

1 **Patterns and correlates of prescription opioid receipt among US Veterans: a national,**
2 **18-year observational cohort study**

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45 **Running head** (65/80 characters including spaces): Prescription opioid receipt among HIV+ and
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61 **ABSTRACT (149/150 words)**

62 A better understanding of predisposition to transition to high-dose, long-term opioid therapy after
63 initial opioid receipt could facilitate efforts to prevent opioid use disorder (OUD). We extracted data
64 on 69,268 patients in the Veterans Aging Cohort Study who received any opioid prescription
65 between 1998-2015. Using latent growth mixture modelling, we identified four distinguishable dose
66 trajectories: low (53%), moderate (29%), escalating (13%), and rapidly escalating (5%). Compared
67 to low dose trajectory, those in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory were proportionately more
68 European-American (59% rapidly escalating vs. 38% low); had a higher prevalence of HIV (31% vs.
69 29%) and hepatitis C (18% vs.12%); and during follow-up, had a higher incidence of OUD
70 diagnoses (13% vs. 3%); were hospitalised more often (18.1/100 person-years [PY] vs. 12.5/100
71 PY); and had higher all-cause mortality (4.7/100 PY vs. 1.8/100 PY, all $p<0.0001$). These measures
72 can potentially be used in future prevention research, including genetic discovery.

73

74 **Keywords (5):** opioids; pharmacoepidemiology; pharmacy fill data; phenotype; electronic health
75 records

76 **INTRODUCTION**

77 Globally, pain is highly prevalent and a major contributor to poor quality of life (1-3).
78 Compounding the deleterious impact of pain *per se*, long-term opioid therapy—a mainstay of pain
79 treatment for the past 25 years—carries a risk of opioid use disorder (OUD) and a variety of short-
80 and long-term adverse effects and dose-dependent excess mortality (4-6). These risks, coupled
81 with findings of modest or minimal benefit, have spurred efforts to shift chronic pain treatment to
82 non-opioid and non-pharmacologic approaches (7, 8). Current opioid prescribing guidelines
83 recommend weighing likely benefit against risk before initiating treatment and re-weighing that
84 balance at frequent intervals during treatment. Recognizing the dose-dependent nature of most
85 opioid therapy-related harms, the 2016 Guideline for Prescribing Opioids for Chronic Pain from the
86 U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recommended extra caution when exceeding 50
87 milligrams (mg) morphine equivalent daily dose (MEDD) and to avoid exceeding 90 mg MEDD (9).
88 In the UK and Germany, prescribing guidelines recommend caution exceeding doses higher than
89 120 mg MEDD (10, 11). Despite these guidelines, little is known about patterns of prescription
90 opioid use over the course of therapy, including dose and duration, and which factors distinguish
91 patients across clinically distinct categories of exposure.

92 Prior studies of moderate- and high-dose opioid therapy have identified history of mental
93 health and substance use disorder diagnoses as important risk factors for OUD, and have shown
94 that African-Americans (AA) were consistently less likely to be prescribed high-dose opioid therapy
95 than European-Americans (EA) (12, 13). Another striking and consistent finding is a relatively small
96 proportion of patients consuming a high proportion of all prescribed opioids. For example, Edlund *et*
97 *al.* found that 5% of a cohort of privately-insured patients received 70% of the opioids prescribed
98 (14), suggesting the presence of a distinct predisposition for high-dose, long-term opioid use among
99 some individuals. While risk gene identification is a critical step towards understanding the biology
100 of inter-individual differences in drug response, only a few genome-wide association studies
101 (GWAS) studies reporting significant results for opioid dependence (15-18) or dosing (19) have
102 been published to date, all of which had relatively small sample sizes and varying definitions of
103 opioid exposure. Better opioid exposure metrics could enhance efforts to identify patients with

104 distinct patterns of prescription opioid exposure (i.e. a phenotype) that place them at increased risk
105 of developing OUD and other harms. Electronic health record (EHR) data are an underutilised
106 source of information to develop such metrics of prescription opioid receipt.

107 Understanding patterns of and risk factors for long-term opioid therapy is particularly
108 important among patients with HIV. Prior studies have shown persons with HIV are more likely to
109 receive both any (20) and long-term opioid therapy (21) and are at higher risk of death on long-term
110 opioid therapy than individuals without HIV (22). Mounting evidence that long-term opioid therapy
111 adversely impacts immune function leading to increased risk of pneumonia (23, 24) adds to the
112 importance of this topic for patients with HIV and the physicians who treat them. Using a large,
113 population-based sample, we sought to develop empirical, clinically-meaningful phenotypes of
114 prescription opioid receipt among patients with and without HIV. Because high-dose, long-term
115 prescription opioid use is a complex trait manifested through various interacting pharmacokinetic
116 (e.g., metabolic), pharmacodynamic (e.g., receptor-mediated), and environmental factors, we
117 explored a variety of measures that may ultimately be useful in elucidating different aspects of the
118 pathophysiology of OUD.

119 **METHODS**

120 *Study design and sample*

121 We used data from the Veterans Aging Cohort Study (VACS), described in detail elsewhere
122 (25, 26). In brief, the VACS is a large, observational cohort based on data from the U.S. Department
123 of Veterans Affairs (VA) EHR that includes all HIV-infected patients in VA care (>50,000 HIV+
124 subjects) and uninfected patients (>100,000), 1:2 matched on region, age, race/ethnicity, and sex.
125 The development of VACS was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the VA Connecticut
126 Healthcare System and Yale School of Medicine, granted a waiver of informed consent, and
127 deemed Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) compliant.

128 We included all patients who were dispensed any opioid prescription of at least seven
129 consecutive days between 1 January 1998 and 30 September 2015. We defined baseline date as
130 the first dispensed opioid prescription during the study period. So as to accurately assess changes
131 in dosing over time, we limited the sample to new prescription opioid users by excluding individuals

132 with baseline opioid receipt >90 mg MEDD. A dose of this magnitude suggests a high likelihood of
133 transfer into the VA system with previous opioid use (i.e., unlikely to be true opioid initiation),
134 Further, we excluded individuals unlikely to have sufficient data to establish longitudinal exposure
135 patterns such as those with less than six months of VA follow-up after baseline or high risk for
136 mortality at baseline. Thus, we excluded those with a cancer diagnosis (except non-melanoma skin
137 cancers) before or during follow-up, or a VACS Index score >100 at baseline, which indicates a
138 20% one-year mortality risk and is a proxy for severe illness (27). The VACS Index is a measure of
139 physiologic injury incorporating age, CD4 count, HIV-1 RNA, haemoglobin, a marker of liver fibrosis
140 (FIB-4), estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR), and hepatitis C virus (HCV) status, and has
141 been shown to predict AIDS and non-AIDS morbidity and mortality in multiple settings (28-33).
142 Finally, we excluded individuals with diagnosis of OUD or evidence of OUD treatment at baseline
143 recognising that prescription opioid usage patterns may differ in this subgroup. Thus, we excluded
144 individuals with a past OUD diagnosis (defined by International Classification of Diseases, Ninth
145 Revision [ICD-9] codes: 304.0, 304.7, or 305.5), opioid treatment program attendance (defined by
146 VA stop code: 523), or buprenorphine receipt prior to baseline.

