# National Institute for Health and Care Excellence

Draft for Consultation

# Medicines associated with dependence or withdrawal symptoms: safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults

[E] Evidence review: Risk factors for dependence

NICE guideline <number>

Evidence reviews underpinning recommendations 1.2.2, 1.2.3, 1.2.6, 1.3. 5, 1.3.6 and the research recommendation in the NICE guideline

October 2021

Draft for Consultation

These evidence reviews were developed by the National Guideline Centre



#### Disclaimer

The recommendations in this guideline represent the view of NICE, arrived at after careful consideration of the evidence available. When exercising their judgement, professionals are expected to take this guideline fully into account, alongside the individual needs, preferences and values of their patients or service users. The recommendations in this guideline are not mandatory and the guideline does not override the responsibility of healthcare professionals to make decisions appropriate to the circumstances of the individual patient, in consultation with the patient and/or their carer or guardian.

Local commissioners and/or providers have a responsibility to enable the guideline to be applied when individual health professionals and their patients or service users wish to use it. They should do so in the context of local and national priorities for funding and developing services, and in light of their duties to have due regard to the need to eliminate unlawful discrimination, to advance equality of opportunity and to reduce health inequalities. Nothing in this guideline should be interpreted in a way that would be inconsistent with compliance with those duties.

NICE guidelines cover health and care in England. Decisions on how they apply in other UK countries are made by ministers in the <u>Welsh Government</u>, <u>Scottish Government</u>, and <u>Northern Ireland Executive</u>. All NICE guidance is subject to regular review and may be updated or withdrawn.

#### Copyright

© NICE 2021. All rights reserved. Subject to Notice of rights.

# Contents

1.	Risk	factors	s for dependence	5
	1.1.	Reviev	v question	5
		1.1.1.	Introduction	5
		1.1.2.	Summary of the protocol	5
		1.1.3.	Methods and process	6
		1.1.4.	Prognostic evidence	6
		1.1.5.	Summary of studies included in the prognostic evidence	8
		1.1.6.	Summary of the prognostic evidence	17
		1.1.7.	Economic evidence	39
		1.1.8.	Summary of included economic evidence	39
		1.1.9.	Economic model	39
		1.1.10	Evidence statements	39
		1.1.11	The committee's discussion and interpretation of the evidence	39
		1.1.12	Recommendations supported by this evidence review	50
		Refere	nces	51
Ар	oendi	ces		65
	Арре	endix A	Review protocols	65
	Арре	endix B	Literature search strategies	73
	Арре	endix C	Prognostic evidence study selection	
	Арре	endix D	Prognostic evidence	
	Арре	endix E	Forest plots	133
	Арре	endix F	GRADE tables	167
	Арре	endix G	Economic evidence study selection	197
	Арре	endix H	Economic evidence tables	198
	Арре	endix I	Health economic model	199
	Appe	endix J	Excluded studies	200
	Appe	endix K	Research recommendations	206
	Арре	endix L	List of medicines to be included	209

1

# 1 1. Risk factors for dependence

# 2 1.1. Review question

What are the risk factors (both patient and prescribing factors) for dependence on prescribed
 opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs, or withdrawal symptoms associated
 with antidepressants?

## 6 1.1.1. Introduction

Dependence is a potentially harmful effect of prescribing some groups of medicines. In order
to inform decisions and optimise prescribing safety, it is important for both prescriber and
patient to understand if there are specific risk factors related either to the medicines used,
patterns of prescribing or the individual that make dependence more likely to occur.

For some groups of medicines, notably benzodiazepines and opioids, some factors which influence risk of dependence are known. Less is known for other medicine classes in the review.

Prescribing without knowing the risks of dependence, may result in significant distress for the
 person, escalating doses and increasing the risk of severe or even fatal side effects. This
 review aims to identify risk factors for dependence, to support informed decision making and
 to identify where extra caution may be needed in prescribing.

## 18 1.1.2. Summary of the protocol

19 For full details see the review protocol in Appendix A.

#### 20 Table 1: PICO characteristics of review question

Population	Adults (≥18 years) being prescribed medicines associated with dependence or withdrawal symptoms (opioids for chronic pain, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids, Z-drugs, antidepressants). Ideally at the point of initial prescription for that medicine (i.e., not taking that medicine prior to entry to the study). Prescription medicines also be bought over the counter (e.g., codeine, co-codamol) also included. <b>Stratification</b> • Drug class • Opioids • Benzodiazepines, • Gabapentinoids • Z-drugs
	<ul> <li>Antidepressants (further stratified by SSRIs, MAOIs, tricyclics, others).</li> </ul>
Prognostic variables under consideration	<ul> <li>The risk factors below are examples only and others identified will be included.</li> <li>Include any definition in the studies considered relevant to the factor of interest</li> <li>System level factors: <ul> <li>competency of prescriber,</li> <li>training or supervision of prescribers.</li> </ul> </li> <li>Prescribing factors: <ul> <li>duration of prescription,</li> <li>initial dose,</li> <li>use of different drugs within a class</li> <li>different formulation and/or route of medication, for example: immediate release, slow release (including slow-release routes such as transdermal patches),</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<ul> <li>half-life comparisons (for benzodiazepines, long or short half-life)</li> <li>Socio-demographic factors of the patient</li> <li>Personal factors: <ul> <li>history of substance misuse</li> <li>mental health diagnoses</li> <li>co-prescription with other medications included in the review</li> <li>pain intensity and level of distress at time of prescription.</li> </ul> </li> <li>Others: <ul> <li>Patient-prescriber interaction.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Confounding factors	All risk factors will be considered as potential confounding factors.
Outcomes	Dependence on the prescribed medicine (dichotomous outcome, accept any definition as defined by the study (may also include measures suggesting dependence or addiction, examples to include early refill requests, loss of prescriptions, drug shopping behaviour, prescription misuse)). Withdrawal symptoms including rebound symptoms (dichotomous outcome, as defined by the study)
Study design	<ul> <li>Observational prospective cohort studies</li> <li>Observational retrospective cohort studies</li> <li>Only studies using multivariate analysis (adjusting for at least 3 confounders) will be included. Studies using univariate analysis or matched groups will be excluded (matching for confounders alone is not sufficient as there are multiple confounders).</li> </ul>

#### 1 1.1.3. Methods and process

This evidence review was developed using the methods and process described in
 Developing NICE guidelines: the manual. Methods specific to this review question are
 described in the review protocol in appendix A and the methods document.

5 Declarations of interest were recorded according to <u>NICE's conflicts of interest policy</u>.

#### 6 1.1.4. Prognostic evidence

#### 71.1.4.1. Included studies

Fourteen retrospective cohort studies were included in the review;<sup>19, 52, 54, 60, 61, 68, 76, 113, 147, 152, 9
 <sup>158, 169, 170, 180</sup> these are summarised by drug class in Table 2 and Table 3 below. Evidence
 from these studies is summarised in the clinical evidence summaries below (Table 4 to Table 37).
</sup>

Twelve of the studies were relevant to opioids and 2 were relevant to benzodiazepines. No
relevant clinical studies looking at gabapentinoids, Z-drugs or antidepressants were
identified. The majority of studies were conducted in the USA, 2 were conducted in France, 1
in Norway and 1 study was conducted in the UK.

16 This review aimed to assess the risk of prognostic factors for the outcome of dependence. The purpose of this was to make recommendations on the factors that might put someone at 17 increased risk of dependence, to consider when making prescribing decisions, and are 18 therefore predominantly at the point of initial prescription. It was important to ensure that the 19 20 included population of the studies did not have the outcome at baseline. Therefore, studies 21 were only included in populations not taking the medicine at the start of the study, and 22 followed them up to see who developed problems with dependence. Studies in people already prescribed the medicine at the start of the study were excluded. Some studies were 23 24 included where it was unclear if the population had taken the medicine in the past.

1

2

3 4

5

6 7 Both the scope of this guideline and the review protocol specify that the included population for opioids is only those prescribed for chronic pain; opioids prescribed for acute pain are excluded. Therefore, if a study gave a breakdown of what the opioids were prescribed for, and in more than 20% of the population the opioids were prescribed for people with acute pain, such as people undergoing surgery or dental procedures, then the study was excluded. If a breakdown was not provided by the study, and it was unclear, then the study was included but downgraded for population indirectness.

8 The studies included in this review examined risk factors including socio-demographic 9 characteristics such as age, gender and family background, personal factors such as pain 10 intensity, history of mood disorders, substance use disorders and opioid use disorders, 11 mental health disorders, use of drugs other than the drug of interest, prescribing factors such 12 as average daily dose, duration of action and days of opioid supply.

- When setting the protocol, the committee acknowledged that an outcome of dependence
  might not be commonly reported, as it is difficult to measure dependence per se. Therefore,
  any definition as defined by the study was accepted, which could also include measures
  indicating problems with dependence, such as early refill requests, shopping behaviour, or
  measures of medicine misuse.
- Outcomes reported by the studies included dependence, opioid shopping behaviour, opioid 18 abuse, overlapping prescriptions, early opioid refills and a composite outcome (abuse, 19 dependence or overdose). Maximum follow-up was 3.4 years for opioid and 5 years for 20 benzodiazepine studies, but the majority of studies looked at 1-year incidence of the 21 22 outcome examined from the first prescription. Pooling of results was not possible as studies 23 were too heterogeneous. Studies used different definitions of outcomes, different cut-offs in the risk factor categories, the populations differed and/or analyses had adjusted for different 24 confounders and/or reported different effect measures (e.g., ORs and HRs). For example, for 25 26 the risk factor of opioid formulation: tapentadol immediate release (IR) versus oxycodone IR for the outcome of shopping behaviour was reported by 2 studies (Cepeda 2013 and Cepeda 27 28 2014) but results could not be pooled as the studies adjusted for different covariates. Also in that specific case, the 2 studies may have involved at least partially the same population as 29 they used the same database but at a different time point, with some months overlapping 30 31 and thus pooling could involve double counting of results from the same participants.
- Effects measures (e.g., OR, RR, HR and RD or adjusted OR etc.) have been extracted as reported in the included studies. However, they were all a result of multivariate analyses adjusting for different confounders including demographic and clinical characteristics such as age, gender, smoking status, BMI, comorbidities, substance use disorder, co-prescribing of other drugs, specified in the summary of the prognostic evidence table footnotes.
- See also the study selection flow chart in Appendix C, study evidence tables in Appendix D,
   forest plots in Appendix E and GRADE tables in Appendix F.

## 391.1.4.2. Excluded studies

40 See the excluded studies list in Appendix J.

#### 1.1.5. Summary of studies included in the prognostic evidence

#### 1.1.5.1. Opioids

#### Table 2: Summary of studies included in the evidence review: opioids

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
Opioids						
Bedson 2019 <sup>19</sup>	New long-term opioid users with musculoskeletal conditions; starting on a new long-term opioid episode; with data from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink (CPRD) N=98,140 Median age (IQR): 61 (47 to 73) years UK	Prospective cohort study with Cox proportional hazards regression	Long-term opioid episode status: periods not on long term opioids (referent) versus periods on long-term opioids (defined as ≥3 or more opioid prescriptions within 90 days) Average daily dose (ADD) (<20 mg morphine equivalent dose (MED); 20-50 mg MED; ≥50 mg MED) in those with a long-term episode	Age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co- prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions	Incident addiction to opioids From 90 days after the initial opioid prescription until the end of the study (Median follow-up 3.4 years).	
Cepeda 2013 <sup>54</sup>	Opioid naïve people exposed to tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR from July 2009 to December 2010 (IMS LRx database)	Retrospective cohort study with conditional logistic regression models conducted using matched analysis (description of	Oxycodone (IR) versus Tapentadol (IR)	The tapentadol and oxycodone groups were matched for potentially confounding variables of time of opioid exposure, geographic area, specialty of the	<ul> <li>Shopping behaviour (&gt;1 prescription by ≥2 different prescribers with ≥1 day of overlap and filled at ≥ 3 pharmacies)</li> </ul>	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	N=155,761 Mean age (SD): 51.11 (14.91) USA	methods was assumed to include multivariate analysis)		prescriber and age); gender, any exposure to benzodiazepines during the 3 months before the index date and type of payment at index date were also considered in the regression model.	<ul> <li>Heavy shopping behaviour (≥5 shopping episodes in 1 year)</li> <li>At 1-year follow-up from the initial exposure</li> </ul>	
Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>	Opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use with tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR between January 2010 and July 2011 (IMS LRx & IMS DX databases) N=277,401 Mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years USA	Retrospective cohort study with logistic regression	Tapentadol IR versus oxycodone IR, age (<18, 18-39 and 40-64 versus >64 (referent)), gender (referent: female), history of benzodiazepine use, type of payment, history of mood disorders, history of abuse of nonopioid drugs, painful condition (type)	Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date: date of first opioid exposure	<ul> <li>Opioid shopping behaviour (overlapping opioid prescriptions from ≥2 prescribers filled at ≥ 3 pharmacies)</li> <li>Opioid abuse (ICD 9th revision diagnoses of abuse, addiction or dependence)</li> <li>At 1-year follow-up from the initial exposure</li> </ul>	Risk of bias: Median tapentadol equivalent dose was 300mg in the tapentadol group versus 200 mg in the oxycodone group i.e., 60 mg versus 40 mg in oxycodone equivalence respectively and not adjusted for in the analysis Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.
Chenaf 2016a <sup>60</sup>	Chronic noncancer pain patients (CNCP) treated with codeine for at least six months.	Retrospective cohort study with Cox proportional hazards model	Age (≤40 versus >40), gender (referent: male), low-income status, history of opioid use disorder, history of substance use disorder, active chronic liver	Factors considered significant in univariate analysis (P<0.15) were entered to the multivariate analysis which was reported	(1year incidence of) Codeine shopping behaviour ( $\geq$ 1 day of overlapping prescriptions written by $\geq$ 2 different prescribers and	Some participants (but unclear how many) had been treated with opioids other than codeine before. Not downgraded for indirectness as those treated with codeine

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	N=1958 Mean age (SD): 62.7 (16.1) years France		disease, mental health disorders, concurrent use of antidepressants, previous use of antipsychotics, previous use of hypnotic benzodiazepine, concurrent use of hypnotic benzodiazepine, previous use of anxiolytic benzodiazepine, concurrent use of anxiolytic benzodiazepine, previous use of strong opioids	to be done accordingly to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender.	filled in ≥3 different pharmacies)	before the study period were excluded. Unclear which confounders were adjusted for in the analysis
Chenaf 2016b <sup>61</sup>	CNCP patients treated with tramadol N=3505 Mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years France	Retrospective cohort study and cox proportional hazard model	Age: <40 versus ≥ 50 and 40-50 versus ≥ 50 (referent) Gender (referent: male) Low-income status Prior use of strong opioids	It was not specified which confounders were adjusted in the multivariate analysis.	(1year incidence of) tramadol shopping behaviour (≥1 day of overlapping prescriptions written by ≥2 different prescribers and filled in ≥3 different pharmacies)	Some participants (but unclear how many) had been treated with opioids before. Not downgraded for indirectness as those treated with tramadol before the study period were excluded.
Chui 2018 68	Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new diagnosis of a musculoskeletal disorder (MSD) (who entered the VA	Retrospective cohort study and multivariable logistic regression analysis	Age (65-74 (referent) versus 75-84 versus 85+), race (white versus non-white), sex (referent: male), moderate-to- severe pain intensity (pain	Demographic and clinical characteristic: Age, sex and ethnicity (at index date), moderate-to- severe pain intensity (pain score from 4 to	Overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (prescription starting before the end-date of a prior prescription,	

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	Musculoskeletal Disorders Cohort in 2008 and received an opioid prescription in 2010) N=21,111 Mean age 75 years (SD: not reported) USA		scale 4-10), Charlson comorbidity index score (CCI) 2+ (score 0-1 referent), substance use disorder, PTSD, major depression, dual use of Veterans health administration and Medicare part D	10 at the pain intensity numerical rating scale (NRS)) in 2008; co morbid diagnoses recorded at $\geq$ 2 outpatient visits or $\geq$ 1 inpatient stay up to 12 months before or 6 months after the MSD index date; overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and post- traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) At index date (first MSD diagnosis)	inclusive of prescriptions outside the Veterans health administration) In 1 year	
Hoffman 2017 <sup>113</sup>	Patients with polyneuropathy N= 2,892 Mean age (SD): 67.5 (16.5) years USA	Retrospective cohort study and multivariable logistic regression	Long term opioid therapy ≥90 days versus shorter term opioid therapy <90 days (referent)	Charlson Comorbidity Index comorbidities, sex, and use of non- opioid analgesics, when applicable.	<ul> <li>Opioid dependence</li> <li>Opioid abuse</li> <li>Determined by International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification, codes.</li> </ul>	
Park 2016 147	Patients with one or more visits to a hospital-based primary care clinic	Retrospective cohort study with	Receipt of benzodiazepine prescription, compared to no receipt during the	Age, sex, race, medical insurance, medical comorbidities, pain,	Time to second early opioid refill (opioid prescription written 7-25 days	Indirectness: for each patient observations started at the first day of opioid prescription

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	or one of two community health centres, receiving opioids for CNCP N=847 Mean age (SD): 52.54 (11.03) USA	Cox proportional hazards model	study period (12- months).	mental health and substance use disorders	after the previous prescription for the same drug) estimated as a function of time- varying benzodiazepine prescription.	during the defined 12- month study period; it cannot be determined whether and how many patients had ever been prescribed opioids before the study period; 63% had a drug use disorder diagnosis in their medical record that was reported to also include opioids along with cocaine, sedatives marijuana, polysubstance and other drug abuse or dependence; it was unclear if dependence was current or past so it is unclear if they were opioid naïve and if some could have dependence at baseline.
	Primary care patients with CNCP: random sample of VA Connecticut Healthcare system patients (n=50) and all patients enrolled in the Primary Care Centre (n=48).	Retrospective cohort study with multivariate logistic regression	Age (continuous); Number of medical diseases (mean, determined by the unweighted Charlson Index); Lifetime history of substance use disorder	Not reported	Prescription opioid abuse behaviour (defined by the presence of one or more of the following criteria: 1) one or more reports of lost or stolen opioid medication or prescriptions, 2) documented use of other sources e.g., other physician practices to obtain	Unclear if patients had already been on opioids before risk factor measurements were taken.

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	N=98 Median age (range): VA sample 54 years (33 to 84);PCC sample 55 years (26 to 80) USA				opioid medication and 3) requests for 2 or more early refills)	
Seal 2012 <sup>158</sup>	Iraq and Afghanistan veterans prescribed opioids within 1 year of receiving a pain- related diagnosis N=15,676 Mean age (SD): not reported USA	Retrospective cohort study and Poison regression with robust error variance	Mental health diagnosis versus no mental health diagnosis (referent): diagnosis without PTSD; PTSD with or without other mental health diagnosis	Sociodemographic factors (i.e., age, sex, race/ethnicity, marital status, VA facility type - medical centre versus community clinic) and military service characteristics (i.e., component, rank, service branch, and number of deployments)	<ul> <li>Early opioid refills (obtaining the same opioid prescription for more than 7 days before the end of the prior prescription)</li> <li>Concurrent opioids (&gt;7 days overlap)</li> <li>Within 1-year of receiving a pain- related diagnosis</li> </ul>	Study also gives relative risks for the outcomes of highest quintile of average daily opioid use (≥33 mg/d), duration of opioid use ≥2 months and concurrent sedative hypnotics.
Udayachalerm 2021 <sup>170</sup>	Opioid naïve (no prior opioid prescription in the past 12 months) and had at least 6 months data from index date from the Indiana Network for Patient Care	Retrospective cohort study and Cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection	Number days' supply (continuous), opioid dosage (continuous), concurrent short-acting (SA) and long-acting (LA) opioids within 30 days versus SA alone (referent), concurrent use of SA and LA opioids not within 30	Age, sex and comorbidities	Composite outcome: any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose Within 6 months of index date (date of	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear. Baseline: long term use 6.94% (long term use indicates patients who had a cumulative opioid days' supply of at least 90 days within 6 months

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	which is a state- wide health information exchange. N=341,722 Mean age (SD): 52.31 years (18.11) USA		days versus SA alone (referent), LA only versus SA alone (referent), concurrent use of benzodiazepines versus none - opioids only (referent), concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin versus opioids only (referent), concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/pregabalin within 30 days versus opioids only (referent), concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/pregabalin not within 30 days versus opioids only (referent)		first opioid prescription)	after the index opioid prescription).
Zhang 2018 <sup>180</sup>	Privately insured adults aged 18 to 64 years and N= 63,419 Medicare advantage patients aged 65 or older filling an opioid prescription between July 1 <sup>st</sup> 2011 and June 30th 2013 N=196,375	Retrospective cohort study and linear probability models	Features of the first opioid prescription: Duration of action of the first opioid prescription: long versus short acting status (referent) Days of supply of the first opioid prescription: ≤ 3 days (referent) versus 4-7 days and > 7 days	Ordinal indicators of the quarters/3-month intervals following the first prescription (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and	<ul> <li>High-risk opioid use:</li> <li>Overlapping opioid prescriptions for 7 days or more</li> <li>Three or more prescribers of opioids</li> <li>In each of the six quarters (3-month intervals) following the first prescription)</li> </ul>	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear. Only results for adults aged 18 to 64 are given in the paper- thus, sample characteristic and other study data have only been extracted for this sample.

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
	Aged 18 to 64; mean age (SD) not reported USA			other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes.	In the 18 months following the first prescription	Results for each category of risk factor were reported as a percentage point increase from the referent category; risk differences have been calculated and used as outcome measured in the summary of the prognostic evidence

#### 1.1.5.2. Benzodiazepines

#### Table 3: Summary of studies included in the evidence review: benzodiazepines

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
Benzodiazepin	es					
Benzodiazepin Cook 2018 <sup>76</sup>	es Benzodiazepine users N=11,663 Mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years USA	Retrospective cohort study and multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression model	Race: Black, Latino, Asian versus White (referent); sex (female, referent); age: 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65+ versus 18-24 (referent); substance use diagnosis (SUD): alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain meds, 2+ SUD versus no diagnosis; mental health disorder diagnosis: depression, anxiety, bipolar, PTSD, sleeping disturbance versus no	Substance use disorder diagnosis, mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.	Diagnosis of benzodiazepine dependence subsequent to receiving a prescription (defined as a diagnosis of dependence on a sedative, hypnotic or anxiolytic, ICD- 9).	

Study	Population	Analysis	Prognostic variables	Confounders	Outcomes	Comments
Tvete 2016 <sup>169</sup>	New benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for: Diazepam (n=15,927) mean age 46.5 or Oxazepam (n=3,820) mean age 47.29 Total N=19,747 Norway	Retrospective cohort study (observational prescription registry study) and Cox proportional hazard regression model	Sex: female versus male(referent); age (continuous); first benzodiazepine: oxazepam versus diazepam (referent); Previous medication: antidepressants and lithium, antipsychotics, opioids, anti-alcohol, and smoking cessation drugs, drugs and rheumatic diseases, drugs for Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD); education: high versus Low (referent); income: low (referent) versus average versus high; type of work: private versus public sector versus no registration (referent)	Socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.	Time to reach consumption level 2: redemption of ≥1 defined daily doses on average per day over a 3-month period (from a starting point of <1 defined daily doses on average per day in the first 3 months). This outcome was defined as dose escalation which is considered a measure of drug misuse/ dependence by the primary study. 5-year follow-up from the first redemption (divided into 3-month periods for each individual)	

See Appendix D for full evidence tables.

## 1.1.6. Summary of the prognostic evidence

#### 1.1.6.1. Summary of the prognostic evidence for opioids

#### Table 4: Clinical evidence summary: Age

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Age ≤40 versus age >40 for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with codeine; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 7.29 (4.28 to 12.42)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE <sup>b</sup>
Age (continuous: increasing versus decreasing) for predicting prescription opioid abuse behaviour (CNCP patients aged 26 to 84 years) $^{\rm c}$	1	OR 0.94 (0.89 to 0.99)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>d</sup>
Age 75-84 versus 65-74 years for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>e</sup>	1	OR 0.81 (0.75 to 0.87)	No serious imprecision	HIGH
Age 85+ versus 65-74 years for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>e</sup>	1	OR 0.83 (0.74 to 0.92)	No serious imprecision	HIGH
Age <18 versus >64 for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 0.9 (0.5 to 1.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>g</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>g, h</sup>
Age <18 versus >64 for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 0.7 (0.3 to 1.4)	Serious imprecision <sup>g</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>g, h</sup>
Age 18-39 versus >64 for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 9.8 (7.9 to 12)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOWh
Age 18-39 versus >64 for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 13.9 (11.2 to 17.2)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>h</sup>
Age 40-64 versus >64 for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 4.6 (3.8 to 5.6)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>h</sup>
Age 40-64 versus >64 for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 6.7 (5.5 to 8.3)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>h</sup>
Age <40 versus $\ge$ 50 for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with tramadol (mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years)) <sup>i</sup>	1	HR 7.4 (2.8 to 19.7)	Serious imprecision <sup>g</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>g, j</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Age 40-50 versus $\geq$ 50 and tramadol shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with tramadol (mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years)) <sup>i</sup>	1	HR 2.8 (1 to 7.7)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>j</sup>

- (a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender
- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias
- (c) Methods: Multivariate logistic regressions model; Covariates not specified
- (d) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to potential indirectness of the population which may not have been opioid naïve during baseline assessment
- (e) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD
- (f) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date
- (g) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide
- (h) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias, by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear and by 1 more increment for participants in the <18 years age category
- (i) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model; Covariates not specified
- (j) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

#### Table 5: Clinical evidence summary: Family Background

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Non-white race versus white for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions	1	OR 0.77 (0.71 to 0.84)	No serious imprecision	HIGH
(Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>a</sup>				

(a) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

#### Table 6: Clinical evidence summary: Gender

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Female versus male for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with codeine; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.92 (0.53 to 1.58)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °
Female versus male for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with tramadol (mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years)) <sup>d</sup>	1	HR 1.6 (0.7 to 3.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
Female sex versus male sex for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 0.97 (0.75 to 1.24)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	MODERATE 9
Male versus female for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>h</sup>	1	OR 1.6 (1.4 to 1.7)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>1</sup>
Male versus female for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>h</sup>	1	OR 1.5 (1.3 to 1.6)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>i</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

(d) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model; confounders not specified

(e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(f) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

(g) Downgraded by 1 increment due to imprecision

(h) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date

(i) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 7: Clinical evidence summary: Low-income status

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Low-income status for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with codeine; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.75 (0.96 to 3.21)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW <sup>C</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Low-income status for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with tramadol (mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years)) <sup>d</sup>	1	HR 8.5 (3.6 to 20.5)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

(d) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model; confounders not specified

(e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to serious imprecision

#### Table 8: Clinical evidence summary: Pain intensity

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Moderate-to-severe pain intensity (NRS score 4-10) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.40 (1.31 to 1.49)	No serious imprecision	HIGH

(a) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

#### Table 9: Clinical evidence summary: Clinical severity (Charlson comorbidity index (CCI))

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
CCI 2+ versus lower score for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.96 (0.90 to 1.03)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	MODERATE °
Number of medical diseases (mean number of individual chronic medical diseases as per the unweighted Charlson Index) for predicting prescription opioid abuse behaviour (CNCP patients aged 26 to 84 years) <sup>d</sup>	1	OR 0.72 (0.45 to 1.1)	Serious imprecision <sup>e</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>f</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to imprecision

- (d) Methods: Multivariate logistic regressions model; Co variates not specified
- (e) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line
- (f) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias, by 1 increment due to potential indirectness of the population which may not have been opioid naïve during baseline assessment and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 10: Clinical evidence summary: History of opioid use disorder

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
History of opioid use disorder for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with codeine; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.25 (0.19 to 8.40)	serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW <sup>C</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 11: Clinical evidence summary: History of substance use disorder/abuse of non-opioids

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
History of substance use disorder for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with codeine; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.89 (0.21 to 3.83)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °
Lifetime history of substance use disorder for predicting prescription opioid abuse behaviour (CNCP patients aged 26 to 84 years) <sup>d</sup>	1	OR 3.8 (1.4 to 10.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
Substance use disorder (at index date) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>f</sup>	1	OR 1.18 (1.05 to 1.33)	No serious imprecision	HIGH
History of abuse of non-opioid drugs (such as alcohol & tobacco) for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>g</sup>	1	OR 1.5 (1.0 to 2.2)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>h</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
History of abuse of non-opioid drugs (such as alcohol & tobacco) for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>g</sup>	1	OR 1.5 (1.1 to 2.1)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>h</sup>

- (a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender
- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment if the CI crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide
- (c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision
- (d) Methods: Multivariate logistic regressions model; Co variates not specified
- (e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to risk of bias, by 1 increment due to potential indirectness of the population which may not have been opioid naïve during baseline assessment and by 1 increment due to imprecision
- (f) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD
- (g) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date
- (h) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 12: Clinical evidence summary: Active chronic liver disease

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Active chronic liver disease for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 2.09 (0.62 to 7.03)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 13: Clinical evidence summary: Mental health disorders

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Mental health disorders for predicting codeine shopping behaviour	1	HR 2.25 (1.08 to	No serious	MODERATE <sup>b</sup>
(CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>		4.67)	imprecision	

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
PTSD with or without other mental health diagnosis versus no mental health diagnosis for predicting early opioid refills (Iraq and Afghanistan veterans prescribed opioids within 1 year of a pain-related diagnosis) $^{\circ}$	1	RR 1.64 (1.53 to 1.75)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>d</sup>
Mental health diagnosis without PTSD versus no mental health diagnosis for predicting early opioid refills (Iraq and Afghanistan veterans prescribed opioids within 1 year of a pain-related diagnosis) $^{\rm c}$	1	RR 1.50 (1.39 to 1.62)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>d</sup>
PTSD with or without other mental health diagnosis versus no mental health diagnosis for predicting concurrent opioids (>7-day overlap) (Iraq and Afghanistan veterans prescribed opioids within 1 year of a pain-related diagnosis) $^{\circ}$	1	RR 1.87 (1.70 to 2.06)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>d</sup>
Mental health diagnosis without PTSD versus no mental health diagnosis for predicting concurrent opioids (>7 d overlap) (Iraq and Afghanistan veterans prescribed opioids within 1 year of a pain-related diagnosis) <sup>c</sup>	1	RR 1.62 (1.44 to 1.81)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>d</sup>
PTSD for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>e</sup>	1	OR 0.94 (0.82 to 1.05)	Serious imprecision <sup>f</sup>	MODERATE 9
Major depression for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>e</sup>	1	OR 1.32 (1.15 to 1.52)	No serious imprecision	HIGH

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias

(c) Methods: Poison regression with robust error variance adjusted for sociodemographic factors (age, sex, race/ethnicity, marital status, VA facility type - medical centre versus community clinic) and military service characteristics (component, rank, service branch, and number of deployments)

(d) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(e) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

(f) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(g) Downgraded by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 14: Clinical evidence summary: History of mood disorders

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
History of mood disorders for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.4 (1.1 to 1.8)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
History of mood disorders for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.9 (1.5 to 2.3)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date

(b) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 15: Clinical evidence summary: Concurrent use of antidepressants

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Concurrent use of antidepressants for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.93 (0.53 to 1.63)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by increment due to imprecision

#### Table 16: Clinical evidence summary: Previous use of antipsychotics

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Previous use of antipsychotics for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.03 (0.42 to 2.53)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by increment due to imprecision

#### Table 17: Clinical evidence summary: History of benzodiazepine use

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Previous use of hypnotic benzodiazepines for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.56 (0.70 to 3.49)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °
Previous use of anxiolytic benzodiazepines for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.63 (0.32 to 1.26)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °
History of benzodiazepine use for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>d</sup>	1	OR 1.6 (1.1 to 2.2)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
History of benzodiazepine use for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>d</sup>	1	OR 1.5 (1.3 to 1.5)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line
- (c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision
- (d) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date
- (e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 18: Clinical evidence summary: Concurrent use of benzodiazepine/ concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Concurrent use of hypnotic benzodiazepine for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.89 (0.43 to 1.83)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Concurrent use of anxiolytic benzodiazepine for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 3.12 (1.55 to 6.26)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE °
Receipt of benzodiazepine prescription for predicting second early opioid refill (CNCP patients; mean age (SD) 52.54 (11.03)) <sup>d</sup>	1	HR 1.54 (1.09 to 2.18)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE °

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Concurrent use of benzodiazepine compared to opioid alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 and over) <sup>f</sup>	1	HR 1.38 (1.17 to 1.61)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>g</sup>
Concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin compared to opioid alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 and over) <sup>f</sup>	1	HR 1.54 (1.29 to 1.84)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>a</sup>
Concurrent use of benzodiazepine and gabapentin/pregabalin within 30 days compared to opioid alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 and over) <sup>f</sup>	1	HR 1.68 (1.38 to 2.04)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>a</sup>
Concurrent use of benzodiazepine and gabapentin/pregabalin not within 30 days compared to opioid alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 and over) <sup>f</sup>	1	HR 1.66 (1.24 to 2.22)	No serious imprecision	LOMa

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

- (b) Downgraded by increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line
- (c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias
- (d) Methods: cox proportional hazards model analysis, including key covariates used in analysis to assess if receipt of benzodiazepine prescription is an independent risk factor. Key covariates included: sex, age, race, medical insurance, medical comorbidities, pain, mental health and substance use disorders
- (e) Downgraded by 1 increment due to potential indirectness of part of the population who may not have been opioid naïve or could have drug use disorder/ dependence that could include opioids at baseline
- (f) Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities
- (g) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and 1 increment due to indirectness

#### Table 19: Clinical evidence summary: Previous use of strong opioids

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Previous use of strong opioids for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (CNCP patients; mean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 2.94 (1.24 to 6.98)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE <sup>b</sup>
Prior use of strong opioids for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour (CNCP patients treated with tramadol (mean age (SD) 66.4 (14.7) years)) $^\circ$	1	HR 5.7 (1.9 to 17.0)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias

(c) Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model; confounders not specified

(d) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval was judged to be very wide

(e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 20: Clinical evidence summary: Long-term opioid therapy

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Periods on long-term opioids* versus not being in an episode of long-term prescribing for predicting incident addiction to opioids (new long-term opioid users; median age (IQR) 61 (47 to 73) years) <sup>a</sup> *3 or more prescriptions within 90 days	1	HR 2.83 (2.13 to 3.76)	No serious imprecision	HIGH
Long term opioid therapy (≥90 days) versus shorter term opioid therapy (<90 days) for predicting opioid dependence (patients with polyneuropathy (mean age (SD): 67.5 (16.5) years) <sup>b</sup>	1	HR 2.85 (1.54 to 5.31)	No serious imprecision	LOW °
Long term opioid therapy (≥90 days) versus shorter term opioid therapy (<90 days) for predicting opioid abuse (patients with polyneuropathy (mean age (SD): 67.5 (16.5) years) <sup>b</sup>	1	HR 3.97 (0.87- 28.9)	Very serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>c, d</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards regression adjusted for age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co-prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions.

(b) Methods: Multivariate logistic regression adjusted for Charlson Comorbidity Index comorbidities, sex, and use of non-opioid analgesics

(c) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(d) Downgraded by 2 increments as the confidence interval crossed the null line and was judged to be very wide

#### Table 21: Clinical evidence summary: Opioid dosage

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Long-term episode at an average daily dose (ADD) <20 mg morphine equivalent dose (MED) versus not being in an episode of long-term prescribing for predicting incident addiction to opioids (new long-term opioid users; median age (IQR) 61 (47 to 73) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.06 (0.71 to 1.60)	Serious imprecision <sup>b</sup>	LOW °
Long-term episode at an ADD ≥20 and <50 mg MED versus not being in an episode of long-term prescribing for predicting incident addiction to opioids (new long-term opioid users; median age (IQR) 61 (47 to 73) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 3.59 (2.55 to 5.06)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE d

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Long-term episode at an ADD $\geq$ 50 mg MED versus not being in an episode of long-term prescribing for predicting incident addiction to opioids (new long-term opioid users; median age (IQR) 61 (47 to 73) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 9.33 (6.55 to 13.29)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE d
Opioid dosage, morphine milligram equivalents (MME)/d (continuous) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 years and over) <sup>e</sup>	1	HR 1.003 (1.001 – 1.006)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>f</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards regression adjusted for age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co-prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions.

- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line
- (c) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision
- (d) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias
- (e) Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities
- (f) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness

#### Table 22: Clinical evidence summary: Opioid formulation (Oxycodone IR & tapentadol IR)

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Tapentadol IR versus oxycodone IR for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid- naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.45 (0.36 to 0.55)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Tapentadol IR versus oxycodone IR for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.44 (0.37 to 0.54)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Oxycodone IR versus tapentadol IR for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid- naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 51.11 (14.91) years)) °	1	OR 3.5 (2.8 to 4.4)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE d
Oxycodone IR versus tapentadol IR for predicting heavy shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 51.11 (14.91) years)) °	1	OR 6.9 (2.5 to 19.3)	Serious imprecision <sup>e</sup>	VERY LOW d,e,f

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias and by 1 increment due to potential indirectness with the proportion of participants taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

- (c) Methods: multivariate analysis: conditional logistic regression conducted using matched analysis (description of methods assumed to include multivariate analysis), taking into account matching variables of time of opioid exposure, geographic area, specialty of the prescriber and age and adjusting for gender, benzodiazepine use and type of payment at the first opioid exposure.
- (d) Downgraded by 1 increment due to potential indirectness with the proportion of participants taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear
- (e) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval was judged to be very wide
- (f) Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias

#### Table 23: Clinical evidence summary: Duration of action in the first prescription

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Long versus short acting opioids in the first prescription for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions across the six following 3-month quarters (privately insured patients aged 18-64 years) <sup>a</sup>	1	Risk difference 14.70 (12.7 to 16.7)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW °
Long versus short acting opioids in the first prescription for predicting having 3 or more opioid prescribers across the following six 3-month quarters (privately insured patients aged 18-64 years) <sup>a</sup>	1	Risk difference 1.8 (0.9 to 2.7) $^{\rm b}$	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>c,d</sup>
Long-acting versus short-acting for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 or over) <sup>e</sup>	1	HR 2.17 (0.81 to 5.86)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>f</sup>
Concurrent use of short-acting and long-acting opioids within 30 days versus short-acting alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 or over) <sup>e</sup>	1	HR 2.12 (1.78 to 2.54)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>g</sup>
Concurrent use of short-acting and long-acting opioids not within 30 days versus short-acting alone for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose (opioid naïve patients aged 18 or over) <sup>e</sup>	1	HR 1.99 (1.24 to 3.18)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>g</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: linear probability model adjusting for ordinal indicators of the quarters/3-month intervals following the first prescription (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes

(b) Risk differences have been calculated from percentage point increase results reported in the paper using the CIs; the null line for a risk difference is 0

(c) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and 1 increment due to indirectness

(d) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious imprecision

(e) Methods: Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities

- (f) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias, 1 increment due to indirectness and 1 increment due to imprecision
- (g) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and 1 increment due to indirectness

#### Table 24: Clinical evidence summary: Days of opioid supply in the first prescription

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Number of days' supply for predicting composite outcome (any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose) (opioid naïve patients aged 18 years and over) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.025 (1.019 to 1.032)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
>7 days versus $\leq$ 3 days for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions across the six following 3-month quarters (privately insured patients aged 18-64 years) <sup>c</sup>	1	Risk difference 6.65 (6.3 to 7) <sup>d</sup>	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
>7 days versus 4-7 days for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions across the six following 3-month quarters (privately insured patients aged 18-64 years) <sup>c</sup>	1	Risk difference 5.65 (5.3 to 6) <sup>d</sup>	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and 1 increment due to indirectness

(c) multivariate analysis: linear probability model adjusting for ordinal indicators of the quarters/3-month intervals following the first prescription (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes

- (d) Risk differences have been calculated from percentage point increase results reported in the paper using the CIs
- (e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and 1 increment due to indirectness

#### Table 25: Clinical evidence summary: Dual use of Veterans health administration (VHA) pharmacy and Medicare part D

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Dual use of VHA pharmacy and Medicare part D versus no dual use for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions	1	OR 5.28 (4.60 to 6.05)	No serious imprecision	MODERATE <sup>b</sup>
(Veterans aged $\geq$ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis) <sup>a</sup>				

(a) Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to. indirectness as the risk factor may be of limited relevance to the NHS setting.

#### Table 26: Clinical evidence summary: Type of payment

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Medicaid versus cash for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.3 (0.3 to 0.4)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Medicaid versus cash for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.2)	Serious imprecision °	VERY LOW <sup>b,c</sup>
Medicare versus cash for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.4 (0.3 to 0.4)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Medicare versus cash for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.7 (0.6 to 0.8)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Commercial insurance versus cash for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid- naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.2 (CI 0.2 to 0.2)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Commercial insurance versus cash for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years)) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.3 (CI 0.3 to 0.4)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date

(b) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias and by 2 increments due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear and the risk factor being of limited relevance to the NHS setting

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 27: Clinical evidence summary: Painful condition (present versus absent)

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Arthritis for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.8 (0.7 to 0.1)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Arthritis for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1 (0.8 to 1.1)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Back pain for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 2.0 (1.7 to 2.3)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Back pain for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.7 (1.5 to 2)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Fractures for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.1 (0.75 to 1.7)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Fractures for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.2 (0.8 to 1.6)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Headache for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.8 (0.6 to 1.2)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Headache for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.2 (0.9 to 1.5)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Malignancy for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.7 (0.5 to 0.9)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Malignancy for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.4 (0.3 to 0.5)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Musculoskeletal pain for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.9 (0.7 to 1.1)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Musculoskeletal pain for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.3)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Neuropathic pain for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.2 (0.8 to 1.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Neuropathic pain for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.1 (0.7 to 1.6)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Other pains for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.2 (0.6 to 2.3)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Other pains for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.7 (1.0 to 2.8)	No serious imprecision	VERY LOW <sup>b</sup>
Reproductive pain for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.7 (0.3 to 1.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Reproductive pain for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.8 (0.4 to 1.7)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Visceral pain for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.0 (0.8 to 1.2)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Visceral pain for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.3)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Wound injury for predicting shopping behaviour (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 1.0 (0.5 to 1.8)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Wound injury for predicting opioid abuse (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	OR 0.7 (0.4 to 1.4)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>

(a) Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to indirectness with the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear and by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### 1.1.6.2. Summary of the prognostic evidence for benzodiazepines

#### Table 28: Clinical evidence summary: Age

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Age (continuous) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.98 (0.98 to 0.99)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
25-34 versus 18-24 years for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) $^{\circ}$	1	HR 1.23 (0.35 to 4.31)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
35-44 versus 18-24 years for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) $^{\circ}$	1	HR 0.66 (0.33 to 1.31)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
45-54 versus 18-24 years for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) $^{\circ}$	1	HR 0.87 (0.37 to 2.06)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>
55-64 versus 18-24 years and benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) $^{\circ}$	1	HR 1.08 (0.37 to 3.11)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
65+ versus 18-24 years for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) °	1	HR 1.47 (0.34 to 6.27)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to indirectness of the outcome

(c) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.

(d) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 29: Clinical evidence summary: Gender

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Female versus male for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.57 (0.50 to 0.65)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Male versus female for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) $^{\rm c}$	1	HR 1.33 (0.55 to 3.21)	Serious imprecision <sup>d</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>e</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

(c) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.

(d) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

(e) Downgraded by 2 increments due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to imprecision

#### Table 30: Clinical evidence summary: Family Background

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Black versus white for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.18 (0.15 to 0.21)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Latino versus white for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.2 (0.17 to 0.23)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Asian versus white for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.43 (0.25 to 0.74)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.

(b) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

#### Table 31: Clinical evidence summary: First benzodiazepine dispensation

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Oxazepam versus diazepam for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake	1	HR 1.33 (1.17 to	No serious	LOW <sup>b</sup>
of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with		1.51)	imprecision	
a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>				

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 32: Clinical evidence summary: Previous medication

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Antidepressants and lithium for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.69 (1.49 to 1.91)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Antipsychotics for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.75 (1.49 to 2.07)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Opioids, anti-alcohol and smoking cessation drugs for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month	1	HR 3.04 (2.28 to 4.05)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

Risk factor and outcome         (population)         period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Drugs for rheumatic disease for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.22 (0.97 to 1.53)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b,c</sup>
Drugs for COPD for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.29 (1.09 to 1.52)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

- (a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.
- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness
- (c) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 33: Clinical evidence summary: Education

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
High versus low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a	1	HR 0.65 (0.57 to 0.73)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>				

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 34: Clinical evidence summary: Income

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Average versus low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.72 (0.62 to 0.84)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
High versus low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.57 (0.45 to 0.71)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

- (a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.
- (b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 35: Clinical evidence summary: Type of work

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Private sector versus no registration for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.62 (0.52 to 0.74)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Public sector versus no registration for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of $\geq$ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (new benzodiazepine users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.61 (0.52 to 0.73)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors.

(b) Downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias and by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 36: Clinical evidence summary: Substance use diagnosis

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Alcohol versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.77 (0.6 to 0.99)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Marijuana versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.28 (0.2 to 0.38)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Cocaine versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.13 (0.79 to 1.61)	Serious imprecision °	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Opioid versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 3.9 (1.18 to 12.89)	Serious imprecision °	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Tobacco versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 2.08 (1.18 to 3.67)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Pain medication versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.71 (0.58 to 0.86)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Two or more substance use disorders versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 2.03 (1.04 to 3.95)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.

(b) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide

#### Table 37: Clinical evidence summary: Mental health disorder diagnosis

Risk factor and outcome (population)	Number of studies	Effect (95% CI)	Imprecision	GRADE Quality
Depression versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.43 (0.99 to 2.08)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Anxiety versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.6 (1.02 to 2.51)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>
Bipolar versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 1.02 (0.69 to 1.51)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
PTSD versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.91 (0.65 to 1.27)	Serious imprecision <sup>c</sup>	VERY LOW <sup>b, c</sup>
Sleeping disturbance versus no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (benzodiazepine users, mean age (SD) 49.8 (16.6) years) <sup>a</sup>	1	HR 0.69 (0.53 to 0.89)	No serious imprecision	LOW <sup>b</sup>

(a) Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.

