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Opioid Therapy For Pain: *An Evidence Review*

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Educational Objectives

At the conclusion of this activity participants should be able to:

- Review evidence on use of opioid therapy for chronic pain
- Assess risks and benefits of long-term opioid therapy for chronic pain and factors associated with prescription opioid overdose and misuse

Note: Best practices to reduce risks related to prescription opioids are discussed in a different lecture

Case

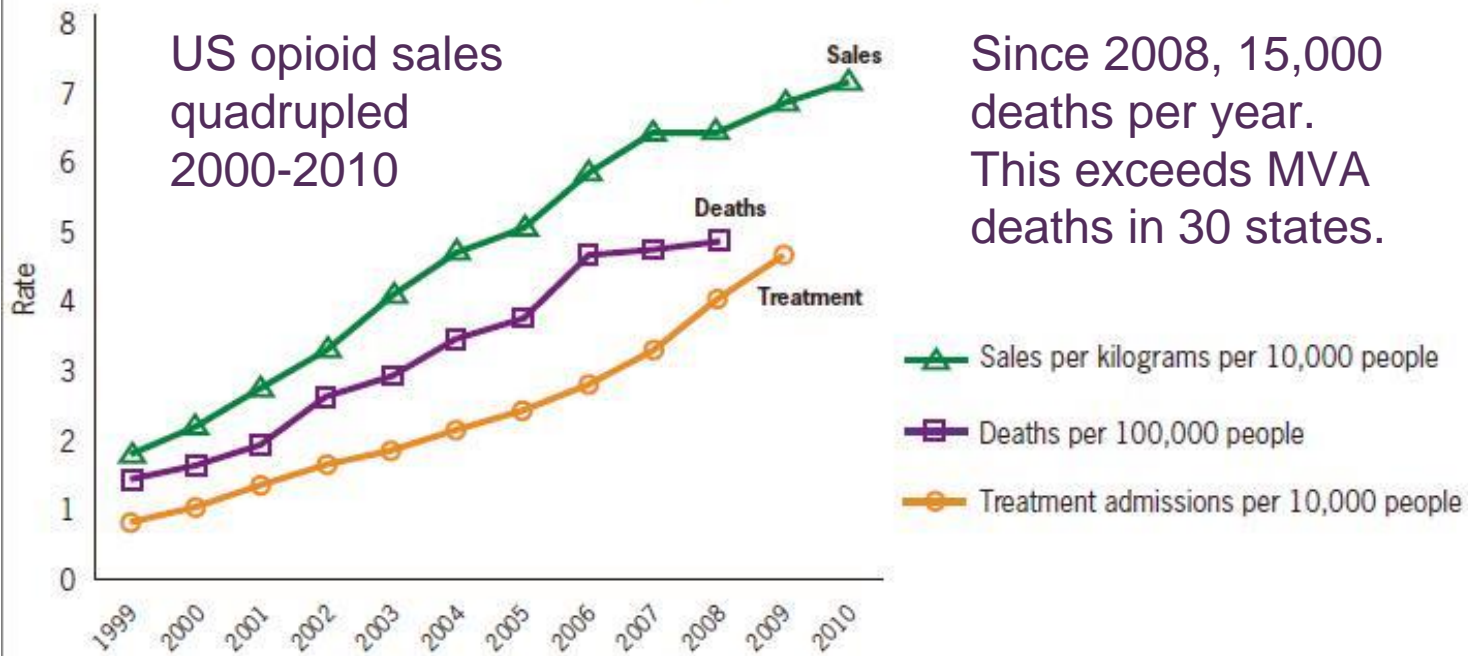
- 53-year old female transferring care because her PCP is leaving practice
 - Shoulder and hip pain secondary to avascular necrosis, s/p shoulder replacements, hip decompression, hip replacement
 - Fibromyalgia, non-radicular low back pain, chronic headache
 - Depression, fatigue
 - Gastroparesis, irritable bowel syndrome
 - Morphine IR 30 mg 5 tabs (150 mg) every 8 hrs + oxycodone 5 mg 8 tabs (40 mg) every 6 hrs
 - Morphine equivalent dose/day: 690 mg
 - Modafinil 20 mg po daily
 - Pain 6/10 on average, with day to day fluctuation
 - Can carry out activities of daily living with pain, limited exercise, no aberrant behaviors

Background

- Chronic non-cancer pain highly prevalent, with substantial burdens
 - Estimates vary, up to 1/3 of adults report some CNCP
- Opioids are increasingly prescribed for chronic non-cancer pain
 - About 5% of U.S. adults report use of long-term opioid therapy (LOT)^a
 - The U.S. is ~5% of the world's population, but accounts for 80% of the world's supply of opioids (99% of hydrocodone)
- Opioids are associated with potential harms, both to patients and to society
- Large practice variations in use of LOT

CDC: Parallel increases in opioid sales, deaths and substance abuse

Rates of prescription painkiller sales, deaths and substance abuse treatment admissions (1999-2010)



