



Published in final edited form as:

Support Care Cancer. 2020 January ; 28(1): 5–8. doi:10.1007/s00520-019-05100-9.

Use of Gabapentinoid Medications Among US adults with Cancer, 2005-2015

Alex J. Fauer, BSN, RN^{1,2}, Matthew A. Davis, PhD, MPH¹, Sung Won Choi, MD, MS^{2,3}, Lauren P. Wallner, Ph.D., MPH^{2,3}, Christopher R. Friese, PhD, RN, AOCN®, FAAN^{1,2,4}

¹University of Michigan School of Nursing, Center for Improving Patient and Population Health

²University of Michigan Rogel Cancer Center

³University of Michigan Medical School

⁴University of Michigan School of Public Health, Department of Health Management and Policy

Abstract

Background—Gabapentinoid use for cancer-pain control may be problematic, given unclear mechanisms of action and increased concerns for physical dependence. The purpose of this report is to examine trends of gabapentinoid use among US adults with cancer from 2005–2015.

Methods—We conducted a serial, cross-sectional study using data from the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS). We performed multiple logistic regression to examine the annual percentages of gabapentinoid users, which were adjusted for age, sex, and US region of residence.

Results—The amount of gabapentinoid prescriptions filled in 2015 was also estimated. The adjusted percentage of gabapentinoid users in 2015 was 5.60% (3.79%, 7.41%), 2.39 times greater than the percentage in 2005 ($p < .001$). By 2015, the number of gabapentinoid prescriptions had grown to approximately 3.52 million (2.40 million, 4.65 million).

Conclusion—We observed greater than a two-fold increase in the trend of gabapentinoid medication use among US adults with cancer. Investigations on the long-term efficacy of gabapentinoids for complex pain syndromes, and mitigation of risks, is essential to guide informed clinical management and keep patients safe.

Keywords

cancer; supportive care; gabapentin; practice pattern

Patients with cancer often present with complex pain syndromes that vary in etiology. The estimated prevalence of chronic pain in patients undergoing primary cancer treatment, without advanced disease, ranges from 33–59%.¹ First-line pain treatment with opioids has

Terms of use and reuse: academic research for non-commercial purposes, see here for full terms. <http://www.springer.com/gb/open-access/authors-rights/aam-terms-v1>

Corresponding author: Alex J. Fauer, BSN, RN, 400 N. Ingalls St., Ste. 4320, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, ajfau@umich.edu.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This Author Accepted Manuscript is a PDF file of a an unedited peer-reviewed manuscript that has been accepted for publication but has not been copyedited or corrected. The official version of record that is published in the journal is kept up to date and so may therefore differ from this version.

varied effectiveness and faces additional scrutiny amidst the opioid crisis.^{2,3} Moreover, clinicians are prescribing alternative treatments to manage complex cancer pain.⁴ The drugs gabapentin and pregabalin (i.e., gabapentinoids) were developed originally for anticonvulsant therapy, but demonstrate efficacy for treating neuropathic pain and other chronic pain syndromes.^{5,6} Gabapentinoid use for cancer-pain syndromes may be problematic, given unclear mechanisms of action for pain control and concerns for physical dependence.⁷ The purpose of this report is to examine trends of gabapentinoid medications among US adults with cancer from 2005–2015.

We conducted a serial, cross-sectional study using data from the Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS). The sampling frame of the MEPS was non-institutionalized US adults (age 18 and older), therefore excluding adults in medical facilities, inmates, and those serving in the armed forces. The survey collection procedures of the MEPS have been described elsewhere.⁸

Individuals with a cancer diagnosis in the MEPS, which was self-reported, were included for analysis. Using previously validated approaches, we used the MEPS prescription medication data files to identify adults who received a gabapentinoid.⁹ Users of a gabapentinoid were identified by with National Drug Code (NDC) classifications for “gabapentin” or “pregabalin.”

The MEPS allowed for complex survey design methods to adjust for the probability of selection, clustering of observations, and multiple stages of selection to yield national estimates.⁸ We examined the crude percentage of US adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid from 2005–2015. Next, we used multiple logistic regression to examine the annual adjusted percentages of users of a gabapentinoid from 2005–2015, adjusting for age, sex, and US region of residence. The amount of gabapentinoid prescriptions filled in 2005, 2010, and 2015 was also estimated with complex survey design. All analyses were performed with Stata, version SE 15 (StataCorp, LLC).

