

Increased Pain Sensitivity to Intraoral Capsaicin in Patients with Atypical Odontalgia

Lene Baad-Hansen, DDS

PhD Student
Department of Clinical Oral Physiology
School of Dentistry
University of Aarhus
Aarhus, Denmark

Thomas List, DDS, Odont Dr

Professor
Orofacial Pain Unit
Faculty of Odontology
Malmö University
Malmö, Sweden

Troels Staehelin Jensen, MD, PhD, DrSci

Professor
Danish Pain Research Center
Aarhus University Hospital
Aarhus, Denmark

Peter Svensson, DDS, PhD, Dr Odont

Professor
Department of Clinical Oral Physiology
School of Dentistry
University of Aarhus
Aarhus, Denmark
and
Department of Maxillofacial Surgery
Aarhus University Hospital
Aarhus, Denmark
and
Center for Sensory-Motor Interaction
Aalborg University
Aalborg, Denmark

Correspondence to:

Dr Lene Baad-Hansen
Department of Clinical Oral Physiology
School of Dentistry
University of Aarhus
Vennelyst Boulevard 9
DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark
E-mail: lbhansen@odont.au.dk

Aims: To use 2 well-characterized stimuli, the intraoral capsaicin model and the “nociceptive-specific” electrode, to compare superficial nociceptive function between patients with atypical odontalgia (AO) and matched healthy controls. Furthermore, the authors aimed to describe the sensitivity, specificity, and positive predictive values (PPV) of the techniques if group differences could be established. **Methods:** Thirty-eight patients with AO and 27 matched healthy controls participated in this study. Thirty microliters of 5% capsaicin was applied to the gingiva on the left and right sides of all participants as a pain-provocation test. The participants scored the capsaicin-evoked pain continuously on a 0-to-10 visual analog scale (VAS). Furthermore, individual electrical sensory and pain thresholds to stimulation with a “nociceptive-specific” electrode on the facial skin above the infraorbital or mental nerve were determined. **Results:** AO patients had higher VAS pain scores for capsaicin application than healthy controls (ANOVA: $F > 4.88$; $P < .029$). No differences between the painful sides and the nonpainful sides of the patients were found (ANOVA: $F < 1.26$; $P > .262$). No main effects of group or stimulation side on the electrical sensory and pain thresholds were detected (ANOVA: $F < 0.309$; $P > .579$). Sensitivity was 0.51; specificity, 0.81; and PPV, 0.77 when a VAS value of ≥ 8 for capsaicin-evoked pain was used. **Conclusion:** AO patients show increased sensitivity to intraoral capsaicin but normal sensitivity to “nociceptive-specific” electrical stimulation of the face in an area proximal to the painful site. The use of the intraoral pain-provocation test with capsaicin as a possible adjunct to the diagnostic workup is hampered by the only moderately good sensitivity and specificity. *J OROFAC PAIN* 2006;20:107–114

Key words: atypical odontalgia, capsaicin, neuropathic pain, trigeminal pain

Capsaicin applied topically or intradermally is a widely used human experimental pain model to stimulate transient receptor potential vanilloid 1 (TRPV1) receptors on sensory nerve fibers.^{1–6} Topical capsaicin applied for 15 minutes on the oral mucosa in healthy subjects causes moderate levels of pain and heat hyperalgesia⁷ and has been proposed as a pain-provocation test for intraoral pain conditions similar to those that have been used for studies on pain mechanisms in postherpetic neuralgia⁶ and rheumatoid arthritis.⁸ Furthermore, this model has recently been used in the study of possible gender differences in the endogenous pain modulation system, termed *diffuse noxious inhibitory controls*

(DNIC).⁹ Because of the burning quality of the evoked pain, intradermal or topical application of capsaicin on skin is commonly used as a human surrogate model of neuropathic pain.¹⁰ Additionally, evoked pain in the form of allodynia can be induced without injury with the use of intradermal capsaicin.¹⁰

Another method used to study trigeminal (V) nociception involves the use of a so-called “nociceptive-specific” (NS) electrode, which has been applied in electrophysiological studies of pain conditions such as migraine.^{11–14} Instead of activating all types of primary afferent fibers of the skin, the NS electrode causes a depolarization limited to the superficial layer of the dermis containing nociceptive fibers when low stimulus intensities are used (0.6 to 1.6 mA).¹¹ When this electrode is used, stimulation of the skin of the face causes a distinct pinprick-like pain,¹⁴ and it is possible to determine individual sensory and pain thresholds as well as onset latencies and response areas of blink reflexes (BR) elicited by this electrode in a reproducible manner.^{11,14} For example, retest reliability has been evaluated and found high for BR onset latencies.¹¹ In patients with temporomandibular joint (TMJ) pain, but not in patients with muscle-related facial pain, large myelinated fiber hypersensitivity to electrical stimulation with an 8-mm diameter spherical gold-plated electrode has been found in the skin overlying the TMJ.¹⁵

