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Facteurs associés à l'efficacité et à l'utilisation problématique des opioïdes lors d'une utilisation à long terme pour la douleur chronique non-cancéreuse

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Résumé

La douleur chronique non-cancéreuse (DCNC) est un problème de santé qui touche environ une personne sur cinq au Canada. Elle est associée à une dégradation de la qualité de vie physique et mentale et occasionne des coûts économiques importants. Pour lutter contre la DCNC, les opioïdes ont été largement recommandés et prescrits malgré l'absence de preuves de leur efficacité à long terme, entraînant une augmentation des surdoses. Ces surdoses mais surtout celles causées par le fentanyl illicite ont fait naître une crise sanitaire, la crise des opioïdes. Pour juguler cette crise, des lignes directrices ont été émises pour encadrer de façon plus stricte la prescription d'opioïdes pour la DCNC. Cependant ces mesures peuvent constituer des barrières d'accès aux traitements pour les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Il est donc important de garantir un accès sécuritaire aux opioïdes à ceux qui en ont besoin pour fonctionner tout en limitant l'accès inapproprié qui alimente la crise des opioïdes. L'objectif de cette thèse était d'identifier les personnes susceptibles de bénéficier d'une utilisation efficace et sécuritaire des opioïdes à long terme et de mieux comprendre la douleur et les difficultés d'accès au traitement chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD). Une première étude, visant à identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité des opioïdes à long terme, n'a pas permis de faire ressortir des caractéristiques des personnes susceptibles d'en bénéficier. Deux autres études ont permis d'étudier le nomadisme médical (doctor shopping), un indicateur d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes, qui consiste à obtenir des ordonnances qui se chevauchent de plusieurs médecins et à les faire dispenser dans différentes pharmacies. Les résultats ont montré que cette pratique est rare chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC mais qu'elle peut être associée à la survenue de surdose. Les caractéristiques des personnes à risque de faire du nomadisme médical ont été identifiées permettant ainsi un meilleur suivi. Enfin, une dernière étude a montré que la DCNC est très fréquente chez les PUD et qu'une proportion importante de cette population a recours à des drogues illicites pour soulager leur douleur, courant ainsi le risque de faire une surdose. Ces études montrent la nécessité d'une médecine personnalisée tenant compte des caractéristiques et situations individuelles afin de prescrire le bon médicament à la bonne personne. En somme, ces résultats ont permis d'accroître les connaissances scientifiques sur l'utilisation des opioïdes pour la DCNC.

Mots-clés : opioïdes, douleur chronique non-cancéreuse, nomadisme médical, surdose, drogues illicites.

Abstract

Chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) is a health problem that affects about one in five people in Canada. CNCP is associated with a deterioration of physical and mental health-related quality of life and incurs significant economic costs. To better manage CNCP, opioids have been widely recommended and prescribed despite the lack of evidence on their long-term effectiveness, leading to an increase in opioid overdoses. These overdoses but mainly those caused by illicit fentanyl have led to the opioid crisis. To address this crisis, guidelines have been issued to tighten the prescribing of opioids for CNCP. However, these measures can exacerbate barriers of access to treatment for people living with CNCP. Therefore, it is important to ensure safe access to opioids for those who need this medication to improve function while reducing inappropriate access that contributes to the opioid crisis. The aim of this thesis was to identify the characteristics of patients who may benefit from effective and safe long-term opioid therapy and to better understand pain and treatment access difficulties among people who use drugs (PWUD). An initial study, which aimed at examining predictors of long-term opioid efficacy, failed to identify characteristics of those likely to benefit from opioid therapy. Two other studies investigated doctor shopping, an indicator of problematic opioid use, which consists of obtaining overlapping prescriptions from several doctors and pharmacies. The results showed that this practice is rare among people living with CNCP but may be associated with the occurrence of opioid overdose. The characteristics of people at high-risk to engage in opioid doctor shopping were identified, thus allowing better monitoring. Finally, a last study showed that CNCP is very frequent among PWUD and that a significant proportion of this population uses illicit drugs to relieve their pain, which can increase the risk of overdose. These studies show the need for personalized medicine considering individual characteristics and specific situations to prescribe the right drug to the right person. In summary, these results have increased the scientific knowledge about the long-term opioid use in CNCP.

Keywords: opioids, chronic non-cancer pain, doctor shopping, overdose, illicit drugs

Table des matières

| Kesume | I |
|---|----|
| Abstract | 2 |
| Table des matières | 3 |
| Liste des tableaux | 7 |
| Liste des figures | 8 |
| Liste des sigles | 9 |
| Liste des abréviations | 10 |
| Remerciements | 12 |
| INTRODUCTION | 13 |
| OBJECTIFS | 17 |
| CHAPITRE 1. DOULEUR CHRONIQUE NON-CANCÉREUSE (DCNC) ET OPIOÏDES | 18 |
| 1.1. Douleur chronique non cancéreuse (DCNC) | 18 |
| 1.1.1. Définition de la douleur | 18 |
| 1.1.2. Mécanismes de la douleur | 18 |
| 1.1.3. Douleur chronique | 22 |
| 1.1.4. Douleur chronique non-cancéreuse | 24 |
| 1.1.5. Modèle biopsychosocial de la douleur | 24 |
| 1.1.6. Conséquences biopsychosociales et économiques de la DCNC | 26 |
| 1.1.7. Traitements pharmacologiques de la DCNC | 27 |
| 1.1.8. Traitements non-pharmacologiques de la DCNC | 29 |
| 1.2. Médicaments opioïdes | 32 |
| 1.2.1. Définition | 32 |
| 1.2.2. Mécanisme d'action des opioïdes | 33 |
| 1.2.3. Tolérance aux opioïdes | 36 |
| 1.2.4. Hyperalgésie | 38 |
| 1.2.5. Efficacité | 41 |
| 1.2.6. Facteurs associés à l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes | 42 |
| 1.2.7. Effets indésirables | 42 |
| 1.2.8. Dépendance physique | 43 |
| 1.2.9. Troubles liés à l'utilisation d'opioïdes | 43 |

| 1.2.10. | Nomadisme médical | 46 |
|-------------|---|----|
| 1.2.11. | Surdose d'opioïdes | 48 |
| 1.3. Ré | sumé de l'état des connaissances | 51 |
| CHAPITRE | 2. MÉTHODOLOGIE | 52 |
| 2.1. Prédic | eteurs de l'efficacité des opioïdes dans la DCNC | 52 |
| 2.1.1. | Type d'étude | 52 |
| 2.1.2. | Source des données | 52 |
| 2.1.3. | Population à l'étude | 54 |
| 2.1.4. | Critères d'évaluation | 55 |
| 2.1.5. | Variables | 57 |
| 2.1.6. | Analyses statistiques | 59 |
| 2.2. No | madisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes (doctor shopping) | 61 |
| 2.2.1. | Type d'étude | 61 |
| 2.2.2. | Sources des données | 61 |
| 2.2.3. | Population | 64 |
| 2.2.4. | Critère d'évaluation | 65 |
| 2.2.5. | Variables | 66 |
| 2.2.6. | Analyses statistiques | 67 |
| 2.3. No | madisme médical chez les patients en soins tertiaires | 70 |
| 2.3.1. | Type d'étude | 70 |
| 2.3.2. | Sources des données | 70 |
| 2.3.3. | Population | 70 |
| 2.3.4. | Critère d'évaluation | 71 |
| 2.3.5. | Variables | 71 |
| 2.3.6. | Analyses statistiques | 71 |
| 2.4. DO | CNC chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues | 72 |
| 2.4.1. | Type d'étude | 72 |
| 2.4.2. | Source des données | 72 |
| 2.4.3. | Population | 73 |
| 2.4.4. | Critère d'évaluation | 73 |
| 2.4.5. | Variables | 74 |

| 2.4.6. | Analyses statistiques | 76 |
|--------------|---|-----------------|
| CHAPITRE 3 | 3. PRÉDICTEURS DE L'EFFICACITÉ DES OPIOÏDES DANS LA | DCNC77 |
| 3.1. Contex | xte | 77 |
| 3.2. Article | e 1. Predictors of Long-Term Opioid Effectiveness in Patients with | Chronic Non- |
| Cancer Pai | n Attending Multidisciplinary Pain Treatment Clinics: A Quebec Pain | Registry Study |
| | | 79 |
| CHAPITRE 4 | 4. FACTEURS ASSOCIÉS AU NOMADISME MÉDICAL POUR L | 'OBTENTION |
| D'OPIOÏDES | S (DOCTOR SHOPPING) | 111 |
| 4.1. Contex | kte | 111 |
| 4.2. Articl | e 2: Opioid doctor shopping: Incidence, risk factors and associ | ation with the |
| occurrence | of opioid overdoses | 113 |
| 3.3. Article | e 3: Opioid doctor shopping: A rare phenomenon among patients wi | th chronic non- |
| cancer pair | n followed in tertiary care settings | 139 |
| CHAPITRE 5 | 5. DCNC ET UTILISATION DE DROGUES ILLICITES | 154 |
| 5.1. Contex | xte | 154 |
| 5.2. Article | e 4: Prevalence, characteristics, and management of chronic noncand | er pain among |
| people who | o use drugs: A cross-sectional study | 155 |
| CHAPITRE 6 | 6. DISCUSSION GÉNÉRALE | 182 |
| 6.1. Co | ntributions à l'avancée des connaissances | 182 |
| 6.1.1. | Personnes susceptibles de bénéficier à long terme des opioïdes | 183 |
| 6.1.2. | Nomadisme médical et opioïdes | 184 |
| 6.1.3. | Douleur chez les utilisateurs de drogues | 188 |
| 6.2. For | ces, limites et perspectives de recherche | 191 |
| 6.2.1. | Forces | 191 |
| 6.2.2. | Limites | 192 |
| 6.2.3. | Perspectives | 194 |
| CONCLUSIO | ONS | 198 |
| RÉFÉRENCI | ES BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES | 199 |
| ANNEXES | | 217 |
| Annexe 1. | Article décrivant le Registre Québec Douleur (RQD) | 218 |

| Annexe 2. Protocole du projet PAIR comprenant le projet sur le nomadisme m | édical (objectifs |
|--|-------------------|
| 3 et 4) | 235 |
| Annexe 3. Questionnaire HEPCO | 285 |
| Annexe 4. Questionnaire douleur | 344 |

Liste des tableaux

| Tableau I. Liste des medicaments couramment utilises pour soulager la douleur |
|---|
| Tableau II. Liste des opioïdes couramment utilisés pour soulager la douleur (49,84)32 |
| Tableau III. Résumé de l'état des connaissances sur les opioïdes et la douleur chez les PUD51 |
| Tableau IV. Baseline characteristics of patients who did and did not report a clinically significant |
| reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up (improvers vs non-improvers) and for the total |
| sample90 |
| Tableau V. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify |
| predictors of a clinically meaningful reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up ($N = 116$). |
| 92 |
| Tableau VI. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify |
| predictors of a clinically meaningful improvement in mQoL at 12-month follow-up ($N = 114$)95 |
| Tableau VII. Characteristics of participants included in the analysis identifying risk factors of |
| opioid doctor shopping |
| Tableau VIII. Cox proportional hazards univariable and multivariable analyses identifying risk |
| factors associated with opioid doctor shopping |
| Tableau IX. Characteristics of participants included in the analysis estimating the association |
| between opioid doctor shopping and the occurrence of opioid overdoses |
| Tableau X. Characteristics of patients included in the analysis |
| Tableau XI. Characteristics of PWUD and distribution according to the presence/absence of CNCP |
| |
| Tableau XII. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify |
| factors associated with the presence of CNCP among PWUD (N = 417)169 |
| Tableau XIII. Pain management strategies of PWUD experiencing CNCP (N = 187)172 |
| Tableau XIV. Incidence et prévalence du nomadisme médical pour l'obtention des médicaments |
| opioïdes selon les études |
| Tableau XV. Caractéristiques des personnes qui pratiquent le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention |
| d'opioïdes telles qu'identifiées dans les études antérieures |
| Tableau XVI. Prévalence de la DCNC chez les utilisateurs de drogues |

Liste des figures

| Figure 1. Mécanismes et voies de la douleur | 21 |
|--|-------|
| Figure 2. Modèle biopsychosocial de la douleur et impact sur la qualité de vie | 25 |
| Figure 3. Mécanisme d'action central des opioïdes | 34 |
| Figure 4. Mécanisme d'action spinal de l'analgésie induite par les opioïdes | 35 |
| Figure 5. Mécanisme d'action périphérique des opioïdes | 36 |
| Figure 6. Mécanisme de tolérance aux opioïdes | 38 |
| Figure 7. Mécanisme de l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes | 40 |
| Figure 8. Mécanisme d'action du système de récompense | 45 |
| Figure 9. Mécanisme de l'arrêt respiratoire causé par les opioïdes | 49 |
| Figure 10. Area under ROC curve for the model predicting reduction in pain severity at 12-m | onth |
| follow-up. | 93 |
| Figure 11. Graph sensitivity and specificity versus probability cutoff for the model predic | cting |
| reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up. | 94 |
| Figure 12. Area under ROC curve for the model predicting improvement in mental health-rel | lated |
| quality of life at 12-month follow-up. | 96 |
| Figure 13. Graph sensitivity and specificity versus probability cutoff for the model predic | cting |
| improvement in mental health-related quality of life at 12-month follow-up | 97 |
| Figure 14. Flow chart of participants' inclusion | .122 |
| Figure 15. Flow chart of patients' inclusion (index date is the date of the first visit at the pain cl | inic) |
| | .146 |
| Figure 16. Flow chart of participant inclusion | .164 |
| Figure 17. Pain intensity and pain interference scores among people who use drugs and experien | nced |
| chronic non-cancer pain (N=187). | .167 |

Liste des sigles

| ATC | Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical | | International non-proprietary name | |
|----------------|--|-------------|---|--|
| BDI | Beack Depression Inventory | IPTW | Inverse-probability-of-treatment weights | |
| BPI | Brief Pain Inventory | mQoL | Mental health-related quality of life | |
| CAI | Commission d'accès à l'information | MSSS | Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux | |
| CHUM | Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal | MUHC | McGill University Health Centre | |
| CHUQ | Centre hospitalier universitaire de Québec | NOUGG | National Opioid Use Guideline Group | |
| CHUS | Centre hospitalier universitaire de Sherbrooke | NSAID | Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs | |
| CIHR | Canadian Institutes of Health Research | OR | Odds ratio | |
| CNCP | Chronic non-cancer pain | PCS | Pain Catastrophizing Scale | |
| | • | PEG | Pain, Enjoyment of Life and General | |
| COVID-19 | Maladie à coronavirus 2019 | 120 | Activity | |
| Cox-MSM | Marginal Structural Cox Models | pQoL | Physical Quality of Life | |
| CRF | Case Report Form | PWUD | People who use drugs | |
| DCNC | Douleur chronic non-cancéreuse | QPR | Québec Pain Registry | |
| DN4 | Douleur Neuropathique 4 | QPRN | Réseau québécois de recherche sur la douleur | |
| DSM-V | Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-5th edition | RAMQ | Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec | |
| FRQS | Fonds de recherche du Québec – Santé | REB | Research Ethics Board | |
| HCV | Hepatitis C virus | RNA | Ribonucleic acid | |
| HDL | Hôtel-Dieu de Lévis | | Receiver Operating Characteristic | |
| HR | Hazard ratio | ROC SIDA | Syndrome de l'immunodéficicience humaine | |
| IASP | International Association for the Study of Pain | PUD | Personnes utilisatrices de drogues | |
| ICD | International Classification of Diseases | USA | United States of America | |
| IMMPACT | Initiative on Methods, Measurement, | VIH | Virus de l'immunodéficience | |
| | and Pain Assessment in Clinical Trials | | humaine | |
| INESSS | Institut national d'excellence en santé et services sociaux | WHO | World Health Organization | |

Liste des abréviations

e.g. : exempli gratia

etc. : et cætera

i.e.: id est

À tous ces anges gardiens qui m'ont porté jusque-là!

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INTRODUCTION

La douleur chronique non-cancéreuse (DCNC) est un problème de santé qui touche environ 20 % de la population générale (1-3), s'accompagne d'une dégradation de la qualité de vie physique et mentale (4,5) et dont le coût économique est estimé entre 38 et 40 milliards de dollars par an au Canada (6). Malgré sa forte prévalence, son impact sur la qualité de vie et son coût économique important, la douleur chronique est sous-traitée. L'une des réponses au traitement insuffisant et inadéquat de la douleur a été de promouvoir le concept selon lequel la douleur est une maladie en soi et son soulagement une priorité de santé et un droit humain fondamental (7–9). Ainsi, de 1990 à 2010, les opioïdes ont largement été recommandés pour soulager la DCNC malgré l'absence de preuves de leur efficacité à long terme pour une telle indication (10-13). Ces recommandations conjuguées à la publicité de compagnies pharmaceutiques ont contribué à une augmentation fulgurante des prescriptions d'opioïdes, mais aussi des cas de troubles d'utilisation et de surdoses (9,14–16). C'est ainsi que la crise des opioïdes a émergé au cours des années 2010 avant de devenir une urgence de santé publique depuis 2016 en particulier aux États-Unis et au Canada (14,15). Aux États-Unis, entre 1999 et 2019, environ 500 000 décès impliquant des opioïdes ont été recensés (17), tandis qu'au Canada, entre janvier 2016 et juin 2020, on a dénombré 21 824 hospitalisations et 17 602 décès liés à des intoxications aux opioïdes (18). Pour juguler cette crise, des guides de pratiques ont été émis aux États-Unis (19) et au Canada (20) dans le but de réduire les prescriptions et l'obtention inappropriées d'opioïdes comme le nomadisme médical (doctor shopping). Le nomadisme médical consiste à obtenir de grandes quantités d'opioïdes en se faisant délivrer dans différentes pharmacies des ordonnances obtenues de plusieurs médecins. Cette pratique se présente comme un proxy d'une utilisation problématique d'opioïdes. L'ampleur du nomadisme médical est variable selon les définitions et les pays (21,22) et peu d'études ont pu caractériser les personnes qui s'adonnent à cette pratique. Les causes d'une telle pratique demeurent également inconnues, certains suggérant qu'il s'agit d'une obtention d'opioïdes pour un usage non-médical, d'autres suggérant qu'il peut être pratiqué pour des raisons légitimes comme une douleur insuffisamment soulagée, une indisponibilité du médecin ou par convenance personnelle (23,24). Finalement, les conséquences du nomadisme médical, en particulier son lien avec la survenue de surdoses n'est pas clairement établi. Cependant, plusieurs États et provinces ont mis en place des programmes de surveillance des prescriptions afin de limiter le nomadisme médical et les prescriptions inappropriées d'opioïdes en général. Ces mesures restrictives combinées à la surmédiatisation de la crise des surdoses d'opioïdes ont eu un impact négatif sur l'accès au traitement pour les personnes vivant avec la DCNC (25-27). En effet, les recommandations ont conduit à des diminutions de dose et des arrêts forcés ainsi qu'à des refus de prescriptions (25–27). En Colombie-Britannique où la crise est plus sévère, les incitations à cesser la prise d'opioïdes ainsi que la diminution des doses d'opioïdes ont été plus fréquentes en comparaison au Québec où la crise s'est fait moins sentir (27). Cependant, la réduction forcée de la dose d'opioïdes et l'arrêt des prescriptions peuvent entraîner un déclin fonctionnel, une résurgence de la douleur, et une détresse émotionnelle chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC (28,29). La lutte contre la crise des opioïdes ne devrait pas constituer une barrière d'accès à une prise en charge adéquate de la douleur. En effet lorsqu'ils sont bien utilisés, les opioïdes constituent des options thérapeutiques permettant de traiter des douleurs non suffisamment soulagées par des médicaments non-opioïdes. Il est aussi évident que ces médicaments ne peuvent plus être prescrits à large échelle, car leur utilisation n'est pas sans risque. En effet, les opioïdes peuvent causer des effets indésirables comme la constipation, les chutes, les fractures et des évènements cardiovasculaires pouvant entrainer une dégradation importante de la qualité de vie (12). L'utilisation prolongée des opioïdes peut aussi induire une tolérance et une hyperalgésie (30–33) compromettant ainsi l'efficacité du traitement; la tolérance et l'hyperalgésie peuvent aussi mener à une augmentation des doses (30-33) exposant davantage l'utilisateur à des effets indésirables graves. Par ailleurs, comme le montre la crise des opioïdes, l'utilisation des opioïdes peut mener à des troubles d'utilisation et à des surdoses mortelles. Les opioïdes doivent donc être utilisés avec prudence et parcimonie. La lutte contre la crise des opioïdes passe donc en partie par une prescription personnalisée de ce type de médicament--i.e., prescrire le bon médicament à la bonne personne. Il est donc nécessaire de développer des outils permettant au clinicien d'identifier les personnes pour qui les opioïdes seront efficaces et sécuritaires à long terme. Déterminer les caractéristiques biopsychosociales des personnes susceptibles de bénéficier des opioïdes à long terme constitue une avenue pour optimiser la prescription des opioïdes. Cependant, peu d'études ont tenté d'identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes et leurs résultats n'ont pas été concluants (34-37). Aucune donnée probante ne permet jusqu'à présent de prédire si les opioïdes pourront soulager la douleur à long terme. Ce manque de données expose donc les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC à des médicaments qui ne sont pas efficaces et dont les effets indésirables pourront dégrader leur qualité de vie. Identifier les facteurs associés à la survenue de troubles d'utilisation permet d'éviter d'exposer les personnes à risque aux médicaments opioïdes. Les prédicteurs communément identifiés comprennent les antécédents de troubles d'utilisation de substance et les troubles de santé mentale (38,39), mais davantage de recherche est nécessaire pour dresser un profil plus complet des personnes à risque d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes. La prévalence de la DCNC qui est de 20 % dans la population générale est appelée à augmenter avec le vieillissement de la population. Il est donc important de mieux optimiser la prise en charge de la douleur en prescrivant des médicaments efficaces et sécuritaires.

Cette thèse se veut donc une contribution à l'avancée des connaissances scientifiques, en permettant de mieux caractériser les personnes pour qui les opioïdes sont efficaces et celles susceptibles d'avoir des troubles d'utilisation et de faire des surdoses. Cette caractérisation permettra de mieux outiller les cliniciens pour prescrire ce type de médicament. Les différentes recherches menées dans le cadre de cette thèse incluent des population diverses et variées, comprenant, des personnes suivies en soins tertiaires dont les douleurs sont complexes et réfractaires, des personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD) et des membres de la population en général. Ces études permettent ainsi d'avoir un portrait complet de la complexité de la prise en charge de la DCNC et de mieux comprendre les spécificités et complexités des différentes populations. Outre la caractérisation des personnes susceptibles de bénéficier des opioïdes à long terme, une meilleure compréhension de la douleur et de ses traitements chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD) est nécessaire pour contribuer la juguler la crise des opioïdes. La crise des opioïdes implique des drogues illicites, principalement le fentanyl illicite. De ce fait, les PUD, en particulier ceux vivant avec de la DCNC constituent une population à risque élevé de surdose. Cette population chez qui la prévalence de la douleur est plus du double de celle observée dans la population générale, rencontre des barrières d'accès au traitement de la douleur à cause des préjugés et de la stigmatisation (40-42). En effet, les PUD font face à des refus de prescriptions pour soulager la douleur, ce qui pourraient mener certains d'entre eux à avoir recours aux drogues et médicaments de rue, augmentant ainsi le risque de surdose (40,42,43). Il est donc important de trouver l'équilibre entre lutter contre la crise des opioïdes et soulager adéquatement la douleur, car les opioïdes demeurent des médicaments efficaces et indispensables pour certaines personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Une meilleure compréhension de la douleur chez les PUD pourrait par ailleurs permettre de combattre les préjugés et de favoriser une prise en charge adéquate de la douleur et une réduction du recours aux opioïdes illicites qui alimentent la crise des opioïdes. La pandémie de la COVID-19 a entraîné une diminution des services médicaux et une résurgence de la crise des opioïdes (44–47), mettant en exergue l'urgence de développer des outils permettant un meilleur accès au traitement de la douleur. Il est donc nécessaire de mener davantage de recherche permettant d'optimiser la prescription des opioïdes pour la DCNC afin de juguler la crise des opioïdes tout en garantissant une prise en charge optimale de la douleur. Plusieurs questions ayant trait à l'efficacité des opioïdes à long terme, au nomadisme médical et à la douleur chez les PUD demeurent sans réponse claire (Tableau I). Cette thèse vise à apporter des réponses à ces questions dans le but de contribuer à une meilleure prescription des opioïdes et à une meilleure prise en charge de la douleur chronique.

OBJECTIFS

Les objectifs généraux de cette thèse étaient de caractériser les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC susceptibles de bénéficier d'une utilisation efficace et sécuritaire des opioïdes à long terme et de fournir une meilleure compréhension de la douleur chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues afin de favoriser une meilleure prise en charge de leur douleur et prévenir ainsi le recours à des opioïdes illicites à des fins de soulagement.

Après avoir révisé la littérature scientifique concernant la DCNC et l'utilisation des opioïdes à des fins de soulagement (chapitre 1 de la présente thèse), les chapitres 2 à 4 présentent les résultats de quatre études qui ont été menées dans le cadre du présent doctorat et dont les objectifs spécifiques étaient respectivement les suivants:

- Identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes pour la DCNC (Étude 1)
- Estimer l'incidence du nomadisme médical *(doctor shopping)*, ses facteurs concomitants et son association avec la survenue de surdoses (Études 2 et 3)
- Estimer la prévalence de la DCNC chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues, ses facteurs associés et documenter les stratégies de traitement (Étude 4)

CHAPITRE 1. DOULEUR CHRONIQUE NON-CANCÉREUSE (DCNC) ET OPIOÏDES

1.1. Douleur chronique non cancéreuse (DCNC)

1.1.1. Définition de la douleur

La douleur est définie par l'Association internationale d'étude de la douleur (*International Association for the Study of Pain* (IASP)) comme une expérience sensorielle et émotionnelle désagréable associée ou ressemblant à celle associée à une lésion tissulaire réelle ou potentielle (48). C'est une expérience personnelle, influencée assez largement par des facteurs biologiques (comme le sexe ou l'âge), des facteurs psychologiques et sociaux (48).

1.1.2. Mécanismes de la douleur

Le mécanisme de survenue de la douleur par excès de nociception est le résultat d'un processus mettant en œuvre plusieurs mécanismes depuis la lésion tissulaire ou l'inflammation jusqu'à sa perception. Ce processus commence par l'activation des récepteurs de la douleur appelés nocicepteurs lors de la lésion tissulaire et se termine par l'arrivée du message nerveux nociceptif dans le cortex cérébral (49). On parle alors de douleur par excès de nociception. Le mécanisme de la douleur par excès de nociception comprend quatre grandes étapes : la transduction, la transmission, la modulation et la perception (Figure 1).

Transduction

La transduction est la conversion du stimulus douloureux en influx nerveux par les nocicepteurs qui sont des récepteurs répondant de façon sélective aux stimuli engendrés par les lésions tissulaires. La lésion tissulaire ou l'inflammation entraînent une libération de molécules de signalisation qui comprennent entre autres la sérotonine, l'histamine, le glutamate, l'adénosine, la substance P, la bradykinine, les prostaglandines, les thromboxanes, les leucotriènes, les endocannabinoïdes, le facteur de croissance nerveuse,

le facteur de nécrose tumorale α (TNF-α), l'interleukine 1β (IL-1β) et les protéases extracellulaires (49–52). Ces molécules vont se lier à un ou plusieurs récepteurs de surface cellulaire des nocicepteurs, dont les récepteurs couplés aux protéines G (49–52). Cette liaison va entraîner une entrée intracellulaire de calcium (Ca²⁺) et de sodium (Na⁺), créant ainsi une dépolarisation membranaire et la naissance d'un potentiel d'action (49–52).

Transmission

La transmission est la conduction de l'influx nerveux nociceptif des neurones afférents primaires vers le cortex. Le message est d'abord transmis de la périphérie des neurones afférents primaires vers la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière (49–52). L'arrivée de l'influx nerveux nociceptif au niveau des terminaisons des neurones afférents primaires entraîne une libération de neurotransmetteurs tels que le glutamate et la substance P qui vont activer un second neurone (49–52). Le message nociceptif est alors conduit vers le thalamus puis transmis au cortex (49–52). Deux types de fibres sont impliqués dans cette transmission du message nociceptif:

- Les fibres Aδ qui sont fines, peu myélinisées et ont une conduction rapide (49–52). Ces fibres sont des mécanorécepteurs et vont transmettre une douleur brève, bien localisée, e.g., une piqûre (49–52)
- Les fibres C qui sont non myélinisées et multimodales--i.e., sensibles aux stimuli de type thermique, mécanique et chimique (49–52). Ces fibres qui constituent la majorité des nocicepteurs sont à l'origine de la sensation retardée, de la perception diffuse de la douleur, e.g., brûlure, inconfort (49–52).

Modulation

La modulation est l'ensemble des mécanismes qui régulent l'intensité de la douleur lors du parcours de l'information de la périphérie des neurones afférents primaires vers le cortex (49–52). L'intensité du message nociceptif peut être augmentée, réduite, voire totalement interrompue par différents systèmes régulateurs situés principalement dans la moelle épinière et le cortex cérébral (49–52).

La théorie du portillon de Melzack et Wall publiée en 1965 décrit un de ces systèmes de modulation (53). Cette théorie stipule que des stimuli non-nociceptifs interfèrent avec les stimuli nociceptifs au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière, menant à une diminution de la transmission du message nociceptif (53). Les stimuli non-nociceptifs sont conduits par les $A\alpha$ et $A\beta$, des fibres afférentes primaires de larges diamètres et myélinisées qui vont stimuler les interneurones inhibiteurs au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière; les fibres nociceptives, $A\delta$ at C vont inhiber ces interneurones (50,52,53). L'activation des fibres $A\alpha$ et $A\beta$ ferme la porte à la transmission du message nociceptif vers les voies supra-spinales tandis que l'activation des fibres $A\delta$ et C ouvre la porte à la transmission du message nociceptif vers les voies supra-spinales (50,52,53).

La modulation de la douleur se fait aussi à travers l'activation des voies descendantes inhibitrices. Les voies descendantes prennent leur origine dans différentes zones du tronc cérébral avec des neurones qui se projettent jusqu'à la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière via la moelle rostroventromédiale (49,51). L'activation des neurones des voies descendantes va entraîner une libération de sérotonine, de noradrénaline et d'enképhalines par les interneurones qui vont inhiber la transmission du signal nociceptif au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière par action pré- et post-synaptique (49,51). Il en résulte une diminution de la transmission du message nociceptif.

Perception

La perception est l'expérience sensorielle et émotionnelle désagréable de la douleur. Cette expérience s'accompagne de comportements ou de réflexes visant à éliminer ou atténuer la douleur (49–52). L'information nociceptive est traitée au niveau du cortex cérébral par l'activation de régions cérébrales comme le cortex cingulaire antérieur et dorsal de même que le cortex préfrontal (49,54). La perception de la douleur permet de distinguer deux aspects de la douleur : l'aspect sensoriel et l'aspect émotionnel (49–52). L'aspect sensoriel se réfère à la localisation, à l'intensité de la douleur et à sa cause. C'est ce qui permet par exemple de décrire la douleur comme une piqûre au bras gauche (49–52). L'aspect affectif ou désagréable est lié au comportement vis-à-vis de la douleur, comme la volonté de mettre fin à cette dernière (49–52). C'est l'aspect affectif qui amène

à décrire la douleur comme atroce, insupportable etc. L'expérience de la douleur est donc influencée par le contexte dans lequel elle se produit mais aussi par les expériences antérieures et les facteurs psychologiques et sociaux qui peuvent amplifier ou atténuer la douleur (49–52).

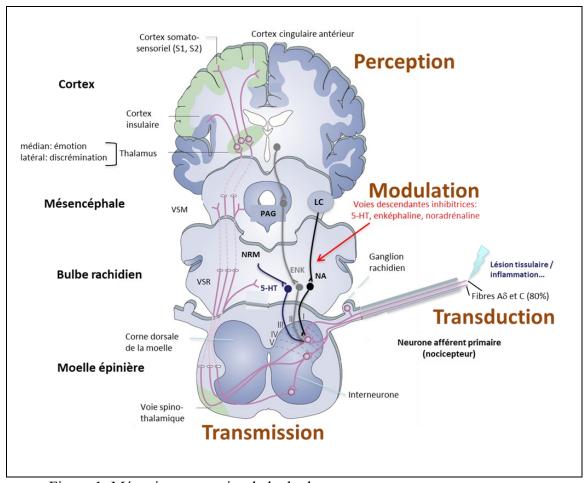


Figure 1. Mécanismes et voies de la douleur

Source : Beaulieu, Pierre. La Douleur: Guide Pharmacologique Et Thérapeutique. Presses De l'Université De Montréal, 2013.

Description : La lésion tissulaire ou l'inflammation va activer les neurones afférents primaires (Transduction) qui vont conduire le message nociceptif à la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière (Transmission). Un second neurone prend le relai pour conduire l'information vers le thalamus qui contient des neurones qui se projettent vers le cortex pour la perception de la douleur (Perception). L'information nociceptive peut être modulée notamment par les voies descendantes inhibitrices sérotoninergiques, noradrénergiques et enképhalinergiques qui exercent une action sur la transmission spinale des messages nociceptifs (Modulation).

1.1.3. Douleur chronique

La douleur peut être un signal d'alarme qui informe de la présence d'une lésion tissulaire ou d'une maladie sous-jacente. Elle est censée donc disparaître lorsque la cause est éliminée. Cependant, elle peut perdre cette notion de signal d'alarme et devenir chronique. La douleur chronique peut résulter d'une stimulation excessive et continue des récepteurs de la douleur. Elle peut aussi être due à une affection du système somatosensoriel ou encore à un dysfonctionnement des mécanismes de contrôle de la douleur.

La douleur est qualifiée de douleur chronique lorsqu'elle est persistante ou récurrente depuis plus de 3 mois--i.e., lorsqu'elle dure au-delà du délai normal de guérison ou lorsqu'elle est associée à une maladie chronique (e.g., arthrite rhumatoïde) (55,56). La douleur chronique peut être une maladie en soi (douleur chronique primaire) ou le symptôme d'une maladie sous-jacente (douleur chronique secondaire). Il existe plusieurs types de douleur chronique.

• **Douleur chronique primaire** (55,56)

Il s'agit d'une douleur qui persiste au-delà du délai normal de guérison--i.e., plus de 3 mois, qui est associée à une détresse émotionnelle importante, interfère avec les activités de la vie quotidienne et qui ne peut être expliquée par aucune autre maladie chronique. C'est notamment le cas pour les douleurs chroniques dont on ignore l'étiologie. On classe dans cette catégorie :

- o la douleur diffuse : la fibromyalgie
- o le syndrome régional complexe
- o les céphalées et douleurs orofaciales primaires : migraine chronique
- o la douleur viscérale primaire : syndrome du côlon irritable
- les douleurs musculosquelettiques primaires : lombalgies sans cause spécifiée.

• Douleur chronique secondaire (55,56)

La douleur chronique secondaire est une douleur qui est caractérisée comme le symptôme d'une affection spécifiée. C'est une douleur causée par une maladie, un traumatisme ou une intervention. On distingue dans cette catégorie :

- La douleur chronique cancéreuse : Il s'agit de la douleur chronique causée par le cancer lui-même, e.g., les tumeurs et les métastases ou causée par le traitement du cancer e.g., chimiothérapie, radiothérapie, etc. Cette douleur peut être viscérale, musculosquelettique ou neuropathique.
- La douleur chronique post-chirurgie ou post-traumatique : C'est lorsque la douleur persiste au-delà du temps normalement requis pour la guérison selon la chirurgie ou le traumatisme. Ce délai de guérison est habituellement estimé à plus que 3 mois.
- La douleur neuropathique : C'est une douleur causée par une lésion et une maladie du système nerveux somatosensoriel.
- Les céphalées chroniques et la douleur orofaciale secondaires : Ce sont des céphalées ou des douleurs orofaciales qui durent plus de 2 heures par jour pour au moins 50% des jours pour une période > 3 mois.
- La douleur chronique viscérale secondaire: C'est une douleur persistante ou récurrente des organes internes des régions de la tête et du cou, du thorax, de l'abdomen ou de la cavité pelvienne. Le mécanisme à l'origine de cette douleur peut être mécanique (traction, obstruction), vasculaire (ischémie, thrombose) ou inflammatoire.
- o Les douleurs musculosquelettiques: Il s'agit d'une douleur persistante ou récurrente qui est causée par une affection des os, des articulations, des muscles ou des tissues moues, e.g., arthrite rhumatoïde, ostéoarthrose, etc.

1.1.4. Douleur chronique non-cancéreuse

Lorsque la douleur chronique n'est pas causée par un cancer (tumeur, métastases) ou par ses traitements, on parle de douleur chronique non-cancéreuse (DCNC) (55,56). La DCNC inclut donc les douleurs chroniques primaires et les douleurs chroniques secondaires à l'exception de la douleur chronique cancéreuse. La DCNC est une douleur persistante ou récurrente qui dure depuis plus de 3 mois et qui interfère avec les activités de la vie quotidienne (28, 29).

La DCNC est un problème de santé qui touche environ 20 % de la population générale dans les pays développés (2,57,58). Au Canada, une étude récente a rapporté une prévalence de la DCNC estimée à 21 % dans la population générale (2). Parmi les Canadiens qui vivent avec de la DCNC, environ une personne sur deux vit avec la douleur depuis plus de 10 ans et environ une personne sur trois rapporte des scores de douleur d'intensité sévère (1). La prévalence de la DCNC est plus élevée chez les personnes âgées et chez les femmes (1,2) et chez certaines populations comme celles des personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD) (59-62). Chez les PUD, la DCNC reste peu étudiée et la plupart des études restent focalisées sur les personnes enrôlées dans des programmes de traitement agonistes aux opioïdes. Les études disponibles rapportent des prévalences 2 à 3 fois supérieures à celles observées dans la population générale (60,62-73) mais la prévalence chez les PUD dans leur ensemble mérite plus ample investigation. De plus, peu d'information existe sur les facteurs pouvant expliquer cette forte prévalence de la douleur. Il ressort néanmoins de la littérature que la présence et la sévérité de la DCNC sont des résultantes d'interactions multiples et réciproques entre des facteurs biologiques, psychologiques et sociaux, lesquelles interactions sont articulées dans le modèle biopsychosocial de la douleur.

1.1.5. Modèle biopsychosocial de la douleur

Le modèle biopsychosocial, qui fait consensus dans le monde scientifique, reconnait que la douleur est une expérience multidimensionnelle mettant en jeu divers facteurs biologiques, psychologiques et sociaux (74) (Figure 2). Ces facteurs interagissent entre eux et vont moduler le développement et la sensation de la douleur (74). Les facteurs

biologiques (e.g., type et étendue de la lésion, âge, sexe, composantes génétiques, hormones, etc.), psychologiques (e.g., santé mentale, croyances, comportements, attentes) et sociaux (e.g., relations interpersonnelles, culture, statut socio-économique, travail, milieu de vie) vont non seulement avoir une influence sur la sensation douloureuse, mais auront aussi un impact sur l'efficacité des traitements (74,75). La douleur va aussi avoir un impact sur ces différents facteurs et engendrer ainsi des conséquences négatives sur le plan physique, psychologique et social pour les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC (5).

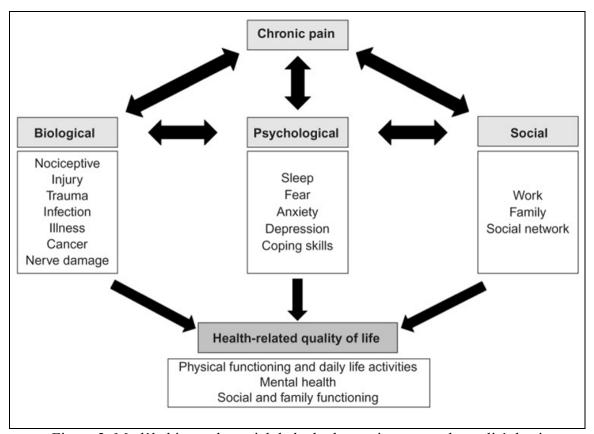


Figure 2. Modèle biopsychosocial de la douleur et impact sur la qualité de vie

Source : Dueñas M, Ojeda B, Salazar A, Mico JA, Failde I. A review of chronic pain impact on patients, their social environment and the health care system. J Pain Res. 2016;9:457-467. Published 2016 Jun 28. doi:10.2147/JPR.S105892

Description: Les facteurs biologiques, psychologiques et sociaux interagissent entre eux et modulent la douleur chronique. Ces composantes vont aussi avoir un impact sur plusieurs dimensions de la qualité de vie reliée à la santé (qualité de vie physique, mentale et sociale) pour la personne vivant avec de la douleur chronique.

1.1.6. Conséquences biopsychosociales et économiques de la DCNC

• Conséquences biopsychosociales

La DCNC peut entraîner une dégradation de la qualité de vie physique et mentale. En effet, l'intensité, la durée et la localisation de la douleur peuvent interférer avec la capacité de la personne à accomplir les activités de la vie quotidienne, limitant ainsi son fonctionnement (76–78). Outre ces conséquences physiques, la DCNC est associée à la présence d'anxiété, de dépression et à des problèmes de sommeil (76–79). Par ailleurs, la limitation fonctionnelle de la douleur peut mener à une diminution des interactions sociales et familiales de même qu'à des limitations des activités récréatives (76–79). Au Canada, environ une personne sur deux vivant avec de la DCNC rapporte que la douleur l'empêche de participer à des évènements sociaux et familiaux (80). La douleur a aussi un impact sur le travail en causant de l'absentéisme, une baisse de la productivité ou une invalidité temporaire ou permanente menant à un arrêt de travail (58,81,82). Cette perte de productivité et les coûts médicaux font de la DCNC un problème de santé au lourd fardeau économique.

o Conséquences économiques

Le coût économique de la DCNC inclut les coûts médicaux directs et les coûts indirects. Les coûts médicaux directs comprennent les coûts des hospitalisations, des visites chez le médecin et des médicaments. Au Canada, ces coûts étaient estimés entre 15,1 et 17,2 milliards de dollars par an en 2019 (6). Quant aux coûts indirects, ils comprennent les coûts liés à a perte de productivité et à l'absentéisme et sont estimés à 23,2 milliards de dollars par an (6). Au total, le coût économique associé à la DCNC a été estimé entre 38,3 et 40,4 milliards de dollars en 2019 au Canada (6). Environ 2/3 des coûts médicaux directs sont dus aux hospitalisations (6). Une meilleure prise en charge de la DCNC est donc nécessaire pour réduire ces coûts exorbitants et permettre aux personnes de bien fonctionner.

La DCNC est donc un problème de santé qui entraîne une dégradation de la qualité de vie physique, mentale et sociale et génère des coûts économiques importants. C'est un problème de santé complexe et multifactoriel dont la prise en charge requiert une équipe

multidisciplinaire pour gérer les facteurs biopsychosociaux à l'aide de traitements pharmacologiques et non-pharmacologiques (5,6).

1.1.7. Traitements pharmacologiques de la DCNC

Les traitements pharmacologiques comprennent l'ensemble des médicaments administrés afin de soulager la douleur et améliorer la fonction chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Ces traitements pharmacologiques incluent plusieurs classes de médicaments dont le choix dépend du profil de la personne et des caractéristiques de la douleur (49,51,83,84).

Tableau I. Liste des médicaments couramment utilisés pour soulager la douleur

| Classe | Molécule | Indication |
|----------------------------------|---|---|
| Opioïdes | Buprénorphine, Butorphanol, Codéine, Dihydrocodéine, Fentanyl, Hydrocodone, Hydromorphone, Mépéridine, Méthadone, Morphine, Nalbuphine, Opium, Oxycodone, Pentazocine, Tapentadol, Tramadol | Douleur modérée à sévère non suffisamment soulagée par les non-opioïdes |
| Acétaminophène | | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| AINS classiques | Diclofénac, Kétorolac, Kétoprofène, Ibuprofène, Naproxène, Flurbiprofène, Indométhacine, Piroxicam | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| COXIB | Célécoxib, Étoricoxib, Lumiracoxib, Parécoxib | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| Anticonvulsivants | Gabapentine, Prégabaline, Lamotrigine, Carbamazépine, Oxcarbamazépine, Topiramate, Acide valproïque, Lévétiracétam, Clonazépam | Douleur neuropathique |
| Antidépresseurs | Venlaflaxine, Imipramine, Duloxétine, Bupropion, Amitriptyline, Mirtazapine, Escitalopram | Douleur neuropathique |
| Anesthésiques locaux | Bupivacaïne, Ropivacaïne, Lévobupivacaïne, Lidocaïne | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| Analgésiques topiques | Capsaïcine, Lidocaïne, Zucapsaïcine | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| Cannabinoïdes | Cannabidiol, Nabilone, Dronabinol | Douleur musculosquelettique |
| Triptans | Sumatriptan | Céphalées et douleur orofaciale |
| Antagonistes des récepteurs NMDA | Kétamine | Douleur neuropathique |

Note: Cette liste n'est pas exhaustive et les indications portent sur l'indication principale uniquement.

Médicaments non-opioïdes

Les médicaments non-opioïdes comprennent l'ensemble des médicaments utilisés pour la soulager la douleur dont le principe actif n'est pas un opioïde.

o Acétaminophène

L'acétaminophène aussi appelé paracétamol est un médicament aux propriétés analgésiques et antipyrétiques (49,51). Il est utilisé pour soulager la douleur faible à modérée. Cependant son efficacité pour contrer la douleur et améliorer la fonction dans la DCNC reste limitée (85). Il est associé à peu d'effets indésirables pouvant mener à un arrêt de traitement (85). Le principal effet indésirable grave est sa toxicité hépatique (49,51).

o Anti-inflammatoires non-stéroïdiens (AINS)

Les AINS sont des médicaments avec des propriétés analgésiques, antiinflammatoires et antipyrétiques, utilisés pour les douleurs faibles à modérées (49,51). Ils sont associés à une amélioration de la douleur et de la fonction dans l'ostéoarthrose et l'arthrite inflammatoire (85). Les principaux effets indésirables des AINS sont de type gastrique et coronarien (49,51). Le risque d'arrêt de traitement est faible à modérée selon le médicament notamment pour l'ibuprofène, le diclofénac et le naproxène (85). Les risques de survenue d'évènements coronariens sont élevés avec le diclofénac, le célécoxib et l'ibuprofène (85). Les évènements gastro-intestinaux sont aussi élevés avec le diclofénac, l'ibuprofène et surtout le naproxène (85). Des problèmes hépatiques sont aussi observés avec le diclofénac et le naproxène (85).

o Antidépresseurs et anticonvulsivants

Les antidépresseurs et les anticonvulsivants sont utilisés pour la douleur ayant une composante neuropathique (83,85). L'utilisation de ce type de médicaments a été associée à une amélioration de la douleur neuropathique et la fibromyalgie (85).. L'incidence des effets indésirables graves était faible que ce soit avec les antidépresseurs ou avec les anticonvulsivants alors les arrêts de traitements dus aux effets indésirables étaient rares (85). Les principaux effets indésirables associés aux antidépresseurs sont les nausées et la sudation excessive tandis qu'avec les anticonvulsivants les principaux effets indésirables sont la vision floue, les vertiges, un gain de poids et de la confusion (49,51,85).

Outre les médicaments non-opioïdes listés précédemment, il existe d'autres agents comme les antimigraineux (e.g. les triptans), les anesthésiques locaux (e.g., lidocaïne) et les cannabinoïdes (e.g., nabilone), qui s'ajoutent à l'arsenal thérapeutique de la douleur (49,51). Des techniques invasives comme les infiltrations sont aussi des méthodes de traitement utilisées pour soulager la douleur.

Les médicaments non-opioïdes, en particulier l'acétaminophène et les AINS, constituent les traitements de première ligne dans la douleur chronique. Lorsqu'ils ne procurent pas un soulagement adéquat de la douleur malgré une utilisation optimale, les opioïdes peuvent être proposés comme alternatives ou en combinaison avec d'autres médicaments ou modalités thérapeutiques. Il est donc important de garantir un accès sécuritaire aux opioïdes qui demeurent des options importantes dans l'arsenal thérapeutique restreint des médicaments pouvant soulager la douleur.

Médicaments opioïdes

Les médicaments opioïdes qui sont des analgésiques puissants utilisés pour soulager la douleur modérée à sévère (Tableau II). La présente thèse se concentre sur ces médicaments, longtemps réservés pour le traitement de la douleur liée au cancer et lors des soins palliatifs, mais qui sont largement utilisés pour traiter la DCNC depuis les années 1980. Pour plus de détails, voir la section 1.2. ci-après.

En somme, les traitements pharmacologiques ont une efficacité limitée pour soulager la douleur et améliorer la qualité de vie chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Ils ne constituent donc pas la panacée pour le soulagement adéquat de la douleur. La combinaison de ces traitements avec des traitements non-pharmacologiques est donc nécessaire pour mieux soulager la douleur mais aussi diminuer les doses de médicaments et par conséquents les effets adverses associés.

1.1.8. Traitements non-pharmacologiques de la DCNC

Les traitements non-pharmacologiques comprennent les modalités nonmédicamenteuse visant à soulager la douleur. Il s'agit d'un ensemble de méthodes variées pouvant être classées en méthodes physiques et psychologiques qui peuvent être utilisées en combinaison avec les méthodes pharmacologiques afin de procurer un soulagement optimal de la douleur.

Les méthodes physiques

Ces méthodes regroupent des techniques comme les exercices physiques, l'acupuncture et les thérapies manuelles.

Les exercices consistent en des mouvements structurés, répétitifs et adaptés au type de douleur et à la capacité de la personne. La règle est de commencer doucement et d'augmenter la cadence selon la capacité de la personne. La pratique régulière d'exercices est associée à une légère baisse de la douleur et une légère amélioration fonctionnelle (86,87). L'effet analgésique des exercices physiques pourrait résulter d'une production d'opioïdes endogènes, menant ainsi à une diminution de la sensation de la douleur (86). Les exercices physiques peuvent être efficaces pour soulager des douleurs comme les douleurs cervicale et lombaire, l'ostéoarthrose de la hanche et du genou ainsi que la fibromyalgie (87).

L'acupuncture est une méthode de traitement médical provenant de la médecine traditionnelle chinoise qui consiste à appliquer de petites aiguilles ou des pressions sur des points spécifiques du corps (88). Le mécanisme de l'analgésie induite par l'acupuncture reste inconnu, mais l'hypothèse est que cette analgésie résulterait d'une libération d'opioïdes endogènes au niveau spinal et supraspinal (88). Cette pratique peut apporter une amélioration de la douleur et de la fonction dans les cas de douleurs cervicales, lombaires, et ainsi que dans la fibromyalgie (87).

Les thérapies manuelles comprennent l'ensemble des manipulations physiques réalisées sur des parties précises du corps par une tierce personne dans le but de soulager la douleur (89). Ces thérapies manuelles incluent entre autres les massages et la physiothérapie. Ces thérapies manuelles peuvent être efficaces pour la douleur lombaire, la douleur cervicale, l'ostéoarthrose de la hanche, la fibromyalgie et les migraines (87).

Méthodes psychologiques

Les méthodes psychologiques regroupent des pratiques comme la méditation pleine conscience et les thérapies cognitivo-comportementales.

La méditation pleine conscience se réfère à plusieurs pratiques de méditations et consiste à focaliser son attention sur le moment présent, sans revivre le passé ou anticiper l'avenir (90). L'effet analgésique de la méditation pourrait résulter d'une amplification du contrôle inhibiteur nociceptif des voies descendantes de la douleur (90). La méditation pleine conscience peut aider à soulager la douleur et semble efficace dans les douleurs lombaires et la fibromyalgie (87).

La thérapie cognitivo-comportementale est une approche psychologique qui aide à modifier les pensées et les comportements pour mieux faire face à la douleur. Les stratégies cognitivo-comportementales comprennent entre autres, la restructuration cognitive, les techniques de relaxation, l'hypnose et l'hygiène du sommeil (91,92). Ces approches aident à réduire la perception de la douleur et la détresse psychologique en améliorant la capacité d'une personne à faire face à sa douleur (91,92). Les thérapies cognitivo-comportementales peuvent être efficaces pour les douleurs lombaires, l'ostéoarthrose et la fibromyalgie (87).

Méthodes mixtes

Les méthodes mixtes comprennent des pratiques qui intègrent à la fois les méthodes physiques et psychologiques. Parmi ces méthodes on peut mentionner le yoga qui est une pratique comprenant une succession de postures, de mouvements, mais aussi un contrôle de la respiration (93). Il peut aussi inclure la méditation et un recentrage sur soi. Il peut permettre de soulager des douleurs comme les douleurs lombaires (87,93).

Outre les méthodes citées, il existe d'autres méthodes non-pharmacologiques visant à soulager la douleur et améliorer la qualité de vie des personnes vivant avec la DCNC comme l'ergothérapie, ainsi que diverses techniques d'autogestion de la douleur.

Ces méthodes non-pharmacologiques, physiques et psychologiques, peuvent être combinées entre elles de même qu'avec les traitements pharmacologiques afin d'obtenir un soulagement optimal de la douleur. Leur combinaison avec les thérapies opioïdes peut aider à optimiser l'efficacité des traitements. Par ailleurs, leur combinaison avec une thérapie opioïde peut aider à diminuer les doses d'opioïdes et par conséquent les effets indésirables associés.

1.2. Médicaments opioïdes

1.2.1. Définition

Les opioïdes constituent une classe de médicaments dont la structure s'apparente à celle des dérivés naturels de l'opium, une résine extraite du pavot (papaver somniferum) (49,51,94).

Selon l'affinité aux récepteurs, les opioïdes peuvent être classés en agonistes forts, agonistes faibles, agonistes partiels ou agonistes-antagonistes, et antagonistes (49,51,94). Selon leur activité analgésique, on distingue les opioïdes forts et les opioïdes faibles (49,51,94) (Tableau III).

Tableau II. Liste des opioïdes couramment utilisés pour soulager la douleur (49,84)

| Molécule | Origine | Propriété | Activité |
|----------------|------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Buprénorphine | Semi-synthétique | Agoniste partiel | Forte |
| Butorphanol | Synthétique | Agoniste- antagoniste | Forte |
| Codéine | Naturel | Agoniste partiel | Faible |
| Dihydrocodéine | Semi-synthétique | Agoniste partiel | Faible |
| Fentanyl | Synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Hydrocodone | Semi-synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Hydromorphone | Semi-synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Mépéridine | Synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Méthadone | Synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Morphine | Naturel | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Nalbuphine | Synthétique | Agoniste- antagoniste | Forte |
| Opium | Naturel | Agoniste partiel | Faible |
| Oxycodone | Semi-synthétique | Agoniste pur | Forte |
| Pentazocine | Synthétique | Agoniste- antagoniste | Forte |
| Tapentadol | Synthétique | Agoniste partiel | Faible |
| Tramadol | Synthétique | Agoniste partiel | Faible |

1.2.2. Mécanisme d'action des opioïdes

Les opioïdes agissent en se fixant sur des récepteurs spécifiques à la surface des cellules, les récepteurs opioïdes μ [mu], κ [kappa] et δ [delta] (49,51,94). Ces récepteurs se trouvent principalement dans le système nerveux central, la moelle épinière, les terminaisons périphériques des neurones afférents primaires, mais aussi sur les cellules vasculaires, cardiaques, pulmonaires et intestinales (49,51,94).

Les opioïdes vont exercer des actions au niveau du tronc cérébral, de la moelle épinière et au niveau des terminaisons nerveuses périphériques des neurones afférents primaires pour produire l'analgésie.

• Mécanisme d'action central

Les récepteurs opioïdes sont activés au niveau du mésencéphale. L'action analgésique centrale des opioïdes passe par un renforcement du contrôle inhibiteur des voies descendantes de la douleur. Les opioïdes se lient aux récepteurs μ (MOR) et bloquent la libération du neurotransmetteur inhibiteur GABA (acide gamma-aminobutyrique) au niveau de la substance grise périaqueducale ce qui va activer des neurones dans le noyau du raphé magnus (NRM) qui régulent l'activité des projections neuronales vers la moelle épinière (49,51,95). Le NRM possède des cellules « ON »et « OFF » qui, respectivement, facilitent et inhibent le message nociceptif au niveau médullaire (49). La stimulation des cellules ON au niveau du NRM active la libération de noradrénaline et de sérotonine au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière ce qui va atténuer l'excitabilité des neurones et la transmission du message nociceptif (49,51,95). (Figure 3).

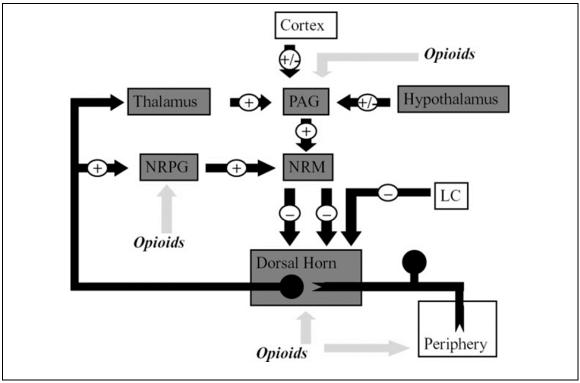


Figure 3. Mécanisme d'action central des opioïdes

Source: Pathan H, Williams J. Basic opioid pharmacology: an update. Br J Pain. 2012;6(1):11-16. doi:10.1177/2049463712438493

Description : Les opioïdes produisent l'analgésie par action centrale en augmentant indirectement le trafic neuronal des voies descendantes au niveau du noyau réticulé paragigantocellulaire (NRPG) et de la substance grise périaqueducale (PAG). Le noyau du raphé magnus (NRM) et le locus coeruleus (LC) vont exercer une inhibition de la transmission du signal nociceptif au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière.

• Mécanisme d'action spinale

Les opioïdes peuvent aussi agir en inhibant la transmission des impulsions nociceptives au niveau de la moelle épinière (49,51,95). Au niveau pré-synaptique, les opioïdes vont inhiber l'ouverture des canaux calciques voltage-dépendents. Cette inhibition va empêcher la libération de neurotransmetteur comme la substance P dans la fente synaptique et donc la transmission du message nociceptif (49,51,95). Au niveau post-synaptique, les opioïdes vont activer les canaux potassiques et entraîner une hyperpolarisation cellulaire, une diminution de l'excitabilité des neurones ce qui résulte en une diminution de la transmission du message nociceptif (49,51,95). (Figure 4)

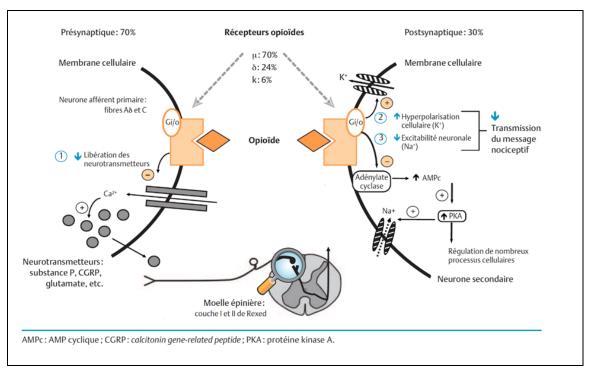


Figure 4. Mécanisme d'action spinal de l'analgésie induite par les opioïdes

Source : Beaulieu, Pierre. La Douleur: Guide Pharmacologique Et Thérapeutique. Presses De l'Université De Montréal, 2013.

Description : Au niveau présynaptique : les opioïdes en se fixant sur leurs récepteurs vont inhiber les canaux calciques, ce qui va inhiber la libération de neurotransmetteurs nociceptifs comme la substance P, le CGRP (calcitonin gene-related peptide) et le glutamate. Au niveau post-synaptique : les opioïdes vont activer les canaux potassiques et inhiber l'adénylate cyclase. Il en résulte une hyperpolarisation cellulaire et une diminution de l'excitabilité neuronale. Ces mécanismes pré et post-synaptiques ont pour résultat une diminution de la transmission de l'influx nerveux nociceptif.

• Mécanisme d'action périphérique

Au niveau périphérique, les opioïdes vont se fixer sur les récepteurs situés sur les terminaisons périphériques des neurones afférents primaires et inhiber la libération calcium dépendant des neurotransmetteurs pro-nociceptifs et pro-inflammatoire comme la substance P (49,95–97). Des peptides endogènes peuvent aussi être libérés localement et entraîner une analgésie (49,95–97). (Figure 5)

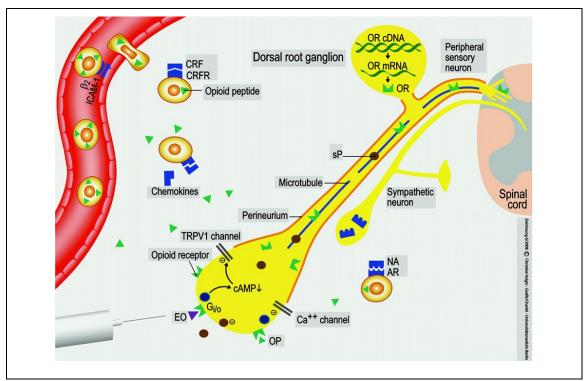


Figure 5. Mécanisme d'action périphérique des opioïdes

Source: Stein C, Zöllner C. Opioids and Sensory Nerves. Handb Exp Pharmacol. 2009;(194):495-518. doi: 10.1007/978-3-540-79090-7 14. PMID: 19655116.

Description: Les récepteurs opioïdes sont synthétisés au niveau du ganglion rachidien (dorsal root ganglion) puis acheminés au niveau périphérique et central. L'inflammation locale va conduire à une sécrétion d'opioïdes endogènes. Ces opioïdes endogènes (endogenous opioid peptides (OP)), symbolisés par les triangles verts ainsi que les opioïdes exogènes (Exogenous opioids (EO)), symbolisés par un triangle bleu, vont se lier aux récepteurs opioïdes situés sur la périphérie du neurone afférent primaire. Cette liaison va entraîner une inhibition des canaux calciques Ca²⁺ et TRPV-1; il en résulte une inhibition de la libération de neurotransmetteurs nociceptifs comme la substance P (sP) conduisant ainsi à une diminution de la transmission du message nociceptif.

1.2.3. Tolérance aux opioïdes

La tolérance aux opioïdes est un état d'adaptation dans lequel l'exposition aux opioïdes entraîne une diminution de l'effet analgésique avec le temps (33,49,51). Le mécanisme de la tolérance aux opioïdes implique une désensibilisation des récepteurs opioïdes et une diminution du nombre de récepteurs opioïdes (33,49,51).

L'administration prolongée des opioïdes peut mener à une désensibilisation--i.e., une diminution de la réponse d'un récepteur à la suite d'une stimulation. L'administration prolongée d'opioïdes augmente aussi l'expression de la β-arrestine qui entraîne le découplage des récepteurs avec la protéine G ainsi que leur internalisation par endocytose (33). Il en résulte une diminution de la densité des récepteurs opioïdes à la surface cellulaire avec pour conséquence une diminution des effets anti-nociceptifs des opioïdes (33). (Figure 6)

L'administration prolongée d'opioïde comme dans le cas de la DCNC expose l'utilisateur à développer de la tolérance et donc à voir l'efficacité du traitement opioïde diminuer au cours du temps. Le développement de la tolérance va conduire à une augmentation des doses d'opioïdes afin d'obtenir un soulagement adéquat de la douleur augmentant ainsi les effets indésirables et le risque de surdoses. La tolérance peut aussi se développer avec une administration aiguë d'opioïde et en parallèle avec une hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes.

Le développement de la tolérance affecte beaucoup plus l'analgésie que la dépression respiratoire, ce qui expose la personne qui augmente les doses d'opioïdes pour obtenir le même soulagement de la douleur à un risque de surdose (98). Ainsi, des comportements comme le nomadisme médical, même s'ils visent à obtenir de grandes quantités d'opioïdes à cause du développement d'une tolérance, demeurent des pratiques dangereuses.

La tolérance aux opioïdes n'est pas un phénomène exclusivement observé avec les opioïdes, mais peut survenir avec d'autres médicaments comme les benzodiazépines. La cessation de la prise des médicaments pendant un certain temps peut permettre de renverser le développement de la tolérance.

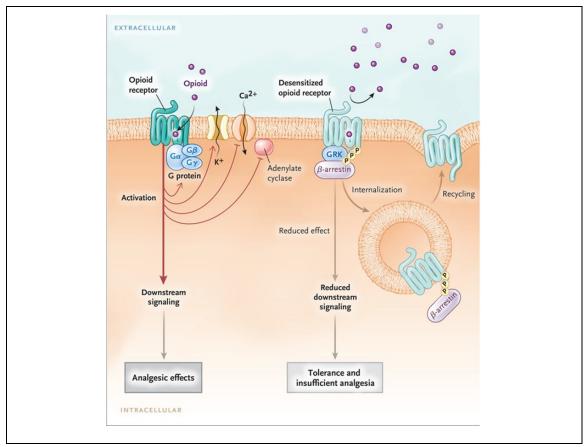


Figure 6. Mécanisme de tolérance aux opioïdes

Source : Martyn JAJ, Mao J, Bittner EA. Opioid Tolerance in Critical Illness. N Engl J Med. 2019;380(4):365-378. doi:10.1056/NEJMra1800222

Description : Lorsqu'un opioïde se lie au récepteur mu-opioïde, la protéine $G\alpha\beta\gamma$ associée au récepteur se dissocie en sous-unités $G\alpha$ et $G\beta\gamma$. Parallèlement, le récepteur μ est phosphorylé par la kinase du récepteur couplé à la protéine $G\beta$, qui recrute la protéine β -arrestine et la lie au récepteur, ce qui peut mener à son internalisation. Ces processus donnent lieu à la désensibilisation des récepteurs. Les récepteurs désensibilisés récupèrent au fil du temps après le retrait du stimulus, et les récepteurs endocytés sont recyclés vers la membrane plasmique dans un état re-sensibilisé.

1.2.4. Hyperalgésie

L'hyperalgésie se définit comme une douleur amplifiée par un stimulus qui provoque normalement une douleur moindre (49,51). L'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes est un abaissement du seuil de la douleur à la suite de l'utilisation d'opioïdes,

habituellement une utilisation prolongée (49,51). Elle se caractérise par le fait que la personne qui reçoit des opioïdes devient plus sensible aux stimuli douloureux. Elle peut se manifester par une augmentation de la douleur malgré une augmentation de la dose des opioïdes, s'apparentant ainsi à la tolérance aux opioïdes ou encore par l'apparition de l'allodynie--i.e., une sensibilité à de la douleur par des stimuli normalement non douloureux (49). Le mécanisme de survenue de l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes n'est pas complètement élucidé. Plusieurs mécanismes sont proposés pour expliquer ce phénomène. (Figure 7)

Un des mécanismes de survenue de l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes implique le système glutamatergique central. En effet, le blocage des récepteurs NMDA par des antagonistes, e.g., la kétamine, empêche le développement de l'hyperalgésie, ce qui signifierait que ces récepteurs NMDA sont impliqués dans son mécanisme de survenue (30,31,99). L'hyperalgésie pourrait résulter d'une inhibition du système de transport du glutamate, augmentant ainsi la disponibilité de glutamate pour les récepteurs NMDA (30). L'activation des récepteurs NMDA s'accompagne d'une synthèse et d'une libération de neurotransmetteurs pro-nociceptifs qui vont causer une sensibilisation à la douleur (30). L'activation des récepteurs NMDA peut aussi entraîner une apoptose des interneurones GABAergiques de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière, ce qui entraînerait une diminution de l'activité inhibitrice de ces neurones et par conséquent une hypersensibilité à la douleur (30).

