Neurohormones in Pain and Headache Management: New and Emerging Concepts

The authors discuss a special set of neurohormones with pain-related functions, which if tapped for their intrinsic use, may diminish the need for opioids.

CITE THIS ARTICLE

Krusz J, Tennant F. Neurohormones in Pain and Headache Management: New and Emerging Concepts. Pract Pain Manag. ;17(1).

Jul 5, 2017

John Claude Krusz, PhD, MDClinician

Forest Tennant, MD, DrPHHead, Arachnoiditis Research and Education Project

The recent discovery and awareness that the central nervous system (CNS) makes specific hormones for intrinsic use in addition to those for peripheral use is a profound finding that is critical to clinical pain and headache management. Some neurohormones provide the physiologic effects of neuroprotection and neurogenesis that are essential for pain reduction, prevention, and treatment.

Following is an attempt to provide an early status report on what we do (and don't) know about the function of neurohormones relative to pain management. Be clearly advised that this report is elementary and, undoubtedly, will be subject to expansion and revision as more basic science and clinical experience are accumulated. This review looks at 8 neurohormones that are in early clinical use.

wysiwyg_imageupload:4260

Definition of Neurohormones

The CNS, including the pituitary gland, produces numerous hormones, but relatively few are known to have pain-related functions within the CNS.¹⁻²² For the purposes of this article, we define a neurohormone as a hormone that is produced, retained, and has functions within the CNS that promote pain control. Additional hormones surely will be found.

Table 1 lists the 8 neurohormones that have been identified as affecting pain. Five of these are called neurosteroids because they have the steroid moiety (4 carbon rings) as part of their chemical structure.^{9–10} These are dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), estradiol, pregnenolone, progesterone, and testosterone. The 3 remaining neurohormones are human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG), human growth hormone (HGH), and oxytocin.

Table 1. Neuro	phormones Involved in Pain Management
Ne	urosteroids
•	Dehydroepiandrosterone
•	Estradiol
•	Pregnenolone
•	Progesterone
•	Testosterone
No	n-steroids
•	Human Chorionic Gonadotropin
•	Human Growth Hormone
•	Oxytocin

wysiwyg_imageupload:4261

We did not include hormones that are produced in the peripheral endocrine system and then transported by arterial blood into the CNS for biologic actions, such as cortisol, epinephrine, thyroid hormones, or insulin.^{11–13} Also excluded from discussion are endorphins, prolactin, melatonin, vitamins (ie, D2 and D3), dopamine, cytokines, and various releasing hormones because, although they may have a pain modulatory function, they are generally considered neurotransmitters or neuromodulators. At this time, many of these hormones cannot be readily measured in serum or formulated into compounds.

Neurohormones appear to have 3 basic pain control functions: analgesia or pain modulation; neuroprotection of CNS cells; and neurogenesis, defined as re-growth of damaged tissue.^{14–21} Table 2 outlines the biologic actions of neurohormones. Neurohormones likely exert some neuromodulatory and transmission effects, and some appear to have direct analgesic properties. For example, oxytocin is known to surge during childbirth as a component of natural anesthesia.

	Table 2. Characteristics of Neurohormones
•	 Produced inside the CNS with no pituitary or peripheral gland control
•	 Secreted into bloodstream and spinal fluid
	 Maintain blood-brain barrier and cellular integrity
•	 Inhibit NMDA and GABA receptors; may enhance the latter system
	 Prevent apoptosis and cellular death (neuroprotection)
•	 Suppress microglial cell activation and neuroinflammation
•	 Maintain analgesic receptors and prevent hyperalgesia
	 Promote growth of damaged neurons and glial cells (neurogenesis)

CNS, central nervous system; GABA, y-aminobutyric acid; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor

wysiwyg_imageupload:4262

Serum Testing: Why, When, and How

One of the best uses of hormone profiles is for chronic pain patients who have not responded to a standard treatment regimen and continue to have uncontrolled pain.²² A hormone profile can measure all 5 neurosteroids; HCG, HGH, and oxytocin testing usually are only available through specialty labs that use early-phase testing protocols with non-standard assays.

A serum concentration of a hormone, such as pregnenolone, progesterone, or DHEA, has adrenal and gonadal sources, as well as CNS sources. Thus, it is unknown how much of a serum neurohormone concentration is from CNS versus peripheral sources. However, pain control requires hormone homeostasis in both the CNS and periphery, so a low serum level can be treated without concern as to which sources are not producing enough. Results from a hormone profile will give the practitioner some clues as to why a treatment regimen is not effective and provide enough information so the clinician can take measures to help the patient adjust, or modify, his or her regimen to attain better pain control.²² For example, serum testing is recommended before starting DHEA, pregnenolone, progesterone, testosterone, and estradiol.

Our recommendation is that hormone administration be restricted to patients who show serum deficiencies. A goal of hormone administration should be to bring serum concentrations into the normal or optimal range.

Neurohormones

Progesterone and Allopregnanolone

Although a great deal of basic science and animal research has been conducted on neurohormones,^{23–53} prior to 2010 there was little interest in neurohormones other than testosterone for pain management. In 2010, Kilts et al observed that nearly half of veterans returning from the Middle East who experienced persistent pain had low serum levels of allopregnanolone,²³ a metabolite of progesterone.^{25,29,43} It was theorized that the pain experienced by the veterans was due to a lack of progesterone, which has been shown in multiple studies to reduce neuroinflammation, oxidative stress, and brain damage in animals.^{24,27,33,39} Progesterone also may be a precursor of cortisol, the central hormone in the stress response.

Progesterone is being studied in cerebral vascular accidents and traumatic brain injury (TBI).³⁹⁻⁴² Our preliminary open-label investigation of progesterone is encouraging, but no specific recommendations on its clinical use can be made yet.²⁷ However, it is important to take a broader look at the pain patient's hormonal status and measure it, even in young men and women. Progesterone cannot be considered ONLY the "baby" hormone anymore!

