescentmortalitydroppedto
303 2.0 per 100,000in2011and 2.5per100,000in2015.^{28–30}

306 **4. CONCLUSION**

307 Thisbriefreviewshowedthatallresearcherandclinicianagreedthatpost
308 operativeanalgesiamanagementforchildrenstillmustbestartedbyusing
309 acetaminophenasinitialtherapy,then NSAIDandOpioidsasthelastchoice.

311 **CONSENT**

312 Nonetodeclare.

314 **ETHICAL APPROVAL**

315 Nonetodeclare.

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