Use of preoperative gabapentin significantly reduces postoperative opioid consumption: a meta-analysis

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Objectives: Effective postoperative pain management is crucial in the care of surgical patients. Opioids, which are commonly used in managing postoperative pain, have a potential for tolerance and addiction, along with sedating side effects. Gabapentin’s use as a multimodal analgesic regimen to treat neuropathic pain has been documented as having favorable side effects. This meta-analysis examined the use of preoperative gabapentin and its impact on postoperative opioid consumption.

Materials and methods: A comprehensive literature search was conducted to identify randomized control trials that evaluated preoperative gabapentin on postoperative opioid consumption. The outcomes of interest were cumulative opioid consumption following the surgery and the incidence of vomiting, somnolence, and nausea.

Results: A total of 1,793 patients involved in 17 randomized control trials formed the final analysis for this study. Postoperative opioid consumption was reduced when using gabapentin within the initial 24 hours following surgery (standard mean difference −1.35, 95% confidence interval [CI]: −1.96 to −0.73; P<0.001). There was a significant reduction in morphine, fentanyl, and tramadol consumption (P<0.05). While a significant increase in postoperative somnolence incidence was observed (relative risk 1.30, 95% CI: 1.10–1.54, P<0.05), there were no significant effects on postoperative vomiting and nausea.

Conclusion: The administration of preoperative gabapentin reduced the consumption of opioids during the initial 24 hours following surgery. The reduction in postoperative opioids with preoperative gabapentin increased postoperative somnolence, but no significant differences were observed in nausea and vomiting incidences. The results from this study demonstrate that gabapentin is more beneficial in mastectomy and spinal, abdominal, and thyroid surgeries. Gabapentin is an effective analgesic adjunct, and clinicians should consider its use in multimodal treatment plans among patients undergoing elective surgery.

Keywords: gabapentin, preemptive analgesia, opioid, postoperative pain

Introduction

In the United States, ~51.4 million inpatient surgeries are performed annually and postoperative pain is experienced by as much as 75% of patients.1–3 Effective postoperative pain management following surgery is critical. Inadequate postoperative pain management can negatively impact the patient’s health, recovery, and overall experience.4 In addition to immediate discomfort, untreated pain is associated with increased morbidity and mortality and decreased quality of life.4 Furthermore, chronic postsurgical pain, pain that lasts 2 months and is not attributable to a preexisting medical condition, can develop.3 While the majority of surgical patients recover and return to a functional status, some patients are more likely to develop long-term opioid use...
and chronic postsurgical pain. Following limb amputations, breast cancer surgeries, and heart bypass surgeries, the incidence of postsurgical pain is especially high.

Opioids are extremely effective in managing postsurgical pain but have been documented as having an association with somnolence, respiratory depression, hypotension and bradycardia, nausea and vomiting, pruritus, and constipation. Antihistamines, which are frequently used to treat nausea and pruritus, further worsen the sedation and respiratory depression. Respiratory depression has been reported to affect patients treated using analgesia pumps that are patient controlled. Given the frequency of opioid-related complications, high patient morbidity as well as prolonged duration of hospitalization, and higher health care costs, effective methods to minimize postoperative opioid consumption is required.

Multimodal analgesia techniques have been researched extensively and implemented by many institutions as standard postoperative care management. By utilizing multiple medications and therapies that act by different mechanisms of actions within the central and peripheral nervous system, multimodal analgesia can provide individualized targeted patient therapy by taking into account pharmacogenetics such as single gene allelic differences and medication responses to reduce the consumption of opioids and the associated side effects. One such drug is gabapentin that has antihyperalgesic properties. Gabapentin’s antihyperalgesic effects result from its action in the dorsal root ganglia and spinal cord. The safety profile of gabapentin has few associated adverse side effects. Alayed et al reported significant reductions in morphine consumption with the use of gabapentin (standard mean difference [SMD] −1.45, 95% confidence interval [CI]: −1.79 to −1.11; P<0.05) in a review including four randomized control trials (RCTs) involving 190 patients undergoing abdominal hysterectomy. A significant number of RCTs have demonstrated conflicting results in the use of preoperative gabapentin. Bharti et al studied gabapentin administration among patients (n=40) undergoing mastectomy (20 received gabapentin and 20 received placebo) and demonstrated a reduction in the amount of morphine required during the initial 24 hours following surgery with the use of gabapentin (2.1±2.2 mg vs 4.9±3.4 mg, P=0.06). Conversely, Kinney et al demonstrated no significant difference in cumulative morphine consumption during the initial 24 hours following surgery (111.9 mg vs 118.1 mg, P=0.340) in an RCT among patients undergoing thoracotomy (n=120; 57 patients received gabapentin and 63 patients received placebo).

