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The Neurophysiological Response to Manual Therapy and Its Analgesic Implications: A
Narrative Review

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ABSTRACT

Manual therapy has long been a component of physical rehabilitation programs, especially to treat those in pain. The mechanisms of manual therapy, however, are not fully understood, and it has been suggested that its pain modulatory effects are of neurophysiological origin, and may be mediated by the descending modulatory circuit. Therefore, the purpose of this review is to examine the neurophysiological response of different types of manual therapy, in order to better understand the neurophysiological mechanisms behind each therapy's analgesic effects. It is concluded that different forms of manual therapy elicit analgesic effects via different mechanisms. Additionally, future avenues of mechanistic research pertaining to manual therapy are discussed.

25 **Introduction**

26 Manual therapy has been a component of physical rehabilitation programs since as early
27 as 400 BC (Pettman 2007). Since its inception, many variations of manual therapy techniques
28 have been developed and marketed. Each year, upwards of \$8.1 billion is spent in the US on
29 manual therapies, including chiropractic/osteopathic manipulation and massage (Nahin et al.
30 2009). Despite the large annual financial expenditures on manual therapies, its mechanisms are
31 not yet fully understood. Current research suggests that a neurophysiological response to manual
32 therapy is responsible for clinically significant decreases in pain (Bialosky et al. 2009). Included
33 in the neurophysiological response is the descending pain modulation circuit, which may be a
34 principle mechanism in the analgesic effect of manual therapies.

35 **Descending Modulation of Pain**

36 Melzack & Wall (1965) were the first to explain the potential mechanisms of a central
37 pain modulatory system, wherein the authors described the gate control theory of pain, which
38 simply states that non-noxious input suppresses painful output by inhibiting dorsal root
39 nociceptors. Numerous neurotransmitters, including serotonin (5-HT), endocannabinoids, and
40 endogenous opioids (EO), have been shown to act on the rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM)
41 and periaqueductal grey (PAG) in order to modulate nociceptive circuits and pain output (Adams
42 et al. 1986; Benedetti et al. 2013; Fields et al. 1991; Mason 1999; Nadal et al. 2013; Ossipov et
43 al. 2010).

44 β -endorphins are EO peptides that have not only been shown to have a comparable
45 analgesic effect to morphine (Gerrits et al. 2003), but are 18 to 33 times more potent (Loh et al.
46 1976). Diffuse noxious inhibitory control (DNIC) is the process by which afferent noxious
47 signals are inhibited from the peripheral nervous system (PNS). Using a rat model, Le Bars et al.

48 (1979a); Le Bars et al. (1979b) found that neurons were inhibited by noxious stimuli (a hot bath),
49 therein coining the term DNIC. Since then, multiple studies have suggested that EO are an
50 underlying mechanism of DNIC (Chitour et al. 1982; Kraus et al. 1981).

51 Being that the analgesic effects of both human touch (Lindgren et al. 2012) and placebo
52 (Colloca et al. 2013; Eippert et al. 2009; Morton et al. 2014; Sauro & Greenberg 2005; Wager et
53 al. 2007; Zubieta et al. 2005) are mediated by an EO response, it is imperative that a placebo
54 control group be utilized in research examining the neurochemical response to manual therapy,
55 as placebo and touch alone are confounding variables. Previous reviews have noted potential
56 descending modulatory mechanisms – an endogenous opioid response – in both physical therapy
57 (Bender et al. 2007) and physical medicine (Crielaard et al. 1983); however, the neurochemical
58 response to manual therapy and its implications for descending pain modulation, to the authors’
59 knowledge, have not yet been thoroughly reviewed.

60 **Manipulation Therapies**

61 Through the millennia, numerous types of manipulation therapies have been developed
62 and advocated, and have been purported to cure everything from scarlet fever and diphtheria to
63 hearing loss (Pettman 2007). However, perhaps the most widely proclaimed outcome from
64 manipulative therapy is pain relief, which may be modulated by neurochemicals that act on the
65 RVM and PAG.

