

Pain Management and the Pharmacist's Role in Opioid Use

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Disclosure

The author of this presentation has nothing to disclose concerning possible financial or personal relationships with the commercial entities that may have a direct or indirect interest in the subject matter of this presentation.



Pharmacist Objectives

- Differentiate between the pathophysiology of the characteristic types of pain
- Convert between different opioid-containing formulations and recommend appropriate dosing
- Communicate to physicians and patients on effective strategies for appropriate opioid use, adverse effects, and proper disposal
- Outline risk factors in identifying patients' potential for opioid tolerance and dependence



Definition of Pain

“An unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue damage, or described in terms of such damage”

-International Association for the Study of Pain, 1996

“Pain is always subjective. Each individual learns the application of the word through experiences related to injury”

-Merskey, 1991

“Pain is a more terrible lord of mankind than even death itself”

-Dr. Albert Schweitzer, 1931



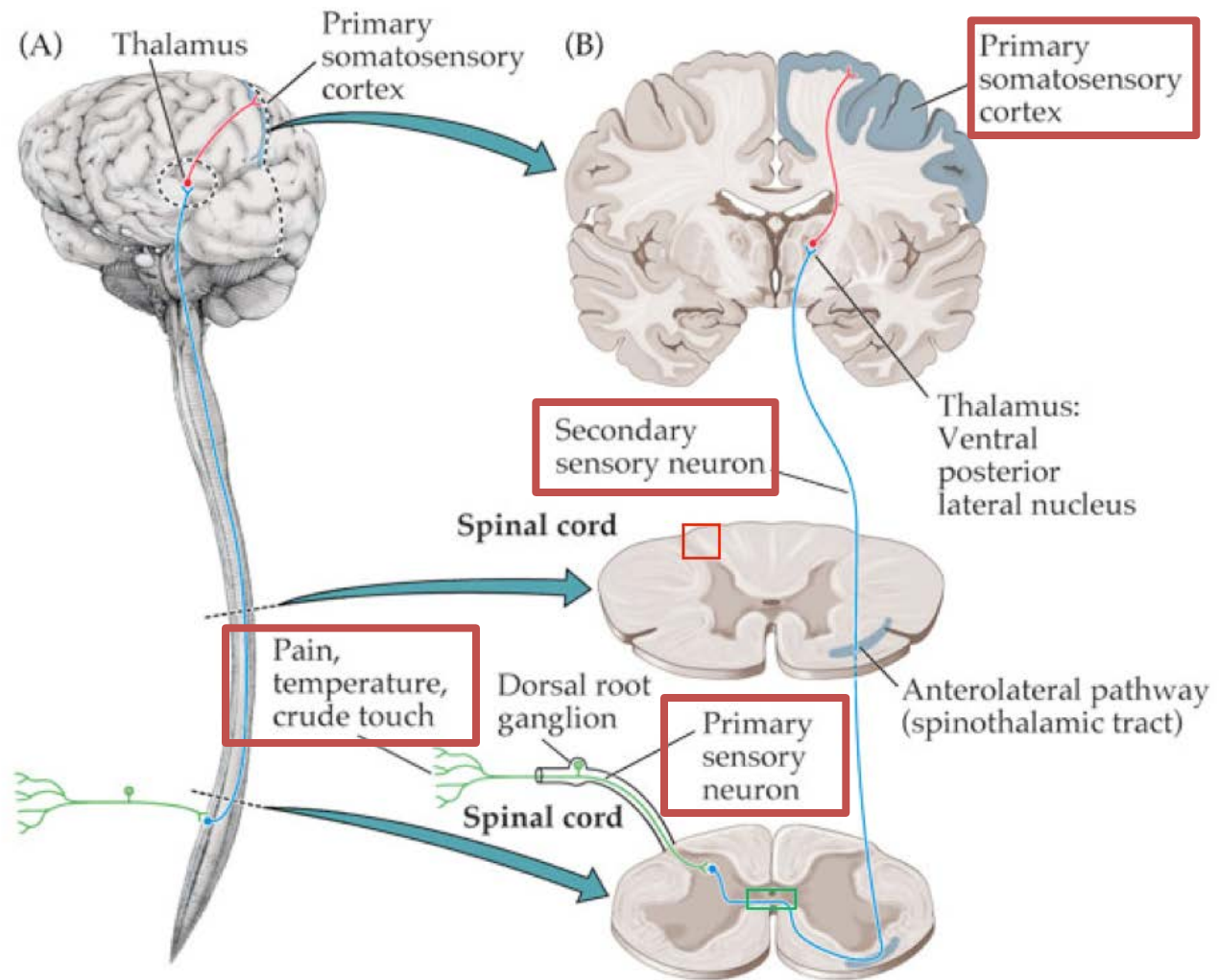
Background

- Pain affects more Americans than diabetes, heart disease, and cancer combined
- Most common reason individuals seek medical attention
- National Center for Health Statistics (2006)
 - 76.2 million people in the US have suffered from chronic pain lasting more than 24 hours
- The American Pain Society estimates that the national cost of pain ranges from \$560 to \$635 billion





Pathophysiology





Classification of Pain

Acute

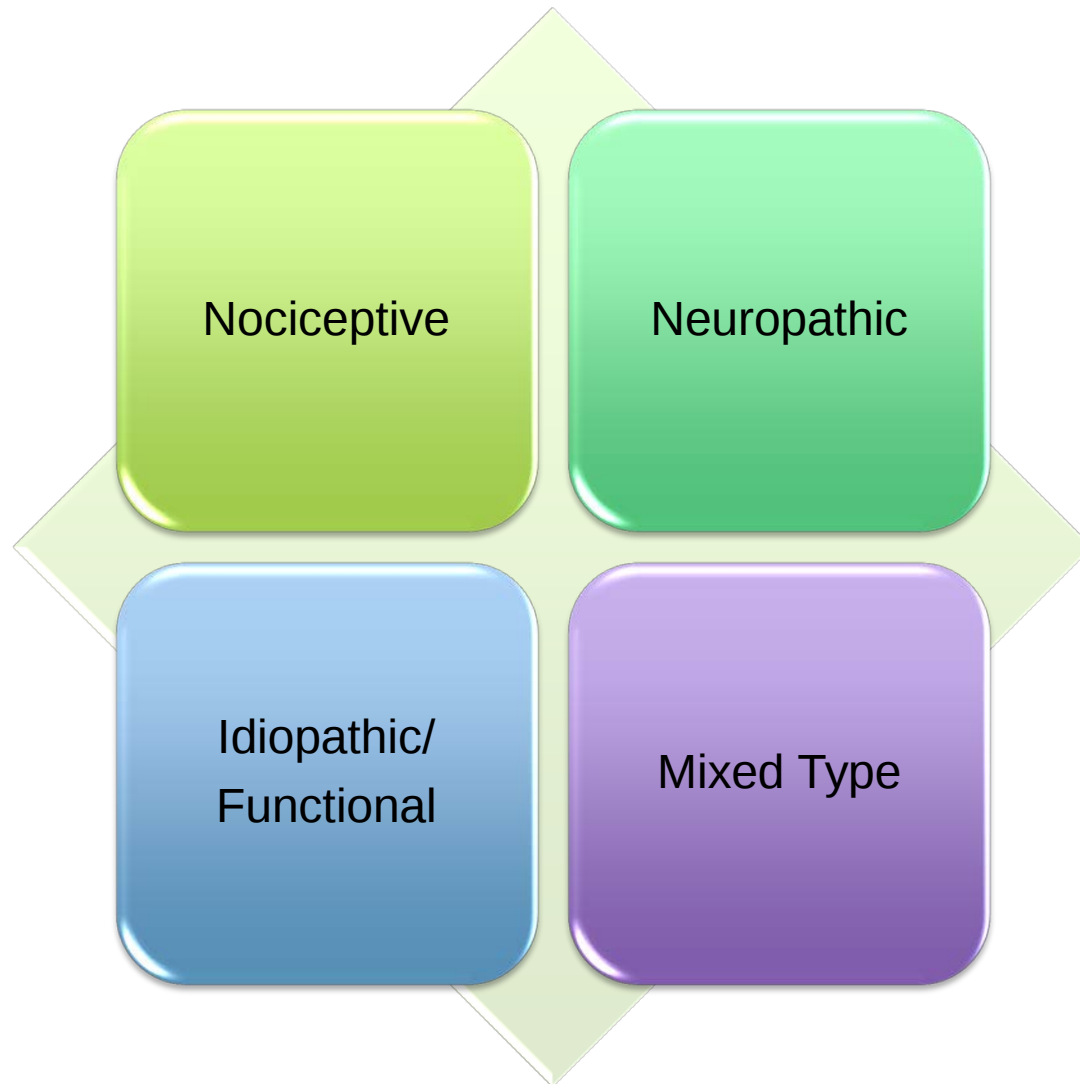
- Predicted physiological response to stimulus
- Self-limiting
- < 3 months duration
- Associated with surgery, traumatic injury, tissue damage, and inflammation