147 *Opioid metrics*

148 We followed patients from baseline to the end of their last opioid prescription fill (allowing for
149 any gap length between fills), death, or last VA visit, up to 30 September 2015. All outpatient opioids
150 in all formulations prescribed for any indication during follow-up were considered in the analysis. We
151 transformed each opioid prescription dose into MEDD by multiplying the daily quantity by the
152 strength of the prescription using standard procedures (20). We then constructed five continuous
153 measures based on MEDD for each patient for the duration of their follow-up: mean, median, mode,
154 maximum, and cumulative dose. Because hospitalised patients are likely to receive an opioid that
155 replaces a concurrent outpatient prescription, any opioids dispensed during inpatient stays and days
156 of inpatient stays were removed from the calculation of all measures as a way to avoid double count
157 of exposure. We capped each of the five continuous measures at their raw distribution's 99th
158 percentile to remove undue influence by extreme outliers.

159 Next, we used latent growth mixture modelling (LGMM) to identify major classes of opioid
160 dose trajectories (34). Models were implemented in SAS using PROC TRAJ (35, 36). The
161 procedure calculates each individual's probability of belonging to each trajectory and assigns them
162 to the trajectory with the highest probability of membership. We used censored normal models and
163 evaluated 1- to 7-group models. The optimal number of classes was determined by balancing three
164 criteria: changes in the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC, where smaller indicates a better fit), a
165 sufficient average group membership probability (>70%), and a sufficient proportion of patients in
166 each group to permit meaningful analysis (i.e., >1% or n>700) (37). We used number of 90-day
167 intervals elapsed since baseline as the time scale (presented in figures as years since baseline for
168 readability) and mean MEDD per interval as the dependent variable. Models were stratified by HIV
169 status to look for potential differences in opioid dose trajectories. As a sensitivity analysis, we
170 compared trajectory group assignment between the final model from the full sample with the same
171 model limited to those with complete data at 4, 8, and 12 years.

172 *Sample characteristics*

173 We extracted demographic and clinical characteristics from the VA EHR. Demographic
174 variables included age at baseline, sex, and self-reported race/ethnicity. Clinical characteristics
175 included HIV status (defined by ICD-9 codes 042, 044 or V08), hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection
176 ever (determined by any confirmatory HCV RNA test before or during the study period), VACS
177 Index in the year prior to baseline, pain-related diagnoses (abdominal, back, chest, extremity,
178 fractures, headaches, kidney stones, menstrual, neck, neuropathic, osteoarthritis, rheumatoid
179 arthritis, temporomandibular, and other), and comorbid conditions (anxiety disorder, bipolar
180 disorder, coronary artery disease, congestive heart failure, cirrhosis, chronic obstructive pulmonary
181 disease, diabetes, drug-related diagnoses, hypertension, major depression, post-traumatic stress
182 disorder, renal insufficiency, schizophrenia, and other psychoses). Pain-related diagnoses and
183 comorbid conditions were defined by the presence of one inpatient or two outpatient ICD-9 codes
184 (**Supplementary Table I**) assessed prior to baseline allowing for a 180-day lag after baseline (20).
185 These characteristics were assessed at baseline to support future predictive models that would
186 identify patients potentially at risk of transitioning to high-dose, long-term opioid therapy. We

187 extracted substance use and pain during follow-up because of shared associations across
188 substances (e.g., opioids, alcohol, and nicotine) and their relationship with chronic pain (38).
189 Smoking status (never vs. ever) was based on self-report. ICD-9 codes were used for alcohol use
190 disorder (AUD) (303.X or 305-305.03) and incident OUD (304.0, 304.7, and 305.5). The numeric
191 rating scale (NRS) pain score is a widely used screening instrument that queries patients on their
192 pain intensity on a scale from 0 (“no pain”) to 10 (“worst pain”) (39, 40). Median NRS pain scores
193 were used to identify moderate or severe pain (scores ≥ 4). Hospitalisation and all-cause mortality
194 rates per 100 person-years (PY) were estimated to provide construct validity for the opioid metrics.

195 *Statistical analyses*

196 We compared patients in each of the identified trajectory groups by all extracted
197 demographic and clinical characteristics at baseline and during follow-up using chi-square (χ^2) tests
198 for categorical variables and non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 tests for continuous variables. Given
199 the large sample size effect on statistical significance, we considered an absolute difference of 5%
200 in prevalence of pain-related diagnoses or comorbid conditions between any two trajectory groups
201 clinically important. We also characterised all opioid prescriptions dispensed to patients in each of
202 the trajectory groups by formulation and type of opioid. For each patient, we calculated the
203 proportion of follow-up time exposed to prescription opioids as the total number of days prescribed
204 opioids divided by the total number of days of follow-up during the study period. All statistical
205 analyses were performed using SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

206 **RESULTS**

207 *Sample characteristics*

208 Of the 163,743 patients in VACS, 105,812 (65%) received an opioid prescription for ≥ 7
209 consecutive days during the study period. At baseline, 9,857 (9%) of the 105,812 opioid-exposed
210 patients had a cancer diagnosis, 301 (0.3%) had a VACS Index score >100 , 7,684 (7%) had an
211 OUD diagnosis, 1,474 (1%) had attended an opioid treatment programme, 80 (0.1%) had received
212 buprenorphine, 1,822 (2%) had an initial opioid prescription >90 mg MEDD, and 21,680 (20%) had

213 less than six months of follow-up. In total, 36,544 (35%) of the 105,812 patients who received an
214 opioid prescription were excluded from this analysis (**Figure 1**).

215 The 69,268 remaining patients had a mean baseline age of 49 years (standard deviation
216 [SD]=10 years) and were predominately male (97%); 47% were AA and 42% were EA, and 28%
217 were HIV+. Mean follow-up time was 8 years (SD=4 years). Baseline date ranged from April 1998 to
218 August 2015 (median August 2003). Among the 2.3 million opioid prescriptions captured in this
219 analysis, the vast majority (96%) were of tablet formulation with the remaining other oral or
220 transdermal formulations (e.g., elixirs, patches). The most commonly prescribed opioids were
221 hydrocodone (34%), oxycodone (20%), tramadol (17%), codeine (11%), and morphine (9%).

