# THERAPEUTICAL PROCEDURES IN PATIENTS WITH TRIGEMINAL NEURALGIA - LITERATURE REVIEW ТЕРАПЕВТСКИ ПРОЦЕДУРИ КАЈ ПАЦИЕНТИ СО ТРИГЕМИНАЛНА НЕУРАЛГИЈА - РЕВИЈАЛЕН ТРУД

# Shushak Z.1, Popovski V.2, Mitikj J.3, Veljanovski D.4

<sup>1</sup>PhD Candidate, DDM, DDS - Private health institution "Dentoria-1 Specialist practice for oral surgery and implantology" Ohrid, Republic of North Macedonia, <sup>2</sup>PhD, MSD, MFS, DDM, MD - Clinic for maxillofacial surgery, University "Ss. Cyril and Methodius" Skopje, Republic of North Macedonia, <sup>3</sup>PhD Candidate, DDM, MSD, trainee in periodontology - Private health institution "Molar Dent" Skopje, Republic of North Macedonia, <sup>4</sup>PhD Candidate, DDM, DDS, - Private health institution "Optimum dental practice", Skopje, Republic of North Macedonia

#### **Abstract**

Trigeminal neuralgia (TN) is the most common pathological condition of the cranial nerves and the most common cause of pain in the orofacial region. More and more literary data indicate that a in significant number of patients, TN is caused by compression on the root of the trigeminal nerve, close to its entry into the pons in the aberrant arterial or venous loop leading to pathohistological changes in the nerve while in most of the same, the etiological factor for the pathology of TN remains a mystery. Numerous medical and surgical procedures are available, usually without a number of randomized clinical trials and studies of placebo-controlled groups. As a result, most patients experience refractory pain, which has a significant effect on reducing their quality of life. It is still unclear how available treatment methods can be best used. Medical treatment consists of anticonvulsant drugs, muscle relaxants and neuroleptic agents, alternative treatments with botulinum toxin. In patients resistant to drug therapy, promising i.e. recommended surgical procedures include microvascular decompression, gamma-knife surgery, and percutaneous techniques of the Gasser ganglion. In this paper we will present a systematic review of the literature and investigate the outcome of different types of therapeutic procedures in patients with trigeminal neuralgia. Keywords: Trigeminal neuralgia, anticonvulsant drugs, pain.

#### Апстракт

Тригеминалната неуралгија (ТН) е најчестата патолошка состојба на кранијалните нерви и најчест причинител на болка во орофацијалната регија. Се повеќе литературни податоци укажуваат дека кај значителен број на пациенти, ТН е предизвикана од компресија врз коренот на тригеминалниот нерв, близу до неговиот влез во понсот во аберантната артериска или венска јамка која доведува до патохистолошки промени во нервот додека кај поголемиот број од истите, етиолошкиот фактор за патологијата на ТН останува мистерија. Достапни се бројни медикаментозни и хируршки процедури, обично без поголем број рандомизирани клинички испитувања и студии контролирани со плацебо групи. Како резултат на тоа, повеќето пациенти доживуваат рефракторна болка, која има значително влијание врз намалување на квалитетот на живот. Сè уште останува неизвесно како е најдобро да се употребат достапните методи на терапија. Медикаментозниот третман се состои од антиконвулзивни лекови, мускулни релаксанти и невролептични агенси, алтернативни третмани со ботулински токсин. Кај пациентите отпорни на медикаментозна терапија, перспективни т.е. препорачливи се хируршки процедури, микроваскуларна декомпресија, гама-нож хирургија и перкутани техники на гасеровиот ганглион. Во овој труд ќе направиме систематски преглед на литературата и ќе го истражиме исходот од различните видови терапевтски процедури кај пациенти со тригеминална неуралгија. **Клучни зборови:** Тригеминална неуралгија, антиконвулзивни лекови, болка.

#### Introduction

Trigeminal neuralgia (TH) is defined by the International Classification of Headache Disorders as "Disorder characterized by recurrent, unilateral short electrical pain in the form of shock, with sudden onset and termination, limited to the distribution of one or more trigeminal nerve divisions, and caused by insignificant stimuli." The new classification sets 3 etiological categories of: idiopathic TN (without neurovascular con-

tact or neurovascular contact without morphological changes of the trigeminal root), classic TN (due to neurovascular compression with morphological changes of the trigeminal root) and secondary TN (due to a neurological disease such as tumor of the cerebellopontine angle or multiple sclerosis). Also, 2 phenotypes are classified: clear paroxysmal TN (only with paroxysmal pain) and TN with continuous constant pain<sup>2</sup>. In early descriptions, the disorder was called tic douloureux<sup>3</sup>. The incidence is estimated at 4 to 13 people per 100,000 per year.

