

Alloknesis and hyperknesis - mechanisms, assessment methodology and clinical implications of itch sensitization

Running head: *Mechanical itch dysesthesias*

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1. Introduction

Chronic itch is a prominent symptom of numerous skin diseases, in addition to certain neuropathic and systemic conditions¹³⁵. Common conditions presenting with itch include atopic dermatitis (AD), psoriasis, post-herpetic neuralgia, kidney failure, and liver diseases^{34,148,158,159}. Similar to chronic pain, chronic itch often presents with additional somatosensory abnormalities^{10,34,65,109}. As such, patients with chronic itch are often bothered by mechanical itch dysesthesias, warmth-evoked itch exacerbations, pain, stinging, pricking and/or burning skin sensations^{10,34,45,68,140,161}. Itch dysesthesias refer to dysfunctional sensory states, in which considerable itch is evoked by light tactile stimuli (e.g. from clothing or touch), or by stimuli which would normally induce only mild itching or pain^{10,21,65,124} (Fig. 1A and B).

As early as 1938 Bickford described that immediately surrounding an itch provocation (such as a histamine skin puncture), an area where innocuous mechanical stimulation produces itch developed. He termed this phenomenon “itchy skin”³¹. The alternate, more precise term “alloknesis” was later coined by LaMotte *et al.* in 1988 when revisiting and extending on Bickford’s findings^{31,79,81}. Moreover, the term “hyperknesis” was proposed to act as an umbrella term also encompassing the state in which there is enhanced itch to normally itch-provoking stimuli or lowered itch threshold to a given stimulus^{36,79,81,131} (comparable to *hyperalgesia* for pain⁶⁴). These dysesthetic states may last for a couple of minutes to hours after an itch provocation or can be a persistent feature, as seen in patients with chronic itch due to AD^{10,63,65}. Itch-associated dysesthesias such as mechanical alloknesis and hyperknesis, are noticeably analogue to the dysesthesias found in various experimental and clinical pain conditions^{68,124,134}. For instance, while patients with painful peripheral neuropathy may report pain in response to light innocuous brush strokes applied to the skin in or around painful areas (*allodynia*), patients with chronic itch conditions frequently find such stimuli to be itchy (*alloknesis*)^{8,63,124}.

Such somatosensory reactivity patterns are caused by neuronal sensitization, and those signs associated with pain (allodynia and hyperalgesia) have been elaborately studied both mechanistically^{123,151}, and in diverse clinical cohorts (covered in detail elsewhere^{19,24,37,86,119}). Therefore, much of the present methodological, phenomenological and mechanistic evidence on mechanical allo- and hyperknesis stems from obvious parallels related to pain-associated dysesthesias as well as from preclinical and human experimental models of itch^{8,21,79,81,124,130,132}. Notably, the neurophysiology of itch transmission is highly entwined with the nociceptive system, with no clear differentiating features at the peripheral level. This has given rise to different hypotheses explaining how pruriceptive and nociceptive information coming from the same primary afferents is decoded in the CNS (see review on the subject⁸²).

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4 In pain research, highly standardized quantitative sensory testing (QST) methodology^{20,55,92,156} and
5 diverse human models of sensitization has spawned the notion of potential *sensory phenotyping* for
6 diagnostic, prognostic and therapeutic purposes^{18,22,24}. The assessment of allodynia and hyperalgesia
7 allow for surrogate measures of neuronal sensitization in itch patients. However, itch-specific QST
8 protocols are much less advanced and studied compared to pain. It remains to be explored whether
9 assessment of itch sensitization correlates is useful for the purpose of subgrouping, for instance in patients
10 with AD, akin to the sensory phenotyping being utilized within pain research^{24,46,139,157}. The purpose of
11 this review is to provide an overview of the definitions, present evidence regarding assessment
12 techniques, and mechanisms of mechanical allo- and hyperalgesia, while linking this evidence to the more
13 familiar concepts of allodynia and hyperalgesia.
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2. Definitions and terminology

Allodynia and hyperalgesia (the pain-related equivalents to alloknesis and hyperknesis) have been defined and redefined on several occasions ^{64,89,95–97,123}. The present review adheres to the IASP taxonomy task force definitions of 2008 (elaborately described by, e.g., Loeser and Treede ^{89,138}, and Sandkuhler ¹²³). These definitions are not in full agreement with the current IASP definitions (the updated version of the 1994 taxonomy⁶⁴).

Hyperalgesia (“increased pain sensitivity”) is characterized as an umbrella term describing all types of increased pain sensitivity while the term; allodynia (“pain in response to a non-nociceptive stimulus”) is restricted to scenarios where the nature of the evoking stimulus is such that it is deemed unable to activate nociceptive primary afferents ^{96,123,138}. This review uses a similar definitional principle for allo- and hyperknesis, i.e. using hyperknesis whenever there is doubt as to the prompting stimulus’ capability of activating pruriceptive afferent (See Fig. 1A and B). This is also generally in accordance with the original definitions ^{79,81}.

In the literature conflicting nomenclature is currently being used to describe allo- and hyperknesis phenomena. Some studies describe alloknesis solely as itch occurring in response to innocuous (dynamic) tactile stimuli, and hyperknesis only as itch in response to punctate pricking stimuli, which may or may not be considered mildly painful under normal conditions ^{63,111} (see Table 1). Other studies denote alloknesis as itch in response to punctate von Frey stimuli, e.g. up to 70 mN force ^{1,33,107} (i.e. far above the threshold for activating mechano-sensitive C-nociceptors). Other reports describe assessments of ‘mechanical itch sensitivity’, using von Frey filaments in chronic itch patients or after acute itch provocations, omitting the terms alloknesis or hyperknesis ^{13,75,77,78}. Discrepancies exist regarding the extent to which these stimuli are reported to produce itch under normal conditions, and sometimes this is not assessed. It has also been noted that hyperknesis could simply refer to an exaggerated response to chemical stimuli, such as increased itch following histamine, as have been observed in lesional AD skin ^{54,67,79}, but this usage has never caught on. The definitions applied in the present review prevent that a unitary occurrence, such as increased itch sensitivity to punctate mechanical stimuli or chemical itch provocations, as being classifiable as both alloknesis and hyperknesis at the same time, depending on how it is tested (threshold vs. suprathreshold assessments).

Recently, ‘alloknesis’ has been used to characterize itch and itch aggravation in response to noxious heat and innocuous warmth stimuli ^{38,102}. Future research might clarify whether gentle warming-induced itch is indeed a type of alloknesis ¹⁰² or whether it is an itch-related analogue to inflammatory hyperalgesia. The particular modality-switch dysesthesia in which itch is evoked in by algogens ⁶³ or exclusively painful

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4 stimuli, is not includable in current definitions of alloknesis and hyperknesis (See Table 1). It has been
5 observed in patients with AD, in healthy subjects with evoked contact dermatitis and in mice models
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7^{5,38,102} and is not associated with any specific term. In this review the term *algoknesis* will be applied to
8 describe this sensory phenomenon, which conceivably rely on mechanisms distinct from those of
9 hyperknesis and alloknesis. Itch in response to noxious heat, e.g. observed in AD patients will
10 accordingly be characterized as ‘heat algoknesis’.
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15 16 **3. Mechanisms of alloknesis and hyperknesis** 17 18