66 **Osteopathic Manipulative Therapy**

67 Degenhardt et al. (2007) recruited twenty male subjects: ten with low back pain, ten
68 without. Four osteopathic manipulative therapy (OMT) techniques (articulatory treatment
69 system, muscle energy, soft tissue technique, and Strain-Counterstrain) were performed on areas
70 of subjects’ “somatic dysfunction”, defined as, “sites of muscle hypertonicity, tenderness, and

71 joint restriction” (Degenhardt et al. 2007). Blood was collected prior to (baseline), 30 minutes,
72 and 24 hours after OMT. Increases in β -endorphin and N-palmitoylethanolamide (PEA) – an
73 endogenous analog of arachidonylethanolamide (AEA), or anandamine, an endocannabinoid –
74 were observed 30 minutes post treatment; at 24 hours, similar biomarker changes from baseline
75 were found. Subjects with chronic low back pain experienced greater biomarker alterations
76 following OMT than the control (asymptomatic) group. However, because no true control or
77 sham group was utilized, it is not possible to distinguish whether these changes in biomarkers
78 were due to the placebo effect, or something greater. Although, these data do show that those in
79 pain respond differently to treatment than asymptomatic individuals.

80 In a blinded, randomized control trial, McPartland et al. (2005) investigated the effects of
81 OMT on plasma endocannabinoid concentrations; that is, AEA and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-
82 AG). Thirty-one subjects received either an OMT treatment (biodynamic osteopathy in the
83 cranial field) or a sham treatment. Importantly, subjects were recruited from a patient population
84 of an osteopath who regularly uses OMT; therefore, the patients most likely believe the treatment
85 is efficacious. No changes were observed in 2-AG concentrations in either group. In the sham
86 group, negligible, insignificant changes in AEA were observed (17%). The OMT group
87 experienced a 168% increase (5.02 pmol/mL) in AEA over baseline, but this increase did not
88 achieve statistical significance; however, this difference may certainly be clinically relevant, as
89 indicated by changes in Drug Reaction Scale (DRS) scores. These data suggest that
90 endocannabinoids do play a role in the analgesic effect of OMT.

91 **Spinal Manipulation**

92 A number of studies have investigated the pain modulation mechanisms of spinal
93 manipulation which, as the name implies, is specific only to spinal articulation. The first to do so

94 were Vernon et al. (1986), who found a small but statistically significant increase in plasma β -
95 endorphin levels in the experimental group, but not in the sham or control groups. However, two
96 subsequent studies had findings in contrast to Vernon et al. (1986). Christian et al. (1988) and
97 Sanders et al. (1990) both failed to find increases in plasma β -endorphin levels. Christian et al.
98 (1988) did note a decrease in plasma cortisol levels, but this decrease also occurred in the sham
99 groups.

100 Recently, Plaza-Manzano et al. (2014) compared cervical and thoracic manipulations to
101 a control group. Both cervical and thoracic groups saw decreases in neurotensin, increases in
102 orexin A, and decreases in oxytocin. Only the cervical group saw a decrease in cortisol.

103 Multiple reviews have also investigated the pain modulating mechanisms of spinal
104 manipulation (Pickar 2002; Vernon 2000), and are in agreement that the analgesic origins are
105 neurophysiological in nature, occurring through some type of descending pain modulation
106 circuit. The exact circuit, however, is not fully understood, and it appears that different types of
107 spinal manipulations, namely the velocity with which and the location at which they are
108 performed, may elicit different neurochemical responses indicative of different descending pain
109 modulation mechanisms.

110 **Knee Joint Manipulation**

111 Skyba et al. (2003) investigated the effects of knee joint manipulation in rats on
112 monoamine, opioid, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptors in the spinal cord.
113 Investigators found that the analgesic effects of knee joint manipulation were not impacted by
114 the spinal blockade of opioid or GABA receptors, but *were* impacted by blocking the receptors
115 of 5-HT and norepinephrine. Therefore, it was posited that descending inhibition following knee

116 joint manipulation may be modulated by serotonergic and noradrenergic mechanisms. These
117 findings have yet to be replicated in humans.