Dehydroepiandrosterone

DHEA is, on a quantitative basis, the most plentiful hormone in the human body. It circulates in abundance in the form of a sulfated reserve (DHEA-S).^{54–73} DHEA, the levels of which decline with age,⁵⁹ has been well studied and used as a dietary and hormonal supplement for hyperlipidemia and cardiovascular disorders.^{68–73} It also has been a favorite anti-aging and stress-relieving dietary supplement.

Enthusiasm for use of DHEA in pain management began in 1994, when it was found to suppress pain and pain flares in patients with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE).⁶⁸ Since that time, a number of studies have confirmed its effectiveness in SLE. It clearly possesses anti-inflammatory properties and suppresses interleukin 10 synthesis in women with SLE.

In addition to having peripheral anti-inflammatory actions, DHEA also has been shown to be produced in the CNS and have additional critical properties related to pain management.⁵⁶ It is neuroprotective and inhibits tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-a) and CNS inflammatory markers by inhibiting production of monocytes, astrocytes, and microglial cells. Its neuroprotective action in the CNS is at least partially attributed to conversion to estrogen and estradiol.⁵⁴

In our experience, serum DHEA and DHEA-S levels regularly are found to be low in patients with severe chronic pain and headache.²² Many pain practitioners recommend DHEA as a dietary supplement, beginning with replenishment dosing. Some rheumatologists routinely prescribe 200 mg a day in SLE

patients because this dosage has been found to suppress inflammation and prevent pain flares in SLE. To date, no studies have reported that DHEA at this dosage is effective in other causes of chronic pain.

Pregnenolone

Pregnenolone is a hormone that is of interest in pain management. ^{74–99} Low levels of pregnenolone have been found in patients with headaches, migraines, chronic pain, and TBI.^{76,79,89,98} It has multiple effects and properties that compel its consideration in all chronic pain patients. First, its history is interesting and instructive. It was first discovered and researched in the 1940s, with studies on energy, stress, and painful rheumatologic conditions.^{93–97} Although reports of pregnenolone effectiveness in rheumatoid arthritis (RA) were quite positive, the commercial development of cortisone and prednisone put an end to further investigation of pregnenolone as an analgesic and anti-inflammatory agent.

Pregnenolone has been called the "grandmother" of hormones, secondary to cholesterol, its parent compound. Pregnenolone, which is synthesized in the CNS, adrenals, and gonads from cholesterol, is the most plentiful hormone in the CNS. It converts to progesterone, allopregnanolone, and DHEA.

Pregnenolone's reported pain-related functions in the CNS include neuroprotection; antagonism of the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor, glutamate, and other receptor subtypes; inhibition and augmentation of the g-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor; and suppression of microglial neuroinflammatory responses.^{88–92} Of particular interest are studies showing that spinal cord injury resolution is enhanced by pregnenolone.⁷⁶

Serum assays are available through local commercial laboratories, and pregnenolone supplements are available without prescription from reliable commercial sources.²² Serum levels in severe chronic pain and headache patients may be extremely low, according to our preliminary testing in our patients. Little is known about replacement or sub-replacement dosages. We normally recommend a starting dosage of 25 to 100 mg per day. Dosages can then be titrated upward or maintained to achieve a desired effect, such as reduced pain and opioid use, or increased mobility and energy. As much as 600 mg a day was used in the 1940s.^{94,95}

Estradiol and Estrogens

Estrogens are produced in the adrenals, gonads, and CNS and peripheral nerves, as well as in microglia.^{100–121}Estrogens are believed to modulate NMDA receptors and have some influence on inhibitory descending pain pathways. They, like the other CNS steroids and neurohormones, may suppress glial cell activity and neuroinflammation.^{105,106,112}

Painful symptoms of menopause and migraine have been treated successfully with estrogen derivatives,^{101,107} but most treatments use synthetic estrogenic substances that are not identical to the naturally occurring hormones. A monthly or bimonthly estrogen injection, primarily in women, is still common practice throughout the United States; more rarely, patients are prescribed implanted replacement pellets of estradiol. Although no one questions the analgesic and pain management potential of estrogens, there has been no consistent identifiable adoption of estradiol or estrogens into contemporary pain management.

There are 2 basic reasons for the lack of use of estradiol and other estrogens in pain management: 1) serum tests are too variable because estradiol levels depend upon age, sex, and menstrual status; and 2) exactly how estrogens modulate pain is extremely complex. For example, estradiol can increase migraine/headache severity in some women but can dramatically reduce or improve it in others.^{100,111,117,118}

Without reliable serum ranges of a hormone, it is problematic to replace or replenish it. When a hormone exerts multiple and sometimes opposing analgesic effects, it is problematic to select appropriate patients for treatment. Part of the complexity is that estrogen receptors are located throughout the body, including in the joints, peripheral nerve endings, and CNS. Further, there are 3 derivatives of estrogens in humans: estradiol, estrone, and estriol. It is not known if 1 of these 3 has more relevance to pain/headache management.

The most exacting research with estrogens has been in patients with pain/migraines and RA. Although it is clear that estrogens may influence severity and treatment of these painful disorders, there is no specific consensus or recommendation relative to dosage, as exists partially with DHEA and SLE, and perhaps pregnenolone. Patients with a low estradiol serum level, appropriate for time of cycle and post-menopausal factors, may be given clinical consideration for a trial of low-dose, short-term estradiol. Male estradiol serum levels are available through commercial test laboratories, and low-dose trials in a few men with chronic pain syndrome suggest that further trials should be done. Estrogen should not be considered a "female" drug in pain management, nor should testosterone be considered a "male" drug.^{103,104}

Testosterone

Testosterone is the hormone that is most often addressed in pain management.^{122–129}It is included here primarily because there are enzymatic mechanisms in the CNS that can produce testosterone and the other sex steroids.¹²³ In the CNS, the neurosteroids are highly interconnected and may even metabolize to one another. We know that testosterone is produced in peripheral organs, adrenals, and gonads, and migrates into the CNS, but we are unable to identify any studies that show any appreciable testosterone production in the CNS. Testosterone production is under pituitary control.