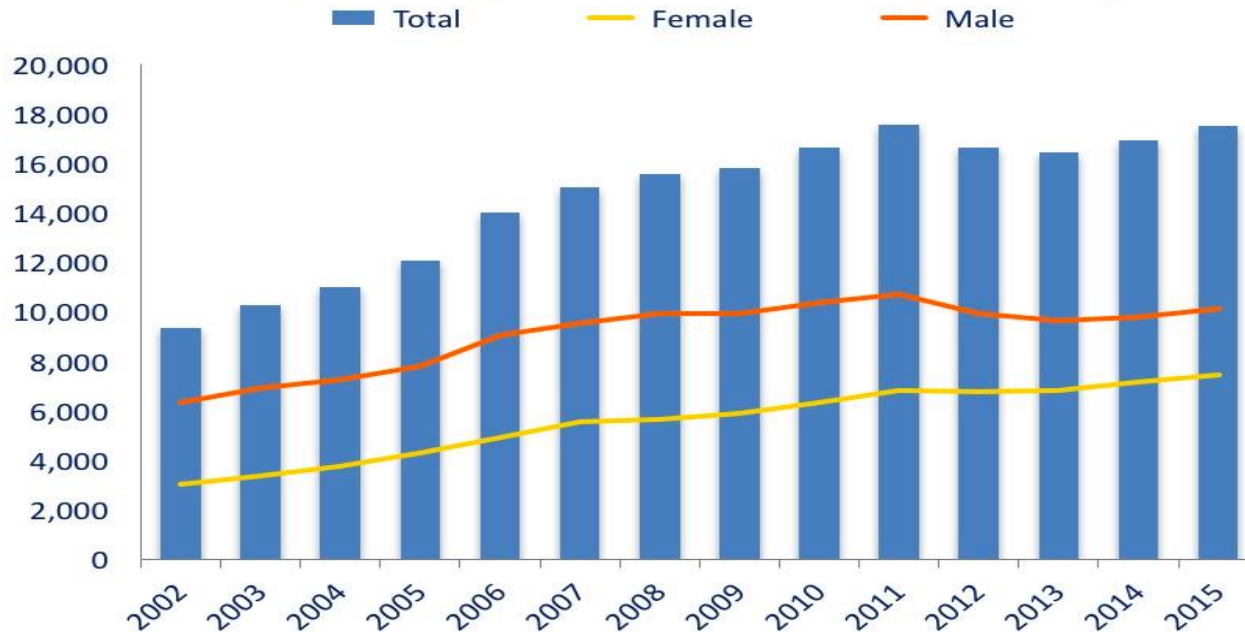
SOURCES: National Vital Statistics System, 1999-2008; Automation of Reports and Consolidated Orders System (ARCOS) of the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA), 1999-2010; Treatment Episode Data Set, 1999-2009

Prescription Opioid Overdose



National Overdose Deaths

Number of Deaths from Prescription Opioid Pain Relievers
(excluding non-methadone synthetics)



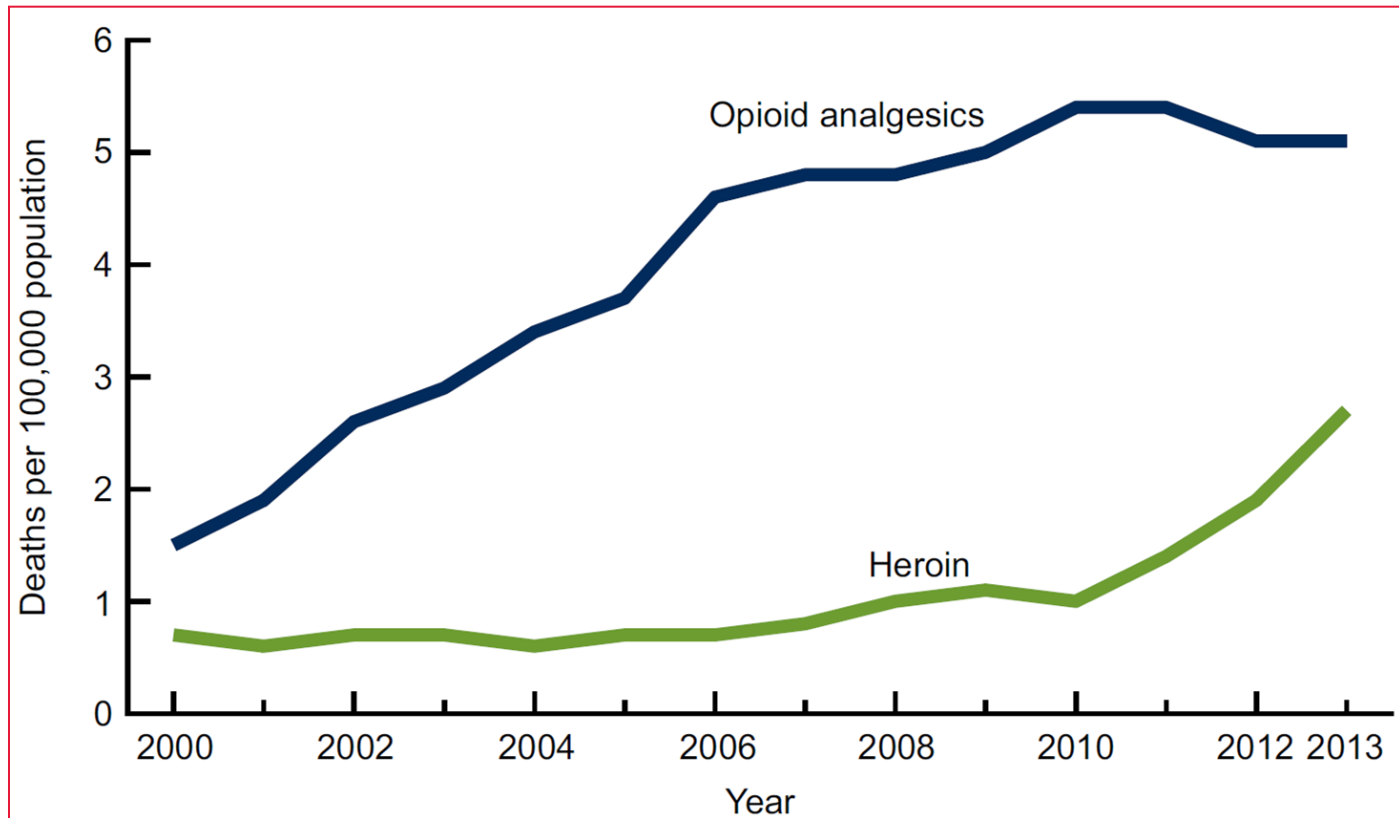
Source: National Center for Health Statistics, CDC Wonder

Rates are per 100,000 population age-adjusted to 2008 U.S. standard population
<http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm6043a4.htm>