222 *Trajectory modelling*

223 In all models, all groups had an average group membership probability >80% and contained
224 >3% (n~2,000) patients. We chose a 4-group trajectory model because there was little marginal
225 benefit when increasing to a 5-, 6-, or 7-group model compared to when increasing from a 2- to 3-
226 or 3- to 4-group model, as measured by BIC (**Supplemental Figure 1**). The four opioid dose
227 trajectory groups were designated as low dose (n=36,490, 53%), moderate dose (n=20,226, 29%),
228 escalating dose (n=8,759, 13%), and rapidly escalating dose (n=3,793, 5%) (**Figure 2**). Trajectory
229 models were largely similar when stratified by HIV status (**Supplemental Figure 2**). Patients with
230 HIV in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory reached higher doses than uninfected patients;
231 however, the estimates had more variance than uninfected patients in the same dose trajectory. To
232 maximize precision in dose trajectory estimates, we combined HIV+ and uninfected patients into a
233 single model for the primary analysis and calculated HIV prevalence in each trajectory group.
234 Agreement between trajectory group assignment using a combined model compared to models
235 stratified by HIV status was high (98.2% for HIV+ and 99.4% for uninfected, **Supplemental Table**
236 **II**). Compared to models limited to individuals with complete data at 4, 8, and 12 years, agreement
237 of trajectory group assignment was 75.9% at four years, 88.0% at eight years, and 96.7% at 12
238 years (**Supplemental Table III**). These findings suggest there may be fewer than four distinct
239 trajectory groups when models are limited to shorter follow-up times.

240 *Characteristics by trajectory group*

241 Bivariate comparisons of demographic and clinical characteristics by trajectory groups were
242 all statistically significant ($p<0.001$), except for temporomandibular pain ($p=0.18$) (**Table I**). While
243 statistically significant, the differences in some baseline pain-related diagnoses (i.e., abdominal,
244 fractures, headaches, kidney stones, menstrual, rheumatoid arthritis, and temporomandibular) and
245 comorbid conditions (anxiety disorder, bipolar disorder, coronary artery disease, congestive heart
246 failure, cirrhosis, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, drug-related diagnoses, major depression,
247 post-traumatic stress disorder, renal insufficiency, schizophrenia, and other psychoses) were not
248 $>5\%$ between any two trajectory groups and thus the data are not otherwise shown.

249 Compared to individuals in the low dose trajectory, those in the rapidly escalating dose
250 trajectory were more likely to be EA (59% of rapidly escalating patients vs. 38% of low; $\chi^2=1059$,
251 $p<0.0001$), to have HIV (31% vs. 29%; $\chi^2=145$, $p<0.0001$), and hepatitis C infection (18% vs.12%;
252 $\chi^2=155$, $p<0.0001$), and less likely to be AA (32% vs. 50%; $\chi^2=1059$, $p<0.0001$) and to have
253 diabetes at baseline (12% vs. 15%; $\chi^2=121$, $p<0.0001$). All reported statistical tests in this and
254 subsequent paragraphs are for the analyses of all four trajectory groups rather than directly
255 comparing the two extreme trajectory groups. It should be noted the lowest or highest prevalence of
256 demographic or clinical characteristics were not always found in the extreme trajectory groups. For
257 example, prevalence of HIV infection was lowest in the moderate dose trajectory (25%). Full details
258 can be found in **Table I**.

259 The most common pain-related diagnoses were extremity (53%), back (50%), osteoarthritis
260 (38%), and other pain (38%). Compared to individuals in the low dose trajectory, those in the rapidly
261 escalating dose trajectory had higher baseline prevalence of back pain (62% of rapidly escalating
262 patients vs. 43% of low; $\chi^2=1379$, $p<0.0001$), neck pain (19% vs. 12%; $\chi^2=353$, $p<0.0001$),
263 neuropathic pain (17% vs. 9%; $\chi^2=349$, $p<0.0001$), and osteoarthritis (44% vs 37%; $\chi^2=841$,
264 $p<0.0001$). Conversely, those in the highest dose trajectory had proportionately fewer chest pain
265 diagnoses (21% of rapidly escalating patients vs. 24% of low; $\chi^2=64$, $p<0.0001$) and other pain
266 diagnoses (39% vs. 49%; $\chi^2=259$, $p<0.0001$) at baseline than those in the low dose trajectory.
267 Average baseline NRS pain scores increased linearly from 2.7 (SD=3) in the low opioid dose

268 trajectory to 4.4 (SD=3) in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory ($\chi^2=1281, p<0.0001$). Similar
269 averages were found when looking at average NRS pain scores during follow-up, with a more
270 pronounced linear trend ($\chi^2=7602, p<0.0001$).

271 The proportion of follow-up time exposed to prescription opioids differed by dose trajectory
272 group, increasing from 6% in the low dose trajectory to 32% in the moderate trajectory, 65% in the
273 escalating trajectory, and 82% in the rapidly escalating trajectory ($\chi^2=50855, p<0.0001$, **Table II**).
274 Individuals in the low trajectory group had an average mean exposure of 20 mg MEDD (SD=11 mg),
275 while those in the rapidly escalating trajectory group had an average mean exposure of 107 mg
276 MEDD (SD=52 mg; $\chi^2=22161, p<0.0001$). Median, mode, maximum, and cumulative measures
277 were strongly correlated with increasing trajectory group. The most commonly prescribed type of
278 opioids were hydrocodone (35%) and tramadol (24%) in the low dose trajectory compared with
279 oxycodone (31%) and morphine (26%) in the rapidly escalating trajectory group. Compared to
280 individuals in the low dose trajectory, those in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory were
281 hospitalised more often (18.1/100 PY vs. 12.5/100 PY; $\chi^2=520, p<0.0001$) and had higher all-cause
282 mortality (4.7/100 PY vs. 1.8/100 PY; $\chi^2=1300, p<0.0001$).

283 Multi-substance use and self-reported pain were common in this sample of opioid-exposed
284 patients. Overall, 70% of the sample reported smoking, 32% received an AUD diagnosis during
285 follow-up, and 40% reported moderate to severe pain during follow-up (**Figure 3**). Compared to
286 individuals in the low dose trajectory, those in the rapidly escalating trajectory were more likely to
287 have an incident OUD diagnosis (13% of rapidly escalating patients vs. 3% of low; $\chi^2=917,$
288 $p<0.0001$), report smoking (76% vs. 68%; $\chi^2=671, p<0.0001$), and report moderate (43% vs. 20%;
289 $\chi^2=2644, p<0.0001$) or severe pain (27% vs. 7%; $\chi^2=2346, p<0.0001$) during follow-up. Patients
290 were more likely to have an AUD diagnosis during follow-up in the moderate dose trajectory (33%)
291 and escalating dose trajectory (35%) when compared to those in the low dose trajectory (31%;
292 $\chi^2=43, p<0.0001$). However, those in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory had proportionately
293 fewer AUD diagnoses during follow-up (30%).

294 **DISCUSSION**

295 In a large, national cohort of US Veterans with and without HIV, we identified and
296 characterised EHR-derived trajectories of longitudinal prescription opioid exposure, wherein four
297 clinically differentiable patterns of opioid receipt emerged and assigned approximately 20% of the
298 sample to an escalating or rapidly escalating dose group. The trajectories were clinically
299 distinguished by different incidences of OUD, types of pain-related diagnoses, pain scores, and
300 prevalence of AUD and smoking, and were associated with distinct rates of hospitalisation and
301 mortality. A key strength of the current analysis was the utilisation of a large, national sample of
302 patients exposed to any prescription opioid. Although several papers have previously identified
303 trajectories of opioid use over time (41-46), these were often obtained in small, sub-national
304 samples, were limited to event- (e.g., post-operation) or disease-specific cohorts, or included only
305 illegal or a few select prescription opioids.