(b) Downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

(c) Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

See Appendix F for full GRADE tables.

#### 1 1.1.7. Economic evidence

#### 21.1.7.1. Included studies

3 No health economic studies were included.

#### 41.1.7.2. Excluded studies

- 5 No relevant health economic studies were excluded due to assessment of limited 6 applicability or methodological limitations.
- 7 See also the health economic study selection flow chart in Appendix G.

#### 8 1.1.8. Summary of included economic evidence

9 None.

#### 10 1.1.9. Economic model

11 This area was not prioritised for new cost-effectiveness analysis.

#### 12 1.1.10. Evidence statements

#### 131.1.10.1. Economic

• No relevant economic evaluations were identified.

#### 15 1.1.11. The committee's discussion and interpretation of the evidence

#### 161.1.11.1. The outcomes that matter most

- This review aimed to examine risk factors (both patient and prescribing factors)
  associated with dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines,
  gabapentinoids or Z-drugs, or withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants.
- 20 The primary (critical) outcomes for this review were dependence on the prescribed medicine and withdrawal symptoms (including rebound symptoms). The committee 21 22 acknowledged at the protocol development stage that evidence was likely to be limited. They agreed to consider any outcome definition given by the studies and to 23 24 also include surrogate measures suggesting dependence such as early refills, drug shopping behaviour and prescription misuse. Long-term or chronic use was agreed 25 not to be used as a proxy for dependence as long-term use does not always indicate 26 27 dependence and people might be on safe doses and deriving benefit or for some drug classes such as antidepressants, long-term use may be recommended. There 28 29 were no further core outcome measures considered relevant for this topic.
- 30Evidence was identified for outcomes including dependence (ICD 9th version31diagnoses of abuse, addiction or dependence), opioid shopping behaviour32(overlapping prescriptions from  $\geq$  2 prescribers filled at  $\geq$  3 pharmacies), opioid33abuse, overlapping prescriptions (>7 days), early drug refills, daily average intake of34 $\geq$  1 defined daily dose (i.e., dose escalation) for the drug classes of opioids and35benzodiazepines.
- No evidence was identified for the risk of withdrawal symptoms, or for the other drug
   classes; antidepressants, gabapentinoids and Z-drugs.

#### 11.1.11.2. The quality of the evidence

Evidence from 14 retrospective cohort studies was identified for opioids (n=12) and
 benzodiazepines (n=2). No evidence was identified for gabapentinoids, Z-drugs or
 antidepressants.

5 For opioids, there was evidence for the following factors; age, family background, gender, low-income status, pain intensity, clinical severity, history of opioid use 6 7 disorder, history of substance use disorder/abuse of non-opioid drugs, active chronic 8 liver disease, mental health disorders, history of mood disorders, concurrent use of 9 antidepressants, previous use of antipsychotics, history of benzodiazepine use, concurrent use of benzodiazepines, concurrent use of gabapentinoids, concurrent 10 11 use of benzodiazepines and gabapentinoids, previous use of strong opioids, longterm opioid therapy, opioid dosage, opioid formulation, duration of action in the first 12 prescription, days of opioid supply in the first prescription, dual use of Veterans' 13 health administration pharmacy and Medicare part D (Medicare is an insurance plan 14 15 for people over 65), type of payment and type of painful condition.

- For benzodiazepines, there was evidence for the following factors: age, gender,
  family background, first benzodiazepine dispensation, previous medication,
  education, income, type of work, substance use diagnosis and mental health disorder
  diagnosis.
- Across both drug classes, a range of different confounders were adjusted in the multivariate analyses, including age, gender, ethnicity, smoking, status, BMI, different comorbidities, pain intensity, clinical severity, substance use disorder, co-prescribing of other drugs, type of payment used, with some studies adjusting for some confounders but not others.

25 There was substantial variation in the populations for opioids, with studies including; new long-term opioid users with musculoskeletal conditions, new opioid users 26 27 exposed to tapentadol or oxycodone (whose chronic pain condition was unclear), 28 people with chronic non-cancer pain treated with codeine or tramadol, veterans 29 (aged 65 years or older) with a musculoskeletal disorder diagnosis, Iraq and Afghanistan veterans with a pain-related diagnosis, people with polyneuropathy and 30 people with private healthcare insurance. The committee considered that the 31 heterogeneity of the study populations resembled that seen in clinical practice and 32 33 therefore, did not consider this a limitation.

Pooling of results was not possible as studies used different definitions for the factors studied (e.g., compared different age groups or types of mental health disorder), different effect measures (e.g., RR, HR, OR), adjusted for different confounders, and looked at different outcomes and/or populations. Therefore, although for different risk factors there may be evidence from more than one study, evidence for each risk factor for predicting different outcomes was based on single studies.

#### 40 Opioids

41 The majority of the evidence for opioids was of low or very low guality. The main 42 reasons for downgrading were due to risk of bias, indirectness, and occasionally for 43 imprecision in the effect estimate. Although the results presented were based on single studies, the committee noted that the majority of the study sample sizes were 44 45 large (N > 1000). However, there were a few studies where the number of people 46 who had a prognostic factor at baseline or the outcome of interest was small enough 47 to potentially impact the rigour of the analysis and this was taken into account and 48 reflected the risk of bias assessment rating given to the studies. Other reasons for 49 downgrading due to risk of bias included missing information in order to determine

the confounding factors or the outcome for some participants and whether there was appropriate accounting for confounding (for example, although all studies accounted for at least 3 confounders within the analysis, as per the protocol, some studies did not account for opioid dose within the analysis, which the committee considered might have an influence on the outcome). For some studies, the population was downgraded for indirectness due to either the proportion of the population being treated for chronic pain being unclear, or due to it being unclear whether all participants were opioid naïve at baseline. In one study, the risk factor was downgraded for indirectness due to concerns over the relevance of the risk factor to the NHS setting.

11 There were some exceptions when evidence was not downgraded for any of the 12 above reasons and was therefore graded as high-guality evidence. These included 2 factors for age (75-84 years versus 65-74 years, and 85 years and over versus 65-74 13 14 years), family background (people of non-white family background versus white family background), pain intensity (moderate to severe pain), substance use disorder, 15 16 and major depression, all for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions, and periods on long-term opioids for predicting incident addiction to opioids. It was 17 noted that although this evidence was of high quality, most of it came from a study 18 19 conducted in the US, as did most of the other evidence for opioids. The committee highlighted that due to legislation and differences in the access to pain medication, 20 some evidence from a US setting may have limited relevance to the UK setting. For 21 22 example, in the US, opioid shopping behaviour is more problematic due to the nature 23 of the healthcare system, and it may be unlikely for outcomes such as shopping 24 behaviour and early opioid refills to be seen in the UK.

### 25 Benzodiazepines

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

26 The quality of the evidence relevant to benzodiazepines ranged from very low to low and was most typically downgraded due to risk of bias, imprecision and concerns 27 28 over the indirectness of the outcome of dose escalation (a daily average intake of at least 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period, from a starting point of a daily 29 30 average intake of less than 1 defined daily doses in the first 3 months), to which the 31 majority of the evidence related. This dose escalation outcome was considered by 32 the study authors to reflect a measure of drug misuse/dependence; however, the committee did not agree that this was always directly related to dependence and 33 34 agreed to downgrade to account for the indirectness. Reasons for downgrading due to risk of bias included whether there was appropriate accounting for confounding 35 (including the fact that some studies did not account for opioid dose within the 36 analysis, which the committee considered might have an influence on the outcome) 37 38 and whether a valid and reliable measure of the risk factor was used.

### 39 1.1.11.3. Risk factors

40 Evidence examining different factors for predicting outcomes meeting the review 41 protocol was reviewed and discussed by the guideline committee. This is outlined by 42 drug class below. The committee noted that the outcomes for which there was evidence may be more closely related to problematic drug use or misuse behaviours, 43 44 rather than dependence. Although problematic drug use or misuse behaviours are likely to be due to an underlying dependence, the committee noted that people may 45 46 still be dependent on medicines but not show the problematic drug use or misuse 47 behaviours examined in the studies. As a result, the committee noted that the population of interest may not be fully captured by the evidence. They also noted that 48 49 the literature only provides evidence of an association. Although studies adjusted for possible confounding factors, other factors not adjusted for in the analysis, such as 50

medicine dose, may also influence the relationship between prognostic factors and outcomes. Therefore, the confounders adjusted for need to be considered when interpreting the results. For these reasons, the committee agreed that evidence should be interpreted with caution.

#### Opioids

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12 13

14

15

16

17

18 19

20

21

Evidence from 4 out of 5 studies looking at age, showed that younger age groups (≤40 versus >40 year; 65-74 versus 75-84 and 85 and over; 18-39 and 40-54 versus aged over 64; less than 40 and 40-50 versus 50 or older) were associated with an increased risk for 5 different outcomes (codeine shopping; overlapping prescriptions; shopping behaviour; opioid abuse; tramadol shopping). In 2 studies examining multiple age groups in particular, the elevated risk as indicated by the effect size appeared to decrease with increasing age. This inverse relationship was not evidenced for people aged under 18 years. However, the committee noted that although the study was included as <20% of the population were aged under 18 years, findings for this particular age group were outside the scope of the guideline and did not influence decision making. The committee noted that the findings relating to age were in line with their experience and discussed that this may be due to a greater likelihood for a specific pathology to underlie opioid prescribing in older groups which may make them less likely to misuse opioids, whereas a lack of a specific pathology which is more likely to be seen in younger groups and may increase the likelihood of misuse and/or dependence.

- 22 Evidence from 1 study showed there was a lower risk of overlapping concurrent 23 opioid prescriptions for non-white people, compared to white study participants. The 24 committee noted that the study examining family background was conducted in the US where racial and ethnic minority groups may face challenges in accessing 25 healthcare, while people with white ethnicity are more likely to have health insurance 26 27 allowing them to visit more prescribers, and therefore family background was not necessarily a risk factor, but it may be a proxy for other risk factors (for example 28 deprivation, or in the case of the US setting, having health insurance). They agreed 29 30 this finding may be less applicable to the UK setting and the NHS healthcare system.
- 31 Evidence from 2 studies, showed that male gender was a risk factor for shopping 32 behaviour and opioid abuse while evidence from 1 study showed that female gender 33 was a risk factor for tramadol shopping behaviour. The committee noted the findings 34 were conflicting and a further 2 studies examining codeine shopping behaviour and 35 overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions did not demonstrate any association with gender and increased risk. The evidence indicating an association was of very low 36 quality, and it was agreed there was no consistent evidence to inform a 37 recommendation. 38
- 39 Evidence from 2 studies showed that low-income status was associated with a greater risk of codeine and tramadol shopping behaviour. The committee agreed that 40 41 these findings were not surprising and highlighted that deprivation, which may be 42 represented in studies by low-income status or a minority ethnic background (which 43 may be a proxy for deprivation in some settings) can have a profound impact on 44 people and may enhance the desire for medicines. Based on their clinical 45 experience, the committee noted that factors such as cardiac disease and obesity 46 that also relate to deprivation have been associated with a greater risk of problematic 47 drug use, however no evidence was identified for these factors in this review. The 48 committee agreed that low-income status was related to many other factors that 49 impacted health and wellbeing and that it was not possible to identify which particular 50 factors were most related to increased risk of problems associated with dependence. 51 They agreed not to include this factor in a recommendation for that reason.

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14 15

16

Evidence from 1 study showed greater pain intensity scores (moderate-to-severepain; NRS score 4-10) to be associated with a greater risk of overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions compared to people with lower pain intensity. The committee noted the subjectivity of pain intensity and agreed the perception of greater pain may lead to an increased likelihood of people seeking more opioid prescriptions. As this result was from a single study, the committee did not consider it strong enough to inform a recommendation.

Contrarily, the number of medical diseases as a continuous outcome was associated with lower risk of prescription opioid abuse behaviour in 1 study (although this evidence was rated as very low quality) and higher clinical severity score (CCI 2+) was not associated with an increased or decreased risk of overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions versus a lower score. The committee noted this finding was imprecise with the confidence interval crossing the null line complicating conclusions about where the true effect lies. The committee did however consider this may also relate to a point raised below, that the risk of problems associated with dependence was lower when a specific pathology underlies a pain medication prescription.

17 History of opioid use disorder was associated with a greater risk of codeine shopping 18 behaviour in 1 study. Evidence quality was low and there was imprecision in the 19 effect estimate, but the committee raised this was in line with their experience. 20 History of substance use disorder (with studies defining this as including alcohol, tobacco, narcotics or illicit drugs) was also associated with greater risk of 4 different 21 22 outcomes suggesting problematic drug use (prescription opioid abuse behaviour; 23 concurrent opioid prescriptions; shopping behaviour; opioid abuse) in 3 out of 4 24 studies examining it. The committee raised that people with a history of substance 25 misuse may require higher opioid doses in order to manage their pain and in line with 26 their experience, higher doses can increase the likelihood of dependence. They 27 thought the evidence suggesting history of substance use to be a risk factor for 28 dependence to be quite strong, supported by 3 separate studies, and took this into account alongside the evidence of people with a history of opioid use disorder being 29 30 at greater risk. A recommendation was made to highlight this as a risk factor for developing problems associated with dependence. 31

- Evidence from 1 study suggested active chronic liver disease as a risk factor for 32 33 codeine shopping behaviour. The committee noted there was imprecision in the 34 effect estimate and that it was difficult to draw a conclusion based on limited 35 evidence from a single study. They noted that the study examining chronic liver 36 disease also looked at history of substance use disorder that included alcohol as a risk factor for codeine shopping behaviour. Thus, the committee noted that chronic 37 38 liver disease may be linked to alcohol abuse and that it could be that past alcohol abuse underlies the association of chronic liver disease and codeine shopping 39 40 behaviour. Within this line of thought the committee thought that the association of chronic liver disease and codeine shopping behaviour could be due to an underlying 41 42 association between history of alcohol use disorder and problematic opioid use and 43 may thus provide indirect evidence for history of substance use disorder as a risk 44 factor for dependence.
- 45 Evidence from 3 studies suggested different mental health disorders including major 46 depression and PTSD co-existing with or without other mental health diagnoses, 47 were associated with greater risk of 4 different outcomes (codeine shopping behaviour; overlapping concurrent opioids prescriptions; early opioid refills; 48 49 concurrent opioids). One study showed a greater risk of shopping behaviour and 50 opioid abuse in people with a history of mood disorder. The committee noted findings were in line with their clinical experience and agreed that similarly to deprivation 51 52 (potentially caused by low income or being part of a racial minority group),

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

morbidities including mental health disorders, can have a profound impact on peoples' lives which may have an impact on the desire for medicines. The committee emphasised that in many cases people from groups appearing to have a higher risk of dependence such as people with mental health disorders, may be likely to benefit from medication and that prescribing decisions should be made by the careful consideration of the needs of the individual. A recommendation was made to highlight that a comorbid mental health diagnosis may lead to a higher risk of developing problems associated with dependence.

9 Evidence from 2 studies showed history of benzodiazepine use to be associated with 10 a greater risk of codeine shopping behaviour, opioid shopping behaviour and opioid 11 abuse. The association appeared to be applicable to hypnotic benzodiazepines but 12 not anxiolytic benzodiazepines, for which there was a decreased risk for the outcome 13 of codeine shopping behaviour in 1 study.

- Evidence for concurrent use of benzodiazepines was available from 3 studies. Two of 14 15 these looked at concurrent use of any benzodiazepine and the outcomes of second 16 early opioid refill and a composite outcome of any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose, both of which showed a greater risk with concurrent use of 17 18 benzodiazepines. The remaining study looked at concurrent use of anxiolytic and 19 hypnotic benzodiazepines separately, with anxiolytic benzodiazepines, but not 20 hypnotic benzodiazepines, appearing to predict a greater risk of codeine shopping behaviour. Overall, 3 out of the 4 prognostic factor and outcome combinations 21 22 showed a greater risk with concurrent benzodiazepine use (and 2 of these were of moderate quality), and the committee agreed this was in line with their clinical 23 24 experience that concurrent use of opioids and benzodiazepines can increase the 25 risks of problems associated with dependence such as opioid misuse or overdose. 26 One of the studies also assessed the risk with the concurrent use of pregabalin or 27 gabapentin, and again, a greater risk was observed. This was also the case for 28 concurrent use of both gabapentinoids and benzodiazepines (either within 30 days or not within 30 days), which increased the risk of any combination of opioid abuse, 29 30 dependence or overdose. However, the evidence for concurrent use of 31 gabapentinoids in people prescribed opioids was of low guality. A further study 32 reported no association between concurrent use of antidepressants and previous use 33 of antipsychotics and codeine shopping behaviour. Again, this was low quality 34 evidence and the committee agreed it was at odds with evidence demonstrating an 35 association with concurrent use of benzodiazepines and risk of various problems 36 including problems associated with dependence and overdose. The committee agreed this larger body of evidence, of better quality, showing an association was in 37 alignment with their experience. Therefore, a recommendation was made to highlight 38 39 that taking an opioid together with a benzodiazepine may lead to a higher risk of developing problems associated with dependence. 40
- Evidence from 2 studies suggested that previous use of strong opioids is predictive of
  a greater risk of codeine and tramadol shopping behaviour. The committee
  mentioned that similarly to history of substance misuse, people with past use of
  strong opioids may require higher doses in order to manage their pain and this may
  result in greater likelihood of dependence. They agreed that a separate
  recommendation wasn't required however as they agreed it was related to other
  factors already highlighted in the recommendation.
- Evidence from 2 studies showed that long-term opioid therapy (periods on long-term opioids (3 or more prescriptions in 90 days) versus not being in an episode of long-term prescribing, or opioid therapy for ≥90 days versus <90 days) predicted a greater risk of incident addiction to opioids, opioid dependence, and opioid abuse. There was imprecision in the effect estimate for opioid abuse, but the committee thought</li>

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14 15

16

evidence of an association was sufficiently strong and in line with their clinical experience. They agreed that long-term opioid use can lead to dependence irrespectively of other risk factors and that people can become dependent simply by taking medicines as prescribed over a long period of time. The committee agreed that it is important for this risk to be considered by prescribers and people taking these medicines, but that long-term prescribing may be appropriate in some cases, where the benefits of taking the medicine outweigh the potential risks associated with problematic use or dependence. Based on their clinical experience suggesting that the duration of prescribing is likely to increase the risk of dependence or the difficulty to withdraw the prescribed drug, the committee agreed that medicines should not be prescribed for longer than required. They agreed that the trade-off between the risks associated with problematic use or dependence and the clinical benefit the person derives from the medication should determine prescribing decisions and it may be clinically appropriate for medicines to continue being prescribed for as long as they continue to be helpful. This was reflected in recommendations discussed in other evidence reviews included within this guideline.

- 17 Evidence from 1 study showed higher average daily opioid doses (ADD) in people who 18 had an episode of long-term prescribing to be associated with a greater risk of incident 19 addiction to opioids, when compared to not being on an episode of long-term 20 prescribing. A long-term episode at an ADD of less than 20 mg morphine equivalent dose (MED) was not associated with an increased risk of incident addiction to opioids, 21 22 versus not being on an episode of long-term prescribing. However, an episode of long-23 term prescribing with an ADD between 20 and 50 mg MED, or an ADD of 50 mg or 24 greater MED, predicted a greater risk, compared with not having an episode of long-25 term prescribing. The committee noted that the evidence showed a dose-response 26 association, with the risk of incident addiction increasing progressively with each dose 27 increase. The committee agreed this was an important finding and it was in line with their clinical experience. Another study also showed an increase in risk with opioid 28 dosage on the outcome of any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose. 29 However, this was reported as the continuous variable of morphine milligram 30 31 equivalents per day (MME/d), and the committee noted it was difficult to draw firm 32 conclusions from the incremental risk increase with each MME/d. Based on the 33 evidence and the consensus of the committee, a recommendation was made that the risk of developing problems associated with dependence can be reduced by starting 34 35 the medicine at a lower dose.
- 36 There was evidence from 2 studies looking at different opioid formulations. Oxycodone IR was associated with a greater risk of shopping behaviour and heavy shopping 37 38 behaviour compared to tapentadol IR as shown in moderate and very low-quality 39 evidence, with the latter outcome also downgraded due to imprecision in the effect 40 estimate. Similarly, tapentadol IR was associated with a reduced risk of shopping 41 behaviour and opioid abuse compared to oxycodone. Evidence from the 2 studies was 42 in agreement, suggesting oxycodone may increase risk of problematic drug use compared to tapentadol. However, the committee noted there were baseline 43 differences in opioid dose between the 2 different opioid formulation groups in 1 study, 44 with average dose in the oxycodone group being higher at baseline. Furthermore, 45 information on dose was not available for the other contributing study. The committee 46 47 agreed that differences in dose could be an important confounding factor in the examination of different opioid formulations and this impacted their ability to draw 48 49 conclusions regarding opioid formulations as a risk factor for dependence.
- 50 Evidence from 2 studies showed there was a greater risk with long-acting opioids 51 (compared to short acting opioids) for the following outcomes: having overlapping 52 prescriptions, having 3 or more prescribers, and having any combination of opioid 53 abuse, dependence or overdose. The committee raised this was in line with their

experience and that standard release formulations are often preferred, are less frequently associated with problems and more appropriate for dose reduction purposes. They agreed that prescribers should be aware that shorter acting preparations may reduce the risk of problematic behaviour related to opioid use, and that modified release preparations should be avoided. This would also include avoiding concurrent standard- and modified-release opioids, for which there was also evidence. This evidence was from 1 study, showing that concurrent use of short- and long-acting opioids (either within 30 days or not within 30 days), versus short-acting opioids alone, increased the risk of having any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose. Modified release opioids may include slow-release morphine, slow-release oxycodone or transdermal preparations (such as fentanyl or buprenorphine patches). However, the committee specified that the appropriateness of the drug formulation is context-specific and different settings may require different prescribing decisions; for example, long-acting formulations can be more appropriate than short-acting formulations if one is treated for substance misuse or in secure environments where there are different considerations around prescribing. The committee emphasised that the prescribing framework differs in prison settings, for example, medicines may only be dispensed once a day, and medicines associated with dependence may not be held in possession.. They were aware of the NICE guideline NG57, on the Physical Health of People in Prison and highlighted this in the recommendations. They specified that considerations around practicalities of administration as well as risks for the individual and for the wider population are particularly important in those settings. In line with their clinical experience, the committee also noted that different formulations may be appropriate for different drug classes and short-acting formulations are associated with a reduced likelihood of problematic use of opioids in particular, but are not necessarily appropriate across drug classes.

For the factor of number of days of opioid supply in the first prescription, evidence was available from 2 studies. Evidence from 1 study showed that more than 7 days of opioid supply during the first prescription was associated with a greater risk of overlapping opioid prescriptions compared to fewer days of opioid supply (either 4-7 31 days or  $\leq$  3 days). The other study also showed an increase in risk with the number 32 of days' supply on the outcome of any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or 33 overdose. However, this was reported as the continuous variable of the increase in risk with each additional day supply, and the committee noted it was difficult to draw 34 35 firm conclusions from this. The committee raised that a longer supply may predict the 36 likelihood of remaining on the drug long-term and that the days of supply can 37 influence the number of prescriptions which may in turn increase the risk for dependence or problematic use. They agreed to highlight in the recommendations 38 39 that the prescription duration should reflect the management plan agreed with the 40 person.

41 Dual use of the Veterans health administration and Medicare part D was associated 42 with a greater risk of overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions compared to single 43 use in 1 study conducted in the USA. Cash payments for opioids were also associated with a greater risk of shopping behaviour and opioid abuse compared to payment 44 through Medicaid, Medicare and commercial insurance in 1 study. The committee 45 noted that these prognostic factors referred to types of health insurance and federal 46 47 state programs available in the USA and were not relevant to the NHS setting and therefore did not base a recommendation on this evidence. 48

49 Evidence from 1 study examined the presence of different painful conditions (versus 50 the absence of that painful condition) for predicting shopping behaviour and opioid 51 abuse. Back pain and 'other pains' the nature of which was not specified were 52 associated with a greater risk of both outcomes. Contrarily, arthritis and headache 53 were associated with a reduced risk of shopping behaviour (there was no difference in opioid abuse), malignancy and reproductive pain were associated with a reduced risk of both shopping behaviour and opioid abuse and wound injury was associated with a reduced risk of opioid abuse (but not shopping behaviour). Visceral pain, neuropathic pain, musculoskeletal pain and fractures were not associated with an increased risk of either outcome. The committee agreed that evidence suggesting back pain and 'other' types of pain, were risk factors for problematic drug use, were not surprising, as according to their experience, non-specific causes of pain may increase the risk of problematic use. This was confirmed by evidence of a reduced risk in cases where there was specific cause of pain such as arthritis, reproductive pain or malignancy. A recommendation was made to take into account that someone with a lack of clear, defined diagnosis to support the prescription may have a higher risk of developing problems associated with dependence

#### 13 **Benzodiazepines**

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 9

10 11

12

17

14 The committee noted that the majority of the evidence for benzodiazepines reported 15 dose escalation (daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period 16 from a starting point of <1 defined daily doses on average per day in the first 3 months). This was considered to be a measure indicating misuse or dependence by the study authors, however the committee had concerns over the extent to which the 18 19 outcome can be interpreted to indicate misuse or dependence. This was taken into 20 account in the quality assessment of the evidence which was downgraded for 21 outcome indirectness. The committee agreed that inferences about factors predicting 22 daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose as predicting misuse or dependence 23 should be made with caution.

24 Evidence from 2 studies showed conflicting findings for age as factor for predicting benzodiazepine dependence. When compared to younger age (18-24 years), age 25 35-54 had a lower risk of benzodiazepine dependence, age 45-54 had a slightly 26 lower risk compared to 18-24 whereas older age (65 and over) had an increased risk 27 28 for the same outcome. Age 25-34 and 55-64 were not predictive of benzodiazepine dependence. Age as continuous outcomes was not associated with daily average 29 30 intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose. The committee noted that as well as results being 31 conflicting, there was imprecision across the effect estimates showing an association 32 and so conclusions could not be drawn from the current evidence base.

- 33 Evidence from 1 study suggested female gender decreases the risk of daily average 34 intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose. Similarly, evidence from another study suggested 35 there was a greater likelihood for benzodiazepine dependence in males, although there was imprecision in the effect. The committee raised that due to social 36 stereotypes, males may be less likely to accept social support and instead turn to 37 38 medicines. They emphasised however, that the underlying mechanism for such a relationship is unclear and agreed this was insufficient evidence to inform a 39 recommendation. 40
- 41 Evidence from 1 study suggested non-white family background (Black, Latino and Asian) was associated with a lower risk of benzodiazepine dependence, when 42 43 compared to white family background. There was a strong relationship across groups 44 with Black family background associated with the lowest risk. These findings were in 45 line with those seen for non-white family bakground in the opioid drug class, and the 46 committee agreed they may be due to challenges non-white ethnic groups may face 47 in accessing healthcare and as a consequence medication in the US and were less 48 related to family background as a risk factor per se.
- 49 Evidence from 1 study showed first benzodiazepine dispensation of oxazepam (versus diazepam) was associated with a slightly increased risk of daily average 50

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose. Evidence quality was low, and the committee noted the effect size was small and that other factors such as dose rather than dispensation are likely to be more important for problematic drug use.

High level of education predicted a lower risk of daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose compared to low level of education in 1 study. Similarly, average compared to low income was associated with a reduced risk for the same outcome, and risk decreased even further for a high income compared to a low income. The same relationship was observed for the type of work with people working in the private or the public sector having lower risk of daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose compared to those who had no registration on their type of work. The committee thought that low education and type of work may reflect social deprivation and a wider underlying social or personal distress and similarly to income level, as also evidenced in the opioid drug class, can increase the desire for medicines to cope with life adversity. It was raised that social deprivation can impact both one's clinical presentation in that their experience of pain may differ, as well as access to non-medical sources of support such as from the family, the community or to nonpharmacological approaches such as talking therapy.

- 18 Evidence from 1 study showed different types of previous medication were risk 19 factors for predicting daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose. There was a greater risk with antidepressants and lithium, antipsychotics, opioids, anti-alcohol or 20 smoking cessation drugs and drugs for COPD, with opioids, anti-alcohol or smoking 21 22 cessation drugs being the strongest predictor. Drugs for rhematic diseases did not 23 strongly predict a risk for daily average intake of  $\geq$  1 defined daily dose and there was 24 imprecision in the effect estimate. Past use of these medications could indicate the 25 presence of comorbidities such as depression. These comorbidities could have a 26 profound effect on peoples' lives and enhance the desire for medicines. The 27 committee raised that the evidence was in line with findings on opioids about history 28 of substance misuse and past use of strong opioids for predicting problematic drug use or misuse. They therefore agreed that this strengthened their consensus view 29 30 that this factor was relevant across drug classes.
- 31 Evidence from 1 study showed substance use diagnosis of alcohol, marijuana or pain 32 medication were associated with a reduced risk of benzodiazepine dependence. The 33 committee noted this was likely to be due to people deriving the benefit they would 34 derive from medication from those substances with benzodiazepines becoming less 35 desired. Use of cocaine did not strongly predict benzodiazepine dependence. 36 Contrarily, substance use diagnosis of opioids, tobacco or having 2 or more substance use diagnoses were associated with a greater risk for the same outcome, 37 38 although there was imprecision around the effect estimate for opioids. This was in line with evidence relevant to history of substance misuse in opioids, and the 39 40 committee noted that people with past or current substance use may require higher drug doses to get the same effect and which can increase the likelihood of 41 42 dependence. The committee thought the evidence suggesting substance use 43 diagnosis to be a risk factor for benzodiazepine dependence added to similar 44 evidence on substance use seen in opioids and increased their confidence that this is an important factor to be considered during prescribing. 45
- Mental health diagnoses of depression and anxiety were associated with a greater
  risk of benzodiazepine dependence compared to no such diagnoses in 1 study.
  Bipolar and PTSD diagnoses did not predict benzodiazepine dependence, although
  there was imprecision around both the effect estimates. Sleep disturbance on the
  other hand was associated with a reduced risk of benzodiazepine dependence. The
  committee noted that evidence on depression and anxiety were in line with evidence
  on mental health disorders relevant to the opioid drug class and emphasised that the

profound impact that mental health diagnoses can have on people's lives may
enhance their desire for medicines increasing the risk of dependence. They agreed
this strengthened the rationale for including this in a recommendation for all of the
relevant drug classes. However, the committee thought findings on sleep disturbance
were counter-intuitive and agreed people with sleep disturbance could be taking a
different drug to deal with their sleep problems and may be less likely to develop
dependence on benzodiazepines.

#### 81.1.11.4. Cost effectiveness and resource use

- 9 There was no cost-effectiveness evidence for this question.
- 10 The clinical review found that a number of individual factors increase the risk of 11 misuse, long-term dependency and shopping behaviour. It is likely that the 12 recommendations will raise awareness on the individual risk factors potentially 13 reducing the number of people having long-term dependence. This should, in turn, 14 reduce the demand on services leading to savings for the NHS.
- In addition, the clinical review found that a number of prescribing factors were
   associated with a lower risk of developing long-term dependency and misuse. The
   recommendation should help prescribers to adopt the most appropriate prescribing
   strategy to reduce problems associated with dependence and drug-related
   problematic behaviour, leading to NHS savings and improvement in people's quality
   of life.

#### 211.1.11.5. Other factors the committee took into account

- The committee highlighted the importance of being cautious when making recommendations about risk factors associated with dependence and although they agreed the aforementioned factors were important to highlight, they stressed that the recommendations should not prevent access to medicines for people having one or more of the risk factors but for whom the medication is indicated.
- 27 The committee discussed that according to what they see in clinical practice, there is 28 often great pressure on health-care professionals, exerted from patient distress and/or expectations of patients or other medical professionals, to prescribe medicines 29 associated with dependence or withdrawal symptoms although, depending on 30 individual circumstances including one's existing prescriptions, it may not always be 31 32 the best decision for the patient, resulting in dependence, problematic drug use or side-33 effects which could be avoided. The committee agreed that it may be more appropriate 34 to delay the decision to prescribe at the first consultation to allow time to consider all 35 factors and enable consultation with a health care team and for patients to consider all 36 treatment options through the provision of relevant information.
- The committee raised that making prescribing decisions in consultation with other health care professionals, could provide a way to prevent prescribing that may not be the best option for an individual at a given time. The collaboration of different health care professionals could prevent professionals from prescribing medicines in patients already on other prescriptions and increase the likelihood that prescribing decisions that are in the best interest of the patient are made.
- The committee noted that there are various factors that may influence dependence, that not all are captured by the evidence. They agreed that social distress and access to alternative sources of support may be risk factors for problems associated with dependence on prescribed medicines, but there was no evidence to reflect that. They agreed to make recommendations for further research in this area. It was also noted

that factors related to the healthcare system could also have an impact, but no
evidence was identified on this aspect. Further research was therefore proposed in this
area to identify whether system-level factors, such as the training received by
prescribers, leads to an increased risk of dependence on prescribed medicines.

#### 5 1.1.12. Recommendations supported by this evidence review

- 6 This evidence review supports recommendations 1.2.2, 1.2.3, 1.2.6, 1.3.5, 1.3.6 and 7 the research recommendation on individual circumstances and the risk of 8 dependence; system-level factors and the risk of dependence. Other evidence 9 supporting these recommendations can be found in the evidence reviews on B 10 Prescribing Strategies.
- 10 11

50 Safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults DRAFT October 2021

## References

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18 19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40 41

42

43

- 1. Adejumo AC, Akanbi O, Alayo Q, Ejigah V, Onyeakusi NE, Omede OF et al. Predictors, rates, and trends of opioid use disorder among patients hospitalized with chronic pancreatitis. Annals of Gastroenterology. 2021; 34(2):262-272
- 2. Adewumi AD, Hollingworth SA, Maravilla JC, Connor JP, Alati R. Prescribed dose of opioids and overdose: A systematic review and meta-analysis of unintentional prescription opioid overdose. CNS Drugs. 2018; 32(2):101-116
- 3. Airagnes G, Lemogne C, Renuy A, Goldberg M, Hoertel N, Roquelaure Y et al. Prevalence of prescribed benzodiazepine long-term use in the French general population according to sociodemographic and clinical factors: findings from the CONSTANCES cohort. BMC Public Health. 2019; 19(1):566
- 4. Al Dabbagh Z, Jansson KA, Stiller CO, Montgomery S, Weiss RJ. No signs of dose escalations of potent opioids prescribed after tibial shaft fractures: a study of Swedish National Registries. BMC Anesthesiology. 2014; 14:4
- 5. Alam A, Gomes T, Zheng H, Mamdani MM, Juurlink DN, Bell CM. Long-term analgesic use after low-risk surgery: a retrospective cohort study. Archives of Internal Medicine. 2012; 172(5):425-430
  - 6. Almakadma YS, Simpson K. Opioid therapy in non-cancer chronic pain patients: Trends and efficacy in different types of pain, patients age and gender. Saudi Journal of Anaesthesia. 2013; 7(3):291-295
- Alzeer AH, Jones J, Bair MJ. Review of factors, methods, and outcome definition in designing opioid abuse predictive models. Pain Medicine. 2018; 19(5):997-1009
- 8. Anciano Granadillo V, Cancienne JM, Gwathmey FW, Werner BC. Perioperative opioid analgesics and hip arthroscopy: Trends, risk factors for prolonged use, and complications. Arthroscopy. 2018; 34(8):2359-2367
  - 9. Anderson JT, Haas AR, Percy R, Woods ST, Ahn UM, Ahn NU. Chronic opioid therapy after lumbar fusion surgery for degenerative disc disease in a workers' compensation setting. Spine. 2015; 40(22):1775-1784
  - 10. Atluri SL, Sudarshan G. Development of a screening tool to detect the risk of inappropriate prescription opioid use in patients with chronic pain. Pain Physician. 2004; 7(3):333-338
- 11. Azad TD, Vail D, Bentley J, Han SS, Suarez P, Varshneya K et al. Initial provider specialty is associated with long-term opiate use in patients with newly diagnosed low back and lower extremity pain. Spine. 2019; 44(3):211-218
- 12. Banerjee G, Edelman EJ, Barry DT, Crystal S, Gordon KS, Gordon AJ et al. High-dose prescribed opioids are associated with increased risk of heroin use among United States military veterans. Pain. 2019; 160(9):2126-2135
- Barnas C, Whitworth AB, Fleischhacker WW. Are patterns of benzodiazepine use predictable? A follow-up study of benzodiazepine users. Psychopharmacology. 1993; 111(3):301-305

- 14. Barry DT, Marshall BDL, Becker WC, Gordon AJ, Crystal S, Kerns RD et al. Duration of opioid prescriptions predicts incident nonmedical use of prescription opioids among U.S. veterans receiving medical care. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2018; 191:348-354
  - 15. Bartels K, Fernandez-Bustamante A, McWilliams SK, Hopfer CJ, Mikulich-Gilbertson SK. Long-term opioid use after inpatient surgery - A retrospective cohort study. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2018; 187:61-65
- 16. Beaudoin FL, Straube S, Lopez J, Mello MJ, Baird J. Prescription opioid misuse among ED patients discharged with opioids. American Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2014; 32(6):580-585
- 17. Bedard NA, Pugely AJ, Dowdle SB, Duchman KR, Glass NA, Callaghan JJ. Opioid use following total hip arthroplasty: Trends and risk factors for prolonged use. Journal of Arthroplasty. 2017; 32(12):3675-3679
- 18. Bedard NA, Pugely AJ, Westermann RW, Duchman KR, Glass NA, Callaghan JJ. Opioid use after total knee arthroplasty: Trends and risk factors for prolonged use. Journal of Arthroplasty. 2017; 32(8):2390-2394
- 19. Bedson J, Chen Y, Ashworth J, Hayward RA, Dunn KM, Jordan KP. Risk of adverse events in patients prescribed long-term opioids: A cohort study in the UK Clinical Practice Research Datalink. European Journal of Pain. 2019; 23(5):908-922
  - 20. Belgrade MJ, Schamber CD, Lindgren BR. The DIRE score: Predicting outcomes of opioid prescribing for chronic pain. Journal of Pain. 2006; 7(9):671-681
- 21. Ben-Joseph R, Bell JA, Brixner D, Kansal A, Paramore C, Chitnis A et al. Opioid treatment patterns following prescription of immediate-release hydrocodone. Journal of managed care and specialty pharmacy. 2016; 22(4):358-366
- 22. Berecki-Gisolf J, Collie A, McClure RJ. Prescription opioids for occupational injury: results from workers' compensation claims records. Pain Medicine. 2014; 15(9):1549-1557
- 23. Bertenthal D, Yaffe K, Barnes DE, Byers AL, Gibson CJ, Seal KH et al. Do postconcussive symptoms from traumatic brain injury in combat veterans predict risk for receiving opioid therapy for chronic pain? Brain Injury. 2018; 32(10):1188-1196
- 24. Beyer CA, Poltavskiy E, Walker LE, Pettey W, Suo Y, Redd A et al. Persistent opioid use after combat injury and subsequent long-term risk of abuse: a retrospective cohort study. Annals of Surgery. 2019; DOI: 10.1097/sla.00000000003658
- 25. Bhashyam AR, Heng M, Harris MB, Vrahas MS, Weaver MJ. Self-reported marijuana use is associated with increased use of prescription opioids following traumatic musculoskeletal injury. Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery. 2018; 100(24):2095-2102
- 26. Bicket MC, Murimi IB, Mansour O, Wu CL, Alexander GC. Association of new opioid continuation with surgical specialty and type in the United States. American Journal of Surgery. 2019; 218(5):818-827

2

3

4

5

6 7

8

9

10 11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29 30

31

32

33

34

35 36

37

38

39 40

41 42

43

44

- 27. Birke H, Ekholm O, Sjogren P, Kurita GP, Hojsted J. Long-term opioid therapy in Denmark: A disappointing journey. European Journal of Pain. 2017; 21(9):1516-1527
- 28. Birke H, Kurita GP, Sjogren P, Hojsted J, Simonsen MK, Juel K et al. Chronic non-cancer pain and the epidemic prescription of opioids in the Danish population: trends from 2000 to 2013. Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica. 2016; 60(5):623-633
- 29. Blanch B, Buckley NA, Mellish L, Dawson AH, Haber PS, Pearson SA. Harmonizing post-market surveillance of prescription drug misuse: A systematic review of observational studies using routinely collected data (2000-2013). Drug Safety. 2015; 38(6):553-564
  - 30. Blanch B, Degenhardt L, Buckley NA, Gisev N, Dobbins T, Karanges EA et al. Prescription opioid access patterns and factors associated with increasing number of prescribers, pharmacies, and dispensings: An observational study using pharmaceutical claims. Pain Medicine. 2018; 19(6):1170-1183
- 31. Blanco C, Wall MM, Okuda M, Wang S, Iza M, Olfson M. Pain as a predictor of opioid use disorder in a nationally representative sample. American Journal of Psychiatry. 2016; 173(12):1189-1195
- 32. Bonnet U, Scherbaum N. How addictive are gabapentin and pregabalin? A systematic review. European Neuropsychopharmacology. 2017; 27(12):1185-1215
- 33. Booher L. The impact of low socioeconomic status in adults with chronic pain: an integrative review. Orthopaedic Nursing. 2019; 38(6):381-389
- 34. Boscarino JA, Rukstalis M, Hoffman SN, Han JJ, Erlich PM, Gerhard GS et al. Risk factors for drug dependence among out-patients on opioid therapy in a large US health-care system. Addiction. 2010; 105(10):1776-1782
- 35. Boscarino JA, Rukstalis MR, Hoffman SN, Han JJ, Erlich PM, Ross S et al. Prevalence of prescription opioid-use disorder among chronic pain patients: comparison of the DSM-5 vs. DSM-4 diagnostic criteria. Journal of Addictive Diseases. 2011; 30(3):185-194
- 36. Brady JE, Giglio R, Keyes KM, DiMaggio C, Li G. Risk markers for fatal and non-fatal prescription drug overdose: a meta-analysis. Injury Epidemiology. 2017; 4(1):24
- 37. Brat GA, Agniel D, Beam A, Yorkgitis B, Bicket M, Homer M et al. Postsurgical prescriptions for opioid naive patients and association with overdose and misuse: retrospective cohort study. BMJ. 2018; 360:j5790
  - 38. Broekmans S, Dobbels F, Milisen K, Morlion B, Vanderschueren S. Determinants of medication underuse and medication overuse in patients with chronic non-malignant pain: a multicenter study. International Journal of Nursing Studies. 2010; 47(11):1408-1417
- Brummett CM, Waljee JF, Goesling J, Moser S, Lin P, Englesbe MJ et al. New persistent opioid use after minor and major surgical procedures in US adults. JAMA Surgery. 2017; 152(6):e170504
  - 40. Bruneau A, Frimerman L, Verner M, Sirois A, Fournier C, Scott K et al. Dayto-day opioid withdrawal symptoms, psychological distress, and opioid

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18 19

20

21 22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35 36

37

38

39 40

41

42

43

44

craving in patients with chronic pain prescribed opioid therapy. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2021; 225:108787

- 41. Burke LG, Zhou X, Boyle KL, Orav EJ, Bernson D, Hood ME et al. Trends in opioid use disorder and overdose among opioid-naive individuals receiving an opioid prescription in Massachusetts from 2011 to 2014. Addiction. 2020; 115(3):493-504
- 42. Bushnell GA, Sturmer T, Gaynes BN, Pate V, Miller M. Simultaneous antidepressant and benzodiazepine new use and subsequent long-term benzodiazepine use in adults with depression, United States, 2001-2014. JAMA Psychiatry. 2017; 74(7):747-755
  - 43. Calcaterra SL, Scarbro S, Hull ML, Forber AD, Binswanger IA, Colborn KL. Prediction of future chronic opioid use among hospitalized patients. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2018; 33(6):898-905
  - 44. Calcaterra SL, Yamashita TE, Min SJ, Keniston A, Frank JW, Binswanger IA. Opioid prescribing at hospital discharge contributes to chronic opioid use. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2016; 31(5):478-485
- 45. Callaghan BC, Reynolds E, Banerjee M, Kerber KA, Skolarus LE, Burke JF. Longitudinal pattern of pain medication utilization in peripheral neuropathy patients. Pain. 2019; 160(3):592-599
  - 46. Campbell G, Mattick R, Bruno R, Larance B, Nielsen S, Cohen M et al. Cohort protocol paper: the Pain and Opioids In Treatment (POINT) study. BMC Pharmacology & Toxicology. 2014; 15:17
- 47. Campbell G, Nielsen S, Bruno R, Lintzeris N, Cohen M, Hall W et al. The Pain and Opioids IN Treatment study: characteristics of a cohort using opioids to manage chronic non-cancer pain. Pain. 2015; 156(2):231-242
- 48. Campbell G, Nielsen S, Larance B, Bruno R, Mattick R, Hall W et al. Pharmaceutical opioid use and dependence among people living with chronic pain: Associations observed within the pain and opioids in treatment (POINT) cohort. Pain Medicine. 2015; 16(9):1745-1758
- 49. Campbell G, Noghrehchi F, Nielsen S, Clare P, Bruno R, Lintzeris N et al. Risk factors for indicators of opioid-related harms amongst people living with chronic non-cancer pain: Findings from a 5-year prospective cohort study. EClinicalMedicine. 2020; 28:100592
- 50. Capaldi DM, Kerr DCR, Tiberio SS, Owen LD. Men's misuse of prescription opioids from early to middle adulthood: An examination of developmental and concurrent prediction models. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology. 2019; 87(10):893-903
- 51. Carroll I, Barelka P, Wang CK, Wang BM, Gillespie MJ, McCue R et al. A pilot cohort study of the determinants of longitudinal opioid use after surgery. Anesthesia and Analgesia. 2012; 115(3):694-702
- 52. Cepeda MS, Fife D, Kihm MA, Mastrogiovanni G, Yuan Y. Comparison of the risks of shopping behavior and opioid abuse between tapentadol and oxycodone and association of shopping behavior and opioid abuse. Clinical Journal of Pain. 2014; 30(12):1051-1056