No specific diagnostic test for the challenging orofacial pain condition of atypical odontalgia (AO) is available. AO is hypothesized to be a neuropathic pain condition,¹⁶ but this has yet to be confirmed. AO often follows deafferentation of primary afferent trigeminal nerve fibers caused by, for example, tooth extraction or root canal therapy,¹⁷ and it is reported to occur in 3% to 6% of endodontically treated teeth.^{18,19} The search for relief of this pain condition often leads to numerous unnecessary invasive dental and surgical procedures without the desired result.

So far, few studies have directly compared sensory function between patients with chronic ongoing pain after deafferentation and patients who remain pain-free after a similar injury.^{20,21} Therefore, the aim of this study was to use 2 well-established stimulus modalities, the intraoral capsaicin model and the NS electrode, to compare superficial nociceptive function between patients with AO and matched healthy controls. Furthermore, the authors aimed to describe the sensitivity, specificity, and positive predictive values (PPV) of the test if group differences could be established.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

Thirty-eight patients with AO, 30 women and 8 men (mean age 51.2 ± 15.9 years) were recruited from the Orofacial Pain Unit in Malmö, the Department of Neurology in Linköping, and the County Hospital in Kalmar, Sweden, and from the School of Dentistry in Aarhus, Denmark. Inclusion criteria included ongoing pain (> 6 months) in a tooth or in a place formerly occupied by a tooth (edentulous area). The pain had to be nonparoxysmal and present during most of the day, and there could be no signs of tissue pathology in clinical and radiological examinations.²² The patients were thoroughly examined by a dentist and a neurologist. Exclusion criteria were presence of other known orofacial pain conditions such as trigeminal neuralgia, cluster headache, or odontogenic pain. Spontaneous AO pain on the day of the study (VAS_{now}), mean AO pain during the last month (VAS_{mean}), and worst AO pain during the last month (VAS_{worst}) were assessed by the patients using a 0-to-10 visual analog scale (VAS). The location of the pain was noted (mandible or maxilla, left or right side).

Twenty-seven healthy controls without orofacial pain, 18 women and 9 men (mean age 57.5 ± 16.5 years) who were patients from a general dental practice, enrolled in the study. The healthy controls were matched to the AO patients according to age, sex, and location of tooth extraction. Healing after tooth extractions had occurred for at least 6 months. Subject recruitment and the study protocol were approved by the local ethics committees (Aarhus County, Denmark and Lund University, Sweden), written informed consent was obtained from all participants, and the study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Electrical Stimulation Test

The study was performed in a quiet room with a temperature of about 20°C. Two NS electrodes¹⁴ were placed bilaterally on the skin over the entry zones of the infraorbital nerve (V2) or mental nerve (V3). For patients with pain in the maxilla, V2 was chosen for stimulation, and V3 was chosen for patients with pain in the mandible. Similarly, V2 was stimulated in controls with a history of tooth extraction in the maxilla, whereas V3 was stimulated if a tooth had been extracted from the mandible. Side of stimulation (left or right) was randomly selected.

The individual sensory (I_0) and pain thresholds (I_p) to the electrical stimuli on both sides of the face of all participants were determined with at least 2 series of ascending and descending stimuli. Each individual stimulus consisted of a train of 3 pulses with a duration of 0.3 ms at interpulse intervals of 3 ms. The sensory threshold was defined as the lowest stimulus intensity that evoked a sensation, and the pain threshold was the lowest stimulus intensity evoking a sensation that was just barely painful.

Capsaicin Stimulation Test

Thirty microliters of 5% capsaicin (prepared by the pharmacy at Aarhus University Hospital) was applied for 15 minutes under a Urihesive (ConvaTec) bandage to the painful intraoral site of the patient and to the corresponding homologous contralateral area,⁷ 1 side at a time, in randomized order. Likewise, in healthy controls, capsaicin was applied to the gingiva in the region of the extracted tooth and the corresponding homologous contralateral region. At least 30 minutes separated the 2 capsaicin applications. All subjects scored their perceived capsaicin-evoked pain intensity continuously for 15 minutes on a VAS in which 0 denoted “no pain” and 10 “the most intense pain imaginable.” The VAS pain scores were sampled at 1 Hz by a computer. From the capsaicin-evoked VAS pain data, the following features were calculated: area under the curve (AUC), onset time of pain (VAS > 0), offset time of pain (VAS back to 0), duration of pain (offset time minus onset time), peak pain (the maximum VAS score), and peak time (time from beginning of VAS registration to the time when the maximum VAS pain score was registered).^{7,23}

Raw VAS pain scores were then averaged every minute; this yielded 15 averaged VAS pain scores (T1 to T15) to test for time effects between groups.⁹ The study session, including the capsaicin stimulation test on both sides, lasted approximately 90 minutes. One participant in the patient group dropped out of the study after testing of the painful side, because she felt the capsaicin-evoked pain was intolerable.