Testosterone has well-known analgesic effects, and pain patients who demonstrate serum deficiencies and undergo replacement report better pain and headache/migraine control.^{122–127} Unfortunately, testosterone levels are decreased in both genders when opioids are used for pain control. This data is well-known. Unfortunately, testosterone is not always tested for in patients with chronic pain, headaches and/or migraines, and mood and sleep disorders, especially women. We recommend short clinical trials of testosterone in both sexes when low serum levels are detected.¹²⁶

Human Growth Hormone

Little is known about the relevance of HGH^{130–133}to pain and headache management. The increasing interest in neurogenesis and curative measures likely will lead to much more interest in this neurohormone. The paucity of knowledge likely is related to its lack of availability and extreme expense. In recent years, the little available commercial supply essentially has been restricted to use in pituitary deficiencies, primarily in pediatric and head trauma patients.

Bennett et al published a few reports on use of HGH in fibromyalgia patients.^{130,131} In a double-blind study, HGH provided significant pain relief.^{131,133} In 2015, Thomas Romano, MD, PhD, reported at the Academy of Integrative Pain Management (formerly American Academy of Pain Management) in San Antonio, Texas, that patients with fibromyalgia had low serum levels of insulin-dependent growth factor (IGF) and were, therefore, deficient in HGH secretion, providing a rationale for its use in pain management.¹³⁴

Recently, HGH secretagogues and pure HGH have become more widely available and less expensive, with potential indications for chronic debilitating diseases. We have begun preliminary clinical trials but, as of yet, have little to report; however, JCK has anecdotal, positive data indicating that using HGH to improve IGF1 levels improved headaches and fatigue in patients with post-concussive TBI.

Human Chorionic Gonadotropin (HCG)

HCG originally was named because it was believed to be produced only in the placenta of pregnant women.^{135–145}Later, it was clearly determined that HCG is produced daily in the pituitary glands of males and females.^{135–138} Although it formerly was believed that HCG's primary function was to maintain placental integrity, it is now known that it is composed of 2 separate chemical units, each with a unique biologic function.^{138,141–145} One unit provides hormone stimulation and the other angiogenesis and neurogenesis. One hormone unit of HCG actually is a long chain of amino acids that incorporates duplicates of follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), and thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH).

One of the uses of HCG is treatment of hypogonadism. In the pain management arena, deficiencies of testosterone, estradiol, progesterone, and thyroid hormone are common, and HCG may elevate 1 or more of these hormones.

The authors find HCG to be a safe alternative to testosterone replacement in females. The angiogenesis/neurogenesis unit appears to be of clinical benefit in many patients with chronic pain. Open-label trials indicate that HCG may reduce pain and opioid use, enhance energy and mental function, and promote a generalized feeling of well-being.¹³⁵

Compounding pharmacies throughout the country now supply HCG as a sublingual troche, sublingual solution, or subcutaneous injection. Starting dosages are 125 to 250 units 2 to 3 times a week.

Oxytocin

Preliminary studies of oxytocin,^{146–158} including one small, double-blind study, indicate that oxytocin has analgesic properties and has a place in both acute and chronic pain management.^{147–151,157} Although its mechanism of action is unclear, it appears to act by inhibition of some neurons that connect the brain and spinal cord.^{146,153–155} Oxytocin is, like the other neurohormones, becoming accessible through local compounding pharmacies. It can be used intranasally or sublingually. Starting doses range from 20 to 40 units a day.

Summary

Over the last 2 decades, research has shown that the CNS produces and retains a special set of neurohormones that have pain control functions. In addition, almost all neuroprotective and neurogenic biologic mechanisms are under some hormonal control. The revelation that a number of hormones with pain-related functions are produced in the CNS without apparent pituitary control compels pain management clinicians to investigate the use of these hormones in clinical practice. DHEA has found solid footing in SLE patients at a dose of about 200 mg per day to reduce pain intensity and flares. Testosterone testing and replacement are now commonplace in pain management since low serum levels are associated with inferior pain control, especially in the setting of opioid management of pain.

There are practitioners throughout the country who are attempting to determine how best to clinically use neurohormones. To date, there are no serious reported complications. Open-label observations suggest that neurohormones are a good adjunct to symptomatic pain/headache care. They appear to reduce baseline pain and flares, diminish the need for opioids, and, possibly, produce some neurogenesis and healing properties.

- 1. Tennant F. The physiologic effects of pain on the endocrine system. *Pain Ther*. 2013;2(2):75-86.
- 2. Blackburn-Munro G, Blackburn-Munro R. Pain in the brain: are hormones to blame? *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2003;14(1):20-27.
- 3. Compagnone NA, Mellon SH. Neurosteroids: biosynthesis and function of these novel neuromodulators. *Front Neuroendocrinol.* 2000;21(1):1-56.
- 4. Chesterton LS, Barlas P, Foster NE, Baxter GD, Wright CC. Gender differences in pressure pain threshold in healthy humans. *Pain.* 2003;101(3):259-266.
- 5. Craft RM, Mogli JS, Aloisi AM. Sex differences in pain and analgesia: the role of gonadal hormones. *Eur J Pain.* 2004;8(5):397-411.
- 6. Berkley KJ. Sex differences in pain. *Behav Brain Sci.* 1997;20(3):371-380.
- 7. Aloisi AM. Gonadal hormones and sex differences in pain reactivity. *Clin J Pain*. 2003;19(3):168-174.
- 8. Aloisi AM, Bonifazi M. Sex hormones, central nervous system and pain. *Horm Behav*. 2006;50(1):1-7.
- 9. Jones KJ. Gonadal steroids and neuronal regeneration: a therapeutic role. *Adv Neurol*. 1993;59:227-240.
- Mensah-Nyagan AG, Meyer L, Schaeffer V, Kibaly C, Patte-Mensah C. Evidence for a key role of steroids in the modulation of pain. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2009;34(suppl 1):s169-s177.
- 11. McEwen BS, De Kloet ER, Rostene W. Adrenal steroid receptors and actions in the central nervous system. *Physio Rev.* 1986;66(4):1121-1188.
- 12. Gibson A. The influence of endocrine hormones on the autoimmune nervous system. *J Auton Pharmacol*. 1981;1(4):331-358.
- 13. Joels M, de Kloet E. Control of neuronal excitability by corticosteroid hormones. *Trends Neurosci*. 1992;15(1):25-30.
- 14. Bao AM, Swaab DF. Sexual differentiation of the human brain, relation to gender identity, sexual orientation and neuropsychiatric disorders. *Front Neuroendocrinol.* 2011;32(2):214-226.
- 15. Konide AT, McCarthy MM. Developmental time course of estradiol, testosterone, dihydrotestosterone levels in discrete regions of male and female rat brain. *Endocrinol.* 2011;15(1):223-235.