L'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes pourrait aussi résulter d'une augmentation de la dynorphine au niveau spinal (30,100). La dynorphine est un opioïde endogène synthétisé au niveau de la corne dorsale de la moelle épinière. Une exposition prolongée aux opioïdes entraîne une augmentation de la libération de dynorphine qui à son tour entraîne une augmentation de la libération de neurotransmetteurs pro-nociceptifs comme le CGRP (calcitonin gene-related peptide) et de la substance P au niveau des terminaisons des fibres afférentes primaires (30,100). Dans ce cas de figure, l'hyperalgésie se manifeste par une facilitation de la synthèse et de la libération de neurotransmetteurs nociceptifs lorsque survient un stimulus nociceptif (30,100).

Il est aussi stipulé que l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes pourrait résulter d'une activation des mécanismes descendants facilitateurs de la nociception au niveau de la moelle rostroventromédiale (RVM) (30,99,100). D'autres mécanismes comme la sensibilisation des neurones afférents primaires, l'augmentation de la production et de la libération de neurotransmetteurs excitateurs sont proposées pour expliquer la survenue de l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes (30).

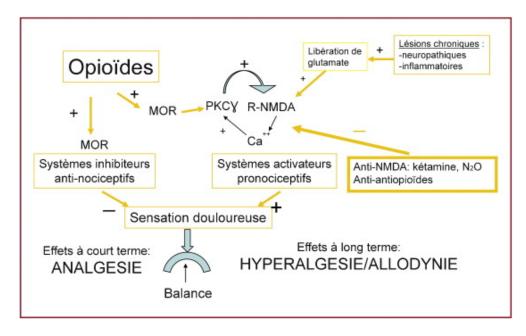


Figure 7. Mécanisme de l'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes

Source : Calvino B. L'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes. Douleurs : Evaluation - Diagnostic - Traitement. 1 oct 2013;14(5):226-33.

Description: Lorsque les opioïdes stimulent les systèmes inhibiteurs anti-nociceptifs, ils inhibent la sensation douloureuse et la balance des effets se déplace du côté de l'analgésie. Lorsque les opioïdes stimulent les systèmes facilitateurs de la nociception (systèmes activateurs pronociceptifs), ils augmentent la sensation douloureuse et la balance des effets se déplace du côté de l'hyperalgésie/allodynie. La mise en jeu de ces systèmes pronociceptifs se prolonge au-delà de la durée de la stimulation nociceptive du fait de l'activation d'une boucle de rétrocontrôle positif impliquant les récepteurs NMDA. La stimulation des récepteurs μ (MOR) par un agoniste opioïde peut également mettre en jeu les systèmes activateurs pronociceptifs par activation de la protéine-kinase $C\gamma$, la $PKC\gamma$, qui active les récepteurs NMDA. L'activité de la $PKC\gamma$ est à son tour amplifiée par l'entrée de calcium du fait de l'activation du récepteur NMDA. Le blocage des récepteurs

NMDA par des antagonistes du récepteur NMDA comme la kétamine, empêche le développement de l'hyperalgésie et potentialise l'effet analgésique des opioïdes.

L'hyperalgésie induite par les opioïdes peut contribuer à diminuer l'efficacité des opioïdes au cours du temps. Elle peut mener également à une augmentation des doses d'opioïdes, exposant l'utilisateur à des effets indésirables graves et au risque de surdose.

La prévention de l'hyperalgésie pourrait passer par une diminution ou un arrêt des opioïdes, une rotation avec d'autres molécules, l'ajout d'un médicament non-opioïde, ou l'ajout d'un antagoniste des récepteurs NMDA comme la kétamine (33,49).

1.2.5. Efficacité

Les études qui ont évalué l'efficacité des opioïdes à moyen (6 à 12 mois) et long (12 mois et plus) terme chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC sont rares. La majorité des études sont des études à court terme (1 à 6 mois). Les méta-analyses ayant compilé les résultats de ces études (essais contrôlés randomisés et études observationnelles) ont montré que l'administration d'opioïdes à long terme apportait un faible soulagement de la douleur et une amélioration minimale du fonctionnement lorsque comparée à l'administration d'un placebo (11,12,101). Certaines études rapportent également qu'il n'y a pas de différence entre les opioïdes et les non-opioïdes dans le soulagement de la douleur, l'amélioration du fonctionnement ou de la qualité de vie (11,12,101). Un essai pragmatique contrôlé randomisé sur une période de plus de 12 mois, a rapporté que non seulement les opioïdes n'amélioraient pas le fonctionnement par rapport aux non-opioïdes, mais que la réduction de l'intensité de la douleur était supérieure dans le groupe recevant un non-opioïde (102). En d'autres termes, en comparant les moyennes des scores de réduction de la douleur et d'amélioration du fonctionnement, les médicaments opioïdes ne démontrent pas une supériorité par rapport aux non-opioïdes dans un traitement à long terme chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Ces médicaments ne peuvent donc pas être largement prescrits compte tenu de leur efficacité limitée, mais aussi de leurs effets indésirables. De précédentes études ont montré qu'une sous-population peut bénéficier des opioïdes (103,104), mais les caractéristiques permettant de la cibler demeurent inconnues. Cependant, identifier ces personnes permettrait d'éviter de donner des médicaments qui non seulement ne vont pas soulager leur douleur, mais qui les exposent à des effets indésirables pouvant dégrader davantage leur qualité de vie.

1.2.6. Facteurs associés à l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes

Les études sur ce sujet sont rares, mais suggèrent que la réponse au traitement opioïde pourrait varier selon la génétique, le type de douleur, les comorbidités, les co-prescriptions ainsi que les facteurs psychologiques (34,105,106). Quelques études ont identifié des caractéristiques individuelles associées à la réponse au traitement par opioïdes (35,105,107–109) suggérant qu'il serait possible de personnaliser le traitement de la douleur chronique à base d'opioïdes. Ainsi, une revue systématique a évalué les différences de sexe dans l'effet des opioïdes sur la douleur aiguë et expérimentale (36). Les résultats ont montré que les femmes présentaient une analgésie plus importante comparée aux hommes (36). D'autres études suggèrent que l'expression du système opioïde endogène tel que les récepteurs opioïdes, les sous-unités des protéines G et la régulation de la signalisation pourraient subir des modifications avec l'âge, affectant la qualité de l'analgésie (110,111). Une autre étude a montré que des variables psychosociales telles que la dépression, l'anxiété et la tendance à la catastrophisation face à la douleur prédisaient la réponse à la prise de morphine chez les patients souffrant de lombalgie, et que ces relations s'expliquaient par le système opioïde endogène (112). Ces différentes études suggèrent donc que des facteurs biopsychosociaux peuvent prédire l'efficacité des opioïdes et permettre ainsi de limiter la prescription des opioïdes aux personnes chez qui ces médicaments sont efficaces. Cependant, aucune étude observationnelle n'a identifié de facteurs prédisant l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes.

1.2.7. Effets indésirables

La présence de récepteurs opioïdes sur différents systèmes autre que le système nerveux peut causer des effets indésirables pouvant mener à l'arrêt du traitement. Les effets indésirables les plus fréquents sont de la somnolence, des vertiges et des troubles gastro-intestinaux comme la nausée, les vomissements et la constipation (11,12,101). Les opioïdes peuvent aussi provoquer des chutes, des fractures et de l'infarctus du myocarde (11,12,101). D'autres effets indésirables comme l'euphorie, une bradycardie, une

dépression respiratoire, du prurit et du myosis (84) peuvent survenir. L'utilisation à long terme des opioïdes peut aussi entraîner une tolérance et de l'hyperalgésie (84). Outre ces effets indésirables, les opioïdes peuvent mener à des troubles d'utilisation et à des surdoses (11,12).

1.2.8. Dépendance physique

L'utilisation à long terme d'opioïdes comme la morphine entraîne une dépendance physique qui se manifeste par des symptômes de sevrage caractéristiques qui peuvent se développer après un arrêt brutal de l'administration du médicament, de la réduction rapide de la posologie, ou de l'administration d'un antagoniste aux opioïdes comme la naloxone (49,51). Les symptômes de sevrage chez l'homme comprennent une sensation de malaise général, l'écoulement nasal, la toux, les douleurs abdominales, la diarrhée, l'anorexie, l'anxiété et d'autres effets (49,51). La dépendance physique n'est pas propre aux opioïdes, mais peut survenir avec d'autres médicaments. Pour éviter les symptômes de la dépendance physique, l'arrêt des opioïdes devra se faire de façon progressive.

1.2.9. Troubles liés à l'utilisation d'opioïdes

La prise d'opioïdes peut aussi mener à une dépendance psychologique qui est caractérisée par une perte de contrôle, un état de manque, une utilisation compulsive d'une drogue, malgré des conséquences négatives pour l'individu (49). Le terme « dépendance psychologique » est maintenant abandonné au profit du terme « troubles d'utilisation » d'opioïdes.

Le terme « troubles liés à l'utilisation d'opioïdes » se définit selon le Manuel diagnostique et statistique des troubles mentaux 5e Édition (DSM-V) comme un mode d'utilisation problématique des opioïdes menant à une altération du fonctionnement ou une souffrance cliniquement significative (113). Cette définition remplace les catégories antérieures d'« abus d'opioïdes » et de « dépendance aux opioïdes » (113). Lorsqu'une personne est aux prises avec un trouble lié à l'utilisation d'opioïdes, elle sent le besoin de prendre le médicament et continue de l'utiliser malgré les effets nocifs; le médicament devient le centre de ses émotions, de ses pensées et de ses activités (114). Ces troubles résulte d'un dérèglement du circuit de la récompense méso-cortico-limbique (115,116).

Le système de récompense se réfère à plusieurs structures du cerveau comprenant le noyau accumbens, l'aire tegmentale ventral et le cortex cérébral qui jouent un rôle dans la sensation et la recherche du plaisir ainsi que dans la dépendance. Le neurotransmetteur clé de ce circuit de la récompense est la dopamine. La dopamine est produite dans l'aire tegmentale ventrale pour être libérée dans le noyau accumbens qui est le centre du plaisir. Le cortex préfrontal est quant à lui responsable des émotions, de l'apprentissage et du contrôle des impulsions et permet à la personne d'apprendre et de répéter les comportements sources de récompense (115,116). L'effet de récompense des opioïdes est associé à la stimulation des récepteurs opioïdes µ localisés au niveau des récepteurs GABAergiques de l'aire tegmentale ventrale (115,116). Cette stimulation inhibe la libération de GABA qui, à son tour, désinhibe les neurones dopaminergiques et conduit à la libération de dopamine dans le noyau accumbens qui induit des sentiments d'euphorie. (115,116). Une longue exposition à des opioïdes peut faire en sorte que les neurones GABAergiques de l'aire tegmentale ventrale vont perdre leur capacité à désinhiber les cellules dopaminergiques (115,116). Au fur et à mesure du dérèglement, le contrôle sur le comportement et la sensation de plaisir vont s'amenuiser au profit du développement de la motivation à se procurer le produit ou à reproduire le comportement (115,116). (Figure 8)

La tolérance, les symptômes de sevrage, la recherche du plaisir et la volonté compulsive de consommer des opioïdes vont amener la personne à chercher davantage de grandes quantités d'opioïdes. Un des moyens d'obtention peut consister à consulter plusieurs médecins pour obtenir des ordonnances d'opioïdes. Pour ne pas se faire repérer, la personne va aller dans différentes pharmacies pour se faire dispenser ses médicaments. C'est ainsi qu'on parle de « nomadisme médical », une pratique qui peut permettre d'identifier les personnes avec des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes. Le nomadisme médical a donc été choisi comme indicateur d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes dans cette thèse. Il s'est agi de documenter son incidence et de dresser le profil des personnes qui sont le plus à risque de s'adonner à une telle pratique.

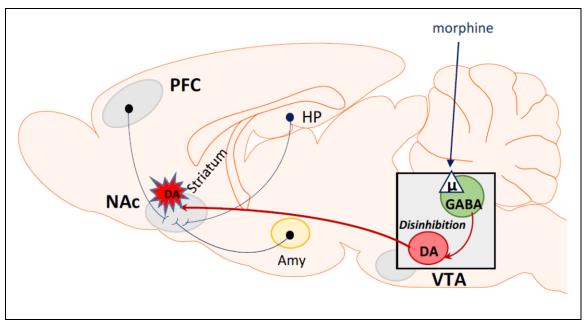


Figure 8. Mécanisme d'action du système de récompense

Source : Listos J, Łupina M, Talarek S, Mazur A, Orzelska-Górka J, Kotlińska J. The Mechanisms Involved in Morphine Addiction: An Overview. Int J Mol Sci. 2019 Sep 3;20(17):4302. doi: 10.3390/ijms20174302. PMID: 31484312; PMCID: PMC6747116.

Description : Mécanismes de l'effet renforçant induit par la morphine. L'effet renforçant de la morphine est associé à la stimulation des récepteurs opioïdes μ localisés au niveau des terminaisons GABAergiques dans l'aire tegmentale ventrale (VTA). Elle inhibe la libération de GABA et désinhibe les neurones dopaminergiques dans le noyau accumbens (NAc) et le cortex préfrontral (PFC) (HP (hypothalamus) ; Amy (amygdale); DA (dopamine)).

Chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et débutant un traitement à base d'opioïdes, le risque de développer des troubles liés à l'utilisation de ce type de médicament est estimé à 5,5 % (IC 95 % : 3,9 – 7,0) (20). Plusieurs facteurs biopsychosociaux ont été identifiés comme facteurs associés à la survenue de troubles d'utilisation d'opioïde. Parmi ces facteurs on rapporte le sexe masculin, le jeune âge, les antécédents d'utilisation de substance ainsi que des problèmes de santé mentale (117). Identifier les personnes à risque de développer ces troubles d'utilisation, permet d'éviter de prescrire des opioïdes à ces personnes ou de mieux surveiller leur utilisation dans le cas où les opioïdes sont indispensables pour soulager la douleur et leur permettre de fonctionner. Cette prévention de la survenue des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes est

importante car ils peuvent conduire à des surdoses d'opioïdes qui peuvent être fatales. Le diagnostic de ce type de trouble est posé lors d'une visite chez le médecin, d'une visite à l'urgence ou lors d'une hospitalisation. Ces diagnostics peuvent donc représenter les cas plus graves et sous-estimer les cas d'utilisation problématique. Un des moyens d'approximer l'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes est d'étudier le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes de prescription.

1.2.10. Nomadisme médical

Le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention de médicaments consiste à consulter plusieurs médecins pour se procurer des ordonnances pour un même médicament (21,22). C'est une pratique qui est notamment utilisée pour l'obtention de médicaments dispensés uniquement sur prescription comme les benzodiazépines, les stimulants, mais surtout les opioïdes (118– 122). Il existe plusieurs définitions du nomadisme médical qui peuvent prendre en compte le nombre de médecins et de pharmacies ainsi que le chevauchement des durées d'ordonnances (21,22). Le nomadisme médical donc peut se définir uniquement par le nombre de médecins consultés dans un laps de temps donné comme dans l'étude de Schneberk T et al. (123), où il est défini comme le fait d'obtenir des prescriptions d'au moins 6 médecins différents en l'espace de 6 mois. Certains auteurs comptabilisent à la fois le nombre de médecins et le nombre de pharmacies, à l'exemple d'Esposito et al. (23) qui définissent le nomadisme sévère comme le fait de consulter plus de 4 prescripteurs et plus de 2 pharmacies en 18 mois ainsi que Delcher et al. (124) qui le définissent comme le fait de consulter au moins 5 prescripteurs et au moins 5 pharmacies en 90 jours. Finalement, d'autres auteurs prennent en compte le chevauchement d'ordonnances en plus du nombre de médecins et de pharmacies. Ainsi, Cepeda MS et al. (122,125,126) définissent le nomadisme médical comme le chevauchement d'ordonnances d'au moins un jour, prescrites par au moins 2 médecins différents et délivrées dans au moins 3 pharmacies différentes. Dépendamment des méthodologies et des définitions utilisées dans les différentes études, le taux de nomadisme médical diffère d'une étude à une autre. Ainsi les précédentes études ont rapporté des taux de nomadisme médical qui varient de 0,01 % à 11 % (23,124). Par ailleurs, les différences entre pays dans l'utilisation des opioïdes rendent nécessaire de mener des études propres à chaque pays pour mieux comprendre l'ampleur de ce phénomène. Cependant, aucune étude au Québec n'a porté sur le nomadisme médical dont la prévalence demeure inconnue.

Quelques études ont identifié les facteurs associés au nomadisme médical. Il ressort que les personnes susceptibles de s'adonner à cette pratique sont de jeune âge, très souvent des hommes et des personnes à faibles revenus (127–132). Certaines comorbidités sont aussi associées à un risque élevé de faire du nomadisme médical, parmi lesquels figurent les troubles de santé mentale en général et plus spécifiquement, les antécédents de troubles d'utilisation de substance et d'opioïdes et les troubles de l'humeur (127-132). Les comorbidités de cancer ainsi que la douleur lombaire étaient aussi associées à un risque plus élevé de survenue du nomadisme médical (127,131). Les études ont également rapporté que les co-prescriptions incluant des benzodiazépines, des hypnotiques, de la morphine ou des opioïdes faibles étaient associées à un risque plus élevé de survenue du nomadisme médical (127–132). D'autres auteurs ont rapporté que certaines personnes qui pratiquent le nomadisme médical étaient plus enclines à payer comptant leurs médicaments (120). Par ailleurs, il a aussi été rapporté que le phénomène du nomadisme médical est plus fréquent dans les zones urbaines que dans les zones rurales (133). Cependant, davantage d'études sont nécessaires pour confirmer ces résultats et mieux caractériser les personnes susceptibles de s'adonner à cette pratique.

Par ailleurs, si le nomadisme médical est perçu comme un proxy d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes, les conséquences d'une telle pratique sont peu connues notamment le lien entre cette pratique et la survenue de surdose d'opioïdes. Cepeda et al. ont mis en évidence une association entre le nomadisme médical et la présence de troubles d'utilisation de substance (127). Deux autres études ont montré une association entre nomadisme médical et survenue de surdoses (134,135). Mais cette association demande à être confirmée et donc davantage d'études sont nécessaires.

1.2.11. Surdose d'opioïdes

Une surdose d'opioïdes se manifeste par une dépression des voies respiratoires causée par une diminution des réponses aux stimuli hypoxémiques et hypercapniques, une bradypnée voire une apnée, et une bronchoconstriction (84).

Les opioïdes abaissent la fréquence de respiration par l'intermédiaire des récepteurs μ qui altèrent la réponse ventilatoire à l'augmentation du CO₂ et à l'hypoxie (49,51,136). En d'autres termes, ils vont diminuer les réponses des centres bulbaires à la diminution du taux d'oxygène et à l'augmentation du taux de CO₂. Par ailleurs, les opioïdes peuvent entraîner une bronchoconstriction des voies respiratoires supérieures et une rigidité de la paroi thoracique (49,51,136). (Figure 9)

L'administration d'un opioïde antagoniste tel la naloxone permet de renverser l'effet des opioïdes sur les centres respiratoires (137,138). La naloxone agit en bloquant les effets des opioïdes en les déplaçant des récepteurs opioïdes. Contrairement aux agonistes opioïdes, la naloxone ne cause pas de dépression respiratoire (137,138). Elle ne produit pas non plus ni tolérance ni de dépendance physique ou psychologique (137,138). La naloxone est distribuée rapidement dans l'organisme à la suite de son administration parentérale (138). C'est ainsi que les trousses de naloxone sont distribuées afin d'inverser rapidement les effets des opioïdes et lutter contre les surdoses d'opioïdes.

Le taux des surdoses non fatales est estimé entre 0,2 et 1,8 % tandis que le taux de surdoses fatales est estimé entre 0,1 et 0,23 % dépendamment de la dose d'opioïdes (20). L'utilisation des opioïdes est donc associée à des risques importants, d'où la nécessité d'identifier les caractéristiques des personnes atteintes de DCNC pour qui ces médicaments sont efficaces et sécuritaires. Les surdoses d'opioïdes surviennent principalement chez les hommes jeunes. Au Canada, en 2020, les hommes représentaient 77 % des personnes décédées par suite d'une surdose d'opioïde. Aussi, la plupart des personnes décédées, hommes et femmes confondues, étaient âgés de moins de 40 ans (18).

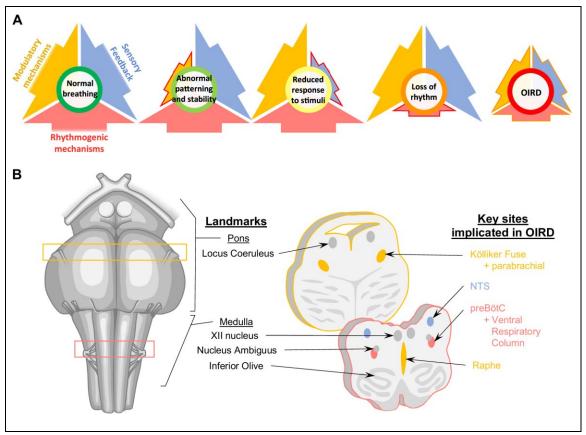


Figure 9. Mécanisme de l'arrêt respiratoire causé par les opioïdes

Source: Ramirez JM, Burgraff NJ, Wei AD, Baertsch NA, Varga AG, Baghdoyan HA, Lydic R, Morris KF, Bolser DC, Levitt ES. Neuronal Mechanisms Underlying Opioid-induced Respiratory Depression: Our Current Understanding. J Neurophysiol. 2021 May 1;125(5):1899-1919. doi: 10.1152/jn.00017.2021. Epub 2021 Apr 7. PMID: 33826874.

Description : A : En situation normale, la respiration nécessite l'intégration de mécanismes de rétroaction rythmogènes, modulateurs et sensoriels. Un surdosage en opioïdes peut supprimer tous ces mécanismes importants de contrôle respiratoire, ce qui entraîne une dépression respiratoire (Oipioid-Induced Respiratory Depression (OIRD)). B : schéma du tronc cérébral illustrant les sites clés qui interviennent dans la dépression respiratoire. Une vue ventrale est présentée à gauche, et des coupes transversales sont présentées à droite. Les couleurs dans B correspondent aux mécanismes décrits dans A. (NTS, nucleus tractus solitarius).

Pour prévenir les surdoses, notamment celles causées par les opioïdes de prescription, objet de notre thèse, il est important d'identifier les personnes à risque de

développer des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes, en particulier celles susceptibles de se procurer de grandes quantités d'opioïdes. Identifier les facteurs associés au nomadisme médical apparaît donc comme une avenue pour dresser le profil de ces personnes à risque et permettre un suivi et une évaluation des bénéfices et risques associés à la thérapie à long terme par des opioïdes.

1.3. Résumé de l'état des connaissances

Tableau III. Résumé de l'état des connaissances sur les opioïdes et la douleur chez les PUD

| Sujet | Ce qui est connu | Questions |
|--|--|---|
| Efficacité des opioïdes à long terme | Les médicaments opioïdes ne sont pas plus efficaces que les médicaments non-opioïdes pour soulager la douleur à long terme mais une sous-population des personnes traitées avec des opioïdes s'améliore à long terme Des études expérimentales suggèrent que certains facteurs biopsychosociaux pourraient prédire l'efficacité des opioïdes à long terme | Quels sont les caractéristiques des personnes pour qui les opioïdes sont efficaces à long terme ? |
| Nomadisme médical pour l'obtention des opioïdes | Aucune étude n'évalue le taux de nomadisme médical au Québec Quelques études ont identifié des facteurs associés au nomadisme médical Seules deux études ont mis en évidence une association entre nomadisme médical et survenue de surdoses d'opioïdes. | Quel est l'ampleur du nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes au Québec ? Qui sont les personnes à risque de faire du nomadisme médical ? Est-ce que le nomadisme médical est associé à la survenue de surdose d'opioïde ? |
| Douleur chez les personnes utilisatrices (PUD) | La prévalence de la douleur chez les personnes sous traitement agonistes aux opioïdes est de 2 à 3 fois supérieure à celle rapportée dans la population générale. Les comorbidités, les conditions de vie, les modes de consommation de drogues peuvent expliquer cette prévalence élevée de douleur | Quelle est la prévalence de la douleur chez les utilisateurs de drogues en général (i.e., pas uniquement ceux sous traitement agonistes)? Qu'est-ce qui explique la prévalence élevée de douleur chez les utilisateurs de drogues? Comment les personnes utilisatrices de drogues soulagent leur douleur? |

CHAPITRE 2. MÉTHODOLOGIE

Plusieurs sources de données et différentes méthodologies ont été utilisées pour répondre aux différents objectifs de la thèse.

Les différentes études réalisées dans le cadre de cette thèse ont toutes obtenu l'autorisation du Comité d'éthique du Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal (CHUM). Les études exploitant les données de la Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec (articles 2 et 3) ont obtenu, outre l'autorisation du Comité d'éthique du CHUM, l'autorisation de la Commission d'accès à l'information (CAI) du Québec.

2.1. Prédicteurs de l'efficacité des opioïdes dans la DCNC

2.1.1. Type d'étude

Il s'agit d'une étude de cohorte rétrospective de personnes vivant avec de la DCNC, traitées avec des opioïdes et enrôlées dans le Registre Québec douleur (RQD) entre 2008 et 2011.

2.1.2. Source des données

Les données pour cette étude proviennent du RQD.

• Registre Québec douleur

Le RQD (http://www.quebecpainregistry.com) est une banque de données qui contient les informations d'une cohorte de personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique au Québec. Le RQD a été implanté dans 5 cliniques de traitement multidisciplinaire de la douleur avec affiliation universitaire que sont les celles du Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal (CHUM), du Centre hospitalier universitaire de Sherbrooke (CHUS), du Centre universitaire de santé McGill (CUSM), du Centre hospitalier universitaire de Québec (CHUQ), et de l'Hôtel-Dieu de Québec (HDQ). Le RQD avait un but clinique, i.e., faire le suivi des résultats cliniques des Centres d'expertise sur la douleur, et un but administratif i.e., obtenir des statistiques administratives pertinentes sur leur fonctionnement.

Les cliniques de la douleur sont désignées par le Ministère de la santé et des services sociaux comme centres d'expertise dans le domaine du traitement de la douleur. Il s'agit de structures de santé disposant d'équipe multidisciplinaire (médecins anesthésiologistes et algologues, psychologues, physiothérapeutes etc.) dont les expertises sont mises à contribution pour évaluer et prendre en charge la douleur. Les personnes suivies en clinique de la douleur sont pour la plupart des personnes pour lesquels les interventions conventionnelles de première et deuxième ligne se sont montrées insuffisantes pour soulager adéquatement la douleur.

Le RQD a enrôlé entre novembre 2008 et décembre 2014 les personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique qui ont été vues dans une des cliniques de douleur citées ci-dessus. Pour être incluses, les personnes devaient être âgées de 18 ans et plus, capables de s'exprimer en français et/ou en anglais, et capables de donner un consentement éclairé à participer à l'étude. Les participants étaient enrôlés dans le RQD avant leur première visite à la clinique de douleur et étaient suivis à 6, 12 et 24 mois post-visite initiale. Après mars 2012, les mesures de suivi à 12 et 24 mois ont dû être cessées pour des raisons de coûts. L'enrôlement ainsi que le suivi ont dû être arrêtés en décembre 2014 par manque de financement. Le nombre total de personnes inscrites au RQD entre novembre 2008 et décembre 2014 était de 9363 parmi lesquelles 8650 personnes (92.4%) ont consenti à ce que leurs données colligées soient utilisées à des fins de recherche.

Les renseignements contenus dans le RQD ont été colligés par un questionnaire patient qui était auto-administré et un questionnaire administré par une infirmière. Ces renseignements comprenaient :

- Caractéristiques de la douleur (durée, fréquence, intensité, etc.) et son impact sur divers aspects de la vie quotidienne, incluant le sommeil
- O Diagnostic de douleur établi par des cliniciens spécialisés en douleur
- Bien-être psychologique (dépression, pensées suicidaires) et tendance à la catastrophisation face à la douleur
- O Qualité de vie reliée à la santé
- Antécédents médicaux et habitudes de consommation (cigarette, alcool, drogues)

- O Traitements actuels et passés de la douleur (pharmacologiques et nonpharmacologiques)
- O Attentes du patient vis-à-vis du traitement de la douleur
- Perception globale de changement de la douleur, du fonctionnement, et de la qualité de vie
- o Satisfaction par rapport aux traitements reçus pour la douleur
- Caractéristiques sociodémographiques

Une description détaillée des procédures et du contenu du RQD a été publiée dans un article (139) qui est reproduit en annexe de la thèse (Annexe 1).

Comme le RQD contient des informations longitudinales sur la sévérité de la douleur et la qualité de vie reliée à la santé ainsi que des renseignements sur les médicaments utilisés, il a été possible de mener notre étude visant à identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes.

2.1.3. Population à l'étude

L'étude a inclus les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC inscrites au RQD et qui ont commencé un traitement opioïde après leur premier rendez-vous dans une clinique multidisciplinaire de la douleur et ont poursuivi ce traitement jusqu'au suivi à 12 mois. La douleur chronique a été définie comme une douleur qui dure depuis plus de 3 mois (55) et le diagnostic précis de la douleur a été établi par un médecin lors de la première visite à la clinique multidisciplinaire de la douleur. Les personnes qui ne prenaient pas d'opioïdes avant leur première visite à la clinique de la douleur, mais qui ont rapporté prendre des opioïdes aux visites de suivi à 6 et 12 mois ont été incluses comme des utilisateurs à long terme d'opioïdes. L'information sur l'utilisation des opioïdes provenait du questionnaire administré par l'infirmière. Pour des raisons financières, seules les personnes inscrites entre 2008 et 2011 et provenant des cliniques de la douleur du CHUM, du CHUS et du CUSM qui disposaient de données de suivi à 6 et 12 mois permettant d'identifier celles avec un traitement opioïde à long terme ont été incluses dans notre étude.

2.1.4. Critères d'évaluation

La diminution de la sévérité de la douleur et l'amélioration de la qualité de vie mentale reliée à la santé ont été les critères d'évaluations de l'étude.

• La réduction de la sévérité de la douleur

L'intensité et l'interférence de la douleur ont été évaluées dans le RQD avec l'échelle du *Brief Pain Inventory* (BPI) contenu dans le questionnaire patient auto-administré. Le BPI qui est largement utilisé a fait l'objet de nombreuses études et se révèle fiable et valide pour évaluer différents types de douleur chronique (140). Il permet d'évaluer à l'aide d'une échelle numérique de 0 (aucune douleur) à 10 (la pire douleur possible) l'intensité de la douleur ressentie en moyenne et à son plus fort au cours des 7 derniers jours de même qu'au moment présent. Une version modifiée des items d'interférence du BPI (10 items plutôt que 7) (141) a été utilisée pour évaluer l'impact de la douleur dans diverses sphères de la vie quotidienne et ce, à l'aide d'une échelle de 0 à 10 (0 = n'interfère pas, 10 = interfère complètement).

Pour notre étude, afin d'avoir un score de la sévérité tenant compte à la fois de l'intensité et de l'interférence de la douleur, nous avons utilisé l'échelle du PEG qui combine des questions du BPI (142). Il comprend trois questions dans lesquelles on demande d'évaluer au cours des 7 derniers jours, l'intensité de la douleur en moyenne (Pain on the average (P)), jusqu'à quel point la douleur a un impact sur la joie de vivre (Interference with Enjoyment of life (E)) et jusqu'à quel point elle interfère avec l'activité générale (Interference with General activity (G)) (142). Pour chaque question, la personne doit donner un score allant de 0 à 10, 0 étant l'absence de douleur ou d'interférence, et 10 étant la pire douleur possible ou une interférence complète. L'échelle du PEG a montré une bonne fidélité et une bonne validité pour évaluer la sévérité de la douleur et discriminer entre les personnes qui voyaient leur douleur diminuer et celles qui ne s'amélioraient pas (142). Afin de constituer l'échelle du PEG, les 3 questions ont été extraites du BPI et la moyenne des scores de ces 3 questions a été calculée, obtenant ainsi un score de la sévérité de la douleur allant de 0 à 10.

Pour déterminer la réduction significative de la sévérité de la douleur sur le plan clinique, nous avons suivi les recommandations du groupe IMMPACT (*Initiative on Methods, Measurement, and Pain Assessment in Clinical Trials*) chargé d'établir un consensus et de faire des recommandations sur la conception, la réalisation et l'interprétation des essais cliniques sur les traitements de la douleur. Selon la recommandation du groupe IMMPACT (143), une réduction de la sévérité de la douleur a été considérée comme cliniquement significative si elle correspondait à une diminution d'au moins 2 points sur une l'échelle allant de 0 à 10.

• Amélioration de la qualité de vie mentale reliée à la santé

La qualité de vie physique et mentale a été évaluée dans le RQD par le questionnaire SF-12v2® contenu dans le questionnaire patient auto-administré. Le questionnaire SF-12v2® est la forme abrégée du questionnaire SF-36 et est composé de 12 questions qui évaluent la qualité de vie reliée à la santé (144–146).

Les 12 questions du questionnaire SF-12v2® portent sur 8 domaines de la santé qui peuvent être répartis en 2 composantes à savoir la qualité de vie physique et la qualité de vie mentale (144–146). La qualité de vie physique est évaluée par 6 questions portant sur les 4 domaines que sont le fonctionnement physique, les limitations dues à des problèmes de santé physique, la douleur physique et l'état de santé général (144–146). La qualité de vie mentale est évaluée par les 6 autres questions qui portent sur la vitalité (énergie/fatigue), le fonctionnement social, les limitations dues à des problèmes émotionnels, et la santé mentale (détresse et bien-être psychologique) (144–146). Pour la qualité de vie physique tout comme pour la qualité de vie mentale reliée à la santé, un score standardisé et normalisé est obtenu, la moyenne étant de 50 avec un écart-type de 10 (144,145). Plus le score est élevé, meilleure est la qualité de vie.

Pour identifier les personnes dont la qualité de vie reliée à la santé s'améliorait, une augmentation d'au moins un écart-type du score moyen normalisé dans la population générale a été définie comme une amélioration cliniquement significative (103,147). En effet, une revue systématique (147) a suggéré que le seuil de discrimination pour les changements dans la qualité de vie reliée à la santé pour les maladies chroniques semble être d'environ la moitié d'un écart-type. Pour être plus conservateurs, nous avons choisi un

changement d'un écart-type par rapport au score moyen normalisé, c'est-à-dire une augmentation de 10 points, comme étant un changement cliniquement significatif.

Le questionnaire SF-12v2® a démontré une bonne fidélité, de la cohérence interne, et une bonne validité chez les personnes vivant avec de la douleur (144–146,148). Le SF-12v2® est recommandé pour diverses études comme les enquêtes populationnelles, les essais cliniques, et les recherches sur l'efficacité des traitements (145). Il peut aussi être utilisé pour comparer des populations, le fardeau relatif des maladies, le bénéfice des traitements, mais aussi pour prédire les coûts des soins et la mortalité (145).

Pour cette étude, seulement 9 participants ont présenté une augmentation significative de leur qualité de vie physique reliée à la santé, un nombre insuffisant pour identifier des prédicteurs. L'étude s'est donc focalisée sur les personnes qui avaient une amélioration significative de leur qualité de vie mentale reliée à la santé.

2.1.5. Variables

• Caractéristiques sociodémographiques

Les données sociodémographiques ont été colligées avec le questionnaire patient. Parmi ces variables, celles incluses dans notre analyse comprenaient l'âge, le sexe et le niveau de scolarité, et le statut de travail.

• Caractéristiques de la douleur

Les informations sur les caractéristiques de la douleur comprenaient la durée de la douleur, la fréquence de la douleur et le type de douleur. L'intensité et l'interférence de la douleur ont été évaluées par le BPI comme expliqué dans la section portant sur la sévérité de la douleur.

Le type de douleur a été établi en combinant le diagnostic du médecin de la Clinique de douleur avec les réponses d'un questionnaire évaluant la présence d'une douleur neuropathique. Le diagnostic a été établi selon une grille de diagnostics élaborée spécifiquement pour le RQD par des médecins expérimentés en matière de douleur (139).

La composante neuropathique de la douleur a été évaluée par le questionnaire sur la douleur neuropathique (DN4). Il s'agit d'un questionnaire composé de 4 questions avec

un total de 10 items. Un score de 1 est attribué lorsque la réponse est « oui » et un score de 0 lorsque la réponse est « non ». Le score total va de 0 à 10 et un score de 4/10 ou plus traduit la présence d'une douleur neuropathique (149). Le DN4 a montré une bonne validité et fidélité pour le diagnostic de la douleur neuropathique (150). Pour notre étude, le type de douleur a été catégorisé en douleur non-neuropathique, douleur neuropathique et douleur avec évidence mixte de neuropathie. Pour ce faire, nous avons pris en compte le diagnostic du médecin, mais aussi les réponses au DN4. Ainsi, la douleur a été classée comme neuropathique si le diagnostic du médecin a conclu à la présence d'une douleur neuropathique et que le score DN4 \geq 4; La douleur a été classée comme non-neuropathique si le diagnostic a conclu à une douleur non-neuropathique et que le score DN4 < 4; la douleur a été classée comme mixte lorsqu'on est en présence d'un diagnostic de douleur non neuropathique avec un score DN4 \geq 4, ou un diagnostic de douleur neuropathique avec un score DN4 < 4 (139).

• Tendance à la catastrophisation face à la douleur

La tendance à la catastrophisation face à la douleur est définie comme un ensemble de pensées négatives durant l'expérience actuelle ou anticipée de la douleur (151). L'échelle de catastrophisation face à la douleur évalue 3 dimensions de la pensée à savoir la rumination, l'amplification et l'impuissance (151). La tendance à la catastrophisation face à la douleur peut affecter la sévérité de la douleur, la consommation de médicaments analgésiques ainsi que la dépression et l'anxiété (151). L'échelle de la catastrophisation est composée de 13 questions avec chacune 5 choix de réponses cotés de 0 à 4 (151). Le score total va de 0 à 52 et plus le score est élevé, plus la tendance à la catastrophisation est forte (151). L'échelle de la catastrophisation est très largement utilisée et sa validité est largement documentée tout comme l'est sa fidélité (152).

Dépression

La symptomatologie dépressive a été évaluée par le *Beck Depression Inventory-1* (BDI). Le BDI est composé de 21 questions qui évaluent les caractéristiques et l'intensité de la dépression (153). Chacune des 21 questions comprend 4 énoncés avec des cotes de 0 à 3 qu'il faut encercler. Le score total est compris entre 0 (pas de dépression) et 63 (extrême dépression) (153). Les propriétés psychométriques du BDI ont été évaluées par différentes

études qui ont montré une bonne validité et fidélité chez diverses populations y compris les personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique (154–156).

• Problèmes d'alcool et de drogues

La consommation problématique d'alcool et de drogues a été évaluée par le *Cut down, Annoyed, Guilty, Eye-opener Questionnaire - Adapted to include drugs* (CAGE-AID). Le questionnaire CAGE a été développé pour dépister les problèmes de consommation excessive d'alcool et l'alcoolisme. Ce questionnaire a ensuite été modifié pour dépister à la fois les problèmes d'alcool et de drogues donnant lieu au CAGE-AID (*CAGE Questionnaire Adapted to Include Drugs*) (157,158). Le CAGE-AID comprend 4 questions dont les réponses sont cotées 0 pour « non » et 1 pour « oui », avec un score total allant de 0 à 4 (157). Un score total de deux ou plus est considéré comme cliniquement significatif et associé à des troubles liés à la consommation d'alcool et de drogues (157). Le CAGE-AID présente une bonne validité et une bonne fidélité (157,158). Dans le RQD, les questions sur la consommation d'alcool et de drogues ont été évaluées séparément et non ensemble comme dans le CAGE-AID afin d'augmenter la précision des informations recueillies. Pour nos analyses, nous avons donc combiné les réponses pour le dépistage des problèmes de consommation d'alcool avec les réponses pour le dépistage des problèmes de consommation de drogues, recréant ainsi le questionnaire CAGE-AID.

2.1.6. Analyses statistiques

Une partie de l'échantillon étudié avait des données manquantes pour les variables d'intérêt qu'étaient la sévérité de la douleur et la qualité de vie reliée à la santé. Les personnes avec des données manquantes pour ces variables ont donc été exclues. Afin de déterminer si les personnes exclues étaient différentes ou non des personnes incluses, nous avons comparé leurs caractéristiques de base en utilisant le test de Student pour comparer les moyennes, le test de Mann-Whitney pour comparer les médianes et le test du Chi 2 pour comparer les fréquences.

La sélection des variables indépendantes a été basée sur la revue de la littérature et leur pertinence clinique. Des analyses de régression logistique multivariable ont été utilisées pour identifier les prédicteurs : un premier modèle avec la sévérité de la douleur comme variable dépendante et un deuxième modèle avec la qualité de vie mentale reliée à la santé comme variable dépendante. Compte tenu du faible nombre d'évènements dans notre échantillon et la revue de la littérature n'ayant pas permis d'avoir un nombre plus restreint de variables, nous avons procédé à une sélection statistique des variables. Ainsi, une régression univariable a permis de sélectionner les variables significatives au seuil de p < 0,25 pour être incluses dans le modèle multivariable. Une élimination pas-à-pas descendante a ensuite permis d'enlever les variables non significatives au seuil de p < 0.05si leur retrait ne modifiait pas les coefficients des variables restantes de plus 20 %. L'âge et le sexe ont été maintenus dans le modèle multivariable comme variables forcées. Finalement, les variables qui n'ont pas atteint le seuil de significativité de p < 0,25 dans l'analyse univariable ont été rajoutées une à une dans le modèle multivariable et retenues dans le modèle final si elles étaient significatives au seuil de p < 0.05. Cette étape permet d'identifier les variables qui, par elles-mêmes, ne sont pas statistiquement significatives, mais le deviennent en présence d'autres variables. Seules les variables statistiquement significatives à p < 0.05 ont été retenues dans le modèle final. Cette approche est décrite comme un moyen de sélection rigoureuse lorsqu'on a un grand nombre de variables pour un modèle; elle permet aussi de retenir les variables significatives ainsi que les facteurs de confusion importants (159).

Les rapports de cote (*odds ratios* (OR)) et leur intervalle de confiance (IC) à 95 % ont été rapportés. Le test de Hosmer-Lemeshow a été effectué pour évaluer la qualité de l'ajustement du modèle prédictif final. La sensibilité, la spécificité et l'aire sous la courbe (AUC) ont également été calculées. Les analyses ont été réalisées à l'aide de Stata 15.1 pour Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA.

2.2. Nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes (doctor shopping)

Le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes a été étudié dans 2 des études de la présente thèse : une première étude réalisée exclusivement à partir des données de la Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec (RAMQ) (article 2) et une seconde étude réalisée à partir des données du RQD jumelées à celles de la RAMQ (article 3). Ces deux études visaient à répondre aux objectifs 3 et 4 du projet PAIR financé par les Instituts de recherche en santé du Canada dont le protocole est joint en annexe (Annexe 2). Cette section présente la méthodologie des analyses réalisées exclusivement à partir des données de la RAMQ (article 2).

2.2.1. Type d'étude

Il s'agit d'une étude de cohorte rétrospective de personnes vivant avec une douleur chronique non cancéreuse (DCNC) et traitées avec des opioïdes pendant au moins 6 mois entre 2006 et 2017 dans la province du Québec (Canada).

2.2.2. Sources des données

• Le système d'assurance maladie et d'assurance médicament du Québec

Le Québec dispose d'un régime public d'assurance maladie qui couvre l'ensemble de sa population pour les hospitalisations et les services médicaux. Le Québec dispose également d'un système d'assurance médicament obligatoire, mais qui se répartit entre le public et le privé. Le Régime public d'assurance médicament couvre les personnes âgées de 65 ans et plus, les personnes qui bénéficient de l'aide sociale ainsi que les personnes qui n'ont pas de couverture privée et les membres de leur famille (adhérents). Ainsi en 2017, dernière année de notre étude portant sur le nomadisme médical, environ 45 % de la population du Québec était couverte par le Régime public de l'assurance médicament de la RAMQ, soit 34 % des moins de 65 ans et 90 % des 65 ans et plus, pour une population totale admissible de 8 083 857 de personnes (160). Parmi les personnes couvertes par le Régime public de l'assurance médicament de la RAMQ, 62 % étaient âgées de moins de 65 ans (50 % (N = 1 818 653) d'adhérents et 12 % (N = 436 125) de bénéficiaires de

l'aide sociale) tandis que les 38 % (N = 1 367 304) restants étaient les personnes âgées de 65 ans et plus (160).

Les données contenues dans les banques médico-administratives du Québec proviennent du système de facturation à ces deux régimes d'assurance. Compte tenu du fait que le Régime public d'assurance maladie couvre toute la population du Québec, les données d'hospitalisation et de services médicaux sont disponibles pour toute la population. En revanche, vu que le régime public d'assurance médicament couvre 45 % de la population, seules les données médicaments d'une partie de la population sont disponibles.

Les banques médico-administratives utilisées dans cette étude appartiennent à la RAMQ et au Ministère de la santé et des services sociaux (MSSS). Les banques de données de la RAMQ comprenaient le fichier d'inscription des personnes assurées (FIPA), le fichier des services pharmaceutiques (SMED) et le fichier des services médicaux (SMOD). Les banques de données du MSSS comprenaient la banque de données des urgences (BDCU) et la banque de données des hospitalisations (MED-ECHO).

• Fichier d'inscription des personnes assurées (FIPA)

Ce fichier contient l'historique de l'admissibilité au Régime public d'assurance maladie et au régime public d'assurance médicament de la RAMQ. Elle contient également quelques caractéristiques sociodémographiques comme la date de naissance, le sexe et la date de décès.

• Services médicaux des pharmaciens rémunérés (SMED)

Cette banque contient les informations sur chacune des prescriptions de médicament fournies par un pharmacien aux personnes couvertes par le Régime public d'assurance médicaments de la RAMQ (les prescriptions des personnes assurées par un régime privé ne sont donc pas incluses dans cette banque). Pour chacune des prescriptions, on retrouve, entre autres, la date de la prescription, le médecin prescripteur et les informations sur les médicaments (nom, code DIN, dose, durée du traitement, coût, etc.). Pour notre étude, les informations colligées sur les médicaments prescrits comprenaient la date de dispensation, la dénomination commune internationale (DCI) avec le code correspondant, la dose et la durée du traitement. L'identifiant unique anonyme du prescripteur ainsi que l'identifiant unique anonyme de la pharmacie où le médicament a été délivré ont également été extraites.

• Services médicaux rémunérés à l'acte (SMOD)

Cette banque de données contient les renseignements sur les services médicaux rémunérés à l'acte dans le cadre du Régime public d'assurance maladie. Il s'agit de renseignements liés à la facturation à l'acte des professionnels de la santé provenant des demandes de paiements soumises à la RAMQ. Pour chacun des actes, la banque contient l'information sur la spécialité du médecin traitant, le lieu de dispensation, le code de l'acte médical, le diagnostic ainsi que le coût payé par la RAMQ au médecin. Les diagnostics dans ce fichier sont codifiés selon la 9ème version de la classification internationale des maladies (CIM-9) et depuis 2019 on retrouve des codes de diagnostics selon la CIM-10.

• Banque de données communes des urgences (BDCU)

Cette banque de données est alimentée par le Système d'information de gestion des départements d'urgence (SIGDU), qui appartient au MSSS mais qui est hébergé par la RAMQ. Elle contient des renseignements sur les admissions aux urgences et les épisodes de soins et de services prodigués à une personne inscrite à l'urgence d'un établissement du Québec. On y retrouve, entre autres, les dates d'admission et de départ ainsi que les codes CIM-10 des diagnostics associés à chaque admission. Les données de la BDCU sont exploitables à partir de 2012.

Maintenance et exploitation des données pour l'étude de la clientèle hospitalière (MED-ÉCHO)

La banque MED-ÉCHO contient les données relatives aux séjours hospitaliers survenus dans un centre hospitalier du Québec dispensant des soins généraux ou spécialisés. Ces données, compilées par les centres hospitaliers, concernent les soins de courte durée (physiques et psychiatriques) et les chirurgies d'un jour. Ces données appartiennent au MSSS et sont hébergées par la RAMQ. On y trouve, entre autres, les caractéristiques de l'usager (date de naissance, sexe, lieu de résidence, etc.), les dates d'entrée et de sortie de l'hôpital, les services par lesquels le patient est passé, les diagnostics associés à l'hospitalisation, les traitements reçus et, le cas échéant, les informations sur le décès. Les diagnostics dans ce fichier sont codifiés selon la CIM-10. Les médicaments administrés à l'hôpital ne sont pas disponibles dans cette banque de données.

Ces différentes banques de données médico-administratives contiennent des informations sur la dispensation des médicaments, les médecins prescripteurs et les pharmacies dispensatrices permettant ainsi d'explorer le nomadisme médical. De plus, elles disposent des informations sur des facteurs sociodémographiques, les comorbidités et les co-prescriptions, permettant ainsi d'identifier les facteurs associés au nomadisme. Ces sources de données sont donc appropriées pour mener les analyses pouvant répondre aux objectifs de la présente étude.

2.2.3. Population

La population à l'étude était composée de personnes vivant avec de la DCNC, couvertes par le Régime public de l'assurance médicament de la RAMQ et traités par des opioïdes sur une base à long terme. Les personnes âgées de 18 ans et plus et traitées de manière continue avec des opioïdes pendant au moins 6 mois consécutifs (183 jours) entre 2006 et 2017 ont été incluses comme des personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique. Un traitement continu était défini comme un traitement sans interruption de plus 7 jours, i.e., pas plus de 7 jours entre la fin d'une prescription et le début de la suivante, comme utilisé dans de précédentes études (129,130). La date index a été définie comme la date de délivrance de la première prescription de la séquence continue d'au moins 6 mois de traitement opioïde. Les personnes ayant utilisé des opioïdes dans les 6 mois précédant la date de l'index ont été exclues et les personnes restantes ont été considérées comme des cas incidents débutant un nouveau traitement opioïde. De plus, toutes les personnes incluses devaient avoir au moins 12 mois de suivi après la date index. Ainsi, les personnes non couvertes par le Régime public d'assurance médicament de manière continue entre 6 mois avant la date index et 12 mois après la date index ont été exclues. Par ailleurs, les personnes avec au moins un code CIM-9 ou CIM-10 de cancer lors de visite chez le médecin, de visite aux urgences ou d'hospitalisation dans les 5 années précédant la date index ont été exclues. Les personnes restantes ont ensuite été qualifiées comme des personnes vivant avec de la DCNC.

L'identification des personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique à partir de leur utilisation d'opioïdes constitue une alternative à l'utilisation des codes de diagnostic de douleur chronique qui sont sous-déclarés dans les banques de données médico-administratives (161). La douleur chronique est souvent considérée comme un symptôme d'une maladie, la conséquence d'un traumatisme ou quelque chose de normal dans la vie, ce qui contribue à ce qu'elle soit sous-diagnostiquée (5,162). De plus, la subjectivité de la douleur et l'absence d'une mesure objective comme peuvent l'être des maladies comme le diabète, font que les codes de diagnostic de douleur chronique sont sous-rapportés (162) sauf pour les cas nécessitant des visites à l'hôpital. Ainsi, pour

les personnes suivies en soins tertiaires, il a été démontré que les codes de diagnostics contenus dans la RAMQ présentaient une bonne spécificité (58 % à 98 %) pour identifier différents types de douleur chronique, mais une sensibilité moins élevée et variable (4 % à 71 %) (163). Pour mieux identifier les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et prenant des opioïdes à long terme, nous avons donc choisi d'utiliser un algorithme basé sur l'utilisation des médicaments opioïdes.

La douleur chronique étant définie comme une douleur qui dure depuis plus que 3 mois (55), l'utilisation chronique d'opioïdes, médicaments exclusivement dédiés au soulagement de la douleur, pourrait traduire une douleur qui dure depuis le moment que la personne utilise ce type de médicaments. Une précédente étude a par ailleurs montré que l'utilisation d'opioïdes depuis 3 mois (réception d'au moins 90 jours de médicaments opioïdes) présentait une spécificité élevée (~100%) pour identifier les personnes vivant avec une douleur chronique (164). Pour être plus conservateurs, nous avons choisi une utilisation continue de 6 mois d'opioïdes pour identifier les personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique et traitées avec des opioïdes.

2.2.4. Critère d'évaluation

Nomadisme médical

Le critère d'évaluation était la survenue du nomadisme médical, lequel était défini comme le recours à plusieurs médecins et pharmacies dans un laps de temps court pour obtenir des prescriptions de grandes quantités d'opioïdes pouvant servir à un usage non-médical (21,122,125,129,130). Il existe plusieurs définitions du nomadisme médical dont la plupart consistent à compter le nombre de médecins et/ou de pharmacies (21,22). La définition utilisée dans la présente étude considère le nomadisme médical comme le chevauchement d'ordonnances d'au moins un jour, prescrites par au moins 2 médecins différents et délivrées dans au moins 3 pharmacies différentes (125,165). Cette définition a fait l'objet d'une analyse de sensibilité qui a montré que l'utilisation de ce critère permettait de différencier les opioïdes des benzodiazépines et des diurétiques (125,165). Ainsi, dans l'étude américaine de Cepeda et al (165), seulement 0,03 % des sujets exposés aux diurétiques présentaient du nomadisme médical contre 0,18 % des sujets exposés aux opioïdes et 0,10 % des sujets exposés aux benzodiazépines (165). D'autres analyses de sensibilité réalisées en France ont montré que cette même définition permettait de discriminer les opioïdes des diurétiques (non connus pour faire l'objet d'abus) et de la buprénorphine (connue

pour être un de mes médicaments faisant le plus objet d'abus) (129,130,132). Par ailleurs, il a été démontré que cet indicateur est associé à un diagnostic clinique de troubles d'utilisations d'opioïdes (127). Cette définition du nomadisme médical apparaît donc un proxy pertinent de l'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes d'ordonnance (22,23,132).

2.2.5. Variables

Comorbidités

Les comorbidités ont été identifiées à partir des codes de diagnostic CIM-9 dans le fichier des services médicaux (SMED), et des codes CIM-10 contenus dans les données d'hospitalisations (MED-ECHO) et de visites aux urgences (BDCU). L'identification des comorbidités à partir des codes de diagnostics contenus dans les banques de données médico-administratives permet d'avoir des informations sur le type de comorbidités. Ces données étant colligées en temps réel, elles permettent de s'affranchir du biais de mémoire et de désirabilité sociale qui peuvent survenir avec les données auto-rapportées. Des études ont montré que les codes de diagnostics de la RAMQ présentaient une spécificité élevée pour l'identification des comorbidités, mais une sensibilité moins élevée et variable selon la maladie (162,163,166,167). Ainsi, la dépression et l'anxiété présentaient une spécificité de 92 % et 90 %, mais une sensibilité de 27 % et 31 % respectivement (166). Il peut donc y avoir une sous-déclaration des codes de diagnostics, mais qui touche uniformément tous les patients. La faible sensibilité des codes de diagnostics pour l'identification des maladies introduit donc un biais de classification non différentiel qui pourrait atténuer l'association entre la maladie et l'évènement d'intérêt. Par ailleurs, les codes de diagnostics présents dans les données pourraient représenter les cas les plus graves comme des maladies nécessitant une hospitalisation, une visite à l'urgence ou une visite chez le médecin.

Les comorbidités identifiées incluaient les troubles de santé mentale (codes CIM-9 : 2900 à 3199 ; codes CIM-10 : F00.0 à F99.9) et les sous-catégories telles que les troubles liés à l'utilisation de substances (codes CIM-9 : 3030 à 3059 ; codes CIM-10 : F10.0 à F19.9), la dépression (codes CIM-9 : 2962, 2963, 2966 à 2968, 2980, 3004, 3090, 3091, 310 à 3119; codes CIM-10 : F30.0 à F39.9), les troubles anxieux (codes CIM-9 : 3000 à 3003; codes CIM-10 : F064, F408 à F413, F418, F419, F931, F932). Les antécédents de comorbidité ont été identifiés par la

présence d'au moins un code de diagnostic CIM-9 ou CIM-10 au cours des 12 derniers mois précédant la date index.

• Co-prescriptions

Les médicaments ont été identifiés à l'aide des codes de dénomination commune. Pour lister les médicaments issus des différentes classes, nous avons d'abord listé ces médicaments à partir de la classification anatomique, thérapeutique et chimique (ATC) de l'Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS). Les codes de dénominations communes correspondant à chaque dénomination commune ont ensuite été listés à partir de la liste des médicaments de la RAMQ. Les opioïdes incluaient la codéine (y compris la combinaison avec l'acétaminophène), le dextropropoxyphène (retiré du marché depuis 2010), le fentanyl, l'hydromorphone, l'hydrocodone (sauf la combinaison avec la phényléphrine et la phényltoloxamine, couramment prescrite pour traiter la toux), la mépéridine, la morphine, l'oxycodone (y compris en combinaison avec l'acétaminophène, l'acide acétylsalicylique ou la naloxone), le tapentadol, le tramadol (y compris en combinaison avec l'acétaminophène), le butorphanol et la pentazocine. La méthadone et la buprénorphine ont été exclues de la liste des opioïdes utilisés comme analgésiques, car elles sont couramment utilisées comme agonistes opioïdes pour traiter les troubles liés à l'utilisation d'opioïdes. Les coprescriptions de médicaments, définies comme au moins une prescription d'un médicament au cours des 3 mois précédant la date index ont été colligées. Ces médicaments comprenaient les benzodiazépines, les antidépresseurs, les antipsychotiques, les thymorégulateurs, les anticonvulsivants, les psychostimulants et les relaxants musculaires.

2.2.6. Analyses statistiques

Les caractéristiques sociodémographiques, les antécédents de comorbidités et de coprescriptions ont été décrits et comparés entre ceux qui pratiquaient le nomadisme médical et ceux qui ne le pratiquaient pas. Les données quantitatives ont été exprimées en moyenne ± écart-type tandis que les données catégorielles ont été exprimées en fréquence et pourcentage. Des tests de Student et de Chi2 ont été utilisés pour comparer les utilisateurs d'opioïdes qui avaient eu au moins un épisode de nomadisme médical avec les utilisateurs d'opioïdes qui n'en avaient eu aucun. La différence était considérée comme statistiquement significative si la valeur de p était < 0,05.

Incidence du nomadisme médical

L'incidence à 1 an du nomadisme médical a été estimée par la méthode de Kaplan Meier. La date d'index était la date de la première prescription d'opioïdes pendant la période de suivi de 12 mois et la date de fin était la date du premier épisode de nomadisme médical (ou la date de la dernière information - c'est-à-dire le décès, la fin du traitement opioïde, le passage à un autre analgésique ou la fin du suivi).

Facteurs associés au nomadisme médical

Des modèles à risques proportionnels de Cox ont été utilisés afin d'identifier les facteurs associés au nomadisme médical. Les variables pertinentes ont été sélectionnées et incluses dans l'analyse à la suite d'une revue de la littérature et en fonction de leur pertinence clinique. Une analyse univariable a été réalisée pour étudier la relation entre chaque variable indépendante et la variable dépendante (nomadisme médical). Une analyse multivariable a ensuite été réalisée pour étudier l'association entre chaque facteur et le nomadisme médical, en ajustant pour les autres covariables. Les rapports de risque et leurs intervalles de confiance à 95 % ont été rapportés.

Association entre le nomadisme médical et la survenue de surdoses

Pour estimer le lien de causalité entre le nomadisme médical et la survenue de surdose d'opioïdes, des modèles structurels marginaux de Cox (Cox-MSM) (168–171) ont été utilisés. Les données sur les visites aux urgences étant disponibles depuis 2012, nous n'avons inclus que les patients dont la date index commençait en 2013 afin de disposer d'une année pour dépister une surdose d'opioïdes antérieure. Les patients ayant eu une surdose d'opioïdes au cours de l'année précédente ont été exclus, car il s'agit d'un facteur prédictif important de la survenue d'un nouvel épisode de surdose. Le suivi a été divisé en 4 intervalles de temps de 3 mois chacun. Le nomadisme médical, les surdoses, les co-prescriptions et les comorbidités ont été colligés dans chaque intervalle de temps. La fin de la période de suivi était la date de survenue du premier épisode de surdose d'opioïde.

À chaque intervalle de temps, une régression logistique a été utilisée pour estimer la probabilité de faire du nomadisme médical en fonction des valeurs précédentes des co-variables (co-prescriptions, comorbidités, données sociodémographiques), y compris les facteurs de confusion potentiels variant dans le temps. L'inverse de ces probabilités a été généré pour obtenir

les poids de probabilité inverse du traitement (*Inverse Probability Treatment Weighting* (IPTW)). A chaque intervalle de temps, une régression logistique a également été utilisée pour estimer la probabilité de faire du nomadisme médical en considérant l'épisode précédent du nomadisme médical. Cette probabilité a été utilisée pour multiplier les IPTW générés précédemment afin d'obtenir des poids stabilisés en réduisant leur variabilité. Considérant que tous les patients ont complété un suivi de 12 mois, et qu'aucun n'a été perdu durant le suivi (pas de censure), les poids de censure n'ont pas été estimés. Ainsi, seuls les IPTW stabilisés générés précédemment ont été utilisés pour ajuster le modèle final de Cox-MSM modélisant l'effet causal du nomadisme médical sur la survenue d'une surdose d'opioïdes. Les rapports de risque et leurs intervalles de confiance à 95 % ont été rapportés.

Les analyses ont été réalisées à l'aide de Stata 15.1 pour Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA.

2.3. Nomadisme médical chez les patients en soins tertiaires

Cette section présente la méthodologie utilisée dans l'article 3 de la thèse. Les analyses ont été réalisées à partir des données jumelées du RQD et de la RAMQ.

2.3.1. Type d'étude

Il s'agit d'une étude de cohorte rétrospective de personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et inscrites au RQD entre 2008 et 2014 et dont les données ont pu être jumelées avec celles de la RAMQ.

2.3.2. Sources des données

Les données provenaient du RQD et des banques médico-administratives de la RAMQ et du MSSS. Les données du RQD ont été jumelées avec les celles de la RAMQ en utilisant le numéro de l'assurance maladie et en faisant un jumelage probabiliste basé sur le nom, la date de naissance et le sexe pour les personnes dont on ne disposait pas de numéro d'assurance maladie. Le RQD et les banques de données de la RAMQ ont été décrits au point 2.2.

Le jumelage des données du RQD avec celles de la RAMQ a permis d'avoir des informations complètes sur l'utilisation des médicaments par les patients suivis en soins tertiaires permettant ainsi d'estimer la prévalence du nomadisme médical au sein de cette population. Ce jumelage de données permettait par ailleurs d'obtenir une banque contenant à la fois des renseignements précis sur les caractéristiques de la douleur et sur la prescription des médicaments, donnant ainsi l'opportunité d'étudier les associations entre les caractéristiques de la douleur et la survenue du nomadisme médical.

2.3.3. Population

La population comprenait les personnes âgées de 18 ans et plus, enrôlées dans le RQD entre 2008 et 2014, qui étaient assurées par le Régime public de l'assurance médicament de la RAMQ, et dont les données du RQD ont pu être jumelées avec celles de la RAMQ.

La date index était la date de la première visite à la clinique multidisciplinaire de la douleur. Pour être incluse dans la présente étude, la personne vivant avec de la douleur chronique devait avoir eu au moins une dispensation d'opioïdes au cours des 12 mois suivant la date index. Les

opioïdes comprenaient la codéine, le dextropropoxyphène, le fentanyl, l'hydromorphone, la mépéridine, la morphine, l'oxycodone, le tapentadol, le tramadol, le butorphanol et la pentazocine. La méthadone et la buprénorphine ont été exclues de la liste des opioïdes utilisés comme analgésiques, car elles sont couramment utilisées comme agonistes opioïdes pour traiter les troubles de l'usage des opioïdes.

Les personnes non couvertes de façon continuelle par le Régime public d'assurance médicament au moins 6 mois avant la date index et 12 mois après la date index ont été exclues. Les personnes qui avaient reçu un diagnostic de douleur chronique cancéreuse lors de leur visite à la clinique de la douleur ainsi que celles ayant reçu un diagnostic de cancer dans les 5 dernières années ont été exclues afin de n'inclure que des personnes vivant avec de la DCNC traitée par opioïdes. Le diagnostic de cancer a été identifié par la présence d'au moins un code CIM-9 ou CIM-10 de cancer lors de visite chez le médecin, de visite aux urgences ou d'hospitalisation dans les 5 années précédant la date index.

2.3.4. Critère d'évaluation

L'évènement était la survenue d'au moins un épisode de nomadisme médical (déjà défini plus haut) au cours des 12 mois de suivi.

2.3.5. Variables

Les variables de cette étude sont issues du RQD et des banques de données médicoadministratives de la RAMQ déjà décrites plus haut.

2.3.6. Analyses statistiques

Des analyses descriptives ont été réalisées en calculant des fréquences et des pourcentages. La prévalence du nomadisme médical a été calculée comme le quotient entre le nombre de personnes ayant eu au moins un épisode de nomadisme médical et le nombre total de personnes incluses.

Les analyses ont été réalisées à l'aide de Stata 15.1 pour Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA.

2.4. DCNC chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues

2.4.1. Type d'étude

Il s'agit d'une étude transversale nichée dans la cohorte HEPCO, une cohorte prospective de personnes utilisatrices de drogues par injection, établie à Montréal.

2.4.2. Source des données

• Cohorte HEPCO

La Cohorte HEPCO, anciennement appelé cohorte St-Luc est une cohorte de personnes qui se sont injecté des substances psychoactives. La cohorte a été lancée en 1987 pour recruter des utilisateurs de drogues par injection avec pour objectif de mieux comprendre les facteurs individuels et contextuels de la transmission du virus de l'immunodéficience humaine (VIH). Depuis 2004, les objectifs de la cohorte ont été révisés pour inclure des études sur l'histoire naturelle de l'infection et de la réinfection au virus de l'hépatite C (VHC). En 2015, un volet santé mentale a été ajouté dans le but d'étudier les relations entre les problèmes de santé mentale, incluant les diagnostics psychiatriques et les états mentaux, et la transmission du VHC et du VIH. En 2017 un questionnaire douleur a été ajouté afin d'étudier la prévalence et les caractéristiques de la douleur chronique.

Les procédures de recrutement et de suivi de la cohorte ont été décrites dans des études antérieures (172,173). La cohorte inclut des participants hommes ou femmes âgés de 18 ans et plus, capables de s'exprimer en anglais et/ou en français et de donner un consentement éclairé à participer à l'étude; pour être enrôlé dans la cohorte, le participant devait s'être injecté de la drogue au cours des 6 derniers mois.

