

Radiation Therapy and Pain in Patients with Head and Neck Cancer

Joel B. Epstein and Keith H. Stewart

Pain is commonly present at the time of diagnosis of head and neck cancer. Pain occurs in all patients treated for oropharyngeal cancer. This study examined the prevalence, severity and characteristics of pain in patients treated with radiation therapy for cancer involving the head and neck and oral cavity. Pain increases throughout the course of radiation and persists following treatment and in some patients continues for 6–12 months. Pain frequently requires systemic analgesics in addition to oral rinses.

Oral Oncol, Eur J Cancer, Vol. 29B, No. 3, pp. 191–199, 1993.

PAIN DUE to cancer therapy is common and can represent either direct toxicity or delayed complications of therapy [1–9]. Pain is influenced by emotional, social, ethnic, environmental and financial considerations [1, 5–16]. Pain as a result of cancer has important psychological components [3, 4, 6, 7, 16–25]. Anxiety, fear and depression increase the experience of pain. The patient with oral and maxillofacial cancer and complications from treatment is especially unique because body image can be significantly affected. Pain, whether related or unrelated to cancer, often produces fear of progression of the disease which may heighten the experience of pain [1, 4, 16, 20].

Acute pain following cancer surgery is an obvious complication of treatment. In addition, surgery may result in damage to neural structures that may lead to persistent neuropathic pain [5, 6, 26–28]. Deafferentation has been shown to result in change in the receptive field of neurons, development of spontaneous neuron activity, and reduction in central control mechanisms that may result in neuropathic pain [29–32]. Pain may also develop due to loss of function of the jaw following surgical resection, discontinuity of the jaw and fibrosis of tissue leading to altered function.

The incidence and severity of pain increases during radiotherapy for treatment of cancer of the head and neck [1, 33, 34]. Radiotherapy-related pain results from direct damage to normal tissues due to epithelial thinning, mucosal atrophy, inflammation and ulceration [1, 35–38]. Mucositis may be worsened by xerostomia because of the loss of lubrication of tissues, dehydration of the mucosa and due to secondary infection of the mucosa. The severity and onset of mucositis is directly related to the dose and frequency of radiation therapy. However, there are marked individual variations.

There is limited information on the incidence, severity and description of orofacial/oropharyngeal pain in cancer patients. Self reporting of pain using questionnaires (i.e. McGill pain questionnaire), visual analogue scales, verbal rating scales, pain behaviours, reports of pain severity and medication use, have been used in few studies in cancer patients [26, 33, 39].

Only one study has evaluated head and neck pain [33]. There is a dramatic need to assess the efficacy of pain control and quality of life in patients with cancer of the head and neck [25]. The purpose of this study was to develop a pain questionnaire applicable to head and neck and oral pain in cancer patients. The questionnaire explored the incidence, severity and duration of pain, and the effects of topical and systemic treatment of the pain.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Patients planned to receive radiation therapy for head and neck or oropharyngeal cancers were included in the survey. All patients had a complete head and neck, oral and dental examination, screening panoramic radiographs and selected dental periapical radiographs. Teeth with moderate to severe periodontal disease that would be within the high dose radiation treatment volume were extracted. Teeth with symptomatic periapical pathosis were treated with pulpectomy or extraction. Additional dental treatment provided for dentate patients was dental prophylaxis, oral hygiene instruction, and daily fluoride applied by the patient with the use of neutral fluoride gel in custom carriers.

The questionnaire incorporated visual analogue scales (VAS) for pain, recording of medications used, the efficacy of medications, anatomical diagrams to allow graphical representation of pain location, descriptors of pain, and a portion of the McGill pain questionnaire. Patients were provided the self-administered questionnaire following the pre-radiotherapy oral and dental assessment, at the mid-point of radiotherapy, at the end of radiation therapy, at 1 month follow-up and between 6 and 12 months following treatment. If patients did not complete the questionnaire at the clinic the questionnaire was mailed to the patient for completion. Staff were available to answer any patient questions. The questionnaire was developed and pretested prior to its clinical use. The responses to the questionnaire were entered into D-base III plus for review.

RESULTS

34 patients who received radical radiotherapy that included the oral cavity participated in the survey. The mean age was 63 years (range 41–86 years). There were 26 males and 15 females.

Correspondence to J.B. Epstein at the Division of Dentistry, British Columbia Cancer Agency, 600 West 10th Avenue, Vancouver, BC, Canada, V5Z 4E6.

Received 5 Aug. 1992; accepted 13 Aug. 1992.