Given the high incidence of adverse events associated with opioid medications, this meta-analysis examined the use of preoperative gabapentin and its impact on postoperative opioid consumption and opioid use after surgery and the incidence of vomiting, somnolence, and nausea.

Materials and methods
Study selection
RCTs that evaluated preoperative gabapentin on postoperative opioid consumption were identified using PubMed, Google Scholar, and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (1966–2016). RCTs written in English were included in this study. Only the most updated and recent report of the RCT was included in the final analysis when duplicate publications existed. The inclusion criteria of the RCTs were patients >18 years, patient undergoing inpatient surgeries (open or laparoscopic) under general anesthesia, preoperative administration of gabapentin irrespective of dose and duration before surgery (compared to a placebo), and trials reporting opioid consumption as the primary outcome. RCTs reporting only postoperative use of gabapentin or in addition to a preoperative dosing were excluded from the analysis. A combination of keywords searched included “gabapentin”, “preemptive analgesia”, “postoperative pain”, and “opioid consumption”.

Data extraction
The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines were employed for data extraction, systematic review, and meta-analysis. All RCTs were assessed for data relevant to patients undergoing elective surgery, the intervention utilized, control or placebo groups, primary outcome measures, and methods. Figure 1 details the characteristics of all published RCTs included in the final analysis. The primary outcome analyzed was opioid consumption during the initial postoperative period (24 hours), while the secondary outcomes were incidence of vomiting, somnolence, and nausea.

Statistical analysis
In all, 95% CI and relative risk (RR) were calculated for vomiting, somnolence, and nausea incidences, while 95% CI and SMDs were calculated for cumulative consumption of opioids during the initial 24 hours following surgery. A continuity correction factor of 0.5 was used to calculate RR and variance in RCTs that included zero events. RCTs in which zero events occurred in both gabapentin and control arms were not calculable and were excluded from the current study. A fixed-effect...
model and a random-effects model were used following an evaluation of the heterogeneity in the included RCT. Statistical heterogeneity was assessed using the $I^2$ statistic and Cochran’s Q statistic. While a fixed-effect model was utilized in the absence of heterogeneity, a random-effects model was used when there existed heterogeneity. Heterogeneity was assumed to be statistically significant when $I^2 > 50$ or $P < 0.05$. A funnel plot was used to evaluate publication bias and further evaluated using Begg’s and Egger’s tests. A subgroup analysis was performed using opioid type (fentanyl, tramadol, or morphine), type of surgery, and dose of gabapentin administered. A two-tailed $P$-value of $<0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant. All statistical analyses for the current study were performed using the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis software Version 3 (Biostat, Englewood, NJ, USA).

**Results**

Table 1 details the selection process of the included RCTs. In all, 812 relevant citations were identified using the search strategy. More than half of the citations (n=496) were excluded. Of the 316 citations assessed for eligibility, an additional 299 citations were excluded based on irrelevant clinical data and failing to meet the inclusion criteria. The final analysis included a total of 17 RCTs, involving 1,793 patients. Of the 1,793 patients, 895 received gabapentin, while the remaining 898 received a control.

**Gabapentin effects on opioid consumption**

Opioid consumption was reported in all 17 trials among patients in the gabapentin and control groups. Significant heterogeneity was not observed between trials ($I^2 = 95.45$, $P < 0.001$). Compared to the control group, a statistically significant decrease in cumulative opioid consumption using gabapentin was observed (SMD $-1.35$, 95% CI: $-1.96$ to $-0.73$; $P < 0.001$; Figure 2).

**Subgroup analyses**

The results demonstrated a statistically significant reduction in cumulative consumption of tramadol (SMD $-1.57$, 95% CI: $-2.82$ to $-0.33$; $P < 0.05$), fentanyl (SMD $-2.54$, 95% CI: $-3.78$ to $-1.31$; $P < 0.001$), and morphine (SMD $-0.93$, 95% CI: $-1.41$ to $-0.44$; $P < 0.001$) using gabapentin (Figure 3).