We observed that the crude percentages of adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid in 2005 and 2015 were approximately 3.28% (95% Confidence Interval: 2.10%, 4.23%) and 8.26% (6.98%, 9.84%), respectively ($p < .01$). See Supplemental Table 1. By 2015, the crude percentages of adults who used a gabapentinoid increased across all age, sex, and US region of residence groups.

In 2015, the crude percentages of females with cancer who used a gabapentinoid was greater than the percentage of males, [8.86% (6.97%, 11.4%) and 7.54% (5.46%, 10.2%)]. The percentage of adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid was the greatest in the 18–44 age group, 15.3% (9.59%, 24.6%), compared to adults age 45–64 and 65–85. The Southern US region had the highest percentage of adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid, 11.1% (8.73%, 14.1%). The greatest increase in the percentage who used a gabapentinoid from 2005 to 2015 occurred in adults residing in the West, 1.56% (0.45%, 5.02%) to 7.91% (5.85%, 10.7%), respectively ($p = .11$).

We found that the age-, sex-, and US region-adjusted percentage of adults who used a gabapentinoid in 2015 was 5.60% (3.79%, 7.41%), whereas the adjusted percentage in 2005

was 2.34% (1.28%, 3.40%; rate ratio 2.39; $p < .001$). See Figure 1. Additionally, the adjusted percentages in 2013 and 2014, surpassed 5%, [6.52% (4.60%, 8.45%); 6.18% (4.35%, 8.01%), respectively].

In 2005, the total number of gabapentinoid prescriptions filled among US adults with cancer was approximately 1.19 million (0.61 million, 1.78 million). By 2015, the number of gabapentinoid prescriptions had grown to approximately 3.52 million (2.40 million, 4.65 million), an estimated increase of 0.46 million annually (95% CI 0.22 million, 0.70 million; $p < .01$ for monotonic trend).

Amidst an opioid epidemic, the observed upward pattern of gabapentinoid use may reflect public recognition of unwanted consequences of long-term opioid use.¹⁰ Yan and colleagues suggested that multiple well-designed clinical trials of gabapentin for reduced pain and analgesic use following various surgical procedures demonstrated efficacy, but the evidence of efficacy is less clear in cancer-pain syndromes.¹¹ We were surprised to find the crude percentage of adults who used a gabapentinoid in the 18–44 age group was much greater than the other age groups, which may indicate that clinicians perceive gabapentinoids as a prominent non-opioid therapy among younger adults diagnosed with cancer.

Additionally, the increased use of gabapentinoids may reflect the growing incidence of chemotherapy-induced neuropathic pain in cancer survivors.^{12,13} Gabapentinoid prescribing for chronic, non-cancer pain conditions has risen dramatically since 2012.¹⁴ Significant late effects of chemotherapy-induced neuropathic pain may persist from two to five years following the first course of neurotoxic chemotherapy, which necessitates long-term prescription of analgesic therapy.¹³

To our knowledge, this is the first evidence of a consistent, upward trend of gabapentinoid medication use among adults with cancer in the US. Evidence from Johansen observed a smaller percentage of gabapentinoid users in the general US adult (age > 17) population, although a nearly threefold increase was observed from 2002–2015.¹⁵ Gabapentinoid use for cancer pain is off label with conflicting evidence for benefit.⁶ A deeper understanding of dosages, drug interactions, and adverse effects of gabapentinoid therapies would provide clinicians with needed data to personalize pain management. In addition to physical dependence, gabapentinoids increase respiratory depression risks in patients who are opioid tolerant or who receive it in the post-operative setting.^{16,17} Gabapentinoids in combination with opioids increases overall mortality compared to either drug alone.^{18,19}

There are several study limitations. First, the indications of medication use for MEPS participants were unknown. Therefore, we could not determine if gabapentinoids were used for cancer-pain syndromes or anticonvulsant therapy. However, gabapentin and pregabalin are not considered first-line therapies for seizures or epilepsy.²⁰ Second, the MEPS data include self-reported measures, which limits our ability to identify errant reporting. Finally, the analyses were limited to outpatient prescription medications only, which may not fully represent the trends of inpatient, unprescribed, or unfilled medications used. Despite these limitations, to our knowledge this was the first study to examine trends over recent time in the use of gabapentinoids among adults with cancer in the US.