Table 1. Tumour site and staging of oral squamous cell carcinoma

Site	(n)	Primary tumour (n)	Lymph node involvement (n)	Metastases (n)
Lip	5			
Tongue	8	T1 4	N0 21	M0 33
Cheek	2	T2 14	N1 10	M1 1
Palate	1	T3 13	N2 1	
Floor of mouth	4	T4 3	N3 2	
Pharynx/tonsil	12			
Sinus	2			

Of the 34 patients, 31 had a diagnosis of squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) and 3 had malignant salivary gland tumours. Tumour staging of the SCC is shown in Table 1. Alcohol consumption and smoking history is shown in Table 2.

In 13 patients external beam radiation therapy was provided to a total dose of 5000 cGy in 20 fractions, and in 21 patients to 6000 cGy in 25 fractions. 5 patients had received surgical resection of tumour prior to radiotherapy, these included 3 patients with bone involvement (T4) treated with combined surgical resection and radiation, and 2 other patients who had primary tumour resection with positive margins requiring post-operative radiotherapy. Acute surgical pain had resolved prior to radiotherapy which was initiated 6 to 15 weeks following surgery. All other patients were treated with primary radiation therapy. 4 patients required surgery following radiotherapy, 3 of these received radical neck dissection due to lymph node involvement, and 1 required surgical treatment for persisting disease.

The results of the pain survey are shown in Table 3. Pain was present at the time of diagnosis in 82%. The initial level of pain was low with a mean VAS of 23. The site of pain was identified as involving the oral cavity in 19 patients, and in the head and neck in 9. The mean duration of pain prior to diagnosis was 3.6 months. Pain for less than 1 month was reported by 1 patient. The majority experienced pain from 1 to 3 months (12 patients) and 3 to 6 months (14 patients). Pain for more than 6 months was reported by 1 patient. Pain was described as mild by the majority of patients. Analgesics were used before radiation therapy by 15 patients, these included 2 non-narcotic analgesics, 11 narcotic-non-narcotic analgesics (e.g. acetaminophen or acetylsalicylic acid and codeine), and 2 required potent oral narcotics (e.g. lortidine, morphine).

Table 2. Alcohol and smoking history

Type of alcohol	Frequency of consumption	
None	3	Weekly 5
Beer	7	1-2 WE/day 9
Wine	4	2-6 WE/day 10
Hard spirits	12	>6 WE/day 5
Combination	6	
Missing	2	
Smoking cigarettes	None	2
	<20/day	4
	<40/day	10
	>40/day	12
	Missing	6

WE = whiskey equivalent; 1 = 1 beer or 1 oz liquor.

By the midpoint of treatment all 34 patients experienced pain, with a mean VAS of 38 mm. In 82% pain involved the oral cavity. The description of pain was mild in 10, distressing in 17 and horrible in 7. Pain was managed with systemic medications in 69% and oral rinses in 85%. No patients had been prescribed psychoactive agents or sedative agents.

30 patients were reviewed at the end of treatment and all but 1 patient reported pain. The mean VAS level was 45 mm. Pain was described as mild in 10, distressing in 15 and horrible in 8. The pain was continuous in 17, periodic and intermittent in 8 and brief or transient in 4. Systemic analgesics were provided in 93% of patients. 2 patients were prescribed benzodiazepines. Oral rinses were used by 90% of patients.

27 patients were reviewed 1 month following radiation therapy. 16 patients continued to experience pain. The mean VAS pain score was 19 mm. Pain was described as mild in 11 and distressing in 5. Medications used at that time were systemic analgesics in 11 patients, and oral rinses in 18.

The final pain assessment was conducted from 6-12 months following radiation treatment in 26 patients. 12 patients continued to experience pain. Pain was present in the head and neck in 8, orally in 1, and at sites not identified in 3 patients. The mean VAS was 18 mm. Pain was described as mild in 9 and distressing in 2. Systemic analgesics were used in 23% of patients evaluated. Oral rinses were continued by 19%. Resolution of pain was described as unlikely in 2, likely in 3 and uncertain in 3.

DISCUSSION

Discomfort is the primary reason patients seek treatment and has been reported in up to 85% of patients [4, 33-35, 40-44]. In this study, 82% of patients reported discomfort at diagnosis. Alteration of the surface epithelium, loss of the normal barrier function, exposure of nerves, direct tumour effects on nerve function or invasion or chemosensitisation of receptors, and secondary infection of the lesion appear to be the aetiology of pain [6, 45-49]. Pain predated diagnosis by a mean of 3.6 months and the majority experienced discomfort for 1 to 6 months, indicating a delay in presentation and/or delay in diagnosis.

Pain at diagnosis is of low to moderate intensity, and generally described as discomfort [27, 33, 34, 41, 50-52]. Pain was described as mild in the majority of patients and scored as 23 (range 0-80) by VAS. Disease stage and site and pre-treatment pain has been reported to predict pain at the end of treatment [33, 431]. In this survey pain was related to tumour size (Fig. 1). No relation between pain and smoking or alcohol consumption was seen.

