

Multimodal Dental Pain Management: Contemporary Strategies and Future Directions

Keywords

Multimodal dental pain management, Acute dental pain, Chronic orofacial pain, Opioid-sparing analgesia, NSAID-acetaminophen combination therapy, Local anesthetics and regional nerve blocks, Orofacial neuropathic pain, Temporomandibular disorders, Nonpharmacologic pain management, Behavioral and cognitive pain interventions, Photobiomodulation therapy, Transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, Dental anxiety and pain perception, Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS) in dentistry, Personalized pain management strategies

Abstract

Dental pain is one of the most prevalent and clinically significant concerns in dental practice, substantially impacting patient comfort, treatment compliance, and oral health-related quality of life. Owing to its multifactorial pathophysiology, dental pain is often inadequately controlled by single-agent analgesic approaches, which are further constrained by dose limitations, adverse effects, and growing concerns regarding opioid use. Multimodal dental pain management has therefore emerged as an evidence-based strategy that integrates pharmacologic and non-pharmacologic interventions to target multiple pain pathways simultaneously.

This narrative review discusses the rationale for multimodal analgesia in dentistry with an emphasis on optimized local anesthesia techniques, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, acetaminophen, corticosteroids, and judicious opioid sparing opioid use when indicated.

Adjunctive nonpharmacologic modalities, including behavioral and cognitive interventions, photobiomodulation, cryotherapy, transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, acupuncture, and virtual reality based distraction are also reviewed, acknowledging variability in the strength of clinical evidence supporting their use. The application of multimodal pain management across dental specialties, including oral and maxillofacial surgery, endodontics, periodontics, pediatric dentistry, orthodontics, and prosthodontics, is discussed.

Emerging trends in dental pain management focus on personalized analgesic strategies, enhanced recovery after surgery, digital health technologies, and novel analgesic formulations. Overall, multimodal dental pain management provides a comprehensive, patient-centered approach that enhances analgesic efficacy, minimizes adverse effects, reduces opioid reliance, and improves clinical outcomes in modern dental practice.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Oral health is an essential component of overall health and well-being, with conditions such as
41 dental caries, periodontal disease, and oral malignancies representing significant worldwide
42 health challenges. These conditions interfere with fundamental daily functions, including
43 mastication, speech, sleep, and social interactions, thereby adversely affecting quality of life.
44 Despite advances in preventive and restorative dentistry, oral diseases remain among the
45 leading causes of pain and healthcare utilization globally. Among these conditions, dental pain
46 is the most frequent and debilitating complaint, arising from diverse etiologies and consistently
47 impairing oral health-related quality of life.^{1,2}

48 Pain is defined as an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or
49 potential tissue injury, underscoring its multidimensional nature. Dental pain, in particular,
50 reflects the play of nociceptive, inflammatory, neuropathic, and psychosocial mechanisms.
51 Historically, its management has focused on single modality approaches, including local
52 anesthesia, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medications, acetaminophen, and short-term opioid
53 use for acute postoperative pain.^{3,4} However, these strategies are limited by issues such as
54 maximum dose thresholds, adverse effects, individual variability in response, and the risk of
55 misuse related to opioids. In a broader perioperative approach, a multimodal and collaborative
56 approach to pain control is the cornerstone of Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS),
57 eventually reducing stress responses, lowering complication rates, and supporting faster
58 recovery.^{5,6}

59 Within dentistry, multimodal dental pain management integrates pharmacological approaches
60 (e.g., combined NSAID and acetaminophen therapy, advanced local anesthetic techniques, and
61 perioperative corticosteroids), behavioral and non-pharmacological modalities. These may
62 include patient education, anxiety reduction strategies, photobiomodulation, cryotherapy,
63 transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation, acupuncture, laser-based treatments, computer-
64 guided anesthesia delivery, and rigorously formulated herbal products like TRPV1-modulating
65 dental gels.^{1,2,7} This comprehensive, patient-centered approach aims to enhance the efficacy
66 and safety of pain control, and reduce opioid dependence.

67

68 **2. Rationale for Multimodal Pain Management in Dentistry**

69 Dental pain is the most common symptom associated with a wide range of dental procedures
70 and pathologies. Patients with inflammatory pathologies experience postoperative pain after
71 clinical interventions, especially in the first 0-72 hours. This has been represented as a
72 significant unmet clinical need, where 10-20% post surgical cases described pain as severe.⁸ In
73 the majority of dental clinics, non-steroidal anti- inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) (the gold
74 standard), opioids, tramadol, and AAP are most commonly prescribed for pain control.⁹
75 However, the severity, complexity of the case, and duration of procedures may lead to
76 increased pain perception exceeding analgesic monotherapy.