A significant reduction was observed in cumulative morphine following abdominal hysterectomy (SMD $-3.26$, 95% CI: $-4.11$ to $-2.41$; $P < 0.001$), breast cancer surgery (SMD $-1.17$, 95% CI: $-1.63$ to $-0.71$; $P < 0.001$), cholecystectomy (SMD $-2.80$, 95% CI: $-3.71$ to $-1.89$; $P < 0.001$), orthopedic surgeries (SMD $-0.86$, 95% CI: $-1.54$ to $-0.19$; $P = 0.012$), spinal surgeries (SMD $-2.66$, 95% CI: $-3.43$ to $-1.90$; $P < 0.001$), and thyroid surgeries (SMD $-1.63$, 95% CI: $-2.16$ to $-1.09$; $P < 0.001$). A slight reduction was observed in postoperative opioid
### Table 1: Characteristics of RCTs evaluating preoperative gabapentin use on postoperative opioid consumption

| Author (year)        | Type of surgery     | Number of subjects (gabapentin/control) | Dose (mg) | Control Type of opioid |
|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------|
| Pandey et al (2004)  | Cholecystectomy     | 153/153                                 | 300       | Placebo, Fentanyl      |
| Pandey et al (2004)  | Orthopedic surgery  | 28/28                                   | 300       | Placebo, Fentanyl      |
| Turan et al (2004)   | Abdominal hysterectomy | 25/25                               | 1,200     | Placebo, tramadol      |
| Turan et al (2004)   | Orthopedic surgery  | 25/25                                   | 1,200     | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Radhakrishnan et al (2005) | Abdominal hysterectomy | 30/30                         | 800       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Pandey et al (2004)  | Orthopedic surgery  | 28/28                                   | 300       | Placebo, Fentanyl      |
| Turan et al (2004)   | Orthopedic surgery  | 25/25                                   | 1,200     | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Radhakrishnan et al (2005) | Abdominal hysterectomy | 30/30                         | 800       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Adam et al (2005)    | Orthopedic surgery  | 30/30                                   | 1,200     | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Al-Mujadi et al (2006) | Thyroid surgery    | 37/35                                   | 1,200     | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Montazeri et al (2007) | Orthopedic surgery          | 35/35                              | 300       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Grover et al (2009)  | Total mastectomy     | 25/21                                   | 600       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Srivastava et al (2010) | Cholecystectomy     | 60/60                                   | 600       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Moore et al (2011)   | Cesarean section     | 21/23                                   | 900       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Deniz et al (2012)   | Prostatectomy        | 25/26                                   | 900       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Short et al (2012)   | Cesarean section     | 42/42                                   | 300       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Short et al (2012)   | Cesarean section     | 42/42                                   | 600       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Kinney et al (2012)  | Thoracotomy          | 57/63                                   | 600       | Placebo, Morphine      |
| Bharti et al (2013)  | Mastectomy           | 20/20                                   | 600       | Placebo, Morphine      |

**Abbreviation:** RCT, randomized control trial.

### Study name and Statistics for each study

| Study name         | Std diff in mean | Lower limit | Upper limit | P-value | Relative weight |
|--------------------|------------------|-------------|-------------|---------|----------------|
| Pandey et al 23    | −1.013           | −1.570      | −0.457      | 0.000   | 5.88           |
| Pandey et al 34    | −3.312           | −3.657      | −2.967      | 0.000   | 6.06           |
| Turan et al 35     | −3.259           | −4.105      | −2.413      | 0.000   | 5.53           |
| Turan et al 36     | −2.663           | −3.425      | −1.902      | 0.000   | 5.65           |
| Radhakrishnan et al 37 | 0.042       | −0.464      | 0.549       | 0.870   | 5.93           |
| Adam et al 38      | −1.699           | −2.422      | −0.976      | 0.000   | 5.70           |
| Al-Mujadi et al 39 | −1.626           | −2.159      | −1.093      | 0.000   | 5.91           |
| Pandey et al 40    | −3.259           | −3.637      | −2.881      | 0.000   | 6.04           |
| Montazeri et al 41 | −0.903           | −1.395      | −0.411      | 0.000   | 5.95           |
| Grover et al 42    | −1.395           | −2.002      | −0.715      | 0.000   | 5.79           |
| Srivastava et al 43 | −1.819       | −2.245      | −1.394      | 0.000   | 6.00           |
| Moore et al 44     | 0.383            | −0.214      | 0.980       | 0.209   | 5.84           |
| Deniz et al 45     | −0.303           | −0.856      | 0.249       | 0.282   | 5.99           |
| Short et al 46     | −0.644           | −1.082      | −0.205      | 0.004   | 5.99           |
| Short et al 47     | −0.600           | −1.037      | −0.163      | 0.007   | 5.99           |
| Kinney et al 43    | −0.059           | −0.417      | 0.300       | 0.749   | 6.06           |
| Bharti et al 48    | −0.978           | −1.634      | −0.322      | 0.003   | 5.78           |
|                   | −1.350           | −1.965      | −0.735      | 0.000   |               |

