

Health Policy



Laxmaiah Manchikanti, MD¹, Standiford Helm II, MD², Bert Fellows, MA³, Jeffrey W. Janata, PhD⁴, Vidyasagar Pampati, MSc⁵, Jay S. Grider, DO, PhD⁶, and Mark V. Boswell, MD, PhD⁷

From:^{1,3,5}Pain Management Center of Paducah, Paducah, KY, and ^{1,7}University of Louisville, Louisville, KY; ²Pacific Coast Pain Management Center, Laguna Hills, CA; ⁴University Hospitals of Cleveland, Cleveland, OH; and ⁶University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY.

Dr. Manchikanti is Medical Director of the Pain Management Center of Paducah, Paducah, KY, and Clinical Professor, Anesthesiology and Perioperative Medicine, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Dr. Helm is Medical Director, Pacific Coast Pain Management Center, Laguna Hills, CA.

Bert Fellows is Director Emeritus of Psychological Services at the Pain Management Center of Paducah, Paducah, KY.

Dr. Janata is Division Chief, Psychology, University Hospitals of Cleveland, Case School of Medicine, Cleveland, OH. Vidyasagar Pampati is a Statistician at the Pain Management Center of Paducah, Paducah, KY.

Dr. Grider is Associate Professor, Department of Anesthesiology, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY.

Dr. Boswell is Chairman, Department of Anesthesiology and Perioperative Medicine, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY.

Address correspondence:
Laxmaiah Manchikanti, M.D.
2831 Lone Oak Road
Paducah, Kentucky 42003
E-mail: drlm@thepainmd.com

Disclaimer: There was no external funding in the preparation of this manuscript.
Conflict of interest: None.

Manuscript received: 03/28/2012
Accepted for publication: 04/09/2012

Free full manuscript:
www.painphysicianjournal.com

Over the past two decades, as the prevalence of chronic pain and health care costs have exploded, an opioid epidemic with adverse consequences has escalated. Efforts to increase opioid use and a campaign touting the alleged undertreatment of pain continue to be significant factors in the escalation. Many arguments in favor of opioids are based solely on traditions, expert opinion, practical experience and uncontrolled anecdotal observations. Over the past 20 years, the liberalization of laws governing the prescribing of opioids for the treatment of chronic non-cancer pain by the state medical boards has led to dramatic increases in opioid use. This has evolved into the present stage, with the introduction of new pain management standards by the Joint Commission on the Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations (JCAHO) in 2000, an increased awareness of the right to pain relief, the support of various organizations supporting the use of opioids in large doses, and finally, aggressive marketing by the pharmaceutical industry. These positions are based on unsound science and blatant misinformation, and accompanied by the dangerous assumptions that opioids are highly effective and safe, and devoid of adverse events when prescribed by physicians.

Results of the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) showed that an estimated 22.6 million, or 8.9% of Americans, aged 12 or older, were current or past month illicit drug users. The survey showed that just behind the 7 million people who had used marijuana, 5.1 million had used pain relievers. It has also been shown that only one in 6 or 17.3% of users of non-therapeutic opioids indicated that they received the drugs through a prescription from one doctor.

The escalating use of therapeutic opioids shows hydrocodone topping all prescriptions with 136.7 million prescriptions in 2011, with all narcotic analgesics exceeding 238 million prescriptions. It has also been illustrated that opioid analgesics are now responsible for more deaths than the number of deaths from both suicide and motor vehicle crashes, or deaths from cocaine and heroin combined. A significant relationship exists between sales of opioid pain relievers and deaths. The majority of deaths (60%) occur in patients when they are given prescriptions based on prescribing guidelines by medical boards, with 20% of deaths in low dose opioid therapy of 100 mg of morphine equivalent dose or less per day and 40% in those receiving morphine of over 100 mg per day. In comparison, 40% of deaths occur in individuals abusing the drugs obtained through multiple prescriptions, doctor shopping, and drug diversion.

The purpose of this comprehensive review is to describe various aspects of crisis of opioid use in the United States. The obstacles that must be surmounted are primarily inappropriate prescribing patterns, which are largely based on a lack of knowledge, perceived safety, and inaccurate belief of undertreatment of pain.

Key words: Opioid abuse, opioid misuse, nonmedical use of psychotherapeutic drugs, nonmedical use of opioids, National Survey on Drug Use and Health, opioid guidelines.

Pain Physician 2012; 15:ES9-ES38

The Institute of Medicine (IOM) recently published a report on relieving pain in America (1,2). The report identified multiple facts, including that there are more than 116 million Americans with pain persisting from weeks to years, with financial costs ranging from \$560 billion to \$635 billion per year. The report alluded to the serious problem of the diversion and abuse of opioid drugs, questioning their long-term usefulness. The IOM committee reported that when opioids are used as prescribed; they can be safe and effective for acute postoperative pain, procedural pain, and patients nearing the end of life who desire more pain relief. While the IOM committee does promote pain treatment, including opioids, they do acknowledge a serious crisis in the diversion and abuse of opioids and a lack of evidence for the long-term usefulness of opioids in treating chronic pain. Along with increases in the prevalence of chronic pain, health care costs, and adverse consequences due to opioid use, the opioid crisis is escalating (1-49). Despite mounting evidence, efforts to increase opioid use based on the alleged undertreatment of pain continue (50-63). In fact, Stein (64) summarized the evidence succinctly, noting that "many arguments in favor of opioids are solely based on traditions, expert opinion, practical experience, and uncontrolled anecdotal observations."

Starting in the late 1990's, state medical boards curtailed restrictions on laws governing the prescribing of opioids for the treatment of chronic non-cancer pain, resulting in a dramatic increase in the number of prescriptions (65). This development gathered momentum with the introduction of new pain management standards for in-patient and out-patient medical care implemented by the Joint Commission on the Accreditation of Health Care Organizations (JCAHO) in 2000 (66) and an increased awareness of the right to pain relief, both of which provided justification for physicians. (67-70). Other factors fueling an increase in prescriptions included aggressive marketing by the pharmaceutical industry, the promotion of opioids by numerous physicians and a call for for the increased use of opioids in the treatment of chronic non-cancer pain by myriad organizations. These positions, alongside continued assertions that pain is undertreated, were largely based on untenable science and misinformation, and contended that opioids are highly effective and safe without adverse effects when prescribed by physicians (31,60,66,71-90). Moreover, a recent examination of model guidelines for curtailing controlled substance abuse revealed that the guidelines appeared instead

to condone an increase in prescribing (50,91-93). This is illustrated by the language in the model guidelines, which state (65), "no disciplinary action will be taken against a practitioner based solely on the quantity and/or frequency of opioids prescribed." Thus, the use of opioids in general, including long-acting and potent forms of opioids, have dramatically increased due to a shift in regulations largely driven by published, albeit extremely weak, evidence suggesting that opioids are not only highly effective, but also safe in selected persons with chronic non-cancer pain, even though this selection criteria are extremely weak and these guidelines have only facilitated overuse of opioids (31,71,94-98). Nearly 2 decades later, the scientific evidence for the effectiveness of opioids for chronic non-cancer pain remains unclear (35,71,96,99-119). In addition to ongoing concerns with regard to the lack of effectiveness of opioids in chronic non-cancer pain (31-38,96,99-119), there is growing evidence of multiple physiologic and non-physiologic adverse effects, such as opioid hyperalgesia (32,95,96,107,112-124), misuse and abuse (31-39,71,95,96,102,103,110-115,125-140), the inability of providers to identify and monitor misuse and overuse (31,32,36,95,96,126,127,130,138-151), and a steady increase in opioid-related fatalities (32,34,37,129,130,152-163). In fact, in 2008 drug poisoning in the United States has been reported to contribute to one death every 15 minutes (160). Furthermore, opioids have been shown to contribute to one death every 36 minutes in the United States in 2008. Correlating with these fatalities, sales and substance abuse treatment admissions have increased substantially (125-127,159,160,164-168).

With the above background highlighting a steady increase in fatalities with opioid use and very little evidence of effectiveness, it remains to be seen who will ultimately bear the responsibility for the premature adoption of opioids as a treatment standard (116). It has been speculated that in the coming years, there will likely be an extensive "postmortem" on the massive opioid treatment movement and the escalating social crisis that has accompanied it (116). It is universally accepted that this massive treatment movement has led to huge collateral damage in terms of diversion, misuse, and abuse of opioids. The widespread use of opioids for chronic non-cancer pain is in direct violation of the established cardinal principles of medical intervention – that there be compelling evidence of the benefit of a therapy prior to its large-scale use (116).

A cautious approach has been advocated in recent years by many (17,33,35,49,110-115,117-119,169). This

manuscript is undertaken to evaluate the escalating opioid crisis which although heavily regulated, continues to be uncontrolled.

1.0 Non-Medical Use of Psychotherapeutic Drugs

1.1 Current Non-Medical Use

Results of the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) (170), an annual survey sponsored by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA), showed that an estimated 22.6 million, or 8.9% of Americans, age 12 or older, were current (past month) illicit drug users. Illicit drugs include marijuana, cocaine, heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics (defined in this survey as prescription-type pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, and sedatives) used non-medically. Marijuana was the most commonly used illicit drug with 17.4 million current (past month) users, or 6.9% of the US

population. Cocaine was used by 1.5 million, whereas hallucinogens were used in the past month by 1.2 million persons (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Next to marijuana, 7.0 million (27%) persons age 12 or older had used prescription-type psychotherapeutic drugs non-medically in the past month (current use). Of these, 5.1 million had used pain relievers. The category of psychotherapeutics used in the tables and figures includes the nonmedical use of any prescription-type pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, or sedatives. However, over-the-counter substances are not included in these studies. The categories of nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics and pain relievers were well ahead of the illicit use of cocaine, hallucinogens, inhalants, methamphetamine, heroin, and lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD).

Overall, there has been an increase in the current use of all illicit drugs and marijuana, without any change for psychotherapeutics and hallucinogens and a decrease for cocaine from 2002 to 2010, as shown in Fig. 2.

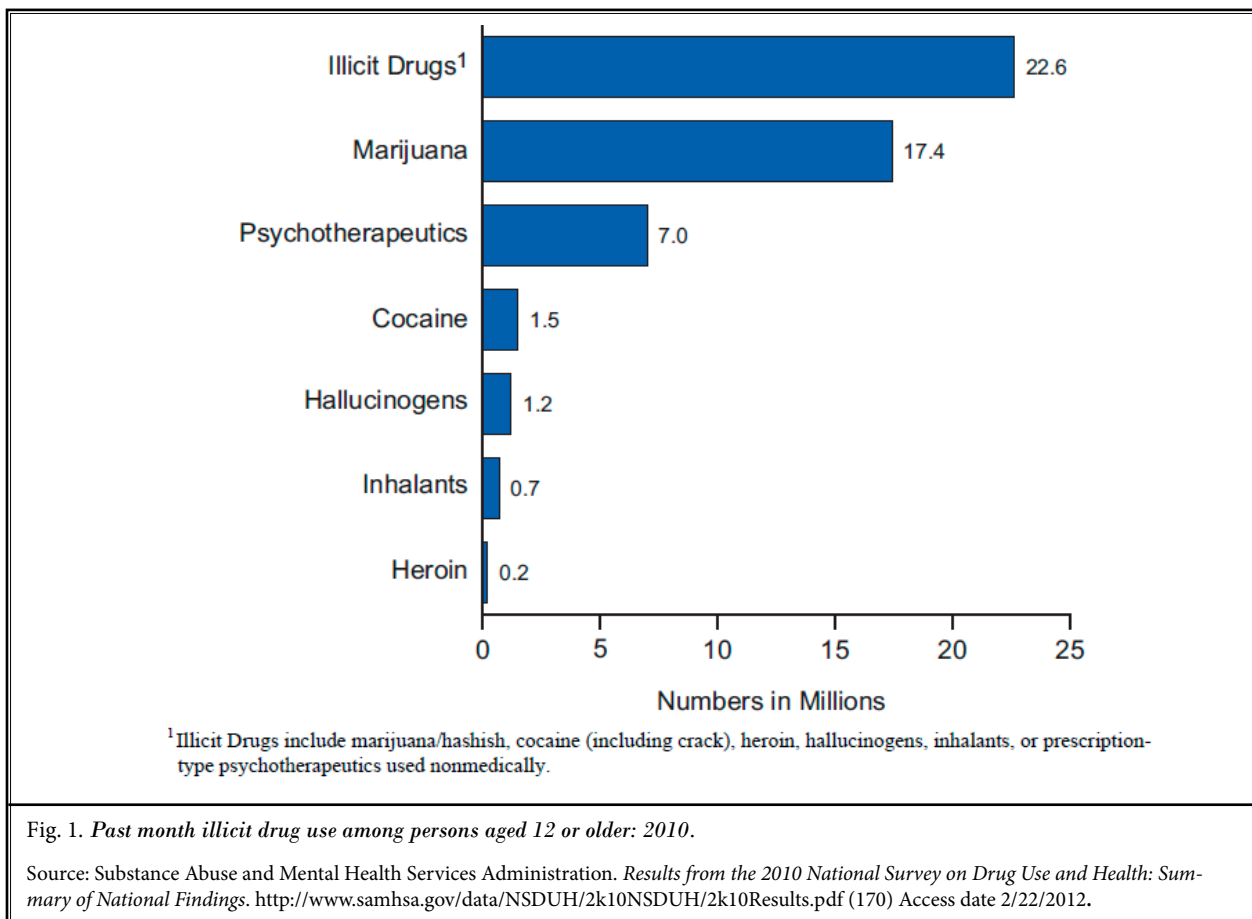


Table 1. Types of illicit drug use in the past month among persons aged 12 or older: Numbers in thousands, from 1998 to 2010.

Drugs	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	12-Year % change from 1998 to 2010
Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics ^{2,3}	2,477 (1.1%)	3,952 (1.8%)	3,849 (1.7%)	4,811 (2.1%)	6,287 (2.7%)	6,451 (2.7%)	6,110 (2.5%)	6,491 (2.7%)	7,095 ^b (2.9%) ^b	6,895 ^a (2.8%) ^a	6,224 (2.5%)	6,953 (2.8%)	6,967 (2.7%)	181%
Pain Relievers	--	2,621 (1.2%)	2,782 (1.2%)	3,497 (1.6%)	4,377 (1.9%)	4,693 (2.0%)	4,404 (1.8%)	4,658 (1.9%)	5,220 (2.1%)	5,174 (2.1%)	4,747 (1.9%)	5,257 (2.1%)	5,100 (2.0%)	NA
OxyContin*	--	--	--	--	--	--	325 (0.1%)	334 (0.1%)	276 (0.1%) ^a	369 (0.1%)	435 (0.2%)	510 (0.2%)	564 (0.2%)	NA
Tranquilizers	655 (0.3%)	1,097 (0.5%)	1,000 (0.4%)	1,358 (0.6%)	1,804 (0.8%)	1,830 (0.8%)	1,616 (0.7%)	1,817 (0.7%)	1,766 (0.7%)	1,835 (0.7%)	1,800 (0.7%)	2,010 (0.8%)	2,160 (0.9%)	230%
Stimulants	633 (0.3%)	950 (0.4%)	788 (0.4%)	1,018 (0.5%)	1,303 ^b (0.6%) ^b	1,310 ^b (0.6%) ^b	1,312 ^b (0.5%) ^b	1,188 ^b (0.5%) ^b	1,385 ^b (0.6%) ^b	1,053 (0.4%)	904 (0.4%)	1,290 (0.5%)	1,077 (0.4%)	70%
Sedatives ³	210 (0.1%)	229 (0.1%)	175 (0.1%)	306 (0.1%)	436 ^b (0.2%) ^b	294 (0.1%)	265 (0.1%)	272 (0.1%)	385 (0.2%) ^a	346 (0.1%)	234 (0.1%)	370 (0.1%)	374 (0.1%)	78%
Marijuana and Hashish	11,016 (5.0%)	10,458 (4.7%)	10,714 (4.8)	12,122 (5.4%)	14,584 (6.2%)	14,638 (6.2%)	14,576 (6.1%)	14,626 (6.0%)	14,813 (6.0%)	14,448 (5.8%)	15,203 (6.1%)	16,718 (6.6%)	17,373 (6.9%)	58%
Cocaine	1,750 (0.8%)	1,552 (0.7%)	1,213 (0.5%)	1,667 (0.7%)	2,020 (0.9%)	2,281 (1.0%)	2,021 (0.8%)	2,397 (1.0%)	2,421 (1.0%)	2,075	1,855	1,637 (0.7%)	1,466 (0.6%)	-16%
TOTAL ILLICIT DRUGS¹	13,615 (6.2%)	13,829 (6.3%)	14,027 (6.3%)	15,910 (7.1%)	19,522 (8.3%)	19,470 (8.2%)	19,071 (7.9%)	19,720 (8.1%)	20,357 (8.3%)	19,857 (8.0%)	20,077 (8.0%)	21,813 (8.7%)	22,622 (8.9%)	66%

-- Not available.

Note: 2002 to 2008 data is based on 2008 National Survey on Drug Use and Health Survey Report.

a Difference between estimate and 2008 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. b Difference between estimate and 2008 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

1 Illicit Drugs include marijuana/hashish, cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used nonmedically. Illicit Drugs Other

Than Marijuana include cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used nonmedically. The estimates for Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics, Stimulants, and Methamphetamine incorporated in these summary estimates do not include data from the methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006.