306 Approximately two-thirds of the VACS cohort received an outpatient opioid prescription for
307 seven days or longer. While our study encompassed a period of time when increases in opioid
308 prescribing within and outside the VA have been well described, the high prevalence of non-trivial
309 opioid exposure in this sample means that these data can be useful for an exploration of genetic
310 risk. Ideally, such analyses should distinguish between high levels of opioid exposure that result
311 from the prescribing practices of providers versus patients' experiences of pain and prescribing
312 outcomes. Additionally, mean and median doses were higher than previously reported in VACS
313 samples (21), which is likely because the present analysis extended five years beyond our prior
314 work. Opioid doses were likely increasing due to cohort and period effects. This is a particularly
315 important finding among patients with HIV as our prior work demonstrated a dose-dependent
316 increased risk of all-cause mortality among individuals with HIV compared to uninfected (22). We
317 also found that lower potency opioids were more prevalent in lower exposure groups and higher
318 potency opioids were more prevalent in the rapidly escalating exposure group. While perhaps not
319 surprising, these cross-sectional findings provide a compelling rationale to explore sequencing of
320 opioid types over time or whether early exposure to certain types predicts more rapid escalation as
321 has been shown in emergency department settings (47).

322 We identified a wide variety of demographic and clinical features associated with
323 differentiable trajectories of prescription opioid receipt, some of which confirm the findings from
324 earlier related studies and provide validation of the identified trajectories, while other findings were
325 novel. The disproportionately high prevalence of EAs in the rapidly escalating trajectory group
326 compared to AAs is consistent with several epidemiologic and clinical studies showing that AAs are
327 less likely than EAs to be prescribed any high-dose, long-term opioid therapy. This finding may be
328 explained by prescriber bias (48) or possibly that AAs are more forthcoming in disclosing opioid risk
329 factors, though there are studies providing evidence for the former hypothesis (49) while the latter
330 deserves more study. That HCV infection was also associated with rapidly escalating trajectory
331 membership is likely explained by its known association with OUD, which we have previously shown
332 is more common among patients receiving high opioid doses (50-52). Our finding that members of
333 the higher trajectory groups had higher rates of hospitalisation and all-cause mortality than
334 individuals in the lower trajectory groups deserves more detailed, risk-adjusted, time-updated
335 analyses. Accrual of cumulative adverse effects of long-term opioid use may play a causal role or
336 the observed relationships may be due to confounding by indication.

337 While we excluded individuals who were likely to have initiated opioid therapy outside the VA
338 healthcare system (i.e., those with initial exposure of >90 mg MEDD or evidence of OUD at
339 baseline), we found that incidence of OUD diagnoses increased with increasing dose trajectory
340 group. We hypothesise that access to and use of high-dose opioid therapy may lead to OUD more
341 than low-dose exposures, or that individuals with initially unrecognized OUD may be more likely to
342 seek and receive higher-dose therapy, or both. In addition, there could be a tendency towards
343 misclassification by clinicians who may be more likely to assign a diagnosis of OUD to a patient on
344 high-dose opioid therapy when they may actually mean “physiologic dependence.” Of note, specific
345 OUD criteria of tolerance and withdrawal are “not considered to be met for those individuals taking
346 opioids solely under appropriate medical supervision” (53). Moreover, the implementation of
347 arbitrary or excessively rigid opioid control policies may result in withdrawal and other symptoms
348 that could be characterized by other OUD diagnostic criteria (e.g., unsuccessful efforts to taper, or
349 craving) (54). Further research is warranted to explore these hypotheses.

350 Other substance use during exposure to prescription opioids was common in this cohort. We
351 observed an increased prevalence of baseline smoking and AUD with increasing prescription opioid
352 dose trajectory except in the rapidly escalating group. Prevalence of smoking was lower in the
353 rapidly escalating dose trajectory compared to the escalating dose trajectory. Prevalence of AUD
354 was lower in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory compared to all other trajectory groups. While we
355 can only speculate on the role of clinicians' behaviour, it is possible that clinicians may have been
356 less likely to continue prescribing high-dose therapy to patients with diagnosed AUD due to safety
357 concerns. Alternatively, patients on sustained high-dose exposure observed in the rapidly escalating
358 group may have greater difficulty tolerating alcohol in addition to opioids than those in lower dose
359 trajectories. Moderate and severe self-reported pain was also common in this cohort. Approximately
360 70% of patients in the rapidly escalating dose trajectory and 27% of those in the low dose trajectory
361 reported moderate to severe pain during follow-up. Average baseline NRS pain scores linearly
362 increased from 2.7 in the low opioid dose trajectory group to 4.4 in the rapidly escalating dose
363 trajectory group. These averages were similar to those found during follow-up in a recent
364 randomised trial (55).

365 Our study had limitations. First, we assumed that dispensed opioid prescriptions were taken
366 as directed, but we have no direct measure of MEDD actually consumed. Second, we could not
367 account for opioids prescribed outside the VA, and thus some patients' exposure to prescription
368 opioids may have been underestimated. Third, VACS and therefore our sample was predominantly
369 male military Veterans, so our findings may not generalize to women or a more general population.
370 Despite these limitations, the study supports the utility of EHR data and provides important insights
371 into the predominant patterns of opioid use in a large, U.S. national cohort. Future work should
372 identify opioid dose trajectories using EHR data in other national samples, including North American
373 and European cohorts.

374 **CONCLUSIONS**

375 We identified and characterised clinically differentiable, longitudinal, EHR-derived patterns of
376 prescription opioid receipt in the Veterans Aging Cohort Study (VACS), wherein approximately 20%
377 of all opioid-exposed patients had potentially deleterious escalating or rapidly escalating trajectories.

378 High-dose, long-term opioid exposure may play a causal role in the observed relationships between
379 trajectory groups, or they may be due to confounding by indication. These empirically-validated
380 measures deserve more detailed, risk-adjusted, time-updated epidemiologic analyses and genetic
381 research to inform prevention interventions.