**Figure 2:** A forest plot evaluating the standardized difference in mean in postoperative opioid consumption with the use of gabapentin compared to control.

**Abbreviations:** Std diff, standard difference; CI, confidence interval.

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consumption following caesarian sections (SMD = 0.32, 95% CI: −0.90 to −0.26; P = 0.279), prostatectomy (SMD = 0.30, 95% CI: −0.86 to −0.25; P = 0.282), and thoracotomy (SMD = −0.06; 95% CI: −0.42 to −0.30; P = 0.749), but failed to reach statistical significance (Figure 4).

A subgroup analysis identified that gabapentin significantly reduced total cumulative morphine consumption at 300 mg (SMD = −1.48; 95% CI: −2.90 to −0.05; P = 0.04), 600 mg (SMD = −1.35; 95% CI: −2.41 to −0.28; P = 0.01), and 1,200 mg (SMD = −2.27; 95% CI: −3.02 to −1.52; P < 0.001). Heterogeneity was statistically significant between groups, P < 0.001 (Figure 5).

Meta-regression analyses identified a statistical association between postoperative opioid consumption and gabapentin dosage (slope 95% CI: −0.00061 [−0.00021 to −0.00101], P = 0.00288, compared with slope = 0).
### Figure 3

A forest plot evaluating the SMD in postoperative opioid consumption with the use of gabapentin compared to control: a subgroup analysis by type of opioid.

**Abbreviations:** SMD, standard mean difference; Std diff, standard difference; CI, confidence interval.

| Group by type of opioid | Study name | Statistics for each study | Std diff in mean and 95% CI | Relative weight |
|-------------------------|------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|----------------|
| Fentanyl                | Pandey et al²³ | −0.103 (−1.570, −0.457) | 0.000 | 32.48 |
| Fentanyl                | Pandey et al²⁴ | −3.312 (−3.657, −2.967) | 0.000 | 33.85 |
| Fentanyl                | Pandey et al²⁵ | −3.259 (−3.637, −2.881) | 0.000 | 33.67 |
| Fentanyl                | −2.548 (−3.793, −1.312) | 0.000 | 32.48 |
| Morphine                | Turan et al²⁶ | −3.259 (−4.105, −2.413) | 0.000 | 7.93 |
| Morphine                | Radhakrishnan et al²⁷ | 0.042 (−0.464, 0.549) | 0.870 | 9.35 |
| Morphine                | Adam et al²⁸ | −1.689 (−2.422, −0.976) | 0.000 | 8.47 |
| Morphine                | Al-mujadi et al²⁹ | −1.626 (−2.159, −1.093) | 0.000 | 9.25 |
| Morphine                | Montazeri et al³⁰ | −0.903 (−1.395, −0.411) | 0.000 | 9.40 |
| Morphine                | Grover et al³¹ | −1.359 (−2.002, −0.715) | 0.000 | 8.81 |
| Morphine                | Moore et al³² | 0.383 (−0.214, 0.980) | 0.209 | 9.00 |
| Morphine                | Short et al³³ | −0.644 (−1.082, −0.205) | 0.004 | 9.59 |
| Morphine                | Short et al³⁴ | −0.600 (−1.037, −0.163) | 0.007 | 9.60 |
| Morphine                | Kinney et al³⁵ | −0.059 (−0.417, −0.300) | 0.749 | 9.84 |
| Morphine                | Bharti et al³⁶ | −0.978 (−1.634, −0.322) | 0.003 | 8.76 |
| Morphine                | −0.930 (−1.418, −0.441) | 0.000 | 8.76 |
| Tramadol                | Turan et al³⁷ | −2.663 (−3.425, −1.902) | 0.000 | 31.76 |
| Tramadol                | Srivastava et al³⁸ | −1.819 (−2.245, −1.394) | 0.000 | 34.59 |
| Tramadol                | Deniz et al³⁹ | −0.303 (−0.856, 0.249) | 0.282 | 33.66 |
| Tramadol                | −1.577 (−2.821, −0.333) | 0.013 | 33.66 |
| Overall                 | −1.199 (−1.626, −0.772) | 0.000 | 33.66 |

### Figure 4

A forest plot evaluating the SMD in postoperative opioid consumption with the use of gabapentin compared to control: a subgroup analysis by type of surgery.

