



Multidisciplinary Approaches to Assessment and Management of Chronic Pelvic Pain in Women: Nursing, Midwifery, Physiotherapists, and Allied Clinical Perspectives

Amani Mubark Aldhaferi⁽¹⁾, Mariam Salman Hemad Alatawi⁽²⁾, Maram Radhi Alanazi⁽³⁾, Manar Radi Al-Anzi⁽⁴⁾, Aisha Atwan Alshammari⁽⁵⁾, Hind Hassan Ali Homadi⁽⁶⁾, Abdullatif Ibrhim Zuayr⁽⁷⁾, Sameer Ali Ibahim Zakri⁽⁸⁾, Ahmed Abdullah Almalaq⁽⁹⁾, Khadijah Hakami Ahmed Hatan⁽¹⁰⁾, Fahad Nasser Ali Althurwi⁽¹¹⁾, Hend Fihaid Alshammari⁽¹²⁾

(1) Maternity and Children Hospital, Hafr Al-Batin, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(2) King Fahd Specialist Hospital, Tabuk, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(3) Khafji General Hospital, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(4) Maternity & Children's Hospital, Hafr Al-Batin, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(5) King Khalid General Hospital, Hafr Al-Batin, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(6) Al Tuwal Primary Health Center, Jazan, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(7) Sulaymaniyah Health Center, Medina, Tabuk, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(8) Jazan Health Cluster – Outpatient Treatment Requests, Jazan, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(9) Eradah Complex for Mental Health, Hail, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(10) Shower Stand Health Center, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(11) Eradah Hospital for Mental Health, Jazan, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia,

(12) King Salma Specialist Hospital, Hail Health Cluster, Ministry of Health, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Background: Chronic pelvic pain (CPP) is a multifactorial condition affecting both women and men, characterized by persistent pain for at least three to six months. Its pathophysiology involves complex interactions between peripheral nociceptive input, central sensitization, psychosocial factors, and comorbid gynecologic, urologic, gastrointestinal, and musculoskeletal conditions. Diagnosis remains challenging, with up to half of cases lacking an identifiable pathology.

Aim: To summarize multidisciplinary approaches to the assessment and management of chronic pelvic pain, highlighting contributions from nursing, midwifery, physiotherapy, and allied health professionals.

Methods: This review integrates evidence-based clinical guidelines and research findings on CPP etiology, epidemiology, pathophysiology, evaluation strategies, differential diagnosis, and management. It draws from multidisciplinary perspectives to outline both physical and psychological interventions.

Results: CPP commonly coexists with conditions such as endometriosis, interstitial cystitis, IBS, and pelvic floor dysfunction. Central sensitization plays a key role in symptom persistence, with psychological comorbidities—such as anxiety, depression, and PTSD—frequently involved. Effective diagnosis requires comprehensive history-taking, physical examination, imaging, and functional assessment. Management is optimized through multimodal strategies, including pharmacologic therapy, pelvic floor physical therapy, cognitive behavioral therapy, nerve blocks, neuromodulation, and, when indicated, surgery. Interprofessional coordination significantly improves patient outcomes, reduces unnecessary interventions, and enhances long-term quality of life.

Conclusion: CPP requires a holistic, multidisciplinary approach addressing both somatic and psychosocial contributors. Tailored treatment plans, early specialist involvement, and patient education are critical to improving functional outcomes.

Keywords: Chronic pelvic pain, central sensitization, multidisciplinary management, pelvic floor physical therapy, endometriosis, interprofessional care, gynecology, pain management.

Introduction

Chronic pelvic pain (CPP) is a multifactorial condition defined by persistent or recurrent pain localized to the pelvic region, most frequently affecting women, though it also occurs in men with distinct clinical presentations. In women, CPP is commonly associated with gynecologic, gastrointestinal, urologic, and musculoskeletal comorbidities, including irritable bowel syndrome, interstitial cystitis, endometriosis, pelvic

inflammatory disease, dyspareunia, and functional somatic disorders such as fibromyalgia and chronic central pain syndromes [1]. In men, chronic pelvic pain may manifest with overlapping comorbidities, including urogenital discomfort, erectile dysfunction, retrograde ejaculation, urinary disturbances, sexual dysfunction, and mood disorders, reflecting sex-specific pathophysiological mechanisms. Epidemiologically, CPP affects approximately 1 in 7 women in the United States, with a prevalence

comparable to that of migraine, asthma, or chronic back pain, highlighting its significant public health impact [1]. The pathophysiology of CPP remains incompletely understood, and its heterogeneity presents a major challenge in diagnosis and management. Central sensitization, a process in which prolonged nociceptive input amplifies central nervous system responsiveness, underlies many chronic pain syndromes and contributes to the persistence of CPP. This mechanism explains clinical phenomena such as hyperalgesia, where previously tolerable pain becomes amplified, and allodynia, in which non-noxious stimuli elicit pain. In women with endometriosis, repeated acute pain episodes may transition into a centralized pain state over a period of three to six months, demonstrating the dynamic interplay between peripheral pathology and central nervous system plasticity. Psychological factors, including prior physical or emotional trauma, have been shown to exacerbate or precipitate CPP, supporting its classification within functional somatic pain syndromes. Clinical evaluation of CPP relies primarily on comprehensive patient history and physical examination, as imaging and laboratory studies are often inconclusive. Diagnostic criteria typically require pain persistence for three to six months, with careful assessment for potential comorbid conditions that may exacerbate symptom severity. Despite thorough evaluation, up to 50% of cases remain undiagnosed, underscoring the limitations of current diagnostic modalities. Management of CPP is equally complex and necessitates a multidisciplinary approach. Evidence-based interventions target identified etiologies, comorbid mood disorders, neuropathic pain, or hormonal dysfunction. Therapeutic strategies range from conservative approaches, including cognitive behavioral therapy and pharmacologic therapy, to advanced interventions such as nerve blocks, spinal cord stimulation, or surgical procedures including hysterectomy. The interprofessional collaboration among gynecologists, pain specialists, physiotherapists, psychologists, and nursing staff is critical for optimizing patient outcomes, improving quality of life, and mitigating long-term morbidity associated with chronic pelvic pain [2][3][4].