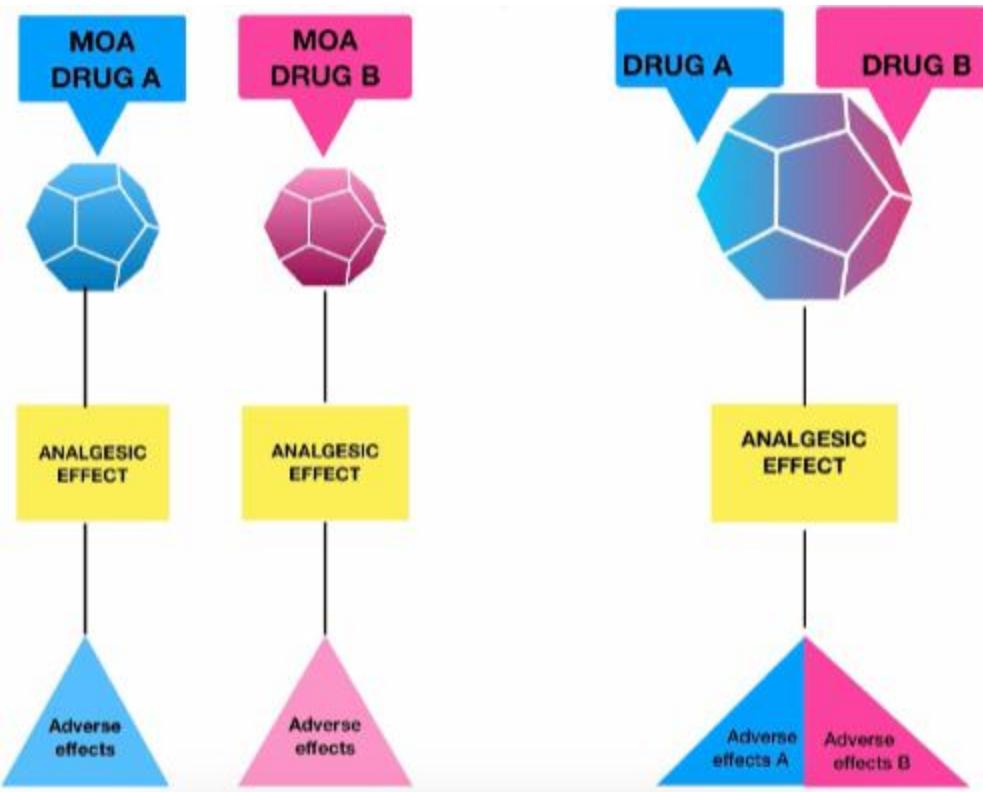
77 The complex nature of pain involves multiple pathophysiological mechanisms, including central
78 sensitization, descending pain modulation pathways, and peripheral nociceptor activation.¹⁰
79 Since transmission of pain is through multiple neural pathways, its management via distinct
80 mechanisms is more effective than targeting a single mechanism.¹⁰ Analgesic monotherapy
81 often provides pain relief in mild pain conditions, but it may be insufficient for moderate to
82 severe pain and chronic pain management. Targeting a single pain pathway often results in
83 suboptimal analgesia, whereas dose escalation of a single agent increases the risk of adverse
84 effects.

85 Opioid analgesics are limited due to side effects like nocturnal hypoxemia, respiratory
86 depression, adverse effects of addiction, various idiosyncratic reactions, and variable duration of
87 action.^{10,11} Similarly, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are not efficient in providing
88 effective pain relief for most moderate or severe pain without side effects such as
89 bleeding, gastrointestinal irritation, vomiting, sedation, and nausea.¹² Limitations of usage of
90 local anesthetics include unwanted motor blockade that interferes with rehabilitation efforts and
91 postoperative mobilization.¹¹

92 Because of this complexity, a tailored multidrug approach with different analgesics targeting
93 different pathways of pain generation and maintenance is required for optimal outcomes across
94 diverse clinical scenarios. Multimodal analgesia (MMA) addresses these limitations by
95 combining drugs with different complementary mechanisms of action, such as local anesthetics,
96 NSAIDs (non-steroidal antiinflammatory drugs), acetaminophen, and when necessary, opioids,
97 to increase the analgesic effect and reduce the drug's side effects.⁹

98 This rationale for MMA creates a synergistic effect that relieves pain while reducing the side
99 effects [Figure 1].¹³ In addition, this concept of synergism and opioid sparing management
100 aligns with principles of patient-centric care to enhance effective pain control, functional
101 recovery, and reduce treatment-related morbidity.^{10,14}

102 Oral multimodal pain management holds a significant role in reducing the intensity and quality of
103 pain when combined drug doses are used.