**Abbreviations:** SMD, standard mean difference; Std diff, standard difference; CI, confidence interval.
Effect of gabapentin on secondary outcomes

Nausea, vomiting, and somnolence incidence rates in the gabapentin and control groups were reported in ten and eleven trials, respectively. A fixed-effect model was assumed since heterogeneity was not observed between trials (P = 0.45, I² = 0.00). Statistically significant differences in nausea or vomiting and somnolence between the gabapentin and control groups (RR = 1.08, 95% CI: 0.87–1.34, P = 0.44 and RR = 0.86, 95% CI: 0.61–1.51, P = 0.277, respectively) were not observed in the meta-analysis (Figures 6 and 7). Eight trials reported data on the incidence of postoperative somnolence. Between trials, the results demonstrated statistically significant heterogeneity (P = 0.001, I² = 68.69), and therefore, a random-effects model was assumed. Gabapentin significantly increased somnolence incidence (RR = 1.30, 95% CI: 1.04–1.54, P < 0.05; Figure 8).22,23

Publication bias

Egger’s and Begg’s tests were performed to calculate and evaluate publication bias for the primary outcome. Evidence of asymmetry was not observed on the funnel plot (Figure 9). The results demonstrated that publication bias was not statistically significant by Egger’s test or Begg’s test, P = 0.57 and P = 0.53, respectively.

Discussion

Adequate postoperative pain management is a crucial component in surgical patient care. Effective postoperative pain management not only improves the patient’s level of comfort and satisfaction but also is associated with earlier mobilization, fewer cardiopulmonary complications, reduced risk of thromboembolism, earlier return of bowel function, faster recovery, and reduced hospital costs.4,24,25 Traditionally, opioid analgesics that act on mechanisms associated with pain perception have been used in managing postoperative pain. While opioid medications, including morphine, hydromorphone, fentanyl, and meperidine, are very effective analgesics, they are also associated with numerous adverse side effects that include somnolence, respiratory depression, cardiac instability including hypotension and bradycardia, and nausea, vomiting, pruritus, and constipation.15

Multimodal pain management aims for additive or synergistic effects by utilizing analgesic medications of various classes that have differing pharmacologic mechanisms of actions in the nervous system.26 By combining multiple drugs from different classes, multimodal pain management regimens aim to provide adequate pain management, while reducing the amount of required postoperative opioid use and its associated adverse effects.

Gabapentin is commonly indicated in the treatment of seizures.27 Gabapentin, which acts on the nociceptive processes involved in central sensitization, has been shown to reduce hypersensitivity associated with nerve injury (hyperalgesia) and postoperative pain and inflammation in animal models.28 Interestingly, gabapentin’s antiemetic effects were first recognized when studies involving breast
### Table 1: Statistics for each study

| Study name                  | Risk ratio | Lower limit | Upper limit | P-value | Risk ratio 95% CI | Relative weight |
|-----------------------------|------------|-------------|-------------|---------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Pandey et al23              | 1.250      | 0.374       | 4.175       | 0.717   | 0.1 0.2            | 3.16            |
| Montazeri et al41           | 1.200      | 1.403       | 3.571       | 0.743   | 0.1 0.2            | 3.86            |
| Radhakrishnan et al37       | 1.000      | 0.363       | 2.751       | 1.000   | 0.1 0.2            | 4.48            |
| Turan et al35               | 0.714      | 0.261       | 1.951       | 0.512   | 0.5 12             | 4.58            |
| Turan et al36               | 0.714      | 0.261       | 1.951       | 0.512   | 0.5 12             | 4.55            |
| Grover et al32              | 1.680      | 0.763       | 3.701       | 0.198   | 0.5 12             | 7.36            |
| Deniz et al44               | 0.607      | 0.286       | 1.289       | 0.193   | 0.5 12             | 8.09            |
| Moore et al45               | 1.917      | 1.015       | 3.621       | 0.045   | 0.5 12             | 11.35           |
| Short et al45               | 0.905      | 0.577       | 1.418       | 0.663   | 0.5 12             | 22.71           |
| Short et al45               | 1.190      | 0.804       | 1.762       | 0.383   | 0.5 12             | 29.89           |
| Bharti et al20              | 1.088      | 0.878       | 1.348       | 0.440   | 0.5 12             | 63.70           |