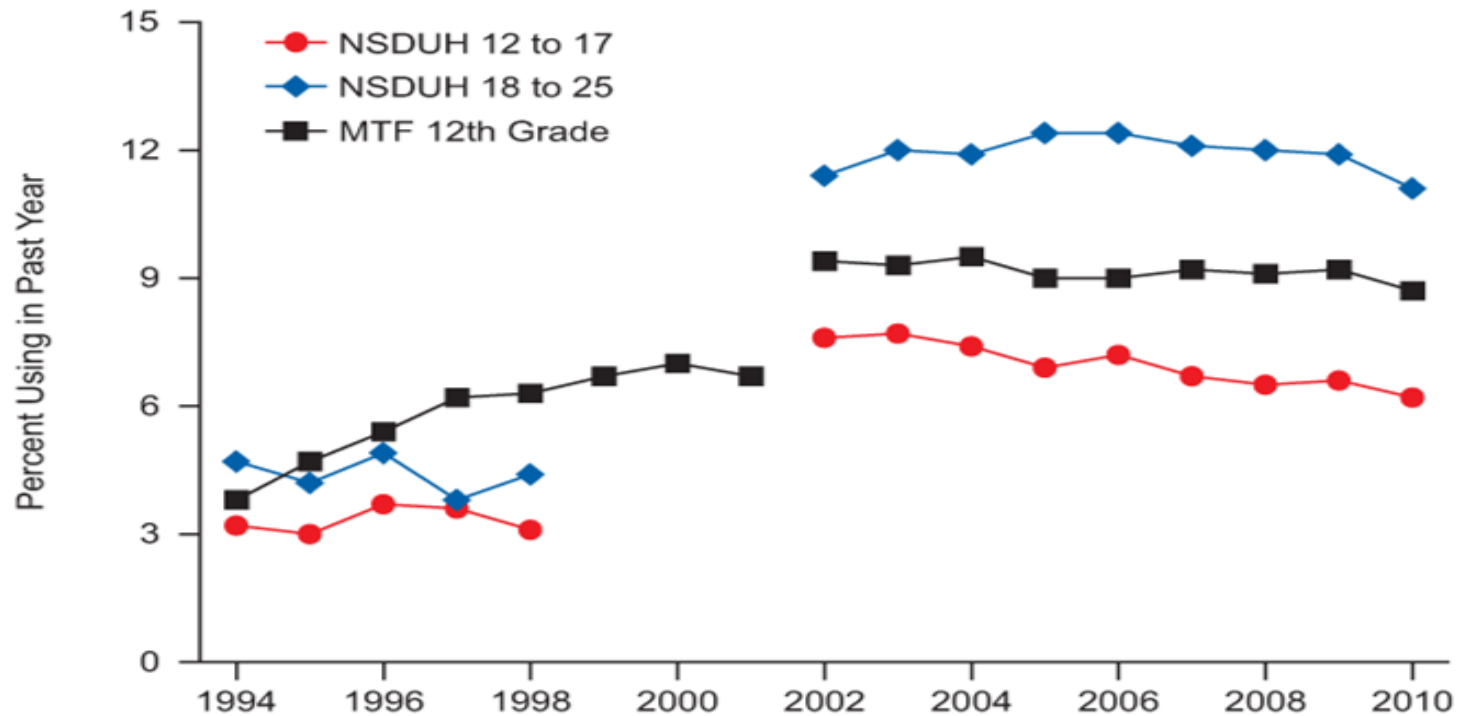


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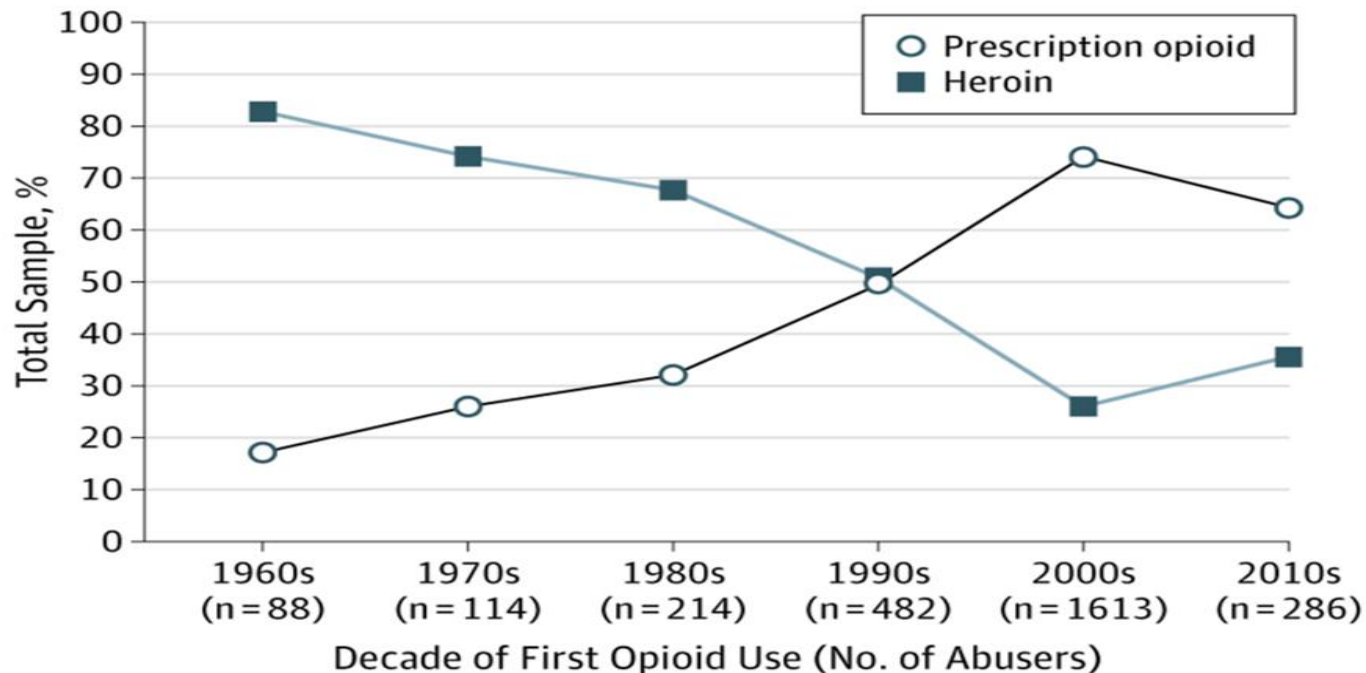
Opioid Overdose Trends, 2000-2013



Nonmedical pain medication use among adolescents and young adults



First Opioid of Abuse in Those Using Heroin



Prescribing Trends

- Since ~2010, opioid use for chronic pain increased from 8% to 16%
 - Use of more potent opioids increased from 2 to 9%
 - Increases observed across age groups and in men and women
 - Increased use of schedule II opioids; greatest increase in daily doses occurred in prescriptions of schedule II opioids

How did we get here?