104

105 *Figure 1. Hypothetical explanation of pharmacological synergism as multimodal analgesic*
 106 *strategy*

107

108 **3. Contemporary Strategies in Multimodal Dental Pain Management**

109 **3.1 Pharmacologic Approaches**

110 The pharmacological approaches to treat dental pain are influenced by the availability of
 111 definitive dental treatment addressing the root cause. It must be individualized based on
 112 patient age, comorbidities, allergies, and drug history. When immediate treatment of the
 113 underlying etiology is not feasible, analgesic therapy plays a central role in symptom control
 114 while minimizing adverse effects.

115

116 Historically, opium is derived from poppy seeds, and salicin from the willow bark were used to
 117 relieve pain, and later the active ingredients morphine and aspirin were extracted, respectively.
 118 We have come a long way in understanding these drugs. The non-opioid analgesics, due to
 119 their efficacy and safety profiles, are the most commonly used analgesics in dentistry. Opioids
 120 are reserved for severe, refractory to first-line therapy or when other analgesics either fail to
 121 control the pain or are contraindicated. In several instances where a multimodal approach is
 122 required, both non-opioids and opioids are used concurrently.¹⁵

123

124 **Acute Dental Pain**

125 Acute dental pain without immediate dental treatment, and postoperative pain associated with
126 patients (above 12 years of age) who have undergone simple or surgical tooth extractions are
127 prescribed NSAIDs as first-line therapy. Common regimens include either Ibuprofen 400 mg or
128 Naproxen sodium 440 mg. To achieve enhanced analgesic efficacy, both NSAIDs with
129 acetaminophen (Ibuprofen 400mg or Naproxen Sodium 440mg and Acetaminophen 500mg)
130 are prescribed as a multimodal approach.¹⁶

131 If the pain is severe, persisting beyond two or three days, prompt management of the root
132 cause should be addressed. If the treatment option is temporarily unavailable, opioids like
133 Hydrocodone (up to 7.5 mg) or oxycodone (5 mg) with acetaminophen (325 mg) may be
134 prescribed for not more than three days. This combination could also be taken along with the
135 first-line therapy, ie, along with the NSAIDs in case of severe pain.¹⁶

136 If the patients have contraindications to NSAIDs, acetaminophen (1000 mg) is prescribed as
137 first-line therapy. If the pain is severe, the combination of acetaminophen (325 mg) with
138 Hydrocodone up to (7.5 mg) or oxycodone (5 mg) and acetaminophen (325 mg) is used for not
139 more than three days.¹⁶

140 During the Multimodal approach, adherence to the maximum recommended daily dose for
141 these medications should be taken into consideration: Ibuprofen is 2.400 mg/day, Naproxen
142 Sodium is 1,100 mg/day, and Acetaminophen is 4000 mg /day.¹⁶

143 Opioids should be prescribed with informed consent, and the adverse effects should be
144 provided to the patient in advance, which include respiratory depression, substance misuse,
145 and physiological dependence.¹⁶

146 In some instances, local anesthetics could be supplemented to mitigate the pain before other
147 analgesics come into effect. The anesthetics like Lidocaine 2% with 1:100,000 epinephrine or
148 Articaine 4% with 1:100,000, are effective for acute pain control on presentation, while longer-
149 acting agents, Bupivacaine 0.5% with 1:200,000 epinephrine or Articaine 4% with
150 1:100,000/200,000 epinephrine post-operatively.¹⁶

151

152 **Anxiety and Pain**

153 Multimodal treatment options for patients with anxiety and pain are very commonly seen in
154 every dental practice. These include local anesthetics, nitrous oxide sedation, and sedatives
155 like Benzodiazepines. This pharmacological approach has shown a substantial reduction in
156 anxiety and pain, although mild, transient side effects may occur.¹⁷

157 A combined approach with non-pharmacological methods has shown greater reductions in
158 anxiety and pain have been reported, albeit with longer recovery times in highly anxious
159 individuals.^{17,18}

160

161 **Orofacial Neuralgia**

162 Post-traumatic trigeminal neuropathic pain (PTTNP), where somatosensory nervous system
163 damage occurs due to a lesion or disease. The lesion could be due to post-endodontic
164 treatment, post-tooth extraction, or implant placement. Any branches of the trigeminal nerve
165 are affected, commonly the inferior alveolar nerve (IAN) and the lingual nerve (LN).¹⁹