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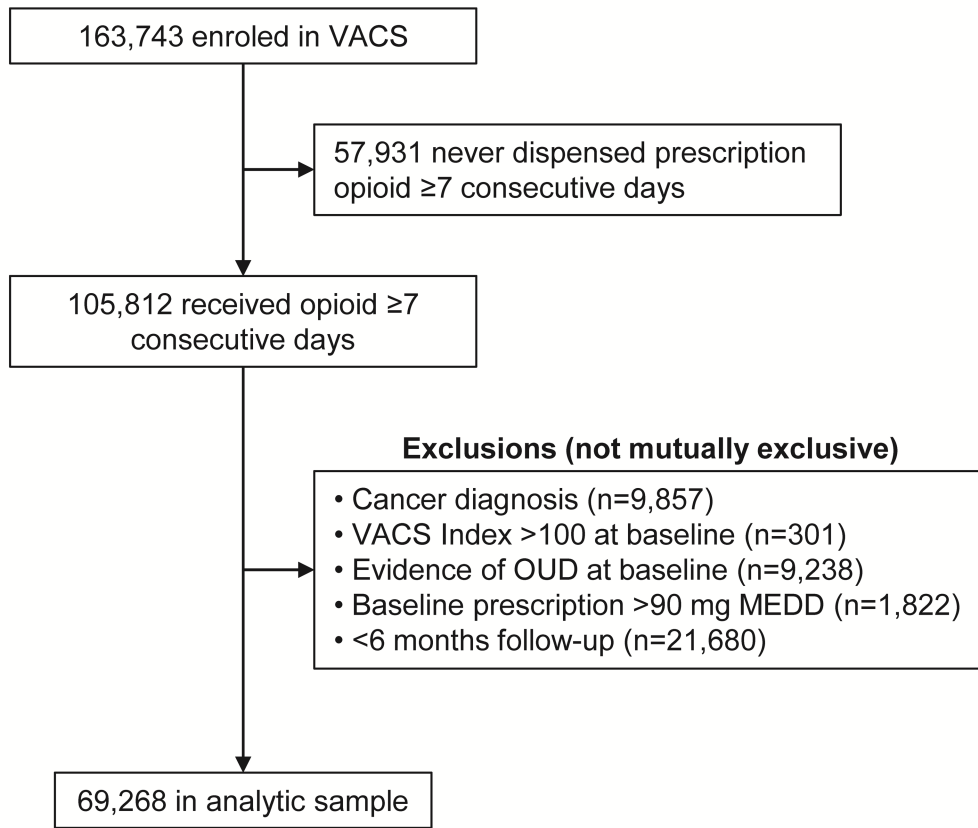
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Figure 1. Study flow diagram



Abbreviations: VACS – U.S. Veterans Aging Cohort Study; OUD – opioid use disorder; mg – milligrams; MEDD – morphine equivalent daily dose

Note: ‘Evidence of OUD’ included OUD diagnoses, attendance at an opioid treatment programme, or receipt of buprenorphine

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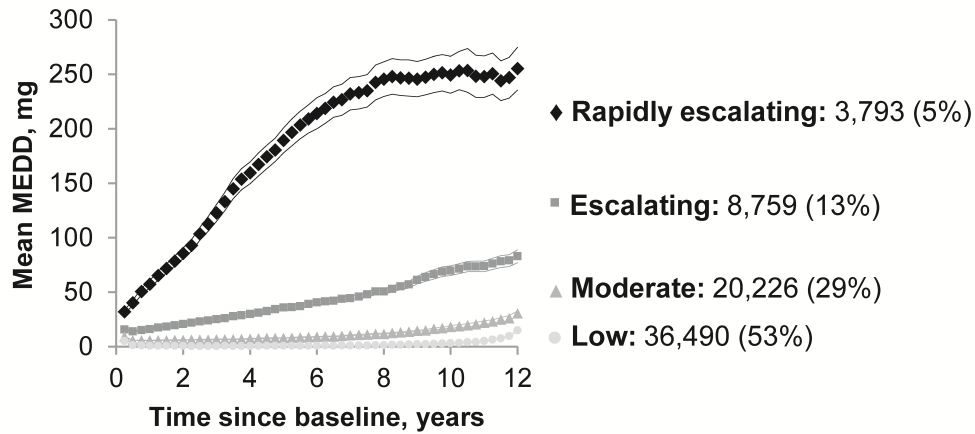
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Figure 2. Prescription opioid dose trajectories among 69,268 opioid-exposed patients in the U.S. Veterans Aging Cohort Study, 1998-2015

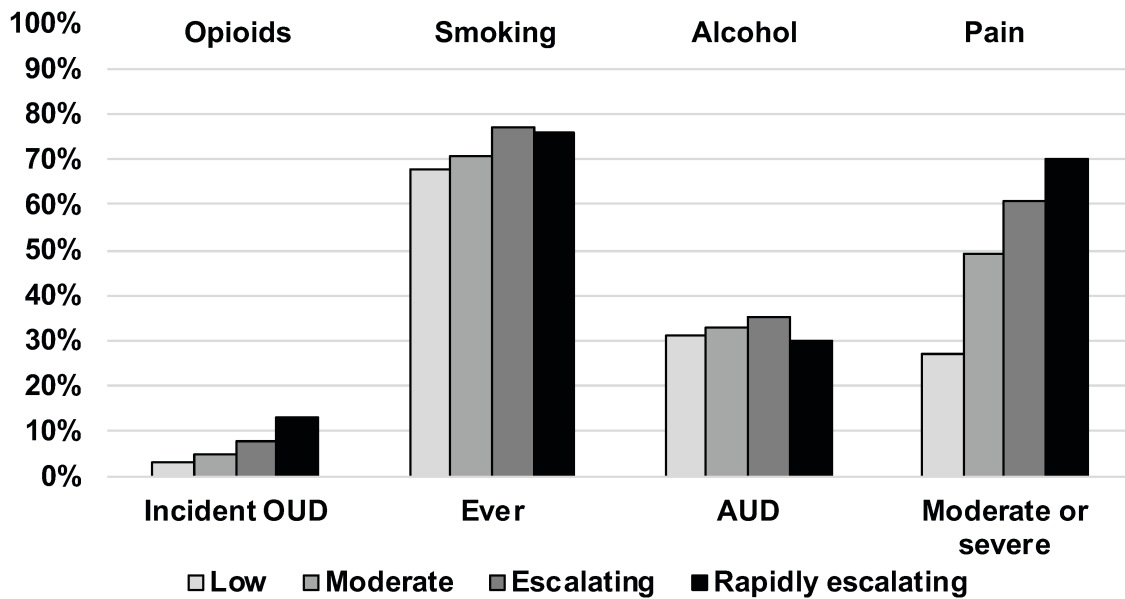


Abbreviations: MEDD – morphine equivalent daily dose; mg – milligrams
Note: major classes (i.e., unobserved latent sub-groups) of opioid dose trajectories were identified using latent growth mixture modelling

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Figure 3. Substance use and NRS pain scores during follow-up by opioid dose trajectory, n=69,268



Abbreviations: NRS – numeric rating scale; OUD – opioid use disorder; AUD – alcohol use disorder
Note: all chi-square tests $p < 0.0001$