Etiology

Chronic pelvic pain (CPP) represents a multifactorial condition with complex interactions among anatomical, physiological, and psychosocial factors. The European Association of Urology (EAU) categorizes CPP using a multidimensional axis framework that accounts for pain location, temporal characteristics, and psychological parameters, distinguishing between chronic primary pelvic pain—occurring without identifiable pathology—and secondary pelvic pain associated with a defined underlying disorder [EAU Guidelines on Chronic Pelvic Pain, 2025]. This classification underscores the necessity of a comprehensive evaluation that

integrates both somatic and psychological domains to guide diagnosis and management. CPP frequently coexists with overlapping chronic pain syndromes, including irritable bowel syndrome, interstitial cystitis, and chronic fatigue syndrome, reflecting shared mechanisms of central sensitization [5]. Mental health disorders, such as posttraumatic stress disorder and major depressive disorder, are common comorbidities, with the EAU emphasizing the importance of assessing Axis VIII psychological symptoms. The presence of these comorbidities highlights the integral role of psychological evaluation and intervention in the effective management of CPP. Studies indicate that more than half of patients with CPP have concomitant conditions such as endometriosis, pelvic adhesions, IBS, or interstitial cystitis, often with multiple comorbidities coexisting, which complicates both diagnosis and treatment [6]. Historically, CPP was conceptualized as a reflex dystrophy; however, current understanding frames it as a chronic pain syndrome underpinned by central sensitization and significant psychosocial contributions [7].

Pathophysiologically, CPP is characterized by heightened central nervous system responsiveness, leading to hyperesthesia and allodynia, particularly when pelvic floor dysfunction is present [8]. Chronic cystitis, endometriosis, adhesions, and musculoskeletal injuries are frequently observed in affected individuals, suggesting that persistent peripheral nociceptive input interacts with central pain processing pathways [9]. Patients often experience symptoms for more than two years before seeking medical care, allowing the progressive establishment of central sensitization, which heightens the perception of otherwise non-noxious stimuli [10]. This persistent neural hyperactivity facilitates the transition from acute to chronic pain, maintaining the pain experience even after initial peripheral triggers are resolved. CPP is frequently secondary to comorbid conditions that generate sustained nociceptive input, creating synergistic interactions between organ systems. For instance, interstitial cystitis can exacerbate gastrointestinal dysfunction such as IBS, contributing to chronic pain amplification. Accumulation of comorbidities perpetuates central sensitization, reinforcing the chronicity of CPP [11][12][13]. Pain distribution, whether localized or widespread, provides clinical insight into underlying pathology and psychosocial burden. Patients with diffuse pain involving the pelvis, limbs, and axial skeleton are more likely to exhibit psychiatric comorbidities, including generalized anxiety disorder, major depressive disorder, and PTSD. In these cases, emotional and stress-related factors modulate visceral pain perception and complicate treatment planning, often requiring more extensive multidisciplinary intervention compared to patients with localized pelvic pain [14][15][16][17].

Genetic predisposition, environmental influences, and prior trauma contribute significantly to CPP development. Women with chronic pelvic pain frequently experience higher rates of depression, anxiety, and sleep disorders, with histories of repetitive trauma, such as childhood sexual abuse, correlating with both somatic symptoms and posttraumatic stress [18][19][20][21]. Anatomical changes, including leiomyomas, nerve root entrapment, sacral cysts, and cauda equina syndrome, can act as primary contributors to pain generation [22][23]. Additional risk factors include smoking, preexisting psychiatric conditions, and multiple episodes of pelvic inflammatory disease [24]. Notably, common comorbidities such as IBS and endometriosis are frequently underdiagnosed prior to the onset of CPP, emphasizing the need for thorough assessment to identify and address these underlying conditions, which are strongly associated with both the development and persistence of chronic pelvic pain [25][26][27].

Epidemiology

Chronic pelvic pain (CPP) is a prevalent condition with a complex epidemiological profile, influenced by multiple comorbidities and risk factors. Among patients with CPP, approximately 35% have coexisting irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), reflecting the overlap between chronic visceral pain syndromes. Bladder pain syndrome is similarly associated, with an estimated 61% of women affected reporting concurrent CPP, while nearly half of women diagnosed with endometriosis experience persistent pelvic pain [28]. The overall prevalence of CPP among women ranges from 4% to 16%, although only about one-third of those affected actively seek medical evaluation. Gynecological conditions contribute to the disease burden in approximately 20% of CPP cases, but urological and gastrointestinal comorbidities are more frequently observed. Endometriosis remains the most common identifiable condition among women who pursue medical care for CPP, highlighting its clinical relevance in both diagnosis and management. Surgical findings further illustrate the strong association between CPP and endometriosis. Among women undergoing elective surgery for chronic pelvic pain, 20% to 80% are found to have endometriosis. Conversely, approximately 70% of individuals with a prior endometriosis diagnosis eventually develop CPP [29][30]. Although CPP predominantly affects women, men are not exempt; it accounts for 2% to 16% of male cases. A history of pelvic trauma or prior surgery significantly increases the risk of developing CPP compared to the general population. For example, persistent pelvic pain is reported in 28% of women three months after an elective cesarean delivery, with 20% continuing to experience pain six months postoperatively [31]. Psychosocial factors also play a significant role in the epidemiology of CPP. Nearly 50% of women with CPP report a history of sexual or

physical abuse, and among this subgroup, approximately one-third present with comorbid posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) [32][33]. Infectious and inflammatory etiologies contribute as well; up to 30% of women with a history of pelvic inflammatory disease develop CPP. Even surgical interventions such as elective hysterectomy for adenomyosis-associated CPP may not fully resolve symptoms, with 25% of patients reporting persistent postoperative pain [34][35]. These epidemiological data underscore the multifactorial nature of CPP and highlight the importance of comprehensive assessment that includes gynecological, urological, gastrointestinal, psychological, and surgical considerations to effectively address both its prevalence and the associated risk factors.

Pathophysiology

The pathophysiology of chronic pelvic pain is complex and multifactorial, reflecting the diversity of underlying etiologies. In endometriosis, chronic pelvic pain typically results from cyclical bleeding of ectopic endometrial tissue, which triggers localized inflammation, adhesions, and neurogenic sensitization of pelvic nerves, leading to persistent pain signals. Pelvic congestion syndrome represents another mechanism, in which dilated and engorged pelvic veins generate mechanical stress and ischemic pain through impaired venous outflow. Despite these identifiable causes, the majority of chronic pelvic pain cases are primarily driven by central sensitization. This phenomenon involves persistent nociceptive input that remodels the central nervous system, resulting in heightened pain perception and amplification of discomfort even when the original pathological stimulus is absent or treated. Central sensitization contributes to hyperalgesia and allodynia, making otherwise innocuous stimuli painful and perpetuating the chronicity of pelvic pain. Neuroinflammatory processes, altered neurotransmitter signaling, and dysregulated pain modulation pathways collectively maintain and exacerbate the chronic pain experience [36].