Statistics

The results are presented as mean values with standard error of the mean (SEM). Two-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were used to analyze the sensory and pain thresholds (I_0 and I_p) and the features of the capsaicin-evoked pain, with group

(patient versus control) and side (patients: painful versus nonpainful side, controls: extraction versus non-extraction side) as factors. Spearman's rank correlation analyses were performed between the AO pain parameters of the patients (VAS_{now}, VAS_{mean}, and VAS_{worst}) and the features of capsaicin-evoked pain (AUC, onset time, offset time, duration of pain, peak pain, and peak time). The χ^2 test was used to compare between groups the proportion of participants who still experienced pain at the end of the continuous VAS capsaicin-evoked pain registration. A 3-way mixed-model ANOVA was used in the analysis of the averaged capsaicin-evoked pain scores (VAS) with groups and side as factors, and time (T1 to T15) as the repeated measurement factor. The Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD) test was used in post-hoc analyses and values of P less than .05 were considered significant. Sensitivity, specificity, and PPV values were calculated for the capsaicin-evoked peak pain scores using different cutoff values.

Results

Subjects

The mean duration of AO pain was 7.3 years (range, 2 to 13 years). The mean spontaneous pain intensity on the day of testing was 4.5 ± 0.4 (SEM); the mean pain intensity during the last month was 5.3 ± 0.3 ; and the mean intensity of the worst pain in the last month was 7.3 ± 0.4 on the 0-to-10 VAS. Twenty-five patients experienced pain in the maxilla (11 on the left side, 14 on the right side) and 13 patients in the mandible (6 left and 7 right). Seventeen controls had a tooth extracted from the maxilla (9 left and 8 right) and 10 had 1 extracted from the mandible (4 left and 6 right).

Electrical Sensory and Pain Thresholds

No main effects of group or side were found for I_0 or I_p (ANOVA: $F < 0.309$; $P > .579$) (Fig 1).

Capsaicin-Evoked Pain

Significant main effects of group on capsaicin-evoked pain features were detected. AO patients had greater AUC (ANOVA: $F = 4.88$; $P = .029$); later offset of pain (ANOVA: $F = 7.11$; $P = .009$); longer duration of pain (ANOVA: $F = 11.92$; $P = .001$); higher peak pain (ANOVA: $F = 8.49$; $P = .004$); and shorter peak time (ANOVA: $F = 6.31$; $P = .013$) compared with healthy controls. No main

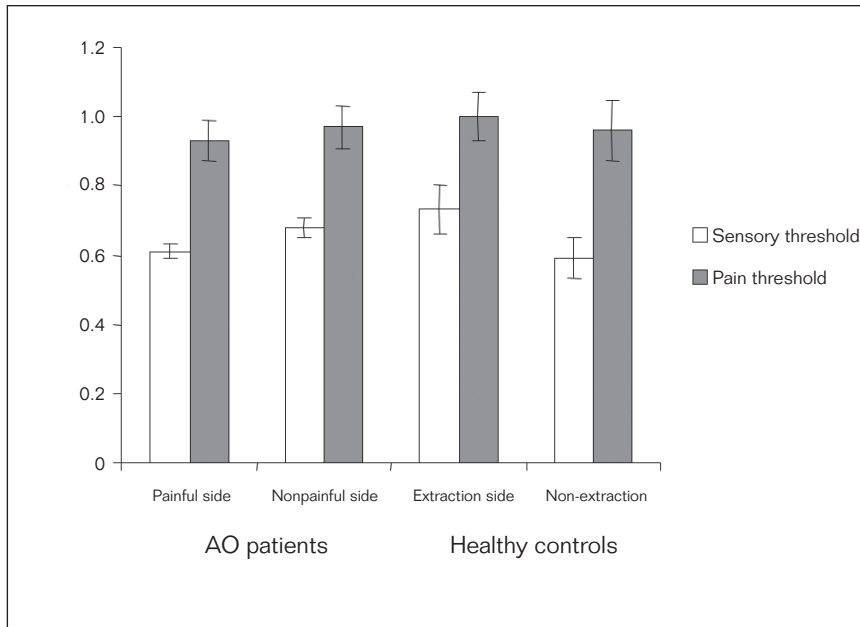


Fig 1 Mean \pm SEM of individual sensory and pain thresholds at baseline to NS electrical stimulation of the facial skin. Thresholds for both sides of the faces are shown.