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18 19

20

21

22

23 24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31 32

33

34

35

36

37 38

39

40

41

42

43

44

- 53. Cepeda MS, Fife D, Ma Q, Ryan PB. Comparison of the risks of opioid abuse or dependence between tapentadol and oxycodone: Results from a cohort study. Journal of Pain. 2013; 14(10):1227-1241
- 54. Cepeda MS, Fife D, Vo L, Mastrogiovanni G, Yuan Y. Comparison of opioid doctor shopping for tapentadol and oxycodone: a cohort study. Journal of Pain. 2013; 14(2):158-164
- 55. Chalmers CE, Mullinax S, Brennan J, Vilke GM, Oliveto AH, Wilson MP. Screening tools validated in the outpatient pain management setting poorly predict opioid misuse in the emergency department: A pilot study. Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2019; 56(6):601-610
- 56. Chaudhary MA, Bhulani N, de Jager EC, Lipsitz S, Kwon NK, Sturgeon DJ et al. Development and validation of a bedside risk assessment for sustained prescription opioid use after surgery. JAMA Network Open. 2019; 2(7):e196673
- 57. Chaudhary MA, Scully R, Jiang W, Chowdhury R, Zogg CK, Sharma M et al. Patterns of use and factors associated with early discontinuation of opioids following major trauma. American Journal of Surgery. 2017; 214(5):792-797
- 58. Chaudhary MA, von Keudell A, Bhulani N, de Jager EC, Kwon NK, Koehlmoos T et al. Prior prescription opioid use and its influence on opioid requirements after orthopedic trauma. Journal of Surgical Research. 2019; 238:29-34
- 59. Cheatle MD, Compton PA, Dhingra L, Wasser TE, O'Brien CP. Development of the revised opioid risk tool to predict opioid use disorder in patients with chronic nonmalignant pain. Journal of Pain. 2019; 20(7):842-851
- 60. Chenaf C, Kabore JL, Delorme J, Pereira B, Mulliez A, Roche L et al. Codeine shopping behavior in a retrospective cohort of chronic noncancer pain patients: Incidence and risk factors. Journal of Pain. 2016; 17(12):1291-1301
- 61. Chenaf C, Kabore JL, Delorme J, Pereira B, Mulliez A, Roche L et al. Incidence of tramadol shopping behavior in a retrospective cohort of chronic non-cancer pain patients in France. Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety. 2016; 25(9):1088-1098
- 62. Cheng JS, Huang WF, Lin KM, Shih YT. Characteristics associated with benzodiazepine usage in elderly outpatients in Taiwan. International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry. 2008; 23(6):618-624
- 63. Cho J, Spence MM, Niu F, Hui RL, Gray P, Steinberg S. Risk of overdose with exposure to prescription opioids, benzodiazepines, and non-benzodiazepine sedative-hypnotics in adults: a retrospective cohort study. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2020; 35(3):696-703
- 64. Chou R, Deyo R, Devine B, Hansen R, Sullivan S, Jarvik JG et al. The effectiveness and risks of long-term opioid treatment of chronic pain. Evidence Report/Technology Assessment. 2014; (218):1-219
- 65. Chou R, Fanciullo GJ, Fine PG, Miaskowski C, Passik SD, Portenoy RK. Opioids for chronic noncancer pain: prediction and identification of aberrant drug-related behaviors: a review of the evidence for an American Pain

Society and American Academy of Pain Medicine clinical practice guideline. Journal of Pain. 2009; 10(2):131-146

- 66. Chou R, Hartung D, Turner J, Blazina I, Chan B, Levander X et al. Opioid treatments for chronic pain. 2020. Available from: <u>http://www.epistemonikos.org/documents/430babe637c56eeb61b784da9dd7</u> <u>42c508f96b63</u>
- 67. Chou R, Turner JA, Devine EB, Hansen RN, Sullivan SD, Blazina I et al. The effectiveness and risks of long-term opioid therapy for chronic pain: a systematic review for a National Institutes of Health Pathways to Prevention Workshop. Annals of Internal Medicine. 2015; 162(4):276-286
- Chui PW, Bastian LA, DeRycke E, Brandt CA, Becker WC, Goulet JL. Dual use of department of veterans affairs and medicare benefits on high-risk opioid prescriptions in veterans aged 65 years and older: Insights from the VA musculoskeletal disorders cohort. Health Services Research. 2018; 53(Suppl 3):5402-5418
- 69. Cicero TJ, Mendoza M, Cattaneo M, Dart RC, Mardekian J, Polson M et al. Real-world misuse, abuse, and dependence of abuse-deterrent versus nonabuse-deterrent extended-release morphine in Medicaid non-cancer patients. Postgraduate Medicine. 2019; 131(3):225-229
- 70. Ciesielski T, Iyengar R, Bothra A, Tomala D, Cislo G, Gage BF. A tool to assess risk of de novo opioid abuse or dependence. American Journal of Medicine. 2016; 129(7):699-705.e694
- 71. Clarke H, Soneji N, Ko DT, Yun L, Wijeysundera DN. Rates and risk factors for prolonged opioid use after major surgery: population based cohort study. BMJ. 2014; 348:1251
- 72. Clift AD. Factors leading to dependence on hypnotic drugs. British Medical Journal. 1972; 3(5827):614-617
- 73. Cochran G, McCarthy R, Gordon AJ, Tarter RE. Opioid medication misuse among unhealthy drinkers. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2017; 179:13-17
- 74. Cochran G, Rosen D, McCarthy RM, Engel RJ. Risk factors for symptoms of prescription opioid misuse: Do older adults differ from younger adult patients? J Gerontol Soc Work. 2017; 60(6-7):443-457
- Connolly J, 3rd, Javed Z, Raji MA, Chan W, Kuo YF, Baillargeon J. Predictors of long-term opioid use following lumbar fusion surgery. Spine. 2017; 42(18):1405-1411
- 76. Cook B, Creedon T, Wang Y, Lu C, Carson N, Jules P et al. Examining racial/ethnic differences in patterns of benzodiazepine prescription and misuse. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2018; 187:29-34
  - 77. Coplan PM, Sessler NE, Harikrishnan V, Singh R, Perkel C. Comparison of abuse, suspected suicidal intent, and fatalities related to the 7-day buprenorphine transdermal patch versus other opioid analgesics in the National Poison Data System. Postgraduate Medicine. 2017; 129(1):55-61
- 78. Coutinho AD, Gandhi K, Fuldeore RM, Landsman-Blumberg PB, Gandhi S. Long-term opioid users with chronic noncancer pain: Assessment of opioid

abuse risk and relationship with healthcare resource use. Journal of Opioid Management. 2018; 14(2):131-141

- 79. Coyle DT, Pratt CY, Ocran-Appiah J, Secora A, Kornegay C, Staffa J. Opioid analgesic dose and the risk of misuse, overdose, and death: A narrative review. Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety. 2018; 27(5):464-472
- 80. Cragg A, Hau JP, Woo SA, Kitchen SA, Liu C, Doyle-Waters MM et al. Risk factors for misuse of prescribed opioids: A systematic review and metaanalysis. Annals of Emergency Medicine. 2019; 74(5):634-646
- 81. Cragg A, Hau JP, Woo SA, Liu C, Doyle-Waters MM, Hohl CM. Risk factors for addiction among patients receiving prescribed opioids: a systematic review protocol. Systematic Reviews. 2017; 6(1):265
- 82. Driot D, Jouanjus E, Oustric S, Dupouy J, Lapeyre-Mestre M. Patterns of gabapentin and pregabalin use and misuse: Results of a population-based cohort study in France. British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2019; 85(6):1260-1269
- 83. Dufour R, Mardekian J, Pasquale MK, Schaaf D, Andrews GA, Patel NC. Understanding predictors of opioid abuse: Predictive model development and validation. American Journal of Pharmacy Benefits. 2014; 6(5):208-216
- 84. Dunbar SA, Katz NP. Chronic opioid therapy for nonmalignant pain in patients with a history of substance abuse: Report of 20 cases. Journal of Pain and Symptom Management. 1996; 11(3):163-171
- 85. Dy CJ, Peacock K, Olsen MA, Ray WZ, Brogan DM. Frequency and risk factors for prolonged opioid prescriptions after surgery for brachial plexus injury. Journal of Hand Surgery American Volume. 2019; 44(8):662-668.e661
- 86. Edlund MJ, Steffick D, Hudson T, Harris KM, Sullivan M. Risk factors for clinically recognized opioid abuse and dependence among veterans using opioids for chronic non-cancer pain. Pain. 2007; 129(3):355-362
- 87. Elzey MJ, Barden SM, Edwards ES. Patient characteristics and outcomes in unintentional, non-fatal prescription opioid overdoses: A systematic review. Pain Physician. 2016; 19(4):215-228
- 88. Fang SY, Chen CY, Chang IS, Wu ECH, Chang CM, Lin KM. Predictors of the incidence and discontinuation of long-term use of benzodiazepines: A population-based study. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2009; 104(1-2):140-146
- 89. Fiorio R, Bellantuono C, Leoncini M, Montemezzi G, Micciolo R, Williams P. The long-term use of psychotropic drugs: A follow-up study in Italian general practice. Human Psychopharmacology. 1990; 5(3):195-205
  - 90. Fishbain DA, Cole B, Lewis J, Rosomoff HL, Rosomoff RS. What percentage of chronic nonmalignant pain patients exposed to chronic opioid analgesic therapy develop abuse/addiction and/or aberrant drug-related behaviors? A structured evidence-based review. Pain Medicine. 2008; 9(4):444-459
- 91. Ford JA, Rigg KK. Racial/Ethnic differences in factors that place adolescents at risk for prescription opioid misuse. Prevention Science. 2015; 16(5):633-641

- 92. Foy R, Leaman B, McCrorie C, Petty D, House A, Bennett M et al. Prescribed opioids in primary care: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses of influence of patient and practice characteristics. BMJ Open. 2016; 6 (5):e010276
- 93. Frankenburg FR, Fitzmaurice GM, Zanarini MC. The use of prescription opioid medication by patients with borderline personality disorder and axis II comparison subjects: a 10-year follow-up study. Journal of Clinical Psychiatry. 2014; 75(4):357-361
- 94. Franklin GM, Rahman EA, Turner JA, Daniell WE, Fulton-Kehoe D. Opioid use for chronic low back pain: A prospective, population-based study among injured workers in Washington state, 2002-2005. Clinical Journal of Pain. 2009; 25(9):743-751
  - 95. Fredheim OM, Mahic M, Skurtveit S, Dale O, Romundstad P, Borchgrevink PC. Chronic pain and use of opioids: a population-based pharmacoepidemiological study from the Norwegian prescription database and the Nord-Trondelag health study. Pain. 2014; 155(7):1213-1221
- 96. Fresán A, Minaya O, Cortés-López JL, Ugalde O. Demographic and clinical features related to benzodiazepine dependence in psychiatric patients. Salud ment. 2011; 34(2):103-109
- 97. Fride Tvete I, Bjorner T, Skomedal T. Risk factors for excessive benzodiazepine use in a working age population: a nationwide 5-year survey in Norway. Scandinavian Journal of Primary Health Care. 2015; 33(4):252-
- 98. Fritz JM, King JB, McAdams-Marx C. Associations between early care decisions and the risk for long-term opioid use for patients with low back pain with a new physician consultation and initiation of opioid therapy. Clinical Journal of Pain. 2018; 34(6):552-558
- 99. Furlan AD, Hassan S, Famiyeh IM, Wang W, Dhanju J. Long-term opioid use after discharge from inpatient musculoskeletal rehabilitation. Journal of Rehabilitation Medicine. 2016; 48(5):464-468
- 100. Garvey MJ, Tollefson GD. Prevalence of misuse of prescribed benzodiazepines in patients with primary anxiety disorder or major depression. American Journal of Psychiatry. 1986; 143(12):1601-1603
- 101. Glei DA, Weinstein M. Mental health, pain, and risk of drug misuse: a nationwide cohort study. Addictive Behaviors. 2020; 109:106467
- 102. Groenewald CB, Law EF, Fisher E, Beals-Erickson SE, Palermo TM. Associations between adolescent chronic pain and prescription opioid misuse in adulthood. Journal of Pain. 2019; 20(1):28-37
- 103. Gryczynski J, McNeely J, Wu LT, Subramaniam GA, Svikis DS, Cathers LA et al. Validation of the taps-1: A four-item screening tool to identify unhealthy substance use in primary care. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2017; 32(9):990-996
- 104. Guerlais M, Grall-Bronnec M, Feuillet F, Gerardin M, Jolliet P, Victorri-Vigneau C. Dependence on prescription benzodiazepines and Z-drugs among young to middle-aged patients in France. Substance Use and Misuse. 2015; 50(3):320-327

2

3

4

5

6 7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18 19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39 40

41

42

- 105. Gustafsson M, Karlsson S, Gustafson Y, Lovheim H. Psychotropic drug use among people with dementia - a six-month follow-up study. BMC Pharmacology & Toxicology. 2013; 14:56
- 106. Hah JM, Sturgeon JA, Zocca J, Sharifzadeh Y, Mackey SC. Factors associated with prescription opioid misuse in a cross-sectional cohort of patients with chronic non-cancer pain. Journal of Pain Research. 2017; 10:979-987
- 107. Halbert BT, Davis RB, Wee CC. Disproportionate longer-term opioid use among U.S. adults with mood disorders. Pain. 2016; 157(11):2452-2457
- 108. Haller IV, Renier CM, Juusola M, Hitz P, Steffen W, Asmus MJ et al. Enhancing risk assessment in patients receiving chronic opioid analgesic therapy using natural language processing. Pain Medicine. 2017; 18(10):1952-1960
- 109. Hauser W, Schubert T, Scherbaum N, Tolle T. Long-term opioid therapy of non-cancer pain: prevalence and predictors of hospitalization in the event of possible misuse. Der Schmerz. 2020; 34(Suppl 1):8-15
- 110. Heo KN, Ah YM, Lee JY. Risk factors of chronic opioid use after surgical procedures in noncancer patients: a nationwide case-control study. European Journal of Anaesthesiology. 2021; DOI: 10.1097/EJA.000000000001528
- 111. Himei A, Okamura T. Discontinuation syndrome associated with paroxetine in depressed patients: a retrospective analysis of factors involved in the occurrence of the syndrome. CNS Drugs. 2006; 20(8):665-672
- 112. Hinther A, Abdel-Rahman O, Cheung WY, Quan ML, Dort JC. Chronic postoperative opioid use: A systematic review. World Journal of Surgery. 2019; 43(9):2164-2174
- 113. Hoffman EM, Watson JC, St Sauver J, Staff NP, Klein CJ. Association of long-term opioid therapy with functional status, adverse outcomes, and mortality among patients with polyneuropathy. JAMA Neurology. 2017; 74(7):773-779
- 114. Hooten WM, St Sauver JL, McGree ME, Jacobson DJ, Warner DO. Incidence and risk factors for progression from short-term to episodic or long-term opioid prescribing: A population-based study. Mayo Clinic Proceedings. 2015; 90(7):850-856
- 115. Huffman KL, Shella ER, Sweis G, Griffith SD, Scheman J, Covington EC. Nonopioid substance use disorders and opioid dose predict therapeutic opioid addiction. Journal of Pain. 2015; 16(2):126-134
  - 116. Hur J, Tang S, Gunaseelan V, Vu J, Brummett CM, Englesbe M et al. Predicting postoperative opioid use with machine learning and insurance claims in opioid-naive patients. American Journal of Surgery. 2021; 222(3):659-665
- 117. Ives TJ, Chelminski PR, Hammett-Stabler CA, Malone RM, Perhac JS, Potisek NM et al. Predictors of opioid misuse in patients with chronic pain: a prospective cohort study. BMC Health Services Research. 2006; 6:46

- 118. Jamison RN, Butler SF, Budman SH, Edwards RR, Wasan AD. Gender differences in risk factors for aberrant prescription opioid use. Journal of Pain. 2010; 11(4):312-320
- 119. Jamison RN, Link CL, Marceau LD. Do pain patients at high risk for substance misuse experience more pain? A longitudinal outcomes study. Pain Medicine. 2009; 10(6):1084-1094
- 120. Jobert A, Laforgue EJ, Grall-Bronnec M, Rousselet M, Pere M, Jolliet P et al. Benzodiazepine withdrawal in older people: what is the prevalence, what are the signs, and which patients? European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2021; 77(2):171-177
- 121. Kaplan MA, Korelitz BI. Narcotic dependence in inflammatory bowel disease. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology. 1988; 10(3):275-278
- 122. Karhade AV, Ogink PT, Thio QCBS, Cha TD, Gormley WB, Hershman SH et al. Development of machine learning algorithms for prediction of prolonged opioid prescription after surgery for lumbar disc herniation. Spine Journal. 2019; 19(11):1764-1771
- 123. Katz C, El-Gabalawy R, Keyes KM, Martins SS, Sareen J. Risk factors for incident nonmedical prescription opioid use and abuse and dependence: results from a longitudinal nationally representative sample. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2013; 132(1-2):107-113
  - 124. Klimas J, Gorfinkel L, Fairbairn N, Amato L, Ahamad K, Nolan S et al. Strategies to identify patient risks of prescription opioid addiction when initiating opioids for pain: A systematic review. JAMA Network Open. 2019; 2(5):e193365
- 125. Knisely JS, Wunsch MJ, Cropsey KL, Campbell ED. Prescription Opioid Misuse Index: a brief questionnaire to assess misuse. Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment. 2008; 35(4):380-386
- 126. Lalic S, Gisev N, Bell JS, Korhonen MJ, Ilomaki J. Predictors of persistent prescription opioid analgesic use among people without cancer in Australia. British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2018; 84(6):1267-1278
- 127. Lawrence R, Mogford D, Colvin L. Systematic review to determine which validated measurement tools can be used to assess risk of problematic analgesic use in patients with chronic pain. British Journal of Anaesthesia. 2017; 119(6):1092-1109
- 128. Layton D, Osborne V, Al-Shukri M, Shakir SA. Indicators of drug-seeking aberrant behaviours: the feasibility of use in observational post-marketing cohort studies for risk management. Drug Safety. 2014; 37(8):639-650
- 129. Li Y, Delcher C, Wei YJ, Reisfield GM, Brown JD, Tighe P et al. Risk of opioid overdose associated with concomitant use of opioids and skeletal muscle relaxants: a population-based cohort study. Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics. 2020; 108(1):81-89
- 130. Lobo CP, Cochran G, Chang CH, Gellad WF, Gordon AJ, Jalal H et al. Associations between the specialty of opioid prescribers and opioid addiction, misuse, and overdose outcomes. Pain Medicine. 2020; 21(9):1871-1890

- 131. Lu TH, Lee YY, Lee HC, Lin YM. Doctor shopping behavior for zolpidem among insomnia patients in Taiwan: A nationwide population-based study. Sleep. 2015; 38(7):1039-1044
- 132. Mackay FJ, Dunn NR, Wilton LV, Pearce GL, Freemantle SN, Mann RD. A comparison of fluvoxamine, fluoxetine, sertraline and paroxetine examined by observational cohort studies. Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety. 1997; 6(4):235-246
- 133. Mahowald ML, Singh JA, Majeski P. Opioid use by patients in an orthopedics spine clinic. Arthritis and Rheumatism. 2005; 52(1):312-321
- 134. Manchikanti L, Cash KA, Damron KS, Manchukonda R, Pampati V, McManus CD. Controlled substance abuse and illicit drug use in chronic pain patients: An evaluation of multiple variables. Pain Physician. 2006; 9(3):215-225
- 135. Manthey L, Lohbeck M, Giltay EJ, van Veena T, Zitman FG, Penninx BW. Correlates of benzodiazepine dependence in the Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety. Addiction. 2012; 107(12):2173-2182
- 136. Maree RD, Marcum ZA, Saghafi E, Weiner DK, Karp JF. A systematic review of opioid and benzodiazepine misuse in older adults. American Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry. 2016; 24(11):949-963
- 137. Martel MO, Dolman AJ, Edwards RR, Jamison RN, Wasan AD. The association between negative affect and prescription opioid misuse in patients with chronic pain: the mediating role of opioid craving. Journal of Pain. 2014; 15(1):90-100
- 138. Martel MO, Wasan AD, Jamison RN, Edwards RR. Catastrophic thinking and increased risk for prescription opioid misuse in patients with chronic pain. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2013; 132(1-2):335-341
- 139. Morasco BJ, Dobscha SK. Prescription medication misuse and substance use disorder in VA primary care patients with chronic pain. General Hospital Psychiatry. 2008; 30(2):93-99
- 140. Morasco BJ, Turk DC, Donovan DM, Dobscha SK. Risk for prescription opioid misuse among patients with a history of substance use disorder. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2013; 127(1-3):193-199
- 141. Morgan SG, Weymann D. Patterns, predictors and persistence of chronic sedative use: a population-based observational study of older adults in British Columbia, Canada. European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2017; 73(8):1001-1008
- 142. Nam YH, Bilker WB, DeMayo FJ, Neuman MD, Hennessy S. Incidence rates of and risk factors for opioid overdose in new users of prescription opioids among US Medicaid enrollees: A cohort study. Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety. 2020; 29(8):931-938
- 143. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Developing NICE guidelines: the manual [updated 2020]. London. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2014. Available from: <u>http://www.nice.org.uk/article/PMG20/chapter/1%20Introduction%20and%20o</u> verview

- 144. Okumura Y, Shimizu S, Matsumoto T. Prevalence, prescribed quantities, and trajectory of multiple prescriber episodes for benzodiazepines: A 2-year cohort study. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2016; 158:118-125
- 145. Page MG, Kudrina I, Zomahoun HTV, Croteau J, Ziegler D, Ngangue P et al. A systematic review of the relative frequency and risk factors for prolonged opioid prescription following surgery and trauma among adults. Annals of Surgery. 2020; 271(5):845-854
- 146. Papadomanolakis-Pakis N, Moore KM, Peng Y, Gomes T. Prescription opioid characteristics at initiation for non-cancer pain and risk of treated opioid use disorder: a population-based study. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 2021; 221:108601
- 147. Park TW, Saitz R, Nelson KP, Xuan Z, Liebschutz JM, Lasser KE. The association between benzodiazepine prescription and aberrant drug-related behaviors in primary care patients receiving opioids for chronic pain. Substance Abuse. 2016; 37(4):516-520
- 148. Passik SD, Messina J, Golsorkhi A, Xie F. Aberrant drug-related behavior observed during clinical studies involving patients taking chronic opioid therapy for persistent pain and fentanyl buccal tablet for breakthrough pain. Journal of Pain and Symptom Management. 2011; 41(1):116-125
- 149. Peacock A, Degenhardt L, Campbell G, Larance B, Nielsen S, Hall W et al. A typology of predictive risk factors for non-adherent medication-related behaviors among chronic non-cancer pain patients prescribed opioids: A cohort study. Pain Physician. 2016; 19(3):E421-434
- 150. Portenoy RK, Farrar JT, Backonja MM, Cleeland CS, Yang K, Friedman M et al. Long-term use of controlled-release oxycodone for noncancer pain: results of a 3-year registry study. Clinical Journal of Pain. 2007; 23(4):287-299
- 151. Public Health England. Prescribed medicines review: report. 2019. Available from: <u>https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/prescribed-medicines-review-report</u> Last accessed: 25/06/2021.
- 152. Reid MC, Engles-Horton LL, Weber MB, Kerns RD, Rogers EL, O'Connor PG. Use of opioid medications for chronic noncancer pain syndromes in primary care. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2002; 17(3):173-179
- 153. Rickels K, Case WG, Downing RW, Winokur A. Long-term diazepam therapy and clinical outcome. JAMA. 1983; 250(6):767-771
- 154. Robbins L. Long-acting opioids for severe chronic daily headache. Headache Quarterly. 1999; 10(2):135-139
- 155. Robinson-Papp J, Elliott K, Simpson DM, Morgello S. Problematic prescription opioid use in an HIV-infected cohort: the importance of universal toxicology testing. Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2012; 61(2):187-193
- 156. Rodriguez-Espinosa S, Coloma-Carmona A, Perez-Carbonell A, Roman-Quiles JF, Carballo JL. Clinical and psychological factors associated with interdose opioid withdrawal in chronic pain population. Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment. 2021; 129(108386)

- 157. Saper JR, Lake AE, 3rd, Hamel RL, Lutz TE, Branca B, Sims DB et al. Daily scheduled opioids for intractable head pain: long-term observations of a treatment program. Neurology. 2004; 62(10):1687-1694
- 158. Seal KH, Shi Y, Cohen G, Cohen BE, Maguen S, Krebs EE et al. Association of mental health disorders with prescription opioids and high-risk opioid use in US veterans of Iraq and Afghanistan. JAMA. 2012; 307(9):940-947
- 159. Skurtveit S, Furu K, Borchgrevink P, Handal M, Fredheim O. To what extent does a cohort of new users of weak opioids develop persistent or probable problematic opioid use? Pain. 2011; 152(7):1555-1561
- 160. Smit T, Rogers AH, Garey L, Allan NP, Viana AG, Zvolensky MJ. Anxiety sensitivity and pain intensity independently predict opioid misuse and dependence in chronic pain patients. Psychiatry Research. 2020; 294:113523
- 161. Sridharan M, Samade R, K JK, Roebke AJ, Goyal KS, G LJ et al. The Effect of Patient and Surgical Factors on Opioid Prescription Requests Following Arthroscopic Rotator Cuff Repair. Arthroscopy, Sports Medicine, and Rehabilitation. 2021; 3(3):e707-e713
- 162. Sullivan MD, Edlund MJ, Fan MY, DeVries A, Braden JB, Martin BC. Risks for possible and probable opioid misuse among recipients of chronic opioid therapy in commercial and medicaid insurance plans: The TROUP Study. Pain. 2010; 150(2):332-339
  - 163. Szmulewicz A, Bateman BT, Levin R, Huybrechts KF. The risk of overdose with concomitant use of z-drugs and prescription opioids: a population-based cohort study. American Journal of Psychiatry. 2021; DOI:org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2020.20071038
- 164. Timmerman L, Stronks DL, Groeneweg JG, Huygen FJ. Prevalence and determinants of medication non-adherence in chronic pain patients: a systematic review. Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica. 2016; 60(4):416-431
- 165. Tsao JC, Stein JA, Dobalian A. Pain, problem drug use history, and aberrant analgesic use behaviors in persons living with HIV. Pain. 2007; 133(1-3):128-137
- 166. Tsao JC, Stein JA, Dobalian A. Sex differences in pain and misuse of prescription analgesics among persons with HIV. Pain Medicine. 2010; 11(6):815-824
- 167. Turk DC, Swanson KS, Gatchel RJ. Predicting opioid misuse by chronic pain patients: a systematic review and literature synthesis. Clinical Journal of Pain. 2008; 24(6):497-508
- 168. Tvete IF, Bjorner T, Aursnes IA, Skomedal T. A 3-year survey quantifying the risk of dose escalation of benzodiazepines and congeners to identify risk factors to aid doctors to more rationale prescribing. BMJ Open. 2013; 3(10):e003296
- 169. Tvete IF, Bjorner T, Skomedal T. A 5-year follow-up study of users of benzodiazepine: starting with diazepam versus oxazepam. British Journal of General Practice. 2016; 66(645):e241-247

- 170. Udayachalerm S, Bair MJ, Illingworth Plake KS, Huang CY, Murray MD, Foster DR. Opioid prescribing and health outcomes in opioid-naive patients: analysis of a statewide health information exchange. Journal of the American Pharmacists Association. 2021; DOI: 10.1016/j.japh.2021.04.020
- 171. Upadhye S. Creating opioid dependence in the emergency department. Canadian Journal of Emergency Medicine. 2018; 20(1):100-103
- 172. Voyer P, Préville M, Martin LS, Roussel M-E, Béland S-G, Berbiche D. Factors associated with self-rated benzodiazepine addiction among community-dwelling seniors. Journal of Addictions Nursing. 2011; 22(1-2):46-
- 173. Voyer P, Preville M, Roussel ME, Berbiche D, Beland SG. Factors associated with benzodiazepine dependence among community-dwelling seniors. Journal of Community Health Nursing. 2009; 26(3):101-113
- 174. Wasan AD, Michna E, Edwards RR, Katz JN, Nedeljkovic SS, Dolman AJ et al. Psychiatric comorbidity is associated prospectively with diminished opioid analgesia and increased opioid misuse in patients with chronic low back pain. Anesthesiology. 2015; 123(4):861-872
- 175. Wasan AD, Ross EL, Michna E, Chibnik L, Greenfield SF, Weiss RD et al. Craving of prescription opioids in patients with chronic pain: a longitudinal outcomes trial. Journal of Pain. 2012; 13(2):146-154
- 176. Webster LR, Webster RM. Predicting aberrant behaviors in opioid-treated patients: preliminary validation of the Opioid Risk Tool. Pain Medicine. 2005; 6(6):432-442
- 177. White KT, Dillingham TR, Gonzalez-Fernandez M, Rothfield L. Opiates for chronic nonmalignant pain syndromes: can appropriate candidates be identified for outpatient clinic management? American Journal of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. 2009; 88(12):995-1001
- 178. Yoshizawa K, Kawai K, Fujie M, Suzuki J, Ogawa Y, Yajima T et al. Overall safety profile and effectiveness of tramadol hydrochloride/acetaminophen in patients with chronic noncancer pain in Japanese real-world practice. Current Medical Research and Opinion. 2015; 31(11):2119-2129
- 179. Ytterberg SR, Mahowald ML, Woods SR. Codeine and oxycodone use in patients with chronic rheumatic disease pain. Arthritis and Rheumatism. 1998; 41(9):1603-1612
- 180. Zhang Y, Johnson P, Jeng PJ, Reid MC, Witkin LR, Schackman BR et al. First opioid prescription and subsequent high-risk opioid use: A national study of privately insured and medicare advantage adults. Journal of General Internal Medicine. 2018; 33(12):2156-2162
- 181. Zhou L, Bhattacharjee S, Kwoh CK, Tighe PJ, Reisfield GM, Malone DC et al. Dual-trajectories of opioid and gabapentinoid use and risk of subsequent drug overdose among Medicare beneficiaries in the United States: a retrospective cohort study. Addiction. 2021; 116(4):819-830

- . .

# 1 Appendices

## 2 Appendix A Review protocols

### **3 A.1 Review protocol for Risk factors for dependence**

Field	Content
PROSPERO registration number	CRD42020188126
Review title	Risk factors (both patient and prescribing factors) for dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs, or withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants.
Review question	What are the risk factors (both patient and prescribing factors) for dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs, or withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants?
Objective	Prognostic review: to identify key risk factors associated with dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs or withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants. To include both factors relating to the individual and prescribing factors.
Searches	The following databases (from inception) will be searched:
	<ul> <li>Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL)</li> </ul>
	Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR)
	• Embase
	MEDLINE
	Epistemonikos
	Health and Evidence
	• HTA
	Searches will be restricted by:
	English language studies
	Human studies
	Letters and comments are excluded

Field	Content
	Other searches:
	<ul> <li>Inclusion lists of relevant systematic reviews will be checked by the reviewer</li> </ul>
	The searches may be re-run 6 weeks before the final committee meeting, and further studies retrieved for inclusion if relevant.
	For full search strategies see Appendix B
Condition or domain being studied	Dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs and withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants
Population	Inclusion: adults (≥18 years) being prescribed medicines associated with dependence or withdrawal symptoms (opioids for chronic pain, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids, Z-drugs or antidepressants). This should ideally be the point of initial prescription for that medicine (i.e., not taking that medicine prior to entry to the study). NB. for this question, include prescription medicines which can also be bought over the counter (e.g., codeine, co-codamol).
	Stratification
	Drug class
	• Opioids
	Benzodiazepines,
	Gabapentinoids
	• Z-drugs
	<ul> <li>Antidepressants (further stratified by SSRIs, MAOIs, tricyclics, others).</li> </ul>
	Rationale: risk factors associated with dependence or for experiencing withdrawal symptoms are expected to differ between the different drug classes, and within class for antidepressants.
	Exclusions:
	Children and young people (<18 years)
	People taking opioids prescribed for end-of-life care, acute pain, cancer pain
	Use of gabapentinoids when prescribed for epilepsy
	People taking any of the above drugs that have not been prescribed for their own use (with the exception of prescription medicines which can also be bought over the counter (these will be included in this question)).

Field	Content
	Decision rules for inclusion of primary studies
	If the study includes people <18 years old, the study will only be included if at least 80% of people were ≥18 years old.
	If the study includes a mix of the different drug classes (e.g., people being prescribed Z-drugs and people being prescribed benzodiazepines), the following hierarchy will be followed:
	<ul> <li>The study will be included if results are reported separately, and it is possible to separate into the relevant drug class stratum.</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Only if there is no available evidence for a particular drug class in the review, will studies be included with mixed populations.</li> </ul>
	The population should not be taking the prescribed medicine prior to entry to the study, however we will accept studies where this is unclear, as this may not always be defined in the study.
Risk factors	The risk factors below are examples only and others identified will be included.
	Include any definition in the studies considered relevant to the factor of interest
	<ul> <li>System level factors:</li> <li>competency of prescriber,</li> <li>training or supervision of prescribers.</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>Prescribing factors:</li> <li>duration of prescription,</li> <li>initial dose,</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>use of different drugs within a class</li> <li>different formulation and/or route of medication: for example, immediate release, slow release (including slow-release routes such as transdermal patches),</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>half-life comparisons (for benzodiazepines, long or short half-life)</li> </ul>
	Socio-demographic factors of the patient
	Personal factors:
	- history of substance misuse,

Field	Content
	- mental health diagnoses,
	<ul> <li>co-prescription with other medications included in the review,</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>pain intensity and level of distress at time of prescription.</li> </ul>
	Others:
	- Patient-prescriber interaction.
Confounding factors	All risk factors will be considered as potential confounding factors.
Types of study to be included	Observational prospective cohort studies
	Observational retrospective cohort studies
	Only studies using multivariate analysis (adjusting for at least 3 confounders) will be included. Studies using univariate analysis or matched groups will be excluded (matching for confounders alone is not sufficient as there are multiple confounders).
	Exclusions
	Case-control studies
	Cross-sectional studies.
Other exclusion criteria	Studies assessing the risk factors for dependence on medicines that have not been prescribed/illicitly obtained.
	Non-NHS prescribed medicines (for the full list of medicines to be included in the guideline see Appendix L)
	Medicines prescribed for end-of-life care, cancer pain or acute pain.
	Use of gabapentinoids when prescribed for epilepsy.
	Antipsychotic and stimulant medicines.
	Medicines to treat drug misuse disorders (e.g., methadone and buprenorphine when prescribed for withdrawal from illicit drugs).
	Non-English language studies.
	Conference abstracts will be excluded as it is expected there will be sufficient full text published studies available.
Context	This will cover any setting in which one of the above-mentioned medicines are being prescribed. As this is an overarching guideline covering many different conditions, it needs to cover all settings.
Primary outcomes (critical outcomes)	Dependence on the prescribed medicine (dichotomous outcome, accept any definition as defined by the study (may also include measures suggesting dependence or addiction, examples to include early refill requests, loss of prescriptions, drug shopping behaviour, prescription misuse)). Withdrawal symptoms including rebound symptoms (dichotomous outcome, as defined by the study)

Field	Content
Secondary outcomes (important outcomes)	Not applicable
Data extraction (selection and coding)	EndNote will be used for reference management, sifting, citations and bibliographies. All references identified by the searches and from other sources will be screened for inclusion. 10% of the abstracts will be reviewed by two reviewers, with any disagreements resolved by discussion or, if necessary, a third independent reviewer. The full text of potentially eligible studies will be retrieved and will be assessed in line with the criteria outlined above.
	A standardised form will be used to extract data from studies (see <u>Developing NICE guidelines: the manual</u> section 6.4).
Risk of bias (quality) assessment	Risk of bias will be assessed using the appropriate checklist as described in Developing NICE guidelines: the manual.
	For risk factor studies, risk of bias assessment of individual studies will be undertaken according to the Quality in Prognosis Studies (QUIPS) checklist.
	10% of all evidence reviews are quality assured by a senior research fellow. This includes checking:
	papers were included/excluded appropriately
	a sample of the data extractions
	correct methods are used to synthesise data
	a sample of the risk of bias assessments
	Disagreements between the review authors over the risk of bias in particular studies will be resolved by discussion, with involvement of a third review author where necessary.
Strategy for data synthesis	Drugs will be pooled within classes stated in the population and antidepressants pooled by sub-class of type of antidepressant.
	ORs, RRs, or HRs, with their 95% Cls, for the effect of the risk factors will be extracted from the studies. Studies sufficiently similar in terms of population, risk factor, outcome and effect measure (OR, RR, HR) will be pooled for analysis (i.e., for age as a risk factor, if the studies use the same age categories and referent group, and define/measure dependence in the same way). Studies will only be pooled if they also take into account similar confounding factors in the multivariate analysis. If studies do not report very similar populations, risk factors and outcome, they will not be pooled or meta-analysed and results presented separately in tables.

Field	Content			
	Pairwise meta-analyses will be performed using Cochrane Review Manager (RevMan5).			
	Where pooled, heterogeneity between the studies in effect measures will be assessed using the I <sup>2</sup> statistic and visually inspected. An I <sup>2</sup> value greater than 50% will be considered indicative of substantial heterogeneity. Sensitivity analyses will be conducted based on pre-specified subgroups using stratified meta-analysis to explore the heterogeneity in effect estimates. If this does not explain the heterogeneity, the results will be presented pooled using random effects.			
	Imprecision will be assessed according to the position of the 95% CIs in relation to the null line. If the 95% CI do not cross the null line, then no serious imprecision will be recorded. If the 95% CI cross the null line, then serious imprecision will be recorded.			
	The quality of the evidence will be assessed using a modified GRADE approach. Quality rating will start at High for prospective studies, and each major limitation will bring the rating down by 1 increment to a minimum grade of Very Low.			
Analysis of sub-groups	Subgroups that will be investigated if heterogeneity is present:			
	• Gabapentin and pregabalin will be pooled in the analysis as 'gabapentinoids' unless heterogeneity is observed.			
Type and method of review		Intervention		
		Diagnostic		
	Prognostic			
		Qualitative		
		Epidemiologic		
		Service Delivery		
		Other (please specify)		

Field	Content
Language	English
Country	England
Review team members	From the National Guideline Centre:
	Serena Carville, Guideline lead
	Emily Terrazas-Cruz, Senior systematic reviewer
	Melina Vasileiou, Senior systematic reviewer
	Alfredo Mariani, Health economist
	Elizabeth Pearton, Information specialist
	Tamara Diaz, Project Manager
Funding sources/sponsor	This systematic review is being completed by the National Guideline Centre which receives funding from NICE.
Conflicts of interest	All guideline committee members and anyone who has direct input into NICE guidelines (including the evidence review team and expert witnesses) must declare any potential conflicts of interest in line with NICE's code of practice for declaring and dealing with conflicts of interest. Any relevant interests, or changes to interests, will also be declared publicly at the start of each guideline committee meeting. Before each meeting, any potential conflicts of interest will be considered by the guideline committee Chair and a senior member of the development team. Any decisions to exclude a person from all or part of a meeting will be documented. Any changes to a member's declaration of interests will be recorded in the minutes of the meeting. Declarations of interests will be published with the final guideline.
Collaborators	Development of this systematic review will be overseen by an advisory committee who will use the review to inform the development of evidence-based recommendations in line with section 3 of <u>Developing NICE</u> <u>guidelines: the manual</u> . Members of the guideline committee are available on the NICE website: <u>https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/indevelopment/gid-ng10141</u>
Other registration details	n/a
Reference/URL for published protocol	https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.php?ID=CRD42020188126

Field	Content
Dissemination plans	NICE may use a range of different methods to raise awareness of the guideline. These include standard approaches such as:
	<ul> <li>notifying registered stakeholders of publication</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>publicising the guideline through NICE's newsletter and alerts</li> </ul>
	<ul> <li>issuing a press release or briefing as appropriate, posting news articles on the NICE website, using social media channels, and publicising the guideline within NICE.</li> </ul>
Details of existing review of same topic by same authors	None
Additional information	None
Details of final publication	www.nice.org.uk

## Appendix B Literature search strategies

1 2

3

4

5

6

7

8

- This literature search strategy was used for the following review:
  - Risk factors (both patient and prescribing factors) for dependence on prescribed opioids, benzodiazepines, gabapentinoids or Z-drugs, or withdrawal symptoms associated with antidepressants.

The literature searches for this review are detailed below and complied with the methodology outlined in Developing NICE guidelines: the manual.<sup>143</sup> For more information, please see the Methodology review published as part of the accompanying documents for this guideline.

## 9 B.1 Clinical search literature search strategy

Searches were constructed using a PICO framework where population (P) terms were
 combined with Intervention (I) and in some cases Comparison (C) terms. Outcomes (O) are
 rarely used in search strategies for interventions as these concepts may not be well
 described in title, abstract or indexes and therefore difficult to retrieve. Search filters were
 applied to the search where appropriate.

#### Search filter used Database **Dates searched** 1946 - 15 June 2021 Randomised controlled trials Medline (OVID) Systematic review studies Observational studies Qualitative studies Exclusions (animal studies, letters, comments) 1974 - 15 June 2021 Embase (OVID) Randomised controlled trials Systematic review studies Observational studies Qualitative studies Exclusions (animal studies, letters, comments) The Cochrane Library (Wiley) Cochrane Reviews to 2021 None Issue 6 of 12 CENTRAL to 2021 Issue 6 of 12 Epistemonikos (The Inception - 15 June 2021 English **Epistemonikos Foundation**) Health and Evidence Inception - 15 June 2021 None Qualitative studies CINAHL, Current Nursing and Inception - 15 June 2021 Allied Health Literature (EBSCO) PsycINFO (ProQuest) Inception - 15 June 2021 Qualitative studies ASSIA, Applied Social Inception - 15 June 2021 Qualitative studies Sciences Index and Abstracts (ProQuest)

#### 15 Table 38: Database date parameters and filters used

#### 16 Medline (Ovid) search terms

1. 2.	*substance-related disorders/ or *narcotic-related disorders/
2.	
	*Substance Withdrawal Syndrome/
3.	exp Inappropriate Prescribing/
4.	*Medical Overuse/
5.	exp Prescription Drug Misuse/
6.	exp Deprescriptions/
7.	Medication Therapy Management/
8.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
9.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
10.	(addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
11.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*).ti,ab.
12.	((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)).ti,ab.
13.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*).ti,ab.
14.	((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
15.	or/1-14
16.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 opi*).ti,ab.
17.	Opiate Substitution Treatment/ or *Opioid-related disorders/
18.	or/16-17
19.	letter/
20.	editorial/
21.	news/
22.	exp historical article/
23.	Anecdotes as Topic/
24.	comment/
25.	case report/
26.	(letter or comment*).ti.
27.	or/19-26
28.	randomized controlled trial/ or random*.ti,ab.
29.	27 not 28
30.	animals/ not humans/
31.	exp Animals, Laboratory/
32.	exp Animal Experimentation/
33.	exp Models, Animal/
34.	exp Rodentia/
35.	(rat or rats or mouse or mice or rodent*).ti.
36.	or/29-35
37.	(exp child/ or exp pediatrics/ or exp infant/) not (exp adolescent/ or exp adult/ or exp middle age/ or exp aged/)

38.	15 not (36 or 37)
39.	limit 38 to English language
40.	18 not (36 or 37)
41.	limit 40 to English language
42.	exp Narcotics/
43.	((analgesic* adj3 narcotic) or (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.
44.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*).ti,ab.
45.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon).ti,ab.
46.	Zolpidem/ or Eszopiclone/
47.	(generation adj3 hypnotic*).ti,ab.
48.	exp Benzodiazepines/
49.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam).ti,ab.
50.	exp Antidepressive Agents/
51.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*).ti,ab.
52.	exp Flupenthixol/
53.	(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine).ti,ab.
54.	(5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine).ti,ab.
55.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine).ti,ab.
56.	gabapentin/ or pregabalin/
57.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*).ti,ab.
58.	or/42-57
59.	39 and 58
60.	41 or 59
61.	randomized controlled trial.pt.
62.	controlled clinical trial.pt.
63.	randomi#ed.ab.
64.	placebo.ab.