- 16. Gunn BG, Cunningham L, Mitchell SG, et al. GABA(A) receptor-acting neurosteroids: a role in the development and regulation of the stress response. *Front Neuroendocrinol.* 2015;36:28-48.
- 17. Reddy DS. Neurosteroids: endogenous role in the human brain and therapeutic potentials. *Prog Brain Res.* 2010;186:113-137.
- 18. Agis-Balboa RC, Pinna G, Zhubi A, et al. Characterization of brain neurons that express enzymes mediating neurosteroid biosynthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2006;103(39):14602-14607.
- 19. Maitra R, Reynolds JN. Modulation of GABA(A) receptor function be neuroactive steroids: evidence for heterogeneity of steroid sensitivity of recombinant GABA(A) receptor isoforms. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol*. 1998;76(9):909-920.
- 20. Sarkar J, Wakefield S, MacKenzie G, Moss SJ, Maguire J. Neurosteroidogenesis is required for the physiological response to stress: role of neurosteroid-sensitive GABA(A) receptors. *J Neurosci*. 2011;31(50):18198-18210.
- 21. Herd MB, Belilli D, Lambert JJ. Neurosteroid modulation of synaptic and extrasynaptic GABA(A) receptors. *Pharmacol Ther*. 2007;116(1):20-34.
- 22. Tennant F. Hormone abnormalities in severe, chronic pain patients who fail standard treatments. *Postgrad Med.* 2015;127(1):1-4.
- 23. Kilts JD, Tupler LA, Keefe FJ, et al. Neurosteroids and self-reported pain in veterans who served in the military after September 11,2001. *Pain Med*. 2010;10:1469-1476.
- 24. Webster KM, Wright DK, Sun M, et al. Progesterone treatment reduces neuroinflammation, oxidative stress and brain damage and improves long-term outcomes in a rat model of repeated mild traumatic brain injury. *J Neuroinflammation.* 2015;18;12:238.
- 25. Genazzani AR, Petraglia F, Bernardi F, et al. Circulating levels of allopregnanolone in humans: gender, age, and endocrine influences. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1998;83(6):2099-2103.
- 26. Backstrom T, Bixo M, Johansson M, et al. Allopregnanolone and mood disorders. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 2014;113:88-94.
- Roglio I, Bianchi R, Gotti S, et al. Neuroprotective effects of dehydroprogesterone and progesterone in an experimental model of nerve crush injury. *Neurosci*. 2008;155(3):673-685.
- 28. Coronel MF, Labomlorda F, Roig P, et al. Progesterone prevents allodynia after experimental spinal cord injury. J Pain. 2011;12:71-83.

- 29. Tennant F. *Clinical trial of progesterone for intractable, central pain*. Presented at: American Academy of Pain Medicine Annual Meeting; 2012; Palm Springs, CA.
- 30. Naylor JC, Kilts JD, Szabo ST, et al. Allopregnanolone levels with self-reported pain symptoms in US Iraq and Afghanistan-era veterans: implications for biomarkers and therapeutics. *Pain Med*. 2016;17:25-32.
- 31. Alrazi S, Esmaelli-Mahani S, Shaloani V, et al. Neurosteroid allopregnanolone attenuates high glucose-induced apoptosis and prevents experimental diabetic neuropathic pain: in vitro and in vivo studies. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2014;139:98-103.
- 32. Sripada RK, Marx CE, King AP, et al. Allopregnanolone elevations following pregnenolone administration are associated with enhanced activation of emotion regulation neurosteroids. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2013;73:1045-1053.
- 33. Sripada RK, Welsh RC, Marx CE, et al. The neurosteroids allopregnanolone and dehydroepiandrosterone modulate resting-state amygdala connectivity. *Hum Brain Mapp*. 2014;35:3249-3261.
- 34. Nadeson R, Goodchild CS. Antinociceptive properties of neurosteroids III: experiments with alphadolone given intravenously, intraperitoneally, and intragastrically. *Br J Anaesth*. 2001;86:704-708.
- 35. Majewska MD, Harrison NL, Schwartz RD, et al. Steroid hormone metabolites are barbiturate-like modulators of the GABA receptor. *Science*. 1988;23;1004-1007.
- 36. Morrow AL, Suzdak PD, Paul "SM". Steroid hormone metabolites potentiate GABA receptor-mediated chloride ion flux with nanomolar potency. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 1987;142:483-485.
- 37. Garcia PS, Kolesky SE, Jenkins A. General anesthetic actions on GABA(A) receptors. *Curr Neuropharmacol*. 2010;512:15-21.
- 38. Noorbaknsk F, Baker GB, Power C. Allopregnanolone ad neuroinflammation: a focus on multiple sclerosis. *Front Call Neurosci.* 2014;8:134.
- 39. He J, Evans CO, Hoffman SW, et al. Progesterone and allopregnanolone reduce inflammatory cytokines after traumatic brain injury. *Exp Neuro*. 2004;189:404-412.
- 40. Charalampopoulos I, Tsatsanis C, Dermitazaki E, et al. Dehydroepiandrosterone and allopregnanolone protect sympathoadrenal medulla cells against apoptosis via antiapoptotic Bol-2 proteins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2004;101:8209-8214.
- 41. Djeball M, Guo Q, Pertus EH, et al. The neurosteroids progesterone and allopregnanolone reduce cell death, gliosis, and functional deficits after traumatic brain injury in rats. *J Neurotrauma*. 2005;22:106-118.