Over time, we observed greater than a twofold increase in crude and adjusted percentages of adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid medication. In recent years, adults with cancer are more likely to use a gabapentinoid. Investigations on the long-term efficacy of gabapentinoids for complex pain syndromes, and mitigation of risks, is essential to guide informed clinical management and keep patients safe.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgements

No disclosures were reported by the authors. The authors had full access to all of the data in the study and take full responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Funding

Mr. Fauer is supported in part by a Doctoral Scholarship in Cancer Nursing (133507-DSCN-19-048-01-SCN) from the American Cancer Society; the Jonas Scholars Program; and the Hillman Scholars Program in Nursing Innovation. Research reported in this paper was supported by the National Cancer Institute of the National Institutes of Health under award number P30CA046592 (Friese).

Concept and design: Fauer, Davis, Friese. Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: all authors. Drafting of the manuscript: all authors. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: all authors. Statistical analysis: Fauer, Davis. Administrative, technical, or material support: all authors. Supervision: all authors.

References

1. van den Beuken-van Everdingen M, de Rijke J, Kessels A, Schouten H, van Kleef M, Patijn J. Prevalence of pain in patients with cancer: a systematic review of the past 40 years. *Annals of Oncology*. 2007;18(9):1437–1449. doi:10.1093/annonc/mdm056 [PubMed: 17355955]
2. Goodman CW, Brett AS. Gabapentin and Pregabalin for Pain — Is Increased Prescribing a Cause for Concern? *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2017;377(5):411–414. doi:10.1056/NEJMp1704633 [PubMed: 28767350]
3. Portenoy RK, Lesage P. Management of cancer pain. *THE LANCET*. 1999;353:6.
4. National Cancer Institute. The Opioid Epidemic and Cancer Pain Management. National Cancer Institute. <https://www.cancer.gov/news-events/cancer-currents-blog/2018/opioid-crisis-cancer-pain-paice>. Published 7 16, 2018 Accessed June 5, 2019.
5. Goodman CW, Brett AS. A Clinical Overview of Off-label Use of Gabapentinoid Drugs. *JAMA Internal Medicine*. 2019;179(5):695. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2019.0086 [PubMed: 30907944]
6. Shinde S, Gordon P, Sharma P, Gross J, Davis MP. Use of non-opioid analgesics as adjuvants to opioid analgesia for cancer pain management in an inpatient palliative unit: does this improve pain control and reduce opioid requirements? *Support Care Cancer*. 2015;23(3):695–703. doi:10.1007/s00520-014-2415-9 [PubMed: 25168780]
7. Mersfelder TL, Nichols WH. Gabapentin: Abuse, Dependence, and Withdrawal. *Annals of Pharmacotherapy*. 2016;50(3):229–233. doi:10.1177/1060028015620800 [PubMed: 26721643]
8. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. Medical Expenditure Panel Survey Household Component Overview. Medical expenditure panel survey. https://meps.ahrq.gov/mepsweb/survey_comp/household.jsp. Published 4 22, 2019 Accessed June 5, 2019.
9. Harrison JM, Lagisetty P, Sites BD, Guo C, Davis MA. Trends in Prescription Pain Medication Use by Race/Ethnicity Among US Adults With Noncancer Pain, 2000–2015. *American Journal of Public Health*. 2018;108(6):788–790. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2018.304349 [PubMed: 29672145]
10. Guy GP, Zhang K, Bohm MK, et al. Vital Signs: Changes in Opioid Prescribing in the United States, 2006–2015. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2017;66(26):697–704. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm6626a4 [PubMed: 28683056]