- Perceived undertreatment of chronic pain
 - Laws or regulations passed in >20 states to allow use of opioids for chronic pain
- Low risk of abuse observed with use of opioids in palliative care settings
 - “...patients rarely demonstrate euphoric responses to opioid drugs, and neither analgesic tolerance nor physical dependence is a significant clinical problem.”
Portenoy RK. J Law Medicine Ethics 1996;24:296
- Case series describing benefits of long-term opioid therapy for chronic pain, with low rates of abuse, addiction, or other serious AE’s
 - *Porter J, NEJM 1980; 302(2): 123.*
 - Most prescribed low doses (<20 mg MED/day)
- No ceiling dose used in palliative care settings
 - “Escalation of the opioid dose until either adequate analgesia occurs or intolerable and unmanageable side effects supervene is standard practice in cancer pain management.”— *Portenoy RK. J Pain Symptom Management 1996;11:203*
- Emphasis on round-the-clock dosing using sustained-release formulations
Portenoy RK 1986;25:171; Haythornthwaite JA 1998;15:185

Evidence on Effectiveness of Opioid Therapy for Chronic Non-cancer Pain

- Short-term follow-up:
 - Versus placebo
 - Pain intensity (71 trials): Mean difference -0.79 point (95% CI -0.93 to -0.67) on a 0 to 10 point pain scale
 - Pain response (44 trials): RR 1.35 (95% CI 1.24 to 1.48)
 - Function (44 trials): Standardized mean difference -0.22, (95% CI -0.28 to -0.16)
 - Little incremental benefit with increased doses
 - Versus nonopioids
 - No difference in pain intensity (14 trials), likelihood of pain response (12 trials), or function (11 trials)
- Intermediate and long-term follow-up:
 - No placebo-controlled trials
 - Versus non-opioids
 - One trial (SPACE) found no difference between stepped therapy with opioids vs. non-opioids in function, opioid therapy associated with higher (worse) pain intensity (4.0 vs. 3.5 on 0 to 10 scale)

Limitations of Evidence on Effectiveness of LOT

- High loss to follow-up
- Trials typically excluded patients at higher risk for addiction or overdose, psychological comorbidities, and serious medical comorbidities
- Limited evidence on commonly treated conditions
 - Fibromyalgia, headache, others
- No trial compared LOT vs. cognitive behavioral-based exercise therapy or interdisciplinary rehabilitation

Opioids vs. Non-opioid Pharmacological Therapy

SPACE RCT of stepped therapy starting with opioid therapy vs. initial non-opioid therapy for chronic LBP and OA pain

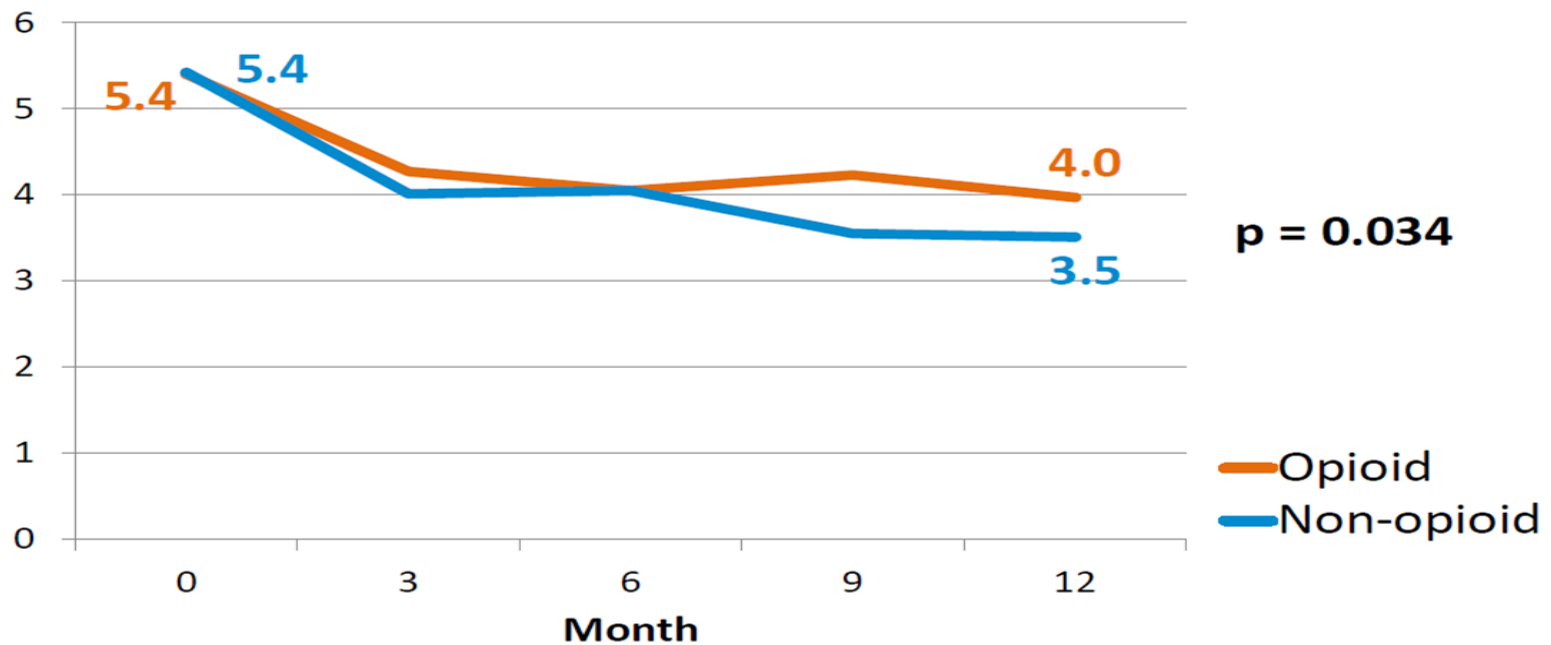
- One year VA trial in primary care, n=240
- Open-label for patients and clinicians, assessment masked
- All patients received individualized medication management using collaborative telecare pain management model
- Average opioid dose 26 vs. 1 mg MED/day
- At 12 mos, no difference in function, pain slightly worse in opioid group
- Opioids associated with more adverse symptoms; no deaths or OUD

