

Nociplastic pain: controversy of the concept

Valdas Macionis

Independent Researcher, Vilnius, Lithuania

ABSTRACT

Classically, pain can be of a nociceptive or neuropathic nature, which refers to non-neural or neural tissue lesions, respectively. Chronic pain in conditions such as migraine, fibromyalgia, and complex regional pain syndrome (CRPS), is thought to perpetuate without a noxious input. Pain in such patients can be assigned neither to the nociceptive nor neuropathic category. Therefore, a third pain descriptor, named “nociplastic pain”, has been adopted by the International Association for the Study of Pain. The current controversy-focused narrative review updates little-debated aspects of the new pain concept. The most disputable feature of nociplastic pain is its autonomous persistence, *i.e.*, existence without causative tissue damage, presumably because of a malfunction of pain pathways and processing. This contradicts the fact that nociplastic pain is accompanied by persistent central sensitization that has been shown to require a continuing noxious input, *e.g.*, nerve injury. Even if sensitization occurs without a lesion, *e.g.*, in psychogenic and emotional pain, peripheral stimulus is necessary to produce pain. A logical weakness of the concept is that the word “plastic” in biology refers to adaptation rather than to maladaptation. The pathophysiologic mechanism of nociplastic pain may, in fact, be associated with background conditions that elude diagnosis because of the limitations of current diagnostic means. Misapplication of the nociplastic pain category may weaken diagnostic alertness toward occult causes of pain. Possible diagnostic errors could be avoided by understanding that nociplastic pain is a mechanism of pain rather than a diagnosis. Clinical use of this pain descriptor deserves a wider critical discussion.

Keywords: Central Nervous System Sensitization; Chronic Pain; Complex Regional Pain Syndromes; Diagnosis; Fibromyalgia; Hypersensitivity; Neuralgia; Nociception.

INTRODUCTION

Chronic pain has been estimated to affect over one third of the global population [1,2]. Most chronic pain patients have underlying diseases that cause nociceptive or neuropathic pain—the two classical categories (mechanisms) of pain. Some chronic pain conditions cannot be associated with a specific cause. This has prompted the International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP) to introduce nociplastic pain as a third mechanistic descrip-

tor of pain. Nociplastic pain, *i.e.*, “pain that arises from altered nociception despite no clear evidence of actual or threatened tissue damage causing the activation of peripheral nociceptors or evidence for disease or lesion of the somatosensory system causing the pain” [3], was adopted as the new pain descriptor by the IASP in 2017 [4], soon following publication of the conceptual proposal by Kosek et al. [5] and a couple of supporting comments [6,7]. Few objections to the concept of nociplastic pain appeared at that time [8], and this category swiftly went

Received August 5, 2024; Revised October 22, 2024; Accepted November 4, 2024

Handling Editor: Francis S. Nahm

Correspondence: Valdas Macionis
Independent Researcher, Fabijoniskiu 11, Vilnius 07122, Lithuania
Tel: +370 65674900, E-mail: valdas.macionis.md@gmail.com



This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>), which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

viral in the pain research community. More fundamental criticism of nociplastic pain as a mechanism emerged later [9–12] but has not received much debate. The reason may be that a couple of points have been overlooked. The current review aims to draw attention to this gap in the literature.

The material for this paper was identified by searches of PubMed, Google Scholar, and references from relevant articles. The search terms “brain”, “changes”, “chronic”, “complex regional pain”, “concept”, “damage”, “definition”, “diagnosis”, “emotional”, “experimental”, “fibromyalgia”, “hypersensitivity”, “irritable bowel”, “lesion”, “low back”, “maladaptive”, “migraine”, “neck”, “nerve”, “neural”, “neuroimaging”, “nociceptive”, “nociplastic”, “pain”, “pathophysiology”, “plastic”, “psychogenic”, “review”, “sensitization”, “structural”, “syndrome”, “treatment”, and their derivatives and combinations were used. The article search focused on uncertain pathophysiological, clinical, and terminological aspects of the nociplastic pain, with special attention to its neuropathic features. The most recent articles including reviews and discussions of the relevant topics were preferred for citation.

MAIN BODY

1. Speculativeness of the nociplastic pain pathophysiology

Generation and perception of pain is one of the protective functions of the nervous system. Contrastingly, the definition of nociplastic pain implies that this pain exists because of alteration (or malfunction) of nociceptors and does not require any noxious input. In simple terms, nociplastic pain serves no functional purpose. This is a fundamental weak point of the concept, because function is uncoupled from structure. The causative interrelation between structure and function is an established axiom of biological evolution [13].

The pathophysiology of nociplastic pain is claimed to involve nociceptive central sensitization (hypersensitivity) [4,5,11,14–16], which is considered to be an essential mechanism of all chronic pain conditions [17]. However, *symptomatic* nociceptive sensitization without continuing noxious input or pharmacological manipulation is a short-lived phenomenon [18,19], and there is no compelling substantiation of *autonomous* central sensitization [20] (which is understood to be a mechanism of nociplastic pain [11,16]). Electrophysiologically, neural sensitization means ongoing spontaneous activity (firing) of

neurons [21,22], persistence of which has experimentally been shown to require supportive neuroinflammatory (*i.e.*, noxious) input *via* local nerve lesion [23]. Moreover, nociceptive axons require neuroinflammatory stimulus to become mechnosensitive, and the latter feature seems to fade along with induced neuritis [24–26]. Neural injury-induced behavioral hypersensitivity resolves in parallel with abnormal activity of sensory afferents [27]. Thus, nociplastic pain may in fact be caused by a persistence of organic pathology that eludes diagnosis but can drive central sensitization. The same conclusion can be drawn from the fact that chronic pain is usually of fluctuating nature in terms of recurrence and intensity [28], which can be explained by a periodic rekindling of latent sensitization [18,19] *via* alternating activity of some background organic condition. This reasoning questions the existence of nociplastic pain as such.