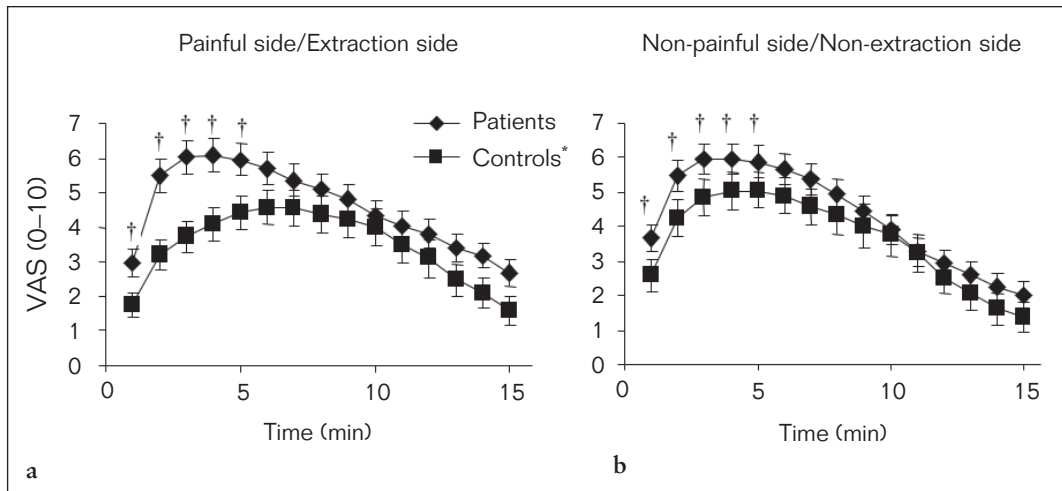


Fig 2 The mean averaged capsaicin-evoked VAS pain at different timepoints (T1 to T15) during the 15-minute application period on (a) the painful side of the patient and the extraction side of the healthy controls and (b) the contralateral sides. Patients experienced higher levels of pain intensity than matched controls. * Main effect of group, ($P = .037$). † denotes a significant group \times time interaction ($P < .025$).

