

Laboratory animal anesthesia classification (LAAC)

Siavash Ahmadi-Noorbakhsh (✉ s.norb@gmail.com)

Preclinical Core Facility (TPCF), Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Research Article

Keywords: Anesthesiology, analgesia, animal research, veterinary anesthesia, veterinary surgery, biomedical research, preclinical research

Posted Date: April 18th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1561632/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Abstract

Anesthesia and analgesia (AA) are major components of animal research. However, various studies have shown an undesirable quality of AA reporting and use in research proposals and even high impact articles. Part of the problem may be related to a lack of special training in animal anesthesia among researchers. This causes an absence of a common language for AA among researchers, grant reviewers, ethics committees, animal welfare bodies, and journal reviewers. Herein, I present a laboratory animal anesthesia classification (LAAC) system that facilitates identification and grouping of various procedures requiring AA. The LAAC classes are developed according to the distress level and type of tissue injury caused by each procedure. Thereby, procedures causing similar types of pain or distress are grouped together and a certain AA approach could be applied to each group. LAAC classifies procedures into 12 classes and three categories with neuropathic pain being a separate component that could be added to each of the classes. Category A comprises LAAC1 to LAAC4 and requires no anesthesia. Category B is comprised of LAAC5 to LAAC8 and mainly includes non-surgical procedures. Category C includes surgical procedures classified under LAAC9 to LAAC12. Generally, a higher class of LAAC requires more potent AA regimen. In conclusion, LAAC provides a common language among various research bodies. A certain LAAC class conveys information regarding the nature of the same-group procedures and required intraoperative and postoperative AA for those procedures. LAAC also enables comparison of various procedures according to their nature and AA requirements.

Introduction

The need for a classification system

Anesthesia and analgesia (AA) are inseparable parts of many procedures on laboratory animals. They also have direct effect on the quality of research projects and the welfare of animals. However, research shows that a large number of even high impact articles¹⁻⁶ or research proposals⁷, insufficiently or inaccurately report the use of AA. In some cases, this is not merely insufficient reporting, but the nature of the used drugs reveals an inappropriate selection of the AA method^{8,9}. The extent of this phenomenon is such that we could say we are facing a “pseudo-anesthesia crisis” in our published literature, let alone the unpublished uses of laboratory animals.

Anesthesia and analgesia in animals are *per se* major branches of veterinary science. However, many laboratory animal researchers are not basically veterinarians or veterinarians specially trained in laboratory animal anesthesia¹⁰. The lack of proper education and training in this field has been suggested by others⁷, as well. Therefore, improper reporting or use of AA in laboratory animal research may not be a surprise in many cases. Since new research are built on the reporting of previous research, it would also not be a surprise to see a domino of inappropriate AA methods⁸ in a chain of related articles.

As discussed, animal AA is a specialized topic and this makes another problem. When it relates to AA, there is not a common language among researchers, ethics committees, animal welfare bodies, animal

care staff, grant reviewers, and journal reviewers. Accordingly, a researcher may declare using anesthesia for a complex procedure, while he/she is only using a hypnotic. Or there are many research projects truly declaring the use of anesthesia, while they lack the analgesic component⁷. This lack of a common language causes a chaotic condition, in which improper reporting or use of AA occurs.

Therefore, there is a need for a common language that is simple enough to be understood by people without specialized knowledge in laboratory animal anesthesia. This common language should integrate various concepts of AA into meaningful classes. Certain procedures should fall into each class based on how they meet a set of criteria. For each class,

pertinent methods of AA should be described. Therefore, a user of this classification system can determine the class of a given procedure and find out the pertinent method of AA for it. Furthermore, by referring to the name of each class, a large amount of information related to that class would also be delivered. This facilitates scientific communications between people with various backgrounds. It also increases the accuracy of the scientific communication regarding AA in laboratory animals.

Presumptions

For developing this classification system, several concepts in laboratory animal AA should be considered. I have presented these concepts in Supplement 1 to this paper. According to these concepts, the proposed classification system assumes that both the pain sensation and pain perception should be suppressed in painful procedures. In this regard, analgesic drugs should be used according to the type and amount of pain, to provide a hypoalgesic state. For procedures with the pain similar to surgical procedures, surgical anesthesia should be used. This may be achieved via a balanced anesthetic technique combining general anesthesia with analgesia. Accordingly, preemptive analgesia and multimodal analgesia techniques should be considered. If possible, it may be preferable to use local anesthesia or regional anesthesia instead of general anesthesia.

Results

LAAC system classifies various procedures into 12 classes and three main categories with an overall increasing level of AA from LAAC1 to LAAC12 (Fig. 1). Category A comprises non-surgical procedures with discomfort up to the discomfort threshold (DT). Category B, mainly includes non-surgical procedures, and category C includes surgical procedures. Below each of these classes are discussed. The choice of the medication in each class depends on several factors, such as: 1) the species and strain of the animal; 2) type and extent of the procedures; 3) clinical state of the animal; 4) effect of the medication on the research parameters; 5) familiarity of the researcher with a medication/technique; and 6) availability of the medication to researchers. The aim of this paper is not to provide a comprehensive list of medications for various species of animals and research protocols. Rather, it provides a guide for proper selection of potential drugs and techniques that could be considered in each class. It should also be noted that some medications may have contradictory effects depending on the animal species,

interspecies differences, and dose. For example, a sedative drug like diazepam may cause excitement in some species (dogs and cats) ¹¹. Readers are encouraged to consult a relevant textbook for more details on the properties of a specific drug ¹², or anesthetic/analgesic method for various species of animals ^{11,13,14}.

Category A

LAAC1

Sample procedures

Handling and minimal restraint of trained animals; sexing; displacing habituated animals; inserting a hypodermic needle; oral gavage.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

No anesthesia is required. Analgesia is not essential. However, topical anesthetics may be used to reduce the pain of needle insertions. Distraction techniques may be used for reducing the discomfort of the animal.

Post-operative analgesia

Post-operative analgesia is not necessary.

