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Prescribing Opioids for Postoperative Pain

2018

Supplemental Guidance on Prescribing Opioids for Postoperative Pain

This supplement was developed by the Dr. Robert Bree Collaborative (Bree Collaborative) and the Washington Agency Medical Directors' Group (AMDG) in collaboration with an advisory group of the state's academic leaders, pain experts and surgeons in general care and specialty areas in response to the growing opioid crisis. The supplement aligns postoperative discharge opioid prescribing with best practice from the [AMDG Interagency Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Pain](#) and the best practices the [AMDG/Bree Dental Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Acute Pain Management](#). The included evidence represents a rapidly evolving literature on appropriate postoperative opioid prescribing. The recommendations in this supplement are based on the current best available clinical and scientific evidence from the literature and a consensus of expert opinion and are intended for use in addition to, rather than a replacement of, the guidelines for opioid prescribing for postoperative pain in the 2015 AMDG guidelines.

At Time of Discharge

Clinical Recommendations

Although opioids are often indicated to manage severe acute post-operative pain, recent studies show that patients often receive more opioids for home use than are necessary for pain related to many procedures. This may result in dangerous and illegal diversion of opioids to those for whom opioids were not prescribed. Increased duration of initial opioid prescription has also been associated with increased incidence of chronic opioid use and risk of opioid misuse and overdose. There is no optimal number of pills for a given procedure, but the following recommendations are intended to serve as a general framework for managing postoperative pain, while minimizing leftover pills. The durations and numbers in the table are based on the currently available evidence. The classifications in **Table 1** are constructed around the evidence to date and can serve as a guide for procedures with similar degrees of expected post-op pain.

Prescribing opioids for postoperative pain should, in most cases, follow the guidance in Table 1. The rationale for any exceptions should be well documented in the record. Even in these exceptions the initial prescription should not exceed two weeks.

Table 1. Evidence-Based Duration of Opioid Prescriptions on Discharge Following Surgery (based on data showing that these opioid prescription durations are adequate to treat post-operative pain in >75% of patients without refills)

Type I – Expected rapid recovery	
Dental procedures such as extractions or simple oral surgery (e.g., graft, implant).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribe a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) or combination of NSAID and acetaminophen for mild to moderate pain as first-line therapy. • If opioids are necessary, prescribe ≤3 days (e.g., 8 to 12 pills) of short-acting opioids in combination with an NSAID or acetaminophen for severe pain. • For more specific guidance, see the Bree Collaborative Dental Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Acute Pain Management.
Procedures such as hernia repair, laparoscopic appendectomy, inguinal hernia repair, carpal tunnel release, thyroidectomy, laparoscopic cholecystectomy, breast biopsy/lumpectomy, meniscectomy, lymph node biopsy, vaginal hysterectomy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribe non-opioid analgesics (e.g., NSAIDs, acetaminophen) and non-pharmacologic therapies as first-line therapy. • If opioids are necessary, prescribe ≤3 days (e.g., 8 to 12 pills) of short-acting opioids in combination with an NSAID or acetaminophen for severe pain.
Type II – Expected medium term recovery	
Procedures such as anterior cruciate ligament (ACL) repair, rotator cuff repair, discectomy, laminectomy, open or laparoscopic colectomy, open incisional hernia repair, open small bowel resection or enterolysis, wide local excision, laparoscopic hysterectomy, simple mastectomy, cesarean section.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribe non-opioid analgesics (e.g., NSAIDs, acetaminophen) and non-pharmacologic therapies as first-line therapy. • Prescribe ≤7 days (e.g., up to 42 pills) of short-acting opioids for severe pain. • For those exceptional cases that warrant more than 7 days of opioid treatment, the surgeon should re-evaluate the patient before a second refill and taper off opioids within 6 weeks after surgery.
Type III – Expected longer term recovery	
Procedures such as lumbar fusion, knee replacement, hip replacement, abdominal hysterectomy, axillary lymph node resection, modified radical mastectomy, ileostomy/colostomy creation or closure, thoracotomy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribe non-opioid analgesics (e.g., NSAIDs, acetaminophen) and non-pharmacologic therapies as first-line therapy. • Prescribe ≤14 days of short-acting opioids for severe pain. • For those exceptional cases that warrant more than 14 days of opioid treatment, the surgeon should re-evaluate the patient before refilling opioids and taper off opioids within 6 weeks after surgery.

