

Review Article

Stem cell therapy for neuropathic pain treatment

Dario Siniscalco*, Francesco Rossi, Sabatino Maione

¹Department of Experimental Medicine - Section of Pharmacology "L. Donatelli", Second University of Naples

* Dario Siniscalco, Department of Experimental Medicine - Section of Pharmacology "L. Donatelli", Second University of Naples. Via S. Maria di Costantinopoli, 16 - 80138 Naples, Italy. E.mail; dariosin@uab.edu

Published online on 14 Nov 2007

Abstract

Pain initiated or caused by a primary lesion or dysfunction in the nervous system is defined as neuropathic pain.

About 75 -150 million people in the United States are suffering for chronic pain disorder. Neuropathic pain has a great impact on the human wellbeing. It is very debilitating and often has an associated degree of depression that contributes to decreasing the quality of life. Moreover, the management of chronic pain is costly to the health care system. Pain is a national healthcare priority in US: the United States Congress has declared the present decade (2001-2010) as the "Decade of Pain Control and Research".

Neuropathic pain is a very complex disease, involving several molecular pathways. Due to its individual character, its treatment is extremely difficult. Current available drugs are usually not acting on the several mechanisms underlying the generation and propagation of pain.

Nowadays, pain research is focusing on newer molecular ways, such as stem cell therapy, gene therapy, and viral vectors for delivery of biologic anti-nociceptive molecules. These methods could provide a new therapeutic approach to neuropathic pain relief.

Key words; neuropathic pain, stem cell therapy, gene therapy, virus vector

Pathophysiology of Neuropathic Pain

Neuropathic pain is defined as pain initiated or caused by a primary lesion or dysfunction in the nervous system ^[1, 2], and several clinical symptoms are associated with it ^[3]. Most common are hyperalgesia (an increased response to a stimulus which is normally painful; patients with hyperalgesia perceive pain spontaneously) and allodynia (pain as a result of a stimulus which does not provoke pain; patients with allodynia do not feel constant pain, in fact in the absence of a stimulus there is no pain) ^[4]. Neuropathic pain can be triggered by central or peripheral nerve injury. Changes in the spinal cord or in the peripheral nerve, but also in the brain, have been reported, although these molecular alterations are still far to be clarified. Nociceptive signalling terminates in the spinal cord, the first centre involved in the controlling and processing of pain transmission. Indeed, in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord nociceptive afferent fibers terminate where the nociceptive neurons are located in the superficial lamina I (marginal layer) and in the lamina II (substantia gelatinosa). Interactions between nociceptive and non-nociceptive afferent pathways control the transmission of nociceptive information to higher centres in the brain ^[5].

Due to nociceptive input, such as peripheral nerve injury, the spinal cord anatomical structure is subjected to a re-organization. Indeed, the myelinated primary afferent fibers sprout into lamina II of the dorsal horn, establishing synaptic contacts with second-order neurons. In this way, they help to conduct the allodynic transmission ^[6].

Another change is a phenomena called “wind-up”, a condition of central sensitization resulted from severe and persistent injury. In this condition, C-fibres are frequently sped on, releasing glutamate, and the response of the neurons of the dorsal horn spinal cord progressively increases ^[7, 8].

Glutamate is the major nociceptive excitatory neurotransmitter released from A-delta and C-fibres. Once released, glutamate is able to evoke fast synaptic potentials in dorsal horn neurons by activating the pre- and post-synaptic glutamate receptors. Among them, the ionotropic NMDA receptor is most involved in the events correlated with nociception [9], and with the maintenance of central sensitization and hyperexcitability of dorsal horn neurons. Activation of NMDA receptors increases the concentration of the calcium ion by the indirect activation of protein kinase C ^[10].

In the brain, the insular cortex is directly involved in the pain modulation. In this area, anti-nociceptive response is increased by the GABA neurotransmission [11]. In particular, there is evidence that GABA_A receptors modulate the nociceptive threshold affecting the noradrenergic bulbo-spinal projections from the insular cortex to the locus coeruleus, and GABA_B receptors modulate the projections from cortex to amygdala ^[11].

Is the neuropathic pain a complete disease and not only the result of an other syndrome or injury? Interesting, newer molecular studies support this idea. Changes in DNA expression in the neuropathic pain syndrome have been observed. In response to peripheral noxious stimuli, dorsal horn neurons over-express the immediate early genes encoding transcription factors, such as c-jun and c-fos. These genes could be involved in cell death induction via a long-lasting cascade of transcriptional processes ^[12]. Indeed, the apoptotic genes mRNA expression levels of the bcl-2 cell death-associated family in the lumbar dorsal horn of the spinal cord of neuropathic rats are modified by peripheral nerve injury ^[13].