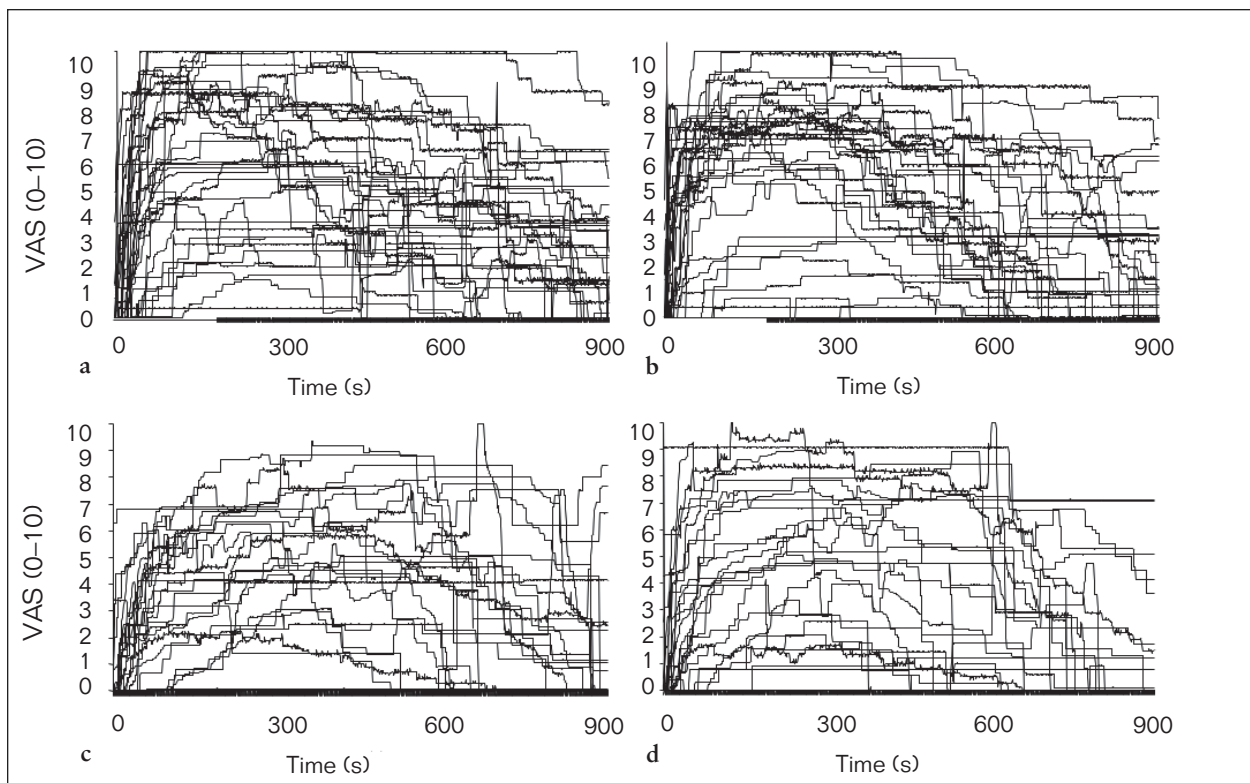


Fig 3 The individual raw VAS pain curves of the capsaicin-evoked pain. (a) The painful side of the AO patients (n = 38). (b) The nonpainful side of the AO patients (n = 37). (c) The extraction side in healthy controls (n = 27). (d) The opposite side of the healthy controls (n = 27). The variation in the capsaicin-evoked pain responses is pronounced.

Table 1 Means \pm SEMs of the Features of the Capsaicin-Evoked Pain

	AO patients		Controls	
	Painful side	Non-painful side	Extraction side	Non-extraction side
AUC*	4014 \pm 320	3747 \pm 306	3092 \pm 375	3138 \pm 425
Onset time (s)	16 \pm 3	20 \pm 9	22 \pm 7	24 \pm 10
Offset time (s)*	874 \pm 11	812 \pm 23	809 \pm 25	749 \pm 32
Duration (s)*	858 \pm 11	793 \pm 24	700 \pm 54	725 \pm 34
Peak pain (0-to-10 VAS)*	7.1 \pm 0.4	6.5 \pm 0.4	5.3 \pm 0.6	5.5 \pm 0.6
Time of peak pain (s)*	250 \pm 40	243 \pm 33	386 \pm 41	305 \pm 33

*Difference between the patient and control groups was significant.

effect of group on onset time of pain was detected (ANOVA: $F = 0.37$; $P = .543$). Capsaicin application side did not influence any of the VAS features (ANOVA: $F < 1.26$; $P > .262$), and no significant interactions were found (ANOVA: $F < 1.942$; $P > .166$) (Figs 2 and 3, Table 1). A significantly higher proportion of AO patients than controls continued to experience capsaicin-evoked pain at the end of VAS registration (28 of 37 patients versus 10 of 27 controls, or 74% versus 37%; χ^2 : $P = .003$).

No significant correlations were found between the AO pain parameters of the patients and the features of their capsaicin-evoked pain (Spearman's $\rho < 0.33$, $P > .061$). The AUC was correlated to the offset-time, pain duration, and peak pain (Spearman's $\rho > 0.43$, $P < .012$), and the pain duration was correlated to the offset-time and peak pain (Spearman's $\rho > 0.37$, $P < .034$).

A main effect of group on the averaged capsaicin-evoked VAS pain scores (T1 to T15) was seen (ANOVA: $F = 4.447$; $P = .037$); AO patients had

Table 2 The Sensitivity, Specificity, and PPV of the Capsaicin Test at Different Cutoff Points for Peak Pain

Cutoff point (0-to-10 VAS)	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV
0	1.00	0.00	0.56
2	1.00	0.11	0.59
3	0.97	0.19	0.61
4	0.86	0.30	0.61
5	0.80	0.48	0.67
6	0.66	0.52	0.64
7	0.51	0.7	0.69
8	0.51	0.81	0.77
9	0.34	0.93	0.86
10	0.2	0.96	0.88

higher VAS pain scores than healthy controls. The side of capsaicin application did not influence the averaged VAS pain scores (ANOVA: $F = .062$; $P = .803$), but a significant main effect of time was demonstrated (ANOVA: $F = 68.677$; $P < .001$), showing an overall significant peak in the capsaicin-evoked pain at T5 (the fifth minute of capsaicin application) compared with T1, T2, and T8 to T15 (Tukey: $P < .048$). A group \times time interaction was shown (ANOVA: $F = 2.915$; $P < .001$), and the post-hoc test revealed that patients had higher VAS pain scores than controls at T1 to T5 (Tukey: $P < .025$), but not from T6 to T15 (Tukey: $P > .145$) (Fig 2).