Patients on Chronic Opioid Analgesic Therapy	
Elective surgery in patients on chronic opioid therapy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prescribe non-opioid analgesics (e.g., NSAIDs, acetaminophen) and non-pharmacologic therapies as first-line therapy. • Resume chronic opioid regimen if patients are expected to continue postoperatively. • Follow the recommendation above for prescribing the duration of short acting opioids following a particular surgery (e.g., 3, 7, or 14 days). An increased number of pills per day may be expected compared to an opioid naïve patient. Patients on chronic opioid therapy should have a similar tapering period as opioid naïve patients postoperatively. • For those exceptional cases that warrant more than 14 days of opioid treatment after hospital discharge, the surgeon should re-evaluate the patient before refilling opioids and taper off opioids within 6 weeks after surgery to no higher total daily dose than was present pre-operatively.

Although a prescription may be written for frequent dosing intervals such as “prn every four to six hours,” avoid routine dispensing of the number of pills that equals the total allowable maximum dosing. For example; patients using two pills prn every four hours on hospital discharge post-operatively would be calculated to need as much as 84 pills in the next week. A patient should be expected to need less frequent dosing, however, as pain resolves and thus will likely need a significantly lower number of pills (as little as half) for a specific specified timeline (e.g., three, seven, or 14 days). In the above scenario, the patient could be dispensed 42 pills with instructions that the prescription should be taken as needed for severe pain and will probably last a week as healing continues. Consider discussing partial refills with your patient, link to more information [here](#). While pain may persist for many weeks following some surgeries, patients who are unable to taper opioid use to coincide with expected healing or who report pain severe enough to warrant ongoing opioid use after the procedure-specific usual number of days require re-evaluation in an effort to understand the factors delaying a normal course of recovery. For patients who are still on opioids after six weeks, follow the recommendations in the Subacute or Chronic Phase of the [AMDG Interagency Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Pain](#).

If opioids are continued, best practice for a health care provider is to assess and document the following to determine success of treatment:

- (a) Change in pain level;
- (b) Change in physical function;
- (c) Change in psychosocial function;
- (d) Change in medical condition; and
- (e) Diagnostic evaluations to investigate causes of continued acute perioperative pain (e.g., infection, ischemia, lack of healing).

Acute pain lasts no longer than six weeks and opioid prescribing for pain more than six weeks after surgery should be treated as subacute or chronic pain ([AMDG Interagency Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Pain](#)).

Evidence

Acute pain after surgery has, for many years, been shown to be treated inadequately (1). Buvanendran et al. found that 54% of post-operative patients had “moderate to extreme pain” at hospital discharge after inpatient surgery (2) and 46% of patients still had “moderate to extreme pain” two weeks later (2). As in other areas of pain management however, the high prevalence of pain does not necessarily imply a shortage of opioids (3). Indeed, Hill et al. (4) reported that patients take only 34% of the opioid pills prescribed for them after five different surgeries and numerous other studies have supported these findings that the number of opioid pills prescribed for many different surgeries is much more than is needed (e.g., five-16). This over-abundance of opioids prescribed after surgery is particularly concerning when viewed in the light of generally inadequate systems for opioid safe storage and disposal (9). This sets the stage for drug diversion in the home - a common route for opioid misuse and overdose (17). Post-operative opioid over-prescribing may also be unsafe for those who are prescribed the drugs. For example, Brummett and colleagues reported that, among patients who were opioid-free in the year leading up to surgery, opioid use beyond 90 days postoperatively occurred in approximately 6.0% of adults (18) and 4.8% of 13-21 year olds (19) following a variety of surgeries. Moreover, Shah et al. found that the likelihood of persistent opioid intake one year after initial prescription increased by one percent per day for each day beyond day three of the first prescription (20). Long-term opioid use is not always unintended and, even when unintended, it may be due to many patient, environmental and prescriber characteristics (21). Nonetheless, Brat et al. (22), examining a nationwide insurance database of more than a million opioid-naïve surgical patients, identified the duration of initial prescription after surgery as a risk factor for later opioid misuse (dependence, abuse, or overdose) diagnoses. Although only 0.6% of post-operative patients subsequently had such diagnoses, each additional week of opioid therapy prescribed was associated with an adjusted 20% increase in hazard for opioid misuse - with a total 44% increase in hazard if a refill was also needed. Clearly, improving prescribing practices towards providing shorter durations of prescribed opioids should be an important goal of post-operative prescribing guidelines assuming they are equally effective in treating pain.