Un questionnaire (Annexe 3) documentant les données sur les infections par le VIH et le VHC est administré lors de la visite initiale et tous les 3 mois par la suite. Au cours des visites, un prélèvement sanguin est effectué pour des analyses de dépistage du VIH et du VHC. Le questionnaire douleur (Annexe 4) a été introduit en février 2017 pour évaluer la présence et les caractéristiques de la douleur chronique (≥ 3 mois) ainsi que les stratégies utilisées pour soulager la douleur. Ce questionnaire est administré à chaque visite, mais seules les données recueillies lors de la première visite ont été incluses dans la présente étude. Les questionnaires étaient administrés

par des interviewers d'HEPCO. Tous les participants ont reçu une compensation de 15\$ dollars canadiens pour leur temps.

La cohorte HEPCO contient les données d'une diversité d'utilisateurs de drogues dans la communauté, des personnes sous traitement agonistes et d'autres pas, des injecteurs actifs et inactifs. L'étude d'une telle cohorte permet de mieux comprendre la douleur chez les PUD dans leur ensemble et de compléter les précédentes études dont la majorité a porté uniquement des personnes sous traitement agoniste aux opioïdes.

2.4.3. Population

Les participants à l'étude comprenaient les personnes enrôlées dans la cohorte HEPCO et qui ont été vues entre février 2017 et janvier 2018 que ce soit pour une visite initiale ou une visite de suivi, et qui consentaient à participer à répondre au questionnaire douleur.

Bien que le critère d'inclusion dans la cohorte HEPCO soit l'injection de drogues, au moment de notre étude, tous les participants n'étaient plus des injecteurs actifs même s'ils étaient majoritaires à s'être injectés au moins une fois au cours des 6 derniers mois (69,8 %). Pour tenir compte de la diversité des modes de consommation de drogues parmi les participants à l'étude, nous avons choisi de qualifier nos participants de personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD) plutôt que d'utilisateurs de drogues illicites (UDI). Dans l'article scientifique publié en anglais, le terme « People who use drugs (PWUD) » a été utilisé plutôt que « People who inject drugs (PWID) ».

2.4.4. Critère d'évaluation

Le critère d'évaluation de cette étude était la présence de DCNC. Une question basée sur la définition de la douleur chronique—i.e., une douleur qui dure depuis plus de 3 mois (55), a été posée à chaque participant afin d'identifier les personnes vivant avec de la douleur chronique. La question posée par l'interviewer était formulée comme suit :

Au cours de notre vie, la plupart d'entre nous ressentent des douleurs un jour ou l'autre (mal de tête, rage de dents). À part ce type de douleurs, souffrez-vous de douleur(s) chronique(s), c'est-à-dire qui dure depuis au moins 3 mois (e.g., mal de dos persistant, arthrite, etc.)

(La douleur n'a pas besoin d'être présente 24 h sur 24 h, car certains types de douleur chronique sont intermittents. Le critère est que la douleur doit être présente depuis au moins 3 mois.)

Si le participant répondait « oui » à cette question, il était considéré comme une personne vivant avec de la douleur chronique. Le BPI était ensuite administré pour évaluer l'intensité et l'interférence de la douleur (19, 20) et d'autres questions étaient posées pour mieux comprendre les caractéristiques de la douleur et les stratégies de traitement. Ainsi, une question demandait d'indiquer les circonstances à l'origine de la douleur. Les personnes qui rapportaient une douleur durant ou à la suite d'un cancer étaient exclues lors des analyses et les personnes restantes étant considérées comme des PUD vivant avec de la DCNC.

2.4.5. Variables

Plusieurs variables ont été prises en compte dans cette étude et comprenaient les caractéristiques sociodémographiques, les habitudes de consommation de substances, l'état de santé, les caractéristiques de la douleur et les stratégies utilisées pour soulager la douleur.

• Caractéristiques sociodémographiques

Les données sociodémographiques comprenaient l'âge, le sexe, le niveau d'éducation (études secondaires terminées ou non) et le statut d'itinérance au cours des 3 derniers mois. Une personne était qualifiée d'itinérante si elle avait vécu au moins un jour dans la rue, dans des refuges ou dans des apparts-hôtels loués au cours des trois derniers mois.

• Habitudes de consommation de drogues et de substances au cours du dernier mois

Les données de consommation de plusieurs drogues et substances ont été colligées dont la cocaïne, les opioïdes (héroïne, usage non médical d'opioïdes sur ordonnance, y compris méthadone et buprénorphine/naloxone), le cannabis, les amphétamines, les tranquillisants et les drogues psychédéliques. Pour chacune de ces drogues, la voie et le mode d'administration (fumée, reniflée, injectée, prise par voie orale), ainsi que la fréquence d'utilisation au cours du dernier mois, ont été colligés.

La consommation excessive d'alcool (*binge drinking*) au cours du dernier mois a aussi été comptabilisée. Cette dernière a été définie comme la consommation de 5 verres ou plus pour les

hommes et de 4 verres ou plus pour les femmes en une seule occasion au cours du dernier mois (174–177). Un verre de boisson alcoolisée était défini comme un verre de vin, une bouteille de bière ou une once et demie d'alcool fort. La fréquence de ces consommations excessives a aussi été consignée.

• État de santé

o Santé globale

L'état de santé perçu a été évalué à l'aide du Questionnaire d'auto-évaluation de la santé (178–180) qui comprend une seule question formulée comme suit :

« En général, comment est votre santé? » avec des choix de réponses « Excellente », « Très bonne », « Bonne », « Passable » ou « Mauvaise » (178). Ce questionnaire a montré une bonne validité et une bonne fidélité pour évaluer la santé globale d'un individu (30,31).

Santé mentale

La santé mentale des participants a été évaluée à l'aide de l'Échelle de détresse psychologique à 10 questions de Kessler (K10) qui mesure la fréquence des symptômes de détresse psychologique (181−183). Le score global varie de 10 à 50 et plus le score est élevé, plus grande est la détresse psychologique. Un score < 25 signifie que la détresse psychologique est absente ou faible tandis qu'un score ≥ 25 signifie une détresse psychologique modérée à sévère (183,184).

o Sérologie

Le dépistage de l'infection par le VHC passe par la recherche d'anticorps anti-VHC et lorsque ces derniers sont détectés, une recherche qualitative de l'acide ribonucléique (ARN) du VHC est effectuée.

Le dépistage du VIH passe par un test combiné antigène-anticorps qui détecte la présence de l'antigène p24 (une partie spécifique du virus) et des anticorps VIH-1 (le type le plus courant de VIH) et le VIH-2.

o Soins de santé

Le suivi d'un programme de traitement agoniste aux opioïdes (buprénorphine/naloxone ou méthadone) ainsi que le nombre et les raisons des visites aux urgences au cours des 3 derniers mois ont aussi été colligés.

• Stratégies utilisées pour soulager la douleur

Des informations étaient recueillies dans le but de documenter les stratégies utilisées au cours des trois derniers mois pour soulager la douleur. Ces informations portaient sur les visites médicales, l'utilisation de médicaments prescrits et non-prescrits, ainsi que la consommation d'alcool, de cannabis ou de drogues illicites pour soulager la douleur.

Des renseignements sur l'utilisation non-médicale des médicaments prescrits ont aussi été colligés et portaient sur l'utilisation des médicaments à fréquence et dose plus élevées par rapport à l'indication du médecin, l'administration par une autre voie que celle prescrite ainsi que la prise des médicaments pour des raisons autres que le soulagement de la douleur.

2.4.6. Analyses statistiques

Des statistiques descriptives ont été utilisées pour décrire les données. Les variables continues ont été décrites à l'aide de moyennes ±écart-types et/ou en médiane avec les intervalles interquartiles. Les variables catégorielles ont été décrites en termes de fréquences et de pourcentages.

Les facteurs associés à la présence de DCNC ont été identifiés dans un modèle de régression logistique. Les variables incluses dans le modèle multivariable ont été sélectionnées à partir de la littérature scientifique et leur pertinence clinique. Pour obtenir un modèle parcimonieux, une élimination pas-à-pas descendante (*Backward selection*) a été utilisée pour supprimer du modèle final les variables non statistiquement significatives; l'élimination d'une variable ne devait pas entraîner une variation d'un des coefficients des variables restantes de plus de 20 %. L'âge et le sexe étaient maintenus dans le modèle final comme variables forcées. Les rapports de cote (*odds ratio* (OR)) et leur intervalle de confiance à 95 % ont rapportés. Les analyses ont été réalisées à l'aide de Stata 15.1 pour Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA.

CHAPITRE 3. PRÉDICTEURS DE L'EFFICACITÉ DES OPIOÏDES DANS LA DCNC

3.1. Contexte

Tel que mentionné dans le chapitre 1, des revues systématiques incluant des essais contrôlés randomisés et des études observationnelles ont montré qu'un traitement à long-terme à base d'opioïdes ne serait pas plus efficace qu'un traitement à base de non-opioïdes en termes de réduction de la douleur et d'amélioration de la fonction chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC (11,12,101).

Des études menées chez les personnes suivies en clinique multidisciplinaire de la douleur ont montré qu'environ 20 à 24 % des personnes traitées à long terme par des opioïdes présentaient une amélioration cliniquement significative de leur condition (103,104). Ces résultats suggèrent qu'un sous-groupe de personnes peut bénéficier des opioïdes, mais qu'une majorité est exposée aux opioïdes sans amélioration de leur condition douloureuse. Il est donc important de mieux personnaliser les traitements en ciblant les personnes pour qui ces médicaments seront efficaces et sécuritaires. Cependant, le profil de ces personnes demeure inconnu, les rares études sur le sujet n'ayant pas réussi à identifier des indicateurs pertinents (34–37). Davantage de recherche est donc nécessaire pour fournir des données pouvant éclairer le clinicien dans son choix de prescrire des opioïdes.

Prédire l'efficacité du traitement à long terme évite de prescrire un traitement non optimal et donc de gagner en temps en proposant au patient une meilleure option thérapeutique capable de procurer assez rapidement un soulagement adéquat de la douleur. Compte tenu du nombre de places limité dans les cliniques spécialisées de la douleur, l'identification des prédicteurs permet d'identifier rapidement le bon traitement pour le bon patient, ce qui diminue le temps de suivi ainsi que les coûts, et permet de soigner plus de personnes.

Considérant l'impact des facteurs biopsychosociaux sur la sévérité de la douleur, mais aussi sur l'efficacité des traitements (74), nous avons émis l'hypothèse que certains de ces facteurs pourraient prédire l'efficacité des opioïdes à long terme. Ainsi, l'objectif du premier article de la présente thèse était d'identifier les facteurs qui permettraient de mieux caractériser les personnes

susceptibles de bénéficier des opioïdes à long terme en termes de réduction de la douleur et d'amélioration de la qualité de vie reliée à la santé.

3.2. Article 1. Predictors of Long-Term Opioid Effectiveness in Patients with Chronic Non-Cancer Pain Attending Multidisciplinary Pain Treatment Clinics: A Quebec Pain Registry Study

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Predictors of long-term opioid effectiveness in chronic non-cancer

pain patients attending multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics: A

Quebec Pain Registry study

Running head: Predictors of long-term opioid effectiveness

Keywords: Opioids; Chronic pain; Effectiveness; Quality of life; Quebec Pain Registry.

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80

ABSTRACT

Objective: This study aimed at identifying characteristics of individuals who are most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy in terms of reduction in pain severity and improved mental health-related quality of life (mQoL) without considering potential risks.

Methods: This was a retrospective cohort study of 116 patients (age= 51.3 ± 12.5 years, male=42.2%) enrolled in the Quebec Pain Registry between 2008 and 2011 and who initiated opioid therapy after their first appointment in a multidisciplinary pain clinic and persisted with this treatment for at least 12 months. Clinically significant improvement was defined as a 2-point decrease on the PEG 0-10 Scale of pain severity at 12-month follow-up and a 10-point increase on the SF-12v2 Mental Health-Related Quality of Life Summary Scale which corresponds to one standard deviation of the mean in the general population (Mean = 50, SD = 10).

Results: Clinically significant reduction in pain severity was observed in 26.7% of patients while improvement in mQoL was reported by 20.2% of patients on long-term opioid therapy. Older age (OR=1.04 (95% CI: 1.0-1.08), p=0.032) and alcohol or drug problems (OR=0.26 (95% CI: 0.07-0.96), p=0.044) were weakly associated with pain severity at 12-month follow-up. Baseline higher pain severity (OR=0.62 (95% CI: 0.43-0.91), p=0.014) and baseline higher mQoL (OR=0.89 (95% CI: 0.83-0.95), p=0.001) were associated with non-improvement in mQoL.

Conclusion: The analysis failed to identify clinically meaningful predictors of opioid therapy effectiveness making it difficult to inform clinicians about which CNCP patients are most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy.

INTRODUCTION

Chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) is a public health burden affecting nearly 20% of the general population in developed countries (1, 2). CNCP can lead to decreased physical functioning and poor quality of life in addition to being associated with high direct (e.g., treatments) and indirect (e.g., lost work productivity) health care costs (3, 4). To manage this chronic condition, opioid analgesics have been widely prescribed over the past decades despite the limited evidence of their long-term effectiveness (5-7). Indeed, most of our knowledge on the efficacy of opioid treatment comes from randomized controlled trials with follow-up periods shorter than 1 year (7). Results of these studies suggest that opioid use in CNCP patients results in a small reduction in pain intensity compared to placebo, and similar pain relief and physical functional improvement compared to non-opioid medications (8-11). Furthermore, opioid therapy has been associated with high rates of discontinuation ranging from 10% to 23% due to insufficient pain relief and/or adverse events such as fractures, cardiovascular events, and bowel obstruction to name just a few (9, 12). Long-term opioid therapy has also been associated with negative long-term consequences such as opioid-induced hyperalgesia, tolerance, misuse, and addiction (8, 13).

Despite these challenges, some studies have shown that a subgroup of CNCP patients may benefit from long-term opioid therapy (14, 15). The difficulty is to differentiate responders from non-responders prior to treatment initiation, so that treatments are better tailored and potential harms associated with opioid prescriptions are minimized (16). The identification of suitable candidates should be grounded in the biopsychosocial model of pain (16). This model states that in order to fully understand a person's pain experience, the interrelationships among biological changes, psychological status, and the sociocultural context need to be considered (16, 17).

Experimental, clinical, and observational studies identified factors such as age, sex, depression, anxiety, and treatment expectations as playing an important a role in the effectiveness of short-term opioid therapy (15, 18-23). However, the predictors of the effectiveness of long-term opioid therapy remain unknown and further research is clearly needed to identify characteristics of patients most and least likely to benefit from this type of treatment. In a previous study on long-term opioid effectiveness, a research team showed that more than 20% of CNCP patients experienced a meaningful reduction in pain intensity and interference as well as improvement in mental health-related quality of life (mQoL) at 12-month follow-up (14). However, the phenotype

of this subgroup of patients has yet to be examined. The purpose of opioid therapy is to reduce pain and improve quality of life. As such, identifying the factors that can predict these outcomes could help to optimize opioid prescribing. The aim of the present study was therefore to identify predictors of reduction in pain severity and improvement in mQoL among CNCP patients on long-term opioid therapy.

METHODS

Study design

This was a retrospective cohort study of CNCP patients enrolled in the Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) between 2008 and 2011 and who consented for their QPR data to be used for research purpose.

QPR database

The QPR (https://quebecpainregistry.com) is a registry of ambulatory patients suffering from CNCP who were admitted for the first time to multidisciplinary treatment in one of three large university-affiliated pain clinics in the province of Quebec, Canada (24). Patients were enrolled in the QPR if they came for a first visit at one of the pain clinics, were fluent in spoken and written French and/or English, and were aged 18 years or above. Patients were excluded if they presented with cognitive impairment that prevented them from answering questionnaires (24). Questionnaires were administered for clinical and administrative purposes at baseline (initial visit at the pain clinic) and at 6-month follow-up for all patients, as well as at the 12- and 24-month follow-ups in those patients who had not been discharged from the pain clinic in the meantime.

The Research Ethics Boards of the Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal, McGill University Health Center, and Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Sherbrooke approved the QPR project.

Participants

In this study, patients were included if they met criteria for long-term opioid use—i.e., they did not report opioid use in the past 6 months before the initial visit to the pain clinic, they started opioid medication within the first 6 months following their initial visit, and they continued taking opioids at 6- and 12-month follow-ups. Patients could have switched opioid prescriptions during the follow-up period and were included as long as they reported taking opioids at each of the follow-ups. Data collected at 24-month follow-up were not considered in the present study due to

too small a sample size at this time point, many patients having been discharged from the pain clinic in the meantime.

Procedures

Data collection and measurement tools

Baseline and follow-up data were collected with a patient self-administered and a nurse-administered questionnaires (24).

Patient self-administered questionnaire

Socio-demographic characteristics

Sociodemographic data included patients' age, sex, education level, and work status.

Pain severity index

Pain severity was computed using the PEG scale which contains three items assessing average pain intensity, emotional functioning, and physical functioning using the pain intensity score on the average in the past 7 days (P), interference with enjoyment of life (E) score, and interference with general activity (G) score provided by the Brief Pain Inventory Scale (25, 26). The scores on the three items were averaged and varied from 0 (no pain/no interference) to 10 (worst possible pain/pain interferes completely). The PEG is a reliable and valid measure of pain severity in CNCP patients; it has been shown to be sensitive to change and differentiated well between patients with and without pain improvement (25).

SF-12v2® Health Survey

The SF-12v2® Health Survey is a 12-item questionnaire used to assess health-related quality of life (27, 28). It covers eight domains of health outcomes and generates norm-based scores for each domain as well as two composite scores representing mental health-related quality of life (mQoL) and physical health-related quality of life (pQoL) that have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. Higher scores indicate better quality of life. This questionnaire demonstrated good internal consistency reliability, construct validity, and responsiveness in patients with pain (29).

Pain Catastrophizing Scale

The Pain Catastrophizing Scale is a 13-item scale assessing the extent to which individuals ruminate, magnify, and feel helpless in the presence of pain (30). It is one of the most widely used instruments for measuring catastrophic thinking related to pain and is used extensively in clinical practice and research (30). Each item is scored from 0 (not at all) to 4 (all the time) and the total score is comprised between 0 and 52 (30). Higher scores indicate a higher level of pain catastrophizing. The PCS has demonstrated good validity and reliability (31).

Beck Depression Inventory-I (BDI)

The Beck Depression Inventory-I (BDI-I) is a 21-item, self-rated scale that assesses depressive symptomatology (both psychological and somatic symptoms) (32-34). Each item is scored from 0 to 3 and the total summed score was ranged from 0 to 63. Higher scores indicate a higher level of depressive symptoms. The BDI-I was shown to have psychometric proprieties in a variety of medical populations (35).

CAGE alcohol and drugs

The CAGE questionnaire was developed to screen for excessive drinking and alcoholism while the CAGE-AID (CAGE Questionnaire Adapted to Include Drugs) is a version adapted to include drug use (36, 37). The CAGE-AID comprised 4 questions scored 0 for "no" and 1 for "yes" for a total score ranging from 0 to 4 (36). A total score of two or more is considered clinically significant for alcohol and drug use disorders (36). The CAGE-AID exhibited good validity and reliability (36, 37). In the QPR, questions about alcohol and drug use were assessed separately and not together as in the CAGE-AID to increase precision of the information collected. In our analysis, we merged responses to recreate the CAGE-AID.

Nurse-administered questionnaire

Pain history information and medication

The nurse-administered questionnaire was designed to collect information on patient's pain history (e.g., pain duration and frequency) and type(s) of medication currently used and used in the past 6 months to treat their pain at each time point (24).

Pain diagnosis

Patient pain diagnosis was established by the pain physician at the multidisciplinary clinic using a comprehensive grid of pain diagnoses elaborated by experienced pain physicians specifically for the QPR (24).

Questionnaire

The DN4 (Douleur Neuropathique 4) is a screening diagnostic tool that assesses the presence of neuropathic pain qualities through self-report and physical examination. It consists of 4 questions with a total of 10 items. A score of 1 is given when the answer is "yes" and a score of 0 when the answer is "no". The total score is calculated as the sum of all 10 items, and a total score of 4/10 or more suggests the presence of a neuropathic component (38).

The DN4 has good validity and reliability properties (39). For this study, we also considered the pain diagnosis made by the treating physician at the pain clinic. Thus, a physician diagnosis of neuropathic pain combined with a DN4 score ≥ 4 was classified as neuropathic type of pain; physician diagnosis of neuropathic pain and DN4 score ≤ 4 or diagnosis of non-neuropathic pain with DN4 score ≥ 4 were classified mixed evidence of neuropathic pain while a diagnosis of non-neuropathic pain with DN4 score ≤ 4 was classified as non-neuropathic pain.

Outcomes

The outcomes of long-term opioid therapy considered in the present study were pain severity and mQoL. As recommended by the IMMPACT Group (40), a statistically significant reduction in pain severity was considered as clinically meaningful if it was at least a 2-point decrease on the PEG 0-10 scale. With regards to mQoL, an improvement was considered as clinically meaningful if the norm-based score on the SF-12v2 Mental Health Summary Scale had increased by at least 1 standard deviation of the mean norm-based score in the general population (Mean = 50, SD = 10) (14, 41). A clinically significant improvement in physical functioning measured by the SF12v2 Physical Health Summary Scale was observed in only 8% of the participants. As such, this outcome was not considered in the present research.

Statistical analysis

Independent Student's tests, Mann-Whitney test, and Pearson's chi-square tests were employed to compare the baseline characteristics of patients with and without missing data on the outcome measures (PEG pain severity score, SF-12v2 Mental Health Summary Scale). The same tests were used to compare the baseline characteristics between patients who experienced improvement in pain severity and those who did not.

Multivariable logistic regression analyses were used to identify predictors of long-term opioid effectiveness (model 1- PEG pain severity; model 2 - mQoL) and purposeful selection process proposed by Bursac et al.(42) was used for variable selection. The following baseline biopsychosocial characteristics were considered for inclusion using the purposeful selection process (42): age, sex, education, work status, pain severity, pain duration, pain frequency, type of pain, pQoL, mQoL, pain catastrophizing, depression level, and alcohol or drug problems. These variables were first screened in univariable analyses and selected for inclusion in the multivariable model if their p-value was < 0.25. Backward elimination using all the variables entered in the multivariable model was then performed to build a more parsimonious model. Variables were removed from the model if they were not statistically significant at the threshold of p < 0.05 and if their removal did not change coefficient of any of the remaining variables by more than 20%. Age and sex were maintained in the final model as forced variables. Finally, variables that did not reach the significance level of p < 0.25 in univariable analysis were added back one at a time in the multivariable model and retained in the final model if they were significant at p<0.05. This step was helpful in identifying variables that, by themselves, are not significantly related to the outcome but make an important contribution in the presence of other variables (42). Only variables statistically significant at p < 0.05 were retained in the final model. Odds ratios (OR) and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) were calculated. The Hosmer–Lemeshow test was run to test the goodness of fit for the final predictive model. Sensitivity, specificity, and the area under curve (AUC) were also calculated. Analyses were performed using Stata 15.1 for Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA. Finally, statistical power analyses were conducted using G*Power 3.1, Universität Kiel, Germany and revealed that the study was sufficiently powered to detect statistically significant predictors for each of the two outcomes.

RESULTS

Participants' characteristics

A total of 160 patients classified as long-term opioid users were included. Forty-four of them were excluded from the analyses because they had missing data on pain severity at baseline or at 12-month follow-up. Comparisons between patients with and without missing data revealed no significant differences regarding all the variables included in the study (all p > 0.05).

Table IV depicts the baseline characteristics of patients on long-term opioid therapy according to whether they reported a clinically significant reduction in pain severity or not (improvers vs non-improvers) and for the total sample (N=116). Median pain duration was 4 (interquartile range: 2-10) years, and almost one third of sample (31.1%) suffered from neuropathic pain while 40.6% showed mixed evidence of neuropathic pain. Mean baseline pain severity score on the PEG scale was 6.3 ± 1.8 while the norm-based mean scores were 28.8 ± 8.2 for pQoL and 38.5 ± 12.2 for mQoL. Mean baseline scores of 20.9 ± 11.3 and 31.3 ± 12.9 were reported for depression levels and on the Pain Catastrophizing Scale respectively. As shown in **Table II**, among the 116 patients included, 31 (26.7%) experienced a clinically meaningful reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up. Comparison of baseline characteristics between improvers in pain severity (N = 31, 26.7%) and non-improvers (N = 85, 73.3%) showed that improvers were older than non-improvers (55.2 ± 14.0 vs 49.9 ± 11.7 years, p-value = 0.045).

Tableau IV. Baseline characteristics of patients who did and did not report a clinically significant reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up (improvers vs non-improvers) and for the total sample.

| Variable | Total | Improvers | Non-improvers | P-value |
|--|-----------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------|---------|
| N (%) | 116 (100) | 31 (26.7) | 85 (73.3) | - |
| Age | 110 (100) | 31 (20.7) | 05 (75.5) | |
| Mean ±SD | 51.3 ±12.5 | 55.2 ± 14.0 | 49.9 ±11.7 | 0.045 |
| Sex | | | | |
| N (%) male | 49 (42.2) | 14 (45.2) | 35 (41.2) | 0.701 |
| Education | | , , | | |
| $N(\%) \ge high school$ | 55 (47.4) | 16 (51.6) | 39 (45.9) | 0.584 |
| Work status | | , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , | | |
| N (%) on temporary or permanent disability | 49 (42.2) | 12 (38.7) | 37 (43.5) | 0.642 |
| Pain severity (PEG) | _ | | | |
| Mean ±SD | 6.3 ± 1.8 | 6.4 ± 1.9 | 6.2 ± 1.8 | 0.685 |
| Pain duration (years) | | | | |
| Median (IQR) | 4 (2 – 10) | 6(3-15) | 3(1-9) | 0.061 |
| Pain frequency | , | , , | | |
| N (%) with persistent pain | 105 (90.5) | 28 (90.3) | 77 (90.6) | 0.966 |
| Type of pain (N (%)) | | , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , | | |
| Non-neuropathic | 30 (28.3) | 9 (34.6) | 21 (26.3) | |
| Mixed | 43 (40.6) | 10 (38.5) | 33 (41.3) | 0.698 |
| Neuropathic | 33 (31.1) | 7 (26.9) | 26 (32.5) | |
| Physical health-related QoL | | | | |
| Mean ±SD | 28.8 ± 8.2 | 30.4 ± 9.8 | 28.2 ± 7.5 | 0.201 |
| Mental health-related QoL | | | | |
| Mean ±SD | 38.5 ± 12.2 | 38.5 ± 11.7 | 38.5 ± 12.5 | 0.994 |
| Pain catastrophizing | | | | |
| Mean ±SD | 31.3 ±12.9 | 30.3 ±13.3 | 31.7 ±12.8 | 0.606 |
| Depression level | | | | |
| Mean ±SD | 20.9 ± 11.3 | 19.0 ±11.6 | 21.6 ±11.1 | 0.282 |
| Alcohol or drug problems | | | | |
| N (%) yes | 26 (22.6) | 4 (12.9) | 22 (26.2) | 0.131 |

Abbreviations: $SD = Standard\ deviation$; $IQR = Interquartile\ range$; $QoL = quality\ of\ life$.

^{*} Improvers were those who showed \geq 20% decrease in the PEG pain severity score (2 units on the 0-10 scale) between baseline and 12-month follow-up.

Baseline predictors of reduction in pain severity among long-term opioid users at 12-month follow-up

Results of the multivariable regression analysis revealed that age and alcohol or drug problems were significant predictors of a clinically meaningful reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up (**Table V**). Older age was associated with higher likelihood of a reduction in pain severity at 12 months (OR = 1.039 (95% CI: 1.003 - 1.075)), p = 0.032). Patients with alcohol and drug problems were less likely to report a reduction in pain severity at follow-up (OR = 0.26 (95% CI: 0.07 - 0.96)), p = 0.044). Neither the type of pain nor the baseline pain characteristics (severity, duration, frequency) or psychological factors were identified as significant predictors. (**Table V**)

Tableau V. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify predictors of a clinically meaningful reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up (N = 116).

| Variable | Univariable regression analysis | logistic | Multivariable regression analysis | logistic |
|-----------------------------|---|----------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| | OR (95% CI) | P-value | OR (95% CI) | P- value |
| Age** | | | | |
| Years | 1.04(1.0-1.07) | 0.048 | 1.04(1.0-1.08)** | 0.032 |
| Sex | | | | |
| Male vs Female | 1.18(0.51-2.69) | 0.701 | 1.56 (0.61 - 3.98) | 0.354 |
| Education | · | | | |
| ≥ High school vs lower | 1.26(0.55 - 2.87) | 0.585 | - | - |
| Work status | , | | | |
| Disability vs no disability | 0.82(0.35-1.90) | 0.642 | - | - |
| Pain severity | , | | | |
| Score | 1.05(0.83-1.32) | 0.682 | - | - |
| Pain duration | , | | | |
| Years | 1.02(0.98-1.07) | 0.369 | - | - |
| Pain frequency | | | | |
| Persistent vs intermittent | 0.97(0.24 - 3.92) | 0.966 | _ | - |
| Type of pain | , | | | |
| Non-neuropathic | reference | | | |
| Mixed | 0.71 (0.25 - 2.03) | 0.519 | _ | - |
| Neuropathic | 0.63(0.20-1.97) | 0.425 | _ | - |
| Physical health-related | | | | |
| QoL*** | | | | |
| Score | 1.03(0.98-1.09) | 0.202 | 1.05(0.99-1.11) | 0.075 |
| Mental health-related QoL | , , | | | |
| Score | 1.0(0.97-103) | 0.994 | - | - |
| Pain catastrophizing | , , | | | |
| Score | 0.99(0.96-1.02) | 0.602 | - | _ |
| Depression level | (| | | |
| Score | 0.98(0.94-1.02) | 0.281 | - | - |
| Alcohol or drug problems | · · · · (• · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | | | |
| Yes vs No | 0.42(0.13-1.33) | 0.139 | 0.26(0.07-0.96) | 0.044 |
| : :: OP 0.11 :: 0.50/ | | | 0.20 (0.07 0.50) | ···· |

Abbreviations: $OR = Odds \ ratio$; $95\% \ CI = 95\% \ Confidence \ interval$; $QoL = Quality \ of \ life$;

Backward elimination was performed to build a more parsimonious model and only variables with p<0.05 were maintained in the final model with age and sex as forced variables.

A statistically significant reduction in pain severity was considered as clinically meaningful if the score on PEG scale decreased by at least 20% (2 units or more on the 0-10 scale) between baseline and 12-month follow-up.

^{**} Odds ratio and confidence interval for the variable age rounded to 3 decimal points: OR = 1.039 (95% CI: 1.003 – 1.075)

^{***} The variable "Physical health-related QoL" was maintained in the multivariable model despite it was not statistically significant (p > 0.05) because its backward elimination led to a change > 20% in the coefficient of the variable "alcohol or drug problems".

Post-hoc tests were performed to evaluate the quality of the prediction model. The p-value of the Hosmer–Lemeshow test was 0.718 suggesting adequate goodness of fit (43). The maximum likelihood R² of Cox & Snell was 0.083 which means that only 8.3% of the reduction in pain severity was related to our identified predictors. The sensitivity of the model was 19.4% while its specificity was 95.2%. The area under the ROC curve was 0.70 which indicated a low level of accuracy of the prediction model according to Swets guidelines (44). (Figure 10 & 11)

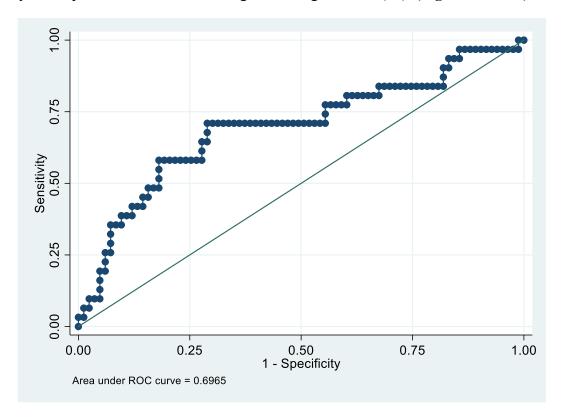


Figure 10. Area under ROC curve for the model predicting reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up.

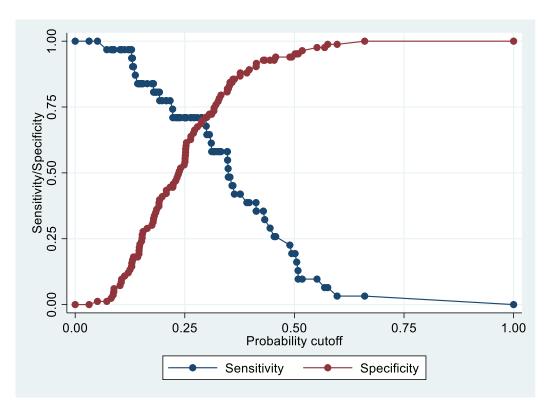


Figure 11. Graph sensitivity and specificity versus probability cutoff for the model predicting reduction in pain severity at 12-month follow-up.

Baseline predictors of improved mQoL among long-term opioid users at 12-month follow-up

Of the 114 patients without missing data on the SF-12v2 Mental Health-Related Quality of Life Summary Scale at baseline and 12-month follow-up, 23 (20.2%) reported a clinically meaningful improvement in mQoL at 12-month follow-up. As shown in **Table VI**, results of the multivariable regression analysis revealed that the more severe was the pain at baseline, the less likely the patients were to report improved mQoL at 12-month follow-up (OR = 0.62 (95% CI: 0.43 - 0.91), p = 0.014). Those who reported better mQoL at baseline were also less likely to exhibit improvement on this measure at follow-up (OR = 0.89 (95% CI: 0.83 - 0.95), p = 0.001). The baseline pain severity was correlated with baseline mQoL (*Pearson* r = -0.626, p < 0.001) which explains the high changes in p-values from univariable to multivariable analyses. These two variables were maintained in the final model because they measure two different constructs which are not interchangeable. Furthermore, the test of multicollinearity showed that the variance inflation factor was less than 10 and the tolerance higher than 0.1, which meant there was no evidence of high multicollinearity (45, 46).

Tableau VI. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify predictors of a clinically meaningful improvement in mQoL at 12-month follow-up (N = 114).

| Variable | Univariable regression analysis | logistic | Multivariable regression analysis | logistic |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|-----------------------------------|----------|
| | OR (95% CI) | P-value | OR (95% CI) | P-value |
| Age | 011 (7070 01) | 1 varae | 011 (5070 01) | 1 varae |
| Years | 1.0(0.96-1.03) | 0.872 | 1.01(0.97 - 1.05) | 0.562 |
| Sex | | | , | |
| Male vs Female | 0.53 (0.20 - 1.42) | 0.209 | 0.56 (0.20 - 1.61) | 0.284 |
| Education | , | | , | |
| ≥ High school vs lower | 0.63 (0.25 - 1.60) | 0.330 | - | - |
| Work status | , | | | |
| Disability vs no disability | 0.86(0.34 - 2.18) | 0.747 | - | - |
| Pain severity** | , | | | |
| Score | 1.0(0.77-1.28) | 0.974 | 0.62(0.43-0.91) | 0.014 |
| Pain duration | , | | , | |
| Years | 1.01(0.97-1.06) | 0.554 | - | - |
| Pain frequency | | | | |
| Persistent vs intermittent | 1.01(0.20-5.12) | 0.988 | - | - |
| Type of pain | | | | |
| Non-neuropathic | reference | | | |
| Mixed | 1.30(0.34-4.91) | 0.699 | - | - |
| Neuropathic | 2.95(0.81 - 10.74) | 0.100 | - | - |
| Physical QOL | | | | |
| Score | 1.02(0.97-1.08) | 0.455 | - | - |
| Mental QOL | | | | |
| Score | 0.94(0.89-0.99) | 0.010 | 0.89 (0.83 - 0.95) | 0.001 |
| Pain catastrophizing | | | | |
| Score | 1.01 (0.98 - 1.05) | 0.473 | - | |
| Depression level | | | | |
| Score | 1.0(0.96-1.05) | 0.841 | - | - |
| Alcohol or drug problems | · | | | |
| Yes vs No | 0.65 (0.20 - 2.12) | 0.476 | - | - |

Abbreviations: OR = Odds ratio; 95% CI = 95% Confidence interval; Physical QOL = Physical quality of life; mQoL = Mental health-related quality of life.

Backward elimination was performed to build a more parsimonious model and only variables with p<0.05 were maintained in the final model with age and sex as forced variables.

A statistically significant improvement in mQoL was considered as clinically meaningful if the score on SV12v2 scale increased by at least one standard deviation of the mean norm-based scores in general population (10 units or more on the 0-100 scale) between baseline and 12-month follow-up.

^{**}Pain severity were included in multivariable model despite it did not reach significant level in univariable analysis (p<0.25) because according to the purposeful selection non-selected variables were added back one at a time in the multivariable model and retained in the final model if variable was significant at p<0.05.

Examination of the quality of the final predictive model showed adequate goodness of fit as revealed by the Hosmer-Lemeshow test whose p-value was equal to 0.836 (43). The maximum likelihood R² of Cox & Snell was 0.129 suggesting that only 12.9% of the improvement in mQoL was explained by the multivariable model. Its sensitivity was 13% while its specificity was 97.8%. The area under the ROC curve was 0.765 which indicates a moderate level of accuracy of the prediction model according to Swets guidelines (44). (**Figure 12 & 13**).

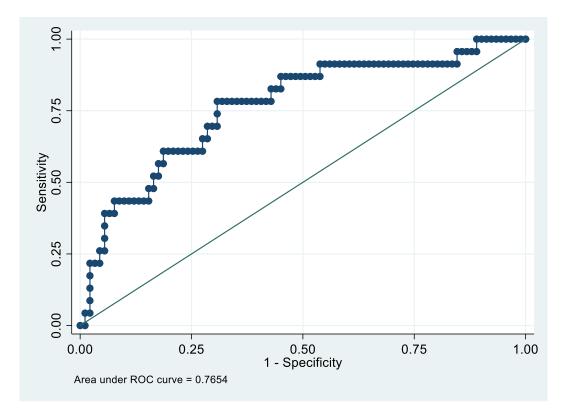


Figure 12. Area under ROC curve for the model predicting improvement in mental health-related quality of life at 12-month follow-up.

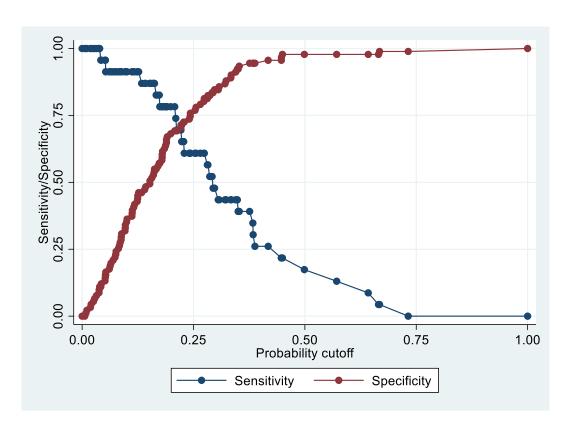


Figure 13. Graph sensitivity and specificity versus probability cutoff for the model predicting improvement in mental health-related quality of life at 12-month follow-up.

DISCUSSION

This real-life study showed that long-term opioid use is beneficial for a subgroup of patients, but also suggested that opioid effectiveness is difficult to predict from baseline biopsychosocial factors. We found that one-quarter of patients experienced a reduction in pain severity and 20% reported an improvement in mQoL. However, we failed to identify clinically meaningful predictors associated with this improvement, demonstrating the challenge in predicting treatment response to long-term opioid therapy in heterogeneous tertiary care pain population based on self-reports and diagnostic measures.

Our results contribute to the heterogeneous literature on predictors of opioid treatment response. Older age, for example, has been identified as a predictor of opioid treatment response in some studies(47-49) but not in others(21, 22, 49). These conflicting findings could result from the mixed changes that occur with ageing such as increased pain sensitivity, higher level of opioid active metabolites in plasma, and decrease in μ -opioid receptor densities accompanied by increase in affinity (50-52). In addition, a history of alcohol or drug problems has been shown to influence treatment response (53) or pain/opioid tolerance(54-56) which could result in decreased efficacy of pain treatment as reported in our study. Indeed, a previous study showed that CNCP patients with a history of a drug use disorder experienced poorer pain-related functioning and poorer pain treatment outcomes (53). Studies also reported that alcohol use disorder appeared to be associated with greater pain severity (57, 58) which could result from hyperalgesia and dysregulated nociception induced by the excessive use of alcohol (59-61). Furthermore, alcohol and drug problems were documented as risk factors of opioid abuse and can be a relative contraindication for opioid therapy (8, 62, 63). Given the mixed results found in the literature regarding the significance of these predictors and the directions of the effects, our lack of clinically meaningful predictors of long-term opioid therapy is not surprising.

Considering the impact of opioid therapy on quality of life, no clinically meaningful predictors were identified. The statistical association between baseline mQoL and changes at 12-month follow-up could result from regression to the mean which occurs when scores on a variable are extreme (very high or very low) at the first measure, it will be closer to the average at the next measure (64, 65). Thus, patients with low scores at baseline will present with higher scores closer to the average at 12-month follow-up which will artificially look as an improvement. Another

explanation could be a spurious statistical association called the horse-racing effect which occurs if what happened before the baseline visit is not adequately considered (66, 67). Indeed, the increase in mQoL scores in patients with lower scores might have started before the baseline visit at the pain clinic. In this case, adjusting the baseline scores in the prediction of change scores induces a spurious relation (67). Furthermore, the baseline pain severity was negatively and strongly correlated with baseline mQoL which may have induced the statistical significance between baseline pain severity and mQoL at 12-month follow-up. In addition, since opioids are prescribed with the goal to decrease pain, increase function, and improve quality of life, these findings do not provide clinically relevant information to enhance opioid prescribing. This difficulty in identifying relevant predictors could be due to the multidimensional aspect of quality of life which is influenced by several factors, of which pain is one (68, 69).

Predicting treatment outcomes in long-term opioid therapy remains a challenge. Some experimental and clinical studies reported age, sex, depression and catastrophizing as predictors of opioid efficacy, but were focused on short-term therapy (15, 18-23). Other authors reported studies which failed to identify predictors of reduction in pain severity or improvement in quality of life (15, 70). Our study identified few predictors and reported odds ratio indicating a small effect size and a weak association for those that were identified (71). In addition, the predictive model showed a low sensitivity and a low accuracy, highlighting the difficulty in predicting which patients will experience improved pain outcomes. However, a previous study which included the whole cohort of patients enrolled in the Quebec Pain Registry between 2008 and 2011(opioid users as well as non-opioid users) reported several predictors associated with the trajectory of patients who experienced a reduction in pain severity (72). These predictors included age, type of pain, pain duration, pain intensity, depression scores, pain catastrophizing, sleep disturbances, and physical health-related quality of life (72). Thus, the difficulty in identifying factors associated with improved pain outcomes appears specific to long-term opioid therapy. This inability in predicting could result from dynamic phenomena such as tolerance and hyperalgesia which occur in longterm therapy and affect opioid analgesia (73, 74). The lack of identifiable predictors could also mean that biopsychosocial factors have a small effect on opioid effectiveness in long-term therapy. Despite this difficulty in predicting treatment outcomes, opioid therapy may be considered for a subgroup of patients at low risk of misuse when non-opioid therapy failed to relieve pain. Indeed, a non-negligible subgroup of patients may benefit from long-term opioid therapy and as such it should not be excluded from the realm of therapeutic approaches available to clinicians. At the same time, results demonstrate the importance of not systematically resorting to this approach either since a majority of patients will be non-responders.

This study presents several limitations. First, the findings of this study are not generalizable to all CNCP patients. Indeed, tertiary care patients commonly suffer from severe pain that is often difficult to treat (24, 75) and therefore do not represent all CNCP patients. Thus, long-term improvement rates may be higher in primary care patients than those included in our study. In addition, the difficulty in identifying predictors may be specific to our study population who experiences severe impairment and, thus further research is needed for patients followed in primary or secondary care settings.

Second, the changes in scores of pain severity and mQoL during the follow-up could be the result of factors other than opioid therapy such as non-opioid medications, non-pharmacological treatment, regression to the mean, or a fluctuation of pain over time. In addition, the lack of information on pain medication (type and dosage of the opioid, co-prescription of other analgesics), and non-pharmacological treatment (psychology, acupuncture, physiotherapy, occupational therapy) could introduce confounding bias in the identification of predictors. However, a previous study reported no link between psychological and physical treatment approaches with pain severity at 12-month follow-up (76). Furthermore, variables such as patients' beliefs, anxiety, and fear of avoidance were not recorded and could be potential predictors of pain outcomes (18, 77).

Finally, this study achieved the statistical power to identify predictor with medium and large effect size, but the sample size was insufficient to identify factors with a small effect size. It is thus possible that such predictors could be missed. However, such predictors would have a little impact on pain outcomes and would be of little importance in the decision to prescribe opioids. Nevertheless, new investigation methods such as artificial intelligence/machine learning or genetic screening are promising research avenues to better characterize the best candidates for long-term opioid therapy or to confirm the difficulties in predicting treatment outcomes. This is of great importance in the context of a patient-centered care approach considering the heterogeneity and complexity of chronic pain populations and for which standard statistical approaches have proven to be unhelpful.

CONCLUSION

In summary, this study showed that it is difficult to predict pain outcomes in long-term opioid therapy. The few variables that were statistically significant showed very small effect sizes. No clinically meaningful predictors of long-term opioid effectiveness were identified, making it difficult to inform clinicians about which CNCP patients are most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy. These findings suggest that opioids should not be widely prescribed, nor should they be completely discarded since a relatively modest subgroup of patients benefit from long-term opioid therapy in multidisciplinary, tertiary care settings. Thus, it is important to conduct a good opioid trial in patients without drug use problems and at low risk of developing serious adverse events; treatment expectations should also be discussed, and treatment effectiveness should be evaluated routinely against long-term risks associated with opioid therapy.

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Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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CHAPITRE 4. FACTEURS ASSOCIÉS AU NOMADISME MÉDICAL POUR L'OBTENTION D'OPIOÏDES (DOCTOR SHOPPING)

4.1. Contexte

Le chapitre 2 de la thèse a montré qu'il est difficile d'identifier les personnes pour qui les opioïdes seront efficaces à long terme. Nous ne disposons donc pas d'outils pour personnaliser les traitements en fonction de leur efficacité. Outre l'efficacité, le facteur primordial qui doit guider la prescription d'un médicament est son innocuité pour le patient, i.e., s'assurer que le médicament sera utilisé de façon sécuritaire. Cette prescription sécuritaire des opioïdes passe avant tout par l'identification des personnes à risque de développer des troubles d'utilisation et de faire des surdoses comme le stipule le premier principe de la médecine : « Primum non nocere » (en premier, ne pas nuire) (185). La crise des opioïdes est venue rappeler que ces analgésiques doivent être prescrits avec précaution, car bien que le fentanyl illicite soit le principal moteur de cette crise, les médicaments opioïdes contribuent également aux surdoses (14,15,18). Au Canada, environ 33 % des décès liés aux opioïdes chez les femmes en 2020 impliquaient des médicaments opioïdes, contre 16 % chez les hommes (18). Aux États-Unis, entre 1999 et 2019, environ 247 000 décès impliquant des médicaments opioïdes ont été rapportés (186). Il est donc important de réduire l'accès inapproprié aux médicaments opioïdes. Un des moyens d'obtention de médicaments opioïdes pour un usage non-médical consiste à consulter différents médecins pour obtenir des ordonnances qui se chevauchent, puis à se faire dispenser ces ordonnances dans différentes pharmacies (21,134,187). Ce phénomène connu sous le nom de « doctor shopping » que l'on peut traduire par nomadisme médical et pharmaceutique est un indicateur d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes (21,22). L'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes consiste à ne pas suivre les directives du médecin et du pharmacien ou à utiliser des opioïdes prescrits à quelqu'un d'autre (188). Caractériser les personnes susceptibles de s'adonner à ces pratiques permettrait de mieux identifier celles qui sont susceptibles d'avoir ou de développer un usage problématique d'opioïdes ainsi que de renforcer la surveillance et le suivi afin de prévenir l'apparition de troubles d'utilisation et la survenue de surdoses. De précédentes études en France portant sur les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et recevant des opioïdes depuis plus de 6 mois ont rapporté des prévalences du nomadisme médical allant de 1 à 4 % (129,130). Nous avons donc fait l'hypothèse que ce phénomène reste rare chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC mais qu'il pourrait être associé à la survenue de surdoses vu qu'il permet d'engranger de grandes quantités d'opioïdes. Par ailleurs, bien que la plupart des auteurs définissent le nomadisme médical comme un indicateur d'un usage problématique d'opioïdes, d'autres auteurs suggèrent qu'il pourrait refléter une douleur non suffisamment soulagée (124,189). Nous avons donc voulu vérifier cette hypothèse en étudiant l'association entre certaines caractéristiques de la douleur (type, durée, sévérité) et la survenue du nomadisme médical. Nous avons voulu aussi estimer la prévalence du nomadisme médical parmi les personnes vivant avec la DCNC et suivies dans les cliniques multidisciplinaires de la douleur. Les personnes qui arrivent en cliniques multidisciplinaires de la douleur sont près de 2/3 à présenter des douleurs sévères avec un impact sur la qualité de vie (190); ces personnes pourraient donc avoir besoin des opioïdes pour soulager leur douleur. La crise des surdoses d'opioïdes et les mesures restrictives qui en ont résulté pourraient dresser des barrières d'accès aux opioïdes pour ces personnes. Estimer l'ampleur de l'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes chez les personnes suivies en clinique de la douleur permet de mieux comprendre le risque d'utilisation problématique en soins tertiaires.

Ainsi, deux études ont été menées afin d'estimer l'ampleur des pratiques du nomadisme médical au Québec et d'identifier des facteurs de risque afin de contribuer à optimiser la prescription d'opioïdes en permettant d'identifier les personnes les moins à risque de développer des troubles d'utilisation. L'objectif de l'article 2 présenté dans ce chapitre était d'estimer l'incidence du nomadisme médical, ses facteurs de risque et son association avec la survenue de surdoses. Cette étude a été réalisée à partir des données de la RAMQ exclusivement. L'objectif initial de l'article 3 présenté dans ce chapitre était d'estimer la prévalence du nomadisme médical et son association avec les caractéristiques de la douleur (type, durée, sévérité). Cette étude a été réalisée chez les personnes enrôlées dans le RQD, lequel registre contient des informations sur les caractéristiques de la douleur de personnes suivies en soins tertiaires permettant de répondre à nos objectifs. Cependant, compte tenu du très faible nombre de cas de nomadisme médical, il n'a pas été possible d'étudier le lien entre nomadisme médical et douleur de sorte que seule la prévalence est rapportée.

4.2. Article 2: Opioid doctor shopping: Incidence, risk factors and association with the occurrence of opioid overdoses

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Opioid doctor shopping: incidence, risk factors and association with

the occurrence of opioid overdoses

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Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

114

ABSTRACT

Background: Prescription opioids continue to be involved in the opioid crisis and a better understanding of factors associated with problematic opioid use is needed. The aim of this study was to assess the incidence of opioid doctor shopping, a proxy for problematic opioid use, to identify associated risk factors, and to assess its association with the occurrence of opioid overdoses.

Methods: This was a retrospective cohort study of people living with chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) and treated with opioids for at least 6 months between 2006 and 2017. Data were drawn from the Quebec health administrative databases. Doctor shopping was defined as overlapping prescriptions written by ≥ 2 prescribers and filled in ≥ 3 pharmacies.

Results: A total of 8,398 persons with CNCP were included. The median age was 68.0 (Q1: 54; Q3: 82) years, and 37.1% were male. The one-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping was 7.8%, 95%CI:7.2–8.5). Doctor shopping was associated with younger age (Hazard ratio (HR) 18-44 vs. ≥65 years: 2.21, 95%CI:1.76–2.78; HR 45-64 vs. ≥65 years: 1.33, 95%CI:1.10–1.61), male sex (HR=1.20, 95%CI:1.01–1.42), history of substance use disorder (HR=1.32, 95%CI:1.01–1.73) and anxiety (HR=1.42, 95%CI:1.14–1.78). People who exhibited doctor shopping were 5 times more likely to experience opioid overdoses (HR=5.17, 95%CI:1.47–18.14).

Conclusion: Opioid doctor shopping is a marginal phenomenon among people with CNCP, but it appears to be significantly associated with the occurrence of opioid overdoses. Better monitoring of persons at high risk to develop doctor shopping could help prevent opioid overdoses.

Keywords: opioids, doctor shopping, chronic non-cancer pain, overdose, problematic opioid use, opioid use disorder

INTRODUCTION

The opioid overdose crisis in the USA and in Canada has led to a high rate of opioid-related hospitalizations and overdoses and has become a public health concern (1,2). In 2019, an average of 38 people died each day in the United States from overdoses involving prescription opioids, totalling more than 14,000 deaths (3). In Canada, 19,355 opioid-related deaths occurred between January 2006 and September 2020 (4). Although most of these opioid-related deaths involved illicitly manufactured fentanyl (4,5), a significant proportion of these deaths was related to prescription opioids (6,7). In the USA, prescription opioids were involved in 28% of all opioid overdose deaths in 2019 while in Canada they were involved in 21% of opioid-related deaths in 2020 (4). To address this crisis, it is important to know the extent of problematic opioid use (i.e., using prescribed opioids in a manner not intended or instructed by a doctor or a pharmacist (8)) and to better monitor high-risk persons to prevent opioid-related deaths. Doctor shopping which consists of consultations with multiple physicians and/or pharmacies to obtain overlapping prescriptions has been proposed as a relevant proxy for problematic opioid use (9,10). Indeed, doctor shopping was shown to be associated with opioid use disorder (11,12). Such a practice also disrupts continuity of care (9), does not allow adequate monitoring of the benefits and risks associated with opioid treatment, and exposes people to serious drug interactions. Furthermore, there is perhaps an association between doctor shopping and the occurrence of opioid overdoses (13–15) but further studies are needed to establish this link. Thus, detection and monitoring opioid doctor shopping could help reduce inappropriate access to opioids and prevent opioid overdoses. In addition, early detection of risky behaviours involving prescription opioids such as opioid doctor shopping can assist prescribers in implementing safer prescribing practices. Although Canada is one of the countries where the opioid crisis is raging, no studies have been carried out on the occurrence of opioid doctor shopping among people living with CNCP. Thus, this study aims to better document opioid doctor shopping and its correlates by estimating its one-year incidence among people with CNCP, identifying the risk factors associated with such behaviours and assessing the relationship between doctor shopping and opioid overdoses.

METHODS

Study design

This was a retrospective cohort study of people living with CNCP who lived in the province of Quebec (Canada) and were treated with opioids. Data from the Quebec health administrative databases were used to conduct this study.

Data sources

Data were drawn from the Quebec health insurance claims dabatases (*Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec* (RAMQ)) and databases from the Quebec Ministry of Health and Social Services (*Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux* (MSSS)). Access to these databases was made possible through a tripartite agreement between the MSSS, the RAMQ and the *Institut national d'excellence en santé et en services sociaux* (INESSS). These databases contain information from reimbursed services dispensed to people covered by the Quebec health insurance. A common and unique identifier for each recipient allowed to match information from these databases. The Quebec health insurance covers all Quebec residents for medical, hospital and emergency services and approximately 46% of Quebec residents for prescription drugs. The population who benefit from the prescription drug plan comprises persons aged 65 years and older, recipients of social assistance as well as workers who are not covered by a private drug insurance plan.

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Board of the *Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal* and from the Quebec Research Ethics Board (*Commission d'accès à l'information du Québec*).

Participants

Persons aged 18 years and older and treated continuously with opioids for at least 6 consecutive months (183 days) between 2006 and 2017 were identified as living with chronic pain and on long-term opioid therapy. This selection strategy was based on the definition of chronic

pain—i.e., pain lasting for 3 to 6 months (16,17) and represented an alternative to the use of chronic pain diagnosis codes which are under-reported in the Quebec health insurance databases (18). In addition, this selection strategy has been used in two recent studies on opioid doctor shopping (19,20) and allowed a comparison of our results with these previous studies. A continuous treatment was defined as an interval of 7 days or less between the end and the start of two consecutive opioid dispensations. The index date was the calendar date of the first opioid dispensation of the continuous treatment for at least 6 months. People with 5-years past International Statistical Classification of Diseases 9th revision (ICD-9) or 10th revision (ICD-10) diagnosis of cancer were excluded, and the remaining ones were identified as people living with CNCP. People with opioid use in the 6 months preceding the index date and less than 12 months of follow-up after the index date were excluded; people living with CNCP starting long-term opioid therapy with at least 12 months of follow-up comprised the final sample.

Procedures

Demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristics included age, sex and date of death as well as the eligibility for the health insurance plan and the drug insurance plan.

Pharmaceutical services

Information on prescribed drugs included data such as the date of the dispensation, international non-proprietary name (INN) with the corresponding code, dose and duration of treatment. Anonymous unique identifier and specialty of the drug prescriber along with the anonymous unique identifier of the pharmacy where drug was dispensed were also recorded. Drugs were identified by using the INN codes. Opioids comprised codeine (including combination with acetaminophen), dextropropoxyphene (withdrawn from the market since 2010), fentanyl, hydromorphone, hydrocodone (except combination with phenylephrine of phenyltoloxamine commonly prescribed to treat coughs), meperidine, morphine, oxycodone (including combination with acetaminophen, acetylsalicylic acid or naloxone), tapentadol, tramadol (including combination with acetaminophen), butorphanol and pentazocine. Methadone and buprenorphine were excluded because they are commonly used as opioid agonists to treat opioid use disorders.

Co-prescription drugs were also collected and classified as benzodiazepine anxiolytics, benzodiazepine hypnotics, antidepressants, antipsychotics, mood stabilizers, antiepileptics, central nervous system stimulants, and muscle relaxants. Co-prescription drugs were classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) Classification System of the World Health Organization.

Previous drug use was defined as at least one drug dispensation in the 3 months preceding the index date while co-prescription drug use was defined as at least one drug dispensation during the opioid therapy.

Medical visits, emergency and hospital services

Medical services comprised the date of the visit to a physician, her/his medical specialty, and the ICD-9 diagnostic codes.

Information on emergency visits and hospitalizations included dates of admission and discharge, ICD-10 diagnosis codes at admission time, provenance for admission, and discharge destination. However, data on emergency visits are only available since 2012; thus, for comorbidity identification, only medical and hospitalization data were screened whereas for emergency visits and hospitalizations for opioid overdoses, we included only people with an index date after 2013.

Identified comorbidities included substance use disorders (ICD-9 codes: 3030 to 3059; F10.0 to F19.9), depression (ICD-9 codes: 2962, 2963, 2966 to 2968, 2980, 3004, 3090, 3091, 310 to 3119; ICD-10 codes: F30.0 to F39.9), and anxiety disorders (ICD-9 codes: 3000 to 3003; ICD-10 codes: F064, F408 to F413, F418, F419, F931, F932). History of comorbidity was defined as at least one diagnosis code of the comorbidity in the past 12 months. For each comorbidity, medical services database and hospital services databases were screened to identify the corresponding ICD-9 and ICD-10 codes respectively.

Emergency visits and hospitalizations for opioid overdoses were identified through ICD-10 T400 to T406 and ICD-9 9650 diagnoses codes for reasons of admissions.

Outcomes

Opioid doctor shopping was defined as at least 1 day of overlapping prescriptions written by at least 2 different prescribers and filled in at least 3 different pharmacies. Each different overlapping prescription which met these criteria was considered as a new episode of doctor shopping. This definition was the same as the one used in Cepeda et al's (21,22) and Chenaf et al's (19,20) studies and has been shown to be associated with a diagnosis of opioid use disorder (11).

Statistical analysis

Participants' characteristics

Descriptive statistics (median, interquartile range $(Q_1 - Q_3)$), and n (%) were used to portray the characteristics of the sample.

Incidence of opioid doctor shopping

The one-year incidence of doctor shopping was estimated using the Kaplan Meier method. The index date was the date of the first opioid prescription during the 12-month follow-up period and the ending date was the date of the first episode of opioid doctor shopping (or of last information—i.e., death, end of opioid treatment, switch to another analgesic, or end of follow-up). Time to the first episode of doctor shopping and number of episodes during the follow-up period were also computed. Comparisons between people who exhibited opioid doctor shopping behaviours and those who did not were carried out using Chi2 test for frequencies > 5 and Fischer Exact test for frequencies < 5.

Risk factors of opioid doctor shopping

Cox proportional hazards models were applied to identify factors associated with opioid doctor shopping. Relevant variables to included in the analysis were selected based on the existing scientific literature and their clinical relevance. The proportional hazard assumption was tested using the scaled Schoenfeld residuals. Assumption is met if the sum of Schoenfeld residuals was equal or very close to zero. Only variables which achieved this assumption were included in the analysis. Univariable analysis was performed to study the relation between each independent variable and the dependent variable (doctor shopping). Multivariable analysis was then conducted to study the

association between each factor and doctor shopping, adjusting for confounders. Hazard ratios and their 95% confidence intervals were reported. The level of statistical significance was fixed at 0.05.

Association between opioid doctor shopping and opioid overdoses

To assess the association between opioid doctor shopping and opioid overdoses, Marginal Structural Cox Models (Cox-MSM) were applied. Considering that emergency visit data were only available since 2012, we included only people with an index date beginning in 2013 to allow one year to screen for previous opioid overdose. People with past year opioid overdoses were excluded because it was a strong predictor of occurrence of new episodes of overdoses. The follow-up was split into 4 time points of 3 months each. Doctor shopping, overdose, co-prescriptions and comorbidities were recorded in each time interval. The ending period time was the time point when the first episode of overdose occurred.

At each time point, logistic regression was used to estimate the probability of developing doctor shopping based on previous values of the covariates (co-prescriptions, comorbidities, sociodemographics), including potential time-varying confounders. The inverse of these probabilities was generated to obtain the inverse-probability-of-treatment weights (IPTW). At each time point, logistic regression was also used to estimate the probability of developing opioid doctor shopping considering a previous episode of doctor shopping. This probability was used to multiply the IPTW generated previously to obtain stabilized weights by reducing their variability. Considering all participants completed a 12-month follow-up, and none was lost in follow-up (no censoring), the censoring weights were not estimated. Thus, only the stabilized IPTW generated previously were used to adjust the final Cox-MSM modelling the effect of doctor shopping on the occurrence of opioid overdoses. Hazard ratios and their 95% confidence intervals were reported. The level of statistical significance was fixed at 0.05. All analyses were carried out with Stata 15.1 (StataCorp LLC) for Windows.

RESULTS

Participants' inclusion

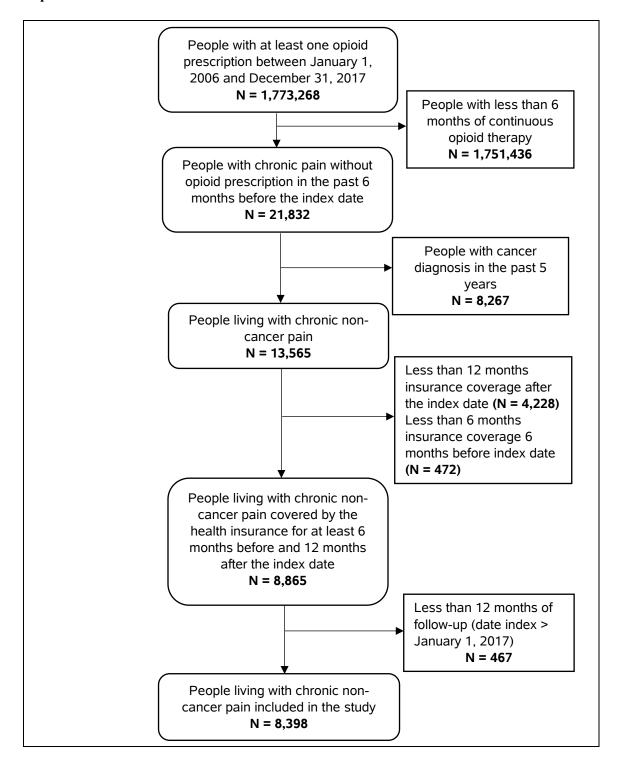


Figure 14. Flow chart of participants' inclusion

Participants' characteristics

A total of 8,398 persons were eligible between 2006 and 2017 (**Figure 14**). Their median age was 68 years ($Q_1 = 54$; $Q_3 = 82$) and 37.1% were male. The percentage of people presenting a diagnosis of anxiety disorder was 13.4% while 11.6% had a diagnosis of depression and 7.1% a diagnosis of substance use disorder. More than thirty percent of the included participants had used benzodiazepine anxiolytics (31.1%) and antidepressants (38.7%) in the past 3 months. (**Table VII**)

One-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping

Among the 8,398 participants included, 609 (7.2%) presented at least one episode of opioid doctor shopping during the 12-month follow-up after the index date. The median time elapsed between the first opioid dispensation (index date) and the first episode of doctor shopping was 88 days ($Q_1 = 39$; $Q_3 = 166$). The one-year cumulative incidence of doctor shopping was 7.8% (95% CI: 7.2 – 8.5).

Among opioid doctor shoppers, only one episode was recorded for 337 of them (55.3%), 2 episodes for 115 (18.9%), 3 episodes for 58 (9.5%), 4 episodes for 44 (7.2%), 5 episodes for 20 (3.3%) whereas 35 (5.7%) participants presented 6 episodes or more. The maximum number of episodes was 24 and was exhibited by only one person.

Table V compares participants who exhibited at least one episode of opioid doctor shopping behaviours and those who did not. The former group was slightly but significantly younger on the average and included a greater proportion of males. People who exhibited doctor shopping were also more likely to have a history of substance use disorders and anxiety disorders.