In all cases with radiographic evidence of bone involvement pain was reported. This is similar to past literature where pain was associated with bone involvement in 85% of body sites [4]. While pain is related to tumour size, therapy related pain is reported as the predominant cause of pain [41]. In our survey all patients reported pain during treatment, with increasing severity throughout radiotherapy (Figs 2 and 3).

The initial analgesic selected should be the least potent analgesic that relieves the pain, when needed narcotic agents should be used in combination with non-narcotics [4, 5, 19, 23, 35, 53, 54]. Analgesics should also be used on a time contingent basis [4, 5, 9, 14, 19, 20, 22, 23, 53-63]. A major problem in analgesic use in cancer patients is the reluctance of health-care workers to provide adequate doses and frequency of medication to effectively control the pain, in spite

Table 3. Progress of pain throughout the course of radiotherapy

No. of patients	Visit 1 % (n = 34)	Visit 2 % (n = 34)	Visit 3 % (n = 30)	Visit 4 % (n = 27)	Visit 5 % (n = 26)
Presence of pain	82 (28)	100 (34)	97 (29)	59 (16)	46 (12)
Pain (VAS)					
Mean	23	38	45	19	18
Range	0-80	5-85	0-100	0-70	0-50
Site of pain					
Oral	17	20	17	9	1
Head and neck	9	4	5	3	8
Both	2	8	7	4	—
Missing data	3	2	—	—	3
Description					
None	6	0	1	11	14
Mild	17	10	7	11	9
Distressing	9	17	15	5	2
Horrible	—	7	7	—	—
Missing data	2	—	—	—	1
Pain duration					
Continuous	9	15	17	6	5
Intermittent	12	14	8	6	3
Brief	7	5	4	4	4
Missing data	2	—	—	—	—
Analgesics					
Non-narcotic	2	4	4	3	2
Mild narcotic	11	16	16	6	2
Narcotic	2	5	8	2	2
Oral rinses					
Benzylamine	—	16	20	18	4
Xylocaine	—	13	7	2	1
Baking soda	—	3	4	5	3
Missing data	—	1	—	—	—
Pain resolution					
Certain	—	—	—	8	—
Likely	—	—	—	3	3
Uncertain	—	—	—	2	3
Unlikely	—	—	—	1	2
Impossible	—	—	—	1	1

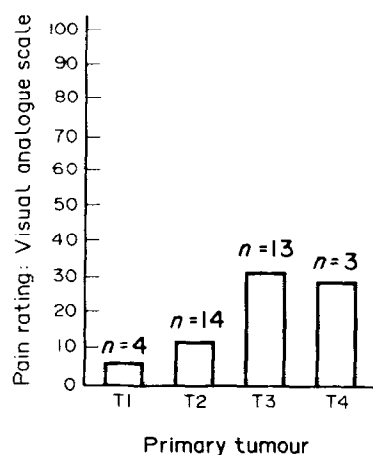


Fig. 1. Pain at diagnosis and tumour size.

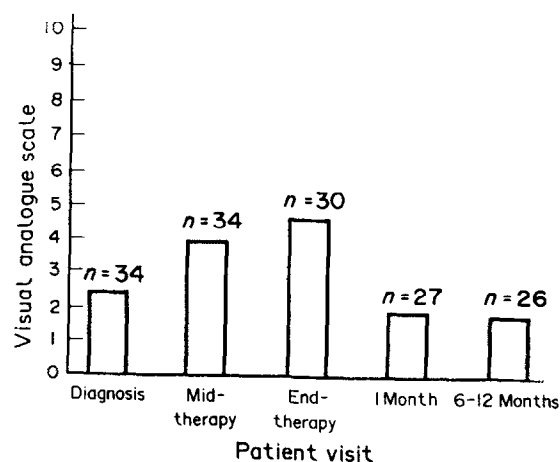


Fig. 2. Oropharyngeal pain experience during radiation therapy.

of evidence that use of narcotics in cancer patients with pain does not result in addiction [4, 5, 7, 41, 44, 53, 56, 64-70]. The evidence of universal increased pain in the survey indicates increasing pain in spite of oral rinses and systemic analgesics and indicates the need for improved pain control.