SPACE Trial



Pain intensity

Mean BPI Severity (n=238)

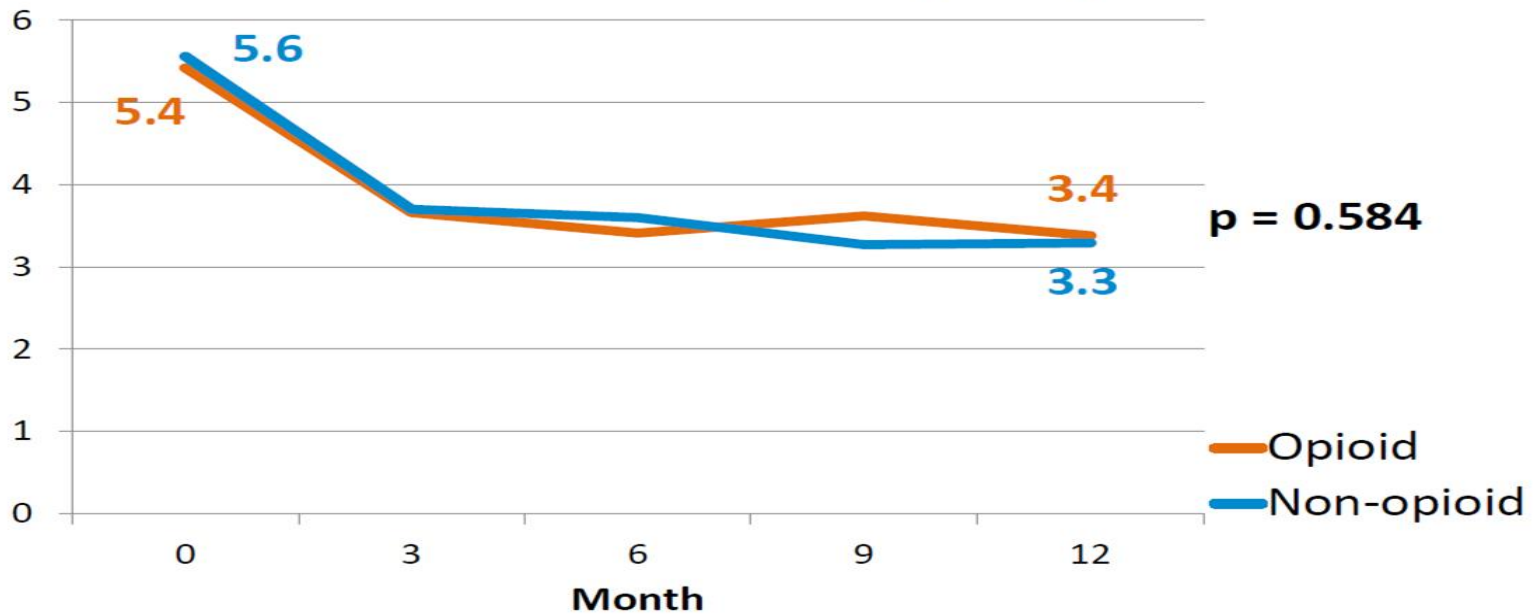


SPACE Trial



Pain interference with function

Mean BPI Interference (n=238)



Evidence on Short-term Harms of Opioid Therapy vs. Placebo for Chronic Non-cancer Pain

| Outcome | Number of trials | RR (95% CI) | Absolute risk difference |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| Discontinuation due to adverse events | 61 | 2.25 (1.86 to 2.73) | 10% |
| Nausea | 60 | 2.46 (2.17 to 2.80) | 17% |
| Vomiting | 49 | 3.57 (2.98 to 4.34) | 7% |
| Constipation | 58 | 3.38 (2.96 to 3.92) | 14% |
| Somnolence | 52 | 2.97 (2.44 to 3.66) | 9% |
| Dizziness | 53 | 2.66 (2.37 to 2.99) | 8% |
| Pruritus | 30 | 3.51 (2.47 to 5.16) | 7% |

Addiction and Misuse

Trials not designed to assess risk of addiction and misuse

- In observational studies:
 - Rates of misuse averaged between 21% to 29%
 - Rates of addiction averaged between 8% to 12%
 - Definitions inconsistent across studies and behaviors vary in seriousness
 - Poorly standardized methods to detect these outcomes
- One study (n=801) based on detailed, standardized interviews^a
 - 26% purposeful oversedation
 - 39% increased dose without prescription
 - 8% obtained extra opioids from other doctors
 - 18% used for purposes other than pain
 - 12% hoarded pain medications

Factors associated with increased risk of overdose, or observed in high proportions of overdoses

- Misuse behaviors
 - Obtaining opioid prescriptions from multiple providers
 - Running out early, losing prescriptions
 - Unauthorized dose escalations
- Recent initiation of opioids
- Methadone
- Concomitant use of benzodiazepines
- Substance use
- Psychological comorbidities
- Higher doses of opioids

Overdose: Dose-response Relationship

- Observational studies consistently show an association between opioid dose and risk of overdose or death in patients with chronic pain
- Risk starts to increase at relatively low doses and continues to increase
- Studies matched or adjusted for potential confounders available in administrative databases
 - Potential for residual confounding by indication
- Difficult to determine whether patients had chronic pain and duration of therapy