Tableau VII. Characteristics of participants included in the analysis identifying risk factors of opioid doctor shopping.

| Variable | All | Doctor shopping | | P-value |
|----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------|---------|
| | | No | Yes | |
| | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | - |
| N | 8 398 (100) | 7 789 (92.8) | 609 (7.2) | |
| Socio-demographics | | | | |
| Age | | | | |
| Median (Q1 – Q3) | 68 (54 – 82) | 69 (55 – 82) | 60 (47 – 75) | < 0.001 |
| 18 ≤ age < 45 years | 919 (10.9) | 792 (10.2) | 127 (20.9) | < 0.001 |
| 45 ≤ age < 65 years | 2 687 (32.0) | 2 473 (31.7) | 214 (35.1) | _ |
| Age ≥ 65 years | 4 792 (57.1) | 4 524 (58.1) | 268 (44.0) | |
| Males | 3 117 (37.1) | 2 836 (36.4) | 281 (46.1) | < 0.001 |
| Comorbidities in the past | , , , | | , , , | |
| year | | | | |
| Substance use disorder | 595 (7.1) | 527 (6.8) | 68 (11.2) | < 0.001 |
| Depression disorder | 975 (11.6) | 899 (11.5) | 76 (12.5) | 0.487 |
| Anxiety disorder | 1 126 (13.4) | 1 024 (13.2) | 102 (16.8) | 0.012 |
| Co-prescription drugs in | | | | |
| the past 3 months | | | | |
| Benzodiazepine | 2 613 (31.1) | 2 464 (31.6) | 149 (24.5) | < 0.001 |
| anxiolytics | | | | |
| Benzodiazepine | 609 (7.3) | 571 (7.3) | 38 (6.2) | 0.317 |
| hypnotics | • • | | | |
| Antidepressants | 3 252 (38.7) | 3 058 (39.3) | 194 (31.9) | < 0.001 |
| Antipsychotics | 1 411 (16.8) | 1 330 (17.1) | 81 (13.3) | 0.016 |
| Mood stabilizers | 68 (0.8) | 60 (0.8) | 8 (1.3) | 0.150 |
| Antiepileptics | 2 811 (33.5) | 2 632 (33.8) | 179 (29.4) | 0.027 |
| Central nervous system | 63 (0.8) | 59 (0.8) | 4 (0.7) | 0.515 |
| stimulants | ` / | ` / | ` / | |
| Muscle relaxants | 639 (7.6) | 582 (7.5) | 57 (9.4) | 0.091 |
| | ` ′ | ` ' | ` ' | |

Risk factors of opioid doctor shopping

Results of the multivariable analysis revealed that opioid doctor shopping was significantly associated with younger age (HR = 2.21, 95% CI: 1.76 - 2.78), p<0.001 for $18 \le age < 45$ years and HR = 1.33, 95% CI: 1.10 - 1.61 for $45 \le age < 65$ years vs. ≥ 65 years and male sex (HR = 1.20, 95% CI: 1.01 - 1.42). Participants with a history of substance use disorder or anxiety disorder were also at higher risk to exhibit doctor shopping with HR = 1.32, 95% CI: 1.01 - 1.73 and HR = 1.42, 95% CI: 1.14 - 1.78, respectively. The use of mood stabilizers was also associated with doctor shopping (HR = 2.08, 95% CI: 1.02 - 4.23). In contrast, use of benzodiazepine anxiolytics (HR =

0.81, 95% CI: 0.67 - 0.98), antidepressants (HR = 0.76, 95% CI: 0.63 - 0.92) and antipsychotics in the past 3 months (HR = 0.71, 95% CI: 0.55 - 0.92) were negatively associated with the occurrence of opioid doctor shopping behaviours. (Table VIII)

Tableau VIII. Cox proportional hazards univariable and multivariable analyses identifying risk factors associated with opioid doctor shopping.

| Factors | Cox proportional univariable analysis | | Cox proportional multivariable analy | |
|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------|--------------------------------------|---------|
| | HR (95% CI) | P-value | HR (95% CI) | P-value |
| Socio-demographics | , | | , | |
| Age | | | | |
| ≥ 65 years | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| 45 ≤ age < 65 years | 1.44 (1.20 – 1.72) | < 0.001 | 1.33 (1.10 – 1.61) | 0.004 |
| 18 ≤ age < 45 years | 2.57 (2.08 – 3.18) | < 0.001 | 2.21 (1.76 – 2.78) | < 0.001 |
| Sex | | | | |
| Female | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Male | 1.47 (1.26 - 1.73) | < 0.001 | 1.20(1.01-1.42) | 0.034 |
| Comorbidities in the past | | | | |
| year | | | | |
| Substance use disorder | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 1.67 (1.30 - 2.15) | < 0.001 | 1.32 (1.01 - 1.73) | 0.040 |
| Depression disorder | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.09 (0.86 - 1.38) | 0.488 | 1.03 (0.79 - 1.33) | 0.848 |
| Anxiety disorder | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 1.31 (1.06 – 1.62) | 0.012 | 1.42 (1.14 – 1.78) | 0.002 |
| Co-prescription drugs used | | | | |
| in the past 3 months | | | | |
| Benzodiazepine anxiolytics | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.70 (0.58 - 0.84) | < 0.001 | 0.81 (0.67 - 0.98) | 0.029 |
| Benzodiazepine hypnotics | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.84 (0.61 - 1.17) | < 0.299 | 0.90 (0.65 - 1.26 | 0.553 |
| Antidepressants | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.72 (0.61 - 0.86) | < 0.001 | 0.76 (0.63–0.92) | 0.005 |
| Antipsychotics | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.74 (0.59 - 0.94) | 0.013 | 0.71 (0.55–0.92) | 0.008 |
| Mood stabilizers | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 1.67 (0.83 – 3.35) | 0.151 | 2.08 (1.02 – 4.23) | 0.044 |
| Antiepileptics | | | | |

| Factors | Cox proportional hazards univariable analysis | | Cox proportional hazards multivariable analysis | |
|-----------------------------------|---|---------|---|---------|
| | HR (95% CI) | P-value | HR (95% CI) | P-value |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.81 (0.68 - 0.96) | 0.018 | 0.86(0.71-1.03) | 0.097 |
| Central nervous system stimulants | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.88(0.33 - 2.35) | 0.795 | 0.75 (0.28 - 2.01) | 0564 |
| Muscle relaxants | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 1.26 (0.96 – 1.65) | 0.100 | 1.16(0.87 - 1.53) | 0.312 |

HR (95% CI): Hazard Ratio (95% Confidence Interval)

Association between opioid doctor shopping and opioid overdoses

Among the 8,398 participants included, 4,945 were excluded from this sub-analysis because the index date was anterior to 2013. In addition, 16 persons were excluded because of history of opioid overdoses in the past 12 months. Thus, 3,437 persons were included in this sub-analysis and among them, 25 (0,73%) experienced opioid overdoses. The characteristics of persons included in this sub-analysis are presented in **Table IX**.

Tableau IX. Characteristics of participants included in the analysis estimating the association between opioid doctor shopping and the occurrence of opioid overdoses.

| Variable | All | Opioid overdose | | P-value |
|----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|
| | | No | Yes | |
| | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | - |
| N | 3 437 | 3 412 (99.3) | 25 (0.7) | |
| Opioid doctor shopping | 243 (7.1) | 239 (7.0) | 4 (16.0) | |
| Socio-demographics | | | | |
| Age | | | | |
| 18 ≤ age < 45 years | 345 (10.0) | 338 (9.9) | 7 (28.0) | < 0.001 |
| $45 \le age < 65 \text{ years}$ | 1 082 (31.5) | 1 069 (31.3) | 13 (52.0) | |
| age ≥ 65 years | 2 010 (58.5) | 2 005 (58.8) | 5 (20.0) | |
| Male | 1 324 (38.5) | 1 313 (38.5) | 11 (44.0) | 0.572 |
| Comorbidities in the past | , , | , , , | , , | |
| year | | | | |
| Substance use disorder | 238 (6.9) | 233 (6.8) | 5 (20.0) | 0.010 |
| Depression disorder | 378 (11.0) | 370 (10.8) | 8 (32.0) | 0.001 |
| Anxiety disorder | 445 (13.0) | 438 (12.8) | 7 (28.0) | 0.024 |
| Co-prescription drugs | | | | |
| used in the past 3 months | | | | |
| Benzodiazepine | 1 004 (29.2) | 995 (29.2) | 9 (36.0) | 0.454 |
| anxiolytics | | | | |
| Benzodiazepine | 196 (5.7) | 194 (5.7) | 2 (8.0) | 0.651 |
| hypnotics | | | | |
| Antidepressants | 1 370 (39.9) | 1 357 (39.8) | 13 (52.0) | 0.213 |
| Antipsychotics | 657 (19.1) | 649 (19.0) | 8 (32.0) | 0.100 |
| Mood stabilizers | 24 (0.7) | 23 (0.7) | 1 (4.0) | 0.161 |
| Antiepileptics | 1 249 (36.3) | 1 239 (36.3) | 10 (40.0) | 0.703 |
| Central nervous system | 29 (0.8) | 28 (0.8) | 1 (4.0) | 0.192 |
| stimulants | | | | |
| Muscle relaxants | 279 (8.1) | 273 (8.0) | 6 (24.0) | 0.004 |

In the Cox-MSM without adjustment, doctor shopping was linked to the occurrence of opioid overdose with HR = 8.48, 95% CI: 2.47 - 29.13, p = 0.001. In the final model using stabilized IPTW for adjustment, doctor shopping remained significantly linked to opioid overdoses with HR = 5.17, 95% CI: 1.47 - 18.14, p = 0.010).

DISCUSSION

This study is the first of its kind to assess opioid doctor shopping among people living with CNCP in Quebec, Canada. The study highlights that only a minority of people living with CNCP engages in doctor shopping, identifies the associated factors of this behaviour, and establishes a link between opioid doctor shopping and the occurrence of opioid overdoses.

Doctor shopping refers to many behaviours and can be practised for different reasons other than non-medical use such as for convenience, prescriber and drug unavailability, or price (10,23). However, the conservative definition used in the present study encompassed prescription overlapping with multiple prescribers and pharmacies and thereby looked at intentional behaviours to get large quantities of opioids for nonmedical use. Documenting the incidence of opioid doctor shopping is useful for clinicians to better monitor persons at high risk of problematic opioid use and informative for healthcare decision makers to implement appropriate measures regarding the extent of this behaviour and its consequences.

In this study, the one-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping was lower than 8% but more than half of the shoppers (55.5%) exhibited only one episode. This incidence rate is higher than the ones reported in Cepeda et al.'s studies conducted in the US before the worsening of opioid crisis (0.18% to 0.30%) (21,22). This surprising result, given that the US is the country most affected by the opioid crisis, could be due to methodological differences. Indeed, Cepeda et al. (21,22) included all persons who had at least one opioid prescription, which has the effect of increasing the denominator and thereby decreasing the incidence rate. Two previous studies carried out in France and using the same methodology as the one we used--i.e., same definition of doctor shopping and CNCP – also reported lower incidence rates of opioid doctor shopping of 1 to 4% (19,20) compared to the one observed in the present study. This could be the differences in opioid prescribing practices. Indeed, weak opioids were the most prescribed opioids in France while in Quebec, strong opioids that have a higher potential for non-medical use were the most prescribed (24). However, these incidence rates are not alarming and suggest that only a minority of people living with CNCP engage in opioid doctor shopping behaviours. Such findings conflict with the prejudice and stigma towards people living with CNCP, who are sometimes seen as people dependent to their medications or as drug-seekers (25,26). Nevertheless, best practices must be promoted to prevent opioid doctor shopping and improve opioid prescribing by screening for risk factors of developing this type of behaviour before and during prescribing opioids.

Several risk factors associated with opioid doctor shopping were identified in the present study. Younger people and men were at higher risk to engage in this type of behaviour, a finding which is consistent with previous studies (9,27–29). Data on the opioid crisis in Canada revealed that among opioid-related deaths, 67% occurred in people under 50 years of age and 75% involved men (4). The association between young age and opioid use disorders is also well documented (28,30). Two studies have shown that the most common motives for the nonmedical use of opioids among young people were to get high and to experiment (31,32). Factors such as stress and anxiety often present in young people may also conduct to nonmedical use of opioids in order to cope with these states (33,34). The sex difference in opioid use disorders would be the result of biological and socio-cultural differences (35–37). For example, Fattore et al. have argued that the sense of responsibility and fear of addiction stigma could protect women from developing opioid use disorders and behaviours such as doctor shopping (37). In contrast, men would be more susceptible to develop problematic opioid use due to impulsivity, peer pressure and the need of belonging to a group (37,38).

Results of our study showed that history of substance use disorder was associated with a higher risk of opioid doctor shopping. This is consistent with the fact that past substance use disorder is known to be a strong predictor of opioid use disorder (39). We also found that history of anxiety disorder was a significant predictor of opioid doctor shopping. Some studies also found a significant association between past anxiety disorder and problematic substance use (40–42).

Among other risk factors of opioid doctor shopping, we found that past use of psychotropic drugs such as antidepressants, antipsychotics and benzodiazepine anxiolytics was associated with a lower incidence of such a type of behaviour. This striking finding could suggest that access to benzodiazepines, antipsychotics and antidepressants allow people to manage well health conditions that normally increase the risk of problematic opioid use. Indeed, among reasons which have been shown to lead to opioid use disorders, self-medication of undertreated pain, depression, anxiety, or sleep problems were commonly cited (30,32,43). However, further studies are needed to better understand this type of association and to assess whether the risk of developing problematic opioid use is associated with underlying mental disorders and/or psychotropic medication. Despite the

evidence that some factors were associated with risk of developing opioid doctor shopping, it remains that opioids are essential to relieve CNCP in some persons and concerns about the development of opioid use disorder should not prevent proper pain management. Effective communication between physicians and patients along with frequent re-evaluations of the benefit/risk ratio of opioid therapy can help improve the adequacy of long-term opioid therapy and reduce the incidence of doctor shopping.

Another important finding of the present study is that opioid doctor shopping increased the risk of opioid overdoses. People who exhibited doctor shopping were 5 times more likely to experience opioid overdoses although confidence intervals were large due to the low number of overdoses in our sample. Some previous studies also reported that visiting multiple prescribers and pharmacies to obtain opioids predicted opioid overdoses and deaths (13-15). These findings help understanding consequences of opioid doctor shopping and suggests doctor shoppers use drugs for themselves, thus increasing the risk of opioid-related overdoses. The implementation of effective opioid prescription monitoring program could help reduce doctor shopping and the associated overdoses in people who access opioids through medical providers (44). However, the implementation of prescription monitoring program to reduce access to prescription opioids for nonmedical use could lead to an increase in use of illicitly manufactured fentanyl or heroin (44– 46). Thus, measures beyond access limitations to opioids such as better pain and addiction management are needed to effectively deal with the opioid crisis. Better access to multidisciplinary pain management and to non-pharmacological pain modalities may improve pain management whereas better access to mental health services and to opioid agonists may improve addiction management.

Study Limitations and Strengths

This study presents some limitations. As mentioned earlier, our sample did not include persons who had a private medication insurance plan. Some studies in Quebec (47) and elsewhere in North America (48–50) suggest that people benefitting from by public medication insurance plan would have a lower socioeconomic status than those covered by a private plan. If this is the case, it may limit the generalizability of our findings but not the internal validity (capacity to detect valid associations). It is also important to consider that the rate of opioid doctor shopping could be different from one country to another depending on the restrictions on changing doctors, the

presence of a prescription monitoring system or differences in medication accessibility and medication drug use patterns. In addition, confounding biases may have influenced the identification of risk factors. Indeed, it was not possible to include in our analysis factors such as pain characteristics (e.g., intensity, duration, etc.) because such data were not available in the RAMQ databases. Further research is also needed to confirm the association we observed between opioid doctor shopping and opioid overdoses considering the small sample size of people who exhibited doctor shopping.

Despite its limitations, the present study provides useful information on opioid doctor shopping and its correlates. Several relevant factors were identified allowing better screening of persons at high risk to develop such a type of behaviour. Furthermore, this study established a link between opioid doctor shopping and the occurrence of opioid overdoses, highlighting the serious risk that can be associated with this practice.

CONCLUSIONS

Opioid doctor shopping appears to be a marginal phenomenon among people with CNCP, but people who exhibited doctor shopping would be at higher risk of opioid overdoses. Younger age, male sex, history of anxiety and substance use disorders were associated with higher risk of doctor shopping behaviours. The implementation of prescription monitoring systems may help reduce this phenomenon and prevent opioid overdoses. Furthermore, better access to multidisciplinary pain treatment and non-pharmacological pain modalities may help reduce and optimize opioid use which subsequently could lead to a decrease in rates of opioid use disorders and overdoses.

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CONTRIBUTIONS

Manon Choinière, M Gabrielle Pagé and Anaïs Lacasse designed the study and secured funding. Éric Tremblay participated in the protocol for data extraction and revised the manuscript. Jean-Luc Kaboré performed all the statistical analyses and wrote the draft of the manuscript. Mike Benigeri, and Denis A. Roy supervised the work at the INESSS and revised the manuscript. Manon Choinière, M Gabrielle Pagé, Anaïs Lacasse and Lise Dassieu critically revised the manuscript. All authors have approved the final content of the manuscript and agreed with its submission to PAIN®.

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3.3. Article 3: Opioid doctor shopping: A rare phenomenon among patients with chronic non-cancer pain followed in tertiary care settings

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Opioid doctor shopping: A rare phenomenon among patients with

chronic non-cancer pain followed in tertiary care settings

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140

ABSTRACT

Background: Opioid doctor shopping has not yet been investigated in patients followed in

tertiary care settings. This study aimed at assessing the prevalence of opioid doctor shopping

among patients with chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) (i.e., pain lasting ≥ 3 months) attending

multidisciplinary pain clinics in Quebec, Canada.

Methods: This was a retrospective cohort study of patients with CNCP enrolled in the

Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) between 2008 and 2014. QPR data were linked to the Quebec health

insurance databases. The index date was the date of the first visit at the pain clinic. Prevalence of

doctor shopping was assessed within the 12 months following the index date. Doctor shopping was

defined as at least 1 day of overlapping opioid prescriptions from ≥ 2 prescribers and filled in ≥ 3

pharmacies.

Results: A total of 2 191 patients with CNCP with at least one opioid dispensation within

the 12 months following the index date were included. The mean age was 58.6±14.9 years and

41.3% were men. The median pain duration was 4 years, and 13.3% of patients were diagnosed

with neuropathic pain. Regarding past year comorbidities, 15.0% presented anxiety, 16.8%

depression and 6.4% substance use disorder. Among the included patients, 15 (0.7%) presented at

least one episode of doctor shopping. Among these doctor-shoppers, 9 (60.0%) exhibited only 1

episode.

Conclusion: Opioid doctor shopping is a rare phenomenon among patients with CNCP

treated in tertiary care settings. Opioids should remain a drug option for patients without substance

use disorder, and who have persistent pain despite optimized nonopioid therapy.

Keywords: Opioids; Doctor Shopping; Chronic Non-Cancer Pain; Quebec Pain Registry.

141

INTRODUCTION

The recent and ongoing opioid crisis in the United States (US) and Canada has led to increased opioid-related overdoses and has been declared a public health emergency (1). In the US, 47 600 drug overdose deaths involving an opioid occurred in 2018 alone (2). In Canada, 16 364 opioid-related deaths occurred between January 2016 and March 2020 (3). Most of these overdoses were driven primarily by illicitly manufactured fentanyl but prescription opioids were also responsible for some of these deaths (2,4). In the US, prescription opioids were reported in 32% of opioid-related deaths (2) while in Canada, 17% of opioid-related deaths involved only prescription opioids and 9% both prescription and illicit opioids (3). Public health measures such as prescription guidelines and prescription monitoring programs were implemented to reduce inappropriate opioid use (5,6).

Doctor shopping can be defined as the behaviour of visiting different prescribers and/or pharmacies for several prescriptions is a way to obtain larger amounts of opioids than prescribed. It suggests opioid use problems (7–9). However, doctor shopping has not yet been investigated in patients with chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) followed in tertiary care settings. Thus, the aim of this study was to assess the prevalence of opioid doctor shopping behaviours among patients with CNCP attending multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics.

METHODS

Study design

This was a retrospective cohort study of patients with CNCP attending one of five multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics in Quebec, Canada, between 2008 and 2014.

Data sources

Data were extracted from the Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) and linked to the Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec (RAMQ) databases. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Board (REB) of the Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal and from the Commission d'accès à l'information (CAI) of Quebec. The QPR is a registry of patients admitted to one of five multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics in the province of Quebec (10). Chronic pain was defined as pain lasting for at least 3 months. Patients aged 18 years and older, fluent in French and/or English, who were enrolled in the QPR between 2008 and 2014, and who consented that their QPR data be used for research purposes (92%) were eligible for participation in the present study. QPR data included sociodemographic information and pain characteristics at the initial visit. The RAMQ databases contain information from reimbursed services dispensed to patients covered by the Quebec health insurance plan. The Quebec health insurance covered all Quebec residents for medical, hospital and emergency services and covers approximately 46% of Quebec residents for prescription drugs. The population who benefit from prescription drugs plan comprised persons aged 65 years and older, recipients of social assistance as well as the workers who were not covered by a private drug insurance plan. Drug dispensation for persons insured under a private plan are therefore not available in the RAMQ databases. Thus, only persons covered by the Quebec Public Drug Insurance plan were included in this study. RAMQ data comprised information on dispensed drugs, comorbidities (medical diagnoses using ICD-9 and ICD-10 codes), emergency visits, and hospitalizations. QPR data were linked to RAMQ databases using the patient's last name, first name, sex, date of birth, and unique Quebec health insurance number. All data were de-identified at the times of the analyses.

Participants

QPR patients with a diagnosis of chronic non-cancer pain and at least one opioid dispensation within the 12 months following their first visit at the pain clinic were selected. Diagnosis of pain was established by the pain physician at the multidisciplinary pain clinic. Opioids included codeine, dextropropoxyphene, fentanyl, hydromorphone, meperidine, morphine, oxycodone, tapentadol, tramadol, butorphanol, and pentazocine.

Outcomes

The outcome was the presence of opioid doctor shopping behaviours within the 12 months following the index date. Doctor shopping was defined as at least 1 day of overlapping prescriptions from ≥ 2 prescribers and filled in ≥ 3 pharmacies (9,11). This definition of doctor shopping has been used in several studies (9,11–13) and has been shown to be associated with a clinical diagnosis of opioid use disorder (9).

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis was performed to estimate the prevalence of doctor shopping. Categorical variables are presented as frequency and percentage and quantitative variables as mean ± standard deviation or median and interquartile range. Statistical analyses were performed using Stata/SE 16.1 for Windows (StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA).

RESULTS

A total of 7 983 patients from the QPR had their data matched to the RAMQ databases. Among these patients, 4 047 (50.7%) were covered by the Quebec drug insurance plan, from 6-month before to 12-month period following their first visit at the pain clinic. Comparison between patients covered by the Quebec drug insurance plan and those not, revealed no difference for sex but showed difference for age (Mean age of 58.5 ± 14.5 years for patients covered by drug insurance plan versus 48.0 ± 11.7 years for those not covered), p<0.001.

Among the 4 047 patients covered by the Quebec drug insurance plan, a total of 2 191 CNCP patients with at least one opioid dispensation within the 12 months following the first visit at the pain clinic were included in the present study. (**Figure 15**) The mean age was 58.6 ± 14.9 years and 41.3% were men. The median pain duration was 4 years (Q1 = 1.5; Q3 = 10) and 291 patients (13.3%) had neuropathic pain, 1 270 (58.0%) mixed evidence of neuropathic pain, and the remaining 630 (28.8%) non-neuropathic pain. About past 12-month history of comorbidities, 6.4% presented a substance use disorder, 15.0% anxiety, and 16.8% depression. (**Table X**)

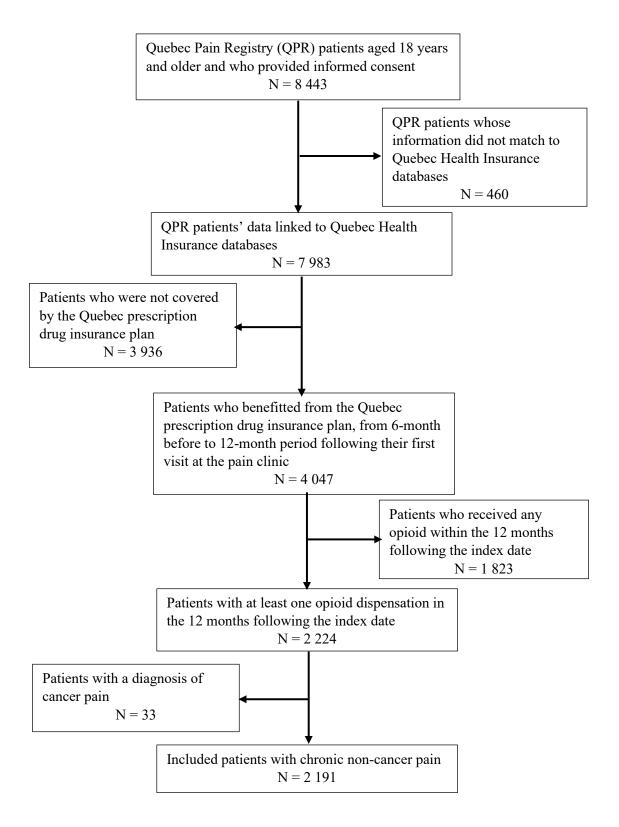


Figure 15. Flow chart of patients' inclusion (index date is the date of the first visit at the pain clinic)

Tableau X. Characteristics of patients included in the analysis

| Variable | All | Doctor shopp | Octor shopping | |
|---|-----------------|---------------|----------------|--|
| | | No | Yes | |
| | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| N | 2 191 (100.0) | 2 176 (99.3) | 15 (0.7) | |
| Socio-demographics | | | | |
| Age | | | | |
| • Mean ±SD | 58.6 ± 14.9 | 58.7 ±14.9 | 46.1 ±7.5 | |
| Sex | N (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| • Male – N (%) | 905 (41.3) | 897 (41.2) | 8 (53.3) | |
| Education level completed | N (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| College/University | 934 (42.6) | 927 (44.6) | 7 (46.7) | |
| Pain characteristics | | | | |
| Pain intensity in the past 7 days ¹ | | | | |
| • Mean ±SD | 7.3 ±1.8 | 7.3 ± 1.8 | 7.8 ± 1.1 | |
| Pain interference in the past 7 days ² | | | | |
| • Mean ±SD | 6.2 ±2.1 | 6.2 ± 2.1 | 7.5 ± 1.2 | |
| Pain duration (years) | | | | |
| • Median (Q1 – Q3) | 4 (1.5 – 10) | 4 (1.5 – 10) | 6 (1.5 – 12) | |
| Type of pain ³ | N (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| Neuropathic | 291 (13.3) | 291 (13.4) | 0 (0.0) | |
| Mixed evidence of neuropathic | 1 270 (58.0) | 1 258 (57.8) | 12 (80.0) | |
| Non-neuropathic | 630 (28.8) | 627 (28.8) | 3 (20.0) | |
| Past-year comorbidities ⁴ | N (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| Substance use disorders | 140 (6.4) | 137 (6.3) | 3 (20.0) | |
| Depression | 367 (16.8) | 364 (16.7) | 3 (20.0) | |
| • Anxiety | 328 (15.0) | 322 (14.8) | 6 (40.0) | |
| Past 3-month drug use ⁵ | N (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| Benzodiazepines | 908 (41.4) | 897 (41.2) | 11 (73.3) | |
| Antidepressants | 962 (43.9) | 958 (44.0) | 4 (26.7) | |
| Antipsychotics | 258 (11.8) | 257 (11.8) | 1 (6.7) | |
| Antiepileptics | 1 191 (54.4) | 1 182 (54.3) | 9 (60.0) | |
| Pain intensity was assessed using a standardiz | . , | ` , | · / | |

Pain intensity was assessed using a standardized numerical pain ranging from 0 (no pain) to 10 (worst possible pain.

² Pain interference was measured using the interference items of the Brief Pain Inventory-10; scores ranged from 0 (pain does not interfere) to 10 (pain interferes completely).

³ Neuropathic pain: physician diagnosis of neuropathic pain and score ≥ 4 on the self-reported portion of Douleur Neuropathique 4 Questions (DN4)); Mixed evidence of neuropathic pain: physician diagnosis of neuropathic pain and a DN4 score < 4 or a diagnosis of non-neuropathic pain with a DN4 score ≥ 4; Non-neuropathic pain: a diagnosis of non-neuropathic pain with a DN4 score < 4.

⁴ Past-year comorbidities were identified by the occurrence of at least one ICD-9 or ICD-10 code in the past 12 months preceding the index date

⁵ Past 3-month drug use was identified by at least one drug dispensation in the 3 months preceding the index date.

Only 15 out of the 2 191 patients with CNCP (0.7%) who received at least one opioid dispensation within the 12-month timeframe after the index date engaged in doctor shopping. None of the patients who started opioid use after their first visit at the pain clinic (no opioid dispensation in the past 6-month before the index date; n = 591) had practiced doctor shopping. Among the 15 patients identified as engaging in behaviours indicative of doctor shopping, 9 (60.0%) had only 1 episode, 2 patients had two episodes, 2 patients had between 5-10 episodes, and 1 had 22 episodes. Patients who exhibited doctor shopping visited 2 to 26 different physicians for opioid prescriptions which were filled in 3 to 14 different pharmacies within the 12 months following their first visit at the pain clinic.

DISCUSSION

This study which was the first to assess the prevalence of opioid doctor shopping in patients with CNCP attending multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics revealed that this type of behaviour is infrequent among these patients. Doctor shopping is viewed as a relevant indicator of inappropriate access to prescriptions and a proxy for non-medical use (7–9). Some studies have shown that the use of multiple physicians and pharmacies to obtain opioid medications is associated with a clinical diagnosis of opioid use disorder and with opioid overdoses (9,14).

Previous studies using the same definition of opioid doctor shopping as in this study reported a prevalence ranging from 0.2 to 0.8% in the US before the peak of the opioid overdose crisis (9,11). Studies from France focusing on patients with CNCP reported rates of opioid doctor shopping varying from 1 to 4% (12,13). These previous studies, based on data from medicoadministrative databases, included all opioid users, not just those in tertiary care settings. This study was the first to focus exclusively on tertiary care patients and the findings revealed a lower rate of 0.7% which suggests that doctor shopping is a rare behaviour among patients with CNCP followed in tertiary care settings. The presence of a medical diagnosis of opioid use disorder in the 12 months preceding the first visit at the pain clinic was also low (6.4%). This low prevalence of doctor shopping may be explained by the older age of patients followed in tertiary care settings since studies reported that doctor shopping was practiced mainly by young people (7,9,12). In addition, pain management at the multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics was personalized according to the patients' needs and characteristics (10); thus, patients who received opioid prescriptions were probably those at lower risk of opioid use disorders. In the context of restrictions due to the opioid overdose crisis, this low rate of doctor shopping suggests that patients treated in multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics are rarely drug seekers and call for appropriate access to opioids which remain useful medications for some patients. Furthermore, Quebec, like the other provinces in Canada, endorsed the Canadian Guideline for Safe and Effective Use of Opioids for Chronic Non-Cancer Pain Published in 2011 by the National Opioid Use Guideline Group (NOUGG) (15), before endorsing the new guidelines issued in 2017 (6) in the context of the opioid crisis. Although Quebec has adopted the same guidelines as other provinces in Canada, Quebec was the province where the opioid crisis was the least severe. A report suggested that the prevalence of opioid use in Quebec, remained low and stable from 2006 to 2016 while the indicators of potentially

inappropriate opioid use such as prescription overlap were low and declining between 2006 and 2013 (16). Thus, the low rate of doctor shopping reported in this study could result from the general context of Quebec where rates of opioid use as well as inappropriate use were low and declining. Nevertheless, adequate prescription monitoring and regular benefit-risk assessment of opioid therapy is needed for safe and effective opioid use.

This study presents limitations. First, doctor shopping can be practiced for reasons other than non-medical use such as for convenience, drug and prescriber availability, or insufficient pain relief (17). Furthermore, doctor shopping is not the sole way to obtain more opioids than prescribed, thus clinicians should monitor potential sources of non-prescribed opioids. Second, data from health insurance databases do not indicate if supplemental drugs obtained through doctor shopping were used by the patients themselves or were diverted to somebody else. Another limitation is that only 50.7% of the selected QPR patients were covered by the Quebec drug insurance plan and these patients were older than those not covered by this insurance plan; thus, almost one half of them were not included in this study. Finally, the small sample size did not enable conducting supplementary analyses to better characterize doctor-shoppers.

CONCLUSIONS

Opioid doctor shopping was practiced by less than 1% of patients with CNCP attending multidisciplinary pain clinics suggesting a low risk of non-medical use. Opioids remain useful medications that should be prescribed for patients with chronic noncancer pain, without current or past substance use disorder and without other active psychiatric disorders, who have persistent problematic pain despite optimized nonopioid therapy, as suggested by the Guidelines (6).

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

M Gabrielle Pagé, Manon Choinière, and Anaïs Lacasse, developed the concept, obtained the funding of the study, devised the study, and revised the manuscript. Jean-Luc Kaboré performed the statistical analysis and wrote the original draft. Lise Dassieu participated in the data analysis and manuscript revisions. All authors approved the final content of the manuscript and agree with its submission to the Journal of Pain Research.

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CHAPITRE 5. DCNC ET UTILISATION DE DROGUES ILLICITES

5.1. Contexte

La caractérisation des personnes susceptibles de bénéficier des opioïdes à long terme peut réduire les risques associés et optimiser les bénéfices de ce type de médicament. Cependant, pour lutter efficacement contre la crise des opioïdes, une meilleure gestion de la DCNC chez les personnes utilisatrices de drogues (PUD) est aussi indispensable. En effet, la crise des opioïdes qui sévit actuellement résulte de plusieurs facteurs complexes parmi lesquels la prise de drogues illicites telles que le fentanyl contrefait et ses analogues (14,15). Les PUD, en particulier ceux vivant avec de la DCNC, constituent donc une population très à risque de faire des surdoses. En effet, malgré sa forte prévalence, la DCNC chez les PUD fait l'objet de doutes, de préjugés et de stigmas tout en restant peu documentée, sous-diagnostiquée et sous-traitée (40-42,191). L'accès à une prise en charge appropriée de la douleur reste limité et la difficulté à se procurer des opioïdes d'ordonnance peut mener les PUD à utiliser des opioïdes illicites, augmentant ainsi le risque de surdose (40,43,192). Les méconnaissances, préjugés et la stigmatisation entourant les troubles liés à l'utilisation de substances n'aident pas la cause des PUD atteints de DCNC (40-42). Une meilleure compréhension de la douleur dans cette population pourrait favoriser une prise en charge optimale et prévenir le recours à des drogues et médicaments de rue. Dans l'étude pour une meilleure compréhension de la DCNC chez les PUD, nous avons émis l'hypothèse que la prévalence de ce type de problème serait élevée au sein de cette population et que la douleur serait causée ou exacerbée par les problèmes de santé comme les infections aux sites d'injection, les infections chroniques comme le virus de l'immunodéficience humaine (VIH) ou l'hépatite C de même que les injections répétées à un même site causant des lésions nerveuses (193-195). L'objectif de ce quatrième article était d'estimer la prévalence de la DCNC chez les PUD, d'identifier les facteurs associés et de documenter les stratégies utilisées pour soulager la douleur.

5.2. Article 4: Prevalence, characteristics, and management of chronic noncancer pain among people who use drugs: A cross-sectional study

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Prevalence, characteristics and management of chronic non-cancer

pain among people who use drugs: A cross-sectional study

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156

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Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Running title

Chronic pain among drug users

KEYWORDS

Chronic pain; Illicit drugs; Drug injectors; Opioids; Access to treatment; Prescription denials

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Most studies on chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) in people who use drugs (PWUD) are restricted to people attending substance use disorder treatment programs. This study assessed the prevalence of CNCP in a community-based sample of PWUD, identified factors associated with pain, and documented strategies used for pain relief.

Methods: This was a cross-sectional study nested in an ongoing cohort of PWUD in Montreal, Canada. Questionnaires were administered to PWUD seen between February 2017 and January 2018. CNCP was defined as pain lasting ≥ 3 months and not associated with cancer.

Results: A total of 417 PWUD were included (mean age=44.6 ±10.6 years, 84% men). The prevalence of CNCP was 44.8% and the median pain duration was 12 years (IQR=5-18). The presence of CNCP was associated with older age (>45 years old) (OR=1.8 [95% CI: 1.2-2.7]), male sex (OR=2.3 [95% CI: 1.2-4.2]), poor health condition (OR=1.9 [95% CI: 1.3-3.0]), moderate to severe psychological distress (OR=2.9 [95% CI: 1.8-4.7]) and less frequent cocaine use (OR=0.5 [95% CI: 0.3-0.9]). Among CNCP participants, 20.3% used pain medication from other people whereas 22.5% used alcohol, cannabis or illicit drugs to relieve pain. Among those who asked for pain medication (N=24), 29.2% faced a refusal from the doctor.

Conclusion: CNCP was common among PWUD and a good proportion of them used substances other than prescribed pain medication to relieve pain. Close collaboration of pain and addiction specialists as well as better pain assessment and access to non-pharmacological treatments could improve pain management in PWUD.

INTRODUCTION

Chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP), defined as intermittent or continuous pain that lasts 3 months or longer, is commonly associated with significant functional disability, emotional distress, and decreased quality of life (1,2). The associated direct and indirect costs are estimated to be between \$50 and 60 billion annually in Canada (3). CNCP affects more than 20% of the general population in developed countries (4–6). This prevalence has been shown to be higher among people who use drugs (PWUD), the estimations varying from 31% to 60% (7–10). However, most of these studies were focused on people receiving opioid-agonist treatment, who are at higher risk to develop hyperalgesia (11,12). In addition, people receiving opioid-agonist treatment are in contact with the healthcare services and could benefit from better pain management, which may not be the case for all PWUD. Thus, studies including PWUD in community settings could help to get a comprehensive overview of pain in this population.

Under-treatment of CNCP has led to an increase in opioid prescriptions over the last decades to relieve pain and improve patient's health-related quality of life (13,14). However, liberal opioid prescribing has in turn been associated with a rise in opioid use disorders and overdoses contributing to the opioid crisis (15,16). To deal with this crisis, guidelines were issued with the aim of reducing the inappropriate access to opioids (17,18). Inadvertently, these guidelines might also contribute to increased difficulties accessing optimal pain treatments among vulnerable populations such as PWUD (19–22). Previous studies reported that pain medication denials for PWUD were associated with increased illicit opioid use as alternatives to relieve pain (19–21,23,24) which was very risky. Thus, the strategies used by PWUD to relieve pain merit investigation to point out the barriers of access to pain medication and promote better pain management in this population.

Few quantitative studies have documented both characteristics of PWUD experiencing CNCP and their treatment access difficulties (19,20). Further research is clearly needed in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Thus, this study aimed to 1) assess the prevalence and characteristics of CNCP in a wide sample of PWUD recruited in various settings, 2) identify factors associated with the presence of CNCP, and 3) document access to pain treatments among PWUD.

METHOD

Study design and setting

This was a cross-sectional study nested in HEPCO cohort in Montreal, Canada. HEPCO is an ongoing community-based prospective cohort of PWUD recruited and followed in Montreal, Canada, as of November 2004. The primary aims for the HEPCO study were to investigate factors associated with incident HCV infection and the natural history of HCV infection following seroconversion while the secondary aim was to estimate HIV incidence rates. Briefly, HEPCO recruits participants through street-level strategies and community-program referrals. To be included in the HEPCO cohort, participants must report having injected drugs within the previous 6 months and be aged 18 years or older. Given that participants had enrolled in the HEPCO cohort at various times over the past years, their current injection status was heterogeneous (i.e. the sample comprised both drug injectors and non-injectors) at the time of our interview. More specifically, most participants (69.8%) had injected drugs in the past 6 months. The HEPCO recruitment and follow-up criteria have been previously published (25,26). An additional questionnaire was introduced in February 2017 to assess the presence and characteristics of CNCP (≥ 3 months) along with the strategies used to relieve pain. This questionnaire was administered to all HEPCO cohort participants between February 2017 and January 2018.

Participants signed an informed consent form in compliance with institutional review board regulations of the Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal and received a small stipend (Canadian \$20) at each visit.

Participants

Study participants were all active cohort participants who had at least one study visit between February 2017 and January 2018 and consented to take part in the study. Questionnaires were administered to all HEPCO cohort participants at each visit during the follow-up period but only data collected at the first visit were included in this study.

Measurements

Collected data comprised pain characteristics, socio-demographic information, substance use, health condition, and pain treatment strategies.

Pain characteristics

Presence of CNCP was defined as pain lasting for 3 months or longer (yes, no) (1,27) and was assessed using the question below:

Throughout our live, most of us have pain from time to time (headache, toothache). Except for these kinds of pain, are you currently experiencing chronic pain, that is to say that has been present for 3 months or more (e.g., persistent back pain, arthritis, etc.)?

PWUD who answered "Yes" to this question at their first interview were considered as chronic pain participants and the remaining pain questionnaire was subsequently administered. During data analysis, PWUD who reported that the origin of their pain was related to cancer were excluded and the remaining participants were considered as CNCP participants. For chronic pain participants, data about pain duration, frequency, location, intensity and interference on daily life activities were collected. Considering that some participants experienced several types of pain in different locations, interviewers had to specify with the sentence "Please answer the following questions taking into account only the painful location that interferes the most with your daily living" when asking questions about pain. Pain intensity and interference were assessed using the modified version of the Brief Pain Inventory (BPI) (28-30). The BPI has demonstrated both reliability and validity across cultures and languages, for clinical pain assessment and epidemiological studies (28–31). The Cronbach's alphas of BPI pain intensity and pain interference scales ranged from 0.82 to 0.95 (29). For pain intensity, participants rated their worst, least, average, and current pain intensity on a numerical rating scale (0 = no pain; 10 = the worst possiblepain) (28,29). For pain interference, participants rated the degree to which pain interfered with 10 domains of functioning on a scale from 0 (does not interfere) to 10 (completely interferes) (28,29). For each item of pain intensity and interference, scores were categorized as mild $(0 \le \text{score} < 4)$, moderate ($4 \le \text{score} < 7$) and severe ($7 \le \text{score} \le 10$) and the percentage of participants in each category was calculated.

Sociodemographic characteristics

Sociodemographic data included age, sex, education level (high school completed or not), and housing (unstable vs stable). As previously done (25), we defined unstable housing as living in apartments or hotels rented on a monthly basis, in shelters, or on the street as opposed to rentlease accommodations for several months.

Drug and substance use

Questions on drugs addressed the past month use of cocaine, opioids (heroin, non-medical use of prescription opioids including methadone and buprenorphine/naloxone), cannabis, amphetamines, tranquilizers, and psychedelic drugs. For each of these drugs, route, frequency and method of administration, were recorded. Past month binge drinking was also recorded. Binge drinking was defined as consuming 5 or more drinks in a row for men and 4 or more drinks for women per occasion within the past month (32–35). A drink was defined as a glass of wine, a bottle of beer, or a 1.5 ounce of distilled spirits. The frequency of binge drinking episodes was also recorded (35).

Health condition

Perceived health status was assessed using the Self-Rated Health Questionnaire (36–38) which consists of a single-item worded as follows "In general, would you say your health is" "excellent," "very good," "good," "fair," or "poor." (36). Self-rated health presents good validity and reliability for assessing the general health of an individual (37,38). Psychological distress was assessed using the valid and reliable Kessler Psychological Distress 10-item Scale (39–41) which consists of ten questions that assess anxiety and depressive symptoms. The final score ranges from 10 to 50 and can be categorized as moderate/severe (score ≥ 25) vs no/mild (score < 25) (41). Testing for HCV antibodies, HIV-1 antibodies, HIV-2 antibodies, and P24 antigen were performed using AxSYM (Abbott Laboratories, Chicago, IL, USA). Testing for HCV RNA was performed using COBAS AMPLICOR or COBAS AmpliPrep/COBAS TaqMan HCV Quantitative Test version 2.0 (Roche Diagnostics, Rotkreuz, Zug, Switzerland). Current enrolment in buprenorphine-or methadone- agonist treatment was recorded along with the number and reasons of emergency visits in the past 3 months.

Strategies used to relieve pain

Self-reported information on strategies used within the past 3 months to relieve pain included medical visits, use of opioid and non-opioid medications obtained through prescription, use of opioid and non-opioid medications obtained from other people, and use of alcohol, cannabis or illicit drugs. Self-reported data on non-medical use of opioid or non-opioid analgesics prescribed to the participant were also recorded. We defined non-medical use as medication taken in higher dose or more frequently than prescribed, medication taken by a different route than prescribed or medication taken for reason(s) other than pain.

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to portray the participants' characteristics. Univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses were performed to identify factors associated with the presence of CNCP. Relevant variables were identified from existing scientific literature and/or according to clinical relevance. Univariable analysis was conducted to study to association between each independent variable and the presence of CNCP. All variables screened in univariable analysis were then included in multivariable analysis. To build a parsimonious model, backward selection was used to eliminate variables that were non-significant at the threshold of p<0.05. A variable was maintained in the model as confounder if its removal resulted in a variation of more than 20% in the coefficients of the remaining variables. Age and sex were maintained in the final model as forced variables. Odds ratios and their 95% confidence intervals are reported. Analyses were performed using Stata 15.1 for Windows, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA.

RESULTS

Participants' characteristics

As shown in **Figure 16**, 419 participants in the HEPCO Cohort completed the pain questionnaire but two were excluded because they reported cancer-related pain. The median duration of follow-up was 5 years (interquartile range: 3-6 years) at the time of the interview. The participants' characteristics are presented in **Table XI**. Their mean age and standard deviation (SD) were 44.6 ± 10.6 years, 84.6 % were male, and 60.0% completed at least high school. The mean age of first drug injection was 25.1 ± 8.7 years. Among included participants, 57.1% had injected drug at least once in the past month. The most used drugs were cocaine (53.0%), cannabis (52.5%), and opioids (39.8%).

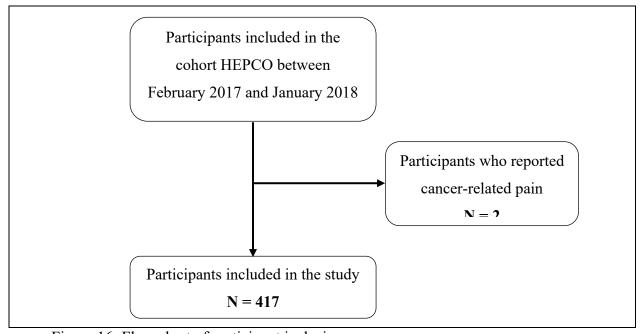


Figure 16. Flow chart of participant inclusion

Tableau XI. Characteristics of PWUD and distribution according to the presence/absence of CNCP

| Variable | All PWUD | CNCP | |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | Yes | No |
| | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) |
| N | 417 (100) | 187 (44.8) | 230 (55.2) |
| Sociodemographic characteristics | | | |
| Age | | | |
| Mean ± SD | 44.6 ± 10.6 | 46.4 ± 10.0 | 43.1 ± 10.8 |
| Age of first drug injection | | | |
| Mean ± SD | 25.1 ±8.7 | 24.6 ±8.0 | 25.6 ±9.2 |
| Male | 351 (84.2) | 164 (87.7) | 187 (81.3) |
| Education level (≥ high school) | 250 (60.0) | 110 (58.8) | 140 (60.9) |
| Unstable housing ¹ | 111 (26.6) | 48 (25.7) | 63 (27.4) |
| Drug and substance use in the past month | | | |
| Alcohol (binge drinking) | 142 (34.1) | 71 (38.0) | 71 (30.9) |
| Cocaine | 221 (53.0) | 86 (46.0) | 135 (58.7) |
| Opioids ² | 166 (39.8) | 66 (35.3) | 100 (43.5) |
| Amphetamines | 89 (21.3) | 44 (23.5) | 45 (19.6) |
| Tranquillizers | 39 (9.4) | 22 (11.8) | 17 (7.4) |
| Psychedelic drugs | 16 (3.8) | 7 (3.7) | 9 (3.9) |
| Cannabis | 219 (52.5) | 99 (52.9) | 120 (52.2) |
| Multiple drug use ³ | 112 (26.9) | 61 (26.5) | 51 (27.3) |
| Daily drug use | 165 (39.6) | 78 (47.3) | 87 (37.8) |
| Drug injection in the past month | 238 (57.1) | 97 (51.9) | 141 (61.3) |
| Health condition | | | |
| Health status (poor/fair) | 135 (32.4) | 75 (40.1) | 60 (26.1) |
| Psychological distress (moderate to severe) | 124 (29.7) | 73 (39.0) | 51 (22.2) |
| Emergency visit in the past 3 months | 88 (21.1) | 45 (19.6) | 43 (23.0) |
| Emergency visit for overdose in the past 3 months | 18 (4.3) | 11 (5.9) | 7 (3.0) |
| Currently enrolled in methadone/buprenorphine agonist treatment program | 176 (42.2) | 83 (44.4) | 93 (40.4) |
| HIV antibody positive test | 29 (7.0) | 13 (7.0) | 16 (7.0) |
| HCV RNA positive test | 94 (22.6) | 42 (22.6) | 52 (22.6) |

Abbreviations: PWUD: People who use drugs; CNCP: Chronic non-cancer pain; HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus; HCV RNA: Hepatitis C Virus Ribonucleic Acid.

Prevalence of CNCP and pain characteristics

Among the 417 included participants, 187 (44.8%) reported the presence of CNCP. For these 187 CNCP participants, the median pain duration was 12 years (interquartile range: 5-18) and pain was described as continuous by 80% of CNCP participants. About 80% reported an average pain intensity ranging from moderate to severe (score $\geq 4/10$) and 79% rated the worst pain they experienced in the past month in severe range (score $\geq 7/10$) (**Figure 17.a**). Almost 2/3 reported significant pain interference (score $\geq 4/10$) on general activities, mood, walking ability, work, and sleep. Overall, 50% of CNCP participants reported moderate to severe pain interference on various aspects of daily living as suggested by their mean score on the 10 interference items of the BPI. (**Figure 17.b**).

¹ Unstable housing was defined as living in apartments or hotels rented on a monthly basis, in shelters, or on the street as opposed to rent-lease accommodations for several months.

² Opioids included heroin and non-medical use of prescription opioids. Prescription opioids comprised all opioid analgesics such as codeine, fentanyl, hydromorphone, hydrocodone, morphine, oxycodone, tapentadol, tramadol and included methadone and buprenorphine/naloxone.

³ Multiple drug use means at least 3 different drugs used in the past month among cocaine, opioids, amphetamines, tranquilizers, psychedelics and cannabis

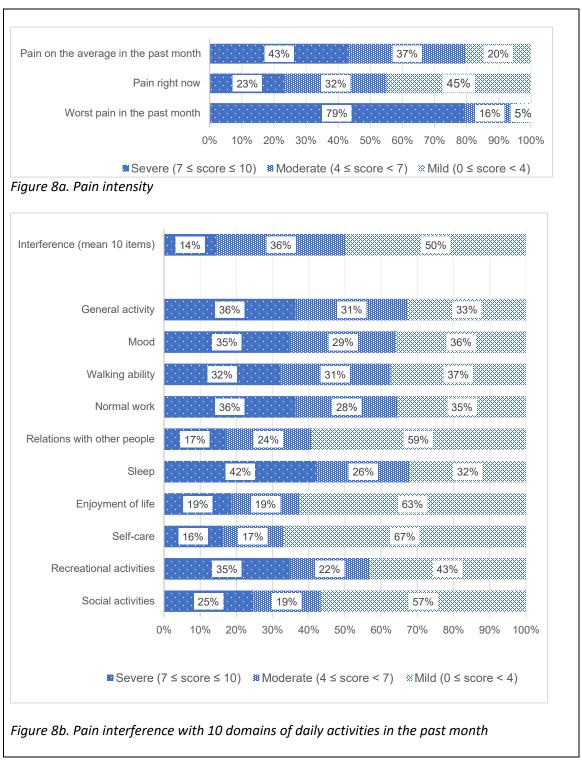


Figure 17. Pain intensity and pain interference scores among people who use drugs and experienced chronic non-cancer pain (N=187).

Note: For each item of pain intensity and interference, scores were categorized as mild $(0 \le score < 4)$, moderate $(4 \le score < 7)$ and severe $(7 \le score \le 10)$ and the percentage of participants in each category was calculated.

Primary pain location was as follows: hip and lower limbs (36.4%), low, middle and upper back (32.1%), shoulder and upper limbs (13.4%), and other regions (chest, abdomen, head, jaw and neck) (18.2%).

Factors associated with CNCP

Results of the logistic multivariable analysis revealed that older age (age > 45 years) was positively associated with the presence of CNCP (OR = 1.8 (95% CI: 1.2 - 2.7)), as were male sex (OR = 2.3 (95% CI: 1.2 - 4.2)), poor/fair perceived health condition (OR = 1.9 (95% CI: 1.2 - 3.0)), and moderate to severe psychological distress (OR = 2.9 (95% CI: 1.8 - 4.7)). Drug injection was not statistically associated with the presence of pain. However, CNCP participants were less likely to report use of cocaine (OR = 0.5 (95% CI: 0.3 - 0.8))). **Table XII.**

Tableau XII. Results of the univariable and multivariable logistic regression analyses to identify factors associated with the presence of CNCP among PWUD (N=417)

| Variable | Logistic univaria | Logistic univariable analysis | | multivariable |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| | OR (95% CI) | P-value | analysis OR (95% CI) | P-value |
| Sociodemographic characteristics | | | | |
| Age | | | | |
| ≤ 45 years | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| > 45 years (median) | 1.7 (1.1 – 2.5) | 0.009 | 1.8 (1.2 – 2.7) | 0.006 |
| Age of first drug injection | | | | |
| ≤23 years | Ref. | | | |
| > 23 years (median) | 0.9 (0.6 – 1.3) | 0.506 | | |
| Sex | | | | |
| Female | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Male | 1.6 (0.9 – 2.8) | 0.077 | 2.3 (1.2 – 4.2) | 0.008 |
| Education level | | | | |
| < High school | Ref. | | | |
| ≥ High school | 0.9 (0.6 – 1.4) | 0.672 | | |
| Housing ¹ | | | | |
| Stable | Ref. | | | |
| Unstable | 0.9 (0.6 – 1.4) | 0.746 | | |
| Drug and substance use in the past | t month | | | |
| Alcohol (binge drinking) | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.4(0.9-2.1) | 0.129 | | |
| Cocaine | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Yes | 0.6(0.4-0.9) | 0.010 | 0.5(0.3-0.8) | 0.002 |
| Opioids ² | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 0.7(0.5-1.1) | 0.090 | | |
| Amphetamines | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.3 (0.8 – 2.0) | 0.326 | | |
| Tranquillizers | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.7 (0.9 – 3.2) | 0.130 | | |
| | 160 | | | |

| Variable | Logistic univariable analysis | | Logistic analysis | multivariable |
|--|-------------------------------|---------|-------------------|---------------|
| | OR (95% CI) | P-value | OR (95% CI) | P-value |
| Psychedelic drugs | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.0 (0.3 – 2.6) | 0.929 | | |
| Cannabis | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.0(0.7-1.5) | 0.876 | | |
| Multiple drug use ³ | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.0 (0.7 – 1.6) | 0.863 | | |
| Every day drug use | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.2 (0.8 – 1.7) | 0.420 | | |
| Drug injection in the past month | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 0.7(0.5-1.0) | 0.053 | | |
| Health condition | | | | |
| Health status | | | | |
| Good/Excellent | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Fair/Poor | 1.9 (1.3 – 2.9) | 0.002 | 1.9 (1.2 – 3.0) | 0.003 |
| Psychological distress | | | | |
| No/mild | Ref. | | Ref. | |
| Moderate/severe | 2.2 (1.5 – 3.4) | < 0.001 | 2.9 (1.8 – 4.7) | < 0.001 |
| Emergency visit in the past 3 months | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.2 (0.8 – 2.0) | 0.394 | | |
| Emergency visit for overdose in the past 3 months | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 2.0(0.8-5.2) | 0.163 | | |
| Currently enrolled in methadone or buprenorphine program | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | |
| Yes | 1.2 (0.8 – 1.7) | 0.417 | | |
| Positive HIV antibody test | | | | |

| Variable | Logistic univaria | Logistic univariable analysis | | multivariable | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|---------------|--|
| | OR (95% CI) | P-value | OR (95% CI) | P-value | |
| No | Ref. | | | | |
| Yes | 1.0(0.5-2.1) | 0.999 | | | |
| Positive HCV RNA test | | | | | |
| No | Ref. | | | | |
| Yes | 1.0 (0.6 – 1.6) | 0.995 | | | |

Abbreviations: PWUD: People who use drugs; CNCP: Chronic non-cancer pain; HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus; HCV RNA: Hepatitis C Virus Ribonucleic Acid.

Access to pain medication

About one PWUD out of three experiencing CNCP (32.6%) had already been prescribed analgesics to relieve pain, of whom only 13.9% used opioid analgesics. About one-fifth (20.3%) used pain medication from other people and 22.5% used alcohol, cannabis or illicit drugs to relieve their pain. Non-medical use of prescription medication was reported by 17.7% of PWUD experiencing CNCP.

In the past 3 months, 39 participants with CNCP (20.9%) met with a physician because of their pain. Among them, 24 (61.5%) asked for pain medication and 29.2% (7/24) were denied a prescription. Among those who were denied prescriptions, 71.4% (N = 5) used pain medication from other people or alcohol, cannabis and illicit drugs to relieve their pain (p = 0.023). **Table XIII.**

¹ Unstable housing was defined as living in apartments or hotels rented on a monthly basis, in shelters, or on the street as opposed to rent-lease accommodations for several months.

² Opioids included heroin and non-medical use of prescription opioids. Prescription opioids comprised all opioid analgesics such as codeine, fentanyl, hydromorphone, hydrocodone, morphine, oxycodone, tapentadol, tramadol and included methadone and buprenorphine/naloxone.

³ Multiple drug use means at least 3 different drugs used in the past month among cocaine, opioids, amphetamines, tranquilizers, psychedelics and cannabis

Tableau XIII. Pain management strategies of PWUD experiencing CNCP (N = 187)

| Variable | Frequency (%) |
|---|-----------------------|
| N | 187 (100) |
| Medical visit in the past 3 months because of pain | 39 (20.9) |
| • | |
| Patients who asked for prescription of pain medication | 24 (61.5)1 |
| Patients denied from prescription of any pain medication | 7 (29.2) ² |
| Use of prescribed pain medication to relieve pain | 61 (32.6) |
| Use of opioid medications | 26 (13.9) |
| Use of non-opioid medications | 47 (25.1) |
| Use of medication from other people or illicit substance to relieve pain | 60 (32.1) |
| Use of pain medications from other people | 38 (20.3) |
| Use of opioid medications | 27 (14.4) |
| Use of non-opioid medications | 13 (7.0) |
| Use of alcohol, cannabis, or illicit drug to relieve pain | 42 (22.5) |
| Non-medical use of prescription medication | 33 (17.7) |
| Pain medication taken in higher dose or more frequently than prescribed | 17 (9.1) |
| Pain medication taken in different route than prescribed | 8 (4.3) |
| Pain medication taken for other reason than pain | 17 (9.1) |

Abbreviations: PWUD: People who use drugs; CNCP: Chronic non-cancer pain.

¹ Percentage calculated with the number of patients who visited a physician in the past 3 months as denominator (24/39)

² Percentage calculated with the number of patients who asked for pain medication prescription as denominator (7/24)

DISCUSSION

This study contributes to advance knowledge about prevalence and characteristics of CNCP among PWUD and documents strategies they used to relieve pain. This was done by studying people who were recruited in community-based settings, regardless of their enrollment in a substance use disorder treatment program. The results show that despite a high prevalence of CNCP, the access to pain management is sub-optimal for a significant portion of PWUD who use a variety of means to relieve their pain, including substances and illicit drugs.

This study revealed that the prevalence of CNCP among PWUD (45%) was twice as high as in the Canadian general population (20%) (4–6), a result which is consistent with previous research (7–10). This high rate of CNCP is likely due to the increased prevalence of injury and trauma in this population (42,43) or harsh living conditions such as homelessness. The presence of CNCP was associated with psychological distress and poor health condition as reported in previous studies (44,45). However, pain was not associated with an increased use of illicit drugs. Indeed, CNCP participants did not report more frequent illicit drug use and injection drug use compared to their counterparts without CNCP. Rather, CNCP participants were less likely to report cocaine use in the past month which is in line with a meta-analysis that found reduced use of illicit non-opioid drugs in the presence of pain (44). The reduced use of non-opioid illicit drugs could result from distancing from drug-taking environments due to pain or awareness about worsening health-related quality of life (21). Further studies are needed to confirm these findings and to better understand the interrelations between drug use and pain.

Despite a high prevalence, CNCP among PWUD is often underestimated and undertreated due to physicians' doubts about the effective presence of pain and stigma that may limit access to adequate pain management [19–22]. These barriers of access to pain management may lead to increased used of illicit opioids among PWUD [24,44]. In the present study 29% of participants who recently asked for analgesic prescription in the past 3 months were denied by the physician. A previous study reported a similar rate (22.7%) (19). Analgesic prescription denials, however, have been reported in up to 66.5% of individuals in another study (20). Differences in study methodology (e.g., survey timeframe) could partly explain these differences. These rates of prescription denials could be exacerbated given the increasing attention to the opioid crisis. Our

study did not specify whether participants requested prescriptions for opioids but given that nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and paracetamol are available without a prescription, the prescription denials are likely to be for opioids. Several reasons could explain these prescription denials such as non-necessity or ineffectiveness for the type of pain, adverse effects, contraindications or drug interactions. Our study did not provide reasons for prescription denials, but a previous study reported that the most common reason was being accused of drugseeking by the doctor [20]. Other authors also reported that having been denied prescription is a predictor of self-management of pain using prescription opioids obtained on the street or using heroin [46,47]. In this study, a statistically significant proportion of patients who were denied analgesic prescriptions have used medication from other people, alcohol, cannabis or illicit drugs to relieve their pain. Previous studies reported rates of self-management of pain with heroin (33%) to 53%) or prescription pain medication from the street (40% to 65%) when doctors refused to prescribe pain medications (20,46). Better pain management could prevent from using illicit drugs or non-prescribed opioids to relieve pain. Overall, one-third of our participants used prescription medications from other people or substances to relieve their pain. In the context of the opioid crisis and the presence of illicit fentanyl on the street, this type of self-management is very risky (47,48). Pain management among PWUD clearly needs to be improved. A better balance of guidelines between prescribing and proscribing opioids, a reinforced collaboration between pain and addiction specialists, and a better integration of non-pharmacological treatments could be avenues for improving pain management among PWUD. Qualitative research involving treatment providers is also needed to better understand their concerns, biases, and approaches to pain management for PWUD.

Strengths and limitations

This study has some limitations. First, the enrollment in the cohort was voluntary which may introduce selection bias. Moreover, participants had enrolled in the HEPCO cohort at various times over the past years and thus their current injection status was heterogeneous at the time of our interview. However, PWUD with different patterns of drug use were included in the study allowing a comprehensive understanding of CNCP among PWUD. In addition, data collection was also based on self-report and recall bias cannot be excluded. The cross-sectional model did not allow deriving causal relationships between identified factors and the presence of pain. Finally,

confounding bias cannot be excluded and may affect the relationships between the presence of pain and the examined factors. However, our findings are consistent with the literature suggesting that despite the limitations, the study provides a better understanding of CNCP in PWUD and their problems of access to treatment. Nonetheless, sex difference in chronic pain and relationships between chronic pain and drug use merit further investigation for better understanding.

CONCLUSION

Despite a high prevalence of CNCP in PWUD, a significant portion used medications from other people or illicit drugs to relieve pain, which suggests sub-optimal pain management. Treatment of CNCP among PWUD remains a challenging problem due to concerns related to overdose risks. Better training of physicians, close collaboration between pain and addiction specialists, and better access to non-pharmacological treatment are needed to improve pain management in PWUD experiencing CNCP.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

No conflict declared.

CONTRIBUTORS

Manon Choinière, M. Gabrielle Pagé and Élise Roy developed the concept, devised the study and revised the manuscript. Jean-Luc Kaboré performed statistical analysis and wrote the original draft. Lise Dassieu participated in data analysis and manuscript revisions. Didier Jutras-Aswad and Julie Bruneau were involved in funding acquisition and manuscript revisions. All authors have approved the final content of the manuscript and agree with its submission to Pain Medicine.

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CHAPITRE 6. DISCUSSION GÉNÉRALE

6.1. Contributions à l'avancée des connaissances

Cette thèse avait pour objectifs de caractériser les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC qui sont susceptibles de bénéficier d'une administration efficace et sécuritaire d'opioïdes à long terme et de mieux documenter les caractéristiques et corrélats de la douleur chez les PUD, dans la perspective d'améliorer leur condition clinique et leur qualité de vie reliée à la santé. Les recherches menées dans le cadre de cette thèse de doctorat montrent qu'il est difficile de prédire l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes, mais que l'on peut tout de même identifier les personnes susceptibles de développer une utilisation problématique. Il est donc possible d'optimiser les prescriptions d'opioïdes en ciblant les personnes les moins à risque d'utilisation problématique. Le risque de développer une utilisation problématique d'opioïde demeure faible dans population générale vivant avec la DCNC et la caractérisation des personnes à risque permet de mieux cibler les personnes pour qui les opioïdes seront sécuritaires. Il est donc possible de continuer à proposer les opioïdes aux personnes dont la douleur n'est pas suffisamment soulagée malgré un traitement non-opioïde optimisé, sans contribuer à alimenter la crise des opioïdes. Par ailleurs, le risque d'utilisation problématique ne doit pas être un frein à la prise en charge adéquate de la DCNC car cela pourrait mener les personnes dont la douleur n'est pas suffisamment soulagée à chercher des alternatives qui pourraient ne pas être sécuritaires. C'est le cas des PUD qui malgré le risque élevé de développer une utilisation problématique, demeure une population dont la prévalence élevée de DCNC plaide pour une amélioration de l'accès aux traitements.

Les opioïdes demeurent des analgésiques puissants et efficaces permettant de soulager la douleur chez certaines personnes et d'améliorer la qualité de vie. Cependant comme le démontre la crise des opioïdes qui sévit actuellement aux États-Unis et au Canada et qui s'est accentuée avec la pandémie de COVID-19 (45–47), ces médicaments ne doivent pas être largement prescrits de façon indifférenciée. C'est ainsi que des guides de prescriptions (19,20) et des mesures parfois coercitives ont été mis en place pour réduire les prescriptions d'opioïdes. Cependant, ces mesures ont aussi mené à des réductions forcées de doses, à des refus de prescrire des opioïdes et à des arrêts de prescriptions (26) pouvant mener à une exacerbation des douleurs et empêcher la personne de fonctionner au quotidien (28,29). Il faut donc un équilibre entre prescrire et proscrire les

opioïdes. En effet, bien que les études montrent que dans bien des cas, ces médicaments ne sont pas plus efficaces que les non-opioïdes pour la DCNC (11,12,101), ils demeurent des options thérapeutiques lorsque les traitements non-opioïdes ne parviennent pas à soulager la douleur et améliorer la qualité de vie. Identifier les personnes pour qui les opioïdes sont efficaces et sécuritaires permettrait d'éviter d'exposer certaines personnes à des médicaments qui ne vont pas soulager leur douleur et/ou qui vont engendrer des effets indésirables pouvant dégrader leur qualité de vie.

6.1.1. Personnes susceptibles de bénéficier à long terme des opioïdes

Nos travaux n'ont pas réussi à identifier les caractéristiques des personnes les plus susceptibles de bénéficier d'une administration prolongée d'opioïdes pour contrer la DCNC.