118 **Mobilization Therapies**

119 **Ankle Joint Mobilization**

120 In mice, ankle mobilization-induced analgesia has been shown to be mediated by EO
121 pathways (Martins et al. 2012). Importantly, researchers noted that the bottleneck in
122 antihypersensitivity was opioid receptor availability, rather than opioid-containing leukocytes.
123 Although opioid receptor availability may be the bottleneck in mice, this is not necessarily true
124 for humans. These data should be replicated in human subjects, and could have large
125 implications for those in chronic pain or those with central sensitization, as these individuals may
126 have decreased opioid receptor availability (DosSantos et al. 2012), and therefore may not
127 benefit as much from this technique.

128 **Mulligan's Mobilization with Movement**

129 Paungmali and colleagues have studied Mulligan's Mobilization with Movement
130 (MWM) in lateral epicondylalgia (Paungmali et al. 2004; Paungmali et al. 2003). Twenty-four
131 subjects with unilateral chronic lateral epicondylalgia were treated with MWM on six occasions
132 at least two days apart. No significant decreases in hypoalgesic effects were seen over the
133 treatment period (Paungmali et al. 2003). In a follow up study, Paungmali et al. (2004) failed to
134 antagonize the hypoalgesic effects of MWM with naloxone, an opioid antagonist, and concluded
135 that MWM works through nonopioid methods. However, as noted by Payson & Holloway
136 (1984), naloxone by itself can produce an analgesic effect due to its inhibitory effects on
137 inflammation and ischemia; therefore, the results of Paungmali et al. (2004) should be called into
138 question.

139 Neural Mobilization

140 Utilizing male Wistar rats and Western blot assays of the PAG, Santos et al. (2014)
141 examined the brains of rats following neural mobilization for mu-, delta-, and kappa-opioid
142 receptor expression. Researchers did not find changes in delta- and mu-opioid receptor
143 expression following neural mobilization, but kappa-opioid receptor expression underwent a
144 significant increase, by 17%. These data indicate that neural mobilization may be modulated by
145 EOs that work on kappa-opioid receptors, such as dynorphin.

146 Massage Therapies

147 Massage therapy is often sought for both pleasure and therapy. It has been proposed to
148 work through the gate control theory of pain, initially described by Melzack & Wall (1965)
149 (Field 2014). However, Field (2014) failed to note that different types of massage therapy may
150 work via different mechanisms, nor did Field dive deeply into possible mechanisms. Therefore, a
151 more comprehensive review of massage therapy's mechanisms is warranted.

152 Connective Tissue Massage

153 Connective tissue massage is intended to both decrease pain and increase range of motion
154 (Threlkeld 1992). Kaada & Torsteinbo (1989) described a significant increase in plasma β -
155 endorphin levels following connective tissue massage, similar to the time course seen in
156 acupuncture and similar to the magnitude seen during exercise. These results are indicative of a
157 DNIC response, which modulates pain through descending inhibition.

158 Acupressure

159 Using naloxone in rats, Trentini et al. (2005) suggested the antinociceptive effects of
160 acupressure are mediated by EOs. Despite this, changes in plasma β -endorphin levels were not
161 observed in follow-up research in humans (Fassoulaki et al. 2007). However, Fassoulaki et al.

162 (2007) only investigated the effects of one acupressure point and a sham acupressure point, both
163 on the face. Thus, the effects of acupressure on other parts of the body remain unclear.

164 **Conventional Massage**

165 Regular massage, consisting of effleurage and other common techniques, has been well
166 studied, but its effects are still not completely understood. Day et al. (1987) were the first to note
167 there is no change in plasma β -endorphin or β -lipotropin levels following back massage. Since
168 then, a couple of studies have found that massage increases urine concentration of dopamine and
169 serotonin (Hernandez-Reif et al. 2001; Hernandez-Reif et al. 2004), suggesting that massage
170 therapy's analgesic effects are mediated by dopaminergic and serotonergic pathways, and a
171 review of the mechanisms of massage therapy noted a 31% decrease in cortisol levels and a 28
172 and 31% increase in serotonin and dopamine levels, respectively (Field et al. 2005). However, a
173 more recent meta-analysis found that not only might the change in cortisol be due to the chance
174 alone, but also its mean effect is unlikely to be clinically significant, as it is only 0.15 standard
175 deviations better than a control (Moyer et al. 2011). Moyer et al. (2011) also addressed numerous
176 methodological issues with prior reviews (such as Field et al. (2005)), which resulted in
177 misleading data and conclusions, as calculated effect sizes were based on within-group
178 (experimental) differences rather than between-group (experimental vs. control).