LAAC2

Sample procedures

Using an agitated animal for minimal restraint, sexing, displacing, injecting; pre-anesthetic preparations in distressed animals.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

No anesthesia is required. Occasionally, analgesia may be provided as discussed for LAAC1. Tranquilizers may be used to calm down the animal. In this regard, low dose phenothiazines (chlorpromazine, acepromazine, promazine), benzodiazepines (diazepam, midazolam), α 2-adrenergic agonists (xylazine, detomidine, romifidine, medetomidine, dexmedetomidine), or butyrophenones (droperidol, fluanisone, azaperone) may be used ^{11,13}.

Post-operative analgesia

Post-operative analgesia is not necessary.

LAAC3

Sample procedures

Short-term immobilization in a non-stimulating environment; pre-anesthetic preparations in agitated animals.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

No anesthesia is required. Analgesia may be achieved as discussed in LAAC1. Sedatives may be used to create a state of sedation and immobilization. In this regard, higher doses in the therapeutic window of LAAC-2 drugs may be used. Additionally, opioids (alfentanil, buprenorphine, butorphanol, etorphine, fentanyl, hydromorphone, methadone, morphine, nalbuphine, oxymorphone, pentazocine, pethidine (meperidine), remifentanil, sufentanil) may also be used to induce a state of moderate sedation accompanied with varying levels of hypoalgesia ¹¹.

Post-operative analgesia

Post-operative analgesia is not necessary.

LAAC4

Sample procedures

Immobilization and sleep in a moderately stimulating environment; non-invasive imaging.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

Unconsciousness can be induced by hypnotics or anesthetics. These include alpha-chloralose, the barbiturates (e.g., thiopental, thiamylal, and methohexital, thiobutabarbital, and pentobarbital), chloral hydrate, etomidate, metomidate, propofol, the steroid anesthetics (alphaxalone/alphadolone), tribromoethanol, inhalational anesthetics, and injectable anesthetics.

Post-operative analgesia

Post-operative analgesia is not necessary.

Category B

LAAC5

Sample procedures

Conditions with non-somatic origin causing discomfort more than the DT and psychosomatic conditions; procedures leading to anxiety, fear, distress, depression; activity anorexia; developing thin sow syndrome; compulsive behaviors (stereotypical behaviors); addiction and withdrawal.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

Anesthesia may not be required. However, depending on the cause of the condition, various types of medications or non-medical methods may be used to alleviate the symptoms. For example, a highly distressed animal may receive sedatives and placed in a quiet and dim environment, or an animal in depression may benefit from anti-depressants.

Post-operative analgesia

Since there is no somatic pain in this class, the use of analgesics is questionable.

LAAC6

Sample procedures

Non-surgical procedures that involve visceral organs; procedures through natural body orifices (e.g., endoscopies); intravisceral injection or sampling (not thorax; since it induces discomfort more than the DT); models of sepsis, neoplasia, and inflammation that are induced non-surgically and involve visceral organs.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

The use of anesthesia may or may not be necessary. For endoscopies and intravisceral injection/sampling, depending on the type and length of the procedure, deep sedation or hypnosis may be used. Therefore, LAAC3 or LAAC4 provisions may be undertaken.

Models of sepsis in this class can be induced by injection of bacterial toxins, purified live bacterium, or fecal-derived bacteria (polymicrobial infection), which do not require anesthesia. Neoplastic models in this class may also be developed by inoculation of neoplastic cell lines and may not require anesthesia.

Post-operative analgesia

Visceral analgesia may be required if any of the aforementioned procedures lead to visceral pain. In this regard, local anesthetics (e.g., lidocaine) may be used for inhibiting pain transduction, transmission, or modulation. Opioids and tramadol may be used for inhibiting pain modulation or perception ¹⁰.

There are controversies regarding the need of analgesia for non-surgical models of sepsis ¹⁵. However, the latest findings recommend considering analgesics (such as nalbuphine, buprenorphine, morphine, fentanyl) and closely monitoring the clinical signs of pain in animals ^{15,16}. The use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) in sepsis models is discouraged due to the risk of bleeding and renal dysfunction. Moreover, the anti-inflammatory effect of NSAIDs could interfere with the pathobiology of the sepsis model and negatively influence the study ¹⁶.

Analgesic treatment for inflammatory and neoplastic visceral pains depends on the tissue involved, the pathogenesis and severity of pain, and the species of the animal. For example, opioids such as buprenorphine, butorphanol, hydromorphone, meperidine, or methadone are recommended for pancreatitis pain in dogs ¹⁷. Other analgesic modalities may be found in related references ¹⁸.

Neoplasia may influence the animal by pain and general ill-being (sickness syndrome) resulted from the paraneoplastic syndrome ^{19,20}. The neoplastic pain has several components as: pain resulted from the tumor, pain caused by disease progression, pain due to side effects of treatments, pain from other sources not related to malignancy ²¹. Few studies have investigated the neoplastic pain in laboratory animals ¹³, but as a general rule, neoplastic pain evolves quite differently than acute procedural pain. Neoplastic pain may be acute, chronic, or intermittent ²¹ but in general it may start gradually, and may last for a longer time and may involve coping mechanisms that could suddenly fail ¹³. Opioids and tramadol are used to alleviate cancer pain in animal models ¹⁹, and it is shown that certain nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may have synergy with opioids ¹³. Antiepileptics (such as gabapentin and pregabalin) and antidepressants have been used for managing chronic pain in humans ¹⁹. Occasionally, NMDA receptor antagonists and local anesthetics have also been used for managing chronic pain ¹⁹.

LAAC7

Sample procedures

Intraosseous access; infection or neoplasia that involves hard tissues.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

The procedure of intraosseous access or induction of bone infection/neoplasia may be performed without general anesthesia. However, category A modalities may be undertaken to reduce the animal distress and facilitate the procedure. For intraosseous access, infiltration with local analgesics (e.g., lidocaine, bupivacaine) should also be used ²².

Post-operative analgesia

Analgesia is required. Bone infection models²³⁻²⁵ leading to osteomyelitis may induce inflammatory pain. In this regard, NSAIDs such as celecoxib (a selective COX-2 inhibitor) has been used to alleviate the pain of the condition²⁶.