The pain is limited to an area innervated by one or more branches of the trigeminal nerve. In 60% of cases it is only one branch, maxillary (V2) or mandibular (V3), while in 35% of cases both branches are involved. On the other hand, the ophthalmic branch (V1) is rarely included (in less than 4% of patients)<sup>4</sup>.

TN symptomatology is very characteristic, patients report intense stabbing, severe pain localized on the face, nose, teeth, or jaws caused by provocation at the trigger points or by spontaneous (sudden) onset. Depending on whether it is primary or secondary, TN may vary based on the characteristics of the disease. In patients with neurological deficits, extratrigeminal symptoms, bilateral occurrence, and appearance in young individuals are very characteristic<sup>5</sup>.

Accurate diagnosis of the orofacial pain is the first step in successful disease management. This is primarily based on the patient's history, because there are still no definite (specific) paraclinical-diagnostic or therapeuticclinical tests. In 1936, Riley's classic pain analysis highlighted 11 essential issues, which should be included in the history of pain. These aspects apply today, too<sup>6</sup>. As part of diagnostic procedures, it is recommended to use magnetic resonance imaging (MR), because a lack of clinical features may preclude secondary TN. If MR is unavailable or contraindicated, trigeminal reflexes shall be used to distinguish between primary and secondary TN<sup>7</sup>. Differential diagnostics should be distinguished: maxillary sinusitis, temporomandibular disorders, postherpetic neuralgia, posttraumatic trigeminal neuralgia, glossopyrosis, glosopharyngeal neuralgia, idiopathic facial pain, SUNA and SUNCT8. There is also a serious lack of evidence for diagnostic criteria9.

The purpose of this review paper is to systematize the evidence obtained from previously published articles on the outcome of various therapeutic procedures in patients diagnosed with trigeminal neuralgia.

There are a number of conservative and surgical therapeutic procedures for TN. The general recommendation is to start drug therapy and consider surgical treatment in patients who are refractory to it10. There is still a lack of sufficient number of studies that directly compare medical and surgical treatment. Medical therapy begins as monotherapy, followed by a combination therapy with various drugs that can be used when the effectiveness of monotherapy is low<sup>11,12</sup>. Antiepileptic drugs Carbazepine and **Oxcarbazepine** are the first line of treatment in  $TN^{13}$ . Lamotrigine and Baclofen are considered a second line of treatment, while Topiramate, Levetiracetam, Gabapentin, Pregabalin and botulinum toxin type A are alternative treatments<sup>14</sup>. There are several surgical treatment options available to TN patients and it is important to choose the most appropriate surgery for the patient<sup>15</sup>. **Microvascular decompression** is a non-destructive procedure and is considered the golden standard of surgical therapy<sup>16</sup>. The other widely used technique is the **gamma knife**<sup>17</sup>. Of the destructive techniques, the most widely used are **the percutaneous techniques of the Gasser ganglion**, which have the advantage of selectively targeting the affected trigeminal divisions<sup>18</sup>.

#### Materials and methods

In the paper, we did research and meta-analysis of all available literary data using a wide range of data up to date (from 1966 to 2020) for all studies related to TN treatment. Research was conducted electronically using studies published in English. The databases used in the selection of studies are: PubMed/MEDLINE, Embase and Cohrane Library.

#### Results and discussion

This review paper provides an overview of the results, measures, and prognosis of the end result by using the TN medication and surgical treatments until today. Treatments are performed by experienced therapists from different countries around the world and highlight the variability of the choice of measures used to achieve a positive result.

# Conservative procedures

Regardless of the classification system, TN treatment always begins with drug therapy. Of the drugs currently used for treatment, all were originally developed for other indications (antiepileptics, myorelaxants, opioids, etc.). In addition, only a small proportion have been examined in large controlled studies, and many of the studies so far have methodological inconsistencies<sup>19</sup>.

# Anticonvulsant drugs

Carbamazepine acts inhibitory on sodium channels and reduces the excitability of nerve membranes. It also highlights gamma aminobuteric acid gamma receptors GABA composed of alpha 1, beta 2, and gamma 2 under units relevant to its role in the reduced transmission of neuropathic pain. Oxcarbazepine is a keto analogue of carbamazepine. With long-term treatment, carbamazepine (200–1200 mg/daily) or oxcarbazepine (300–1800mg/daily) remain the most effective drugs in the early stages of TN<sup>20</sup>. Literature also contains described situations that require even higher doses. If