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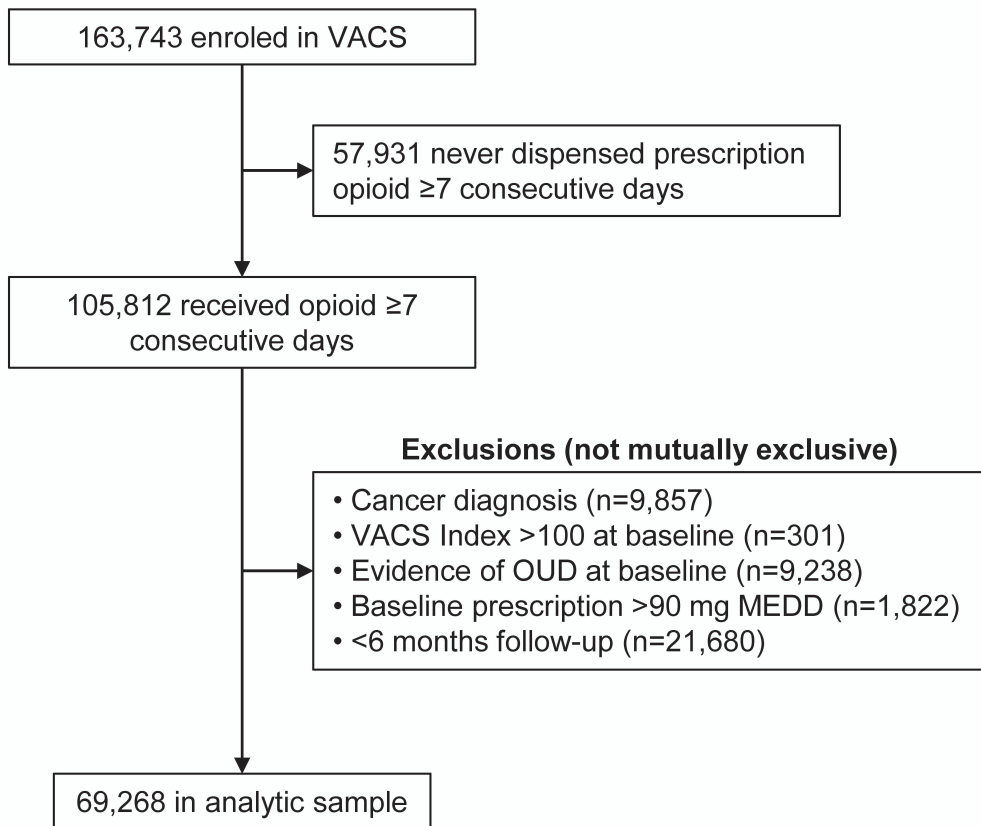
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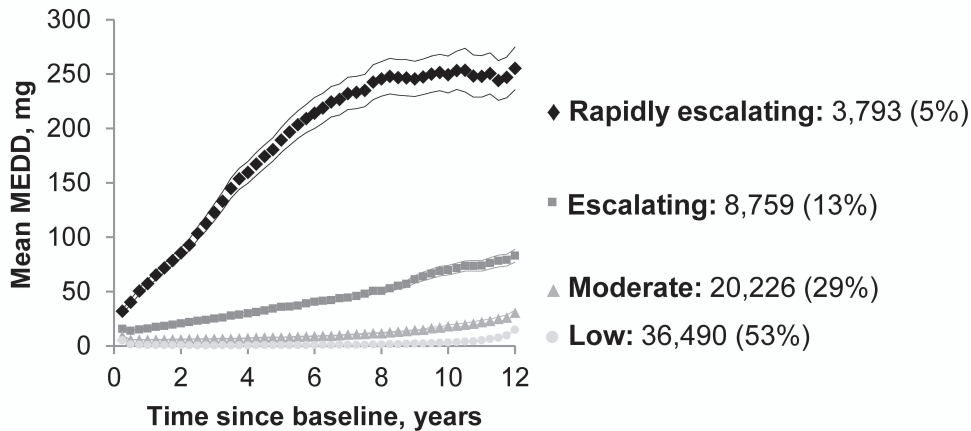
Figure 1. Study flow diagram



Abbreviations: VACS – U.S. Veterans Aging Cohort Study; OUD – opioid use disorder; mg – milligrams; MEDD – morphine equivalent daily dose

Note: ‘Evidence of OUD’ included OUD diagnoses, attendance at an opioid treatment programme, or receipt of buprenorphine

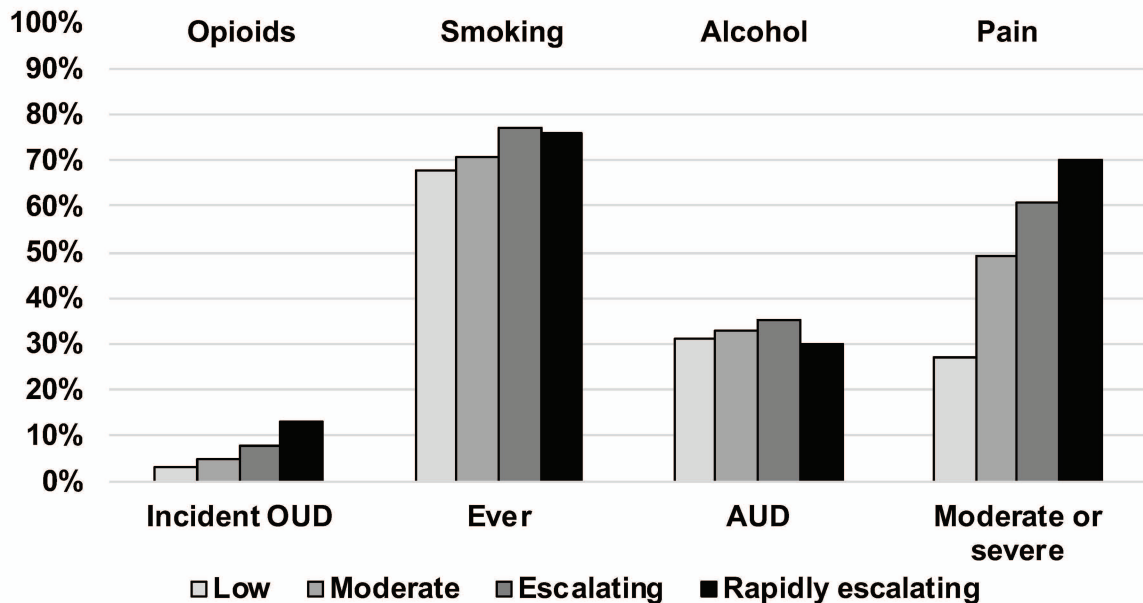
Figure 2. Prescription opioid dose trajectories among 69,268 opioid-exposed patients in the U.S. Veterans Aging Cohort Study, 1998-2015



Abbreviations: MEDD – morphine equivalent daily dose; mg – milligrams

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Figure 3. Substance use and NRS pain scores during follow-up by opioid dose trajectory, n=69,268



Abbreviations: NRS – numeric rating scale; OUD – opioid use disorder; AUD – alcohol use disorder
Note: all chi-square tests $p < 0.0001$

Table I. Baseline characteristics of 69,268 opioid-exposed patients in the Veterans Aging Cohort Study between 1998-2015, by opioid dose trajectory group