Cependant, à l'instar de notre étude, aucune étude observationnelle n'a réussi à bien caractériser les personnes chez qui un traitement prolongé à base d'opioïdes serait bénéfique. La difficulté à prédire l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes dans la DCNC pourrait s'expliquer par le caractère dynamique et multifactoriel de la douleur. En effet, comme stipulé dans le modèle biopsychosocial, la douleur tout comme l'efficacité de son traitement résultent d'interactions complexes entre des facteurs biologiques, psychologiques et sociaux qui évoluent au fil du temps (74). Les personnes en soins tertiaires utilisent plusieurs traitements en combinaison avec les opioïdes, ce qui rend difficile d'isoler et d'évaluer l'effet de ces médicaments sur la DCNC. De plus, la tolérance et l'hyperalgésie qui peuvent survenir avec l'utilisation prolongée d'opioïdes et compromettre l'efficacité du traitement (30,32,33), peuvent rendre difficile l'identification de prédicteurs. Cela pourrait résulter aussi du fait qu'aucun des facteurs testés dans notre étude ne prédit l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes. Devant ces difficultés à dresser le profil des personnes pouvant bénéficier d'une administration prolongée d'opioïdes, certaines études ont exploré l'utilisation de moyens expérimentaux (107,196,197) tels que des tests sensoriels quantitatifs et la dilatation pupillaire. Cependant, les résultats sont plus ou moins concluants et ils doivent être confirmés (107,196,197). Ces méthodes expérimentales pourraient cependant être coûteuses et difficiles à implanter à large échelle dans la pratique clinique quotidienne. Malgré la difficulté à déterminer à l'initiation du traitement quels patients seront soulagés à long terme par les opioïdes, ce type de médicament peut être proposé lorsque les traitements non-opioïdes n'ont pas réussi à soulager adéquatement la douleur, selon le profil de risque de troubles d'utilisation de substances, et en fonction des objectifs thérapeutiques. Cette initiation de traitement opioïde devra suivre les bonnes pratiques quant à l'ajustement de la dose d'opioïde et à l'évaluation de la réponse au traitement ainsi qu'à l'arrêt de la prescription lorsque les opioïdes ne procurent pas un soulagement adéquat de la douleur ou une amélioration significative de la fonction (20). Par ailleurs, les objectifs du traitement opioïde et le plan à mettre en place pour atteindre ces objectifs doivent être établis dans une collaboration entre le médecin et le patient (shared-decision making). Les avantages et les risques associés au traitement doivent être discutés. De même, les conditions de renouvellement des ordonnances ainsi que les conditions de l'arrêt du traitement doivent être établies, comprises et acceptées par le patient. Un suivi et une réévaluation régulière du rapport bénéfice/risque doivent accompagner le traitement opioïde (19,20). Outre prédire l'efficacité du traitement à long terme, il est primordial d'identifier les facteurs associés à la survenue d'utilisation problématique pour éviter de prescrire des médicaments qui pourraient causer préjudice à certaines personnes. Pour estimer et caractériser l'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes, le nomadisme médical a été utilisé comme indicateur.

6.1.2. Nomadisme médical et opioïdes

Deux études complémentaires ont été menées (articles 2 et 3). Il en ressort que ce type de comportement est un phénomène rare chez les utilisateurs d'opioïdes à long terme avec une incidence de 8 %. Ce comportement est encore plus rare chez les personnes suivies dans des cliniques de douleur (prévalence de 0,7 %) ce qui n'a pas permis d'étudier son association avec certaines caractéristiques de la douleur; une telle étude aurait permis d'infirmer ou de confirmer que le nomadisme médical peut être pratiqué pour une douleur insuffisamment soulagée. Ces résultats concordent avec ceux de précédentes études qui ont rapporté des taux de nomadisme médical variant de 1 à 4 % (Tableau XIV) (122,124,129,130). Plus généralement, un faible pourcentage de personnes obtient les opioïdes par voie de prescription pour un usage non-médical (198–200). Une revue systématique a montré que les médicaments obtenus pour usage non-médical proviennent principalement des amis et de la famille (57 %) tandis que des pratiques telles que le nomadisme médical sont rares et représentent environ 7 % (198). L'approvisionnement par l'intermédiaire de revendeurs est également fréquent (32%) surtout chez les PUD (47 %) (198). Le marché noir, les vols, les sources illicites et internet demeurent également des voies utilisées pour obtenir des opioïdes de prescription pour un usage non-médical (198–200). Cette variété des

sources d'obtention des opioïdes peut expliquer l'impact parfois limité des programmes de surveillance des prescriptions dans la réduction des surdoses causées par les opioïdes (201). Contrôler les prescriptions n'est pas toujours suffisant, il faut aussi identifier les personnes qui sont les plus à risque pour mieux les accompagner et les orienter vers les services spécialisés dès que les problèmes d'utilisation problématique apparaissent.

Le nomadisme médical peut par ailleurs être pratiqué pour des raisons légitimes comme le fait de préférer une pharmacie à une autre, un médecin par rapport à un autre, la disponibilité du médecin ou du pharmacien, ou encore pour une douleur non suffisamment soulagée (23,24,124,189). Il peut aussi traduire une situation d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes dans laquelle la personne cherche à obtenir de grandes quantités d'opioïdes pour une utilisation nonmédicale. La définition utilisée dans la présente thèse prend en compte non seulement le chevauchement d'ordonnances, mais aussi nombre de médecins et de pharmacies (122,127), une définition conservatrice qui traduit une utilisation problématique. Cette définition utilisée dans plusieurs études (122,125,127,129,131,132,202) est associée à la présence de diagnostic de troubles d'utilisation d'opioïde comme l'a démontré Cepeda et al. (127). Outre, le fait d'être un proxy pour l'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes, le nomadisme médical traduit une discontinuité des soins ne permettant pas le suivi et la réévaluation du bénéfice/risque du traitement opioïde. Cette difficulté de suivi de l'utilisateur d'opioïdes peut l'exposer à des interactions médicamenteuses graves. Il a d'ailleurs été rapporté que le risque d'admission à l'hôpital pour des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes augmentait avec le nombre de prescripteurs (203). C'est donc un indicateur pertinent qui permet de déceler les personnes qui ont une utilisation problématique d'opioïdes qu'ils ont obtenus à travers de nombreuses prescriptions.

Tableau XIV. Incidence et prévalence du nomadisme médical pour l'obtention des médicaments opioïdes selon les études

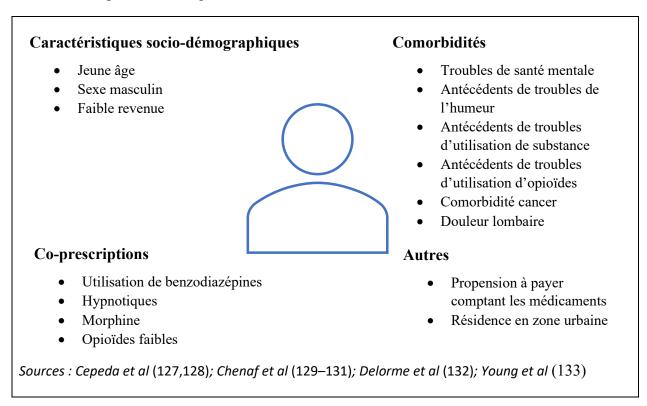
| Étude / Pays | Définition | Critère d'inclusion | Prévalence / Incidence |
|---|---|--|--|
| Cepeda MS (122,125,126) 2012, 2013 États-Unis | ≥1 jour de chevauchement d'ordonnances prescrites par ≥ 2 médecins différents et délivrés dans ≥ 3 pharmacies différentes | Au moins une prescription d'opioïde | 0,2 % à 0,8 % |
| Chenaf C (129,130) 2016 France | ≥1 jour de chevauchement d'ordonnances prescrites par ≥ 2 médecins différents et délivrés dans ≥ 3 pharmacies différentes | Au moins 6 mois de prescription continue d'opioïdes | 1,0 % à 4,0 % |
| Chua KP (204) 2019 États-Unis | ≥ 4 prescripteurs et ≥ 4 pharmacies | Au moins une prescription d'opioïde | 0,6 % |
| Delcher (124) 2021 États-Unis | ≥ 5 prescripteurs et ≥ 5 pharmacies en 90 jours | Au moins une prescription d'opioïde | 0,01 % |
| Esposito (23) | Faible nomadisme médical : 2 prescripteurs et >2 pharmacies ou 3 or 4 prescripteurs et 2 pharmacies Nomadisme médical modéré : 3 or 4 prescripteurs et >2 pharmacies ou >4 prescripteurs et 2 pharmacies Nomadisme médical sévère : >4 prescripteurs et >2 pharmacies | Au moins 2 dispensations de médicaments opioïdes en 18 mois. | Faible: 11 % Modéré: 8 % Sévère: 3 % |
| Schneberk T et al. (123) | ≥ 6 prescripteurs en 6 mois. | Au moins une prescription d'opioïde | 1,3 % |
| Young SG (133) 2019 États-Unis | ≥ 4 prescripteurs et ≥ 4 pharmacies en 90 jours | Au moins une prescription d'opioïde | 0,4 % |

S'il n'a pas été possible d'identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes, il a néanmoins été possible de caractériser les personnes atteintes de DCNC qui sont à risque de faire du nomadisme médical pour obtenir des opioïdes. L'identification de ces personnes permet au clinicien de mieux évaluer le rapport bénéfice/risque à l'initiation du traitement opioïde. Il ressort de notre étude que les personnes qui s'adonnent à cette pratique sont plus jeunes, de sexe masculin, avec des antécédents d'anxiété et un historique de troubles d'utilisation de substances.

Le Tableau XIV montre que ces facteurs sont similaires à ceux identifiés dans les précédentes études sur le nomadisme médical et complètent une liste d'autres facteurs comme l'utilisation de médicaments psychotropes ainsi qu'un faible revenu (22,125,127,129–132). Il a aussi été rapporté que le nomadisme médical est plus fréquent dans les zones urbaines comparées aux zones rurales (133) et que certaines personnes peuvent parcourir de longues distances pour se procurer leurs médicaments (120). Il a aussi été rapporté que parmi les personnes qui pratiquent le nomadisme médical, certaines sont plus enclines à payer de leur poche (120).

Par ailleurs les facteurs associés au nomadisme médical se comparent à ceux couramment identifiés chez les personnes avec des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes (20,205), renforçant ainsi l'hypothèse que le nomadisme médical peut être un proxy d'une utilisation problématique d'opioïdes. De telles données peuvent aider à mieux suivre les personnes les plus à risque de s'adonner au nomadisme médical et permettre ainsi de prévenir des surdoses; car, bien que le phénomène soit marginal, il a été démontré qu'il est associé à la survenue de surdoses d'opioïde (134,135). Les facteurs communément associés à la survenue du nomadisme médical sont aussi des facteurs qui sont associés à la survenue de surdoses d'opioïdes. En effet, différentes études rapportent que le jeune âge, le sexe masculin, les antécédents de troubles d'utilisation de substance et la présence de troubles mentaux sont des facteurs associés à la survenue de surdoses d'opioïdes (206–208). Au Canada, la plupart des décès liés à une intoxication aux opioïdes surviennent parmi les hommes et les individus âgés entre 20 et 49 ans et impliquent le fentanyl illicite (18). Les surdoses d'opioïdes peuvent aussi résulter de l'usage concomitant d'autres substances comme les benzodiazépines, la prégabaline ou l'alcool impliqués dans une grande proportion des surdoses (209–213). Il est donc important d'examiner les co-prescriptions médicamenteuses afin de prévenir les interactions médicamenteuses pouvant conduire à des surdoses. Par ailleurs, l'utilisation de drogues injectables et la polyconsommation de substances psychotropes sont des facteurs de risque de survenue de surdose (214) d'où la nécessité de mieux accompagner les personnes utilisatrices de drogues.

Tableau XV. Caractéristiques des personnes qui pratiquent le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes telles qu'identifiées dans les études antérieures



En somme, ces études ont permis de brosser le profil des personnes à risque d'utilisation problématique d'opioïdes. Cependant l'identification des caractéristiques associées à une thérapie opioïde sécuritaire ne dispense pas d'un suivi régulier pour évaluer l'efficacité du traitement et détecter des signes d'utilisation problématique. Il faut aussi rappeler que le traitement de la DCNC n'est pas que pharmacologique et qu'une combinaison d'une thérapie opioïde avec des traitements non-pharmacologiques (psychologie, physiothérapie, acupuncture, ergothérapie, etc.) et de techniques d'autogestion peut améliorer significativement la condition des personnes vivant avec la DCNC (5,6). Une telle association de modalités thérapeutiques peut également permettre de diminuer les doses d'opioïdes et par conséquent de réduire le risque de survenue d'effets adverses.

6.1.3. Douleur chez les utilisateurs de drogues

Le risque de survenue d'une utilisation problématique est à considérer au moment de prescrire des opioïdes, mais la nécessité de soulager adéquatement la douleur doit aussi être prise en compte. C'est le cas complexe des PUD vivant avec de la DCNC. La plupart des études portant sur la DCNC chez les PUD ont été réalisées chez des personnes sous traitement par agonistes

opioïdes (Tableau XVI). Notre étude apporte donc une vision plus globale en incluant une population plus large et variée d'utilisateurs de drogues. Il ressort que la prévalence de la DCNC est beaucoup plus élevée chez les PUD que dans la population générale tel que rapportée dans des études antérieures (60,62–73)(Tableau XVI).

La présence de la DCNC chez les UDI est associée à plusieurs facteurs comme l'âge avancé et certaines conditions de vie comme l'itinérance (60,62,63,70,73). Elle s'accompagne également de détresse psychologique, d'anxiété et de dépression (60,63,71,73). Cependant les habitudes de consommation de drogues comme le type de drogue et les voies d'administration n'apparaissent pas comme facteurs associés à la présence de la douleur.

Malgré sa forte prévalence, la douleur chez les PUD fait l'objet de préjugés et de stigmatisation qui ne favorisent pas une prise en charge optimale (41,42). Une meilleure compréhension des problèmes de douleur et de son articulation avec la consommation de drogues pourrait permettre de déconstruire certains préjugés et favoriser une meilleure prise en charge.

Le traitement de la DCNC chez les PUD est complexe, car il faut soulager la douleur sans accentuer une consommation problématique de médicaments et de drogues. Cette complexité est accentuée par la crise des opioïdes et la nécessité de ne pas contribuer à l'augmentation des surdoses d'opioïdes, ce qui pourrait exacerber les barrières d'accès au traitement pour cette population. Cependant, comme stipulé dans la Déclaration de Montréal, le soulagement de la douleur est un droit humain fondamental et toutes les ressources thérapeutiques disponibles devraient être mises à contribution pour soulager adéquatement la douleur (8). Il peut donc s'avérer nécessaire de prescrire des opioïdes chez des personnes qui vivent avec de la DCNC malgré le risque de troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes et l'absence d'assurance de leur efficacité à long terme. Cette situation est illustrée chez les PUD atteints de DCNC, une population à risque élevé de développer des troubles d'utilisation d'opioïdes si ce n'est pas déjà le cas. Malgré ce risque, en cas de douleur non suffisamment soulagée par les médicaments non-opioïdes, les opioïdes peuvent être prescrits avec un suivi et une évaluation régulière de l'efficacité et de l'innocuité du traitement. La prescription doit donc prendre en compte non seulement les risques encourus, mais aussi les bénéfices attendus.

Tableau XVI. Prévalence de la DCNC chez les utilisateurs de drogues

| Étude | Population | Prévalence |
|-------------------------------------|---|------------|
| | | |
| Bicket et al. (2020) (62) | Utilisateurs de drogues par injection | 47% |
| Heimer et al. (2015) (60) | Utilisateurs de drogues par injection | 31 % |
| Delorme et al. (2021, 2021) (63,64) | Personnes sous traitement aux agonistes opioïdes | 24 à 33 % |
| Tsui et al. (2016) (65) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes | 68% |
| Glenn et al. (2016) (66) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes à la méthadone | 62 % |
| Stein et al. (2015) (67) | Personnes avec dépendance aux opioïdes | 48 % |
| Dunn et al. (2014, 2015) (68,69) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes | 42 à 60 % |
| Barry et al. (2013) (70) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes à la buprénorphine | 36 % |
| Barry et al. (2009) (71) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes à la méthadone | 37 % |
| Peles et al. (2005) (72) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes à la méthadone | 55 % |
| Rosenblum et al. (2003) (73) | Personnes sous traitement par agonistes opioïdes à la méthadone | 37 % |

La prise en charge adéquate de la douleur chez les PUD est d'autant plus importante qu'elle pourrait permettre de limiter le recours aux drogues illicites comme alternatives de traitement. En effet, en cas de douleur non suffisamment soulagée, le recours à des drogues illicites est fréquent (43,63,73,191,192). Les PUD à la recherche de médicaments pour soulager leur douleur sont perçus comme des personnes qui souhaitent le faire pour un usage non-médical (43). Comme rapporté dans l'article 4 de cette thèse, une proportion non négligeable de PUD font face à des refus de prescriptions pour soulager leur douleur. Ces refus sont motivés par le fait que les PUD vivant avec la DCNC sont perçus comme des personnes à la recherche de médicaments pour un usage non-médical (43). Les opioïdes ne constituent pas la panacée pour des douleurs non suffisamment

soulagées par les traitements non-opioïdes et le refus de prescription peut être légitime compte tenu des caractéristiques de la douleur. Néanmoins, ces refus de prescription peuvent conduire les PUD à avoir recours à d'autres alternatives comme les médicaments d'autres personnes, mais aussi des drogues illicites comme l'héroïne ou le fentanyl illicite pour soulager la douleur (43,192). Plus généralement, à l'instar de notre article, les études rapportent que l'automédication et l'utilisation de drogues illicites pour soulager la douleur sont des habitudes fréquentes chez les PUD (43,63,73,191,192). Ainsi, Delorme et al., rapportent qu'environ 33 % des personnes sous traitement agoniste aux opioïdes vivant avec de la DCNC font de l'automédication et 20 % utilisent des drogues illicites pour soulager la douleur (63). Il semble évident que les UDI font face à des barrières d'accès pour un traitement adéquat de la douleur et ces difficultés peuvent encore être exacerbées avec le contexte la crise des opioïdes (42). Cependant, ce recours à des drogues illicites ou à des médicaments prescrits à d'autres personnes augmente le risque de surdoses. Il est donc important d'améliorer la prise en charge de la douleur chez cette population en optimisant l'accès au traitement. Cette optimisation de la prise en charge de la douleur chez les PUD passe aussi par une meilleure formation des cliniciens quant à la complexité de la DCNC dans cette population. Une meilleure prise en charge des PUD passe aussi pour une collaboration entre spécialistes de la douleur et spécialistes de l'addiction pour une gestion globale et conjointe de ce type de désordres. Enfin, un meilleur accès aux traitements non-pharmacologiques pourrait contribuer à améliorer la prise en charge de la DCNC chez les PUD et éviter le recours aux drogues illicites.

6.2. Forces, limites et perspectives de recherche

6.2.1. Forces

Les grandes forces de la présente thèse résident dans l'utilisation des données recueillies en contexte de vie réelle pour mener des études afin de mieux comprendre les bénéfices et risques associés à l'utilisation à long terme des opioïdes dans la DCNC. L'emploi de différentes banques de données a permis d'étudier de larges échantillons de populations suivies et traitées dans un contexte réel de pratique clinique. Le Registre Québec Douleur dont les données ont été exploitées et valorisées dans les articles 1 et 3, contient des informations précises et complètes sur les caractéristiques de la douleur, ses traitements et son évolution dans le temps permettant des études longitudinales (139). Les données médico-administratives de la RAMQ ont quant à elles permis de

constituer une large cohorte rétrospective pour étudier le nomadisme médical pour l'obtention d'opioïdes. Ces banques de données contiennent de grands échantillons de données populationnelles colligées de façon prospective depuis des années, permettant ainsi de reconstituer de grandes cohortes rétrospectives sur plusieurs années. La possibilité de jumelage de différentes banques de données permet d'avoir un portrait plus complet du parcours de soins des patients. Par ailleurs, ces données sont récoltées de façon prospective et ne sont pas auto-rapportées, ce qui élimine le biais de mémoire et le biais de désirabilité social. Par ailleurs, le coût d'obtention de ces données demeure faible par rapport aux coûts de mise en place d'une cohorte prospective incluant un si grand nombre de personnes suivies sur autant d'années. Quant à la cohorte HEPCO, elle a permis d'avoir une population diversifiée de PUD et de brosser un portrait complet de la DCNC chez cette population. Ces différentes données ont permis de dégager des profils d'individus susceptibles de bénéficier d'une utilisation sécuritaire des opioïdes. Les résultats obtenus traduisent la réalité du terrain et peuvent être utiles pour la mise en place d'interventions visant à améliorer et optimiser l'accès aux opioïdes. Il a aussi été possible d'étudier la DCNC chez un échantillon diversifié de PUD contrairement aux études précédentes qui portaient majoritairement chez des PUD sous traitement agoniste d'opioïdes (e.g., méthadone, buprénorphine).

6.2.2. Limites

Les différentes études constitutives de cette thèse présentent des limites pouvant affecter la validité interne et la validité externe des résultats obtenus.

La validité interne d'une étude porte sur la fiabilité des résultats-- i.e., que les résultats trouvés ne sont pas dus à des erreurs méthodologiques mais traduisent plutôt la réalité (215). Les erreurs de mesures de l'exposition et de l'événement, ainsi que les facteurs de confusion non pris en compte, peuvent affecter la validité interne des études. La validité externe, quant à elle, se réfère à la généralisation des résultats--i.e., que les résultats de l'étude sont applicables à la population que l'échantillon est censé représenter (215). La validité externe peut être affectée par les biais de sélection ainsi que le manque de représentativité de l'échantillon. Ainsi, les limites qui peuvent affecter la validité interne et la validité externe des résultats obtenus doivent être discutées.

Premièrement, la validité externe d'une étude peut être compromise--i.e. que la généralisabilité des résultats peut être limitée. Les études réalisées dans la présente thèse à partir des données colligées dans le RQD ont porté sur les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et suivies en soins tertiaires. Les résultats ne peuvent donc pas être généralisables aux personnes vivant avec de la DCNC et suivies en première et deuxième ligne. En outre, les banques de données médico-administratives du Québec ne contiennent que les informations sur les médicaments d'environ 45 % de la population, notamment les personnes âgées de plus de 65 ans, les personnes bénéficiant de l'aide sociale et celles qui n'ont pas de couverture privée d'assurance-médicaments de même que les membres de leur famille. Une bonne proportion de la population jeune et active est donc absente de nos analyses, faisant en sorte que les résultats ne sont pas nécessairement généralisables à l'ensemble de la population du Québec. De même, le recrutement dans la cohorte HEPCO étant fait sur une base volontaire, les PUD enrôlées pourraient différer de la population d'utilisateurs de drogues dans la communauté. Le critère d'inclusion dans la cohorte HEPCO étant d'être injecteur de drogues, les résultats pourraient ne pas s'appliquer aux utilisateurs ne s'étant jamais injecté des drogues. Enfin, il faut mentionner que les résultats obtenus dans le cadre de la présente thèse ne sont pas nécessairement généralisables à d'autres pays dont le système de santé diffère de celui du Canada.

Deuxièmement, il a été déjà discuté dans les différents articles de la thèse, nos études pourraient ne pas être exemptes de biais de confusion qui pourraient affecter leur validité interne. Le fait de ne pas prendre en compte de certaines variables comme les traitements pharmacologiques et non-pharmacologiques tout comme certaines comorbidités de santé mentale peuvent avoir affecté l'identification des prédicteurs de l'efficacité des opioïdes. L'absence de certaines variables comme le statut socio-économique et la zone de résidence (urbain/rural), identifiées dans de précédentes études comme facteurs associés au nomadisme médical, pourrait induire un biais de confusion qui affecterait les associations statistiques mises en évidence dans les différentes analyses de la présente thèse. De même, des biais de confusion peuvent affecter l'identification des facteurs associés à la présence de DCNC.

Finalement, d'autres limites intrinsèques aux banques de données médico-administratives de la RAMQ et à la collecte des données doivent être tenues en compte. D'abord, les données ne sont pas nécessairement exhaustives. En effet, ces données provenant des facturations au régime

d'assurance maladie et des services non-remboursés ne vont pas figurer dans les données. Ainsi, des médicaments payés par le patient lui-même ou par une autre entité sans demande de remboursement au Régime d'assurance médicament ne sont pas comptabilisés. De même, les codes de diagnostics sont sous-déclarés, ce qui conduit à une faible sensibilité pour l'identification des comorbidités (162,163,166,167). Aussi, la facturation d'une ordonnance de médicament ne veut pas dire que la personne a réellement consommé son médicament, et n'informe pas sur la façon dont le médicament a été pris. Il y a donc une nécessité d'évaluation de sensibilité et de la spécificité des données recueillies. Par ailleurs, l'absence des données socio-économiques (revenu, niveau d'éducation) constitue une limite, car ce facteur peut être associé aux troubles d'utilisation et aux surdoses d'opioïdes comme il a été rapporté dans de précédentes études (216,217). Plus généralement, des informations sur les résultats des laboratoires, l'évaluation de l'état de santé (ex. tension artérielle, poids, sévérité de la douleur, etc.) et les habitudes de vie (tabagisme, consommation d'alcool et de drogues) sont également manquantes. De telles informations sont pourtant très utiles dans les études pharmaco-épidémiologiques et leur absence pourrait induire des biais de confusion ou limiter l'identification de facteurs de risque. Enfin, la collecte d'informations auto-rapportées comme celles recueillies chez les PUD de la cohorte HEPCO peut être soumise à un biais de rappel et à un biais de désirabilité sociale.

6.2.3. Perspectives

Malgré leurs limites, ces différentes études effectuées en contexte de vie réelle ont permis de mieux caractériser les personnes susceptibles de bénéficier de façon sécuritaire des opioïdes à long terme et de mieux cerner l'expérience de la DCNC chez les PUD. Cependant, tous les objectifs n'ont pas été atteints et davantage de recherches sont nécessaires pour aider à optimiser la prescription des opioïdes. En effet, il n'a pas été possible d'identifier les prédicteurs de l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes pour la DCNC. D'autres études intégrant un panel plus large de facteurs sociodémographiques et socio-économiques de même que de l'information sur la génétique, le type de douleur, les comorbidités (y compris de santé mentale), des co-prescriptions pharmacologiques et non-pharmacologiques, pourraient permettre d'identifier davantage de prédicteurs. De plus, une taille d'échantillon plus grande pourrait aussi donner plus de puissance statistique pour l'identification des prédicteurs. Par ailleurs, les méthodes de prédiction innovantes et puissantes comme l'apprentissage machine en intelligence artificielle pourraient être privilégiées. De telles

méthodes pourraient permettre de prédire l'efficacité à long terme des opioïdes à l'échelle individuelle permettant ainsi de mieux éclairer le processus de décision clinique au moment de prescrire des opioïdes.

Il n'a pas été possible non plus d'étudier le lien entre le nomadisme médical et les caractéristiques de la DCNC faute de cas suffisants dans notre échantillon d'étude. L'évaluation d'un tel lien aurait permis d'évaluer si le nomadisme médical est aussi pratiqué à cause d'un soulagement inadéquat de la douleur et validerait la pertinence d'employer cet indicateur comme proxy d'une utilisation problématique d'opioïdes. Par ailleurs, il serait pertinent d'investiguer jusqu'à quel point l'utilisation de drogues illicites a été déclenchée par une première prescription d'opioïdes tout en tenant compte des antécédents de troubles d'utilisation de substances (e.g., alcool, cocaïne, héroïne), ce qui est rarement fait dans les études portant sur la prévalence des troubles liés à d'utilisation d'opioïdes chez les personnes vivant avec de la DCNC. Le nomadisme médical comme proxy d'une utilisation problématique d'opioïdes peut être surveillé par des programmes de suivi des prescriptions avec des alertes permettant aux médecins et aux pharmaciens de détecter et de prévenir les chevauchements d'ordonnances ainsi que les interactions médicamenteuses graves. Cependant, ces mesures de suivi ne doivent pas constituer des barrières d'accès au traitement adéquat de la DCNC. Une couverture par le régime public d'assurance des traitements non-pharmacologiques de la douleur permettrait aussi d'améliorer l'accès à ces services et de mieux gérer la DCNC. Enfin, compte tenu du fardeau de la DCNC, davantage de recherches effectuées dans un contexte de vie réelle sont nécessaires afin d'optimiser l'utilisation des traitements existants. Prévenir la survenue de la DCNC et développer de nouvelles thérapies efficaces et sécuritaires sont aussi des avenues pour lutter efficacement contre la DCNC.

Les différentes recherches de la présente thèse ont été menées à partir de grandes banques de données et leurs limites sont liées aux limites des banques utilisées. Plusieurs mesures pourraient cependant être prises pour améliorer la qualité et la quantité des données recueillies, ainsi que pour faciliter l'accès aux banques de données. La quantité des données recueillies pourraient être bonifiée. Pour ce faire, à l'image du *General Practice Research Database* (GPRD) en Grande-Bretagne, les données issues des cabinets médicaux pourraient être extraites et jumelées aux données disponibles à la RAMQ. Les informations extraites concerneraient les paramètres vitaux et biologiques de l'individu, les résultats des examens de laboratoire et d'imagerie, ainsi que les informations sur les habitudes de vie (e.g., tabagisme, consommation d'alcool ou de drogues).

L'intégration de variables concernant le niveau de revenu ou des indices de défavorisation matérielle et sociale (218) est aussi nécessaire et permettrait de pallier l'absence d'information socioéconomique dans les banques de données médico-administratives de la RAMQ.

En outre, les informations sur les médicaments remboursés par le régime privé ainsi que les médicaments délivrés dans les centres hospitaliers pourraient être jumelées aux données existantes en passant des accords avec les organismes qui gèrent ces données. À l'exemple de la banque de données ReMed (219), les informations sur les médicaments des personnes assurées par un régime privé pourraient être collectées via les fournisseurs de services informatiques des pharmacies communautaires. Un élargissement de la banque ReMed (qui incluait seulement 38 400 personnes en 2016) à l'ensemble de la population couverte par un régime privé permettrait de disposer de banques de données permettant d'avoir de l'information complète sur la dispensation des médicaments au Québec. Un tel système serait similaire au Pharmaceutical Information Network (PIN) implanté en Alberta (220). Le PIN collige les renseignements sur les dispensations de médicaments en provenance des pharmacies communautaires de l'Alberta. Ces renseignements incluent des informations sur le médicament, le prescripteur, le dispensateur, le patient ainsi que des informations sur les allergies et les intolérances (220). Une autre manière d'obtenir ces informations serait de jumeler les données du Dossier santé Québec (DSQ) à celles des banques existantes de la RAMQ. Le DSQ est un outil provincial sécurisé qui collige et conserve de façon automatisée certains renseignements de santé de toutes les personnes qui reçoivent des soins au Québec. Ces renseignements comprennent les données sur les médicaments dispensés dans les pharmacies communautaires ce qui permet d'avoir les informations sur les médicaments pour l'ensemble de la population québécoise y compris les personnes couvertes par un régime privé d'assurance médicament. On y retrouve également des informations portant sur les résultats des analyses de laboratoire, les examens d'imagerie médicale, les vaccins administrés, les allergies et intolérances, ainsi que le sommaire d'hospitalisation rédigée par le médecin traitant après une hospitalisation. Un tel jumelage permettrait de bonifier et d'améliorer l'exhaustivité des données médico-administratives de la RAMQ.

Les banques de données médico-administratives ne peuvent contenir des données précises sur toutes les maladies. Il y a donc nécessité d'avoir des banques de données recueillant spécialement les données pour une condition donnée à l'exemple des registres comme celui du RQD. En effet, les registres permettent de recueillir des données exhaustives et précises sur une

condition de santé. Faciliter l'accès au financement durable pour la mise en place et la pérennité de registres et favoriser le jumelage de ces registres avec les banques de données médico-administratives permettra d'avoir des mines d'informations précises pour conduire des études observationnelles dont les résultats vont mieux éclairer la prise de décision et améliorer la santé de la population.

Enfin l'accès aux banques de données médico-administratives pour la recherche pourrait être facilité. À l'exemple de la France qui dispose de l'Échantillon généraliste des bénéficiaires (EGB), un échantillon des données, accessibles depuis les centres de recherche, les banques de données de la RAMQ pourraient être rendues disponibles aux centres de recherche et l'accès et l'exploitation gérée par le comité d'éthique local. L'accès aux données à certaines structures comme l'INSPQ, l'INESSS et la Commissaire à la santé sont des exemples probants d'accès rapide et sécuritaire qui pourraient être étendus aux grands centres de recherche du Québec.

CONCLUSIONS

La forte prévalence de la DCNC qui est appelée à augmenter compte tenu du vieillissement de la population, son fardeau tant sur le plan humain qu'économique ainsi que l'augmentation des effets adverses associés à la prise d'opioïdes soulèvent des questions sur la place de ce type de médicaments dans notre arsenal thérapeutique. Cette thèse apporte un éclairage permettant d'optimiser les prescriptions d'opioïdes en identifiant les personnes les plus susceptibles de bénéficier d'une prescription sécuritaire d'opioïdes. Elle permet également une meilleure compréhension de la DCNC chez les PUD et les difficultés d'accès au traitement. Ces études menées dans des conditions de vie réelle fournissent des données probantes pouvant éclairer la pratique clinique et permettre une approche de soins davantage personnalisée selon les caractéristiques et besoins des personnes vivant avec de la DCNC.

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ANNEXES

Annexe 1. Article décrivant le Registre Québec Douleur (RQD)

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Research Article

Development and Implementation of a Registry of Patients Attending Multidisciplinary Pain Treatment Clinics: The Quebec Pain Registry

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The Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) is a large research database of patients suffering from various chronic pain (CP) syndromes who were referred to one of five tertiary care centres in the province of Quebec (Canada). Patients were monitored using common demographics, identical clinical descriptors, and uniform validated outcomes. This paper describes the development,

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implementation, and research potential of the QPR. Between 2008 and 2013, 6902 patients were enrolled in the QPR, and data were collected prior to their first visit at the pain clinic and six months later. More than 90% of them (mean age \pm SD: 52.76 \pm 4.60, females: 59.1%) consented that their QPR data be used for research purposes. The results suggest that, compared to patients with serious chronic medical disorders, CP patients referred to tertiary care clinics are more severely impaired in multiple domains including emotional and physical functioning. The QPR is also a powerful and comprehensive tool for conducting research in a "real-world" context with 27 observational studies and satellite research projects which have been completed or are underway. It contains data on the clinical evolution of thousands of patients and provides the opportunity of answering important research questions on various aspects of CP (or specific pain syndromes) and its management.

1. Introduction

In the field of pain research, like in other medical fields, randomized controlled trials (RCTs) are the gold standard for establishing the efficacy of interventions. However, RCTs have several limitations [1–8]. Typically, patients are selected according to strict criteria, and the interventions are assessed under highly controlled conditions such that the obtained results are often poorly generalizable to everyday practices. Furthermore, RCTs are usually limited in time and sample sizes may be too small to detect serious adverse effects. In order to fill in these critical gaps in evidence for establishing best practices in pain management, patient registries and other forms of electronic healthcare databases represent valuable options [1, 3, 4, 6].

A patient registry is defined as "an organized system that uses observational study methods to collect uniform data (clinical and other) to evaluate specified outcomes for a population defined by a particular disease, condition or exposure, and that serves a predetermined scientific, clinical or policy purpose(s)" [2]. Patient registries contain "realworld" data generated during the course of patient care that can complement RCT findings. They can provide valuable information for determining the clinical effectiveness and safety of interventions when used in a diverse array of patients (e.g., variable age, multiple comorbidities) and clinical settings. Patient registries can also be designed to (1) describe the progression of diseases, (2) monitor quality of care, (3) assess the cost-effectiveness of treatments, or (4) conduct outcome research studies [1-3]. Although they also have their limitations [1, 2, 4], patient registries represent interesting and alternative research avenues and are becoming more and more popular in subspecialities of pain medicine including management of acute postoperative pain (e.g., [9]), rheumatic diseases [10, 11], low back pain (e.g., [12]), and neuropathic pain (e.g., [13, 14]) as well as pain rehabilitation (e.g., [15]) and military-specific pain services (e.g., [16] to name just a

In 2008, the Health Ministry of the province of Quebec (Canada) designated four Pain Centres of Expertise within the Montreal, McGill, Sherbrooke, and Laval University Health Networks which altogether cover the entire province. The Ministry wished to monitor the clinical outcomes of patients treated in these newly designated centres (and especially in tertiary care pain clinics) and obtain relevant administrative statistics. In parallel, one of the strategic plans of the Quebec Pain Research Network for 2007–2011 was to develop a province-wide clinical pain research infrastructure to facilitate the conduct of large observational and clinical studies. To meet the objectives of both of these organizations,

there was a need to develop a uniform multisite registry that documents the clinical condition and evolution of patients treated in tertiary care pain clinics. This gave the impetus to implement in the Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) project designed to serve both clinical/administrative and research purposes. To our knowledge, only two other registries of patients with various types of chronic pain disorders treated in multidisciplinary clinics have been developed so far, one in the UK (Pain Audit Collection System) [17] (PACS) and one in the US (Collaborative Health Outcomes Information Registry (CHOIR) [18]). However, their data collection procedures differ from those used in the QPR whose content is also richer in terms of clinical/medical data and outcome measures.

The present paper describes how the QPR was developed and implemented detailing its strength and shortcomings with the aim of facilitating the creation of other pain patient registries. The QPR structure and content are also presented along with the characteristics of the enrolled patients. The policy and procedures for accessing QPR data sets for research purposes are described as well as the type of access requests made.

2. Methods

2.1. Aims of the QPR. The aims of the QPR project were to (1) put in place a prospective web-based registry of ambulatory patients suffering from various types of pain syndromes who were referred for multidisciplinary treatment in large university-affiliated pain clinics in the province of Quebec, (2) assess and monitor their condition over time using common demographics, identical clinical descriptors, and uniform outcomes measured with standardized/validated measurement tools in each participating site, (3) document pain treatments patients received and/or used over time, (4) provide clinicians with a summary of the individual condition of their patients along with useful administrative statistics for their pain treatment facility, and (5) provide reliable "real-world" data to researchers wishing to answer important research questions or test hypotheses regarding various aspects of chronic pain (or specific pain syndromes) and its management, to assess study feasibility, and to facilitate and speed up patient recruitment in research projects or clinical trials.

2.2. Development and Implementation. Using the guidelines proposed by Solomon et al. (1991) [19] and Gliklich and Dreyer (2007) [20], the development and implementation of the QPR involved two distinct phases.

2.2.1. Phase I: Choice of the Variables/Outcomes/Measurement Tools and Pilot Study. The choice of items to be included in the QPR was made with the objective of creating a uniform minimal needs-based data set. The item choice had to be balanced between the clinicians' and researchers' interests for large amount of data, the burden placed on the patients, and the time/costs associated with the data collection process.

Demographic and Clinical Variables. All medical directors of large Canadian university-affiliated pain treatment clinics were contacted to share the questionnaires they used to record patients' demographics and clinical data (e.g., types of current and past pharmacological and nonpharmacological treatments received, drug adverse effects, and comorbidities) at the first visit in their facility and at follow-up time(s). These questionnaires were carefully reviewed by one researcher (M.C.), one pain clinician (D.D.), and a research nurse coordinator (H.L.) who selected the items to be included in the QPR based on recurrence of their appearance across questionnaires along with what they considered as the most optimal question formulation and categories of responses to measure these variables. Canadian and Quebec governmental health surveys (Statistics Canada [21], Institut de la Statistique du Québec [22]) were also reviewed to ensure uniformity with their coding system whenever possible (e.g., ethnicity, civil status).

All the above information except for patient sociodemographics was incorporated into a single questionnaire named the Initial Nurse-administered Questionnaire. A second questionnaire was also developed using the approach described above in order to collect follow-up data after the patients' first visit at the pain clinic (6-Month Nurseadministered Questionnaire).

With regard to patient pain diagnoses to be established by the pain physicians at the participating sites, it was felt that the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-9 or 10 systems) [23, 24] did not provide precise diagnostic codes for pain syndromes while the use of the coding system of the International Association for the Study of Pain [25] was viewed as too complicated and not practical in real-life clinical settings. Therefore, four experienced pain physicians with background in anesthesiology or neurosurgery who have been working for more than 15 years in tertiary care pain clinics in the province of Quebec and who took part in the later phases of the QPR (A.B., C.C., P.D., and Y.S.) were invited to elaborate a comprehensive and consensual grid of pain diagnoses to which were assigned codes based on the location of the pain (e.g., thoracic pain, generalized pain syndrome), the type of disorder (e.g., postmastectomy pain, and fibromyalgia), and/or its suspected etiology (e.g., disc disorder, pain following chemotherapy/radiotherapy). The DN4 Questionnaire was also added to screen for the presence/absence of a neuropathic pain component [26]. In order to ensure uniformity in data collection for the type of medical interventions carried out at the pain clinic (e.g., blocks, epidural injections, and neurolysis), the clinicians elaborated a second grid which listed the possible interventions to which were assigned different codes.

Patient Outcomes. Different sources of information such as the recommendations made by the Initiative on Methods, Measurement, and Pain Assessment in Clinical Trials (IMMPACT) Group [27, 28] guided the choice of the core outcome domains and measurement tools to be included in the QPR. A comprehensive review of the scientific literature was also carried out by a postdoctoral fellow (M-C.T) under the supervision of M.C. in order to list the strengths and limitations of existing validated instruments in English and French language to measure (1) pain characteristics (e.g., intensity, interference), (2) emotional well-being, (3) healthrelated quality of life, (4) treatment expectations, and (5) perceived improvement and treatment satisfaction. Accessibility to normative data, respondent burden, and research experience gained through the multisite Canadian STOP-PAIN Project [29] were also factors that were considered in the selection of measurement tools. In the few cases where a validated French version of the English measurement tool was not available (e.g., Chronic Pain Sleep Inventory [30]), the items were translated into French using a forward-backward method of translation [31]. The questionnaires/scales selected through the above process were then assembled into two questionnaires named the Initial Patient self-administered Questionnaire and the 6-Month Patient self-administered Questionnaire. All the questionnaires were then distributed to the different members of the QPR team (clinicians and researchers) for a final round of

Paper Case Report Forms (CRFs) were then prepared and used in a pilot prospective study to test the feasibility of implementing/running the QPR. Additional pieces of information were collected during the pilot study such as the time taken to complete each questionnaires/interview, patients' perceived degree of difficulty for filling out the questionnaires, and clinical usefulness of the collected material. Physicians were also asked to check the items they would like to be included in a clinical summary form. After having obtained institutional ethic approval of the research protocol, the pilot study was conducted in 2007-2008 with 90 consecutive patients recruited in three multidisciplinary pain treatment facilities which were candidates for becoming the designated tertiary care clinics of the Quebec Pain Centres of Expertise. These clinics were, respectively, located at the Centre Hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal (CHUM), McGill University Health Centre (MUHC), and Centre Hospitalier de l'Université de Sherbrooke (CHUS). Once patients provided informed consent, the QPR questionnaires were administered to them prior to their first visit at the pain clinic and six months later. All the data collected in this pilot study were analysed using descriptive statistics. The results of these analyses along with the comments/suggestions from the stakeholders (unpublished data) were summarized by the two principal investigators (PIs) of the QPR project (M.C., M.W.) along with D.D. and H.L. and were used to develop the final versions of the QPR questionnaires and clinical summary forms, adjust the procedures to maximize patients' responsiveness and retention at follow-up, and ensure optimal collaboration of the pain clinicians in the QPR Measures and Tools. Table 1 lists the demographic variables, clinical data, patient outcomes, and measurement tools used in the QPR along with some administrative data obtained from the patients' medical record (e.g., time elapsed between referral and first visit at the pain clinic). Information is also available on the QPR web site (http://www.quebecpainregistry.com). Several items contained in the original version of the registry were withdrawn at the end of June 2012 (see Table 1) to reduce staff costs. Based on the results of a survey carried out among the QPR users in the preceding months, it was felt relevant to add one instrument which was increasingly used to assess the risk of opioid abuse, that is, the Opioid Risk Tool [32, 33]. On the same occasion, the pain diagnostic grid and the medical intervention grid were reviewed to include additional codes. Copies of these grids are reproduced in the supplementary files (see supplementary files in Supplementary Material available online at https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/8123812) of the online version of the present article.

Development of the Web-Based QPR Database. Dacima Software Inc. (Montreal, Quebec, Canada; http://www.dacimasoftware.com) developed, tested, hosted, and maintained the central web-based quality-controlled QPR database which was FDA 21 CFR 11-compliant. They also developed the electronic CRFs and database-generated clinical summary forms which were beta tested by the Registry Nurse Coordinator (H.L.) and her assistant (L.G.). In April 2012, the QPR central database was transferred to Typhon Solutions Inc. (Montreal, Quebec, Canada; http://typhonsolutions.ca) who also developed and updated the electronic CRFs and clinical summary forms. System access controls were in place for registered users from the participating sites. Access to the central anonymized database was limited to authorized staff (e.g., biostatistician). Each patient was given a unique code number in the database which was not linked to her/his medical record. All the names, addresses, and phone numbers of the participants along with their unique code number were kept in each participating site in a separate and password secured Excel file which was accessible only to the RN and RA. This was aimed at preventing the transmission of specific patient identifiers in the central data repository.

2.2.2. Phase II: Implementation, Data Collection, and Quality Monitoring

Ethics Approval. The protocol, questionnaires, and procedures for implementing the QPR in the multidisciplinary pain clinics of the CHUM, MUHC, and CHUS were approved in 2008 by the REB of the CHUM which acted as the central ethic committee in charge of obtaining approval from the local ones. Given that the designation of the tertiary care pain clinics affiliated to the Pain Center of Expertise of Laval University (Quebec City, Canada) (Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Québec (CHUQ) and the Hôtel-Dieu de Lévis (HDL)) was considerably delayed for administrative reasons, ethic approval was obtained only in 2012 for implementation of the QPR in these two sites.

Implementation of the QPR. The QPR was implemented at the multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics of the CHUM, CHUS, and MUHC in November 2008, January 2009, and March 2009, respectively. At the HDL, the QPR project started in July 2012, and in August 2012 at the CHUQ. Due to a restructuring of the Pain Center of Expertise of the Sherbrooke University Health Network, enrolment of new patients in the QPR had to be stopped at the pain clinic of the CHUS in August 2012 but 6-month follow-up measures were collected up to February 2013. In each clinic, patient pain management was personalized and involved various types of pharmacological (e.g., opioids, antidepressants, and anticonvulsivants), interventional (e.g., nerve blocks, epidural injections), physical (e.g., physiotherapy, electrostimulation), and/or psychological (e.g., cognitivebehavioral therapy) modalities as well as teaching of selfmanagement techniques (e.g., relaxation, distraction, and sleep hygiene). Patients could be seen by professionals from various disciplines at the pain clinic including anesthesiology, family medicine, neurology, nursing, pharmacy, physiatry, psychology, psychiatry, and physiotherapy. Choice of the treatment modalities was based on the patients' needs and varied from one to the other.

Patient Enrolment. Consecutive ambulatory patients scheduled for a first visit at the pain clinic for multidisciplinary pain treatment considerations were enrolled in the QPR if they were (1) aged \geq 18 years and (2) able to understand and read French or English. Patients who were unable to complete questionnaires due to severe physical or cognitive inability were excluded. Patients who were eligible for enrolment in the preexisting registry of fibromyalgia patients [34] at the MUHC pain clinic only were also excluded. Eligible patients were informed that the information collected with the QPR questionnaires before their first appointment and at follow-up(s) was needed for clinical purposes (production of a summary of their clinical condition for the physician with whom they had an appointment) and administrative endeavors (production of annual anonymized statistics). Patients were also informed that their data along with those of other patients who gave their permission could be used for research purposes. If they agreed, they were invited to sign the REB-approved consent form of the QPR.

Data Collection Procedures. Once the patients' first appointment was fixed, the receptionist of the pain clinic faxed their contact information to the Registry Assistant (RA) who contacted them to explain the QPR procedures and confirm their eligibility. She informed them that they would receive by mail the Initial Patient Questionnaire along with the QPR consent form and a preaddressed/stamped envelope. At the time the QPR was implemented in 2008, e-technologies such as IPad, IPhone, and other android devices were not widely spread in the province and a substantial number of patients did not have access to Internet yet. For those who did, they were sent by e-mail an electronic copy of the Patient Questionnaire that they completed on screen. Patients were told that completion of the questionnaire would require 20–30 minutes of their time and that the Registry Nurse will contact

 $TABLE\ 1:\ Variables, outcomes, and\ measurement\ tools\ of\ the\ Quebec\ Pain\ Registry\ at\ each\ time\ point.$

| Variables/outcomes collected with the Patient self-administered Questionnaire (QP) and the Nurse-administered Questionnaire (NQ) | Initial visit | 6-month follow-up* |
|--|---------------|--------------------|
| Pain history | | |
| (i) NQ: pain duration | X | |
| (ii) NQ: circumstances surrounding the onset | X | |
| (iii) NQ: 1st degree family history of chronic pain $^{\psi}$ | X | |
| (iv) NQ: date and reason of referral, speciality of the referring doctor | X | |
| (v) NQ: number of pain-related visits to emergency (past 6 months) | X | X |
| (vi) NQ: number of pain-related hospitalizations (past 6 months) | X | X |
| (vii) NQ: time elapsed between consultation request and 1st visit at the Pain Clinic | X | |
| Pain characteristics | | |
| (i) NQ: frequency in the past 7 days (always, occasionally, no pain) | X | X |
| (ii) PQ: intensity (pain now, average, and worst pain in the past 7 days) (Numerical rating scale, 0 = no pain, 10 = worst possible pain) [28] | X | X |
| (iii) NQ: quality (neuropathic pain component) (DN4 Questionnaire) [26] | X | X |
| (iv) PQ: pain interference on daily activities (Interference Items of the Brief Pain Inventory-10) [44-46] | X | X |
| (v) NQ: impact of pain on sleep (Chronic Pain Sleep Inventory) [30] | X | X |
| (vi) NQ: mobility support required inside and/or outside the home | X | X |
| (vii) NQ: pain diagnosi(e)s established at the pain clinic location, type, suspected etiology | X | X |
| Psychological well-being and quality of life | | |
| (i) PQ: depression (Beck Depression Inventory-1) [47, 48] | Х | X |
| (ii) PQ: anger (numerical rating scale, $0 = not$ at all, $10 = extremely$) ^y | X | X |
| (iii) PQ: tendency to catastrophize in the face of pain (Pain Catastrophizing Scale) [71,72] | X | X |
| (iv) PQ: health-related quality of life (SF-12v2) [42, 43] | X | X |
| Pain treatments at the pain clinic or elsewhere | | |
| (i) NQ: current pharmacological pain treatment (prescribed and not prescribed): medication name and posology | X | X |
| (ii) NQ: side effects of current pharmacological pain treatment: type and severity (categorical rating scale, $0=none, 4=severe$) | X | X |
| (iii) NQ: past pharmacological pain treatment (prescribed and not prescribed): medication name and reason(s) for stopping | X | X |
| (iv) NQ: type of current and past nonpharmacological pain treatments including interventions (e.g., injection therapy, surgery), psychological techniques (e.g., self-management program, individual psychotherapy), self-management strategies (e.g., relaxation/breathing exercises, self-support group), physical therapies (e.g., physiotherapy, electrostimulation, acupuncture), and complementary alternative therapies | X | X |
| (v) NQ: type of health care professionals consulted since pain onset and in the months preceding follow-up $$ | X | X |
| (vi) NQ: continuation of treatment at the pain clinic (yes, no) | X | X |
| (vii) NQ: patient's disposition after treatment at the pain clinic | | X |
| Patient expectations regarding treatment at the pain clinic | | |
| (i) PQ: expected pain relief (Pain Relief Scale, 0% = no relief, 100% = complete relief) [73] | X | |
| (ii) PQ: patient expected global change regarding functioning level and quality of life (adapted from the Patient Global Impression of Change Scale) [28] | X | |
| Patients' perceived improvement and satisfaction with treatment at the pain clinic | | |
| (i) PQ: patient perception of pain relief (Pain Relief Scale, $0\% = no$ relief, $100\% = complete$ relief) [73] | | X |
| (ii) PQ: patient expected global impression of change regarding functioning level and quality of life (Patient Global Impression of Change Scale) [28] | | X |

Table 1: Continued.

| Variables/outcomes collected with the Patient self-administered Questionnaire (QP) and the Nurse-administered Questionnaire (NQ) | Initial visit | 6-month follow-up* |
|--|---------------|--------------------|
| (iii) PQ: patient satisfaction with treatment (Satisfaction Scale) [73] ⁶ | | X |
| Medical history | | |
| (i) NQ: current and past medical history (type of disorders other than chronic pain) | X | X |
| (ii) NQ: type of current medication for medical condition | X | X |
| (iii) PQ: consumption habits (cigarettes, alcohol, illicit drugs) | X | X |
| (iv) PQ: risk of alcohol and drug abuse/misuse ^V (Cage-AID) [33, 74] | X | |
| (v) NQ: risk of opioid abuse/misuse [£] (Opioid Risk Tool) [32, 33] | X | |
| Demographics | | |
| (i) PQ: date of birth | X | |
| (ii) PQ: sex | X | |
| (iii) PQ: ethnic group | X | |
| (iv) PQ: first language | X | |
| (v) PQ: education level | X | |
| (vi) PQ: current living conditions | X | X |
| (vii) PQ: civil status | X | X |
| (viii) PQ: current work status | X | X |
| (ix) PQ: family income | X | X |
| (x) PQ: main source of income | X | X |
| (xi) PQ: disability benefits | X | X |
| (xii) PQ: litigation regarding disability benefits | X | X |

NQ, Nurse-administered Questionnaire; PQ, Patient self-administered Questionnaire (PQ).

them by phone prior to their first visit at the pain clinic. Upon reception of the questionnaire, the RA carefully reviewed it to make sure that all questions had been answered and if not, the patient was contacted by phone. If the questionnaire was not returned within the week preceding the scheduled appointment at the pain clinic, the RA phoned the patient and asked to bring it on the day of her/his appointment at the pain clinic. Data collected with the Initial Patient Questionnaire were entered by the RA into the web-based QPR portal.

The RA contacted the Registry Nurse (RN) who conducted a structured telephone or face-to-face interview with the patients in the days/hours preceding their first appointment at the pain clinic using the Initial Nurse Questionnaire. Depending on the patient's clinical condition, the interview lasted between 30 and 90 minutes, and the information was entered by the RN or RA into the online QPR database. A summary of the patient's clinical condition (e.g., pain duration and intensity, and analgesic intake) was then generated from the database and transmitted to the treating physician of the pain clinic. Follow-up data were collected using the 6-Month Patient and Nurse Questionnaires using a

similar methodology as the one described above. Additional follow-up data were gathered at 12 and 24 months after the initial visit but only in those patients who had not been discharged from the pain clinic in the meantime. These data were collected with questionnaires containing the same measures as those administered at the 6-month follow-up. Due to financial considerations, follow-up data were not collected at 12 and 24 months in newly enrolled patients after March 2012. Due to budget cuts in the QPR project for the year 2014-2015, collection of 6-month follow-up data had to be interrupted in newly registered patients after June 2014, and enrolment of new patients ended in November 2014.

In order to have a more complete picture of patient pain management than the one provided in medical records, all data about pharmacotherapy (prescribed and over-the-counter medication) and nonpharmacological treatments used inside and outside of the pain clinic (including complementary alternative therapy) were collected by the Registry Nurses who did not have clinical duties in the QPR participating sites. The purpose of having nurses rather than RA for conducting the interviews with the patients was twofold: (1) to ensure accuracy of the patient clinical

^{*} Follow-up data were collected 6 months after patients' initial visit at the pain clinic. Between November 2008 and March 2012, additional follow-up data were gathered at 12 and 24 months but only in patients who had been not discharged from the pain clinic in the meantime.

* Item not measured after June 2012.

Eltern measured after June 2012.

⁵Patients were informed that no members of the clinical team will have access to their satisfaction ratings regarding the treatments they received at the pain clinic.

summary transmitted to the treating physician at the pain clinic and (2) to optimize the quality of the medical/clinical data contained in the QPR database.

Quality Safeguards. Standard operating procedures (SOPs) were prepared to standardize patient enrolment and data collection, entry, and quality. Training of the QPR staff was under the responsibility of the Registry Nurse Coordinator and her assistant and consisted of a 2-day meeting during which the SOPs were carefully reviewed, explained, and illustrated with examples and mock patient interviews. Phone and e-mail follow-ups were made to maintain staff competency, inform them about modifications in the SOPs, and answer questions. Onsite audits were also carried out in the participating clinics to review screening/follow-up logs and ensure procedural consistency across sites. Finally, all the QPR staff attended a face-to-face meeting with the PIs and the Coordinator at least once a year to monitor QPR progress, review the SOPs, and reiterate the high importance of data completeness.

Quality monitoring of the QPR database was under the responsibility of the Registry Nurse Coordinator and her assistant. Each participating site was requested to provide a monthly report of the number of patients enrolled in the registry, reasons for exclusion, number of questionnaires not completed and reasons why, losses to follow-up, and so on. With regard to data quality monitoring, a series of quality controls were programmed in the QPR database to allow instant automated data validation checks (e.g., out-ofrange values, logical inconsistencies). To facilitate medication data entry and ensure consistency (e.g., generic versus brand name), a medication dictionary was built in the database. Manual data cleaning was also carried out on a regular basis to identify discrepancies and missing data on variables targeted as important (e.g., patient diagnosis, pain duration, medication, and medical history) and to generate "queries" to be sent to the participating sites for resolution. Statistical programs to identify errors or inconsistencies on specific measures were also part of quality control activities. Errors identified when data were analysed for administrative or research purposes were also corrected in the database.

2.3. Access Policy to QPR Data and Business Model

Access Policy. Once the QPR was implemented, a comprehensive policy to access/use data from QPR patients contained in the registry and a business cost-recovery model were developed by the two PIs of the present project (M.C., M.W.) in collaboration with members of the Executive Committee of the Quebec Pain Research Network (Y.D.K., P.S., and N.B.) and legal/administrative advisers. The data access policy received ethical approval from the central REB for the QPR project at the CHUM and is available in the supplementary files of the online version of the present article and on the QPR website (http://www.quebecpainregistry.com).

Datasets of patients who gave informed consent can be accessed for conducting observational studies. Assessment of feasibility of research projects or clinical trials is also possible (e.g., number of QPR female patients aged between

30 and 50 years with a diagnosis of complex regional pain syndrome). The QPR can also be used to conduct "satellite" research projects, that is, studies in which data contained in the QPR (e.g., age, sex, and types of pain medication) are linked to other sets of data (e.g., governmental administrative databases, data collected in the context of a new study on variables other than the ones contained in the QPR). However, the research protocol and the accompanying patient consent form of the satellite projects have to receive prior approval by the clinical team of the participating site(s), the central REB of the CHUM, and the local REBs. Once the project is approved by these authorities, the Medical Director of the participating clinic(s) sends a letter to inform the eligible QPR patients about the research project and invites them if they are interested in participating to contact the person in charge of the study or her/his representative. Finally, the QPR data can be accessed to facilitate and speed up patients' recruitment in research projects or clinical trials; the procedure is the same as the one used for satellite research projects.

Business Model. The registry is an academic, not-for-profit project. The business model relies on fees to cover (1) administrative costs for running the data access requests based on their complexity level (e.g., preparation of the extraction/analysis plan, data extraction, statistical analyses, and report preparation) and (2) financial contribution to maintain the QPR data repository and ensure its long-term sustainability. Access fees vary according to the type of requesters, the lowest costs being for academic researchers who are members of the Quebec Pain Research Network (QPRN), followed by academic researchers who are not part of the QPRN, and industry researchers whose companies were or were not funding partners of the QPRN. Fees for accessing QPR data also vary as a function of the number of variables requested, complexity of the extraction process and statistical analysis (if applicable), and whether they have to be linked or not to external data sets (e.g., governmental administrative database).

2.4. Analyses of the QPR Data. The total number of patients enrolled in the QPR between November 1, 2008, and December 21, 2014, is 9363 (http://www.quebecpainregistry.com) but the data included in the present article cover the period during which new patients were enrolled in the QPR up to December 31, 2013, and followed up at 6 months until to June 30, 2014. Patients who did not give consent for their QPR data to be used for research purposes were excluded from the analyses. Data describing the clinical evolution of the subgroup of patients with follow-up data not only at 6 but also at 12 and 24 months have been presented at the Annual Scientific Meeting of the Canadian Pain Society in 2014 [35] and are in the process of being submitted for publication.

2.4.1. Missing Questionnaires. The number and percentages of the Patient and Nurse Questionnaires which were completed prior to the initial visit at the pain clinic and at 6-month follow-up were computed. In order to assess if

missing questionnaires qualified as "missing at random" [2, 36], differences between completed questionnaires and missing ones at each time point and between time points were examined according to patients' age using independent Student t-tests. Chi-squared tests were carried out on differences between sex and participating pain clinics (study site). However, such significant testing in studies involving large sample sizes like the present one can be misleading because even small differences can reach statistical significance while they can be viewed as trivial and not meaningful clinically [2, 37, 38]. Therefore, effect sizes of age differences between patients who completed and did not complete the Patient or Nurse Questionnaires at each time point were calculated with Cohen's d [39]. Only differences which reached a medium to large size effect as defined by Cohen [39] (i.e., a d value ≥ ±0.5) were considered meaningful [38]. For the variables sex and study site, effect sizes were calculated using, respectively, the Phi (φ) [40] and Cramér's V [41] statistics, and only those which were in the moderate to strong range (i.e., a φ or Cramér's V value $\geq \pm 0.3$) were judged as being clinically important [2, 38].

2.4.2. Patients' Characteristics. Descriptive statistics including measures of central tendency (mean or median) and dispersion (standard deviation or range) along with frequency tables were used to document the characteristics of the patients enrolled in the QPR. Due to space limitation, only a subset of the variables in Table 1 which were believed to provide a broad profile of the QPR patients at the time of their first visit at the pain clinic were analysed in the present article along with some data collected at 6-month follow-up. Student's t-tests were used to compare mean scores obtained on the physical and mental summary scales of the SF-12v2 [42, 43] in QPR patients at their first visit at the pain clinic to those of (1) the US healthy population (Canadian data being currently unavailable) and (2) patients suffering from serious chronic medical disorders other than chronic pain (cancer, heart disease, and diabetes) [42].

2.4.3. Requests for Access to QPR Data. Descriptive statistics were computed on the kind and number of requests made for accessing QPR data and the type of users.

3. Results

3.1. Recruitment and Record Completeness. Of the 8,233 patients who were referred to the participating pain clinics between November 2008 and December 2013 (inclusively), 7021 (85.3%) qualified for enrolment in the QPR and only 1.7% refused to do so (Figure 1). Ninety-two percent (6337/6902) consented that their QPR data be used for research purposes. Given that the registry was implemented in each participating site at different moments, the patient distribution was variable between sites: CHUM: N=2052 (32.4%); MUHC: N=2292 (36.2%); CHUS: N=745 (11.8%); CHUQ: N=810 (12.8%); HDL: N=438 (6.9%). The percentages of patients who completed the Initial Patient and Nurse Questionnaires were 98.5% and 99.2%, respectively.

Table 2: Demographic characteristics of the 6,337 patients enrolled in the Quebec Pain Registry.

| | Mean | SD |
|-----------------------------|-------|------|
| Age | 52.76 | 14.6 |
| | n | % |
| Sex | | |
| Female | 3742 | 59.1 |
| Male | 2595 | 40.9 |
| Education | | |
| None | 23 | 0.4 |
| Primary | 488 | 7.8 |
| Secondary | 2361 | 37.9 |
| College | 1749 | 28.1 |
| University | 1613 | 25.9 |
| Civil status | | |
| Married/common law | 3562 | 57.1 |
| Single | 1458 | 23.4 |
| Separated/divorced | 910 | 14.6 |
| Widowed | 309 | 4.9 |
| Ethnicity | | |
| Caucasian | 5755 | 92.0 |
| Black descent | 162 | 2.6 |
| Asian | 91 | 1.5 |
| Hispanic | 83 | 1.3 |
| Native | 83 | 1.3 |
| Mixed race | 81 | 1.3 |
| Work status | | |
| Full-time work | 1236 | 19.8 |
| Part-time work | 521 | 8.3 |
| Temporary disability income | 1212 | 19.4 |
| Permanent disability income | 1113 | 17.8 |
| Retired | 1299 | 20.8 |
| Unemployed/laid-off | 368 | 5.9 |
| Homemaker | 366 | 5.9 |
| Student | 102 | 1.6 |
| Volunteer | 18 | 0.3 |
| Other | 21 | 0.3 |

At 6-month follow-up, 89.1% of the patients (5647/6337) completed at least one of the two questionnaires (Figure 1). Results of the statistical analysis for comparing participants who completed and did not complete the questionnaires at each time point and between time points revealed some statistically significant differences with regard to age, sex, and/or study site ($P \le 0.05$). However, all the effect sizes were small (d values < 0.5; φ or Cramér's V values < 0.3) suggesting that the differences are not clinically meaningful [2, 38].

3.2. Characteristics of the QPR Patients. Patients enrolled in the QPR during the study period were aged between 18 and 88 years (mean = 52.76, SD = 14.6), 59.1% were female, and the vast majority (92.0%) were of Caucasian origin (Table 2). Nearly half of them (46.1%) had a secondary level of education or less. The percentage of patients who worked

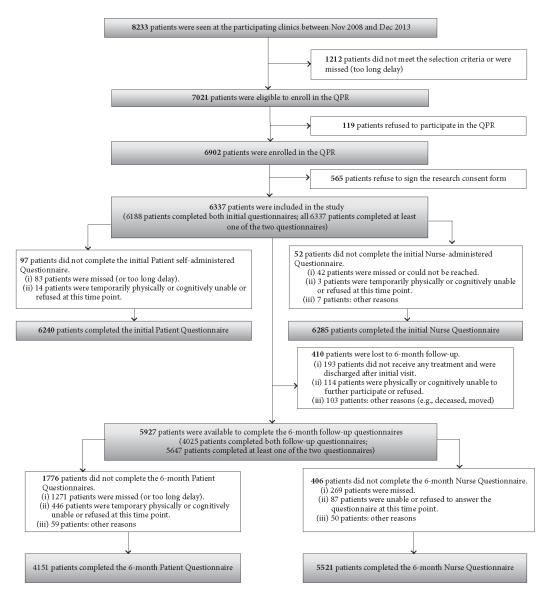


FIGURE 1: Flow of participants through the QPR during the study period.

on a part-time or full-time basis was 28.1% while permanent or temporary disability income was the unique source of revenue for more than one-third of the patients (37.2%).