Pain relief is well documented in cancer patients with the use of psychotropic medications [4, 7, 18, 45, 53, 59, 61,

71-78]. The psychotropic drugs may act synergistically with other analgesic drugs by analgesic effects due to different mechanisms of action, improving sleep, and by altering the emotional state of the patient [79-83]. Side effects of sedation, fluid retention, and dry mouth are generally better tolerated at analgesic doses, however, elderly patients appear to be more

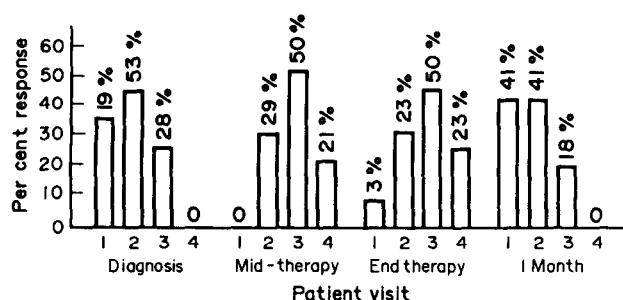


Fig. 3. Pain description during radiation therapy. Key: 1 = none; 2 = mild; 3 = distressing; 4 = horrible.

susceptible. In spite of abundant data on the efficacy of tricyclics in pain, including pain in cancer patients, there were no prescriptions of tricyclics in the patients in this survey.

Anti-anxiety agents, including the benzodiazepines, may reduce anxiety and act as adjuvants in muscular pain [5, 7, 84]. Steroids reduce inflammation and oedema that may be associated with malignant conditions, and may therefore reduce pain [5]. These drugs may also affect mood, and improve appetite [5, 85]. In 2 patients in the survey benzodiazepines were used during the course of their care.

Mucositis pain is managed palliatively until healing occurs. Bland rinses (0.9% saline solutions with or without sodium bicarbonate), topical anaesthetics, and mucosal coating agents have been suggested but have not been subjected to double blind studies [34, 35, 38, 86–88]. Lidocaine viscous is frequently recommended on clinical grounds. However, the rinse may result in burning sensation when mucosal ulcers are present and may eliminate the taste sensation affecting dietary intake. Topical lidocaine may cause cardiovascular and CNS toxicity (seizures) and the degree of anaesthesia may cause loss of the gag reflex increasing the risk of aspiration [34, 89, 90]. Clinical trials using benzydamine, a topical non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agent to treat the pain of oral mucositis, and to prevent mucositis have shown encouraging results [34, 91, 92]. Benzydamine produces topical analgesia and mild anaesthesia, and may reduce mucosal breakdown due to stabilisation of cell membranes [92, 93]. Topical analgesics and anaesthetics may be helpful when they are applied to localised areas or used as a rinse when mucosal involvement is widespread. Systemic agents may be needed in addition to topical anaesthetic or analgesic agents. Due to the efficacy of benzydamine in controlled clinical trials at our institution, it has become the first choice in topical therapy.

Musculoskeletal syndromes are commonly seen in patients with cancer. The aetiology of dysfunction includes direct effects of the tumour in muscles that may limit mandibular movement, bone destruction, and fracture. The effects of surgical treatment may be significant if discontinuity of the jaw, or fibrosis of muscles and soft tissue occurs. Radiation fibrosis of muscles and soft tissue and complications of osteo-radionecrosis can further affect jaw function [38, 94, 95]. Stress, anxiety and depression associated with cancer heighten psychosocial factors that are often associated with TMD [17, 94–99]. TMD was identified in 1 case, who had combined radiotherapy and surgery that led to extensive muscular fibrosis causing limited mandibular movement and pain. In 2 cases, pain was attributed to TMD due to muscular fibrosis and muscular contraction. In 1 case of persisting pain osteo-radionecrosis was diagnosed with exposure of mandibular bone, 1

case was associated with necrosis of soft tissue of the tongue resulting in a chronic mucosal ulcer. Complaints of persisting mild pain was reported in 4 patients with intact but atrophic mucosa. This was described as sensitivity to spicy, acidic and highly flavoured foods or oral care products. Recurrent tumour was identified in 1 case of persisting pain. The cause of pain was not determined in 25% (3 of 12 cases). Thus, mucosal atrophy was the most common cause of persisting intermittent mild pain in 33% (4 of 12 patients), noted most commonly with eating, or during oral care. TMD was diagnosed in 25% (3 of 12) of patients with persisting pain.

Neuralgia-like pain can develop following surgical treatment. Aching or burning discomfort may be present between episodes of the electric-like pain. Deafferentation (neuropathic) pain may respond to tricyclic medications. These symptoms were identified in 2 patients who had radical neck dissection.

In cases where pain is continuous, systemic analgesics provided on a time contingent basis are required, however, in cases with intermittent or brief pain stimulated by eating, topical agents may be of benefit. During radiotherapy continuous pain was reported in approximately one half of patients due to mucositis.

The length of the questionnaire must be limited. Many of the patients found the questionnaire frustrating to complete, in fact the McGill questionnaire which was included as a part of the survey could not be evaluated due to incomplete forms in the majority of patients. The questionnaire was shortened by elimination of the full McGill questionnaire and may provide a tool for assessment of oral pain due to cancer therapies including radiotherapy and chemotherapy. In addition to determining the frequency and severity of pain in cancer patients, the questionnaire may be used as part of the assessment of interventions planned to manage oral pain.