History and Physical

The clinical evaluation of patients with chronic pelvic pain requires a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach, beginning with a detailed history that often uncovers comorbid chronic pain conditions. Central sensitization is frequently implicated, with patients reporting hyperalgesia or allodynia, reflecting an amplified response of the central nervous system to nociceptive stimuli. Eliciting a thorough history involves reviewing prior medical and surgical interventions, with particular attention to urologic, gynecologic, obstetric, sexual, and psychological factors. This approach helps to differentiate primary pelvic pain from secondary pain syndromes arising from identifiable pathology. In women, chronic pelvic pain is typically defined as noncyclical or persistent pain located within the pelvic

region, lasting for at least six months, and not associated with pregnancy. Pain may be continuous or intermittent, although some definitions exclude cyclical pain, which is categorized as dysmenorrhea [37][38]. Clinicians should investigate factors that precipitate or relieve pain, including menstruation, sexual activity, urination, bowel movements, and responses to previous therapies. In men, the history should include prior urethral or prostate interventions. A detailed pain history may reveal patterns suggestive of dermatomal involvement, non-visceral origins, or overlapping musculoskeletal contributions. Mental health assessment is essential, as anxiety, depression, and posttraumatic stress disorder frequently coexist with chronic pelvic pain. Additional associated symptoms, including gastrointestinal, urinary, sexual, or menstrual disturbances, should be documented, along with quality-of-life impact and any motor or autonomic dysfunction [39].

Pain characterization is critical for diagnosis and treatment planning. Cramping, burning, or electrical-type pain must be distinguished from sharp or dull pain, and cyclical variations should be separated from constant pain. Attention should be given to red-flag features, such as postcoital or postmenopausal bleeding, unexplained weight loss, hematuria, pelvic mass, or elevated inflammatory markers, which may indicate systemic or malignant disease. Physical examination should include inspection of the external genitalia, evaluation of pelvic floor musculature for tenderness or hypertonicity, and a bimanual examination assessing uterine size, mobility, adnexal masses, and areas of tenderness. Abdominal and lumbar assessments, including palpation of sacroiliac joints, help identify musculoskeletal contributions to pain. The Carnett test can distinguish abdominal wall from visceral pain, as increased pain with abdominal contraction typically suggests myofascial involvement. Studies have shown that women with chronic pelvic pain often demonstrate significant asymmetry in pelvic landmarks, including iliac crest height and symphyseal levels, highlighting the importance of thorough structural assessment [40].

Evaluation

The evaluation of chronic pelvic pain begins with a thorough assessment of the patient's history and a detailed physical examination. Diagnosis is largely guided by these findings, and if an underlying cause is identified, it should be confirmed through additional testing and addressed with targeted management. A cotton tip applicator test can be performed to evaluate cutaneous sources of pain. This technique is particularly useful for detecting cutaneous allodynia, which is common in patients with centralized pain syndromes, and has demonstrated high sensitivity in identifying this manifestation [41]. The impact of chronic pelvic pain on the patient's daily functioning and quality of life should also be assessed, often using standardized questionnaires to quantify physical,

emotional, and social impairments [42]. A digital rectal examination is recommended for all patients, regardless of sex, to assess for structural or neurologic abnormalities contributing to pelvic pain. The initial step in the diagnostic workup is the identification of alarm features, such as signs of acute abdomen, systemic infection, or malignancy. If no urgent pathology is suspected and the etiology remains unclear, laboratory testing and imaging are indicated. Routine laboratory investigations should include a complete blood count, erythrocyte sedimentation rate, urinalysis, urine pregnancy test, and sexually transmitted infection testing for gonorrhea and chlamydia. Imaging, starting with transvaginal ultrasonography, is critical for detecting pelvic pathology, including ovarian cysts, uterine masses, adenomyosis, or hydrosalpinx associated with pelvic inflammatory disease [43][44]. Ultrasound is capable of detecting lesions smaller than 4 cm that may be missed during physical examination, and when abnormal findings are present or further characterization is required, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) should be employed for enhanced anatomical resolution [45].

Patients presenting with severe or uncontrolled pain, or evidence of an acute abdomen, should undergo standard emergency evaluation to rule out urgent surgical or medical conditions [46][47]. In cases where laparoscopy is performed but fails to reveal clear pathology, pain may reflect central sensitization, myofascial dysfunction, or other chronic pain syndromes rather than complex regional pain syndrome, unless strict diagnostic criteria for CRPS are satisfied. Diagnostic nerve blocks provide a method for evaluating neuropathic components of chronic pelvic pain. Symptomatic relief following sacral nerve root blockade supports the presence of peripheral nerve involvement, helping to guide subsequent therapeutic interventions [48]. Pain mapping performed under local sedation during laparoscopy allows clinicians to probe pelvic structures while patients report pain intensity, facilitating the localization of specific pain generators and informing individualized treatment strategies [49]. In men, evaluation should be tailored to encompass both urologic and psychosocial factors. Key components include a digital rectal examination, assessment of erectile function using the International Index of Erectile Function (IIEF), and evaluation of lower urinary tract symptoms. The National Institutes of Health Chronic Prostatitis Symptom Index (NIH-CPSI) provides a validated framework for symptom assessment. Screening for depressive symptoms with tools such as the Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) is essential, as psychosocial comorbidities frequently coexist. The UPOINT(S) classification system further guides evaluation by systematically addressing urinary symptoms, psychosocial factors, organ-specific findings, infectious etiologies, neurological or systemic conditions, pelvic floor

tenderness, and sexual dysfunction. A comprehensive, individualized diagnostic workup is essential for elucidating the underlying etiology of chronic pelvic pain in men, enabling the development of effective, targeted management strategies and improving patient outcomes.

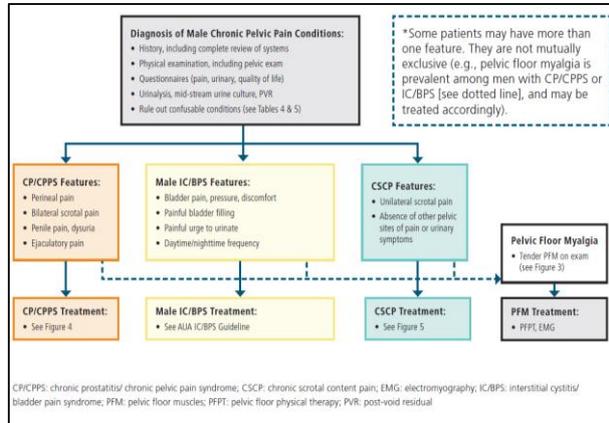


Fig. 1: Diagnosis of chronic male pelvic pain.