Chronic

- Intractable pain
- Does not resolve in response to treatment
- ≥ 3 months duration
- Cause may or may not be known

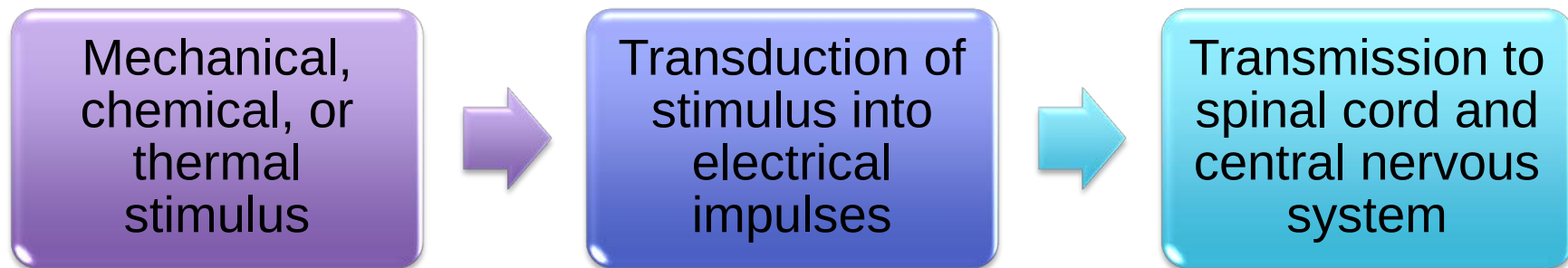


Types of Pain



Nociceptive Pain

- Results from the activation or sensitization of nociceptors located in the periphery
- Categorized as somatic and visceral pain
- Examples include trauma, post-operative pain, lower back pain, arthritis and sickle cell crisis



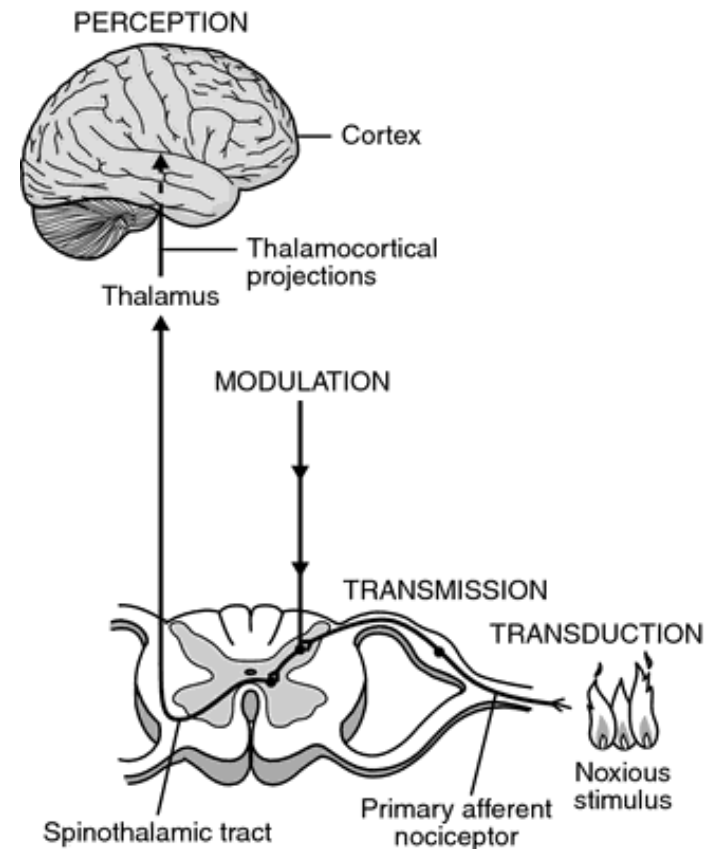
Nociceptive Pain

Somatic

- Excitation and sensitization of nociceptors in bone, peripheral soft tissue, joints, and muscles
- Generally well-localized
- Described as aching, stabbing, gnawing, or throbbing

Visceral

- Produced by organs and referred to other locations
- Diffuse and poorly-located
- Accompanied by motor and autonomic reflexes (i.e. nausea and vomiting)



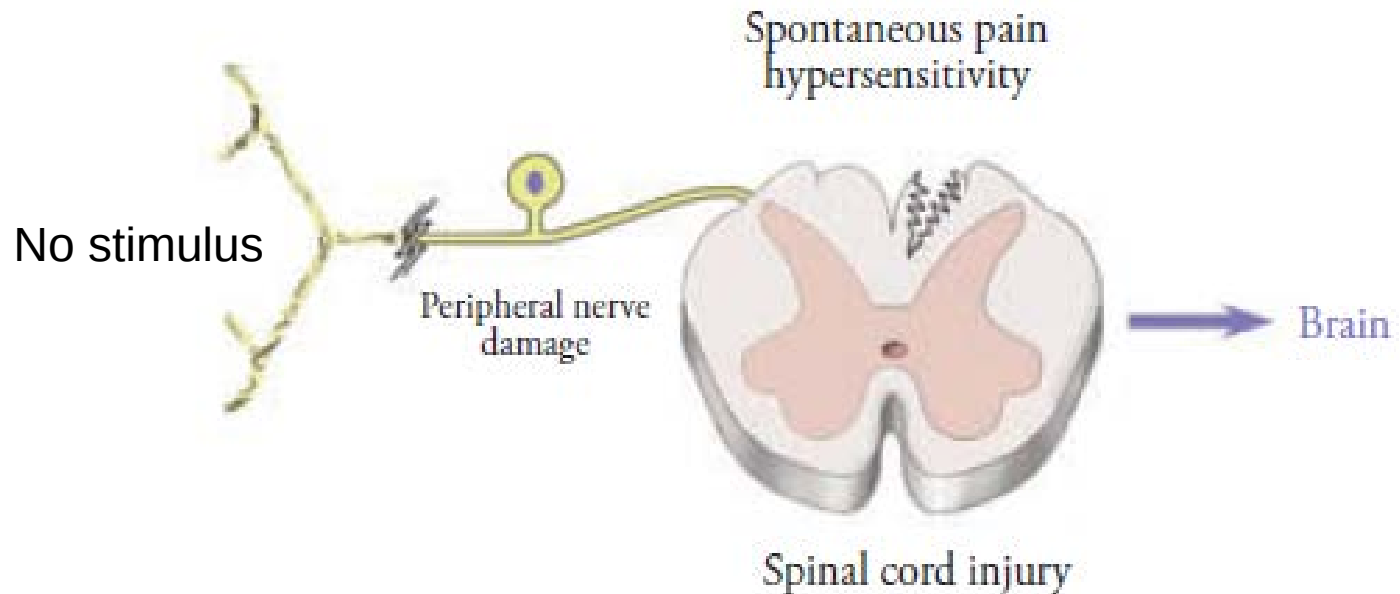
Neuropathic Pain

- Results from injury to neural structures within the peripheral and central nervous system
- Sharp, burning pain caused by aberrant somatosensory processing
- Three types of neuropathic pain
 - Peripherally-mediated (peripheral nerves and brachial plexus)
 - Central pain syndrome (CNS)
 - Sympathetically-mediated (central and peripheral)



Neuropathic Pain

- Examples include post-herpetic neuralgia, diabetic neuropathy, central post-stroke pain, post-amputation pain