- 42. Djeball M, Hoffman SW, Stein DG. Allopregnanolone and progesterone decrease cell death and cognitive deficits after a contusion of the rat prefrontal cortex. *Neuroscience*. 2004;123:349-359.
- 43. Wang JM, Jonston PB, Ball BG, et al. The neurosteroid allopregnanolone promotes proliferation of rodent and human neural progenitor cells and regulates cell-cycle gene and protein expression. *J Neurosci*. 2005;25:4706-4718.
- 44. Frye CA, Duncan JE. Progesterone metabolites, effective at the GABA(A) receptor complex, attenuate pain sensitivity in rats. *Brain Res.* 1994;643:194-123.
- 45. Mayer L, Patte-Mensah C, Teleb O, et al. Allopregnanolone prevents and suppresses oxaliplatin-evoked painful neuropathy: multiparametric assessment and direct evidence. *Pain*. 2011;152:170-181.
- 46. Komeyev A, Costa E. Allopregnanolone (THP) mediates anesthetic effects of progesterone in rat brain. *Horm Behav*. 1996;30:37-43.
- 47. Mok WM, Krieger NR. Evidence that 5 alpha-pregnan-3 alpha-ol-20-one is the metabolite responsible for progesterone anesthesia. *Brain Res.* 1990;533(1):42-45.
- 48. Marx CE, Shampine LJ, Duncan GE, et al. Clozapine markedly elevates pregnenolone in rat hippocampus, cerebral cortex, and serum: candidate mechanism for superior efficacy? *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*. 2008;84:598-608.
- 49. Marx CE, Trost WT, Shampine LJ, et al. The neurosteroid allopregnanolone is reduced in prefrontal cortex in Alzheimer's disease. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2006;60:1287-1294.
- 50. Sripada RK, Marx CE, King AP, et al. DHEA enhances emotion regulation neurocircuits and modulates memory for emotional stimuli. *Neuropsychopharmacology.* 2013;38(9):1798-1807.
- 51. Mechlin B, Morrow AL, Maixner W, et al. The relationship of allopregnanolone immunoreactivity and HPA-axis measures to experimental pain sensitivity: evidence for ethnic differences. *Pain*. 2007;131(1-2):142-152.
- 52. Goodchild CS, Robinson A, Nadeson R. Antinociceptive properties of neurosteroids IV: pilot study demonstrating the analgesic effects of alphadolone administered orally to humans. *Br J Anaesth*. 2001;86(4):528-534.
- 53. Melcangi RC, Panzica GC. Allopregnanolone: state of the art. *Prog Neurobiol*. 2014;113:1-5.
- 54. Jellinek PH, Kaufmann M, Gottfried-Blackmore A, McEwen BS, Jones G, Bulloch K. Selective conversion by microglial of dehydroepiandrosterone to 5-androstenediol-A steroid with inherent estrogenic properties. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 2007;107:156-162.

- 55. Daniell HW. DHEAS deficiency during consumption of sustained-action prescribed opioids: evidence for opioid-induced inhibition of adrenal androgen production. *J Pain*. 2006;7(12):901-907.
- 56. Karishma KK, Herbert J. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) stimulates neurogenesis in the hippocampus of the rat, promotes survival of newly formed neurons and prevents corticosterone-induced suppression *Eur J Neurosci*. 2002;16(3):445-453.
- 57. Bastianetto S, Ramassamy C, Poirier J, Quiron R. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) protects hippocampal cells from oxidative stress-induced damage. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res.* 1999;66(1):35-41.
- 58. van Vollenhoven RF, Engleman EG, McGuire JL. Dehydroepiandrosterone in systemic lupus erythematosus. Results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized clinical trial. *Arthritis Rheum.* 1995;38(12):1826-1831.
- 59. Baulieu EE, Robel P. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate (DHEAS) as neuroactive neurosteroids. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1998;95(8):4089-4091.
- 60. Imamura M, Prasad C. Modulation of GABA-gated chloride ion influx in the brain by dehydroepiandrosterone and its metabolites. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 1998:243(3):771-775.
- 61. Vallee M, Mayo W, Le Moal M. Role of pregnenolone, dehydroepiandrosterone, and their sulfate esters on learning and memory in cognitive aging. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev.* 2001;37(1-3):301-312.
- 62. Shealy CN, Cody RK, Cox RH, et al. DHEA deficiency in patients with chronic pain and depression. *J Neuro Orthopedic Med & Surg*. 1996;17(1):7-9.
- 63. Shealy CN. A review of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA). *Integr Physiol Behav Sci*. 1995;30(4):308-313.
- 64. Suarez C, Vela J, Garcia-Tornadu I, Becu-Villalobos D. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) modulates GHRH, somatostatin, and angiotensin II action at the pituitary level. *J Endocrin*. 2005;185(1):165-172.
- 65. Chang DM1, Lan JL, Lin HY, Luo SF. Dehydroepiandrosterone treatment of women with mild-to-moderate systemic lupus erythematosus: a multicenter randomized, doubleblind, placebo-controlled trial. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2002;46(11):2924-2927.
- 66. Di Santo E, Foddi MC, Ricciardi-Castognol P, Mennini T, Ghezzi P. DHEAS inhibits TNF production in monocytes, astrocytes and microglial cells. *Neuroimmunomodulation*. 1996;3(5):285-288.