2 Nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics includes the nonmedical use of pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, or sedatives and does not include over-the-counter drugs.

3 Estimates of Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics, Stimulants, and Methamphetamine in the designated rows include data from methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006 and are not comparable with estimates presented in NSDUH reports prior to the 2007 National Findings report. For the 2002 through 2005 survey years, a Bernoulli stochastic imputation procedure was used to generate adjusted estimates comparable with estimates for survey years 2006 and later.

Source: SAMHSA, Office of Applied Studies, National Survey on Drug Use and Health, 1998 - 2010.

www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf (170) Access date 2/22/2012

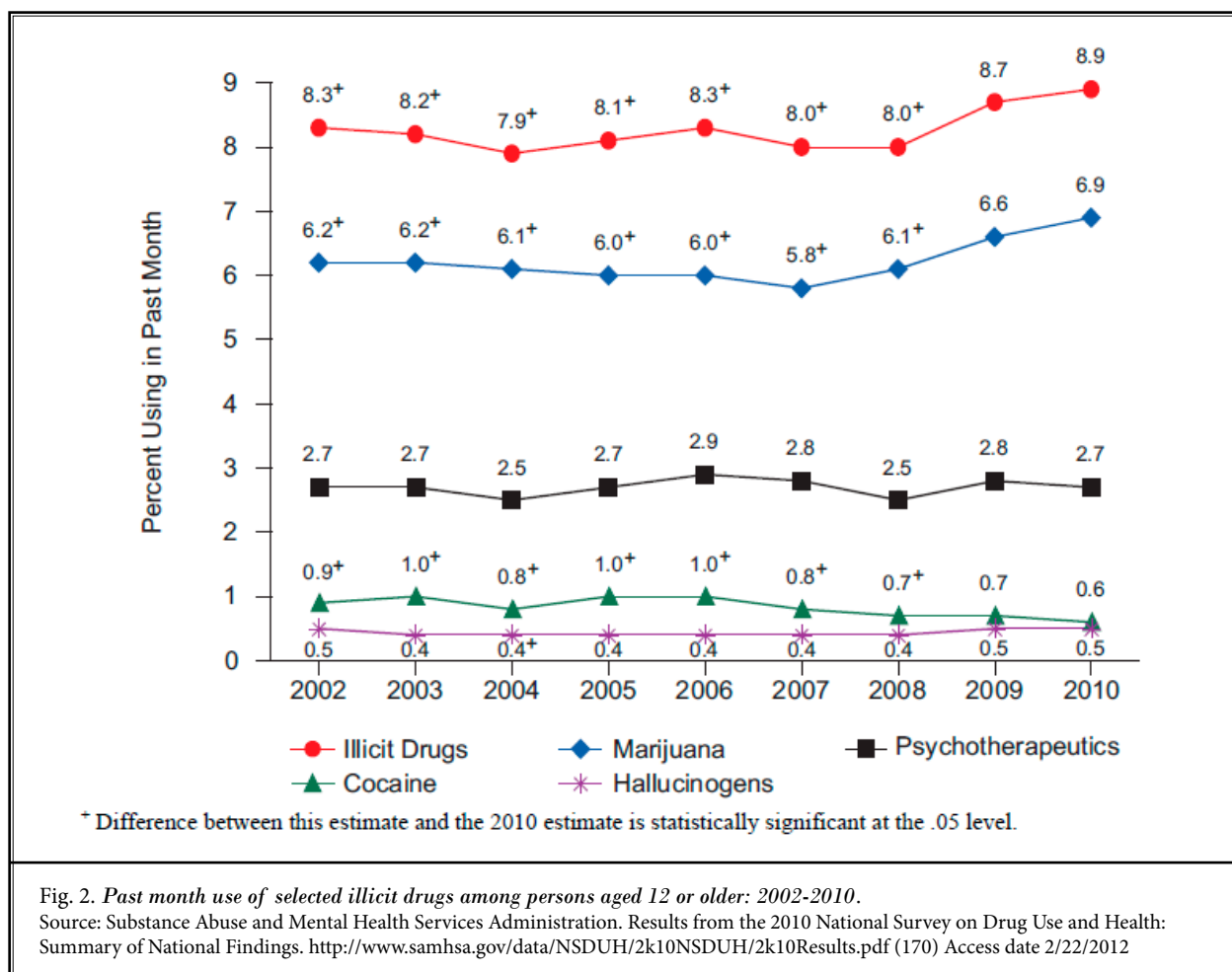


Fig. 2. Past month use of selected illicit drugs among persons aged 12 or older: 2002-2010. Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

1.2 Past Year Initiates

In 2010, there were 2.4 million persons age 12 or older who used psychotherapeutics non-medically for the first time within the past year. Numbers of new users for specific psychotherapeutics in 2010 were 2.0 million for pain relievers, 1.2 million for tranquilizers, 624,000 for stimulants, and 252,000 for sedatives (Table 2 and Fig. 3). The specific drug categories with the largest number of recent initiatives among persons age 12 or older were nonmedical use of pain relievers (2,004 million) and marijuana (2,426 million), followed by nonmedical use of tranquilizers (1,238 million), ecstasy (0.937 million), inhalants (0.793 million), cocaine (0.637 million), and stimulants (0.624 million) (Fig. 3). More strikingly, in 2010, the number of new nonmedical users of OxyContin (oxycodone) age 12 or older was 598,000 with an average age at first use of 22.8 years among those age 12 to 49 (170).

1.3 Past Year Use

The analysis of long-term statistics based on yearly use of illicit drugs is disturbing. The past year use of illicit drugs in 2010 was 38.806 million, or 15.3% of the population (Table 3). Nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics for the past year in the 2010 survey was 16.031 million or 6.3% population age 12 or older, compared to 2.6% of the population in 1998. Of importance is the fact that nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics was just behind marijuana and hashish with use by 11.5% of the population age 12 or older in 2010, increased from 8.6% in 1998. Overall, nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics increased 178% from 1998 to 2010, compared to marijuana 56% and cocaine at 17%.

1.4 Lifetime Use

Lifetime use of illicit drugs (lifetime use indicates use of a specific drug at least once in the respondent's

Table 2. Past year initiates for illicit drugs from 1998 to 2010 (numbers in thousands) for 12 years.

Drugs	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	12-Year % change from 1998 to 2010
Pain Relievers ²	1,548	1,810	2,268	2,400	2,320	2,456	2,422	2,193	2,150	2,147	2,176	2,179	2,004	29%
Tranquilizers	860	916	1,298	1,212	1,184	1,071	1,180	1,286	1,112	1,232	1,127	1,226	1,238	44%
Stimulants ²	648	706	808	853	783	715	793 ^a	647	845 ^b	642	599	702	624	-4%
Sedatives	147	164	191	225	209	194	240	247	267	198	181	186	252	71%
Marijuana	2,498	2,640	2,746	2,793	2,196	1,973	2,142	2,114	2,063	2,090	2,208	2,361	2,426	-3%
Cocaine	868	917	1,002	1,140	1,032 ^b	986 ^b	998 ^b	872 ^a	977 ^b	906 ^b	722	617	637	-27%
Heroin	140	121	114	154	117	92	118	108	91	106	114	180	140	0%

Note: 2002 to 2008 data is based on 2008 National Survey on Drug Use and Health Survey Report.

-- Not available.

^a Difference between estimate and 2008 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

^b Difference between estimate and 2008 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

1 Illicit Drugs include marijuana/hashish, cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics nonmedically. Illicit Drugs Other Than Marijuana include cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used nonmedically. The estimates for Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics, Stimulants, and Methamphetamine incorporated in these summary estimates do not include data from the methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006. See Section B.4.8 in Appendix B of the Results from the 2008 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: National Findings.

2 Nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics includes the nonmedical use of pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, or sedatives and does not include over-the-counter drugs.

3 Estimates of Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics, Stimulants, and Methamphetamine in the designated rows include data from methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006 and are not comparable with estimates presented in NSDUH reports prior to the 2007 National Findings report. For the 2002 through 2005 survey years, a Bernoulli stochastic imputation procedure was used to generate adjusted estimates comparable with estimates for survey years 2006 and later.

Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170). Access date 2/22/2012

lifetime), including psychotherapeutics, among persons age 12 or older has been increasing over the years (Table 4). In 2010, the lifetime use of illicit drugs among persons age 12 or older was slightly more than 2009 with 119,508 or 47.1% of the population. Similarly, nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics remained the

same from 2009 with 20.4% in 2010, or almost 51.6 million using prescription psychotherapeutic drugs for nonmedical purposes. Among the subgroups, only OxyContin increased significantly from 1.9 million in 2005 to 6.1 million in 2010, or 0.8% of the population in 2005 to 2.4% in 2010 (171). Lifetime use of illicit drugs in per-

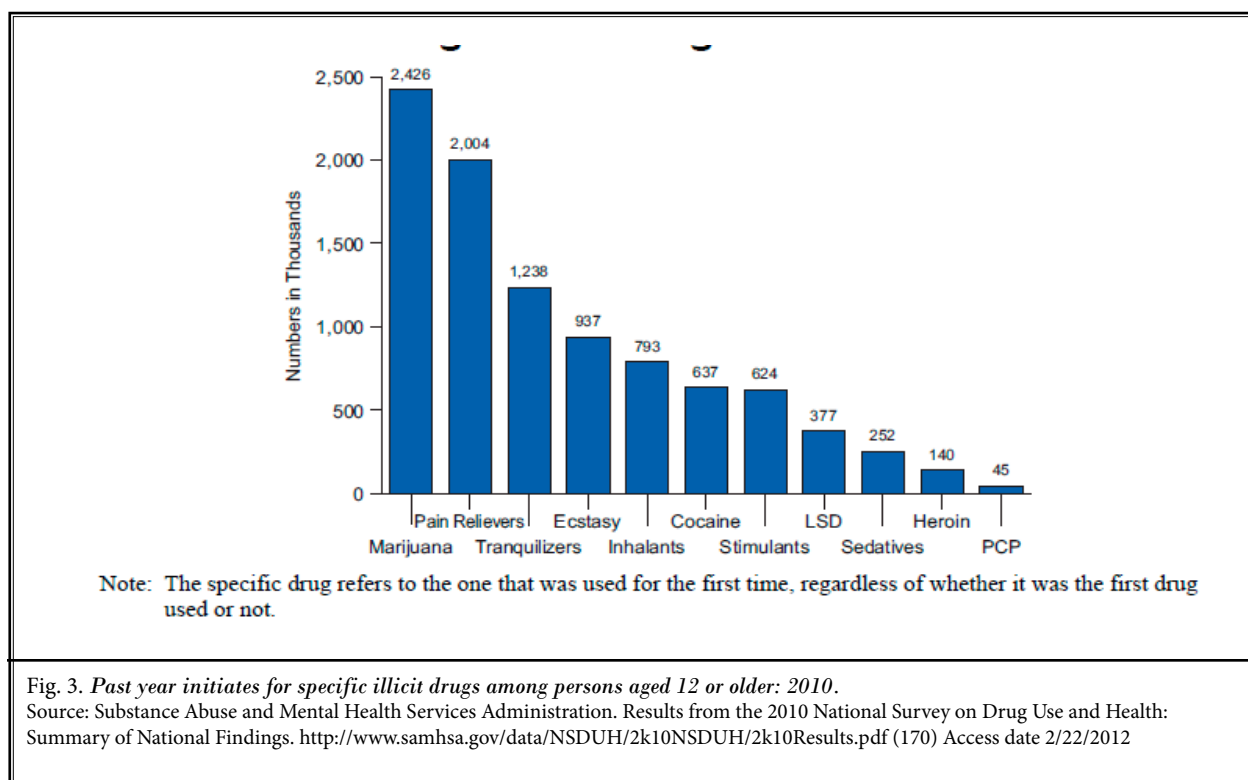


Fig. 3. Past year initiates for specific illicit drugs among persons aged 12 or older: 2010.

Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

sons age 12 or older was topped by marijuana (41.9% of the population) followed by nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics (20.4% of the population).

1.5 Abuse Based on Age

In 2010, young adults age 18 to 25 demonstrated rates of current use of illicit drugs to be higher (21.5%) than for youths age 12 to 17 (10.1%) and adults age 26 or older (6.6%), with 6.9% using marijuana, 2.7% using psychotherapeutics non-medically, 0.6% using cocaine, and 0.5% using hallucinogens among young adults 18-25 (Fig. 4). Past month nonmedical use of prescription-type drugs among young adults increased from 20.2% in 2002 to 21.5% in 2010. This was primarily due to an increase in the rate of pain reliever use which was 4.1% in 2002 and 4.9% in 2006 (170). As illustrated in Figure 5, overall illicit drug use increased from 8.3% to 8.9% in 2010 in the age group from 18 to 25.

Rates of past month illicit drug use varied with age. Through the adolescent years from 12 to 17, the rates of current illicit drug use in 2010 increased from 4.0% at ages 12 or 13, to 9.3% at ages 14 or 15, to 16.6% at ages 16 or 17 (170). The highest rate of 23.1% was noted among persons age 18 to 20, with the next high-

est rate among 21 to 25 year olds 20.5% (Fig. 6) (144). In 2010, adults age 26 or older were less likely to be current drug users than youths age 12 to 17 or young adults age 18 to 25 (6.6 versus 10.1 and 21.5%, respectively). However, there were more drug users age 26 or older (12.8 million) than users in the 12-to-17-year age group (2.5 million) and 18-to-25-year age group (7.3 million) combined.

1.6 Abuse Based on Gender

In 2010, the survey results were similar to prior years with males being more likely than females to be current illicit drug users (11.2% versus 6.8%). Males were more likely than females to be past month users of marijuana (9.1% versus 4.7%). Rates of past month nonmedical use of psychotherapeutic drugs among males and females was 3% and 2.5%, pain relievers was 2.3% and 1.7%, cocaine was 0.8% and 0.4% and hallucinogens was 0.6% and 0.3% (170).

1.7 Abuse During Pregnancy

Among pregnant women age 15 to 44 years, a significantly lower proportion of women used illicit drugs in the past month (4.4%) compared to 10.9% of their

Table 3. Types of illicit drug use in the past year among persons aged 12 or older: numbers in thousands from 1998 to 2010 (12 years).

Drugs	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	12-year % change from 1998 to 2010
Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics ³	5,759 (2.6%)	9,220 (4.2%)	8,761 (3.9%)	11,102 (4.9%)	14,795 (6.3%)	15,163 (6.4%)	14,849 (6.2%)	15,346 (6.3%)	16,482 ^b (6.7% ^b)	16,280 ^a (6.6% ^a)	15,166 (6.1%)	16,006 (6.4%)	16,031 (6.3%)	178%
Pain Relievers	--	6,582 (3.0%)	6,466 (2.9%)	8,353 (3.7%)	10,992 ^a (4.7%)	11,671 (4.9%)	11,256 (4.7%)	11,815 (4.9%)	12,649 (5.1% ^a)	12,466 (5.0%)	11,885 (4.8%)	12,405 (4.9%)	12,213 (4.8%)	85% From 1999
OxyContin [®]	--	--	--	--	--	--	1,213 ^a (0.5%)	1,226 (0.5%)	1,323 (0.5%)	1,422 (0.6%)	1,459 (0.6%)	1,677 (0.7%)	1,869 (0.7%)	54% From 2004
Tranquilizers	1,940 (0.9%)	2,728 (1.2%)	2,731 (1.2%)	3,673 (1.6%)	4,849 (2.1%)	5,051 (2.1%)	5,068 (2.1%)	5,249 (2.2%)	5,058 (2.1%)	5,282 (2.1%)	5,103 (2.0%)	5,460 (2.2%)	5,581 (2.2%)	188%
Stimulants ³	1,489 (0.7%)	2,291 (1.0%)	2,112 (0.9%)	2,486 (1.1%)	3,380 ^b (1.4% ^b)	3,031 ^a (1.3% ^b)	3,254 ^b (1.4% ^b)	3,088 ^a (1.3% ^b)	3,791 ^b (1.5% ^b)	2,998 (1.2%)	2,639 (1.1%)	3,060 (1.2%)	2,887 (1.1%)	94%
Sedatives	522 (0.2%)	631 (0.3%)	611 (0.3%)	806 (0.4%)	981 ^b (0.4% ^b)	831 ^a (0.3% ^a)	737 (0.3%)	750 (0.3%)	926 ^b (0.4% ^b)	864 ^a (0.3% ^a)	621 (0.2%)	811 (0.3%)	907 (0.4%)	56%
Marijuana and Hashish	18,710 (8.6%)	19,102 (8.6%)	18,589 (8.3%)	21,086 (9.3% ^c)	25,755 (11.0% ^a)	25,231 (10.6%)	25,451 (10.6%)	25,375 (10.4%)	25,378 (10.3%)	25,085 (10.1%)	25,768 (10.3%)	28,521 (11.3%)	29,206 (11.5%)	56%
Cocaine	3,811 (1.7%)	3,742 (1.7%)	3,328 (1.5%)	4,186 (1.9% ^c)	5,902 ^a (2.5% ^b)	5,908 ^a (2.5% ^b)	5,658 (2.4% ^a)	5,523 (2.3%)	6,069 ^b (2.5% ^b)	5,738 (2.3%)	5,255 (2.1%)	4,797 (1.9%)	4,449 (1.8%)	17%
TOTAL ILLICIT DRUGS¹	23,115 (10.6%)	25,402 (11.5%)	24,535 (11.0%)	28,409 (12.6%^c)	35,132 (14.9%^a)	34,993 (14.7%)	34,807 (14.5%)	35,041 (14.4%)	35,775 (14.5%)	35,692 (14.4%)	35,525 (14.2%)	37,957 (15.1%)	38,806 (15.3%)	68%

-- Not available.