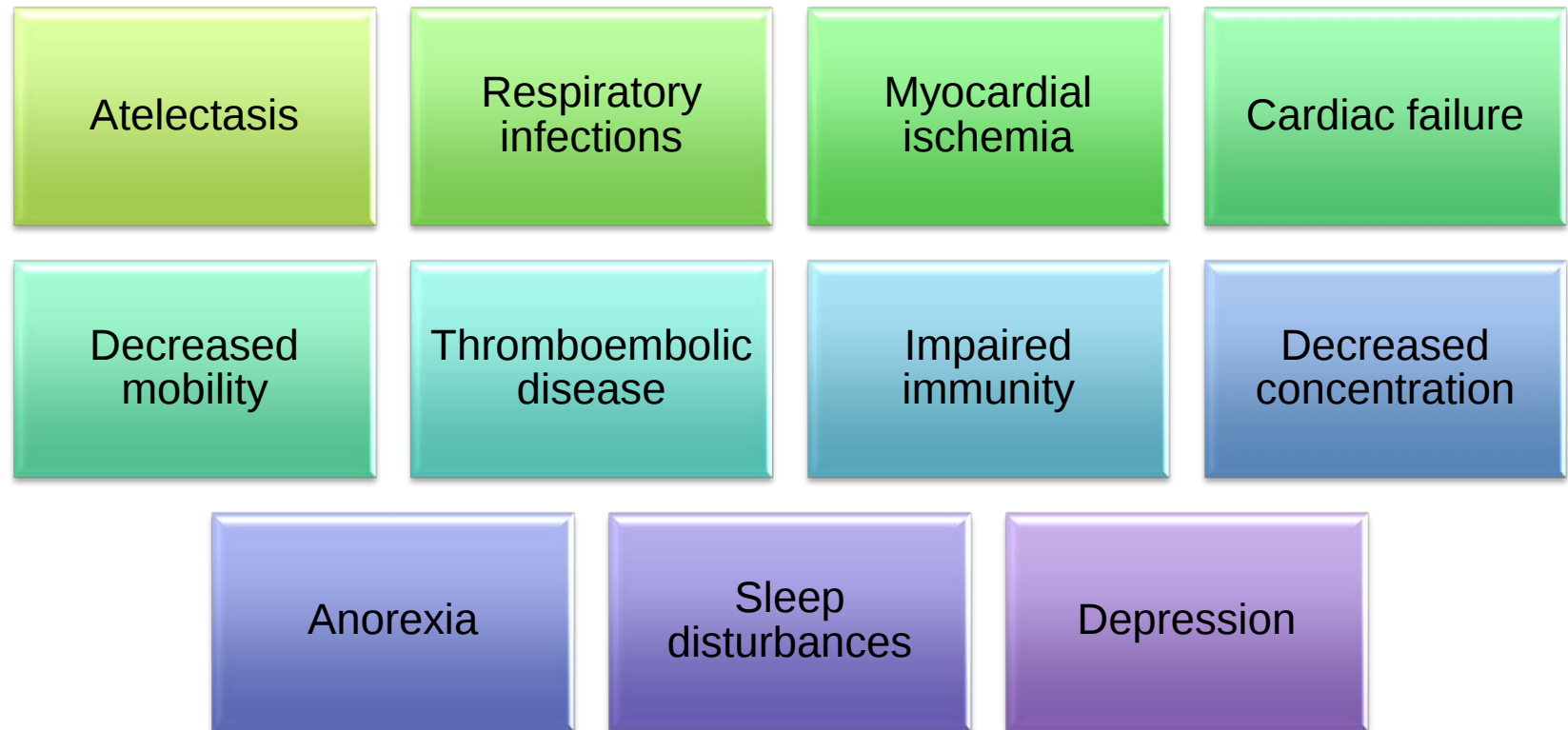


Idiopathic/Functional Pain

- Pain resulting from an absence of neurologic deficit or peripheral abnormality
- Caused by changes in the nervous system emerging from:
 - Genetic predisposition
 - Anxiety or depression
 - Increased psychosocial stressors
 - Infections
 - Trauma
- Examples include fibromyalgia and tension-type headaches