Following nerve injury, the afferent neurons (injured sensory neurons and their uninjured neighbours) close to the site of the injury increase their level of firing. This massive activity is called ectopic discharge, and it has also been proven in humans with neuropathic pain ^[14]. Altered expression of several types of sodium channels is responsible for the ectopic

firing after nerve injury, such as the voltage-gated sodium channels^[15, 16]. The mechanisms responsible for the changes in the channel expression are not yet clear. Involvement of the neurotrophin (such as NGF, GDNF) supply has been suggested as a possibility^[17].

The calcium channels may also contribute to the induction of hyperalgesia and allodynia^[18].

After peripheral nerve injury, sprouting of collateral fibres from sensory axons in the skin into denervated areas has been observed^[19, 20]. Neurotrophic factors and several cytokines, such as interleukin-1 (IL-1) and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha), may be involved in the sprouting formation and in pathophysiology of neuropathic pain^[21, 22].

Classical pharmacological treatment

Pain has a very complex nature. Nowadays there are not drugs for the neuropathic pain treatment acting in a complete and definitive way.

Currently, lidocaine, lamotrigine, acetaminophen, dextromethorphan, carbamazepine, gabapentin, valproic acid, opioid analgesics, tramadol hydrochloride, and tricyclic antidepressants are used for the classical pharmacological treatment of neuropathic pain.

Clinical research is studying new direct-acting compounds to sodium and calcium channels since the ability of these channels to contribute to the development of neuronal hyperexcitability and the production of pain-associated behaviour. Lidocaine, a sodium channel blocker, is effective in the pain relief^[23], however, the available blockers are not specific between the several types of sodium channels. A private company is developing a new sodium channel blocker, Ralfinamide, for the potential treatment of neuropathic pain^[24, 25].

Specific antagonists for the neuronal calcium channel are able to reduce heat hyperalgesia

and mechanical allodynia in a pain model, the chronic constriction injury of the sciatic nerve, if administered locally on the site of nerve injury^[17]. More interesting, reduction of neuropathic pain associated with spinal cord injury in humans has been shown with intrathecal ziconotide, a marine-derived peptide^[26].

Calcium flux is decreased by activation of the cannabinoid receptor subtype 1. The synthetic cannabinoid CB1 receptor agonist Win 55,212-2 decreases neuropathic pain behaviour, such as thermal hyperalgesia and mechanical allodynia^[27].

As mentioned above, the main nociceptive neurotransmitter is glutamate. Inflammation and central sensitization are also controlled by NMDA glutamate receptors. NMDA receptor antagonists are able to attenuate neuropathic pain. Indeed, the NMDA receptor antagonist MK-801 has a potent anti-nociceptive effect^[28, 29, 30], but due to its high toxic properties and low safety margins it is not available for clinical use on human patients. Nevertheless, amantadine, dextromethorphan, ketamine, and memantine are commercially available NMDA-receptor antagonists. The opioids methadone, dextropropoxyphene and ketobemidone are also NMDA-antagonists, as well as the tricyclic antidepressant amitriptyline^[31, 32]. NMDA-receptor antagonists in combination with opioids might represent a new class of analgesic and might have potential as a co-analgesic; NMDA-receptor antagonists help to enhance development of tolerance to opioid analgesics^[33].

In pain transmission, glutamate activates also group I metabotropic receptors (mGluRs). Peripheral and central mGluR5 receptors are responsible of the nociceptive transmission observed during post-operative pain^[34]. MPEP, the potent and selective antagonist for metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 5 (mGlu5), is able to prevent the development of thermal hyperalgesia, transiently reduce mechanical hyperalgesia in neuropathic rats, and prevent the over-expression of pro-apoptotic genes in dorsal horn spinal cord

neurons^[3]. This subtype of metabotropic glutamate receptors could represent the prototype of new potential drugs in pain treatment; however, due to the complex role of glutamate in the nervous central system, blockade of glutamate receptors is associated with several side effects.

The typical mu-opioid analgesics, such as morphine, can be relatively ineffective in treating neuropathic pain since different opioids can produce analgesia by affecting different pain pathways^[35].

Likely, the optimal classical drugs in the treatment of neuropathic pain are the anticonvulsant gabapentin, and its successor pregabalin^[36, 37, 38, 39]. They are able to decrease the hyperexcitability of dorsal horn neurons induced by tissue injury, but their mechanism of action is still unclear. Interesting, they have only an effect in a condition of sensitization of a nociceptive pathway.