- 67. Barger SW, Chavis JA, Drew PD. Dehydroepiandrosterone inhibits microglial nitric oxide production in a stimulus-specific manner. *J Neurosci Res.* 2000;6(4):503-509.
- 68. Chang DM, Chu SJ, Chen HC, Kuo Sy, Lai JH. Dehydroepiandrosterone suppresses interleukin 10 synthesis in women with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2004;63(12):1623-1626.
- 69. Dhatariya K, Bigelow ML, Nair KS. Effect of dehydroepiandrosterone replacement on insulin sensitivity and lipids in hypoadrenal women. *Diabetes*. 2005;54(3):765-769.
- 70. Villareal DT, Holloszy JO. Effect of DHEA on abdominal fat and insulin action in elderly women and men: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004;292(18):2243-2248.
- 71. Boudou P, Sobngwi E, Ibrahim F, et al. Hyperglycemia acutely decreases circulating dehydroepiandrosterone levels in healthy men. *Clin Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 2006;64(1):46-52.
- 72. Diamond P, Cusan L, Gomez JL, Belanger A, Labrie F. Metabolic effects of 12-month percutaneous dehydroepiandrosterone replacement therapy in postmenopausal women. *J Endocrinol*. 1996;150(suppl):s43-s50.
- 73. Yamashita R, Saito T, Satoh S, Aoki K, Kaburagi Y, Sekihara H. Effects of dehydroepiandrosterone on gluconeogenic enzymes and glucose uptake in human hepatoma cell line, HepG2. *Endocr J*. 2005;52(6):727-733.
- 74. Bitran D, Dugan M, Renda P, et al. Anxiolytic effects of the neuroactive steroid pregnenolone (3 alpha-OH-5 beta-pregnan-20-one) after microinjection in the dorsal hippocampus and lateral septum. *Brain Res.* 1999;850(1-2):217-224.
- 75. Shen W, Mennerick S, Covey DF, Zorumski CF. Pregnenolone sulfate modulates inhibitory synaptic transmission by enhancing GABA(A) receptor desensitization. *J Neurosci*. 2000;20(10):3571-3579.
- 76. Guth L, Zhang Z, Roberts E. Key role for pregnenolone in combination therapy that promotes recovery after spinal cord injury. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 1994;91:12308-12312.
- 77. Morlin R, Young J, Corpechot C, et al. Neurosteroids: pregnenolone in human sciatic nerves. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 1992;98:6790-6793.
- 78. Flood JF, Morley JE, Roberts E. Pregnenolone sulfate enhances post-training memory processes when injected in very low doses into limbic system structures: the amygdala is by far the most sensitive. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 1995;92(23):10806-10810.
- 79. Ceccon M, Runbaugh G, Vincini S. Distinct affect of pregnenolone sulfate on NMDA receptor subtypes. *Neuropharm*. 2001;40:491-500.

- 80. Wu FB, Gibbs TT, Farb DH. Pregnenolone sulfate: a positive allosteric modulator at the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor. *Mol Pharmacol*. 1991;40(3):333-336.
- 81. Akwa Y, Young J, Kabbadj K, et al. Neurosteroids: biosynthesis, metabolism and function of pregnenolone and dehydroepiandrosterone in the brain. *J Steroid Biochem Molec Biol.* 1991;40(1-3):71-81.
- 82. Isaacson RL, Varner JA, Baars JM, et al. The effects of pregnenolone sulfate and ethylestrenol on retention of a passive avoidance task. *Brain Res.* 1995;689:79-84.
- 83. Flood JF, Morley JE, Roberts E. Memory-enhancing effects in male mice of pregnenolone and steroids metabolically derived from it. *Proc Natl Acad Sci.* 1992;89:1567-1571.
- 84. Steiger A, Tranchsel L, Guldner J, et al. Neurosteroid pregnenolone induces sleep-EEG changes in man compatible with inverse agonistic GABA(A)-receptor modulation. *Brain Res.* 1993;615:257-274.
- 85. Pincus G, Hoagland H. Effects of administered pregnenolone on fatiguing psychomotor performance. *Aviation Med.* 1944:98-115.
- 86. Malone S, Berrino L, Vitagliano S, et al. Pregnenolone sulfate increases the convulsant potency of *N*-methyl-D-aspartate in mice. *Eur J Pharmacol.* 1992;219:477-479.
- George MS, Guidotti A, Rubinow D, et al. CSF neuroactive steroids in affective disorders: pregnenolone, progesterone, and DBI. *Biol Psychiatry.* 1994;35(10):775-780.
- 88. Meieran SE, Reus VI, Webster R, Shafton R, Wolkowitz OM. Chronic pregnenolone effects in normal humans: attenuation of benzodiazepine-induced sedation. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*. 2004;29(4):486-500.
- 89. Darnaudery M, Koehl M, Piazza P, et al. Pregnenolone sulfate increases hippocampal acetylcholine release and spatial recognition_. Brain Re_s. 2000;852:173-179.
- 90. Pallares M, Darnaudery M, Day J, et al. The neurosteroid pregnenolone sulfate infused into the nucleus basalis increases both acetylcholine release in the frontal cortex or amygdale and spatial memory. *Neurosci.* 1998;87:551-558.
- 91. Plassart-Schiess G, Baulieu F. Neurosteroids: recent findings. *Brain Res Rev.* 2001;37:133-140.
- 92. Mayo W, Lemaire V, Malaterre J, et al. Pregnenolone sulfate enhances neurogenesis and PSA-NCAM in young and aged hippocampus. *Neurobiol Aging*. 2005;26(1):103-104.

- 93. Vallee M, Mayo W, Le Moal M. Role of pregnenolone, dehydroepiandrosterone, and their sulfate esters on learning and memory in cognitive aging. *Brain Res Brain Res Rev.* 2001;37(1-3):301-312.
- 94. Freeman H, Pincus G, Bachrach S, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of Delta 5 pregnenolone in rheumatoid arthritis. *JAMA*. 1950;143:338-344.
- 95. McGavack TH, Chevalley J, Weissberg J. The use delta 5 pregnenolone in various clinical disorders. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1951;11(6):559-577.
- 96. Meziane H, Mathis C, Paul SM, Ungerer A. The neurosteroid pregnenolone sulfate reduces learning deficits induced by scopolamine and has promnestic effects in mice performing an appetitive learning task. *Psychopharmacology (Berl).* 1996;126(4):323-330.
- 97. Pincus G, Hoagland H. Effects on industrial production of the administration of Delta 5 pregnenolone to factory workers. *Psychosom Med.* 1945;7:342-352.
- 98. Schumacher M, Akwa Y, Guennoun R, et al. Steroid synthesis and metabolism in the nervous system: trophic and protective effects. *J Neurocytol*. 2000;29(5-6):307-327.
- 99. Sternberg TH, LeVan P, Wright ET. The hydrating effects of pregnenolone acetate on the human skin. *Curr Ther Res.* 1961;3(11):409-471.
- 100. Dawson-Basoa ME, Gintzler AR. Estrogen and progesterone activate spinal kappaopiate receptor analgesic mechanisms. *Pain*. 1996;64(3):608-615.
- 101. Cirillo DJ, Wallace RB, Wu L, Yood RA. Effects of hormone therapy on risk of hip and knee joint replacement in the Women's Health Initiative. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2006;54(10):3194-3204.
- 102. Hunter DA, Barr GA, Amador N, et al. Estradiol-induced antinociceptive responses on formalin-induced nociception are independent of COX and HPA activation. *Synapse*. 2011;65(7):643-651.
- 103. Gooren LJ, Toorians AW. Significance of estrogens in male (patho) physiology. *Ann Endocrinol (Paris)*. 2003;64(2):126-135.
- 104. Aloisi AM, Affaitati G, Ceccarelli I, et al. Estradiol and testosterone differently affect visceral pain-related behavioral responses in male and female rats. *Eur J Pain*. 2010;14(6):602-607.
- 105. Evrard HC, Balthazart J. Rapid regulation of pain by estrogens synthesized in spinal dorsal horn neurons. *J Neurosci.* 2004;24(33):7225-7229.