Clinical Implications of Untreated Pain



Goals of Pain Management

Identify and
address cause of
pain

Treat acute pain
aggressively

Prevent chronic
pain

Treat chronic pain
continuously

Improve function to
sustain quality of
life

Treat noninvasively
if possible

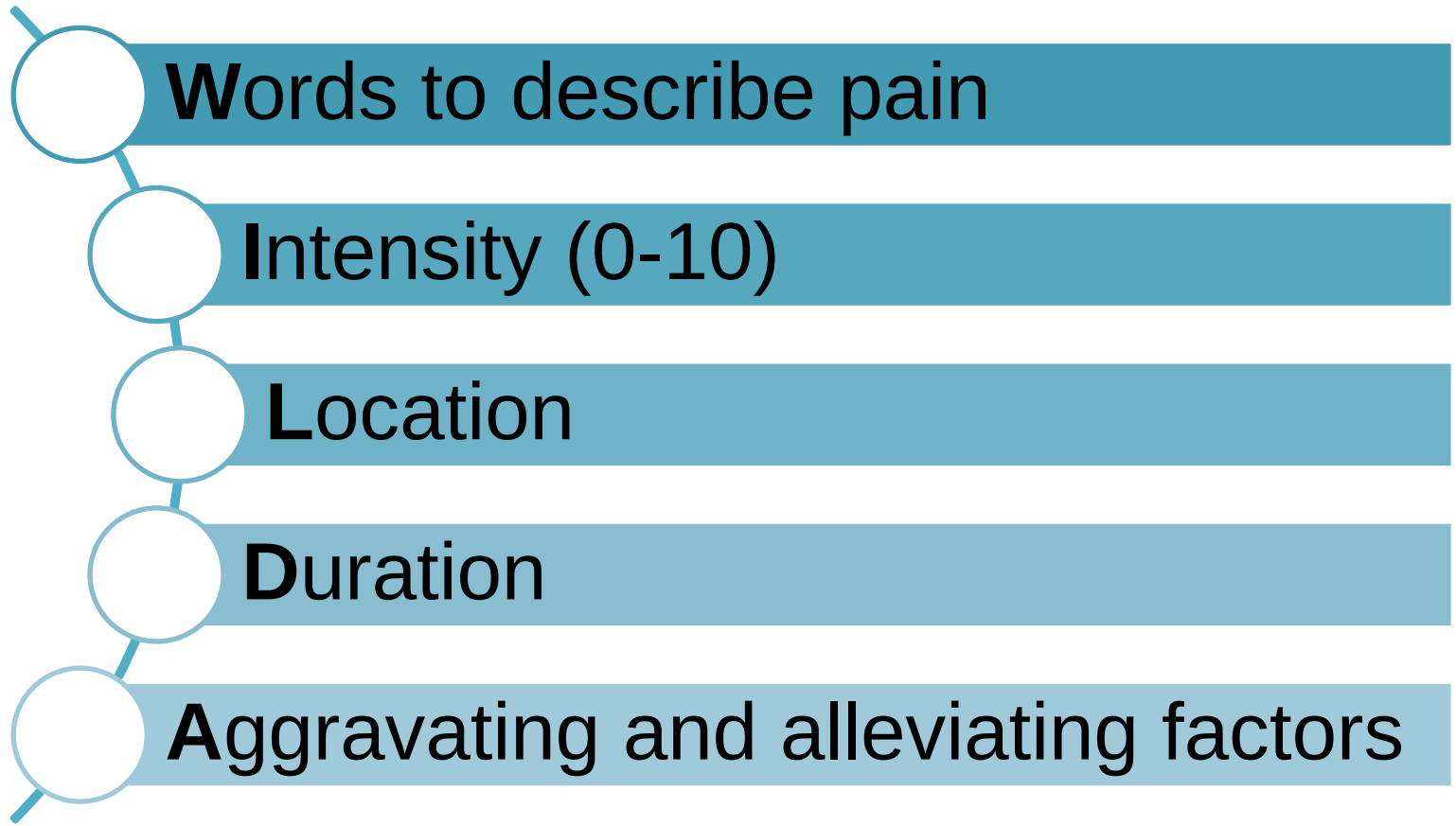


Pain Assessment

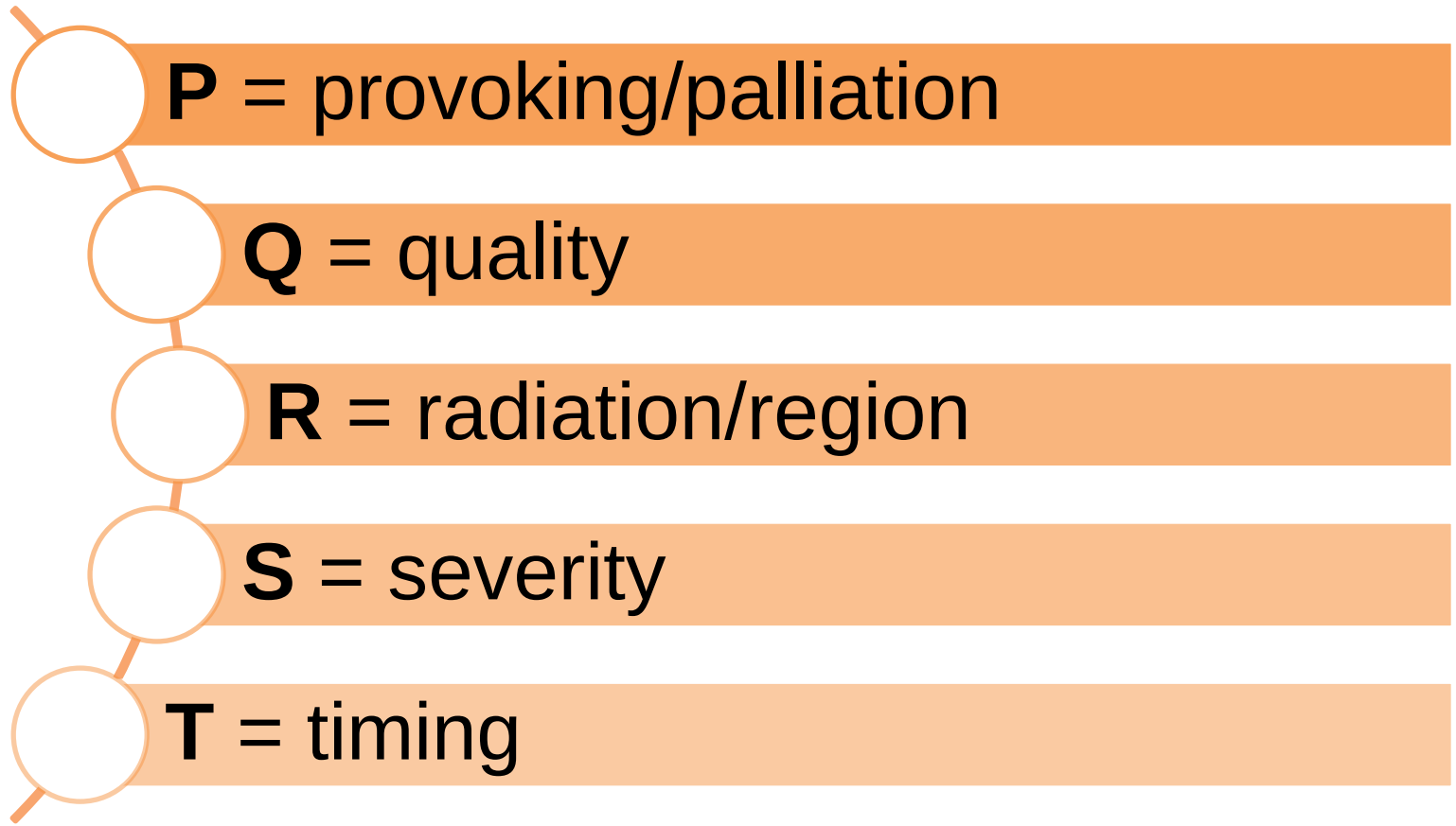
- Cornerstone to optimal pain management
- Subjective approach (clinical assessment)
 - Complete history & physical
 - Medical, social, and psychiatric history
 - Physical examination
 - Laboratory and diagnostic tests (i.e. x-rays, MRI, etc.)
- Objective approach (pain assessment tools)
 - WILDA approach
 - PQRST approach



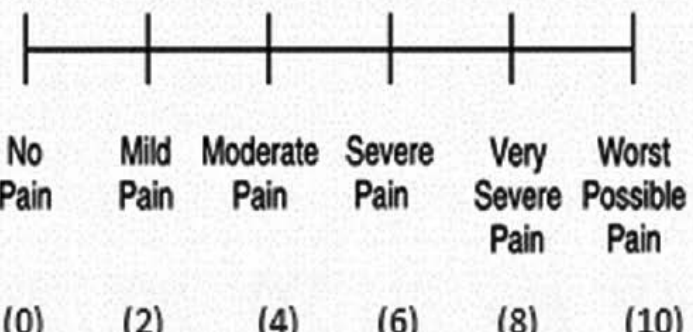
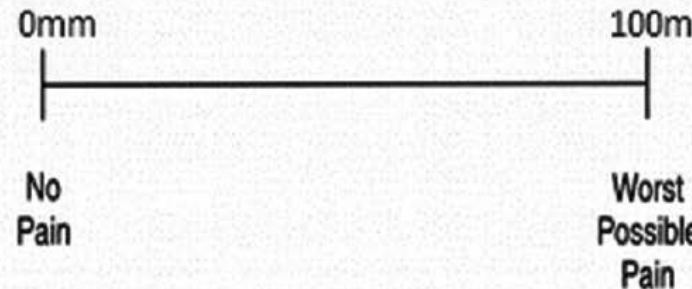
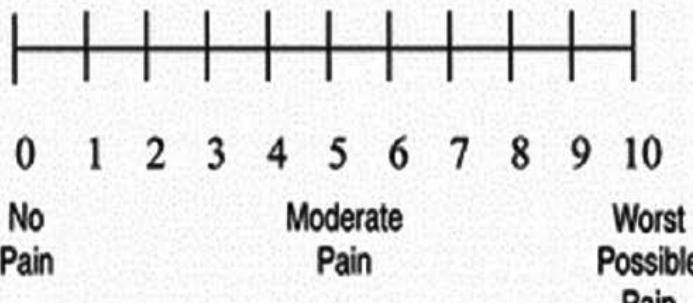
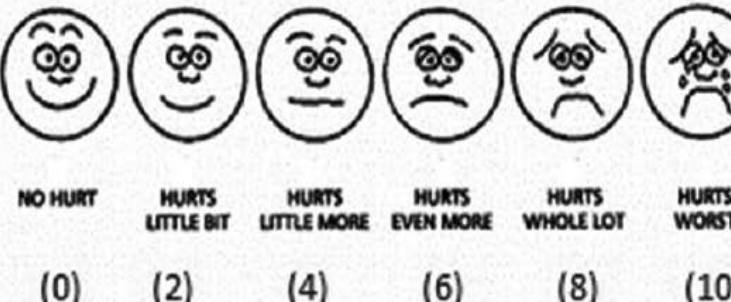
The WILDA Approach to Pain Management



The PQRST Approach to Pain Management



Validated Pain Assessment Tools

Verbal Pain Intensity Scale  No Pain Mild Pain Moderate Pain Severe Pain Very Severe Pain Worst Possible Pain (0) (2) (4) (6) (8) (10)	Visual Analogue Scale  0mm 100mm No Pain Worst Possible Pain
(0 to 10 cm) Numeric Pain Intensity Scale  0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 No Pain Moderate Pain Worst Possible Pain	“FACES” Scale  NO HURT HURTS LITTLE BIT HURTS LITTLE MORE HURTS EVEN MORE HURTS WHOLE LOT HURTS WORST (0) (2) (4) (6) (8) (10)

The Pharmacist's Role

- Utilizing multimodal analgesia to select an appropriate pain regimen
- Understanding the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties of analgesics
- Managing adverse effects appropriately
- Recommending potential reversal agents for overdose
- Converting between opioid formulations