Summary

The majority of patients with cancer require pain management during the course of their disease. The significance of pain in the head and neck region is magnified because of the importance of the region in development, and psychological and social interactions.

Pain was correlated with the size of the primary tumour. Pain increased during the course of therapy and was experienced by all patients. By the end of radiation therapy, one half of patients had function affected. The medications used did not eliminate pain, and topical and systemic medications were often required in combination. No relation was detected between smoking, the amount smoked and alcohol consumption and pain due to radiation.

In order to better understand pain in the oral cavity and the head and neck in cancer patients more study on incidence, severity, location, aetiology and management is needed. Further research on pain in head and neck cancer will result in several benefits. Prediction of pain during and after treatment will be understood. Patients who are at greater risk of cancer pain may be identified, and therapies directed at pain control can be evaluated. The appropriate time of intervention may be identified. Studies of preventive and therapeutic interventions are needed.

1. Epstein JB, Schubert MM, Scully C. Evaluation and treatment of pain in patients with orofacial cancer: a review. *Pain Clinic* 1991, 4, 3–20.

2. Bonica JJ. Management of cancer pain. *Recent Res Cancer Res* 1984, **89**, 13-27.
3. Narayanan RS, Krishnan Nair M, Padmanabhan TK. Palliation of pain in advanced oral cancer. *Headache* 1988, **28**, 258-259.
4. Foley KM. The treatment of pain in the patient with cancer. *Cancer J Clinicians* 1986, **36**, 194-215.
5. Levy MH. Pain management in advanced cancer. *Semin Oncol* 1985, **12**, 394-410.
6. Levy MH. Integration of pain management into comprehensive cancer care. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2328-2335.
7. Breitbart W. Psychiatric management of cancer pain. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2336-2342.
8. Ahles TA, Blanchard EB, Ruckdeschel JC. The multidimensional nature of cancer-related pain. *Pain* 1983, **17**, 277-288.
9. Twycross RG, Fairfield S. Pain in far-advanced cancer. *Pain* 1982, **14**, 303-310.
10. Bond MR. *Pain: Its Nature, Analysis and Treatment*. Edinburgh, Churchill Livingstone, 1984.
11. Melzack R. Recent concepts of pain. *J Med* 1982, **13**, 147-160.
12. Mersky H. Pain terms: a list with definitions and notes on usage. *Pain* 1979, **6**, 250.
13. Saunders CM. *The Management of Terminal Illness*. London, Edward Arnold, 1967.
14. Twycross RG. Control of pain. *J Royal Col Phys* 1984, **18**, 32-39.
15. Wall PD, Melzack R. (eds) *The Textbook of Pain*. Edinburgh, Churchill Livingstone, 1984.
16. Dalton JA, Feuerstein M. Behavioral factors in cancer pain. *Pain* 1988, **33**, 137-147.
17. Sternbach RA. *Pain: A Psychological Analysis*. New York, New York Academic Press, 1968, 12-122.
18. Holland JC. Managing depression in the patient with cancer. *Clin Oncol* 1986, **1**, 11-13.
19. Warfield CA, Tracey J. Management of cancer pain. *Hosp Prac* 1983, **18**, 137-144.
20. Bonica JJ. Introduction to management of pain in advanced cancer. In: Bonica JJ and Ventafridda V, eds. *International Symposium on Pain of Advanced Cancer*. New York, Raven Press, 1979, 115-150.
21. Goldberg RJ. Management of depression in the patient with advanced cancer. *J Am Med Assoc* 1981, **246**, 373-376.
22. Murphy TM. Cancer pain. *Postgrad Med* 1973, **53**, 187-194.
23. Taddeini L, Rotschafer JC. Pain syndromes associated with cancer. *Postgrad Med* 1984, **75**, 101-108.
24. Barber J, Gritelson J. Cancer pain: psychological management using hypnosis. *Cancer* 1980, **30**, 130-135.
25. Ferrell BR, Wisdom C, Wenzl C. Quality of life as an outcome variable in the management of cancer pain. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2321-2327.
26. Portenoy RK. Cancer pain: epidemiology and syndromes. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2298-2307.
27. Greenslade R, Portenoy RK. Pain syndromes in head and neck cancer. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 1988, **3**, s21 abstr #41.
28. Johnson CA, Keane TJ, Prudo SM. Weight loss in patients receiving radiation therapy for head and neck cancer: a prospective study. *J Parenter Enter Nutrition* 1982, **6**, 399-402.
29. Calvin WH, Loeser JD, Howe JF. A neurophysiological theory for the pain mechanism of tic douloureux. *Pain* 1977, **3**, 147-154.
30. Dubner R, Bennett GJ. Spinal and trigeminal mechanisms of nociception. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 1983, **6**, 381-418.
31. Kaas JH, Merzenich MM, Killackey HP. The reorganization of the somatosensory cortex following peripheral nerve damage in adult and developing mammals. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 1983, **6**, 325-356.
32. Sessle BJ. The neurobiology of facial and dental pain: present knowledge, future directions. *J Dent Res* 1987, **66**, 962-981.