Molecular methods for neuropathic pain treatment

Newer molecular methods, such as gene therapy and viral vector for the delivery of biologic anti-nociceptive molecules, could represent a novel therapeutic approach to the neuropathic pain treatment^[40].

Following peripheral nerve injury, spinal re-organization and changes in the excitatory or inhibitory pathways controlling neuropathic pain development are correlated with altered gene expression. Novel molecular pharmacological strategy is directed toward the control of the gene up- or down-regulation. Antisense knock-down strategy could represent a novel approach to the neuropathic pain therapy in the nearest future. As next step, antisense research has to elucidate the pharmacodynamics, pharmacokinetics and distributions of antisense oligonucleotides.

Among the genes showing altered expression in neuropathic pain, several sodium and calcium channels contribute to the hyper-

responsiveness of dorsal horn sensory neurons and to hyperalgesia and allodynia^[16, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46]. Gene silencing by the use of antisense oligonucleotides, a novel molecular pharmacological approach, causes a decrease in pain-related behaviour.

Nicotinic receptors, P2X receptors, 5-HT1A receptors, NMDA glutamate receptors and opioid receptors have been successfully used as target for antisense knock-downing strategy, showing a decrease in nociceptive behaviour^[47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52].

Immediate early genes, such as c-fos, are over-expressed in dorsal horn neurons of the spinal cord after peripheral nerve injury. Also in this case, intrathecal administration into the lumbar region L1-L5 of c-fos antisense oligonucleotides has shown a role played by the c-fos gene in neuropathic pain^[53].

Viral vector technology to delivery anti-nociceptive molecules could represent a novel therapeutic strategy. Dorsal root ganglion neurons transduced with replication-incompetent herpes simplex virus (HSV-) based vector, encoding the GAD67 isoform of human glutamic acid decarboxylase, are able to produce GAD and release GABA, reducing neuropathic pain following a spinal cord injury^[54]. Constitutive GABA expression via recombinant adeno-associated virus producing GAD65 attenuates neuropathic pain^[55]. It has been demonstrated that virus encoding human pre-proenkephalin (hPPE) are able to decrease the activation-levels of nociceptors by capsaicin treatment in mice and macaques^[56].

Coupling antisense knock-down and viral vector technology is showing promising results. Virus delivering antisense cDNA versus calcitonin gene-related peptide precursor (ACGRP) decreases C-fiber hyperalgesia due to the application of capsaicin on the skin in mice^[56].

Potentially, all the molecules, such as neurotrophines, having nociceptive effects could be delivered by adenovirus. Candidate gene products include directly analgesic

molecules, as well as molecules that are able to interfere with pain-associated biochemical changes in pain pathways. Recombinant adenovirus encoding NT-3, BDNF, GDNF, or

Semaphorin3A into animal models of neuropathy showed good results for neuropathic pain relief [57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62]. Intrathecal delivery of the adenovirus-mediated IL-2 gene has a relatively long anti-nociceptive effect [63].

Non-invasive gene delivery systems could be usefully used for targeting peripheral nervous system pathologies. Subcutaneous peripheral injection of plasmid DNA complexed with a non-viral cationized gelatin (CG) vector led to transgene expression in rat lumbar dorsal root ganglia [64].

Stem cell therapy

Nowadays, stem cell therapy represents the great promise for the future of molecular medicine. Several diseases can be slowed or even blocked by stem cell transplantation. Stem cells could be neuroprotective in a variety of nervous system injury models. As neurodegenerative disease, also neuropathic pain undergoes to stem cell therapy [40], even if the state of the art is still poor of basic and clinical research.

Marrow mononuclear cells containing mixed stem cell populations have been intravenously used in neuropathic rats showing recovery from pain [65].

Stem cell implantation could be a possible solution for spinal cord injury. Stem cells have the ability to incorporate into spinal cord, differentiate, and to improve locomotor recovery [66].

Despite ethical problems, it has been demonstrated that human embryonic neural stem cells can promote functional corticospinal axons regeneration and synapse reformation in the injured spinal cord of rats. The action is mainly through the nutritional effect of the stem cells on the spinal cord.

Transplanted cells were found to migrate into the lesion, but not scatter along the route of axon growth. The cells differentiated into astrocytes or oligodendrocytes, but not into the neurons after transplantation [67].

Spinal progenitor cells intrathecally transplanted in neuropathic rats are able to alleviate neuropathic pain [68]. Murine neural stem cells (NSCs) homografted onto the injured spinal cord improved motor behaviour [69].