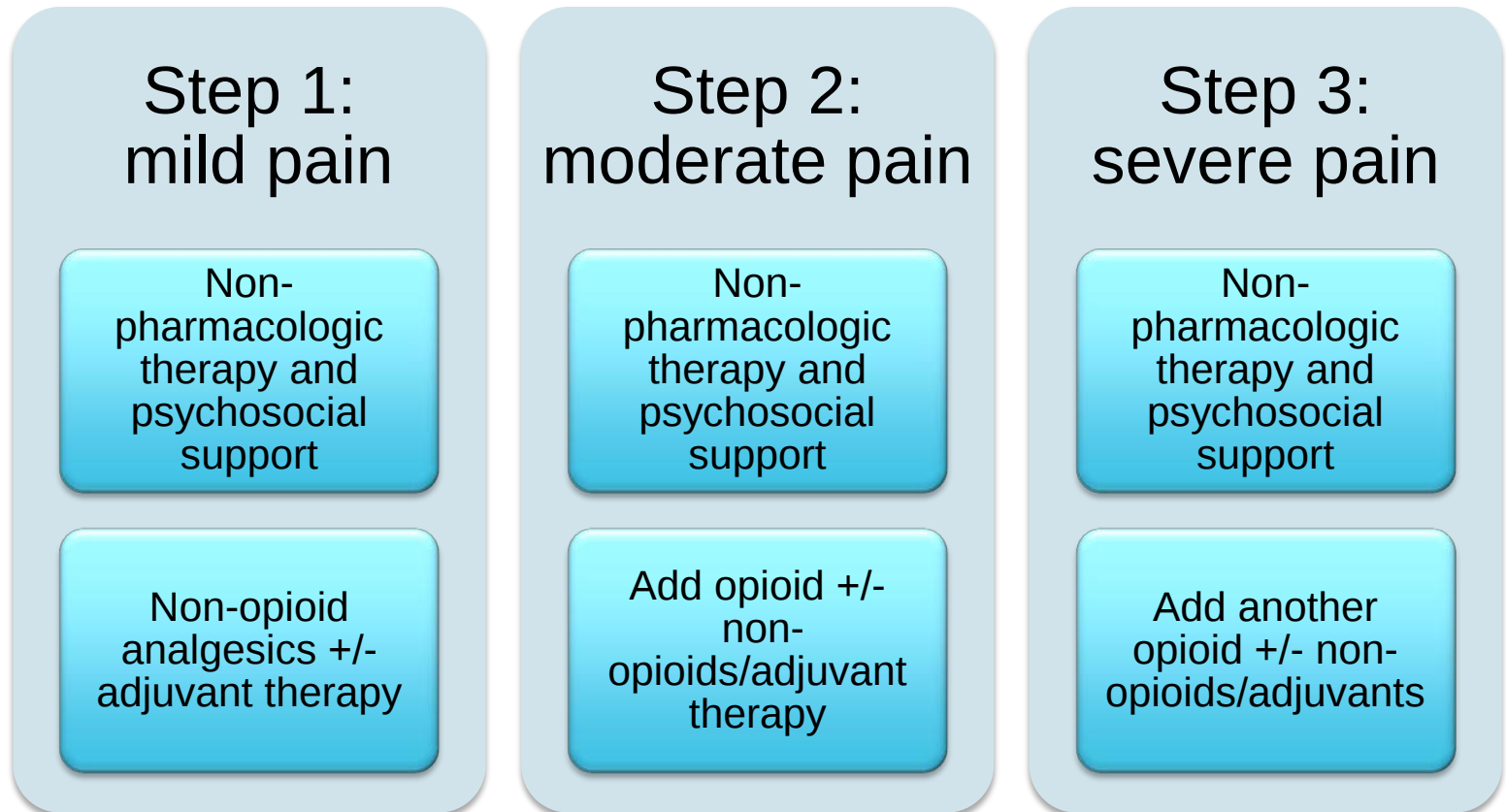
Multimodal Treatment Approach

- Use of more than one method or modality of controlling pain
 - Nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic treatment
 - Medications from two or more classes
- To obtain additive beneficial effects, reduce adverse effects, or both
- Clinical benefits of multimodal analgesia
 - Earlier oral intake, ambulation, and hospital discharge
 - Reduction in postoperative morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs





A Stepwise Approach to Multimodal Analgesia



Adjuvant therapy: anticonvulsants (gabapentin, pregabalin), topical agents (lidocaine patch, capsaicin cream, diclofenac gel/cream), muscle relaxants (cyclobenzaprine, metaxalone, baclofen, methocarbamol, carisoprodol), antidepressants (SSRIs, SNRIs, TCAs)



Non-Pharmacologic Therapy

Cold/warmth

Relaxation techniques

Biofeedback

Physical therapy

Acupuncture

Massage therapy

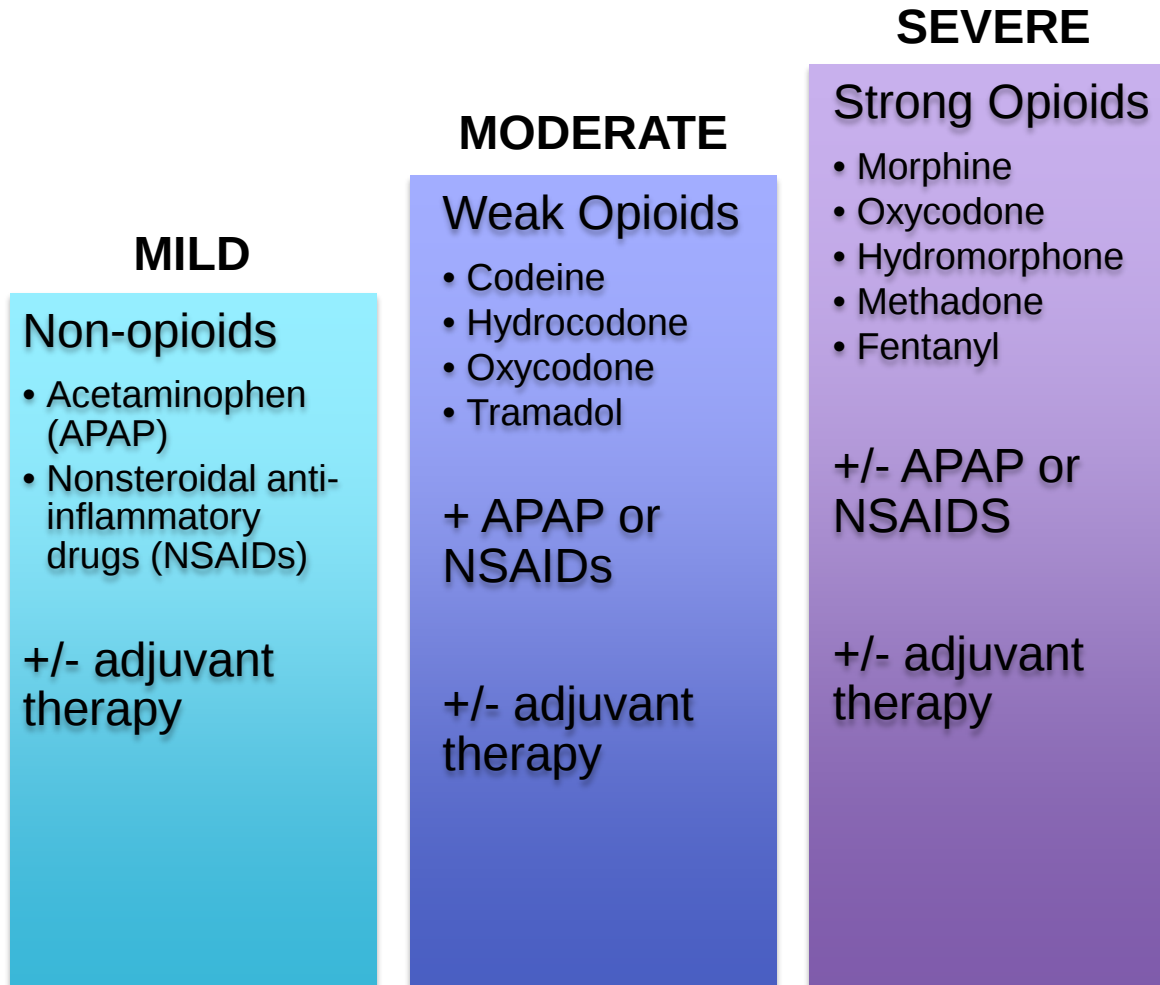
Neurostimulation

Exercise

Psychotherapy/support
groups



World Health Organization Analgesic Ladder



Non-Opioid Analgesics

- **Acetaminophen (APAP)**
 - MOA: inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis in the CNS
 - Blocks peripheral pain impulse generation and increases pain threshold
 - Lacks anti-inflammatory benefit; no effect on platelets
 - Risk for hepatic dysfunction

- **NSAIDs (i.e. ibuprofen, ketorolac, naproxen)**
 - MOA: inhibition of cyclooxygenase (COX) and inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis from arachidonic acid
 - Reduces tissue inflammation and pain
 - Risk for bleeding, cardiovascular events and renal insufficiency