33. Keefe FJ, Manuel G, Brantley A, Crisson J. Pain in the head and neck cancer patient: changes over treatment. *Head Neck Surg* 1986, **8**, 169-176.
34. Epstein JB, Stevenson-Moore P. Benzylamine hydrochloride in prevention and management of pain in oral mucositis associated with radiation therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Path* 1986, **62**, 145-148.
35. Silverman S. Diagnosis. In: Silverman S, ed. *Oral Cancer*. New York, New York American Cancer Society, 1990.
36. Larson DL. Management of complications of radiotherapy of the head and neck. *Surg Clin North Am* 1986, **66**, 169-182.
37. Lockhart PB. Oral complications of radiation therapy. In: Peterson DE, Elias EG, Sonis ST, eds. *Head and Neck Management of the Cancer Patient*. Boston, Martinus Nijhoff, 1986, 429-449.
38. Rothwell BR. Prevention and treatment of the orofacial complications of radiotherapy. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1987, **114**, 316-322.
39. Deschamps M, Band PR, Coldman AJ. Assessment of adult cancer pain: shortcomings of current methods. *Pain* 1988, **32**, 133-139.
40. Foley KM. *Pain Syndromes in Patients with Cancer*. In: Bonica JJ, ed. New York, Raven Press, 1979, 59-75.
41. Miser AW, McCalla J, Dothage JA, Wesley M, Miser JS. Pain as a presenting symptom in children and young adults with newly diagnosed malignancy. *Pain* 1987, **29**, 85-90.
42. Robertson MS, Hornibrook J. The presenting symptoms of head and neck cancer. *NZ Med J* 1982, **95**, 337-341.
43. Gottlieb A, Marena L, Comelli G, Pallestrini E. Pain in head-neck cancer. Relationship between site and stage of tumors and its occurrence. 3rd European Conference of Clinical Oncology and Cancer Nursing. 16-20 June 1985, Stockholm, Sweden, p. 92.
44. Miser AW, Dothage JA, Wesley RA, Miser JS. The prevalence of pain in pediatric and young adult cancer population. *Pain* 1987, **29**, 73-83.
45. Payne R. Cancer pain: anatomy, physiology and pharmacology. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2266-2274.
46. Rosenberg SW. Oral complications of cancer chemotherapy—a review of 398 patients. *J Oral Med* 1986, **41**, 93-97.
47. Epstein JB, Gangbar SJ. Oral mucosal lesions in patients undergoing treatment for leukemia. *J Oral Med* 1987, **43**, 132-137.
48. Greenberg MS, Cohen SG, McKittrick JC, Cassileth PA. The oral flora as a source of septicemia in patients with acute leukemia. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Path* 1982, **53**, 32-36.
49. Peterson DE. Bacterial infections: periodontal and dental disease. In: Peterson DE, Sonis ST, eds. *Oral Complications of Cancer Chemotherapy*. The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff, 1983, 79-91.
50. Grace EG, North AF. Temporomandibular joint dysfunction and orofacial pain caused by parotid gland malignancy: report of a case. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1988, **116**, 348-350.
51. Olson ML, Shedd DP. Disability and rehabilitation in head and neck cancer patients after treatment. *Head Neck Surg* 1978, **1**, 52-58.
52. Johnson CA, Keen TJ, Prudo SM. Weight loss in patients receiving radiation therapy for head and neck cancer: a prospective study. *J Parenter Enter Nutrition* 1982, **6**, 399-402.
53. Inturrisi CE. Management of cancer pain: pharmacology and principles of management. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2308-2320.
54. Stambaugh JE. Management of the patient with chronic pain due to advanced malignancy. *J Med* 1982, **13**, 183-190.
55. Aird DW, Bihari J, Smith C. Clinical problems in the continuing care of head and neck cancer patients. *Ear Nose Throat* 1983, **62**, 230-243.
56. Kanner RM, Foley KM. Patterns of narcotic drug use in a cancer pain clinic. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1981, **362**, 161-172.
57. Melzack R, Mount BM, Gordon JM. The Brompton mixture versus morphine solution given orally: effects on pain. *Can Med Assoc J* 1979, **120**, 435-438.
58. Meyers AR, Masters RJ, Kirk EM, et al. Integrated care for the terminally ill: variations in the utilization of formal services. *Gerontology* 1983, **23**, 71-74.
59. Saunders DCS. Principles of symptom control in terminal care. *Med Clin North Am* 1982, **66**, 1169-1183.
60. Sawe J, Dahlstrom B, Rane A. Steady state kinetics and analgesic effect of oral morphine in cancer patients. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1983, **24**, 537-542.
61. Tuttle CB. Drug management of pain in cancer patients. *Can Med Assoc J* 1985, **132**, 121-134.
62. Twycross RG. Overview of analgesia. *Adv Pain Res Ther* 1979, **2**, 617-633.
63. Walsh TD, Saunders CM. Oral morphine for relief of chronic pain from cancer. *N Engl J Med* 1981, **305**, 1417-1418.
64. Foley KM. Controversies in cancer pain: medical perspectives. *Cancer* 1989, **63**, 2257-2265.
65. Straus-Rausch E. Buprenorphine-sublingual tablets (Abstr) in treatment of head and neck cancer patients. *J Pain Symp Manage* 1988, **3**, s20.