166 Multimodal approach with drugs such as anticonvulsants, gabapentinoids; gabapentin (300-
167 3600 mg/day), pregabalin (150-600 mg/day), inhibits excitatory neurotransmitter release via
168 modulation of $\alpha 2 \delta$ subunit of voltage-gated calcium channels. Tricyclic antidepressants such
169 as amitriptyline (10-75mg/day) exert analgesic effects through sodium channel blockade and
170 inhibit reuptake of norepinephrine and serotonin. Benzodiazepines such as clonazepam 0.25-
171 1.5mg/day may be used selectively for associated insomnia (due to cognitive and dependence-
172 related risks). Dosages should be altered in those patients with renal or cardiovascular
173 diseases. Topical application with 5% Lidocaine patches or 0.025-0.075% Capsaicin cream
174 can also be used along with drugs as a multimodal approach.¹⁹

175 Chronic Orofacial neuropathic pain affects a patient's day-to-day activities and psychological
176 well-being. Early treatment within three months leads to a better prognosis; delayed treatment
177 leads to chronic pain resulting from central sensitization and persistent ectopic activity of the
178 nerve.¹⁹

179

180 **Temporomandibular disorders (TMD)**

181 Oro-facial pain arising from Temporomandibular disorders (TMD) could be due to degenerative
182 or musculoskeletal conditions. As an initial multimodal therapy, NSAIDs and muscle relaxants
183 such as carisoprodol, cyclobenzaprine, and metaxalone (rarely Benzodiazepines and
184 Cyclobenzaprine <10mg) are used to improve the overall well-being of the patient by improving
185 joint movement and also reducing the hyperactivity of the muscles. Selective serotonin-
186 norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) and Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) like
187 amitriptyline, nortriptyline, and desipramine have been used as second and third lines of
188 treatment options, respectively, for TMD due to their side effects. Drug interactions should be
189 taken into considerations when patients have comorbidities.²⁰

190 Opioids are used for severe pain, and the most commonly used are codeine, oxycodone, and
191 hydromorphone. Fentanyl patches are also used if medications cannot be administered orally.
192 Corticosteroids are used either orally or injected intra-articularly with a local anesthetic.²⁰

193

194 **3.2 Nonpharmacologic Modalities**

195 While pharmacologic interventions such as local anesthetics, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory
196 drugs (NSAIDs), and opioids remain central to dental pain management, contemporary
197 strategies emphasize **multimodal approaches** that integrate both pharmacologic and non-
198 pharmacologic modalities.²⁰

199 Non-pharmacologic strategies are essential components of multimodal pain management,
200 providing complementary approaches that target **sensory, cognitive, and emotional**
201 **dimensions** of pain. They help reduce nociceptive signaling, alleviate anxiety, minimize
202 physiologic stress responses, and prevent the progression from acute to chronic pain.
203 Furthermore, these interventions support opioid-sparing practices, enhancing patient safety and
204 reducing the risk of medication-related complications. This review outlines the contemporary
205 non-pharmacologic strategies employed in dental pain management, emphasizing their
206 mechanisms, applications, and clinical evidence.²¹⁻²³

207

208 **Behavioral and Psychological Interventions**

209 **a) Patient Education and Management**

210 Effective patient education is one of the most accessible and impactful non-pharmacologic
211 interventions. Studies indicate that patients who receive structured preoperative counseling,
212 regarding procedural steps, anticipated sensations, recovery timelines, and postoperative care
213 experience lower anxiety levels, pain perception and demonstrate better adherence to
214 postoperative instructions compared to those who do not receive counseling.

215 Visual aids, written instructions, and videos can complement verbal explanations, helping
216 patients anticipate sensations such as pressure, vibration, or mild discomfort. By reducing
217 uncertainty, education and expectation management modify the cognitive appraisal of pain,
218 reducing the emotional and behavioral burden associated with dental procedures.²³⁻²⁵

219 **b) Cognitive-Behavioral Strategies**

220 Cognitive-behavioral interventions, including relaxation techniques, mindfulness, guided
221 imagery, and coping skills development, directly influence how patients perceive and respond to
222 pain. For instance, guided imagery allows patients to mentally visualize calming scenarios,
223 which decreases stress hormone levels and reduces nociceptive sensitivity. Relaxation
224 techniques, including diaphragmatic breathing and progressive muscle relaxation, lower
225 sympathetic nervous system activity, which in turn decreases heart rate, blood pressure, and
226 the physiological manifestations of pain.