Note: 2002 to 2010 data is based on 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health Survey Report. a Difference between estimate and 2010 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. b Difference between estimate and 2010 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

1 Illicit Drugs include marijuana/hashish, cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used non-medically. Illicit drugs other than marijuana include cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used non-medically. The estimates for nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics, stimulants, and methamphetamine incorporated in these summary estimates do not include data from the methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006.

2 Nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics includes the nonmedical use of pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, or sedatives and does not include over-the-counter drugs.

3 Estimates of nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics, stimulants, and methamphetamine in the designated rows include data from methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006 and are not comparable with estimates presented in NSDUH reports prior to the 2007 National Findings report. For the 2002 through 2005 survey years, a Bernoulli stochastic imputation procedure was used to generate adjusted estimates comparable with estimates for survey years 2006 and later.

Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170). Access date 2/22/2012

Table 4. Types of illicit drugs of lifetime use among persons aged 12 or older: numbers in thousands, 1998 – 2010.

Drug	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	12-Year % change from 1998 to 2010
Nonmedical Use of Psychotherapeutics ²	20,193 (9.2%)	34,076 (15.4%)	32,443 (14.5%)	36,028 (16.0%)	47,958 ^b (20.4%)	49,001 ^b (20.6%)	49,157 (20.4%)	49,571 ^a (20.4%)	50,965 (20.7%)	50,415 (20.3%)	51,970 (20.8%)	51,771 (20.6%)	51,641 (20.4%)	156%
Pain Relievers	--	19,888 (9.0%)	19,210 (8.6%)	22,133 (9.8%)	29,611 ^b (12.6%)	31,207 ^b (13.1%)	31,768 ^b (13.2%)	32,692 ^b (13.4%)	33,472 (13.6%)	33,060 ^a (13.3%)	34,861 (14.0%)	35,046 (13.9%)	34,776 (13.7%)	75% From 1999
OxyContin [*]	--	--	--	--	1,924 ^b (0.8%)	2,832 ^b (1.2%)	3,072 ^b (1.3%)	3,481 ^b (1.4%)	4,098 ^b (1.7%)	4,354 (1.8%)	4,842 (1.9%)	5,829 (2.3%)	6,121 (2.4%)	218% From 2002
Tranquilizers	7,726 (3.5%)	13,860 (6.3%)	13,007 (5.8%)	13,945 (6.2%)	19,267 ^b (8.2%)	20,220 (8.5%)	19,852 ^a (8.3%)	21,041 (8.7%)	21,303 (8.7%)	20,208 (8.2%)	21,476 (8.6%)	21,755 (8.6%)	22,103 (8.7%)	186%
Stimulants	9,614 (4.4%)	15,922 (7.2%)	14,661 (6.6%)	16,007 (7.1%)	23,496 ^b (10.0%)	23,004 ^a (9.7%)	22,297 (9.3%)	20,983 (8.6%)	22,468 (9.1%)	21,654 (8.7%)	21,206 (8.5%)	21,930 (8.7%)	21,660 (8.5%)	125%
Sedatives	4,640 (2.1%)	7,747 (3.5%)	7,142 (3.2%)	7,477 (3.3%)	9,960 ^a (4.2%)	9,510 (4.0%)	9,891 (4.1%)	8,982 (3.7%)	8,822 (3.6%)	8,396 (3.4%)	8,882 (3.6%)	8,605 (3.4%)	7,631 (3.2%)	64%
Marijuana and Hashish	72,070 (33.0%)	76,428 (34.6%)	76,321 (34.2%)	83,272 (36.9%)	94,946 ^b (40.4%)	96,611 ^b (40.6%)	96,772 ^b (40.2%)	97,545 ^b (40.1%)	97,825 ^b (39.8%)	100,518 (40.6%)	102,404 (41.0%)	104,446 (41.5%)	106,232 (41.9%)	47%
Cocaine	23,089 (10.6%)	25,406 (11.5%)	24,896 (11.2%)	27,788 (12.3%)	33,910 ^b (14.4%)	34,891 ^a (14.7%)	34,153 ^b (14.2%)	33,673 ^b (13.8%)	35,298 (14.3%)	35,882 (14.5%)	36,773 (14.7%)	36,599 (14.5%)	37,210 (14.7%)	61%
TOTAL ILLICIT DRUGS¹	78,123 (35.8%)	87,734 (39.7%)	86,931 (38.9%)	94,140 (41.7%)	108,255^b (46.0%)	110,205^b (46.4%)	110,057^b (45.8%)	112,085^b (46.1%)	111,774^b (45.4%)	114,275^a (46.1%)	117,325 (47.0%)	118,705 (47.1%)	119,508 (47.1%)	53%

-- Not available.

Note: 2002 to 2010 data is based on 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health Survey Report.

a Difference between estimate and 2010 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

b Difference between estimate and 2010 estimate is statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

1 Illicit Drugs include marijuana/hashish, cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used non-medically. Illicit drugs other than marijuana include cocaine (including crack), heroin, hallucinogens, inhalants, or prescription-type psychotherapeutics used non-medically. The estimates for nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics, stimulants, and methamphetamine incorporated in these summary estimates do not include data from the methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006.

2 Nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics includes the nonmedical use of pain relievers, tranquilizers, stimulants, or sedatives and does not include over-the-counter drugs.

3 Estimates of nonmedical use of psychotherapeutics, stimulants, and methamphetamine in the designated rows include data from methamphetamine items added in 2005 and 2006 and are not comparable with estimates presented in NSDUH reports prior to the 2007 National Findings report. For the 2002 through 2006 survey years, a Bernoulli stochastic imputation procedure was used to generate adjusted estimates comparable with estimates for survey years 2006 and later.

Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

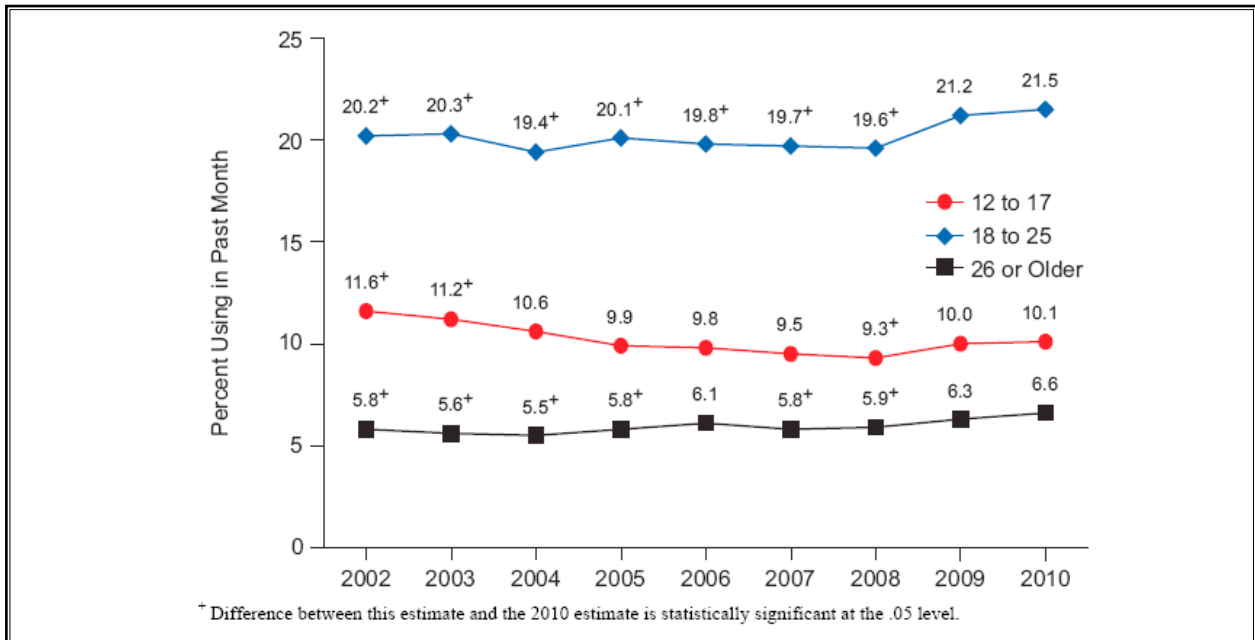


Fig. 4. Comparative analysis of past month use of illicit drugs among various age groups. Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

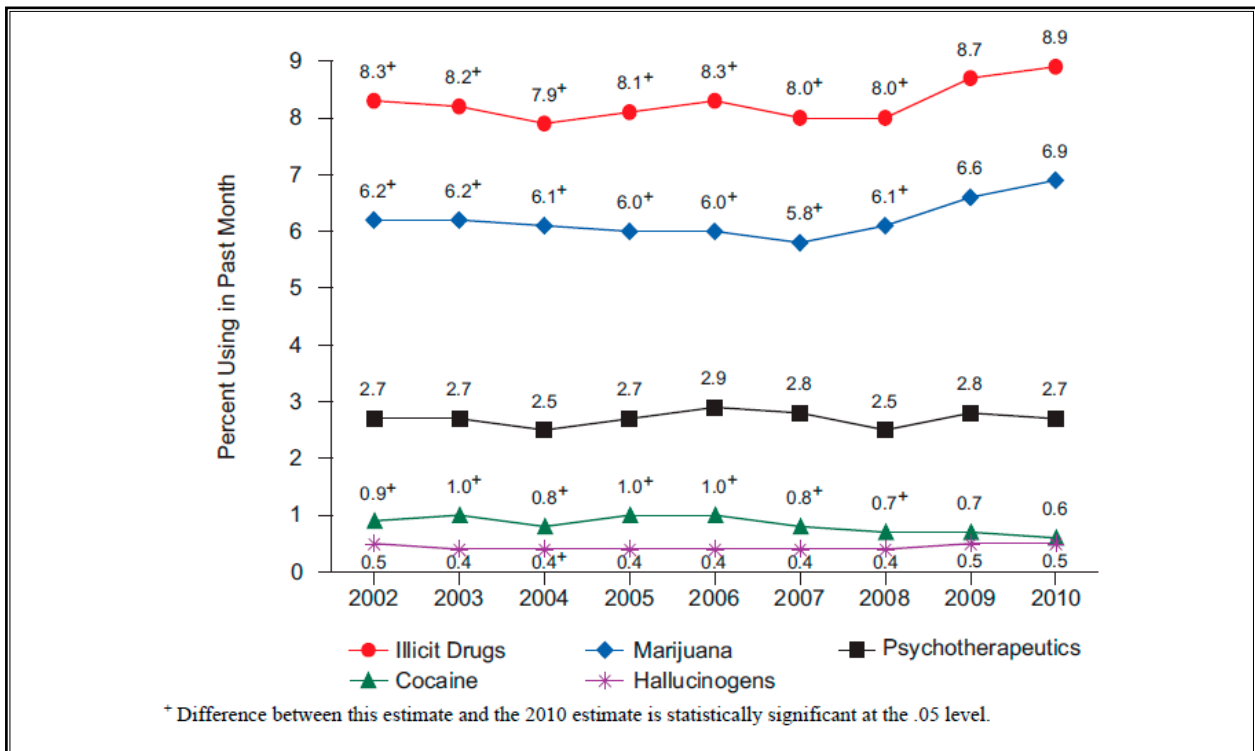


Fig. 5. Past month use of selected illicit drugs among young adults aged 18 to 25: 2002-2010. Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

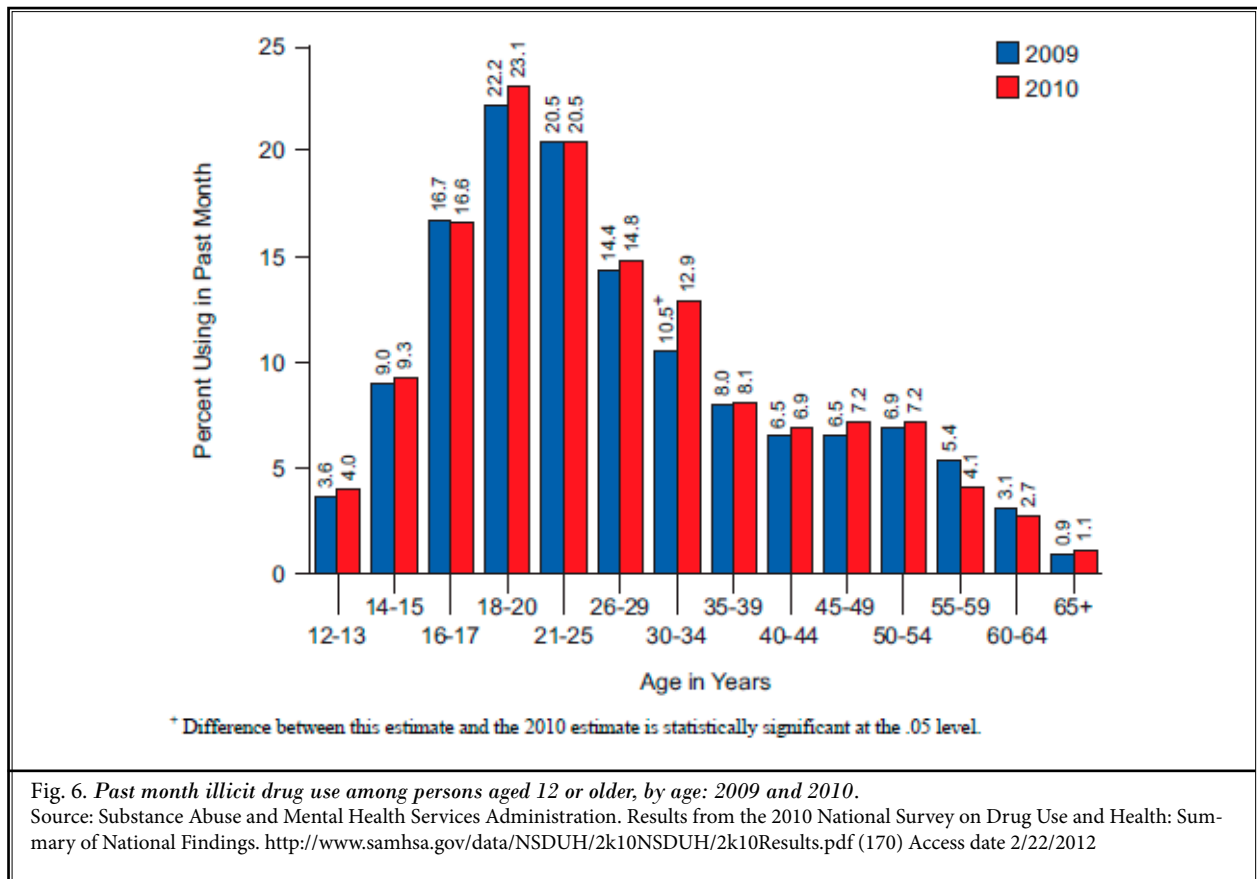


Fig. 6. Past month illicit drug use among persons aged 12 or older, by age: 2009 and 2010.

Source: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings. <http://www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf> (170) Access date 2/22/2012

nonpregnant counterparts. These figures are based on data averaged for 2009 and 2010 (170).

1.8 Abuse Based on Employment

Employment also seemed to have a significant influence in 2010. Among adults age 18 or older, the rate of illicit drug use was higher for unemployed persons (17.5%) than for those who were employed full time (8.4%) or part time (11.2%) (170).

1.9 Regional Variations

There were also differences based on geographic area among persons age 12 or older in 2010. The rate of current illicit drug use in 2010 was 11.0% in the West, 9.4% in the Northeast, 8.2% in the Midwest, and 7.8% in the South (170). Further, the rate of current illicit drug use in metropolitan areas was higher than the rate in non-metropolitan areas with 9.4% in large metropolitan counties, 8.8% in small metropolitan counties, and 7.5% in non-metropolitan counties as a group (170).

1.10 Drug Abuse Among Criminals

In 2010, an estimated 1.5 million adults age 18 or older who were on parole or supervised release from jail during the past year had higher rates of dependence on or abuse of a substance (27%) than their counterparts who were not on parole or supervised release during the past year (8.7%). In 2010, probation status was associated with substance dependence or abuse. The rate of substance dependence or abuse was 29.9% among adults who were on probation during the past year, which was significantly higher than the rate among adults who were not on probation during the past year was 8.3% (170).

1.11 Driving Under the Influence

Driving under the influence of illicit drugs is a criminal act and dangerous to the public. In 2010, 10.6 million persons, or 4.2% of the population age 12 or older, reported driving under the influence of illicit drugs during the past year. This rate was highest among young adults age 18 to 25 with 12.7% (170).

1.12 Frequency of Abuse

Among past year marijuana users age 12 or older in 2010, the following patterns were revealed (170):

- 15.7% used marijuana on 300 or more days within the past 12 months, translating to 4.6 million using marijuana on a daily or almost daily basis over a 12-month period.
- 39.9%, or 6.9 million, used the drug on 20 or more days in the past month (current use).