66. Greenberg HS, Taren J, Ensminger WD, Dean K. Benefit from and tolerance to continuous intrathecal morphine for intractable cancer pain. *J Neuro Surg* 1982, 57, 360-364.
67. Porter J, Jick H. Addiction rare in patients treated with narcotics. *N Engl J Med* 1980, 302, 123-128.
68. Sawe J, Svensson JO, Rave A. Morphine metabolism in cancer patients on increasing oral doses—no evidence for auto-induction of dose dependence. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1983, 16, 85-93.
69. Evans PJD. Narcotic addiction in patients with chronic pain. *Anaesthesia* 1981, 36, 597-602.
70. Bruera E, Macmillan K, Hanson J, MacDonald RN. The cognitive effects of the administration of narcotic analgesics in patients with cancer pain. *Pain* 1989, 39, 13-16.
71. Ferrer-Brechner T, Ganz P. Combination therapy with ibuprofen and methadone for chronic cancer pain. *Am J Med* 1984, 77, 78-83.
72. Breivik H, Rennemo F. Clinical evaluation of combined treatment with methadone and psychotropic drugs in cancer patients. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 1982, 74, 135-140.
73. Hanks GW. Psychotropic drugs. *Clinics Oncol* 1984, 3, 135-151.
74. Magni G, Arsie D, DeLeo D. Antidepressants in the treatment of cancer pain. A survey in Italy. *Pain* 1987, 29, 347-353.
75. Merskey H, Hester RA. The treatment of chronic pain with psychotropic drugs. *Postgrad Med* 1972, 48, 594-598.
76. Rosenblatt RM, Reich J, Dehring D. Tricyclic antidepressants in treatment of depression and chronic pain: analysis of the supporting evidence. *Anesth Analg* 1984, 63, 1025-1032.
77. Stauffer JD. Antidepressants and chronic pain. *J Family Pract* 1987, 25, 167-170.
78. Watson CP. Therapeutic window for amitriptyline analgesia. *Can Med Assoc J* 1984, 130, 105-106.
79. Richardson J, Richelson E. Antidepressants: a clinical update for medical practitioners. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1984, 59, 330-337.
80. France RD. The future for antidepressants: treatment of pain. *Psychopathology* 1987, 20 (suppl), 99-113.
81. Feinman C. Pain relief by antidepressants: possible modes of action. *Pain* 1985, 23, 1-8.
82. Aronoff G, Evans W. Doxepin as an adjunct in the treatment of chronic pain. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1982, 43, 42-47.
83. Twycross R. Analgesics. *Postgrad Med* 1984, 60, 876-880.
84. Feighner JP, Meredith CH, Frost NR, et al. A double blind comparison of alprazolam versus imipramine and placebo in treatment of a major depressive disorder. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1983, 68, 223-233.
85. Campbell CF, Mason JB, Weiler JM. Continuous subcutaneous infusion of morphine for the pain of terminal malignancy. *Ann Intern Med* 1983, 98, 51-52.
86. Peterson DE, Overholser CD. Dental management of leukemia patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1979, 47, 40-42.
87. Schubert MM, Sullivan KM, Truelove EL. Head and neck complications of bone marrow transplantation. In: Peterson DE, Elias GE, Sonis ST, eds. *Head and Neck Management of the Cancer Patient*. Boston, Martinus Nijhoff, 1986, 401-427.
88. Fardal O, Turnbull RS. A review of the literature on use of chlorhexidine in dentistry. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1986, 112, 863-869.
89. Hess GP, Walson PD. Seizures secondary to oral viscous lidocaine. *Ann Emerg Med* 1988, 17, 725-772.
90. Greenblatt DJ, Benjamin DM, Willis CR. Lidocaine plasma concentrations following administration of intraoral lidocaine solution. *Arch Otolaryngol* 1985, 111, 298-300.
91. Prada A, Chiesa F. Effects of benzydamine on the oral mucositis during antineoplastic radiotherapy and/or intra-arterial chemotherapy. *Int J Tiss React* 1987, 9, 115-119.
92. Schubert MM, Newton RE. The use of benzydamine HCl for the management of cancer therapy-induced mucositis: preliminary report of a multicenter study. *Int J Tiss React* 1987, 9, 99-103.
93. Silverstrini B. Benzydamine, a unique model of anti-inflammatory activity. *Int J Tiss React* 1987, 9, 87-92.
94. Parker MW. A dynamic model of etiology in temporomandibular disorders. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1990, 120, 283-290.
95. Speigel K, Kalb R, Pasternak GW. Analgesic activity of tricyclic antidepressants. *Ann Neurol* 1983, 13, 462-465.
96. Greene CS, Laskin DM. Longterm evaluation of treatment for myofascial pain dysfunction syndrome: a comparative analysis. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1983, 107, 235-238.
97. Marbach JJ, Varoscak JR. Treatment of TMJ and other facial pain: a critical review. *NY State Dent J* 1980, 46, 181-188.
98. Green CS, Marbach JJ. Epidemiologic studies of mandibular dysfunction: a critical review. *J Pros Dent* 1982, 48, 195.
99. Spiegel K, Kalb R, Pasternak GW. Analgesic activity of tricyclic antidepressants. *Ann Neurol* 1983, 13, 462-465.
100. Truelove EL, Epstein JB, Schubert MM, Grushka M. Pain and behavior. In: Millard HD, Mason DK, eds. *1988 World Workshop on Oral Medicine*. Yearbook Med Publ Chicago, 1989, 220-314.