Bone cancer is a very painful condition and is one of the most common models of cancer pain in laboratory animals²⁷. The mechanism of bone cancer pain are partially understood²⁸ and are described elsewhere^{29,30}. Since bone cancer pain results from different mechanisms than bone inflammation pain, a higher dose of analgesics may be required for alleviating it²⁸. The choose of analgesics depends on the species of the animal, extent of the neoplastic lesions, the severity of pain, and the objectives of the study. Morphine is shown to produce short-term analgesia (2-3 hr.) for bone cancer pain in mice. Concurrent use of acetaminophen and morphine is shown to produce even higher level of analgesia in this animal model¹³. Other complementary approaches include eradicating the tumor, stabilizing the affected bones, reducing bone loss, and using NSAIDs³¹. Analgesic therapy should be devised such that it does not negatively influence the study objectives, as described elsewhere³².

LAAC8

Sample procedures

Sepsis or neoplastic conditions that involve the hard tissues and viscera.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

Anesthesia may not be required to induce the neoplastic or septic condition. However, category A modalities may be applied to reduce the distress of the animal.

Post-operative analgesia

A combination of LAAC6 and LAAC7 analgesic modalities may be used. In this regard a number of new modalities are also under investigation²¹.

Category C

LAAC9

Sample procedures

Biopsies from skin, muscle, mucosa, or conjunctiva; incisional or excisional wound models; models of dead space, flap surgery, or burns; catheterization in major blood vessels (carotid artery, jugular vein, femoral artery and vein); vascular ligation models; neoplasms involving skin, muscle, mucosa, or conjunctiva.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

- Short term general anesthesia may be used. In this regard, inhalation anesthetics may be more appropriate due to their rapid onset of action and fast recovery. Analgesia should be provided by administration of systemic opioids, NSAIDs, or local anesthetics.

Or

- Category A modalities may be applied along with local anesthesia at the site of tissue injury.

Or

- LAAC3 may be applied along with systemic opioids to induce neuroleptanalgesia.

Post-operative analgesia

Depending on the extent of the injury, one or a combination of the below modalities may be used:

- For limited injuries, a long-acting local anesthetic (e.g., bupivacaine) may be used short-term³³ by injecting at the injury site before termination of the procedure.
- One dose³³ of NSAIDs (e.g., carprofen, meloxicam) or opioids may be used for minor injuries. In more severe cases, less than one week use of NSAIDs may be warranted³³.
- Systemic or topical opioids may be used short-term (less than 10 d) without considerable effect on wound healing³³
- Local infiltration of tramadol at the incision site may be used for analgesia without negative effect on wound healing³³.
- Gabapentin may be used as an adjunct analgesic in wound models³³
- Acetaminophen may be used as a part of the post-surgical analgesia for wound models³³.
- For neoplastic lesions, LAAC6 and LAAC7 modalities may be used.

Systemic or topical steroids should not be used in wound healing models³³.

LAAC10

Sample procedures

Procedures on visceral organs in the abdominal cavity; thoracic interventions that do not involve hard tissues (ribs or sternum); thoracoscopies; ophthalmic procedures; neoplasms involving skin, muscle, mucosa, conjunctiva, and visceral organs.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

- For abdominal cavity procedures, injectable general anesthesia along with opioids, NSAIDs, and/or local anesthetics may be used.
- For cardiac puncture (as a terminal procedure), deep general anesthesia may be achieved using higher doses of injectable or inhalational anesthetics.
- For thoracic surgeries and thoracoscopies, deep general anesthesia with positive pressure ventilation, and proper multimodal analgesia (opioids, NSAIDs, and/or local anesthetics) should be considered.
- For ophthalmic procedures, one should consider the length of the procedure; goal of the research; depth of anesthesia; effect of the anesthetic on intraocular pressure, extraocular muscles relaxation, retinal ultrastructure, ocular position during surgical plane of anesthesia, and intraocular air volume¹³. Topical ophthalmic anesthetics may be used as an adjunct to general anesthesia for corneal procedures. Oculocardiac reflex may be inhibited using anticholinergic drugs such as atropine or glycopyrrolate¹³. To maintain a central position of the eyeball during intraocular surgeries, neuromuscular blocking agents (e.g., atracurium) may be used by people with special training on the use of these agents.

In large ruminants, enucleation may be performed by regional anesthesia (retrobulbar block of deep orbital nerves) or Peterson block¹³.

Post-operative analgesia

- For survival procedures, a combination of opioids and NSAIDs (8-72 hr. for non-thoracic procedures) depending on the species of the animal and the extent of the tissue injury may be considered¹¹.
- For thoracic procedures, LAAC12 postoperative analgesia should be applied.
- Combination of local anesthesia (e.g., lidocaine, bupivacaine) with systemic analgesics may be used³⁴.
- For neoplastic conditions, LAAC6 and LAAC7 modalities may be applied.

LAAC11

Sample procedures

Orthopedic procedures; surgically induced osseous conditions (e.g., osteotomy); chemically induced skeletal conditions such as arthritis; neoplasms involving skin, muscle, mucosa, conjunctiva, and bones.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

Deep general anesthesia along with potent analgesia is required. Furthermore, muscle relaxants (i.e., neuromuscular blockers or spasmolytics) may be used to facilitate orthopedic surgeries in animals with large muscular mass. Neuromuscular blockers must only be used by people specially trained in using these agents. Local and regional anesthesia may be used to provide preemptive analgesia and relaxing the muscles.

Post-operative analgesia

NSAIDs are excellent analgesics for orthopedic pain. The efficacy of the propionic acid derivatives (e.g., ibuprofen, fenoprofen, flurbiprofen, flunoxaprofen, ketoprofen, naproxen, and carprofen) to ameliorate orthopedic pains, is comparable with some opioids (such as buprenorphine, butorphanol, pethidine, and codeine)¹³. Overall, there are controversies regarding the effect of NSAIDs on bone healing³³. There is some evidence that NSAIDs have a potential to alter fracture healing in microscopic levels¹³, though it seems a short term use of some NSAIDs does not affect the long term healing rate of the bones^{33,35}. However, the use of nonselective COX inhibitors (indomethacin, ibuprofen, ketorolac, parecoxib) are not recommended in orthopedic models of rodents, because of the negative effect of these drugs on bone healing³³. Also, long term use (10 days- 4 months) of selective COX2 inhibitors (diclofenac, carprofen, rofecoxib) have negative effect on bone healing, but this has not been observed by their short term use (less than 10 days)³³. Acetaminophen may be used along with other analgesics for treating the pain of orthopedic models in rats³³.