Several experimental models of acute pain transition to nociplastic pain have been introduced [29]. The follow-up periods employed by these studies seem to be too short (a maximum of eight weeks [30]) to claim induction of nociplastic pain. Diagnosis of chronic pain comes into consideration only three months after the start of unremitting pain [31], which is also applicable to nociplastic pain conditions [4]. Furthermore, these models come without any demonstration that acute pain induction has not resulted in permanent tissue damage and neural damage in particular. The injections of formalin [30], reserpine with acetic acid [32], and capsaicin with ethanol [33] apart from systemic effects may have induced long-lasting inflammation and fibrosis, which may have acted as noxious stimuli, especially upon motion. Admittedly, experimental mechanical hypersensitivity can also be induced without open peripheral injury, *e.g.*, by intrathecal injection of the brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) that stimulates microglia, which in turn activates the second-order neurons [34]. However, neurotransmitters of pain are normally only released in response to certain stimuli, such as nerve injury or inflammation. Systemic action of experimental noxious substances may produce direct selective excitation of the second and third-order sensory neurons. It is also of importance that nociplastic pain models employ post-injury (or post-treatment) animal stimulation that involves repeated warm water immersions and vibration [35]. These procedures may be too traumatic to small animals. Vibration is a well-known cause of neural injury [36]. Unnatural exposures may produce muscle spasms or postural changes, which can affect nerves at the spinal level. Many other animal models of chronic pain can also be linked to pain-induced

postural effects on spinal roots and nerves. Notably, extensive plantar injury in rats has been previously demonstrated to result in Wallerian degeneration of neural fibers of the L5 spinal nerve [37]. In healthy humans, most models of experimental pain involve direct noxious stimulation of tissue and have not been shown to last beyond three months [38]. Induction of hyperalgesia by immobilization both in humans [39] and animals [40] may also be associated with neural damage due to postural changes or direct neural compression.

Another issue of concern is that the concept of nociplastic pain does not explain why not all pain patients invariably end up with this type of persistent pain. This question is a key test for the validity of any chronic pain theory. Aberrant changes in neurochemistry, such as glutamate/glutamine (Glx) and gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) levels in the brain, that have been found in nociplastic pain patients have not been shown to be exclusively specific to this condition [41,42]. Similar changes in neurotransmitter levels seem to be also present in neural injury-induced neuropathic pain [43]. Naturally, genes play a regulatory role. However, while certain genes can be associated with nociplastic pain [44], specific gene-related pathophysiology remains speculative. Anatomical predisposition to a compressive proximal neural lesion may be an explanation of genetic associations in many chronic pain conditions [45,46].

2. Occult neuropathy may be the cause of nociplastic pain

Can malfunction of the nervous system occur without its structural changes? One may argue that it is possible because neural functions can be altered by neurological drugs or other compounds. However, neuroactive substances, in fact, do interfere with neural structure by affecting neural receptors and ion channels. In natural conditions, release of pain mediators requires a continuing input, which also causes reversible or permanent changes of neural structure via receptor-binding mechanisms. The necessity of neuroinflammation to induce ongoing neuronal activity and mechanosensitivity [26,47–51] (*i.e.*, sensitization) raises further doubts as to whether nociplastic pain can occur without neural lesion.

As nociplastic pain syndromes have been categorized such enigmatic conditions as fibromyalgia, complex regional pain syndrome (CRPS), chronic primary headaches, including migraine [14,52], chronic whiplash-associated disorders [53], non-specific low back pain [14], and irritable bowel syndrome [14,16]. Such views

are disputable. Evidence is accumulating that neuropathy may be the cause of these and other types of chronic pain [9,54,55]. CRPS type I (that is considered to be of non-neurogenic origin, but which exhibits clinical features which are identical to those of nerve injury-based CRPS type II [56]) has been shown to be associated with histological peripheral nerve changes [57,58]. Convincing are patient series where CRPS type I was found to be related to peripheral neural damage [58–60]. Fibromyalgia, probably most frequently referred to as a nociplastic pain condition, has also been associated with neural pathology [61–64]. Widespread pain in fibromyalgia is not truly generalized but rather tends to be located in circumscribed body areas [65,66], which can be associated with distinct innervation patterns. This is in accord with segmental spread of fibromyalgia pain and trigger points [67]. Extrasegmental spread of pain [67] may be due to posture-related neural damage and neural interconnections in the central nervous system. The same explanation is applicable to non-symptomatic hypersensitivity that has been detected in some fibromyalgia pain-free areas [68]. Relevantly, Kosek et al. [4] included the presence of comorbidities (such as increased sensitivity to sound, light, and odors, sleep disturbances, fatigue, and cognitive problems) into their clinical criteria and grading system for musculoskeletal nociplastic pain. These comorbidity phenomena can also be explained by the spread of sensitization to uninvolved neural structures. Trigger points (which are observed in fibromyalgia [67], non-specific low back pain [69], and neck pain [70]) have anatomically been shown to be associated with neural entrapment at the tender sites, where nerves enter muscles [71–74] and the fascial openings contain a nerve with accompanying vessels (a “perforating triad”) [75]. This implies peripheral sensitization by some lesion of afferent nerves. *Structural* brain changes that have been found by neuroimaging in fibromyalgia [76,77], CRPS type I [78], migraine [79–81], non-specific neck pain [82], non-specific low back pain [83,84], and irritable bowel syndrome [85] may be a result of peripheral neural damage and consequent reduction of afferent input (see the relevant references in [46]).