Treatment / Management

Management of chronic pelvic pain requires a comprehensive, multidisciplinary approach, as evidence-based interventions remain limited and patient response is highly variable [50]. For nonspecific chronic pelvic pain, initial therapy primarily targets symptomatic relief, often through over-the-counter analgesics such as acetaminophen or nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). These agents are generally well tolerated and may be sufficient for patients with mild pain. When pain is cyclical in nature, hormonal therapies—including combined oral contraceptives, depot medroxyprogesterone, or intrauterine devices—can be employed to modulate the menstrual cycle and reduce endometriosis-related or hormonally mediated pelvic discomfort. If pain persists despite hormonal modulation, evaluation for neuropathic pain or coexisting mood disorders becomes essential. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors are recommended when a mood disorder is present, whereas tricyclic antidepressants, gabapentin, pregabalin, or serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors such as venlafaxine or duloxetine may be used for neuropathic pain [51][52]. Clinical studies indicate that gabapentin, alone or in combination with amitriptyline, is more effective than amitriptyline monotherapy in reducing neuropathic pelvic pain [53]. Adjunctive nonpharmacological interventions form a critical component of chronic pelvic pain management. Pelvic floor physical therapy addresses musculoskeletal contributors by targeting hypertonic muscles, fascial restrictions, and myofascial trigger points [54]. Cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) is equally important, providing structured strategies to reduce pain perception, improve coping mechanisms, and enhance overall functionality. Mindfulness-based interventions can be integrated into both physical

therapy and CBT frameworks to further mitigate stress and modulate central pain processing [55].

For patients with refractory or severe pain, interventional procedures may be indicated. Peripheral nerve blocks and sacral neuromodulation can target neuropathic or peripheral contributors to pelvic pain. In selected cases, hysterectomy may be considered for pain of uterine origin, although this remains a last-resort option, particularly when hormonal therapies or less invasive interventions fail [56]. Cyclobenzaprine may be used to alleviate pain and improve sleep quality, while local corticosteroid injections provide both diagnostic and therapeutic benefits when sacral nerve involvement is suspected. If effective, additional interventions, including radiofrequency ablation, targeted nerve blocks (sacral, hypogastric, or ganglion impar), or spinal cord stimulation, may be employed [59][60]. Spinal cord stimulators are typically positioned at the thoracic level (T8) or retrogradely in sacral segments, with placement requiring specialized expertise. Subarachnoid pain pumps may be utilized in refractory cases, although they carry higher risks and maintenance requirements. Botulinum toxin injections have demonstrated efficacy in reducing pain during sexual activity, alleviating pelvic pressure, and improving persistent noncyclical pelvic pain [61]. Trigger point injections using local anesthetics such as lidocaine provide short-term relief in myofascial pain syndromes, simultaneously serving diagnostic and therapeutic purposes [62][63]. The integration of pharmacological therapy, interventional techniques, physical therapy, and psychological interventions—including patient education about the cognitive and emotional dimensions of chronic pelvic pain—enhances outcomes and promotes long-term functional improvement [64][65]. Comprehensive, individualized management plans that address both central and peripheral contributors are essential for optimizing patient quality of life and achieving meaningful pain relief.

Differential Diagnosis

Chronic pelvic pain encompasses a wide spectrum of potential etiologies, often reflecting overlapping or coexisting conditions that complicate diagnosis and management. Persistent pelvic pain can lead to central sensitization, a neurophysiological process in which the central nervous system amplifies pain signals, resulting in heightened symptom severity even after resolution of the initial pathology. Recognizing the broad differential is essential to guide effective evaluation and individualized treatment. Gynecological causes are among the most common contributors in women. These include endometriosis, pelvic inflammatory disease, pelvic adhesions, recurrent ovarian cysts, uterine fibroids, leiomyoma, adenomyosis, hydrosalpinx, post-tubal ligation pain syndrome, and ovarian remnant syndrome. Many of these conditions produce both cyclical and noncyclical pain and may coexist, further complicating the clinical

picture. Urological conditions are also prevalent, with interstitial cystitis, chronic urethritis, recurrent cystitis, urethral diverticulum, radiation-induced cystitis, chronic urolithiasis, bladder cancer, and urethral syndrome contributing to persistent pelvic discomfort. Gastroenterological disorders such as irritable bowel syndrome, inflammatory bowel disease, celiac disease, colorectal carcinoma, and abdominal hernias should be considered, particularly when pain is associated with bowel movements or altered gastrointestinal function. Musculoskeletal contributors, including abdominal wall myofascial pain, fibromyalgia, coccygodynia, pelvic floor tension myalgia, and piriformis syndrome, often coexist with visceral etiologies and can exacerbate central sensitization.

Neurological and vascular factors may involve ilioinguinal or iliohypogastric nerve entrapment, pudendal neuralgia, spinal cord injury, pelvic congestion syndrome, peripheral neuropathy, or vulvar varicosities. In men, chronic prostatitis and prostate cancer are important considerations. Psychiatric and functional etiologies, including somatization disorder and malingering, may also contribute to the presentation. A thorough, systems-based evaluation incorporating history, physical examination, laboratory testing, imaging, and functional assessments is critical. Given the complexity of chronic pelvic pain, an interprofessional approach is essential, integrating gynecology, urology, gastroenterology, neurology, pain medicine, physical therapy, and behavioral health. Understanding both somatic and psychosocial contributors allows for targeted interventions, reducing the risk of misdiagnosis, improving symptom control, and optimizing long-term patient outcomes.

Surgical Oncology

In patients with chronic pelvic pain where the diagnostic evaluation raises suspicion for malignancy, prompt referral to a surgical oncologist is essential. Early involvement of oncology specialists allows for disease-specific interventions that can significantly improve prognosis and limit further complications associated with delayed treatment. Surgical oncology evaluation is particularly indicated when imaging or laboratory findings suggest neoplastic processes within the reproductive, urinary, or gastrointestinal systems. Timely diagnosis and management facilitate staging, planning of surgical or chemoradiation interventions, and coordination of multidisciplinary care, all of which are critical in improving survival outcomes. In women, gynecologic malignancies such as ovarian, endometrial, or cervical cancers may present initially with chronic pelvic pain, often in combination with other systemic or localized symptoms. In men, urologic malignancies, including prostate or bladder cancers, should be considered. The surgical oncology consultation also incorporates an assessment of comorbidities, prior interventions, and overall functional status, which is crucial for

determining operative risk and postoperative recovery potential. Beyond the identification and removal of malignant tissue, surgical oncology input may guide the need for adjunct therapies, including neoadjuvant or adjuvant chemotherapy, targeted therapy, or radiation. Integrating surgical oncology early in the diagnostic pathway ensures that patients receive evidence-based, timely interventions that optimize both disease-specific outcomes and long-term quality of life.