65.	randomly.ab.
66.	clinical trials as topic.sh.
67.	trial.ti.
68.	or/61-67
69.	Meta-Analysis/
70.	Meta-Analysis as Topic/
71.	(meta analy* or metanaly* or metaanaly* or meta regression).ti,ab.
72.	((systematic* or evidence*) adj2 (review* or overview*)).ti,ab.
73.	(reference list* or bibliograph* or hand search* or manual search* or relevant journals).ab.
74.	(search strategy or search criteria or systematic search or study selection or data extraction).ab.
75.	(search* adj4 literature).ab.
76.	(medline or pubmed or cochrane or embase or psychlit or psyclit or psychinfo or psycinfo or cinahl or science citation index or bids or cancerlit).ab.
77.	cochrane.jw.
78.	((multiple treatment* or indirect or mixed) adj2 comparison*).ti,ab.
79.	or/69-78
80.	Epidemiologic studies/
81.	Observational study/
82.	exp Cohort studies/
83.	(cohort adj (study or studies or analys* or data)).ti,ab.
84.	((follow up or observational or uncontrolled or non randomi#ed or epidemiologic*) adj (study or studies or data)).ti,ab.
85.	((longitudinal or retrospective or prospective) and (study or studies or review or analys* or cohort* or data)).ti,ab.
86.	Controlled Before-After Studies/
87.	Historically Controlled Study/
88.	Interrupted Time Series Analysis/
89.	(before adj2 after adj2 (study or studies or data)).ti,ab.
90.	exp case control study/
91.	case control*.ti,ab.
92.	Cross-sectional studies/
93.	(cross sectional and (study or studies or review or analys* or cohort* or data)).ti,ab.
94.	or/80-93
95.	Qualitative research/ or Narration/ or exp Interviews as Topic/ or exp Questionnaires/ or Health care surveys/
96.	(qualitative or interview* or focus group* or theme* or questionnaire* or survey*).ti,ab.
97.	(metasynthes* or meta-synthes* or metasummar* or meta-summar* or metastud* or meta-stud* or metathem* or meta-them* or ethno* or emic or etic or phenomenolog* or grounded theory or constant compar* or (thematic* adj3 analys*) or theoretical sampl* or purposive sampl* or hermeneutic* or heidegger* or husserl* or colaizzi* or van kaam* or van manen* or giorgi* or glaser* or strauss* or ricoeur* or spiegelberg* or merleau*).ti,ab.
98.	or/95-97
99.	60 and (68 or 79 or 94 or 98)

### Embase (Ovid) search terms

1.	*drug dependence/
2.	*withdrawal syndrome/
3.	exp inappropriate prescribing/
4.	deprescription/
5.	exp prescription drug misuse/
6.	medication therapy management/
7.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
8.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
9.	(addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
10.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*).ti,ab.
11.	((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)).ti,ab.
12.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*).ti,ab.
13.	((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
14.	or/1-13
15.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.
16.	*benzodiazepine dependence/
17.	Opiate Substitution Treatment/
18.	or/15-17
19.	letter.pt. or letter/
20.	note.pt.
21.	editorial.pt.
22.	case report/ or case study/
23.	(letter or comment*).ti.
24.	or/19-23
25.	randomized controlled trial/ or random*.ti,ab.
26.	24 not 25
27.	animal/ not human/
28.	nonhuman/
29.	exp Animal Experiment/
30.	exp Experimental Animal/
31.	animal model/
32.	exp Rodent/
33.	(rat or rats or mouse or mice or rodent*).ti.
34.	or/26-33
35.	(exp child/ or exp pediatrics/) not (exp adult/ or exp adolescent/)
36.	14 not (34 or 35)
37.	limit 36 to English language
38.	18 not (34 or 35)

39.	limit 38 to English language
40.	*narcotic agent/
41.	*alphaprodine/ or *buprenorphine/ or *codeine/ or *dextromoramide/ or *dextropropoxyphene/ or *diamorphine/ or *dihydrocodeine/ or *dihydromorphine/ or *dipipanone/ or *ethylmorphine/ or *hydrocodone/ or *hydromorphone/ or *levorphanol/ or *methadone/ or *morphine/ or *oxycodone/ or *pethidine/ or *tapentadol/ or *tilidine/
42.	*alfentanil/ or *butorphanol/ or *cocodamol/ or *fentanyl/ or *meptazinol/ or *oxymorphone/ or *opiate/ or *pentazocine/ or *phenazocine/ or *remifentanil/ or *sufentanil/ or *tramadol/ or *trimeperidine/
43.	((analgesic* adj3 narcotic) or (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.
44.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*).ti,ab.
45.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon).ti,ab.
46.	*zolpidem/ or *zopiclone/ or *eszopiclone/ or *zaleplon/
47.	(generation adj3 hypnotic*).ti,ab.
48.	*benzodiazepine derivative/ or *alprazolam/ or *benzodiazepine/ or *chlordiazepoxide/ or *clobazam/ or *clonazepam/ or *diazepam/ or *flurazepam/ or *loprazolam/ or *lorazepam/ or *lormetazepam/ or *midazolam/ or *nitrazepam/ or *olanzapine/ or *oxazepam/ or *temazepam/
49.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam).ti,ab.
50.	exp *antidepressant agent/
51.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*).ti,ab.
52.	*flupentixol/
53.	(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine).ti,ab.
54.	(5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine).ti,ab.
55.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine).ti,ab.
56.	*pregabalin/ or *gabapentin/
57.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*).ti,ab.
58.	or/40-57
59.	37 and 58

60.	39 or 59
61.	random*.ti,ab.
62.	factorial*.ti,ab.
63.	(crossover* or cross over*).ti,ab.
64.	((doubl* or singl*) adj blind*).ti,ab.
65.	(assign* or allocat* or volunteer* or placebo*).ti,ab.
66.	crossover procedure/
67.	single blind procedure/
68.	randomized controlled trial/
69.	double blind procedure/
70.	or/61-69
70.	systematic review/
72.	Meta-Analysis/
73.	(meta analy* or metanaly* or metaanaly* or meta regression).ti,ab.
73.	((systematic* or evidence*) adj3 (review* or overview*)).ti,ab.
75.	(reference list* or bibliograph* or hand search* or manual search* or relevant journals).ab.
76.	(search strategy or search criteria or systematic search or study selection or data extraction).ab.
77.	(search* adj4 literature).ab.
78.	(medline or pubmed or cochrane or embase or psychlit or psyclit or psychinfo or psycinfo or cinahl or science citation index or bids or cancerlit).ab.
79.	cochrane.jw.
80.	((multiple treatment* or indirect or mixed) adj2 comparison*).ti,ab.
81.	or/71-80
82.	Clinical study/
83.	Observational study/
84.	family study/
85.	longitudinal study/
86.	retrospective study/
87.	prospective study/
88.	cohort analysis/
89.	follow-up/
90.	cohort*.ti,ab.
91.	89 and 90
92.	(cohort adj (study or studies or analys* or data)).ti,ab.
93.	((follow up or observational or uncontrolled or non randomi#ed or epidemiologic*) adj (study or studies or data)).ti,ab.
94.	((longitudinal or retrospective or prospective) and (study or studies or review or analys* or cohort* or data)).ti,ab.
95.	(before adj2 after adj2 (study or studies or data)).ti,ab.
96.	exp case control study/
97.	case control*.ti,ab.
98.	cross-sectional study/
50.	

100.	or/82-88,91-99
101.	health survey/ or exp questionnaire/ or exp interview/ or qualitative research/ or narrative/
102.	(qualitative or interview* or focus group* or theme* or questionnaire* or survey*).ti,ab.
103.	(metasynthes* or meta-synthes* or metasummar* or meta-summar* or metastud* or meta-stud* or metathem* or meta-them* or ethno* or emic or etic or phenomenolog* or grounded theory or constant compar* or (thematic* adj3 analys*) or theoretical sampl* or purposive sampl* or hermeneutic* or heidegger* or husserl* or colaizzi* or van kaam* or van manen* or giorgi* or glaser* or strauss* or ricoeur* or spiegelberg* or merleau*).ti,ab.
104.	or/101-103
105.	60 and (70 or 81 or 100 or 104)

#### Cochrane Library (Wiley) search terms

#1.	MeSH descriptor: [Substance-Related Disorders] this term only
#2.	MeSH descriptor: [Narcotic-Related Disorders] this term only
#3.	MeSH descriptor: [Substance Withdrawal Syndrome] this term only
#4.	MeSH descriptor: [Inappropriate Prescribing] explode all trees
#5.	MeSH descriptor: [Medical Overuse] this term only
#6.	MeSH descriptor: [Deprescriptions] 1 tree(s) exploded
#7.	MeSH descriptor: [Prescription Drug Misuse] explode all trees
#8.	MeSH descriptor: [Medication Therapy Management] this term only
#9.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) NEAR/2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)):ti,ab
#10.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) NEAR/3 (prescription* or prescrib*)):ti,ab
#11.	(addict* NEAR/3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)):ti,ab
#12.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*):ti,ab
#13.	((therap* or treat*) NEAR/2 (manag* or substit*)):ti,ab
#14.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) NEAR/2 symptom*):ti,ab
#15.	((drug* or medic*) NEAR/2 (prescription* or prescrib*)):ti,ab
#16.	(OR #1-#15)
#17.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) near/2 (opioid* or opiate*)):ti,ab
#18.	MeSH descriptor: [Opiate Substitution Treatment] this term only
#19.	MeSH descriptor: [Opioid-Related Disorders] this term only
#20.	MeSH descriptor: [Narcotics] explode all trees
#21.	(OR #17-#20)
#22.	((analgesic* NEAR/3 narcotic NEAR/3 agent*) or (opioid* or opiate*)):ti,ab
#23.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*):ti,ab

#24.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon):ti,ab
#25.	MeSH descriptor: [Zolpidem] this term only
#26.	MeSH descriptor: [Eszopiclone] this term only
#27.	(generation NEAR/3 hypnotic*):ti,ab
#28.	MeSH descriptor: [Benzodiazepines] explode all trees
#29.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam):ti,ab
#30.	MeSH descriptor: [Antidepressive Agents] explode all trees
#31.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*):ti,ab
#32.	MeSH descriptor: [Flupenthixol] explode all trees
#33.	(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine):ti,ab
#34.	(5 Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine):ti,ab
#35.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine):ti,ab
#36.	MeSH descriptor: [Gabapentin] this term only
#37.	MeSH descriptor: [Pregabalin] this term only
#38.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*):ti,ab
#39.	(OR #22-#38)
	#16 AND #39
#40.	# 10 AND #35

#### 1

#### Epistemonikos search terms

1.	(advanced_title_en:((advanced_title_en:(("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR depend* OR "inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses)) OR advanced_abstract_en:(("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR depend* OR "inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses)))) OR advanced_abstract_en:((advanced_title_en:(("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribes" OR "safe prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR depend* OR "inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses)) OR advanced_abstract_en:(("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR	
	misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses)) OR advanced_abstract_en:(("over	
	OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR depend* OR	
	"inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses))))) AND	
	(advanced_title_en:((opioid* OR opiate* OR narcotic* OR alfentanil* OR alphaprodine*	
	OR buprenorphine* OR butorphanol* OR codeine* OR co-codamol* OR	
	dextromoramide* OR dextropropoxyphene* OR diamorphine* OR dihydrocodeine* OR	

dihydromorphine\* OR dipipanone\* OR ethylmorphine\* OR fentanyl\* OR heroin\* OR hydrocodone\* OR hydromorphone\* OR levorphanol\* OR meperidine\* OR meptazinol\* OR methadone\* OR morphine\* OR oxycodone\* OR oxymorphone\* OR papaveretum\* OR pentazocine\* OR pethidine\* OR phenazocine\* OR promedol\* OR remifentanil\* OR sufentanil\* OR tapentadol\* OR tilidine\* OR tramadol\* OR z drug\* OR z hypnotic\* OR non-benzodiazepin\* OR nonbenzodiazepin\* OR imidazopyridines OR cyclopyrrolones OR pyrazolopyrimidines OR zolpidem OR zopiclone OR eszopiclone OR zaleplon OR benzodiazepin\* OR bzd OR Alprazolam OR Chlordiazepoxide OR Clobazam OR Clonazepam OR Diazepam OR Flurazepam OR Loprazolam OR Lorazepam OR Lormetazepam OR Midazolam OR Nitrazepam OR Olanzapine OR Oxazepam OR Temazepam OR antidepress\* OR anti depress\* OR thymoanaleptic\* OR thymoleptic\* OR MAOI\* OR NDRI\* OR SSRI\* OR SNRI\* OR SNORI\* OR SARI\* OR RIMA\* OR tricyclic\* OR TCA\* OR tetracyclic\* OR TeCA\* OR Agomelatine OR Aripiprazole OR Benactyzine OR Clorgyline OR Deanol OR Desvenlafaxine\* OR Duloxetine\* OR Flupentixol OR Iproniazid OR Isocarboxazid OR Levomilnacipran OR Lithium\* OR Mirtazapine OR Moclobemide OR Nialamide OR Phenelzine OR Pizotyline OR Quetiapine\* OR Reboxetine OR Rolipram OR Selegiline OR Sertraline OR Tranylcypromine OR Vilazodone\* OR Vortioxetine OR 5-Hydroxytryptophan OR Amisulpride OR Bupropion OR Citalopram OR Escitalopram OR Fluoxetine OR Fluvoxamine OR Maprotiline OR Mianserin OR Paroxetine OR Quipazine OR Ritanserin OR Sulpiride OR Trazodone OR Tryptophan OR Venlafaxine OR Viloxazine OR Amitriptyline OR Amoxapine OR Clomipramine OR Desipramine OR Dothiepin OR Dosulepin OR Doxepin OR Imipramine OR Iprindole OR Lofepramine OR Nefazodone OR Nortriptyline OR Opipramol OR Protriptyline OR Trimipramine OR gabapentin\* OR pregabalin\*)) OR advanced\_abstract\_en:((opioid\* OR opiate\* OR narcotic\* OR alfentanil\* OR alphaprodine\* OR buprenorphine\* OR butorphanol\* OR codeine\* OR co-codamol\* OR dextromoramide\* OR dextropropoxyphene\* OR diamorphine\* OR dihydrocodeine\* OR dihydromorphine\* OR dipipanone\* OR ethylmorphine\* OR fentanyl\* OR heroin\* OR hydrocodone\* OR hydromorphone\* OR levorphanol\* OR meperidine\* OR meptazinol\* OR methadone\* OR morphine\* OR oxycodone\* OR oxymorphone\* OR papaveretum\* OR pentazocine\* OR pethidine\* OR phenazocine\* OR promedol\* OR remifentanil\* OR sufentanil\* OR tapentadol\* OR tilidine\* OR tramadol\* OR z drug\* OR z hypnotic\* OR non-benzodiazepin\* OR nonbenzodiazepin\* OR imidazopyridines OR cyclopyrrolones OR pyrazolopyrimidines OR zolpidem OR zopiclone OR eszopiclone OR zaleplon OR benzodiazepin\* OR bzd OR Alprazolam OR Chlordiazepoxide OR Clobazam OR Clonazepam OR Diazepam OR Flurazepam OR Loprazolam OR Lorazepam OR Lormetazepam OR Midazolam OR Nitrazepam OR Olanzapine OR Oxazepam OR Temazepam OR antidepress\* OR anti depress\* OR thymoanaleptic\* OR thymoleptic\* OR MAOI\* OR NDRI\* OR SSRI\* OR SNRI\* OR SNORI\* OR SARI\* OR RIMA\* OR tricyclic\* OR TCA\* OR tetracyclic\* OR TeCA\* OR Agomelatine OR Aripiprazole OR Benactyzine OR Clorgyline OR Deanol OR Desvenlafaxine\* OR Duloxetine\* OR Flupentixol OR Iproniazid OR Isocarboxazid OR Levomilnacipran OR Lithium\* OR Mirtazapine OR Moclobemide OR Nialamide OR Phenelzine OR Pizotyline OR Quetiapine\* OR Reboxetine OR Rolipram OR Selegiline OR Sertraline OR Tranylcypromine OR Vilazodone\* OR Vortioxetine OR 5-Hydroxytryptophan OR Amisulpride OR Bupropion OR Citalopram OR Escitalopram OR Fluoxetine OR Fluoxamine OR Maprotiline OR Mianserin OR Paroxetine OR Quipazine OR Ritanserin OR Sulpiride OR Trazodone OR Tryptophan OR Venlafaxine OR Viloxazine OR Amitriptyline OR Amoxapine OR Clomipramine OR Desipramine OR Dothiepin OR Dosulepin OR Doxepin OR Imipramine OR Iprindole OR Lofepramine OR Nefazodone OR Nortriptyline OR Opipramol OR Protriptyline OR Trimipramine OR gabapentin\* OR pregabalin\*)))

#### Health and evidence

1

1.	[(("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing" OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR
	depend* OR "inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR overuse OR overuses) OR abstract:("over prescribe" OR "over prescribes" OR "over prescribing"
	OR "appropriate prescribing" OR "inappropriate prescribing" OR "safe prescribing" OR withdraw* OR depend* OR "inappropriate medication" OR misuse OR misuses OR

overuse OR overuses)) AND ((opioid* OR opiate* OR narcotic* OR alfentanil* OR alphaprodine* OR buprenorphine* OR butorphanol* OR codeine* OR co-codamol* OR dextromoramide* OR dextropropoxyphene* OR diamorphine* OR dihydrocodeine* OR dihydromorphine* OR dipipanone* OR ethylmorphine* OR fentanyl* OR heroin* OR hydrocodone* OR hydromorphone* OR levorphanol* OR meperidine* OR meptazinol* OR methadone* OR morphine* OR oxycodone* OR oxymorphone* OR papaveretum* OR pentazocine* OR pethidine* OR phenazocine* OR promedol* OR remifentanil* OR sufentanil* OR tapentadol* OR tildine* OR tramadol* OR z drug* OR z hypnotic* OR non-benzodiazepin* OR nonbenzodiazepin* OR imidazopyridines OR cyclopyrrolones OR pyrazolopyrimidines OR zolpidem OR zopiclone OR eszopiclone OR zaleplon OR benzodiazepin* OR bad OR Alprazolam OR Chlordiazepoxide OR Clobazam OR Clonazepam OR Diazepam OR Flurazepam OR Loprazolam OR Lorazepam OR Lormetazepam OR Antidepress* OR anti depress* OR thymoanaleptic* OR thymoleptic* OR MAOI* OR NDRI* OR SSRI* OR SNRI* OR SNORI* OR SARI* OR RIMA* OR tricyclic* OR TCA* OR tetracyclic* OR TeCA* OR Agomelatine OR Aripiprazole OR Benactyzine OR Clorgyline OR Deanol OR Desvenlafaxine* OR Duloxetine* OR Flupentixol OR Iproniazid OR Isocarboxazid OR Levomilnacipran OR Lithium* OR Mirtazapine OR Moclobemide OR Nialamide OR Phenelzine OR Settraline OR Tranylcypromine OR Vilazodone* OR Vortioxetine OR S-Hydroxytryptophan OR Amisulpride OR Bupropion OR Citalopram OR Selegiline OR Settraline OR Fluvoxamine OR Maprotiline OR Mianserin OR Paroxetine OR Quipazine OR Ritanserin OR Sulpiride OR Trazodone OR Tryptophan OR Venlafaxine OR Viloxazine OR Amitriptyline OR Amoxapine OR Clomipramine OR Venlafaxine OR Viloxazine OR Amitriptyline OR Amoxapine OR Clomipramine OR Desipramine OR Nefazodone OR Nortriptvline OR Doxepin OR Impramine OR Iprindole OR Lofepramine OR Nefazodone OR Nortriptvline OR OR Dopipramol OR Protriptvline OR Trimpiramine OR Bapapentin* OR
OR Nortriptyline OR Opipramol OR Protriptyline OR Trimipramine OR gabapentin* OR pregabalin*))]

#### CINAHL (EBSCO) search terms

S1.	(MH "Substance Use Disorders") OR (MH "Substance Withdrawal Syndrome") OR (MH "Inappropriate Prescribing") OR (MH "Drugs, Prescription")
S2.	TI ((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) n2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*))
S3.	AB ((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) n2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*))
S4.	TI ((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or innapropriate) n3 (prescription* or prescrib*))
S5.	AB ((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or innapropriate) n3 (prescription* or prescrib*))
S6.	TI (addict* n3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*))
S7.	AB (addict* n3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*))
S8.	TI (deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*)
S9.	AB (deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*)
S10.	TI ((therap* or treat*) n2 (manag* or substit*))
S11.	AB ((therap* or treat*) n2 (manag* or substit*))

S12.	TI ((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or		
	discontinu*) n2 symptom*)		
S13.	AB ((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) n2 symptom*)		
S14.	S1 OR S2 OR S3 OR S4 OR S5 OR S6 OR S7 OR S8 OR S9 OR S10 OR S11 OR S12 OR S13		
S15.	PT anecdote or PT audiovisual or PT bibliography or PT biography or PT book or PT book review or PT brief item or PT cartoon or PT commentary or PT computer program or PT editorial or PT games or PT glossary or PT historical material or PT interview or PT letter or PT listservs or PT masters thesis or PT obituary or PT pamphlet or PT pamphlet chapter or PT pictorial or PT poetry or PT proceedings or PT "questions and answers" or PT response or PT software or PT teaching materials or PT website		
S16.	S14 NOT S15		
S17.	(MH "Narcotics+") OR (MH "Antianxiety Agents, Benzodiazepine+") OR (MH "Antidepressive Agents+") OR (MH "Antidepressive Agents, Second Generation+") OR (MH "Antidepressive Agents, Tricyclic+") OR (MH "Zolpidem") OR (MH "Eszopiclone") OR (MH "Analgesics, Opioid+")		
S18.	TI ((analgesic* n3 narcotic n3 agent*) or (opioid* or opiate*))		
S19.	AB ((analgesic* n3 narcotic n3 agent*) or (opioid* or opiate*))		
S20.	TI (alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*)		
S21.	AB (alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*)		
S22.	TI (z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon)		
S23.	AB (z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon)		
S24.	TI (generation n3 hypnotic*)		
S25.	AB (generation n3 hypnotic*)		
S26.	TI (benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam)		
S27.	AB (benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam)		
S28.	TI (antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*)		

S29.	AB (antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*)		
S30.	TI (Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine)		
S31.	AB (Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine)		
S32.	TI (5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine)		
S33.	AB (5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine)		
S34.	TI (Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine)		
S35.	AB (Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine)		
S36.	(MH "Gabapentin") OR (MH "Pregabalin")		
S37.	TI (gabapentin* or pregabalin*)		
S38.	AB (gabapentin* or pregabalin*)		
S39.	S17 OR S18 OR S19 OR S20 OR S21 OR S22 OR S23 OR S24 OR S25 OR S26 OR S27 OR S28 OR S29 OR S30 OR S31 OR S32 OR S33 OR S34 OR S35 OR S36 OR S37 OR S38		
S40.	S16 AND S39		
S41.	TI ((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) n2 opi*) OR AB ((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) n2 opi*)		
S42.	S40 OR S41		
S43.	(MH "Qualitative Studies+")		
S44.	(MH "Qualitative Validity+")		
S45.	(MH "Interviews+") OR (MH "Focus Groups") OR (MH "Surveys") OR (MH "Questionnaires+")		
S46.	(qualitative or interview* or focus group* or theme* or questionnaire* or survey*)		
S47.	(metasynthes* or meta-synthes* or metasummar* or meta-summar* or metastud* or meta-stud* or metathem* or meta-them* or ethno* or emic or etic or phenomenolog* or grounded theory or constant compar* or (thematic* adj3 analys*) or theoretical sampl* or purposive sampl* or hermeneutic* or heidegger* or husserl* or colaizzi* or van kaam* or van manen* or giorgi* or glaser* or strauss* or ricoeur* or spiegelberg* or merleau*)		
S48.	S42 OR S43 OR S44 OR S45 OR S46		
S49.	S42 and S48		

#### PsycINFO (ProQuest) search terms

1

1.	"Substance Use Disorder"/ or "Substance Related and Addictive Disorders"/ or Prescription Drug Misuse/ or Drug Withdrawal/			
2.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.			
3.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or innapropriate) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.			
4.	(addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.			
5.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*).ti,ab.			
6.	((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)).ti,ab.			
7.	((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.			
8.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*).ti,ab.			
9.	or/1-8			
10.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 opi*).ti,ab.			
11.	"opioid use disorder"/			
12.	10 or 11			
13.	exp narcotic drugs/			
14.	((analgesic* adj3 narcotic) or (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.			
15.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*).ti,ab.			
16.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon).ti,ab.			
17.	(generation adj3 hypnotic*).ti,ab.			
18.	exp Benzodiazepines/			
19.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam).ti,ab.			
20.	exp antidepressant drugs/			
21.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit* or SNRI*" or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*).ti,ab.			
22.	(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine).ti,ab.			

23.	(5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or	
	Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine).ti,ab.	
24.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine).ti,ab.	
25.	Gabapentin/ or pregabalin/	
26.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*).ti,ab.	
27.	or/13-26	
28.	9 and 27	
29.	12 or 28	
30.	exp Qualitative Methods/ or Narratives/ or exp Questionnaires/ or exp Interviews/ or exp Health Care Services/	
31.	(qualitative or interview* or focus group* or theme* or questionnaire* or survey*).ti,ab.	
32.	(metasynthes* or meta-synthes* or metasummar* or meta-summar* or metastud* or meta-stud* or metathem* or meta-them* or ethno* or emic or etic or phenomenolog* or grounded theory or constant compar* or (thematic* adj3 analys*) or theoretical-sampl* or purposive-sampl* or hermeneutic* or heidegger* or husserl* or colaizzi* or van kaam* or van manen* or giorgi* or glaser* or strauss* or ricoeur* or spiegelberg* or merleau*).ti,ab.	
33.	or/30-32	
34.	29 and 33	
35.	limit 34 to English language	

#### ASSIA (ProQuest) search terms

ASSIA (FIU	auesi, search terms
1.	((TI,AB:withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or
	discontinu* N/2 symptom*) AND (MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Gabapentin") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Narcotics") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Benzodiazepines") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Antidepressant drugs") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Zolpidem") OR ti,ab(opioid* OR opiate*) OR ti,ab(alfentanil*
	OR alphaprodine* OR buprenorphine* OR butorphanol* OR codeine* OR co-codamol*
	OR dextromoramide* OR dextropropoxyphene* OR diamorphine* OR dihydrocodeine*
	OR dihydromorphine* OR dipipanone* OR ethylmorphine* OR fentanyl* OR heroin*
	OR hydrocodone* OR hydromorphone* OR levorphanol* OR meperidine* OR
	meptazinol* OR methadone* OR morphine* OR oxycodone* OR oxymorphone* OR
	papaveretum* OR pentazocine* OR pethidine* OR phenazocine* OR promedol* OR
	remifentanil* OR sufentanil* OR tapentadol* OR tilidine* OR tramadol*) OR ti,ab(z
	drug* OR z hypnotic* OR non-benzodiazepin* OR nonbenzodiazepin* OR
	imidazopyridines OR cyclopyrrolones OR pyrazolopyrimidines OR zolpidem OR
	zopiclone OR eszopiclone OR zaleplon) OR ti,ab(generation NEAR/3 hypnotic*) OR
	ti,ab(benzodiazepin* OR bzd OR Alprazolam OR Chlordiazepoxide OR Clobazam OR
	Clonazepam OR Diazepam OR Flurazepam OR Loprazolam OR Lorazepam OR
	Lormetazepam OR Midazolam OR Nitrazepam OR Olanzapine OR Oxazepam OR
	Temazepam)) AND (MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Interviews") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Qualitative research") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Questionnaires") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Narratives") OR ti,ab(qualitative or interview* or
	focus group* or theme* or questionnaire* or survey*) or ti,ab(metasynthes* or meta-
	synthes* or metasummar* or meta-summar* or metastud* or meta-stud* or metathem*
	or meta-them* or ethno* or emic or etic or phenomenolog* or grounded theory or
	constant compar* or (thematic* near/3 analys*) or theoretical-sampl* or purposive-
	sampl* or hermeneutic* or heidegger* or husserl* or colaizzi* or van kaam* or van
	manen* or giorgi* or glaser* or strauss* or ricoeur* or spiegelberg* or merleau*))) NOT
	((((MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Substance dependency") OR
	MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Substance abuse disorders") OR

MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Overprescribing") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Withdrawal symptoms") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Withdrawal")) OR ti,ab(over\* or inappropriate or misus\* or abuse\* or abusing or long\* term or longterm or short\* term or short term or abstinen\* or abstain\* or stop\* or cessat\* or reduc\* or taper\* or discontinu\* or safe\* or manag\* or withdraw\* or addict\* or depend\*) OR ti,ab(prescription\* OR prescrib\*) OR ti,ab(deprescription\* OR de-prescription\* OR deprescrib\* OR de-prescrib\*)) AND (MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Gabapentin") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Narcotics") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Benzodiazepines") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Antidepressant drugs") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT("Zolpidem") OR ti,ab(opioid\* OR opiate\*) OR ti,ab(alfentanil\* OR alphaprodine\* OR buprenorphine\* OR butorphanol\* OR codeine\* OR co-codamol\* OR dextromoramide\* OR dextropropoxyphene\* OR diamorphine\* OR dihydrocodeine\* OR dihydromorphine\* OR dipipanone\* OR ethylmorphine\* OR fentanyl\* OR heroin\* OR hydrocodone\* OR hydromorphone\* OR levorphanol\* OR meperidine\* OR meptazinol\* OR methadone\* OR morphine\* OR oxycodone\* OR oxymorphone\* OR papaveretum\* OR pentazocine\* OR pethidine\* OR phenazocine\* OR promedol\* OR remifentanil\* OR sufentanil\* OR tapentadol\* OR tilidine\* OR tramadol\*) OR ti,ab(z drug\* OR z hypnotic\* OR non-benzodiazepin\* OR nonbenzodiazepin\* OR imidazopyridines OR cyclopyrrolones OR pyrazolopyrimidines OR zolpidem OR zopiclone OR eszopiclone OR zaleplon) OR ti,ab(generation NEAR/3 hypnotic\*) OR ti,ab(benzodiazepin\* OR bzd OR Alprazolam OR Chlordiazepoxide OR Clobazam OR Clonazepam OR Diazepam OR Flurazepam OR Loprazolam OR Lorazepam OR Lormetazepam OR Midazolam OR Nitrazepam OR Olanzapine OR Oxazepam OR Temazepam))) AND (MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Interviews") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Qualitative research") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Questionnaires") OR MAINSUBJECT.EXACT.EXPLODE("Narratives") OR ti,ab(qualitative or interview\* or focus group\* or theme\* or questionnaire\* or survey\*) or ti,ab(metasynthes\* or metasynthes\* or metasummar\* or meta-summar\* or metastud\* or meta-stud\* or metathem\* or meta-them\* or ethno\* or emic or etic or phenomenolog\* or grounded theory or constant compar\* or (thematic\* near/3 analys\*) or theoretical-sampl\* or purposivesampl\* or hermeneutic\* or heidegger\* or husserl\* or colaizzi\* or van kaam\* or van manen\* or giorgi\* or glaser\* or strauss\* or ricoeur\* or spiegelberg\* or merleau\*)))

## **B.2 Health Economics literature search strategy**

2

3

4 5

6

7

8

9

Health economic evidence was identified by conducting searches with the terms used in the clinical search for prescription withdrawal and drug types. The NHS Economic Evaluation Database (NHS EED - this ceased to be updated after 31<sup>st</sup> March 2015) and the Health Technology Assessment database (HTA - this ceased to be updated from 31<sup>st</sup> March 2018) were searched via the Centre for Research and Dissemination (CRD). Searches for recent evidence were run on Medline and Embase from 2014 onwards for health economics, and all years for economic modelling and quality of life studies.

Database	Dates searched	Search filter used
Medline	Health Economics 1 January 2014 – 17 June 2021	Health economics studies Quality of life studies Modelling studies
	Quality of Life 1946 – 17 June 2021	Exclusions (animal studies, letters, comments)
	Modelling 1946 – 17 June 2021	

#### Table 39: Database date parameters and filters used

Database	Dates searched	Search filter used
Embase	Health Economics 1 January 2014 – 17 June 2021	Health economics studies Quality of life studies Modelling studies
	Quality of Life 1974 – 17 June 2021	Exclusions (animal studies, letters, comments)
	Modelling 1974 – 17 June 2021	
Centre for Research and Dissemination (CRD)	NHSEED Inception –31 March 2015 HTA Inception – 31 March 2018	None

#### Medline (Ovid) search terms

1.	*substance-related disorders/ or *narcotic-related disorders/
2.	*Substance Withdrawal Syndrome/
3.	exp Inappropriate Prescribing/
4.	*Medical Overuse/
5.	exp Prescription Drug Misuse/
6.	exp Deprescriptions/
7.	Medication Therapy Management/
8.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
9.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
10.	(addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
11.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*).ti,ab.
12.	((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)).ti,ab.
13.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*).ti,ab.
14.	((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
15.	or/1-14
16.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 opi*).ti,ab.
17.	Opiate Substitution Treatment/ or *Opioid-related disorders/
18.	or/16-17
19.	letter/
20.	editorial/
21.	news/
22.	exp historical article/
23.	Anecdotes as Topic/

24.	comment/		
25.	case report/		
26.	(letter or comment*).ti.		
27.	or/19-26		
28.	randomized controlled trial/ or random*.ti,ab.		
29.	27 not 28		
30.	animals/ not humans/		
31.	exp Animals, Laboratory/		
32.	exp Animal Experimentation/		
33.	exp Models, Animal/		
34.	exp Rodentia/		
35.	(rat or rats or mouse or mice or rodent*).ti.		
36.	or/29-35		
37.	(exp child/ or exp pediatrics/ or exp infant/) not (exp adolescent/ or exp adult/ or exp middle age/ or exp aged/)		
38.	15 not (36 or 37)		
39.	limit 38 to English language		
40.	18 not (36 or 37)		
41.	limit 40 to English language		
42.	exp Narcotics/		
43.	((analgesic* adj3 narcotic) or (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.		
44.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*).ti,ab.		
45.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon).ti,ab.		
46.	Zolpidem/ or Eszopiclone/		
47.	(generation adj3 hypnotic*).ti,ab.		
48.	exp Benzodiazepines/		
49.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam).ti,ab.		
50.	exp Antidepressive Agents/		
51.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*).ti,ab.		
52.	exp Flupenthixol/		
53.	(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or		

	Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine).ti,ab.			
54.	(5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine).ti,ab.			
55.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine).ti,ab.			
56.	gabapentin/ or pregabalin/			
57.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*).ti,ab.			
58.	or/42-57			
59.	39 and 58			
60.	41 or 59			
61.	quality-adjusted life years/			
62.	sickness impact profile/			
63.	(quality adj2 (wellbeing or well being)).ti,ab.			
64.	sickness impact profile.ti,ab.			
65.	disability adjusted life.ti,ab.			
66.	(qal* or qtime* or qwb* or daly*).ti,ab.			
67.	(euroqol* or eq5d* or eq 5*).ti,ab.			
68.	(qol* or hql* or hqol* or h qol* or hrqol* or hr qol*).ti,ab.			
69.	(health utility* or utility score* or disutilit* or utility value*).ti,ab.			
70.	(hui or hui1 or hui2 or hui3).ti,ab.			
71.	(health* year* equivalent* or hye or hyes).ti,ab.			
72.	discrete choice*.ti,ab.			
73.	rosser.ti,ab.			
74.	(willingness to pay or time tradeoff or time trade off or tto or standard gamble*).ti,ab.			
75.	(sf36* or sf 36* or short form 36* or shortform 36* or shortform36*).ti,ab.			
76.	(sf20 or sf 20 or short form 20 or shortform 20 or shortform20).ti,ab.			
77.	(sf12* or sf 12* or short form 12* or shortform 12* or shortform12*).ti,ab.			
78.	(sf8* or sf 8* or short form 8* or shortform 8* or shortform8*).ti,ab.			
79.	(sf6* or sf 6* or short form 6* or shortform 6* or shortform6*).ti,ab.			
80.	or/61-79			
81.	exp models, economic/			
82.	*Models, Theoretical/			
83.	*Models, Organizational/			
84.	markov chains/			
85.	monte carlo method/			
86.	exp Decision Theory/			
87.	(markov* or monte carlo).ti,ab.			
88.	econom* model*.ti,ab.			
89.	(decision* adj2 (tree* or analy* or model*)).ti,ab.			
90.	or/81-89			
91.	economics/			
92.	value of life/			

93.	exp "costs and cost analysis"/
94.	exp Economics, Hospital/
95.	exp Economics, medical/
96.	Economics, nursing/
97.	economics, pharmaceutical/
98.	exp "Fees and Charges"/
99.	exp budgets/
100.	budget*.ti,ab.
101.	cost*.ti.
102.	(economic* or pharmaco?economic*).ti.
103.	(price* or pricing*).ti,ab.
104.	(cost* adj2 (effectiv* or utilit* or benefit* or minimi* or unit* or estimat* or variable*)).ab.
105.	(financ* or fee or fees).ti,ab.
106.	(value adj2 (money or monetary)).ti,ab.
107.	or/91-106
108.	60 and (80 or 90 or 107)

#### Embase (Ovid) search terms

1.	*drug dependence/
2.	*withdrawal syndrome/
3.	exp inappropriate prescribing/
4.	deprescription/
5.	exp prescription drug misuse/
6.	medication therapy management/
7.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
8.	((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
9.	(addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)).ti,ab.
10.	(deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*).ti,ab.
11.	((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)).ti,ab.
12.	((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*).ti,ab.
13.	((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)).ti,ab.
14.	or/1-13
15.	((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.
16.	*benzodiazepine dependence/
17.	Opiate Substitution Treatment/
18.	or/15-17
19.	letter.pt. or letter/
20.	note.pt.
21.	editorial.pt.

1

22	asso report/ or case study/
22.	case report/ or case study/
23.	(letter or comment*).ti.
24.	or/19-23
25.	randomized controlled trial/ or random*.ti,ab.
26.	24 not 25
27.	animal/ not human/
28.	nonhuman/
29.	exp Animal Experiment/
30.	exp Experimental Animal/
31.	animal model/
32.	exp Rodent/
33.	(rat or rats or mouse or mice or rodent*).ti.
34.	or/26-33
35.	(exp child/ or exp pediatrics/) not (exp adult/ or exp adolescent/)
36.	14 not (34 or 35)
37.	limit 36 to English language
38.	18 not (34 or 35)
39.	limit 38 to English language
40.	*narcotic agent/
41.	*alphaprodine/ or *buprenorphine/ or *codeine/ or *dextromoramide/ or *dextropropoxyphene/ or *diamorphine/ or *dihydrocodeine/ or *dihydromorphine/ or *dipipanone/ or *ethylmorphine/ or *hydrocodone/ or *hydromorphone/ or *levorphanol/ or *methadone/ or *morphine/ or *oxycodone/ or *pethidine/ or *tapentadol/ or *tilidine/
42.	*alfentanil/ or *butorphanol/ or *cocodamol/ or *fentanyl/ or *meptazinol/ or *oxymorphone/ or *opiate/ or *pentazocine/ or *phenazocine/ or *remifentanil/ or *sufentanil/ or *tramadol/ or *trimeperidine/
43.	((analgesic* adj3 narcotic) or (opioid* or opiate*)).ti,ab.
44.	(alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*).ti,ab.
45.	(z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon).ti,ab.
46.	*zolpidem/ or *zopiclone/ or *eszopiclone/ or *zaleplon/
47.	(generation adj3 hypnotic*).ti,ab.
48.	*benzodiazepine derivative/ or *alprazolam/ or *benzodiazepine/ or *chlordiazepoxide/ or *clobazam/ or *clonazepam/ or *diazepam/ or *flurazepam/ or *loprazolam/ or *lorazepam/ or *lormetazepam/ or *midazolam/ or *nitrazepam/ or *olanzapine/ or *oxazepam/ or *temazepam/
49.	(benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam).ti,ab.
50.	exp *antidepressant agent/
51.	(antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or "monoamine oxidase inhibit*" or "Norepinephrine and dopamine reuptake inhibit*" or

	NDRI* or "Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*" or SSRI* or "Serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibit*" or SNRI* or SNORI* or "Serotonin antagonist and reuptake inhibit*" or SARI* or "Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*" or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*).ti,ab.
52.	*flupentixol/
53.	<ul> <li>(Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine).ti,ab.</li> </ul>
54.	(5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine).ti,ab.
55.	(Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine).ti,ab.
56.	*pregabalin/ or *gabapentin/
57.	(gabapentin* or pregabalin*).ti,ab.
58.	or/40-57
59.	37 and 58
60.	39 or 59
61.	quality-adjusted life years/
62.	"quality of life index"/
63.	short form 12/ or short form 20/ or short form 36/ or short form 8/
64.	sickness impact profile/
65.	(quality adj2 (wellbeing or well being)).ti,ab.
66.	sickness impact profile.ti,ab.
67.	disability adjusted life.ti,ab.
68.	(qal* or qtime* or qwb* or daly*).ti,ab.
69.	(euroqol* or eq5d* or eq 5*).ti,ab.
70.	(qol* or hql* or hqol* or h qol* or hrqol* or hr qol*).ti,ab.
71.	(health utility* or utility score* or disutilit* or utility value*).ti,ab.
72.	(hui or hui1 or hui2 or hui3).ti,ab.
73.	(health* year* equivalent* or hye or hyes).ti,ab.
74.	discrete choice*.ti,ab.
75.	rosser.ti,ab.
76.	(willingness to pay or time tradeoff or time trade off or tto or standard gamble*).ti,ab.
77.	(sf36* or sf 36* or short form 36* or shortform 36* or shortform36*).ti,ab.
78.	(sf20 or sf 20 or short form 20 or shortform 20 or shortform20).ti,ab.
79.	(sf12* or sf 12* or short form 12* or shortform 12* or shortform12*).ti,ab.
80.	(sf8* or sf 8* or short form 8* or shortform 8* or shortform8*).ti,ab.
81.	(sf6* or sf 6* or short form 6* or shortform 6* or shortform6*).ti,ab.
82.	or/61-81
83.	statistical model/
84.	exp economic aspect/
85.	83 and 84
86.	*theoretical model/

87.	*nonbiological model/	
88.	stochastic model/	
89.	decision theory/	
90.	decision tree/	
91.	monte carlo method/	
92.	(markov* or monte carlo).ti,ab.	
93.	econom* model*.ti,ab.	
94.	(decision* adj2 (tree* or analy* or model*)).ti,ab.	
95.	or/85-94	
96.	health economics/	
97.	exp economic evaluation/	
98.	exp health care cost/	
99.	exp fee/	
100.	budget/	
101.	funding/	
102.	budget*.ti,ab.	
103.	cost*.ti.	
104.	(economic* or pharmaco?economic*).ti.	
105.	(price* or pricing*).ti,ab.	
106.	(cost* adj2 (effectiv* or utilit* or benefit* or minimi* or unit* or estimat* or variable*)).ab.	
107.	(financ* or fee or fees).ti,ab.	
108.	(value adj2 (money or monetary)).ti,ab.	
109.	or/96-108	
110.	60 and (82 or 95 or 109)	

#### 1

#### NHS EED and HTA (CRD) search terms

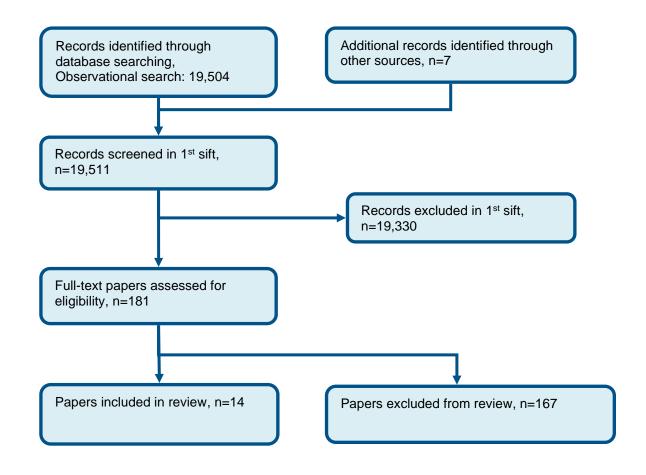
#1.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Substance-Related Disorders)
#2.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Substance Withdrawal Syndrome)
#3.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Inappropriate Prescribing EXPLODE ALL TREES)
#4.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Medical Overuse)
#5.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Deprescriptions EXPLODE ALL TREES)
#6.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Prescription Drug Misuse EXPLODE ALL TREES)
#7.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Medication Therapy Management)
#8.	(((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw* or depend*) adj2 (drug* or medicine* or medicat* or medical* or pharm*)))
#9.	(((over* or inappropriate or misus* or abuse* or abusing or long* term or longterm or short* term or short term or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu* or safe* or manag* or withdraw*) adj3 (prescription* or prescrib*)))
#10.	((addict* adj3 (prescription* or prescrib* or medicat* or medicine* or medical* or pharm*)))
#11.	((deprescription* or de-prescription* or deprescrib* or de-prescrib*))
#12.	(((therap* or treat*) adj2 (manag* or substit*)))
#13.	(((withdraw* or abstinen* or abstain* or stop* or cessat* or reduc* or taper* or discontinu*) adj2 symptom*))
#14.	MeSH DESCRIPTOR Narcotic-Related Disorders