How do stem cells work? Stem cells transplanted following spinal cord injury are able to reduce allodynia and improve functional recovery if they produce more oligodendrocytes than astrocytes [70]. Serotonergic neural precursor cell grafts are able to reduce hyperexcitability caused by spinal injury [71]. Neuropathic pain causes a decrease in the number and activity of GABAergic neurons, the spinal progenitor cells show glutamic acid decarboxylase immunocompetence, in this way they can supply the decreased GABA profile [70, 72].

Is the stem cell differentiation the key for the pain care? Or do they provide several molecules with analgesic action? Indeed, using of genetically engineered stem cells expressing anti-nociceptive molecules or trophic factors seems to be an useful tool in neuropathic pain relief. Stem cells could be used as biologic "minipumps" to chronically deliver anti-nociceptive molecules close to the pain processing centers or the sites of injury [73, 74].

Besides genetic engineering, stem cells applied to the site of the injury could provide trophic factors directly in situ, by this way acting as anti-nociceptive drug.

Among the stem cell population, mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) rise probably best potential good results in pain-care research. These cells are a population of progenitor cells of mesodermal origin found in the bone marrow of adults, giving rise to skeletal muscle cells, blood, fat, vascular and

urogenital systems, and to connective tissues throughout the body^[75, 76]. MSCs show a high expansion potential, genetic stability, stable phenotype, can be easily collected and shipped from the laboratory to the bedside and are compatible with different delivery methods and formulations^[77]. In addition, MSCs have two other extraordinary characteristics: they are able to migrate to sites of tissue injury and have strong immunosuppressive properties that can be exploited for successful autologous as well as heterologous transplantations^[78]. Besides, MSCs are capable of differentiating into neurons and astrocytes in vitro and in vivo^[79]. Recently, MSC injection has shown good results for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis treatment in human^[80]. They are able to improve neurological deficits and to promote neuronal networks with functional synaptic transmission when transplanted into animal models of neurological disorders^[81].

MSCs have been observed to migrate to the injured tissues and mediate functional recovery following brain, spinal cord and peripheral nerve lesions, suggesting that MSCs could modulate pain generation after sciatic nerve constriction^[82], although the underlying mechanisms by which MSCs exert their actions on pain behavior is still to be clarified.

We are currently studying the use of human mesenchymal stem cells (hMSCs) for neuropathic pain treatment in rodents. hMSCs micro-injected into specific nuclei involved in pain processing were able to completely abolish pain-like behaviour in neuropathic mice (Siniscalco, 2007, unpublished data).

Recently, Dr Stephen Richardson of the University of Manchester has developed, under patent, a cell-based tissue engineering approach to regenerate the intervertebral disc at the affected level in the low back pain (www.ls.manchester.ac.uk/ukctr). This is achieved through the combination of the patients' own mesenchymal stem cells and a naturally occurring collagen gel that can be implanted through a minimally-invasive surgical technique. Hopefully, once implanted

the differentiated MSCs would produce a new tissue with the same properties as the original and would both treat the underlying cause of the disease and remove the painful symptoms.

Conclusions

Neuropathic pain has a great impact on the quality of life, reducing human wellbeing. Management of chronic pain is very costly to the health care system. Since 75-150 million people in the United States have a chronic pain disorder^[40]. The United States Congress has declared the present decade (2001-2010) as the "Decade of Pain Control and Research", making pain a national healthcare priority.

Neuropathic pain involves several molecular pathways and is a very complex disease. It has an individual character, making its treatment extremely difficult. Currently, available treatments address the pain-symptoms using a combination of painkillers. None of these is ideal as they only treat the symptoms and temporal pain properties, not the cause, and are of limited long-term success.

Novel molecular methods, such as antisense strategy, gene therapy, and virus therapy, are acting on the several mechanisms underlying the generation and propagation of pain. More recently, preliminary clinical evidence suggests that stem cell therapy could provide best results, this strategy could be the definitive pain-relief drug for the next future.

References

1. Merskey H, Bogduk N. Classification of chronic pain. IASP press, Seattle, 1994.
2. Siniscalco D, de Novellis V, Rossi F, Maione S. Neuropathic pain: is the end of suffering starting in the gene therapy. *Curr Drug Targets*. 2005; 6: 75-80.
3. de Novellis V, Siniscalco D, Galderisi U, Fuccio C, Nolano M, Santoro L, Cascino A, Roth KA, Rossi F, Maione S. Blockade of glutamate mGlu5 receptors in a rat model of neuropathic pain prevents early over-expression of pro-apoptotic genes and morphological changes in dorsal horn lamina II. *Neuropharmacology* 2004; 46: 468-479.