2.0 MENTAL HEALTH PROBLEMS AND NONMEDICAL USE OF DRUGS

The NSDUH survey of 2010 evaluated the prevalence and treatment of serious mental illness (SMI), serious psychological distress (SPD), and major depressive episode (MDE) and the association of these problems with substance use and substance dependency or abuse. SPD is an overall indicator of the past 30 days of psychological distress, whereas MDE is defined as a period of at least 2 weeks when a person experienced a depressed mood or loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities and had symptoms that met the criteria for a

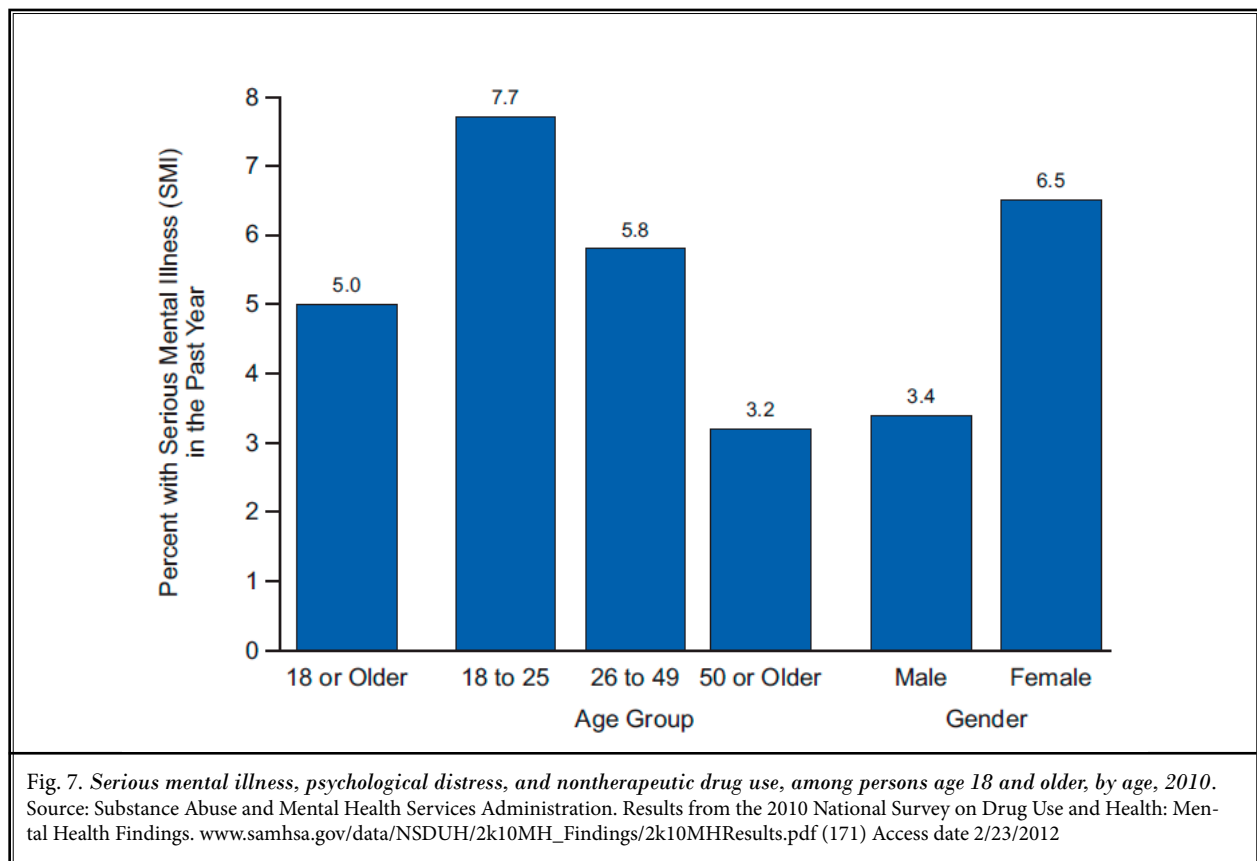
major depressive disorder (171). Further, SPD indicates a respondent recently experienced heightened distress symptomatology that may be affecting health and behavior during the past 30 days. However, this distress may be part of a chronic psychological disturbance (even SMI) or may represent a temporary disturbance that could subside after a brief period of adjustment.

2.1 Serious Medical Illness and Drug Abuse

The prevalence of SMI in 2010 was shown in 11.4 million adults, representing 5.0% of all adults, with the highest rates being in adults age 18 to 25 (7.7%) and lowest for adults age 50 or older (3.2%) as shown in Figure 7 (171). The prevalence of SPD among women age 18 or older was higher (6.5%) than among men (3.4%) in that age group (171).

2.2 Major Depressive Episodes and Drug Abuse

The prevalence of a MDE in 2010 was 6.8% of persons age 18 or older, or 15.5 million adults, with at least one MDE in the past year. The number of adults who had past year MDE was 6.8%. Even then, the past year



prevalence of MDE in 2010 was lower for those age 50 or older (5.6%) compared with rates among persons age 18 to 25 (8.2%) and those age 26 to 49 (7.5%). However, the past year prevalence of MDE was higher among adult females than among adult males, 8.4% versus 5.1%. In addition, among women, past year MDE rates were higher with 11.3% for 18 to 25 year olds, 9.2 for 26 to 49 year olds compared with those of 50 or older with only 6.7%. Further, the prevalence of MDE also varied by race and ethnicity with the highest rate among persons reporting 2 or more races (10.8%), while rates for single race groups were 7.3% among whites, 5.6% among Hispanics, 7.7% among American Indians or Alaska Natives, 5.8% among blacks, and 3.8% among Asians.

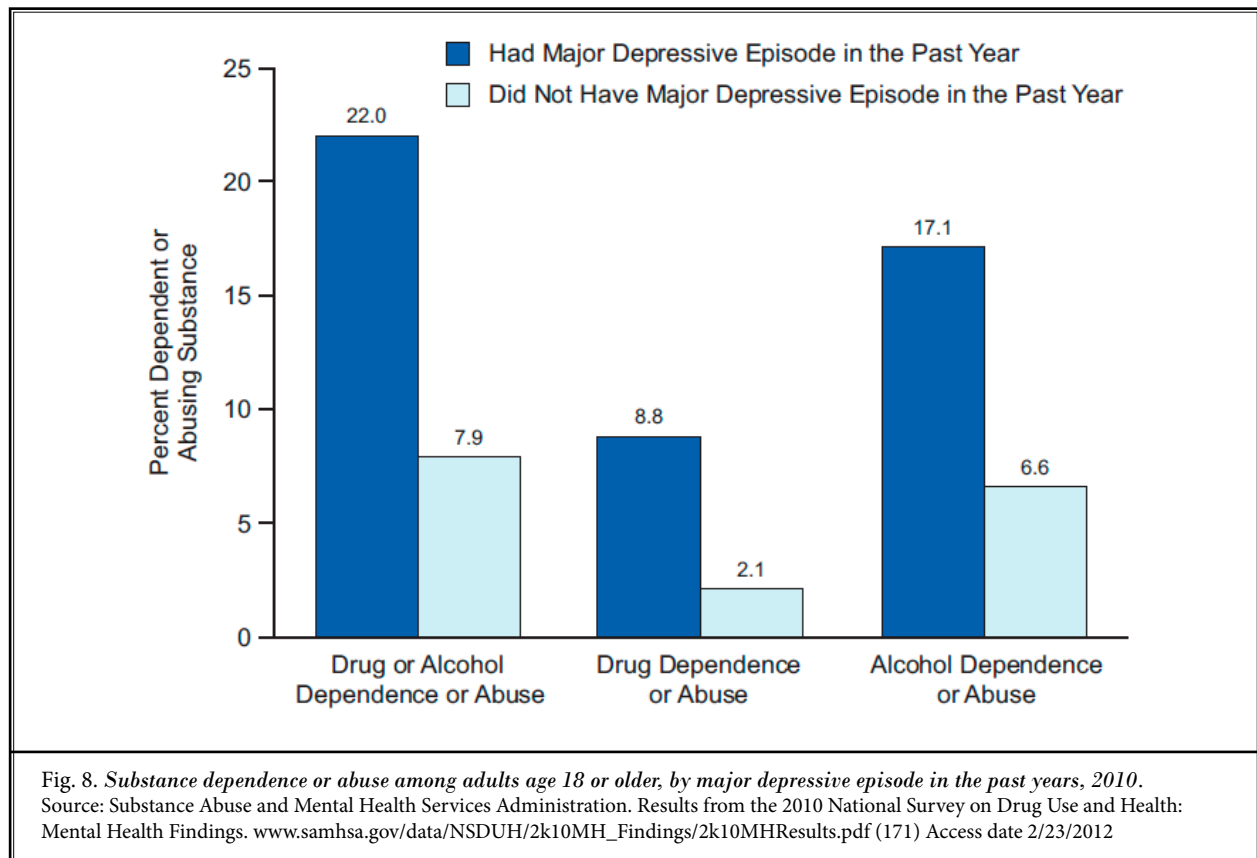
In addition, in 2010 the past prevalence of MDE with severe impairment for adults age 18 or older was higher among unemployed persons (9.3%) than among persons employed full time (5.4%).

In 2010, an adult age 18 or older with a combination of a MDE and substance use and dependence or

abuse in the past year was more likely than those with MDE to have used an illicit drug in the past year (22.0% versus 7.9%) (171). A similar pattern was observed for specific types of past year illicit drug use, such as marijuana and the nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics. Figure 8 illustrates substance abuse in adults by MDE.

The prevalence of a MDE in youths age 12 to 17 in 2010 showed that 1.9 million (8.9%) reported at least one MDE during the past year. Among youths age 12 to 17, the past year prevalence of MDE ranged from 3.3% among 12-year-olds to 10.9% among those age 16, and 10.3% among those age 17 (171).

Among youths with MDE age 12 to 17, 37.2% had used illicit drugs in 2010, in contrast to 37.4% in 2008. This was higher than the 17.8% of youths in the past year that did not have a MDE but had used illicit drugs. This pattern, however, was similar to specific types of illicit drug use including marijuana and the nonmedical use of prescription-type psychotherapeutics (171).



3.0 WHERE DO NON-THERAPEUTIC DRUGS COME FROM?

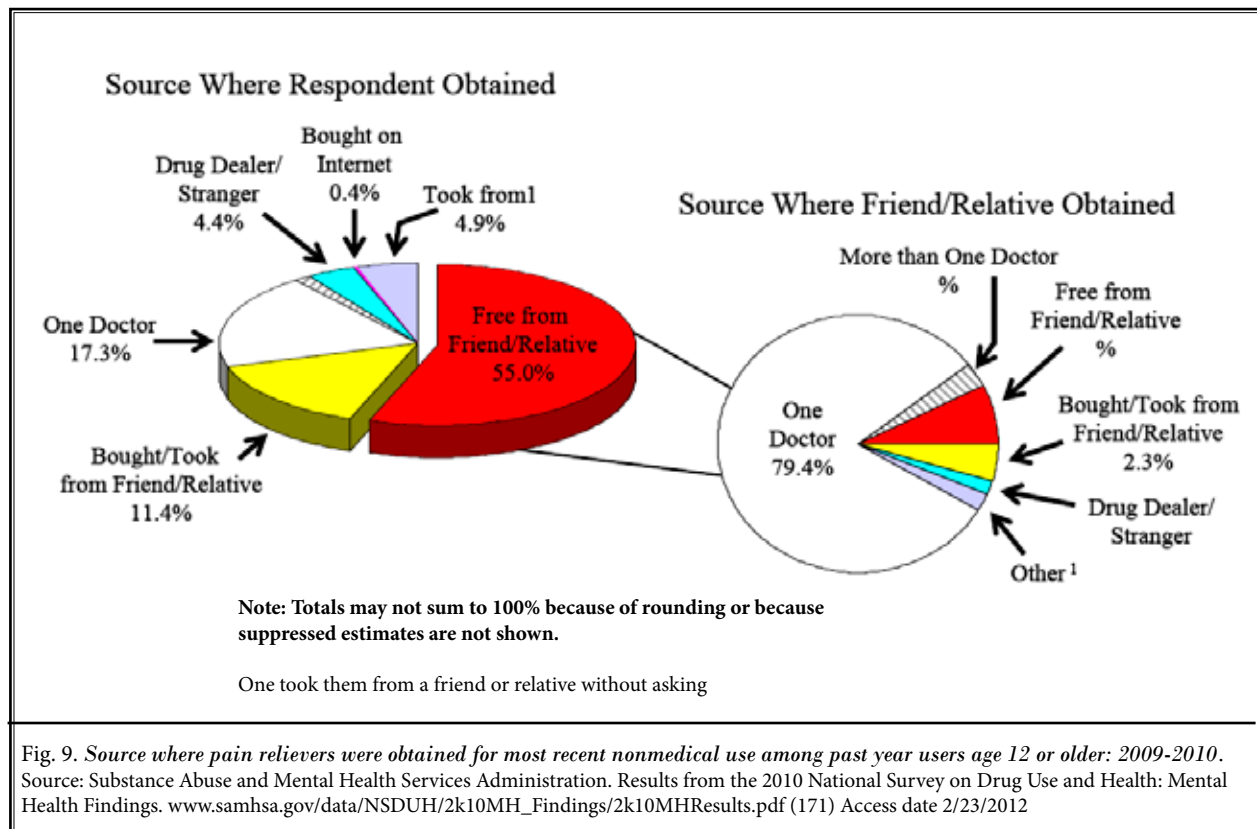
Among persons aged 12 or older in 2009-2010 who used pain relievers nonmedically in the past 12 months, 55% obtained pain relievers from a friend or relative for free (170). Among the remaining 45%, 11.4% bought them from a friend or relative (which was significantly higher than the 8.9% from 2007-2008), and 4.8% essentially stole them from a friend or relative (Fig. 9). However, only one in 6 or 17.3% indicated that they received the drugs through a prescription from one doctor, while only 4.4% received pain relievers from a drug dealer or other stranger, and 0.4% bought them on the Internet, with no significant changes from 2007 to 2008.

Even more striking is the fact that in 2009-2010, 41.5% of past year methamphetamine users reported that they obtained the methamphetamine they used most recently for free from a friend or relative, with an additional 30.7% buying it from a friend or relative (170).

4.0 ESCALATING USE OF THERAPEUTIC OPIOIDS

The escalating use of therapeutic opioids, specifically in high doses over long periods of time or even lifetime use of long-acting drugs, and the combination of long and short-acting drugs continue to have serious consequences for costs of health care and economic stability.

The data overwhelmingly suggest that the increased supply of opioids, high medical users, doctor shoppers, and patients with multiple comorbid factors contribute to the majority of fatalities. The quadrupled sales of opioid analgesics between 1999 and 2010 are a perfect example of the therapeutic opioid explosion. The data on sales and distribution of opioids show an increase from 96 mg morphine equivalents per person in the United States in 1997 to 710 mg per person in 2010 (34,153). This has been estimated to be the equivalent of 7.1 kg of opioid medication per 10,000 persons or enough to supply every adult American with 5 mg of hydrocodone every 6 hours for 45 days. Sales of hy-



Opioid Epidemic in the United States

drocodone have increased by 280% from 1997 to 2007, whereas methadone usage has increased 1,293% and oxycodone usage by 866%, as illustrated in Table 5 (32). The estimated number of prescriptions filled for opi-

oids exceeded 256 million in the United States in 2009, with 234 million prescriptions for immediate-release (IR) opioids and 22.9 million for extended-release (ER) opioids with significant increases from 21.3 million for

Table 5. Retail sales of opioid medications (grams of medication) from 1997 to 2007.