227 The integration of cognitive-behavioral strategies into routine dental practice are particularly
228 valuable for anxious, pediatric, or chronic pain patients, who may be more susceptible to
229 heightened pain perception. By addressing both psychological and physiological aspects of

230 pain, cognitive-behavioral strategies complement pharmacologic interventions and enhance
231 overall pain management outcomes.^{23,24}

232 **Technology-Assisted Pain Modulation**

233 **a) Low-Level Laser Therapy (LLLT)**

234 LLLT, or photobiomodulation, employs low-intensity laser light to enhance cellular metabolism,
235 modulates inflammation, and promotes tissue healing. The therapeutic effects of LLLT include
236 increased ATP production, enhanced fibroblast proliferation, and release of anti-inflammatory
237 mediators. In dental contexts, LLLT is beneficial for postoperative pain relief, mucosal lesion
238 healing, and management of TMD-related discomfort. Its non-invasive nature and minimal side
239 effect profile make it a desirable adjunct to conventional analgesics, contributing to opioid-
240 sparing multimodal strategies.^{25,26}

241 **b) Virtual Reality (VR) Distraction**

242 VR distraction utilizes immersive digital environments to divert attention from nociceptive stimuli,
243 reducing the perceived intensity of pain and anxiety. VR has been applied effectively in pediatric
244 dentistry, oral surgery, and invasive dental procedures resulting in enhanced cooperation from
245 anxious and phobic patients. VR's integration into dental practice represents a shift toward
246 leveraging technology to enhance non-pharmacologic pain modulation.²⁶

247

248 **Physical and Sensory Techniques**

249 **a) Acupuncture and Acupressure**

250 Acupuncture and acupressure have become increasingly recognized for their analgesic effects
251 in orofacial and dental pain. By stimulating specific points along meridians, these techniques
252 influence the central and peripheral nervous systems by modulating neurotransmitter release.
253 Systematic reviews indicate that acupuncture reduces both acute procedural pain and chronic
254 orofacial pain syndromes, including TMD and post-extraction discomfort. Acupuncture can be
255 combined with standard care to enhance pain control, particularly in patients with
256 contraindications to pharmacologic therapy or those who prefer integrative approaches.²⁷

257 **b) Transcutaneous Electrical Nerve Stimulation (TENS)**

258 TENS involves delivering low-voltage electrical currents to the skin overlying affected regions to
259 stimulate peripheral nerves. This technique operates through the gate control theory of pain,
260 whereby stimulation of larger sensory fibers inhibits nociceptive transmission in the spinal cord.
261 Additionally, TENS promotes the release of endogenous endorphins, contributing to analgesia.
262 In dental procedures, TENS has been shown to reduce intraoperative pain during extractions,

263 endodontic treatment, and temporomandibular disorder (TMD) therapy. It is a safe, well-
264 tolerated, and non-invasive option suitable for patients seeking adjunctive pain control.²⁸

265 **c) Cryotherapy**

266 d) Cryotherapy, or the application of localized cold, is widely utilized in post-dental
267 surgical care, particularly after tooth extractions, periodontal procedures, or
268 implant placements. Cold therapy induces vasoconstriction, slows nerve
269 conduction, and decreases tissue metabolism, reducing the inflammatory
270 response and subsequent pain. Clinical trials demonstrate that patients receiving
271 cryotherapy report significantly lower postoperative pain scores and reduced
272 analgesic consumption during the first 24–48 hours post-surgery. Cryotherapy
273 can be applied through ice packs, cold compresses, or specialized dental
274 cryotherapy devices.²⁸

275 **Rehabilitation and Supportive Practices**

276 **a) Mind–Body Interventions**

277 Yoga, meditation, and mindfulness-based stress reduction, provide additional benefits in dental
278 pain management. These interventions modulate the autonomic nervous system, reduce
279 cortisol levels, and improve patient resilience to stress and pain. Integrating mind–body
280 interventions supports a holistic approach, addressing both psychological and physical
281 components of pain, while also promoting long-term oral health by reducing stress-related TMD,
282 such as bruxism.²⁹

283 **b) Physical Therapy–Jaw Exercises**

284 Physiotherapy interventions and postoperative jaw exercises support functional recovery,
285 reduce muscle stiffness, and enhance circulation. These interventions are particularly important
286 in patients undergoing extensive oral surgery, TMD therapy, or dental implant procedures.
287 Massage, gentle stretching, and range-of-motion exercises help prevent chronic pain, maintain
288 temporomandibular joint mobility, and facilitate early return to normal function. Evidence
289 suggests that early initiation of jaw exercises is associated with improved outcomes and
290 reduced postoperative pain.³⁰