4. Bonica JJ. In *Advances in Pain Research and Therapy*. Raven Press, New York, 1970, pp141-166.
5. Kandel E.R, Schwartz JH, Jessel TM. In *Principles of Neural Science*. McGraw-Hill, New York, 4th ed. 2000.
6. Woolf CJ, Mannion RJ. Neuropathic pain: aetiology, symptoms, mechanisms and management. *Lancet* 1999; 353:1959-1964.
- 7.Coderre TJ, Katz J, Vaccarino AL, Melzack R. Contribution of central neuroplasticity to pathological pain: review of clinical and experimental evidence. *Pain* 1993; 52: 259-285.
8. Mendell L.M. physiological properties of unmyelinated fiber projection to the spinal cord. *Exp. Neurol.* 1996;16: 316-332.
9. Doubell TP, Mannion RJ, Woolf CJ. In *Textbook of Pain*. Churchill Livingstone, London, 4th ed. 1999, pp165-182.
10. Hua XY, Chen P, Yaksh TL. Inhibition of spinal protein kinase C reduces nerve injury-induced tactile allodynia in neuropathic rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 1999; 276: 99-102.
11. Jasmin L, Rabkin SD, Granato A, Boudah A, Ohara PT. Analgesia and hyperalgesia from GABA-mediated modulation of the cerebral cortex. *Nature* 2003; 424: 316-320.
12. Zimmermann M. Pathobiology of neuropathic pain. *Eur J Pharmacol.* 2001; 429: 23-37.
13. Maione S, Siniscalco D, Galderisi U, de Novellis V, Uliano R, Di Bernardo G, Berrino L, Cascino A, Rossi F, Apoptotic genes expression in the lumbar dorsal horn in a model neuropathic pain in rat. *Neuroreport.* 2002; 13: 101-106.
14. Wall PD, Gutnick M. Ongoing activity in peripheral nerves: the physiology and pharmacology of impulses originating from a neuroma. *Exp Neurol.* 1974; 43: 580-93.
15. Waxman SG, Kocsis JD, Black JA. Type III sodium channel mRNA is expressed in embryonic but not adult spinal sensory neurons, and is reexpressed following axotomy. *J Neurophysiol.* 1994; 72: 466-470.
16. Cervero F, Laird JMA. Role of ion channels in mechanisms controlling gastrointestinal pain pathways. *Curr Opin Pharmacol.* 2003; 3: 608-612.
17. Black JA, Langworthy K, Hinson AW, Dib Hajj SD, Waxman SG. NGF has opposing effects on Na⁺ channel III and SNS gene expression in spinal sensory neurons. *Neuroreport.* 1997; 8: 2331-2335.
18. Xiao WH, Bennett GJ. Synthetic omega-conopeptides applied to the site of nerve injury suppress neuropathic pains in rats. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1995; 274: 666-672.
19. Amir R, Devor M. Chemically mediated cross-excitation in rat dorsal root ganglia. *J Neurosci.* 1996;16: 4733-4741.
20. Ro L, Chen S, Tang L, Chang H. Local application of anti-NGF blocks the collateral sprouting in rats following chronic constriction injury of the sciatic nerve. *Neurosci Lett.* 1996; 218: 87-90.
21. Sorkin LS and Doom CM. Epineurial application of TNF elicits an acute mechanical hyperalgesia in the awake rat. *J Peripher Nerv Syst.* 2000; 5: 96-100.
22. Ignatowski TA, Covey WC, Knight PR, Severin CM, Nickola TJ, Spengler RN. Brain-derived TNFalpha mediates neuropathic pain. *Brain Res.* 1999; 841: 70-77.
23. Bach FW, Jensen TS, Kastrup J, Stigsby B, Dejgard A. The effect of intravenous lidocaine on nociceptive processing in diabetic neuropathy. *Pain* 1990; 40: 29-34.
24. Cattabeni F. Ralfinamide. *Newron Pharmaceuticals. I Drugs.* 2004; 7: 935-939.
25. Yamane H, de Groat WC, Sculptoreanu A. Effects of ralfinamide, a Na⁺ channel blocker, on firing properties of nociceptive dorsal root ganglion neurons of adult rats. *Exp Neuro.* 2007;208: 63-72.
26. Saulino M. Successful reduction of neuropathic pain associated with spinal cord injury via of a combination of intrathecal hydromorphone and ziconotide: a case report. *Spinal Cord* 2007; 45: 749-52.
27. Pertwee R.G. Pharmacology of cannabinoid CB1 and CB2 receptors. *Pharmacol Ther,* 1997; 74: 129-180.
28. Davar G, Hama A, Deykin A, Vos B, Maciewicz R. MK-801 blocks the development of thermal hyperalgesia in a rat model of experimental painful neuropathy. *Brain Res.* 1991; 553: 327-330.
29. Mao J, Price DD, Mayer DJ, Lu J, Hayes RL. Intrathecal MK-801 and local nerve anesthesia synergistically reduce nociceptive behaviors in rats with experimental peripheral mononeuropathy. *Brain Res.*1992; 576: 254-262.
30. Sotgiu ML, Biella G. Differential effects of MK-801, a N-methyl-D-aspartate non-competitive antagonist, on