Treatment Planning

Effective management of chronic pelvic pain requires a comprehensive, individualized approach that integrates both physical and psychological strategies. Treatment planning begins with a thorough assessment of the patient's pain characteristics, associated comorbidities, and functional limitations. Interventions should address the underlying pathology where identifiable, while simultaneously incorporating psychological support to mitigate the amplification of pain through stress, anxiety, or depression. Cognitive behavioral therapy, mindfulness-based interventions, and psychoeducation are key components in reducing pain perception and improving coping mechanisms. Pharmacologic strategies, including analgesics, neuropathic pain agents, and hormonal therapies, should be tailored according to etiology and patient tolerance. Multimodal interventions, such as pelvic floor physical therapy, biofeedback, and trigger point injections, provide additional symptom relief and improve functionality. Coordination among specialists—gynecology, urology, gastroenterology, pain medicine, and mental health—is essential to optimize outcomes. Treatment plans must be dynamic, with regular reassessment to adapt strategies based on patient response, disease progression, or emergence of new comorbidities. Patient engagement is also critical; understanding the rationale behind each intervention enhances adherence and promotes long-term success. Ultimately, a holistic, interprofessional approach ensures that both the physiological and psychosocial dimensions of chronic pelvic pain are adequately addressed, improving overall quality of life [66].

Toxicity and Adverse Effect Management

Interventional procedures and pharmacologic therapies for chronic pelvic pain carry inherent risks that require careful management. Injection-based therapies, including nerve blocks and local anesthetic administration, may cause vascular or nerve injury, procedural pain, or steroid-related reactions. Fluoroscopy-guided interventions often employ contrast agents, posing a potential risk of renal toxicity, though minimal volumes are typically used. Ultrasound guidance does not reliably detect vascular uptake, and blood aspiration is insufficient as a safety check. Bupivacaine, while effective, carries an elevated risk of cardiotoxicity if inadvertently injected intravascularly; this risk necessitates facility preparedness, including availability of lipid emulsion

therapy and trained personnel capable of BCLS and ACLS. Outpatient settings increasingly avoid bupivacaine due to these safety concerns. Pharmacologic management also demands vigilance; medications that affect urinary function may exacerbate retention in men with chronic prostatitis. Opioid therapy requires structured education regarding safe administration, including availability of naloxone for overdose prevention. Comprehensive toxicity monitoring and adherence to safety protocols are critical for minimizing complications and ensuring that interventions remain both effective and safe in managing chronic pelvic pain [67][68][69][70][71][72][73].

Prognosis

The prognosis for patients with chronic pelvic pain is variable and influenced by etiology, comorbid conditions, and the comprehensiveness of management. Following gynecologic surgery, such as hysterectomy, approximately 46% of patients report improved pain, while 31% note alleviation of comorbid depressive symptoms. Despite interventions, outcomes in chronic pelvic pain remain generally poor, mirroring trends observed in other chronic pain syndromes. Optimal improvement is observed when treatment addresses both the primary pathology and coexisting mood disorders. Physical therapy, particularly pelvic floor therapy, reduces pharmacologic analgesic use by approximately 22% and ameliorates symptoms such as urinary urgency and frequency in patients with painful bladder syndrome. Hysterectomy provides significant relief for some, yet up to 40% may continue to experience persistent pain postoperatively, with a small proportion reporting worsening symptoms. Patients with fewer comorbidities demonstrate better long-term outcomes, highlighting the importance of early identification and intervention. The timing of surgical interventions remains under investigation, and most studies provide follow-up over months rather than years, emphasizing the need for continued long-term research. Pain mapping can achieve meaningful relief in approximately half of patients, offering a valuable tool for targeted treatment strategies [74][75][76].

Complications

Patients with chronic pelvic pain are at heightened risk for complications related to both psychological and procedural factors. Histories of emotional trauma, sexual abuse, or psychiatric comorbidities, including PTSD, are prevalent and significantly influence pain perception and response to treatment. Surgical interventions, such as hysterectomy or laparoscopy, may fail to fully alleviate pain, with postoperative persistence reported in a substantial proportion of patients. Repeated opioid use may lead to tolerance, necessitating escalating doses for pain control. Insomnia and sleep disturbances are common and can exacerbate central sensitization, further complicating management.

Laparoscopic procedures fail to identify the source of pain in roughly 40% of cases, highlighting the complex and multifactorial nature of chronic pelvic pain. Surgical complications, including infection and hemorrhage, are additional considerations requiring proactive monitoring and management [77].

Consultations

Optimal management of chronic pelvic pain necessitates an interprofessional approach to integrate both somatic and psychological aspects of care. Collaboration across specialties, including gynecology, urology, gastroenterology, pain medicine, mental health, and physical therapy, ensures comprehensive assessment and tailored treatment strategies. Early and coordinated consultation facilitates diagnostic accuracy, prevents unnecessary interventions, and supports patient-centered outcomes [76][77].

Patient Education

Patient education is foundational in chronic pelvic pain management. Patients should be informed about the multifactorial etiology of their condition, encouraged to adopt healthy lifestyle practices, and guided to maintain open communication with healthcare providers. Understanding treatment rationale, adherence to medications, and engagement in therapeutic interventions enhance long-term outcomes and mitigate symptom progression [77].

Enhancing Healthcare Team Outcomes

The management of chronic pelvic pain requires a coordinated, multidisciplinary team. Physical therapists, psychologists, pharmacists, and specialty clinicians collaborate to address the complex interplay of physiological, psychological, and social contributors to pain. Effective coordination improves morbidity, supports patient adherence, and optimizes functional outcomes. The primary clinician oversees treatment planning, while referrals to surgical or interventional specialists, urologists, and pain medicine providers are made as indicated. Education, communication, and evidence-based interventions across the care team are critical for sustained management of chronic pelvic pain, which often necessitates long-term, ongoing treatment strategies to improve quality of life and reduce symptom burden [77].

Conclusion:

Chronic pelvic pain is a complex and burdensome condition characterized by diverse etiologies, overlapping comorbidities, and significant psychological implications. Because no single cause or treatment approach is universally applicable, successful management depends on recognizing CPP as a chronic pain syndrome influenced by biological, emotional, and social factors. Evidence strongly supports the integration of multidisciplinary strategies that combine medical, physical, and psychological interventions. Pelvic floor physical therapy, cognitive behavioral therapy, neuropathic pain agents, hormonal

therapy when indicated, and interventional procedures such as nerve blocks or neuromodulation each play essential roles in tailored patient care. Central sensitization remains a major driver of persistent symptoms, underscoring the importance of early diagnosis and interventions that target both peripheral and central pain mechanisms. Multidisciplinary collaboration—among gynecologists, urologists, gastroenterologists, physiotherapists, mental health professionals, and nursing teams—enhances diagnostic accuracy and treatment effectiveness. Patient education and engagement further strengthen outcomes by promoting adherence and realistic expectations. Although prognosis varies, patients receiving integrated, evidence-based, and patient-centered care generally experience improved symptom control, functionality, and quality of life. Continued research and long-term follow-up are needed to refine treatment pathways and identify optimal timing for interventions. Overall, a comprehensive, personalized, and collaborative approach remains essential for the effective management of chronic pelvic pain.