Association Between Opioid Dose and Overdose Risk

- **Cohort study (n=9940, 51 opioid overdoses, 6 fatal)**
 - Risk of opioid overdose (vs. 1 to <20 mg/day)
 - ≥ 100 mg/d: HR 8.9 (4.0-20)
 - 50 -<100 mg/d: HR 3.7 (1.5-9.5)
 - 20-<50 mg/d: HR 1.4 (0.57-3.6)
- **Case-control study (VA, 750 cases)**
 - Risk of opioid overdose-related death (vs. 1 to <20 mg/day)
 - ≥ 100 mg/d: HR 7.2 (4.8-11)
 - 50-<100 mg/d: HR 4.6 (3.2-6.7)
 - 20-<50 mg/d: HR 1.9 (1.3-2.7)
- **Nested case-control study (Ontario, 498 cases)**
 - Risk of opioid-related mortality (vs. 1 to <20 mg/day)
 - ≥ 200 mg/d: OR 2.9 (1.8-4.6)
 - 100-199 mg/d: OR 2.0 (1.3-3.2)
 - 50-99 mg/d: OR 1.9 (1.3-2.8)
 - 20-49 mg/d: OR 1.3 (0.94-1.8)

Other Harms of Opioids

- Hyperalgesia
 - Paradoxical increased sensitivity to pain
 - Prevalence, risk factors and clinical significance not well understood
- Hypogonadism
 - Primarily based on cross-sectional studies
 - One study showing association with increased use of testosterone and ED meds
- Falls/fracture risk
- Myocardial infarction
- Poorer functional outcomes

Initiation and Titration of Opioids

- Opioids are not first-line therapy for chronic pain
- In appropriately selected patients who do not respond to non-opioid therapy, view an initial course of opioids as a short-term, therapeutic trial
 - Do not continue long-term opioid therapy in patients who are not benefitting
 - Re-assess within 1-4 weeks
- Start at low doses and titrate cautiously
- Insufficient evidence to recommend short- vs. long-acting opioids, round-the-clock versus PRN
 - Potential benefits of long-acting, round-the-clock dosing unproven
 - Potential harms of long-acting, round-the-clock dosing include increased risk of hyperalgesia, tolerance, endocrinologic adverse effects
 - Initiation with long-acting opioids associated with increased risk of overdose
 - Methadone and fentanyl not recommended as first line options due to less predictable/more complicated dosing/pharmacokinetics
 - Buprenorphine for chronic pain in higher risk patients; evidence lacking to show improved safety but theoretically lower respiratory risk
 - Higher dose buprenorphine formulations approved for treatment of opioid use disorder (off-label for pain)

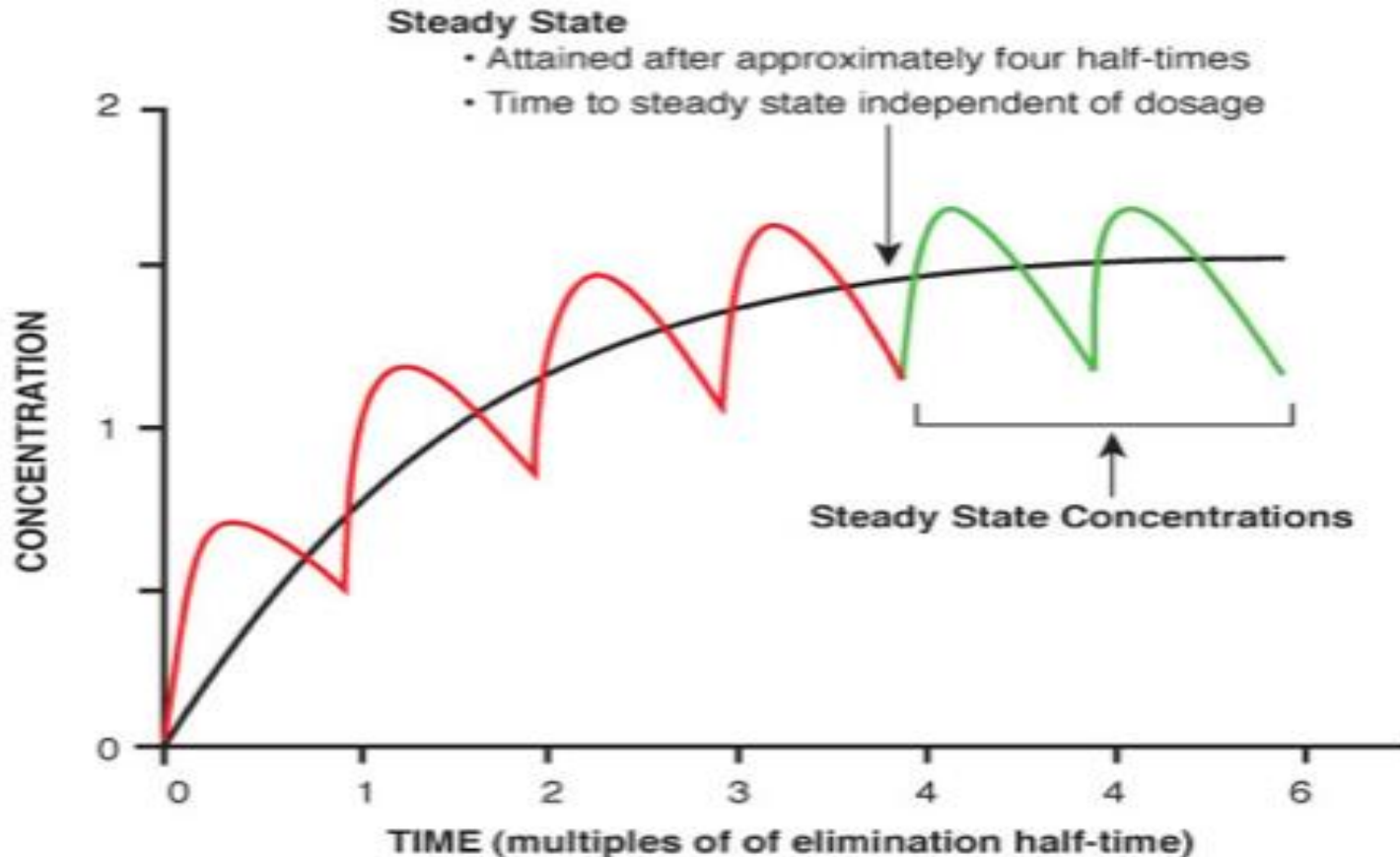
Methadone

- Synthetic opioid used for treatment of addiction and pain
- Increased methadone deaths nationwide
 - 1999: 800 deaths; 2008: 4900 deaths
 - Methadone accounted for 1.7% of opioid rx's in 2009 and 9.0% of morphine equivalents in 2010^a
 - Involved in 31% of opioid-related deaths, and 40% of single-drug deaths^a
- Half-life 15 to 60 hours, up to 120 hours
 - 60 hour half-life=12 days to steady-state
 - Start at 2.5 mg q8 hrs, increase slowly
- Higher doses of methadone associated with greater QTc interval prolongation
 - High proportion of reported cases of torsades de pointes occurred in patients prescribed >200 mg/day
 - ECG monitoring at baseline and at higher doses^b
- Morphine to methadone conversion ratio increases at higher doses
 - Incomplete cross-tolerance