Since capsaicin-evoked peak pain scores differed significantly between AO patients and controls, the sensitivity, specificity, and PPV values were calculated. These are presented with different cutoff values in Table 2.

Discussion

The main finding in this study was the significant differences in sensitivity to intraoral capsaicin application between the patients and the controls. Patients with AO had significantly higher capsaicin-evoked VAS pain scores, shorter peak times, and longer duration of the capsaicin-evoked pain. Registration of capsaicin-evoked pain was terminated at the time of removal of the capsaicin (900 seconds), although many of the participants in both groups still experienced pain from the capsaicin application. Among the patients, 74% still experienced pain after registration stopped; so did 37% of the controls. This means that the researchers underestimated the duration of the

capsaicin-evoked pain, and it will be necessary to perform additional studies to fully explore the differences in duration of the capsaicin-evoked pain between AO patients and healthy controls. The higher pain response to capsaicin application in AO patients may be related to an already-established sensitization in AO patients. Changes in somatosensory sensitivity and the presence of hyperexcitability are often found in neuropathic pain conditions,^{24,25} and therefore the present data lend support to the notion of AO being a neuropathic pain condition. In a recent paper on taxonomy of orofacial pain conditions, it was suggested that AO and atypical facial pain (AFP) should be considered a single diagnostic entity because they share many clinical features and possibly may overlap.²⁶ Interestingly, post-traumatic neuralgia (PTN) was clearly separated from AO and AFP in this paper,²⁶ but the diagnostic criteria used to classify PTN may share several features with the diagnostic criteria used in the present study for AO, which were based on previous proposals,²² including a predominantly constant (burning) pain following trauma with no objective signs of pathology.²⁶ It might be argued that AO can only be distinguished from PTN by the size of the trauma (tooth extraction or pulpectomy versus, for example, surgical procedures). Accordingly, the authors believe further studies on pain mechanisms in AO, AFP, and PTN are needed in order to improve classification and taxonomy of these intriguing orofacial pain conditions.

Because capsaicin application was performed on both sides on the same day, the risk of a possible sequence effect on the capsaicin-evoked pain was eliminated by randomizing the application side. No side differences in capsaicin-evoked pain or sensitivity to electrical stimulation within the patient group were detected, ie, the increased responsiveness to capsaicin was present on both the painful and the nonpainful side. These findings argue against peripheral sensitization as being responsible for the capsaicin hyperalgesia. Nerve damage and neuropathic pain are often associated with contralateral (mirrorlike) changes in sensitivity,²⁷ and in animal studies, contralateral hyperalgesia has been demonstrated in models of neuropathic pain, arthritis, and experimental myositis.²⁸⁻³⁰ Likewise, no differences in pressure pain thresholds (PPTs) have been found between sides in patients with myogenous temporomandibular disorders (TMD),³¹ and patients with TMD are generally more sensitive to noxious stimuli than healthy controls, indicating involvement of the central nervous system.³² Similarly, it could be hypothesized that

AO patients in general may be more sensitive to painful stimuli than healthy controls, but the fact that the electrical sensory and pain thresholds at a site proximal to the painful site of the patients did not differ between groups argues against this. In contrast to the capsaicin application, which was applied directly to the painful intraoral site of the patients, the electrical stimulus was located on the skin overlying the V2 or V3 (depending on the location of the pain or extracted tooth). Hence, the affected V branch (and the corresponding contralateral V branch) was stimulated electrically but not at the specific peripheral site of injury (pain or tooth extraction). Patients with pain in the TMJ show reduced sensory thresholds to electrical stimulation of the skin overlying the joint, which may suggest activation of the nociceptive system and recruitment of normally non-nociceptive afferents of the auriculotemporal nerve into a nociceptive state.¹⁵ The present data cannot demonstrate a similar phenomenon from stimulation of the facial skin adjacent to the painful site of AO patients.

Pain sensitivity varies considerably in humans. It is presently not known why some humans develop neuropathic pain after injury while others do not. Recently, genetic factors have come into focus with the discovery of high sensory and affective ratings of experimental pain and diminished regional μ -opioid system responses in healthy subjects homozygous for the met¹⁵⁸ allele of the catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) polymorphism (Val¹⁵⁸met).³³ Future studies are needed to determine the value of genetic analysis in identifying neuropathic pain patients or patients at risk of neuropathic pain.