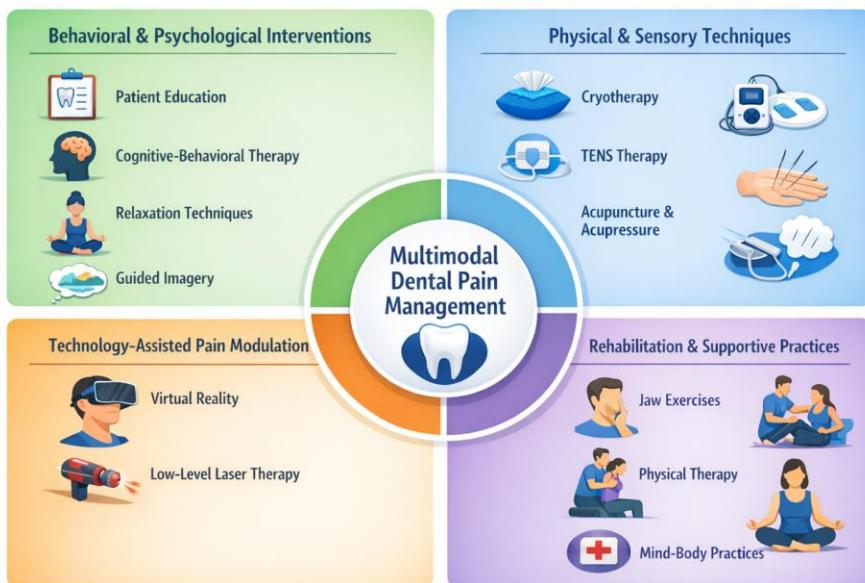
291 **Integration into Multimodal Management**

292 Nonpharmacologic modalities are valuable because they target multiple pathways of pain
293 perception, including sensory, emotional, and cognitive components. Their integration reduces
294 the overall need for systemic analgesics, especially opioids, minimizing side effects and
295 improving patient safety. Modern dental pain management prioritizes individualized, multimodal
296 strategies that combine pharmacologic and non-pharmacologic interventions. For example,
297 combining preoperative patient education with cryotherapy, VR distraction, and LLLT can

298 provide additive analgesic effects, reduce postoperative swelling, and improve overall patient
299 satisfaction, Figure 2.^{31,32}

300

Non-Pharmacologic Modalities in Dental Pain Management



301

302 *Figure 2. Nonpharmacologic Modalities in Dental Pain Management*

303

304 **4. Multimodal Pain Management Across Dental Specialties**

305

306 Multimodal pain management in different dental procedures involves the use of pharmacologic
307 agents, anesthetic techniques, minimally invasive procedures, behavioral interventions, and
308 enhanced recovery strategies (ERAs). These combined techniques optimize analgesia,
309 minimize opioid exposure, and improve patient-centered outcomes. Individual patients' pain
310 perception, nature of procedures vary considerably across dental specialties; therefore, pain
311 management protocols must be tailored according to specialty-specific clinical demands while
312 adhering to opioid-sparing principles.

313

314 **Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery**

315 Oral and maxillofacial surgery involves extensive soft- and hard-tissue manipulation. This
316 requires robust perioperative pain control. Multimodal strategies often use NSAIDs and
317 acetaminophen with regional anesthesia. Opioids are limited to situations where indicated.³⁵
318 The ibuprofen–acetaminophen combination provides superior postoperative analgesia.³⁴
319 Regional nerve blocks—including inferior alveolar and maxillary blocks—reduce postoperative
320 pain. Long-acting local anesthetics, such as bupivacaine (0.5% with epinephrine 1:200,000), are
321 effective for this purpose.³³
322 General anesthesia protocols often include propofol induction with inhalational nitrous oxide.³³
323 Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS) measures, minimally invasive techniques (laser-
324 assisted surgery, piezosurgery) patient-controlled analgesia, and non-pharmacologic
325 interventions further enhance early recovery and patient satisfaction.³⁶⁻³⁸

326

327 **Endodontics**

328 Endodontic pain is inflammatory and nociceptive, frequently exacerbated by anxiety. A
329 structured “3D approach” (Diagnosis, Dental treatment, and Drugs) supports effective pain
330 management.⁴³
331 NSAIDs are first-line agents, with ibuprofen-alone or combined with acetaminophen,
332 demonstrating superior efficacy in irreversible pulpitis and apical periodontitis. Acetaminophen is
333 an alternative for patients with NSAID contraindications.³⁹⁻⁴⁰
334 The inferior alveolar nerve block (IANB) remains the primary anesthetic technique for
335 mandibular teeth. Buccal infiltration with 4% articaine significantly improves anesthetic success
336 when used adjunctively with IANB.⁴¹ In cases of persistent anesthetic failure, supplemental
337 anesthetic techniques, including intraosseous (X-Tip®, Stabident®), periodontal ligament,
338 intrapulpal injections, and articaine infiltration, enhance anesthetic success.
339 Non-pharmacologic strategies, preemptive analgesia, cryotherapy, and adjuncts such as
340 corticosteroids or platelet-rich fibrin further reduce postoperative pain. Antibiotics are reserved
341 strictly for cases with systemic involvement and do not substitute for analgesics.⁴²