^aMMWR 2012;61:493-7

^bChou R J Pain 2014;15:321-37

Time to Reach Steady State



Morphine to Methadone Conversion

| 24 hour total oral morphine | Oral morphine to methadone conversion ratio |
|------------------------------------|--|
| <30 mg | 2:1 |
| 31-99 mg | 4:1 |
| 100-299 mg | 8:1 |
| 300-499 mg | 12:1 |
| 500-999 mg | 15:1 |
| >1000 mg | 20:1 |

Note: Proposed morphine to methadone conversion ratios vary



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Fentanyl

- Absorption and pharmacodynamics of transdermal fentanyl are complex
- Gradually increasing serum concentration during the first part of the 72-hour dosing interval
- Variable absorption based on factors such as external heat
- Dosing in mcg/hr instead of mg
- Should be prescribed with clinicians familiar with its use and complexities

Dosing

- **No theoretical ceiling with opioids**
 - But, little evidence to guide prescribing at higher doses
 - Additional risks (hyperalgesia, endocrine), unclear benefit, and can be a marker for abuse, addiction, or diversion
 - Higher doses associated with increased risk of overdose
 - Unclear if persons who don't respond at relatively low doses will respond at higher doses (may be opioid non-responders)
- **Definitions of “higher dose” have varied and continue to evolve; trend towards lower dose thresholds based on new evidence on dose-dependent overdose risks**
 - 2009 APS/AAPM guideline defined >200 MME/day of as “higher dose”
 - 2016 CDC guideline recommends caution at 50-90 MME/day and to avoid doses >90 MME/day
- **Mitigating risks of higher doses**
 - Counsel patients on risks and provide opportunity to taper
 - More frequent or intense monitoring
 - Consider tapering off medication if not achieving therapeutic goals
 - Provide naloxone in conjunction with overdose education
 - Avoid co-prescribing of benzodiazepines and other medications (e.g., other sedatives, gabapentinoids) that may increase risk

High-dose Opioid Therapy Prescribing Patterns

- Small proportion of patients account for the majority of opioids prescribed
 - In one study, 5% of opioid users accounted for 48% to 70% of total use
- Factors associated with high dose therapy include:
 - Presence of substance use disorders
 - Presence of mental health disorders
 - Use of sedative-hypnotics and multiple opioids
 - Higher health service utilization
 - Multiple pain problems and high levels of medical and psychiatric comorbidity
- **“Adverse selection”— persons at highest risk are more likely to receive high dose opioids**
 - Address psychosocial risk factors or high distress when possible, rather than increasing dose

Mitigating Risks Associated with Opioids

- Avoid higher doses
- Monitoring, including urine drug testing
 - Reassess at least every 3 months, more frequently for higher-risk persons, after initiation and dose increases
- Review prescription drug monitoring data
- Avoid sedative-hypnotics (particularly benzodiazepines)
- More frequent follow-up
- Addiction, pain, or psychiatric consultation
- More frequent refills with smaller quantities
- Naloxone co-prescription
- Abuse-deterrent formulations

Urine Drug Tests

Recommended to help identify risky behaviors that would otherwise be undisclosed:

- Non-invasive, objective documentation of compliance with treatment plan, including use or absence of prescribed drugs, non-prescribed drugs, and illicit substances
- Longer window or detection compared to blood

When to perform urine drug testing:

- At baseline and periodically, interval may be guided in part by assessed risk
 - Test if suspected aberrant behaviors and after major changes in treatment
- Optimal frequency and usefulness of individualized or random vs. routine testing uncertain
 - 1-2 times/year may be appropriate for low-risk patients; 3-4 or more times per year for higher risk
 - Individualized or random testing may miss some abnormal tests, but higher yield and reduced costs
 - Patients may have more opportunity to tamper or alter behavior if testing expected

Cannabis Use and Opioids

- High prevalence of cannabis use in patients with chronic pain, with or without opioids
 - 6.2% to 39% (Reisfield et al. Pain Med 2009;10:1431; Nugent et al. Ann Intern Med 2017;167:319)
- Some evidence that states with medical cannabis laws experience slower rates of increase in opioid analgesic overdose death rates compared to states without such laws. (Bachhuber, 2014)
 - But, other evidence that states with medical cannabis laws experienced an opioid overdose death rate 22.7% higher than expected (Shover, 2019)
- Evidence limited, but cannabis may have analgesic effects, particularly for neuropathic pain
 - Effects of cannabis vary depending on THC vs. cannabidiol (CBD) content
 - THC associated with psychoactive/intoxicating effects
 - CBD associated with medicinal effects
- Little evidence on psychomotor and other effects in patients using cannabis and opioids. (Nugent, 2017).
- Association between cannabis use and opioid and other substance misuse uncertain
- Increased risk of MVA with cannabis use
- Caution in patients unable to decrease cannabis use
 - May indicate cannabis use disorder

Opioid-deterrent Formulations

- Opioid-deterrent formulations recently approved by FDA or undergoing FDA approval process
 - Designed to be tamper-resistant or co-formulated with medications that reverse opioid effects or produce noxious side effects when tampered with
 - Effectiveness for reducing misuse/substance abuse and improving clinical outcomes difficult to study
 - Likely to be primarily effective in patients who crush or inject opioids
 - Some patients switched to opioid-deterrent formulations may seek other prescription or illicit opioids^a