Fortunately, education of surgeons at both Dartmouth (23) and Michigan (24) has had great success reducing opioid prescribing by as much as 50% without increasing post-operative pain, at least as indicated by the number of refill requests. Indeed, Scully et al. have used the likelihood of refills as a marker for appropriate prescription duration after surgery (25). In a database of more than 200,000 post-operative patients, Scully et al. found that the likelihood of refills differed by length of initial prescription and that the lowest number of refills differed across types of surgeries. For example, general surgery cases had fewest refills if initial prescriptions were for nine-day prescriptions. In contrast, the refill nadir followed 13-day prescriptions for women’s health procedures and this was extended to 15 days for musculoskeletal procedures. Scully et al. concluded that opioid prescriptions should be no longer than these durations although they were not able to conclude with certainty how

much shorter optimum prescription durations might be for each surgery type (25). Thiels (5) has also reported considerable differences in refill likelihood between surgical procedures.

Recently, University of Michigan researchers using a large database from the primary commercial health insurance company in the state have taken a surgery-specific approach to appropriate lengths of post-operative opioid prescriptions. Although their data has been shared primarily on-line thus far (28), their recommendations, available [here](#), for the number of pills to be prescribed after a particular surgery is based on evidence of how many pills were sufficient for 75% of the patients. Not all surgeries have yet been examined and, in this fast moving field, recommendations are likely to change even for surgeries that have already been examined. Use of opioids has been found to be impacted by patient education (24, 29). Many factors go into patients' use of and discontinuation of opioid medications after surgery. Gupta et al (8) found that two weeks after foot and ankle surgery, two-thirds of patients had stopped taking opioids. However, more than 70% still had pain. The most common reason for stopping opioids was that patients had switched to other pain medications. Thus another emphasis in post-operative pain prescribing guidelines should be the utilization of non-opioid pharmacological therapies as well as non-pharmacological therapies for post-operative pain and patient education that severe pain, rather than pain itself, should be the indication for continued opioid use.

Extrapolating from existing surgery-specific data as yet unstudied procedures, in order to guide prescribing of opioid pill numbers or durations (e.g., three, seven, or 14 day durations), is not yet possible. Kim et al (7) saw large variations in mean numbers of opioid pills used by patients after upper extremity surgeries – even following surgeries on the same area (e.g., hand, wrist, elbow or shoulder) or on similar tissue types (e.g., soft tissue, bone, joint). Since the goal of pain management in the post-operative setting is always to facilitate recovery and improve function, we have grouped surgeries in this Guideline supplement by different durations of recovery. This should help guide the prescriber towards appropriate opioid treatment of post-operative pain following surgeries where surgery-specific data is not yet available. Although, the number of pills to be prescribed is probably the easiest benchmark to be included in a guideline for prescribing, dispensing, or consuming medications, it is important to remember that it is prescription duration that has been most associated with long-term use and misuse of opioids. Indeed, Brat et al. (22) noted that dosage was not correlated with increased risk of opioid misuse diagnoses, except with longer prescription durations. High inpatient opioid dose requirements have been found to be most predictive of high outpatient opioid requirements (6, 30) but not necessarily longer duration of use. Thus, even patients who come to surgery on chronic opioid analgesic therapy, and thus likely having opioid tolerance, may not require longer-term opioid therapy for their post-operative pain than opioid-naïve patients despite their needs for higher doses of opioids during their post-operative rehabilitation.