- 106. Green PS, Bishop J, Simpkins JW. 17 alpha-estradiol exerts neuroprotective effects on SK-N-SH cells. *J Neurosci*. 1997;17(2):511-515.
- 107. Greendale GA, Reboussin BA, Hogan P, et al. Symptom relief and side effects of postmenopausal hormones: results from the Postmenopausal Estrogen/Progestin Interventions Trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1998;92(6):982-988.
- 108. Cutolo M, Capellino S, Sulli A, et al. Estrogens and autoimmune disease. *Ann NY Acad Sci*. 2006;1089:538-547.
- 109. Craft RM. Modulation of pain by estrogens. *Pain.* 2007;132 Suppl 1:S3-12.
- 110. Cutolo M, Villaggio B, Otsa K, Aakre O, Sulli A, Seriolo B. Altered circadian rhythms in rheumatoid arthritis patients play a role in the disease's symptoms. *Autoimmun Rev.* 2005;4(8):497-502.
- 111. Straub RH, Buttgereit F, Cutolo M. Benefit of pregnancy in inflammatory arthritis. *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2005;64(6):801-803.
- 112. Li ZG, Danis VA, Brooks PM. Effect of gonadal steroids on the production of Il-1 and Il-6 by blood mononuclear cells in vitro. *Clin Exp Rheumatol*. 1993;11:157-162.
- 113. Bijlsma J, Straub RH, Masi AT, Lahita RG, Cutolo M. Neuroendocrine immune mechanisms in rheumatic diseases. *Trends Immunol*. 2002;23(2):59-61.
- 114. Tengstrand B, Carlstron K, Fellander-Tsai L, Hafstrom I. Abnormal levels of serum dehydroepiandrosterone, estrone, and estradiol in men with rheumatoid arthritis: high correlation between serum estradiol and current degree of inflammation. *J Rheumatol.* 2003;30(11):2338-2343.
- 115. Castagnetta LA, Carruba G, Granata OM, et al. Increased estrogen formation and estrogen to androgen ratio in the synovial fluid of patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *J Rheumatol.* 2003;30(12):2597-2605.
- 116. Cutolo M. Estrogen metabolites: increasing evidence for their role in rheumatoid arthritis and systemic lupus erythematosus. *J Rheumatol*. 2004;31(3):419-421.
- 117. Kramer PR, Kramer SF, Guan G. 17 beta-estradiol regulates cytokine release through modulation of CD16 expression in monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages. *Arthritis Rheum.* 2004;50(6):1967-1975.
- 118. Cutolo, M, Capellino S, Montagna P, Ghiorzo P, Sulli A, Villaggio B. Sex hormone modulation of cell growth and apoptosis of the human monocytic/macrophage cell line. *Arthritis Res Ther*. 2005;7(5):R1124-R1132.

- 119. Doria A, Cutolo M, Ghirardello A, et al. Steroid hormones and disease activity during pregnancy in systemic lupus erythematosus. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2002;47(2):202-209.
- 120. Doria A, Ghirardello A, Iaccarino L, et al. Pregnancy, cytokines and disease activity in systemic lupus erythematosus. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2004;51(6):989-995.
- 121. Sanchez-Guerrero J, Villegas A, Mendoza-Fuentes A, Romero-Diaz J, Moreno-Coutino G, Cravioto MC. Disease activity during the premenopausal and postmenopausal periods in women with systemic lupus erythematosus. *Am J Med.* 2001;111(6):464-468.
- 122. Forman IJ, Tingle V, Estilow S, and Caler J. The response to analgesia testing is affected by gonadal steroids in the rat. *Life Sci*. 1989;45:447-454.
- 123. Melcangi RC, Giatti S, Garcia-Segura LM. Levels and actions of neuroactive steroids in the nervous system under physiological and pathological conditions: sex-specific features. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* December 2, 2015. [Epub ahead of print.]
- 124. Fednekar J, Mulgacnker V. Role of testosterone on pain threshold in rats. *Indian J Physci Pharmacol.* 1995;39:423-24.
- 125. Negri-Cesi P, Colgiago A, Calotti P, et al. Sexual differentiation of the brain: role of testosterone and its active metabolites. *J Endocrinol Invest*. 2004;27(6 suppl):120-127.
- 126. Cooke RR, McIntosh RP, McIntosh JG, et al. Serum forms of testosterone in men after an HCG stimulation: relative increase in non-protein bound forms. *Clinical Endocrinol (Oxf)*. 1990;32(2):165-175.
- 127. Hau M, Dominguez OA, Evrard HC. Testosterone reduces responsiveness to nociceptive stimuli in a wild bird. *Horm Behav.* 2004;46:165-170.
- 128. Harbuz MS, Perveen-Gill Z, Lightman SL, et al. A protective role for testosterone in adjuvant-induced arthritis. *Br J Rheumatol*. 1995;34:1117-1122.
- 129. Aloisi AM, Ceccarelli I, Fiorenzani P, et al. Testosterone affects pain-related responses differently in male and female rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2004;361:262-264.
- 130. Bennett RM, Clark SR, Campbell SM, Burckhardt CS. Low levels of somatomedin C in patients with the fibromyalgia syndrome. *Arthritis Rheum*. 1992;35(10):1113-1116.
- 131. Bennett RM, Clark SC, Walczyk J. A randomized, double-blind, placebocontrolled study of growth hormone in the treatment of fibromyalgia. *Am J Med*. 1998;104(3):227-231.