these medications become ineffective or result in poor tolerance, then other medications should be considered. From systematic examinations<sup>21</sup> and randomized controlled trials<sup>22-24</sup>, carbamazepine proves more effective than placebo groups, but more patients withdraw from use due to side effects. The most common side effects include somnolence, dizziness, and orthostatic hypotension. Oxcarbazepine has comparable efficiency in regard to cocarbazepine, but greater tolerance25, except for the risk of hyponatraemia and low drug interaction potential<sup>26, 27</sup>. In the study of Zakrzewska, there is evidence that Lamotrigine was used as additional effective therapy<sup>28</sup>, while there is little evidence that other anticonvulsant drugs like clonazepam, gabapentin, pregabalin and valproate have a beneficial effect<sup>29</sup>. Several review papers have investigated the comparative efficacy and safety of anticonvulsant drugs<sup>30-32</sup>. A paper based on 16 randomized controlled trials compared the effects of carbamazepine and gabapentin. Gabapentin is associated with fewer side effects than carbamazepine and oxcarbazepine<sup>33</sup>. We still have difficulty determining the best treatment for pain relief with minimal side effects. The failure of treatment is usually not due to the ineffectiveness of the medication, but rather to the side effects that cause discontinuation of treatment or reduction of the dose to an ineffective level. Combined treatment (carbamazepine or oxcarbazepine with lamotrigine, baclofen, pregabalin or gabapentin) should be taken into account when carbamazepine or oxcarbazepine may not reach the required dose due to side effects. Each of the drugs has clinical application as monotherapy, although the available evidence are weak<sup>34</sup>.

#### Muscle relaxants

**Baclofen** (60-80 mg/daily), skeletal muscle relaxant is a GABA analogue that activates GABAb receptors and reduces excitatory neurotransmission. Clinical trials have shown that baclofen is effective as monotherapy or in combination with carbamazepine in the treatment of TN<sup>35</sup>. According to the research of Hassan and associates<sup>36</sup>, after carbamazepine, baclofen shows the greatest effectiveness in the treatment of TN. Typical side effects include drowsiness, dizziness, fatigue, hypotension.

# **Opioids**

Opioids are drugs used to treat acute and chronic pain. According to numerous studies, it is not recommended as the first line of therapy due to the danger of side effects that would occur during abuse and overdose<sup>38, 39</sup>. In recent years, Fentanyl has been used in the

treatment of many chronic types of pain 40. Coven, in his research, uses fentanyl in the treatment of TN type 2 as a blockage in the sphenopalatinal ganglion and gets successful results<sup>41</sup>. However, according to Cochrane, in the review papers there is insufficient evidence for the use of opioids in the treatment of neuropathic pain<sup>42</sup>.

# Botulinum toxin A

Botulinum toxin is a neurotoxin produced by the bacterium Clostridium botulinum. It blocks the release of acetylcholine on the neuromuscular synapse. It binds to C-fibers, has an analgesic effect and reduces muscle spasms<sup>43</sup>. In 2002, Micheli and associates<sup>44</sup> published a successful treatment of a patient with hemifacial spasm associated with TN with onabotulinumtoxin, which opens up new possibilities for its use. In the Bohluli study<sup>45</sup>, 47% of patients did not require further treatment, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs were sufficient to relieve pain in 33% of patients, while 20% of patients again required anticonvulsant therapy after toxin administration. Recently, three examinations demonstrated that botulinum toxin could provide a clinically significant benefit in the treatment of TN46-48. A recent review by Jiangshan suggests that botulinum toxin is effective and safe in the treatment of TN and peripheral neuropathic pain<sup>49</sup>. The duration of the therapeutic effect and the doses that would be applied for the given pathology are issues that shall be researched in the future in wellthought-out examinations.

# Surgical procedures

Patients who have persistent pain or cannot tolerate drug therapy due to side effects are referred for surgical treatment. These procedures have different success rates and risk profiles. Three descriptive studies have been identified that address the issue when TN patients should be offered surgical treatment<sup>20,50,51</sup>. Studies have shown that patients who are refractory to drug therapy may prefer early surgical treatment. A prospective study reported that 65% of patients referred to specialist centers could be managed with drug therapy for 2 years after referral with satisfactory results. 35% of them underwent surgery<sup>52</sup>.