Orthopedic models usually cause chronic pain^{7,33}. Therefore, a 2-3 week analgesic therapy using opioids may be warranted following extensive orthopedic surgeries without negatively affecting bone healing³³. In this regard, sustained release medications such as fentanyl patch, fentanyl gel, or sustained release buprenorphine injection may be considered³⁵. It should be noted that buprenorphine seems to have a ceiling analgesic effect, meaning that increasing the dose of the drug could not provide more analgesia after a ceiling point of analgesic effect is achieved³⁶. Long term use of opioids (i.e., 8 weeks in rats), may negatively affect the remodeling and resorption of the fracture callus³³. Combining NSAIDs with opioid agonists provide a synergistic effect. Therefore, if NSAIDs are omitted from the postoperative analgesic regimen, the dose of the opioid should be considerably increased.

Postoperative local and regional anesthesia may also be achieved by placing catheters for continuous anesthetic drug infusion (e.g., ropivacaine, bupivacaine). However, this should not be considered as the sole method of postoperative analgesia¹³. Low dose ketamine may be used as a preventive analgesic modality in orthopedic models³³.

Multimodal analgesia is shown to effectively reduce postoperative pain in spine surgery. It may comprise gabapentinoids, acetaminophen, regional anesthesia by placing local anesthetics close to the spinal nerves, and slow-release local anesthetics ³⁵.

Steroids (e.g., prednisolone, methylprednisolone, dexamethasone) should be avoided in orthopedic models ³³. Gabapentin is also not a suitable analgesic for orthopedic models in rats ³³. Information on the general anesthetic medications used in orthopedic research on large laboratory animals are provided elsewhere ³⁷. For neoplastic pains, LAAC7 provisions should be applied.

LAAC12

Sample procedures

Thoracic surgeries involving sternum (sternotomy) or ribs (costotomy); brain surgeries through craniotomy; metastatic neoplasms involving skin, muscle, mucosa, conjunctiva, bone, and visceral organs.

Intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia

Deep general anesthesia and potent analgesia are required. Thoracic surgeries require positive pressure ventilation. If the anesthetic depth, analgesia, and ventilator settings are adjusted properly, the ventilation could usually be performed without the need of neuromuscular blocking agents ¹³. When using neuromuscular blocking agents, special care should be paid to the monitoring of the anesthetic depth ¹¹.

Various anesthetic protocols are described for thoracotomy in larger animals ^{14,38} and pets ³⁹. However, available literatures usually do not report specialized anesthesia/analgesia for thoracic surgeries in smaller animals such as mice and rats. For example, there are reports of using common anesthetics such as ketamine/xylazine ⁴⁰⁻⁴², or isoflurane/carprofen ⁴³, and narcotics such as sodium pentobarbital ^{44,45}. However, these agents could not provide an adequate depth of anesthesia and enough analgesia for thoracic surgery as one of the most painful operations. The same holds true for rabbits, in which sodium pentobarbital ^{46,47} or sodium pentobarbital/isoflurane ⁴⁸ are used. There are also reports of proper anesthesia but inadequate perioperative analgesia ^{49,50} and inadequate postoperative analgesia ⁵¹ on rabbits.

Therefore, for this class of procedures, I recommend anesthetic protocols that incorporate cardiac-safe balanced anesthesia with multimodal analgesia (i.e., concurrent use of opioids, NSAIDs, and intercostal nerve block) as it could be exemplified in some previous works ⁵²⁻⁵⁴. Cardiac effects of various anesthetics and analgesics are discussed elsewhere ⁵⁵. Nitrous oxide should be avoided due to its effect on developing pneumothorax after the surgery ¹³. Craniotomy may be performed under general anesthesia and multimodal analgesia, along with a splash block of lidocaine on the skull periosteum.

Post-operative analgesia

Thoracic surgeries are accompanied with severe post-operative pain. Left untreated, this pain could lead to difficult breathing, hypoxia, and pneumonia. Pain of thoracotomy procedure may last longer than 48 hours⁷. Therefore, pure agonist opioids must be used parenterally for the first 48 hours after the surgery. During which time, the respiratory rate and quality should be monitored to identify and correct opioid-mediated respiratory depression. Other analgesics such as NSAIDs, intercostal nerve block with local anesthetics or intrapleural local anesthetics, epidural opioids, and ketamine may be used in combination with systemic opioids to provide multimodal analgesia. This multimodal analgesic therapy reduces the required dose of opioids and their side effects on respiration^{13,56}. Some post-operative analgesic provisions could be adopted from companion animal practice³⁹.

Neuropathic pain (+)

Neuropathic pain (NP) may develop as a side effect of an intervention on laboratory animals⁵⁷, or it may be intentionally modeled on animals⁵⁷⁻⁶⁰. Proper detection of NP is a challenge in veterinary patients and laboratory animals⁶¹⁻⁶³. Currently, there is no efficient analgesic drug to fully counteract NP^{58,64}. However, it is believed that the same concepts of preemptive analgesia and multimodal analgesia also apply to NP⁶¹.

The first line drugs for treatment of NP includes certain anticonvulsants (e.g., gabapentin and pregabalin), some tricyclic antidepressants (e.g., imipramine, amitriptyline), and topical lidocaine⁶¹. Other analgesics such as opioids, tramadol, and NSAIDs, if used alone, are usually less effective in treating NP. However, they may be considered as part of a multimodal analgesic approach in this condition⁶¹. A number of nonchemical approaches are also suggested as an adjunct therapy for alleviating NP, such as: providing environmental enrichment⁶⁵, using long particles as bedding material, reducing the soy and adding the taurine content of the feed, group housing the animals to encourage social buffering⁶⁶, massage, and thermotherapy⁶¹. It is shown that in animal models of NP, postoperative analgesic therapy may not adversely affect the development of NP⁶⁷.