The median amount of time elapsed between patients' referral and first visit at the pain clinic was 3.5 months; 35.0% of the patients waited more than 6 months for their appointment, some of them (5.2%) having waited between 2 and 4

years (Table 3). Close to 40% of the patients (38.7%) were referred at the pain clinic by their family physician while the others by specialists from various surgical (e.g., orthopedics, neurosurgery plastic surgery) or medical (e.g., neurology, rheumatology, and physiatry) disciplines (data not shown). Pain was present for 5 years or more in close to half of the patients (46.6%) and less than 1 year in 13.1% (Table 3). Since

TABLE 3: Pain-related characteristics of patients enrolled in the Quebec Pain Registry up to December 31, 2013.

| | Mean | SD |
|---|-------|------|
| Average pain intensity in the past 7 days | 6.71 | 2.0 |
| Worst pain intensity in the past 7 days | 8.16 | 1.8 |
| Physical Health-Related QOL (SF-12v2) ³ | 29.07 | 8.9 |
| Mental Health-Related QOL (SF-12v2)* | 40.48 | 11.7 |
| | n | % |
| Evidence of neuropathic pain | | |
| (i) No ^y | 1336 | 23.9 |
| (ii) Yes $^{\psi}$ | 1732 | 31.0 |
| Mixed evidence ^y | 2511 | 45.0 |
| Pain duration | | |
| (i) <1 year | 702 | 13.1 |
| (ii) 1 year to <3 years | 1201 | 22.4 |
| (iii) 3 years to <5 years | 964 | 18.0 |
| (iv) 5 years to <10 years | 1098 | 20.4 |
| (v) ≥10 years | 1405 | 26.2 |
| Time elapsed between referral and 1st visit | | |
| (i) <0.5 year | 3603 | 65.0 |
| (ii) 0.5 year to <2 years | 1620 | 29.2 |
| (iii) 2 years to <4 years | 297 | 5.4 |
| (iv) ≥4 years | 23 | 0.4 |
| Pain interference over the past 7 days (BPI score $\geq 7/10$) | | |
| (i) General activity | 3684 | 59.1 |
| (ii) Mood | 2931 | 47.0 |
| (iii) Walking ability | 2789 | 44.7 |
| (iv) Normal work | 4016 | 64.4 |
| (v) Relations with other people | 2225 | 35.7 |
| (vi) Sleep | 3410 | 54.7 |
| (vii) Enjoyment of life | 2337 | 37.5 |
| (viii) Self-care | 1653 | 26.5 |
| (ix) Recreational activities | 4069 | 65.2 |
| (x) Social activities | 3275 | 52.5 |
| Depressive symptoms (BDI-I) | | |
| (i) None or minimal (0-9) | 1335 | 21.4 |
| (ii) Mild (10-18) | 2167 | 34.8 |
| (iii) Moderate (19-29) | 1786 | 28.7 |
| (iv) Severe (30–63) | 946 | 15.2 |
| *Norm-based scores [44]. | | |

Norm-based scores [44].

the onset of their pain, patients reported having consulted between 1 and 23 different types of healthcare professionals in medical (e.g., family medicine), physical (e.g., physical therapy), counseling (e.g., psychology), and/or alternative disciplines (e.g., acupuncture), the median value being 5.0 (data not shown).

An accident or a trauma was at the origin of the pain in more than half of the cases (52.5%); 31.4% of the patients reported that their pain occurred during or following an illness or and 14.2% after a surgery while one patient out of five (22.5%) was unable to associate the onset of her/his their pain to any precise event. Figure 2 shows the top 10 pain diagnoses made by the physicians at the participating pain clinics. Lumbar pain with and without radicular pain was the most frequent one (28.6%), followed by fibromyalgia (6.6%), and complex regional pain syndrome in the upper limbs (5.7%). Based on both the clinicians' pain diagnoses and scores ≥ 4 obtained in the patient and physician portions of the DN4 [26], 31.0% of the patients were suffering from a neuropathic type of pain while the evidence was mixed in 45.0% of cases (i.e., the clinician diagnosed the patient with a neuropathic pain disorder but the DN4 score was not ≥4, or vice-versa) (Table 3).

The majority of the patients (85.0%) reported that their pain was present continuously in the 7 days preceding their first visit at the pain clinic. Mean pain intensity scores for the "average" pain and "worse" pain during this time period were 6.71 (SD = 2.0) and 8.16 (SD = 1.80), respectively. Patients' ratings on the interference scales of the Brief Pain Inventory-10 [44-46] revealed that, for more than 50% of them, pain severely impacted (scores ≥ 7/10) on various aspects of their daily living including general activity, normal work, sleep, and recreational and social activities (Table 3). A similar pattern of results emerged on reported health-related quality of life measured by the SF-12v2 [43]. The mean normbased scores on the physical (29.07, SD = 8.90) and mental summary scales of this questionnaire (40.48, SD = 11.70) were significantly lower in our sample of patients suffering from chronic pain compared not only to those obtained in the US healthy population but also to patients suffering from serious medical chronic disorders (Figure 3) (all $P \le 0.001$ and Cohen's d values between 0.6 and 3.3). With regard to depression symptomatology, scores obtained on the Beck Depression Inventory-I [47, 48] revealed signs of moderate to severe depression in 43.9% of the QPR patients (Table 3).

When questioned about the expected percentage of pain relief at six months after initiating treatment at the pain clinic, more than half of the patients (53.4%) anticipated pain relief ranging between 50 to 80% while one patient out of four (25.0%) expected pain relief superior to 80%. A large percentage of patients also anticipated that their functioning level (63.4% of patients) and quality of life (65.3% of patients) would be greatly or considerably improved over the next six months.

3.3. Requests for Access to QPR Data. Table 4 shows the number and type of research projects for which access to QPR data has been requested up to February 2016. Of the 40 projects, one-half were or are currently conducted by graduate students and post doc or medical fellows from various disciplines including anesthesiology, biomedical sciences, family medicine, neurosciences, pharmacology, psychology,

 $^{^{\}Psi}$ Patients were classified as having nonneuropathic pain if they received a nonneuropathic pain diagnosis from the pain physician and had a score ≤ 3 on the DN4 Questionnaire. A diagnosis of neuropathic pain was defined as a combination of a neuropathic pain diagnosis made by the pain clinician and a score ≥ 4 on the DN4. Patients who had either a neuropathic pain diagnosis from the pain physician or a score ≥ 4 on the DN4 were classified as having mixed evidence of neuropathic pain.

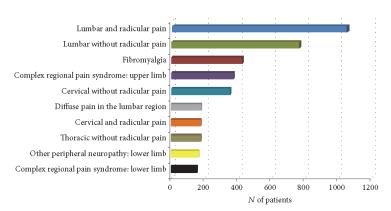


FIGURE 2: Top 10 pain diagnoses made by the physicians of the pain clinics.

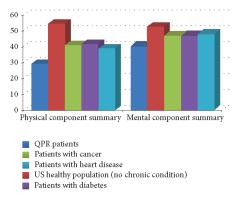


FIGURE 3: Mean scores on the physical and mental summary scales of the SF-12v2 in QPR patients (n=6230), US healthy population without a chronic condition (n=1275), and patients suffering from cancer (n=246), diabetes (n=530), and heart disease (n=643) [42]. QPR patients' scores were compared to those of the other groups using Student's t-tests. All P values are <0.001 and all Cohen's d values are <0.001 and all Cohen's d values are <0.001 and all d values are <0.001 and d values are <0.001 are <0.001 and d values d values are <0.001 and d values d value

and rehabilitation. Most of them consisted of observational studies or satellite research projects on various aspects of chronic pain or its management. The results of seven of these studies have been published so far [49–55] or are under review in peer-reviewed journals while others have been presented in scientific meetings [35, 56] and are in the process of being submitted for publication. Finally, several academic or industry researchers requested access to QPR data to either conduct studies or assess trial feasibility (Table 4).

4. Discussion

As shown in the present paper, developing and implementing a multisite patient registry is a complex task. Although

maintaining a registry such as the QPR is very costly, we have shown that it is feasible to collect uniform and reliable data in a large number of tertiary care patients suffering from a variety of pain syndromes and across different clinics. The collected information can help clinicians in making their diagnosis and management plan and can provide participating pain clinics with useful statistics on their practices. In addition to documenting the characteristics and management of patients referred to multidisciplinary pain clinics, our results showed that the QPR made possible the conduct of observational studies and satellite research projects using "real-world" data on various aspects of chronic pain.

In terms of the feasibility of implementing the QPR, our results showed that only 1.7% of the potentially eligible patients refused to complete any questionnaires and 8.2% did not consent that their data be used for research purposes. Close to 100% of patients completed both the Initial Patient Questionnaire and Nurse Questionnaire. At 6-month follow-up, the percentage decreased but the overall retention rate remained high; that is, nearly 90% completed at least one of the two questionnaires. Some statistically significant differences were found in terms of patients' age, sex, and study site between those who did and did not answer the questionnaires at each time point and between time points. However, all effect sizes were not clinically meaningful suggesting that missing questionnaires did not introduce bias in the QPR data [2, 38].

Compared to the majority of existing pain patient registries [9–16], the QPR is somewhat unique in that it covers a wide variety of chronic pain disorders. Based on our literature review, there are only two other longitudinal registries which have been implemented in multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics, that is, the PACS [17] (also named PainDB [57]) and the CHOIR [18]. However, a validation study on the quality of the PainDB concluded that this registry was unsuitable for research purposes [57]. Implemented in 2012, that is, four years after the QPR, the CHOIR (https://choir.stanford.edu) [18] had several advantages including (1) extensive use of etechnologies (web, IPad, and IPhone/android devices) and

Table 4: Type and number of studies for which access to QPR data has been requested up to February 2016.

| | Observational studies <i>n</i> | Satellite research projects*n | Feasibility studies r | Patient recruitment for external studies n | Total n |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|--|---------|
| Students | | | | | |
| (i) Undergraduate | 1 | | | | 1 |
| (ii) M.S. | 3 | | | | 3 |
| (iii) Ph.D. | 4 | 2 | _ | _ | 6 |
| (iv) Postdoctoral | 2 | 2 | _ | 1 | 5 |
| (v) Research/clinical fellowship | 3 | 1 | | 1 | 5 |
| Academic researchers | 4 | 1 | 6 | 1 | 11 |
| Industry researchers | 4 | ***** | 1 | 1 | 6 |
| Clinicians | _ | _ | 2 | _ | 2 |
| Total | 21 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 40 |

^{*}Satellite research projects are studies in which QPR data are linked to other data sets (e.g., governmental administrative databases) or to data obtained in the context of a new study collecting variables not contained in the registry (see Section 2.3 – Access Policy).

(2) integration of item banks drawn from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information Systems (PROMIS) [58] which are administered using an item-response theory approach [59, 60]. The outcome measures included in the CHOIR are also collected using state-of-the-art computerized adaptive testing (CAT) techniques [61, 62] allowing the identification of the optimal items within each domain based on prior responses from the patients thereby reducing respondent burden [18]. As a result, the CHOIR collection of patient-reported outcomes is entirely electronic but more importantly the whole process is much more sophisticated and efficient in the CHOIR than it was in the QPR. The CHOIR outcome data can be linked to electronic medical records (EMR) thereby offering the possibility of point of care reporting to support clinical decisions as well as the opportunity to conduct multisite treatment effectiveness studies in a "real-world" context as opposed to the strict and artificial conditions of a RCT [18]. However, carrying out such a type of studies is also possible with the QPR as illustrated in earlier QPR publications on gabapentin on- and off-label use [50] and effectiveness of long-term opioid therapy [63]. Furthermore, the patients' pain diagnoses contained in the QPR are much more precise as they were established by pain specialist physicians using a comprehensive grid rather than being based on referral reason(s) or ICD-9 codes as it is the case in the CHOIR studies [64, 65]. This is a major advantage given the potential inaccuracy of diagnoses on the referral form. For example, it has been found that only 34% of patients referred for fibromyalgia actually do suffer from this disorder [66]. A last advantage of the QPR is that it contains data on pain modalities used by the patients inside and outside of the pain clinic (e.g., over-the-counter medication, complementary and alternative medicine therapies); those data were collected by registered nurses during comprehensive interviews. Although the QPR has several assets, they are also revealed to be its Achilles heel due to the huge associated costs

in terms of human resources: those costs have compromised its long-term sustainability and expansion to other sites. In addition to the Registry Nurse Coordinator and her assistant, QPR data collection and data cleaning required at least one nurse and one administrative assistant working on a full-time basis at each participating site. In spite of the fact that we reduced the number of follow-up time points to only one (i.e., 6 months after patients' initial visit), the inclusion of two additional sites coupled to budget cuts in our funding forced us to stop enrolling new patients in the QPR although the database still continues to be available for research purposes. Enrolment of new patients was expected to be maintained in the long-term based solely on the revenues generated by data access requests from academic and industry researchers. However, these revenues are revealed to be insufficient. This may partly be the result of some delay in developing the mechanisms for accessing rapidly and efficiently QPR data and disseminating it to relevant audiences [19]. Other registries appeared to either have a more sustainable business model because of hospital membership fees and support from associations [9, 67] or have an overall lower maintenance cost due to the use of electronic data collection systems linked to ERM [18].

With regard to the characteristics of the participants enrolled in the QPR prior to their first visit at the pain clinic, our results highlight the fact that patients attending tertiary care pain clinics are significantly impaired in multiple domains. The majority of patients experienced continuous pain that reached intensity levels severe enough to interfere substantially with various aspects of their daily living including emotional well-being. Consistent with earlier results obtained in a smaller sample [29], we observed that patients reported poor health-related quality of life. The reported decrease in physical and mental functioning is remarkable when compared to the US healthy population and patients suffering from other chronic disorders [42]. However, these results are not that surprising when one considers that most

patients are referred to tertiary care pain clinics once all other resources have been exhausted [29]. Since their pain onset, QPR patients reported having consulted up to more than 20 different types of healthcare professionals.

Interestingly, the median time elapsed between patients' referral and first visit at the pain clinic was found to be 3.5 months. Eleven years ago, Veillette et al. (2005) examined the waitlists of pain services across the province of Quebec and found that two-thirds of the patients were waiting for 9 months or more [68]. In a subsequent study, Peng et al. (2007) reported that the median wait time for a first appointment in the Quebec multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics was around 8 months [69]. In the light of the results obtained in the present study, it is tempting to speculate that local initiatives to improve patients' triaging [70] have contributed to somewhat decrease the patient waitlists of participating pain clinics.

In terms of expectations toward treatment, our results revealed that close to 70% of the patients anticipated great or considerable improvement in their functioning and quality of life while one patient out of five was expecting 80–100% pain relief following treatment at the pain clinic. Whether such high expectations can be detrimental to patients' outcomes was recently investigated using the initial visit and 6-month follow-up QPR data. The results of this study suggest that individuals who expected positive changes were more inclined to perceive improvements in their overall condition, leading to superior clinical outcomes [49].

Although our above study findings are informative and are based on a large sample size of patients followed prospectively in several sites and in a real-world context, they have limitations that should be acknowledged. First, they characterized only a small proportion of the chronic pain population, that is, those who are referred to tertiary care clinics, such that the results cannot be generalized to other populations of patients treated in primary or secondary care settings. Second, it is important to point out that access to tertiary care clinics in the province of Quebec requires a physician referral; access to these clinics is free but limited due to relatively long waiting lists as is the case in other Canadian provinces [69]. As a result, it is unclear how the data obtained in the QPR compare to what would be obtained in other healthcare systems (self-referrals or other systems of access to the specialized pain clinics). Finally, other limitations of our findings pertain to the use of an observational data source in which sampling and confounding biases may occur and thereby compromise validity of the conclusions [1, 2, 4]. Although we made all efforts to minimize missing questionnaires, we cannot exclude the possibility of biases.

The present paper finally illustrates how "real-world" patient registries such as the QPR can be valuable and powerful research tools [1, 2, 6]. So far, 21 observational studies on a variety of issues related to chronic pain have been carried out with QPR data or are underway. Six satellite research projects in which QPR data were interfaced with other databases or data sets have also been conducted, thereby minimizing duplicate data collection. As part of their research training, several graduate and postgraduate students

used or are currently using QPR data to conduct research projects, and the results of seven of them have been published so far in peer-reviewed journals [49–55] or are under review.

5. Conclusions

The QPR is a vast registry of patients referred to multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics that was designed for clinical/administrative and research purposes. This registry provides numerous opportunities to study various aspects of chronic pain (or specific pain syndromes) and its management using longitudinal "real-world" data on a large set of variables collected in tertiary care patients. The most important challenge posed by the QPR remains to be its maintenance costs which have compromised its long-term sustainability and its expansion in other pain clinics.

Disclosure

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Competing Interests

All authors of the present paper certify that they have no conflict of interests with any financial organization regarding the material presented and discussed in this manuscript.

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Annexe 2. Protocole du projet PAIR comprenant le projet sur le nomadisme médical (objectifs 3 et 4)

RESEARCH PROPOSAL

| Project title: | The PAIR Project - Building knowledge to better tailor chronic <u>PA</u> in treatments to <u>I</u> ndividual needs and <u>Risks</u> : Linking and harnessing the Quebec Pain Registry and the Quebec health administrative databases |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Principal investigator: | Manon Choinière, PhD |
| | Researcher at the Centre de recherche du Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal (CRCHUM) |
| | Full Professor in the Department of Anesthesiology and Pain Medicine at the Université de Montréal |
| | Affiliated Member of the Pain Clinic of the CHUM |
| Co-investigators: | Gabrielle Pagé, PhD |
| | Postdoctoral Fellow at the CRCHUM |
| | Bénéwendé Jean-Luc Kaboré, MSc |
| | PhD Student at the CRCHUM |
| Collaborators: | Céline Charbonneau, Anaïs Lacasse, PhD, Nicolas Authier, MD, PharmD, PhD, Julie Bruneau, MD, MSc, Richard Hovey, MA, PhD, Marc-Olivier Martel, PhD, Aude Motulsky, BPharm, PhD, Elham Rahme, PhD, Mireille Schnitzer, PhD, Marie-Pierre Sylvestre, PhD, Mark Ware, MD, MSc, Hervé Tchala Vignon Zomahoun, PhD, Aline Boulanger, MD, FRCP, MPH |
| Version of the research proposal: | v.1.0 - June 13 th , 2017 |
| Funding: | Canadian Institutes of Health Research Catalyst Grant |

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL

Background and rational. The Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) is an electronic registry of patients referred for a 1st consultation in 1 of 5 multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics in the province of Quebec and followed over time. The QPR is unique in its size (8650 patients) and richness (self-reported data on various biopsychosocial parameters collected with well-validated questionnaires + uniform clinical data). Contrary to the Quebec health administrative databases (Régie de l'Assurance-maladie du Québec (RAMQ)), the QPR contains very precise pain diagnostic data. However, the QPR clinical data were collected at fixed points in time—i.e., prior to the 1st visit at the pain clinic and 6 months after. As a result, QPR data on past prescribed medication and use of healthcare resources can be subject to patient memory bias or are simply not available. In contrast, the RAMQ databases contain such data. Linking them to the QPR would therefore provide a rich research infrastructure allowing the conduct of large longitudinal studies aimed at identifying which interventions work and for whom taking into account their potential risks and impact on patients' health-related quality of life. Several important issues in the field of non-cancer pain (CNCP) management need to be addressed, especially in view of the current opioid crisis. Considering the huge direct and indirect costs of CNCP and poor treatment outcomes in many women and men, further research is clearly needed to better tailor treatments to individual needs and risks.

Objectives. The aims of this research project are: 1) To proceed to the linkage of the data contained in the QPR and the RAMQ databases; this pairing will create a rich research infrastructure allowing the study of various aspects of CNCP and its management, with a particular focus on the prediction of treatment outcomes in the real-life context of clinical practice; 2) To harness this data asset to address issues related to the opioid crisis; more specifically, the objective is to identify patients suffering from CNCP who are most and least likely to benefit from long-term opioid treatment in order to target modifiable and non-modifiable predictors of treatment response; 3) To address the issue of opioid abuse in CNCP patients by using the RAMQ databases in the years preceding and following the advent of the opioid crisis (2006-2016); with these data, we will examine the 1-year

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 1 / 18

incidence and risk factors of opioid doctor shopping behaviors as well as the associated serious adverse effects (e.g., overdoses); 4) To use the QPR+RAMQ infrastructure to examine whether CNCP characteristics (e.g., duration, severity) are important in predicting which patients are most likely to engage in opioid shopping behaviors and experience severe adverse events; and 5) To examine how the opioid crisis has changed the trends in opioid prescriptions and the prevalence of opioid-related adverse events in the province of Quebec.

Methods. Linkage of the QPR and RAMQ databases (Obj 1) will be carried out in collaboration with the Databank Access Platform of the Quebec SPOR SUPPORT Unit. The index date will be defined as the calendar date of the patients' initial visit at the pain clinic. Data requested from the RAMQ will include all prescription claims, medical claims, emergency room visits, hospitalisations and opioid-related adverse effects in the 6.5 years preceding the index data up to 6 months thereafter. In order to meet Obj 2 and 4, the enriched data asset will be analysed using descriptive statistics and multivariable predictive models. For Obj 3 and 5, collaboration has been established with the *Institut national d'excellence en santé et services sociaux* which now has all the RAMQ databases in its possession. Relevant data between 2006 and 2016 will be retrieved from these databases and analysed using descriptive statistics, generalized linear model and multivariable predictive models.

Significance and impact. The present research project will allow the linkage of existing databases and thereby provide a rich clinical research platform for conducting large longitudinal studies in the context of real-life clinical practice. The results of the proposed studies on opioid treatment will help in targeting which CNCP patients are most likely to profit from this type of medication in a safe manner. The results will also help in identifying which patients are at risk of opioid abuse and hopefully confirm that it is only a minority of them. In the long run, it is expected that this research project will contribute to improve the condition and health-related quality of life of women and men who suffer from CNCP by providing them with optimal management of their pain and thereby reduce the costs associated with use of health care resources.

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 2 / 18

1. INTRODUCTION

The present project proposes to link the data of the Quebec Pain Registry and Quebec health administrative databases and conduct longitudinal studies aimed at identifying which interventions for chronic non-cancer pain work and for whom taking into account their potential risks and impact on women's and men's health-related quality of life. This enriched clinical research infrastructure will be used to investigate which patients are most likely to benefit from long-term opioid treatment in a safe manner. The incidence and risk factors of opioid abuse in the population of CNCP patients also need to be better documented and understood to identify those at risk of this type of problem and provide useful data to inform clinical practice and health prevention initiatives.

2. BACKGROUND AND RATIONAL

2.1 Chronic non-cancer pain: a costly disease in terms of its human and economic burden

Chronic non-cancer pain (CNCP) is commonly defined as pain that persists for longer than expected time course of healing (usually taken to be 3 or 6 months), or pain which is associated with a progressive non-malignant disease (e.g., osteoarthritis)¹. About 1/5 Canadian adults lives with CNCP, more women than men are affected, and the prevalence increases with age for both sexes^{2,3}. As Canada's population ages, the prevalence and therefore the burden of CNCP increase in an alarming manner. Regardless of the cause, CNCP has numerous adverse consequences on the physical, psychological, and social functioning of the sufferers thereby contributing to deteriorate their health-related quality of life⁴⁻⁹. As important is the significant economic burden of CNCP on our society—both in health care use and loss of productivity—whose costs are estimated to exceed CAN\$60 billion per year and are greater than those of cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and cancer¹⁰.

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 3 / 18

2.2 CNCP, a disease which continues to be poorly managed

Despite decades of research in the field, CNCP continues to be often under-treated, mistreated or untreated, with a large number of patients consulting multiple health professionals to obtain pain relief¹¹. One of the major barriers to optimal treatment of CNCP is the limited access to adequate health services¹²⁻¹⁵. Because of its complexity and multidimensional nature, a multidisciplinary team approach is considered the optimal treatment paradigm by expert bodies such as the International Association for the Study of Pain^{16,17}. However, the number of multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics in Canada is limited and wait lists are very long, some up to five years^{14,18}. Cost barriers associated with accessing CNCP treatments (e.g., psychology, physiotherapy) leave primary care physicians with very few treatment options, notably pain medications (e.g., opioids)^{15,19}.

2.3 The opioid crisis

Acetaminophen, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents, and opioids (e.g., morphine, oxycodone, fentanyl) are among the most widely used drugs in the treatment of CNCP. Up to the 1990s, opioids were rarely prescribed for CNCP even when it was severe and long-lasting. After the publication of several studies on cancer pain revealing that most patients did not show abuse problems^{20,21}, and the endorsement of opioid use for CNCP by the American Academy of Pain Medicine and the American Pain Society, opioids prescriptions significantly increased over the years, especially in US and Canada²²⁻²⁴. In parallel, cases of abuse of prescription opioids⁽¹⁾ and emergency room visits for fatal and non-fatal opioid overdoses have dramatically escalated ²⁵. For example, the rate of deaths from prescription opioid overdoses quadrupled between 2000 and 2014²⁶. From 1991 to 2010, opioid-related deaths increased by 242%²⁷ and admissions to publicly funded treatment programs for opioid abuse doubled from 2004 to 2013^{28,29} in Ontario. In reaction to these statistics, several actions have been taken (e.g., publication in 2010 of national practice guidelines

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 4 / 18

¹ Drug misuse is typically defined as the use of medication for non-medical purposes. Up to recently, substance abuse was defined as misuse of a drug that does not meet all criteria for substance dependency but leads to significant functional impairment, illegal behaviors and/or interpersonal/social negative consequences. In the latest version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-V), substance abuse and dependency are conceptualized as a substance use disorder lying on the same continuum.

endorsed by the Canadian Pain Society)³⁰ to contain this opioid crisis resulting in gradually decreasing opioid prescriptions since 2011 in the US and Canada. 31-33 More recently, the US Center for Disease Control³⁴ published its own guidelines whose conservative maximum dose advices and recommendations against opioid use in people with mental health problems and young individuals have generated a great deal of controversy^{35,36}. A lot of attention has been and continues to be paid to opioid abuse and related deaths giving rise to the so-called "opioid crisis" in the community and the media³⁵⁻³⁸. The growing fear and stigma associated opioid use lead to collateral untended consequences for CNCP patients. Physicians and especially primary care physicians increasingly reluctant or refuse to prescribe opioids for CNCP while patients who respond well to this type of medication fear that their dose be reduced or stopped despite improved functioning while on these drugs (e.g., work)^{15,35,36,38}. For example, lost in the negative media messages is the fact that the majority of the abusers are not prescribed opioids for themselves but rather buy or steal them from others who are prescribed this type of medication for pain^{21,36}. Also omitted is the fact that a large percentage of opioid-related deaths are related to illicit fentanyl and other potent synthetic products coming from China³⁵.

2.4 Effectiveness of long-term opioid therapy

To date, research on opioids for managing CNCP has been limited mainly to randomized controlled trials (RCT) which are of short duration and have stringent selection criteria³⁹⁻⁴¹. Among the body of literature published on effectiveness of long-term opioid treatment, very few good quality studies exist⁴²⁻⁴⁵. In general, results suggest that a high proportion of patients discontinue opioids due to adverse events or insufficient pain relief ^{45,46}. Among those able to continue long-term opioid use, weak evidence supports its association with clinically significant pain relief while inconclusive evidence exists for improved physical functioning and health-related quality of life. In 2016, some members of our research team conducted a 12-month study on the effectiveness of opioid therapy and found that approximately 1/4 of them experienced a clinically significant amelioration in their pain severity while 1/5 exhibited improved mental health-related quality of life (QOL)⁴⁷. Unfortunately, this study did not consider the opioid dose the patients were on nor it examined predictors of their outcomes. In another recent Canadian study, Moulin et al.

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 5 / 18

(2015) found that 24% of patients treated with opioids showed clinically significant improvement in their pain and function 12 months later⁴⁸. Significant predictors of poor outcomes, which were unfortunately examined only at the univariate level, included longer pain duration, cigarette use, disability compensation, and higher opioid dose. Further research is clearly needed to identify the characteristics of patients most and least likely to be benefit from long-term opioid therapy. Averaging data over groups and time does not provide the information needed to provide CNCP patients with personalised treatment based on their specific needs and expected outcomes.

2.5 Opioid misuse and abuse in CNCP patients

The nonmedical use of a prescribed opioid medication accounts for about 12% of drug misuse/abuse in first-time drug misusers/abusers. 49 The prevalence of prescription opioid abuse in CNCP populations, however, remains unclear. A systematic review published in 2008 estimated that 3% of CNCP patients on long-term opioid treatment develop a dependence to opioids but this prevalence rate was much lower (0.2%) in patients without a history of substance abuse (e.g., alcohol, illicit drugs)⁵⁰. In a more recent systematic review, Chou et al. (2014)⁴³ found that between 0.6-8%, and 3.1-26% of primary care CNCP patients exhibited opioid abuse behaviors and dependency symptoms, respectively. Another recent systematic review has found that 8-12% of CNCP patients abuse opioids.⁵¹ It is difficult to obtain a clear picture of rates of opioid abuse because of the large variations in definitions and methodologies used across studies. 44,52 In a recent study carried out by some members of our research team⁵³, the Opioid Risk Tool⁵⁴ was used to assess the risk of opioid abuse in patients attending multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics in the province of Quebec. The results showed that 20% of them were at a moderate/severe risk of opioid abuse; factors found to be independently associated with this risk were being separated or divorced, having pain for >10 years and poorer mental health-related quality of life, and being a cigarette smoker. A group led by one of the applicants on the present proposal (NA) examined in the health administrative database of France the rates of opioid doctor shopping behavior which is a way to obtain a large quantity of this type of medication for misuse/abuse by consulting different prescribing physicians in a short period of time. Their results showed a 1-year incidence of opioid shopping among CNCP patients varying

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 6 / 18

between 1% and 4%. Significant predictors were younger age, low socio-economic status, mental health disorders, concurrent use of benzodiazepines, and prior use of strong opioids^{55,56}. Opioid shopping behaviors have not been studied so far in the province of Quebec or elsewhere in Canada but documenting their incidence and risk factors would provide useful scientific data to inform and guide clinicians, decision makers, and patients about the safe use of opioids for treating CNCP.

2.6 The Quebec Pain Registry (QPR) and the Quebec health administrative databases

In pain research, like in other medical fields, randomized controlled trials (RCTs) are the gold standard for establishing the efficacy of interventions. As mentioned before however, patients are typically selected according to strict criteria, and the interventions are assessed under highly controlled conditions such that the obtained results are often poorly generalizable to everyday practice⁵⁷⁻⁶⁴. Furthermore, RCTs are usually limited in time and sample sizes may be too small to detect serious adverse effects. In order to fill in these critical gaps in evidence for establishing evidence-based best practices, patient registries and governmental health administrative databases represent valuable options that can complement findings of RCTs^{57,59,60,62}. The QPR, a strategic initiative of the Quebec Pain Research Network of the Fonds de recherche du Québec - Santé (FRQS), is an electronic registry of patients referred for a 1st consultation in 1 of 5 tertiary care clinics offering multidisciplinary pain treatment in the province of Quebec and followed over time⁶⁵. The QPR is unique in its size (9449 patients) and richness (self-reported data on various biopsychosocial parameters collected with well-validated questionnaires + uniform clinical data). Contrary to the Quebec health administrative databases (Régie de l'Assurancemaladie du Québec (RAMQ)) where patients suffering from specific types of chronic pain (e.g., neuropathic pain) are very difficult to identify due to vague or inappropriate diagnostic codes⁶⁶, the QPR contains very precise diagnostic data provided by experienced pain physicians. However, the QPR data were collected at fixed points in time—i.e., prior to the 1st visit at the pain clinic and 6 months thereafter (and at 12- and 24-months in a subgroup of patients). As a result, QPR data on past prescribed medication and use of healthcare resources can be subject to patient memory bias or are simply not available. In

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 7 / 18

contrast, the RAMQ databases contain such data. Linking them to the QPR would therefore provide a unique research infrastructure allowing the conduct of large longitudinal studies aimed at identifying which interventions work and for whom considering their potential risks and impact on patients' health-related quality of life. Several important issues in the field of CNCP management need to be addressed, especially in view of the current opioid crisis. Considering the huge direct and indirect costs of CNCP, further research is clearly needed to better tailor treatments to individual needs and risks and thereby reduce health care costs.

3. OBJECTIVES

The aims of this research project are:

3.1 To proceed to the linkage of the QPR and the RAMQ databases in order to create a rich clinical research infrastructure allowing the study of various aspects of CNCP and its

management, with a particular focus on the prediction of women and men treatment

outcomes in the real-life context of clinical practice;

3.2 To harness this research infrastructure to address issues related to the opioid crisis such as the identification of patients suffering from CNCP who are most and least likely to

benefit from long-term opioid treatment;

3.3 To address the issue of opioid abuse in CNCP patients by using the RAMQ databases

in the years preceding and following the advent of the opioid crisis (2006-2016) and

examining the 1-year incidence and risk factors of opioid doctor shopping behaviors as

well as the associated adverse effects;

3.4 To use the QPR+RAMQ infrastructure to examine whether CNCP characteristics

(e.g., pain duration, severity) are important in predicting which patients are most likely to

engage in opioid shopping behaviors and experience severe adverse effects;

3.5 To examine how the opioid crisis has changed the trends in opioid prescriptions and

the prevalence of opioid-related adverse events in the province of Quebec.

Version: June 13th, 2017

Page 8 / 18

METHODS

Choinière et al.

Data sources

4.1.1 QPR database. The QPR was implemented in November 2008 and patients were enrolled in this registry up to November 2014 if they were aged ≥ 18 years and able to complete questionnaires in French or English. More than 91% (8650/9449) consented that their QPR data be used for research purposes A detailed description of the QPR procedures and content has been published⁶⁵ (Annex 4). Briefly, patients completed a self-reported questionnaire consisting of well-validated scales and a nurse-administered questionnaire prior to their 1st visit at the pain clinic and 6 months later in order to follow their clinical evolution. As mentioned earlier, the QPR contains precise diagnostic data provided by physicians of the pain clinic who used a uniform grid of diagnoses. Given their multiplicity, they will be transformed for the purposes of the present project into the International Classification of Diseases (ICD) - Eleventh Revision (ICD-11) beta codes recently proposed by the IASP⁶⁷.

4.1.2 Quebec health administrative databases. The Quebec Government has several health administrative databases which are managed by the RAMQ (Table 1, Annex 2). Although the RAMQ health insurance plan covers all residents for the costs of physician visits, emergency room visits, hospitalisations, and medical procedures, it only covers a portion of them for the costs of prescribed medications. The RAMQ prescription claims database includes individual aged ≥ 65 years, recipients of social assistance, and workers and their family who do not have access to a private drug insurance program, accounting for 46% of the overall Quebec population⁶⁸. This database includes all pharmacist claims for dispensed prescribed medication.

4.2 Linkage of the QPR and RAMQ databases (Obj. 3.1)

In collaboration with the Databank Access Platform of the Quebec SPOR SUPPORT Unit, we have recently completed the procedures requested by the Direction de l'analyse et de la gestion de l'information de la RAMQ and the Commission d'accès à l'information (CAI)

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 9 / 18

Research Proposal

to obtain the RAMQ data. The linkage of the RAMQ and QPR data will be made using the patients' last name, first name, sex, date of birth, and unique health insurance number. Requested RAMQ data will include 1) all prescription claims for CNCP and psychotropic drugs (date of dispensation, common drug denomination, form, dosage, and quantity), 2) medical claims (physician visits, diagnostic tests, ICD-9 codes, and interventions), 3) emergency room visits and hospitalisations (ICD-10 codes), and 4) deaths (ICD-10 codes) (Table 2). These data will be linked to the QPR ones collected prior to and 6 months after the patients' 1st visit at the pain clinic and will include pain history (e.g., pain duration), pain characteristics (e.g., pain severity), psychological well-being (e.g., depression level), health-related quality of life (QOL), non-pharmacological pain treatments, and sociodemographic data (Table 3).

4.3 Identification of patients most and least benefiting from long-term opioid treatment (Obj. 3.2)

Procedures

4.3.1 Patient selection. This study will be carried out using data from patients who 1) suffered from CNCP for \geq 1.5 years, and 2) completed both the QPR baseline self-reported and nurse-administered questionnaires prior to the 1st visit at the pain clinic (index date) and the self-reported questionnaire 6 months later (follow-up). Relevant RAMQ and QPR data (Table 4) for the study period extending from 6.5 years prior to the index date up to 6 months thereafter will be retrieved from the enriched database. Based on patients' availability of QPR and RAMQ medication data⁶⁸ (Fig.1, Annex 2), sample size will be around 2270 patients and provide adequate statistical power for the analyses (Table 4).

4.3.2 Data analyses. Factor and cluster analyses will be carried out to identify opioid latent classes (e.g., non-opioid users, short-lasting users, long-lasting users), and patients' membership to these classes will be determined based on their highest probability of belonging to one of them. Multivariate general linear models will be used to identify

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 10 / 18 patients' characteristics most and least likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy. Details of statistical analyses and sample size estimation are presented in Table 4.

4.4 One-year incidence and risk factors of opioid doctor shopping behaviors as well as the associated opioid-related adverse events (Obj. 3.3)

Procedures

This study will be carried out with the data contained in the RAMQ databases for the period extending from January 1st, 2006 and December 31st, 2016. It will allow examination of the opioid doctor shopping phenomenon in a very large sample of patients treated in different sectors of the health care continuum. This study and the one described in section 4.6 will be conducted through a collaboration established between the FRQS Quebec Pain Research Network and the Institut national d'excellence en santé et services sociaux (INESSS) of the Quebec Government (letters of support, Annex 3). This collaboration ensures privileged and direct access to the RAMQ databases, the INESSS having now all the data in its possession⁽²⁾.

4.4.1 *Patient selection.* This study will involve patients aged ≥ 18 years who had their prescribed medication insured by the RAMQ plan at one time or another between 2006 and 2016. This period has been chosen based on the fact that opioids prescriptions increased significantly up to 2011^{31,32} and then started to decrease with the advent of the opioid crisis which still continues to persist^{35,37,38}. Identification of CNCP patients in the RAMQ databases, chronic pain being commonly defined as lasting ≥ 6 months^{1,69}, will be carried out by selecting patients treated with opioids for at least 6 consecutive months (180 days) and no past ICD-9 diagnosis of cancer. This selection strategy has been used in some recent studies^{55,56} and will allow a comparison of our results with those obtained in France. The index date will be the calendar date of the 1st dispensation of this continuous sequence of opioid treatment. A continuous sequence will be defined as an interval between 2

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 11 / 18

⁽²⁾ It is only recently that the INESSS has the RAMQ data in its possession and for the next 3 years, access is limited to academic researchers who wish to conduct studies using the RAMO databases exclusively. Therefore, it will not be possible to link them to QPR (Obj. 3.2 and 3.4) so that access to RAMQ data must be obtained through the RAMQ and the CAI.

consecutive dispensations < 35 days, this threshold being based on the fact that opioid prescriptions are usually dispensed for a maximum of 4 weeks.

4.4.2 Data analyses. Opioid doctor shopping behavior will be defined as at least 1 day of overlapping prescriptions from ≥ 2 prescribers and filled in ≥ 3 pharmacies. This definition is the same as the one used in Cepeda et al's (2013)70 and Chenaf et al's (2016a,b) studies^{55,56} so it will be possible to compare our data those obtained in US and France. The 1-year incidence of doctor shopping will be estimated using the Kaplan Meier method, the date of the 1st opioid prescription during the 12-month follow-up period being the index date, and the 1st episode of opioid doctor shopping (or of last information—i.e., death, end of opioid treatment, switch to another analgesic, or end of follow-up) being the ending date. Time to 1st episode of opioid shopping and number of episodes during the follow-up period will also be computed. Log-rank tests will be used to assess the 1-year incidence of opioid shopping according to sex and age groups. Cox proportional hazards models will be applied to identify clinical and biopsychosocial characteristics associated with opioid doctor shopping. With regards to the associations between opioid doctor shopping episodes and opioid-related adverse events, structural marginal Cox proportional hazard models will be used (Table 4). Adverse events will be identified using the RAMQ ICD-10 codes and will include 1) emergency visit and inpatient admission for fatal and non-fatal opioid overdose, and 2) inpatient admission to publicly funded facilities specialized in the treatment of substance use disorder.

4.5 CNCP characteristics associated with occurrence of opioid doctor shopping and opioid-related adverse events (Obj. 3.4):

Procedures

4.5.1 *Patient selection.* This study will be carried out using data from patients who 1) completed both the QPR baseline patient self-reported and nurse-administered questionnaires, and 2) did not have any RAMQ opioid prescriptions in the 6 months prior to their 1st visit at the pain clinic. Based on patients' availability of RAMQ medication

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 12 / 18

data⁶⁸ and QPR data (Fig.1) as well as the results of one of our earlier studies on the effectiveness of long-term opioid treatment⁴⁷ in which the percentage of newly initiated on opioid treatment was 49%, sample size will be around 1900 patients and provide sufficient statistical power for the analyses (Table 4). Relevant RAMQ and QPR data from 6 months prior to 1st visit at the pain clinic up to 12 months thereafter will be retrieved from the enriched database (Table 4).

4.5.2 *Data analyses.* Data on the 1-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping will be analysed using the exact same procedures as the ones described in section 4.4.2.Cox proportional hazards models will be used to assess the associations between patients' CNCP characteristics (e.g., pain duration, pain severity, etc.), the development of the 1st episode of doctor shopping, and the occurrence of opioid-related adverse events (e.g. overdose). Details of the statistical analytic plan are shown in Table 4.

4.6 Trends in opioid prescriptions and the associated adverse events between 2006 and 2016 (Obj. 3.5)

Procedures

4.6.1 *Patient selection.* This study will involve all patients aged ≥ 18 years who had their prescribed medication insured by the RAMQ plan between January 1st, 2006 and December 31st, 2016.

4.6.2 *Data analyses.* Prevalence of opioid users per year will be calculated. However, in the context of the opioid crisis, some physicians may have prescribed opioids for a shorter period and repeated the prescriptions if needed, thereby inflating their number. Therefore, opioid prescriptions will also be transformed into morphine equivalent doses per year⁷¹. Prevalence of fatal/nonfatal opioid overdoses and inpatient admissions to publicly funded program for opioid use disorder will be computed. Generalized linear models stratified by age and sex will be used to assess yearly changes in percentages of opioid users, MEQ, and

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 13 / 18

adverse events. Details of the statistical analytic plan including sample size calculation are shown in Table 4.

5. PITFALLS AND ALTERNATIVES

Although the present project meets the objectives of the CIHR Catalyst program—i.e., linking and harnessing existing rich data platforms with the ultimate gold of developing personalized and cost-effective health care solutions, the databases we propose to link have some limitations. As mentioned before, the QPR population is composed of patients who were referred and treated in tertiary care pain clinics. Therefore, it will not be possible to generalize our results to other CNCP populations such as those treated in primary or secondary care settings. With regards to our study on the predictors of long-term opioid treatment, we will, however, take into account the number of months the OPR patients were on opioid up to 6.5 years prior to their 1st visit at the pain clinic while they were treated in other care sectors. The fact of studying opioid doctor shopping behaviors both in the RAMQ databases and QPR+RAMQ platform will allow the assessment of the generalizability of the results obtained in the latter one while permitting the inclusion of other potential predictors in the former one. In either one however, the prevalence of prescription opioid abuse may be underestimated as large quantities of opioids can also be obtained through friends, family, or on the black market^{72,73}. As mentioned before, the RAMQ prescription claims database covers 46% of the Quebec population⁶⁸. Studies in Quebec⁷⁴ and elsewhere in North America⁷⁵⁻⁷⁷ suggest that people covered by public insurance plan have a lower socioeconomic status than those who have a private one. Although this difference will not affect the internal validity of our conclusions results, it may limit their generalizability. Finally, our results will be based on data collected in Quebec but there is reason to believe that it will be possible to extrapolate them to the rest of Canada given the similarities in the provincial health care systems⁷⁸.

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 14 / 18

6. FEASIBILITY AND TIMELINE

In the past, the two PIs of the project and one of the co-investigators (MA) have been successful in conducting and publishing two studies in which part of the QPR data were linked to the RAMQ databases^{66,79}. As shown in Annex 3, we have the support from the Data Access Platform of Quebec SUPPORT Unit to facilitate access to the RAMQ data and proceed to the linkage with the QPR ones. A period of 1 year is expected for obtaining the RAMQ data but this may be shorter given that a representative of the CAI mentioned at the last annual ACFAS meeting that a bill to speed up access to RAMQ data will be tabled in Quebec Parliament this coming June 22nd. Based on a recent conversation with the Scientifique en chef du Québec, straightening out this issue is also a priority for him. As shown in Table 5 (Annex 2), a period of 9 months will be devoted to the data linkage and statistical analyses for Obj. 3.2 and 3.4 of our project. The strong expertise in biostatistics in our research team with the support of trainees will make these two studies possible within this time frame. With regard to Obj. 3.3 and 3.5, there will be no delay in accessing the RAMQ data given the INESSS has already them in its possession and the Quebec Pain Research Network has established a solid partnership with this institution (see letters, Annex 3). These two studies should be completed and published within 15 months (Table 5). All the programming required for these studies will also be instrumental for conducting Obj. 3.2 and 3.4's studies.

7. KNOWLEDGE TRANSLATION (KT) PLAN

The present proposal incorporates both an integrated KT approach and an end-of-project KT plan. At the core of our research approach is a collaborative and integrative partnership between scientists, pain experts, clinicians from various disciplines involved in CNPC management, decisions-makers, and patients partners. All these key players will work together during the different stages of the research project as described in Fig. 2 (Annex 2). This is substantiated by the involvement of the KT Platform of the Quebec SUPPORT Unit and key organizations such as the Quebec Association of Chronic Pain Patients and the Quebec Pain Research Network. As the collaborative process between

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 15 / 18

stakeholders are of utmost important,⁸¹ various strategies will be put in place, such as downstream deliberative dialogues. The target populations (scientific community, clinicians, decision makers, patients/general public), key messages (identification of individuals most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy, impact of opioid crisis on clinicians, patients and decision makers), and modes of delivery (scientific communications/publications, deliberative dialogues, policy briefs, infographics, practice guidelines in partnership with INESSS) are outlined in Fig.2. Taking advantage of the anticipated partnership that this research could build, this KT will be enriched over time to ensure that we provide tailored information targeted to audience needs and use the most effective strategies/methods to communicate that information.

8. RESEARCH TEAM

The research team is composed of strong senior and junior researchers with complementary expertise, experienced pain clinicians, dedicated patient partners, and solid supporters. The project is led by two PIs (MC, AL) who will be responsible for overseeing every phase of the project. MC, the designated PI, has more than 30 years of research on biopsychosocial assessment and management of CNCP. She was one of the founding members of the Quebec Pain Research Network (QPRN) within which she implemented the QPR that she now co-leads with MW. With the recent FRQS renewal of the QPRN, MC is now in charge of the Patient-Oriented Research Platform (Letter, Annex 3). She has led many CIHR and FRQS-funded multicenter studies and the KT-ACCORD research program, and carried out several RAMQ studies. The Co-PI, AL, is a young pharmaco-epidemiologist and a former post-doctoral fellow of MC who has demonstrated her capacity to carry out various important studies including RAMQ databases. She is the designed PI of the Chronic Pain Project within the Cohorte de données enrichies in place by the QSSU Data Access Platform. Essential to the success of this project is our solid group of biostatisticians who each brings complementary expertise. ER has a vast experience in conducting RAMQ studies on the benefits/risks and costs of different types of drugs including analgesics. She co-leads the QSSU Methodological Developments Platform and will oversee with the PIs the statistical analyses. M-PS is a FRQS Junior I Investigator with expertise in methods of

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 16 / 18

identification and classification of longitudinal trajectories, and of effect estimation of complex, time-varying exposure on outcomes. She will work in close collaboration with GP who also has extensive experience in latent trajectory modeling. GP is a post-doctoral fellow under the supervision of MC, a recipient of CIHR Master's, doctoral, and postdoctoral awards, and will occupy in 2018 a clinical scientist position at the Research Centre of the CHUM. MS, who holds a CIHR New Investigator salary award, will bring important pieces of biostatistics expertise in causal inference and semiparametric efficient estimation. Along with NA and J-LK, she will be actively involved in the data analyses on opioid doctor shopping behaviors. Another important asset in our research team, and not the least, is the involvement of NA (MD-psychiatry, PharmD, PhD) who is member of the INSERM Pain Unit of the Clermont Auvergne University where he is in charge of the sub-unit "Prescription Patterns of Opioid Analgesic Drugs". His research work focuses on the quality/safety of opioid treatment and prescription opioid use disorders. Given that NA has carried out several studies on opioid doctor shopping in France along with J-LK (PharmD), who is now a doctoral trainee under MC's supervision, both of them will be actively involved in our studies on this topic. Considering that NA is also the President of the Drug Policy Commission of the French Medicines Regulatory Agency, his decision maker's point of view will enrich our team. Our research team also benefits from JB's international recognized research expertise in substance use disorders. She also leads the CIHR-funded CRISM-Quebec-Maritimes to which MC belongs to. Another young and productive scientist with a solid post-doctoral training in the identification of biopsychosocial determinants of prescription opioid misuse/abuse in CNCP patients is also part of our group. Other important members of our research group are re AM, a FRQS Junior I Investigator, and HZ who is the Scientific Coordinator of the QSSU KT Platform. AM has expertise in the linkage of different medication databases, and her research work focuses on the risk factors of inappropriate medication prescribing practices and behaviors. Along with GP, HZ has been actively involved in the preparation of our KT plan, and will oversee with the PIs every phase of its implementation. Also, pivotal to this research team is the contribution of AB, a highly experienced and respected pain clinician who participated in the 1st edition of the Quebec Opioid Practice Guidelines, and our two patient partners: CC who is the President of the Quebec Association of Chronic Pain Patients (QACPP), and RH who is

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 17 / 18

qualitative pain researcher who suffers himself from CNCP. Both of them will work in close collaboration with HZ to recruit other CNCP patient partners who will also be involved in the different phases of the present project. As instrumental for the success of this project is the support of various organisations (Annex 3, support letters) including: 1) the OSSU "Data Access" and "Clinical and Evaluative Studies in Real-Word Contexts" Platforms, 2) the INESSS, 3) the FRQS-QPRN, and 4) the QACPP. In sum, the expertise and skills of the researchers along the engagement of our collaborators and supporters bring all the elements to ensure the successful realisation and completion of the project.

9. IMPACT OF THE PROJECT AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The present research project will allow the linkage and harnessing of existing databases and thereby provide a unique and rich clinical platform for conducting research in the context of real-life clinical practice. Results of the proposed studies on opioid treatment for CNCP will help in targeting which female and male patients are most likely to benefit from this type of medication and thereby contribute to improve their condition and health-related quality of life. The results will also help in identifying which CNCP patients are at risk of opioid abuse and hopefully confirm that it is only a minority of them. This same clinical research infrastructure will subsequently be used to conduct studies related to other important issues related to CNCP management (e.g., impact of multimorbidity, benefits/risks of off-label medication use.) In the long run, it is expected that this research program will contribute to improve the condition of women and men who suffer from CNCP by providing them with optimal pain management and thereby reduce the costs associated with use of health care resources.

10. ETHICAL ASPECTS

Data will be de-identified. Data will be stored on the CHUM network drive of the primary investigator and/or co-investigators and protected by a password. Data will be securely stored for 10 years. The participants will not be identifiable when the results will be disseminated.

Version: June 13th, 2017 Page 18 / 18 The PAIR Project

Choinière et al.

Annex 1: List of references

Annex 1

List of references

1

The PAIR Project

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Annex 2

Figures and Tables

Fig. 1 Expected number of patients for Obj.2 and Obj.3

Abbreviations – QPR: Quebec Pain Registry; RAMQ: Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec

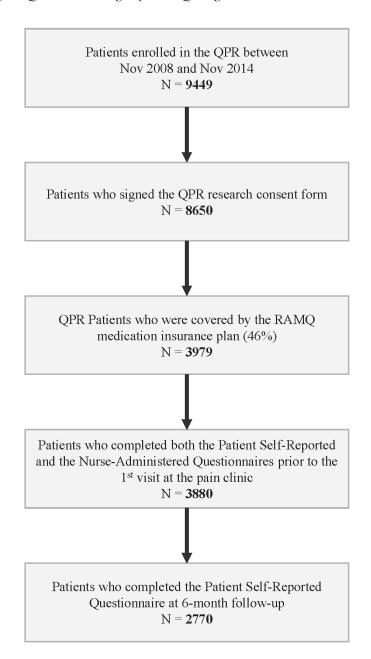


FIG. 2 - KNOWLE TRANSLATION (KT) PLAN

Integrated KT Plan

The proposed research protocol will be presented to key actors, which include clinicians, stakeholders and patients. Based on outcomes of these discussions, modifications will be made to the protocol (including objectives and hypotheses) in order to ensure that study outcomes will optimally answer the needs of the research, clinical and population communities. These different steps will be performed with the help of the Quebec SPOR SUPPORT Unit, and rely on group discussions with principal actors.

Principal actors:

- Researchers and members of the Executive Committee of the Quebec Pain Research Network (Fonds de recherche du Québec Santé)
- Clinicians (AB, MW, GP) and other health professionals working in primary and secondary sectors of care
- Patient representatives
- Members of the Executive Committee of the Quebec Association of Chronic Pain Patients
- Institut national d'excellence en santé et en services sociaux of the Quebec Health Ministry

Involvement of the Quebec SPOR SUPPORT Unit

- Involvement of Excellence Centre on Partnership with Patients and General Public of the Université de Montréal; the Strategic Partnership with Patients and General Public (SPPGP) Platform and the Knowledge Translation (KT) Platform of the Quebec SPOR SUPPORT Unit
- Development of a strategy for the partnership with patients and the general public for the implementation of the proposed research
- Identification and recruitment of patients who will become members of the research team
- * Patient partners identified with the help of the SPPGP Platform and will be involved in all subsequent steps

Objectives and methodology

• Two patient partners as well as the members of the Quebec SPOR Unit have reviewed the proposed objectives and methodology. Feedback of patient partners identified in the previous steps will also be gathered before study implementation to finalize objectives and outcome measures.

Result

- Discussion and deliberations regarding results
- Generation of result interpretations



Result lissemination

- Working with knowledge users (refer to principal actors listed above) and in collaboration with the *Institut national d'excellence en santé et en services sociaux* of the Quebec Health Ministry to
- Identify barriers to knowledge dissemination and support the use of findings
- Identify key messages
- Identify target audiences
- Monitor knowledge use and assess outcomes as to ensure sustainability

End-of-Project KT Plan

In addition to the Integrated KT Plan, the project will culminate on an end-of-project knowledge translation plan that will be based on the outcomes of the integrated KT plan described above and the research findings. The proposed KT plan will be subject to modifications based on discussions outlined in the integrated KT plan. At the present time, four target audiences have been identified, each with specific needs for information and individualized KT methods. The same actors and supporting organizations stated in the integrated KT plan will be solicited and involved in the end-of-project KT plan.

Scientific Community

Messages:

- -Increase knowledge about characteristics of individuals most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy in the real-life context of clinical practice
- -Inform future research that could lead to the development and evaluation of personalized programs for chronic pain pharmacotherapy
- Development of a **research infrastructure** that can be used by pain scientists

Decision Makers

Messages

-Inform policies and regulation authorities particularly regarding the impact of the opioid guidelines on chronic pain patients' condition -Document impact of opioid crisis on opioid prescription patterns and in relation to adverse events -Development of a research infrastructure that can be used

to ask questions about opioid

use and further inform health

Health care Professionals

Messages:

-Document the impact of opioid crisis on opioid prescription patterns and in relation to adverse events -Contributions to the corpus of knowledge on the topic of long-term opioid use for chronic pain management -Usefulness of the identification of individual characteristics of patients most likely to benefit from long-term opioid therapy

Patients & General Public

Messages:

Improving the condition and quality of life of patients who can benefit from opioids to manage their pain
How the study results can guide decisions currently being taken for chronic pain management in Quebec and other Canadian provinces
Raise awareness about the importance opioid therapy for chronic pain management as well as its associated risks

One objective of the KT plan through deliberative dialogues will be to facilitate interactions and communications between the different target audiences as to enhance the fluidity of knowledge derived from this study.

Vehicles:

- -Downstream deliberative dialogues with other target audiences to inform, enrich, and raise awareness of research findings
- -Symposium and presentations in scientific meetings at international, national and provincial levels.
- -Scientific publications in international leading peerreviewed journals and specialized journals
- -Electronic newsletters at scientific organizations (e.g., International Association for the Study of Pain, Canadian Pain Society)

Vehicles:

care decisions.

- -Downstream deliberative dialogues with other target audiences to inform, enrich, and raise awareness of research findings
- -Policy briefs to summarize findings and their relevance for clinical decision making regarding chronic pain management
- -Presentations given by research team members at local and provincial organizations involved in chronic pain management

Vehicles:

- -Downstream deliberative dialogues with other target audiences to inform, enrich, and raise awareness of research findings
- -Policy briefs to summarize findings that are particularly relevant to clinical practices with chronic pain patients and long-term opioid use
- Elaboration of practice guidelines in partnership with the Institut national d'excellence en santé et en services sociaux of the Quebec Health Ministry - Presentations of study findings as part of continuous education programs
- -Interviews for newspapers, media and journals of health care professional associations (e.g., Actualité médicale)

Vehicles:

-Downstream deliberative dialogues with other target audiences to inform, enrich. and raise awareness of research findings -Infographics published on social media, chronic pain clinic billboards, chronic pain patient associations (e.g., Quebec Association of Chronic Pain Patients, Canadian Pain Coalition) -Support of the communications services of the Université de Montréal and the Centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal.

<u>TABLE 1</u>
Databases of the *Régie de l'assurance maladie du Quebec* (RAMQ)

| NAME OF THE DATABASES | TYPE OF DATA |
|---------------------------------|--|
| RAMQ – Medical services | Medical claims |
| MED-ECHO | Hospitalisations |
| BDCU | Emergency room visits |
| RAMQ – Pharmaceutical services | Prescription claims |
| RAMQ – Coverage medication plan | Periods of eligibility to the RAMQ medication plan |
| ISQ – Deaths | Deaths |
| RAMQ – Recipients | Socio-demographic variables |

Tableau 2. Variables utilisées dans les banques de données gérées par la RAMQ.

Services médicaux rémunérés à l'acte

Données liées à la facturation à l'acte des professionnels, donc les demandes de paiement transmises par les professionnels de la santé à la Régie

Numéro banalisé de l'individu - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, ce numéro séquentiel est banalisé. Il identifie de façon unique une personne assurée malgré ses changements de numéro d'assurance maladie (NAM).

Classe du professionnel - Classe du professionnel de la santé ayant transmis la demande de paiement. Ce code représente la catégorie dont fait partie le dispensateur de services dans la classification des professionnels de la santé établie par la Régie. La classe et le numéro banalisé du professionnel de la santé permettent de le distinguer.

Numéro banalisé du professionnel - Numéro du professionnel de la santé qui a transmis la demande de paiement. Cet identifiant est banalisé pour des raisons de confidentialité.

Spécialité du professionnel - Code identifiant la spécialité indiquée par le professionnel de la santé sur la demande de paiement. Cette spécialisation dans une branche de la discipline est attestée par la possession d'un certificat, d'une reconnaissance de compétence ou encore de privilèges de pratique.

Code d'entente de facturation de la demande de paiement - Code identifiant l'entente de facturation à laquelle est assujetti le médecin : Omnipraticien (FMOQ), spécialiste (FMSQ)

Code de groupe d'actes - Code identifiant le regroupement associé à une spécialité ou à une catégorie d'actes.

Code d'acte - Code correspondant au service dispensé par le professionnel de la santé. Ces codes sont disponibles sur le site de la Régie à ces endroits : 1) Manuel de facturation des médecins omnipraticiens, 2) Manuel de facturation des médecins spécialistes.

Rôle dans l'exécution de l'acte - Code représentant la fonction ou la tâche remplie par le professionnel de la santé lors de l'exécution d'un acte médical ou dentaire. Par exemple : 1 : Chirurgien principal, 2 : Assistant

Date du service - Date où l'acte a été fait par le professionnel de la santé.

Code de diagnostic - Code correspondant au premier diagnostic posé par le professionnel de la santé. Ce code est inscrit selon la codification de la Classification Internationale des Maladies (CIM-9). La liste des codes peut être consultée à cette adresse :

http://www.ramq.gouv.gc.ca/fr/professionnels/medecins-

omnipraticiens/facturation/Pages/repertoire-diagnostics.aspx. À noter que cette variable est inscrite par le professionnel de la santé comme un renseignement utile sur sa demande de paiement. Ce n'est pas une donnée obligatoire et elle n'est pas validée.

Type d'établissement - Code dont le préfixe correspond au type d'établissement ou de clinique et dont le suffixe correspond à une catégorie d'unités de soins de l'établissement.

Numéro banalisé de l'établissement - Numéro utilisé pour les lieux de dispensation ayant un numéro d'établissement à la RAMQ. Cet identifiant est banalisé pour des raisons de confidentialité.

Code de localité du lieu de dispensation banalisé - Code identifiant l'ensemble des lieux de dispensation selon le code de localité inscrit sur la demande de paiement.

Région du lieu de dispensation - Code déterminé à partir de la localité indiquée sur la demande de paiement.

Classe du professionnel référent - Classe du professionnel de la santé qui a adressé le patient à un autre professionnel de la santé pour une consultation. Ce code représente la catégorie dont fait partie le dispensateur de services référent dans la classification des professionnels de la santé établie par la Régie. La classe et le numéro banalisé du professionnel référent permettent de le distinguer.

Numéro banalisé du professionnel référent - Numéro du professionnel de la santé qui a adressé le patient à un autre professionnel de la santé pour une consultation. Cet identifiant est banalisé pour des raisons de confidentialité.

Spécialité du professionnel référent - Code identifiant la spécialité principale du professionnel de la santé qui a adressé le patient à un autre professionnel de la santé pour une

consultation. Cette spécialisation dans une branche de la discipline est attestée par la possession d'un certificat, d'une reconnaissance de compétence ou encore de privilèges de pratique.

Banque de données ministérielles MED-ECHO (Séjours hospitaliers)

Ces données peuvent être exploitées à partir du 1er avril 1987 jusqu'à la dernière année financière complète disponible. Il faut également savoir que depuis le 1er avril 2006, de nouvelles classifications sont en vigueur pour les codes de diagnostics (CIM-10-CA) et les codes d'intervention (CCI).

Ces données, compilées par les centres hospitaliers, concernent les soins de courte durée (physiques et psychiatriques) et les chirurgies d'un jour. Les données sont divisées en 5 fichiers : 1) Séjours hospitaliers, 2) Diagnostics, 3) Services, 4) Soins intensifs, 5) Interventions. http://www.ramq.gouv.qc.ca/fr/donnees-et-statistiques/chercheurs-affilies/Pages/chercheurs-affilies.aspx#

Banque de données ministérielles BDCU (Banque de données communes des urgences)

Ces données contiennent des renseignements sur les épisodes de soins et de services prodigués par une personne inscrite à l'urgence d'un établissement du Québec.

Numéro banalisé de l'individu - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, ce numéro séquentiel est banalisé. Il identifie de façon unique une personne assurée malgré ses changements de numéro d'assurance maladie (NAM).

Numéro banalisé de l'épisode de soins - Numéro séquentiel identifiant l'épisode de soins de l'usager à l'urgence.

Date de début de l'épisode - Jour, mois et année de début de l'épisode.

Médecin de famille - Indique si l'usager est suivi par un médecin de famille (Oui/Non).

Médecin référent - Indique si l'usager est référé à l'urgence par un médecin (Oui/Non)

Raison de la visite - La raison de la visite correspond à celle établie à la suite du triage avec l'échelle de triage et de gravité (ETG). Elle correspond au symptôme principal, les symptômes étant regroupés par système. Table contenant :

- Code canadien, proposé par l'Association canadienne des médecins d'urgence
- Code CIM-10

Catégorie majeure de diagnostic - Table regroupant les catégories majeures de diagnostic (CMD) qui correspondent aux chapitres et Blocs de la Classification statistique internationale des maladies et des problèmes de santé connexes, 10e révision (CIM-10).

Date de prise en charge - Jour, mois et année de la prise en charge d'un usager par un médecin.

Diagnostic principal - Le diagnostic principal correspond au diagnostic émis par le médecin de l'urgence ou le médecin consultant au départ de l'usager de l'urgence.

Table contenant

- Code CIM10
- Diagnostics
- Code CMD

- Catégories majeures de diagnostics

Type d'orientation de l'usager à son départ - Code identifiant l'orientation finale de l'usager à son départ de l'urgence, c'est-à-dire sa destination au moment où l'usager quitte effectivement un service. Par exemple : 1 : Retour à domicile, 2 : Admission CH, 3 : Transfert, 4 : Décès, 5 : Départ avant prise en charge, 6 : Réorienté, 7 : Référé.

Date du départ de l'usager - Jour, mois et année où l'usager quitte physiquement l'urgence.

Services pharmaceutiques (médicaments sur ordonnance servis)

Les données sur les services pharmaceutiques se rapportent aux services rendus dans le cadre du régime public d'assurance médicaments en vigueur depuis 1997

Numéro banalisé de l'individu - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, ce numéro séquentiel est banalisé. Il identifie de façon unique une personne assurée malgré ses changements de NAM.

Code programme médicament - Code identifiant le type de personne couverte par le régime public d'assurance médicaments. Par exemple : PS : Prestataire de l'assistance-emploi, PA : Personne âgée de 65 ans et plus, AD : Adhérent

Code de plan - Code identifiant le plan du programme auquel sont associés des médicaments

dont la Régie gère le remboursement. Par exemple : 10 : PAE adulte (18 à 65 ans), 11 : PAE de 65 ans ou plus, 12 : Dépendant d'un PAE, qui a moins de 18 ans, 13 : Dépendant d'un PAE, qui a entre 18 et 25 ans, est aux études à temps plein et sans conjoint

Date du service - Date où l'acte a été fait par le professionnel de la santé.

Code DIN - Code qui correspond au numéro d'identification d'un médicament (DIN), c'est-à-dire le numéro inscrit sur l'étiquette d'un médicament sur ordonnance ou en vente libre. Ces médicaments ont été évalués par la Direction des produits thérapeutiques (DPT) de Santé Canada et homologués pour la vente au Canada. Ces codes peuvent être consultés dans la Liste des médicaments publiée par la RAMQ.

Classe AHFS - Code identifiant la classe du médicament dans la classification de l'American Hospital Formulary Service (AHFS). Ces codes peuvent être consultés dans la Liste des médicaments publiée par la RAMQ.

Code de dénomination commune - Code identifiant la dénomination commune d'un médicament ou son nom générique. Par exemple, Atorvastatine est la dénomination commune, par rapport à Lipitor qui est la marque de commerce.

Code de forme - Code identifiant la forme pharmaceutique du médicament. Par exemple : comprimé, capsule, crème topique ou aérosol-doseur.

Code de teneur - Code identifiant la teneur ou le dosage en ingrédient actif du médicament par unité posologique. Par exemple : 250 mg ou 25 mg/ml.

Code de nature d'expression d'ordonnance - Code indiquant s'il s'agit d'une nouvelle ordonnance ou d'un renouvellement verbal ou écrit. Par exemple : NS : Nouvelle ordonnance écrite, NV : Nouvelle ordonnance verbale, RS : Renouvellement d'ordonnance écrit, RV : Renouvellement d'ordonnance verbal

Code de sélection médicament - Code indiquant si le pharmacien a délivré le médicament prescrit, s'il l'a fait en respectant une interdiction de substitution ou s'il a délivré un médicament équivalent. Par exemple : E : Choix du pharmacien de dispenser un médicament équivalent, P : Choix du prescripteur de ne pas substituer, À blanc : Comme prescrit

Durée du traitement - Durée (nombre de jours) indiquée sur l'ordonnance et pendant laquelle le patient doit prendre le médicament.

Quantité du médicament - Quantité de médicament ou nombre de fournitures délivrées.

Contribution de la personne assurée - Franchise et coassurance à percevoir de la personne assurée lors de l'exécution d'une ordonnance.

Classe du prescripteur - Classe du professionnel de la santé qui a rédigé l'ordonnance. Ce code représente la catégorie dont fait partie le prescripteur dans la classification des professionnels de la santé établie par la Régie. La classe et le numéro banalisé du prescripteur permettent de le distinguer.

Numéro banalisé du prescripteur - Numéro du professionnel de la santé qui a rédigé l'ordonnance. Cet identifiant est banalisé pour des raisons de confidentialité.