References:

1. Franz J, Kieselbach K, Lahmann C, Gratzke C, Miernik A. Chronic Primary Pelvic Pain Syndrome in Men. *Dtsch Arztebl Int.* 2023 Jul 24;120(29-30):508-518.
2. Zondervan KT, Yudkin PL, Vessey MP, Dawes MG, Barlow DH, Kennedy SH. Prevalence and incidence of chronic pelvic pain in primary care: evidence from a national general practice database. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.* 1999 Nov;106(11):1149-55.
3. Grace VM, Zondervan KT. Chronic pelvic pain in New Zealand: prevalence, pain severity, diagnoses and use of the health services. *Aust N Z J Public Health.* 2004 Aug;28(4):369-75.
4. Mathias SD, Kuppermann M, Liberman RF, Lipschutz RC, Steege JF. Chronic pelvic pain: prevalence, health-related quality of life, and economic correlates. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1996 Mar;87(3):321-7.
5. Williams RE, Hartmann KE, Sandler RS, Miller WC, Steege JF. Prevalence and characteristics of irritable bowel syndrome among women with chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2004 Sep;104(3):452-8.
6. Tirlapur SA, Kuhrt K, Chaliha C, Ball E, Meads C, Khan KS. The 'evil twin syndrome' in chronic pelvic pain: a systematic review of prevalence studies of bladder pain syndrome and endometriosis. *Int J Surg.* 2013;11(3):233-7.
7. Engeler DS, Baranowski AP, Dinis-Oliveira P, Elneil S, Hughes J, Messelink EJ, van Ophoven A, Williams AC., European Association of Urology. The 2013 EAU guidelines on chronic pelvic pain: is management of chronic pelvic pain a habit, a philosophy, or a science? 10 years of development. *Eur Urol.* 2013 Sep;64(3):431-9.
8. Potts JM, Payne CK. Urologic chronic pelvic pain. *Pain.* 2012 Apr;153(4):755-758.
9. Lamvu G, Williams R, Zolnoun D, Wechter ME, Shortliffe A, Fulton G, Steege JF. Long-term outcomes after surgical and nonsurgical management of chronic pelvic pain: one year after evaluation in a pelvic pain specialty clinic. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2006 Aug;195(2):591-8; discussion 598-600.
10. Zondervan KT, Yudkin PL, Vessey MP, Dawes MG, Barlow DH, Kennedy SH. Patterns of diagnosis and referral in women consulting for chronic pelvic pain in UK primary care. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol.* 1999 Nov;106(11):1156-61.
11. Fall M, Baranowski AP, Elneil S, Engeler D, Hughes J, Messelink EJ, Oberpenning F, de C Williams AC., European Association of Urology. EAU guidelines on chronic pelvic pain. *Eur Urol.* 2010 Jan;57(1):35-48.
12. Hellman KM, Patanwala IY, Pozolo KE, Tu FF. Multimodal nociceptive mechanisms underlying chronic pelvic pain. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2015 Dec;213(6):827.e1-9.
13. Giamberardino MA, Costantini R, Affaitati G, Fabrizio A, Lapenna D, Tafuri E, Mezzetti A. Viscero-visceral hyperalgesia: characterization in different clinical models. *Pain.* 2010 Nov;151(2):307-322.
14. Phillips ML, Gregory LJ, Cullen S, Coen S, Ng V, Andrew C, Giampietro V, Bullmore E, Zelaya F, Amaro E, Thompson DG, Hobson AR, Williams SC, Brammer M, Aziz Q. The effect of negative emotional context on neural and behavioural responses to oesophageal stimulation. *Brain.* 2003 Mar;126(Pt 3):669-84.
15. Nickel JC, Tripp DA., International Interstitial Cystitis Study Group. Clinical and psychological parameters associated with pain pattern phenotypes in women with interstitial cystitis/bladder pain syndrome. *J Urol.* 2015 Jan;193(1):138-44.
16. Griffith JW, Stephens-Shields AJ, Hou X, Naliboff BD, Pontari M, Edwards TC, Williams DA, Clemens JQ, Afari N, Tu F, Lloyd RB, Patrick DL, Mullins C, Kusek JW, Sutcliffe S, Hong BA, Lai HH, Krieger JN, Bradley CS, Kim J, Landis JR. Pain and Urinary Symptoms Should Not be Combined into a Single Score: Psychometric Findings from the MAPP Research Network. *J Urol.* 2016 Apr;195(4 Pt 1):949-54.
17. Fenton BW, Grey SF, Tossone K, McCarroll M, Von Gruenigen VE. Classifying Patients with Chronic Pelvic Pain into Levels of Biopsychosocial Dysfunction Using Latent Class Modeling of Patient Reported Outcome Measures. *Pain Res Treat.* 2015;2015:940675.
18. Walker E, Katon W, Harrop-Griffiths J, Holm L, Russo J, Hickok LR. Relationship of chronic pelvic pain to psychiatric diagnoses and