19 Given the similarities between itch and pain-evoked dysesthesias, it is natural that aspects of the proposed
20 underlying mechanisms are based on similar experimental approaches and inferences^{68,80,124}. Alloknesis
21 and hyperknesis typically occur within the region of an itch provocation, and in the skin immediately
22 surrounding the provocation site. Consequently, the dysesthesias are referred to as being *primary* and
23 *secondary*, respectively. Mechanistically, two potentially overlapping sensitization processes exist;
24 sensitization of spinal neurons (central sensitization) and sensitization of the peripheral neurons
25 (peripheral sensitization). In a state of central itch sensitization, pruriceptive spinothalamic tract (STT)
26 neurons respond more vigorously to normal input from pruriceptive primary neurons and afferent
27 mechanosensitive signaling, normally associated with light touch (alloknesis) or mild pain/itch
28 (hyperknesis) converges onto the STT neurons (Fig. 2A and B for models)^{82,123}. The corresponding pain
29 phenomena (i.e. secondary allodynia and hyperalgesia) also rely on sensitization of STT neurons¹³².
30 These pain dysesthesias do not cross the midline⁸³ or extend beyond a narrow anesthetized strip of skin
31⁷², are reduced or abolished by myelinated fiber blocks^{73,90,163} and are mostly unaffected by ablation of
32 capsaicin-sensitive nociceptors^{57,90,163}. This all indicates that secondary allodynia and hyperalgesia are
33 segmentally restricted, heterosynaptic, spinal sensitization phenomena which rely on initial intact input
34 from mechano-sensitive, TRPV⁻ fibers. However, in prolonged inflammatory/neuropathic pain and itch
35 states, additional or entirely different mechanisms potentially relying more on peripheral sensitization,
36 disinhibition and supraspinal changes, may also be involved^{22,84,123}. Strong indirect evidence on the close
37 link between itch and pain-evoked dysesthesias comes from experimental human psychophysical studies.
38 When a conditioning painful stimulation such as an intra-dermal capsaicin injection³⁶, or painful
39 transcutaneous electrical stimulation^{106,107} is pre-applied to a skin area it will exhibit decreased itch
40 sensitivity and inhibited itch dysesthesia development long after the spontaneous pain resolves. This may
41 in part be due to the fact that the same neuronal substrates are recruited in the sensitization processes, e.g.,
42 low-threshold mechano-receptor (LTM) input to sensitized STT nociceptive and pruriceptive projection
43 neurons are likely responsible for allodynia and alloknesis, respectively. Remarkably, in patients with
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4 chronic itch associated with AD, substantial itch and pain can co-exist in lesional skin ^{10,140} and the same
5 is true for robust mechanical hyperalgesia and hyperknesis ¹⁰.
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9 **3.1 Alloknesis:** In non-human primates, injection of histamine results in a small number of pruriceptive
10 STT neurons exhibiting increased responses to stroking (alloknesis), or to a punctate skin stimulus
11 (hyperknesis), evoking mild pricking pain sometimes followed by itch in humans ^{43,129}. As outlined
12 above, itch evoked by brush strokes represents a central sensitization phenomenon of wide dynamic range
13 STT neurons resulting from an initial PmC or C-mechano-insensitive (CMi)-mediated pruriceptive
14 barrage (see Fig. 2A and Table 1). This is circumstantially supported by the fact that the primary afferent
15 substrate for light touch is LTMs (A β - and C-tactile fibers) and that this type of stimulation rarely results
16 in itch under normal conditions. In this context, it is important to note that in trigeminally innervated
17 areas very low intensity mechanical stimuli (such as those used to assess alloknesis or minute vibration of
18 a vellus hair), are sufficient to produce an itch or tickle sensation ^{11,49}. Remarkably, the same trigeminal
19 skin areas exhibits decreased sensitivity to common chemical itch provocations ^{11,49,91}. A recent rodent
20 study quantifying alloknesis by low intensity von Frey filaments suggested that mechanically evoked itch
21 might be mediated by LTMs, and showed that such itch is constantly gated by a subpopulation of
22 inhibitory neuropeptide Y⁺ interneurons under normal conditions ³³. Experiments on allodynia in non-
23 human primates show that capsaicin-induced mechanical allodynia occurs in the absence of increased
24 sensitivity of the nociceptive primary afferents ²⁷, while STT neurons exhibited enhanced responsiveness
25 to normal input ¹³²; thus strongly suggesting central sensitization and subsequent increased convergence
26 to be the driving mechanism. It has recently been shown that not only the STT but also the
27 spinoparabrachial pathway is involved in ascending itch transmission ¹⁰¹. It remains unknown whether
28 these projection neurons are also involved in mediation of itch sensitization. A large proportion of
29 neurons in both the STT and spinoparabrachial pathway express the neurokinin-1 receptor ¹³⁷. When these
30 neurons are selectively ablated robust inhibition of alloknesis is observed AD mice ⁶, thus potentially
31 implicating both ascending pathways.
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34 Notably, areas of alloknesis (and allodynia) rapidly retract when cooling the site of spontaneous itch/pain
35 indicating that at least weak constant pruriceptive C-nociceptor input is required ^{111,131}. This observation
36 aligns with evidence from chronic itch patients where alloknesis is restricted to lesional and peri-lesional
37 skin ⁶³. Pharmacological modulation studies in mice and humans show that the μ -antagonist naltrexone
38 inhibits itch and the development of alloknesis ^{1,58,116}, while systemic μ -agonist analgesics generally
39 induce or aggravates itch and exhibits anti-allodynic effects ^{30,74,125}. The exact spinal circuitry that
40 mediates secondary alloknesis, hyperknesis as well as secondary pain dysesthesias remains to be fully
41 explored. See Peirs *et al.* 2016 for a review of recent advances ¹¹².
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6 **3.2 Hyperknesis:** The mechanisms of hyperknesis are less clear, and it remains unknown which type of
7 afferents mediate the mild itch resulting from punctate stimuli ^{49,66}. Hyperknesis is possibly mediated by
8 type-I A δ -fibers through a central mechanism when occurring secondarily to an itch provocation or an
9 actively itchy skin lesion, as is the case for secondary pinprick hyperalgesia (Fig. 2B). On the other hand,
10 itch evoked by pricking stimuli occurs with a 0.5-2 second delay ^{13,65}, indicating PmC-fibers as the
11 peripheral sensor (Table 1). When pinprick hyperknesis occurs within an active skin lesion or an area
12 pretreated with an itch provocation, additional peripheral contribution is possible ^{10,63,65}. In the case of an
13 inflammatory perturbation, mechanically insensitive afferents can develop *de novo* mechanosensitivity
14 and mechano-nociceptors respond more vigorously to suprathreshold stimuli ^{17,98,117}. In chronically itchy
15 AD lesions (and to a lesser extent beyond the lesions) profound pinprick-evoked hyperknesis occurs,
16 suggesting concomitant peripheral and central sensitization contributions ^{10,65,75}. A sub-population of
17 nociceptors potentially responsible for punctate mechanically evoked itch are the non-peptidergic mas-
18 related G-coupled protein receptor D (MrgprD)-expressing C-fibers. These terminate very superficially in
19 the epidermis ¹⁶⁴, are implicated in non-histaminergic itch ⁸⁷, have low mechanical thresholds ¹⁵², and are
20 sensitized to punctate stimuli in a mouse model of contact dermatitis ¹¹⁷. The same contact dermatitis
21 model also produces robust pinprick hyperknesis in humans ¹¹¹. In AD, intra- and extra-lesional itch
22 sensitization to chemical provocations (allogens ⁶³ and pruritogens ^{10,56,67,75,136}), is mechanistically
23 unaccounted for, possibly reflecting protracted cutaneous aberrations. A study has suggested altered
24 transducer expression, e.g. increased proteinase-activated receptor-2 (PAR2) on afferent nerve fibers in
25 lesional AD skin ¹³⁶. It is unlikely that current acute human models of itch sensitization mimic the sensory
26 aberrations associated with prolonged or chronic inflammatory lesional and related skin alterations ^{8,65}.
27 Notably, inflammatory heat hyperalgesia is overwhelmingly driven by peripheral sensitization ⁹⁸, but this
28 is rather different from the sensory abnormalities found in lesional AD skin ⁶⁵, where normally painful
29 heat stimuli evoke itch, and innocuous warming of the skin often exacerbates ongoing itch ¹⁰. The latter
30 observation has been successfully reproduced in rodent itch models and is thought to predominantly occur
31 following provocations with specific pruritogens such as serotonin ^{53,102}. Human surrogate models known
32 to induce sub-acute peripheral pain sensitization, such as UVB-damage (inflammatory) and intra-dermal
33 NGF (non-inflammatory), both induce mild primary pinprick hyperknesis at baseline but have limited
34 impact on chemical itch provocations ¹⁶. The well-studied mechanical hyperalgesia of these models differs
35 from that of intradermal capsaicin, as it is driven by peripheral sensitization and associated with
36 no/limited spontaneous pain. According to one study, the NGF model do evoke increased sensitivity to
37 cowhage occurring simultaneously with the maximal mechanical hyperalgesia, indicative of sensitization
38 of PmC-fibers ^{71,121}.