#15.	(((drug* or medic*) adj2 (prescription* or prescrib*)))	
#16.	(#1 OR #2 OR #3 OR #4 OR #5 OR #6 OR #7 OR #8 OR #9 OR #10 OR #11 OR #12 OR #13 OR #14 OR #15)	
#17.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR narcotics EXPLODE ALL TREES)	
#18.	(((analgesic* adj3 narcotic adj3 agent*) or (opioid* or opiate*)))	
#19.	((alfentanil* or alphaprodine* or buprenorphine* or butorphanol* or codeine* or co- codamol* or dextromoramide* or dextropropoxyphene* or diamorphine* or dihydrocodeine* or dihydromorphine* or dipipanone* or ethylmorphine* or fentanyl* or heroin* or hydrocodone* or hydromorphone* or levorphanol* or meperidine* or meptazinol* or methadone* or morphine* or oxycodone* or oxymorphone* or papaveretum* or pentazocine* or pethidine* or phenazocine* or promedol* or remifentanil* or sufentanil* or tapentadol* or tilidine* or tramadol*))	
#20.	((z drug* or z hypnotic* or non-benzodiazepin* or nonbenzodiazepin* or imidazopyridines or cyclopyrrolones or pyrazolopyrimidines or zolpidem or zopiclone or eszopiclone or zaleplon))	
#21.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Eszopicione)	
#22.	((generation adj3 hypnotic*))	
#23.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Benzodiazepines EXPLODE ALL TREES)	
#24.	((benzodiazepin* or bzd or Alprazolam or Chlordiazepoxide or Clobazam or Clonazepam or Diazepam or Flurazepam or Loprazolam or Lorazepam or Lormetazepam or Midazolam or Nitrazepam or Olanzapine or Oxazepam or Temazepam))	
#25.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Antidepressive Agents EXPLODE ALL TREES)	
#26.	((antidepress* or anti depress* or thymoanaleptic* or thymoleptic* or MAOI* or NDR or SSRI* or SNRI* or SNORI* SARI* or RIMA* or tricyclic* or TCA* or tetracyclic* or TeCA*))	
#27.	(("monoamine oxidase inhibit*"))	
#28.	((Norepinephrine adj2 dopamine))	
#29.	(("Selective serotonin reuptake inhibit*"))	
#30.	((Serotonin adj2 norepinephrine))	
#31.	((Serotonin antagonist))	
#32.	(("Reversible Monoamine Oxidase Inhibit*"))	
#33.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR Flupenthixol EXPLODE ALL TREES)	
#34.	((Agomelatine or Aripiprazole or Benactyzine or Clorgyline or Deanol or Desvenlafaxine* or Duloxetine* or Flupentixol or Iproniazid or Isocarboxazid or Levomilnacipran or Lithium* or Mirtazapine or Moclobemide or Nialamide or Phenelzine or Pizotyline or Quetiapine* or Reboxetine or Rolipram or Selegiline or Sertraline or Tranylcypromine or Vilazodone* or Vortioxetine))	
#35.	((5-Hydroxytryptophan or Amisulpride or Bupropion or Citalopram or Escitalopram or Fluoxetine or Fluvoxamine or Maprotiline or Mianserin or Paroxetine or Quipazine or Ritanserin or Sulpiride or Trazodone or Tryptophan or Venlafaxine or Viloxazine))	
#36.	((Amitriptyline or Amoxapine or Clomipramine or Desipramine or Dothiepin or Dosulepin or Doxepin or Imipramine or Iprindole or Lofepramine or Nefazodone or Nortriptyline or Opipramol or Protriptyline or Trimipramine))	
#37.	(MeSH DESCRIPTOR pregabalin)	
#38.	((gabapentin* or pregabalin*))	
#39.	(#17 OR #18 OR #19 OR #20 OR #21 OR #22 OR #23 OR #24 OR #25 OR #26 OR #27 OR #28 OR #29 OR #30 OR #31 OR #32 OR #33 OR #34 OR #35 OR #36 OR #37 OR #38)	
#40.	#16 AND #39	
#41.	(((withdraw* or prescription* or prescrib*) adj2 (opioid* or opiate*)))	

#42.	MeSH DESCRIPTOR Opiate Substitution Treatment
#43.	MeSH DESCRIPTOR Opioid-Related Disorders
#44.	#41 OR #42 OR #43
#45.	#40 OR #44

## Appendix C Prognostic evidence study selection

# Figure 1: Flow chart of clinical study selection for the review of risk factors for dependence



## Appendix D Prognostic evidence

Reference	Bedson 2019 <sup>19</sup>
Study type and analysis	Prospective cohort analysed using Cox proportional hazards regression
Number of participants	N=98,140
and characteristics	N=106,818 long-term opioid episodes were identified
	Average daily dose (ADD) of prescribed opioids during the long-term episodes in percentiles (%):
	5% 3.1mg
	25% 7.1mg
	50% 12.3 mg
	75% 20.3 mg
	95% 42.8%
	Incident addiction to opioids:
	N=90 for periods not on long term opioids
	N=142 for periods on long term opioids
	N=35 for Average daily dose (ADD) <20 mg morphine equivalent dose (MED) while on a long-term episode of opioid prescribing
	N=56 for ADD ≥20 and <50 mg MED while on a long-term episode of opioid prescribing
	N=51 for ADD ≥50 mg MED while on a long-term episode of opioid prescribing
	Inclusion and exclusion criteria:
	Patients aged 18 and over starting a new long-term opioid episode (defined as ≥3 or more opioid prescriptions within 90 days) at the time of a recorded noninflammatory, potentially painful musculoskeletal condition between 2002 and 2012. Patients were included if a visit for a musculoskeletal condition occurred within a period starting 14 days before the initial opioid

Reference	Bedson 2019 <sup>19</sup>
	prescription and up to 90 days following it. Each participant was also required to have at least 12 months of records in the CPRD database before the initial opioid prescription and have no record of cancer diagnosis prior to the initial opioid prescription and up to 6 months after the initial prescription.
	For the outcome of incident addiction to opioids, patients with a previous event in their records were excluded from the analysis.
	The start of an episode of opioid prescribing defined as the date an opioid prescription was issued for a patient who had not received an opioid prescription within the previous 6 months. An episode ended if a period of 6 months elapsed without an opioid prescription. The end date of a long-term opioid episode was defined as the date 28 days following the issue of the last opioid prescription.
	The population was sourced from the CPRD database with information from UK general practices. Data associated with n=350 practices across England were included as practices were required to have linked Office for National Statistics (ONS, for mortality information), Hospital Episode statistics (HES) and Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD, neighbourhood deprivation) data.
	Baseline details:
	Median age (IQR): 61 (47 to 73) years; 41% male.
	Median length (IQR) of long-term opioid episodes was 237 (103 to 658) days; median average daily dose of opioid prescribed to patients was 12.3 mg MED (IQR 7.1, 20.3 mg MED)
	Smoking status: 12.9% non-smoker, 38.4% ever smoker, 12.5% unknown
	Alcohol drinking: 12.9% non-drinker, 74% ever drinker, 13.1 % unknown
	BMI: 27.3% <25 kg/m², 61.2% ≥25 km/m², 11.6% unknown
	Neighbourhood deprivation level: 18.2% 1(least), 21.8% 2, 19.4% 3, 20% 4, 20% 5 (most), 0.6% unknown
	Co-prescribing NSAID only: basic oral NSAID only 39.4%, none 53.7%
	Comorbidity (total number of prescriptions), medial (IQR): 9 (6 to 14)
Prognostic variables	Long-term opioid episode status: periods not on long-term opioids (referent) vs periods on long-term opioids

Reference	Bedson 2019 <sup>19</sup>
	Average daily dose (ADD) during a long-term opioid episode (grouped into three categories: <20 mg MED; ≥20 and <50 mg MED; ≥50 mg MED)
Confounders OR Stratification strategy	Age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co-prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions were included as baseline covariates in the final model.
	The analysis was further stratified by gender.
	Sensitivity analysis excluded patients with missing data on covariates.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Incident addiction to opioids
	Adjusted HR 2.83 (95% 2.13 to 3.76) for periods on long-term opioids (i.e., during episodes of long-term opioid prescribing) vs periods not on long term opioids
	Adjusted HR 1.06 (0.71 to 1.60) for ADD <20 mg MED during periods on long-term opioids
	Adjusted HR 3.59 (2.55 to 5.06) for ADD ≥20 and <50 mg MED during periods on long-term opioids
	Adjusted HR 9.33 (6.55 to 13.29) for ADD ≥50 mg MED
Funding	Not stated; authors state the study was based in part on data from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink database under licence from the UK Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency, but the interpretation and conclusions contained in the report are those of the authors alone.
Comments	Low risk of bias for periods on long-term opioids as per the QUIPS checklist
	High risk of bias for ADD during periods on long-term opioids outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Cepeda 2013 <sup>54</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study with conditional logistic regression models conducted using matched analysis (description of methods assumed to include multivariate analysis)
Number of participants	N=155,761 opioid naïve people
and characteristics	N=42,940 exposed to tapentadol IR

Reference	Cepeda 2013 <sup>54</sup>
	N= 112,821 exposed to oxycodone IR
	N=88 of tapentadol group exhibited shopping behaviour
	N=967 of oxycodone group exhibited shopping behaviour
	N= 4 of tapentadol group exhibited heavy shopping behaviour
	N=80 of oxycodone group exhibited heavy shopping behaviour
	Inclusion criteria:
	People exposed to tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR from July 2009 to December 2010 who had not received an opioid of any type in the 3 months before the index date (date of the first prescription of tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR after June 30, 2009)
	Exclusion criteria:
	People who filled a prescription for an opioid other than tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR on the index date or in the next three days.
	Data source:
	The study used the IMS LRx longitudinal database that cover 65% of all retail dispensing in the US and includes all types of pharmacies and prescriptions filled for patients with any insurance type or those who pay cash.
	Because fewer were exposed to tapentadol IR than oxycodone IR, each tapentadol IR-exposed subject was matched to up to 4 randomly selected oxycodone IR-exposed subjects by: calendar quarter and year of initial exposure (index date); first three digits of the zip code of the pharmacy dispensing the opioid at the index date; age ±5 years; and specialty of prescriber (e.g. primary care for specialties such as family practice, orthopaedic or general surgery, pain medicine, dentistry, emergency medicine addiction medicine and other for cardiology, nephrology, plastic surgery etc.) Matching variables were selected because they are potential confounders or sources of bias in observational studies. To ascertain the duration of follow-up in the database, prescriptions for any medication during the year of follow-up were searched.
	A total of 42,940 eligible subjects exposed to tapentadol were matched to 112,821 eligible subjects exposed to oxycodone; 13,937 eligible subjects exposed to tapentadol could not be matched to any eligible subjects exposed to oxycodone.
	Baseline details:
	Mean age (SD): 51.11 (14.91)
	Oxycodone IR: 48.3% male; 17.1% history of BZD use; prescriber specialty:0.06% dentistry, 2.2% emergency medicine, 15.6% surgery, 5.7% pain medicine, 39.7% primary care medicine, 36.8% other

Reference	Cepeda 2013 <sup>54</sup>
	Tapentadol IR: 37.3% male; 12% history of BZD use; prescriber specialty 0.1% dentistry, 2.2% emergency medicine, 19.1% surgery, 7.8% pain medicine, 35% primary care medicine, 35.7% other
	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.
Prognostic variable	Exposure to Oxycodone IR vs Tapentadol IR (referent)
Confounders	The tapentadol and oxycodone groups were matched for potentially confounding variables of time of opioid exposure, geographic area, specialty of the prescriber and age; gender, any exposure to benzodiazepines during the 3 months before the index date and type of payment at index date were also considered in the regression model.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Shopping behaviour (>1 prescription by ≥2 different prescribers with≥1 day of overlap and filled at ≥3 pharmacies):
	Matched and Adjusted OR 3.5 (95% CI 2.8 to 4.4) for oxycodone IR vs tapentadol IR
	Heavy shopping behaviour (≥5 shopping episodes in 1 year):
	Matched and Adjusted OR 6.9 (95% CI 2.5 to 19.3) for oxycodone IR vs tapentadol IR
Funding	Janssen Research & Development, LLC (formerly Johnson & Johnson Pharmaceutical Research & Development, LLC) provided funding for the study including collection and analysis of the data.
Comments	Low risk of bias for the outcome of shopping behaviour as per the QUIPS checklist
	High risk of bias for the outcome of heavy shopping behaviour as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study with logistic regression analysis
Number of participants	N=277,401 opioid-naïve patients
and characteristics	N=39,524 initiating opioid use with tapentadol IR
	N= 237,877 initiating opioid use with oxycodone IR
	N=1,656 (0.6%) developed shopping behaviour
	N=2,086 (0.75%) developed opioid abuse
	Gender: 60.3% female
	Type of payment: 5.3% cash, 8.8% Medicaid, 18.6% Medicare, 67.3% commercial insurance

Reference	Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>
	Benzodiazepine use: 1.6%
	Abuse of nonopioid drugs: 0.7%
	Mood disorders: 2.6%
	Painful conditions: 8.4% arthritis,6.7% back pain, 1.5% fractures,1.9% headache, 7.9% malignancy, 6.7% musculoskeletal pain, 1.2% neuropathic pain,0.7% other pain, 0.4% reproductive pain, 5.3 % visceral pain, 0.5% wound injury
	Inclusion criteria:
	Opioid naïve patients defined as patients without any opioid prescription in the 90 days before the first exposure to tapentadol IR or oxycodone IR which occurred between January 2010 and July 2011. The date of this exposure is each patient's index date (and each patient was followed for 1 year from the index date)
	Exclusion criteria:
	Patients with a history of opioid abuse/dependence 12 months before or at the index date and patients who filled a prescription for an opioid other than the index opioid within 3 days after the index date; patients with no claims related to diagnoses from 12 months before the index date to 12 months after the index date.
	Characteristics & data source:
	Opioid naïve patients from 2 linked dispensing and diagnosis databases (the IMS LRx database: prescription database that covers 65% of all retail dispensing in the US and includes all types of pharmacies and the IMS DX database: a physician claims database capturing claims from approximately 505,000 American Medical Association office-based practitioners in the US)
	Selection:
	To identify each patient uniquely so the databases could be linked, a probabilistic match was performed using a proprietary algorithm based on encrypted nonidentifiable data elements, including sex, date of birth, last name, first name, address, city state, zip code and payer identification.
	Baseline details:
	Mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years; 60.3% female; benzodiazepine use 1.6%; abuse of non-opioid drugs 0.7%; mood disorders 2.6%
	Tapentadol: 69.6% female; painful conditions included: 10.4% arthritis, 10.2% back pain, 1.1% fractures, 2.7% headache, 7.9% malignancy, 9.1% musculoskeletal pain, 1.9% neuropathic pain, 0.9% other pain, 0.6% reproductive pain 5.5% visceral pain, 0.4% wound injury

Reference	Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>
	Oxycodone: 58.7% female; painful conditions included: 8.1% arthritis, 6.2% back pain, 1.6% fractures, 1.8% headache, 7.9% malignancy, 6.3% musculoskeletal pain, 1.1% neuropathic pain; 0.7% other pain, 0.3% reproductive pain, 5.3% visceral pain, 0.4% wound injury
	Median number of days (25 <sup>th</sup> to 75 <sup>th</sup> percentile) from the index date to developing shopping behaviour was 163 (78 to 261) days; median number of days to developing abuse was 142 (45 to 249) days
	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.
Prognostic variables	Tapentadol immediate release vs oxycodone immediate release (follow-up: 1 year after initial exposure)
	Age: <18, 18-39 and 40-64 vs >64 (referent)
	Gender: male vs female(referent)
	History of benzodiazepine use
	Type of payment: Medicaid, Medicare, commercial insurance vs cash (referent)
	History of mood disorders
	History of abuse of nonopioid drugs (e.g., alcohol and tobacco)
	Painful condition (type)
Confounders	Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date
Outcomes and effect sizes	(Opioid) shopping behaviour (Opioid dispensing within ≥1 day of overlap written by ≥ different prescribers and filled in ≥3 pharmacies):
	Adjusted OR 0.45 (95% CI 0.36 to 0.55) for tapentadol IR vs oxycodone IR
	OR 0.9 (95% CI 0.5 to 1.8) for age <18 vs >64
	OR 9.8 (95% CI 7.9 to 12) for age 18-39 vs >64
	OR 4.6 (95% CI 3.8 to 5.6) for age 40-64 vs >64
	OR 1.6 (95% CI 1.4 to 1.7) for male vs female
	OR 1.6 (95% CI 1.1 to 2.2) for history of benzodiazepine use
	OR 0.3 (95% CI 0.3 to 0.4) for Medicaid vs cash payment

Reference	Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>
	OR 0.4 (95% CI 0.3 to 0.4) for Medicare vs cash payment
	OR 0.2 (95% CI 0.2 to 0.2) for commercial insurance vs cash payment
	OR 1.4 (95% CI 1.1 to 1.8) for history of mood disorder
	OR 1.5 (95% CI 1.0 to 2.2) for history of abuse of non-opioid drugs
	OR 0.8 (95% CI 0.7 to 1.0) for arthritis
	OR 2.0 (95% CI 1.7 to 2.3) for back pain
	OR 1.1 (95% CI 0.75 to 1.7) for fractures
	OR 0.8 (95% CI 0.6 to 1.2) for headache
	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.5 to 0.9) for malignancy
	OR 0.9 (95% CI 0.7 to 1.1) for musculoskeletal pain
	OR 1.2 (95% CI 0.8 to 1.8) for neuropathic pain
	OR 1.2 (95% CI 0.6 to 2.3) for other pains
	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.3 to 1.8) for reproductive pain
	OR 1.0 (95 % CI 0.8 to 1.2) for visceral pain
	OR 1.0 (95% CI 0.5 to 1.8) for wound injury
	Opioid abuse (or addiction or dependence based on ICD-9 codes):
	Adjusted OR 0.44 (95% CI 0.37 to 0.54) for tapentadol IR vs oxycodone IR
	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.3 to 1.4) for age <18 vs >64
	OR 13.9 (95% CI 11.2 to 17.2) for age 18-39 vs >64
	OR 6.7 (95% CI 5.5 to 8.3) for age 40-64 vs >64
	OR 1.5 (95% CI 1.3 to 1.6) for male vs female
	OR 1.4 (95% CI 1.0 to 1.9) for history of benzodiazepine use
	OR 1.1 (95% CI 0.9 to 1.2) for Medicaid vs cash payment
	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.6 to 0.8) for Medicare vs cash payment

Reference	Cepeda 2014 <sup>52</sup>
	OR 0.3 (95% CI 0.3 to 0.4) for commercial insurance vs cash payment
	OR 1.9 (95% CI 1.5 to 2.3) for history of mood disorder
	OR 1.5 (95% CI 1.1 to 2.1) for history of abuse of non-opioid drugs
	OR 1.0 (95% CI 0.8 to 1.1) for arthritis
	OR 1.7 (95% CI 1.5 to 2.0) for back pain
	OR 1.2 (95% CI 0.8 to 1.6) for fractures
	OR 1.2 (95% CI 0.9 to 1.5) for headache
	OR 0.4 (95% CI 0.3 to 0.5) for malignancy
	OR 1.1 (95% CI 0.9 to 1.3) for musculoskeletal pain
	OR 1.1 (95% CI 0.7 to 1.6) for neuropathic pain
	OR 1.7 (95% CI 1.0 to 2.8) for other pains
	OR 0.8 (95% CI 0.4 to 1.7) for reproductive pain
	OR 1.1 (95 % CI 0.9 to 1.3) for visceral pain
	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.4 to 1.4) for wound injury
Funding	Not stated; two authors were employees of Janssen, Research & Development, an affiliate of Janssen Pharmaceuticals Inc., which markets several analgesic drug products including tapentadol, three authors were employees of IMS, which is the owner of the databases used in this study.
Comments	High risk of bias for tapentadol IR vs oxycodone IR for both opioid shopping behaviour and opioid abuse outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist
	Very high risk of bias for all other risk factors for both opioid shopping behaviour and opioid abuse outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist
Reference	Chenaf 2016 a <sup>60</sup>

Study type and analysis Retrospective cohort study with Cox proportional hazards model

Reference	Chenaf 2016 a <sup>60</sup>
Number of participants and characteristics	N=1958 Chronic noncancer pain patients (CNCP) treated with codeine in the period from 2004 to 2014 with data from a French health insurance database
	N= 65 developed at least 1 episode of shopping behaviour: 1-year incidence rate of codeine shopping behaviour was 4.03% (95% CI 3.07 to 5.28). The first shopping episode occurred in a median time of 190 (IQR=112-351) days; n=18 developed only 1 episode of shopping behaviour, n=24 had 2 to 10 episodes and n=23 had >10 episodes.
	Of those:
	N=37 (56.9%) were female
	N=16 (24.6%) had low-income status
	N=3 (4.6%) had history of opioid use disorder
	N=5 (7.7%) had history of substance use disorder
	N=17 (26.2%) presented with a mental health disorder
	Inclusion criteria:
	All patients aged 18 years and older treated with codeine for at least 6 consecutive months (180 days) between January 1 2004 and September 30 2013. The index date was the date of the first dispensation of this continuous sequence of at least 180 days of treatment. A continuous sequence was defined as an interval between 2 consecutive dispensations inferior to 35 days (on the basis that prescription drugs in France are dispensed for a maximum of 4 weeks and accordingly drugs prescribed for 3 months will be dispensed 3 times. To detect prescription interruption, 1 week was added to the maximum duration of prescription. The 6 months of continuous treatment period was used to identify chronic use of codeine in the absence of a specific code identifying chronic pain status as for research purposes pain lasting longer than 6 months is recommended to be defines as chronic pain.
	Exclusion criteria:
	Patients occasionally treated with codeine in the 6 months before the index date were excluded in order to select incident codeine users. Patients with a cancer condition were excluded (according to the presence of cancer related ICD-10 code among the previously collected LTD) to ensure non-malignant origin of pain.
	Selection:
	A representative 1/97th random sample of the population covered by the French national health insurance system (the Echallon Generaliste des Beneficiers (EGB)), containing administrative, medical and pharmacy data.
	N=167,630 patients with at least 1 dispensation of codeine form January 1, 2004 to September 30, 2013
	N=2,806 chronic pain patients treated with codeine for at least 6 months

Reference	Chenaf 2016 a <sup>60</sup>
	N=2,305 chronic pain patients with at least 6 months of data available before the index date and with a possible follow-up of 12 months after the index date were selected.
	N=1,958 excluding those with a cancer diagnosis (n=347)
	In 2014 the EGB database was comprised of almost 700,000 beneficiaries with more than 10 years of follow-up.
	Patients were followed until September 2014 allowing at least 12 months of follow-up for all included patients.
	Baseline details:
	Age mean (SD): 62.7 (16.1) years; 63.2% women; n=168 (8.6%) low-income status; n=197 (10.1%) had mental health disorders.
	n=43 (2.1%) had a history of substance use disorder; n=11 (0.6%) had a history of opioid use disorder
Prognostic variables	Age: ≤40 vs >40 (referent)
	Gender: female vs male
	Low-income status (yes vs no)
	History of opioid use disorder (yes vs no)
	History of substance use disorder (yes vs no)
	Active chronic liver disease (yes vs no)
	Mental health disorders (yes vs no)
	Antidepressants (concurrent use) (yes vs no)
	Antipsychotics (previous use) (yes vs no)
	Hypnotic BZD (previous use) (yes vs no)
	Hypnotic BZD (concurrent use) (yes vs no)
	Anxiolytic BZD (previous use) (yes vs no)
	Anxiolytic BZD (concurrent use) (yes vs no)
	Strong opioids (previous use) (yes vs no)
Confounders	Factors considered significant in univariate analysis (P<0.15) were entered to the multivariate analysis which was reported to be done accordingly to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender.

Reference	Chenaf 2016 a <sup>60</sup>
Outcomes and effect sizes	One-year incidence of codeine shopping behaviour ( $\geq 1$ day of overlapping prescriptions written by $\geq 2$ different prescribers and filled in $\geq 3$ different pharmacies)
	HR 7.29 (95% CI 4.28 to 12.42) for younger age (≤40)
	HR 0.92 (95% CI 0.53 to 1.58) for gender (female vs male)
	HR 1.75 (95% CI 0.96 to 3.21) for low-income status
	HR 1.25 (95% 0.19 to 8.40) for history of opioid use disorders
	HR 0.89 (95% 0.21 to 3.83) for history of substance use disorder
	HR 2.09 (95% CI 0.62 to 7.03) for active chronic liver disease
	HR 2.25 (95% CI 1.08 to 4.67) for mental health disorders
	HR 0.93 (95% CI 0.53 to 1.63) for concurrent use of antidepressants
	HR 1.03 (95% CI 0.42 to 2.53) for previous use of antipsychotics
	HR 1.56 (95% CI 0.70 to 3.49) for previous use of hypnotic BZD
	HR 0.89 (95% CI 0.43 to 1.83) for concurrent use of hypnotic BZD
	HR 0.63 (95% CI 0.32 to 1.26) for previous use of anxiolytic BZD
	HR 3.12 (95% CI 1.55 to 6.26) for concurrent use of anxiolytic benzodiazepines
	HR 2.94 (95% CI 1.24 to 6.98) for previous use of strong opioids
Funding	The French National Agency for Medicines and Health Products Safety
Comments	High risk of bias for all prognostic factors as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Chenaf 2016 b <sup>61</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study and cox proportional hazard model
Number of participants	N=3505 CNCP patients treated with tramadol
and characteristics	N=26 became tramadol shoppers

Reference	Chenaf 2016 b <sup>61</sup>
	N=19 (73%) of those were female vs n=2315 (66.5%) of non-shoppers
	N=9 (35%) had low-income status vs 133 (3.8%) of non-shoppers
	None of the opioid shoppers had previous opioid use disorder vs 14 (0.4%) of non-shoppers
	Tramadol shoppers had a mean (SD) age of 47.6 (13.5) years vs non-shoppers had a mean (SD) age of 66.5 (14.6)
	Inclusion criteria:
	All patients aged 18 years and older treated by tramadol for at least six consecutive months (180 days) between January 1 January 2005 and 31 December 2012. The index date was the first dispensation of this continuous sequence of at least 180 days of treatment. A continuous sequence was defined as an interval between two consecutive dispensations inferior to 35 days.
	Exclusion criteria:
	Non-chronic pain patients, patients with a cancer condition, patients with less than 6 months available prior to index date or with less than 12 months of possible follow-up after the index date were excluded. Patients occasionally treated by tramadol in the 6 months before the index date were excluded to select incident tramadol users.
	Data source:
	Anonymous data came from a French health insurance claims database: Echantillon Generaliste des Beneficiaires (EGB), a representative 1/97th random sample of the population covered by the French national health insurance system. In 2014 the EGB database was comprised of almost 700,000 beneficiaries with more than 10 years of follow-up.
	People treated with tramadol in the period from 2005 to 2013 were selected.
	Characteristics:
	Mean age (S): 66.4 (14.7) years; 66.4% female; 4.1% were low-income status
	Median tramadol treatment duration was 260 (IQR 211 to 356) days; median daily dose of tramadol from index date to first shopping episode was 442 mg; median time from index date to first shopping episode of doctor shopping was 165 (IQR 78 to 238) days; Number of shopping episodes ranged from 1 to 64 during the study follow-up.
	Strong opioids used included morphine, fentanyl and oxycodone.
Prognostic variables	Age <40 vs ≥ 50 (referent)
	Age 40-50 vs ≥ 50 (referent)
	Gender: female vs male (referent)

### DRAFT FOR CONSULTATION

Reference	Chenaf 2016 b <sup>61</sup>
	Low-income status (yes vs no)
	Prior use of strong opioids (yes vs no)
Confounders	It was not specified which confounders were adjusted in the multivariate analysis.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Shopping behaviour:
	HR 7.4 (95% CI 2.8 to 19.7) for age <40 vs ≥ 50
	HR 2.8 (95% CI 1 to 7.7) for age 40-50 vs ≥ 50
	HR 1.6 (95% CI 0.7 to 3.8) for female gender vs male
	HR 8.5 (95% CI 3.6 to 20.5) for low-income status
	HR 5.7 (95% CI 1.9 to 17.0) for prior use of strong opioids vs no prior use
Funding	The French National Agency for Medicines and Health Products Safety
Comments	Very high risk of bias for all risk factors as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Chui 2018 <sup>68</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study with multivariable logistic regression analysis
Number of participants	N=21,111
and characteristics	Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with musculoskeletal disorder (MSD), enrolled in Medicare.
	Prescription drug benefit utilisation: N=14,085 Veteran's health administration (VHA) only; 5,596 CMS only; N=1,430 both
	Proportion of patients with overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions: 38% of VHA only, 24% of CMS only and 75% of both VHA and CMS utilisation
	N=11,254 65-74 years old
	N=7,597 75-84 years old
	N= 2,260 85+ years old
	N=20,755 Male (98.3%)
	83.6% White

Reference	Chui 2018 <sup>68</sup>
	42% moderate-to-severe pain intensity (pain scale 4-10)
	N= 1,538 (7.3%) substance use (illicit drugs & alcohol)
	N=1,172 (5.6%) major depression
	N= 1,514 (7.2%) PTSD
	N= 8,205 (38.9%) Charlson Comorbidity Score (CCI) 2+
	Data source:
	Data from the VA Musculoskeletal Disorders Cohort were linked with claims data from the Centres for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS) from VA Information Resource Centre (VIRec) using patient scrambled SSN (VIReC 2016). The VA Musculoskeletal Disorders Cohort is a comprehensive registry for all Veterans with MSD diagnoses who received care in a VHA inpatient and/or outpatient medical facility between 2000 and 2013,
	To be eligible for the VA Musculoskeletal Disorders Cohort, a veteran had to have one of 1,685 distinct International Classification of Diseases, 9 <sup>th</sup> revision, Clinical Modification (ICD-9CM) diagnoses representing a musculoskeletal disorder recorded at $\geq$ 2 outpatient visits occurring within 18 months of one another or at $\geq$ 1 inpatient stay.
	Additional demographic and clinical information was extracted from VHA electronic clinical and administrative data sources in the Corporate Data Warehouse (CDW) for all eligible Veterans both prior to and following the date of their first MSD diagnosis (index date) to enable the analysis of longitudinal outcomes.
	Inclusion criteria:
	Veterans that entered the MSD cohort in 2008 and received an opioid prescription in 2010.
	Exclusion criteria:
	Veterans under 65 years of age, not eligible for Medicare part D, without an opioid prescription in 2010 and those who died during the study period.
	Characteristics:
	Mean age: 75; 83.6% white; 98.3% male; 58% reported no or mild pain intensity on the NRS at MSD index date (2008); BMI mean (SD): 29.18 (5.8)
	Median IQR number of prescriptions: 2 (1-6) in VHA only, 2 (1-5) in CMS only, 9 (4-15) in those who used both VHA and CMS
	MSD diagnoses: non-traumatic joint, back pain, osteoarthritis, fracture, gout, neck pain, fibromyalgia, temporomandibular joint pain

Reference	Chui 2018 <sup>68</sup>
	Opioid medications included: codeine, fentanyl, hydrocodone, hydromorphone, levorphanol, meperidine, morphine, oxycodone, oxymorphone, pentazocine, propoxyphene, tapentadol and tramadol.
Prognostic variables	Age: 65-74 years (referent) vs 75-84 years vs 85+ years old
	Non-white race vs white race (referent)
	Female sex vs male sex (referent)
	Moderate to severe pain intensity (pain scale 4-10)
	Charlson comorbidity index (CCI) 2+ vs CCI score 0-1 (referent)
	Substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders)
	PTSD
	Major depression
	Dual Use of VHA and Medicare part D (Veterans were identified as VHA only if they did not have any Medicare opioid prescription in 2010, Medicare only if all of their opioid prescriptions were from Medicare providers or dual use if they received opioid prescriptions from both VHA and Medicare in 2010)
Confounders	Demographic and clinical characteristics: Age, sex and ethnicity (at index date), moderate-to-severe pain intensity (pain score from 4 to 10 at the pain intensity numerical rating scale (NRS)) in 2008; co morbid diagnoses recorded ≥2 outpatient visits or ≥1 inpatient stay up to 12 months before or 6 months after the MSD index date; overall clinical severity (Charlson comorbidity index-CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)
	At index date.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (prescription starting before the end-date of a prior prescription, inclusive of prescriptions outside the VHA):
	OR 0.81 (95% CI 0.75 to 0.87) for age 75-84 years old vs 65-74 years
	OR 0.83 (95% CI 0.74 to 0.92) for age 85+ years old vs 65-74 years
	OR 0.77 (95% CI 0.71 to 0.84) for non-white vs white race
	OR 0.97 (95% 0.75 to 1.24) for female sex vs male sex
	OR 1.40 (95% 1.31 to 1.49) for moderate-to-severe pain intensity (NRS score 4-10)
	OR 0.96 (95% 0.90 to 1.03) for overall clinical severity: CCI 2+ versus CCI score 0-1

Reference	Chui 2018 <sup>68</sup>
	OR 1.18 (95% 1.05 to 1.33) for substance use disorder
	OR 0.94 (95% 0.82 to 1.05) for PTSD
	OR 1.32 (95% CI 1.15 to 1.52) for major depression
	OR 5.28 (95% CI 4.60 to 6.05) for dual use of VHA and Medicare part D
	Median (IQR) number of prescriptions: 9 (4-15) in those with dual use vs 2 (1-6) in VHA only and 2 (1-5) in Medicare only.
Funding	The Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans Health Administration, Office of Research and Development, and Health Services Research and Development, and Office of Academic Affairs HSR&D Fellowship
Comments	Low risk of bias for all other risk factors as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Cook 2018 <sup>76</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort with multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression model
Number of participants	N=11,663 Benzodiazepine users
and characteristics	White: n= 7179; Black: n= 1265; Latino: n= 2854; Asian: n= 365 Sex: 65% female
	Substance use disorder diagnosis:
	Alcohol: 17%; Marijuana: 2%; Cocaine: 11%; Opioid: 32%; Tobacco: 25%; pain medication: 44%
	Mental health disorder diagnosis:
	Depression: 31%; Anxiety: 45%; Bipolar: 8%; Psychosis: 3%; PTSD: 11%; Sleeping disturbance: 12%
	BZD dependence diagnosis: 2.2%
	Data source:
	Electronic health records from an urban healthcare system in New England, serving predominantly low SES, publicly insured and racial/ethnic/linguistic minority populations. The healthcare system has a network of three hospitals and fifteen community-based clinics that provide primary care, inpatient and outpatient specialty mental health care and intensive outpatient substance use treatment. The data included medication events in the 32 months between January 2013 and September 2015. Diagnoses were identified from outpatient and inpatient primary care and specialty treatment.
	Inclusion criteria:

Reference	Cook 2018 <sup>76</sup>
	Age 18 years or over with at least 3 visits to primary care during the 32-month period with 1 or more benzodiazepine prescription
	Exclusion criteria:
	Received a diagnosis of benzodiazepine use disorder before the first recorded benzodiazepine prescription
	Additional characteristics:
	Mean (SD) age: 49.8 (16.6); mean (SD) number of BZD prescriptions: 4.6 (7.1)
Prognostic variables	Race (referent = white)
	Sex (referent = female)
	Age (referent = 18-24)
	Substance use diagnosis (vs no diagnosis)
	Mental health disorder diagnosis (vs no diagnosis)
Confounders	Regression model adjusted for: substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Diagnosis of benzodiazepine dependence subsequent to receiving a prescription, defined as a diagnosis of dependence on a sedative, hypnotic or anxiolytic (ICD-9).
	For the main evidence review sections confidence intervals have been calculated using the standard errors (SEs) reported in the paper
	Race (referent = white)
	- Black: HR 0.18 (SE 0.08)
	- Latino: HR 0.20 (SE 0.08)
	- Asian: HR 0.43 (SE 0.28)
	Sex (referent = female)
	- HR: 1.33 (SE 0.45)
	Age (referent = 18-24)
	- 25-34: HR 1.23 (SE 0.64)
	- 35-44: HR 0.66 (SE 0.35)

Reference	Cook 2018 <sup>76</sup>
	- 45-54: HR 0.87 (SE 0.44)
	- 55-64: HR 1.08 (SE 0.54)
	- 65+: HR 1.47 (SE 0.74)
	Substance use diagnosis (vs no diagnosis)
	- Alcohol: HR 0.77 (SE 0.13)
	- Marijuana: HR 0.28 (SE 0.16)
	- Cocaine: HR 1.13 (SE 0.18)
	- Opioid: HR 3.90 (SE 0.61)
	- Tobacco: HR 2.08 (SE 0.29)
	- Pain meds: HR 0.71 (SE 0.10)
	- 2+ SUD: HR 2.03 (SE 0.34)
	Mental health disorder diagnosis (vs no diagnosis)
	- Depression: HR 1.43 (SE 0.19)
	- Anxiety: HR 1.60 (SE 0.23)
	- Bipolar: HR 1.02 (SE 0.20)
	- PTSD: HR 0.91 (SE 0.17)
	- Sleeping disturbance: HR 0.69 (SE 0.13)
Funding	The National Institute of Drug Abuse (country: USA)
Comments	High risk of bias across risk factors as per the QUIPS checklist.

Reference	Hoffman, 2017 <sup>113</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort; multivariable logistic regression.
Number of participants	Total cohort =1993

### DRAFT FOR CONSULTATION

Reference	Hoffman, 2017 <sup>113</sup>			
and characteristics	Duration of opioid use <90 days, n=1452			
	Duration of opioid use ≥90 days, n=541			
	Inclusion criteria:			
	People with polyneuropathy receiving 90 or	more consecutive days of opioid therapy		
	Exclusion criteria:			
	Not reported			
	Characteristics & data source:			
	People who resided in Olmsted County, Minnesota from January 1 2006 to December 31 2010, identified by the Rochester Epidemiology Project database			
	Baseline characteristics	Duration of opioid use <90 days	Duration of opioid use ≥90 days	
		N=1452	N=541	
	Duration of consecutive opioids, median (IQR), d	17 (8-34)	228 (133-392)	
	Female sex, No. (%)	674 (46.4)	308 (56.9)	
	<ul> <li>Nonopioid analgesic prescriptions, No. (%)</li> <li>α2Δ antagonist</li> <li>Serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor Tricyclic antidepressant</li> <li>Topical analgesics</li> <li>Any nonopioid analgesic</li> </ul>	456 (31.4) 161 (11.1) 218 (15.0) 156 (10.7) 670 (46.1)	335 (61.9) 129 (23.8) 162 (29.9) 148 (27.4) 430 (79.5)	
	Lower limb complications, No. (%)			
	Ulcers	300 (20.7)	151 (27.9)	
	Amputations	73 (5.0)	29 (5.4)	
	Neuroma, bunion, and toe deformity	46 (3.2)	19 (3.5)	

Reference	Hoffman, 2017 <sup>113</sup>		
	Ankle fusions	10 (0.7)	5 (0.9)
Prognostic variables	Long term opioid therapy ≥90 days vs short	er term opioid therapy <90 days (referent)	
Confounders	Multivariate models were used to adjust ORs and HRs for the potentially confounding effects of Charlson Comorbidity Index comorbidities, sex and use of non-opioid analgesics, when applicable.		
Outcomes and effect sizes	Hazard ratio for outcomes of opioid dependence, opioid abuse (determined by International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification, codes) from 2006 to 2014. 'Given that HRs were used for the analysis, only incident diagnoses occurring after the initial opioid prescription were counted'.		
	Opioid dependence:		
	Adjusted HR: 2.85 (95% CI 1.54 to 5.47) for	r long term opioid therapy ≥90 vs <90 days	
	Opioid abuse:		
	Adjusted HR: 3.97 (95% CI 0.87 to 28.9) for long term opioid therapy ≥90 vs <90 days		
Funding	The Mayo Foundation for Medical Education Institutes of Health (NIH)- Funded Rochester	· •	dividualised Medicine, the National
Comments	High risk of bias for all outcomes as per the	QUIPS checklist.	

Reference	Park 2016 <sup>147</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study analysed using a Cox proportional hazards model.
Number of participants	N=847
and characteristics	Patients receiving ≥ one benzodiazepine prescription n=196 (23%)
	Patients who had ≥ two early opioid refills n=183 (22%)
	Inclusion criteria:
	Patients aged 18 to 89 years who met the following criteria during the study period from September 1, 2011 – August 31, 2012: 1)
	≥ one visit to a hospital-based primary care clinic or one of two community health centres, 2) received chronic opioid therapy for chronic non-cancer pain, previously defined as receiving ≥ 3 opioid prescriptions at least 21 days apart within a 6-month period, and 3) completed at least one urine drug test.

Reference	Park 2016 <sup>147</sup>
	Selection:
	1,285 patients received chronic opioid therapy in the 3 primary care clinics during the study period.
	325 (25%%) did not receive a drug test during the study period and thus were excluded.
	847 remaining patients constituted the final sample size.
	The study utilized de-identified data abstracted from the electronic medical record (EMR) and housed at the Boston Medical Center Clinical Data Warehouse.
	Baseline details:
	Age, mean (SD): 51 (11) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 53 (11) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Female, % (n): 58 (114) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 38 (250) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Race white, % (n): 50 (98) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 32 (207) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Charlson Comorbidity Index ≥ 1, % (n): 73 (143) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 69 (447) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Any depressive disorder, % (n): 73 (144) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 47 (307) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Any anxiety disorder, % (n): 61 (120) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 30 (197) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period
	Any drug use disorder, % (n): 67 (131) for Benzodiazepine prescription, 62 (406) for no Benzodiazepine prescription during the study period; that included opioids, cocaine, sedatives, marijuana, polysubstance and other drug abuse or dependence
	Overall, 63% had a drug use disorder diagnosis in their medical record (reported to also include opioids along with cocaine, sedatives marijuana, polysubstance and other drug abuse or dependence)
	The most common pain diagnosis was musculoskeletal (82%); Patients who received benzodiazepines were more likely to be female, white and have a diagnosis of depressive, anxiety or other psychiatric disorder.
Prognostic variable	Receipt of benzodiazepine prescription prescribed by a primary care clinician. This was treated as a time-varying variable, indicating that benzodiazepine prescription status was allowed to vary over time.
	Benzodiazepines included: alprazolam, bromazepam, chlordiazepoxide, clonazepam, clorazepate, diazepam, estazolam, flurazepam, lorazepam, midazolam, oxazepam, temazepam, and triazolam.

Reference	Park 2016 <sup>147</sup>
Confounders	Potential confounders included age, sex, race, and Medicaid insurance. Medical comorbidities were assessed using the Charlson Comorbidity Index24 and pain, and mental health and substance use disorders were also assessed. Diagnoses were obtained using ICD-9 (International Classification of Diseases, ninth edition) codes from the EMR problem list or through billing codes and included any anxiety disorder, any depressive disorder, any other psychiatric disorder (bipolar and psychotic disorders), any drug use disorder (opioids, cocaine, sedatives, marijuana, polysubstance and other drug abuse and dependence), and any alcohol use disorder (alcohol abuse and dependence). All of the above were adjusted for in the analysis.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Time to second early opioid refill prescription. Early opioid refill was defined as an opioid prescription written 7-25 days after the previous prescription for the same drug.
	Cox proportional hazards model was used to calculate the hazard of time to second early opioid refill for those in receipt of benzodiazepine prescription compared to no receipt.
	Adjusted HR 1.54 (95% CI 1.09 to 2.18) for receipt of benzodiazepine prescription compared to non-receipt of benzodiazepine prescription
Funding	The National Institute on Drug Abuse (country: USA)
Comments	Low risk of bias as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Reid 2002 <sup>152</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study and multivariate logistic regression analysis
Number of participants	N=98
and characteristics	Patients with prescription opioid abusive behaviours: n=27 (27.55%)
	Patients with lifetime history of substance use disorder: n= 41 (41.84%)
	Inclusion criteria:
	Individuals at either of two primary care practices (one at the VA Connecticut Healthcare System (VACHS) and the Primary Care Centre (PCC) located at Yale-New Haven Hospital) who received 6 or more months of opioid prescriptions during a 1-year period (April 1, 1997 through March 31, 1998) for noncancer pain and were not on methadone maintenance.
	Selection:

Reference	Reid 2002 <sup>152</sup>
	Populations were drawn from the aforementioned two primary care practices, selecting a random sample of VA patients and all PCC patients as follows.
	Potentially eligible PCC patients were identified by reviewing duplicate copies of all scheduled prescriptions written from April 1, 1997 through March 31,1998.
	N=54 PCC patients who received 6 or more months of opioid prescriptions over the 12-month period were identified.
	N=6 PCC patients were excluded due to opioid use for cancer-related pain
	N=48 PCC patients remained as the final PCC sample
	Potentially eligible VA patients were identified through searching the VA pharmacy computer records.
	N=392 VA patients who received 6 or more months of opioid prescriptions over the 12-month period were identified.
	N=60 potentially eligible VA patients were randomly sampled in order to obtain a final similar number of 50 participants (representing the expected total number of eligible PCC patients)
	N=9 VA patients were ineligible due to the use of an opioid medication for cancer-related pain and n=1 was on methadone maintenance.
	N=50 VA patients remained as the final VA sample.
	Baseline details:
	VA population median age (range): 54 (33 to 84); 92% male; 88% white; type of chronic pain: 44% low back pain; median (range) duration of pain: 10 (3 to 50) years; psychiatric comorbidity: 44% depression, 20% anxiety; lifetime history of substance use disorder: alcohol abuse/dependence: 46%, narcotic abuse/dependence 18%; medical diseases mean (SD): 2 (1.5)
	PCC population median age (range): 55 (26 to 80); 33% male; 52% white; type of chronic pain: 25% low back pain; median (range) duration of pain: 13 (1 to 49) years; psychiatric comorbidity: 54% depression, 21% anxiety; lifetime history of substance use disorder: alcohol abuse/dependence: 31%, narcotic abuse/dependence 38%; medical diseases mean (SD): 2 (1.6)
	A lifetime history of substance use disorder was recorded for 23 VA and 18 PCC patients, among whom evidence in support of a current (i.e., occurring while on opioids) substance disorder was found in 9 VA and 5 PCC patient records
	Most frequently prescribed types of opioids: oxydocodone/acetaminophen (short-acting opioid) and extended-release morphine sulfate (long-acting opioid)
	Of the total sample N=98, most patients (n=88) were prescribed daily doses, while n=10 received as-needed doses of opioids (e.g., for chronic headache).