**Figure 6** A forest plot evaluating the RR of the incidence of nausea with the use of gabapentin compared to control.

**Abbreviations:** RR, relative risk; CI, confidence interval.

### Table 2: Statistics for each study

| Study name                  | Risk ratio | Lower limit | Upper limit | P-value | Risk ratio 95% CI | Relative weight |
|-----------------------------|------------|-------------|-------------|---------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Pandey et al23              | 0.750      | 0.185       | 3.048       | 0.688   | 0.1 0.2            | 4.32            |
| Turan et al35               | 0.667      | 0.279       | 1.594       | 0.362   | 0.1 0.2            | 11.18           |
| Turan et al36               | 0.167      | 0.022       | 1.286       | 0.086   | 0.1 0.2            | 2.04            |
| Radhakrishnan et al37       | 3.000      | 0.330       | 27.234      | 0.329   | 0.1 0.2            | 1.75            |
| Montazeri et al41           | 1.333      | 0.322       | 5.526       | 0.692   | 0.1 0.2            | 4.20            |
| Grover et al42              | 0.840      | 0.351       | 2.010       | 0.695   | 0.1 0.2            | 11.16           |
| Moore et al42               | 2.190      | 0.626       | 7.671       | 0.220   | 0.1 0.2            | 5.41            |
| Deniz et al44               | 0.607      | 0.286       | 1.289       | 0.193   | 0.1 0.2            | 14.97           |
| Short et al45               | 0.917      | 0.456       | 1.841       | 0.807   | 0.1 0.2            | 17.47           |
| Short et al45               | 0.750      | 0.354       | 1.589       | 0.453   | 0.1 0.2            | 15.06           |
| Bharti et al20              | 0.667      | 0.292       | 1.523       | 0.336   | 0.1 0.2            | 12.44           |
| Bharti et al20              | 0.799      | 0.597       | 1.070       | 0.132   | 0.1 0.2            | 63.70           |

**Figure 7** A forest plot evaluating the RR of the incidence of vomiting with the use of gabapentin compared to control.

**Abbreviations:** RR, relative risk; CI, confidence interval.

cancer patients demonstrated a significant reduction in chemotherapy-induced nausea with the use of gabapentin. Gabapentin’s antiemetic effects are likely attributable to the reduced tachykinin neurotransmission and the direct reduction in postoperative opioid consumption.

The results demonstrated a statistically significant reduction in the postoperative cumulative consumption of fentanyl, morphine, and tramadol during the initial 24 hours following surgery with the administration of preoperative gabapentin. Significant reductions in postoperative opioid consumption were observed following abdominal hysterectomy, breast cancer surgery, cholecystectomy, orthopedic surgeries, spinal surgeries, and thyroid surgeries. Although not significant, a small reduction in postoperative opioid consumption was observed following caesarian sections, prostatectomy, and thoracotomy. There was no significant differences observed in vomiting and nausea incidences with the use of gabapentin; however, a recent meta-analysis by

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Preoperative gabapentin decreases postoperative opioid requirements

Pandey et al23

Montazeri et al41

Radhakrishnan et al37

Turan et al35

Turan et al36

Grover et al32

Deniz et al44

Moore et al45

Short et al45

Bharti et al20

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| Study name                  | Risk ratio | Lower limit | Upper limit | P-value | Risk ratio 95% CI | Relative weight |
|-----------------------------|------------|-------------|-------------|---------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Pandey et al23              | 1.250      | 0.374       | 4.175       | 0.717   | 0.1 0.2            | 3.16            |
| Montazeri et al41           | 1.200      | 1.403       | 3.571       | 0.743   | 0.1 0.2            | 3.86            |
| Radhakrishnan et al37       | 1.000      | 0.363       | 2.751       | 1.000   | 0.1 0.2            | 4.48            |
| Turan et al35               | 0.714      | 0.261       | 1.951       | 0.512   | 0.5 12             | 4.58            |
| Turan et al36               | 0.714      | 0.261       | 1.951       | 0.512   | 0.5 12             | 4.55            |
| Grover et al32              | 1.680      | 0.763       | 3.701       | 0.198   | 0.5 12             | 7.36            |
| Deniz et al44               | 0.607      | 0.286       | 1.289       | 0.193   | 0.5 12             | 8.09            |
| Moore et al45               | 1.917      | 1.015       | 3.621       | 0.045   | 0.5 12             | 11.35           |
| Short et al45               | 0.905      | 0.577       | 1.418       | 0.663   | 0.5 12             | 22.71           |
| Short et al45               | 1.190      | 0.804       | 1.762       | 0.383   | 0.5 12             | 29.89           |
| Bharti et al20              | 1.088      | 0.878       | 1.348       | 0.440   | 0.5 12             | 63.70           |