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4 A complicating factor in term of understanding hyperknesis, is that the manner in which itch and pain are
5 differentially encoded (allowing PmC-nociceptors to be both pruriceptive and nociceptive), remains
6 unknown. If the proposed notion of *spatial contrast* is indeed a crucial encoding component for
7 discrimination between itch and pain ^{103,104}, then the mechanism for hyperknesis in lesional skin of
8 patients with itch could simply be either be highly scattered loss of PmC-fibers (as indicated by nerve
9 morphology studies in chronic itch patients ¹¹⁴), or sensitization of a small subset of PmC-fibers. Both of
10 these scenarios would likely increase itch in response to pinprick stimuli by giving rise to signaling with
11 unusually high spatial contrast.
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19 **4. Quantitative assessment of mechanical alloknesis and hyperknesis**

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22 **4.1 Animal studies:** Alloknesis is assessed by eliciting scratching in response to low intensity mechanical
23 stimuli that would not normally elicit scratching for instance in C57BL/6 mice (Table 2) ¹. After
24 intradermal injection of certain pruritogens into the rostral back, a very weak von Frey filament (0.7 mN)
25 is applied to the skin area around the injection site. The presence or absence of an evoked hind limb
26 scratch bout directed toward a site of innocuous touch is noted. Touch-evoked scratching is usually
27 observed less than a second after the stimulus. Pharmacological validation of this assessment method has
28 been done by showing effective abolishment of alloknesis after treatment with opioid antagonists,
29 selective κ -opioid-agonists and H1 histamine antagonists (when the chemical itch provocation is
30 histamine-dependent) ^{1,2,58}. The onset of alloknesis is often delayed relative to the onset of chemically
31 evoked scratching, implying that substantial constant itch input is required to develop alloknesis. Touch-
32 evoked scratching after innocuous stimuli is also present in experimental mouse models of chronic itch
33 (Table 2). In humans alloknesis is often assessed by brush strokes (*section 4.2*) and although brush-
34 evoked scratching has not yet been reported in rodents, pruriceptive signaling in response to brush stimuli
35 is enhanced following an intrathecal injection of morphine in rat pruriceptive trigeminothalamic tract
36 neurons ¹⁰⁰.
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49 Mechanical hyperknesis has not been clearly established in rodents, due to the lack of a standardized
50 method to assess a mechanical itch threshold in naive rodents. Mechanically evoked itch in response to
51 graded stimulation, peaks below the force of the mechanical pain threshold in humans (as well as the
52 minimum force normally required to activate PmC-nociceptors) ^{11,65}. Additionally, the relationship
53 between mechanical force and evoked itch intensity follows an inverted U-shaped curve. One study
54 reported that few scratch bouts were elicited by application of graded von Frey filaments in naive mice ³³,
55 but even with the most effectively itch evoking von Frey filament force (0.7 mN) scratch bouts were only
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4 elicited in response to less than 15% of the stimuli. A fundamental difference regarding the quantification
5 of itch is that animal readouts are always scratch-dependent. Oppositely, humans can easily rate an
6 evoked itch sensation, which is so mild that it would rarely elicit an actual scratch. In human studies this
7 is almost always the case for the mechanically evoked itch in healthy skin^{9,65,77}. Lastly, as there are
8 rodent strain differences in mechanical sensitivity⁹⁹, the mechanical itch thresholds should be assessed in
9 each strain tested. Outbred mouse strains might not be suitable for pre-clinical studies of mechanical itch
10 due to their genetic heterogeneity.
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4.2 Human experimental studies: Using human surrogate models of acute and sub-acute itch, detailed
18 assessments of allo- and hyperknesis to mechanical stimuli can be undertaken (Table 2). Intradermal
19 injection, a skin prick, or iontophoretic delivery of a pruritogen such as histamine, mucunain, or serotonin
20 evokes acute itch lasting 5-20 minutes^{8,62,131}. During, or as the itch subsides, the *spatial* extent of
21 alloknesis and hyperknesis can be assessed by stimulating the skin surrounding the injection site
22 ^{66,111,131,149}. Alloknesis is commonly assessed using a light brush, while hyperknesis is often assessed with
23 a pinprick stimulator or von Frey monofilaments^{66,111}. Typically, stimuli are delivered in small
24 increments (0.5-2 cm) following multiple vectors moving from well away from the injection site and
25 towards it. The subjects are asked to notify the investigator when the stimuli turn from producing pure
26 innocuous tactile sensations into itch (alloknesis) or from a pricking/slightly itchy to evoking noticeably
27 more itch (hyperknesis)¹³¹. This procedure can be repeated in short succession (as areas of alloknesis and
28 hyperknesis are dynamic) to decrease variability and produce an accurate spatial mapping of the extent of
29 allo- or hyperknesis. The drawbacks are that it is: 1) time consuming; 2) vulnerable to false positives (a
30 control is always required); and 3) relies on a localized initial itch provocation (making it difficult to
31 apply to endogenously evoked itch in patients). Alternatively, the *intensity* of the allo- and/or hyperknesis
32 can be assessed in the immediate vicinity of an itch provocation^{11,63,75,111}. Here, the stimulation is
33 conducted several times, with multiple intensities close to the itch provocation site, but usually not
34 immediately on the bleb or wheal. The subject is asked to rate the presence and/or the intensity of the
35 mechanically evoked itch^{10,63,67}. The intensity, or simply the presence of alloknesis, can be quantified in
36 response to brush strokes or cotton wool stimuli and the intensity of hyperknesis in response to von Frey
37 or pin prick stimuli^{11,63}. Evidence suggests that punctate stimuli around or immediately below the
38 pinprick pain threshold are most effective, and do also occasionally produce mild itch in unaffected skin.
39 This method is faster than the area approach but does not detect the spatial outline of the assessed
40 dysesthesias and relies on the subject providing a magnitude rating rather than simply a shift in
41 perception. On the other hand, the method lends itself more readily to be used, e.g. on lesional, peri-
42 lesional, or non-lesional skin in patients^{10,65,75,78}. Both methods can be used to assess different itch
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4 provocations or interventions as well as to assess the temporal development of itch dysesthesias. These
5 methods are entirely paralleled by the techniques used in pain research ^{120,130}, where experimentally
6 provoked allodynia and hyperalgesia have been extensively studied. In pain research, these methods have
7 been used for instance in an attempt to measure objective correlates of central sensitization ³⁵, or to
8 characterize the peripheral nociceptors involved in induction of long-term potentiation-like pain
9 facilitation ⁵⁷.
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16 **4.3 Clinical studies:** Several studies have performed explorative assessments of allo- and hyperknesis in
17 patients with chronic itch in both lesional and non-lesional skin areas as well as before and after
18 experimental itch elicitation (Table 3). Generally, one of two methods have been applied in previous
19 studies: 1) alloknesis or hyperknesis have been assessed in lesional and/or non-lesional skin of patients
20 using an intensity approach, i.e. patients and healthy controls are requested to rate if, and how much itch
21 they perceive in response to selected mechanical stimuli (brush, wool fibers or pinprick) ^{10,65,75}; 2) patients
22 and controls receive an itch provocation, e.g., histamine or electrically induced itch, in non-lesional skin
23 (homologous areas for controls) and subsequently the area of allo- or hyperknesis is mapped as described
24 in *Section 4.2* ^{66,147,149}. A few studies have used the spatial extent method outlined above only after an
25 experimental itch induction has been conducted ^{147,149}, excluding the detection of potential baseline
26 differences between chronic itch patients compared to healthy controls ⁶³. Both chronic itch and pain may
27 lead to generalized somatosensory changes and thus even seemingly unaffected areas are not necessarily
28 suitable control areas ^{52,75,77}. For instance, increased hyperknesis, increased mechanical pain sensitivity
29 and facilitated itch responses to cowhage provocations were recently observed in non-lesional skin in
30 patients with AD, compared to homologous skin areas in matched controls ¹⁰. Particularly when
31 stimulations are performed in patients with inflammatory skin disorders, barrier alterations must be
32 considered as potential as biasing factors completely unrelated to cutaneous neuronal sensitivity. For
33 instance, pinprick perception might be altered in lichenified skin ¹⁰, responses to chemical provocations
34 delivered by iontophoresis might be exaggerated in excoriated areas with reduced barrier integrity, and
35 the temporal profile of evoked itch might be affected by increased or reduced vasomotor reactions to
36 pruritogens by affecting local tissue clearance ^{11,67}.
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54 **5. The applicability of itch dysesthesia assessments**