It must be noted that neuropathic pain is not necessarily accompanied by typical symptoms of neuropathy. For example, neuralgic amyotrophy can present with motor symptoms but without sensory involvement [86]. This may be due to the greater vulnerability of motor fibers as compared with sensory ones [87,88], which may also account for the cases of the co-occurring fatigue-only symptom in fibromyalgia [89].

Toda [12] has suggested regarding nociplastic pain as

a subtype of neuropathic pain due to the similarity between treatments of these disorders. Notably, opioids have *not* been recommended for treatment of nociplastic as well as of neuropathic pain [90]. This coincidence may indicate a neuropathic nature of nociplastic pain. It is known that opioids can worsen both neuropathic [91] and nociplastic pain [92], possibly because of opioid-induced neurotoxicity [93] and neural damage [94–96]. Neuropeptides can attenuate opioid-induced hyperalgesia [97,98], which may be due to their neurotrophic effects. Therefore, opioid-induced hyperalgesia may be a consequence of neural damage rather than secondary nociplastic pain as previously suggested [99].

3. Can nociplastic pain be a mechanism of psyche-driven pain?

Emotional experience is a constituent part of the general definition of pain [3]. In this respect, psychogenic (somatoform) and pure emotional (psychological) pain are important subjects of the nociplastic pain concept. Psychogenic pain is considered physical pain caused by the psyche [100,101], while emotional pain is mental suffering without any concrete representation in the physical body [102]. However, research indicates that sensitization (neural hypersensitivity) can be caused both by psychogenic [103] and by emotional pain [104]. Emotional pain can also be linked with physical pain because emotional pain can cause immunologic and hormonal changes, which could be associated with minor traumatic brain injury [105].

On the other hand, once nociceptive pathways are sensitized, non-painful (subthreshold) stimuli may become painful. Physical pain can influence the psyche, and, thus, a vicious cycle between them may develop. Emotions can amplify somatic chronic pain [106]. Sensitization alone does not cause pain without stimulus, be it noxious or innocuous. Initial stages of some diseases, while being non-symptomatic, may affect the psyche. Psyche-driven sensitization may have a protective function, which can be in agreement with the evolutionary defensive purpose of pain (including psychogenic pain [101]) and would contradict the suggestion that central sensitization in nociplastic pain is a pathophysiological maladaptation [16,107]. Thus, while psyche-driven pain can support the nociplastic pain concept, its controversy remains.

4. Misapplication of the nociplastic pain concept may weaken diagnostic alertness

Nociplastic pain denotes the mechanism of pain, not a diagnosis [5]. Relevant concept-based studies continue to appear and include clinical research. Adherence to the category of nociplastic pain in the clinical setting may weaken vigilance toward possible occult organic causes of pain. The suggestion that a search for a causative condition can be discontinued once the diagnosis of nociplastic pain has become credible [108] is difficult to accept without discussion. For example, a neoplasm at its initial stage may be undetectable but may cause persistent pain. If the latter is defined as nociplastic, then the patient may remain in this category until the tumor becomes clinically obvious. Rigorous adherence to the suggestion to treat nociplastic pain with centrally targeted medications [4] may worsen a clinical picture by masking, and thus aggravating, possible compressive peripheral neuropathy [45]. Errors may also arise because of limited experience and diagnostic capacity. Of note, misdiagnosis in chronic pain conditions has been found to range from 40% to 80% [109], which includes frequent overlooking of neural compressive disorders [110].

Toda [12] indicated that higher “medical thresholds” in the future (which obviously alludes to advanced diagnostic standards and means) may enable us to reveal background somatosensory lesions in nociplastic pain. Hoegh et al. [10] proposed replacing the term “nociplastic pain” with the classical “pain of unknown origin” to avoid invalidating the patients who do not fall into the nociplastic pain category. The counter-argument that it is nociplastic pain category that helps to avoid invalidating patients [111] still lacks comparative clinical evidence of benefits of using the nociplastic pain concept. The term “pain of unknown origin,” differently from that of “nociplastic pain,” leaves the question of pain origin open and thus encourages diagnostic alertness.