Adjuvant Therapy for Chronic Pain

Anticonvulsants

- Gabapentin, pregabalin

Topical agents

- Lidocaine patch, capsaicin cream, diclofenac gel/cream

Muscle relaxants

- Cyclobenzaprine, metaxalone, carisoprodol, methocarbamol

Antidepressants

- SSRIs, SNRIs, TCAs



Opioid Analgesics

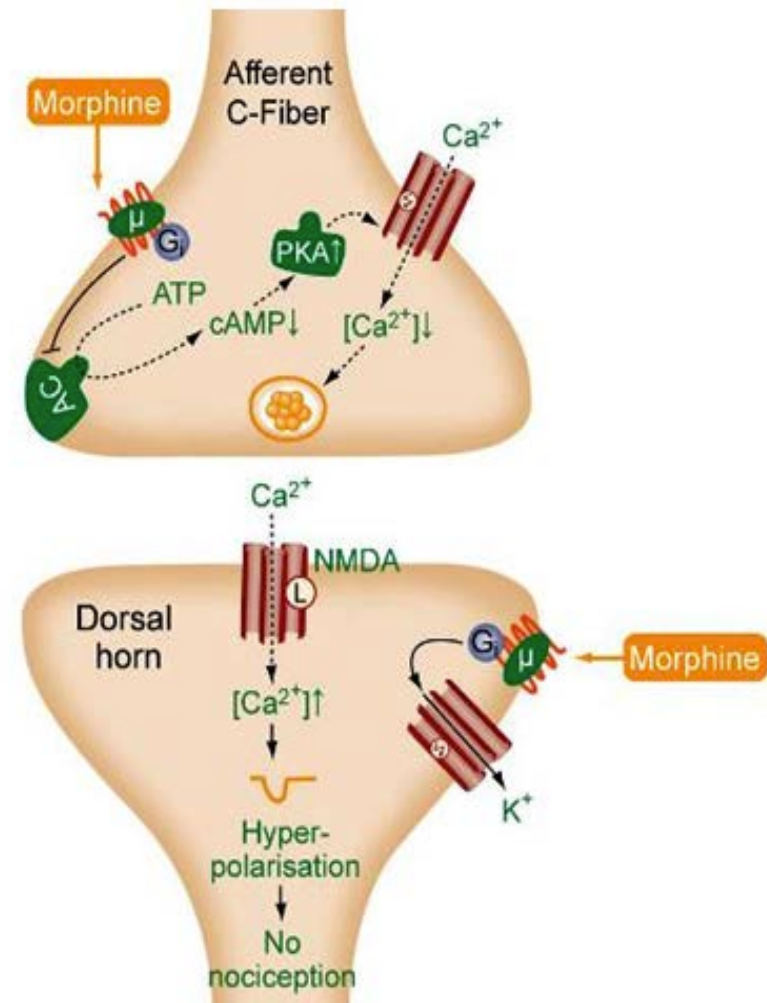
- MOA: binds to opioid receptors in the CNS, peripheral nerve terminals, and GI tract
 - Interact with mu (μ), delta (δ), or kappa (κ) opioid receptors
 - Decrease release of excitatory neurotransmitters (i.e. glutamate)
 - Decrease post-synaptic response to neurotransmitters
 - Inhibition of ascending pain pathways, which alters response and perception of pain



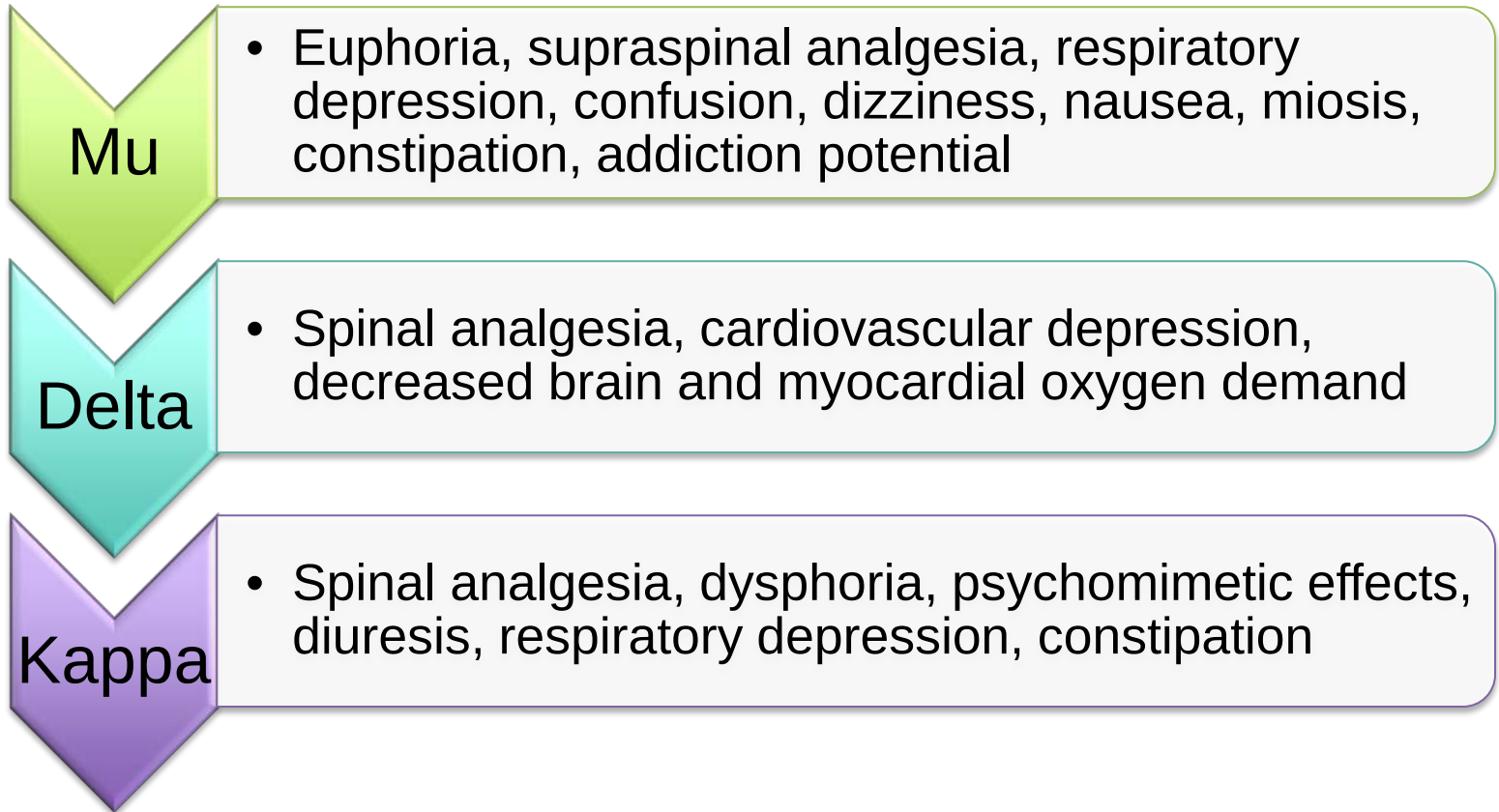


Pharmacology of Opioids

- Opioid receptors coupled to G1 proteins
- Closure of N-type voltage-operated calcium channels
- Opening of calcium-dependent inwardly-rectifying potassium channels
- Hyperpolarization and reduction in neuronal excitability
- ↓ cAMP results in decreased substance P



Opioid Receptor Effects



Classification of Opioids

Partial agonist

- Buprenorphine

Pure agonist

- **Weak**
 - Tramadol
 - Codeine
 - Dextropropoxyphene
 - Dihydrocodeine
- **Strong**
 - Hydromorphone
 - Fentanyl
 - Methadone
 - Oxycodone
 - Morphine