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58 **5.1 Mechanical itch dysesthesias in patients:** Despite diverse assessment methodology clinical studies
59 of alloknesis and hyperknesis demonstrate a relatively consistent pattern of results (Table 3). Most studies
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4 have been performed in patients with chronic itch due to AD. When quantifying the spatial extent of
5 allodynia or hyperknesis following an itch provocation in non-lesional skin, AD patients do not develop
6 larger areas of mechanical dysesthesias than healthy controls^{59,66,147,149}. However, it is evident that when
7 using the intensity quantification approach both robust allodynia and hyperknesis occur in lesional AD
8 skin^{10,63,65,75}, whereas good evidence is lacking from other chronic itch conditions. Results from studies
9 applying the intensity quantification approach without prior itch provocation in non-lesional skin of
10 patients with AD are more inconsistent. A single study assessing allodynia found no evidence of it
11 occurring in non-lesional AD skin⁶³. Allodynia has previously been described in case-studies of
12 neuropathic itch patients as occurring peri-focally, restricted to areas of moderate to severe itch^{7,15}, and is
13 likely more or less dependent on ongoing spontaneous itch nearby^{111,131}. With regards to hyperknesis in
14 AD, Ikoma *et al.* 2004, documented significant lesional and peri-lesional hyperknesis in response to
15 weighted needle stimulation, while Laarhoven *et al.* 2007 and Andersen *et al.* 2017 observed significant
16 hyperknesis in both lesional and non-lesional skin probed using von Frey stimulators (see Table 3).
17 Significant inter-variability in the severity of hyperknesis seems evident amongst patients with AD,
18 possibly indicating the existence of patient subgroups with high vs. low mechanical itch sensitization
19 (Fig. 3A and B)¹⁰. Extra-lesional hyperknesis appears to almost exclusively occur in patients also
20 displaying hyperknesis in lesional skin (Fig. 3C and D)¹⁰. In painful peripheral neuropathy a well-
21 characterized sensory sub-phenotype is characterized by prominent mechanical hyperalgesia, e.g., to
22 pinprick stimuli²⁴. This particular subgroup is proposed to have increased analgesic responses to sodium-
23 channel blockers and gabapentinoids^{24,47}.

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39 **5.2 Disinhibition as a cause of itch sensitization:** Itch, akin to pain, is under both segmental and
40 supraspinal descending inhibitory control^{26,94}. The former is clearly evident from the itch relieve
41 obtainable by homotopic or perilesional counter-stimuli such as scratching or heat^{14,160}, while the latter
42 has been shown using conditioned itch modulation paradigms in patients and healthy controls⁷⁶ (an
43 approach adapted from psychophysical pain research^{108,154}). It is unclear whether blunted responsiveness
44 in either of these endogenous inhibitory systems contributes to itch dysesthesias in chronic itch patients.
45 However, indications of both reduced segmental inhibition^{69,127} (Fig. 2C), and impaired descending itch
46 inhibition have been reported⁷⁶. Such assessments have been performed with mostly non-validated
47 psychophysical methodology. A recent experimental study in healthy human volunteers indicates that
48 pain-evoked recruitment of descending inhibitory signaling diminishes not only itch but also the
49 development of hyperknesis following electrically induced itch¹². This is in line with evidence from the
50 pain field showing that conditioned pain stimulation reduces the intensity of secondary brush-evoked
51 allodynia¹⁵⁰ following intradermal injection of capsaicin. Given the severity of partially self-inflicted
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4 lesions and cutaneous pain co-existing with itch in AD ^{10,34,109,140}, it is not unreasonable to suspect blunted
5 pain-evoked inhibition in this condition as a previous implied ^{65,69}. This is likely caused by spinal
6 disinhibition of itch; e.g., peripheral antinociceptive endogenous opioid expression is decreased in
7 inflammatory itch conditions and as pain thresholds are usually normal ¹⁰. Validated psychophysical
8 assessment methods are needed before it can be established whether dysfunctional segmental or
9 supraspinal descending itch inhibition is a feature in chronic itch conditions. Reduced descending pain
10 inhibition measured by conditioned pain modulation (CPM) paradigms, has been found in numerous
11 chronic pain conditions and is implicated in the pain progression ^{52,110,154,155}. Notably, the effect of drugs
12 enhancing endogenous pain inhibition, such as duloxetine, can be predicted by CPM, in that low CPM-
13 responses correlate with increased analgesia ¹⁵⁷.