Spécialité du prescripteur - Code identifiant la spécialité principale du professionnel de la santé qui a rédigé l'ordonnance. Cette spécialisation dans une branche de la discipline est attestée par la possession d'un certificat, d'une reconnaissance de compétence ou encore de privilèges de pratique.

Périodes d'admissibilité au régime public d'assurance médicaments du Québec

Numéro banalisé de l'individu - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, ce numéro séquentiel est banalisé. Il identifie de façon unique une personne assurée malgré ses changements de NAM.

Code programme médicament - Code identifiant le type de personne couverte par le régime public d'assurance médicaments. Par exemple : PS : Prestataire de l'assistance-emploi, PA : Personne âgée de 65 ans et plus, AD : Adhérent

Code de plan - Code identifiant le plan du programme auquel sont associés des médicaments dont la Régie gère le remboursement. Par exemple : PAE adulte (18 à 65 ans), 11 : PAE de 65 ans ou plus, 12 : Dépendant d'un PAE, qui a moins de 18 ans, 13 : Dépendant d'un PAE, qui a entre 18 et 25 ans, est aux études à temps plein et sans conjoint

Date de début de l'admissibilité - Date de début de l'admissibilité au régime public d'assurance médicaments.

Date de fin de l'admissibilité - Date de fin de l'admissibilité au régime public d'assurance

médicaments.

Institut de la statistique du Québec (ISQ) (Données sur les décès)

Le centre de Services d'accès aux données à des fins de recherche (SAD) dispose du registre des événements démographiques incluant les décès et la mortalité au Québec.

Année et mois du décès - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, cette donnée est disponible avec l'autorisation de la Commission d'accès à l'information et de la personne responsable de l'accès aux documents et de la protection des renseignements personnels à la Régie.

Cause initiale et causes secondaires du décès - Codes CIM-10 et groupes de causes.

Fichier d'inscription des personnes assurées

Numéro banalisé de l'individu - Pour des raisons de confidentialité, ce numéro séquentiel est banalisé. Il identifie de façon unique une personne assurée malgré ses changements de NAM.

Age de la personne assurée - Age déterminé à une date précise. Pour des raisons de confidentialité, cette donnée est disponible avec l'autorisation de la Commission d'accès à l'information et de la personne responsable de l'accès aux documents et de la protection des renseignements personnels à la Régie.

Sexe de la personne assurée - Code identifiant le sexe de la personne assurée : F = Féminin, M = Masculin

Date index – Visite initiale du bénéficiaire à la clinique de douleur.

Adapté de :

RAMQ. http://www.ramq.gouv.qc.ca/fr/donnees-et-statistiques/chercheurs-affilies/Pages/chercheurs-affilies.aspx#, Consulté en juin 2017.

BDCU. http://www.msss.gouv.qc.ca/professionnels/documentation-sources-de-donnees-et-indicateurs/sources-de-donnees-et-metadonnees/bdcu/, Consulté en juin 2017.

ISQ. <u>http://www.stat.gouv.qc.ca/produits-services/acces-donnees-recherche/index.html</u>, Consulté en juin 2017.

Choinière et al.

The PAIR Project

Annex 2

TABLE 3

Variables, outcomes and measurement tools of the Quebec Pain Registry at each time point. Variables in **bold** characters are those which will be used in the present project

| Variables/outcomes collected with the Patient self-administered Questionnaire (PQ) | Initial visit | 6-month follow-up* |
|---|---------------|-----------------------|
| Pain history | | 4 |
| NQ - Pain duration | × | |
| • NQ - Circumstances surrounding pain onset | × | |
| • NQ - 1st degree family history of chronic pain w | × | |
| • NQ - Date and reason of referral, speciality of the referring doctor | × | |
| • NQ - Number of pain-related visits to emergency (past 6 months) | × | × |
| • NQ - Number of pain-related hospitalisations (past 6 months) | × | × |
| • NQ - Time elapsed between consultation request and 1st visit at the Pain Clinic | × | |
| Pain characteristics | | |
| • NQ - Frequency in the past 7 days (always, occasionally, no pain) | × | × |
| • PQ - Intensity (pain now, average and worst pain in the past 7 days) (<i>Numerical rating scale</i> , $0 = no \ pain$, $10 = worst \ possible \ pain$) | × | × |
| • NQ - Quality (neuropathic pain component) (DN4 Questionnaire) ² | X | X |
| • PQ - Pain interference on daily activities (Interference Items of the Brief Pain Inventory- | × | × |
| • NQ - Impact of pain on sleep (Chronic Pain Sleep Inventory) ⁶ | × | × |
| • NQ - Mobility support required inside and/or outside the home | × | X |
| • NQ - Pain diagnosi(e)s established at the pain clinic: location, type, suspected etiology | X | X |
| PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND QUALITY OF LIFE | | |
| • PQ - Depression (Beck Depression Inventory - 1) ^{7,8} | × | × |

| Choinière et al. | The PAIR Project | | Annex 2 |
|---|---|---|---------|
| | | | |
| • PO - Anger (Numerical rating scale, $0 = not$ at all, $10 = extremely$) Ψ | all. $10 = extremelv$) Ψ | × | × |
| PQ - Tendency to catastrophize in the face of | f pain (Pain Catastrophizing Scale) ^{9,10} | × | X |
| • PQ – Physical and mental health-related quality of life (SF-12v2) ^{11,12} | ality of life $(SF-12\nu 2)^{\hat{1}1,12}$ | X | × |
| PAIN TREATMENTS AT THE PAIN CLINIC OR ELSEWHERE | IERE | | |
| NQ - Current pharmacological pain treatment (prescribed and not prescribed): medication | prescribed and not prescribed): medication | | |
| name and posology | | × | × |
| • NQ - Side effects of current pharmacological pain treatment: type and severity (Categorical | ain treatment: type and severity (Categorical | × | × |
| rating scale, $0 = none$, $4 = severe$) $^{\Psi}$ | | | |
| NQ - Past pharmacological pain treatment (pres | scribed and not prescribed): medication name | ¥ | * |
| and reason(s) for stopping | | × | × |
| • NQ - Type of current and past non-pharmacological pain treatments including | cological pain treatments including | | |
| interventions (e.g., injection therapy, surgery), 1 | (e.g., injection therapy, surgery), psychological techniques (e.g., self- | | |
| management program, individual psychotherap | program, individual psychotherapy), self-management strategies (e.g., | | |
| relaxation/breathing exercises, self-support group), physical therapies (e.g., physiotherapy, | up), physical therapies (e.g., physiotherapy, | × | × |
| electrostimulation, acupuncture), and complementary alternative therapies | entary alternative therapies | | |
| • NQ - Type of health care professionals consulted since pain onset and in the months preceding | ed since pain onset and in the months preceding | × | × |
| follow-up | | | |
| • NQ - Continuation of treatment at the pain clinic (yes - no) | clinic (yes - no) | × | × |
| • NQ - Patient's disposition after treatment at the pain clinic | the pain clinic | | X |
| Patient expectations re: treatment at the pain clinic | AIN CLINIC | | |
| • PQ - Expected pain relief (Pain Relief Scale, 0% = no relief, 100% = complete relief) ¹³ | $\% = no \ relief, \ 100\% = complete \ relief)^{13}$ | X | |
| • PQ - Expected global change re: functioning level and quality of life (Adapted from the | vel and quality of life (Adapted from the | × | |
| (Patient Global Impression of Change Scale) ¹ | | | |
| PATIENTS' PERCEIVED IMPROVEMENT AND SATISFACTION WITH TREATMENT AT THE PAIN CLINIC | ACTION WITH TREATMENT AT THE PAIN CLINIC | | |
| • PQ - Patient perception of pain relief (Pain Relief Scale, 0% = no relief, 100% = complete relief) 13 | ief Scale, 0% = no relief, 100% = complete | | × |
| • PQ - Patient global impression of change re: functioning level and quality of life (Patient Global Impression of Change Scale) ¹ | nctioning level and quality of life (Patient | | × |
| • PO - Patient satisfaction with treatment (Satisfaction Scale) ^{13§} | uction Scale) ^{13§} | | X |
| | | | |

| Annex 2 |
|------------------|
| |
| |
| The PAIR Project |
| |
| |
| Choinière et al. |

| MEDICAL HISTORY | | |
|--|------|---|
| • NQ - Current and past medical history (type of disorders other than chronic pain) | × | × |
| • NQ - Type of current medication for medical condition | × | × |
| • PQ - Consumption habits (cigarettes, alcohol, illicit drugs) | × | × |
| • PQ - Risk of alcohol and drug abuse/misuse $^{\psi}$ (Cage-AID) ^{14,15} | × | |
| • NQ - Risk of opioid abuse/misuse (Opioid Risk Tool) ^{15,16} | × | |
| Demographics | | |
| PQ - Date of birth | × | |
| \bullet PQ – Sex | × | |
| • PQ - Ethnic group | × | |
| • PQ - First language | × | |
| • PQ - Education level | × | |
| • PQ - Current living conditions | × | × |
| • PQ - Civil status | × | × |
| • PQ - Current work status | × | × |
| • PQ - Family income | × | × |
| • PQ - Main source of income | × | × |
| • PQ - Disability benefits | × | × |
| • PQ - Litigation re: disability benefits | × | × |
| Abbreviation: NO Nurse-administered Onestionnaire: PO Patient self-administered Onestionnaire (PO) | (PO) | |

Abbreviation: NQ, Nurse-administered Questionnaire; PQ, Patient self-administered Questionnaire (PQ).

* Follow-up data were collected 6 months after patients' initial visit at the pain clinic. Between November 2008 and March 2012, additional follow-up data were gathered at 12 and 24 months but only in patients who had been not discharged from the pain clinic in the meantime.

Ψ Item not measured after June 2012

 $^{^{\}mathrm{f}}$ Item measured after June 2012

[§] Patients were informed that no members of the clinical team will have access to their satisfaction ratings regarding the treatments they received at the pain clinic.

The PAIR Project Choinière et al. References

Annex 2

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273

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13

The PAIR Project TABLE 4

Detailed description of the statistical plan for each objective of the research project ^{1,2,3}

Cancer pain; R4MQ: Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec; QPR: Quebec Pain Registry; 🏻 ICD-9 or 10: International Classification of Diseases, Ninth or OBJECTIVE 3.2

Identification of patients suffering from CNCP who are most and least likely to benefit from long-term opioid treatment (Abbreviations: CNCP: Chronic Non-Tenth Revision; NRS: Numerical Rating Scale; BPI: Brief Pain Inventory; BDI: Beck Depression Inventory; PCS: Pain Catastrophizing Scale)

| PATIENT SELECTION | RAMQ VARIABLES | QPR VARIABLES | STATISTICAL ANALYSES | TIME FRAME |
|---|---------------------------|--|--------------------------|--------------------|
| Inclusion criteria | - Date of birth | - Patient enrolment date in the QPR | Part A | Index date: |
| - Age ≥ 18 years | - Sex | - Pain diagnosis ⁷ | - Factor analysis | Calendar date of |
| - Completion of both the QPR | - Gender (?) ¹ | - Pain duration | - Cluster analysis | patient enrollment |
| baseline patient self-reported and | - Prescriptions for CNCP | - Pain intensity (NRS) | , | in the QPR |
| nurse-administered questionnaires | including opioids6 | - Pain interference (BPI) | Part B | |
| + 6-month patient self-reported | - Physical and mental | - Depression (BDI) | - Descriptive statistics | Time period: |
| questionnaire | comorbidities including | - Quality of life - Physical (SF-12v2-P) | - Multivariate general | 6.5 years prior to |
| - Pain duration $\geq 15 \text{ months}^4$ | substance use disorders | - Quality of life - Mental (SF12-v2-M) | linear model | index date up to 6 |
| - Prescribed medication ensured by | (ICD-9 and ICD-10 | - Pain catastrophizing (PCS) | | months thereafter |
| the RAMQ plan | diagnostic codes) | - Non-pharmacological treatment for pain | | |
| - Minimum of a 6-month opioid- | | | | |
| free period (see Fig. below) | | | | |
| Exclusion criteria | | | | |
| - Cancer diagnosis at index date ⁵ | | | | |

in the QPR or RAMQ databases but some variables relating or interacting with gender are available. The influence of these variables will be explored by using secondmultivariable prediction models, and 3) testing statistical significance of this variable when included in the interaction terms. There is no direct measure of the gender Sex will be considered in all data analyses by 1) stratifying descriptive statistics and association measures, 2) assessing statistical significance of this variable in the level of disaggregation procedures or by creating if possible a gender-related index and including this index in the analyses.

All data analyses will be conducted using SAS for Windows version 9.4 or R version 3.3.0. The a priori alpha level for all inferential analyses (unless specified otherwise) will be set at 0.05; all statistical tests will be 2-tailed, when applicable.

Only patients with complete RAMQ data prior and after the index date will be considered for Obj.3.2.

Pain duration of 15 months will ensure that patients suffered from chronic pain (pain of a minimum of 3 months duration) at the beginning of opioid monitoring period (12 months prior to enrollment in QPR). Only patients with complete data in the administrative databases prior and after the index date will be considered for the present research

In the province of Quebec, patients with pain due to an active cancer are usually not treated in pain clinics.

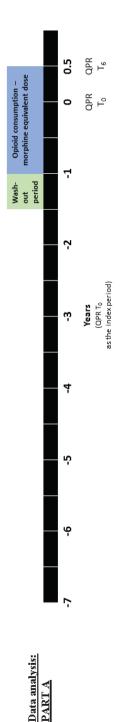
Date of dispensation, common drug denomination, form, dosage, and quantity

Pain diagnosis established by the physicians at the multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics and recoded into ICD-11beta codes for chronic pain (Treede et al 2015)

Data transformation

Transformation of opioid prescriptions into morphine equivalent doses (MEQ) (Nielsen et al. 2016)

Cal culation of the Charlson Comorbidity Index (Charlson et al. 1994) from ICD-9 or 10 diagnostic codes



PART A

Wash-out period: minimum of a 6-month opioid-free period before beginning of opioid monitoring period (12-18 months before index date that represents enrollment in the Quebec Pain Registry up to 6 months thereafter)

MEQ opioid prescriptions (averaged over periods of 1 month) will be used to compute the latent classes using 27 different indicators.

The aim of PART A is to identify subgroups of patients using a latent process that share similar characteristics of opioid consumption over an 18month period (one year prior to entry in the QPR and the subsequent 6 months). These subgroups will then be characterised based on unique characteristics that enhance within group homogeneity and between group heterogeneity. Obj.

275

The choice of statistical approach is based on the assumption that the opioid consumption trajectories will not follow parametric functions, namely because many patients should have interruptions in their opioid consumption over time. As such, a non-parametric approach to the examination of trajectories was adopted. As such, a series of indicators capturing different aspects of the trajectories (e.g., contrasting early vs. late changes, inconsistency of change) will be computed (Leffondre et al. 2004; Sylvestre et al. 2006). Step 1

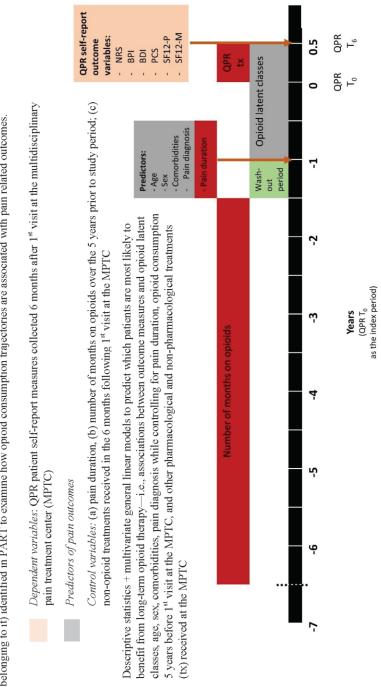
ikelihood factor analysis on polychoric correlation matrix with varimax rotation will be used to select the best indicators (indicator with highest Parallel analysis on the polychoric correlation matrix of the indicators will be used to determine number of factors to retain. Second, maximum In order to identify the indicators that best model the different changes in opioid consumption over time, principal factor analysis will be used. factor loading per factor will be retained). Step 2

identify patient clusters. Solutions ranging from 2 to N (number of factors retained) will be tested (NbClust package in R). Once number of clusters is determined, partitioning around medoids used to obtain final clusters and descriptive statistics (e.g., MEQ characteristics, age, sex) will be used to Identification of latent subgroups using cluster analysis. Partitioning cluster analysis on standardized indicators retained in Step 2 will be used to describe clusters. Step 3

Nominal variable representing cluster membership (e.g., stable long-lasting opioid users, short-lasting users, non-users). Membership assigned based on highest probability of belonging to a specific cluster result End

Data analysis: PART B

The objective of PART B is to use the patient subgroup membership (patients are assigned to the subgroup for which they have the highest probability of belonging to it) identified in PART to examine how opioid consumption trajectories are associated with pain related outcomes.



Sample size estimation

- Assuming 4 latent groups
- 7 predictor variables and control variables
- Effect size = 0.017, alpha level = 0.05, statistical power = 80%
 - Required sample size: 282 patients
- Patients eligible in the QPR+RAMQ database: $N=2\ 270$

| Choinière et al. | The PA | The PAIR Project | | Annex 2 |
|---|---|---|---|-------------------------------------|
| To address the issue of opiois | OBJECTIVE 3.3 To address the issue of opioid abuse in CNCP patients by using the RAMQ databases in the years preceding and following the advent of the opioid crisis (2006- | OBJECTIVE 3.3 MQ databases in the years pr | eceding and following the | advent of the opioid crisis (2006- |
| 2016) and examining the 1-y | 2016) and examining the 1-year incidence and risk factors of opioid doctor shopping behaviors as well as the associated serious adverse events (Abbreviations: CNCP: Chronic Non-Concernain: RAMO: Récie de l'assurance maladie du Ouébec: OPR: Ouebec Pain Recistry: ICD-9 and ICD-10: International | opping behaviors as we | Il as the associated serious Pain Registry: ICD-9 and | s adverse events (Abbreviations: |
| Classification of Diseases, Ninth and Tenth Revision) | inth and Tenth Revision) | Second III is a compa | | |
| PATIENT | RAMQ VARIABLES | QPR | STATISTICAL | TIME FRAME |
| SELECTION | January 1st 2006 – December 31st 2016 | VARIABLES | ANALYSES | |
| Inclusion criteria | - Date of birth | N/A | - Descriptive statistics | <u>Index date</u> |
| - Age ≥ 18 years | - Sex | | - Generalized linear | Date of the first dispensation of a |
| - Treated with opioids for | - Gender (?) ¹ | | models | continuous sequence of opioid |
| at least 6 consecutive | - Opioid prescriptions ⁸ | | - Structural marginal | prescriptions over 6 months |
| months (proxy for the | - Opioid-related serious adverse events' | | Cox proportional | |
| presence of CNCP) | - Psychotropic drug prescriptions ¹⁰ | | hazards models | Time period |
| - Prescribed medication | - Physical and mental comorbidities including | | | Index date up to 12 months |

Data transformation and calculation

- Transformation of opioid prescriptions into morphine equivalent doses (MEQ) (Nielsen et al. 2016)

thereafter

- Physical and mental comorbidities including substance use disorders (ICD-9 and ICD-10

Prescribed medication ensured by the RAMQ

- Location of opioid dispensation - Medical speciality of prescriber

- Cancer diagnosis at index

date

Exclusion criteria

277

diagnostic codes)

- Transformation of benzodiazepine prescriptions into benzodiazepine equivalent dose (BEQ) (Ashton 2002)
 - Calculation of the Charlson Comorbidity Index (Charlson et al. 1994)
- Calculation of the number of opioid shopping episodes during the 1-year follow-up + descriptive statistics
- Calculation of the time to first shopping episode + descriptive statistics
- Calculation of the 1-year incidence rate of opioid shopping behavior → Kaplan Meier method + descriptive statistics

Inferential statistics - PART I: 1-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping

Differences in the incidence of opioid doctor shopping according to sex and age groups → log-rank tests

Date of dispensation, common drug denomination, form, dosage and quantity.

⁹ Opioid-related serious adverse events = 1) emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal or non-fatal overdose, and 2) admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder.

¹⁰ Psychotropic drugs: benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotics, and mood stabilizers

| Annex 2 | |
|------------------|--|
| The PAIR Project | |
| Choinière et al. | |

Inferential statistics - PART I: 1-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping

Differences in the incidence of opioid doctor shopping according to sex and age groups → log-rank tests

Inferential statistics - Part II: Risk factors of opioid doctor shopping

Regression models: Cox proportional hazards models

Dependent variable: Opioid doctor shopping

Independent variables: RAMQ variables selected for their clinical relevance

- Opioid prescriptions (MEQ and classification (strong/weak))
- Psychotropic drug prescriptions (benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotics, and mood stabilizers)
 - Mental health disorders
- Substance use disorders (including opioid use disorders)
 - Charlson Comorbidity Index

- Verification of the Cox proportional proportional-hazard hypothesis by using Schoenfeld's test and plotting residuals vs. time Inclusion of the variables which meet this hypothesis in the Cox multivariate model + age and sex/gender
- Diagnostics of multicollinearity
- Test for interactions between the different variables (significant interactions if p < 0.05)
 - Report of hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals

Sample size estimation

- -Rule of 10 events per variable (EVP) (Harrell et al. 1996)
- 11 predictor variables
- Need to include 123 patients with opioid doctor shopping for an effect size (f²) of = 0.15, alpha level = 0.05, statistical power = 80%
 - Assuming a 1-year incidence of doctor shopping of 2.5% (Chenaf et al. 2016a, 2016b)
 - Required sample size = 4 920 CNCP patients treated with opioids
- Expected N in the RAMQ database considering the prevalence of CNCP = 20% (Schopflocher et al. 2011) and the prevalence of opioid use = 15% (CCSA 2015) = 108 000 patients

Inferential statistics – Part III: Associations between opioid-related serious adverse effects and opioid doctor shopping

Regression models: Structural marginal Cox proportional hazards models

Dependent variables taken one at a time

| Choinière et al. The PAIR Project | Annex 2 |
|--|---------|
| - Emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal and non-fatal overdose - Admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder | |
| Independent variable - Opioid doctor shopping | |
| Confounding variables - Age - Sex/gender - Opioid prescriptions (MEQ and classification (strong/weak)) - Medical speciality of opioid prescriber - Geographic area of opioid dispensation | |
| Psychotropic drug prescriptions (benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotics, and mood stabilizers) Mental health disorders Substance use disorders (including opioid use disorders) Charlson Comorbidity Index (Charlson et al. 1994) | |
| Steps - Logistic regression to compute the inverse-probability-of-treatment weights by considering the confounders - Logistic regression to compute the inverse-probability-of-census by considering the confounders - Computing the final weights as the product of the inverse-probability-of-treatment weights and the inverse-probability-of-census - Use of the final weights to adjust the structural marginal Cox proportional hazards model - Report of hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals | |
| Sample size estimation | |
| -Assuming an overdose frequency of 2.63% with opioid doctor shopping and 0.43% without opioid doctor shopping (Yang et al. 2015) - Need to include 485 patients with opioid doctor shopping for an alpha level = .05, statistical power = 80% - Assuming a 1-year incidence of doctor shopping of 2.5% (Chenaf et al. 2016a, 2016b) - Required sample size = 19 400 CNCP patients treated with opioids - Expected N in the RAMQ database considering that the prevalence of CNCP = 20% (Schopflocher et al. 2011) and the prevalence of opioid use = 15% (CSA 2015) = 108 000 patients |)% |

Annex 2

Annex 2 The PAIR Project Choinière et al.

OBJECTIVE 3.4

likely to engage in opioid shopping behaviors and experience severe adverse events. (Abbreviations: CNCP: Chronic Non-Cancer pain; QPR: R4MQ: Régie de l'assurance maladie du Québec; QPR: Quebec Pain Registry; ICD-9 and ICD-10: International Classification of Diseases, Ninth and Tenth Revision; NRS: To use the QPR+RAMQ infrastructure to examine whether CNCP characteristics (type, duration, severity) are important in predicting which patients are most Numerical Rating Scale; BPI: Brief Pain Inventory; BDI: Beck Depression Inventory; PCS: Pain Catastrophizing Scale)

| PATIENT SELECTION | RAMQ VARIABLES | QPR VARIABLES | STATISTICAL ANALYSES | TIME |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| Inclusion criteria - Age ≥ 18 years - Enrolled in the QPR - Completion of both the QPR baseline patient self-report and nurse-administered questionnaires - Prescribed medication ensured by the RAMQ plan - No opioid prescription in the 6 months preceding index date Exclusion criteria - Cancer diagnosis at index date Cancer diagnosis at index date | - Date of birth - Sex - Gender (?)¹ - Opioid prescriptions¹² - Medical speciality of opioid prescriber - Geographic area of opioid dispensation - Psychotropic drug prescriptions⁵₁₃ - Physical and mental comorbidities including substance use disorders (ICD-9 and ICD-10 | - Patient enrolment date in the QPR - Pain diagnosis ¹⁴ - Pain duration - Pain intensity (NRS) - Pain interference (BPI) - Depression (BDI) - Quality of life - Physical (SF-12v2-P) - Quality of life - Mental (SF12-v2-M) - Pain catastrophizing (PCS) | - Descriptive statistics - Kaplan Meier survival analysis - Cox proportional hazards model | Index date: First opioid prescription after patient enrolment in the QPR Time period: Index date up to 12 months thereafter |
| | diagnostic codes) | | | |
| D. 4. 4. 4 | | | | |

Data transformation and calculation

- Transformation of opioid prescriptions into morphine equivalent doses (MEQ) (Nielsen et al. 2016)
- Transformation of benzodiazepine prescriptions into benzodiazepine equivalent dose (BEQ) (Ashton 2002)
 - Calculation of the Charlson Comorbidity Index (Charlson et al. 1994)
- Calculation of the number of opioid shopping episodes during the 1-year follow-up + descriptive statistics
 - Calculation of the time to first shopping episode + descriptive statistics
- Calculation of the 1-year incidence rate of opioid shopping behavior → Kaplan Meier method + descriptive statistics

¹¹ In the province of Quebec, patients with pain due to an active cancer are usually not treated in pain clinics.
¹² Date of dispensation, common drug denomination, form, dosage, and quantity.

¹³ Psychotropic drugs: benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotics, and mood stabilizers

¹⁴ Pain diagnosis established by the physicians at the multidisciplinary pain treatment clinics and recoded into ICD-11 beta codes for chronic pain (Treede et al 2015)

| Choinière et al. The PAIR Project | Annex 2 |
|---|--|
| Inferential statistics - PART I: 1-year incidence of opioid doctor shopping Differences in the incidence of opioid doctor shopping according to sex and age groups → log-rank tests | nk tests |
| Inferential statistics - Part II: Pain characteristics associated with opioid doctor shopping and opioid-related serious adverse events | nd opioid-related serious adverse events |
| Regression models: Cox proportional hazards models | |
| Dependent variables (taken one at a time): - Opioid doctor shopping - Emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal or non-fatal overdose - Admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder | |
| Independent variables (taken one at a time) - Pain diagnosis - Pain duration - Pain intensity - Pain interference - Pain catastrophizing | |
| Confounding variables - Age - Sex - Opioid prescriptions (MEQ and classification (strong/weak)) - Medical speciality of prescriber - Geographic area of opioid dispensation - Psychotropic drug prescriptions - Mental health disorders - Mental health disorders - Charlson Comorbidity Index - Depression (BDI) - Quality of life - Physical (SF-12v2-P) - Quality of life - Mental (SF12-v2-M) Steps - Transformation of each independent variable to a binary variable - Pain diagnosis (neuropathic pain vs. non-neuropathic pain) - Pain intensity (moderate to severe vs mild) - Pain interference (moderate to severe vs mild) | |

| Pain catastrophizing (yes vs no) Computing propensity score usin Compute the inverse -probability Use of weights to adjust a Cox pr | | | | |
|---|--|--|---|---|
| residuals vs. time) for each independent variable take Report of hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals | Computing propensity score using logistic regression for each independent variable by considering confounders listed above and other independent variable. Compute the inverse -probability-of-treatment weights for each independent variable. Use of weights to adjust a Cox proportional hazards model (after verification of the proportional-hazard hypothesis by using Schoenfeld's test and plotting residuals vs. time) for each independent variable taken one at a time. Report of hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals | lent variable by consideri ndent variable cation of the proportional | ng confounders listed abo hazard hypothesis by usi | Computing propensity score using logistic regression for each independent variable by considering confounders listed above and other independent variables. Compute the inverse -probability-of-treatment weights for each independent variable. Use of weights to adjust a Cox proportional hazards model (after verification of the proportional-hazard hypothesis by using Schoenfeld's test and plotting residuals vs. time) for each independent variable taken one at a time. Report of hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals. |
| Sample size estimation - Rule of 10 events per variable (EVP) (Harrell et al. 1996) - 1 predictor among 5 taken one at a time - Need to include 42 patients with opioid doctor shopping behaviors for - Assuming a 1-year incidence of doctor shopping of 2.5% (Chenaf et a - Required sample size of CNCP patients treated with opioids = 1 680 - Eligible patients in the QPR+ RAMQ database: N = 1 900 | Sample size estimation - Rule of 10 events per variable (EVP) (Harrell et al. 1996) - I predictor among 5 taken one at a time - Need to include 42 patients with opioid doctor shopping behaviors for an effect size (f²)= 0.20; alpha = 0.05, statistical power = 80% - Assuming a 1-year incidence of doctor shopping of 2.5% (Chenaf et al. 2016a, 2016b) - Required sample size of CNCP patients treated with opioids = 1 680 - Eligible patients in the QPR+ RAMQ database: N = 1 900 | rffect size (f²)= 0.20; alpl 116a, 2016b) | ıa = 0.05, statistical powe | er = 80% |
| To harness the RAMQ databases over a period of 10 years in order associated serious adverse effects (Abbreviations: R4MQ: Régie de International Classification of Diseases, Ninth and Tenth Revision) | to e: 1'as | OBJECTIVE 3.5 xamine how the opioid crisis xsurance maladie du Québec; | has changed the trends in QPR: Quebec Pain Regi | opioid prescriptions and the stry; ICD-9 and ICD-10: |
| PATIENT SELECTION | RAMQ VARIABLES | OPR VARIABLES | STATISTICAL | TIME FRAME |
| ## · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · | Danuary 2000 – December 2010 | | ANALISES | |
| Inclusion criteria - Date | ate of birth | N/A | - Descriptive statistics | Time period |
| ication - C RAMQ plan - C | render (?) ¹ Sender (?) ¹ Spioid prescriptions ¹⁵ Addied sensible of aniold sensible. | | models | 31st, 2016 |
| AVI - Ge | reducal speciality of opioid received reographic location of opioid | | | |
| dus O - | Ispensation Ppioid-related serious adverse | | | |
| eve Psy - Phy - ino | events - Psychotropic drug prescriptions ¹⁷ - Physical and mental comorbidities including substance use disorder (CPL) and ICPL-10 dismostic codes) | | | |

¹⁵ Date of dispensation, common drug denomination, form, dosage and quantity.
¹⁶ Opioid-related serious adverse events = 1) emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal or non-fatal overdose, and 2) admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder.
¹⁷ Psychotropic drugs: benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotics, and mood stabilizers

- Transformation of opioid prescriptions into morphine equivalent doses (MEQ) (Nielsen et al. 2016)
- Percentage per year of opioid users = (number of patients with at least 1 prescription of opioid / total number of patients included in the prescription claims RAMQ database) X 100%
 - Average yearly opioid prescriptions expressed in MEQ among all patients included in the prescription claims of the RAMQ
 - Average daily MEQ = total daily doses / the total number of patients with at least 1 prescription of opioid
 - Prevalence per year among patients with at least one opioid prescription of:
 - Emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal or non-fatal overdose
 Admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder

Inferential statistics: generalized linear models

Generalized linear models

Dependent variables taken one at a time

- Percentage of opioid users
- Average opioid prescription expressed in MEQ
 - Average daily MEQ
- Prevalence of opioid-related serious adverse events 18

Independent variable

Year

283

Adjustment/stratification variables

- Age groups
 - Sex/gender

Sample size estimation

- 1 predictor (year) and 2 covariates (age and sex)
- Need of 55 opioid users for an effect size (f^2) of = 0.15, alpha = 0.05, statistical power = 80%
 - Assuming a prevalence of opioid use of 15% (CCSA 2015)
 - Required sample size = 367 patients
- Expected N in the RAMQ database = 3.6 million

18 Opioid-related serious adverse events = 1) emergency room visit or inpatient admission for fatal or non-fatal overdose, and 2) admission to publicly funded treatment program for opioid use disorder.

| Choinière et al. | The PAIR Project Annex | |
|------------------|------------------------|--|
| References: | | |

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Annexe 3. Questionnaire HEPCO

Version: 18 juillet 2017

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF HIV AND HCV INFECTIONS AMONG MONTREAL IDUS

BASELINE QUESTIONNAIRE

| Interviewer's name: Date of interview: Recruitment source: 2 | Su | bject code: | Coller ici | | |
|--|---------------------|-------------|------------|--|--|
| 2 | Date of interviews | | | | |
| Other service CHUM, other hospital: CLSC, medical clinic: Therapy: Dollard-Cormier Center Cran/Relais Méthadone Cactus Dans la rue (Pops) Maison du Père Spectre | Recruitment source: | | | | |
| 13 Word of mouth (street): | | | | | |

Page 1 sur 58

SECTION 1: ATTITUDE TOWARDS HEPATITIS C INFECTION OR REINFECTION RISKS

| 1Δ | . For each of the | e following | statements | tell us | how much y | vou agree o | r disanre | e usina th | e choices |
|-----|---------------------|-------------|---------------|---------|------------|-------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| יתו | . I OI CACII OI III | | i statements, | tell us | HOW HIGH | you agree o | ı uısayıc | e usniy ur | 5 CHOICE3 |

| | 1.Strongly agree | 2. Agree | 3.Disagree | 4. Strongly disagree |
|---|------------------|----------|------------|----------------------|
| a) I am preoccupied with catching the Hepatitis C virus. | | | | |
| b) My life would be completely disorganized if I had Hepatitis C. | | | | |
| c) I will have to change some of my life habits if I get infected with Hepatitis C. | | | | |
| d) I will be very affected emotionally if I get Hepatitis C. | | | | |
| e) I will be rejected by certain people of my entourage if I get Hepatitis C. | | | | |

1B. Based on your present behaviour, what are your probabilities to get infected by Hepatitis C?

- 2 Probable
- 3 Remotely probable
- 5 | Improbable

Page 2 sur 58

SECTION 2: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION 2A. What is your birth date? Month Year 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No 2B. Were you born in Canada? Si Oui, demander : In what province and city were you born? Si Non, demander: In what country were you born in? In what year did you come to Canada? 2C. With which ethnic group do you most identify? 1 Caucasian/White 9 South-East Asian (ex. Vietnamese, Thai) 2 Latin American (specify): 10 West Asian (ex. Indian, Pakistani) 3 West African (ex. Senegalese, Beninese) 11 Asian other (specify): ___ 4 African, other (specify) :_ 12 Aboriginal 13 🗌 Inuit 5 Caribbean (ex. Jamaican) 6 🗌 Haitian 14 Metis 7 Eastern European (ex. Russian, Serbian) 15 Other (specify) : _____ 8 Western European (ex. Greek, Italian) 2D. What language do you feel most comfortable speaking? 1 French 5 Uietnamese 2 English 6 🗌 Italian 3 Spanish 7 Greek 4 Creole 8 Other (specify): 2E. What is the highest level of education you have completed? ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse et cocher une seule case. ⇒ Une année d'études secondaires est considérée complétée si les cours de français, anglais et mathématiques ont été réussis. 1 🔲 None 2 🗍 Some elementary school 3 🗌 Completed elementary school 4 🗌 Some high school 5 🗌 Completed high school 6 🗌 Some CEGEP/College/Trade (vocational) school 7 Completed CEGEP/College/Trade (vocational) school 8 П Some university 9 🗍 Completed university 10 🔲 Other, specify: ____ 2F. What gender do you identify yourself as? 1 Male 2 Female 3 🗌 Other

Page 3 sur 58

⇒ L'endroit où la personne a habité est celui où elle a vécu et dormi.

2H.a) What kind of place have you lived in longest during each of the past three months?

⇒ Lire les choix de réponse et inscrire le chiffre correspondant à l'endroit désigné directement dans le tableau pour chacun des mois.

| Last month | |
|--------------|--|
| 2 months ago | |
| 3 months ago | |

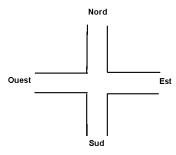
- 1 Your own apartment/house
- 2 Parent's house
- 3 House of another family member
- 4 Friends' house
- 5 Hotel/motel room
- 6 Rooming/boarding house
- 7 Shelter
- 8 Rehabilitation/detox centre
- 9 Mid/long-term shelter
- 10 Street (squat, park, bus station, car, sauna, etc.)
- 11 Jail/penitentiary
- 12 Psychiatric institution
- 13 Correctional services halfway house
- 14 Other transition house
- 15 Other, specify:

2H. What kind of place have you lived in longest in the past three months?

2l. What is the postal code of the place where you most often slept in the past month?

- ⇒ Il doit y avoir un code postal pour tous les participants.
- ⇒ Pour ceux qui ont habité la majorité du temps dans des refuges, inscrire le code postal du refuge le plus fréquenté dans le dernier mois.
- Pour ceux qui ont dormi la majorité du temps dans la rue, il faut noter plus bas le coin de rue le plus près. Dans le cas où la personne n'a jamais dormi au même endroit, il faut définir plus bas le quadrilatère le plus précis et chercher un code postal qui correspond à un point assez central du quadrilatère.





Page 4 sur 58

| 2J. What is your marital status? | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1 🗌 Leg 2 🔲 Dive 3 📗 Wic | | parated 4 ☐ Never married/Single 5 ☐ Separated but still legally married | | | | | | | | | |
| | currently live with so ast three months of c | meone as if you were married (boyfriend/girlfriend/significant other – phabitation)? | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2L. Do you liv | ve alone now? | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 ☐ N/A (street) | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |

Page 5 sur 58

SECTION 3: MAJOR/IMPORTANT EVENTS AND CALENDAR

Most of the following questions relate to the past six months. To help you remember, we prepared a calendar on which we will write down the major/important events that occurred during that time period.

- ⇒ Inscrire la date du questionnaire et générer le calendrier au moyen du programme informatique préparé à cette fin. Inscrire le code du participant sur le calendrier.
- ⇒ Poser les questions suivantes une à la fois. Si le sujet répond « oui », lui demander la date/période et mettre un ou des collants sur le calendrier. Il pourrait aussi être pertinent d'écrire sur le calendrier.

In the past six months ...

| H | 3A. | did you have a health problem, were you hospitalised, did you overdose on drugs? | 1 Yes | ₂ No |
|----------|-----|--|---------|-----------------|
| \$ | 3B. | did someone close to you get ill or die? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3C. | did you get a new boyfriend or girlfriend or did you split up with someone? | 1 Yes | ₂ No |
| • | 3D. | ☐ Women were you pregnant or did you give birth? | | |
| | | ☐ Men were you with a woman you had gotten pregnant or did you become a parent? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| 6 | 3E. | did you have conflicts with anyone close to you? | 1 Yes | ₂ No |
| \$ | 3F. | did you change job or did your income change significantly? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3G. | were you a victim of violence, robbery or sexual assault? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3Н. | did you go on or come back from a trip? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 31. | did you start or stop attending school or college? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3J. | did you celebrate your birthday or someone else's birthday? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| C | 3K. | were you incarcerated or discharged from prison? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3L. | did you move? | 1 🗌 Yes | ₂ No |
| | 3M. | Aside from events we have just talked about, did anything else happen in the past six months for which you remember the date or time period? | 1 Yes | ₂ No |
| | | | | |

⇒ Récapituler les informations inscrites sur le calendrier avec le sujet et apporter les modifications pertinentes.

⇒ Il pourrait être pertinent de recopier au propre sur un nouveau calendrier.

SECTION 4: INCOME

| | • | months, what were your sources of income? | |
|------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| ⇒C | e qui distingue | drier. Lire et cocher tous les choix qui s'appliquent. le travail occasionnel/jobines (#5) et le travail à temps régulièrement à chaque semaine. | s partiel (#6), c'est que le travail à temps |
| ⇒S | i un même emp | oloi a été un travail occasionnel, à temps partiel et à t nel/jobines, emploi à temps partiel et emploi à temps p | |
| 1 🗌 | Wellfare | Si coché, demander : | |
| | 4B. On avera | age, how long does your monthly check last? | |
| | | | Hours / Days |
| | 4C. Are you | administered? | 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No |
| | | | ⇒ Si Non, passer aux autres sources de revenu |
| | 4D. How ofte | en do you get money on your check? | 1 More than once a week 2 Once a week 3 Every second week 4 Once a month 5 Other 6 Upon asking |
| 2 🗆 | Employment i | | |
| 3 🗌 | | loans and bursaries mental/paragovernmental source of income (CSST, : | SAAO) |
| 5 🗆 | | vork or little jobs now and then | <i>57</i> (7 (3) |
| 6 🗌 | | k, that is, less than 35 hours a week | |
| 7 🔲 | Full-time work | k, that is, 35 hours a week or more | |
| 8 🔲 | | family members | |
| 9 📙 | Support from | friend(s) | |
| 10 🔲 | Prostitution | | |
| 12 🗍 | Pimping Robbery/sellir | ng stolen goods/fraud | |
| 13 🔲 | • | nal items (pawn shop, etc.) | |
| 14 🔲 | Selling drugs | | |
| 15 🗌 | Artistic activiti | ies in the metro or on the streets | |
| 16 🗌 | Begging (pan | handling) | |
| 17 🔲 | Squeegee | | |
| 18 🗌 | Other, specify | / : | |
| | nk about all yo ome? | our sources of income over the past three months | s. What was your average monthly |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| Page 7 sur | 58 | | |

292

SECTION 5: MENTAL HEALTH

| <u> </u> | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| The | following questions deal with feelings you may have had in the past month. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ⇒ Montrer le calendrier. | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5A. | In the past month, about how often did you feel tired out for no good reason? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ All of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 Most of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 Some of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 4 A little of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 5 None of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5B. | In the past month, about how often did you feel nervous? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ All of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 Most of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 ☐ Some of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 4 ☐ A little of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 5 None of the time ⇒ Si Jamais, passer à la question 5D | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5C. | In the past month, about how often did you feel so nervous that nothing could calm you down? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 All of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 Most of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 Some of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 4 A little of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 5 None of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5D. | In the past month, about how often did you feel hopeless? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 All of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 Most of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 Some of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 4 ☐ A little of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 5 None of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | In the most wearth, about how often did you feel restless or fiducts 2 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3⊑. | In the past month, about how often did you feel restless or fidgety? Lire les choix de réponse. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ All of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 2 Most of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 3 ☐ Some of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 4 A little of the time | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 5 ☐ None of the time Si Jamais, passer à la question 5G. | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | |
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Page 8 sur 58

| 5F. In the past month, about how often did you feel so restless you could not sit still? ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. 1 ☐ All of the time 2 ☐ Most of the time 3 ☐ Some of the time | |
|---|--------|
| 1 All of the time 2 Most of the time | |
| 2 Most of the time | |
| | |
| 2 Comp of the time | |
| 3 ☐ Some of the time | |
| 4 ☐ A little of the time | |
| 5 None of the time | |
| 5G. In the past month, about how often did you feel sad or depressed? | |
| ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. | |
| 1 All of the time | |
| 2 Most of the time | |
| 3 ☐ Some of the time | |
| 4 ☐ A little of the time | |
| 5 ☐ None of the time | |
| 5H. In the past month, about how often did you feel so depressed that nothing could cheer you | ou up? |
| ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. | |
| 1 All of the time | |
| 2 ☐ Most of the time | |
| 3 Some of the time | |
| 4 ☐ A little of the time | |
| 5 None of the time | |
| 5l. In the past month, about how often did you feel that everything was an effort? | |
| | |
| 1 All of the time | |
| 2 Most of the time | |
| 3 Some of the time | |
| 4 A little of the time | |
| 5 None of the time | |
| 5J. In the past month, about how often did you feel worthless? | |
| ⇒ Lire les choix de réponse. 1 □ All et the time. | |
| 1 All of the time | |
| 2 Most of the time | |
| 3 Some of the time | |
| 4 A little of the time | |
| 5 None of the time | |
| | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

Page 9 sur 58

SECTION 6: LIFE BIOGRAM

- Avant de remplir le Biogramme vie avec la personne, prendre note des consignes suivantes
- Lire à la personne le texte figurant avant le début du tableau afin de la rassurer sur l'utilité des informations recueillies, sur le fait que nous sommes conscients de la difficulté de se rappeler toutes les dates précisément et que nous ne voulons pas les détails de chaque événement.
- 2. Il faut répondre au tableau de la façon suivante :
- rmettre un X vis-à-vis l'âge où l'événement s'est produit. mettre un X vis-à-vis l'âge où l'événement a débuté, puis tracer une ligne jusqu'à l'âge où l'événement se termine et Événement ponctuel : Événement prolongé :
 - mettre un X vis-à-vis de cet âge. Événement intermittent : suivre la procédure en b) pour chaque période où l'événement se produit. c)
- 3. Par relation soutenue, on entend une relation stable qui a duré suffisamment longtemps pour que la personne considère que cela a marqué sa vie (union libre ou autre relation).
- Finalement, voici le sens complet des choix de réponse utilisés dans la colonne située immédiatement après la liste des événements à considérer

N/A = Non applicable
NSP = Ne sait pas
Refus = Refuse de répondre

⇒ Lire ce qui suit au participant avant de commencer à remplir le Biogramme vie.

The following table will allow to place in time important events in your life. We do not want to know the details of these events, but rather how old you were when they occured. Please answer as precisely as you can, at least concerning your age at the time of the event. This information will serve to pinpoint certain periods for the rest of the questionnaire.

| Important Events | 1= N/A 2= NSP 3= Refus | 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 |
|--|------------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Alcohol use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Drug use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Injection drug use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Methadone/Suboxone Program | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Inpatient Therapy > 1 month | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Outpatient Therapy/Support Group > 1 month | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| End of Education | | | | | | | | П | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Marriage/Long-term relationship | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth/Children | | | | | | | T | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Incarceration> 1 month | | Π | Γ | | Π | Γ | Π | Г | Τ | Π | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Page 10 sur 58

| Important Events | 1= N/A 2= NSP 3= Refus | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 |
|--|------------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Alcohol use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Drug use | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Injection drug use | | | Г | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Methadone/Suboxone Program | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Inpatient Therapy > 1 month Outpatient Therapy/Support Group > 1 month | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| End of Education | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Marriage/Long-term relationship | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Birth/Children | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Incarceration> 1 month | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Page 11 sur 58

SECTION 7: DRUG/PSYCHOACTIVE SUBSTANCE USE PROFILE

- ⇒ Montrer le calendrier et vérifier dans le Biogramme si l'âge de la première consommation d'alcool et de drogue est conforme avec ce qu'il répond en 7A.
- ➡ Si la personne répond Oui à la première question, ce qui signifie qu'elle a consommé cette drogue ou substance psychoactive dans sa vie, il faut poser la question pour les six derniers mois. Si elle répond Oui pour les six derniers mois, il faut poser la question pour les trois derniers mois et, quelle que soit la réponse, passer à la drogue ou substance suivante dans le tableau.
- Si la personne répond Non à la première question, ce qui signifie qu'elle n'a jamais consommé cette drogue ou substance dans sa vie, il faut passer à la drogue ou substance suivante dans le tableau.
- ⇒ Si la personne répond Oui à la première question, mais qu'elle répond Non à la question pour les six derniers mois, il faut cocher la dernière case pour indiquer qu'il n'y a eu aucune consommation de cette drogue ou substance dans les six derniers mois.
- 7A. a) Have your ever used any of the following drugs or psychoactive substances?
 - b) If yes, how old were you when you first used them?
 - c) Did you use any in the past six months?
 - d) Did you use any in the past three months?
 - e) You haven't used this drug or psychoactive substance in the past six months?

| | | Age of first consumption | During the past six (6) months | During the past three (3) months | No consumption in the past six (6) months |
|----|--|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. | Alcohol | | | | |
| 2. | ☐ Heroin IV | | | | |
| 3. | ☐ Heroin smoked or snorted | | | | |
| 4a | Cocaine IV (powder) | | | | |
| 4b | ☐ Cocaine IV (from crack) | | | | |
| 5a | Cocaine smoked (powder) | | | | |
| 5b | Cocaine smoked (freebase, crack) | | | | |
| 6. | ☐ Cocaine snorted | | | | |
| 7. | Speedball (heroin and cocaine or other opiates in the same syringe) | | | | |
| 8a | Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 8b | Suboxone IV, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 9a | ☐ Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 9b | ☐ Methadone IV, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 10 | Other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 11 | Other opiates IV, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 12 | Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non- injected, as tablet, puff, or other (speed, crystal, meth, ice) | — | | | |

Page 12 sur 58

| | Age of first consumption | During the past six (6) months | During the past three (3) months | No consumption in the past six (6) months |
|---|---|--|----------------------------------|---|
| 13 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants IV (speed, crystal, meth, ice) | | | | |
| 14 Barbiturates (barbs, goofball) non- injected, for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 15 Barbiturates IV (barbs, goofball), for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 16a ☐ Tranquilizers non-injected (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 16b Tranquilizers IV (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes | | | | |
| 17 Marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed | — | | | |
| 18a Psychedelic drugs non-injected (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Ketamine, GHB) | | | | |
| 18b Psychedelic drugs IV (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Kétamine, GHB) | | | | |
| 19 Other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) | | | | |
| 20 Other medication IV, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) | | | | |
| 21a Other drugs non-injected | | | | |
| 21b Other drugs IV | | | | |
| 7A.f) How many days have you been using the second | ole ever annoyed 2 ☐ No ever felt you oug 2 ☐ No | you by criticising ht to cut down you | your drinking? ır drinking? | bove)? |

Page 13 sur 58

| 7B.d) | In your lifetime, have you ever had a drink first thing in the morning to stea or get rid of a hangover? | | | dy your nerv |
|-------|---|----------------------|------------------------------|--------------|
| | 1 Yes | 2 🗌 No | | |
| 7B.e) | In the past month, how many | / days have you us | ed alcohol? | |
| | days | ⇒ Si 0 jour, p | asser à la section suivante. | |
| | | | | |
| | 1 beer = 1 glass of wine = 1,5 | ounces of liquor | = 1 drink | 1 |
| | King Can beer (750 ml) | • | = 2 drinks |] |
| | Beer Boss (950ml) | | = 3 drinks | |
| | 1,18 litres of beer | | = 4 drinks | |
| | 1 pitcher of beer | | = 5 drinks | |
| | Bottle of wine (750 ml) | | = 6 drinks | |
| | Bottle of wine (1 litre) | | = 8 drinks | |
| | Listerine bottle 1 litre = 26 ou | nces of liquor | = 17 drinks | |
| | 40 ounces of liquor | | = 27 drinks |] |
| | | | | |
| 7B.g) | ⇒ For men only | | | |
| | In the past month, have you | had five drinks or i | more in one occasion? | |
| | 1 □ Yes | 2 ∏ No | | |
| | ⇒ If Yes, How many times d | id it happen? | | times |
| | | | | |
| | ⇒ For women only | | | |
| | In the past month, have you | had four drinks or | more in one occasion? | |
| | 1 | 2 ∏ No | | |
| | ⇒ If Yes, How many times di | _ | | times |
| | → II Tes, How many times di | и пларрент | | es |
| | | | | |

Page 14 sur 58

Heroin consumption

I'm going to ask you detailed questions about your drug and other psychoactive substance use in the past month. We will start with heroin, which you have taken alone or mixed with other drugs.

- 🗢 Compléter les colonnes du tableau, une ligne à la fois. Toujours lire les choix de réponse au participant.
- Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 2 et 3 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation d'héroïne blanche, beige ou brune dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| 7C did you inject heroin? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |
| 7D did you smoke or snort heroin through your nose? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |

Page 15 sur 58

| Cocaine | consump | tion |
|---------|---------|------|
| | | |

⇒ Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 4a, 4b, 5a, 5b et 6 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à toutes ces questions (pas de consommation de cocaïne injectée, fumée ou sniffée dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|---|-------------------------------|--|
| 7Ea did you inject cocaine (powder)? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No 7Eb did you inject cocaine (from | | 1 |
| crack)? 1 | | 2 |
| 7Fa did you smoke cocaine (powder)? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |
| 7Fb did you smoke cocaine (freebase, crack)? 1 ☐ Yes ⇔ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |
| 7G did you snort cocaine through your nose? 1 ☐ Yes ▷ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |

Speedball consumption (cocaine and heroin or other opiates in the same syringe)

⇒ Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 7 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à cette question (pas de consommation de speedball dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| 7H did you inject speedball, that is, a mix of cocaine and heroin or other opiates in the same syringe? 1 ☐ Yes ⇔ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |

Page 16 sur 58

Suboxone or methadone consumption for non-medical purposes

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 8a et 8b (Suboxone) et 9a et 9b (Méthadone) à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation de Suboxone ni de méthadone à usage non médical dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total and how many mg/day? |
|--|--|
| 7la did you inject Suboxone for non-medical purposes? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | How many days in total How many mg/day |
| 7l did you take Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | How many days in total How many mg/day |
| | |
| 7Ja did you inject Methadone for non-medical purposes? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | How many days in total How many mg/day |
| 7J did you take Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | How many days in total How many mg/day |

Other opiates consumption for non-medical purposes

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 10 et 11 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation d'autres opiacés injectés ou non injectés dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| injectes dans les trois derniers mois), passer au ta | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
| 7K did you inject other opiates for non-medical purposes? | | 1 1 to 3 2 4 to 6 |
| 1 | | 3 7 to 10 4 More than 10 |
| Which other opiates did you inject? | | |
| Among those other opiates, which one did you inject the most often? | | |
| On average, how many mg a day of this other opiate did you inject? mg/day | | |
| 7K.1 In the past month, when you did a hit of (nommer les opiacés injectés, autres que l'héroïne, mentic all fit into the syringe? | | |
| ⇒ Si le participant a besoin de précision, donner l'exemple | a'un nit de dilau 8m | g ou de l'nyaro 18mg. |
| 2 ☐ No ⇒ Si Non, passer à 7K.2 1 ☐ Yes ⇒Si Oui, dema Did it happen that you ha | | No ⇔ Si Non, passer à 7K.2 |
| yourself several times be syringe could not hold all t | | Yes ➾ Si Oui, demander : |
| | used : | happen at least once that you a single syringe to do it? |
| | | Lire les choix et cocher une seule ponse |
| | <u>=</u> | Yes, most of the time/all the time |
| | 3 ∐ 2 □ | Yes, from time to time No |
| | 2 🗆 | INO |
| 7K.2 In the past month, did it happen that you injected (nommer les opiacés injectés, autres q | - | |
| and/or a container? | | |
| 2 No | | |
| 1 | used by someone e | lse beforehand? |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Page 18 sur 58

| extracted from a filter and/or a container that you had to 2 No 1 Yes | | es que l'héroïne, mentionnés en 71 | | |
|--|-------------------------------|---|--|--|
| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? | | |
| TL did you take other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes? 1 | | | | |
| Amphetamines and other psychostimulants consumption Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 12 et 13 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation d'amphétamines et autres psychostimulants injectés ou non injectés dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant. a) In the past month b) How many d) On average, how many times | | | | |
| M did you inject amphetamines or other osychostimulants (speed, crystal, meth, ice)? ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui | days in total? | a day did you do it? 1 | | |
| ZN… did you take amphetamines or other osychostimulants non-injected in tablet, puff, or | | 1 | | |

304

Tranquilizers consumption for non-medical purposes

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 16a et 16b à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation de tranquillisants injectés ou non injectés dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| 70a did you inject tranquilizers for non-medical purposes (downers, peanuts, benzos)? 1 □ Yes □ Si Oui 2 □ No | | 1 |
| 70b did you take tranquilizers non-injected, for non-medical purposes (downers, peanuts, benzos)? 1 □ Yes □ Si Oui 2 □ No | | 1 |

Marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed consumption

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 17 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à cette question (pas de consommation de marijuana, de hashish, de pot, d'herbe dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| 7P did you take marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed? 1 ☐ Yes ➡ Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |

Page 20 sur 58

Psychedelic drugs consumption

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 18a et 18b à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation de drogues psychédéliques injectées ou non injectées dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|--|
| 7Qadid you inject psychedelic drugs? (LSD, PCP, mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, mushrooms, kétamine, GHB) 1 □ Yes □ Si Oui 2 □ No | | 1 |
| 7Qb did you take psychedelic drugs non-injected? (LSD, PCP, mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, mushrooms, kétamine, GHB) 1 ☐ Yes Si Oui 2 ☐ No | | 1 |

Page 21 sur 58

Other medication consumption for non-medical purposes

Vérifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 19 et 20 à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation d'autres médicaments à usage non médical injectés ou non injectés dans les trois derniers mois), passer au tableau de consommation mensuel suivant.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|--|-------------------------------|---|
| 7R did you inject other medication for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin)? 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No ☐ Si Oui Which other medication for non-medical purposes did you inject in the past month? | | 1 |
| 7S did you take other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin)? 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No ⇒ Si Oui Which other medication for non-medical purposes did you use in the past month? | | 1 |

Other drugs consumption

∀érifier la cohérence avec la consommation des trois derniers mois, voir choix 21a et 21b à la question 7A. Si la personne a répondu Non à ces deux questions (pas de consommation d'autres drogues injectées ou non injectées dans les trois derniers mois), passer à la section suivante.

| a) In the past month | b) How many days in total? | d) On average, how many times a day did you do it? |
|---|-------------------------------|--|
| 7Tadid you inject other drugs? 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No | | 1 |
| 7Tb did you take other drugs non-injected? 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No ☐ Si Oui Which other drugs non-injected did you take in the past month? | | 1 |

Page 23 sur 58

| | | | | COHORTE SAINT-LUC - HEPCO - E | SASELINE |
|--|------------------|----------|-------------------|---|----------------|
| SECTION 8: INJECTION PROFILE | | | | | |
| | roques | | | | |
| ⇒ Si la date de la dernière injection es | 0 | trois | de | rniers mois, inscrivez la date puis pass | ez à la |
| question 8L | | | | , | |
| 8D. When was the last time you injected y | ourself? | | | // day month ye | |
| | | | | day month ye | ar |
| ⇒ Pour la question 8B, consulter la carte | e pour trouv | er l'arı | or | dissement et inscrire le numéro correspo | ondant. |
| | | | | | |
| 8B. In the past three months, in which city | or which | borou | ıgh | ı of Montreal, did you inject most ofter | 1? |
| | | | | | |
| 8C. In the past three months, did you injections did you injections did you have | | | | | |
| injections did you do there? | ⇒ | Le to | ıtaı | doit donner 100% | |
| | % inia atia n | | | | % iniaatian |
| 1 At home (room/apartment) | injection % | 7 | $\overline{\Box}$ | At the dealer's | injection % |
| 2 Public restrooms/bar/restaurant | % | 8 | | In a sauna | % |
| 3 At a friend's home | % | 9 | | In prison, in a detention centre | % |
| 4 Crack house/shooting gallery | % | 10 | | Peepshow | % |
| 5 Street (alley/entrance way) | % | 11 | | Other | % |
| 6 Park | % | 12 | | Room rented for an injection period | % |
| durant le troisième mois qui précède Month 1 Month 2 Month 3 | | | | de la date d'aujourd'hui. Par Mois 3 on e d'aujourd'hui. | intena. |
| 8F. How many times have you re-used the | same syri | nge i | n t | he past three months? | |
| 8H. In the past three months, how many ti | mes did yo | ou nee | ed | help to inject? | |
| 1 ☐ Always (100%) | 4 □ Ra | rely (< | < 2 | 5%) | |
| 2 Often (> 75%) | 5 🗌 Ne | ver (0 | %) | | |
| 3 ☐ Sometimes (26 – 74%) | 6 🗌 Do | n't kno | wc | | |
| 8l. During the past month, what were you | r injection l | habits | ? | | |
| How many days of injection? | • | | | | |
| How many injections per day? | | | | | |
| 8J. According to your answers, you have Does that seem correct? | injected a | total | of | times in the past mon | th. |
| 1 ☐ Yes ⇨ Si Oui, passer à la qu | uestion 8L | 2 □ 1 | Vo | ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question 8K | |
| | | | =-1 | | |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Page 24 sur 58

| 8K. | | hat numbe the past m | | t do you think is the correct | | s you have injected |
|---|---------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|--|-------------------------|------------------------|
| | | | | injectio | ns in the past month | |
| 8L. | In t | the past th | ree months, have | you stopped injecting volun | tarily or by obligation | 1? |
| A « stop » refers to a period during which you have decided, or been forced by certain circumstar stop injecting, but should not include your usual injection cycle. For example, if you usually weekends, or at the beginning of each month, the days you are not using do not count as stoppages. | | | | | f you usually use o | |
| | \Rightarrow | Répondre cette péri | | et a débuté avant la période d | e trois mois mais qu'i | l s'est prolongé durar |
| | \Rightarrow | Montrer le | e calendrier pour bie | n situer les mois concernés. | | |
| | \Rightarrow | entend : d | durant le deuxième | int le mois qui précède, à pa mois qui précède, à partir de l récède, à partir de la date d'au | a date d'aujourd'hui. F | |
| | 1 [| Yes | 2 🗌 No | ⇒ Si Non, passer à la | section 9. | |
| | lf v | ou have s | topped injecting d | uring this three month perio | d. was it during : | |
| | • | onth 1 | ,,, | | per of days without u | sing? |
| | | Was it vo | oluntarily or by obli | gation? | - | - |
| | | 1 🗌 Volu | ıntarily : detox/thei | apy/by themselves | Number of days | s |
| | | 2 🗌 By 0 | bligation : forced | therapy, prison, vacation, ot | her Number of days | s |
| | Mo | onth 2 | | Total numi | per of days without u | sing? |
| | | Was it vo | oluntarily or by obli | gation? | - | - |
| | | 1 🗌 Volu | ıntarily : detox/thei | apy/by themselves | Number of days | . |
| | | 2 🗌 By 0 | obligation : forced | therapy, prison, vacation, ot | her Number of days | <u> </u> |
| | Мо | onth 3 | | Total numi | per of days without u | sing? |
| | | Was it vo | oluntarily or by obli | gation? | | |
| | | 1 🗌 Volu | ıntarily : detox/the | apy/by themselves | Number of days | s |
| | | 2 □ Bv o | bligation : forced | therapy, prison, vacation, ot | her Number of days | 3 |

SECTION 9: DRUG EXCESS

| | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No | \Rightarrow | Si Non, passer | à la question 9 | M |
|---|---|----------------------|---------------|--|-----------------|-----------------|
| | 9A.b) Generally speaking, w your consumption? | vould you say 1 | these epi | sodes are perio | ds when you | lost control ov |
| | 1 Yes | 2 🗌 No | | | | |
| | 9A.c) Generally speaking, v | would you say | these ep | isodes involve | long periods | of time with r |
| | 1 Never 2 Some of the time 3 All of the time | 2 | | | | |
| | ⇒ Les prochaines questions c | oncernent les tro | ois dernier | s mois. | | |
| | In the past three months, limited period of time, until consuming any? | | | | | |
| | 1 Yes 2 | No ⇒ | Si Nor | ı, passer à la que | estion 9K | |
| | If yes, how often did you have | ve these episod | les? ⇒ | Au besoin faire | la moyenne | |
| | 1 ☐ More than once a wee 2 ☐ Once a week 3 ☐ Once every second we 4 ☐ Once every third week | 6 On eek 7 On | | h second month | | |
| ŀ | How many hours, or days, di | d these episode | es last? | | | |
| | | | | | # hours | # days |
| ١ | What was the longest period | you went witho | out sleep? | , | | |
| | ⇒ Noter l'information er | n nombre d'heur | es | H | ours | |
| | During these episodes, how i | many times did | you inje | t yourself, on a | verage? | |
| | builing these episodes, now | | | | | |
| | During these episodes, now | | | | in | ections |
| | During these episodes, now i | were the princi | pal drugs | you injected? | in | ections |
| | | | ō □ Ampl | you injected? netamines and other discovering the control of the c | ner psychostim | |

Page 26 sur 58

| 9J. During these episodes, did you take any o | ther drugs that you did not inject? |
|--|--|
| 1 🗌 Marijuana | 10 Alcohol |
| 2 Smoked crack | 11 None |
| 3 Amphetamines and other psychostim | |
| non- injected, as tablet, puff, or other | _ |
| (speed, crystal, meth, ice) | |
| 6 Tranquilizers/sedatives | 13 Smoked heroin |
| 9 Other (hallucinogens, ecstasy, | 14 Other opiates (medication sniffed, |
| ketamine, GHB, synthetic drugs, etc | .) ingested, or other modes) |
| Specify | Specify |
| | |
| 9G.a) Were there other people present? | 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No |
| ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question 9H. Si Oui, c | ocher le(s) choix pertinent(s) dans la liste. |
| 1 Girlfriend/boyfriend/spouse | |
| 2 Other regular sex partner | |
| 3 ☐ Close friend | |
| 4 ☐ Friends/acquaintances | |
| 5 Family members | |
| 6 ☐ Drug buddies/ « cutter » | |
| 7 Business relations not in categories | 1-5 (client, dealer, pimp, etc.) |
| 8 Strangers | , , , , , , |
| 10 Uncertain | |
| 11 Other, specify: | |
| 9G.b) Among all these people, which one | e was present most of the time? |
| ⇒ Inscrire la réponse à partir de la lis | · |
| 9H. During these episodes, did you always kn | ow where your syringes were? |
| 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No | |
| 9K. During these episodes, did you reuse you | r syringes? |
| 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No | 3 ☐ Not certain |
| 9l. During these episodes, did you use syringe | es that had already been used by someone else? |
| 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No | 3 ☐ Not certain |
| 9L. During these episodes, did you use injecti to inject | on works which had been used by someone else |
| 1 Yes 2 No | 3 ☐ Not certain |
| YOURSELF DURING THE EPISODE, in w | ienced EPISODES OF DRUG USE, WITHOUT INJECTING thich you used large amounts of substances (drugs of time until you had no more or you were no longer |
| 1 | Si Non, passer à la section 10. |
| If yes, how often have you had these ep | isodes? ⇔ Au besoin faire la moyenne |
| 1 ☐ More than once a week 5 ☐ 0 | Once a month |
| | Once every second month |
| 3 Once every second week 7 0 | • |
| 4 ☐ Once every third week | |
| · | |

Page 27 sur 58

| 9N. | If yes, what were the substances that you took non-sto | pp? |
|-----|---|--|
| | 1 Marijuana 2 Smoked crack 3 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non- injected, as tablet, puff, or other | 10 ☐ Alcohol 11 ☐ None 12 ☐ Sniffed cocaine |
| | (speed, crystal, meth, ice) 6 ☐ Tranquilizers/sedatives 9 ☐ Other (hallucinogens, ecstasy, ketamine, GHB, synthetic drugs, etc.) Specify | 13 Smoked heroin 14 Other opiates (drug sniffed, consumed, or other) Specify |
| 90. | How many hours, or days, did these episodes last? | |
| 9P. | What was the longest period you went without sleep? ⇒ Noter l'information en nombre d'heures | # hours # days |

Page 28 sur 58

SECTION 10: NEEDLE EXCHANGE

10A- In the past three months, did you get your syringes from the following sources?