179 **Future Research**

180 For some therapies, such as manipulation, a minimal amount of force may be required for
181 an analgesic effect (McLean et al. 2002), but whether a minimum force is required for
182 descending inhibition to occur does not seem to be the case, as touch and placebo alone can
183 trigger a descending inhibitory response. However, this may also be treatment-dependent. Being
184 that the gate control theory of pain states that non-noxious stimuli inhibit noxious stimuli, more

185 aggressive therapies may be too noxious to trigger a gate control response, but not noxious
186 enough to produce a DNIC response. Thus, more research is needed to shed light on these
187 paradoxical treatment outcomes. Future research should target therapies that have already been
188 shown to be effective, as to prevent the wasting of resources investigating mechanisms that are
189 not clinically meaningful, and should utilize both a control and sham group. Investigators should
190 be cautious when designing experiments that use naloxone, as it can inhibit pain via peripheral
191 mechanisms; thus, it may not be appropriate to use with those who have low back pain (Payson
192 & Holloway 1984). Lastly, it is imperative that researchers be vigilant when interpreting the
193 results of serum levels of EO, as they may not reflect levels seen in the brain or cerebral spinal
194 fluid (Wen et al. 1979).

195 **Conclusion**

196 Nearly all types of manual therapy have been shown to elicit a neurophysiological
197 response that is associated with the descending pain modulation circuit; however, it appears that
198 different types of manual therapy work through different mechanisms. For example, while
199 massage therapy appears to elicit an endogenous opioid response, spinal manipulation does not.

200 Despite the large popularity and long history of manual therapy, its mechanisms are not
201 truly understood. Understanding its mechanisms may help clinicians choose which therapy is
202 most appropriate for each patient, and may also lead to more effective therapies in the future.

203

204 **Table 1.** Findings of studies

| Study | Variation | Findings |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| Degenhardt et al. (2007) | OMT | ↑β-Endorphins ↑PEA |
| McPartland et al. (2005) | OMT | ↑AEA |
| Vernon et al. (1986) | SMT | ↑β-Endorphins |
| Christian et al. (1988) | SMT | → β-Endorphins |
| Sanders et al. (1990) | SMT | → β-Endorphins |
| Plaza-Manzano et al. (2014) | SMT | ↑orexin A ↓ neurotensin ↓ oxytocin |
| Skyba et al. (2003) | Knee Manipulation | serotonin-mediated norepinephrine-mediated non-GABA-mediated |
| Martins et al. (2012) | Ankle Joint Mobilization | EO-mediated † |
| Paungmali et al. (2003) | MWM | No increase in tolerance over treatment period |
| Paungmali et al. (2004) | MWM | non-EO-mediated † |
| Santos et al. (2014) | Neural Mobilization | dynorphin-mediated |
| Kaada & Torsteinbo (1989) | Connective Tissue Massage | ↑β-Endorphins |
| Trentini et al. (2005) | Acupressure | EO-mediated † |
| Fassoulaki et al. (2007) | Acupressure | → β-Endorphins |
| Day et al. (1987) | Conventional Massage | → β-Endorphins → β-Lipotropins |
| Hernandez-Reif et al. (2001) | Conventional Massage | ↑dopamine ↑serotonin |
| Hernandez-Reif et al. (2004) | Conventional Massage | ↑dopamine ↑serotonin |
| Field et al. (2005) * | Conventional Massage | ↑dopamine ↑serotonin ↓ cortisol |
| Moyer et al. (2011) ‡ | Conventional Massage | → cortisol |

205 * denotes review; ‡ denotes meta-analysis; † denotes a conclusion inferred from naloxone
 206 response
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