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Figure 6 A forest plot evaluating the RR of the incidence of nausea with the use of gabapentin compared to control.

**Abbreviations:** RR, relative risk; CI, confidence interval.
| Study name                      | Statistics for each study | Risk ratio and 95% CI         |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
|                               | Risk ratio | Lower limit | Upper limit | P-value | Relative weight |
| Pandey et al23                | 10.400     | 4.271       | 25.323      | 0.000    | 11.45           |
| Turan et al35                 | 3.000      | 0.128       | 70.296      | 0.495    | 1.60            |
| Turan et al36                 | 2.000      | 0.194       | 20.671      | 0.561    | 2.76            |
| Radhakrishnan et al37         | 1.000      | 0.066       | 15.260      | 1.000    | 2.09            |
| Pandey et al40                | 2.000      | 0.373       | 10.722      | 0.418    | 4.84            |
| Srivastava et al43            | 1.750      | 0.793       | 3.862       | 0.166    | 12.88           |
| Moore et al47                 | 1.340      | 1.042       | 1.724       | 0.023    | 22.48           |
| Short et al45                 | 1.080      | 0.772       | 1.512       | 0.654    | 21.10           |
| Short et al45                 | 1.000      | 0.703       | 1.423       | 1.000    | 20.80           |
|                               | 1.636      | 1.084       | 2.471       | 0.019    |                 |

Figure 8 A forest plot evaluating the RR of the incidence of somnolence with the use of gabapentin compared to control.

Abbreviations: RR, relative risk; CI, confidence interval.

Grant et al31 evaluating the use of preoperative gabapentin on postoperative nausea and vomiting reported statistically significant reductions in postoperative nausea (RR =0.76, 95% CI: 0.67–0.85, P<0.001; 42 studies involving 2,349 patients) and vomiting (RR =0.67, 95% CI: 0.56–0.80, P<0.001; 36 studies involving 2,024 patients). In all the trials, gabapentin was administered preoperatively as a single oral dose or two divided doses 2–24 hours before surgery at a dose ranging from 300 mg to 1,200 mg. This study also identified an association between cumulative gabapentin dose and reduction in morphine consumption. The higher the dose of gabapentin, the greater the reduction in morphine consumption.

Gabapentin has been documented with minimal side effects and is considered a safe and tolerable medication.32 The side effects of gabapentin are limited to somnolence, confusion, ataxia, dizziness, nausea, and weight gain.33 Nausea and vomiting incidence rates were similar, despite having a reduction in overall opioid consumption and presumed antiemetic property of gabapentin. The findings from the current study demonstrated a slight increase in the incidence of somnolence.

This study contains several limitations. The first is the different opioid and dosage used. Three studies utilized fentanyl and three utilized tramadol, which were converted to their equivalent morphine dose for analysis. Second, details regarding the more common opioid side effects were rarely reported, with the exception of postoperative nausea and vomiting. Additional research is warranted to examine optimal gabapentin dose and frequency regimen to determine the presence of beneficial or resistant interactions between certain opioids and adjuvant gabapentin therapy. Furthermore, the small sample size of most included RCTs (<50 patients per study) presented challenges to generalize conclusions and speculate the impact of gabapentin on rare complications such as respiratory depression.

Conclusion
Preoperative adjunct gabapentin administration significantly reduces opioid consumption within the initial 24 hours following surgery, with similar incidence rates of side effects. The greatest reduction was observed in gynecologic and breast cancers, cholecystectomy, and orthopedic and thyroid surgeries. The observed reduction in postoperative opioid consumption with preoperative gabapentin supports the notion of incorporating gabapentin in the multimodal analgesic treatment plans for postoperative pain management among patients undergoing elective surgery.
Disclosure
The authors report no conflicts of interest in this work.

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