- ⇒ Si oui, cocher et indiquer le pourcentage de seringues obtenues par l'entremise de cette source. Le total doit donner 100%.
- ⇒ Si la personne obtient ses seringues par l'entremise de quelqu'un d'autre, c'est cet individu qu'il faut
 désigner dans le tableau (amis(es)/partenaires, dealer, poteau) et non l'endroit d'où proviennent les
 seringues.

| seringues. | | | |
|--|---------------|---|----------|
| | % | | % |
| | syringes | | syringes |
| a 🔲 Cactus | % | j 🗌 Friends/partners | 9/ |
| b Anonyme | % | k Clinic | 9/ |
| c ☐ Spectre | % | I □ CLSC | 9/ |
| d Dopamine | % | m ☐ Street nurse | 9 |
| e Pharmacy | % | n 🔲 Outreach worker | 9 |
| f ☐ Other needle exchange programs (NEP) | % | o 🗌 Pad | 9 |
| g ☐ Bought in the street | % | p 🗌 Relais Méthadone | 9 |
| h Dealer | % | q ☐ Dans la Rue (Pops) | 9 |
| i ☐ "Poteau" (person who get syringes from a needle | % | r 🔲 Other | 9 |
| exchange program and distributes them on the street, free of charge) | | | |
| | | s Supervised injection site | |
| Si, à la question 10A, la personne a répondu Oui e concernant des programmes d'échange ou des cer et s), il faut répondre à la question 10B. Si la perso à la question 10C. | ntres de dist | ribution gratuite (a, b, c, d, f, l, m, n | ı, p, q |
| In the past three months, you have received some or another free distribution center (Cactus, Anony programs, CLSC, street nurses, street worker, injection site). | me, Spectr | e, Dopamine, other syringe exch | ange |
| a) How many syringes, on average, did you obtain when you went yourself? | per visit | | |
| b) How many of these syringes were for your pers | onal use? | | |
| c) How many of these syringes were for other peop | ple? | | |

⇒ Si, à la question 10A, la personne a répondu Oui et un pourcentage >0% au choix concernant les pharmacies (e), il faut répondre à la question 10C. Si la personne a répondu Non et 0%, passer à la section suivante.

10C In the past three months, you have received some of your syringes through a pharmacy. The syringes received in pharmacies can come in a « kit », be it in a package of four syringes with a stericup and a disinfectant, or can be bought individually. The next questions have to do first with the kits, and then with syringes bought on an individual basis.

| Verifier si la personne comprend bierria distinction entre kits et seringues veridue | s maiviauellement |
|---|-------------------|
| a) How many kits have you obtained, on average, on each visit when you went yourself? | |
| This makes a total of kits X 4 = syringes | |
| b) How many of these syringes were for your personal use? | |
| c) How many of these syringes were for other people? | |

Page 29 sur 58

10B

| e) How many individually bought syringes have you obtained, on average, on each visit when you went yourself? | |
|---|--|
| f) Of these syringes, how many were for your personal use? | |
| g) How many of these syringes were for other people? | |

Page 30 sur 58

SECTION 11: SHARING NEEDLES AND WORKS

⇒ Lire la définition suivante au participant avant de poser les questions 11A à 11F.

BY « SHARING A SYRINGE », WE MEAN: USING A SYRINGE THAT HAS ALREADY BEEN USED BY ANOTHER PERSON. THIS ENTAILS ANY PRACTICE INCLUDING A SYRINGE USED FOR INJECTION PURPOSES OR THAT HAS BEEN IN DIRECT OR INDIRECT CONTACT WITH BLOOD. FOR EXAMPLE, INJECTING YOURSELF WITH A SYRINGE THAT SOMEONE ELSE HAS ALREADY INJECTED THEMSELVES WITH, FILLING YOUR SYRINGE WITH ANOTHER SYRINGE THAT SOMEONE HAS USED TO INJECT THEMSELVES WITH, MIXING THE DRUGS IN A SYRINGE THAT SOMEONE HAS USED TO INJECT THEMSELVES WITH...

| 11A. | Have you ever us | ed a syringe which was | used by someone else? | |
|------|---------------------------------|---|---|---------|
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question 11G | |
| | ⇒ Pour la questior | n suivante, montrer le cal | endrier et inscrire la date | |
| 11C. | When was the last | t time you shared? | / | |
| 11D. | How many times | have your shared a syr | nge in the past six months? | |
| | 1 None | 2 🗌 Once | 3 □ < 5 | |
| | 4 🗌 6-10 | 5 🗌 > 10 | 6 □ > 100 | |
| 11E. | How many times | have your shared a syri | nge in the past three months? | |
| | 1 None | 2 🗌 Once | 3 🗌 < 5 | |
| | 4 🗌 6-10 | 5 🗌 > 10 | 6 □ > 100 | |
| | | t répond 1 (aucune) à l res choix, répondre à la c | a question 11E, passer à la question 11G. Si le par uestion 11F. | ticipan |
| | | , from how many differenced themselven | ent people have you used a syringe with es? | |
| | With whom did | you use the same syrin | ge? | |
| | 1 🗌 Girlfriend/b | oyfriend/spouse | | |
| | 2 🗌 Other regu | ılar sex partner | | |
| | 3 Close frier | nd | | |
| | 4 🗌 Friends/ac | quaintances | | |
| | 5 🗌 Family me | mbers | | |
| | 6 🔲 Drug budd | | | |
| | | elations not in categories | 1-5 (client, dealer, pimp, etc.) | |
| | 8 Strangers | | | |
| | 9 ☐ Found equ 10 ☐ Uncertain | lipment | | |
| | | cify: | | |
| | _ , , | , | | |
| | Among all these | e people, whose syringe | • | |
| | | | e le chiffre à partir de la liste ci-dessus | |

Page 31 sur 58

| ⇒ Li | re la définition suiva | nte au participant avant | de poser les questions 11G à 11K. | |
|------|---|---|--|--------------------------|
| WASH | H (LEFT-OVER DRUGS | EXTRACTED WITH A CO | TATED PREPARATION CONTAINER (SPOON TTON BALL, A FILTER, OR A CONTAINE. ER, THE COTTON BALL AND THE TAMPON. | R), THE COOKER (HEATED |
| 11G. | Have you ever us | ed injection works which | ch had been used by someone else | to inject? |
| | 1 Yes | 2 🗌 No | ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question | |
| | | n suivante, montrer le d asser à la question 11L.a | calendrier et inscrire la date. Si la da | ate remonte à > 6 mois, |
| 11H. | When was the last by someone else | | ection works which had been used | // |
| | How many times in previously used by | y someone else? | ave you used injection works | |
| | 1 🗌 None | 2 | 3 🗌 < 5 | |
| | 4 🗌 6-10 | 5 🗌 > 10 | 6 🗌 > 100 | |
| 11J. | How many times i previously used b | n the past three month | s have you used injection works | |
| | 1 None | 2 🗌 Once | 3 🗌 < 5 | |
| | 4 🗌 6-10 | 5 🗌 > 10 | 6 □ > 100 | |
| | | répond 1 (aucune) à la res choix, répondre à la c | a question 11J, passer à la question question 11K. | 11L.a. Si le participant |
| 11K | . From how many լ | people have you used p | previously used injection works? | |
| | Whose works w | ere they? | | |
| | 1 🗌 Girlfriend/b | oyfriend/spouse | | |
| | 2 Other regu | lar sex partner | | |
| | 3 Close frien | id . | | |
| | 4 🗌 Friends/ac | quaintances | | |
| | 5 Family me | mbers | | |
| | 6 Drug budd | | | |
| | _ ~ | | s 1-5 (client, dealer, pimp, etc.) | |
| | 8 Strangers | | | |
| | 9 🗌 Found equ | ipment | | |
| | 10 🗌 Uncertain | | | |
| | 11 🗌 Other, spe | cify : | | |
| | Among all these | noonlo whose works | did you use the most? | |

Page 32 sur 58

⇒ Inscrire le chiffre à partir de la liste ci-dessus _____

| | | | OOHORTE SAINT-EOO - HELOO - BASELINE | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | |
| | | uestion 11N.a). Si la date | dernier partage de seringues est avant les six e du dernier partage de seringues est dans les six | | | | |
| 11L.a) | 11L.a) In the past six months, has one or more people with whom you shared a syringe been infected with HIV at the time? | | | | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know | | | | |
| 11M.a) In the past six months, has one or more people with whom you shared a syringe been infected with HCV at the time? | | | | | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 Don't know | | | | |
| | i ∐ tes | | | | | | |
| | Pour les questions 11N.a et 11O.a, si la date du dernier partage de matériel d'injection est avant les six derniers mois, passer à la question 11R. Si la date du dernier partage de matériel d'injection est dans les six derniers mois, il faut répondre à 11N.a et 11O.a. | | | | | | |
| 11N.a) | I1N.a) In the past six months, has one or more people with whom you have shared injection works been infected with HIV at the time? | | | | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know | | | | |
| 110.a) | e.a) In the past six months, has one or more people with whom you have shared injection works been infected with HCV at the time? | | | | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🔲 No | 3 Don't know | | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 No | | | | | |
| 11R. | In the past month, did you in | nject yourself with som | eone who was injecting at the same time? | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 N/A (no injection) | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |

Page 33 sur 58

SECTION 12: SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR 12A. What is your sexual orientation or preference? 1 Heterosexual 4 Refuse to answer 2 Homosexual 5 Other (specify) 3 Bisexual 12B. How old were you when you began having complete sexual activities (vaginal, oral or anal)? 1 Yes 12C. Have you ever engaged in prostitution activities? 2 | No If yes, when was the first time? month year If yes, have you stopped your prostitution activities? 1 🗌 Yes 2 No If yes, when did you stop? month day vear 12D. In the past six months, have you had any sexual intercourse? 1 🗌 Yes 2 No ⇒ Si Oui, Répondre à la question 12E. ⇒ Si Non, Passer à la section 13. 12E. In the past six months, how many different sex partners did you have? a) Male b) Female 12F. In the past three months, have you had vaginal, oral or anal sexual relations with women? 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No ⇒ Si Non, Passer à la question 12N 12G. In the past three months, how many female partners have you had and, among those, how many injected drugs? Une partenaire réqulière est une personne avec qui l'on a été pendant plus de trois mois. Cette relation ne doit pas être dans un contexte de prostitution, avec échange d'argent. Une partenaire occasionnelle est une personne avec qui l'on a été pendant moins de trois mois. Cette relation ne doit pas être dans un contexte de prostitution, avec échange d'argent. Lire les choix de réponse et mettre un nombre de **0 à...** dans chaque case. Regular partner How many injected Casual How many injected Client How many injected Of whom you were a client (prostitute) How many injected

Page 34 sur 58

| 1 🗌 Yes | 2 [| _ No | lon, passer à la | a question 12N | | | |
|---|--|---|---------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|--|--|
| | | en did you use a m a woman of whom | | | regular/casual/client | | |
| ⇒Remplir les 3 | lignes pour le | es partenaires réguli | ères, puis les 3 | lignes pour les occas | sionnelles, etc. | | |
| | | Frequ | uency of condom use in the past month | | | | |
| Types of | Sexual | 8- No sexual | | 1- Some of the | | | |
| oartners | relations | relation | 0-Never | time | 2- Every time | | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | | |
| Regular | Oral | | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | | |
| Casual | Oral | | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | | |
| Client | Oral | | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | | |
| Of whom you were | Vaginal Oral | | | | | | |
| a client (prostitute) | Anal | | | | | | |
| 12l. ln | | nth, have you had v | aginal, oral o | r anal sexual relatio | ns with HIV positive v | | |
| ; | 1 ☐ Never 2 ☐ Some of 3 ☐ Every tin | | | | | | |
| 12K. In the past mor | _ , | ı had vaginal, oral d | | relations with HCV sait pas, passer à la | • | | |
| | | d you use a condo | m? | | | | |
| | 1 🔲 Never | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| : | 2 🗌 Some of | | | | | | |
| : | 2 | | | | | | |
| I2M. In the past mo | 3 ☐ Every tin | ne | | | ften were you under | | |
| 12M. In the past mo | 3 ☐ Every tin | ne ou had sexual relat | | | ften were you under | | |
| 12M. In the past mo | 3 ☐ Every tin | ne ou had sexual relat | | bstances? | ften were you under 2- Every time | | |
| 12M. In the past mo the influence o | 3 ☐ Every tinnth, when your soft any of the | ne ou had sexual relat | ychoactive su | 1-Some of the | - | | |
| 12M. In the past mo the influence of ine, crack and freeba | 3 ☐ Every tinnth, when your soft any of the | ne ou had sexual relat | ychoactive su | 1-Some of the | - | | |
| 12M. In the past mo the influence of ine, crack and freeba in or other opiates | 3 Every tin nth, when yo of any of the | ne ou had sexual relat following drugs/ps | ychoactive su | 1-Some of the | - | | |
| ine, crack and freeba | 3 Every tin nth, when yo of any of the use tth, if other tha | ne bu had sexual relat following drugs/ps an cocaine, heroin, | ychoactive su | 1-Some of the | - | | |
| 12M. In the past mo | 3 Every tin nth, when yo of any of the use tth, if other tha | ne bu had sexual relat following drugs/ps an cocaine, heroin, | ychoactive su | 1-Some of the | - | | |

Page 35 sur 58

| 12N. In the past three months, have you had vaginal, oral or anal sexual relations with men? | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|-------------------------------------|---|----------------------------|----------|--|--|--|
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 No | - | | | | | |
| 120. | In the past threinjected drugs? | e months, how many male pa | artners have yo | u had, and, among those, l | how many | | | |
| \Rightarrow | Un partenaire <u>régulier</u> est une personne avec qui l'on a été <u>pendant plus de trois mois</u> . Cette relation ne doit pas être dans un contexte de prostitution, avec échange d'argent. | | | | | | | |
| \Rightarrow | Un partenaire <u>occasionnel</u> est une personne avec qui l'on a été <u>pendant moins de trois mois</u> . Cette relation ne doit pas être dans un contexte de prostitution, avec échange d'argent. | | | | | | | |
| \Rightarrow | Lire les choix de réponse et mettre un nombre de 0 à dans chaque case. | | | | | | | |
| | Regi | ular partner | | How many injected | | | | |
| | Cası | ual | | How many injected | | | | |
| | Clier | nt | | How many injected | | | | |
| | Of w | rhom you were a client (prostitute | e) | How many injected | | | | |
| 120.1 | I In the past mon 1 ☐ Yes | th, have you had vaginal, oral 2 | , or anal relation lon, passer à la s | | | | | |

12P. In the past month, how often did you use a male or female condom with your regular/casual/client male sexual partners or a man of whom you were a client?

Remplir les 3 lignes pour les partenaires réguliers, puis les 3 lignes pour les occasionnels, etc.

| Types of partners | Sexual relations | Frequency of condom use in the past month | | | | |
|--|------------------|---|---------|--------------------|---------------|--|
| | | 8- No sexual relations | 0-Never | 1-Some of the time | 2- Every time | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | |
| Regular | Oral | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | |
| Casual | Oral | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | |
| | Vaginal | | | | | |
| Client | Oral | | | | | |
| | Anal | | | | | |
| Of whom you were | Vaginal | | | | | |
| Of whom you were a client (prostitute) | Oral | | | | | |
| a client (prostitute) | Anal | | | | | |

| 12Q. In the past | montn, nav | e you nad vagınaı, oraı o | r anaı sexuai rei | ations with HIV-po | sitive men? | | |
|--|------------------------------------|--|--|--------------------|-------------------|---|--|
| 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know | ⇒ Si Non ou Ne | sait pas, passer à | la question 12S. | | |
| 1 | 1 □ Ne 2 □ Sc | ten did you use a condor ever ome of the time very time | n? | | | | |
| 12S. In the past | month, hav | e you had vaginal, oral o | r anal sexual rela | ations with HCV-p | ositive men? | | |
| 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know | ⇒ Si Non ou Ne sait pas, passer à la question 12U. | | | | |
| | 1 Ne 2 Sc 3 Ev | en did you use a condon ever ome of the time very time en you had sexual relatio | | tners. how often v | were you under th | e | |
| | | e following drugs/psycho | | | | _ | |
| | | | 0- Never | 1-Some of the time | 2-Every time | | |
| Cocaine, crack and fr | eebase | | | | | | |
| Heroin or other opiate Main drug in the pas or other opiates (Amphetamines and ot speed, crystal, meth, | t month, if o) her psychost | ther than cocaine, heroin, | | | | | |
| other drugs and psychoactive substances for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) | | | | | | | |

Page 37 sur 58

| | TION 13 : DETE | | letention cer | iter (exc | ludina | a iuven | ile deta | ention | center | 12 |
|------|--|------------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|---------|---------|-------------|
| .05. | | 2 🗌 No | 3 🗌 Refus | | | | | | | |
| | If yes, how muc | ch time did yo | ou spend the | ere since | 9 1978 | ? _ | | | | |
| | | | | | | d | lays r | nonths | years | |
| | ⇒ Les questions s | uivantes (13C | , 13D et 13E |) concer | nent les | s six der | rniers m | nois. | | |
| 13C. | C. Have you been in a detention center in the past six months (excluding a juvenile detention center)? | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 Yes 2 No 3 Refuse to answer | | | | | | | | | |
| | If yes, how much | time in the p | ast six mon | ths glob | ally? | | | | dave | / months |
| | When, and in wha | at kind of det | ention cente | er? | | | | | uays | HOHUS |
| | , | | | | | T _ | | 7 | | |
| | | | | Transition Center | | JCia | <u>10</u> | | | |
| | | | | Transit Center | Local | Provincia | Federal | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Last month | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | - | | |
| | | 2 months ag | 10 | | | | | - | | |
| | | 3 months ag | jo | | | | | | | |
| | | 4 months ag | | | | | | _ | | |
| | | 5 months ag | | | | | | - | | |
| | | 6 months ag | JO | | | | | | | |
| 13D. | Have you taken dr | ugs during yo | our detentio | n in the | past si | x month | ns? | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 N | 10 | \Rightarrow | Si Non | , passer | a la qu | uestion | 13J. | |
| 13E. | Did you inject dru | as durina vo | ur stav? | | | | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 N | - | \Rightarrow | Si Non | , passer | à la qu | uestion | 13J. | |
| | ⇒ Les questions su | ivantes (13F à | à 13J) concei | rnent les | trois d | erniers i | mois. | | | |
| | If Yes : | | | | | | | | | |
| 13F. | Have you injected | in the past th | hree months | ? | | | | | | |
| | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 N | | | \Rightarrow | Si Non | ı, passe | r à la | questio | n 13J. |
| 13G. | How many times of | did you inject | 1? | | | | | | | |
| | | 2 🗌 2-5 | 3 🗌 6-10 | 4 [|] 11-10 | 00 5 | <u> </u> | 00 | | |
| | Have you shared y 1 □ Yes | your syringes 2 🗌 ۱ | | people? | • | | | | | |
| | lave you shared ir 1 □ Yes | njection work 2 □ ۱ | | people' | ? | | | | | |
| | n the past three m | onths, have y | - | sexual i | nterco | urse wit | th inma | ites? | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | |

Page 38 sur 58

SECTION 14: DRUG ADDICTION AND MENTAL HEALTH TREATMENTS This first series of questions have to do with drug addiction treatments. 14A. Have you ever been in contact with a drug or alcohol treatment agency? 2 🗌 No 1 Tes If yes, how old were you the first time you have been in contact with any service for your consumption problem? How long have you spent in treatment in your life? Weeks Months Years 14B. In the past six months, were you in any kind of treatment for a drug or alcohol problem? 1 Tes What kind? 1 Non-medical detoxification 8 Outpatient therapy 9 Inpatient therapy/Therapeutic community 2 Medical detoxification, except for methadone or suboxone induction (detox. unit) 4 Methadone 10 🗌 Other _ 6 Suboxone 11 Other hospital services _ 7 Self-help group (AA, NA and other) 12 Hospitalization in acute care unit ⇒ Si la personne répond Non à 14B, passer à 14D si la personne consomme des opiacés. Si elle ne consomme pas d'opiacés, passer à 140. 14C. In the past three months, were you in any kind of treatment for a drug or alcohol problem? 1 🗌 Yes What kind? 1 Non-medical detoxification 8 Outpatient therapy 2 Medical detoxification, except for 9 Inpatient therapy/Therapeutic community methadone or suboxone induction (detox. unit) 4 Methadone 10 Other_ 6 Suboxone 11 Other hospital services _ 7 Self-help group (AA, NA and other) 12 Hospitalization in acute care unit ⇒ Si la personne consomme des opiacés, poser la question 14D. Si elle ne consomme pas d'opiacés, passer à 14O. FOR OPIATE USERS.

 \Rightarrow Si la personne a répondu Non à la question 14D, passer à la question 14J.

14D. Are you in a methadone treatment now? 1 ☐ Yes

If No, would you like to be in a methadone treatment?

Page 39 sur 58

2 🗌 No

2 🗌 No

3 Not certain

| 14E. How long have you been in | your current methadone progra | |
|--|---|-------------------|
| | | days weeks month |
| 14E.a) What is your current dose | e of methadone? | |
| 1 Stable | 2 Being increased | 3 Being decreased |
| 14E.b) Are you being weaned of | ff methadone? | |
| 1 ☐ Yes | 2 No | |
| 14F. What is your present dosag | je? | m |
| 14G. How many days a week do | you receive your methadone at | the pharmacy? |
| | | |
| 14J. Are you in a Suboxone tre | eatment now? 1 \(\subseteq \text{Yes} | 2 🗌 No |
| If No, would you like to be | in a Suboxone treatment? | |
| | | |
| | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 No 3 Not certa |
| ⇒ Si la personne a répondu N | 1 ☐ Yes Non à la question 14J, passer à la | |
| ⇔ Si la personne a répondu N | — Non à la question 14J, passer à la | |
| | Non à la question 14J, passer à la | question 14O. |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS | Non à la question 14J, passer à la | question 14O. m? |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS | Non à la question 14J, passer à la DE SUBOXONE PRESCRIT. your current Suboxone progra | question 14O. |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS 14K. How long have you been in 14K.a) What is your current dos | Non à la question 14J, passer à la DE SUBOXONE PRESCRIT. I your current Suboxone progra | question 14O. m? |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS | Non à la question 14J, passer à la DE SUBOXONE PRESCRIT. your current Suboxone progra | question 14O. m? |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS 14K. How long have you been in 14K.a) What is your current dos | Non à la question 14J, passer à la DE SUBOXONE PRESCRIT. your current Suboxone progra e of Suboxone? 2 Being increased | question 14O. m? |
| POUR LES USAGERS ACTUELS 14K. How long have you been in 14K.a) What is your current dose 1 Stable | Non à la question 14J, passer à la DE SUBOXONE PRESCRIT. your current Suboxone progra e of Suboxone? 2 Being increased | question 14O. m? |

Page 40 sur 58

The next series of questions have to do with mental health. 140. In the past three months, have you had one or more overdoses? 1 🗌 Yes ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question 14N If Yes, how many times in total? How many were: Voluntary with the intent to die Voluntary without the intent to die Accidental When was the last time? month year Was this overdose: Voluntary with the intent to die 1 ☐ Yes 2 □ No Voluntary without the intent to die 1 Tes 2 🗌 No 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No **Accidental** During this last overdose, what signs or symptoms did you have? ⇒ Nommer toutes les possibilités et cocher celles qui s'appliquent. 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No Respiratory arrest or near-arrest Loss of consciousness 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No Convulsions (with tremors) 1 Tes 2 🗌 No Other? 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No Specify: During this last overdose, did you receive one or more of the following services? Ambulance 1 ☐ Yes 2 🗌 No 3 Don't know 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No 3 Don't know Emergency services Naloxone or Narcan by a health 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No 3 Don't know professional Naloxone or Narcan by a non-health professional (partner, friend or family member, 1 🗌 Yes 3 Don't know 2 | No first responder) _ 1 🔲 Yes 2 🗌 No 3 Don't know Other (specify) _

Page 41 sur 58

| Mo | ntrer la carte. Cocher dans la liste toutes les drogues et médicaments pour usage non-r |
|--------|--|
| | nsommés à cette occasion. |
| | |
| 2. | ☐ Heroin IV |
| 3. | ☐ Heroin smoked or snorted |
| 4a | Cocaine IV (powder) |
| 4b | ☐ Cocaine IV (from crack) |
| ōа | Cocaine smoked (powder) |
| 5b | Cocaine smoked (freebase, crack) |
| 5. | ☐ Cocaine snorted |
| 7. | Speedball (heroin and cocaine or other opiates in the same syringe) |
| 3a | Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes |
| 3b | ☐ Suboxone IV, for non-medical purposes |
| Эа | ☐ Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes |
|)b | ☐ Methadone IV, for non-medical purposes |
| 0 | Other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes |
| 11 | Other opiates IV, for non-medical purposes |
| 12 | Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non- injected, as tablet, puff, or other (speed, crystal, meth, ice) |
| 13 | Amphetamines and other psychostimulants IV (speed, crystal, meth, ice) |
| 4 | ☐ Barbiturates (barbs, goofball) non- injected, for non-medical purposes |
| 15 | ☐ Barbiturates IV (barbs, goofball) for non-medical purposes |
| 6a | Tranquilizers non-injected (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes |
| 6b | ☐ Tranquilizers IV (downers, peanuts, benzos) for non-medical purposes |
| 7 | ☐ Marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed |
| l8a | Psychedelic drugs non-injected (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Ketamine, GHB) |
| l8b | Psychedelic drugs IV (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Kétamine, GHB) |
| 19 | Other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) |
| 20 | Other medication IV, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) |
| 21a | Other drugs non-injected |
| 21b | Other drugs IV |
| . al - | iou consumed alookal during this last averdage? |
| ad \ | ou consumed alcohol during this last overdose? |

Page 42 sur 58

| 14N. Has a doctor ever diagnosed a mental disorder (ex. Schizophrenia, | depression)? | |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|
| , | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| ⇒ If Yes, which one? | | |
| | | |
| 14P. In the past three months, did you use the following services for me | ntal health pro | blems? |
| 1. Hospital Emergency Department | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 2. In-patient hospital unit (hospitalization) | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 3. Ambulatory hospital clinic | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 4. LCSC | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 5. Private clinic or office | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 6. Community organization with housing or housing assistance | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 7. Community organization without housing or housing assistance | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 8. Other (specify): | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 14S. In the past three months, have you consulted with any of the fol | lowing profess | sionals for mental |
| health problems: | | |
| General practitioner? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Psychiatrist? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Psychologist? | 1 🔲 Yes | 2 🔲 No |
| Social worker? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Street/outreach worker? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Nurse? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Other? | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| Specify: | | |
| 14W. If you used services or consulted professionals for mental healt | th problems, d | o you think these |
| services or professionals have met your needs? 1 ☐ Yes, completely 2 ☐ Yes, partially 3 ☐ No | | |
| ⇒ Pour la question suivante, il faut cocher toutes les raisons données | par le participar | nt |
| 14W.a If you did not use any services, what is (are) the reason(s)? | | |
| 1. I did not need any | | |
| 2. I needed them but preferred to find solutions myself | | |
| 3. I needed them but did not know where to find help or | to whom to turn | |
| 4. I needed them but did not have the financial means to | get help | |
| 5. I needed them but I was afraid or embarrassed to ask | for help | |
| 6. I asked for help but was not offered any | | |
| 7. I asked for help but what I was offered did not suit me |) | |
| ⇒Pour la question suivante, il faut utiliser la liste ci-dessus pour incraison principale | diquer le choix | correspondant à la |
| If you did not use any services, what is the primary reason? | | |
| ii you are not use any services, what is the primary reason: | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |

Page 43 sur 58

| | | 1 🗆 | Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know |
|------------------------|---|---|--|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| <i>If yes</i> , w | hat are these medic | ations? | | | |
| r all medic | ations taken for mer | ntal health : | | | |
| . Was the | medication prescrib | ed by a doctor? | ? | | |
| | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Someti | mes Yes/Sometimes No |
| . Did you t recomme | ake it as prescribed ended? | by the doctor, | that is followin | g the dose and | frequency |
| 1 🔲 | Always | | | | |
| 2 🗌 | Most of the time | | | | |
| 3 🔲 | Some of the time | | | | |
| 4 🗌 | Never | | | | |
| . In the pas | st three months, hav | ve you taken an | y medications | to alleviate paiı | 1? |
| | | 1 🗆 | Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 🔲 Don't know |
| <i>If yes</i> , w | hat are these medic | ations? | | | |
| | | | | | |
| Was the | medication prescril | bed by a doctor | ? | | |
| | • | • | | | |
| | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 □ No | 3 ☐ Someti | mes Yes/Sometimes No |
| | | _ | _ | _ | mes Yes/Sometimes No |
| | take it as prescribed | _ | _ | _ | |
| recomm | ended? | _ | _ | _ | |
| recomme | ended? Always | _ | _ | _ | |
| 1 | ended? Always Most of the time | _ | _ | _ | |
| recomme 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time | _ | _ | _ | |
| 1 | ended? Always Most of the time | _ | _ | _ | |
| recomme 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time | — I by the doctor, | that is following | ப்பு | l frequency |
| recomme 1 | Always Most of the time Some of the time Never | — I by the doctor, | that is following that is following the state of the stat | ப்பு | l frequency |
| recommed 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, ha | iby the doctor, doctor, dave you taken c ave you taken c | that is following that is following that is following that is following that is followed by the second seco | ng the dose and doctor's prescr | l frequency |
| recommed 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, ha | iby the doctor, doctor, dave you taken c ave you taken c | that is following that is following that is following that is following that is followed by the second seco | ng the dose and doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| recomme 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, ha | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second is the second second in the second secon | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| recomme 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, ha or which sickness of | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second is the second second in the second secon | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| recomme 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, have or which sickness of ou took cannabis productions of the time | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second is the second second in the second secon | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| recommends 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, have or which sickness of the time out took cannabis production of the time ast three months, have been described frequency? Always | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second is the second second in the second secon | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| Tecommon | Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, have or which sickness or but took cannabis prod frequency? Always Most of the time | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second is the second second in the second secon | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |
| recommends 1 | ended? Always Most of the time Some of the time Never ast three months, have or which sickness of the time out took cannabis production of the time ast three months, have been described frequency? Always | under the doctor, ave you taken country 1 □ 1 ailment have y | that is following that is following that is following that is following that the second second in the second in th | doctor's prescr | I frequency iption? |

Page 44 sur 58

| The fol | llowing questi | ons relate to suicide | | |
|---------|------------------|--|------------------|-------------|
| 14.Y | | nce the beginning of your life, have you seriously t | _ | g yourself? |
| 14.Z | _ | 1 Rarely 2 Occasionally 3 Often 4 eady attempted to commit suicide? | Very often | |
| 14.2 | nave you alle | eady attempted to commit suicide? | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 ∏ No |
| | If Yes, how m | any times? | 1 🗀 169 | 2 🗀 140 |
| 14Z01 | • | ree months, how often have you seriously thought | of killing yours | self? |
| | | _ ` _ ` ` _ | Very often | |
| 14Z02 | In the past th | ree months, have you attempted suicide? | | |
| | | | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | If Yes, how m | any times? | | |
| 14Z03 | Did you use t | he following services at the time of your last suicio | le attempt? | |
| | 1. Hospital em | ergency department | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | | ospital unit (hospitalization) | 1 🔲 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | 3. Ambulatory | hospital clinic | 1 Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | 4. LCSC | | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 No |
| | 5. Private clini | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 No |
| | • | organization with housing or housing assistance organization without housing or housing assistance | 1 | 2 |
| | 8. Other (spec | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🔲 No |
| 14704 | | ult one or more of the following professionals after | | |
| 17207 | General practi | | 1 | 2 □ No |
| | Psychiatrist? | norici : | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 \ No |
| | Psychologist | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | Social worker | 2 | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 No |
| | Street/outread | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 No |
| | Nurse? | in worker: | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | Other? Specif | ······································ | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 No |
| 14705 | • | /mean(s) did you use during your last attempt? | 1 🗀 103 | 2 🗆 110 |
| 14200 | 1 | Cut yourself with a sharp object | | |
| | 2 | Take a voluntary overdose of drugs and/or medication | ne | |
| | 3 | Take a voluntary overdose of drugs and/of medication. Take a voluntary overdose by mixing alcohol with drugs. | | cations |
| | 4 | Burn yourself | ago amaron moan | |
| | 5 🗆 | Strangle or hang yourself | | |
| | 6 🔲 | Jump from a high place | | |
| | 7 | Shoot yourself with a firearm | | |
| | 8 🔲 | Swallow a poison or toxic substance | | |
| | 9 🗌 | Asphyxiate/choke yourself | | |
| | 10 🗌 | Drown yourself | | |
| | 11 | Stab yourself | | |
| | 12 | Other (specify): | | |

Page 45 sur 58

14Z06 Which drug(s) have you used in 24 hours preceding your last suicide attempt? 1. Alcohol 2. Heroin IV 3. Heroin smoked or snorted 4a Cocaine IV (powder) 4b Cocaine IV (from crack) 5a Cocaine smoked (powder) 5b Cocaine smoked (freebase, crack) 6. Cocaine snorted 8a Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes 8b Suboxone IV, for non-medical purposes 9a Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes 9b Methadone IV, for non-medical purposes 10 Other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes 11 Other opiates IV, for non-medical purposes _ 12 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non-injected, as tablet, puff, or other (speed, crystal, meth, ice) 13 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants IV (speed, crystal, meth, ice) 14 Barbiturates (barbs, goofball) non-injected, for non-medical purposes 15 Barbiturates IV (barbs, goofball) for non-medical purposes 16a Tranquilizers non-injected (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes 16b Tranquilizers IV (downers, peanuts, benzos) for non-medical purposes 17 Marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed 18a Psychedelic drugs non-injected (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Ketamine, GHB) 18b Psychedelic drugs IV (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Kétamine, GHB) 19 Other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) 20 Other medication IV, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) 21a Other drugs non-injected _____ 21b Other drugs IV _ 14Z07 Did your last suicide attempt occur during an episode of excessive use (binge)? 1 🗌 Yes 2 🗌 No Page 46 sur 58

331

⇒ Si cette dernière tentative de suicide correspond à l'overdose volontaire avec intention de mourir décrite à la question 14O, vous n'avez pas à répondre à la question 14.Z08.

14Z08 Which drug(s) or medication(s) have you used at the time of this last suicide attempt?

| 1. | Alcohol | |
|-----|--|-----|
| 2. | ☐ Heroin IV | |
| 3. | Heroin smoked or snorted | |
| 4a | Cocaine IV (powder) | |
| 4b | Cocaine IV (from crack) | |
| 5a | Cocaine smoked (powder) | |
| 5b | Cocaine smoked (freebase, crack) | |
| 6. | Cocaine snorted | |
| 7. | Speedball (heroin and cocaine or other opiates in the same syringe) | |
| 8a | Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes | |
| 8b | Suboxone IV, for non-medical purposes | |
| 9a | ☐ Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes | |
| 9b | Methadone IV, for non-medical purposes | |
| 10 | Other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes | |
| 11 | Other opiates IV, for non-medical purposes | |
| 12 | Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non- injected, as tablet, puff, or other (speed, crystal, meth, ice) | |
| 13 | Amphetamines and other psychostimulants IV (speed, crystal, meth, ice) | |
| 14 | Barbiturates (barbs, goofball) non- injected, for non-medical purposes | |
| 15 | Barbiturates IV (barbs, goofball) for non-medical purposes | |
| 16a | Tranquilizers non-injected (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes | |
| 16b | Tranquilizers IV (downers, peanuts, benzos) for non-medical purposes | |
| 17 | Marijuana (for non-medical purposes), hashish, pot, weed | |
| 18a | Psychedelic drugs non-injected (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Ketamine, GHB) | |
| 18b | Psychedelic drugs IV (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushroom Kétamine, GHB) | 18, |
| 19 | Other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) | |
| 20 | Other medication IV, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin) | |
| 21a | Other drugs non-injected | _ |
| 21b | Other drugs IV | |

Page 47 sur 58

| SECTION 15 : GLOBAL HEALTH 15A. In general, how is your health? 1 | ir 5 □ Poor 1 □ Yes | 2 □ No |
|---|--|--------|
| Did you consult with anyone? If yes, who was that? | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| 1 ☐ Social worker 4 ☐ Needle € 2 ☐ Street nurse 5 ☐ Doctor 3 ☐ Outreach/street worker 6 ☐ Other _ | exchange program | |
| 15C. In the past six months, did you see a doctor? ⇒ Si la personne répond Oui à 15C, il faut cocher tous les répond Oui pour la période de six mois et, pour ceux q pour les trois derniers mois. ⇒ Si la personne répond Non à 15C, passer à 15D. | | rsonne |
| If yes, which? 1 ☐ Your family doctor, or a drug addiction doctor | Was it in the past three months? | |
| who is your family doctor 2 A CLSC doctor or in a clinic that is not | Was it in the past three months? | |
| your family doctor 3 A drug addiction doctor that is not your | Was it in the past three months? | |
| family doctor 4 ☐ An AIDS doctor, | Was it in the past three months? | |
| (L'Actuel Clinic, Quartier Latin) 5 ☐ A specialist (other than psychiatrist) 6 ☐ An emergency doctor 7 ☐ A psychiatrist | Was it in the past three months? Was it in the past three months? Was it in the past three months? | |
| How many times have you seen your family doctor? In the past six months In the past three months How many times have you seen the other doctors? In the past six months | | |
| In the past three months | mital emergency room? | |
| 15D. In the past three months, have you had to go to a hosp If Yes: 15D.a) How many times have you had to go to the eme 1 □ 1 2 □ 2 - 5 3 □ 6 - 10 4 □ > 10 | 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No | |

Page 48 sur 58

| 15K. Throughout our live, most of us have pain from time to time (headache, toothache). Except for these kinds of pain, are you currently experiencing chronic pain, that is to say <u>that has</u> <u>been present for 3 months or more</u> (e.g., persistent back pain, arthritis, etc) | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|-----------|---------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | pesoin d'être présent est que la douleur d | | | | douleur chronique sont ois. | | | |
| □ 1 | Yes | ⇒ Répondre au q | juestio | nnaire sur la d | ouleur en annexe | avant d'aller à 15F. | | | |
| □ 0 | No | ⇒ Passer directer | ment à | la question 15 | 5F | | | | |
| 15F. Have | e you ever had one | or more of the foll | owing | viral hepatiti | s? | | | | |
| ⇒ Si la personne répond Non ou Ne sait pas pour toutes les hépatites mentionnées, passer à la question 15G. ⇒ Pour chacune des hépatites pour laquelle la réponse est Oui, il faut poser la question concernant la jaunisse puis vérifier si cela s'est produit avant les six derniers mois et, si c'est le cas, indiquer en quelle année. Si cela s'est produit dans les six derniers mois, il faut vérifier si c'était dans les trois derniers | | | | | | | | | |
| mois. If yes, have you If yes, when was it? | | | | | | | | | |
| Types of v | iral hepatitis | had jaundice? | | | ii yes, wiieli we | | | | |
| l ypes or v | nai nepatitis | | | fore the past six months | In the past s months | six In the past three months | | | |
| Hepatitis | 1 ☐ Yes | 1 ∏ Yes | , | | | | | | |
| A | 2 🔲 No | 2 🔲 No | | What year? | _ | _ | | | |
| | 3 Don't know | 3 🔲 Don't know | _ | | | | | | |
| Hepatitis | 1 🗌 Yes | 1 🗌 Yes | | | | | | | |
| В | 2 □ No 3 □ Don't know | 2 □ No 3 □ Don't know | | What year? | | | | | |
| | 3 DOITE KINOW | 3 DOTT KNOW | | | | | | | |
| Hepatitis | 1 Yes | 1 🔲 Yes | | | | | | | |
| С | 2 □ No 3 □ Don't know | 2 □ No 3 □ Don't know | | What year? | | | | | |
| | | | _ | | | | | | |
| | ie past six months a lesion or a muco | , were you ever in o sis? | contac | t with someo | ne else's blood w 1 ☐ Yes | | | | |
| If | was was it in the r | act three menths? | | | _ | _ | | | |
| II. | yes, was it iii tile p | past three months? | | | 1 ∐ Yes | S 2 110 | | | |
| _ | you ever been va | ccinated for: | | | _ | _ | | | |
| 1 [| Hepatitis A | | : | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 No | 3 Don't know | | | |
| ۵. | If Yes: Vaccinatio | n completed <u></u> va | iccinat | _ | ☐ Vaccination n | | | | |
| 2 L | J Hepatitis B If Yes: Vaccinatio | n completed □ Va | accinat | 1 ∐ Yes ion in process | 2 ☐ No ☐ Vaccination n | 3 ☐ Don't know | | | |
| 3 🗆 | Twinrix (Hepatitis | • | accir idi | 1 ∏ Yes | 2 No | 3 Don't know | | | |
| 3 [| - • • | n completed 🔲 Va | accinat | _ | | | | | |
| 4 🗆 | Pneumovac | ' - | | 1 □ Yes | 2 | 3 Don't know | | | |
| | | n completed 🔲 Va | eccinat | ion in process | | | | | |
| 5 🗆 | Flu vaccine : | | | 1 🗌 Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 🗌 Don't know | | | |
| | If Yes, when was | the last time? | | | | | | | |
| 6 🗆 | Others : | | _ | 1 🗌 Yes | | 3 Don't know | | | |
| | If Yes: Vaccination | n completed 🗌 Va | accinat | ion in process | ☐ Vaccination n | not completed 🗌 | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

Page 49 sur 58

SECTION 16: HIV AND HCV STATUS

| The next series of questions has to o | do with the tests and treatments for HIV and HCV infections. |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 16A. Have you ever been tested fo | or HIV with a blood test? |
| 1 Yes 2 No | 3 ☐ Don't know ⇒ Si Non ou Ne sait pas, passer à la question 16D |
| 16B. When was your most recent № 1 | out less than 3 months ago but less than 6 months ago but less than 12 months ago |
| 16C. What was the result of that la | ast test? |
| 1 Positive | ⇒ Si coché, demander : |
| | 16C.a) When was your first HIV positive test result? |
| | Month Year |
| 2 Negative | 16C.b) Have you ever been in treatment for HIV/AIDS? |
| 3 Undetermined | 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No |
| 4 Waiting for results | If Yes : |
| 5 Did not pick up results | Date of the first treatment: |
| 6 ☐ Refuse to answer | Month Year |
| | Are you currently in treatment? |
| | 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No |
| | If Yes : |
| | What percentage of the time do you take your medications as prescribed? |
| | as prescribed? 1 □ 0-50% 2 □ 51-80% 3 □ 81-90% 4 □ >90% |
| | 16C.c) Did you have a test to measure the viral load, that is, to find |
| | out if the HIV virus is active? |
| | 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No |
| | ⇒ Si Non, passer à la question 16D. |
| | 16C.d) What was the result of the last viral load test? |
| | 1 ☐ < 50 copies of RNA HIV/ml |
| | 2 |
| | 3 Don't know |
| | 16C.e) When was the HIV viral load test done? |
| | 1 Last month |
| | 2 More than a month ago, but less than 3 months ago |
| | 3 ☐ More than 3 months ago, but less than 6 months ago 4 ☐ More than 6 months ago, but less than 12 months ago |
| | □ More than 12 months ago □ More than 12 months ago |
| | 6 Don't know |
| | |
| | |
| | |

Page 50 sur 58

| | | | | | COHOR LE SAIN | I-LUG - HEFGO - BASELINE |
|--|--|--|---|--|---|--|
| | personne a ré C, poser la qu | | ō ou 6 (elle n'es | t pas séropositive ou | ne le sait pas | encore) à la questior |
| | the past six r ☐ Yes | nonths, have y 2 □ N | | ost-exposition treatr | nent (PPE) for | r HIV? |
| If | f ves, was it i | n the past three | e months? | | | |
| | ☐ Yes | 2 🗆 N | | | | |
| | _ | nent been com | | | | |
| 1 | Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 ☐ Still in tre | atment | | |
| ⇒ Lire le | texte suivant | à la personne e | en entrevue avar | it de lui poser les ques | stions sur la pré | é-exposition |
| treatment medication The treat not previous | nt. PRE-expos ons, used con tment is recog ent other sex ng hepatitis C. | ure treatment o ntinuously or inte gnized to be effo ually transmitte | onsists of taking ermittently, must ective in PREVE d infections suc | ast HIV. This treatment medications BEFORI be prescribed by a distribution, but in as gonorrhea or sy VPrEP. It is this term | E being expose loctor and requinot at 100%. To philis; they are | ed to the virus. These iire medical follow-up. These medications do also not effective ir |
| 16DD.1 F | Prior to today | , had you hear | d of PrEP agair | st HIV? | | |
| | 1 🗌 Y | 'es | 2 🗌 No | | | |
| li | f yes, have yo | ou already take | n it? | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Y | 'es | 2 🗌 No | ⇒ Si Non, passer à | 16DD.2 | |
| If | f you have alı | ready taken it, | | | | |
| a |) when have | you started to | take it? | Day M | onth Year | |
| b |) was it pres | cribed by a doo | ctor? | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Y | 'es | 2 🗌 No | | | |
| С |) was it the c | ase, rather, tha | at you took the | medications of a frie | nd or partner? | ? |
| | , 1 □ Y | | 2 🗌 No | | · | |
| d | l) are you cur | rently taking P | rEP? | | | |
| | 1 🗌 Y | 'es | 2 🗌 No | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |

Page 51 sur 58

16DD.2 To which extent do you agree with the following statements?

1= Strongly agree 2= Somewhat agree 3= Somewhat disagree 4= Strongly disagree

| | Strongly agree | Somewhat agree | Somewhat disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|----------------|----------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| An IDU user should take PrEP if he/she shares injection materials with a person he/she knows to be infected with HIV | | | | |
| An IDU user should take PrEP if he/she shares injection materials regardless of the HIV status of the persons with whom he/she shares | | | | |
| An IDU user should take PrEP if he/she has unprotected sexual relations with a person whom he/she knows to be infected with HIV | | | | |
| An IDU user should take PrEP if he/she has unprotected sexual relations regardless of the HIV status of his/her partners | | | | |
| An IDU user should never take PrEP | | | | |
| An IDU user should take PrEP as long as he/she is injecting drugs | | | | |
| An IDU user who takes PrEP risks neglecting his/her preventive/safe behaviors, i.e./that is | | | | |
| i. sharing injection materials more often | | | | |
| An IDU user who takes PrEP risks neglecting his/her preventive/safe behaviors, i.e./that is | | | | |
| ii. having more frequent unprotected sexual relations | | | | |

⇒ Lire le texte suivant à la personne en entrevue avant de lui poser les questions suivantes.

As I told you, PrEP does not prevent 100% of HIV infections but it reduces the risk significantly. Moreover, PrEP is not effective against other sexually transmitted infections, nor is it effective in preventing infection due to hepatitis C virus.

| 16DD.3 | |
|---|---|
| a) Do you think an IDU user taking PrEP shou choices and check only one answer) | uld still use a condom during sexual intercourse? (read the |
| 1. Yes, certainly | |
| 2. Yes, probably | |
| 3. No, probably not | |
| 4. No, certainly not | |
| | |

Page 52 sur 58

| | | ng PrEP should n pices and check o | | clean injection material and never |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| 1. Y | es, certainly | | | |
| 2. Y | es, probably | | | |
| 3. N | lo, probably not | | | |
| 4. N | lo, certainly not | | | |
| | considered, wou only one answe | | EP against HIV is | s a good thing? (read the choices |
| 1. N | lot at all a good th | ing | | |
| 2. R | ather not a good t | thing | | |
| 3. R | ather a good thing | g | | |
| 4. A | very good thing | | | |
| 16DD.5 Based on v only one a | | tand, would you b | e willing to take F | PrEP? (read the choices and check |
| 1. Y | es, certainly | | | |
| 2. Y | es, probably | | | |
| 3. N | lo, probably not | | | |
| 4. N | lo, certainly not | | | |
| 5. N | lot applicable | | | |
| 16E. Have you ever | been tested for H | Hepatitis C virus (H | ICV) with a blood | test? |
| 1 ☐ Yes | 2 🗌 No | 3 Don't know | N 1 '1 | |
| 46E When did you | have vous most | | | asser à la section suivante |
| 16F. When did you l 1 | | recent nov blood | test: | |
| 2 🗌 More than | a month ago, but | less than 3 months | ago | |
| _ | | ut less than 6 month | - | |
| | | ut less than 12 mon | ins ago | |
| 5 ☐ More than 6 ☐ Don't know | _ | | | |
| 16G. What was the | | st test? | | |
| Positive | | ⇒ Si coché, deman | der: | |
| | 1 | | e a test to measu irus is still prese | re the viral load, that is, to find out |
| | | 1 ☐ Yes | 2 No | it and active: |
| Negative | | . 🗀 100 | _ | r à la section suivante |
| Undetermined | | | | |
| Waiting for results | | | | |
|] Did not pick up results | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |

Page 53 sur 58

| 6 ☐ Refuse to answe | г | 16G.b) What was the radius of | s copies of RNA s copies of RNA r RNA r RNA HCV viral load a month ago, b months ago, l months ago, l months ago | test done? ut less than 3 out less than 6 | months ago |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|---|---|--|--------------------|
| 16H Have w | ou ever been in tres | atment for Hepatitis C? | | | |
| ion. nave y | | 2 ∏ No | ⇒ Si N | lon nacceràl | a section suivante |
| _ | | _ | | | a section sulvante |
| 16H.a) | lf Yes, how many tr 1 | reatments have you initiat □ 3 □ | ed or continue >3 □ | d? | |
| | 1 2 | | <i>></i> 3 □ | | |
| 16H.a | 11) For each initiated | d or continued treatment | , please tell us | : | |
| 1 ^{er} | In which year did | the treatment take place | ? | | |
| | Was interferon or | ne of the medications? | 1 🗆 |] Yes | 2 🗌 No |
| | At which clinic or | r hospital were you treate | ed? | | |
| | | | | | |
| 2e | In which year did | the treatment take place | ? | | |
| | | ne of the medications? | 1 [| _ | |
| | At which clinic or | r hospital were you treate | ed? | | |
| | | | | | |
| 3e | In which year did | the treatment take place | 2 | | |
| • | - | ne of the medications? | | | 2 ∏ No |
| | | r hospital were you treate | | | _ |
| | | , , | | | |
| | • | concernent le dernier traite | ement initié ou s | suivi. | |
| 16H.c) | When did the last t | treatment start? | — Day | Month | Year |
| 4011.0 | 380 4 41 1 | 10 | Duy | WOTEN | rear |
| 16H.f) | What was the result 1 ☐ Cured | lf | | | |
| | 1 ☐ Cured 2 ☐ Still infected | | | | |
| | 3 Still in treatme | ent | | | |
| | 4 Abandoned | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Page 54 sur 58

5 Don't know

Page 55 sur 58

| ⇒ If participant re | eports being hepatitis C nega | tive or has not be | een tested |
|---------------------|--|--------------------|---|
| vaccine? | | st in taking a fe | evaluating the effectiveness of a hepatitis C ew pills, with or without a few injections, that C? |
| 1. Yes, | certainly | | |
| 2. Yes, | probably | | |
| 3. No, p | orobably not | | |
| • | certainly not | | |
| 5. Don't | | | |
| 6. Refu | sed | | |
| ⇒ Lire le texte su | uivant à la personne en entrev | vue avant de lui p | poser les questions suivantes. |
| Let's say the vac | ccine is efficient and offered to | the community. | |
| | | | HCV infections. Moreover, that vaccine won't be effective in preventing infection due to HIV. |
| | k an IDU person receiving ter share the material? (read | | ould nevertheless use clean injection material d check only one answer) |
| 1. | Yes, certainly | | |
| 2. | . Yes, probably | | |
| 3. | . No, probably not | | |
| 4. | . No, certainly not | | |
| | onsidered, would you say thand check only one answer | | vaccine against HCV is a good thing? (read the |
| | . Not at all a good thing | • | |
| 2. | Rather not a good thing | | |
| 3. | Rather a good thing | | |
| 4. | . A very good thing | | |
| | what you understand, if the vaccine against HCV? (rea | | ound to be efficient, would you be willing to nd check only one answer) |
| 1. | . Yes, certainly | | |
| 2. | Yes, probably | | |
| 3. | . No, probably not | | |
| 4. | . No, certainly not | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |
| | | | |

Page 56 sur 58

SECTION 17: JOURNAL

THESE ARE SOME DETAILED QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR DRUG USE OF THE LAST SEVEN DAYS THAT PRECEDE YOUR LAST DAY OF DRUG USE IN THE PAST MONTH.

17A. When was the last day you used drugs in the past month?

Day Month Year

- 1 Alcohol
- 2 Heroin IV
- 3 Heroin smoked or snorted
- 4a Cocaine IV (powder)
- 4b Cocaine IV (from crack)
- 5a Cocaine smoked (powder)
- 5b Cocaine smoked (freebase, crack)
- 6 Cocaine snorted
- 7 Speedball
- 8a Suboxone non-injected, for non-medical purposes
- 8b Suboxone IV, for non-medical purposes
- 9a Methadone non-injected, for non-medical purposes
- 9b Methadone IV, for non-medical purposes

- 10 Other opiates non-injected, for non-medical purposes
- 11 Other opiates IV, for non-medical purposes
- 12 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants non-injected, as tablet, puff, or other (speed, crystal, meth, ice)
- 13 Amphetamines and other psychostimulants IV (speed, crystal, meth, ice)
- 14 Barbiturates (barbs, goofball) non- injected, for non-medical purposes
- 15 Barbiturates IV (barbs, goofball) for non-medical purposes
- 16a Tranquilizers non-injected (downers, peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purposes
- peanuts, benzos), for non-medical purpo 16b Tranquilizers IV (downers, peanuts,
- benzos), for non-medical purposes

 17 Marijuana (for non-medical purposes),
- hashish, pot, weed

 18a Psychedelic drugs non-injected
- LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Ketamine, GHB)
- 18b Psychedelic drugs IV (LSD, PCP, Mescaline, MDA, MDMA, Ecstasy, DMT, Mushrooms, Kétamine, GHB)
- 19 Other medication non-injected, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin)
- 20 Other medication IV, for non-medical purposes (including Ritalin)
- 21a Other drugs non-injected

21b Other drugs IV

| | 1 day before | 2 days before | 3 days before | 4 days before | 5 days before | 6 days before | 7days before |
|----------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Date (day) | | | | | | | |
| Drugs used | | | | | | | |
| Number of injections | | | | | | | |

Page 57 sur 58

| INFORMATIONS SUR L'ENTREVUE |
|--|
| Date de l'entrevue :// |
| Heure de l'entrevue : |
| Durée de l'entrevue : min. |
| Lieu de l'entrevue : |
| Intervieweur : |
| 1 MARYSE 7 MARIE-LYNE 3 MARIE-EVE 8 ELYSE 5 ÉLISABETH 6 AUTRE: |
| Commentaires du participant : |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| Commentaires de l'intervieweur quant aux conditions de l'entrevue (incompréhension, impatience, agressivité, etc.) : |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| Appréciation par l'intervieweur de la véracité des réponses données par le participant : |
| 1 Réponses très plausibles 2 Réponses moyennement plausibles 3 Réponses peu plausibles |
| |
| Signature de l'intervieweur |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| Page 58 sur 58 |

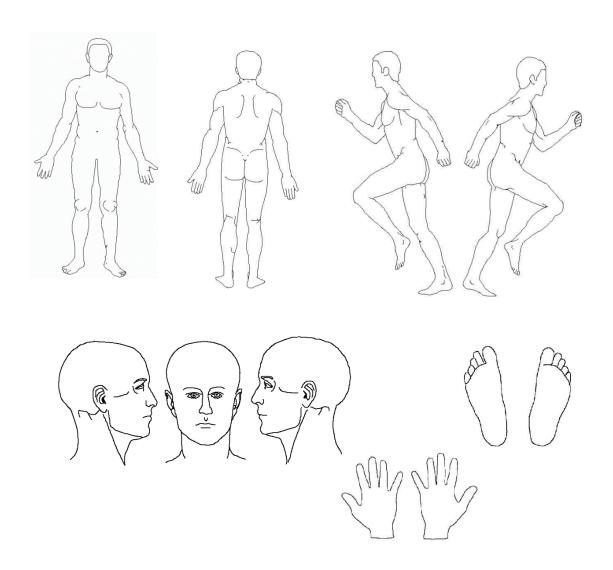
Annexe 4. Questionnaire douleur

| D٨ | IM | \mathbf{c} | IIEST | INIA | IDE |
|----|----|--------------|-------|------|-----|
| | | | | | |

| Subject code: | Paste here | |
|---------------------|------------|--|
| Interviewer's name: | | |
| Date of interview: | | |

| 1. Throughout our live, most of us have pain from time to time (headache, toothache). Except for these kinds of pain, are you currently experiencing chronic pain, that is to say that has been present for 3 months or more (e.g., persistent back pain, arthritis, etc) |
|---|
| (Pain does not need to be present 24 hours a day because some types of chronic pain are intermittent. The criterion is that the pain must have been present for at least 3 months.) |
| □ ₁ Yes |
| □₀ No |
| If your answer is « no », it will not be necessary to answer the following questions. |
| Thank you for your participation! |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |

- 2. On the diagrams below, shade in the location(s) where you feel pain.
- 3. Thereafter, indicate with an arrow the painful location that interferes the most with your daily living (ONE LOCATION ONLY).



| Please answer the following questions taking into account only the painful location that interferes the most with your daily living. | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4. How old were you when you first experienced this pain? | | | | |
| 5. How long have you been experiencing this pain? | | | | |
| □₁ Less than 1 year | | | | |
| ☐₂ Between 1 year and less than 5 years | | | | |
| ☐₃ Between 5 years and less than 10 years | | | | |
| | | | | |
| ☐₄ 10 years or more | | | | |
| 6. Please, point out the circumstances at the origin of your pain | | | | |
| (Check the box or the boxes that best fit your situation) | | | | |
| □ ₁ Work accident | | | | |
| ☐₂ Motor vehicle accident | | | | |
| ☐₃ Accident at home | | | | |
| ☐ ₄ Sport accident | | | | |
| □₅ Accident in a public place | | | | |
| ☐ ₆ During or after a cancer | | | | |
| | | | | |
| ☐ ₈ After a surgery. Specify: | | | | |
| ☐ ₉ Repetitive movement/trauma | | | | |
| ☐ ₁₀ Following complications of injection(s) | | | | |
| ☐ ₁₁ Aggression or fight | | | | |
| □ ₁₂ Burn or frostbite | | | | |
| □ ₁₃ No specific event | | | | |
| 14 Other circumstance or event. Specify: | | | | |
| 7. In the past month, have you experienced this pain continuously? | | | | |
| □₁ Yes | | | | |
| ☐₀ No If no, how many days? | | | | |
| | | | | |
| | | | | |

| 8. Have you received a medical diagnosis for this pain? | |
|--|---|
| 1 Yes If yes, what is this diagnosis? | |
| □₀ No | |
| 9. During the past 3 months, have you visited a physician for your problem of chronic pain? | |
| □₁ Yes | |
| □₀ No | |
| 9.1. If yes, during this visit have you asked the physician to prescribe to you a drug to relieve your problem of chronic pain? |) |
| □ ₁ Yes | |
| □₀ No | |
| 9.2. If yes, did the physician agree to prescribe to you a drug to relieve your problem of chronic pain? | |
| ☐ ₁ Yes | |
| □ ₀ No | |
| 10. During the past 3 months, have you taken drugs which were prescribed to you specifically to relieve your | |
| problem of chronic pain? | |
| □ ₁ Yes | |
| \square_0 No \longrightarrow go to the question 13 | |
| Among these drugs which were prescribed for you to relieve your problem of chronic pain, | |
| 10.1. Have you taken non-opioid drugs? (SHOW THE LIST AND IF YES ASK WHICH NON-OPIOID DRUGS) | |
| ☐ ₁ Yes → which non-opioid drugs? | |
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 3 | |
| □₀ No | |
| | |
| | |

| 10.2. Have you taken o | pioid drugs? (SHOW THE LIST AND IF YES ASK WHICH OPIOID DRUGS) |
|--|---|
| \square_1 Yes \rightarrow which opioid | drugs? |
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 3 | |
| □₀ No | |
| | ths, have you taken your own prescribed drugs specifically to relieve your problem of the gher dose or more frequently than prescribed? |
| □₁ Yes | |
| □₀ No | |
| - | wn prescribed drugs specifically to relieve your problem of chronic pain but by a inistration than prescribed (for example by injection instead by mouth)? |
| □₁ Yes | |
| □₀ No | |
| | ths, have you taken drugs which were prescribed to you for another reason than pain (for dence) but you have taken them to relieve your problem of chronic pain? |
| \square_1 Yes \rightarrow which drugs | ? |
| 1 | |
| 2 | |
| 3 | |
| □₀ No | |
| | |
| | |
| | |

| 14. To relieve your problem of chronic pain, have you taken drugs which were not prescribed to you (for example drugs provided by someone else, stolen, bought in black market or obtained in pharmacy with a forged prescription)? | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------|---------|----------------|---------------|---------|-----------------|----------------|----------|-----------|--------|---|
| 14.1. Have you ☐ 1 Yes | taken opio | id drug | js? (Si | HOW T | HE LIS | ST) | | | | | |
| □₀ No | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14.2. Have you ☐ ₁ Yes | taken non- | opioid | drugs | ? (SHC | DW THI | E LIST, |) | | | | |
| □₀ No | | | | | | | | | | | |
| chronic pain? | e following | questic | ons tal | king in | to acco | ount or | nly <u>the</u> | painfu | | | relieve your problem of tinterferes the most with |
| <i>lf you have not ex</i> 16. Your pain RIG | - | any pai | n in th | ie past | month | n, pleas | se circ | le "0" c | n the | scales | |
| · | 0 No pain | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Worst possible pain |
| 17. Your pain on t | he AVERA | GE OR | AT ITS | S USUA | L LEV | /EL <u>in 1</u> | the pas | st mon | <u>th</u> | | |
| 1 | 0 No pain | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Worst possible pain |
| Version March 8, 2 | 017 | | | | | | | | | | |

8

18. Your pain at its WORST in the past month

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 No pain Worst possible pain

Please circle on the following scale (taking into account only <u>the painful location that interferes the most</u> with your daily living) the number that describes how, <u>during the past month</u>, pain has interfered with your:

If you have not experienced any pain in the past month, please circle "0" on the scales

19. General activity

| | - | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|----------------------------|---------|--------|--------|----------|--------|--------|-------|-----|---|--------------------------------|
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 20. Mood | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 21. Walking a | bility | | | | | | | | | | |
| J | , | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 22. Normal w | ork (include | es botl | ı work | outsic | le the l | nome a | ınd ho | usewo | rk) | | |
| | • | | | | | | | | , | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 23. Relations | with other | people |) | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 0 | 10 |
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | J | 4 | Ü | U | 1 | O | 9 | 10 |

Version March 8, 2017

Does not

interfere

Interferes completely

| 24. Sleep | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------------------------------|
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 25. Enjoymer | nt of life | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 26. Self-care | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 27. Recreatio | nal activitie | S | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 28. Social act | ivities | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 0 Does not interfere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 Interferes completely |
| 29. Do you ha more)? | ıve problem | (s) of | chronic | pain o | other t | han the | e one d | escrib | ed befo | ore (pa | in lasting for 3 months or |
| ☐ ₁ Yes | <u>If yes</u> , list th | em?_ | | | | | | | | | |
| □₀ No | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Thank you ve | ry much for | havin | g com | oleted t | this qu | estion | naire! | | | | |

| List of opioid drugs | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Nonproprietary Name | Brand name (examples) | Street name | | | | | | |
| Buprenorphine | BuTrans ^{MD} | Bupe, bute | | | | | | |
| Buprenorphine-naloxone | Suboxone ^{MD} | Subby, bupe, sobos | | | | | | |
| Butorphanol | Stadol ^{MD} | | | | | | | |
| Codeine | Tylenol ^{MD} 2,3,4 (codeine and acetaminophen), Empracet ^{MD} , Emtec ^{MD} , Codeine Contin ^{MD} | Cody, captain cody, T1, T2, T3, T4 | | | | | | |
| Fentanyl | Fentanyl Abstral ^{MD} , Duragesic ^{MD} , Onsolis ^{MD} | | | | | | | |
| Hydrocodone | Tussionex ^{MD} , Vicoprofen ^{MD} , Hycodan ^{MD} | Hydro, vike | | | | | | |
| Hydromorphone | Dilaudid ^{MD} , Hydromorph Contin ^{MD} , Junista ^{MD} | Juice, dillies, dust | | | | | | |
| Meperidine | Demerol ^{MD} | Demmies | | | | | | |
| Methadone | Methadose ^{MD} , Metadol ^{MD} | Meth, drink, done | | | | | | |
| Morphine | Doloral ^{MD} , Statex ^{MD} , M.O.S. ^{MD} , M-Eslon ^{MD} , MS Contin ^{MD} , Kadian ^{MD} | M, morph, red rockets | | | | | | |
| Oxycodone | OxyNEO ^{MD} , Percocet ^{MD} , Oxycocet ^{MD} , Percodan ^{MD} , Supeudol ^{MD} , Oxycontin ^{MD} | Oxy, hillbilly heroin, percs | | | | | | |
| Pentazocine Talwin ^{MD} | | T | | | | | | |
| Tapentadol | Nucynta ^{MD} | - | | | | | | |
| Tramadol | Ultram ^{MD} , Tramacet ^{MD} , Tridural ^{MD} , Durela ^{MD} , Ralivia ^{MD} , Zytram XL ^{MD} | Chill pills, ultras | | | | | | |

| List of non-opioid drugs | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Therapeutic class | Nonproprietary Name | Brand name (examples) | | | | | | |
| Analgesics | Acetaminophen | Tylenol ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Antionilantica | Gabapentin | Neurontin ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Antiepileptics | Pregabalin | Lyrica ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Amitriptyline | Élavil ^{MD} , Levate ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Desipramine | - | | | | | | |
| | Duloxetine | Cymbalta ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Antidepressants | Imipramine | - | | | | | | |
| | Mirtazapine | Remeron ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Nortriptyline | Aventyl ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Venlafaxine | Effexor ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Celecoxib | Celebrex ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Diclofenac | Arthrotec ^{MD} ,Voltaren ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Ibuprofen | Advil ^{MD} , Motrin ^{MD} , Robax | | | | | | |
| Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs | ibupioleli | Platinum ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| (NSAIDs) | Indometacin | - | | | | | | |
| (NOAIDS) | Ketoprofen | - | | | | | | |
| | Meloxicam | Mobicox ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Naproxen | Aleve ^{MD} , Anaprox ^{MD} , Naprelan ^{MD} , | | | | | | |
| | | Naproxyn ^{MD} , Vimovo ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Alprazolam | Xanax ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Diazepam | Diastat ^{MD} , Valium ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Benzodiazepines | Temazepam | Restoril ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| | Clonazepam | Rivotril ^{MD} (rivo) | | | | | | |
| | Zopiclone | Imovane ^{MD} , Rhovane ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Medical marijuana/cannabinoids | Nabilone | Cesamet ^{MD} | | | | | | |
| Muscle relaxants | Methocarbamol | Robaxacet ^{MD} , Robaxin ^{MD} | | | | | | |