- the dorsal horn neuron hyperactivity and hyperexcitability in neuropathic rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2000; 283: 153-156.
31. Rabben T, Skjeltved P, Oye I. Prolonged analgesic effect of ketamine, an N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor inhibitor, in patients with chronic pain. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1999; 289: 1060-1066.
32. Jasik M. Therapy of diabetic neuropathy. *Przegl Lek.* 2003; 60: 167-169.
33. Hewitt DJ. The use of NMDA-receptor antagonists in the treatment of chronic pain. *Clin J Pain.* 2000; 16: 73-79.
34. Zhu CZ, Hsieh G, Ei-Kouhen O, Wilson SG, Mikusa JP, Hollingsworth PR, Chang R, Moreland RB, Brioni J, Decker MW, Honore P. Role of central and peripheral mGluR5 receptors in post-operative pain in rats. *Pain* 2005; 114(1-2): 195-202.
35. Likar R., Sittl R. Transdermal buprenorphine for treating nociceptive and neuropathic pain: four case studies. *Anesth Analg.* 2005; 100: 781-785.
36. Maneuf YP, Gonzalez MI, Sutton KS, Chung FZ, Pinnock RD, Lee K. Cellular and molecular action of the putative GABA-mimetic, gabapentin. *Cell Mol Life Sci.* 2003; 60: 742-750.
37. Johnson S, Johnson FN, Johnson RD, Armer ML. In *Reviews in Contemporary Pharmacotherapy*. Marius Press, Carnforth; 200, pp125-211.
38. Urban MO, Ren K, Park KT, Campbell B, Anker N, Stearns B, Aiyar J, Belley M, Cohen C, Bristow L. Comparison of the antinociceptive profiles of gabapentin and 3-methylgabapentin in rat models of acute and persistent pain: implications for mechanism of action. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 2005; 313: 1209-1216.
39. Dahl JB, Mathiesen O, Moiniche S. 'Protective premedication': an option with gabapentin and related drugs? A review of gabapentin and pregabalin in the treatment of post-operative pain. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand.* 2004; 48: 1130-1136.
40. Siniscalco D, Rossi F, Maione S. Molecular approaches for neuropathic pain treatment. *Curr Med Chem.* 2007; 14: 1783-1787.
41. Dib-Hajj SD, Fjell J, Cummins TR, Zheng Z, Fried K, LaMotte R, Black JA, Waxman SG. Plasticity of sodium channel expression in DRG neurons in the chronic constriction injury model of neuropathic pain. *Pain* 1999; 83:591-600.
42. Devor M, Keller CH, Deerinck TJ, Levinson SR, Ellisman MH. Na⁺ channel accumulation on axolemma of afferent endings in nerve end neuromas in *Apterionotus*. *Neurosci Lett.* 1989; 102: 149-154.
43. Hains BC, Saab CY, Klein JP, Craner MJ, Waxman SG. Altered sodium channel expression in second-order spinal sensory neurons contributes to pain after peripheral nerve injury. *J Neurosci.* 2004; 24: 4832-4839.
44. Lai J, Gold MS, Kim CS, Bian D, Ossipov MH, Hunter JC, Porreca F. Inhibition of neuropathic pain by decreased expression of the tetrodotoxin-resistant sodium channel, NaV1.8. *Pain* 2002; 95: 143-152.
45. Valder CR, Liu JJ, Song YH, Luo ZD. Coupling gene chip analyses and rat genetic variances in identifying potential target genes that may contribute to neuropathic allodynia development. *J Neurochem.* 2003; 87: 560-573.
46. Li CY, Song YH, Higuera ES, Luo ZD. Spinal dorsal horn calcium channel alpha2delta-1 subunit upregulation contributes to peripheral nerve injury-induced tactile allodynia. *J Neurosci.* 2004; 24: 8494-8499.
47. Vincler MA, Eisenach JC. Knock down of the alpha 5 nicotinic acetylcholine receptor in spinal nerve-ligated rats alleviates mechanical allodynia. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav.* 2005; 80: 135-143.
48. Garry MG, Malik S, Yu J, Davis MA, Yang J. Knock down of spinal NMDA receptors reduces NMDA and formalin evoked behaviors in rat. *Neuroreport.* 2000; 11: 49-55.
49. Przewlocka B, Sieja A, Starowicz K, Maj M, Bilecki W, Przewlocki R. Knockdown of spinal opioid receptors by antisense targeting beta-arrestin reduces morphine tolerance and allodynia in rat. *Neurosci Lett.* 2002; 325: 107-110.
50. Kennedy C, Assis TS, Currie AJ, Rowan EG. Crossing the pain barrier: P2 receptors as targets for novel analgesics. *J Physiol.* 2003; 553: 683-694.
51. Honore P, Kage K, Mikusa J, Watt AT, Johnston JF, Wyatt JR, Faltynek CR, Jarvis MF, Lynch K. Analgesic profile of intrathecal P2X(3) antisense oligonucleotide treatment in chronic inflammatory and neuropathic pain states in rats. *Pain* 2002; 99: 11-19.
52. Hernandez A, Constandil L, Laurido C, Pelissier T, Marchand F, Ardid D, Alloui A, Eschaliere A, Soto-Moyano R. Venlafaxine-induced depression of wind-up activity in mononeuropathic rats is potentiated by inhibition of brain 5-HT1A receptor expression in vivo. *Int J Neurosci.* 2004; 114: 229-242.