Reference	Reid 2002 <sup>152</sup>
Prognostic variables	Age
	Number of medical diseases (mean number of individual chronic medical diseases determined by the unweighted Charlson Index)
	Lifetime history of substance use disorder (demonstrated by 1 or more of the following: 1) admission for detoxification e.g., alcohol, cocaine or referral for detoxification that was declined by the patient, 2) testing positive for other substances e.g., elevated blood alcohol level or urine screen positive for cocaine and 3) recorded episodes of alcohol abuse or dependence.)
Confounders	The confounders are not specified in the study
Outcomes and effect sizes	Prescription opioid abuse behaviour (included reports of lost or stolen opioid medication or prescriptions, documentation that patients were using multiple sources to obtain opioid medication or requests for 2 or more early refills). Median time to onset of prescription opioid abuse behaviours was 24 months (range 3 to 72 months)
	Adjusted OR 0.94 (95% CI 0.89 to 0.99) for age
	Adjusted OR 0.72 (95% CI 0.45 to 1.1) for number of medical diseases
	Adjusted OR 3.8 (95% CI 1.4 to 10.8) for lifetime history of substance use disorder
Funding	Advanced Career Development Award from the Department of Veteran Affairs Health Services Research Division, Robert Wood Johnson Foundation Generalist Physician Faculty Scholar Award, Paul Beeson Physician Faculty Scholar in Aging Research Award (country: USA)
Comments	High risk of bias for age as per the QUIPS checklist
	Very high risk of bias for history of substance use disorder as per the QUIPS checklist
	High risk of bias for number of medical diseases as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Seal 2012 <sup>158</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort and Poison regression with robust error variance.
Number of participants and characteristics	Total sample N= 15,676 N= 7983 had PTSD
	N= 3205 had other metal health diagnoses but not PTSD
	N=4488 without a mental health diagnosis

Reference	Seal 2012 <sup>158</sup>
	N= 4595 had an early opioid refill
	Inclusion: veterans who entered VA health care from October 1, 2005, through December 31, 2008. Iraq and Afghanistan veterans who received a
	new non-cancer-pain diagnosis within 1 year of VA entry. Veterans were required to have at least 1 opioid prescription for a minimum of 20
	consecutive days in the first year of pain diagnosis.
	Exclusion: not reported
	Characteristics & data source: participants were identified from the national VA's OEF/OIF roster, an accruing national database of veterans who have separated from military service and have enrolled in Veterans Affairs health care. The roster data were linked to 2 other VA administrative
	databases: the VA National Patient Care Database to obtain information on VA clinical visits and associated clinical diagnoses and the VA decision
	support system to obtain detailed VA pharmacy records.
	Baseline characteristics reported for wider population of veterans with an index pain diagnosis, not reported for those with an index pain
	diagnosis and who had received prescription opioids for 20 or more consecutive days
Prognostic variables	No mental health diagnosis (referent) vs mental health diagnosis:
	-PTSD diagnosis with and without other mental health diagnoses (depressive, anxiety, alcohol use, drug use disorders and traumatic brain injury)Other mental health diagnoses excluding PTSD
Confounders	Confounding variables included sociodemographic (i.e., age, sex, race/ethnicity, marital status, VA facility type - medical centre vs community
	clinic) and military service characteristics (i.e., component, rank, service branch, and number of deployments)
Outcomes and effect sizes	Early opioid refills (obtaining the same opioid prescription for more than 7 days before the end of the prior prescription), used as a proxy for high-risk opioid behaviour in the study, determined by reviewer to be a surrogate measure of opioid misuse/dependence (as also used by other studies)
	Adjusted RR 1.50 (95% CI 1.39-1.62) for mental health diagnosis without PTSD
	Adjusted RR 1.64 (95% CI 1.53-1.75) for PTSD with or without other mental health diagnosis vs no mental health diagnosis

Reference	Seal 2012 <sup>158</sup>
	Concurrent opioids (>7 days overlap):
	Adjusted RR 1.62 (95% CI 1.44 to 1.81) for mental health diagnosis without PTSD
	Adjusted RR 1.87 (95% CI 1.70 to 2.06) for PTSD with or without other mental health diagnosis vs no mental health diagnosis
	Note: study also gives relative risks for the outcomes of highest quintile of average daily opioid use ( $\geq$ 33 mg/d) , duration of opioid use $\geq$ 2 months and concurrent sedative hypnotics.
Funding	The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) Health Services Research and Development (HSRD) Research Enhancement Award Program at the San Francisco VA Medical Centre, VA HSRD Career Development Awards and the National Institutes of Health, National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute (country: USA)
Comments	Very high risk of bias across risk factors and outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Tvete 2016 <sup>169</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort (observational prescription registry) study with cox proportional hazard regression model analysis
Number of participants	N= 19,747 new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam
and characteristics	N=15,927 (80.7%) started on diazepam
	Of these: n=5998 (37.7%) were male; previous medication: 19.2% antidepressants and lithium, 5.3% antipsychotics, 0.6% opioids, anti-alcohol and smoking cessation drugs, 21.8% drugs for cardiac disease, 6.3% drugs for rheumatic diseases, 10.3% drugs for COPD
	N=19,946 (68.7%) had high education
	N=5943 (37.3%) had low income; n=6663 (41.8%) had average income; n=3321 (20.9%) had high income
	N=5309 (33.3%) worked in the private sector; n=5902 (37.1%) worked in the public sector; n=4715 (29.6%) bot registered
	N=3820 (19.3%) started on oxazepam
	Of these: n=1629 (42.6%) were male; previous medication: 26.8% antidepressants and lithium, 9.1% antipsychotics, 1.7% opioids, anti-alcohol and smoking cessation drugs, 22.8% drugs for cardiac disease, 5.2% drugs for rheumatic diseases, 10.8% drugs for COPD
	N=2509 (65.7%) had high education

Reference	Tvete 2016 <sup>169</sup>
	N=1657 (43.4%) had low income; n=1443 (37.8%) had average income; n=720 (18.8%) had high income
	N=1080 (28.3%) worked in the private sector; n=1330 (34.8%) worked in the public sector; n=1410 (36.9%) bot registered
	Data source:
	Data on prescription fulfilments were extracted from the Norwegian Prescription Registry (NorPD) linked with socio-economic data from Statistics Norway (SSB)
	Inclusion and exclusion criteria:
	Norwegian inhabitants aged 30-60 years who had a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam during 2006, without redemptions for alprazolam, nitrazepam, flunitrazepam, hydroxyzine or buspirone from January 2004 to December 2005; the first redemption being between 10 and 30 defined daily doses and average defined daily dose per day redeemed in the first three months <1. Individuals who died during the observation period and individuals whose education level was registered is SSB were excluded.
	Baseline details:
	Diazepam group: mean age: 46.75 years
	Oxazepam group: mean age :47.29 years
Prognostic variables	Sex: female vs male (referent)
	Age (continuous)
	First BZD: oxazepam vs diazepam (referent)
	Previous medication: antidepressants and lithium, antipsychotics, opioids, anti-alcohol, and smoking cessation drugs, drugs and rheumatic diseases, drugs for Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)
	Education: high (upper secondary school or higher) vs Low (until lower secondary school) (referent)
	Income: low (referent; equivalent of14500 GBP) vs average (equivalent of 22000GBP) vs high (equivalent of 29000 GBP or higher)
	Type of work: private sector, public sector vs no registration (referent: e.g., unemployment, working from home, being ill and/or disabled)
Confounders	Socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors

Reference	Tvete 2016 <sup>169</sup>							
Outcomes and effect sizes	Time to reach consumption level 2: redemption of ≥1 defined daily doses on average per day over a 3-month period (from a starting point of <1 defined daily doses on average per day in the first 3 months). This outcome was defined as dose escalation which is considered a measure of drug misuse/ dependence by the primary study.							
	HR 0.571 (95% CI 0.505 to 0.645) for male vs female							
	HR 0.984 (95% CI 0.977 to 0.99) for age (continuous)							
	HR 1.328 (95% CI 1.167 to 1.512) for first BZD prescription: oxazepam vs diazepam							
	HR 1.687 (95% CI 1.491 to 1.91) for previous medication: antidepressants and lithium							
	HR 1.753 (95% CI 1.488 to 2.066) for previous medication: antipsychotics							
	HR 3.042 (95% CI 2.285 to 4.049) for previous medication: opioids, anti-alcohol and smoking cessation drugs							
	HR 1.216 (95% CI 0.968 to 1.529) for previous medication: drugs for rhematic diseases							
	HR 1.288 (95% CI 1.089 to 1.523) for previous medication: drugs for COPD							
	HR 0.647 (95% 0.574 to 0.73) for education high vs low							
	HR 0.719 (95% CI 0.615 to 0.841) for average income vs low							
	HR 0.569 (95% CI 0.453 to 0.714) for high income vs low							
	HR 0.622 (95% CI 0.520 to 0.743) for type of work: private sector vs no registration							
	HR 0.613 (95% CI 0.518 to 0.725) for type of work: public sector vs no registration							
Funding	The Norwegian Research council (project number 190420/V50)							
Comments	High risk of bias for all risk factors as per the QUIPS checklist							

Reference	Udayachalerm 2021 <sup>170</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study, Cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection
Number of participants	Total N=341, 722
and characteristics	N= 274,272 opioids only
	N= 67,450 benzodiazepine cohort (opioids and benzodiazepines)

Reference	Udayachalerm 2021 <sup>170</sup>
	Baseline characteristics (N=341, 722):
	Mean age (SD): 52.31 years (18.11); Female: 58.5%
	White: n=226,728, Black: n=30,578, Hispanic/Latino: n=1543, Asian: n=907, Native Hawaiian and other pacific Islanders: n=887, American Indian and Alaska Native: n=245, Others: n=11,530
	Charlson Comorbidity index score: Score 0= 178,025 and score 1-10=93,815
	Mental health conditions: 73,515
	Patients receiving medication for OUD: n=2270
	Short-acting opioids only: n=334,243, long-acting only: n=348; short-acting and long-acting within 30 days: n=6301, short-acting and long-acting not within 30d: n=830
	Concurrent medications with opioids: None (opioid only): n=275, 355, Benzodiazepine: n=34,829, Gabapentin/pregabalin: n=21,714, benzodiazepine and gabapentin/pregabalin within 30 days: n=7561; benzodiazepine and gabapentin/pregabalin not within 30 days: n=2263
	Data source:
	The study used medical, pharmacy, and encounter data contained within the Indiana Network for Patient Care (INPC) from 1 January 2012 to 31 December 2017. INPC, managed by Regenstrief Institute, is a state-wide health Information exchange that captures and stores clinical data for most of Indiana's health systems, hospital, clinics, and providers, with data for more than 18 million patients. Most clinical data are from electronic health record entries. Pharmacy prescription data are contributed from Surescripts, a health information network that connects more than 95% of US pharmacies.
	Inclusion criteria:
	At least 18 years old, opioid naïve (no prior opioid prescription in the past 12 months) and had an opioid index date (first date of opioid prescription) within the study period. Had at least 6 months of available data from index date.
	Exclusion criteria:
	Diagnoses of cancer, dementia, or chronic liver disease and those who used medication for OUD at baseline.
	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.
	Baseline: long term use 6.94% (long term use indicates patients who had a cumulative opioid days' supply of at least 90 days within 6 months after the index opioid prescription).
Prognostic variable	Number days' supply (continuous)

Reference	Udayachalerm 2021 <sup>170</sup>
	Opioid dosage, MME/d (continuous) (opioid dosage in milligrams was converted to morphine milligram equivalents (MME) by multiplying the dose in milligrams (average of all opioid medications prescribed for the person before the outcome occurred) with the conversion factor. Further converted to MME/d using formula (opioid dose in milligrams x MME conversion factor x dispensed amount)/ (number of days' supply)
	Concurrent short-acting (SA)/long-acting (LA) opioids:
	Concurrent use of SA and LA opioids within 30 days vs SA alone (referent)
	Concurrent use of SA and LA opioids not within 30 days vs SA alone (referent)
	Long acting only vs SA alone (referent)
	Concurrent medications with opioids:
	Concurrent use of benzodiazepines vs none – opioids only (referent)
	Concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin vs opioids only (referent)
	Concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/ pregabalin within 30 days vs opioids only (referent)
	Concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/ pregabalin not within 30 days vs opioids only (referent)
Confounders	Analyses adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities.
Outcomes and effect sizes	Composite outcome (any combination of opioid abuse, dependence, or overdose): created using ICD-9 and ICD-10 codes and defined as having a diagnosis of any combination of opioid abuse, dependence, or overdose within the study period (n=208,959), Incidence was 1.90 per 1000 person-years for the full patient cohort
	Note: the primary study also reports results for this outcome for other prognostic factors such as age and gender in table 3. However, the methods suggests that only those variables listed as 'independent variables' in the methods section are adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities. It is not clear whether the other HRs in table 3 are adjusted for age, sex, race and comorbidities, and therefore, only those variables listed as 'independent variables' in the methods have been extracted.
	Composite outcome (any combination of opioid abuse, dependence, or overdose):
	Adjusted HR: 1.025 (95% CI 1.019-1.032) for number of days' supply
	Adjusted HR: 1.003 (95% CI 1.001-1.006) for opioid dosage (MME/d)
	Adjusted HR: 2.12 (1.78-2.54) for concurrent use of SA and LA opioids within 30 days vs SA alone
	Adjusted HR: 1.99 (1.24-3.18) for concurrent use of SA and LA opioids not within 30 days vs SA alone
	Adjusted HR: 2.17 (0.81-5.86) for LA alone vs SA alone

Reference	Udayachalerm 2021 <sup>170</sup>
	Adjusted HR: 1.38 (1.17-1.61) for concurrent use of benzodiazepines vs opioid alone
	Adjusted HR: 1.54 (1.29-1.84) for concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin vs opioid alone
	Adjusted HR: 1.68 (1.38-2.04) for concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/ pregabalin within 30 days vs opioid alone
	Adjusted HR: 1.66 (1.24-2.22) for concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/ pregabalin not within 30 days vs opioid alone
	Note: study also gives results for the outcomes of abuse and dependence separately. However, it is unclear from the methods in the primary study whether these HRs were adjusted for confounders, therefore the results for the composite outcome only were used.
Funding	Regenstrief Foundation Grant
Comments	High risk of bias for all risk factors and outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist

Reference	Zhang 2018 <sup>180</sup>
Study type and analysis	Retrospective cohort study and linear probability models
Number of participants	N= 196,375 privately insured adults aged 18 to 64 years
and characteristics	N= 63,419 Medicare advantage patients aged 65 or older
	Only results for the privately insured patients aged 18 to 64 years are presented in the paper, hence only characteristics relevant to them have been extracted.
	Features of the first opioid prescription:
	Short vs long-acting opioids: 99.1% were prescribed a short-acting opioid during their first prescription
	Daily average MMEs: 32.2% <30, 41.2% 30-50, 26.7% ≥ 50
	Days of opioid supply: 40.2% ≤3 days, 41.6% 4-7 days, 18.3% > 7 days' supply
	Data source:
	The study used data from the 2011-2014 Health Care Cost Institute (HCCI) insurance claims database, including claims from private insurance plans and Medicare Advantage plans. Privately insured adults aged 18-64 and Medicate Advantage patients aged 65 or older who did not have recent use of prescription opioids (period of 6-months without any opioid prescription) and filled an opioid prescription between July 1st 2011 and June 30 <sup>th</sup> 2013.

Reference	Zhang 2018 <sup>180</sup>						
	Inclusion criteria:						
	At least 6 months of continuous enrolment in a private healthcare plan or a MA plan contributing data to HCCI prior to the months of their first opioid prescription (the index month) and continuously enrolled for at least 18 months after the index month						
	Exclusion criteria:						
	A cancer diagnosis in the 6 months prior to the index month						
	Characteristics:						
	Age: 35.5% aged 18-34; 23.4% aged 35-44; 24.3% aged 45-54 and 16.9% aged 55-64; 55.3% female; 11.5% back pain, 5.3% neck pain, 23% arthritis, 12.8% other pain; 12.6% had a mental health disorder; 0.6% had an alcohol use disorder; 0.5% had a drug use disorder; 2.2% had a tobacco use disorder						
	Of the 340,629 patient-quarters with at least 1 day of opioid use, 4% had overlapping opioid prescriptions, 6.7% had overlapping opioid-benzodiazepine prescriptions, 2.5% had three or more prescribers and 4.2% had 120 or more daily average MMEs.						
	Indirectness: Proportion of those treated with opioids for chronic pain was unclear.						
Prognostic variable	Duration of action of the first opioid prescription: long vs short acting status (referent)						
	Dosage of the first opioid prescription: daily average (morphine milligram equivalents) MMEs: <30 (referent) vs ≥30 but <50 or ≥50						
	Days of supply of the first opioid prescription: ≤ 3days (referent) vs 4-7 days and > 7 days						
Confounders	Analyses controlled for ordinal indicators of the quarters (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes.						
Outcomes and effect sizes	Results were reported as percentage point increase compared to the reference category. Risk differences have been calculated using the confidence intervals. These are similar to the percentage point increases reported which had however been rounded to the nearest whole number. Thus, the confidence intervals, which were exact were used to get the risk difference as a more approximate measure.						
	High-risk opioid use:						
	Overlapping opioid prescriptions for 7 days or more (across the six 3-month quarters following the first prescription):						
	Risk difference 14.70 (95% CI 12.7 to 16.7) for long vs short acting opioids in the first prescription						
	Risk difference 6.65 (95% CI 6.3 to 7) for >7 days vs ≤3 days opioid supply in the first prescription						

Reference	Zhang 2018 <sup>180</sup>
	Risk difference 5.65 (95% CI 5.3 to 6) for >7 days vs 4-7 days opioid supply in the first prescription
	Three or more prescribers of opioids (across the six 3-month quarters following the first prescription):
	Risk difference 1.8 (95% CI 0.9 to 2.7) for long vs short acting opioids in the first prescription
Funding	Centre for Health Economics of Treatment Interventions for Substance Use Disorder, HCV and HIV (CHERISH), the National Institute on Drug Abuse Centre of Excellence (country: USA), the National Institute of Mental Health, the National Institute on Aging, the New York State Health foundation, the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality and the Weill Cornell Medical College Department of Healthcare Policy and Research.
Comments	Very high risk of bias for all risk factors and outcomes as per the QUIPS checklist

### 1 Appendix E Forest plots

### 2 E.1 Opioids

- 3 E.1.1 Age
- 4

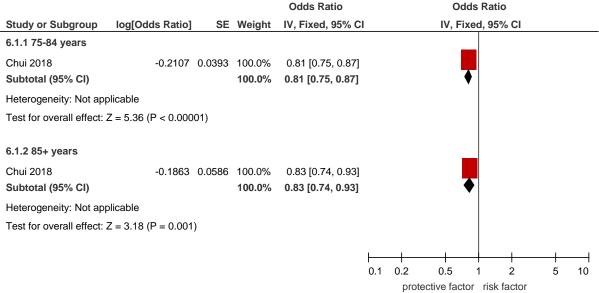
#### Figure 2: Age ≤40 (compared to >40) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio		Ha	zard Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV, F	ixed, 95% Cl		
Chenaf 2016 a	1.9865 0.	.2717	100.0%	7.29 [4.28, 12.42]					
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	7.29 [4.28, 12.42]					
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				0.05		1	<u>_</u>	
Test for overall effect:	Z = 7.31 (P < 0.00001)				0.05	0.2 protective fac	tor risk facto	5 or	20

### Figure 3: Age continuous: increasing (compared to decreasing) for predicting prescription opioid abuse

				Odds Ratio			Oc	lds Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Reid 2002	-0.0619	0.0279	100.0%	0.94 [0.89, 0.99]							
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.94 [0.89, 0.99]				♦			
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				H			+		<u> </u>	
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2.22$ (P = 0.03)			0.1	0.2 prote	0.5 ective fact	1 tor ris	2 k factor	5	10		

## Figure 4: Age (compared to 65-74 years) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescription



Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 0.12$ , df = 1 (P = 0.73), I<sup>2</sup> = 0%

### Figure 5: Age (compared to >64 years) for predicting shopping behaviour

				Odds Ratio		Odds Ratio	
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C		IV, Fixed, 95% CI	
7.1.1 <18 years							
Cepeda 2014	-0.1054	0.2999	100.0%	0.90 [0.50, 1.62]			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.90 [0.50, 1.62]		$\bullet$	
Heterogeneity: Not app	plicable						
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.35 (P = 0.73)						
7.1.2 18-39 years							
Cepeda 2014	2.2824	0.11	100.0%	9.80 [7.90, 12.16]			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	9.80 [7.90, 12.16]		•	
Heterogeneity: Not app	plicable						
Test for overall effect:	Z = 20.75 (P < 0.00	001)					
7.1.3 40-64 years							
Cepeda 2014	1.5261	0.0975	100.0%	4.60 [3.80, 5.57]			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	4.60 [3.80, 5.57]		•	
Heterogeneity: Not app	plicable						
Test for overall effect:	Z = 15.65 (P < 0.00	001)					
					1		
					0.05	0.2 1 5	20
						Protective factor Risk factor	
Test for subgroup diffe	erences: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 66.9	7, df = 2	(P < 0.00	001), l <sup>2</sup> = 97.0%			

				Odds Ratio		Odds	Ratio	
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C		IV, Fixed	d, 95% Cl	
7.2.1 <18 years						_		
Cepeda 2014	-0.3567	0.4323	100.0%	0.70 [0.30, 1.63]				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.70 [0.30, 1.63]				
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable							
Test for overall effect: Z	Z = 0.83 (P = 0.41)							
7.2.2 18-39 years								_
Cepeda 2014	2.6319	0.1102	100.0%	13.90 [11.20, 17.25]				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	13.90 [11.20, 17.25]				$\bullet$
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable							
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 23.88 (P < 0.000	01)						
7.2.3 40-64 years								
Cepeda 2014	1.9021	0.1007	100.0%	6.70 [5.50, 8.16]				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	6.70 [5.50, 8.16]				
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable							
Test for overall effect: Z	Z = 18.89 (P < 0.000	01)						
					<b> </b>			
					0.05	0.2	1 5	20
Test for subgroup differ	ences: Chi² = 58.79	, df = 2	(P < 0.00	001), l² = 96.6%		Protective factor	Risk factor	

#### Figure 6: Age (compared to >64 years) for predicting opioid abuse

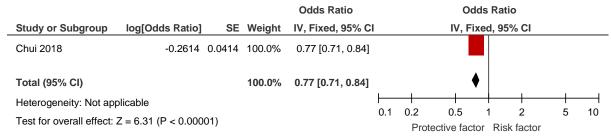
### Figure 7: Age (compared to ≥50 years) for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio		На	zard Ratio	
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I	IV, F	Fixed, 95% CI	
8.1.1 <40 years								
Chenaf 2016 b	2.0015	0.4959	100.0%	7.40 [2.80, 19.56]				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	7.40 [2.80, 19.56]				
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable							
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 4.04 (P < 0.0001)							
8.1.2 40-50								
Chenaf 2016 b	1.0296	0.5253	100.0%	2.80 [1.00, 7.84]				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	2.80 [1.00, 7.84]				
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable							
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 1.96 (P = 0.05)							
					0.05	0.2	1 5	20
Test for subaroup differ	rences: Chi² – 1.81, d	lf = 1 (P	= 0.18) 14	2 = 44.8%		Protective fac	ctor Risk factor	

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 1.81$ , df = 1 (P = 0.18), l<sup>2</sup> = 44.8%

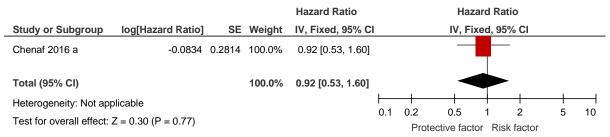
### 3 E.1.2 Family background

### Figure 8: Family background: white (compared to non-white) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions



#### 1 E.1.3 Gender

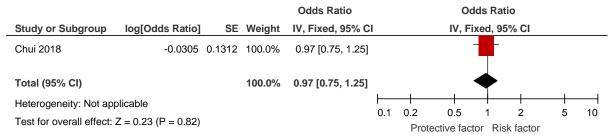
## Figure 9: Gender: female (compared to male) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour



# Figure 10: Gender: female (compared to male) for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour

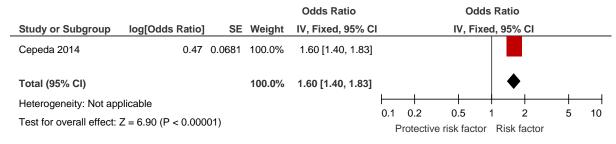
				Hazard Ratio			Haz	zard Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	ixed, 9	5% CI		
Chenaf 2016 b	0.47	0.4218	100.0%	1.60 [0.70, 3.66]			-			_	
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	1.60 [0.70, 3.66]			-			•	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				$\vdash$					— <del> </del>	+
<b>o</b> , 11					0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	Z = 1.11 (P = 0.27)					Prote	ective fac	tor Ris	k factor		

### Figure 11: Gender: female (compared to male) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescription

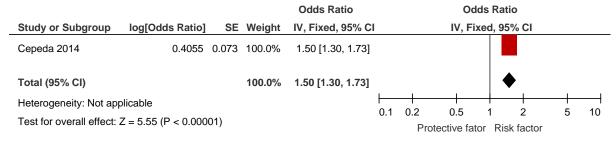


<sup>2</sup> 

#### Figure 12: Gender: male (compared to female) for predicting shopping behaviour



#### Figure 13: Gender: male (compared to female) for predicting opioid abuse



#### 4 E.1.4 Low-income status

### Figure 14: Low income status (compared to no low-income status) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio			Haz	zard Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Chenaf 2016 a	0.5596	0.3064	100.0%	1.75 [0.96, 3.19]							
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	1.75 [0.96, 3.19]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable										
0 7 11					0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	L = 1.03 (P = 0.07)					Prote	ective fac	tor Ris	k factor		

### Figure 15: Low-income status (compared to no low-income status) for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio		I	Hazard Ratio	>	
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	l	IV	, Fixed, 95%	CI	
Chenaf 2016 b	2.1401	0.4383	100.0%	8.50 [3.60, 20.07]					-
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	8.50 [3.60, 20.07]					
Heterogeneity: Not app					+ 0.05	0.2	1	5	20
Test for overall effect:	Z = 4.88 (P < 0.0000)	1)				Protective	factor Risk	factor	

#### 1 E.1.5 Pain intensity

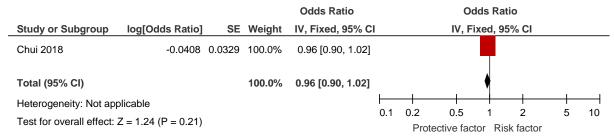
#### 2

# Figure 16: Moderate-to-severe pain intensity: NRS score 4-10 (compared to lower score) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions

			Odds Ratio			Oc	lds Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	I		IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Chui 2018	0.3365 0.033	89 100.0%	1.40 [1.31, 1.50]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.40 [1.31, 1.50]					•		
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable			0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	
Test for overall effect:	Z = 9.93 (P < 0.00001)			0.1		ective fact	tor Ris	sk factor	5	10

#### 3 E.1.6 Clinical severity

# Figure 17: Clinical severity: Charlson comorbidity index +2 (compared to lower score) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions



# Figure 18: Number of medical diseases (mean, determined by the unweighted Charlson Index) for predicting prescription opioid abuse

			Odds Ratio			Oc	lds Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Reid 2002	-0.3285 0.239	8 100.0%	0.72 [0.45, 1.15]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.72 [0.45, 1.15]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable			-	_			_		
<b>3 3 1</b>				0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 1.37 (P = 0.17)				Prote	ective fac	tor Ri	sk factor		

6

#### 7 E.1.7 History of opioid use disorder

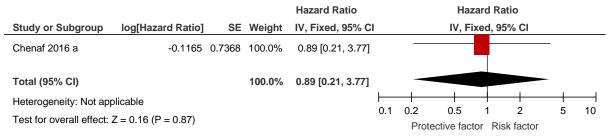
<sup>4</sup> 

### Figure 19: History of opioid use disorder (compared to no history of disorder) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio		ŀ	lazard Ratio	)	
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl		IV,	Fixed, 95%	CI	
Chenaf 2016 a	0.2231	0.9612	100.0%	1.25 [0.19, 8.22]					
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	1.25 [0.19, 8.22]					
Heterogeneity: Not app					0.05	0.2	1		20
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.23 (P = 0.82)					Protective f	actor Risk f	actor	

#### 1 E.1.8 History of substance use disorder/abuse of non-opioid drugs

# Figure 20: History of substance use disorder for non-opioids (compared to history of disorder) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour



# Figure 21: Lifetime history of substance use disorder (compared to no history of disorder) for predicting prescription opioid abuse behaviour

				Odds Ratio			Od	ds Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Reid 2002	1.335	0.5095	100.0%	3.80 [1.40, 10.32]							
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	3.80 [1.40, 10.32]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable				⊢ 0.1	0.2	0.5	1			10
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 2.62 (P = 0.009	)			0.1		ective fact	or Ri	z sk factor	5	10

# Figure 22: Substance use disorder (at index date; compared to no substance use disorder) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions

			Odds Ratio			Oc	lds Ra	tio	
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI	
Chui 2018	0.1655 0.059	6 100.0%	1.18 [1.05, 1.33]						
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.18 [1.05, 1.33]				•		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable			⊢ 0.1	0.2	0.5		2	   10
Test for overall effect:	Z = 2.78 (P = 0.005)				Prote	ective fact	tor Ris	sk factor	

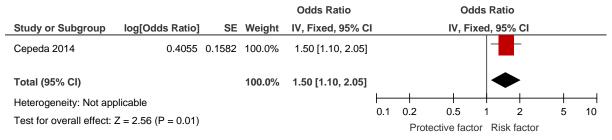
139

<sup>2</sup> 

### Figure 23: History of abuse of non-opioid drugs (compared to no history of abuse) for predicting shopping behaviour

				Odds Ratio			Od	lds Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Cepeda 2014	0.4055	0.2069	100.0%	1.50 [1.00, 2.25]							
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	1.50 [1.00, 2.25]							
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				$\vdash$			-			
Toot for overall effect:					0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	z = 1.90 (P = 0.05)					Prote	ective fact	or Ris	sk factor		

### Figure 24: History of abuse of non-opioid drugs (compared to no history of abuse) for predicting opioid abuse



#### 3 E.1.9 Active chronic liver disease

#### 4

### Figure 25: Active chronic liver disease (compared to no liver disease) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

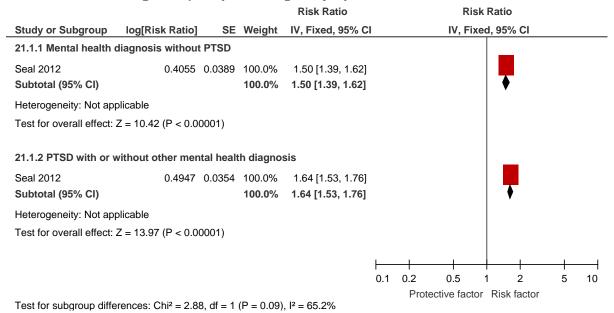
			Hazard Ratio			Ha	zard Ra	atio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I		IV, F	ixed, 9	5% CI		
Chenaf 2016 a	0.7372 0	).62 100.0%	2.09 [0.62, 7.05]			_				-
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	2.09 [0.62, 7.05]			-				-
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable			H						
Test for overall effect:	7 – 1 10 (P – 0 23)			0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
rest for overall effect.	L = 1.13 (1 = 0.23)		Protective factor Risk factor							

#### 5 E.1.10 Mental health disorders

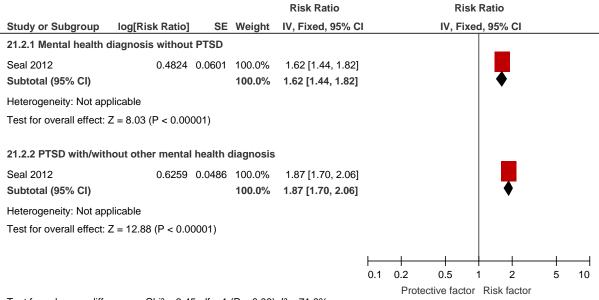
### Figure 26: Mental health disorders (compared to no diagnosis) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

			Hazard Ratio	Hazard Ratio						
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Chenaf 2016 a	0.8109 0.3	3745 100.0%	2.25 [1.08, 4.69]				-			
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	2.25 [1.08, 4.69]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable		ł						<del></del>	+
Test for overall effect: $Z = 2.17$ (P = 0.03)			(	0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	Z = 2.17 (P = 0.03)				Prote	ective fact	or Ris	sk factor		

### Figure 27: Mental health diagnosis with or without PTSD (compared to no mental health diagnosis) for predicting early opioid refill



### Figure 28: Mental health diagnosis with or without PTSD (compared to no mental health diagnosis) for predicting concurrent opioids



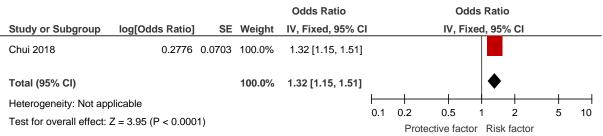
Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 3.45$ , df = 1 (P = 0.06), I<sup>2</sup> = 71.0%

## Figure 29: PTSD (compared to no PTSD) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescription

				Odds Ratio			tio				
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C			IV, F	5% CI			
Chui 2018	-0.0619	0.0635	100.0%	0.94 [0.83, 1.06]							
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.94 [0.83, 1.06]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				H			-			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.97$ (P = 0.33)				0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10	
rest for overall effect.	z = 0.97 (P = 0.33)				Protective factor Risk factor						

1

### Figure 30: Major depression (compared to no major depression) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions

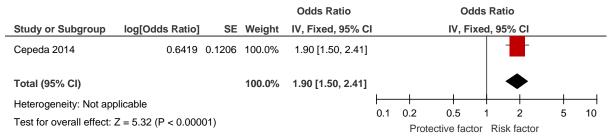


#### 1 E.1.11 History of mood disorders

#### Figure 31: History of mood disorders (compared to no history of mood disorders) for predicting shopping behaviour

			Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio] SI	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	I IV, Fixed, 95% CI
Cepeda 2014	0.3365 0.123	3 100.0%	1.40 [1.10, 1.78]	
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.40 [1.10, 1.78]	•
Heterogeneity: Not app Test for overall effect: 2				0.1     0.2     0.5     1     2     5     10       Protective factor Risk factor

### Figure 32: History of mood disorders (compared to no history of mood disorders) for predicting opioid abuse



#### 3 E.1.12 Concurrent use of antidepressants

#### 4

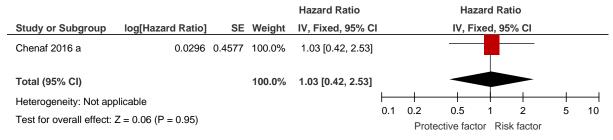
### Figure 33: Concurrent use of antidepressants (compared to no concurrent use) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

				Hazard Ratio			Ha	zard Ra	atio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			5% CI				
Chenaf 2016 a	-0.0726	0.2869	100.0%	0.93 [0.53, 1.63]				╼	_		
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	0.93 [0.53, 1.63]				$\blacklozenge$	•		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable				<b>├</b>						
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.25$ (P = 0.80)					0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
	()				Protective factor Risk factor						

#### 5

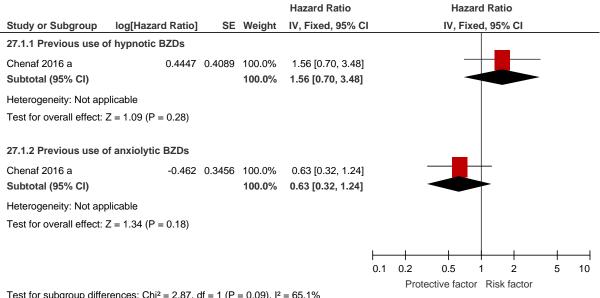
#### 6 E.1.13 Previous use of antipsychotics

#### Figure 34: Previous use of antipsychotics (compared to no previous use) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour



#### 1 E.1.14 History of benzodiazepine use

#### Figure 35: Previous use of benzodiazepine (compared to no previous use) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

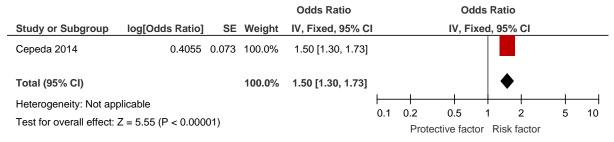


Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 2.87$ , df = 1 (P = 0.09), l<sup>2</sup> = 65.1%

#### Figure 36: History of benzodiazepine use (compared to no history of use) for predicting shopping behaviour

			Odds Ratio			Od	ds Ratio	)		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fix	ked, 95%	6 CI		
Cepeda 2014	0.47 0.1	1912 100.0%	1.60 [1.10, 2.33]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.60 [1.10, 2.33]							
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable			$\vdash$	+		<u> </u>	+	<u> </u>	
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 2.46 (P = 0.01)			0.1	0.2 Prote	0.5 ective facto	1 or Risk	2 factor	5	10

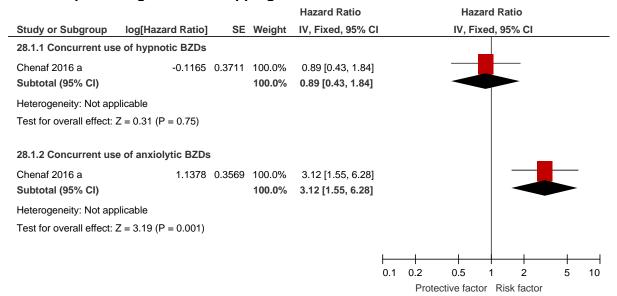
# Figure 37: History of benzodiazepine use (compared to now history of use) for predicting opioid abuse



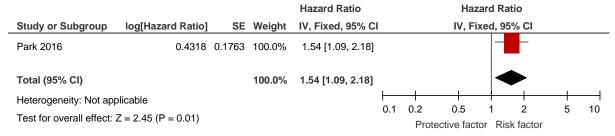
#### 1 E.1.15 Concurrent use of benzodiazepines/ concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin



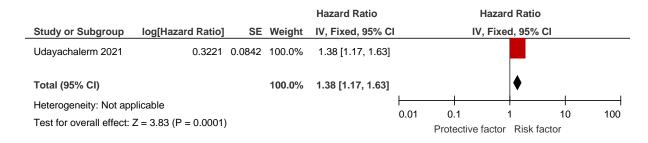
# Figure 38: Concurrent use of benzodiazepine (compared to no concurrent use) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour



# Figure 39: Receipt of benzodiazepine prescription (compared to no receipt) for predicting second early opioid refill



# Figure 40: Concurrent use of benzodiazepines (compared to opioid alone) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose



# Figure 41: Concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin (compared to opioid alone) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose

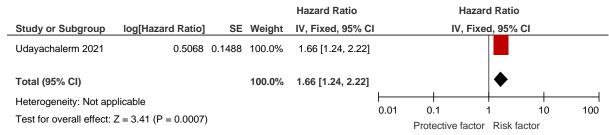
			Hazard Ratio			Hazard Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C		IV	, Fixed, 95% C	]	
Udayachalerm 2021	0.4318 0.090	4 100.0%	1.54 [1.29, 1.84]					
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.54 [1.29, 1.84]			•		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable			⊢ 0.01	0.1	1	10	100
Test for overall effect:			0.01	•••	factor Risk fac		100	

# Figure 42: Concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/pregabalin within 30 days (compared to opioid alone) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose

			Hazard Ratio		F	lazard Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] SI	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I	IV,	Fixed, 95%	CI	
Udayachalerm 2021	0.5188 0.1004	4 100.0%	1.68 [1.38, 2.05]					
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.68 [1.38, 2.05]			•		
Heterogeneity: Not app Test for overall effect:	plicable Z = 5.17 (P < 0.00001)			0.01	0.1 Protective f	1 actor Risk fa	10 actor	100

3

#### Figure 43: Concurrent use of benzodiazepines and gabapentin/pregabalin not within 30 days (compared to opioid alone) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose



### 2 E.1.16 Previous use of strong opioids

# Figure 44: Previous use of strong opioids (compared to no previous use) for predicting codeine shopping behaviour

			Hazard Ratio		Hazar	rd Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV, Fixe	ed, 95% Cl		
Chenaf 2016 a	1.0784 0.44	405 100.0%	2.94 [1.24, 6.97]					_
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	2.94 [1.24, 6.97]					•
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable		H			<u>     </u>		
Toot for overall effects	7 2 45 (D 0 01)		0.1	1 0.2	0.5	1 2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	Z = 2.45 (P = 0.01)			Prote	ective factor	Risk factor		

# Figure 45: Prior use of strong opioids (compared to no previous use) and tramadol shopping behaviour

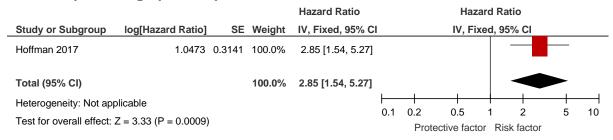
				Hazard Ratio			Hazard Ratio	0	
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV	, Fixed, 95%	CI	
Chenaf 2016 b	1.7405	0.5605	100.0%	5.70 [1.90, 17.10]			-		
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	5.70 [1.90, 17.10]			-		
Heterogeneity: Not app Test for overall effect: Z					0.05	0.2 Protective	1 factor Risk f	5 factor	20

### 1 E.1.17 Long-term opioid therapy

# Figure 46: Periods on long term opioids (compared to not being on a long-term opioid episode) for predicting incident addiction to opioids

			Hazard Ratio			Haza	rd Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fixe	ed, 95% Cl		
Bedson 2019	1.0403 0.145	100.0%	2.83 [2.13, 3.76]					-	
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	2.83 [2.13, 3.76]						
Heterogeneity: Not app Test for overall effect: 2				⊢ 0.1	0.2 Prote	0.5 ective factor	1 2 Risk factor	5	10

# Figure 47: Long-term opioid therapy (compared to short-term opioid therapy) for predicting opioid dependence



# Figure 48: Long-term opioid therapy (compared to short-term opioid therapy) for predicting opioid abuse

-	• •								
				Hazard Ratio		ŀ	lazard Ratio	c	
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV,	Fixed, 95%	CI	
Hoffman 2017	1.3788	0.9967	100.0%	3.97 [0.56, 28.00]					
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	3.97 [0.56, 28.00]					
Heterogeneity: Not app	plicable				+	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	-+
Test for overall effect: $Z = 1.38$ (P = 0.17)					0.05	0.2 Protective f	1 actor Risk	5 factor	20

### 1 E.1.18 Opioid dosage

# Figure 49: Long-term episode at the following average daily dose (ADD) (compared to not being in an episode of long-term prescribing) for predicting incident addiction to opioids

			Hazard Ratio		Hazard Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	l	IV, Fixed, 95% CI
31.1.1 ADD <20 mg M	ED				$\perp$
Bedson 2019	0.0583 0.2045	100.0%	1.06 [0.71, 1.58]		
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	1.06 [0.71, 1.58]		$\bullet$
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.29 (P = 0.78)				
31.1.2 ADD 20 or mor	e & below 50 mg MED				
Bedson 2019	1.2782 0.1745	100.0%	. , ,		
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	3.59 [2.55, 5.05]		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 7.32 (P < 0.00001)				
31.1.3 ADD 50 or mor	e mg MED				_
Bedson 2019	2.2332 0.1805		9.33 [6.55, 13.29]		
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	9.33 [6.55, 13.29]		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable				
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 12.37 (P < 0.00001)				
				L	
				0.05 0	.2 1 5 20
				Pro	tective factor Risk factor
Test for subaroup diffe	rences: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 63.58. df = 2 (	P < 0.0000	$(1),  ^2 = 96.9\%$		

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 63.58$ , df = 2 (P < 0.00001), I<sup>2</sup> = 96.9%

# Figure 50: Opioid dosage MME/d (continuous) for predicting composite outcome (any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose)

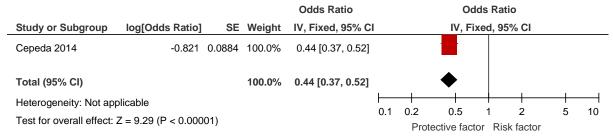
			Hazard Ratio		I	lazard Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	l	IV	, Fixed, 95%	CI	
Udayachalerm 2021	0.003 0.00	1 100.0%	1.00 [1.00, 1.00]					
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.00 [1.00, 1.00]					
Heterogeneity: Not app Test for overall effect: 2				0.01	0.1 Protective	1 factor Risk f	10 actor	100

#### 1 E.1.19 Opioid formulation

#### Figure 51: Tapentadol IR (compared to oxycodone IR) for predicting shopping behaviour

			Odds Ratio			Od	ds Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I		IV, Fiz	xed, 95% Cl		
Cepeda 2014	-0.7985 0.113	9 100.0%	0.45 [0.36, 0.56]			-			
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.45 [0.36, 0.56]			•			
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable			H				<u> </u>	
Test for overall effect: 2	7 = 7.01 (P < 0.00001)			0.1	0.2	0.5	1 2	5	10
					Prot	ective fact	or Risk facto	r	

#### Figure 52: Tapentadol IR (compared to oxycodone IR) for predicting opioid abuse



# Figure 53: Oxycodone IR (compared to tapentadol IR) for predicting shopping behaviour

			Odds Ratio			Odd	ls Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fix	ed, 95% C	]	
Cepeda 2013	1.2528 0.1	139 100.0%	3.50 [2.80, 4.38]					-	
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	3.50 [2.80, 4.38]					•	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			$\vdash$			+ +	<u> </u>	
Test for overall effect: Z = 11.00 (P < 0.00001)				0.1	0.2 Prote	0.5 ective facto	1 2 or Risk fac	tor	10

# Figure 54: Oxycodone IR (compared to tapentadol IR) for predicting heavy shopping behaviour

		C				Odds Ratio			
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fixed, 95%	CI	
Cepeda 2013	1.9315	0.518	100.0%	6.90 [2.50, 19.04]					
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	6.90 [2.50, 19.04]					
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				0.05	0.2	1	5	20
Test for overall effect:	Z = 3.73 (P = 0.000	2)			0.00	•	e factor Risk	•	20

### 1 E.1.20 Duration of action in the first prescription

#### 2

# Figure 55: Long-acting opioids (compared to short-acting) for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions

				Risk difference		Ri	sk differen	се	
Study or Subgroup	Risk difference	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV, Fixed, 95% CI			
Zhang 2018	14.7	1.0204	100.0%	14.70 [12.70, 16.70]				-	-
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	14.70 [12.70, 16.70]					
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable					10			
Test for overall effect: $Z = 14.41$ (P < 0.00001)					-20	-10 Protective f	0 actor Risk	10 factor	20

# Figure 56: Long-acting opioids (compared to short-acting) for predicting 3 or more opioid prescribers

				Risk difference		R	isk differen	ce			
Study or Subgroup	Risk difference	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI	I IV, Fixed, 95% CI						
Zhang 2018	1.8	0.4592	100.0%	1.80 [0.90, 2.70]			-	-			
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	1.80 [0.90, 2.70]			•	•			
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				-10	-5	0	<del> </del> 5	10		
Test for overall effect: $Z = 3.92$ (P < 0.0001)					Protective factor Risk factor						