- childhood sexual abuse. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1988 Jan;145(1):75-80.
19. Nolan TE, Metheny WP, Smith RP. Unrecognized association of sleep disorders and depression with chronic pelvic pain. *South Med J*. 1992 Dec;85(12):1181-3.
 20. Lorençatto C, Petta CA, Navarro MJ, Bahamondes L, Matos A. Depression in women with endometriosis with and without chronic pelvic pain. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2006;85(1):88-92.
 21. Nickel JC, Tripp DA, Pontari M, Moldwin R, Mayer R, Carr LK, Doggweiler R, Yang CC, Mishra N, Nordling J. Childhood sexual trauma in women with interstitial cystitis/bladder pain syndrome: a case control study. *Can Urol Assoc J*. 2011 Dec;5(6):410-5.
 22. Lippman SA, Warner M, Samuels S, Olive D, Vercellini P, Eskenazi B. Uterine fibroids and gynecologic pain symptoms in a population-based study. *Fertil Steril*. 2003 Dec;80(6):1488-94.
 23. Possover M, Schneider T, Henle KP. Laparoscopic therapy for endometriosis and vascular entrapment of sacral plexus. *Fertil Steril*. 2011 Feb;95(2):756-8.
 24. Haggerty CL, Peipert JF, Weitzen S, Hendrix SL, Holley RL, Nelson DB, Randall H, Soper DE, Wiesenfeld HC, Ness RB., PID Evaluation and Clinical Health (PEACH) Study Investigators. Predictors of chronic pelvic pain in an urban population of women with symptoms and signs of pelvic inflammatory disease. *Sex Transm Dis*. 2005 May;32(5):293-9.
 25. Williams RE, Hartmann KE, Sandler RS, Miller WC, Savitz LA, Steege JF. Recognition and treatment of irritable bowel syndrome among women with chronic pelvic pain. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2005 Mar;192(3):761-7.
 26. Seaman HE, Ballard KD, Wright JT, de Vries CS. Endometriosis and its coexistence with irritable bowel syndrome and pelvic inflammatory disease: findings from a national case-control study--Part 2. *BJOG*. 2008 Oct;115(11):1392-6.
 27. Choung RS, Herrick LM, Locke GR, Zinsmeister AR, Talley NJ. Irritable bowel syndrome and chronic pelvic pain: a population-based study. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2010 Nov-Dec;44(10):696-701.
 28. Zondervan KT, Yudkin PL, Vessey MP, Jenkinson CP, Dawes MG, Barlow DH, Kennedy SH. Chronic pelvic pain in the community--symptoms, investigations, and diagnoses. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2001 May;184(6):1149-55.
 29. Laufer MR, Goitein L, Bush M, Cramer DW, Emans SJ. Prevalence of endometriosis in adolescent girls with chronic pelvic pain not responding to conventional therapy. *J Pediatr Adolesc Gynecol*. 1997 Nov;10(4):199-202.
 30. Mowers EL, Lim CS, Skinner B, Mahnert N, Kamdar N, Morgan DM, As-Sanie S. Prevalence of Endometriosis During Abdominal or Laparoscopic Hysterectomy for Chronic Pelvic Pain. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2016 Jun;127(6):1045-1053.
 31. Richez B, Ouchchane L, Guttman A, Mirault F, Bonnin M, Noudem Y, Cognet V, Dalmas AF, Brisebrat L, Andant N, Soule-Sonneville S, Dubray C, Dualé C, Schoeffler P. The Role of Psychological Factors in Persistent Pain After Cesarean Delivery. *J Pain*. 2015 Nov;16(11):1136-46.
 32. Rapkin AJ, Kames LD, Darke LL, Stamper FM, Naliboff BD. History of physical and sexual abuse in women with chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1990 Jul;76(1):92-6.
 33. Meltzer-Brody S, Leserman J, Zolnoun D, Steege J, Green E, Teich A. Trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder in women with chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2007 Apr;109(4):902-8.
 34. Ness RB, Soper DE, Holley RL, Peipert J, Randall H, Sweet RL, Sondheimer SJ, Hendrix SL, Amortegui A, Trucco G, Songer T, Lave JR, Hillier SL, Bass DC, Kelsey SF. Effectiveness of inpatient and outpatient treatment strategies for women with pelvic inflammatory disease: results from the Pelvic Inflammatory Disease Evaluation and Clinical Health (PEACH) Randomized Trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2002 May;186(5):929-37.
 35. Stovall TG, Ling FW, Crawford DA. Hysterectomy for chronic pelvic pain of presumed uterine etiology. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1990 Apr;75(4):676-9.
 36. Champaneria R, Shah L, Moss J, Gupta JK, Birch J, Middleton LJ, Daniels JP. The relationship between pelvic vein incompetence and chronic pelvic pain in women: systematic reviews of diagnosis and treatment effectiveness. *Health Technol Assess*. 2016 Jan;20(5):1-108.
 37. Speer LM, Mushkbar S, Erbele T. Chronic Pelvic Pain in Women. *Am Fam Physician*. 2016 Mar 01;93(5):380-7.
 38. Howard FM. Chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2003 Mar;101(3):594-611.
 39. Giamberardino MA, Affaitati G, Fabrizio A, Costantini R. Myofascial pain syndromes and their evaluation. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol*. 2011 Apr;25(2):185-98.
 40. Tu FF, Holt J, Gonzales J, Fitzgerald CM. Physical therapy evaluation of patients with chronic pelvic pain: a controlled study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2008 Mar;198(3):272.e1-7.
 41. Nasr-Esfahani M, Jarrell J. Cotton-tipped applicator test: validity and reliability in chronic pelvic pain. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2013 Jan;208(1):52.e1-5.