In spite of the high interindividual variation in the capsaicin-evoked pain response (Fig 3), the possible diagnostic value of the pain provocation test with capsaicin was tested, and the clinical diagnosis AO (by a neurologist and a dentist) was used as a gold standard in the patient group. When a cutoff peak value of VAS ≥ 5 on the 0-to-10 VAS was used, the sensitivity (the proportion of AO patients who were correctly identified by the test) was 0.80 and the specificity (the proportion of healthy controls who were correctly identified by the test) was 0.48. The PPV (the proportion of participants with peak VAS pain ≥ 5 who were correctly identified by the test) was 0.67 in this study population. A cutoff value of VAS ≥ 8 could be used to attain a specificity level of 0.81, but unfortunately, this resulted in a reduction of sensitivity to 0.51 with a PPV of 0.77 (Table 2). These levels of sensitivity and specificity, although not ideal, are comparable to levels obtained in evaluation of quantitative sensory testing and neurophys-

iologic examination after iatrogenic injury to the inferior alveolar nerve³⁴ and to levels reported for pressure algometry as a diagnostic tool for myofascial pain.³⁵ With these levels of sensitivity and specificity, the pain provocation test with capsaicin cannot alone identify AO, but it may be of some value as an adjunct to a detailed diagnostic workup, including, for example, clinical and radiological examinations, electromyography, and quantitative sensory testing.³⁶⁻³⁸ Whether the pain-provocation test with capsaicin can distinguish between AO and other chronic orofacial pain conditions needs to be tested in further research.

Conclusions

It can be concluded from this study that, compared to matched healthy controls, patients with AO show greater sensitivity to intraoral capsaicin but normal sensitivity to NS electrical stimulation of the face. Furthermore, the sensitivity, specificity, and PPV of the capsaicin test were no more than moderately good.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Ewa Lööv, Gunilla Johnsson, and Bente Haugsted for skillful assistance in the laboratory. This study was supported by The Danish Medical Research Council, The Aarhus University Research Foundation, the Danish Dental Association, the Health Research Council in the South-East of Sweden (FORSS), and the Swedish Research Council.

References

1. Frot M, Feine JS, Bushnell MC. Sex differences in pain perception and anxiety. A psychophysical study with topical capsaicin. *Pain* 2004;108:230-236.
2. Gottrup H, Bach FW, Jensen TS. Differential effects of peripheral ketamine and lidocaine on skin flux and hyperalgesia induced by intradermal capsaicin in humans. *Clin Physiol Funct Imaging* 2004;24:103-108.
3. Drewes AM, Schipper KP, Dimcevski G, et al. Gut pain and hyperalgesia induced by capsaicin: A human experimental model. *Pain* 2003;104:333-341.
4. Wang K, Arendt-Nielsen L, Svensson P. Capsaicin-induced muscle pain alters the excitability of the human jaw-stretch reflex. *J Dent Res* 2002;81:650-654.
5. Petersen KL, Jones B, Segredo V, Dahl JB, Rowbotham MC. Effect of remifentanyl on pain and secondary hyperalgesia associated with the heat-Capsaicin sensitization model in healthy volunteers. *Anesthesiology* 2001;94:15-20.
6. Petersen KL, Fields HL, Brennum J, Sandroni P, Rowbotham MC. Capsaicin evoked pain and allodynia in post-herpetic neuralgia. *Pain* 2000;88:125-133.