- 132. Paiva ES, Deodhar A, Jones KD, Bennett R. Impaired growth hormone secretion in fibromyalgia patients: evidence for augmented hypothalamic somatostatin tone. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2002;46(5):1344-1350.
- 133. Bagge E, Bengtsson BA, Carlsson BA, et al. Low growth hormone secretion in patients with fibromyalgia-a preliminary report on 10 patients and 10 controls. *J Rheumatol*. 1998;25(1):146-148.
- 134. Romano T. *Fibromyalgia linked to deficiencies in RBC magnesium, IGF-1.* Presentation at: American Academy of Pain Management (AAPM) 2015 Annual Meeting. September 19, 2015. San Antonio, TX.
- 135. Tennant F. Human chorionic gonadotropin in pain treatment. *Prac Pain Manag.* 2009;9:25-27.
- 136. Odell WD, Griffin J. Pulsatile secretion of human chorionic gonadotropin in normal adults. *N Engl J Med.* 1987;317(27):1688-1691.
- 137. Matsuura S, Ohashi M, Chen HC, et al. Physiochemical and immunological characterization of an HCG-like substance from human pituitary glands. *Nature*. 1980;286(5774):740-741.
- 138. Braunstein GD. Human chorionic gonadotropin. In: *William's Textbook of Endocrinology*. 10th ed. Philadelphia, PA: Saunders: 2003:800-803.
- 139. Kerr P. Human chorionic gonadotropin. In: *The Practical Use of Anabolic Steroids with Athletes*. San Gabriel, CA: Research Center for Sports; 1982:75-79.
- 140. Patil AA, Nagaraj MP. The effect of human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG) on functional recovery of spinal cord sectioned rats. *Acta Neurochir (Wein).* 1983;69(3-4):205-218.
- 141. Lei ZM, Rao CV. Neural actions of luteinizing hormone and human chorionic gonadotropin. *Semin Reprod Med*. 2001;19(1):103-109.
- 142. Lei ZM, Rao CV, Kornyei JL, Licht P, Hiatt ES. Novel expression of human chorionic gonadotropin/luteinizing hormone receptor gene in brain. *Endocrinology.* 1993;132(5):2262-2270.
- 143. Lei ZM, Rao CV. Novel presence of luteinizing hormone/human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) receptors and the down-regulating action of hCG on gonadotropin-releasing hormone gene expression in immortalized hypothalamic GT1-7 neurons. *Mol Endocrinol.* 1994;8(8):1111-1121.
- 144. Lukacs H, Hiatt ES, Lei ZM, Rao CV. Peripheral and intracerebroventricular administration of human chorionic gonadotropin alters several hippocampus-associated behaviors in cycling female rats. *Horm Behav*. 1995;29(1):42-58.

- 145. Li X, Lei ZM, Rao CV. Human chorionic gonadotropin down-regulates the expression of gonadotropin releasing hormone receptor gene in GTI-7 neurons. *Endocrinology*. 1996;137(3):899-904.
- 146. Evans JJ. Oxytocin in the human—regulation of derivations and destinations. *Eur J Endocrinol*. 1997;137(6):559-571.
- 147. Wong YL, Yuan Y, Yang J, et al. The interaction between the oxytocin and pain modulation in headache patients. *Neuropeptides*..2003;97:93-97.
- 148. Goodin BR, Ness TJ, Robbins MT. Oxytocin-A multifunctional analgesic for chronic deep tissue pain. *Curr Pharm Res.* 2015;21:906-913.
- 149. Rook JA, Aguirre-Camacho A, Campbell TS. Oxytocin and pain: a systematic review and synthesis of findings. *Clin J Pain*. 2013;00:1-9.
- 150. Paloyels Y, Krahe C, Maltegos S, et al. The analgesic effect of oxytocin in humans: a double-blind placebo controlled cross-over study using laser-evoked potentials. *J Neuroendocrin*. 2015;Doi:10:1111.
- 151. Tennant F. Combined use of oxytocin and human chorionic gonadotropin in intractable pain patients. *Pain Med.* 2014;15(3):519.
- 152. Gimpl G, Fabreinbolz F. The oxytocin receptor system: structure, function, and regulation. *Physiol Rev.* 2001;81:629-683.
- 153. Saper CB, Loewy AD, Swanson LW, et al. Direct hypothalamo-autonomic connections. *Brain Res.* 1976;117:305-312.
- 154. Jo YH, Stoeckel ME, Freund-Mercier MJ, Schlichter R. Oxytocin modulates glutamatergic synaptic transmission between cultured neonatal spinal cord dorsal horn neurons. *J Neurosci*. 1998;18:2377-2386.
- 155. Breton JD, Veinante P, Uhl-Bronner S, et al. Oxytocin-induced antinociception in the spinal cord is mediated by a subpopulation of glutamatergic neurons in lamina I-II which amplify GABAergic inhibition. *Mol Pain*. 2008;4:19.
- 156. Stock S, Uvnus-Moberg K. Increased plasma levels of oxytocin in response to afferent electrical stimulation of the sciatic and vagal nerves and in response to touch and pinch in anaesthetized rats. *Acta Physiol Scand*. 1988;132(1):29-34.
- 157. Phillips WJ, Ostrovsky O, Galli RL, et al. Relief of acute migraine headache with intravenous oxytocin: report of two cases. *J Pain Palliat Care Pharmacother*. 2006:20:25-28.
- 158. Han Y, Yu LC. Involvement of oxytocin and its receptor in nociceptive modulation in the central nucleus of amygdala of rats. *Neurosci Lett.* 2009;454:101-104.

Notes: This article was originally published February 7, 2017 and most recently updated July 5, 2017.