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23 **5.3 Itch sensitization to non-mechanical provocation modalities:** In rodents, innocuous warming
24 aggravates serotonergic but not histaminergic itch ⁵. AD patients consistently report that their itch is
25 worsened by warmth ^{10,51,142}. However, in acute human models of itch such findings are not reproduced,
26 potentially because studies have almost exclusively relied on histaminergic itch provocations not
27 mimicking itch in AD ^{14,48}. While studies on itch in response innocuous thermal stimulation in AD are
28 inconclusive, heat algoknesis has been documented in patients with AD. Heat stimuli in the noxious range
29 applied in lesional skin of patients with AD have been shown to induce itch even when such stimuli were
30 consistently rated as evoking only heat pain in the healthy controls ⁶⁵. Similar observations have been
31 made in a human model of contact dermatitis itch ¹¹¹. For electrically induced itch the evidence is
32 contradictory, with studies showing both no differences in itch ratings between chronic itch patients vs.
33 healthy controls, as well as studies showing significant sensitization in itch patients ^{66,78,162}. Itch
34 sensitization to chemical provocations with pruritogens ^{10,67,144} is the most studied phenomenon. While it
35 is beyond the scope of the current review to summarize this extensive literature, it appears that evidence
36 supports at least two central findings: 1) there is limited sensitization to histaminergic itch provocations,
37 perhaps beyond mild sensitization occurring intra-lesionally ^{67,143,144}, and 2) recent studies indicate
38 increased intra- as well as extra-lesional sensitivity to cowhage-evoked itch ^{10,56,113}. However, a
39 systematic assessment of studies on sensitization to various chemical itch provocations in chronic itch
40 patients is needed before more definite conclusions can be drawn. Notably, algoknesis to chemical pain
41 provocations is well documented. In lesional skin of patients with AD common algogens such as
42 acetylcholine ⁶⁰, low pH-solution ⁶⁵ and bradykinin ⁶³ predominantly evokes itch whereas they mostly or
43 exclusively evokes pain in healthy controls. Conversely, histamine, which is considered a quintessential
44 pruritogen, has been shown to acts as an algogen in patients with chronic post-herpetic neuralgia ²⁵.
45 Pruriceptive C-nociceptors are prone to tachyphylaxis after repeated chemical stimulations ^{3,85}. Hence, in
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4 chronic inflammatory itch conditions, sensitization of pruriceptive units probably include mechanisms by
5 which tachyphylaxis is counteracted, which would contribute to maintaining prolonged itch
6 exacerbations. A proposed mechanism hereof is that local tissue acidosis (associated with inflammation)
7 enhances pruriceptive signaling by co-opting acid-sensing ion channel 3⁷⁰.
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12 **5.4 The potential implications of measuring itch sensitization:** For many patients with chronic itch,
13 allo- and hyperknesis are highly bothersome symptoms that prompt, maintain or worsen scratch bouts and
14 impose behavioral restrictions, including avoidance of wearing certain fabrics or staying away from warm
15 environments^{10,28,34,141}. It is not clinically feasible to implement microneurographic recordings from
16 peripheral neurons and assessing sensitization directly in spinal nociceptive circuitry is impossible in
17 humans. Instead, by using QST, the severity and spatial extent of itch dysesthesias and hypersensitivity to
18 various sensory stimuli can be psychophysically measured in individual patients^{8,10,65,144}. Based on case
19 descriptions, mapping of allo/hyperknesis has been found useful as a means to locate an itch
20 hypersensitive area on normally appearing skin^{7,15}.
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29 Within the pain research area, assessment of sensitization using standardized QST and advanced sensory
30 paradigms, such as temporal summation of pain and conditioned pain modulation, have been shown to be
31 useful for instance in predicting treatment response to pharmaceutical and surgical interventions
32 ^{24,46,115,157}. Notably, recent studies have shown that mechanistic subgrouping of neuropathic pain patients
33 based on assessment of, e.g., mechanical and thermal hyperalgesia may result in improved treatment
34 response rates^{46,93}. Such studies have not yet been undertaken in patients with chronic itch, but it is clear
35 that centrally acting antipruritics can be of use in otherwise refractory patients^{40,116}. Moreover, a recent
36 study proposed that prolonged itch and micro-vascular reactions to cowhage and histamine provocations
37 might act as diagnostic indicators of AD, being of potential value in atypical/mild cases⁵⁶. Currently, the
38 clinical utility of assessing alloknesis and hyperknesis as well as itch sensitization in general (e.g.
39 sensitization to chemical provocations) remains to be explored. Antipruritic therapeutic measures should
40 focus on reducing local inflammation and targeting the underlying cause when possible. In contrast to
41 chronic pain, chronic itch is mainly regarded as a symptom of an underlying disease rather than as a
42 disease itself. However, chronic itch also presents in absence of any recognized disease processes, in
43 which case it is often denoted as chronic idiopathic pruritus^{29,153}. Disease measures such as lesional
44 severity in AD correlates surprisingly poorly with the itch and cutaneous pain that the individual patients
45 report^{41,146}. An analogue mismatch between pathological findings and pain symptoms is commonly
46 observed in pain conditions^{19,50}. It could be hypothesized that chronic itch patients with inflammatory
47 dermatoses displaying no signs of itch sensitization, for instance no allo-/hyperknesis nor increased
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4 responses to chemical provocation in non-lesional skin, would respond adequately to peripherally acting
5 anti-inflammatory and immune-modulatory drugs. On the other hand, patients exhibiting significant intra-
6 and extra-lesional itch sensitization, could benefit more from additional therapeutics inhibiting central
7 itch processing as well as sensitization ⁶⁷. Evidence from the pain field suggests that centrally acting
8 pharmacotherapy inhibiting central hyper-excitability in addition to cognitive behavioral-, stress-relief- or
9 exercise therapies might be effective in reducing sensitization. Relevant pharmaceuticals include NMDA-
10 receptor antagonists, opioids, tricyclic antidepressants, selective-serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI),
11 serotonin noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors and gabapentinoids ^{23,24,39,105}. Notably, despite a scarcity of
12 RCTs with itch relieving drugs, both SSRIs and gabapentinoids have antipruritic effects in certain itch
13 conditions while opioids (μ -agonists) are well known to induce itch ¹¹⁶. Several studies have associated
14 psychophysical measures of pain sensitization with treatment outcome following both pharmaceutical and
15 surgical interventions ^{46,93,115,157}. Such data is currently lacking in the context of itch and it is unclear
16 whether similar mechanistic inferences can be drawn from itch sensitivity testing. While allodynia and
17 hyperknesis are commonly referred to as prominent features of chronic itch conditions ^{124,134}, they have
18 thus far only been sparsely studied in other chronic itch patients groups than AD ^{59,65,75,77,144}. Assessing
19 the clinical utility of itch sensitivity quantification requires developing a standardized, compact
20 psychophysical test battery designed to detect and measure itch sensitization in patients ⁹². Such tests need
21 to be based on, and optimized in accordance with, advances in our mechanistic understanding of itch and
22 itch sensitization to mechanical and other types of stimuli. Concerns have recently been expressed
23 regarding the degree to which the nociceptors responsible for spontaneous pain, for instance in
24 neuropathic conditions, are specifically testable with currently applied sensory assessment protocols ^{32,126}.
25 Data from pain patient cohorts obtained by QST paradigms such as sensory pain thresholds does only
26 occasionally correlate well with the reported clinical pain ^{118,126,133,157}. As similar caveats might adhere to
27 itch sensitivity assessments, it is by no means a foregone conclusion that sensory testing is clinically
28 useful in the context of chronic itch.
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4 **6. Conclusion**
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8 Cutaneous dysesthesias associated with itch and pain are strikingly similar, and can be assessed by similar
9 sensory testing techniques, acting as proxy measures of sensitization. For pain, assessment of allodynia
10 and hyperalgesia are ubiquitous in probing the nociceptive system in preclinical, experimental, and
11 clinical settings. Clinically, this may be used to inform/predict responsiveness to treatment. In contrast,
12 assessment of itch-associated dysesthesias has only been marginally studied. Quantifying allodynia and
13 hyperknesis provides behavioral or psychophysical proxies of itch sensitization which can be performed
14 in animal and human surrogate models of itch, as well as in patients. This review provides a
15 comprehensive overview of: 1) the definitions and purported mechanisms of allodynia and hyperknesis
16 and their analogy to pain sensitization phenomena; 2) the methods by which allodynia and hyperknesis
17 can be quantified in preclinical, human experimental and clinical studies; 3) results derived from studies
18 of allodynia and hyperknesis in chronic itch patients, and; 4) the potential clinical utility and challenges
19 of detecting and measuring itch sensitization. Measuring and distinguishing between allodynia and
20 hyperknesis with currently available methods is not a trivial task, and much remains unknown regarding
21 neurophysiology of itch sensitization, and the interaction between itch and pain. Psychophysical studies in
22 patients suffering from chronic itch have repeatedly shown mechano-sensory aberrations compatible with
23 itch sensitization. However, these phenomena have only been sparsely documented in diseases other than
24 AD. Further research needs to examine the mechanisms of itch sensitization, how current assessment
25 methods can be optimized, why sensitization characteristics are pronounced only in certain patients within
26 the same itch condition, and whether these psychophysical tests can be utilized clinically.
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4 **Figure legends**
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7 **Figure 1 – Conceptual illustrations of the sensitized state constituting alloknesis (A), hyperknesis and**