	Full sample	Trajectory group				χ^2
		Low	Moderate	Escalating	Rapidly escalating	
Sample size, n (%)	69,268	36,490 (53)	20,226 (29)	8,759 (13)	3,793 (5)	
Age, mean (SD)	49 (10)	48 (10)	50 (10)	49 (10)	48 (9)	394
Male	66,972 (97)	35,084 (96)	19,588 (97)	8,584 (98)	3,716 (98)	102
Race						
<i>African American</i>	32,448 (47)	18,238 (50)	9,510 (47)	3,479 (40)	1,221 (32)	1,059
<i>European American</i>	29,299 (42)	13,997 (38)	8,519 (42)	4,527 (52)	2,256 (59)	
<i>Hispanic</i>	5,593 (8)	3,279 (9)	1,604 (8)	504 (6)	206 (5)	
<i>Other</i>	1,928 (3)	976 (3)	593 (3)	249 (3)	110 (3)	
HIV+	19,308 (28)	10,709 (29)	5,099 (25)	2,307 (26)	1,193 (31)	145
HCV+	9,407 (14)	4,503 (12)	2,814 (14)	1,420 (16)	670 (18)	155
VACS Index, mean (SD)	17.6 (18)	17.2 (17)	18.1 (18)	17.8 (18)	18.6 (19)	45
NRS pain score, mean (SD)	3.1 (3)	2.7 (3)	3.3 (3)	3.8 (3)	4.4 (3)	1,281
Pain-related diagnoses						
<i>Back</i>	34,583 (50)	15,818 (43)	11,330 (56)	5,099 (58)	2,336 (62)	1,379
<i>Chest</i>	16,934 (24)	8,820 (24)	5,277 (26)	2,050 (23)	787 (21)	64
<i>Extremity</i>	42,186 (61)	21,248 (58)	13,309 (66)	5,413 (62)	2,216 (58)	326
<i>Neck</i>	10,238 (15)	4,530 (12)	3,478 (17)	1,504 (17)	726 (19)	353
<i>Neuropathic</i>	7,819 (11)	3,426 (9)	2,575 (13)	1,156 (13)	662 (17)	349
<i>Osteoarthritis</i>	28,843 (42)	13,337 (37)	9,630 (48)	4,205 (48)	1,671 (44)	841
<i>Other</i>	32,595 (47)	17,915 (49)	9,535 (47)	3,674 (42)	1,471 (39)	257
Comorbid conditions						
<i>Diabetes</i>	10,712 (15)	5,362 (15)	3,567 (18)	1,320 (15)	463 (12)	121
<i>Hypertension</i>	23,020 (33)	11,249 (31)	7,530 (37)	3,058 (35)	1,183 (31)	259

Notes: categorical reported as n (%), continuous reported as mean (SD); significance tested using chi-square (χ^2) or non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 tests comparing all four trajectory groups; mean probability of trajectory group membership was 0.94, 0.88, 0.92, and 0.97 for the low, moderate, escalating, and rapidly escalating group, respectively; all $p < 0.0001$

Abbreviations: HIV - human immunodeficiency virus; HCV - hepatitis C virus; VACS - Veterans Aging Cohort Study; NRS - numeric rating scale; SD - standard deviation

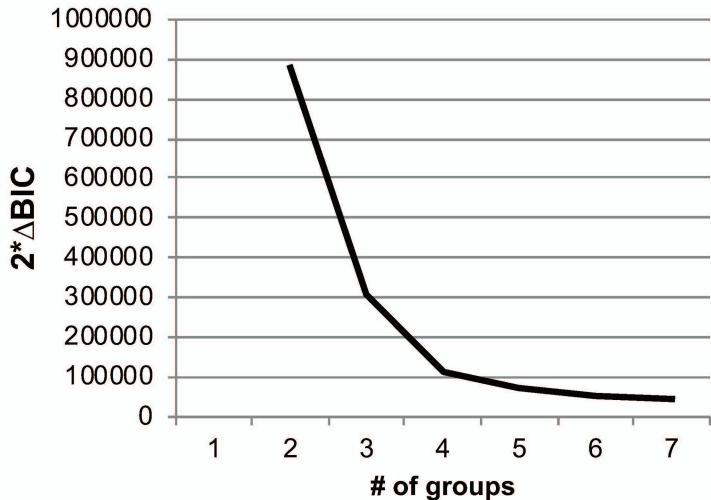
<i>Other^a</i>	<1%	<1%	<1%	1%	1%	5,150
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Notes: categorical reported as n (%), continuous reported as mean (SD); significance tested using chi-square (χ^2) or non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 tests comparing all four trajectory groups; mean probability of trajectory group membership was 0.94, 0.88, 0.92, and 0.97 for the low, moderate, escalating, and rapidly escalating group, respectively; all $p < 0.0001$

Abbreviations: OUD - opioid use disorder; AUD - alcohol use disorder; NRS - numeric rating scale; SD - standard deviation; PY - person-years; CI - confidence interval; MEDD - morphine equivalent daily dose

^aIncludes hydromorphone, meperidine, pentazocine, tapentadol, levorphanol, buprenorphine, oxycodone

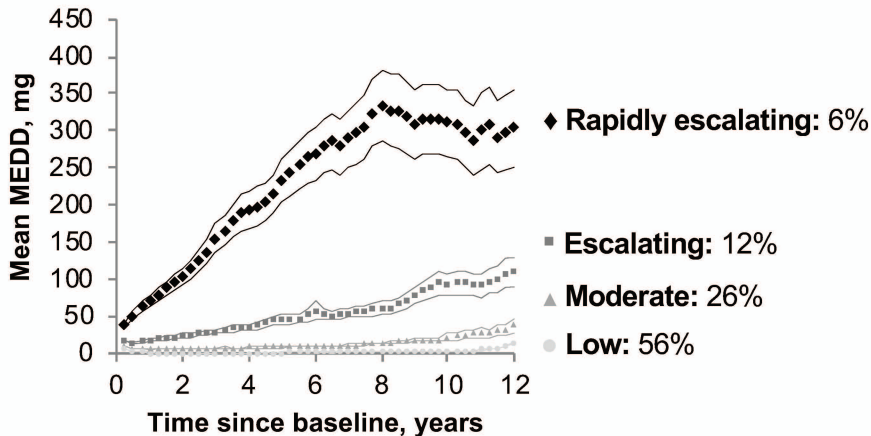
Supplemental Figure 1. Change in Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) to guide selection of number of groups in trajectory model



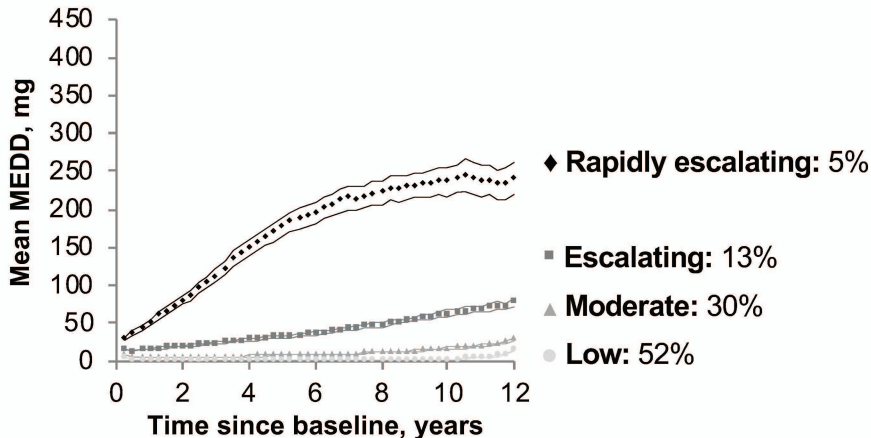
# of groups	BIC	$2 \cdot \Delta \text{BIC}$
1	-5181838	-
2	-4742679	878318
3	-4588095	309168
4	-4531178	113834
5	-4493515	75326
6	-4466346	54338
7	-4444203	44286