Discussion

The current state of reporting and use of AA in animal research is concerning. There is an essential need for a regulating system to assist researchers to choose proper methods of AA and enables reviewers to detect improper reporting or use of AA. In this regard, the LAAC system classifies research procedures on animals into three categories and 12 classes. Each class includes several procedures affecting the same parts of the body, which may require similar methods of AA. The depth of anesthesia and intraoperative analgesia required for each class, generally increases from LAAC1 to LAAC12.

In veterinary anesthesia, there is an adopted classification system from medicine called American Society of Anesthesiologists Physical Status classification (ASA PS). ASA PS classifies the physical status of patients into 6 classes in medicine, and 5 classes in veterinary medicine¹⁰. Higher classes of ASA PS predict a higher risk of anesthetic mortality for a given patient^{68,69}. In contrast to LAAC, the ASA PS does not consider the type of procedure that is intended to be performed on animals.

Another classification system used in laboratory animal research is the severity scoring system⁷⁰. This classifies the severity of procedures into four classes, based on the level of pain, suffering, and distress that a procedure may cause⁷⁰. In comparison, LAAC considers the type of tissues and pain involved in a procedure and specifically addresses the AA requirement of procedures.

Working with the LAAC system does not require special knowledge in laboratory animal anesthesia and people from various backgrounds can use it. For example, a researcher could determine the LAAC of a procedure in his/her research and using the instructions related to that LAAC, devise a proper AA regimen for it. LAAC also facilitates communication. For example, a researcher could cite the LAAC of a certain procedure in his/her paper and thus clearly communicate a large amount of information regarding the AA requisites of that procedure. This would avoid potential misunderstandings about the methodology of the published research.

Grant reviewers and ethics committees could use LAAC to classify the procedures and determine the best AA for each procedure. This may improve the quality of AA in research proposals. LAAC may also improve the quality of journals' peer review. Journals' reviewers could use LAAC system to determine if an AA protocol used in a manuscript is scientifically and ethically sound. Animal welfare bodies and animal care staff could also use LAAC as a measure of the severity of procedures and the level of care an animal need.

LAAC may have a limitation. It could not provide a quantitative measure for the extent of injury for a given procedure. However, it should be noted that the aim of LAAC is to provide a means for classifying procedures according to the body parts they involve and associated type of pain and distress they produce.

In conclusion, LAAC provides a simple language for communicating the type of procedure and methods of AA in laboratory animal science. It also assists researchers in deciding which anesthetic or analgesic method is appropriate for a given procedure. For future studies I suggest developing specific anesthetic/analgesic protocols according to the LAAC system for each species of animals.

Methods

The LAAC classes are defined according to the level of distress or the type of tissue injury that are accompanied with each type of procedures. For each class of LAAC, proper methods of anesthesia and analgesia are devised to properly address the anxiolytic, anesthetic, or analgesic needs. At the first level of classification, the procedures are classified according to the level of discomfort that they may cause

(Fig. 1). In this regard, a discomfort threshold (DT) is defined as the discomfort resulted from the insertion of a hypodermic needle into the skin of an animal, where the gauge and length of the needle are appropriate to the animal size and species, and the needle is inserted into the skin according to good veterinary practice. Hence, procedures could be classified under two main categories: 1) procedures with cumulative discomfort equal to or less than the DT, and 2) procedures with cumulative discomfort more than the DT.

For procedures with discomfort up to the DT (Class A procedures), the pain management is not the primary concern to properly perform the procedure. Therefore, further classification will be performed according to the level of unconsciousness that is required for properly performing the procedure. Figure 1 shows the first four classifications (LAAC1 to LAAC4), with LAAC1 requiring no chemical tranquilization, and LAAC4 requiring the use of hypnotics.

For procedures causing discomfort more than the DT, the classification is performed according to the type and level of pain. Figure 2 shows a pain classification diagram mainly based on the type of pain, in which somatic pain is further subdivided according to the level of pain arise from each type of tissues.

Since many surgical procedures involve skin/muscle/mucosa/connective tissues (SMMC) to varying degrees, I used SMMC involvement to generate two distinctive classes (Fig. 1): Class B) procedures that does not involve SMMC and are mainly performed non-surgically; Class C) procedures that may involve the SMMC and are mainly surgical. In each of the B or C classes, further classification is performed according to whether bones/joints (somatic pain) or viscera (visceral pain) are involved. In Class B, generally from LAAC5 to LAAC8, the level of involvement of various body parts and its accompanying pain gradually increases, thus requiring more potent intraoperative anesthesia/analgesia. The same holds true for Class C, in which the extent of involvement of various tissues (and their corresponding pain) increases from LAAC9 to LAAC12.

Neuropathic pain (Fig. 2) is a consequence of the pathology of the nervous system and it is assumed to cause discomfort more than the DT. Therefore, it could be a component to the overall pain in each class of the categories B or C. In LAAC system, neuropathic pain would be indicated with a (+) sign that could be added to each of the LAAC classes. For example, class LAAC8 with neuropathic pain would be shown as LAAC8+.

References

1. Bara, M. & Joffe, A. R. The ethical dimension in published animal research in critical care: the public face of science. *Crit. Care* **18**, R15 (2014).
2. Carbone, L. & Austin, J. Pain and Laboratory Animals: Publication Practices for Better Data Reproducibility and Better Animal Welfare. *PloS One* **11**, e0155001 (2016).
3. Gomez, L. M. & Conlee, K. M. An analysis of reporting pain and distress recognition and alleviation in scientific journal publications. **8**.