5. The category of nociplastic pain is contradictory

Speculative use of the word “plastic” was often employed when observed phenomena could not be explained by the available knowledge and research methods [112]. The term “nociplastic pain,” apart from the nosological challenges [11], adds another semantic confusion to the growing perplexity of interpretation of the word “plastic” [8,113]. “Nociplastic pain” is supposed to signify the pathology of nociception (initially, Kosek et al. [5] proposed alternative terms of “algopathic and “nocipathic”

pain). Meanwhile, plasticity in biology is understood as organisms' adaptivity to environmental changes [114]. Similarly, neural plasticity has been defined as the ability of the nervous system to adapt in response to experience or injury [115]. Notably, "nociceptive plasticity" (the antecedent of "nociplastic" [5]) meant neurophysiologic adaptation rather than pathology when this term was introduced by Walters [116] in 1991. The concept of *maladaptive* neural plasticity in association with chronic pain emerged around the same time [117] and was later theorized to be the mechanism of dysfunctional pain (see, e.g., Costigan et al. [17]). Unfortunately, the definition of nociplastic pain comes without any reference to maladaptive plasticity [3,4,11], which does not facilitate the correct interpretation of the term "nociplastic."

The term "clear evidence" is another semantic issue of the nociplastic pain definition [3]. By common logic, the definition phrase "despite no clear evidence of actual or threatened tissue damage" indicates that any relevant evidence is absent beyond doubt. However, this phrase may also imply that some *unclear* evidence of actual tissue or somatosensory lesion (and thus of nociceptive or neuropathic pain) exists, which may leave the readers of the definition to decide for themselves what is clear and what is unclear evidence.

CONCLUSIONS

By definition, nociplastic pain is autonomous pain due to a malfunction of pain pathways and processing. The only diagnostic proof of nociplastic pain is the absence of clear evidence of structural causes of pain. A number of studies have shown that persistence of central sensitization, a mechanism of nociplastic pain, is unlikely without supportive noxious stimuli. Occult, currently undetectable, conditions associated with neural damage may explain nociplastic pain. For clinically practical purposes, understanding the term "nociplastic pain" as a mechanism of pain rather than as a diagnosis may help to avoid possible diagnostic and treatment errors. The theoretical uncertainty of the nociplastic pain concept should be further discussed, and its practical application should be reappraised.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analyzed for this paper.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

FUNDING

No funding to declare.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Valdas Macionis: Writing/manuscript preparation.

ORCID

Valdas Macionis, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7517-895X>

REFERENCES

1. Jackson T, Thomas S, Stabile V, Shotwell M, Han X, McQueen K. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the global burden of chronic pain without clear etiology in low- and middle-income countries: trends in heterogeneous data and a proposal for new assessment methods. *Anesth Analg* 2016; 123: 739-48.
2. Tsang A, Von Korff M, Lee S, Alonso J, Karam E, Angermeyer MC, et al. Common chronic pain conditions in developed and developing countries: gender and age differences and comorbidity with depression-anxiety disorders. *J Pain* 2008; 9: 883-91. Erratum in: *J Pain* 2009; 10: 553.
3. International Association for the Study of Pain. Terminology [Internet]. International Association for the Study of Pain; 2021. Available at: <https://www.iasp-pain.org/resources/terminology/>
4. Kosek E, Clauw D, Nijs J, Baron R, Gilron I, Harris RE, et al. Chronic nociplastic pain affecting the musculoskeletal system: clinical criteria and grading system. *Pain* 2021; 162: 2629-34.
5. Kosek E, Cohen M, Baron R, Gebhart GF, Mico JA, Rice ASC, et al. Do we need a third mechanistic descriptor for chronic pain states? *Pain* 2016; 157: 1382-6.
6. Moloney N, Rabey M, Nijs J, Hush J, Slater H. Support for extended classification of pain states. *Pain*