Drug	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	% of Change from 1997
Methadone	518,737	692,675 (34%)	964,982 (39%)	1,428,840* (48%)	1,892,691 (32%)	2,649,559 (40%)	3,683,881 (39%)	4,730,157 (28%)	5,362,815 (13%)	6,621,687 (23%)	7,228,219 (9%)	1293%
Oxycodone	4,449,562	6,579,719 (48%)	9,717,600 (48%)	15,305,913 (58%)	19,927,286 (30%)	22,376,892 (12%)	26,655,152 (19%)	29,177,530 (9%)	30,628,973 (5%)	37,034,220 (21%)	42,977,043 (16%)	866%
Fentanyl Base	74,086	90,618 (22%)	107,141 (18%)	146,612* (37%)	186,083 (27%)	242,027 (30%)	317,200 (31%)	370,739 (17%)	387,928 (5%)	428,668 (11%)	463,340 (8%)	525%
Hydromorphone	241,078	260,009 (8%)	292,506 (12%)	346,574* (18%)	400,642 (16%)	473,362 (18%)	579,372 (22%)	655,395 (13%)	781,287 (19%)	901,663 (15%)	1,011,028 (12%)	319%
Hydrocodone	8,669,311	10,389,503 (20%)	12,101,621 (16%)	14,118,637 (17%)	15,594,692 (10%)	18,822,619 (21%)	22,342,174 (19%)	24,081,900 (8%)	25,803,543 (7%)	29,856,368 (16%)	32,969,527 (10%)	280%
Morphine	5,922,872	6,408,322 (8%)	6,804,935 (6%)	7,807,511 (15%)	8,810,700 (13%)	10,264,264 (16%)	12,303,956 (20%)	14,319,243 (16%)	15,054,846 (5%)	17,507,148 (16%)	19,051,426 (9%)	222%
Codeine	25,071,410	26,018,054 (4%)	23,917,088 (-8%)	23,474,865* (-2%)	23,032,641 (-2%)	22,633,733 (-2%)	21,865,409 (-3%)	20,264,555 (-7%)	18,960,038 (-6%)	18,762,919 (-1%)	18,840,329 (0.4%)	-25%
Meperidine (Pethidine)	5,765,954	5,834,294 (1%)	5,539,592 (-5%)	5,494,898* (-1%)	5,450,204 (-1%)	5,412,389 (-1%)	5,239,932 (-3%)	4,856,644 (-7%)	4,272,520 (-12%)	4,160,033 (-3%)	3,936,179 (-5%)	-32%
Total	50,713,010	56,273,194 (11%)	59,445,465 (6%)	35,962,089.84 (15%)	75,294,939 (11%)	82,874,845 (10%)	92,987,076 (12%)	98,456,163 (6%)	101,251,950 (6%)	115,272,706 (14%)	126,477,091 (10%)	149%

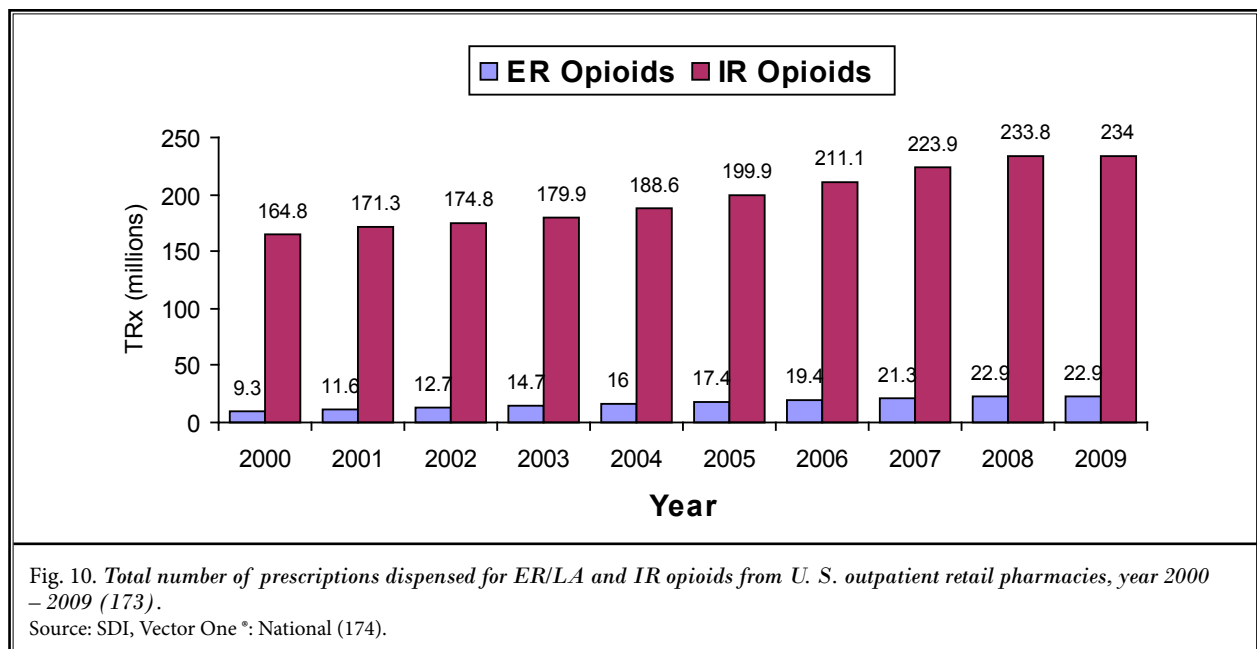
Number in parenthesis is percentage of change from previous year.

* For year 2000 data is not available, the average of 1999 and 2001 was taken.

Source: www.deadiversion.usdoj.gov/arcsos/retail_drug_summary/index.html Access date: 8/25/2010

Source for 2007 data - www.justice.gov/ndic/pubs33/33775/dlinks.htm

Adapted from: Manchikanti L, et al. Therapeutic use, abuse, and nonmedical use of opioids: A ten-year perspective. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:401-435 (32).



ER opioids and from 223.9 million for IR opioids from 2007 as illustrated in Figure 10 (172-174). The data are even more compelling when compared from 2002 to 2009 with an increase from 9.3 million for ER opioids to 22.9 million, a 146% increase, and from 164.8 million to 234 million for IR opioids, a 42% increase with an annual increase of 21% for ER opioids and 6% for IR opioids. Most prescriptions were for hydrocodone and oxycodone-containing products (84.9%) and issued for short treatment courses, 19.1% for less than 2 weeks, 65.4% for 2-3 weeks. Of these, however, approximately 12% of the prescriptions were issued to those aged 10 to 29 years. This may signal a potential problem for this population, as this is also the population most likely to abuse drugs and develop addictions (172). In addition, the data also illustrates an 8-fold increase in stimulant prescriptions from 1991 to 2009 as illustrated in Fig. 11.

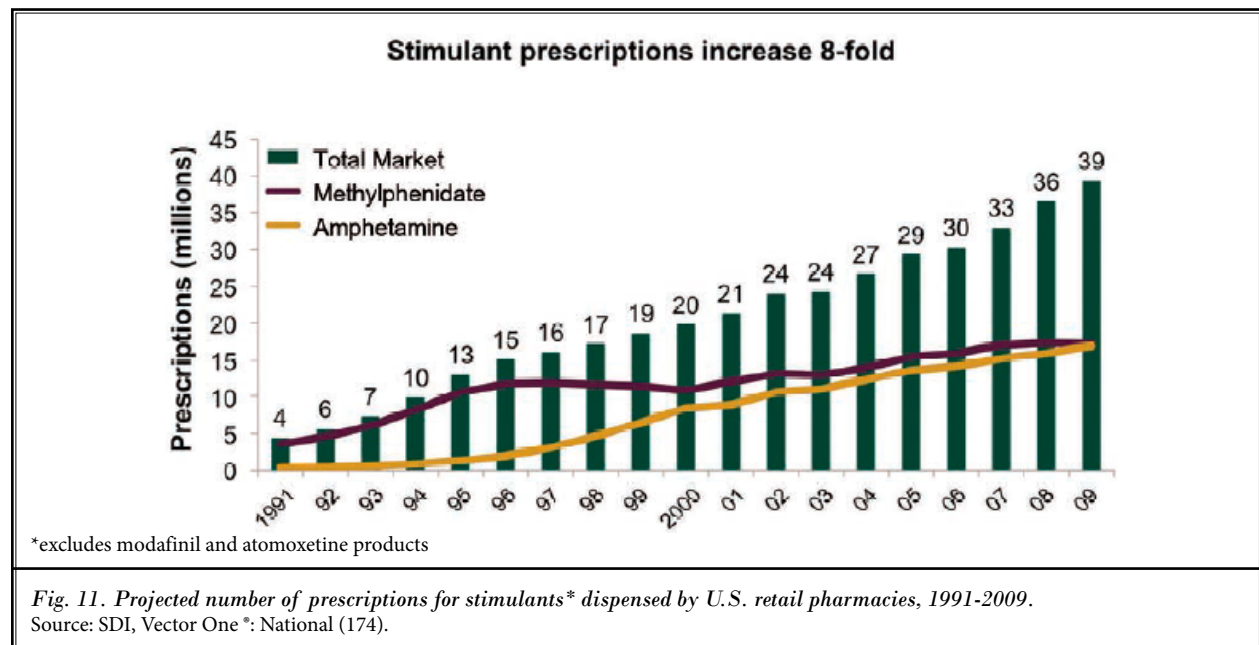
Table 6 illustrates hydrocodone with acetaminophen being the number one prescription from 2006 through 2011 (175). However, narcotic analgesics constitute number 4 in the proportion of patients treated in selected therapies with hypertension, topping at 42.4 million and narcotic analgesics at 15.6 million, constituting number 10 in spending in leading therapy areas with oncologicals constituting 23.2 billion and narcotic analgesics constituting 8.3 billion in 2011 as illustrated in Tables 7 and 8 and Fig. 12 (175).

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, in an evaluation of the world supply of opioid, shows 90%

of the global consumption of morphine, fentanyl, and oxycodone registered in 2009 occurring in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United States and several European countries (60,85).

Another World Health Organization (WHO) report (87) showed that based on the statistics from the International Narcotics Control Board (INCB) in 2003, 6 developed countries accounted for 79% of global morphine consumption, whereas developing countries which represent 80% of the world population accounted for only about 6% of global morphine consumption. In addition, the most recent data showed that in 2007, 6 developed countries reported the highest level of morphine consumption and 132 of the 160 signatory countries that require reporting of consumption were below the global mean as illustrated in Fig. 13. This simply illustrates that millions of patients with moderate to severe pain caused by different diseases and conditions may not be getting treatment to alleviate their suffering in some countries, while more of them are receiving it in other countries such as the United States, which uses 99% of the world's supply of hydrocodone and 83% of the world's oxycodone (176-178).

Gram for gram, people in the United States consume more narcotic medication than any other nation worldwide. The International Narcotic Control Board, a division of the United States, estimates global pharmaceutical companies produce more than 75 tons a year of oxycodone, compared with 11.5 tons in 1999,



Opioid Epidemic in the United States

Table 6. *Top medicines by prescriptions.*

DISPENSED PRESCRIPTIONS MN		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total US Market		3,825	3,866	3,949	3,993	4,024
1	Hydrocodone/acetaminophen	120.9	125.5	129.4	132.1	136.7
2	Levothyroxine sodium	97.4	98.9	100.2	103.2	104.7
3	Simvastatin	49.0	68.0	84.1	94.4	96.8
4	Lisinopril	71.5	77.2	83.0	87.6	88.8
5	Amlodipine besylate	40.8	46.0	52.1	57.8	62.5
6	Omeprazole (RX)	27.7	35.8	45.6	53.5	59.4
7	Metformin HCL	49.2	51.6	53.8	57.0	59.1
8	Azithromycin	47.1	51.9	54.7	53.6	56.2
9	Amoxicillin	54.0	51.3	52.9	52.4	53.8
10	Alprazolam	41.4	43.3	45.3	47.7	49.1
11	Hydrochlorothiazide	48.5	48.5	47.9	47.8	48.1
12	Zolpidem tartrate	34.5	39.1	42.7	43.7	44.6
13	Atorvastatin	65.8	58.5	51.7	45.3	43.3
14	Furosemide	44.7	44.4	43.8	43.6	42.3
15	Oxycodone/acetaminophen	31.3	33.6	36.7	37.9	38.8
16	Fluticasone	23.9	26.2	30.1	34.8	38.4
17	Citalopram HBR	18.1	22.6	27.3	32.2	37.8
18	Metoprolol tartrate	43.5	38.4	41.1	38.9	37.8
19	Sertraline HCL	33.4	33.7	34.8	36.2	37.6
20	Metoprolol succinate	33.0	41.5	26.9	33.0	34.5
21	Warfarin sodium	34.4	34.9	35.7	35.6	33.9
22	Tramadol HCL	20.6	23.3	25.5	28.0	33.9
23	Potassium	36.7	35.8	35.2	34.7	33.7
24	Prednisone	25.9	27.1	27.8	28.7	33.7
25	Atenolol	45.0	42.0	39.5	36.4	33.4

Source: IMS Health, National Prescription Audit, Dec. 2011 (175).

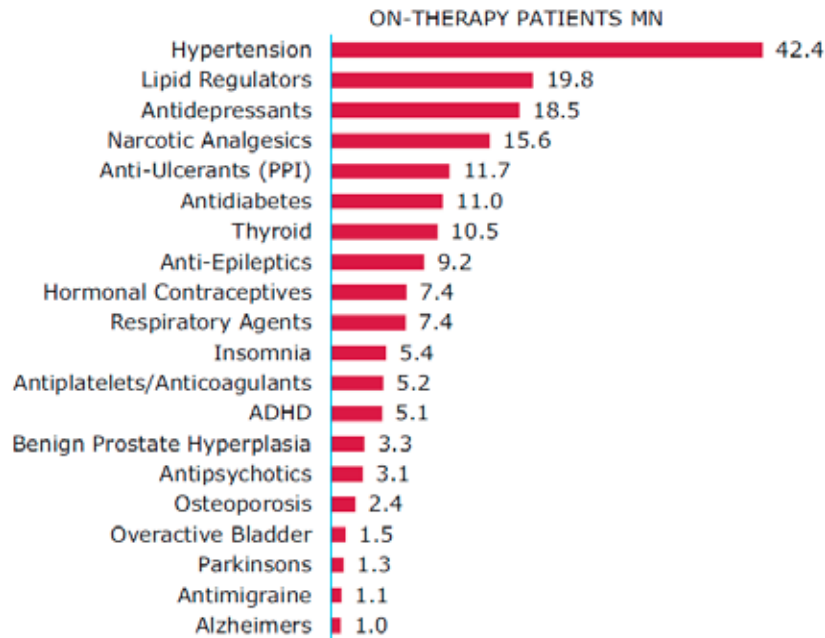
Notes: Report reflects prescription-bound products including insulins and excluding other products such as OTC. Table shows leading active-ingredients or ingredient fixed-combinations, and includes those produced by both branded and generic manufacturers. Includes all prescriptions dispensed through retail pharmacies - including independent and chain drug stores, food store pharmacies and mail order as well as long-term care facilities. Prescription counts are not adjusted for length of therapy. 90-day and 30-day prescriptions are both counted as one prescription.

Updated February 17, 2012.

of which more than 80% of is consumed in the United States. The International Narcotics Board also reports that U.S. demand for hydrocodone, the most commonly prescribed opioid, is about 27.4 million grams annually compared to 3,237 grams for Britain, France, Germany, and Italy combined (61,177,178).

Caudill-Slosberg et al (165) in one of the earliest evaluations demonstrated that opioid use doubled from 8% in 1980 to 16% in 2000. The data also illus-

trates that from 1999 to 2002, 4.2% of U.S. adults reported the use of opioid analgesics for pain within the past month (179). In a report of opioid use in one of the states in the United States (Utah) (180), the data showed that 20.8% of adults had been prescribed an opioid in the last year and that 29.1% of these prescriptions were for long-term pain. Sullivan et al (181) also showed over a 6 year period that the proportion of enrollees receiving opioids with a diagnosis of chronic



Source: IMS Health, LifeLink, Dec 2011

Fig. 12. Treated patients in selected therapy.

Table 7. Spending based on the therapeutic class.

SPENDING \$BN		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	SPENDING \$BN		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total US Market		280.5	285.7	300.7	308.6	319.9	12	Platelet Aggregation Inhibitors	5.0	5.7	6.5	7.1	7.8
1	Oncologics	18.1	19.7	21.5	22.3	23.2	13	Angiotensin II Inhibitors	6.5	7.6	8.6	8.7	7.6
2	Respiratory Agents	15.1	16.0	18.1	19.3	21.0	14	Multiple Sclerosis	3.4	4.1	5.0	5.8	7.1
3	Lipid Regulators	19.4	18.1	18.6	18.8	20.1	15	Vaccines (Pure, Comb, Other)	5.9	5.0	4.7	5.7	6.3
4	Antidiabetics	12.2	13.6	15.8	17.7	19.6	16	Anti-Epileptics	10.0	11.1	6.9	5.6	5.9
5	Antipsychotics	12.8	14.3	14.7	16.2	18.2	17	Erythropoietins	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.2
6	Autoimmune Diseases	7.6	8.6	9.7	10.6	12.0	18	Immunostimulating Agents	8.4	6.9	6.3	6.1	5.1
7	Antidepressant	11.7	11.7	11.5	11.6	11.0	19	Hormonal Contraceptives	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.2	4.5
8	HIV Antivirals	6.2	7.1	8.2	9.3	10.3	20	Antivirals, excl. Anti-HIV	3.6	3.9	4.8	3.2	3.7
9	Anti-Ulcerants	14.6	14.2	14.1	11.9	10.1							
10	Narcotic Analgesics	6.7	7.3	8.0	8.4	8.3							
11	ADHD	4.0	4.7	5.8	6.7	7.9							

Source: IMS Health, National Prescription Audit, Dec. 2011 (175).

Notes:

Therapy areas are based on proprietary IMS Health definitions. Report reflects prescription-bound products including insulins and excluding other products such as OTC. Includes all prescriptions dispensed through retail pharmacies - including independent and chain drug stores, food store pharmacies and mail order as well as long-term care facilities. Prescription counts are not adjusted for length of therapy. 90-day and 30-day prescriptions are both counted as one prescription.

Updated February 17, 2012.