7. Baad-Hansen L, Jensen TS, Svensson P. A human model of intraoral pain and heat hyperalgesia. *J Orofac Pain* 2003;17:333–340.
8. Morris VH, Cruwys SC, Kidd BL. Characterisation of capsaicin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia as a marker for altered nociceptive processing in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *Pain* 1997;71:179–186.
9. Baad-Hansen L, Poulsen HF, Jensen HM, Svensson P. Lack of sex differences in modulation of experimental intraoral pain by diffuse noxious inhibitory controls (DNIC). *Pain* 2005;116:359–365.
10. Klein T, Magerl W, Rolke R, Treede RD. Human surrogate models of neuropathic pain. *Pain* 2005;115:227–233.
11. Katsarava Z, Ellrich J, Diener HC, Kaube H. Optimized stimulation and recording parameters of human 'nociception specific' blink reflex recordings. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2002;113:1932–1936.
12. Katsarava Z, Lehnerdt G, Duda B, Ellrich J, Diener HC, Kaube H. Sensitization of trigeminal nociception specific for migraine but not pain of sinusitis. *Neurology* 2002;59:1450–1453.
13. Kaube H, Katsarava Z, Przywara S, Drepper J, Ellrich J, Diener HC. Acute migraine headache: Possible sensitization of neurons in the spinal trigeminal nucleus? *Neurology* 2002;58:1234–1238.
14. Kaube H, Katsarava Z, Kaufer T, Diener H, Ellrich J. A new method to increase nociception specificity of the human blink reflex. *Clin Neurophysiol* 2000;111:413–416.
15. Eliav E, Teich S, Nitzan D, et al. Facial arthralgia and myalgia: Can they be differentiated by trigeminal sensory assessment? *Pain* 2003;104:481–490.
16. Marbach JJ, Raphael KG. Phantom tooth pain: A new look at an old dilemma. *Pain Med* 2000;1:68–77.
17. Türp JC. Die atypische Odontalgie - ein wenig bekannter Phantomschmerz. *Schmerz* 2001;15:59–64.
18. Marbach JJ, Hulbrock J, Hohn C, Segal AG. Incidence of phantom tooth pain: An atypical facial neuralgia. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1982;53:190–193.
19. Campbell RL, Parks KW, Dodds RN. Chronic facial pain associated with endodontic therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1990;69:287–290.
20. Essick GK. Psychophysical assessment of patients with posttraumatic neuropathic trigeminal pain. *J Orofac Pain* 2004;18:345–354.
21. Baad-Hansen L, List T, Kaube H, Jensen TS, Svensson P. Blink reflexes in patients with atypical odontalgia and matched healthy controls. *Exp Brain Res* (in press).
22. Woda A, Pionchon P. A unified concept of idiopathic orofacial pain: Clinical features. *J Orofac Pain* 1999;13:172–184.
23. Graven-Nielsen T, Babenko V, Svensson P, Arendt-Nielsen L. Experimentally induced muscle pain induces hypoalgesia in heterotopic deep tissues, but not in homotopic deep tissues. *Brain Res* 1998;787:203–210.
24. Jensen TS, Gottrup H, Sindrup SH, Bach FW. The clinical picture of neuropathic pain. *Eur J Pharmacol* 2001;429:1–11.
25. Jensen TS, Baron R. Translation of symptoms and signs into mechanisms in neuropathic pain. *Pain* 2003;102:1–8.
26. Woda A, Tubert-Jeannin S, Bouhassira D, et al. Towards a new taxonomy of idiopathic orofacial pain. *Pain* 2005;116:396–406.
27. Eliav E, Gracely RH, Nahlieli O, Benoliel R. Quantitative sensory testing in trigeminal nerve damage assessment. *J Orofac Pain* 2004;18:339–344.
28. Tal M, Bennett GJ. Extra-territorial pain in rats with a peripheral mononeuropathy: Mechano-hyperalgesia and mechano-allodynia in the territory of an uninjured nerve. *Pain* 1994;57:375–382.
29. Rees H, Sluka KA, Lu Y, Westlund KN, Willis WD. Dorsal root reflexes in articular afferents occur bilaterally in a chronic model of arthritis in rats. *J Neurophysiol* 1996;76:4190–4193.
30. Carleson J. Muscle and brain changes of calcitonin gene-related peptide in experimentally induced unilateral rat masseter myositis. *J Orofac Pain* 2004;18:246–252.
31. Reid KI, Gracely RH, Dubner RA. The influence of time, facial side, and location on pain-pressure thresholds in chronic myogenous temporomandibular disorder. *J Orofac Pain* 1994;8:258–265.
32. Maixner W, Fillingim R, Booker D, Sigurdsson A. Sensitivity of patients with painful temporomandibular disorders to experimentally evoked pain. *Pain* 1995;63:341–351.
33. Zubieta JK, Heitzeg MM, Smith YR, et al. COMT val¹⁵⁸met genotype affects mu-opioid neurotransmitter responses to a pain stressor. *Science* 2003;299:1240–1243.
34. Jääskeläinen SK. The utility of clinical neurophysiological and quantitative sensory testing for trigeminal neuropathy. *J Orofac Pain* 2004;18:355–359.
35. Farella M, Michelotti A, Steenks MH, Romeo R, Cimino R, Bosman F. The diagnostic value of pressure algometry in myofascial pain of the jaw muscles. *J Oral Rehabil* 2000;27:9–14.
36. Hansson P. Neuropathic pain: Clinical characteristics and diagnostic workup. *Eur J Pain* 2002;6(suppl A):47–50.
37. Cruccu G, Anand P, Attal N, et al. EFNS guidelines on neuropathic pain assessment. *Eur J Neurol* 2004;11:153–162.
38. Jääskeläinen SK, Teerijoki-Oksa T, Forssell H. Neurophysiologic and quantitative sensory testing in the diagnosis of trigeminal neuropathy and neuropathic pain. *Pain* 2005;117:349–357.