342 **Pharmacologic Modalities Across Dental Specialties**

343 Specialty	344 First-Line Analgesics	345 Adjuncts	346 Opioid Role
347 Oral Surgery	348 Ibuprofen + 349 acetaminophen	350 Long-acting LA, 351 corticosteroids	352 Limited, short-term

Endodontics	NSAIDs, acetaminophen	Corticosteroids, ketorolac	Refractory cases
Periodontics	NSAIDs, acetaminophen	Dexamethasone	Rare
Pedodontics	Acetaminophen, ibuprofen	Ketorolac (select cases)	Rare, supervised
Orthodontics	NSAIDs, acetaminophen	Short-term NSAID for severe pain	no routine role
Prosthodontics	NSAIDs, acetaminophen	Short-term NSAID for severe pain	no routine role

343

344 **Periodontics**

345 Periodontal procedures, ranging from nonsurgical therapy to regenerative and implant
 346 surgeries, are associated with inflammatory and procedural pain.⁴⁷
 347 Local anesthesia with vasoconstrictors remains a fundamental pain management technique,
 348 while long-acting anesthetic agents are essential following extensive surgery.⁴⁴
 349 NSAIDs and acetaminophen are first-line postoperative analgesics. Corticosteroids such as
 350 dexamethasone reduce postoperative edema and discomfort.⁴⁴
 351 Supplemental topical and intra-sulcular anesthetics (e.g., Oraqix®), intraosseous anesthesia,
 352 and minimally invasive approaches (microsurgery, laser therapy, piezosurgery) significantly
 353 reduce tissue trauma and pain.^{45,48} Sedation strategies are guided by the ASA physical status
 354 classification, with ASA I–II patients suitable for office-based care and higher-risk patients
 355 requiring additional evaluation and in hospital settings.⁴⁴

356 **Pedodontics**

357 Pediatric dental pain is influenced by developmental, emotional, and psychosocial factors.
 358 Multimodal, opioid-sparing strategies are the standard care.
 359 Acetaminophen and ibuprofen are first-line analgesics. Opioids are rarely indicated and
 360 prescribed under strict supervision.⁴⁶

361 Behavioral interventions; including distraction, parental involvement, imagery, hypnosis, and
 362 virtual reality, play a central role in pain modulation.⁴⁶

363 Preemptive analgesia and careful use of local anesthesia reduce postoperative discomfort while
 364 minimizing soft tissue injury risks associated with residual numbness.⁴⁶

365 **Nonpharmacologic Modalities**

Modality	Oral Surgery	Endodontics	Periodontics	Pedodontics
Counselling	+	+	+	+
CBT	+	+	+	+
Distraction	-	-	-	++
Hypnosis	-	-	-	+
Virtual Reality	Emerging	Emerging	Emerging	++

366 ++ = Strong evidence/primary use

367

368 **Prosthodontics and Orthodontics**

369 Prosthodontic procedures, often non-surgical, may cause pain due to prolonged chair time,
 370 tooth preparation, gingival manipulation, and occlusal modification.

371 Local anesthesia, NSAIDs, and acetaminophen form the basis of pain control, while opioids
 372 have no routine role.⁵¹

373 Occlusal adjustment is a critical pain-modulating strategy, preventing occlusal trauma,
 374 periodontal ligament inflammation, muscle hyperactivity, and temporomandibular joint
 375 discomfort.⁵²

376 Adjuncts such as dentin desensitizers, immediate dentin sealing, and occlusal splints further
 377 enhance comfort.

378 Orthodontic pain primarily results from periodontal ligament inflammation following force
379 application. Acetaminophen is preferred due to concerns regarding NSAID-related inhibition of
380 tooth movement. Short-term NSAID use may be considered for severe pain.⁴⁹

381 Non-pharmacologic modalities—including low-level laser therapy, vibrational devices (e.g.,
382 AcceleDent®), bite wafers, and patient education—play a pivotal role in improving compliance
383 and quality of life.⁵⁰

384

385 **Anesthetic and Procedural Modalities**

Specialty	Primary Anesthesia	Supplemental Techniques	Devices
Oral Surgery	Regional nerve blocks	Site infiltration	EXPAREL®, piezosurgery
Endodontics	IANB, infiltration	IO, PDL, intrapulpal	X-Tip®, Stabident®, EndoVac®
Periodontics	Infiltration, blocks	IO, intraseptal	Oraqix®, lasers
Pedodontics	Infiltration, GA (select)	Preemptive LA	The Wand®, VR tools
Prosthodontics	IANB, infiltration	IO, intraseptal	