Additional Considerations in Children and Adolescents

The pediatric population is not immune to concerns about overprescribing for surgical procedures, as demonstrated by prospective diary reporting by parents in a sample of three to 17 year olds (31) and interview and telephone follow-up out to 14 days post-discharge (32). Both of these studies found that especially for common surgeries, such as tonsillectomy, minor abdominal and genitourinary procedures, patients often used far fewer opioid dosages than were prescribed. Evidence suggests that opioids are no more efficacious than ibuprofen for treating postoperative pain following minor orthopedic procedures in children (33). For inguinal and umbilical hernia repair in young children, opioids may be limited to pain that “breaks through” treatment with alternating acetaminophen and ibuprofen, and were needed by only about 40% of patients (34). Just as in adults, for more major procedures, such as spine fusion and pectus excavatum repair, analgesic medication prescribed at higher doses and potentially over a longer duration of analgesia is indicated. Across all ages, one must be cognizant of appropriate prescribing to minimize contributing to the reservoir of unused medication that may be diverted or misused, including by adolescents.

While overall children’s post-operative pain and treatment requirements are no different than their adult counterparts, young patients, in particular require special consideration. Data show that for newborns and young infants, due to neurophysiological development, pain responses are substantially greater than in older children. Because poorly treated pain in children is associated with long-term pain processing challenges, including the risk of chronic pain syndromes, adequate treatment is imperative. In addition, however, because the liver and kidneys are still developing, differences in pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics must be considered and treatment regimens modified accordingly (35, 36).

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Name	Affiliation
Guideline Advisors and Contributors	
Gordon RN, DNP, FAAN, Deb	University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Tauben MD, David J.	University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Terman MD, PhD, Gregory	University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Walco PhD, Gary	Seattle Children's Hospital, UW School of Medicine

Washington State Medical Directors & Agency Staff	
Charissa Fotinos, MD	Health Care Authority
Gary Franklin, MD, MPH	Labor and Industries, University of Washington
Dan Lessler, MD	Health Care Authority
Katherine Lofy, MD	Department of Health
Jaymie Mai, PharmD	Department of Labor and Industries, Olympia, WA
Zach Gray, MPH	Department of Labor and Industries,
Doug Tuman, RPh	Labor and Industries
Ginny Weir, MPH	Dr. Robert Bree Collaborative, Seattle, WA

Appendix A: Bree Collaborative Members

Member	Title	Organization
Susie Dade MS	Deputy Director	Washington Health Alliance
John Espinola MD, MPH	Executive Vice President, Health Care Services	Premera Blue Cross
Gary Franklin MD, MPH	Medical Director	Washington State Department of Labor and Industries
Stuart Freed MD	Chief Medical Officer	Confluence Health
Richard Goss MD	Medical Director	Harborview Medical Center – University of Washington
Jennifer Graves, RN, MS	Senior Vice President, Patient Safety	Washington State Hospital Association
Christopher Kodama MD	President, MultiCare Connected Care	MultiCare Health System
Daniel Lessler MD, MHA	Chief Medical Officer	Washington State Health Care Authority
Paula Lozano MD, MPH	Associate Medical Director, Research and Translation	Kaiser Permanente
Wm. Richard Ludwig MD	Chief Medical Officer, Accountable Care Organization	Providence Health and Services
Greg Marchand	Director, Benefits & Policy and Strategy	The Boeing Company
Robert Mecklenburg MD	Medical Director, Center for Health Care Solutions	Virginia Mason Medical Center
Kimberly Moore MD	Associate Chief Medical Officer	Franciscan Health System
Carl Olden MD	Family Physician	Pacific Crest Family Medicine, Yakima
Mary Kay O'Neill MD, MBA	Partner	Mercer
John Robinson MD, SM	Chief Medical Officer	First Choice Health
Terry Rogers MD (Vice Chair)	Chief Executive Officer	Foundation for Health Care Quality
Jeanne Rupert DO, PhD	Family Physician	One Medical
Kerry Schaefer	Strategic Planner for Employee Health	King County
Bruce Smith MD	Medical Director	Regence Blue Shield
Lani Spencer RN, MHA	Vice President, Health Care Management Services	Amerigroup
Hugh Straley MD (Chair)	Retired	Medical Director, Group Health Cooperative; President, Group Health Physicians
Shawn West MD	Family Physician	Edmonds Family Medicine