4. Pound, P. & Nicol, C. J. Retrospective harm benefit analysis of pre-clinical animal research for six treatment interventions. *PLOS ONE* **13**, e0193758 (2018).
5. Taylor, K. Reporting the implementation of the Three Rs in European primate and mouse research papers: are we making progress? *Altern. Lab. Anim. ATLA* **38**, 495–517 (2010).
6. Uhlig, C., Krause, H., Koch, T., Gama de Abreu, M. & Spieth, P. M. Anesthesia and Monitoring in Small Laboratory Mammals Used in Anesthesiology, Respiratory and Critical Care Research: A Systematic Review on the Current Reporting in Top-10 Impact Factor Ranked Journals. *PLoS ONE* **10**, e0134205 (2015).
7. Herrmann, K. & Flecknell, P. Retrospective review of anesthetic and analgesic regimens used in animal research proposals. *ALTEX* **36**, 65–80 (2019).
8. Baxter, M. G., Murphy, K. L., Taylor, P. M. & Wolfensohn, S. E. Chloral Hydrate Is Not Acceptable for Anesthesia or Euthanasia of Small Animals. *Anesthesiology* **111**, 209 (2009).
9. Daei, N. & Ahmadi-Noorbakhsh, S. Comment on “Effect of Multilaminar Small Intestinal Submucosa as a Barrier Membrane on Bone Formation in a Rabbit Mandible Defect Model”. *BioMed Res. Int.* 2020, 7624154 (2020).
10. Navarro, K. L. *et al.* Mouse Anesthesia: The Art and Science. *ILAR J.* ilab016 (2021) doi:10.1093/ilar/ilab016.
11. Flecknell, P. A. *Laboratory animal anaesthesia*. (Elsevier/AP, Academic Press is an imprint of Elsevier, 2016).
12. Plumb, D. C. *Plumb's Veterinary Drug Handbook*. (John Wiley & Sons, 2018).
13. Fish, R., Danneman, P. J., Brown, M. & Karas, A. *Anesthesia and Analgesia in Laboratory Animals*. (Academic Press, 2011).
14. Grimm, K. A., Lamont, L. A., Tranquilli, W. J., Greene, S. A. & Robertson, S. A. *Veterinary anesthesia and analgesia*. (Wiley Blackwell, 2015).
15. Carpenter, K. C., Hakenjos, J. M., Fry, C. D. & Nemzek, J. A. The Influence of Pain and Analgesia in Rodent Models of Sepsis. *Comp. Med.* **69**, 546–554 (2019).
16. Jeger, V., Hauffe, T., Nicholls-Vuille, F., Bettex, D. & Rudiger, A. Analgesia in clinically relevant rodent models of sepsis. *Lab. Anim.* **50**, 418–426 (2016).
17. Catanzaro, A., della Rocca, G., Di Salvo, A. & Goldberg, M. E. Medical Abdominal Visceral Pain in Dogs. *Am. J. Anim. Vet. Sci.* **10**, 67–76 (2015).
18. K, M. *et al.* Guidelines for recognition, assessment and treatment of pain: WSAVA Global Pain Council members and co-authors of this document: *J. Small Anim. Pract.* **55**, (2014).
19. Anonymous. *Recognition and alleviation of pain in laboratory animals*. (National Academies Press, Institute for Laboratory Animal Research (U. S.). Committee on Recognition and Alleviation of Pain in Laboratory Animals, 2009).
20. van Loo, P. L. P. *et al.* Analgesics in mice used in cancer research: reduction of discomfort? *Lab. Anim.* **31**, 318–325 (1997).

21. Pineda-Farias, J. B., Saloman, J. L. & Scheff, N. N. Animal Models of Cancer-Related Pain: Current Perspectives in Translation. *Front. Pharmacol.* **11**, 1975 (2020).
22. Quesenberry, K. E. & Carpenter, J. W. *Ferrets, rabbits, and rodents: clinical medicine and surgery.* (Saunders, 2011).
23. Jensen, L. K., Henriksen, N. L., Blirup, S. A. & Jensen, H. E. Guideline for Preclinical Studies of Bone Infections in Large Animals Based on a Systematic Review of 316 Non-Rodent Models. *JBJS* **101**, 1894–1903 (2019).
24. Patel, M., Rojavin, Y., Jamali, A. A., Wasielewski, S. J. & Salgado, C. J. Animal Models for the Study of Osteomyelitis. *Semin. Plast. Surg.* **23**, 148–154 (2009).
25. Roux, K. M., Cobb, L. H., Seitz, M. A. & Priddy, L. B. Innovations in osteomyelitis research: A review of animal models. *Anim. Models Exp. Med.* **4**, 59–70 (2021).
26. Yang, C.-J., Li, Q., Wu, G.-C., Wang, Y.-Q. & Mao-Ying, Q.-L. A practical model of osteomyelitis-induced bone pain by intra-tibial injection of *Staphylococcus aureus* in rats. *Neurosci. Lett.* **513**, 198–203 (2012).
27. Pacharinsak, C. & Beitz, A. Animal Models of Cancer Pain. *Comp. Med.* **58**, 220–233 (2008).
28. Luger, N. M., Mach, D. B., Sevcik, M. A. & Mantyh, P. W. Bone Cancer Pain: From Model to Mechanism to Therapy. *J. Pain Symptom Manage.* **29**, 32–46 (2005).
29. Currie, G. L. *et al.* Animal models of bone cancer pain: systematic review and meta-analyses. *Pain* **154**, 917–926 (2013).
30. Mantyh, P. W. & Hunt, S. P. Mechanisms that generate and maintain bone cancer pain. *Novartis Found. Symp.* **260**, 221–238; discussion 238–240, 277–279 (2004).
31. Pertovaara, A. Multi-target treatment of bone cancer pain using synergistic combinations of pharmacological compounds in experimental animals. *Scand. J. Pain* **14**, 69–70 (2017).
32. Taylor, D. K. Influence of Pain and Analgesia on Cancer Research Studies. *Comp. Med.* **69**, 501–509 (2019).
33. Huss, M. K., Felt, S. A. & Pacharinsak, C. Influence of Pain and Analgesia on Orthopedic and Wound-healing Models in Rats and Mice. *Comp. Med.* **69**, 535–545 (2019).
34. Durst, M. S., Arras, M., Palme, R., Talbot, S. R. & Jirkof, P. Lidocaine and bupivacaine as part of multimodal pain management in a C57BL/6J laparotomy mouse model. *Sci. Rep.* **11**, 10918 (2021).
35. Allen, M. J., Hankenson, K. D., Goodrich, L., Boivin, G. P. & von Rechenberg, B. Ethical use of animal models in musculoskeletal research. *J. Orthop. Res. Off. Publ. Orthop. Res. Soc.* **35**, 740–751 (2017).
36. Dahan, A. *et al.* Comparison of the respiratory effects of intravenous buprenorphine and fentanyl in humans and rats. *Br. J. Anaesth.* **94**, 825–834 (2005).
37. Decker, S., Reifenrath, J., Omar, M., Krettek, C. & Müller, C. W. Non-Osteotomy and Osteotomy Large Animal Fracture Models in Orthopedic Trauma Research. *Orthop. Rev.* **6**, 5575 (2014).
38. Malinowski, M. *et al.* Large animal model of functional tricuspid regurgitation in pacing induced end-stage heart failure. *Interact. Cardiovasc. Thorac. Surg.* **24**, 905–910 (2017).