# Figure 57: Concurrent use of short-acting and long-acting opioids (compared to short-acting alone) for predicting composite outcome – any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose

				Hazard Ratio		Ha	zard Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I	IV, F	Fixed, 95% C	I	
1.2.1 Long-acting vs	short-acting								
Udayachalerm 2021	0.7747	0.5028	100.0%	2.17 [0.81, 5.81]				-	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	2.17 [0.81, 5.81]				•	
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable								
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 1.54 (P = 0.12)								
1.2.2 Concurrent use	of short-acting and	long-act	ting withi	n 30 days					
Udayachalerm 2021	0.7514	0.0892	100.0%	2.12 [1.78, 2.52]					
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	2.12 [1.78, 2.52]			•		
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable								
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 8.42 (P < 0.00001	)							
1.2.3 Concurrent use	of short-acting and	long-act	ting not w	vithin 30 days					
Udayachalerm 2021	0.6881	0.2413	100.0%	1.99 [1.24, 3.19]					
Subtotal (95% CI)			1 <b>00.0</b> %	1.99 [1.24, 3.19]					
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable								
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 2.85 (P = 0.004)								
					<b> </b>				
					0.01	0.1	1	10	10
Test for subgroup differ	rences: Chi² = 0.06, c	lf = 2 (P ⊧	= 0.97). l²	= 0%		Protective fac	ctor Risk fac	tor	

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 0.06$ , df = 2 (P = 0.97), l<sup>2</sup> = 0%

#### 1

### 2 E.1.21 Days of opioid supply in the first prescription

# Figure 58: Number of days' supply (continuous) for predicting composite outcome (any combination of opioid abuse, dependence or overdose)

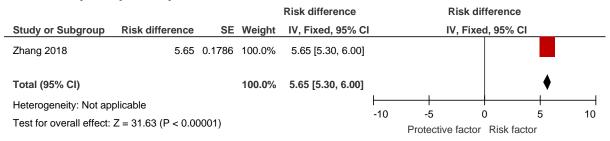
			Hazard Ratio		Ha	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV, F	ixed, 95	5% CI	
Udayachalerm 2021	0.0247 0	0.003 100.0%	1.03 [1.02, 1.03]					
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.03 [1.02, 1.03]					
Heterogeneity: Not app	blicable		-					
<b>c</b> ,		0.2	0.5	1	2	5		
Test for overall effect: $Z = 8.23$ (P < 0.00001)				Pro	tective fac	tor Ris	k factor	

3

# Figure 59: >7 days opioid supply (compared to ≤3 days) for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions

		Risk differen					isk differen	се	
Study or Subgroup	Risk difference	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI		IV	6 CI		
Zhang 2018	6.65	0.1786	100.0%	6.65 [6.30, 7.00]					
Total (95% CI)			100.0%	6.65 [6.30, 7.00]				•	•
Heterogeneity: Not ap	•				-10	-5	0	<del> </del> 5	10
Test for overall effect: $Z = 37.23$ (P < 0.00001)						Protective	factor Risk	factor	

# Figure 60: >7 days opioid supply (compared to 4-7 days) for predicting overlapping opioid prescriptions



# 2 E.1.22 Dual use of Veterans health administration (VHA) pharmacy and Medicare part 3 D

# Figure 61: Dual use of VHA and Medicare part D (compared to no dual use) for predicting overlapping concurrent opioids

			Odds Ratio			Oc				
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	ixed, 9	5% CI		
Chui 2018	1.6639 0.0	703 100.0%	5.28 [4.60, 6.06]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	5.28 [4.60, 6.06]						•	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable			$\vdash$						+
Test for overall effect: $Z = 23.67$ (P < 0.00001)				0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
						Protectice factor Risk factor				

4

### 1 E.1.23 Type of payment

### Figure 62: Type of payment (compared to cash) for predicting shopping behaviour

				Odds Ratio		Od	ds Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I	IV, Fi	xed, 95% Cl		
35.1.1 Medicaid					_				
Cepeda 2014	-1.204	0.093	100.0%	0.30 [0.25, 0.36]	-	ŀ			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.30 [0.25, 0.36]		•			
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable								
Test for overall effect:	Z = 12.95 (P < 0.00	001)							
35.1.2 Medicare						_			
Cepeda 2014	-0.9163	0.1468	100.0%	0.40 [0.30, 0.53]		-			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.40 [0.30, 0.53]		•			
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable								
Test for overall effect:	Z = 6.24 (P < 0.000	01)							
35.1.3 Commercial in	surance				_				
Cepeda 2014	-1.6094	0.1468	100.0%	0.20 [0.15, 0.27]	-				
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.20 [0.15, 0.27]	$\bullet$				
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable								
Test for overall effect:	Z = 10.96 (P < 0.00	001)							
					├				—––
					0.1 0.2	0.5	1 2	5	10
					Pro	tective fact	or Risk factor		

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 11.32$ , df = 2 (P = 0.003), I<sup>2</sup> = 82.3%

				Odds Ratio			Oc	ds Ratio			
Study or Subgroup	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl			IV, Fi	ixed, 95%	CI		
35.2.1 Medicaid											
Cepeda 2014	0.0953	0.1024	100.0%	1.10 [0.90, 1.34]				-			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.10 [0.90, 1.34]				•			
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable										
Test for overall effect: 2	2 = 0.93 (P = 0.35)										
35.2.2 Medicare							_				
Cepeda 2014	-0.3567	0.0786	100.0%	0.70 [0.60, 0.82]							
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.70 [0.60, 0.82]			•				
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable										
Test for overall effect: 2	2 = 4.54 (P < 0.000	01)									
35.2.3 Commercial ins	surance										
Cepeda 2014	-1.204	0.093	100.0%	0.30 [0.25, 0.36]							
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.30 [0.25, 0.36]		•					
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable										
Test for overall effect: 2	2 = 12.95 (P < 0.00	001)									
					<b> </b>	+					
					0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10

### Figure 63: Type of payment (compared to cash) for predicting opioid abuse

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 94.42$ , df = 2 (P < 0.00001), I<sup>2</sup> = 97.9%

## 1 E.1.24 Type of painful condition

# Figure 64: Painful condition (presence compared to absence) for predicting shopping behaviour

•					
Churche and Curk annual	la al O dala Datial	05	Waink4	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio
Study or Subgroup 46.1.1 Arthritis	log[Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	I IV, Fixed, 95% CI
Cepeda 2014	-0.2221	0.0691	100.0%	0.80 [0.70, 0.91]	
Subtotal (95% CI)	-0.2231	0.0001	100.0%	0.80 [0.70, 0.91]	◆
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				
Test for overall effect:		)			
46.1.2 Back pain					_
Cepeda 2014	0.6931	0.0829	100.0%	2.00 [1.70, 2.35]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	2.00 [1.70, 2.35]	•
Heterogeneity: Not ap Test for overall effect:		01)			
	2 = 0.00 (1 < 0.000	01)			
46.1.3 Fractures					
Cepeda 2014	0.0953	0.1954	100.0%	1.10 [0.75, 1.61]	_ <b>_</b> _
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.10 [0.75, 1.61]	-
Heterogeneity: Not ap					
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.49 (P = 0.63)				
46.1.4 Headache					
Cepeda 2014	-0.2231	0.1468	100.0%	0.80 [0.60, 1.07]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%		
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 1.52 (P = 0.13)				
46.1.5 Malignancy					
Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	-0.3567	0.1717	100.0% 1 <b>00.0%</b>	0.70 [0.50, 0.98] 0.70 [0.50, 0.98]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				•
Test for overall effect:					
46.1.6 Musculoskele	tal pain				
Cepeda 2014	-0.1054	0.1282	100.0%	0.90 [0.70, 1.16]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.90 [0.70, 1.16]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap Test for overall effect:					
Test for overall effect.	Z = 0.82 (F = 0.41)				
46.1.7 Neuropathic p	ain				
Cepeda 2014	0.1823	0.2069	100.0%	1.20 [0.80, 1.80]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.20 [0.80, 1.80]	-
Heterogeneity: Not ap					
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.88 (P = 0.38)				
46.1.8 Other pains					
Cepeda 2014	0.1823	0.3537	100.0%	1.20 [0.60, 2.40]	——————————————————————————————————————
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.20 [0.60, 2.40]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.52 (P = 0.61)				
46.1.9 Reproductive					
•		0 4222	100.0%	0 70 10 20 1 621	
Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	-0.3567	0.4323	100.0%	0.70 [0.30, 1.63] 0.70 [0.30, 1.63]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable				-
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.83 (P = 0.41)				
46.1.10 Visceral pain					<u> </u>
Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0	0.1139	100.0% 1 <b>00.0%</b>	1.00 [0.80, 1.25] 1.00 [0.80, 1.25]	<b>—</b>
Heterogeneity: Not ap	nlicable		100.078	1.00 [0.00, 1.25]	<b>•</b>
Test for overall effect:					
46.1.11 Wound injury	/				<u>↓</u>
Cepeda 2014	0	0.3537	100.0%	1.00 [0.50, 2.00]	
Subtotal (95% CI)	r		100.0%	1.00 [0.50, 2.00]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap Test for overall effect:					
rearior overall enect:	2 - 0.00 (F = 1.00)				
					0.1 0.2 0.5 1 2 5 10 Protective factor Risk factor
Test for subgroup diffe	erences: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 88.4	9, df = 10	0 (P < 0.00	0001), l² = 88.7%	

156 Safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults DRAFT October 2021

# Figure 65: Painful condition (presence compared to absence) for predicting opioid abuse

Study or Subgroup log				Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio
study of oungroup log	Odds Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	IV, Fixed, 95% CI
46.2.1 Arthritis					<u> </u>
Cepeda 2014	0	0.1139	100.0%	1.00 [0.80, 1.25]	<b>1</b>
Subtotal (95% CI)	_		100.0%	1.00 [0.80, 1.25]	<b>—</b>
Heterogeneity: Not applicable Fest for overall effect: Z = 0.0					
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.0$	JU (P = 1.00)				
46.2.2 Back pain					
Cepeda 2014	0.5306	0.0639	100.0%	1.70 [1.50, 1.93]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.70 [1.50, 1.93]	•
Heterogeneity: Not applicable	э				
Test for overall effect: Z = 8.3	30 (P < 0.000	01)			
46.2.3 Fractures					
Cepeda 2014	0.1823	0.2069	100.0%	1.20 [0.80, 1.80]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.20 [0.80, 1.80]	
Heterogeneity: Not applicable	e				
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.8	38 (P = 0.38)				
46.2.4 Headache					
Cepeda 2014	0 1922	0 1/69	100.0%	1 20 [0 00 1 60]	
Sepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.1823	0.1408	100.0% 100.0%	1.20 [0.90, 1.60] 1.20 [0.90, 1.60]	
Heterogeneity: Not applicable	e				-
Test for overall effect: Z = 1.2					
46.2.5 Malignancy					
Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	-0.9163	0.1468	100.0% 1 <b>00.0%</b>	0.40 [0.30, 0.53] 0.40 [0.30, 0.53]	
Heterogeneity: Not applicable	9		100.0%	J.40 [U.JU, U.JJ]	▼
Test for overall effect: Z = 6.2		01)			
46.2.6 Musculoskeletal pair	ı				
Cepeda 2014	0.0953	0.1024	100.0%	1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	<b>1</b>
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	<b>•</b>
Heterogeneity: Not applicable					
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.9	33 (P = 0.35)				
46.2.7 Neuropathic pain					
Cepeda 2014	0.0953	0.2306	100.0%	1.10 [0.70, 1.73]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.10 [0.70, 1.73]	$\bullet$
Heterogeneity: Not applicable	e				
Test for overall effect: $Z = 0.4$	41 (P = 0.68)				
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4	41 (P = 0.68)				
		0.2707	100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains		0.2707	100.0% 1 <b>00.0</b> %	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 1.70 [1.00, 2.89]	4
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014	0.5306	0.2707			*
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.5306 e	0.2707			*
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5	0.5306 e	0.2707			*
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain	0.5306 e 96 (P = 0.05)		100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5	0.5306 e		100.0%		
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.9 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014	0.5306 e 96 (P = 0.05) -0.2231		100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.9 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.5306 e 96 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 e		100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% Cl) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.9 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% Cl) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6	0.5306 e 96 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 e		100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60]	*
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% Cl) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% Cl) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain	0.5306 9 6 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 9 53 (P = 0.53)	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014	0.5306 9 6 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 9 53 (P = 0.53)	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.5306 e -0.2231 e 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable	0.5306 e -0.2231 e 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 e	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014	0.5306 e -0.2231 e 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 e	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable	0.5306 e -0.2231 e 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 e	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicabli Test for overall effect: Z = 0.3 46.2.11 Wound injury Cepeda 2014	0.5306 9 6 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 8 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 9 33 (P = 0.35)	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 0.70 [0.40, 1.22]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.11 Wound injury Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.5306 e 36 (P = 0.05) -0.2231 e 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 e 33 (P = 0.35) -0.3567	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.5 46.2.11 Wound injury Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable	0.5306 a b c c 0.2231 a 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 a 33 (P = 0.35) -0.3567 a	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 0.70 [0.40, 1.22]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.11 Wound injury Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.5306 a b c c 0.2231 a 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 a 33 (P = 0.35) -0.3567 a	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 0.70 [0.40, 1.22]	
Test for overall effect: Z = 0.4 46.2.8 Other pains Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 1.5 46.2.9 Reproductive pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.6 46.2.10 Visceral pain Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable Test for overall effect: Z = 0.5 46.2.11 Wound injury Cepeda 2014 Subtotal (95% CI) Heterogeneity: Not applicable	0.5306 a b c c 0.2231 a 33 (P = 0.53) 0.0953 a 33 (P = 0.35) -0.3567 a	0.3537	100.0% 100.0% 100.0% 100.0%	1.70 [1.00, 2.89] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 0.80 [0.40, 1.60] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 1.10 [0.90, 1.34] 0.70 [0.40, 1.22]	

1

157 Safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults DRAFT October 2021

## 1 E.2 Benzodiazepines

### 2 E.2.1 Age

# Figure 66: Age (continuous) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

			Hazard Ratio			Ha	zard R	atio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, F	ixed, 9	5% CI		
Tvete 2016	-0.0161 0.003	6 100.0%	0.98 [0.98, 0.99]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.98 [0.98, 0.99]							
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			H						+
0 7 1	Z = 4.47 (P < 0.00001)			0.1	0.2 Prote	0.5 ective fac	1 tor Ri	2 sk factor	5	10

				Hazard Ratio	Hazard Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I IV, Fixed, 95% CI
2.1.1 25-34 years					
Cook 2018	0.207	0.64	100.0%	1.23 [0.35, 4.31]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.23 [0.35, 4.31]	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.32 (P = 0.75)				
2.1.2 35-44 years					
Cook 2018	-0.4155	0.35	100.0%	0.66 [0.33, 1.31]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.66 [0.33, 1.31]	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 1.19 (P = 0.24)				
2.1.3 45-54 years					
Cook 2018	-0.1393	0.44	100.0%	0.87 [0.37, 2.06]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.87 [0.37, 2.06]	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.32 (P = 0.75)				
2.1.4 55-64 years					L
Cook 2018	0.077	0.54	100.0%	1.08 [0.37, 3.11]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.08 [0.37, 3.11]	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.14 (P = 0.89)				
2.1.5 65+					
Cook 2018	0.3853	0.74	100.0%	1.47 [0.34, 6.27]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.47 [0.34, 6.27]	
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 0.52 (P = 0.60)				
					0.1 0.2 0.5 1 2 5
					Protective factor Risk factor

#### Figure 67: Age (compared to 18-24) for predicting benzodiazepine dependence

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 1.57$ , df = 4 (P = 0.81),  $I^2 = 0\%$ 

#### 1 E.2.2 Gender

# Figure 68: Gender: female (compared to male) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

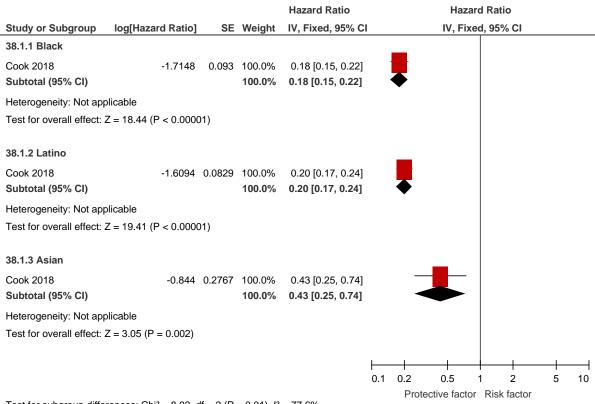
			Hazard Ratio			atio			
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI	
Tvete 2016	-0.5604 0.06	627 100.0%	0.57 [0.50, 0.65]						
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.57 [0.50, 0.65]			•			
Heterogeneity: Not app				⊢ 0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	 10
Test for overall effect:				Prote	ective fact	or Ri	isk factor		

# Figure 69: Gender: male (compared to female) for predicting benzodiazepine dependence

			Hazard Ratio			Haz	zard Ra	tio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 95	5% CI		
Cook 2018	0.2852 0.45	05 100.0%	1.33 [0.55, 3.22]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	1.33 [0.55, 3.22]							
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable								<u> </u>	+
Toot for overall effects	7 0.62 (D 0.52)			0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2	5	10
Test for overall effect:	L = 0.03 (P = 0.53)				Prote	ctive fac	tor Ris	k factor		

### 1 E.2.3 Family Background

# Figure 70: Non-white (compared to white) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)



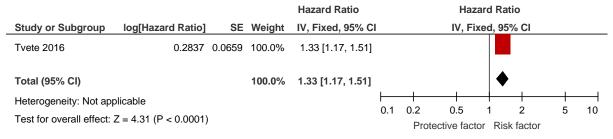
Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 8.92$ , df = 2 (P = 0.01), I<sup>2</sup> = 77.6%

## 2

3

### 4 E.2.4 First benzodiazepine dispensation

# Figure 71: First benzodiazepine dispensation: oxazepam (compared to diazepam) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)



#### 1 E.2.5 Previous medication

## Figure 72: Previous medication (compared to no such medication) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

	-,			
			Hazard Ratio	Hazard Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I IV, Fixed, 95% CI
40.1.1 Antidepressar	nts and lithium			
Tvete 2016	0.523 0.063	100.0%	1.69 [1.49, 1.91]	
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	1.69 [1.49, 1.91]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			
Test for overall effect:	Z = 8.30 (P < 0.00001)			
40.1.2 Antipsychotic	S			
Tvete 2016	0.5613 0.0836	100.0%	1.75 [1.49, 2.07]	
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	1.75 [1.49, 2.07]	•
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			
Test for overall effect:	Z = 6.71 (P < 0.00001)			
40.1.3 Opioids, anti-a	alcohol & smokig cessation	drugs		
Tvete 2016	1.1125 0.146	100.0%	3.04 [2.28, 4.05]	
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	3.04 [2.28, 4.05]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			
Test for overall effect:	Z = 7.62 (P < 0.00001)			
40.1.4 Drugs for rheu	imatic disease			_
Tvete 2016	0.1956 0.1164		1.22 [0.97, 1.53]	
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	1.22 [0.97, 1.53]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap	plicable			
Test for overall effect:	Z = 1.68 (P = 0.09)			
	-			
40.1.5 Drugs for COF				
Tvete 2016	0.2531 0.0856		1.29 [1.09, 1.52]	
Subtotal (95% CI)		100.0%	1.29 [1.09, 1.52]	
Heterogeneity: Not ap				
Test for overall effect:	Z = 2.96 (P = 0.003)			
				0.1 0.2 0.5 1 2 5 10
				Protective factor Risk factor
Test for subgroup diffe	erences: Chi <sup>2</sup> = 33.18, df = 4 (	P < 0.0000	01), l² = 87.9%	

### 1 E.2.6 Education

# Figure 73: Education: high (compared to low) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

			Hazard Ratio			Haz	zard R	atio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio] S	E Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% CI			IV, Fi	xed, 9	5% CI		
Tvete 2016	-0.4354 0.061	1 100.0%	0.65 [0.57, 0.73]							
Total (95% CI)		100.0%	0.65 [0.57, 0.73]			•				
Heterogeneity: Not app	olicable			⊢ 0.1	0.2	0.5	1	2		10
Test for overall effect:	Z = 7.13 (P < 0.00001)			0.1		ective fac	tor Ri	sk factor	5	10

#### 2 E.2.7 Income

\_

# Figure 74: Income (compared to low) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

				Hazard Ratio			Hazard	Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	I		IV, Fixed,	95% CI		
42.1.1 Average										
Tvete 2016	-0.3299 0.0	0797	100.0%	0.72 [0.62, 0.84]						
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.72 [0.62, 0.84]			●			
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable									
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 4.14 (P < 0.0001)									
42.1.2 High										
Tvete 2016	-0.5639 0.1	1163	100.0%	0.57 [0.45, 0.71]						
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.57 [0.45, 0.71]						
Heterogeneity: Not app	licable									
Test for overall effect: 2	Z = 4.85 (P < 0.00001)									
					0.1	0.2	0.5 1	2	5	10
Toot for subgroup differ	ranges Chi2 275 df	1 (D	0.10) 12	62 70/		Prote	ctive factor	Risk factor		

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 2.75$ , df = 1 (P = 0.10), l<sup>2</sup> = 63.7%

### 1 E.2.8 Type of work

\_

# Figure 75: Type of work (compared to no registration) for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period)

				Hazard Ratio			Hazard	I Ratio		
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% C	I		IV, Fixed	l, 95% Cl		
43.1.1 Private sector										
Tvete 2016	-0.4748	0.0914	100.0%	0.62 [0.52, 0.74]						
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.62 [0.52, 0.74]			$\bullet$			
Heterogeneity: Not appli	icable									
Test for overall effect: Z	= 5.19 (P < 0.00001	)								
43.1.2 Public sector										
Tvete 2016	-0.4894	0.0859	100.0%	0.61 [0.52, 0.73]						
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.61 [0.52, 0.73]						
Heterogeneity: Not appli	icable									
Test for overall effect: Z	= 5.70 (P < 0.00001	)								
					<b> </b>					-+
					0.1	0.2	0.5 1	2	5	10
<b>T</b> . ( )			0.04) 10	001		Prote	ective factor	Risk factor		

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 0.01$ , df = 1 (P = 0.91),  $I^2 = 0\%$ 

#### E.2.9 Substance use diagnosis 1

# Figure 76: Substance use diagnosis (compared to no such substance use diagnosis) for predicting benzodiazepine dependence

-	2		-	dependence Hazard Ratio	Hazaro	I Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight			I, 95% CI
44.1.1 Alcohol	log[nazara nano]	02	mongin	11,11,200,00700		.,
Cook 2018	-0.2614	0 1273	100.0%	0.77 [0.60, 0.99]	-	
Subtotal (95% CI)	0.2011	0.1270	100.0%			
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable					
Test for overall effect: Z						
44.1.2 Marijuana						
Cook 2018	-1.273	0.1717	100.0%	0.28 [0.20, 0.39]	-	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.28 [0.20, 0.39]	•	
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable					
Test for overall effect: Z	= 7.41 (P < 0.00001	)				
44.1.3 Cocaine						_
Cook 2018	0.1222	0.1826	100.0%	. , .	-	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.13 [0.79, 1.62]		
Heterogeneity: Not appl						
Test for overall effect: Z	= 0.67 (P = 0.50)					
44.1.4 Opioid						_
Cook 2018	1.361	0.6099		3.90 [1.18, 12.89]		
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	3.90 [1.18, 12.89]		
Heterogeneity: Not appl						
Test for overall effect: Z	= 2.23 (P = 0.03)					
44.1.5 Tobacco						-
Cook 2018	0.7324	0.2892	100.0%			
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	2.08 [1.18, 3.67]		
Heterogeneity: Not appl						
Test for overall effect: Z	= 2.53 (P = 0.01)					
44.1.6 Pain medication	I				_	
Cook 2018	-0.3425	0.1032		0.71 [0.58, 0.87]		
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.71 [0.58, 0.87]	$\bullet$	
Heterogeneity: Not appl						
Test for overall effect: Z	= 3.32 (P = 0.0009)					
44.1.7 2 or more SUDs						
Cook 2018 Subtotal (95% CI)	0.708	0.3412	100.0% 1 <b>00.0%</b>	2.03 [1.04, 3.96] <b>2.03 [1.04, 3.96]</b>		
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable					
Test for overall effect: Z	= 2.08 (P = 0.04)					
						<b> </b>
					0.1 0.2 0.5 1	2 5 10
				01), l² = 91.0%	Protective factor	Risk factor

### 1 E.2.10 Mental health diagnosis

# Figure 77: Mental health diagnosis (compared to no diagnosis) for predicting benzodiazepine dependence

Dividue on Out-month	leafflererd Detf. 1	05	Mainte	Hazard Ratio	Hazard Ratio
Study or Subgroup	log[Hazard Ratio]	SE	Weight	IV, Fixed, 95% Cl	IV, Fixed, 95% CI
45.1.1 Depression					
Cook 2018	0.3577	0.1876	100.0%	1.43 [0.99, 2.07]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.43 [0.99, 2.07]	
Heterogeneity: Not appl					
Test for overall effect: Z	= 1.91 (P = 0.06)				
45.1.2 Anxiety					
Cook 2018	0.47	0.2297	100.0%	1.60 [1.02, 2.51]	⊢ <b>∎</b>
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	1.60 [1.02, 2.51]	
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable				
Test for overall effect: Z	= 2.05 (P = 0.04)				
45.1.3 Bipolar					
Cook 2018	0.0198	0 1994	100.0%	1.02 [0.69, 1.51]	
Subtotal (95% CI)	0.0100	0.1001	100.0%	1.02 [0.69, 1.51]	
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable				
Test for overall effect: Z	= 0.10 (P = 0.92)				
45.1.4 PTSD					
Cook 2018	-0.0943	0.1717	100.0%	0.91 [0.65, 1.27]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.91 [0.65, 1.27]	<b>•</b>
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable				
Test for overall effect: Z	= 0.55 (P = 0.58)				
45.1.5 Sleeping disturk	bance				
Cook 2018	-0.3711	0.1346	100.0%	0.69 [0.53, 0.90]	
Subtotal (95% CI)			100.0%	0.69 [0.53, 0.90]	$\bullet$
Heterogeneity: Not appl	icable				
Test for overall effect: Z	= 2.76 (P = 0.006)				
					0.1 0.2 0.5 1 2 5 1

Test for subgroup differences:  $Chi^2 = 15.63$ , df = 4 (P = 0.004), I<sup>2</sup> = 74.4%

## Appendix F GRADE tables

## F.1 GRADE tables for opioids

### Table 40: Clinical evidence profile: Age

			Quality a	issessment			Effect					
Number of studies	Design	Design Risk of bias Inconsistency Indirectness Imprecision (includir publication				Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality				
Age ≤40 versus age >40 for predicting codeine shopping behaviour (HR) (CNCP patients treated with codeine)												
			no serious inconsistency	· · ·	no serious imprecision	none	HR 7.29 (4.28 to 12.42)	MODERATE				
Age (conti	ge (continuous) for predicting prescription opioid misuse (OR) (adults aged 26–84 with CNCP)											
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.94 (0.89 to 0.99)	LOW				
Aae 75-84	versus 65-74	4 vears old for predict	ing overlapping concurr	ent opioid prescriptions	l (OR) (Veterans aged ≥ 6	5 vears with a new MS	D diagnosis)	ł				
_			no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.81 (0.75 to 0.87)	HIGH				
Age 85+ ve	ersus 65-74 y	ears old for predictin	g overlapping concurre	nt opioid prescriptions (O	R) (Veterans aged ≥ 65	years with a new MSD	diagnosis)					
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>4</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.83 (0.74 to 0.92)	HIGH				
Age <18 ve	ersus >64 fo	r predicting shopping	behaviour (OR) (opioid-	naïve patients initiating o	pioid use (mean age (S	D): 53.1 (17.1) years))						
1		Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>7</sup>	none	OR 0.9 (0.5 to 1.8)	VERY LOW				
Aae <18 ve			use (OR) (opioid-naïve p	atients initiating opioid u	se (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) years))	1	I				

		Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>7</sup>	none	OR 0.7 (0.3 to 1.4)	VERY LOW
.ge 18	∙39 versus >64	for predicting shoppi	ng behaviour (OR) (opioi	d-naïve patients initiating	opioid use (mean age (	(SD): 53.1 (17.1) y	years)	•
		Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 9.8 (7.9 to 12)	VERY LOW
.ge 18	-39 versus >64	for predicting opioid	abuse (OR) (opioid-naïve	patients initiating opioid	use (mean age (SD): 53	3.1 (17.1) years))		
		Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 13.9 (11.2 to 17.2)	VERY LOW
∖ge 40·	-64 versus >64	for predicting shoppi	ng behaviour (OR) (opioi	d-naïve patients initiating	opioid use (mean age (	(SD): 53.1 (17.1) y	years))	
-	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 4.6 (3.8 to 5.6)	VERY LOW
\ae 40	•64 versus >64	for predicting opioid	abuse (OR) (opioid-naïve	patients initiating opioid	use (mean age (SD): 53	3.1 (17.1) years))		
<u> </u>	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 6.7 (5.5 to 8.3)	VERY LOW
\ge <4	0 versus ≥ 50 fo	or predicting tramado	l shopping behaviour (HI	R) (CNCP patients treated	l with tramadol (mean a	ge (SD) 66.4 (14.7	7) years))	
0	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>8</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>7</sup>	none	HR 7.4 (2.8 to 19.7)	VERY LOW
\ae 40·	-50 versus ≥ 50	for predicting tramage	dol shopping behaviour (	HR) (CNCP patients treat	ed with tramadol (mean	age (SD) 66.4 (14	4.7) vears))	
<u>J-</u>	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>8</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 2.8 (1 to 7.7)	LOW

<sup>2</sup> Methods: Multivariate logistic regression model with covariates not specified; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due potential indirectness of the population as it was not clear if they were opioid naïve during baseline assessment

<sup>4</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD.

<sup>5</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>6</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment with the proportion of those being prescribed opioids for chronic pain being unclear, and by 1 more increment for results of participants in the <18 years age category

<sup>7</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide

<sup>8</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazard model; confounders not specified; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

#### Table 41: Clinical evidence profile: Family Background

			Effect	Quality						
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality		
Non-white versus white race for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (OR) (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis)										
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.77 (0.71 to 0.84)	HIGH		

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

#### Table 42: Clinical evidence profile: Gender

				Effect							
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality						
Female v	ersus male for p	redicting codeine shopp	ing behaviour (HR) (CNCP	patients treated with co	deine)						
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.92 (0.53 to 1.58)	LOW			
Female v	emale versus male for predicting tramadol shopping behaviour (HR) (CNCP patients treated with tramadol)										
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.6 (0.7 to 3.8)	VERY LOW			
Female v	emale versus male for predicting overlapping concurrent opioid prescriptions (OR) (Veterans aged ≥ 65 years with a new MSD diagnosis)										

1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>4</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	Serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	OR 0.97 (0.75 to 1.24)	MODERATE			
Male ve	rsus female for p	redicting shopping behav	viour (OR) (opioid-naïve pa	atients initiating opioid u	se (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) years))					
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.6 (1.4 TO 1.7)	VERY LOW			
Male ve	lale versus female for predicting opioid abuse (OR) (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years))										
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness 6	no serious imprecision	None	OR 1.5 (1.3 to 1.6)	VERY LOW			

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line

<sup>3</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazards model; co-variated not specified; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>4</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

<sup>5</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>6</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 43: Clinical evidence profile: Low-income status

	_			Effect	Quality			
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
Low-income	status for pre	edicting codeine shoppir	ng behaviour (HR) (CNCP	patients treated with coc	leine)			
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.75 (0.96 to 3.21)	LOW
Low-income	status for pre	edicting tramadol shoppi	ing behaviour (HR) (CNCP	patients treated with tra	madol)			
1	Cohort study	very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 8.5 (3.6 to 20.5)	VERY LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide

<sup>3</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards mode; confounders not specified

#### Table 44: Clinical evidence profile: Pain intensity

				Effect	Quality			
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Moderate-to-	severe pain i	ntensity (pain scale 4-10	) for predicting overlapp	ing concurrent opioid	prescriptions (OR) (Vete	rans aged ≥ 65 years with a nev	v MSD diagnosis)	
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.40 (1.31 to 1.49)	HIGH

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

#### Table 45: Clinical evidence profile: Clinical severity (Charlson comorbidity index (CCI))

			Quality	assessment			Effect	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
CCI 2+ vers	us lower score	e for predicting overlapp	bing concurrent opioid p	escriptions (OR) (Vete	rans aged ≥ 65 years wi	th a new MSD diagnosis)		
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	OR 0.96 (0.90 to 1.03)	MODERATE
	nedical diseas	ses (mean number of inc	lividual chronic medical	diseases as per the un	weighted CCI) for predic	cting prescription opioid misus	e (OR) (adults aged 26–	84 with
CNCP)		1		1	1	I		T
	Cohort	serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	OR 0.72 (0.45 to 1.1)	VERY LOV

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

<sup>3</sup> Methods: Multivariate logistic regression model with covariates not specified; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due potential indirectness of the population as it was not clear if they were opioid naïve during baseline assessment

<sup>5</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line

#### Table 46:Clinical evidence profile: History of opioid use disorder

			Effect					
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
listory o	of opioid use dis	order for predicting codei	ne shopping behaviour (HF	R) (CNCP patients treated	with codeine)		-	
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	very serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.25 (0.19 to 8.40)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 47: Clinical evidence profile: History of substance use disorder/abuse of non-opioids

			Quality assess	ment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
History of s	substance use	disorder for predicting cod	deine shopping behaviour	(HR) (CNCP patients tr	eated with codeine; m	ean (SD) age 62.7 (16.1)	years)	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.89 (0.21 to 3.83)	LOW
Lifetime his	story of substa	nce use disorder for predi	cting prescription opioid n	nisuse (OR) (adults age	ed 26–84 with CNCP)			
1	Cohort study	very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>4</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>5</sup>	none	OR 3.8 (1.4 to 10.8)	VERY LOW
Substance	use disorder fo	or predicting overlapping o	concurrent opioid prescrip	tions (Veterans aged ≥	65 years with a new N	ISD diagnosis)	•	
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>6</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision		OR 1.18 (1.05 to 1.33)	HIGH

listory of abuse of non-opioid drugs (such as alcohol & tobacco) for predicting shopping behaviour (OR) (opioid-naïve patients initiating opioid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) years))										
c	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>7</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>8</sup>	no serious imprecision		OR 1.5 (1.0 to 2.2)	VERY LOW		
					•					
story of a	buse of non-o	pioid drugs (such as alcoh	ol & tobacco) mood for pr	edicting opioid abuse	(OR) (opioid-naïve pati	ents initiating opioid us	e (mean age (SD): 53.1 (17.	1) years))		

<sup>1</sup> Methods: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by one increment as the CI crossed the null line

<sup>3</sup> Methods: Multivariate logistic regression model with covariates not specified; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due potential indirectness of the population as it was not clear if they were opioid naïve during baseline assessment

<sup>5</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI was judged to be very wide

<sup>6</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

7 Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

8 Downgraded by 1 due to the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 48: Clinical evidence profile: Active chronic liver disease

			Quality a	issessment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
Active chronic live	r disease for	predicting codeine	shopping behaviour (H	R) (adults with CNCP)				
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 2.09 (95% CI 0.62 to 7.03)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 49: Clinical evidence profile: Mental health disorders

			Quality ass	sessment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Mental health dis	sorders for pred	icting codeine shoppir	ng behaviour (HR) (adu	ults with CNCP)				
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 2.25 (1.08 to 4.67)	MODERAE
PTSD with or wit	hout other men	tal health diagnosis for	r predicting early opio	id refills (RR) (Iraq and A	fghanistan veterans	prescribed opioids within 1 ye	ear of a pain-related dia	gnosis)
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias²	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	RR 1.64 (1.53 to 1.75)	LOW
Mental health dia	agnosis without	PTSD for predicting ea	arly opioid refills (RR)	(Iraq and Afghanistan ve	eterans prescribed o	pioids within 1 year of a pain-r	elated diagnosis)	
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias²	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	RR 1.50 (1.39 to 1.62)	LOW
PTSD with or wit diagnosis)	hout other men	tal health diagnosis fo	r predicting overlappir	ng opioids (>7 days) (RR	) (Iraq and Afghanist	an veterans prescribed opioid	s within 1 year of a pair	n-related
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	RR 1.87 (1.70 to 2.06)	LOW
Mental health dia	agnosis without	PTSD for predicting o	verlapping opioids (>7	days) (RR) (Iraq and Af	ghanistan veterans p	rescribed opioids within 1 yea	r of a pain-related diag	nosis)
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	RR 1.62 (1.44 to 1.81)	LOW
PTSD for predict	ing overlapping	concurrent opioid pre	escriptions (OR) (Veter	ans aged ≥ 65 years with	n a new MSD diagnos	iis)		
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	OR 0.94 (0.82 to 1.05)	MODERATE
Major depressio	n for predicting	overlapping concurrer	nt opioid prescriptions	(OR) (Veterans aged ≥ 6	5 years with a new N	ISD diagnosis)		

1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup> n ir	no serious nconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.32 (1.15 to 1.52)	HIGH	
---	--------------	--	----------------------------	--	---------------------------	------	------------------------	------	--

<sup>7</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Methods: : Poison regression with robust error variance adjusted for sociodemographic factors (age, sex, race/ethnicity, marital status, VA facility type - medical centre vs community clinic) and military service characteristics ( component, rank, service branch, and number of deployments); downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regression analysis adjusted for age, sex, ethnicity, pain intensity (NRS), co morbid diagnoses, overall clinical severity (CII), mental health diagnoses: depressive disorder, substance use disorder (alcohol and illicit drug use disorders) and PTSD

<sup>4</sup>Downgraded by one increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 50: Clinical evidence profile: History of mood disorder

			Quality	assessment			Effect	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
listory of mod	d disorders f	or predicting shoppi	ing behaviour (OR) (opioid	-naïve patients initiating o	pioid use (mean age (SD):	53.1 (17.1) years))		
-	Cohort study		ng behaviour (OR) (opioid	-naïve patients initiating o	pioid use (mean age (SD): no serious imprecision		OR 1.4 (1.1 to 1.8)	VERY
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>		serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.4 (1.1 to 1.8)	

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 due to the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 51: Clinical evidence profile: Concurrent use of antidepressants

Quality assessment	Effect	Quality
--------------------	--------	---------

Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	
Concurrent use of a	Intidepressan	ts for predicting cod	eine shopping behaviour	(HR) (adults with CNCF	?)			
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.93 (0.53 to 1.63)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 52: Clinical evidence profile: Previous use of antipsychotics

Quality assessment								Qualit
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Previous use of ant	psychotics for	or predicting codeine	e shopping behaviour (HR	(adults with CNCP)				
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.03 (0.42 to 2.53)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 53: Clinical evidence profile: History of benzodiazepine use

			Qua	lity assessment			Effect	<b>0</b>
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality

	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.56 (0.70 to 3.49)	LOW
reviou	s use of anxiolytic	BZDs for predicting c	odeine shopping behavi	our (HR) (adults with C	NCP)			
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.63 (0.32 to 1.26)	LOW
istory	of BZD use for pre	dicting shopping beha	aviour (OR) (opioid-naïve	e patients initiating opi	oid use (mean age (SD): 53.1 (	17.1) years))		
listory	of BZD use for pre		aviour (OR) (opioid-naïve no serious inconsistency			<b>17.1) years))</b> none	OR 1.6 (1.1 to 2.2)	VER) LOW
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>4</sup>		none	OR 1.6 (1.1 to 2.2)	

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

<sup>3</sup>Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to the proportion of those taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

#### Table 54: Clinical evidence profile: Concurrent use of benzodiazepine/ concurrent use of gabapentin/pregabalin

			Quality as	ssessment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Concurrent u	ise of hypnotic	BZD for predicting co	deine shopping behaviour	(HR) (adults with CNC	P)			

	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.89 (0.43 to 1.83)	LOW
oncurre	ent use of anxiolyt	ic BZD for predicting c	odeine shopping behavio	ur (HR) (adults with CN	CP)			_
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 3.12 (1.55 to 6.26)	LOW
eceipt o	of benzodiazepine	prescription versus no	n-receipt of benzodiazepi	ne prescription for pred	dicting second early opi	oid refill (HR) (adults age	d with CNCP)	
	Cohort study	No serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>4</sup>	No serious imprecision	none	HR: 1.54 (1.09 to 2.18)	MODERATI
oncurre	ent use of BZD for	predicting composite c	outcome – any combinatio	on of opioid abuse, dep	endence or overdose (h	azard ratio) (opioid naïve	patients aged 18 or over)	
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	No serious imprecision	None	HR: 1.38 (1.17 to 1.61)	LOW
concurre ver)	ent use of gabaper	ntin/ pregabalin for pre	dicting composite outcom	ne – any combination of	opioid abuse, depende	nce or overdose (hazard	ratio) (opioid naïve patien	ts aged 18 or
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	No serious imprecision	None	HR: 1.54 (1.29 to 1.84)	LOW
	ent use of BZD and tients aged 18 or o		n within 30 days for predic	cting composite outcon	ne – any combination of	opioid abuse, dependen	ce or overdose (hazard ra	tio) (opioid
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	No serious imprecision	None	HR: 1.68 (1.38 to 2.04)	LOW
	ent use of BZD and tients aged 18 or o		n not within 30 days for pr	redicting composite out	come – any combinatio	n of opioid abuse, depen	dence or overdose (hazar	d ratio) (opioi
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias⁵	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>6</sup>	No serious imprecision	none	HR: 1.66 (1.24 to 2.22)	LOW
erious i Downg Methoc ovariate Downg	isk of bias raded by 1 incren Is: cox proportion as included: sex, a	nent as the confidence al hazards model ana age, race, medical ins nent due to potential ir	e interval crossed the nul lysis, including key coval urance, medical comorbi	l line riates used in analysis idities, pain, mental he	to assess if receipt of I alth and substance use	benzodiazepine prescrij e disorders	er; downgraded by 1 incre otion is an independent ri use disorder/ dependenc	sk factor. Ke

<sup>5</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>6</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the proportion of those treated for chronic pain unclear

#### Table 55: Clinical evidence profile: Previous use of strong opioids

	Quality assessment								
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality	
Previous use of ar	tipsychotics	for predicting codeine	shopping behaviour (HF	R) (adults with CNCP)					
1	Cohort study		no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 2.94 (1.24 to 6.98)	MODERAE	
Prior use of strong	opioids for	predicting tramadol sho	pping behaviour (HR) (0	CNCP patients treated	with tramadol)				
1	Cohort study		no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	HR 5.7 (1.9 to 17.0)	VERY LOW	

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards model developed according to clinically relevant variables such as age and gender; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: cox proportional hazards mode; confounders not specified; downgraded by 2 increments due to serious risk of bias

<sup>3</sup>Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval was judged to be very wide

#### Table 56: Clinical evidence profile: Long-term opioid therapy

			Quality asse	essment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Periods or	n long-term opi	ioids versus not being in a	an episode of long-term	prescribing for predic	ting incident addiction	to opioids (new long-terr	n opioid users)	
1	Cohort study	No serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 2.83 (2.13 to 3.76)	HIGH

Long term	ong term opioid therapy (≥90 days) vs shorter term opioid therapy (<90 days) for predicting opioid dependence (adj. HR) (patients with polyneuropathy)									
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 2.85 (1.54-5.47)	LOW		
Long term	opioid therap	v (>90 dave) ve shorter te	rm onioid thorany (<90 d	lave) for predicting on	ioid abuse (adi HR) (n	atients with polyneuropat	h. ()			
_•g .•		y (230 days) vs shorter te	ini opiolu therapy (<90 u	ays) for predicting op	iolu abuse (auj. Till) (p	allents with polyneuropat	ny)			

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards regression adjusted for age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co-prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions <sup>2</sup> Methods: multivariate logistic regressions adjusted for of Charlson Comorbidity Index comorbidities, sex, and use of non-opioid analgesics; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line and was judged to be very wide

#### Table 57: Clinical evidence profile: Opioid dosage

			Effect					
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Long-ter users)	m episode at	average daily dose (ADD	)) <20 mg MED versus no	t being in an episode of	long-term pres	cribing for predicting incident addictior	to opioids (new long-te	rm opioid
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.06 (0.71 to 1.60)	LOW
Long-ter	m episode AI	DD ≥20 and <50 mg MED	versus not being in an ep	isode of long-term pres	cribing for prec	licting incident addiction to opioids (ne	w long-term opioid users	5)
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 3.59 (2.55 to 5.06)	MODERATE
Long-ter	m episode AI	DD ≥ 50 mg MED versus⊫	not being in an episode o	f long-term prescribing	for predicting in	ncident addiction to opioids (new long-t	erm opioid users)	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	no serious indirectness	no serious imprecision	none	HR 9.33 (6.55 to 13.29)	MODERATE
Opioid de and over		l (continuous) for predic	ting composite outcome	any combination of opi	oid abuse, depe	endence or overdose) (hazard ratio) (opi	oids naïve patients ageo	l 18 years

1	Cohort study serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	HR 1.003 (1.001-1.006)	LOW	
---	--	--------------------------	--	---------------------------	------	------------------------	-----	--

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: Cox proportional hazards regression adjusted for age at baseline, gender, year of start of follow-up, ever smoking, ever alcohol drinking, overweight (BMI ≥25 kg/m2), geographical region, deprivation level, prior recorded depression, co-prescribing of NSAID and total number of co-morbid conditions; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line

<sup>3</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the proportion of those treated for chronic pain was unclear

#### Table 58: Clinical evidence profile: Opioid formulation (Oxycodone IR versus tapentadol IR)

			Quality as	sessment			Effect	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
Tapentadol I	IR vs oxycodo	one IR for predicting (o	pioid) shopping behavio	ur (OR) (opioid-naïve	patients initiating opioid u	ise)		
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	No serious imprecision	none	OR 0.45 (0.36 to 0.55)	LOW
Tapentadol I	IR vs oxycodo	one IR for predicting in	cident opioid abuse (OR	) (opioid-naïve patients	s initiating opioid use)	·		
1			no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.44 (0.37 to 0.54)	LOW
Oxycodone	IR vs tapenta	dol IR for predicting sh	opping behaviour (OR) (	opioid-naïve patients i	nitiating opioid use)	•	•	•
1	Cohort study	no serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 3.5 (2.8 to 4.4)	MODERATE
Oxycodone	IR vs tapenta	dol IR for predicting he	avy shopping behaviour	(OR) (opioid-naïve pa	tients initiating opioid us	e)		
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias⁴	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>5</sup>	none	OR 6.9 (2.5 to 19.3)	VERY LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariable analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to proportion of participants taking opioids for chronic pain being unclear

<sup>3</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: conditional logistic regression conducted using matched analysis, taking into account matching variables of time of opioid exposure, geographic area, specialty of the prescriber and age and adjusting for gender, benzodiazepine use and type of payment at the first opioid exposure.