Agonist/ Antagonist

- **Weak**
 - Nalbuphine
- **Strong**
 - Pentazocine

Antagonist

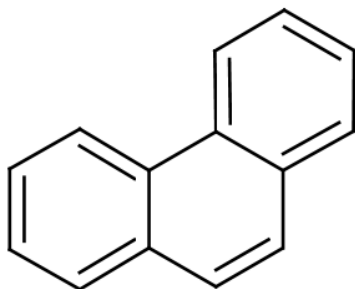
- Naloxone
- Naltrexone



Classification of Opioids

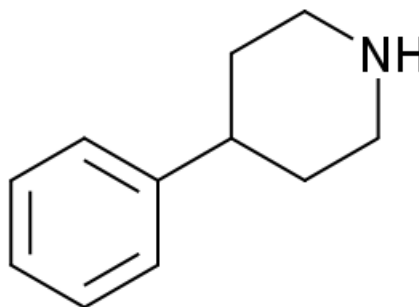
Phenanthrenes

- **Natural:**
 - Codeine, Morphine
- **Semisynthetic:**
 - Hydrocodone, Hydromorphone, Oxycodone, Oxymorphone



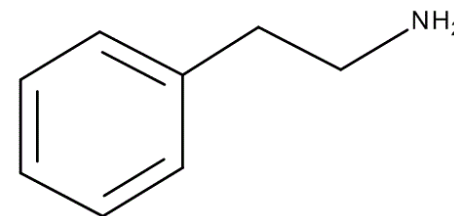
Phenylpiperidines

- Fentanyl, Meperidine, Remifentanyl, Sufentanil



Phenylheptylamines

- Methadone, Propoxyphene





Opioid Allergy vs. Pseudoallergy

- 9 out of 10 patients with a reported allergy to an opioid do not have a true allergy
 - Codeine, morphine, and meperidine cause most allergic-type reactions
- Symptoms resemble an allergic reaction but are actually a “pseudoallergic” reaction due to histamine release
 - Itching, sneezing, flushing, sweating, asthma exacerbation
- Symptoms of a true allergy
 - Hives, maculopapular rash, erythema multiforme, pustular rash, severe hypotension, bronchospasm, angioedema





Opioid Allergy vs. Pseudoallergy (continued)

- Cross-allergenicity
 - Risk of cross-reactivity between opioids is thought to be less likely among agents from a different structural class
- Initiation of alternative therapy
 - Determine necessity for opioid agent
 - Initiate NSAID or APAP around the clock if no contraindications exist
 - If narcotic is required –
 - Utilize lowest-possible dose (dose-dependent histamine release) OR
 - Utilize high-potency opioid
 - Administer antihistamine concurrently



Factors to Consider When Selecting An Opioid

Prior opioid
exposure

Pain intensity

Acute vs.
chronic pain

Type of pain
(nociceptive vs.
neuropathic)

Allergy history

Metabolic
status

Drug
interactions

Cost/availability

Tolerability to
adverse effects



Opioid Drug Therapies

- Morphine
 - Significant histamine-release reactions (i.e. itching)
 - Active metabolite may accumulate in renal failure → prolonged sedation
 - Available as immediate-release and sustained-release oral formulations

- Hydromorphone
 - 7 times more potent than morphine
 - No formation of active metabolites
 - Good choice for patients with tolerance to morphine or patients experiencing histamine-release reactions



Opioid Drug Therapies (continued)

- Fentanyl
 - 100 times more potent than morphine
 - Least amount of histamine-release reactions
 - No formation of active metabolites
 - Drug of choice for hemodynamically unstable, mechanically ventilated patients
 - Short duration of effect often requires a continuous infusion
 - Available as a long-acting patch, buccal tablet, and immediate-release dosage forms





Opioid Drug Therapies (continued)

- Codeine
 - Weak analgesic (often co-formulated with acetaminophen)
 - Prodrug metabolized by CYP2D6 to active metabolites
 - 10% of US population are unable to convert codeine to the active metabolite
- Oxycodone
 - Available as immediate-release and extended-release oral formulations
 - Immediate-release formulation onset of action is 10-15 minutes (may take up to 80 minutes for maximum effect)
 - 5 mg oxycodone = 40 mg codeine





Opioid Drug Therapies (continued)

- Meperidine
 - Not routinely used for analgesia (active metabolite may accumulate and lead to seizures)
 - Significant histamine-release reactions
 - Several doses may be given for post-operative rigors

- Methadone
 - Strong opioid agonist and n-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) antagonist
 - Analgesic effects last 6-8 hours
 - Long terminal half-life (approximately 27 hours)
 - QTc prolongation (interaction with quinolones, macrolides, antipsychotics, and amiodarone)





Opioid Drug Therapies (continued)

- Tramadol
 - Synthetic analogue of codeine
 - Binds to mu receptors and inhibits norepinephrine and serotonin reuptake
 - Active metabolite that is 6 times more potent
 - May have increased risk of seizures with concomitant MAOI, SSRI, TCA, or opioid administration
- Tapentadol
 - Weak opioid agonist
 - Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor
 - Effective option for patients with GI effects from other opioids
 - Also approved for diabetic peripheral neuropathy





Pharmacokinetic Properties of Opioids

- Majority of opioids are metabolized through phase I metabolism via CYP450 enzymes 2D6 and 3A4
- Hepatic impairment and cirrhosis
 - Gastritis → delayed drug absorption
 - Ascites → increased volume of distribution → increased adverse effects of hydrophilic opioids (i.e. morphine, oxycodone)
 - Decreased production of alpha-1-acid glycoprotein and albumin
 - Increased free drug levels of highly protein-bound opioids (i.e. methadone and buprenorphine)

START LOW AND TITRATE SLOW!



Dosing Recommendations in Hepatic Impairment

Opioid	Recommended Use	Dosing Recommendations
Morphine	Use cautiously	<i>Moderate-severe</i> : increase dosing interval by 2x usual time period
Hydromorphone	Use cautiously	<i>Moderate-severe</i> : decrease initial dose by 50%
Oxycodone	Use cautiously	<i>Severe</i> : decrease initial dose by 33-50%
Hydrocodone	Use cautiously	<i>Severe</i> : decrease initial dose by 50%
Codeine	Use not recommended	---
Methadone	Use not recommended	---
Fentanyl (IV)	Appears safe	No dose adjustment
Fentanyl (Patch)	Use cautiously	<i>Mild-moderate</i> : reduce dose by 50% <i>Severe</i> : use not recommended

Pharmacokinetic Properties of Opioids (continued)

- Renal impairment
 - Approximately 1/3 of patients with a CrCl < 50 mL/min are administered an opioid for pain

CrCl (mL/min)	Morphine	Hydromorphone	Hydrocodone	Oxycodone	Methadone	Fentanyl (patch)
> 50	No dose adjustment	If CrCl $\leq$ 60, reduce dose by 25%	No dose adjustment	If CrCl < 60, reduce dose by 50%	No dose adjustment	Reduce dose by 50%
10-50	Reduce dose by 25-50%	Reduce dose by 50%	Reduce dose by 50%			
<10	Reduce dose by 50-75%	Reduce dose by 75%	Reduce dose by 75%	Use not recommended	Reduce dose by 50-75%	Use not recommended

START LOW AND TITRATE SLOW!



Opioid-Related Adverse Effects

- Sedation
 - Results from anticholinergic activity of opioids
 - More common when initiating therapy or when increasing dose
 - Resolves within days to weeks
 - Opioid rotation and dose reduction if possible
 - Psychosomatic simulants (i.e. methylphenidate)
- Nausea and Vomiting
 - Results from direct stimulation of chemoreceptor trigger zone
 - Results within several days
 - Initiation of antiemetic agents (ondansetron, metoclopramide, prochlorperazine, etc.)