# Microvascular decompression

**Microvascular decompression** (MVD) is a type of neurosurgery used in the treatment of TN caused by vertebrobasilar compression. Surgery is not without risk, it can cause recurrent facial pain and other side effects (insult, paralysis, paresis, lethal outcome). It was first

introduced by Jannetta<sup>53</sup> and after many years of improvement, MVD has become the most effective of TN surgical treatments .MVD in TN is a surgical treatment that has the least chance of failure, according to a study of 195 patients by Hitchon<sup>54</sup>. However, there are still patients who cannot achieve long-term outcomes. For patients who are not suitable for pure MVD, MVD combined with partial sensory rhizotomy can be considered as an effective alternative<sup>55</sup>. Leakage of vascular structure results in incomplete relief of symptoms after intervention<sup>56</sup>. Endoscopically assisted microsurgery helps to optimize surgical procedures, especially in identifying the overall course of the cranial nerve and avoiding the leakage of vascular structures<sup>57</sup>. The initial success rate of the therapy is usually high, but in 5% of the patients there is little or no pain relief after MVD. 10-30% of patients have recurrent neuralgia on follow-up, with an annual risk of recurrence of 1 to 4%<sup>58,59</sup>. In a recent review and meta-analysis60, it has been concluded that about three-quarters of patients with TN resistant to drug therapy have been relieved of pain after MVD. Shorter duration of pain, arterial compression, and type 1 Burchiel classification predict a more favorable outcome.

# Gamma knife

Gamma knife radiosurgery is an increasingly used, minimally invasive treatment option for TN patients who are refractory to drug treatment<sup>61</sup>. The use of radiosurgery in the treatment of TN dates back to Leksell (Sweden, 1950) who performed radio ganglionotomies on the gasserian ganglion<sup>62</sup>. Later, he began using the Gamma knife used in the form of multiple focal rays from cobalt-60 sources. Several retrospective and several prospective studies have reported good short-term and medium-term safety and effectiveness of the gamma knife63,64,65. The long-term outcome has not yet been well documented, as evidenced by a historical cohort study<sup>66</sup>. According to one review paper, the gamma knife is an effective single and multiple treatment option. Their cumulative research suggests that patients treated once show the same control of facial pain compared to patients who have been treated multiple times. The second group of patients is more likely to experience numbness and other sensory changes in the face compared to the first group<sup>67</sup>.

# Percutaneous techniques of the gasserian ganglion

Professional procedures performed at the level of the ganglion, trigeminal radiofrequency thermocoagulation

(RFT), percutaneous balloon compression (PBC), percutaneous glycerol rhizolysis of the gastric ganglion (PRGR) are more effective than peripheral procedures, but no approach can guarantee long-term pain relief. The first two procedures are non-destructive and can cause sensory loss and distension<sup>68</sup>.

RFT of the Gasser ganglion is a widely accepted, minimally invasive technique for the treatment of TN. Efforts are still being made to improve the details of each procedure, reduce perioperative pain, reduce surgical complications, and enhance analgesic efficacy<sup>69</sup>. Understanding and mastering surgical details varies between different hospitals<sup>70</sup>. Two RFT approaches are most commonly used: conventional radio frequency CRF and pulsed radio frequency PRF. According to previous examinations, CRF is the preferred treatment option (higher pain reduction rate, less frequent recurrent pain)<sup>71</sup>. New technologies, such as 3D printed lead board that allow for more precise interventions, have been proven in recent studies<sup>72</sup>.

In 1983, Mullan and Lichtor introduced PBC by modifying the technique of nerve compression while performing a craniotomy. Initial studies have shown that PBC is successful, safe, with a small number of relapses, making it particularly popular with elderly patients<sup>73,74</sup>. In one review<sup>75</sup>, the authors presented data from the largest cohort of patients with the longest follow-up for this procedure. The PBC procedure has the advantage of being a quick and simple procedure that can be performed in a short period of general anesthesia without discomfort to the patient. This makes it an attractive choice in TN treatment. In their study, Bergenheim and associates<sup>76</sup> presented the complications of the procedure (cardiovascular stress, local haemorrhage, postoperative sensory disturbance, masseur muscle weakness, affections, and transient diplopia). Measures to minimize side effects have been proposed.

In 1981, Hakanson introduced the PRGR technique in which he uses anhydrated glycerol and has since found use as a routine procedure<sup>77</sup>. Several studies have shown that PRGR is a simple, safe, relatively inexpensive method of treating TN78,79. The number of side effects and complications during the intervention is relatively small. A second application may be effective in recurrent pain and in patients who do not respond to the first application80. Predictive success factors include patients without persistent facial pain, patients with nomadic facial pain during glycerol injection, and patients with new trigeminal defects after PRGR81. One of the alternatives to the new PRGR technique is neuronavigation to place the needle in the oval opening and inject glycerol under sedation. This technique is the simplest and safest if the surgeon has previous experience in it82.