53. Huang W, Simpson RK. Antisense of c-fos gene attenuates Fos expression in the spinal cord induced by unilateral constriction of the sciatic nerve in the rat. *Jr. Neurosci Lett.* 1999; 263: 61-64.
54. Liu J, Wolfe D, Hao S, Huang S, Glorioso JC, Mata M, Fink DJ. Peripherally delivered glutamic acid decarboxylase gene therapy for spinal cord injury pain. *Mol Ther* .2004; 10: 57-66.
55. Lee B, Kim J, Kim SJ, Lee H, Chang JW. Constitutive GABA expression via a recombinant adeno-associated virus consistently attenuates neuropathic pain. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2007; 357: 971-976.
56. Wilson SP, Yeomans DC. Virally mediated delivery of enkephalin and other neuropeptide transgenes in experimental pain models. *Ann NY Acad Sci*. 2002; 971: 515-521.
57. Yeomans DC, Lu Y, Laurito CE, Peters MC, Votavellis G, Wilson SP, Pappas GD. Recombinant herpes vector-mediated analgesia in a primate model of hyperalgesia. *Mol Ther*. 2006; 13: 589-597.
58. Yeomans DC, Jones T, Laurito CE, Lu Y, Wilson SP. Reversal of ongoing thermal hyperalgesia in mice by a recombinant herpesvirus that encodes human preproenkephalin. *Mol Ther*. 2004; 9: 24-29.
59. Tai MH, Cheng H, Wu JP, Liu YL, Lin PR, Kuo JS, Tseng CJ, Tzeng SF. Gene transfer of glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor promotes functional recovery following spinal cord contusion. *Exp Neurol*. 2003; 183: 508-515.
60. Pradat PF, Kennel P, Naimi-Sadaoui S, Finiels F, Orsini C, Revah F, Delaere P, Mallet J. Continuous delivery of neurotrophin 3 by gene therapy has a neuroprotective effect in experimental models of diabetic and acrylamide neuropathies. *Hum Gene Ther*. 2001; 12: 2237-2249.
61. Eaton MJ, Blits B, Ruitenber MJ, Verhaagen J, Oudega M. Amelioration of chronic neuropathic pain after partial nerve injury by adeno-associated viral (AAV) vector-mediated over-expression of BDNF in the rat spinal cord. *Gene Ther*. 2002; 9: 1387-1395.
62. Tang XQ, Tanelian DL, Smith GM. Semaphorin3A inhibits nerve growth factor-induced sprouting of nociceptive afferents in adult rat spinal cord. *J Neurosci*. 2004; 24: 819-827.
63. Yao MZ, Gu JF, Wang JH, Sun LY, Liu H, Liu XY. Adenovirus-mediated interleukin-2 gene therapy of nociception. *Gene Ther*. 2003; 10: 1392-1399.
64. Thakor D, Spigelman I, Tabata Y, Nishimura I. Subcutaneous peripheral injection of cationized gelatin/DNA polyplexes as a platform for non-viral gene transfer to sensory neurons. *Mol Ther*. 2007 15:2124-31.
65. Klass M, Gavrikov V, Drury D, Stewart B, Hunter S, Denson DD, Hord A, Csete M. Intravenous mononuclear marrow cells reverse neuropathic pain from experimental mononeuropathy. *Anesth Anal*. 2007; 104: 944-948.
66. Schultz SS. Adult stem cell application in spinal cord injury. *Curr Drug Targets*. 2005; 6: 63-73.
67. Liang P, Jin LH, Liang T, Liu EZ, Zhao SG. Human neural stem cells promote corticospinal axons regeneration and synapse reformation in injured spinal cord of rats. *Chin Med J*. 2006; 119: 1331-1338.
68. Lin C.R, Wu PC, Shih HC, Cheng JT, Lu CY, Chou AK, Yang LC. Intrathecal Spinal Progenitor Cell Transplantation for the Treatment of Neuropathic Pain. *Cell Transplant*. 2002; 11: 17-24.
69. Pallini R, Vitiani LR, Bez A, Casalbore P, Facchiano F, Di Giorgi Gerevini V, Falchetti ML, Fernandez E, Maira G, Peschle C, Parati E. Homologous transplantation of neural stem cells to the injured spinal cord of mice. *Neurosurgery* 2005; 57: 1014-1025.
70. Klein S, Svendsen CN. Stem cells in the injured spinal cord: reducing the pain and increasing the gain. *Nature Neurosci*. 2005; 8: 259-260.
71. Hains BC, Johnson KM, Eaton MJ, Willis WD, Hulsebosch CE. Serotonergic neural precursor cell grafts attenuate bilateral hyperexcitability of dorsal horn neurons after spinal hemisection in rat. *Neuroscience* 2003; 116: 1097-1110.
72. Moore KA, Kohno T, Karchewski LA, Scholz J, Baba H, Woolf CJ. Partial peripheral nerve injury promotes a selective loss of GABAergic inhibition in the superficial dorsal horn of the spinal cord. *J Neurosci*. 2002; 22: 6724-6731.
73. Eaton MJ, Plunkett JA, Martinez MA, Lopez T, Karmally S, Cejas P, Whittemore SR. Transplants of neuronal cells bioengineered to synthesize GABA alleviate chronic neuropathic pain. *Cell Transplant*. 1999; 8: 87-101.
74. Cejas PJ, Martinez M, Karmally S, McKillop M, McKillop J, Plunkett JA, Oudega M, Eaton MJ. Lumbar transplant of neurons genetically modified to secrete brain-derived neurotrophic factor attenuates allodynia and hyperalgesia after sciatic nerve constriction. *Pain* 2000; 86: 195-210.
75. Beyer Nardi N, da Silva Meirelles L. Mesenchymal stem cells: isolation, in vitro expansion and