Opioid-Related Adverse Effects (continued)

- Constipation
 - Occurs in 40-95% of all patients treated with opioids
 - Results from mu receptor activation in the gastrointestinal tract, leading to decreased gut motility
 - Unlikely to improve over time
 - Long-term consequences
 - Significant morbidity and mortality
 - Decreased quality of life
 - Aggressive prophylaxis
 - Stimulant laxative (i.e. senna or bisacodyl) and a stool softener (i.e. docusate) scheduled around the clock



Opioid-Related Adverse Effects (continued)

- Cardiac effects
 - Not very common
 - Morphine-associated histamine-release and subsequent vasodilation and hypotension
 - QTc prolongation resulting from parasympathetic stimulation and bradycardia
 - Effects are completely reversed with naloxone administration
- Bladder dysfunction
 - Results from inhibition of the voiding reflex
 - More common with postoperative patients
 - Effects are reversible with naloxone



Opioid-Related Adverse Effects (continued)

- Histamine-release reactions
 - Associated with lower potency opioids (i.e. morphine)
 - Flushing, tachycardia, hypotension, and pruritis
 - Utilize lower doses of opioids or switch to a more potent agent (i.e. hydromorphone)
 - If opioid is required, administer an antihistamine



Opioid Addiction

- **Addiction:** complex disease involving physiological, psychological, and social aspects
 - **Pseudoaddiction:** aberrant behavior in patients not truly addicted to opioids
 - Ex. Once patient receives adequate analgesia, the drug-seeking behaviors cease
- Fear of inducing a new addiction with appropriate opioid use should NOT be a barrier to providing adequate pain relief



Tolerance and Physical Dependence

- **Tolerance:** constant opioid dose provides a decreased effect
 - Opioid-related adverse effects will develop over several days to weeks (with the exception of constipation)
 - More frequent administration of analgesia over time
- **Physical dependence:** predictable pharmacologic effect
 - Withdrawal symptoms after abrupt discontinuation of therapy
 - Commonly occurs after 2 weeks of therapy
 - Symptoms include drug craving, nausea, abdominal cramps, muscle aches
 - Nonverbal patients may appear restless, irritable, dysphoric, anxious, delirious, or have increased pain sensitivity



Opioid Clinical Pearls in Special Populations

- Methadone maintenance therapy
 - Patients typically have very high tolerance for opioid therapy
 - Indicated for opioid dependence; additional opioid may be added for breakthrough pain
- IV drug abuse (IVDA)
 - High tolerance for opioids and will require higher doses, more potent agents, and more frequent dosing
- Suboxone® or Subutex® therapy
 - Very high affinity for opioids receptors and block analgesic effects of opioids
 - Pain consult recommended



Opioid Overdose

- Preventable and potentially lethal condition resulting from:
 - Prescribing practices
 - Inadequate understanding on risk of opioid misuse
 - Drug administration errors
 - Pharmaceutical abuse
- Clinical implications:
 - Life-threatening toxic effects in multiple organ systems
 - Pharmacokinetic changes leading to prolonged complications
 - Inappropriate treatment decisions



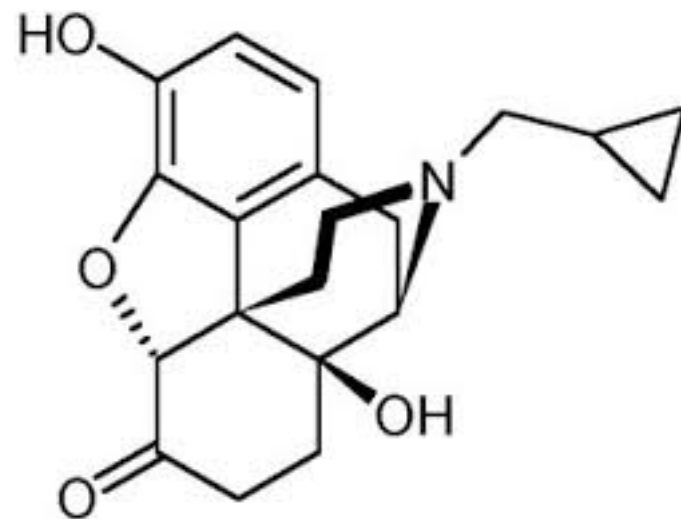
Naloxone: The Antidote for Opioid Overdose

- MOA: competitive μ opioid-receptor antagonist
- Routes of administration:
 - Parenteral
 - Intranasal
 - Pulmonary
 - Oral route (negligible bioavailability)
- Onset of action: < 2 minutes (IV)
- Duration of action: 20 to 90 minutes
- Dosing:
 - Initial: 0.04 mg
 - Increase every 2 minutes, if no response
 - Maximum dose: 15 mg



Naltrexone

- MOA: potent, long-acting, pure opiate antagonist
- Route of administration: oral
- Duration of action: up to 72 hours
- Recommended dosing:
 - Day 1: 25 mg
 - If no withdrawal signs occur, may increase to 50-300 mg/day



Equianalgesia

- Analgesic and sedative effects of opioids are similar when administered in equipotent doses
 - Example: hydromorphone 1 mg = morphine 7 mg
- Special considerations:

Titrate drugs to individual response

Incomplete cross-tolerance (reduce by 25-50%)

Organ dysfunction and clinical situation

Drug-drug interactions



Equianalgesic Dosing

	Equianalgesic Doses	
Drug	PO	IV
Morphine IR (<i>Roxanol®</i> , <i>MS IR®</i>)	30 mg	10 mg
Morphine ER (<i>MS Contin®</i> , <i>Kadian®</i>)	30 mg	N/A
Hydromorphone IR (<i>Dilaudid®</i>)	7.5-8 mg	1.5-2 mg
Oxycodone IR (<i>Oxy IR®</i>)	20-30 mg	N/A
Oxycodone ER (<i>OxyContin®</i>)	20-30 mg	N/A
Hydrocodone IR (<i>Vicodin®</i> , <i>Norco®</i>)	30-45 mg	N/A
Oxymorphone (<i>Opana®</i>)	10 mg	1 mg
Codeine	200 mg	100-130 mg
Fentanyl	N/A	0.1 mg
Meperidine (<i>Demerol®</i>)	300 mg	75 mg



Converting Between Opioids

Steps to convert between opioids:

1. Determine the total 24-hour opioid requirement of current medication
2. Set up equianalgesic equation:

$$\frac{\text{Equianalgesic dose (current drug)}}{\text{Equianalgesic dose (new drug)}} = \frac{\text{Total 24-hour dose (current drug)}}{\text{X mg (new drug)}}$$

3. Solve for X
4. Reduce dose by 25-50% to account for incomplete cross-tolerance
5. Divide the total calculated dose by the frequency



Opioid Conversion Example

RJ is a 54-year old female admitted to the hospital due to progressively worsening back pain. She takes 2 tablets of oxycodone-acetaminophen 5/325 mg every 4 hours, with no relief. The physician wants to start the patient on oral hydromorphone and asks you for a dose recommendation.

Step 1: Determine the 24-hour opioid requirement for the current medication.

2 tablets oxycodone-acetaminophen 5/325 mg Q4H

=

60 mg oxycodone in 24 hours



Opioid Conversion Example

Step 2: Set up the equianalgesic equation.

$$\frac{20 \text{ mg PO oxycodone}}{7.5 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone}} = \frac{60 \text{ mg PO oxycodone}}{X \text{ mg PO hydromorphone}}$$

Step 3: Solve for x.

X = 22.5 mg PO hydromorphone in 24 hours



Opioid Conversion Example

Step 4: Reduce dose by 25-50% to account for incomplete cross-tolerance.

$$22.5 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone} \times 0.25 = 5.625 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone}$$

$$22.5 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone} - 5.625 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone} =$$

16.88 mg PO hydromorphone in 24 hours

Step 5: Divide total calculated dose by frequency (divide by 6 for Q4H dosing)

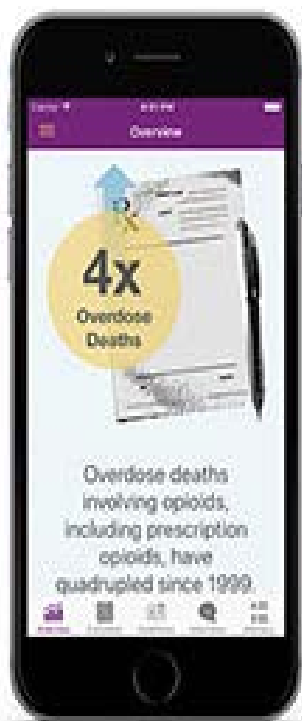
$$16.88 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone} / 6 =$$

$$2.8 \text{ mg PO hydromorphone every 4 hours} \approx \mathbf{2 \text{ mg PO Q4H}}$$





Available Resources



**SAFER
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FINGERTIPS.**

DOWNLOAD THE
OPIOID GUIDE
APP TODAY

www.cdc.gov



**World Health
Organization**

**PHARMACIST'S
LETTER**



Summary

- Pain is a complex condition that requires careful and continuous assessment
- Multimodal analgesia should be used if possible, to minimize adverse effects and the potential for abuse
- Pharmacists play a crucial role in opioid education, equianalgesic dosing and optimization of analgesia



Pain Management and the Pharmacist's Role in Opioid Use

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