#### **Conclusion**

Conservative (drugs) therapy with antiepileptic drugs, an individualized dose of CARBAMAZEPIN is still the gold standard in the treatment of TN worldwide. A combined therapy, guided by the literature base, did not make a significant difference in the fight against pain compared to monotherapy, and the use of alternative therapies in the form of botulinum toxin treatment requires further studies to determine the exact dose and the time period of drug action. Surgical procedures and studies that have been developed are a good basis for progress in their development using new 3D technology and the introduction of new recommendations and work protocols that would drastically reduce the percentage of risks and complications and make them more accessible to patients.

#### Reference

- Headache Classification Committee of the International Headache Society. The International Classification of Headache Disorders, 3rd edition (beta version). Cephalalgia, 33 (2013), pp. 629-808.
- Cruccu G, Finnerup NB, Jensen TS, et al. Trigeminal neuralgia: new classification and diagnostic grading for practice and research. Neurology 2016; 87: 220–228.
- Cole CD, Liu JK and Apfelbaum RI. Historical perspectives on the diagnosis and treatment of trigeminal neuralgia. Neurosurg Focus 2005; 18: 1–15.
- Eder G, Juliana G. C, and Gerald W. Z. Trigeminal neuralgia: An overview from pathophysiology to pharmacological treatments. Molecular Pain 2020; 16: 1–18.
- Stine M, Giulia D S, Lars B, Giorgio C. Trigeminal neuralgia diagnosis and treatment. Cephalalgia 2017, Vol. 37(7) 648–657.
- Anne M Hegarty, Joanna M Zakrzewska. Differential Diagnosis for Orofacial Pain, Including Sinusitis, TMD, Trigeminal Neuralgia. Dent Update 2011; 38: 396–408
- Bendtsen, L., Zakrzewska, J.M., Abbott, J., Braschinsky, M., Di Stefano, G., Donnet, A., Eide, P.K., Leal, P.R.L., Maarbjerg, S., May, A., et al. (2019). European Academy of Neurology guideline on trigeminal neuralgia. European Journal of Neurology 26, 831–849.
- Zakrzewska, J.M., 2013. Differential diagnosis of facial pain and guidelines for management. British Journal of Anaesthesia 111, 95–104. doi:10.1093/bja/aet125.
- Zebenholzer, K., Wober, C., Vigl, M., Wessely, P. and Wober-Bingol, C. (2006) Facial pain and the second edition of the International Classification of Headache Disorders. Headache 46: 259263.
- Obermann, M., 2010. Treatment options in trigeminal neuralgia. Therapeutic Advances in Neurological Disorders. doi:10.1177/1756285609359317
- Cheshire WP. Trigeminal neuralgia: for one nerve a multitude of treatments. Expert Rev Neurother 2007; 7:1565–1579.
- Maarbjerg S, Di Stefano G, Bendtsen L, Cruccu G. Trigeminal neuralgia – diagnosis and treatment. Cephalalgia 2017; 37: 648–657.
- Gambeta, E., Chichorro, J.G., W. Zamponi, G., 2020. Trigeminal neuralgia: An overview from pathophysiology to pharmacological treatments. Molecular Pain. doi: 10.1177/1744806920901890.
- 14. Al-Quliti, K.W. (2015). Update on neuropathic pain treatment for