characterization. *Handb Exp Pharmacol.* 2006; 174: 249-282.

76. Sethe S, Scutt A, Stolzing A. Aging of mesenchymal stem cells. *Ageing Res Rev*, 2006; 5: 91-116.

77. Giordano A, Galderisi U, Marino IR. From the laboratory bench to the patient's bedside: an update on clinical trials with mesenchymal stem cells. *J Cell Physiol.* 2007; 211: 27-35.

78. Le Blanc K, Pittenger M. Mesenchymal stem cells: progress toward promise. *Cytotherapy* 2005; 7: 36-45.

79. Jori FP, Napolitano MA, Melone MA, Cipollaro M, Cascino A, Altucci L, Peluso G, Giordano A, Galderisi U. Molecular pathways involved in neural in vitro differentiation of marrow stromal stem cells. *J Cell Biochem.* 2005; 94: 645-655.

80. Mazzini L, Mareschi K, Ferrero I, Vassallo E, Oliveri G, Nasuelli N, Oggioni GD, Testa L, Fagioli F. Stem cell treatment in Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. *J Cell Biochem.* 2005; 94: 645-55.

81. Bae JS, Han HS, Youn DH, Carter JE, Mado M, Schuchman EH, Jin HK. Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells promote neuronal networks with functional synaptic transmission after transplantation into mice with neurodegeneration. *Stem Cells* 2007; 25: 1307-1316.

82. Musolino PL, Coronel MF, Hokfelt T, Villar MJ. Bone marrow stromal cells induce changes in pain behavior after sciatic nerve constriction. *Neurosci Lett.* 2007; 418: 97-101.