42. Burckhardt CS, Anderson KL. The Quality of Life Scale (QOLS): reliability, validity, and utilization. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2003 Oct 23;1:60.
43. Holland TK, Cutner A, Saridogan E, Mavrelou D, Pateman K, Jurkovic D. Ultrasound mapping of pelvic endometriosis: does the location and number of lesions affect the diagnostic accuracy? A multicentre diagnostic accuracy study. *BMC Womens Health*. 2013 Oct 29;13:43.
44. Meredith SM, Sanchez-Ramos L, Kaunitz AM. Diagnostic accuracy of transvaginal sonography for the diagnosis of adenomyosis: systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2009 Jul;201(1):107.e1-6.
45. Cody RF, Ascher SM. Diagnostic value of radiological tests in chronic pelvic pain. *Baillieres Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol*. 2000 Jun;14(3):433-66.
46. Jacobson TZ, Duffy JM, Barlow D, Koninckx PR, Garry R. Laparoscopic surgery for pelvic pain associated with endometriosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009 Oct 07;(4):CD001300.
47. Cottrell AM, Schneider MP, Goonewardene S, Yuan Y, Baranowski AP, Engeler DS, Borovicka J, Dinis-Oliveira P, Elneil S, Hughes J, Messelink BJ, de C Williams AC. Benefits and Harms of Electrical Neuromodulation for Chronic Pelvic Pain: A Systematic Review. *Eur Urol Focus*. 2020 May 15;6(3):559-571.
48. Randy Jinkins J. The anatomic and physiologic basis of local, referred and radiating lumbosacral pain syndromes related to disease of the spine. *J Neuroradiol*. 2004 Jun;31(3):163-80.
49. Swanton A, Iyer L, Reginald PW. Diagnosis, treatment and follow up of women undergoing conscious pain mapping for chronic pelvic pain: a prospective cohort study. *BJOG*. 2006 Jul;113(7):792-6.
50. Cheong YC, Smotra G, Williams AC. Non-surgical interventions for the management of chronic pelvic pain. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2014 Mar 05;2014(3):CD008797.
51. Sator-Katzenschlager SM, Scharbert G, Kress HG, Frickey N, Ellend A, Gleiss A, Kozek-Langenecker SA. Chronic pelvic pain treated with gabapentin and amitriptyline: a randomized controlled pilot study. *Wien Klin Wochenschr*. 2005 Nov;117(21-22):761-8.
52. Allen C, Hopewell S, Prentice A, Gregory D. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs for pain in women with endometriosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009 Apr 15;(2):CD004753.
53. Lewis SC, Bhattacharya S, Wu O, Vincent K, Jack SA, Critchley HO, Porter MA, Cranley D, Wilson JA, Horne AW. Gabapentin for the Management of Chronic Pelvic Pain in Women (GaPP1): A Pilot Randomised Controlled Trial. *PLoS One*. 2016;11(4):e0153037.
54. Haugstad GK, Kirste U, Leganger S, Haakonsen E, Haugstad TS. Somatocognitive therapy in the management of chronic gynaecological pain. A review of the historical background and results of a current approach. *Scand J Pain*. 2018 Jul 01;2(3):124-129.
55. Louw A, Zimney K, O'Hotto C, Hilton S. The clinical application of teaching people about pain. *Physiother Theory Pract*. 2016 Jul;32(5):385-95.
56. Harada T, Momoeda M, Taketani Y, Hoshiai H, Terakawa N. Low-dose oral contraceptive pill for dysmenorrhea associated with endometriosis: a placebo-controlled, double-blind, randomized trial. *Fertil Steril*. 2008 Nov;90(5):1583-8.
57. Tofferi JK, Jackson JL, O'Malley PG. Treatment of fibromyalgia with cyclobenzaprine: A meta-analysis. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2004 Feb 15;51(1):9-13.
58. Moldofsky H, Harris HW, Archambault WT, Kwong T, Lederman S. Effects of bedtime very low dose cyclobenzaprine on symptoms and sleep physiology in patients with fibromyalgia syndrome: a double-blind randomized placebo-controlled study. *J Rheumatol*. 2011 Dec;38(12):2653-63.
59. Fritz J, Chhabra A, Wang KC, Carrino JA. Magnetic resonance neurography-guided nerve blocks for the diagnosis and treatment of chronic pelvic pain syndrome. *Neuroimaging Clin N Am*. 2014 Feb;24(1):211-34.
60. Martellucci J, Naldini G, Carriero A. Sacral nerve modulation in the treatment of chronic pelvic pain. *Int J Colorectal Dis*. 2012 Jul;27(7):921-6.
61. Abbott JA, Jarvis SK, Lyons SD, Thomson A, Vancaille TG. Botulinum toxin type A for chronic pain and pelvic floor spasm in women: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2006 Oct;108(4):915-23.
62. Montenegro ML, Braz CA, Rosa-e-Silva JC, Candido-dos-Reis FJ, Nogueira AA, Poli-Neto OB. Anaesthetic injection versus ischemic compression for the pain relief of abdominal wall trigger points in women with chronic pelvic pain. *BMC Anesthesiol*. 2015 Dec 01;15:175.
63. Kim DS, Jeong TY, Kim YK, Chang WH, Yoon JG, Lee SC. Usefulness of a myofascial trigger point injection for groin pain in patients with chronic prostatitis/chronic pelvic pain syndrome: a pilot study. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*. 2013 May;94(5):930-6.
64. Peters AA, van Dorst E, Jellis B, van Zuuren E, Hermans J, Trimbos JB. A randomized clinical trial to compare two different approaches in women with chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1991 May;77(5):740-4.
65. Allegrante JP. The role of adjunctive therapy in the management of chronic nonmalignant pain. *Am J Med*. 1996 Jul 31;101(1A):33S-39S.

66. American College of Medical Toxicology. ACMT Position Statement: Guidance for the Use of Intravenous Lipid Emulsion. *J Med Toxicol.* 2017 Mar;13(1):124-125.
67. Anderson RU, Harvey RH, Wise D, Nevin Smith J, Nathanson BH, Sawyer T. Chronic pelvic pain syndrome: reduction of medication use after pelvic floor physical therapy with an internal myofascial trigger point wand. *Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback.* 2015 Mar;40(1):45-52.
68. FitzGerald MP, Payne CK, Lukacz ES, Yang CC, Peters KM, Chai TC, Nickel JC, Hanno PM, Kreder KJ, Burks DA, Mayer R, Kotarinos R, Fortman C, Allen TM, Fraser L, Mason-Cover M, Furey C, Odabachian L, Sanfield A, Chu J, Huestis K, Tata GE, Dugan N, Sheth H, Bewyer K, Anaeme A, Newton K, Featherstone W, Halle-Podell R, Cen L, Landis JR, Propert KJ, Foster HE, Kusek JW, Nyberg LM., Interstitial Cystitis Collaborative Research Network. Randomized multicenter clinical trial of myofascial physical therapy in women with interstitial cystitis/painful bladder syndrome and pelvic floor tenderness. *J Urol.* 2012 Jun;187(6):2113-8.
69. Hartmann KE, Ma C, Lamvu GM, Langenberg PW, Steege JF, Kjerulff KH. Quality of life and sexual function after hysterectomy in women with preoperative pain and depression. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2004 Oct;104(4):701-9.
70. Lamvu G. Role of hysterectomy in the treatment of chronic pelvic pain. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2011 May;117(5):1175-1178.
71. Martinez A, Howard FM. The efficacy of laparoscopic surgical treatment of ovarian remnant and ovarian retention syndromes. *J Minim Invasive Gynecol.* 2015 Feb;22(2):245-9.
72. Shakiba K, Bena JF, McGill KM, Minger J, Falcone T. Surgical treatment of endometriosis: a 7-year follow-up on the requirement for further surgery. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2008 Jun;111(6):1285-92.
73. Molegraaf MJ, Torensma B, Lange CP, Lange JF, Jeekel J, Swank DJ. Twelve-year outcomes of laparoscopic adhesiolysis in patients with chronic abdominal pain: A randomized clinical trial. *Surgery.* 2017 Feb;161(2):415-421.
74. Mgozeli SE, Duma SE. *"Whenever I think about this, I feel like killing myself, because life has no meaning to me anymore"*: an exploration of the consequences of rape victimization for men. *Int J Qual Stud Health Well-being.* 2025 Dec;20(1):2437905.
75. Cosar E, Çakır Güngör A, Gencer M, Uysal A, Haciveliolu SO, Özkan A, Şen HM. Sleep disturbance among women with chronic pelvic pain. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet.* 2014 Sep;126(3):232-4.
76. Kang SB, Chung HH, Lee HP, Lee JY, Chang YS. Impact of diagnostic laparoscopy on the management of chronic pelvic pain. *Surg Endosc.* 2007 Jun;21(6):916-9.
77. Paspulati RM. Chronic Pelvic Pain: Role of Imaging in the Diagnosis and Management. *Semin Ultrasound CT MR.* 2023 Dec;44(6):501-510.