Supplemental Figure 2. Prescription opioid dose trajectories among 69,268 opioid-exposed patients in the U.S. Veterans Aging Cohort Study, 1998-2015, by HIV status

a. HIV+ (n=19,308)



b. Uninfected (n=49,960)



Abbreviations: MEDD – morphine equivalent daily dose; mg – milligrams

Note: major classes (i.e., unobserved latent sub-groups) of opioid dose trajectories were identified using latent growth mixture modelling

Supplementary Table I. ICD-9 codes for pain-related diagnoses and comorbid conditions

Category	ICD-9 codes	
Pain-related diagnoses		
Abdominal	533.90; 535.00/.50; 540.9; 541; 550.90/.92; 553.1/.3/.20/.21/.29; 564.1; 577.0; 590.80; 789.0X 721.3/.42; 721.5-721.91; 722.1/.10/.2/.30/.32/.52/.6/.70/.80/.83/.90/.93; 724;	
Back	724.0/.00/.02/.09; 724.1-724.6; 724.8; 737.10/.30; 738.4/.5; 739.2- 739.4; 756.10/.11/.12/.13/.19; 805.4/.8; 839.2X/.42; 846.X; 847.1/.2/.3/.9	
Chest	413.9; 786.50/.59 274.0/.9; 354.0; 707.15; 717.2/.3/.4/.6/.9; 718.31; 719.40-719.47; 719.49; 726.0/.10/.12/.19/.2/.31/.32/.33/.5/.60/.64/.65/.70/.71; 727.03-727.06; 727.3/.41/.61; 728.71; 729.5/.82; 735.0/.4/.5; 831.00; 836.0/.1/.2; 840.0/.4/.8/.9; 841.9; 842.00/.10; 843.8/.9; 844.1/.2/.8/.9; 845.00/.09/.10; 848.5	
Extremity	733.13; 802.0; 805.2; 807.00/.01/.20; 808.8; 810.00; 812.00/.09/.20/.40; 813.01/.05/.41/.81; 814.00/.01; 815.00; 816.00/.02/.10; 820.8; 822.0; 823.00/.80/.81; 824.0/.2/.4/.6/.8; 825.0/.20/.25; 826.0; 829.0; 831.04; 850.9; 873.0/.43; 879.8; 881.00/.01; 882.0; 883.2; 886.0; 891.0; 892.0; 893.0; 910.0; 913.0; 914.0; 916.0; 919.0; 920; 922.1/.2/.3/.31/.32; 923.00/.10/.11/.20/.21/.3/.9; 924.00/.01/.10/.11/.20/.21/.3/.5/.8/.9; 927.3; 959.01/.1/.2/.7/.9; E885.9; E887; E888; E888.9; E906.0/.3	
Fractures	307.81; 346/.00/.01/.1/.10/.11/.2/.20/.21/.8/.80/.81/.9/.90/.91; 784/0	
Headaches	574.10/.20; 575.10; 592.0/.1/.9; 594.1	
Kidney stones	625.3/.9; 626.6/.8; 627.1/.2	
Menstrual	721.0; 722.0/.4; 723.0/.1; 847.0	
Neck	053.13; 072.72; 337.0; 356.0/.2/.4/.9; 357/.2/.3; 723.4	
Neuropathic	711.XX; 712.0; 715.XX; 716.1X/.2X/.3X/.4X/.5X/.6X/.9X; 727.0X	
Osteoarthritis	714.0X/.2X/.9X; 719.30; 720.0X	
Rheumatoid arthritis	524.6/.60/.61/.62/.63/.69 379.91; 380.22/.23; 381.81; 382.9; 388.70; 470; 522.4/.5; 525.9;	
Temporomandibular	565.1; 569.42; 604.90; 611.71/.79; 703.0; 706.2; 725; 728.85; 729.1; 786.52; 848.3/.8/.9; 873.63; 996.4	
Other pain	Comorbid conditions	
Anxiety disorder	300; 300.01; 300.02; 300.09; 799.2	
Bipolar disorder	296.0X/.1X/.4X/.5X/.6X/.7X; 296.8-296.82; 296.89; 296.9; 296.90; 296.99; V11.1	
Coronary artery disease	410.X-413.X; 414.00-414.01; 414.8/.9; 429.7; V45.81/.82	
Congestive heart failure	402.01; 402.11/.91; 404.01/.03/.11/.13/.91/.93; 428.X	
Cirrhosis	571.2/571.5/571.6	
COPD	490-492.8; 496	
Diabetes	250.X; 357.2	
Drug-related diagnoses	292-292.2; 304.X; 305.2-305.9X	
Hypertension	401.X-405.X; 437.2	
Major depression	296.2X; 296.3X	
Other psychoses	293.X; 294.X; 298.X; 299.X	
PTSD	309.81	

Renal insufficiency	403.1/.11/.91; 404.02/.03/.12/.13/.92/.93; 580.X-581.89; 582.X-583.89; 584.X-588.X; 792.5; V42.0; V45.1; V56.X
Schizophrenia	295-295.6X; 295.8-295.9X; V11.0

Abbreviations: ICD-9 - The International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision; COPD - chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder; PTSD - post-traumatic stress disorder

Supplementary Table II. Agreement in trajectory group assignment by HIV status

(a) HIV+

Stratified model by HIV status

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Full model	Group 1	10,692	17	0	0
	Group 2	89	4,982	28	0
	Group 3	0	91	2,216	0
	Group 4	0	0	122	1,071

Agreement: 18,961/19,308 = 98.2%

(b) Uninfected

Stratified model by HIV status

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Full model	Group 1	25,716	65	0	0
	Group 2	54	15,004	69	0
	Group 3	0	26	6,348	78
	Group 4	0	0	0	2,600

Agreement: 49,668/49,960 = 99.4%

Supplementary Table III. Agreement in trajectory group assignment by level of completeness of data

(a) Complete data at 4 years

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Full sample	Group 1	26,493	2,075	16	-
	Group 2	5,078	8,527	996	61
	Group 3	671	2,278	3,295	311
	Group 4	21	140	1,028	1,573

Agreement: 39,888/52,563 = 75.9%

(b) Complete data at 8 years

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Full sample	Group 1	17,240	1,118	-	-
	Group 2	1,125	7,814	683	-
	Group 3	36	702	3,488	205
	Group 4	-	-	272	1,702

Agreement: 30,244/34,385 = 88.0%

(c) Complete data at 12 years

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Full sample	Group 1	4,236	-	-	-
	Group 2	199	3,691	-	-
	Group 3	-	173	2,139	-
	Group 4	-	-	10	1,205

Agreement: 11,271/11,653 = 96.7%