- trigeminal neuralgia: The pharmacological and surgical options. Neurosciences 20, 107–114.
- Parmar, M., Sharma, N., Modgill, V., and Naidu, P. (2013).
   Comparative Evaluation of Surgical Procedures for Trigeminal Neuralgia. Journal of Maxillofacial and Oral Surgery 12, 400–409.
- Sivakanthan, S., Van Gompel, J.J., Alikhani, P., Van Loveren, H., Chen, R., and Agazzi, S. (2014). Surgical management of trigeminal neuralgia: Use and cost-effectiveness from an analysis of the medicare claims database. Neurosurgery 75, 220–226.
- 17. Mihajev I., Stevanov Z., Radovanov M., Velickovic P.: Neuralgijatrigeminalnognerva-prikazslucaja, Aktuelnostiizneurologije, psihijatrijeigranicnihpodrucja, God XI, Br.3. 2003
- Bick, S. K. B., &Eskandar, E. N. (2017, July 1). Surgical Treatment of Trigeminal Neuralgia. Neurosurgery Clinics of North America. W.B. Saunders. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nec.2017.02.009.
- Zakrzewska, JM, McMillan R. Trigeminal neuralgia: the diagnosis and management of this excruciating and poorly understood facial pain. Postgrad Med J 2011; 87:410e416.
- Zakrzewska, JM, Wu, J, Mon-Williams, M, Phillips, N, Pavitt, SH. Evaluating the impact of trigeminal neuralgia. Pain 2017; 158: 1166–1174.
- Wiffen PJ, Derry S, Moore RA, Kalso EA. Carbamazepine for chronic neuropathic pain and fibromyalgia in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2014; 4:CD005451.
- Campbell FG, Graham JG, Zilkha KJ. Clinical trial of carbazepine (tegretol) in trigeminal neuralgia. J NeurolNeurosurg Psychiatry 1966; 29: 265–267.
- 23. Nicol CF. A four year double-blind study of tegretol in facial pain. Headache 1969; 9: 54–57.
- Rasmussen P, Riishede J. Facial pain treated with carbamazepin (Tegretol). Acta NeurolScand 1970; 46:385–408.
- 25. Di Stefano G, La Cesa S, Truini A, Cruccu G (2014) Natural history and outcome of 200 outpatients with classical trigeminal neuralgia treated with carbamazepine or oxcarbazepine in a tertiary Centre for neuropathic pain. J Headache Pain 9(15):34
- Liebel JT, Menger N, Langohr H (2001) Oxcarbazepine in der Behandlung der Trigeminusneuralgie. Nervenheilkunde 20:461–465.
- Beydoun A (2000) Safety and efficacy of oxcarbazepine: results of randomized, double-blind trials. Pharmacotherapy 20:152S–158S.
- 28. Zakrzewska JM, Chaudhry Z, Nurmikko TJ, et al. Lamotrigine (lamictal) in refractory trigeminal neuralgia: results from a double blind placebo controlled crossover trial. Pain 1997; 73:223–30.
- Qin, Z., Xie, S., Mao, Z., Liu, Y., Wu, J., Furukawa, T.A., Kwong, J.S.W., Tian, J., and Liu, Z. (2018). Comparative efficacy and acceptability of antiepileptic drugs for classical trigeminal neuralgia: A Bayesian network meta-analysis protocol. BMJ Open 8.
- Yuan M, Zhou HY, Xiao ZL, et al. Efficacy and safety of gabapentin vs. carbamazepine in the treatment of trigeminal neuralgia: a meta-analysis. Pain Pract2016; 16:1083–91.
- Wiffen PJ, Derry S, Moore RA, et al. Carbamazepine for acute and chronic pain in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2011; 1:CD005451.
- Moore RA, Straube S, Wiffen PJ, et al. Pregabalin for acute and chronic pain in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2009; 3:CD007076.
- Yuan M, Zhou HY, Xiao ZL, et al. Efficacy and safety of gabapentin vs. carbamazepine in the treatment of trigeminal neuralgia: a meta-analysis. Pain Pract 2016; 16: 1083–1091.
