

MECHANISM OF ACTION, CELLULAR TARGETS AND CLINICAL IMPORTANCE OF ANALGESIC THERAPY IN POSTOPERATIVE PEDIATRIC PATIENTS: A BRIEF OBSERVATION

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ABSTRACT

Pain is a distressing sensation that has the potential to induce changes in multiple organ systems, especially in pediatric patients following surgical procedures. Efficient pain management is of the utmost importance for patients who wish to reduce or eliminate pain and distress with minimal adverse effects. The objective of this review is to investigate the clinical outcome, cellular targets, and mechanism of action of pain relief treatment in pediatric surgical patients after an operation. The literature search for this review was performed by accessing the Pubmed and Google Scholar databases; as a result, thirty publications were obtained for use as references. In compiling this review, the authors have categorized analgesic pharmaceuticals into three distinct groups: NSAIDs, opioids, and acetaminophen. In accordance with the review's stated objective, three distinct indicators are employed to compare these categories. This succinct investigation revealed that a consensus among clinicians and researchers was reached regarding the optimal strategy for managing postoperative pain in children. It was concluded that acetaminophen should be the initial course of treatment, followed by nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), and opioids being reserved as the last choice.

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Keywords: Analgetic therapy, Pediatrics surgery, post-operativemanagement.

1. INTRODUCTION

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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. The use of various analgesics should be done early and in adequate doses for them to be effective. The use of multimodal approach with weaker analgesics along with regional blocks is an effective modality to control pain and prevent severe adverse effects associated with higher doses of potent analgesics.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}

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Postoperative pain therapy is crucial for hospitals for many reasons. Proper therapy affects patient care, hospital costs, and comorbidities. Acute postoperative

41 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 an adequate
44 combination that enhance analgesic effects rather than side effects, as well as
45 **local and regional** techniques associated with the surgical site.^{4,5} This study aims to investigate the mechanism of action, cellular targets, and clinical outcome of 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 as a first-line
67 oral analgesic for long-term usage. Acetaminophen is extensively utilized in children due to its well-established safety and efficacy. While the likelihood of children experiencing toxic reactions to acetaminophen is often lower than in adults, intentional overdoses can nevertheless lead to severe events in pediatric patients. Occasionally, acetaminophen poisoning can occur due to unintentional incorrect dosing or the failure to identify children who are more susceptible to it, even when they have been given the recommended quantities of acetaminophen. Due to the generic nature of the symptoms of acetaminophen intoxication, the diagnosis and treatment of inadvertent cases of toxicity are more likely to be delayed. This statement outlines many circumstances and factors that might lead to acetaminophen poisoning, excluding cases involving deliberate self-harm. Children's paracetamol users require specific attention and age-appropriate dosage, unlike adults'. Paracetamol metabolism determines toxicity, notably hepatotoxicity, hence children's dosage is based on this. Younger children use the sulfation pathway to eliminate paracetamol, which is mature at birth, while the glucuronidation pathway takes two years to mature. In humans, paracetamol is metabolized in the liver through glucuronidation (50-60%), sulfation (25-30%), and oxidation (<10%). Central function of paracetamol is stimulation of descending serotonergic pathways, which reduce pain. In vivo tests on animals and humans validate this notion, showing that this drug's central antinociceptive impact involves the 5-HT₃ subtype of serotonin 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 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

94
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

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}

136
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 eukaryotic
157 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

177

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

192
193 NSAIDs have many advantages and disadvantages due to the organ
194 system. In the urinary system, NSAIDs inhibit kidney COX-1 and intravascular
195 volume-dependent inducible COX-2. While COX-1 controls glomerular filtration
196 rate and renal hemodynamics, COX-2 controls salt and water excretion. In the
197 nervous system, NSAIDs may delay Alzheimer's. Inhibiting COX-2 disrupts the
198 β -amyloid cascade, which suppresses memory and synaptic plasticity.¹⁸
199 Moreover, NSAIDs can affect the GI system by deteriorating this process. These
200 harms can be caused by P_Gonon-P_G methods. A gastric lesion caused by
201 increased mucosal permeability and myeloperoxidase activity increases gastric
202 hypermotility. In the cardiovascular system, selective COX inhibitors lower PGI₂,
203 which is essential for endothelial cell vasodilation and platelet inhibition,
204 increasing the risk of thrombosis. PGI₂ and TXA₂, a vasoconstrictor, can
205 become imbalanced, causing platelet aggregation and thrombus development.¹²

206
207 In the general population, 0.3% of adults and 0.5% of children have
208 hypersensitivity reactions to NSAIDs. Ibuprofen was the most commonly
209 implicated NSAID (7.6% of cases). Treatment duration and drug doses should
210 be frequently assessed and manufacturer or expert committee maximum dose
211 limits and other guidelines followed. The medical team should start NSAID
212 medication with the lowest stage- or weight-based dose to improve safety in
213 newborns and children. Because NSAIDs are used by a significant number of
214 children, hypersensitivity should always be considered as a drug-induced
215 adverse event that must be monitored and handled.¹⁹⁻²¹

217 **Opioids**

218 • Mechanism of action
219 Opioids affect the afferent and efferent pain pathways. They block pain
220 transmission from primary afferent to ascending neurones by lowering
221 neurotransmitter release. K_p and Ca_{2p} channels play a major role in these
222 processes, with activation increasing K_p efflux and hyperpolarization, while
223 inhibition decreases Ca_{2p} influx and limits transmitter release. Second- to third-
224 order transmission and descending inhibitory control activities are enhanced by
225 reducing GABAergic inhibitory transmission. Plasticity exists in NOP receptor
226 and pain processing.²² NOP, MOP (m), KOP (k), and DOP (d) are classical
227 opioid receptors according to IUPHAR. All four G-protein-coupled receptors

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

235

236 • Cellular targets

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

261

262 • Clinical outcome

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

270

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

eryhad28–29%wastedopioidprescribing,whiledentistryand
ophthalmologyhad3–4%.Neurosurgicalpatientsreceived55%opioidsandall
usedthemonPOD1.Obstetrics,dentalandmaxillofacialsurgery,orthopedic
surgery,andplasticsurgerydischargedatleast60%ofpatientsonopioids,with
33–42%notusingopioidsonPOD1.Operativeandpatient-specificopioiddays
andOMEesperkilogramdifferedsubstantially.Somechildrenhad3-to7-day
opioidprescriptionsaftertonsillectomyandadenoidectomy,whileonereceived
>15 days.Some patients received opioids for10daysafterorchiopexy. Mostgot
2–4days.Thesefindingsrepresentoralmorphineequivalentsperkilogram.
Olderpatients,thosewithprivateinsurance,thosewithlongersurgeries,and
thosefurthestfromthehospitalwereprescribedmoreopioids.Medicalopioid
exposuremakesadolescentsmorelikelytouse recreationally,share,and
developdrugdependenceandmisuse.Opioidexposureandchronicusageare
linkedtosurgery,with6-10%ofopioid-naïvepersonsconsumingopioidsfor
beyond3monthsorevenayearaftersurgery.Aftercholecystectomy,
arthroscopic kneesurgery,colectomy,andwisdomtoothextraction,5%of
pediatricpatientsfillopioidprescriptions2–6monthslater.²⁷

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

4. CONCLUSION

Thisbriefreviewshowedthatalresearcherandclinicianagreedthatpost
operativeanalgesiamanagementforchildrenstillmustbestartedbyusing
acetaminophenasinitialtherapy,then NSAIDandOpioidsasthelastchoice.

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