Table 8. *Top therapeutic classes by prescriptions.*

DISPENSED PRESCRIPTIONS MN		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total US Market		3,825	3,866	3,949	3,993	4,024
1	Antidepressants	237	241	247	254	264
2	Lipid Regulators	233	242	254	260	260
3	Narcotic Analgesics	231	239	241	244	238
4	Antidiabetics	165	166	169	172	173
5	Ace Inhibitors (Plain & Combo)	159	163	166	168	164
6	Beta Blockers (Plain & Combo)	162	164	163	162	161
7	Respiratory Agents	147	147	152	153	153
8	Anti-Ulcerants	134	139	146	147	150
9	Diuretics	137	135	132	131	128
10	Anti-Epileptics	102	110	116	122	128
11	Tranquillizers	98	101	104	108	111
12	Thyroid Preparations	103	104	105	107	110
13	Calcium Antagonists (Plain & Combo)	87	90	93	96	98
14	Antirheumatic Non-Steroid	90	91	92	93	97
15	Hormonal Contraceptives	94	94	93	91	90
16	Angiotensin II Inhibitors	83	86	85	84	86
17	Broad Spectrum Penicillins	77	74	77	76	77
18	Macrolides & Similar Type Antibiotics	63	66	69	67	69
19	Hypnotics & Sedatives	58	60	63	63	63
20	Vitamins & Minerals	60	59	58	58	60

Source: IMS Health, National Prescription Audit, Dec. 2011 (175).

Appendix notes:

Therapy areas are based on proprietary IMS Health definitions. Report reflects prescription-bound products including insulins and excluding other products such as OTC. Includes all prescriptions dispensed through retail pharmacies - including independent and chain drug stores, food store pharmacies and mail order as well as long-term care facilities. Prescription counts are not adjusted for length of therapy. 90-day and 30-day prescriptions are both counted as one prescription.

Updated February 17, 2012.

non-cancer pain and opioid prescriptions increase. Opioids are also used commonly in combination with sedative hypnotics. Vogt et al (182) in an evaluation of analgesic usage for low back pain and its impact on health care costs and service use showed that in 2001, a total of \$1.4 million was spent on opioids, which constituted 68% of prescriptions for analgesics.

The data from reports and pain management settings is disconcerting. Over 90% of patients received opioids for chronic pain management (32,169,172,183-188). Even more alarming, however, is the fact that the majority of the prescriptions are from outside pain

management settings. Volkow et al (172) showed that only a small proportion of prescriptions were from pain clinics or specialists from anesthesiology in 2009. Moreover, Deyo et al (31) illustrated that approximately 20% of patients in primary care settings were long-time opioid users with 61% receiving a course of opioids. In young veterans, Wu et al (189) showed that prevalence of chronic opioid use increased from 3% in 2003 to 4.5% in 2007. Patients on average were exposed to 2 different opioids and had 3 different opioid prescribers. Not surprisingly, 80% of the opioid prescriptions during the study were prescribed by pri-

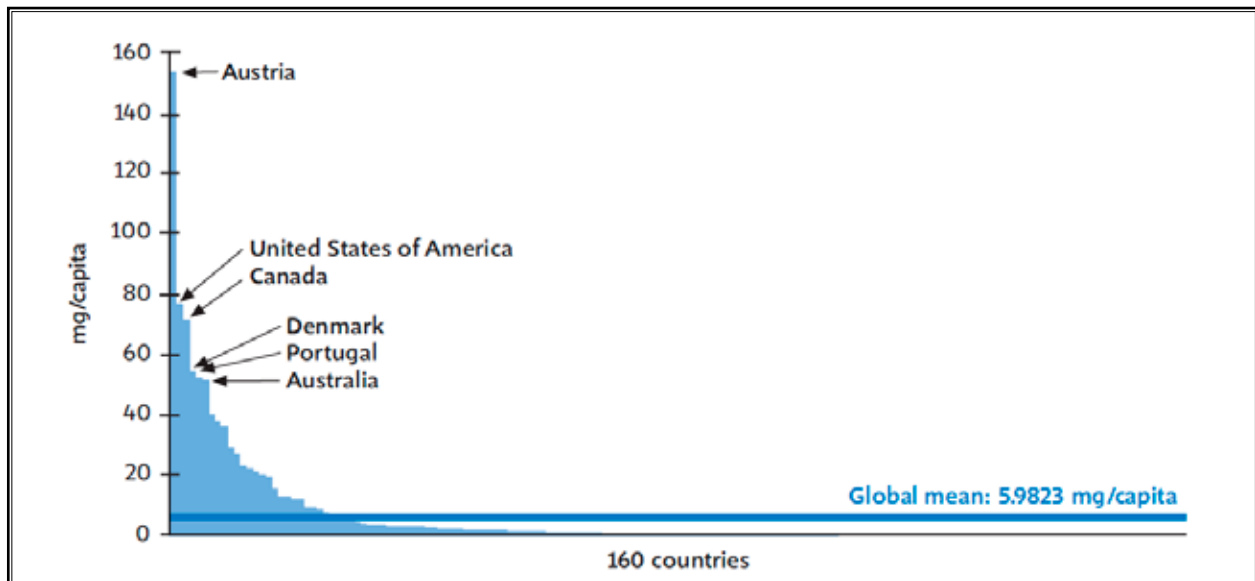


Fig. 13. Global morphine consumption in 2007 (mg/capita).

Source: International Narcotics Control Board, United Nations data. Graphic created by the Pain and Policy Study Group, University of Wisconsin/WHO Collaborating Center, 2009.

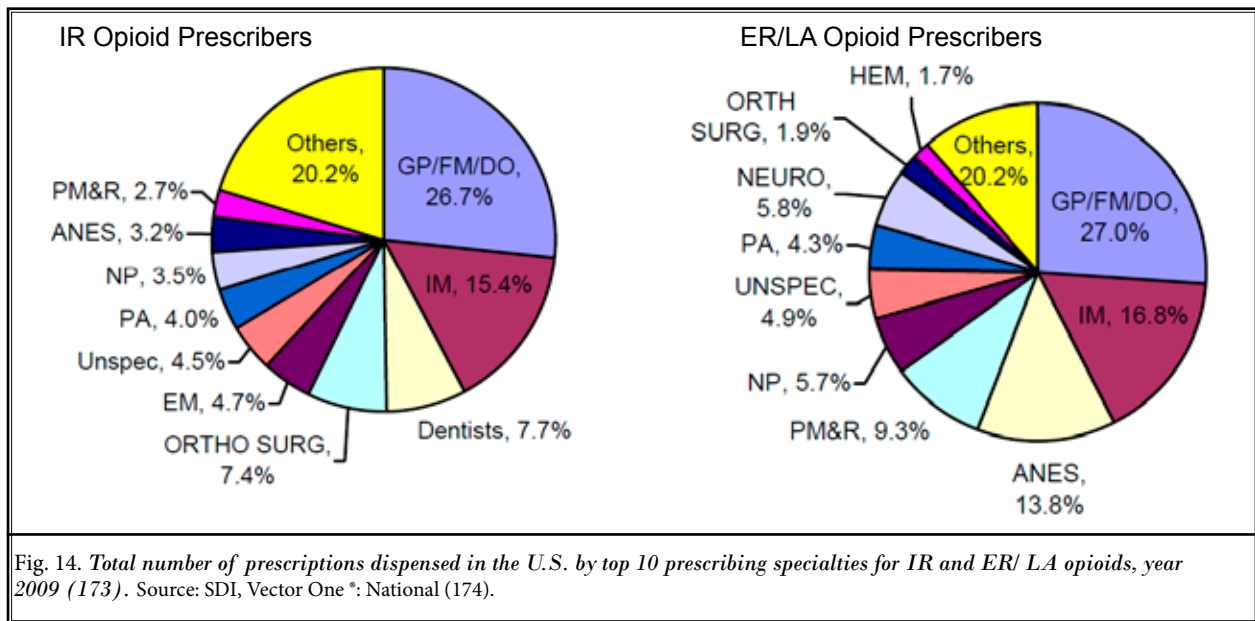


Fig. 14. Total number of prescriptions dispensed in the U.S. by top 10 prescribing specialties for IR and ER/ LA opioids, year 2009 (173). Source: SDI, Vector One®: National (174).

mary care providers, and less than 1% was from pain specialists.

In fact, the data illustrates that in 2009 (Fig. 14), among the top 10 specialties of those prescribing immediate release opioids were general practitioners/family medicine 26.7%, internal medicine 15.4%, anesthesiologists constituting 3.2%, and physical medicine and rehabilitation spe-

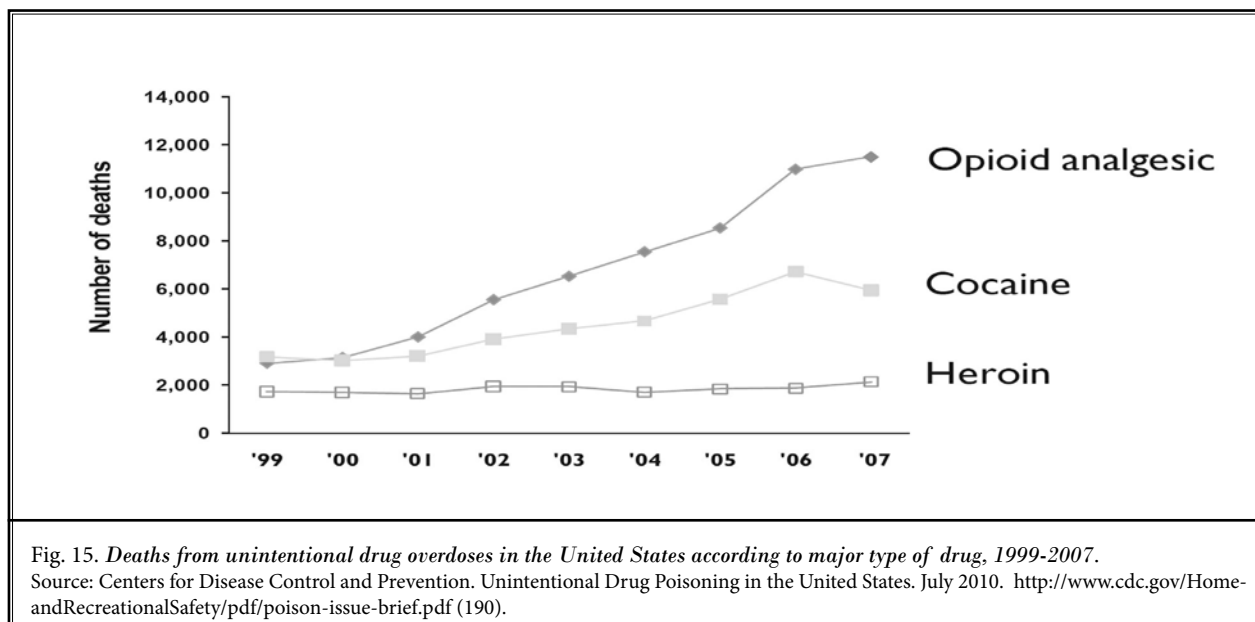
cialists constituting 2.7% (173,174). In contrast, for ER or long-acting opioids in 2009, anesthesiologists constituted 13.8% and physical medicine and rehabilitation constituted 9.3%, with general practitioners, family medical doctors, osteopaths, and internal medicine specialists still dominating the field with 27% and 16.8%, in essence exceeding their prescriptions of immediate release opioids (173,174).

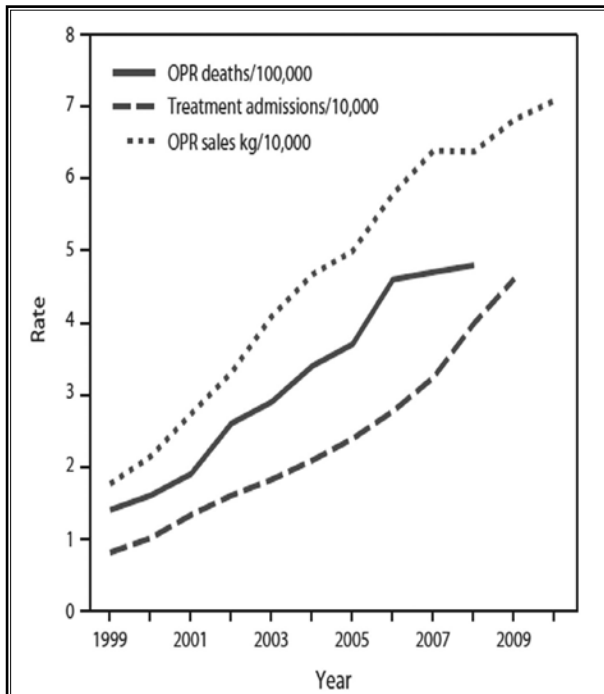
5.0 RELATIONSHIP OF ESCALATING OPIOID USE AND ADVERSE CONSEQUENCES

While numerous adverse effects have been reported, ever increasing opioid related fatalities, including drug poisoning deaths, are crucial. In the United States, in 2008, one or more prescription drugs were involved in 20,044 of the 27,153 deaths with a specified drug. Opioid pain relievers were involved in 14,800 drug overdose deaths, compared to 11,500 of 27,500 fatal unintended drug overdose deaths in 2007 – an increase of 3,300 in just one year (160). Alarmingly, in 2007 there were more opioid analgesic overdose deaths than overdoses involving heroin and cocaine combined (Fig. 15). In addition, during the same time frame, drug-related suicides also increased, with opioid analgesics being involved in roughly 3,000 of the 8,400 overdose deaths in the United States in 2007 that were suicide or of undetermined intent (190). Complicating these grave statistics, for every unintentional overdose death related to an opioid analgesic, 9 are admitted for substance abuse treatment, 35 visit emergency departments, 161 report drug abuse or dependence, and 461 report non-medical uses of opioid analgesics (34). Not surprisingly, in 2007, non-suicidal drug poisoning deaths exceeded both motor vehicle traffic and suicide deaths in 20 states, with data from Ohio illustrating that the number of deaths from unintentional drug poisoning surpassed the numbers of deaths from both suicide and motor vehicle crashes

combined (190-192). Thus, it has been concluded that opioid analgesics contributed to fatalities based on opioid abuse and increasing doses, doctor shopping, and other aspects of drug abuse as illustrated in Fig. 16 (160). The data from emergency department visits sadly illustrate that opioids, sedatives, and non-prescription sleep aides are often taken more than prescribed or solely for the feeling they cause, and that this trend is steadily increasing (170).

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (34) also reported the percentage of prescription drug overdoses by risk group in the United States. This report showed that approximately 80% of prescribed low-doses (less than 100 mg of morphine equivalent dose per day – considered as high dose by many) were by a single practitioner, accounting for an estimated 20% of all prescription overdoses (Fig. 17). In contrast, among the remaining 20% of patients, 10% of prescribed high doses (greater than 100 mg morphine equivalent dose per day) (193-195) per day of opioids by single prescribers account for an estimated 40% of the prescription opioid overdoses (131,195). The remaining 10% of patients seeing multiple doctors and typically involved in drug diversion contribute to 40% of overdoses (152). Furthermore, among persons who died of opioid overdoses, a significant proportion did not have a prescription in their records for the opioid that killed them; in West Virginia, Utah, and Ohio, 25% to 66% of those who died of pharmaceutical overdose used opioids originally prescribed to someone





* Age-adjusted rates per 100,000 population for OPR deaths, crude rates per 10,000 population for OPR abuse treatment admissions, and crude rates per 10,000 population for kilograms of OPR sold.

Fig. 16. Rates of opioid pain reliever overdose death, opioid pain relief treatment admissions, and kilograms of opioid pain relievers sold – United States, 1999-2010.

Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Vital signs: Overdoses of prescription opioid pain relievers – United States, 1999-2008. MMWR. Morb. Mortal Wkly. Rep. 60, 1487-1492 (2011) (160).

else (152,192,196).

The responsible opioid prescription community considers that the adverse consequences of appropriately prescribed and used opioids are least considered, as the blame is placed predominantly on abuses and overuses (49,71,116-119). Consequently, it is coupled with a lack of evidence regarding long-term benefits and ample evidence that the increased prescription of opioids is fueling an epidemic of addiction and overdose deaths. This crisis is rooted in a lack of education and misinformation, leading to overprescribing and a tendency to focus on ineffective strategies (49,71,197-199). In fact, the majority of cases involving injury and death occur in people using opioids exactly as prescribed, not just those misusing or abusing them (71). Even more importantly, most studies indicate that patients on long-term opioid therapy are unlikely to stop even if analgesia and function are poor and safety issues arise. Frequently, despite good relief and improvement in function with modalities other than opioids including interventional techniques and surgery, patients continue on opioids (200-215).

Even though there is no evidence to support the previous teaching that long-acting opioids can provide better analgesia, and less risk for abuse than immediate release products (32,71,96,100,103,107,116-119,216), the use of higher doses, with a combination of short-acting and long-acting opioids, continues to escalate. Thus, it is believed that commencing long-acting opioid therapy is often the starting point for high dose opi-

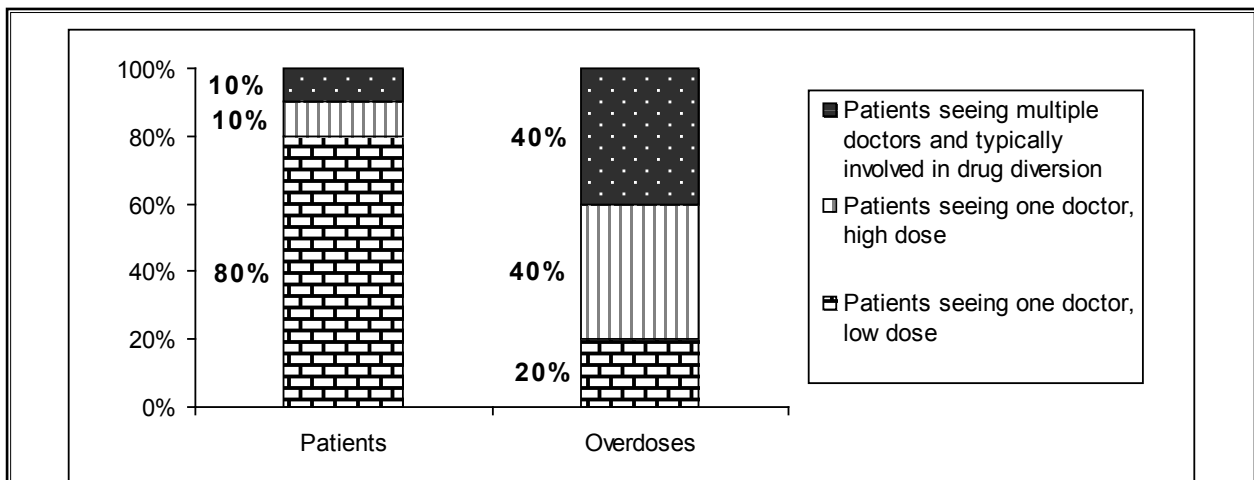


Fig. 17. Percentage of patients and prescription drug overdoses, by risk group – United States.

Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. CDC grand rounds: Prescription drug overdoses – a U.S. epidemic. MMWR. Morb. Mortal Wkly. Rep. 61, 10-13 (2012) (34).

oid therapy, a practice that growing evidence suggests is harmful to patients and increases the black market availability of opioids through diversion (71,217-222).

Multiple studies in the literature (23,32,37,46-49,223-236) have reported an association between opioid prescribing and overall health status, with increased disability, medical costs, subsequent surgery, and continued or late opioid use. Overall, the epidemiologic studies are less positive with regards to improvement in function and quality of life with opioids in chronic pain patients (110,116-119,170,232,237). In fact, in an epidemiologic study from Denmark (23) where opioids are prescribed liberally for chronic pain, it was demonstrated that in patients receiving opioids, pain was worse, health care utilization was higher, and activity levels were lower compared to a matched cohort of chronic pain patients not using opioids. This study suggested that when opioids are prescribed liberally, even if some patients benefit, the overall population does not. Another study (33) also reported worse pain, higher health care utilization, and lower activity levels in opioid-treated patients compared to matched cohort of chronic pain patients not using opioids. Sjøgren et al (49) in a population-based cohort study on chronic pain and the role of opioids, showed that the odds of recovery from chronic pain were almost 4 times higher among individuals not using opioids compared with individuals using opioids. In addition, they also showed that use of strong opioids was associated with poor health-related quality of life, and higher risk of death. In addition,

opioid abuse in chronic pain has been highly prevalent, along with illicit drug usage in addition to misuse or abuse of therapeutic opioids (32,143-152,183-188).

CONCLUSION

What emerges from the available data utilized in this review is the conclusion that over the past 20 years there has been an escalation of the therapeutic use of opioids and other psychotherapeutics as well as their abuse and nonmedical use. As a consequence of the fact that hydrocodone has become the number one prescribed medication in America, it is not difficult to see the significant impact that this has had on the overall patterns of abuse and nonmedical use, particularly since the illicit use of prescribed psychotherapeutics (including opioids, which are currently at the top of that list) now overshadows the use of nonprescription illicit drugs. Drug dealers are no longer the primary source of illicit drugs. Our greatest enemy is now inappropriate prescribing patterns, based on a lack of knowledge, perceived safety, and undertreatment of pain.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to thank Sekar Edem for assistance in the search of the literature, Tom Prigge, MA, and Alvaro Gómez, MA, for manuscript review, and Tonie M. Hatton and Diane E. Neihoff, transcriptionists, for their assistance in preparation of this manuscript. We would like to thank the editorial board of *Pain Physician* for review and criticism in improving the manuscript

REFERENCES

- Institute of Medicine (IOM). *Relieving Pain in America: A Blueprint for Transforming Prevention, Care, Education, and Research*. The National Academies Press, Washington, DC, June 29, 2011.
- Pizzo PA, Clark NM. Alleviating suffering 101 – Pain relief in the United States. *N Engl J Med* 2012; 367:197-198.
- Harkness EF, Macfarlane GJ, Silman AJ, McBeth J. Is musculoskeletal pain more common now than 40 years ago?: Two population-based cross-sectional studies. *Rheumatology (Oxford)* 2005; 44:890-895.
- Freburger JK, Holmes GM, Agans RP, Jackman AM, Darter JD, Wallace AS, Castel LD, Kalsbeek WD, Carey TS. The rising prevalence of chronic low back pain. *Arch Intern Med* 2009; 169:251-258.
- Manchikanti L, Singh V, Datta S, Cohen SP, Hirsch JA. Comprehensive review of epidemiology, scope, and impact of spinal pain. *Pain Physician* 2009; 12:E35-E70.
- Hoy DG, Bain C, Williams G, March L, Brooks P, Blyth F, Woolf A, Vos T, Buchbinder R. A systematic review of the global prevalence of low back pain. *Arthritis Rheum*. 2012 Jan 9. [Epub ahead of print].
- Hoy D, Brooks P, Blyth F, Buchbinder R. The epidemiology of low back pain. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol* 2010; 24:769-781.
- Hoy DG, Protani M, De R, Buchbinder R. The epidemiology of neck pain. *Best Pract Res Clin Rheumatol* 2010; 24:783-792.
- Reid KJ, Harker J, Bala MM, Truyers C, Kellen E, Bekkering GE, Kleijnen J. Epidemiology of chronic non-cancer pain in Europe: Narrative review of prevalence, pain treatments and pain impact. *Curr Med Res Opin* 2011; 27:449-462.
- Bekkering GE, Bala MM, Reid K, Kellen E, Harker J, Riemsma R, Huygen FJ, Kleijnen J. Epidemiology of chronic pain and its treatment in The Netherlands. *Neth J Med* 2011; 69:141-153.
- Langley PC. The prevalence, correlates and treatment of pain in the European Union. *Curr Med Res Opin* 2011; 27:463-480.
- Tosato M, Lukas A, van der Roest HG, Danese P, Antocicco M, Finne-Soveri H,

- Nikolaus T, Landi F, Bernabei R, Onder G. Association of pain with behavioral and psychiatric symptoms among nursing home residents with cognitive impairment: Results from the SHELTER study. *Pain* 2012; 153:305-310.
13. Clark JD. Chronic pain prevalence and analgesic prescribing in a general medical population. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2002; 23:131-137.
 14. Eriksen J. Epidemiology of chronic non-malignant pain in Denmark. *Pain* 2003; 106:221-228.
 15. Gureje O, Von Korff M, Simon GE, Gater R. Persistent pain and well-being: a World Health Organization study in primary care. *JAMA* 1998; 280:147-151.
 16. Moulin DE, Clark AJ, Speechley M, Morley-Forster PK. Chronic pain in Canada – prevalence, treatment, impact and the role of opioid analgesia. *Pain Res Manag* 2002; 7:179-184.
 17. Sjøgren P, Ekholm O, Peuckmann V, Grønbæk M. Epidemiology of chronic pain in Denmark: an update. *Eur J Pain* 2009; 13:287-292.
 18. Elliott AM, Smith BH, Penny KI, Smith WC, Chambers WA. The epidemiology of chronic pain in the community. *Lancet* 1999; 354:1248-1252.
 19. Eriksen J, Ekholm O, Sjøgren P, Rasmussen NK. Development of and recovery from long-term pain. A 6-year follow-up study of a cross-section of the adult Danish population. *Pain* 2004; 108:154-162.
 20. Lawrence RC, Helmick CG, Arnett FC. Estimates of the prevalence of arthritis and selected musculoskeletal disorders in the United States. *Arthritis Rheum* 1998; 41:778-799.
 21. Verhaak PF, Kerssens JJ, Dekker J, Sorbi MJ, Bensing JM. Prevalence of chronic benign pain disorder among adults: a review of the literature. *Pain* 1998; 77:231-239.
 22. Torrance N, Smith BH, Bennett MI, Lee AJ. The epidemiology of chronic pain of predominantly neuropathic origin. Results from a general population survey. *J Pain* 2006; 7:281-289.
 23. Breivik H, Collett B, Ventafridda V, Cohen R, Gallacher D. Survey of chronic pain in Europe: Prevalence, impact on daily life, and treatment. *Eur J Pain* 2006; 10:287-333.
 24. Blyth FM, Rochat S, Cumming RG, Creasey H, Handelsman DJ, Le Couteur DG, Naganathan V, Sambrook PN, Seibel MJ, Waite LM. Pain, frailty and comorbidity on older men: the CHAMP study. *Pain* 2008; 140:224-230.
 25. Cassidy JD, Carroll LJ, Côté P. The Saskatchewan Health and Back Pain Survey. The prevalence of low back pain and related disability in Saskatchewan adults. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 1998; 23:1860-1867.
 26. Côté P, Cassidy JD, Carroll L. The Saskatchewan Health and Back Pain Survey. The prevalence of neck pain and related disability in Saskatchewan adults. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 1998; 23:1689-1698.
 27. Leboeuf-Yde C, Nielsen J, Kyvik KO, Fejer R, Hartvigsen J. Pain in the lumbar, thoracic or cervical regions: Do age or gender matter? A population-based study of 34,902 Danish twins 20-71 years of age. *BMC Musculoskeletal Disorders* 2009; 39.
 28. Carroll LJ, Cassidy JD, Peloso PM, Giles-Smith L, Cheng CS, Greenhalgh SW, Haldeman S, van der Velde G, Hurwitz EL, Côté P, Nordin M, Hogg-Johnson S, Holm LW, Guzman J, Carragee EJ. Bone and Joint Decade 2000–2010 Task Force on Neck Pain and Its Associated Disorders. The burden and determinants of neck pain in the general population: Results of the Bone and Joint Decade 2000–2010 Task Force on Neck Pain and its associated disorders. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2008; 33:S39-S51.
 29. Côté P, Kristman V, Vidmar M, Van Eerd D, Hogg-Johnson S, Beaton D, Smith PM. The prevalence and incidence of work absenteeism involving neck pain: a cohort of Ontario lost-time claimants. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2008; 33:S192-S198.
 30. Côté P, Cassidy JD, Carroll L. The factors associated with neck pain and its related disability in the Saskatchewan population. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2000; 25:1109-1117.
 31. Deyo RA, Smith DH, Johnson ES, Donovan M, Tillotson CJ, Yang X, Petrik AF, Dobscha SK. Opioids for back pain patients: Primary care prescribing patterns and use of services. *J Am Board Fam Med* 2011; 24:717-727.
 32. Manchikanti L, Fellows B, Ailinani H, Pampati V. Therapeutic use, abuse, and nonmedical use of opioids: A ten-year perspective. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:401-435.
 33. Eriksen J, Sjøgren P, Bruera E, Ekholm O, Rasmussen NK. Critical issues on opioids in chronic non-cancer pain: An epidemiological study. *Pain* 2006; 125:172-179.
 34. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. CDC grand rounds: Prescription drug overdoses – a U.S. epidemic. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2012; 61:10-13.
 35. Manchikanti L, Benyamin R, Datta S, Vallejo R, Smith HS. Opioids in chronic noncancer pain. *Expert Rev Neurother* 2010; 10:775-789.
 36. Ballantyne J, LaForge K. Opioid dependence and addiction during opioid treatment of chronic pain. *Pain* 2007; 129:235-255.
 37. US Government Accountability Office: Report to Congressional Requesters. Prescription Pain Reliever Abuse, December 2011. www.gao.gov/assets/590/587301.pdf
 38. Toblin RL, Mack KA, Perveen G, Paulozzi LJ. A population-based survey of chronic pain and its treatment with prescription drugs. *Pain* 2011; 152:1249-1255.
 39. Okie S. A flood of opioids, a rising tide of deaths. *N Engl J Med* 2010; 363:1981-1985.
 40. Martin BI, Turner JA, Mirza SK, Lee MJ, Comstock BA, Deyo RA. Trends in health care expenditures, utilization, and health status among US adults with spine problems, 1997-2006. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2009 34:2077-2084.
 41. Webster LR. Ending unnecessary opioid-related deaths: A national priority. *Pain Med* 2011; 12:S13-S15.
 42. Collen M. Profit-Driven Drug Testing. *J Pain Palliat Care Pharmacother* 2012; 26:13-17.
 43. Braden JB, Russo J, Fan MY, Edlund MJ, Martin BC, DeVries A, Sullivan MD. Emergency department visits among recipients of chronic opioid therapy. *Arch Intern Med* 2010; 170:1425-1432.
 44. Volkow ND, McLellan TA. Curtailing diversion and abuse of opioid analgesics without jeopardizing pain treatment. *JAMA* 2011; 305:1346-1347.
 45. Paulozzi LJ, Kilbourne EM, Shah NG, Nolte KB, Desai HA, Landen MG, Harvey W, Loring LD. A history of being prescribed controlled substances and risk of drug overdose death. *Pain Med* 2012; 13:87-95.
 46. Cicero TJ, Wong G, Tian Y, Lynskey M, Todorov A, Isenberg K. Co-morbidity and utilization of medical services by pain patients receiving opioid medications: Data from an insurance claims database. *Pain* 2009; 144:20-27.

47. Lavin R, Park J. Depressive symptoms in community-dwelling older adults receiving opioid therapy for chronic pain. *J Opioid Manag* 2011; 7:309-319.
48. Kidner CL, Mayer TG, Gatchel RJ. Higher opioid doses predict poorer functional outcome in patients with chronic disabling occupational musculoskeletal disorders. *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 2009; 91:919-927.
49. Sjøgren P, Grønbaek M, Peuckmann V, Ekholm O. A population-based cohort study on chronic pain: the role of opioids. *Clin J Pain* 2010; 26:763-769.
50. Fauber J. Painkiller boom fueled by networking. *Journal Sentinel*, Feb. 18, 2012.
51. Murnion BP, Gnjjidic D, Hilmer SN. Prescription and administration of opioids to hospital in-patients, and barriers to effective use. *Pain Med* 2010; 11:58-66.
52. Apfelbaum JL, Chen C, Mehta SS, Gan TJ. Postoperative pain experience: Results from a national survey suggest postoperative pain continues to be undermanaged. *Anesth Analg* 2003; 97:534-540.
53. Dix P, Sandhar B, Murdoch J, MacIntyre PA. Pain on medical wards in a district general hospital. *Br J Anaesth* 2004; 92:235-237.
54. Brown D, McCormack B. Determining factors that have an impact upon effective evidence-based pain management with older people, following colorectal surgery: An ethnographic study. *J Clin Nurs* 2006; 15:1287-1298.
55. Ljungberg C, Lindblad AK, Tully MP. Hospital doctors' views of factors influencing their prescribing. *J Eval Clin Pract* 2007; 13:765-771.
56. Auret K, Schug SA. Underutilisation of opioids in elderly patients with chronic pain: Approaches to correcting the problem. *Drugs Aging* 2005; 22:641-654.
57. McCarberg BH, Barkin RL. Long-acting opioids for chronic pain: Pharmacotherapeutic opportunities to enhance compliance, quality of life, and analgesia. *Am J Ther* 2001; 8:181-186.
58. McErlean M, Triner W, Young A. Impact of outside regulatory investigation on opiate administration in the emergency department. *J Pain* 2006; 7:947-950.
59. Gnjjidic D, Murnion BP, Hilmer SN. Age and opioid analgesia in an acute hospital population. *Age Ageing* 2008; 37(6):699-702.
60. Ensuring availability of controlled medications for the relief of pain and preventing diversion and abuse: Striking the right balance to achieve the optimal public health outcome. Discussion paper based on a scientific workshop, January 18-19, 2011, UNODC, Vienna.
61. International Narcotics Control Board, Report of the International Narcotics Control Board on the availability of internationally controlled drugs: Ensuring adequate access for medical and scientific purposes. New York 2011.
62. Nicholson BD. Panel Discussion. *Pain Med* 2012; 13:S21-S22.
63. Nicholson BD. Introduction. *Pain Med* 2012; 13:S1-S3.
64. A fresh view of opioids. *The BackLetter* 2011; 26:4, 37.
65. Federation of State Medical Boards of the US. Model guidelines for the use of controlled substances for the treatment of pain: A policy document of the Federation of State Medical Boards of the United States, Inc. Dallas, TX, 1998.
66. Phillips DM. JCAHO pain management standards are unveiled. *Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations. JAMA* 2000; 284:428-429.
67. Cohen MZ, Easley MK, Ellis C, Hughes B, Ownby K, Rashad BG, Rude M, Taft E, Westbrook JB. JCAHO cancer pain management and the JCAHO's pain standards: An institutional challenge. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2003; 25:519-527.
68. Frasco PE, Sprung J, Trentman TL. The impact of the Joint Commission for Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations pain initiative on perioperative opiate consumption and recovery room length of stay. *Anesth Analg* 2005; 100:162-168.
69. Tormoehlen LM, Mowry JB, Bodle JD, Rusyniak DE. Increased adolescent opioid use and complications reported to a poison control center following the 2000 JCAHO pain initiative. *Clin Toxicol (Phila)* 2011; 49:492-498.
70. Mularski RA, White-Chu F, Overbay D, Miller L, Asch SM, Ganzini L. Measuring pain as the 5th vital sign does not improve quality of pain management. *J Gen Intern Med* 2006; 21:607-612.
71. Letter to Janet Woodcock, MD, Director, Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, U.S Food and Drug Administration, from Physicians for Responsible Opioid Prescribing RE Docket No. FDA-2011-D-0771, Draft Blueprint for Prescriber Education for Long-Acting/Extended Release Opioid Class-Wide Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategies. 2 December, 2011.
72. Nickerson JW, Attaran A. The inadequate treatment of pain: collateral damage from the war on drugs. *PLoS Med* 2012; 9:e1001153.
73. Small D, Drucker E. Return to Galileo? The Inquisition of the International Narcotic Control Board. *Harm Reduct J* 2008; 5:16.
74. Gilson AM, Joranson DE, Maurer MA. Improving state pain policies: recent progress and continuing opportunities. *CA Cancer J Clin* 2007; 57:341-353.
75. Gilson AM, Maurer MA, Joranson DE. State medical board members' beliefs about pain, addiction, and diversion and abuse: A changing regulatory environment. *J Pain* 2007; 8:682-691.
76. Taylor AL. Addressing the global tragedy of needless pain: Rethinking the United Nations single convention on narcotic drugs. *J Law Med Ethics* 2007; 35:556-570, 511.
77. Lipman AG. Pain as a human right: The 2004 Global Day Against Pain. *J Pain Palliat Care Pharmacother* 2005; 19:85-100.
78. Dilcher AJ. Damned if they do, damned if they don't: The need for a comprehensive public policy to address the inadequate management of pain. *Ann Health Law* 2004; 13:81-144, table of contents.
79. Ghodse H. Pain, anxiety and insomnia—a global perspective on the relief of suffering: Comparative review. *Br J Psychiatry* 2003; 183:15-21.
80. Gostomzyk JG, Heller WD. Prescribing strong opioids for pain therapy and for substitution therapy by established physicians. *Schmerz* 1996; 10:292-298.
81. Lohman D, Schleifer R, Amon JJ. Access to pain treatment as a human right. *BMC Med* 2010; 8:8.
82. Inadequate pain treatment is a public health crisis. Drug war shouldn't claim new victims. *StarTribune*, April 21, 2011. www.startribune.com/opinion/editorials/120420264.html
83. Canadian groups welcome international report condemning failed "War On Drugs." June 2, 2011. www.aidslaw.ca/publications/interfaces/downloadFile.php?ref=1886
84. [No authors listed]. Pain management failing as fears of prescription drug abuse rise. *J Pain Palliat Care Pharmacother* 2010; 24:182-183.
85. Varrassi G, Müller-Schwefe GH. The international CHANGE PAIN Physician Survey: Does specialism influence the