- Cruccu G, Gronseth G, Alksne J, et al. AAN-EFNSguidelines on trigeminal neuralgia management. Eur JNeurol 2008; 15: 1013–1028.
- 35. Puri N, Rathore A, Dharmdeep G, Vairagare S, Prasad BR, Priyadarshini R, Singh HP. A clinical study on comparative

- evaluation of the effectiveness of carbamazepine and combination of carbamazepine with baclofen or capsaicin in the management of trigeminal neuralgia. Niger J Surg 2018; 24: 95–99.
- Hassan S, Khan NI, Sherwani OA, Bhatt W, Asif S. Trigeminal neuralgia: an overview of literature with emphasis on medical management. Int Research J Pharmcol. 2013; 3:235–238.
- Khalid W, Quliti A. Update on neuropathic pain treatment for trigeminal neuralgia Neurosciences 2015 Apr; 20(2): 107–114.
- 38. Colloca L, Ludman T, Bouhassira D et al. Neuropathic pain. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2017; (3):17002.
- Attal N & Bouhassira D. Pharmacotherapy of neuropathic pain: which drugs, which treatment algorithms? Pain 2015; 156 Suppl1:S104–114.
- Sivakumar W, Karsy M, Brock A, Schmidt RH: Postoperativepain control with the fentanyl patch and continuous paravertebral anesthetic infusion after posterior occipitocervical junction surgery. Cureus 17:e645. 2016.
- Coven I, Dayisoylu EH: Evaluation of sphenopalatine ganglionblockade via intra oral route for the management of atypical trigeminal neuralgia. Springerplus 5: 906, 2016
- 42. Clinical Pharmacist, December 2017, Vol 9, No. 12, online | DOI: 10.1211/CP.2017.20203641.
- 43. Himshweta Das., et al. "Therapeutic Effect of Botulinum Toxin in Trigeminal Neuralgia: Case Report". EC Dental Science 18.5 (2019): 992-996.
- 44. Micheli F, Scorticati MC, Raina G (2002). Beneficial effects of botulinum toxin type for patients with painful tic convulsif. Clin Neuropharmacol 25:260–262.
- Bohluli B, Motamedi MH, Bagheri SC et al (2011) Use of botulinum toxin A for drug-refractory trigeminal neuralgia: preliminary report. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral RadiolEndod 111:47–50.
- Morra, M.E., Elgebaly, A., Elmaraezy, A., Khalil, M., Altibi, A. M., Vu, T.L., Hirayama, K. (2016). Therapeutic efficacy and safety of botulinumtoxin. A Therapy in trigeminal neuralgia: Asystematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. The Journal of Headache and Pain, 17(1), 63.
- 47. Shackleton, T., Ram, S., Black, M., Ryder, J., Clark, G.T.,& Enciso, R. (2016). The efficacy of botulinum toxin for the treatment of trigeminal and postherpetic neuralgia: Asystematic review with meta-analyses. Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology and Oral Radiology, 122(1), 61–71.
- Lakhan, S.E., Velasco, D.N., & Tepper, D. (2015).
   Botulinum toxin-A for painful diabetic neuropathy: A meta-analysis. Pain Medicine, 16(9), 1773–1780.
- Wei J, Zhu X, Yang G, et al. Theefficacy andsafety of botulinum toxin type A in treatment of trigeminal neuralgia and peripheral neuropathic pain: A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. BrainBehav. 2019; 9:e01409.
- Zakrzewska, JM, Patsalos, PN. Long-term cohort study comparing medical (oxcarbazepine) and surgical management of intractable trigeminal neuralgia. Pain 2002; 95: 259–266.
- Zakrzewska, JM, Lopez, BC, Kim, SE, Coakham, HB. Patient reports of satisfaction after microvascular decompression and partial sensory rhizotomy for trigeminal neuralgia. Neurosurgery 2005; 56: 1304