8 **algoknesis (B).** **A)** Alloknesis comprises a switch in perception of a normally innocuous stimulus such as light
9 stroking of the skin, which additionally or alternatively becomes itch evoking. **B)** Hyperknesis comprises a leftward
10 shift in the stimulus-response curve for a normally itching stimulus while the modality-switch phenomenon in which
11 a predominantly pain-evoking stimulus is perceived as itching is herein referred to as ‘algoknesis’ (marked with §).
12 The stimulus intensity scale (marked with *) on the x-axis of plot A is not continuous and far from all modalities
13 evoke both itch and pain.
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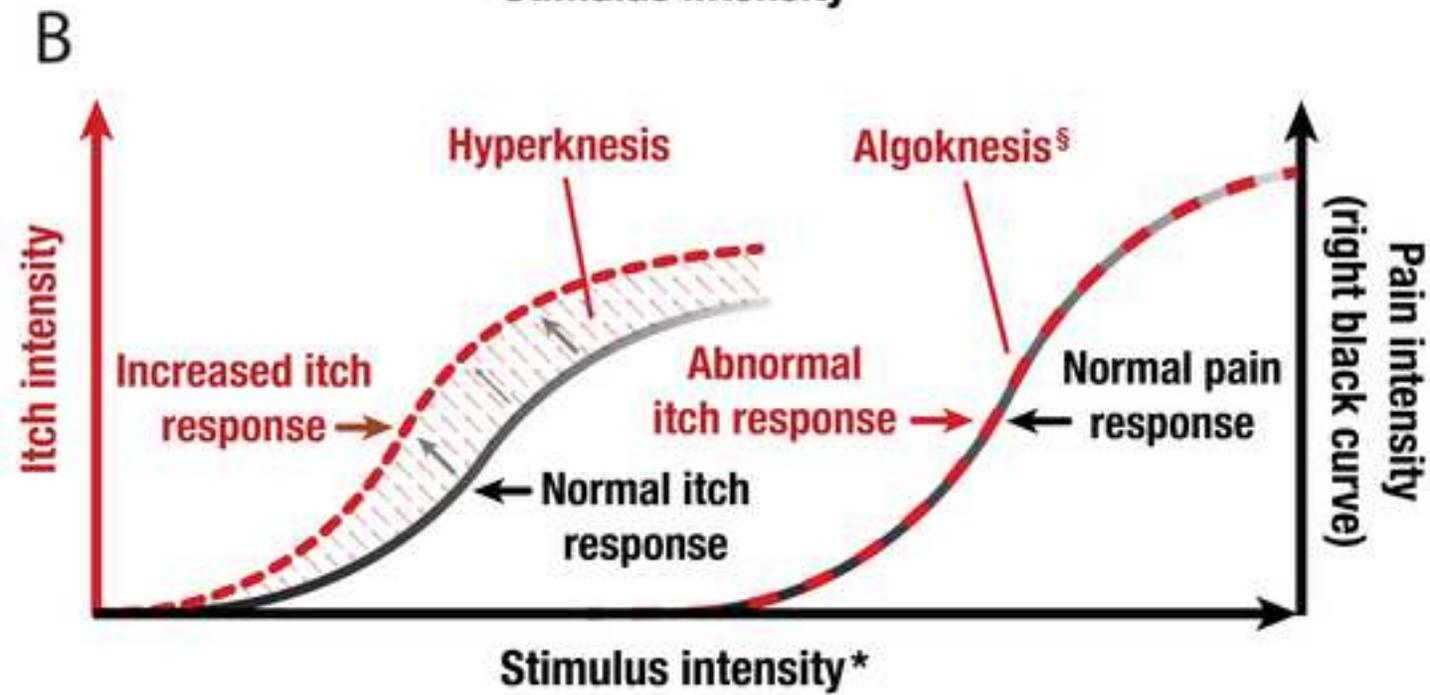
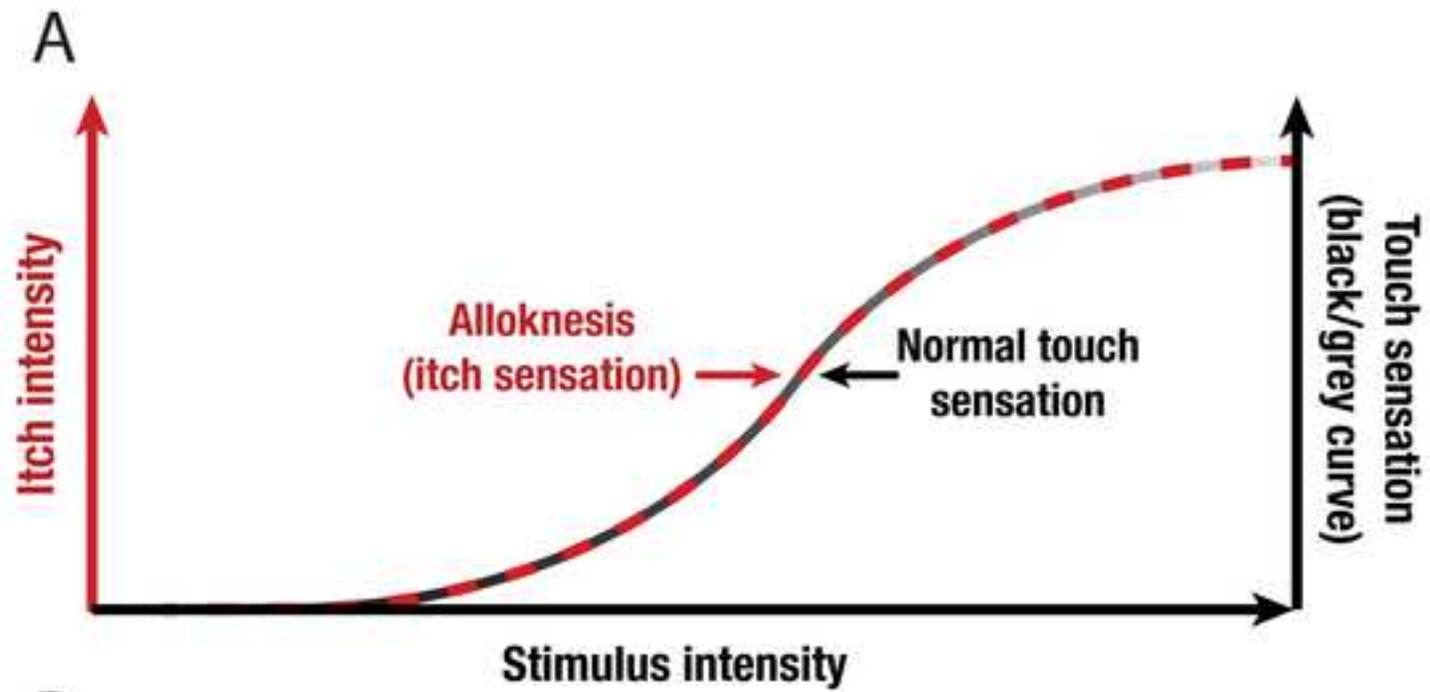
19 **Figure 2 – Models of itch sensitization mechanisms occurring in the periphery and in the spinal dorsal horn.**

20 Lightning bolts denotes components of the modeled pathways where sensitization may occur. Potential sites of
21 disinhibition are marked with red stop-symbols. **A)** Following a barrage from a pruriceptive primary afferent (red) a
22 facilitatory interneuron (green) that receives convergent input from an A β -fiber (blue), becomes sensitized.
23 Consequently, the pruriceptive projection neuron exhibit responsiveness to light touch stimuli, such as brush strokes,
24 leading to the abnormal perception of itch (alloknesis). **B)** Following a barrage from a pruriceptive primary afferent
25 (red) a facilitatory interneuron (green) that receives convergent input from a mechanosensitive nociceptor (blue),
26 becomes sensitized. Consequently, the pruriceptive projection neuron exhibit increased responsiveness to pinprick
27 stimuli, leading to de novo or increased perception of itch in conjunction with the normal pricking sensation. A
28 notable distinction between **A)** and **B)** is that for **B)** primary hyperknesis could be mediated by sensitization of the
29 pruriceptive primary afferent (red) itself by increased sensitivity to pinprick stimuli or by direct convergence of the
30 mechanosensitive nociceptor. **C)** Histamine-induced pruriception engages an inhibitory interneuron (green) below
31 threshold potential, which in turn becomes receptive to input from mechano-nociceptive units (blue). Subsequently,
32 a noxious counter-stimulus such as scratching inhibits signaling from the pruriceptive projection neuron (adapted
33 from “and-gate” model ⁴²). Note that scratch-induced inhibition of pruriceptive STT neurons occur in a state-
34 dependent manner, i.e. inhibition only occurs during pruritogen-evoked activity, but not during spontaneous or
35 algogen-evoked firing (shown for histamine) ⁴⁴. In chronic itch conditions indirect evidence suggest that scratch-
36 evoked itch inhibition is blunted ^{69,127}. Such a blunting of normal itch inhibition could result from: disinhibition of
37 the depicted spinal circuitry, loss of epidermal nerve fiber density resulting in decreased input to the gate (reduced
38 fiber density is a frequent finding in chronic itch conditions), or involve altered of supraspinal modulation (not
39 depicted). While the stimuli examples given above are derived from human surrogate itch model studies the initial
40 driving itch might as well be “endogenous” pruriceptive signaling, e.g. associated with atopic dermatitis,
41 neuropathic itch etc.
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56 **Figure 3 – The inter-variability of hyperknesis in patients with atopic dermatitis compared with data from**