- 2017; 158: 1395.
7. Brummett C, Clauw D, Harris R, Harte S, Hassett A, Williams D. We agree with the need for a new term but disagree with the proposed terms. *Pain* 2016; 157: 2876.
 8. Granan LP. We do not need a third mechanistic descriptor for chronic pain states! Not yet. *Pain* 2017; 158: 179.
 9. Martínez-Lavín M. Centralized nociplastic pain causing fibromyalgia: an emperor with no cloths? *Clin Rheumatol* 2022; 41: 3915-7.
 10. Hoegh M, Schmid AB, Hansson P, Finnerup NB. Not being able to measure what is important, does not make things we can measure important. *Pain* 2022; 163: e963.
 11. Cohen M, Quintner J, Weisman A. "Nociplastic pain": a challenge to nosology and to nociception. *J Pain* 2023; 24: 2131-9.
 12. Toda K. Pure nociceptive pain is very rare. *Curr Med Res Opin* 2019; 35: 1991.
 13. Herman MA, Aiello BR, DeLong JD, Garcia-Ruiz H, González AL, Hwang W, et al. A unifying framework for understanding biological structures and functions across levels of biological organization. *Integr Comp Biol* 2022; 61: 2038-47.
 14. Fitzcharles MA, Cohen SP, Clauw DJ, Littlejohn G, Usui C, Häuser W. Nociplastic pain: towards an understanding of prevalent pain conditions. *Lancet* 2021; 397: 2098-110.
 15. Nijs J, Lahousse A, Kapreli E, Bilika P, Saraçoğlu İ, Malfliet A, et al. Nociplastic pain criteria or recognition of central sensitization? Pain phenotyping in the past, present and future. *J Clin Med* 2021; 10: 3203.
 16. Yoo YM, Kim KH. Current understanding of nociplastic pain. *Korean J Pain* 2024; 37: 107-18.
 17. Costigan M, Scholz J, Woolf CJ. Neuropathic pain: a maladaptive response of the nervous system to damage. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 2009; 32: 1-32.
 18. Marvizon JC, Walwyn W, Minasyan A, Chen W, Taylor BK. Latent sensitization: a model for stress-sensitive chronic pain. *Curr Protoc Neurosci* 2015; 71: 9.50.1-9.50.14.
 19. Gerum M, Simonin F. Behavioral characterization, potential clinical relevance and mechanisms of latent pain sensitization. *Pharmacol Ther* 2022; 233: 108032.
 20. Brazenor GA, Malham GM, Teddy PJ. Can central sensitization after injury persist as an autonomous pain generator? A comprehensive search for evidence. *Pain Med* 2022; 23: 1283-98.
 21. Bove GM, Dilley A. The conundrum of sensitization when recording from nociceptors. *J Neurosci Methods* 2010; 188: 213-8.
 22. Malick A, Burstein R. Peripheral and central sensitization during migraine. *Funct Neurol* 2000; 15 Suppl 3: 28-35.
 23. Satkeviciute I, Goodwin G, Bove GM, Dilley A. Time course of ongoing activity during neuritis and following axonal transport disruption. *J Neurophysiol* 2018; 119: 1993-2000.
 24. Dilley A, Bove GM. Resolution of inflammation-induced axonal mechanical sensitivity and conduction slowing in C-fiber nociceptors. *J Pain* 2008; 9: 185-92.
 25. Bove GM, Ransil BJ, Lin HC, Leem JG. Inflammation induces ectopic mechanical sensitivity in axons of nociceptors innervating deep tissues. *J Neurophysiol* 2003; 90: 1949-55.
 26. Greening J, Dilley A. Peripheral mechanisms of chronic upper limb pain: nerve dynamics, inflammation and neurophysiology. In: Neck and arm pain syndromes. Edited by Fernández de las Peñas C, Cleland JA, Huijbregts PA. Churchill Livingstone. 2011, pp 476-95.
 27. Boada MD, Martin TJ, Parker R, Houle TT, Eisenach JC, Ririe DG. Recovery from nerve injury induced behavioral hypersensitivity in rats parallels resolution of abnormal primary sensory afferent signaling. *Pain* 2020; 161: 949-59.
 28. Von Korff M, Ormel J, Keefe FJ, Dworkin SF. Grading the severity of chronic pain. *Pain* 1992; 50: 133-49.
 29. Matuska W, Matuska J, Skorupska E, Siwek M, Herrero P, Santafé MM. Can myofascial trigger points involve nociplastic pain? A scoping review on animal models. *J Pain Res* 2023; 16: 3747-58.
 30. Sugimoto M, Takahashi Y, Sugimura YK, Tokunaga R, Yajima M, Kato F. Active role of the central amygdala in widespread mechanical sensitization in rats with facial inflammatory pain. *Pain* 2021; 162: 2273-86.
 31. Treede RD, Rief W, Barke A, Aziz Q, Bennett MI, Benoliel R, et al. Chronic pain as a symptom or a disease: the IASP Classification of Chronic Pain for the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11). *Pain* 2019; 160: 19-27.
 32. Álvarez-Pérez B, Deulofeu M, Homs J, Merlos M, Vela JM, Verdú E, et al. Long-lasting reflexive and nonreflexive pain responses in two mouse models