High-risk Patients

- High-risk patients are more vulnerable to opioid abuse, misuse, addiction
- Clinicians prescribing opioids in high-risk patients must be able to implement additional measures to manage these risks
 - More frequent monitoring
 - Limited prescription fills
 - Consultation with addiction specialists and mental health professionals
 - Medications for opioid use disorder (methadone, buprenorphine, or naltrexone in conjunction with psychological therapies) recommended for most patients with opioid use disorder
 - If opioids utilized for pain, opioid-deterrent formulations may be helpful
 - Provide naloxone

Evaluation of Aberrant Drug-related Behaviors

- Aberrant drug-related behaviors must be evaluated
 - Behaviors vary in seriousness
 - Need to judge seriousness, the cause or causes, likelihood of recurrence, and clinical context
 - Predictors of high likelihood of future aberrant behaviors include 3 or more episodes of aberrant behaviors and sense of “losing control”
 - Serious behaviors include diversion, injecting oral drugs
 - Responses range from patient education and enhanced monitoring to referral to addiction specialist and discontinuation of therapy

Discontinuation of Opioid Therapy

- Taper or wean patients off of long-term opioid therapy when they:
 - Engage in intractable aberrant drug-related behaviors or drug misuse/diversion
 - Experience no progress towards meeting therapeutic goals
 - Experience intolerable adverse effects
- Continue to manage pain using non-opioid therapies
- Have an exit strategy when initiating a trial of long-term opioid therapy
 - Indications for stopping opioid therapy
 - Plans for tapering or discontinuing
 - Slow tapers over months or years may be required
 - Provide psychosocial support
 - Know resources for managing addiction and mental health issues

Driving and Work Safety

- Opioids may cause somnolence, incoordination, clouded mentation, or slower reflexes
- Counsel patients not to drive or perform dangerous activities when impaired
 - Impairment more likely when starting therapy, when increasing doses, and when using other drugs with psychoactive effects
 - No evidence that patients on opioids should be restricted from driving in the absence of signs of impairment
 - State laws vary on reporting requirements

Use of Opioids for Acute Pain

- Opioids generally considered the most effective medication for acute pain
 - But, recent data indicates that opioids may be no more effective than an NSAID alone for some types of acute pain
 - In LBP adding oxycodone/acetaminophen to an NSAID did not improve pain or function at 1 week (Friedman BW. JAMA 2015;314:1572)
 - Opioids no more effective than NSAIDs for third molar extraction
- Use of opioids for “minor” pain associated with increased risk of long-term use
 - Versus no opioid use, opioid within 7 days of minor surgery associated with 44% increased risk of use at 1 year (Alam A. Arch Intern Med 2012;172:425)
- Prescribing excessive quantities of opioids for acute pain results in leftover opioids
 - Source of diversion and unprescribed use
- More judicious use of opioids for acute pain
 - If used, usually limit opioids to a 3-5 day supply for most acute pain (Chou et al. Treatments for Acute Pain, Comparative Effectiveness Review AHRQ 2020)

Conclusions: What is the evidence?

- Opioids associated with modest short-term benefits and increased risk of various opioid-related side effects
- Evidence on long-term benefits limited but indicates no clear benefit versus non-opioid therapy
- Accumulating evidence on serious harms of long-term opioid therapy (including overdose) that appear to be dose-dependent
- Altogether, evidence suggests at best a close balance of benefits to harm
- For chronic pain, reserve opioids for appropriately selected patients with persistent pain despite non-opioid therapies
- If long-term opioid therapy prescribed, monitor patients and utilize risk mitigation strategies
- Patients on high doses warrant re-evaluation, additional monitoring, and follow-up
- Decrease dose or discontinue opioids in patients who are not improving or in whom benefits do not outweigh harms
- Judicious, time-limited use of opioids for acute pain with re-evaluation for persistent pain

Case

- Unclear if benefitting from very high doses of long-term opioid therapy, ?worsening of GI symptoms
- No signs of aberrant behaviors
- Slow taper initiated, over ~2 years
 - Morphine 450 mg/day reduced to 120 mg/day
 - Oxycodone 160 mg/day reduced to 5 mg bid prn
 - 690 mg/MED/day reduced to 135 mg/day
- Added non-opioid medications
 - Duloxetine 30 mg qD
 - Buspirone 30 mg bid
- Pain and function no worse than when on high doses, no serious withdrawal
 - Some periods of acute pain with temporary increases in opioids
 - Goal is to get down to <100 to 120 mg MED/day

Evidence-informed Approach to Appropriate Use of Opioids

- Preference for non-opioid therapies
 - Opioids alone do not address the psychosocial contributors to chronic pain
- Not all patients are appropriate for opioid therapy
- Use risk assessment to inform decisions
- Initiate at low doses and titrate slowly
- View initial treatment as a therapeutic trial
- Routine monitoring and risk mitigation
- Titration should be based on responsiveness of patients to initial, low doses
 - Patients who do not respond to low doses probably will not respond to higher doses—“opioid non-responders”
 - Taper in patients not responding or experiencing adverse effects
- Caution when reaching threshold doses
 - Little incremental benefit with dose escalation but increased harms
 - Much easier to titrate up doses than to titrate down

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PCSS Mentoring Program

- PCSS Mentor Program is designed to offer general information to clinicians about evidence-based clinical practices in prescribing medications for opioid use disorder.
- PCSS Mentors are a national network of providers with expertise in **addictions, pain, evidence-based treatment including medications for opioid use disorder (MOUD)**.
- 3-tiered approach allows every mentor/mentee relationship to be unique and catered to the specific needs of the mentee.
- No cost.

For more information visit:

<https://pcssNOW.org/mentoring/>

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Ask a Colleague

A simple and direct way to receive an answer related to medications for opioid use disorder. Designed to provide a prompt response to simple practice-related questions.

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PCSS is a collaborative effort led by the American Academy of Addiction Psychiatry (AAAP) in partnership with:

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| American Academy of Family Physicians | American Society for Pain Management Nursing |
| American Academy of Pain Medicine | Association for Multidisciplinary Education and Research in Substance use and Addiction |
| American Academy of Pediatrics | Council on Social Work Education |
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