57 **healthy controls.** The full study, including the methodology used to assess and rate hyperknesis, and a simplified
58 depiction of this data has been published elsewhere ¹⁰, *reproduced with permission*. **A)** Shows the inter-variability of
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4 hyperknesis probed at baseline in lesional (dark red) and non-lesional (bright red) skin of patients with atopic
5 dermatitis (n = 25) compared to healthy controls (n = 25). Data from homologous healthy control areas is pooled
6 (50 data points). **B**) Shows the same as **(A)**, but here hyperknesis was assessed after itch from a cowhage
7 provocation had subsided (again conducted intra and extra-lesionally). Bottom plots shows the intra-lesional
8 responses to mechanical itch provocations correlated with the responses to extra-lesional provocations at baseline
9 **(C)** and following a cowhage provocation **(D)**. Marked grey areas indicate the healthy control average +2 standard
10 deviations (SD), thus constituting a limit at which hyperknesis on an individual level can be detected. Note that
11 significant individually determined hyperknesis only affects 20-52% of the patients depending on the assessment
12 method (>1.96 SDs above the average healthy control response) and that patients either have sensitization restricted
13 to their lesions or affecting both their lesional and non-lesional skin. Only n = 1/50 showed sensitization selectively
14 in non-lesional skin.
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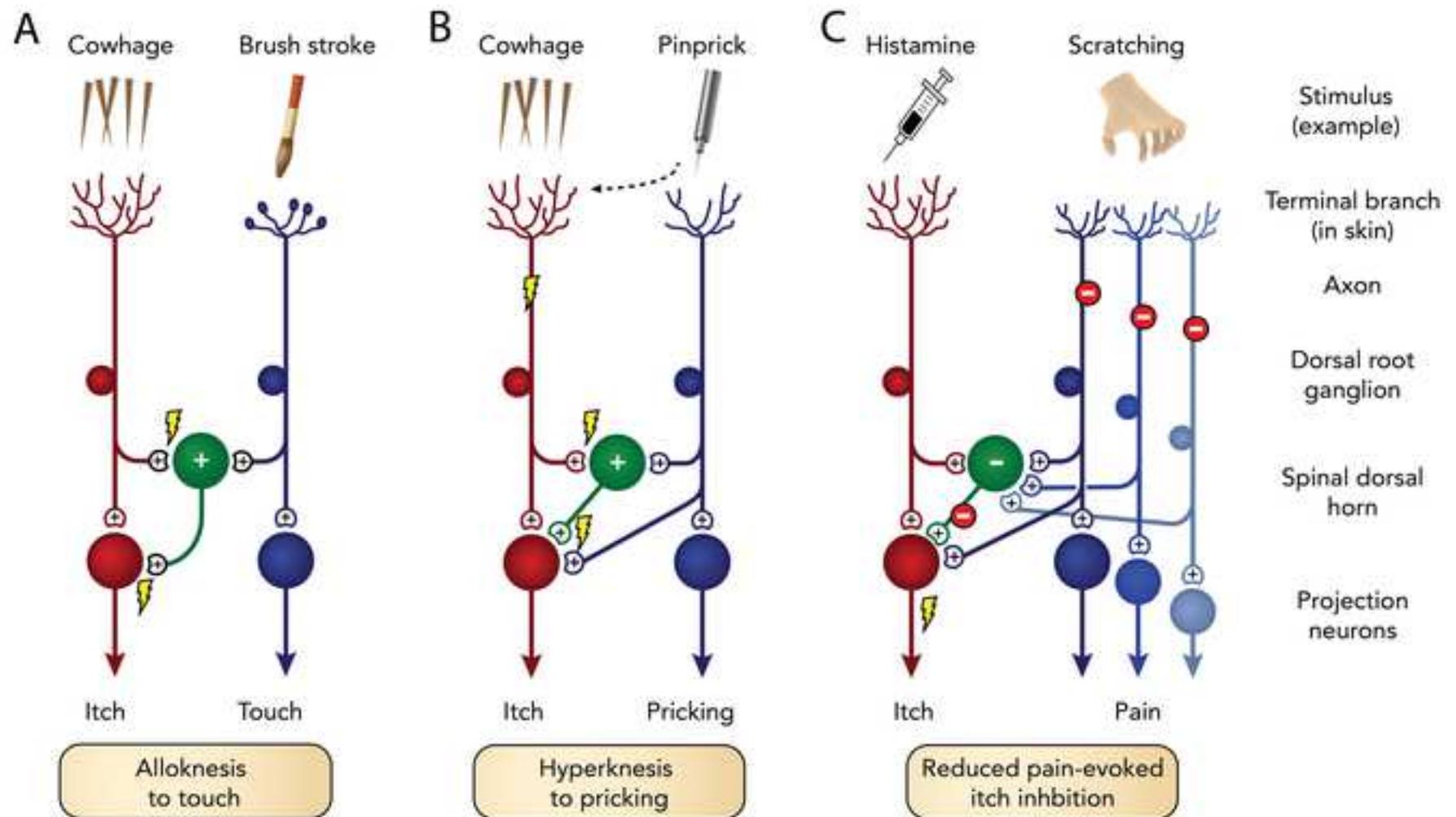