- of fibromyalgia-like condition. *Sci Rep* 2022; 12: 9719.
33. Hankerd K, McDonough KE, Wang J, Tang SJ, Chung JM, La JH. Postinjury stimulation triggers a transition to nociplastic pain in mice. *Pain* 2022; 163: 461-73.
 34. Biggs JE, Lu VB, Stebbing MJ, Balasubramanian S, Smith PA. Is BDNF sufficient for information transfer between microglia and dorsal horn neurons during the onset of central sensitization? *Mol Pain* 2010; 6: 44.
 35. McDonough KE. Male-specific mechanisms in a murine model of nociplastic pain [Doctoral dissertation]. Galveston, TX: University of Texas Medical Branch, 2022.
 36. Govindaraju SR, Curry BD, Bain JLW, Riley DA. Nerve damage occurs at a wide range of vibration frequencies. *Int J Ind Ergon* 2008; 38: 687-92.
 37. Kajita Y, Suetomi K, Okada T, Ikeuchi M, Arai YC, Sato K, et al. Behavioral and neuropathological changes in animal models of chronic painful scar. *J Orthop Sci* 2013; 18: 1005-11.
 38. Reddy KS, Naidu MU, Rani PU, Rao TR. Human experimental pain models: a review of standardized methods in drug development. *J Res Med Sci* 2012; 17: 587-95.
 39. Terkelsen AJ, Bach FW, Jensen TS. Experimental forearm immobilization in humans induces cold and mechanical hyperalgesia. *Anesthesiology* 2008; 109: 297-307.
 40. Liu Y, Liang Y, Gao M, Li Y, Zhao T, Zhao Y. Animal models of complex regional pain syndrome type I. *J Pain Res* 2021; 14: 3711-21.
 41. Mawla IA. A multimodal examination of functional brain and neurochemical mechanisms underlying nociplastic pain [Doctoral dissertation]. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, 2022.
 42. Mawla I, Huang Z, Kaplan CM, Ichesco E, Waller N, Larkin TE, et al. Large-scale momentary brain co-activation patterns are associated with hyperalgesia and mediate focal neurochemistry and cross-network functional connectivity in fibromyalgia. *Pain* 2023; 164: 2737-48.
 43. Huynh V, Rosner J, Curt A, Kollias S, Hubli M, Michels L. Disentangling the effects of spinal cord injury and related neuropathic pain on supraspinal neuroplasticity: a systematic review on neuroimaging. *Front Neurol* 2020; 10: 1413.
 44. Johnston KJA, Signer R, Huckins LM. Chronic overlapping pain conditions and nociplastic pain. *HGG Adv* 2024; 6: 100381.
 45. Macionis V. Chronic pain and local pain in usually painless conditions including neuroma may be due to compressive proximal neural lesion. *Front Pain Res (Lausanne)* 2023; 4: 1037376.
 46. Macionis V. Neurovascular compression-induced intracranial allodynia may be the true nature of migraine headache: an interpretative review. *Curr Pain Headache Rep* 2023; 27: 775-91.
 47. Goodwin G. The role of axonal transport disruption in the development of axonal mechanical sensitivity in intact C-fibre neurons. [Doctoral dissertation]. Brighton: University of Brighton, 2018.
 48. Dilley A, Bove GM. Disruption of axoplasmic transport induces mechanical sensitivity in intact rat C-fibre nociceptor axons. *J Physiol* 2008; 586: 593-604.
 49. Eliav E, Benoliel R, Tal M. Inflammation with no axonal damage of the rat saphenous nerve trunk induces ectopic discharge and mechanosensitivity in myelinated axons. *Neurosci Lett* 2001; 311: 49-52.
 50. Chacur M, Milligan ED, Gazda LS, Armstrong C, Wang H, Tracey KJ, et al. A new model of sciatic inflammatory neuritis (SIN): induction of unilateral and bilateral mechanical allodynia following acute unilateral peri-sciatic immune activation in rats. *Pain* 2001; 94: 231-44.
 51. Dilley A, Lynn B, Pang SJ. Pressure and stretch mechanosensitivity of peripheral nerve fibres following local inflammation of the nerve trunk. *Pain* 2005; 117: 462-72.
 52. Bułdyś K, Górnicki T, Kałka D, Szuster E, Biernikiewicz M, Markuszewski L, et al. What do we know about nociplastic pain? *Healthcare (Basel)* 2023; 11: 1794.
 53. Ferro Moura Franco K, Lenoir D, Dos Santos Franco YR, Jandre Reis FJ, Nunes Cabral CM, Meeus M. Prescription of exercises for the treatment of chronic pain along the continuum of nociplastic pain: a systematic review with meta-analysis. *Eur J Pain* 2021; 25: 51-70.
 54. Borchers AT, Gershwin ME. The clinical relevance of complex regional pain syndrome type I: The Emperor's New Clothes. *Autoimmun Rev* 2017; 16: 22-33.
 55. Trescot AM, Krashin D. Consequences of peripheral nerve entrapment. In: *Peripheral nerve entrapments: clinical diagnosis and management*. Edited by Trescot AM. Springer Cham. 2016, pp 15-7.