39. Fossum, T. W. *Small animal surgery*. (Elsevier Mosby, 2013).
40. Li, W. *et al.* Surgical technique for lung retransplantation in the mouse. *J. Thorac. Dis.* **5**, 5 (2013).
41. Ma, S. *et al.* A Modified Surgical Ventricular Reconstruction in Post-infarction Mice Persistently Alleviates Heart Failure and Improves Cardiac Regeneration. *Front. Cardiovasc. Med.* **8**, 789493 (2021).
42. Ordodi, V. L., Paunescu, V. & Mic, F. A. Optimal Access to the Rat Heart by Transverse Bilateral Thoracotomy with Double Ligature of the Internal Thoracic Arteries. *J. Am. Assoc. Lab. Anim. Sci.* **3**.
43. Madrahimov, N. *et al.* Novel mouse model of cardiopulmonary bypass. *Eur. J. Cardiothorac. Surg.* **53**, 186–193 (2018).
44. Tarnavski, O. *et al.* Mouse cardiac surgery: comprehensive techniques for the generation of mouse models of human diseases and their application for genomic studies. *Physiol. Genomics* **16**, 349–360 (2004).
45. Zheng, Z. *et al.* Improvements of the Surgical Technique on the Established Mouse Model of Orthotopic Single Lung Transplantation. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e81000 (2013).
46. Lu, W. *et al.* A new simplified volume-loaded heterotopic rabbit heart transplant model with improved techniques and a standard operating procedure. *J. Thorac. Dis.* **7**, (2015).
47. Zhai, H., Dai, W. & Wang, Y. Metoprolol protects cardiomyocytes in rabbit model of heart failure by regulating Cx43. *Exp. Ther. Med.* **15**, 1902–1905 (2018).
48. Ueyama, K. *et al.* Development of biologic coronary artery bypass grafting in a rabbit model: revival of a classic concept with modern biotechnology. *J. Thorac. Cardiovasc. Surg.* **127**, 1608–1615 (2004).
49. Hu, N. *et al.* Ligation of the left circumflex coronary artery with subsequent MRI and histopathology in rabbits. *J. Am. Assoc. Lab. Anim. Sci. JAALAS* **49**, 838–844 (2010).
50. MacIver, R. H. *et al.* An improved in vivo method for atrioventricular node ablation via thoracotomy. *Braz. J. Med. Biol. Res.* **43**, 206–210 (2010).
51. Zhou, J., Liwski, R. S., Elson, C. & Lee, T. D. G. Reduction in postsurgical adhesion formation after cardiac surgery in a rabbit model using N,O-carboxymethyl chitosan to block cell adherence. *J. Thorac. Cardiovasc. Surg.* **135**, 777–783 (2008).
52. Bacmeister, L. *et al.* Assessment of PEEP-Ventilation and the Time Point of Parallel-Conductance Determination for Pressure-Volume Analysis Under β -Adrenergic Stimulation in Mice. *Front. Cardiovasc. Med.* **6**, (2019).
53. Ciuffreda, M. C. *et al.* Rat Experimental Model of Myocardial Ischemia/Reperfusion Injury: An Ethical Approach to Set up the Analgesic Management of Acute Post-Surgical Pain. *PLoS ONE* **9**, e95913 (2014).
54. Müller, O. J. *et al.* Comprehensive plasma and tissue profiling reveals systemic metabolic alterations in cardiac hypertrophy and failure. *Cardiovasc. Res.* **115**, 1296–1305 (2019).