Figure 3

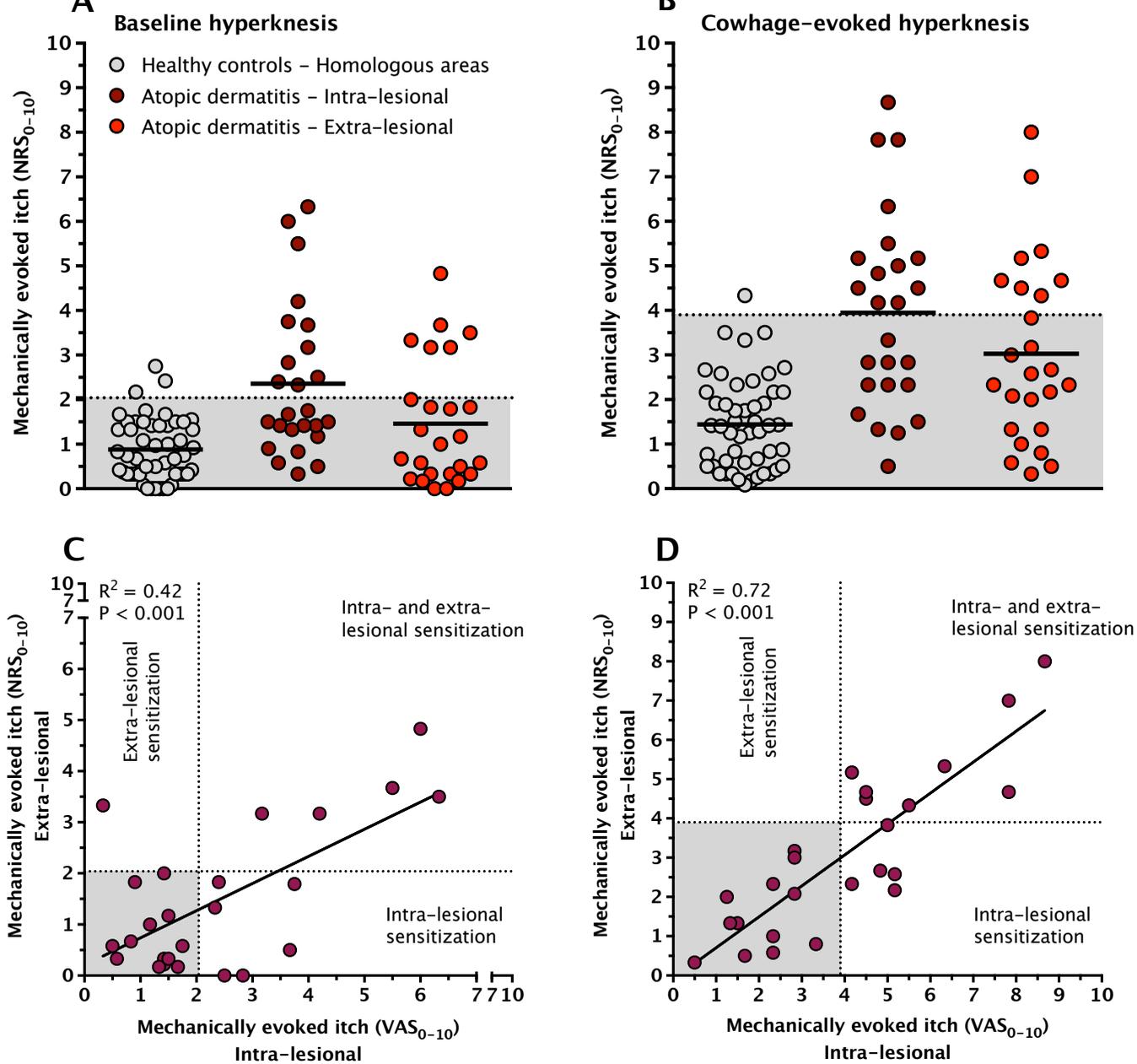


Table 1

Sensory phenomenon	Descriptor(s) (Proposed usage)	Suspected peripheral input	Sensitization processes		Examples of studies
			Peripheral	Central	
Touch / brush strokes / fabric -evoked itch	Alloknesis ¹ (Tactile)	A β -fibers		X	63,131,144
Pinprick-evoked itch / reduced thresholds hereto	Hyperknesis (Pinprick)	[A δ /PmC-fibers]	[X]	X	10,65,75
Warmth induced / aggravated itch	N/A (Warmth alloknesis ¹)	[Warm C-fibers/ PmC- fibers]	[X]		5,10,65,102
Heat-evoked itch	N/A (Heat algoknesis ²)	[A δ /PmC-fibers]	[X]	[X]	5,65,102,111
Increased itch in response pruritogens	Hyperknesis (Chemical)	C-fibers (CMi and PmC)	X	[X]	10,56,67,144

Table 1 – Itch sensitization phenomenon and proposed mechanisms. Square bracket “[]” indicates conceivable, but not yet established, mechanisms. CMi = C-mechano-insensitive fibers, PmC = Polymodal C-fibers. ¹ Principally, alloknesis could occur to non-mechanical stimuli, such as gentle warming, but this example is not yet well established mechanistically. ² Algoknesis is used in the present review to denote itch occurring in response to stimuli, which are under normal circumstances predominantly pain-evoking.

Table 2

	Provocations / causative condition(s)	Mechanical itch dysesthesia	Assessment techniques / signs	Example of studies
Animals models	Pruritogen injections, dry skin, contact dermatitis, psoriasis model, atopic dermatitis model, genetic models	Alloknesis	Low intensity von Frey filaments or brush	1,4,33,61,88,122, 145
		Hyperknesis	N/A [Medium intensity von Frey filaments or pinprick (\approx mechanical pain threshold)]	None
Human models	Pruritogens (e.g. histamine, cowhage) electrical/mechanical stimulation, contact dermatitis model	Alloknesis	Brush strokes (mapping or single stimuli), von Frey filaments or cotton wisp	63,66,111,128
		Hyperknesis	Weighted needles (sharp), von Frey filaments	11,66,111
Clinical itch conditions	Atopic dermatitis, renal insufficiency associated pruritus, post-burn pruritus contact dermatitis, neuropathic itch	Alloknesis	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : e.g. to wool, brush strokes, synthetic fabrics etc., <u>After itch provocation</u> : brush strokes, cotton swab/wisp, von Frey filaments	15,63,107,144,147
		Hyperknesis	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : wool, pinprick stimulators. <u>After itch provocation</u> : Pinprick stimulators (blunt), weighted needles (sharp), von Frey filaments	10,65,75,78,144

Table 2 – Methodology used to assess mechanical itch dysesthesias. The table provides an overview of methods by which alloknesis and hyperknesis have been studied in animals, human experimental models and in patients suffering from chronic itch diseases. In the row *clinical itch conditions*, “no preceding itch provocation” refers to assessment of allo/hyperknesis without any eliciting itch provocation, while “after itch provocation” refers to assessment of the itch dysesthesia following an itch provocation. Square brackets denote a potential method not yet thoroughly explored.

Table 3

Study	Itch condition	Assessment methodology	Observed mechanical itch dysesthesia	
			Lesional	Non-lesional
Wahlgren et al. 1990 ¹⁴⁴	AD	Wool fibers (Intensity approach)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis Unclear whether lesional and/or extra-lesional	
Heyer et al. 1995 ⁵⁹	AD	Sensory brush (Spatial approach ¹)	N/A	<u>After itch provocation</u> : ↓ Alloknosis
Weisshaar et al. 1998 ¹⁴⁹	AD	Sensory brush (Spatial approach ¹)	N/A	<u>After itch provocation</u> : ↓ Alloknosis
Weisshaar et al. 2003 ¹⁴⁷	Renal insufficiency	Sensory brush (Spatial approach ¹)	N/A	<u>After itch provocation</u> : → Alloknosis
Ikoma et al. 2004 ⁶⁵	AD, psoriasis	Weighted needle stimulators (Intensity approach)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis (AD) → Hyperknesis (psoriasis)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> ↑ Hyperknesis (peri-lesional) ⁴ → Hyperknesis (extra-lesional) ⁴
Ikoma et al. 2005 ⁶⁶	AD	Sensory brush and pin prick stimulators (Spatial approach ²)	N/A	<u>Evoked</u> : → Alloknosis <u>Evoked</u> : → Hyperknesis ⁵
Hosogi et al. 2006 ⁶³	AD	Sensory brush (Intensity approach)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Alloknosis	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : → Alloknosis
Laarhoven et al. 2007 ⁷⁵	AD	Von Frey stimulators (Intensity approach)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis ³	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis ⁴
Andersen et al. 2017 ¹⁰	AD	Von Frey stimulators (Intensity approach)	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis	<u>No preceding itch provocation</u> : ↑ Hyperknesis

Table 3 – Results from studies on mechanical itch dysesthesias in patients with chronic itch versus

healthy controls. The table list notable studies assessing alloknosis and/or hyperknesis in patients with itch

conditions as well as the methods applied in each study. Notice that the vast majority of studies have been

conducted in atopic dermatitis (AD). **Caption:** ¹ = Following an iontophoretic histamine provocation, ² =

Following electrically induced itch, ³ = predominantly intra-lesional, ⁴ = in AD only, ⁵ = a trend toward more

hyperknesis in patients was observed, ⁶ = predominantly non-lesional. **Arrows:** sensitivity in patients vs.

controls: ↑ = significantly increased responses in patients ↓ = significantly decreased responses in patients, →

no significant differences. “No preceding itch provocation” refers to assessment of allo/hyperknesis without any

preceding itch provocation, while “after itch provocation” refers to assessment of the itch dysesthesia following

an itch provocation