56. Harden RN, McCabe CS, Goebel A, Massey M, Suvar T, Grieve S, et al. Complex regional pain syndrome: practical diagnostic and treatment guidelines, 5th edition. *Pain Med* 2022; 23(Suppl 1): S1-53.
57. van der Laan L, ter Laak HJ, Gabreëls-Festen A, Gabreëls F, Goris RJ. Complex regional pain syndrome type I (RSD): pathology of skeletal muscle and peripheral nerve. *Neurology* 1998; 51: 20-5.
58. Oaklander AL, Fields HL. Is reflex sympathetic dystrophy/complex regional pain syndrome type I a small-fiber neuropathy? *Ann Neurol* 2009; 65: 629-38.
59. Dellon L, Andonian E, Rosson GD. Lower extremity complex regional pain syndrome: long-term outcome after surgical treatment of peripheral pain generators. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2010; 49: 33-6.
60. Dellon AL, Andonian E, Rosson GD. CRPS of the upper or lower extremity: surgical treatment outcomes. *J Brachial Plex Peripher Nerve Inj* 2009; 4: 1.
61. On AY, Tanigor G, Baydar DA. Relationships of autonomic dysfunction with disease severity and neuropathic pain features in fibromyalgia: is it really a sympathetically maintained neuropathic pain? *Korean J Pain* 2022; 35: 327-35.
62. Viceconti A, Geri T, De Luca S, Maselli F, Rossetini G, Sulli A, et al. Neuropathic pain and symptoms of potential small-fiber neuropathy in fibromyalgic patients: a national on-line survey. *Joint Bone Spine* 2021; 88: 105153.
63. Di Carlo M, Cesaroni P, Salaffi F. Neuropathic pain features suggestive of small fibre neuropathy in fibromyalgia syndrome: a clinical and ultrasonographic study on female patients. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 2021; 39 Suppl 130: 102-7.
64. Hulens M, Bruyninckx F, Rasschaert R, Vansant G, De Mulder P, Stalmans I, et al. Electrodiagnostic abnormalities associated with fibromyalgia. *J Pain Res* 2020; 13: 737-44.
65. Staud R, Price DD, Robinson ME, Vierck CJ Jr. Body pain area and pain-related negative affect predict clinical pain intensity in patients with fibromyalgia. *J Pain* 2004; 5: 338-43.
66. Staud R, Vierck CJ, Robinson ME, Price DD. Overall fibromyalgia pain is predicted by ratings of local pain and pain-related negative affect--possible role of peripheral tissues. *Rheumatology (Oxford)* 2006; 45: 1409-15.
67. Ge HY. Prevalence of myofascial trigger points in fibromyalgia: the overlap of two common problems. *Curr Pain Headache Rep* 2010; 14: 339-45.
68. Fernandez-de-las-Penas C. Clinical evidence of generalised mechanical hypersensitivity in local musculoskeletal pain syndromes and headaches [Doctoral dissertation]. Aalborg: Aalborg University, 2012.
69. Chiarotto A, Clijisen R, Fernandez-de-Las-Penas C, Barbero M. Prevalence of myofascial trigger points in spinal disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2016; 97: 316-37.
70. Cerezo-Téllez E, Torres-Lacomba M, Mayoral-Del Moral O, Sánchez-Sánchez B, Dommerholt J, Gutiérrez-Ortega C. Prevalence of myofascial pain syndrome in chronic non-specific neck pain: a population-based cross-sectional descriptive study. *Pain Med* 2016; 17: 2369-77.
71. Akamatsu FE, Saleh S, Pinesi HT, Rodrigues KR, Zandoná CB, Andrade M, et al. Anatomical basis of the myofascial trigger points of the trapezius muscle. *Int J Morphol* 2013; 31: 915-20.
72. Akamatsu FE, Yendo TM, Rhode C, Itezerote AM, Hojaij F, Andrade M, et al. Anatomical basis of the myofascial trigger points of the gluteus maximus muscle. *Biomed Res Int* 2017; 2017: 4821968.
73. Wada JT, Akamatsu F, Hojaij F, Itezerote A, Scarpa JC, Andrade M, et al. An anatomical basis for the myofascial trigger points of the abductor hallucis muscle. *Biomed Res Int* 2020; 2020: 9240581.
74. Procópio Pinheiro R, Gaubeur MA, Itezerote AM, Saleh SO, Hojaij F, Andrade M, et al. Anatomical study of the innervation of the masseter muscle and its correlation with myofascial trigger points. *J Pain Res* 2020; 13: 3217-26.
75. Gautschi RU. Trigger points as a fascia-related disorder. In: *Fascia: the tensional network of the human body*. 2nd ed. Edited by Schleip R, Stecco C, Driscoll M, Huijing PA. Elsevier. 2021, pp 329-40.
76. Jorge LL, Amaro E Jr. Brain imaging in fibromyalgia. *Curr Pain Headache Rep* 2012; 16: 388-98.
77. Suñol M, Payne MF, Tong H, Maloney TC, Ting TV, Kashikar-Zuck S, et al. Brain structural changes during juvenile fibromyalgia: relationships with pain, fatigue, and functional disability. *Arthritis Rheumatol* 2022; 74: 1284-94.
78. Lee DH, Lee KJ, Cho KI, Noh EC, Jang JH, Kim YC, et al. Brain alterations and neurocognitive dysfunction in patients with complex regional pain syndrome. *J Pain* 2015; 16: 580-6.
79. Hasan H, Irfan Waheed R, Bin Arif T, Saleem S, Anwar A. Gray and white matter changes in mi-