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to risk of bias <sup>5</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval was judged to be very wide

## Table 59: Clinical evidence profile: Duration of action in the first prescription

			Quality as	ssessment			Effect	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Long ver	sus short act	ing opioids for predicting	overlapping opioid preso	criptions across the six fo	llowing 3-month quarters (	risk difference) (priv	vately insured patients aged 18	-64 years)
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	Risk difference 14.70 (12.7 to 16.7)	VERY LOW
Long ver years)	sus short act	ing opioids for predicting	having 3 or more opioid	prescribers across the six	following 3-month quarte	rs (risk difference) (	privately insured patients aged	18-64
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	Serious imprecision	none	Risk difference 1.8 (0.9 to 2.7%)	VERY LOW
Long-act or over)	ing opioids v	ersus short-acting for pred	dicting composite outcor	me – any combination of c	ppioid abuse, dependence	or overdose (hazard	ratio) (opioid naïve patients ag	jed 18 years
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	HR 2.17 (0.81 to 5.86)	VERY LOW
		ort-acting and long-acting o ose (hazard ratio) (opioid n			alone) for predicting comp	osite outcome – any	combination of opioid abuse,	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 2.12 (1.78 to 2.54)	LOW
		ort-acting and long-acting opse (hazard ratio) (opioid n			ng alone) for predicting co	omposite outcome –	any combination of opioid abu	se,
-			no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	HR 1.99 (1.24 to 3.18)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: linear probability model adjusting for ordinal indicators of the quarters/3-month intervals following the first prescription (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Methods: multivariate analysis: Cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the proportion of those treated for chronic pain was unclear

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the CI crossed the null line

Table 60: Clinical evidence profile: Duration of opioid supply in the first prescription
--

			Quality as	ssessment			Effect	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Number	of days' supp	oly for predicting composit	te outcome (any combina	ation of opioid abuse, dep	endence or overdose) (haz	zard ratio) (opioid naï	ive patients aged 18 years and	l over)
Number			te outcome (any combina no serious inconsistency	• • •	endence or overdose) (haz	zard ratio) (opioid nai	ive patients aged 18 years and HR 1.025 (1.019 to 1.032)	LOW
[	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision	none		LOW
[	Cohort study supply vs 3 ≤	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision	none lifference) (privately i	HR 1.025 (1.019 to 1.032)	LOW
⊳7 days'	Cohort study supply vs 3 ≤ Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup> <b>days for predicting overla</b> Very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup>	no serious inconsistency apping opioid prescription no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>3</sup>	no serious imprecision g 3-month quarters (risk c no serious imprecision	none lifference) (privately i	HR 1.025 (1.019 to 1.032)	LOW ears) VERY LOV

1 Methods: multivariate analysis: cox proportional hazards with stepwise selection adjusted for age, sex and comorbidities; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias 2 Methods: multivariate analysis: linear probability model adjusting for ordinal indicators of the quarters/3-month intervals following the first prescription (second, third, sixth, with the first quarter as the reference), calendar year indicators, patient demographics (age groups, sex); dichotomous indicators of back pain, neck pain, arthritis/joint pain and other pain, an indicator of any mental health disorder, alcohol use disorder, any drug use disorder and tobacco use disorder, socio-demographic profiles at the patient's residential ZIP codes; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

3 Downgraded by 1 increment as the proportion of those treated for chronic pain was unclear

## Table 61: Clinical evidence profile: Dual use of Veterans health administration (VHA) pharmacy and Medicare part D

	Quality assessment							
Number of studies	Design	Effect (95% CI)	Quality					
Dual use of \	/HA and Med	icare part D for predictin	g overlapping concurrer	nt opioid prescriptions	a (OR) (Veterans aged ≥ 6	5 years with a new MSD diagno	sis)	
1	Cohort study	OR 5.28 (4.60 to 6.05)	MODERATE					
<sup>1</sup> Methods: n	nultivariate lo	gistic regression analy	sis adjusted for age, se	x, ethnicity, pain inter	nsity (NRS), co morbid o	liagnoses, overall clinical seve	erity (CII), mental heal	th

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the risk factor may be of limited relevance to the NHS setting.

## Table 62: Clinical evidence profile: Type of payment

			Quality a	ssessment			Effect	<b>0</b> . W
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Medicaid v	s cash paymen	t for predicting shop	ping behaviour (OR) (opio	id-naïve patients initiating	opioid use (mean age	(SD): 53.1 (17.1) years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.3 (0.3 to 0.4)	VERY LOW
Medicaid v	s cash paymen	t for predicting opioi	id abuse (OR) (opioid-naïv	e patients initiating opioid	use (mean age (SD): 53	3.1 (17.1) years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.2)	VERY LOW
Medicare	vs cash payme	nt for predicting sho	pping behaviour (OR) (opio	pid-naïve patients initiating	g opioid use (mean age	(SD): 53.1 (17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.4 (0.3 to 0.4)	VERY LOW

	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.7 (0.6 to 0.8)	VERY LOW
commerc	ial insurance v	s cash payment for p	redicting shopping behavi	our (OR) (opioid-naïve pat	ents initiating opioid u	se (mean age (SD): 53.1 (′	7.1) years))	
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.2 (0.2 to 0.2)	VERY LO
Commerc	cial insurance v	s cash payment for p	redicting opioid abuse (OF	R) (opioid-naïve patients in	itiating opioid use (mea	an age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) ye	ars))	
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of	no serious inconsistency	very serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.3 (0.3 to 0.4)	VERY LOV

<sup>1</sup>Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup>Downgraded by 1 increment due to the proportion of those being prescribed opioids for chronic pain being unclear and by 1 increment due the risk factor being of limited relevance to the NHS setting

<sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 63: Clinical evidence profile: Painful condition (present vs absent)

		Effect	Quality					
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Arthritis f	or predicting	shopping behaviour	(opioid-naïve patients ir	nitiating opioid use (OR) (	mean age (SD): 53.1 (17	.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.8 (0.7 to 1.0)	VERY LOW
Arthritis f	or predicting	opioid abuse (opioid	-naïve patients initiating	opioid use (OR) (mean a	ge (SD): 53.1 (17.1) year	s))		
1	-	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1 (0.8 to 1.1)	VERY LOW

ack pai	n for predicti	ng shopping behavior	ur (opioid-naïve patients	initiating opioid use (OF	R) (mean age (SD): 53.1 (	17.1) years))		
		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 2 (1.7 to 2.3)	VERY LOV
ack pai	n for predicti	ng opioid abuse (opio	id-naïve patients initiati	ng opioid use (OR) (mea	n age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) ye	ears))		
		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.7 (1.5 to 2.0)	VERY LOV
racture	s for predictir	ng shopping behaviou	ır (opioid-naïve patients	initiating opioid use (OR	:) (mean age (SD): 53.1 (′	17.1) years))		
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.1 (0.75 to 1.7)	VERY LOV
racture	s for predictir	ng opioid abuse (opio	id-naïve patients initiatir	ng opioid use (OR) (mear	n age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) ye	ars))		
		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.2 (0.8 to 1.6)	VERY LOV
leadach	e for predicti	ng shopping behavio	ur (opioid-naïve patients	initiating opioid use (OF	R) (mean age (SD): 53.1 (	17.1) years))		
		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.8 (0.6 to 1.2)	VERY LOV
leadach	e for predicti	ng opioid abuse (opio	id-naïve patients initiati	ng opioid use (OR) (mea	n age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) ye	ears))	ł	
		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.2 (0.9 to 1.5)	VERY LOV
<i>l</i> lalignar	cy for predic	ting shopping behavio	our (opioid-naïve patient	s initiating opioid use (C	DR) (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) years))	ł	
	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.7 (0.5 to 0.9)	VERY LOV
Aalignar	cy for predic	ting opioid abuse (op	ioid-naïve patients initia	ting opioid use (OR) (me	an age (SD): 53.1 (17.1)	years))	·	
_	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	OR 0.4 (0.3 to 0.5)	VERY LOV
		bias <sup>1</sup>	ng behaviour (opioid-naï		· ·			

1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.9 (0.7 to 1.1)	VERY LOW
Muscul	oskeletal pain	for predicting opioid a	abuse (opioid-naïve pati	ents initiating opioid use	(OR) (mean age (SD): 53	3.1 (17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.3)	VERY LOW
Neurop	athic pain for p	predicting shopping b	ehaviour (opioid-naïve p	batients initiating opioid ι	ıse (OR) (mean age (SD)	: 53.1 (17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.2 (0.8 to 1.8)	VERY LOW
Neurop	athic pain for p	predicting opioid abus	se (opioid-naïve patients	initiating opioid use (OR	) (mean age (SD): 53.1 (′	17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.1 (0.7 to 1.6)	VERY LOW
Other p	ains for predic	ting shopping behavi	our (opioid-naïve patien	ts initiating opioid use (O	R) (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.2 (0.6 to 2.3)	VERY LOW
Other p	ains for predic	ting opioid abuse (op	ioid-naïve patients initia	ting opioid use (OR) (mea	an age (SD): 53.1 (17.1) \	vears))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	OR 1.7 (1.0 to 2.8)	VERY LOW
Reprodu	uctive pain for	predicting shopping b	behaviour (opioid-naïve	patients initiating opioid	use (OR) (mean age (SD	): 53.1 (17.1) years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.7 (0.3 to 1.8)	VERY LOW
Reprod	uctive pain for	predicting opioid abu	ise (opioid-naïve patient	s initiating opioid use (O	R) (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.8 (0.4 to 1.7)	VERY LOW
Visceral	pain for predi	cting shopping behav	iour (opioid-naïve patier	nts initiating opioid use (0	' DR) (mean age (SD): 53.1	(17.1) vears))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.0 (0.8 to 1.2)	VERY LOW

Visceral	pain for predi	icting opioid abuse (o	pioid-naïve patients init	iating opioid use (OR) (me	ean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1)	years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.1 (0.9 to 1.3)	VERY LOW
Wound in	njury for pred	icting shopping beha	viour (opioid-naïve patie	ents initiating opioid use (	OR) (mean age (SD): 53	.1 (17.1) years))		
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 1.0 (0.5 to 1.8)	VERY LOW
Wound in	njury for pred	icting opioid abuse (o	opioid-naïve patients init	iating opioid use (OR) (m	ean age (SD): 53.1 (17.1	) years))		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	OR 0.7 (0.4 to 1.4)	VERY LOW
<sup>1</sup> Methods	· multivariate	analysis: logistic re	aression adjusted for A	de sex and types of pay	ments at the index da	te: benzodiazepine use in the 3	8 months before the in	dex date: maior

<sup>1</sup>Methods: multivariate analysis: logistic regression adjusted for Age, sex and types of payments at the index date; benzodiazepine use in the 3 months before the index date; major depression, mood and anxiety disorders or abuse of nonopioid medications (such as alcohol or tobacco) and pain-related diagnoses in the 12 months before the index date; downgraded by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup>Downgraded by 1 increment due to the proportion of those being prescribed opioids for chronic pain being unclear and by 1 increment due the risk factor being of limited relevance to the NHS setting

<sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

## F.2 GRADE tables for Benzodiazepines

Table 04. Clinical evidence prome. Age	Table 64:	Clinical evidence profile: Age	
--	-----------	--------------------------------	--

			Quality asse	essment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quanty
Age (continuous)	for predicting dose es	calation (daily ave	rage intake of ≥ 1 defir	ned daily dose over a	3-month period	d) (new BZD users with a first redemption	on for diazepam or ox	azepam)
1	Cohort study		no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 0.984 (0.977 to 0.99)	LOW
25-34 years vs 18-	-24 years for predicting	g benzodiazepine d	lependence (HR) (ben	zodiazepine users)		•		•

1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision⁴	none	HR 1.23 (0.35 to 4.31) VER LOV
35-44 vs 18	8-24 years for predicting	benzodiazepine depend	dence (HR) (benzo	diazepine users)			
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	HR 0.66 (0.33 to 1.31) VER LOV
45-54 year	s vs 18-24 years for pred	icting benzodiazepine of	lependence (HR) (	benzodiazepine user	5)		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision⁴	none	HR 0.87 (0.37 to 2.06) VER LOV
55-64 year	s vs 18-24 years for pred	icting benzodiazepine of	lependence (HR) (	benzodiazepine user	5)		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	HR 1.08 (0.37 to 3.11) VER LOV
65+ years	vs 18-24 years for predic	ting benzodiazepine de	pendence (HR) (b	enzodiazepine users)	·		· · ·
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	Serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	none	HR 1.47 (0.34 to 6.27) VER LOV

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

<sup>3</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

<sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 65: Clinical evidence profile: Gender

			Quality	assessment			Effect	Quellin
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality

Female vs m oxazepam)	ale for predic	ting dose escalation (da	ily average intake of ≥ 1	defined daily dose ove	r a 3-month period) (HR)	(new BZD users with a first rec	demption for diazepam or	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision		HR 0.571 (0.505 to 0.645)	LOW
Male vs fema	ale for predict	ing benzodiazepine depe	endence (HR) (benzodiaz	cepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>3</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	serious imprecision <sup>4</sup>	None	HR 1.33 (0.55 to 3.21)	VERY LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

<sup>3</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias <sup>4</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

## Table 66: Clinical evidence profile: Family Background

			Quality ass	essment			Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quanty
Black vs white for p	lack vs white for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (HR) (benzodiazepine users)							
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.18 (0.15 to 0.21)	LOW
Latino vs white for	predicting be	enzodiazepine dependen	ce (HR) (benzodiazepine	e users)		·	·	
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.2 (0.17 to 0.23)	LOW
Asian vs white for p	predicting be	nzodiazepine dependenc	ce (HR) (benzodiazepine	users)	•			
-		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>		No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.43 (0.25 to 0.74)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias

#### Table 67: Clinical evidence profile: First benzodiazepine dispensation

			Quality	assessment			Effect	0
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
Diazepam vs oxazepam)	oxazepam fo	or predicting dose escala	tion (daily average intak	e of ≥ 1 defined daily d	lose over a 3-month peri	od) (HR) (new BZD users with a	first redemption for diazep	am or

1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 1.328 (1.167 to 1.512)	LOW
4	•							

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 68: Clinical evidence profile: Previous medication

			Quality	assessment	_	_	Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
Antidepress or oxazepan		ium for predicting dose	escalation (daily averag	e intake of ≥ 1 defined	daily dose over a 3-mor	nth period) (HR) (new BZD user	s with a first redemption for	diazepam
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 1.687 (1.491 to 1.91)	LOW
Antipsychot oxazepam)	ics for predic	cting dose escalation (d	aily average intake of ≥ ′	1 defined daily dose o	ver a 3-month period) (H	R) (new BZD users with a first i	redemption for diazepam or	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 1.753 (1.488 to 2.066)	LOW

	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 3.042 (95% CI 2.285 to 4.047)	LOV		
Drugs for rheumatic disease for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepar or oxazepam)										
	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	serious imprecision <sup>3</sup>	none	HR 1.216 (0.968 to 1.529)	VER LOV		
Drugs for COPD for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam)										
•	•	icting dose escalation (	daily average intake of ≥	1 defined daily dose of	over a 3-month period) (	HR) (new BZD users with a first	redemption for diazepam or			

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

<sup>3</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

#### Table 69: Clinical evidence profile: Education

			Quality a	assessment	_		Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% CI)	Quality
High vs low f	ligh vs low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam)							
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	no serious imprecision	none	HR 0.647 (0.574 to 0.73)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 70: Clinical evidence profile: Income

		Quality assessment	Effect	Quality
--	--	--------------------	--------	---------

Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	
Average vs low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam)								
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.719 (0.615 to 0.841)	LOW
High vs low for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first re						emption for diazepam or oxaz	epam)	
			no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	HR 0.569 (0.453 to 0.714)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

#### Table 71: Clinical evidence profile: Type of work

Quality assessment							Effect	Quality
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
	Private sector vs no registration for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for diazepam or oxazepam)						for	
1	Cohort study	serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	serious indirectness <sup>2</sup>	No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.622 (0.520 to 0.743)	LOW
	ublic sector vs no registration for predicting dose escalation (daily average intake of ≥ 1 defined daily dose over a 3-month period) (HR) (new BZD users with a first redemption for iazepam or oxazepam)						or	
	,		no serious inconsistency		no serious imprecision	none	HR 0.613 (0.518 to 0.725)	LOW

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for socio-demographic status and previous drug use; unclear if the analysis adjusted for other covariates in addition to the aforementioned and those entered in the model as prognostic factors; downgrade by 1 increment due to serious risk of bias

<sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment due to outcome indirectness

Quality assessment						Effect	Quality	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quality
Alcohol vs no diag	nosis for pre	edicting benzodiazepine	dependence (HR) (bena	zodiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.77 (0.6 to 0.99)	LOW
Marijuana vs no di	agnosis for I	oredicting benzodiazepi	ne dependence (HR) (be	enzodiazepine users)	•	•		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 0.28 (0.2 to 0.38)	LOW
Cocaine vs no dia	qnosis for pr	edicting benzodiazepine	e dependence (HR) (ben	zodiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		Serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.13 (0.79 to 1.61)	VERY LO
Opioid vs no diagr	nosis for pre	dicting benzodiazepine	dependence (HR) (benz	odiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		Serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 3.9 (1.18 to 12.89)	VERY LO
Tobacco vs no dia	gnosis for p	redicting benzodiazepin	e dependence (HR) (ber	nzodiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 2.08 (1.18 to 3.67)	LOW
Pain medications	vs no diagno	sis for predicting benzo	diazepine dependence	(HR) (benzodiazepine (	users)			
1		Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>		No serious indirectness		none	HR 0.71 (0.58 to 0.86)	LOW

#### Table 72: Clinical evidence profile: Substance use diagnosis

1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	No serious indirectness	No serious	none	HR 2.03 (1.04 to 3.95)	LOW	
	,		,		imprecision				l

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line or was judged to be very wide

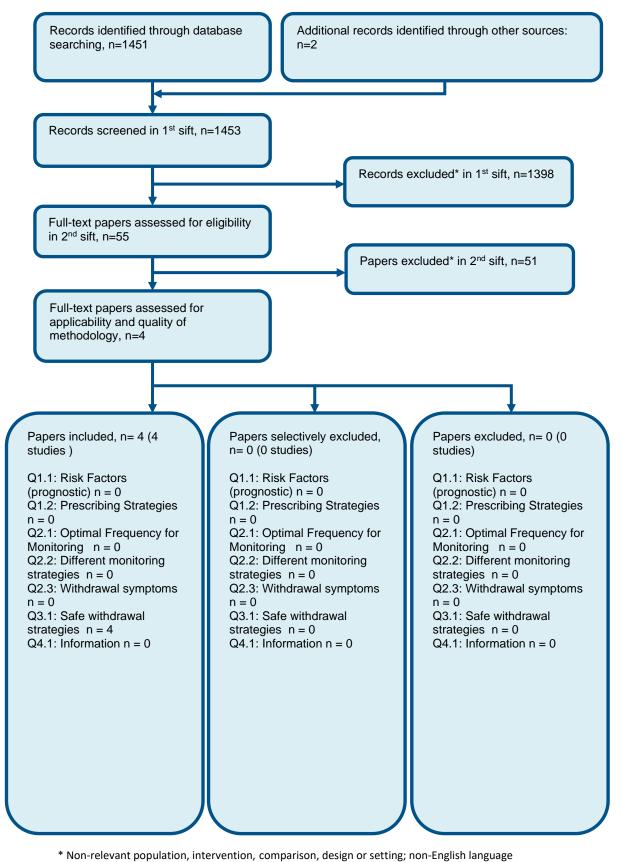
#### Table 73: Clinical evidence profile: Mental health disorder diagnosis

Quality assessment						Effect	Quality	
Number of studies	Design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision	Other considerations (including publication bias where possible)	Effect (95% Cl)	Quanty
Depression vs no o	diagnosis for	r predicting benzodiaze	pine dependence (HR) (	benzodiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 1.43 (0.99 to 2.08)	LOW
Anxiety vs no diag	nosis for pre	edicting benzodiazepine	dependence (HR) (ben:	zodiazepine users)	•	•		
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		No serious imprecision	none	HR 1.6 (1.02 to 2.51)	LOW
Bipolar vs no diagi	nosis for pre	dicting benzodiazepine	dependence (HR) (benz	odiazepine users)				
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		Serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 1.02 (0.69 to 1.51)	VERY LOW
PTSD vs no diagno	TSD vs no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (HR) (benzodiazepine users)							
1	Cohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency		Serious imprecision <sup>2</sup>	none	HR 0.91 (0.65 to 1.27)	VERY LOW
Sleeping disturban	eeping disturbance vs, no diagnosis for predicting benzodiazepine dependence (HR) (benzodiazepine users)							

1 Cc	ohort study	Very serious risk of bias <sup>1</sup>	no serious inconsistency	 	none	HR 0.69 (0.53 to 0.89)	LOW	
				imprecision				l

<sup>1</sup> Methods: Cox proportional hazard regression model adjusted for substance use disorder diagnosis (alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, opioid, tobacco, pain medication), mental health disorder diagnosis, age, sex, race; model also included interactions between age and sex; downgraded by 2 increments due to very serious risk of bias <sup>2</sup> Downgraded by 1 increment as the confidence interval crossed the null line

## Appendix G Economic evidence study selection



1

197 Safe prescribing and withdrawal management for adults DRAFT October 2021

## Appendix H Economic evidence tables

None.

## 1 Appendix I Health economic model

This question was not prioritised for health economic modelling.

## 1 Appendix J Excluded studies

## 2 J.1 Clinical studies

3

## Table 73: Studies excluded from the clinical review

Study	Exclusion reason
Adejumo 2021 <sup>1</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Adewumi 2018 <sup>2</sup>	Systematic review. No relevant outcomes (severe opioid poisoning or mortality).
Airagnes 2019 <sup>3</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Al Dabbagh 2014 <sup>4</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Alam 2012 <sup>5</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Almakadma 2013 <sup>6</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Alzeer 2018 <sup>7</sup>	Systematic review: protocol differs from review protocol
Anciano Granadillo 20188	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use & post- operative complications).
Anderson 2015 <sup>9</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use)
Atluri 2004 <sup>10</sup>	Study design does not meet protocol: case-control study
Azad 2019 <sup>11</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Banerjee 2019 <sup>12</sup>	Incorrect population: already prescribed opioids at baseline
Barnas 1993 <sup>13</sup>	Incorrect population: already prescribed benzodiazepines at baseline
Barry 2018 <sup>14</sup>	Incorrect population: already prescribed opioids at the baseline
Bartels 2018 <sup>15</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: long term use).
Beaudoin 2014 <sup>16</sup>	Incorrect population meeting exclusion criteria: emergency department patients discharged with a prescription
Bedard 2017 <sup>18</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: prolonged use, increase in opioid use)
Bedard 2017 <sup>17</sup>	No relevant outcomes (outcome reported: prolonged use)
Belgrade 2006 <sup>20</sup>	No relevant outcomes (global impression of compliance: good, fair or poor with latter referring to various signs of misuse); incorrect population: people taking opioids at screening.
Ben-Joseph 2016 <sup>21</sup>	No relevant outcomes: length of treatment, use of extended- release/long-acting opioids.
Berecki-Gisolf 2014 <sup>22</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Bertenthal 2018 <sup>23</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term & short-term use
Beyer 2019 <sup>24</sup>	Population does not meet protocol: only 40% being prescribed medicines associated with dependence at baseline
Bhashyam 2018 <sup>25</sup>	Incorrect design: cross-sectional & no relevant outcomes: persistent use, duration of use, total prescribed opioids
Bicket 2019 <sup>26</sup>	No relevant outcomes: new persistent opioid use
Birke 2017 <sup>27</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Birke 2016 <sup>28</sup>	Incorrect design: two-gate cross-sectional study; no relevant outcomes: long-term use
Blanch 2015 <sup>29</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Blanch 2018 <sup>30</sup>	Incorrect design: cross-sectional; no relevant outcomes: opioid access

Study	Exclusion reason
Blanco 2016 <sup>31</sup>	Population does not meet protocol: not being prescribed medicines
	associated with dependence at baseline.
Boscarino 2010 <sup>34</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Boscarino 201135	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Bonnet 2017 <sup>32</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Booher <sup>33</sup>	Incorrect study design: integrative review
Brady 2017 <sup>36</sup>	Systematic review of studies not meeting protocol
Brat 2018 <sup>37</sup>	Population & setting do not meet protocol: people with post-surgery prescription i.e., acute pain setting
Broekmans 2010 <sup>38</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Brummett 2017 <sup>39</sup>	No relevant outcomes: new persistent opioid use (90-180 days post-surgery)
Bruneau 2021 <sup>40</sup>	Incorrect population: already prescribed opioids at baseline
Burke 2020 <sup>41</sup>	Incorrect population: people being prescribed opioids with no breakdown of chronic and acute pain. Breakdown is provided for the specialty that prescribed the opioid (17% in surgery and 10% in dental specialty), suggesting >20% had acute pain.
Bushnell 2017 <sup>42</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use & simultaneous new use of antidepressants and benzodiazepines
Calcaterra 201843	No relevant outcomes: chronic opioid use
Calcaterra 201644	No relevant outcomes: chronic opioid use
Callaghan 2019 <sup>45</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid use, guideline-recommended opioid use, specialist visits; incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Campbell 201547	Incorrect study design: article about study with no relevant outcomes
Campbell 2014 <sup>46</sup>	No relevant outcomes such as pain, quality-of-life and physical health
Campbell 2015 <sup>48</sup>	Incorrect population: Prospective cohort of people already on opioids
Campbell 202049	Incorrect population: already prescribed opioids at the baseline
Capaldi 2019 <sup>50</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid misuse (of prescribed drugs obtained from sources other than doctors) or taking more than prescribed that was different from prescribed opioid use
Carroll 2012 <sup>51</sup>	No relevant outcomes: days to cessation, pain.
Cepeda 2013 <sup>53</sup>	Incorrect population: >20% had malignancy
Chalmers 2019 <sup>55</sup>	Incorrect population: current opioid users; no risk factors, screening tools for opioid misuse
Chaudhary 2019 <sup>56</sup>	Incorrect study design: case-control; no relevant outcomes: sustained prescription use
Chaudhary 201757	No relevant outcomes: discontinuation and sustained use
Chaudhary 201958	No relevant outcomes: length of prescription
Cheatle 2019 <sup>59</sup>	Population already on opioids; design: secondary analysis of cross- sectional study with no relevant outcome
Cheng 200862	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional; no relevant outcomes
Cho 2020 <sup>63</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid overdose
Chou 200965	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Chou 2014 <sup>64</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Chou 2015 <sup>67</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol

Study	Exclusion reason
Chou 2020 <sup>66</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Cicero 2019 <sup>69</sup>	Population: on opioids at time of assessment
Ciesielski 2016 <sup>70</sup>	People were on opioids prior to the baseline timepoint
Clarke 2014 <sup>71</sup>	No relevant outcome: prolonged opioid use
Clift 1972 <sup>72</sup>	
	1/3 received drug not meeting protocol; no multivariate analysis
Cochran 2017 <sup>73</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Cochran 2017 <sup>74</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Connolly 2017 <sup>75</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term opioid use
Coplan 2017 <sup>77</sup>	Incorrect population: exposed to opioids; no relevant outcomes: study looking at prescription data- examining rate of intentional abuse, suicidal intents associated with exposure to buprenorphine transdermal system/patch
Coutinho 201878	CART analysis for opioid abuse outcome, no multivariate analysis and exact ORs for risk factors not reported in the papers
Coyle 2018 <sup>79</sup>	Narrative review: references checked
Cragg 2019 <sup>80</sup>	Systematic review & meta-analysis
Cragg 2017 <sup>81</sup>	Systematic review protocol
Driot 2019 <sup>82</sup>	Incorrect population: new gabapentinoid users taking at least one of various other drugs at baseline e.g., antidepressants, antipsychotics, opioids and part of the population had a cancer diagnosis or other psychiatric diagnosis e.g., schizophrenia or anxiety disorder
Dufour 2014 <sup>83</sup>	Incorrect study design: case-control study
Dunbar 1996 <sup>84</sup>	Population already on opioids at time of assessment; no multivariate analysis; case-control design
Dy 2019 <sup>85</sup>	Case-control study; no relevant outcomes: prolonged use
Edlund 2007 <sup>86</sup>	Incorrect population: Already chronic opioid users
Elzey 2016 <sup>87</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Fang 2009 <sup>88</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term opioid use & discontinuation
Fiorio 1990 <sup>89</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Fishbain 200890	Review not meeting protocol: reporting on the prevalence of addiction/ aberrant drug related behaviours
Ford 2015 <sup>91</sup>	Population not meeting protocol: adolescents aged 12-17
Foy 2016 <sup>92</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional & no relevant outcomes
Frankenburg 2014 <sup>93</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid use
Franklin 2009 <sup>94</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Fredheim 2014 <sup>95</sup>	No relevant outcomes: persistent opioid use
Fresán 2011 <sup>96</sup>	Study not in English
Fride Tvete 201597	Population and design not meeting protocol: looking at prescription data of people already on opioids; no relevant outcomes: excessive use
Fritz 201898	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Furlan 201699	Analysis not meeting protocol; no relevant outcomes: long-term use
Garvey 1986 <sup>100</sup>	Incorrect population: approximately 50% on benzodiazepine not on guideline medicine list; incorrect analysis: no multivariate analysis
Glei 2020 <sup>101</sup>	Incorrect population: population not being prescribed medicines associated with dependence

Study	Exclusion reason
Groenewald 2019 <sup>102</sup>	Incorrect study design: Cross-sectional study
Gryczynski 2017 <sup>103</sup>	No relevant outcomes: sensitivity and specificity of assessment tool for illicit drug use, alcohol use and prescription drug misuse with no multivariate analysis data on specific risk factors
Guerlais 2015 <sup>104</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional study with no multivariate analysis
Gustafsson 2013 <sup>105</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional study with no relevant outcomes
Hah 2017 <sup>106</sup>	Incorrect time point: Not following up people from an initial prescription
Halbert 2016 <sup>107</sup>	No relevant outcomes: long-term use
Haller 2017 <sup>108</sup>	Incorrect population: already on opioids at time of assessment; no multivariate analysis
Hauser 2020 <sup>109</sup>	Article not in English
Heo 2021 <sup>110</sup>	Incorrect population: prescribed opioids for acute post- operative pain
Himei 2006 <sup>111</sup>	No multivariate analysis (associations of characteristics with occurrence of discontinuation syndrome upon stopping antidepressants)
Hinther 2019 <sup>112</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Hooten 2015 <sup>114</sup>	No relevant outcomes: chronic use
Huffman 2015 <sup>115</sup>	Population already on opioids at time of initial assessment; multivariate analysis for past non-opioid substance abuse but it is likely most were also on opioids at the time
Hur 2021 <sup>116</sup>	Incorrect population: opioid use after surgery
lves 2006 <sup>117</sup>	Population already on opioids at study entry
Jamison 2010 <sup>118</sup>	Population already on opioids at study entry; no multivariate analysis
Jamison 2016 <sup>28</sup>	Population already on opioids; no multivariate analysis; no relevant outcomes
Jamison 2009 <sup>119</sup>	Population already on opioids at study entry; no multivariate analysis
Jobert 2021 <sup>120</sup>	Incorrect population: already prescribed benzodiazepines at the baseline
Kaplan 1988 <sup>121</sup>	Incorrect study design: descriptive observational study with no multivariate analysis
Karhade 2019 <sup>122</sup>	Incorrect study design: case-control study; no relevant outcomes: prolonged use
Katz 2013 <sup>123</sup>	Not following people up from an initial prescription and participants are not limited to people being prescribed opioids
Klimas 2019 <sup>124</sup>	Systematic review: protocol does not match review protocol
Knisely 2008 <sup>125</sup>	Cross-sectional study: administration of questionnaire at a time the population was already on opioids & had or had not developed addiction with questions examining factors during the past year; no multivariate analysis
Lalic 2018 <sup>126</sup>	Outcome not meeting protocol: persistent opioid use
Lawrence 2017 <sup>127</sup>	Systematic review: references checked
Layton 2014 <sup>128</sup>	Analysis does not meet protocol: univariate
Li 2020 <sup>129</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid overdose

Study	Exclusion reason
Lobo 2020 <sup>130</sup>	Incorrect population: people being prescribed opioids with no
	breakdown of chronic and acute pain. Breakdown is provided for the specialty that prescribed the opioid (4% in surgery and 20% in dental specialty), suggesting >20% had acute pain.
Lu 2015 <sup>131</sup>	No multivariate analysis
Mackay 1997 <sup>132</sup>	No multivariate analysis
Mahowald 2005 <sup>133</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional; no relevant outcomes
Manchikanti 2006 <sup>134</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross sectional study; no multivariate analysis
Manthey 2012 <sup>135</sup>	Incorrect time point: recruited people already taking benzodiazepines; incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Maree 2016 <sup>136</sup>	Systematic review of studies not meeting protocol
Martel 2014 <sup>137</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional; no multivariate analysis
Martel 2013 <sup>138</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional; no multivariate analysis
Morasco 2008 <sup>139</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Morasco 2013 <sup>140</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Morgan 2017 <sup>141</sup>	No relevant outcomes: chronic use
Nam 2020 <sup>142</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid overdose
Okumura <sup>144</sup>	Incorrect time point: recruited people already taking benzodiazepines
Padomanolakis 2021 <sup>146</sup>	Incorrect population: >20% prescribed an opioid for acute pain (dental pain or surgical pain)
Page 2020 <sup>145</sup>	Systematic review not meeting protocol
Passik <sup>148</sup>	Incorrect timepoint: baseline characteristics correspond to a time participants were already on opioids; no multivariate analysis
Peacock <sup>149</sup>	Incorrect timepoint: population on opioids at time of assessments
Portenoy <sup>150</sup>	Incorrect study design: observational study with no multivariate analysis or relevant outcomes
Raman 2019 <sup>145</sup>	No multivariate analysis
Rickels 1983 <sup>153</sup>	Incorrect population: non benzodiazepine naïve population
Robbins 1999 <sup>154</sup>	No multivariate analysis: results for relevant outcome only reported narratively
Robisnon-Papp 2012 <sup>155</sup>	No usable outcomes: study reports results narratively with no HRs or equivalent effect measure of multivariate analysis.
Rodriguez 2021 <sup>156</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Saper 2004 <sup>157</sup>	Correlation analysis with no examination of risk factors associated with relevant outcome
Skurtveit 2011 <sup>159</sup>	No multivariate analysis
Smit 2020 <sup>160</sup>	Population not followed up from initial point of prescription
Sridharan 2021 <sup>161</sup>	Incorrect population: opioid use after surgery
Sullivan 2010 <sup>162</sup>	No multivariate analysis; incorrect population: mixed drug classes (opioids and benzodiazepines) for which clinical evidence has been included
Szmulewicz 2021 <sup>163</sup>	No relevant outcomes: opioid overdose
Timmerman 2016 <sup>164</sup>	Systematic review of studies not meeting protocol
Tsao 2007 <sup>165</sup>	Non-opioid naïve participants
Tsao 2010 <sup>166</sup>	Non-opioid naïve participants; incorrect analysis: chi-square analysis results reported

Study	Exclusion reason
Turk 2008 <sup>167</sup>	Systematic review of studies not meeting protocol
Tvete 2013 <sup>168</sup>	No relevant data: results based on estimation modelling rather than actual data
Upadhye 2018 <sup>171</sup>	Setting does not meet protocol: Emergency department (ED) thus, highly likely to include patients with acute pain. 23.7% ED injury visits having an opioid prescription.
Voyer 2009 <sup>173</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Voyer 2011 <sup>172</sup>	Incorrect study design: cross-sectional
Wasan 2012 <sup>175</sup>	Incorrect time population: the patients had been prescribed opioid therapy for pain for $> 6$ months at study entry (inclusion criteria).
Wasan 2015 <sup>174</sup>	Incorrect population: patients had previously been on short acting opioids and allowed changing between morphine and oxycodone.
Webster 2005 <sup>176</sup>	Risk prediction tool for aberrant behaviours. No relevant outcomes for individual risk factors.
White 2009 <sup>177</sup>	Mixed population (currently on opiates and people starting opiates). No separate results.
Yoshizawa 2015 <sup>178</sup>	Incorrect outcomes
Ytterberg 1998 <sup>179</sup>	Incorrect population: patients were taking opioids prior to start of study.
Zhou 2021 <sup>181</sup>	No relevant outcomes: outcomes of opioid-use disorder and substance-use disorders appear to be related to heroin and other drugs and not dependence on the prescribed medicine

## 2 J.2 Health Economic studies

Published health economic studies that met the inclusion criteria (relevant population, comparators, economic study design, published 2005 or later and not from non-OECD country or USA) but that were excluded following appraisal of applicability and methodological quality are listed below. See the health economic protocol for more details.

None.

## 1 Appendix K Research recommendations

# K.1 Do individual circumstances such as social distress, low income status, access to alternative sources of support, alter the risk of dependence on prescribed medicines?

## 5 Why this is important

6 Medicines are often prescribed for conditions such as mental health disorders or chronic 7 pain. These conditions and others are more common among those who have experienced 8 established risk factors for health inequalities, such as social distress and economic 9 deprivation. Access to sources of support may be both a risk factor for, and a consequence 10 of, having these conditions. When offering medicines associated with dependence and 11 withdrawal, prescribers should know whether these individual circumstances can also 12 exacerbate these complications.

## 13 Rationale for research recommendation

Importance to 'patients' or the population	Dependence on prescribed medicines is a public
	health problem of policy interest, and may be increased among certain groups based on individual risk factors, which may also predispose people to the conditions for which these medicines are prescribed. Identification of factors that alter the risk of developing dependence, would help prescribers to tailor management plans to more appropriately support people who might be at a higher risk of developing problems associated with dependence. This would consequently improve patient outcomes when being prescribed these medicines, by reducing likelihood of problems associated with dependence.
Relevance to NICE guidance	This guideline explores individual risk assessment prior to prescribing, but there was a lack of evidence about whether individual circumstances increase risk of dependence on key groups of prescribed medicines. Further evidence in this area would therefore help inform future updates of this guideline.
Relevance to the NHS	Identification of people at increased risk of dependence on prescribed medicines can modify prescribing behaviour, support shared decision making, and may help resource allocation in proving people at higher risk with alternative or additional means of support.
National priorities	High This is relevant to Public Health England's Prescribed medicines review, which recommends further research is required in this area: <u>https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/prescrib</u> <u>ed-medicines-review-report</u> Reducing health inequalities is also an area of policy interest.
Current evidence base	There is poor quality evidence from retrospective studies, linking some individual factors to risk of benzodiazepine and opioid dependence, but the

	evidence is insufficiently strong or detailed to make decisions about public health or clinical approaches.
Equality considerations	This research would likely identify groups who already experience substantial health inequalities compared to the population as a whole. The findings could support measures to tackle these inequalities.
Modified PICO table	
Population	Adults (aged 18 years or older) with conditions for which medicines associated with dependence and withdrawal are prescribed (opioids, benzodiazepines, Z-drugs, gabapentinoids or antidepressants), at the point of initial prescribing or without dependence at baseline.
Intervention / Risk factor	<ul> <li>Indicators of social distress</li> <li>Low-income status</li> <li>Indicators of support networks (peer support / family support etc)</li> </ul>
Comparator	N/A
Outcome	Dependence on the prescribed medicine
Study design	A longitudinal prospective cohort with multivariate analysis adjusting for key confounders would be required.
Timeframe	Long term follow up would be required to demonstrate an association between the risk factors and any future dependence.
Additional information	None

1

## K.2 Do system level factors, such as prescriber training *alter* the risk of dependence on prescribed medicines?

## 5 Why this is important

Relevance to NICE guidance

Healthcare professionals may prescribe medicines associated with dependence or
 withdrawal symptoms due to pressure to prescribe, distress, expectations to be prescribed a
 medicine for their condition, or lack of non-pharmacological alternatives, despite it not being
 in the best interests of the person concerned. Although system-level factors, such as
 availability of prescriber training may result in reducing the risk of developing dependence on
 prescribed medicines, there is currently no evidence available to support this.

12	Rationale for research recommendation		
	Importance to 'patients' or the population	Dependence on prescribed medicines can lead to significant morbidity and reduced quality of life and it is a cause of public and political concern. Identification of system-level factors that alter the risk of developing dependence, for example prescriber training, could have a significant and sustained impact on a large number of people.	

System level factors were considered in this guideline and there was no evidence in this area,

	therefore further research would help inform future updates and may enable recommendations to be made on this topic.
Relevance to the NHS	Reducing the risk of developing dependence on prescribed medicines by altering system level factors could not only result in reduced morbidity and improved quality of life for large numbers of people but could also result in reduced costs to the NHS related to morbidity and ongoing prescribing and provide opportunities for strategic changes to service delivery.
National priorities	High This is relevant to Public Health England's Prescribed medicines review, which recommends further research is required in this area: <u>https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/prescribed-medicines-review-report</u>
Current evidence base	The evidence review did not identify any available evidence for system-level factors that alter the risk of dependence on prescribed medicines.
Equality considerations	None known

2

## Modified PICO table

Population	Adults (aged 18 years or older) with conditions for which medicines associated with dependence and withdrawal are prescribed (opioids, benzodiazepines, Z-drugs, gabapentinoids or antidepressants) at the point of initial prescribing or without dependence at baseline.	
Risk factor	System level factors, for example, level of training of prescribers in prescribing communication, competency of prescriber, supervision of prescribers.	
Comparator	N/A	
Outcome	Dependence on the prescribed medicine	
Study design	A longitudinal prospective cohort with multivariate analysis adjusting for key confounders would be required.	
Timeframe	Long term follow up would be required to demonstrate an association between the risk factors and any future dependence.	
Additional information	None	

## Appendix L List of medicines to be included

2

1

This list refers to codes from BNF version 68.

Drug class (for this analysis)	BNF chapter	Drugs included
Opioids	4.7.2	Buprenorphine
		Codeine*
		Dextromoramide
		Diamorphine
		Dihydrocodeine**
		Dipipanone (including with cyclizine)
		Fentanyl
		Hydromorphone
		Meptazinol
		Methadone
		Morphine (including with cyclizine)
		Oxycodone (including with naloxone)
		Papaveretum
		Pentazocine
		Pentazocine
		Pethidine
		Tapentadol
		Tramadol (including with paracetamol)
	4.7.1	Codeine with paracetamol = co-codamol*
		Dihydrocodeine with paracetamol = co- dydramol**
Z-drugs	4.1.1	Zaleplon <sup>\$</sup>
		Zopiclone
		Zolpidem
Benzodiazepines <sup>£</sup>	4.1.1 (insomnia)	Flurazepam
		Loprazolam
		Lormetazepam
		Nitrazepam

Drug class (for this analysis)	BNF chapter	Drugs included
		Temazepam
	4.1.2 (anxiety)	Diazepam
		Chlordiazepoxide
		Lorazepam
		Oxazepam
		Clonazepam
Gabapentinoids	4.7.3	Gabapentin
_	4.8.1	Pregabalin
Antidepressants	4.3.1 (Tricyclics)	Amitriptyline (including with perphenazine)
		Amoxapine
		Clomipramine
		Dosulepin
		Doxepin
		Imipramine
		Lofepramine
		Maprotiline
		Mianserin
		Nortriptyline
		Protriptyline
		Trazodone
		Trimipramine
	4.3.2 (MAOIs)	Isocarboxazid
		Moclobemide
		Phenelzine
		Tranylcypromine
	4.3.3 (SSRIs)	Citalopram
		Escitalopram
		Fluoxetine
		Fluvoxamine

Drug class (for this analysis)	BNF chapter	Drugs included
		Paroxetine
		Sertraline
	4.3.4 (Other	Agomelatine
	antidepressants)	Duloxetine
		Flupentixol
		Mirtazapine
		Nefazodone
		Oxitriptan
		Reboxetine
		Tryptophan
		Venlafaxine
		Vortioxetine

List of medicines taken from the 2019 Public Health England review of prescribed medicines, and adapted where necessary.<sup>151</sup>

\* Although they are captured within different BNF chapters, codeine and co-codamol will be regarded as a single drug when considering co-prescribing within the opioid class.

\*\* Although they are captured within different BNF chapters, dihydrocodeine and codydramol will be regarded as a single drug when considering co-prescribing within the opioid class.

<sup>\$</sup> Zaleplon was initially included for consistency with the Public Health England (PHE) report on prescribed drug dependence and withdrawal. Subsequent to starting guideline development, Zaleplon was discovered to no longer have a marketing authorisation in the UK. Therefore, it was excluded from evidence reviews.

<sup>£</sup> Alprazolam and clobazam are listed within the BNF, however they are not prescribable in
 NHS primary care. Therefore, they were not included in this guideline. This is consistent with
 the Public Health England (PHE) report on prescribed drug dependence and withdrawal.