Appendix B: AMDG Opioid Prescribing Guidelines Implementation Workgroup Charter and Roster

Background

The Washington State Agency Medical Directors Group (AMDG) developed a comprehensive [Guideline on Prescribing Opioids for Pain](#) in June 2015. The Guidelines were subsequently adopted by the Bree Collaborative at the July 2015 meeting with the goal of developing implementation strategies.

Aim

To facilitate implementation of the Agency Medical Directors Opioid Prescribing Guidelines.

Purpose

To design and carry out strategies to implement the Agency Medical Directors Opioid Prescribing Guidelines.

Duties & Functions

The Opioid Implementation workgroup will:

- Consult members of stakeholder organizations and subject matter experts for feedback, as appropriate.
- Recommend evidence-based implementation strategies.
- Define intended outcomes, targets, metrics, and data collection methods.
- Develop change strategies as needed.
- Enlist the assistance of other Bree members as well as non-Bree members to pursue the implementation of workgroup recommendations.
- Meet as needed.
- Provide updates at Bree Collaborative meetings.
- Create and oversee subsequent subgroups to help carry out the work, as needed.

Structure

The workgroup will consist of individuals appointed by the chair of the Bree Collaborative or the workgroup chair and confirmed by Bree Collaborative members.

The chair of the workgroup will be appointed by the chair of the Bree Collaborative.

The Bree Collaborative project director will staff and provide management and support services for the workgroup.

Less than the full workgroup may convene to: gather and discuss information; conduct research; analyze relevant issues and facts; or draft recommendations for the deliberation of the full workgroup. A quorum shall be a simple majority and shall be required to accept and approve recommendations to send to the Bree Collaborative.

Meetings

The workgroup will hold meetings as necessary. The program director will conduct meetings along with the chair, arrange for the recording of each meeting, and distribute meeting agendas and other materials prior to each meeting.

Name	Title	Organization
Gary Franklin, MD, MPH (Chair)	Medical Director	Washington State Department of Labor and Industries
Chris Baumgartner	Director Prescription Monitoring Program	Washington State Department of Health
Charissa Fontinos, MD	Deputy Chief Medical Officer	Washington State Health Care Authority
Frances Gough, MD	Chief Medical Officer	Molina Healthcare
Kathy Lofy, MD	Chief Science Officer	Washington State Department of Health
Jaymie Mai, PharmD	Pharmacy Manager	Washington State Department of Labor and Industries
Mark Murphy, MD	Addiction Medicine	MultiCare Health System
Shirley Reitz, PharmD	Clinical Pharmacist Client Manager	OmedaRx, Cambia
Gregory Rudolph, MD	Addiction Medicine	Swedish Pain Services
Mark Stephens	Principal	CareSync Consulting, LLC
David Tauben, MD	Chief of Pain Medicine	University of Washington Medical Center
Gregory Terman MD, PhD	Professor	Department of Anesthesiology and Pain Medicine and the Graduate Program in Neurobiology and Behavior, University of Washington
Michael Von Korff, ScD	Senior Investigator	Kaiser Permanente Washington Research Institute
Mia Wise, DO	Medical Director, Collaborative Healthcare Solutions	Premera Blue Cross