- graineurs: a review of literature. *SN Compr Clin Med* 2020; 2: 2185-96.
80. Kim SK, Nikolova S, Schwedt TJ. Structural aberrations of the brain associated with migraine: a narrative review. *Headache* 2021; 61: 1159-79.
 81. Ashina S, Bentivegna E, Martelletti P, Eikermann-Haerter K. Structural and functional brain changes in migraine. *Pain Ther* 2021; 10: 211-23.
 82. DePauw R, Coppieters I, Meeus M, Caeyenberghs K, Danneels L, Cagnie B. Is traumatic and non-traumatic neck pain associated with brain alterations? - A systematic review. *Pain Physician* 2017; 20: 245-60.
 83. Kregel J, Meeus M, Malfliet A, Dolphens M, Danneels L, Nijs J, et al. Structural and functional brain abnormalities in chronic low back pain: a systematic review. *Semin Arthritis Rheum* 2015; 45: 229-37.
 84. Ng SK, Urquhart DM, Fitzgerald PB, Cicuttini FM, Hussain SM, Fitzgibbon BM. The relationship between structural and functional brain changes and altered emotion and cognition in chronic low back pain brain changes: a systematic review of MRI and fMRI studies. *Clin J Pain* 2018; 34: 237-61.
 85. Weaver KR, Sherwin LB, Walitt B, Melkus GD, Henderson WA. Neuroimaging the brain-gut axis in patients with irritable bowel syndrome. *World J Gastrointest Pharmacol Ther* 2016; 7: 320-33.
 86. van Alfen N, van Engelen BG. The clinical spectrum of neuralgic amyotrophy in 246 cases. *Brain* 2006; 129(Pt 2): 438-50.
 87. Kaji R. Physiology of conduction block in multifocal motor neuropathy and other demyelinating neuropathies. *Muscle Nerve* 2003; 27: 285-96.
 88. Hofmeijer J, Franssen H, van Schelven LJ, van Putten MJ. Why are sensory axons more vulnerable for ischemia than motor axons? *PLoS One* 2013; 8: e67113.
 89. Creavin ST, Dunn KM, Mallen CD, Nijrolder I, van der Windt DA. Co-occurrence and associations of pain and fatigue in a community sample of Dutch adults. *Eur J Pain* 2010; 14: 327-34.
 90. Moisset X, Bouhassira D, Avez Couturier J, Alchaar H, Conradi S, Delmotte MH, et al. Pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments for neuropathic pain: systematic review and French recommendations. *Rev Neurol (Paris)* 2020; 176: 325-52.
 91. Li L, Chen J, Li YQ. The downregulation of opioid receptors and neuropathic pain. *Int J Mol Sci* 2023; 24: 5981.
 92. Holman A, Parikh N, Clauw DJ, Williams DA, Tapper EB. Contemporary management of pain in cirrhosis: toward precision therapy for pain. *Hepatology* 2023; 77: 290-304.
 93. Pereira J, Bruera E. Emerging neuropsychiatric toxicities of opioids. *J Pharm Care Pain Symptom Control* 1997; 5: 3-29.
 94. Mao J, Sung B, Ji RR, Lim G. Neuronal apoptosis associated with morphine tolerance: evidence for an opioid-induced neurotoxic mechanism. *J Neurosci* 2002; 22: 7650-61.
 95. Cunha-Oliveira T, Rego AC, Oliveira CR. Cellular and molecular mechanisms involved in the neurotoxicity of opioid and psychostimulant drugs. *Brain Res Rev* 2008; 58: 192-208.
 96. Niedzielska E, Rospond B, Pomierny-Chamioło L, Sadakierska-Chudy A, Filip M. Neurotoxicity in psychostimulant and opiate addiction. In: *Handbook of neurotoxicity*. Edited by Kostrzewa RM. Springer New York. 2014, pp 455-512.
 97. Youn DH, Jun J, Kim TW, Park K. Spinal orexin A attenuates opioid-induced mechanical hypersensitivity in the rat. *Korean J Pain* 2022; 35: 433-9.
 98. Mercadante S, Arcuri E, Santoni A. Opioid-induced tolerance and hyperalgesia. *CNS Drugs* 2019; 33: 943-55.
 99. Santoni A, Arcuri E. The ambiguity of opioids revealed by immunology is changing the knowledge and the therapeutic approach in cancer and non-cancer pain: a narrative review. *Immunol Lett* 2020; 226: 12-21.
 100. Covington EC. Psychogenic pain-what it means, why it does not exist, and how to diagnose it. *Pain Med* 2000; 1: 287-94.
 101. de Greck M. Somatization and bodily distress disorder. In: *Neuropsychodynamic psychiatry*. Edited by Boeker H, Hartwich P, Northoff G. Springer Cham. 2018, pp 319-34.
 102. Tossani E. The concept of mental pain. *Psychother Psychosom* 2013; 82: 67-73.
 103. Egloff N, Cámara RJ, von Känel R, Klingler N, Marti E, Ferrari ML. Hypersensitivity and hyperalgesia in somatoform pain disorders. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry* 2014; 36: 284-90.
 104. Mohammadi F, Kohlmeier KA, Jeddi S, Ahmadi-Zeidabadi M, Shabani M. Affective dimensions of pain and region-specific involvement of nitric oxide in the development of empathic hyperalgesia. *Sci Rep* 2020; 10: 10141.
 105. Shulman LM. Emotional traumatic brain injury.

- Cogn Behav Neurol 2020; 33: 301-3.
106. Vachon-Pressseau E, Centeno MV, Ren W, Berger SE, Tétreault P, Ghantous M, et al. The emotional brain as a predictor and amplifier of chronic pain. *J Dent Res* 2016; 95: 605-12.
 107. Popkirov S, Enax-Krumova EK, Mainka T, Hoheisel M, Hausteiner-Wiehle C. Functional pain disorders - more than nociplastic pain. *NeuroRehabilitation* 2020; 47: 343-53.
 108. Fitzcharles MA, Petzke F, Tölle TR, Häuser W. Cannabis-based medicines and medical cannabis in the treatment of nociplastic pain. *Drugs* 2021; 81: 2103-16.
 109. Hendler N. Why chronic pain patients are misdiagnosed 40 to 80% of the time? *J Recent Adv Pain* 2016; 2: 94-8.
 110. Hendler NH, Kozikowski JG. Overlooked physical diagnoses in chronic pain patients involved in litigation. *Psychosomatics* 1993; 34: 494-501.
 111. Kosek E, Clauw D, Nijs J, Baron R, Gilron I, Harris RE, et al. Reply to Hoegh et al. *Pain* 2023; 164: e116.
 112. Flores C. Plastic intellectual breeze: the contribution of Ralph Cudworth to S. T. Coleridge's early poetics of the symbol. Peter Lang. 2008.
 113. van der Laan JM. Plastic words: words without meaning. *Bull Sci Technol Soc* 2001; 21: 349-53.
 114. Skipper M, Weiss U, Gray N. Plasticity. *Nature* 2010; 465: 703.
 115. von Bernhardt R, Bernhardt LE, Eugén J. What is neural plasticity? *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2017; 1015: 1-15.
 116. Walters ET. A functional, cellular, and evolutionary model of nociceptive plasticity in aplysia. *Biol Bull* 1991; 180: 241-51.
 117. McQuay HJ, Dickenson AH. Implications of nervous system plasticity for pain management. *Anaesthesia* 1990; 45: 101-2.