11. Yan PZ, Butler PM, Kurowski D, Perloff MD. Beyond Neuropathic Pain: Gabapentin Use in Cancer Pain and Perioperative Pain. *The Clinical Journal of Pain*. 11 2013;1. doi:10.1097/AJP.0000000000000014
12. Song SJ, Min J, Suh SY, et al. Incidence of taxane-induced peripheral neuropathy receiving treatment and prescription patterns in patients with breast cancer. *Support Care Cancer*. 2017;25(7):2241–2248. doi:10.1007/s00520-017-3631-x [PubMed: 28204996]
13. Shah A, Hoffman EM, Mauermann ML, et al. Incidence and disease burden of chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy in a population-based cohort. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2018;89(6):636–641. doi:10.1136/jnnp-2017-317215 [PubMed: 29439162]
14. Appleyard T, Ashworth J, Bedson J, Yu D, Peat G. Trends in gabapentinoid prescribing in patients with osteoarthritis: a United Kingdom national cohort study in primary care. *Osteoarthritis and Cartilage*. 7 2019;S1063458419311124. doi:10.1016/j.joca.2019.06.008
15. Johansen M Gabapentinoid Use in the United States 2002 Through 2015. *JAMA Internal Medicine*. 2018;178(2):292–294. doi:doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2017.7856 [PubMed: 29297045]
16. Deljou A, Hedrick SJ, Portner ER, et al. Pattern of perioperative gabapentinoid use and risk for postoperative naloxone administration. *British Journal of Anaesthesia*. 2018;120(4):798–806. doi:10.1016/j.bja.2017.11.113 [PubMed: 29576120]
17. Savelloni J, Gunter H, Lee K, et al. Risk of respiratory depression with opioids and concomitant gabapentinoids. *JPR*. 2017;Volume 10:2635–2641. doi:10.2147/JPR.S144963
18. Gomes T, Juurlink DN, Antoniou T, Mamdani MM, Paterson JM, van den Brink W. Gabapentin, opioids, and the risk of opioid-related death: A population-based nested case–control study. Tsai AC, ed. *PLoS Med*. 2017;14(10):e1002396. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1002396 [PubMed: 28972983]
19. Peckham AM, Fairman KA, Sclar DA. All-Cause and Drug-Related Medical Events Associated with Overuse of Gabapentin and/or Opioid Medications: A Retrospective Cohort Analysis of a Commercially Insured US Population. *Drug Saf*. 2018;41(2):213–228. doi:10.1007/s40264-017-0595-1 [PubMed: 28956286]
20. Abou-Khalil B Levetiracetam in the treatment of epilepsy. *Neuropsychiatric Disease and Treatment*. 6 2008:507. doi:10.2147/NDT.S2937

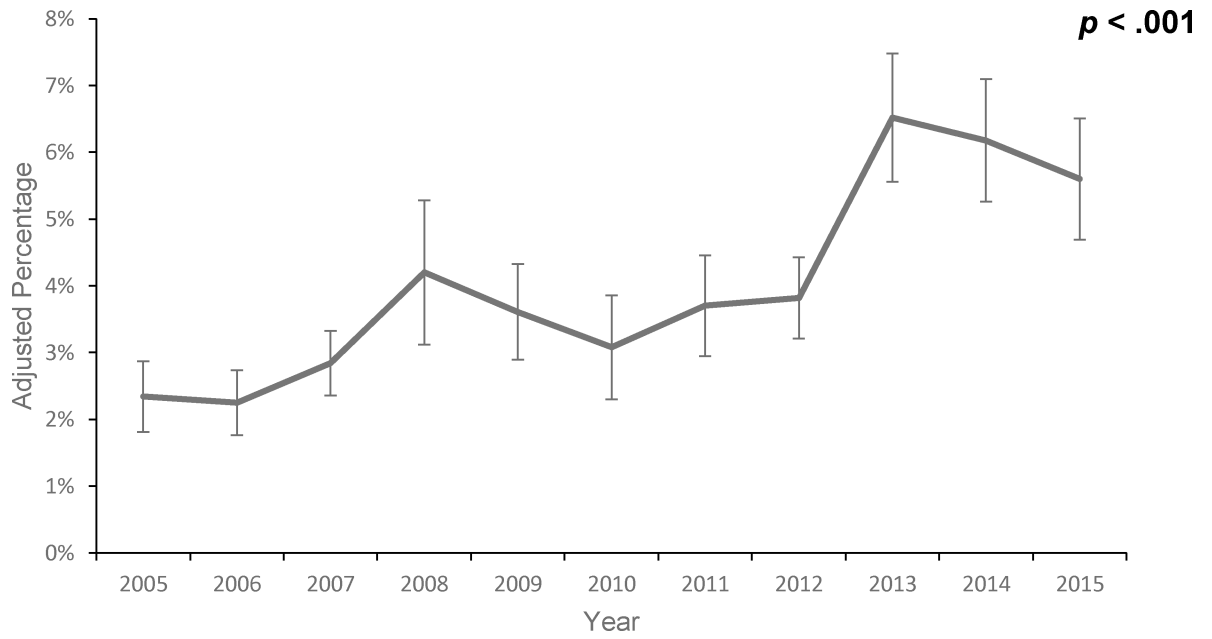


Figure 1. Trend in percentage of US adults with cancer who used a gabapentinoid medication with 95% confidence intervals, adjusted for age, sex, and US region, 2005–2015.