Acknowledgement—The authors would like to acknowledge the contributions of Sue Cowieson and Crystina Kiernicki of the Department of Dentistry for their assistance in conducting this project.

APPENDIX

Head and Neck Pain Profile

1. Name
2. Date
3. Who referred you to the Cancer Control Agency?
☐ physician ☐ dentist ☐ other
4. Do you smoke? ☐ no ☐ yes
 If yes, how much?
☐ less than 10 cigarettes per day ☐ less than 20 cigarettes per day
☐ more than 20 cigarettes per day
5. Do you drink alcohol? ☐ no ☐ yes
 If yes, how much and what type?
6. Do you presently have pain in your mouth, head or neck?
☐ no ☐ yes
 If no, please turn to page 5, and answer question 25.
 If yes, please answer the following questions.

(ii) the usual pain level

No pain

The most intense pain
imaginable

(iii) the best (least severe) pain

No pain

The most intense pain
imaginable

13. Choose one word that best describes your present pain.

- ☐ no pain ☐ horrible
☐ mild ☐ excruciating
☐ distressing

14. Are there times during which you experience no pain at all?

- ☐ no ☐ yes

If yes, how long do these pain free periods last?

15. Is your pain typically worse at any particular time of day?

- ☐ no ☐ yes

If yes, at what time of day is your pain worse?

- ☐ morning ☐ evening
☐ afternoon ☐ night

16. What makes your pain worse?

- ☐ chewing ☐ speaking ☐ other (please specify)
☐ drinking ☐ swallowing

17. How can you lessen your pain?

- ☐ pain medication (pills) ☐ relaxation techniques
☐ mouth rinses for pain ☐ other (please specify)
☐ soft diet

18. Choose one word group that best describes the pattern of your pain.

- ☐ continuous, steady, constant
☐ rhythmic, periodic, intermittent
☐ brief, momentary, transient

19. Some of the words below describe your present pain. Circle only one word in each of the 20 groups if the group contains a word that describes your pain. Leave out any group that is not suitable.

- | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| Flickering | Jumping | Pricking | Sharp |
| Quivering | Flashing | Boring | Cutting |
| Pulsing | Shooting | Drilling | Lacerating |
| Throbbing | | Stabbing | |
| Beating | | Lancinating | |
| Pounding | | | |
| Pinching | Tugging | Hot | Tingling |
| Pressing | Pulling | Burning | Itchy |
| Gnawing | Wrenching | Scalding | Smarting |
| Cramping | | Searing | Stinging |
| Crushing | | | |
| Dull | Tender | Tiring | Sickening |
| Sore | Taut | Exhausting | Suffocating |
| Hurting | Rasping | | |
| Aching | Splitting | | |
| Heavy | | | |
| Fearful | Punishing | Wretched | Annoying |
| Frightful | Gruelling | Blinding | Troublesome |
| Terrifying | Cruel | | Miserable |
| | Vicious | | Intense |
| | Killing | | Unbearable |
| Spreading | Tight | Cool | Nagging |
| Radiating | Numb | Cold | Nauseating |
| Penetrating | Drawing | Freezing | Agonizing |
| Piercing | Squeezing | | Dreadful |
| | Tearing | | |