55. Gross, D. *Animal Models in Cardiovascular Research*. (Springer US, 2009). doi:10.1007/978-0-387-95962-7.
56. Orton, E. C. & Monnet, E. *Small Animal Thoracic Surgery*. (John Wiley & Sons, 2017).
57. Kaliyaperumal, S., Wilson, K., Aeffner, F. & Dean, C. Animal Models of Peripheral Pain: Biology Review and Application for Drug Discovery. *Toxicol. Pathol.* **48**, 202–219 (2020).
58. Colleoni, M. & Sacerdote, P. Murine models of human neuropathic pain. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta BBA - Mol. Basis Dis.* **1802**, 924–933 (2010).
59. Herzberg, D. E., Bustamante, H. A., Herzberg, D. E. & Bustamante, H. A. Animal models of chronic pain. Are naturally occurring diseases a potential model for translational research? *Austral J. Vet. Sci.* **53**, 47–54 (2021).
60. Tian, D. H., Perera, C. J. & Moalem-Taylor, G. Neuropathic Pain in Animal Models of Nervous System Autoimmune Diseases. *Mediators Inflamm.* 2013, e298326 (2013).
61. Brabb, T., Carbone, L., Snyder, J. & Phillips, N. Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee Considerations for Animal Models of Peripheral Neuropathy. *ILAR J.* **54**, 329–337 (2014).
62. Deuis, J. R., Dvorakova, L. S. & Vetter, I. Methods Used to Evaluate Pain Behaviors in Rodents. *Front. Mol. Neurosci.* **10**, (2017).
63. Hogan, Q., Sapunar, D., Modric-Jednacak, K. & McCallum, J. B. Detection of Neuropathic Pain in a Rat Model of Peripheral Nerve Injury. *Anesthesiology* **101**, 476–487 (2004).
64. Percie du Sert, N. & Rice, A. S. C. Improving the translation of analgesic drugs to the clinic: animal models of neuropathic pain. *Br. J. Pharmacol.* **171**, 2951–2963 (2014).
65. Parent-Vachon, M. & Vachon, P. Environmental enrichment alleviates chronic pain in rats following a spared nerve injury to induce neuropathic pain. A preliminary study. *Vet. Med. Res. Rep.* **9**, 69–72 (2018).
66. Pham, T. M. *et al.* Housing environment influences the need for pain relief during post-operative recovery in mice. *Physiol. Behav.* **99**, 663–668 (2010).
67. Hestehave, S. *et al.* Is there a reasonable excuse for not providing post-operative analgesia when using animal models of peripheral neuropathic pain for research purposes? *PLOS ONE* **12**, e0188113 (2017).
68. Navarro, K. L. *et al.* Mouse Anesthesia: The Art and Science. *ILAR J.* ilab016 (2021) doi:10.1093/ilar/ilab016.
69. Portier, K. & Ida, K. K. The ASA Physical Status Classification: What Is the Evidence for Recommending Its Use in Veterinary Anesthesia?—A Systematic Review. *Front. Vet. Sci.* **5**, 204 (2018).
70. Smith, D. *et al.* Classification and reporting of severity experienced by animals used in scientific procedures: FELASA/ECLAM/ESLAV Working Group report. *Lab. Anim.* **52**, 5–57 (2018).

Declarations

The author declares no competing interests.

Figures

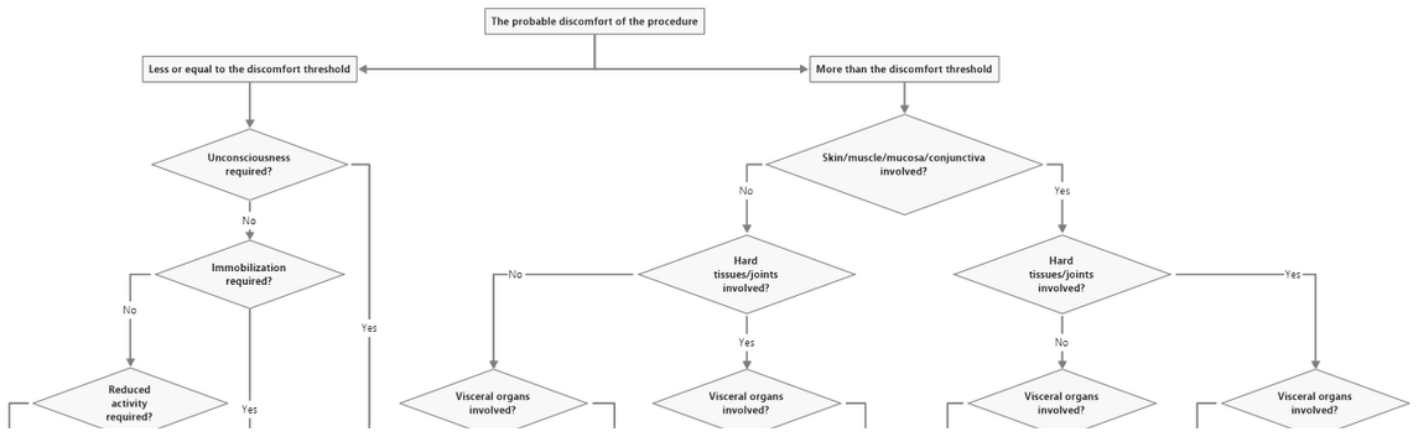


Figure 1

The LAAC system

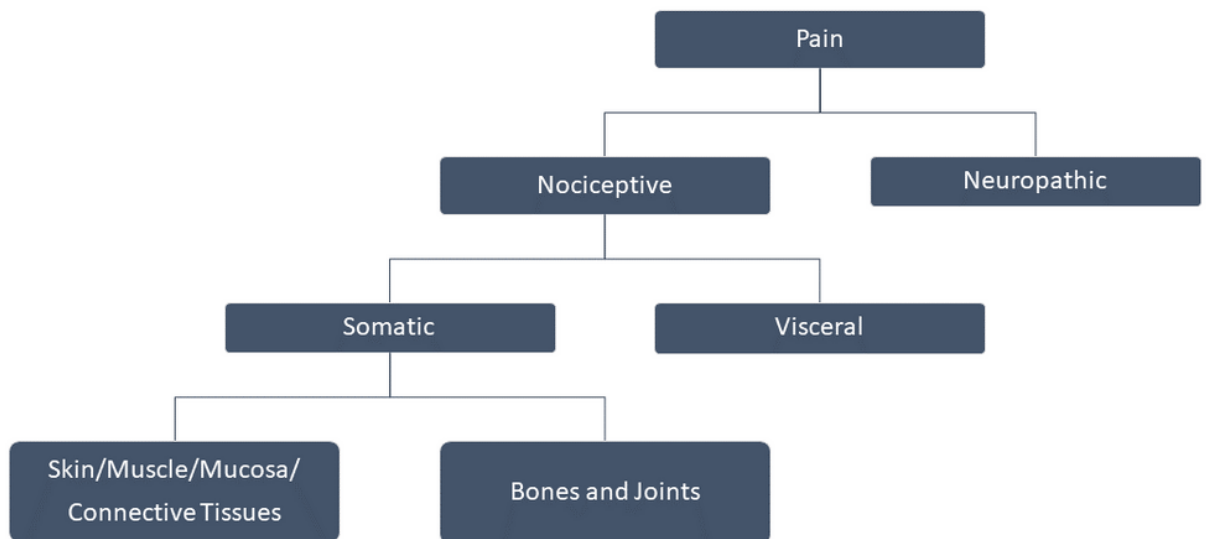


Figure 2

Classification of pain according to the type and level of pain

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [Supplement1.docx](#)