386

387 **5. Future Directions**

388 Future advances in multimodal dental pain management are expected to emphasize precision-
389 based and patient-centered analgesic strategies. While current protocols largely rely on
390 standardized combinations of non-opioid analgesics, local anesthetics, and adjunctive agents,
391 growing evidence supports tailoring pain control regimens according to individual patient
392 characteristics, including genetic variability, psychological status, systemic comorbidities, and
393 prior pain experiences. The integration of biopsychosocial pain assessment tools alongside
394 conventional numerical rating scales may enhance analgesic efficacy and reduce the transition
395 from acute postoperative pain to chronic orofacial pain syndromes.⁵³

396 Digital health technologies are anticipated to play a transformative role in future pain
397 management models. Wearable biosensors, mobile pain-tracking applications, and electronic
398 patient-reported outcome measures may facilitate continuous pain monitoring and enable real-
399 time adjustment of analgesic regimens. In parallel, artificial intelligence–driven decision-support

400 systems may assist clinicians in predicting analgesic response, optimizing multimodal drug
401 combinations, and minimizing opioid exposure, aligning dental pain management with broader
402 public health efforts to reduce opioid-related morbidity.⁵³

403 From a procedural standpoint, the adoption of enhanced recovery after surgery (ERAS)-based
404 protocols within dental and maxillofacial surgery is likely to expand. These pathways integrate
405 multimodal pharmacologic analgesia with regional nerve blocks, perioperative patient education,
406 and early functional rehabilitation. Emerging data suggest that ERAS-informed multimodal
407 strategies can significantly reduce postoperative pain intensity, shorten recovery time, and
408 improve patient satisfaction following invasive dental procedures, including orthognathic and
409 implant surgery.⁵⁴

410 Ongoing research into novel analgesic combinations and delivery systems also represents an
411 important future direction. Fixed-dose multimodal formulations, such as low-dose opioid-NSAID
412 combinations, demonstrate effective analgesia with improved safety profiles compared to
413 traditional opioid monotherapy. Continued clinical trials are required to establish optimal dosing,
414 long-term safety, and comparative effectiveness in routine dental practice.¹⁰

415 Finally, the role of non-pharmacological adjuncts, including cognitive-behavioral interventions,
416 photobiomodulation, cryotherapy, and virtual-reality-based distraction techniques, warrants
417 further exploration. When combined with pharmacological modalities, these approaches may
418 enhance analgesic outcomes, reduce anxiety-related pain amplification, and improve overall
419 patient experience.⁵⁴

420

421 **6. Conclusion**

422 Multimodal dental pain management marks an important shift away from traditional
423 single- drug approaches toward a more holistic, patient- focused model that better
424 reflects the multifaceted nature of dental pain. By integrating optimized local
425 anesthesia, scheduled non- opioid analgesics, behavioral support, and adjunctive
426 techniques such as laser therapy, neuromodulation, virtual reality-based
427 distraction, and evidence- supported herbal gels, clinicians can address multiple
428 pain mechanisms simultaneously. This approach improves pain control while
429 reducing dependence on opioids and other medications associated with significant
430 adverse effects and dose- limiting toxicities.

431 Emerging options, including targeted sodium channel inhibitors and
432 TRPV1- oriented formulations containing agents such as eugenol, menthol, and
433 camphor, further broaden treatment choices and align with patient interest in safer,
434 well- tolerated alternatives, provided their use is supported by sound clinical
435 evidence.^{1,7} In parallel, digital health technologies such as mobile pain- tracking
436 applications, wearable biosensors, and artificial intelligence-assisted
437 decision- support tools offer new opportunities to individualize multimodal regimens

438 according to each patient's risk profile, comorbidities, and pain trajectory.^{26,53} Future
439 progress in dental pain care will depend on personalized, multimodal strategies that
440 combine pharmacological, technological, and psychosocial interventions tailored to
441 individual patient needs and preferences.

442 Incorporating principles from Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS), such as
443 structured preoperative education, standardized opioid-sparing analgesic pathways,
444 and early return to function, can help optimize outcomes in invasive dental
445 procedures while addressing broader public health concerns related to opioid use.⁵³
446 Continued research, high-quality clinical trials evaluating fixed-dose multimodal
447 combinations and non-pharmacological adjuncts, and ongoing professional training
448 are essential to ensure these advances are effectively translated into routine
449 practice.¹⁰ Ultimately, well- designed multimodal pain management has the
450 capacity not only to improve the safety and effectiveness of dental pain relief but
451 also to enhance patient comfort, reduce dental anxiety, and support better
452 oral- health related quality of life and long- term oral health outcomes at the
453 population level.

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