  – 1311.
- Heinskou, T, Maarbjerg, S, Rochat, P, Wolfram, F, Jensen, RH, Bendtsen, L. Trigeminal neuralgia – a coherent cross-specialty management program. J Headache Pain 2015; 16: 66.
- Jannetta PJ. Arterial compression of the trigeminal nerve at the pons in patients with trigeminal neuralgia. J Neurosurg. 1967; 26(1 Suppl):159–162. doi:10.3171/jns.1967.26.1part2.0159
- Hitchon P, Holland M, Noeller J, Smith M, Moritani T, Jerath N, He W. Options in treating trigeminal neuralgia: Experience with 195 patients. Clin Neurol Neurosurg. 2016 Oct; 149:166-70.

- 55. Liu, R., Deng, Z., Zhang, L., Liu, Y., Wang, Z., and Yu, Y. (2020). The long-term outcomes and predictors of microvascular decompression with or without partial sensory rhizotomy for trigeminal neuralgia. Journal of Pain Research 13, 301–312.
- Jarrahy R, Eby JB, Cha ST, Shahinian HK. Fully endoscopic vascular decompression of the trigeminal nerve. Minim Invasive Neurosurg. 2002; 45:32–5.
- Lovely TJ, Jannetta PJ. Microvascular decompression for trigeminal neuralgia: surgical technique and long-term results. Neurosurg Clin N Am. 1997; 8:11–29.
- Sanchez-Mejia RO, Limbo M, Cheng JS, et al. Recurrent or refractory trigeminal neuralgia after microvascular decompression, radiofrequency ablation, or radiosurgery. Neurosurg Focus 2005: 18:1–6.
- Theodosopoulos PV, Marco E, Applebury C, et al. Predictive model for pain recurrence after posterior fossa surgery for trigeminal neuralgia. Arch Neurol2002; 59:1297–302.
- Katherine Holste, MD, Alvin Y Chan, MD, John D Rolston, MD,
   PhD, Dario J Englot, MD, PhD, Pain Outcomes Following Microvascular Decompression for Drug-Resistant Trigeminal Neuralgia: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis, Neurosurgery, Volume 86, Issue 2, February 2020, Pages 182–190.
- Longhi, M., Rizzo, P., Nicolato, A., Foroni, R., Reggio, M., and Gerosa, M. (2007). Gamma knife radiosurgery for trigeminal neuralgia: Results and potentially predictive parameters - Part I: Idiopathic trigeminal neuralgia. Neurosurgery 61, 1254–1260.
- L. Leksell, "Sterotaxic radiosurgery in trigeminal neuralgia," Acta Chirurgica Scandinavica, vol. 137, no. 4, pp. 311–314, 1971.
- 63. Dhople AA, Adams JR, Maggio WW, Naqvi SA, Regine WF, Kwok Y: Long-term outcomes of Gamma Knife radiosurgery for classic trigeminal neuralgia: implications of treatmentand critical review of the literature. Clinical article. J Neurosurg 111:351–358, 2009.
- Kondziolka D, Zorro O, Lobato-Polo J, Kano H, Flannery TJ, Flickinger JC, et al: Gamma Knife stereotactic radiosurgery for idiopathic trigeminal neuralgia. J Neurosurg112:758–765, 2010.
- Régis J, Metellus P, Hayashi M, Roussel P, Donnet A, BilleTurc F: Prospective controlled trial of gamma knife surgery for essential trigeminal neuralgia. J Neurosurg 104:913–924, 2006.
- L. Leksell, "Sterotaxic radiosurgery in trigeminal neuralgia," Acta Chirurgica Scandinavica, vol. 137, no. 4, pp. 311–314, 1971.
- 67. Elaimy, A.L., Hanson, P.W., Lamoreaux, W.T., Mackay, A.R., Demakas, J.J., Fairbanks, R.K., Cooke, B.S., Thumma, S.R., and Lee, C.M. (2012). Clinical Outcomes of Gamma Knife Radiosurgery in the Treatment of Patients with Trigeminal Neuralgia. International Journal of Otolaryngology 2012, 1–13.
- 68. Peters, G., and Nurmikko, T.J. (2002). Peripheral and gasserian ganglion-level procedures for the treatment of trigeminal neuralgia. Clinical Journal of Pain 18, 28–34.
- 69. Nie, F., Su, D., Shi, Y., Chen, J., Wang, H., Chen, Y., Qin, W., and Wang, S. (2014). A prospective study of x-ray imaging combined with skin stimulation potential-guided percutaneous radiofrequency thermocoagulation of the gasserian ganglion for treatment of trigeminal neuralgia. Pain Medicine (United States) 15, 1464–1469.
- 70. Bendersky M, Hem S, Landriel F, et al. Identifyingthe trigeminal nerve branches for transovale radiofrequency thermolesion: "No pain, no stress". Neurosurgery 2012; 70(2):259–63.
- 71. Guo, J., Dong, X., and Zhao, X. (2016). Treatment of trigeminal neuralgia by radiofrequency of the Gasserian ganglion. Reviews in the Neurosciences 27, 739–743.
- Deng, M., Cai, H., Fang, W., and Long, X. (2018). Three-dimensionally printed personalized guide plate for percutaneous radiofrequency thermal coagulation in idiopathic trigeminal neuralgia.
   International Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery 47, 392–394.

- Mullan S, Lichtor T. Percutaneous microcompression of the trigeminal ganglion for trigeminal neuralgia. J Neurosurg1983; 59:1007–12.
- Ying, X., Wang, H., Deng, S., Chen, Y., Zhang, J., and Yu, W. (2017). Long-term outcome of percutaneous balloon compression for trigeminal neuralgia patients elder than 80 years: A STROBEcompliant article. Medicine (United States) 96.
- Skirving, D. J., & Dan, N. G. (2001). A 20-year review of percutaneous balloon compression of the trigeminal ganglion. Journal of Neurosurgery, 94(6), 913–917.
- Bergenheim, A.T., Asplund, P., and Linderoth, B. (2013).
   Percutaneous retrogasserian balloon compression for trigeminal neuralgia: Review of critical technical details and outcomes. World Neurosurgery 79, 359–368.
- Asplund, P., Blomstedt, P., and Tommy Bergenheim, A. (2016).
   Percutaneous Balloon Compression vs Percutaneous Retrogasserian Glycerol Rhizotomy for the Primary Treatment of Trigeminal Neuralgia. Neurosurgery 78, 421–428.
- 78. Kodeeswaran M, Ramesh V G, Saravanan N, Udesh R.

- Percutaneous retrogasserian glycerol rhizotomy for trigeminal neuralgia: A simple, safe, cost-effective procedure. Neurol India 2015;63:889-94.
- Kondziolka, D., & Lunsford, L. D. (2005). Percutaneous retrogasserian glycerol rhizotomy for trigeminal neuralgia: technique and expectations. Neurosurgical Focus, 18(5).
- Xu, L., and Xu, M. (2010). Analysis of factors influencing the efficacy of percutaneous retrogasserian glycerol rhizotomy in patients with idiopathic trigeminal neuralgia. Scientific Research and Essays 5, 2446–2450.
- Pollock, B.E. (2005). Percutaneous retrogasserian glycerol rhizotomy for patients with idiopathic trigeminal neuralgia: A prospective analysis of factors related to pain relief. Journal of Neurosurgery 102, 223–228.
- Paranathala, M.P., Ferguson, L., Bowers, R., and Mukerji, N. (2018). Percutaneous retrogasserian glycerol rhizotomy for trigeminal neuralgia: an alternative technique. British Journal of Neurosurgery 32, 657–660.