- perception of pain and its treatment? *Curr Med Res Opin* 2012; Mar 28 [Epub ahead of print].
86. War on Drugs. Report of the Global Commission on Drug Policy. June 2011. www.globalcommissionondrugs.org/reports/
 87. Milani B, Scholten W. World Health Organization. The World Medicines Situation 2011: Access to Controlled Medicines. <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/documents/s18062en/s18062en.pdf>
 88. Dasgupta N, Mandl K, Brownstein J. Breaking the news or fueling the epidemic? Temporal association between news media report volume and opioid-related mortality. *PLoS ONE* 2009; 4:e7758.
 89. Are we winning the war on drugs? Is it worth the cost? *MD Health Network*. www.mdhealthnetwork.org/prescription-drugs/war_on_drugs.html
 90. Painful drug war victory. *The Washington Times*. August 16, 2007. www.washingtontimes.com/news/2007/aug/16/painful-drug-war-victory/?page=all
 91. Fauber J. UW a force in pain drug growth. *JSONline*. 2 April, 2011.
 92. Fauber J. Academics profit by making the case for opioid painkillers. *MedPage Today*. 3 April, 2011.
 93. Manchikanti L, Benyamin RM, Falco FJE, Caraway DL, Datta S, Hirsch JA. Guidelines warfare over interventional techniques: Is there a lack of discourse or straw man? *Pain Physician* 2012; 15:E1-E26.
 94. Portenoy RK, Foley KM. Chronic use of opioid analgesics in non-malignant pain: Report of 38 cases. *Pain* 1986; 25:171-186.
 95. Ballantyne JC. Opioid analgesia: Perspectives on right use and utility. *Pain Physician* 2007; 10:479-491.
 96. Chou R, Huffman L. *Use of Chronic Opioid Therapy in Chronic Noncancer Pain: Evidence Review*. American Pain Society; Glenview, IL: 2009. www.ampainsoc.org/pub/pdf/Opioid_Final_Evidence_Report.pdf
 97. Hill CS. Government regulatory influences on opioid prescribing and their impact on the treatment of pain of non-malignant origin. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 1996; 11:287-298.
 98. The American Academy of Pain Medicine, the American Pain Society. The use of opioids for the treatment of chronic pain. A consensus statement from the American Academy of Pain Medicine and the American Pain Society. *Clin J Pain* 1997; 13:6-8.
 99. Turk DC, Swanson KS, Gatchel RJ. Predicting opioid misuse by chronic pain patients: a systematic review and literature synthesis. *Clin J Pain* 2008; 24:497-508.
 100. Manchikanti L, Ailani H, Koyyalagunta D, Datta S, Singh V, Eriator I, Sehgal N, Shah RV, Benyamin RM, Vallejo R, Fellows B, Christo PJ. A systematic review of randomized trials of long-term opioid management for chronic non-cancer pain. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:91-121.
 101. Noble M, Treadwell JR, Tregear SJ, Coates VH, Wiffen PJ, Akafomo C, Schoelles KM. Long-term opioid management for chronic noncancer pain. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2010; 1:CD006605.
 102. Kalso E, Edwards JE, Moore RA, McQuay HJ. Opioids in chronic non-cancer pain: Systematic review of efficacy and safety. *Pain* 2004; 112:372-380.
 103. Furlan AD, Sandoval JA, Mailis-Gagnon A, Tunks E. Opioids for chronic noncancer pain: A meta-analysis of effectiveness and side effects. *Can Med Assoc J* 2006; 174:1589-1594.
 104. Eisenberg E, McNicol E, Carr DB. Opioids for neuropathic pain (review). *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2006; 3:CD006146.
 105. Deshpande A, Furlan A, Mailis-Gagnon A, Atlas S, Turk D. Opioids for chronic low back pain (review). *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2007; 3:CD004959.
 106. Devulder J, Richarz U, Nataraja SH. Impact of long-term use of opioids on quality of life in patients with chronic, non-malignant pain. *Curr Med Res Opin* 2005; 21:1555-1568.
 107. Manchikanti L, Vallejo R, Manchikanti KN, Benyamin RM, Datta S, Christo PJ. Effectiveness of long-term opioid therapy for chronic non-cancer pain. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E133-E156.
 108. Colson J, Koyyalagunta D, Falco FJE, Manchikanti L. A systematic review of observational studies on the effectiveness of opioid therapy for cancer pain. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E85-E102.
 109. Vallejo R, Barkin RL, Wang VC. Pharmacology of opioids in the treatment of chronic pain syndromes. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E343-E360.
 110. Trescot AM, Helm S, Hansen H, Benyamin R, Adlaka R, Patel S, Manchikanti L. Opioids in the management of chronic non-cancer pain: An update of American Society of Interventional Pain Physicians' (ASIPP) guidelines. *Pain Physician* 2008; 11:S5-S62.
 111. Stein C, Reinecke H, Sorgatz H. Opioid use in chronic noncancer pain: Guidelines revisited. *Curr Opin Anaesthesiol* 2010; 23:598-601.
 112. von Korff M, Kolodny A, Deyo R, Chou R. Long-term opioid therapy reconsidered. *Ann Intern Med* 2011; 155:325-328.
 113. Grady D, Berkowitz SA, Katz MH. Opioids for chronic pain. *Arch Intern Med* 2011; 171:1426-1427.
 114. Dhalla IA, Persaud N, Juurlink DN. Facing up to the prescription opioid crisis. *BMJ* 2011; 343:d5142.
 115. Martell BA, O'Connor PG, Kerns RD, Becker WC, Morales KH, Kosten TR, Fiellin DA. Systematic review: Opioid treatment for chronic back pain: Prevalence, efficacy, and association with addiction. *Ann Intern Med* 2007; 146:116-127.
 116. Who bears responsibility for the premature adoption of opioids as a treatment standard? *The Back Letter* 2011; 26:46
 117. Chou R, Huffman LH; American Pain Society; American College of Physicians. Medications for acute and chronic low back pain: A review of the evidence for an American Pain Society/American College of Physicians clinical practice guideline. *Ann Intern Med* 2007; 147:505-514.
 118. Reinecke H, Sorgatz H; German Society for the Study of Pain (DGSS). S3 guideline LONTS. Long-term administration of opioids for non-tumor pain. *Schmerz* 2009; 23:440-447.
 119. Sorgatz H, Maier C. Nothing is more damaging to a new truth than an old error: Conformity of new guidelines on opioid administration for chronic pain with the effect prognosis of the DGSS S3 guidelines LONTS (long-term administration of opioids for non-tumor pain). *Schmerz* 2010; 24:309-312.
 120. Angst MS, Clark JD. Opioid-induced hyperalgesia: a qualitative systematic review. *Anesthesiology* 2006; 104:570-587.
 121. Lee M, Silverman SM, Hansen H, Patel VB, Manchikanti L. A comprehensive review of opioid-induced hyperalgesia. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:145-161.
 122. Cohen SP, Christo PJ, Wang S, Chen L, Stojanovic MP, Shields CH, Brummett C, Mao J. The effect of opioid dose and treatment duration on the perception of

- a painful standardized clinical stimulus. *Reg Anesth Pain Med* 2008; 33:199-206.
123. Raffaelli W, Salmosky-Dekel BG. Biological consequences of long-term intrathecal administration of opioids. *Minerva Anestesiologica* 2005; 71:475-478.
 124. Deer TR, Smith HS, Burton AW, Pope JE, Doleys DM, Levy RM, Staats PS, Wallace MS, Webster LR, Rauck RL, Cousins M. Comprehensive consensus based guidelines on intrathecal drug delivery systems in the treatment of pain caused by cancer pain. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E283-E312.
 125. Edlund MJ, Martin BC, Devries A, Fan M-Y, Braden JB, Sullivan MD. Trends in use of opioids for chronic noncancer pain among individuals with mental health and substance use disorders: the TROUP Study. *Clin J Pain* 2010; 26:1-8.
 126. Sullivan MD, Edlund MJ, Fan MY, Devries A, Brennan Braden J, Martin BC. Risks for possible and probable opioid misuse among recipients of chronic opioid therapy in commercial and Medicaid insurance plans: the TROUP Study. *Pain* 2010; 150:332-339.
 127. Fleming MF, Balousek SL, Klessig CL, Mundt MP, Brown DD. Substance use disorders in a primary care sample receiving daily opioid therapy. *J Pain* 2007; 8:573-582.
 128. Sullivan MD. Limiting the potential harms of high-dose opioid therapy: Comment on "Opioid dose and drug-related mortality in patients with nonmalignant pain." *Arch Intern Med* 2011; 171:691-693.
 129. Katz MH. Long-term opioid treatment of nonmalignant pain: a believer loses his faith. *Arch Intern Med* 2010; 170:1422-1424.
 130. McLellan AT, Turner BJ. Chronic noncancer pain management and opioid overdose: Time to change prescribing practices. *Ann Intern Med* 2010; 152:123-124.
 131. Dunn KM, Saunders KW, Rutter CM, Banta-Green CJ, Merrill JO, Sullivan MD, Weisner CM, Silverberg MJ, Campbell CI, Psaty BM, Von Korff M. Opioid prescriptions for chronic pain and overdose: a cohort study. *Ann Intern Med* 2010; 152:85-92.
 132. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Caraway DL, Benyamin RM. Breakthrough pain in chronic non-cancer pain: Fact, fiction, or abuse. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E103-E117.
 133. Saunders KW, Dunn KM, Merrill JO, Sullivan M, Weisner C, Braden JB, Psaty BM, Von Korff M. Relationship of opioid use and dosage levels to fractures in older chronic pain patients. *J Gen Intern Med* 2010; 25:310-315.
 134. Walker JM, Farney RJ, Rhondeau SM, Boyle KM, Valentine K, Cloward TV, Shilling KC. Chronic opioid use is a risk factor for the development of central sleep apnea and ataxic breathing. *J Clin Sleep Med* 2007; 3:455-461.
 135. Solomon DH, Rassen JA, Glynn RJ, Lee J, Levin R, Schneeweiss S. The comparative safety of analgesics in older adults with arthritis. *Arch Intern Med* 2010; 170:1968-1976.
 136. Martin BC, Fan MY, Edlund MJ, Devries A, Braden JB, Sullivan MD. Long-term chronic opioid therapy discontinuation rates from the TROUP study. *J Gen Intern Med* 2011; 26:1450-1457.
 137. Pletcher MJ, Kertesz SG, Kohn MA, Gonzales R. Trends in opioid prescribing by race/ethnicity for patients seeking care in US emergency departments. *JAMA* 2008; 299:70-78.
 138. American Society for Pain Management Nursing (ASPMN); Emergency Nurses Association (ENA); American College of Emergency Physicians (ACEP); American Pain Society (APS). Policy statement. Optimizing the treatment of pain in patients with acute presentations. *Ann Emerg Med* 2010; 56:77-79.
 139. American College of Emergency Physicians. Policy statement. Electronic prescription monitoring. Approved by the ACEP Board of Directors, October 2011. *Ann. Emerg. Med.* Pending publication, March 2012.
 140. Department of Health and Human Services, Food and Drug Administration. Draft blueprint for prescriber education for long-acting/extended-release opioid class-wide risk evaluation and mitigation strategy. *Fed. Reg.* 76, 68766-68767 (November 7, 2011).
 141. Solanki DR, Koyalagunta D, Shah RV, Silverman SM, Manchikanti L. Monitoring opioid adherence in chronic pain patients: Assessment of risk of substance misuse. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:E119-E131.
 142. Christo PJ, Manchikanti L, Ruan X, Bottros M, Hansen H, Solanki D, Jordan AE, Colson J. Urine drug testing in chronic pain. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:123-143.
 143. Gilbert JW, Wheeler GR, Mick GE, Storey BB, Herder SL, Richardson GB, Watts E, Gyarteng-Dakwa K, Marino BS, Kenney CM, Siddiqi M, Broughton PG. Importance of urine drug testing in the treatment of chronic noncancer pain: Implications of recent Medicare policy changes in Kentucky. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:167-186.
 144. Gilbert JW, Wheeler GR, Mick GE, Storey BB, Herder SL, Richardson GB, Watts E, Gyarteng-Dakwa K, Marino BS, Kenney CM, Siddiqi M, Broughton PG. Urine drug testing in the treatment of chronic noncancer pain in a Kentucky private neurosurgery practice: The potential effect of Medicare benefit changes in Kentucky. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:187-194.
 145. Manchikanti L, Malla Y, Wargo BW, Fellows B. Comparative evaluation of the accuracy of immunoassay with liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS) of urine drug testing (UDT) opioids and illicit drugs in chronic pain patients. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:175-187.
 146. Manchikanti L, Malla Y, Wargo BW, Fellows B. Comparative evaluation of the accuracy of benzodiazepine testing in chronic pain patients utilizing immunoassay with liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS) of urine drug testing. *Pain Physician* 2011; 14:259-270.
 147. Pesce A, West C, West R, Crews B, Mikel C, Almazan P, Latyshev S, Rosenthal M, Horn P. Reference intervals: a novel approach to detect drug abuse in a pain patient population. *J Opioid Manage* 2010; 6:341-350.
 148. Pesce A, Rosenthal M, West R, West C, Mikel C, Almazan P, Latyshev S. An evaluation of the diagnostic accuracy of liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry versus immunoassay drug testing in pain patients. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:273-281.
 149. Manchikanti L, Malla Y, Wargo BW, Cash KA, Pampati V, Damron KS, McManus CD, Brandon DE. Protocol for accuracy of point of care (POC) or in-office urine drug testing (immunoassay) in chronic pain patients: A prospective analysis of immunoassay and liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS). *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E1-E22.
 150. McCarberg BH. A critical assessment of opioid treatment adherence using urine drug testing in chronic pain management. *Postgrad Med* 2011; 123:124-131.
 151. Ling W, Mooney L, Hillhouse M. Prescription opioid abuse, pain and addiction: Clinical issues and implications. *Drug Alcohol Rev* 2011; 30:300-305.

152. Hall AJ, Logan JE, Toblin RL, Kaplan JA, Kraner JC, Bixler D, Crosby AE, Paulozzi LJ. Patterns of abuse among unintentional pharmaceutical overdose fatalities. *JAMA* 2008; 300:2613-2620.
153. United States Department of Justice, Drug Enforcement Administration. Automation of Reports and Consolidated Orders System (ARCOS). Springfield, VA, 2011. www.deadiversion.usdoj.gov/arcos/index.html.
154. Paulozzi LJ, Logan JE, Hall AJ, McKinstry E, Kaplan JA, Crosby AE. A comparison of drug overdose deaths involving methadone and other opioid analgesics in West Virginia. *Addiction* 2009; 104:1541-1548.
155. Dhalla IA, Mamdani MM, Sivilotti ML, Kopp A, Qureshi O, Juurlink DN. Prescribing of opioid analgesics and related mortality before and after the introduction of long-acting oxycodone. *CMAJ* 2009; 181:891-896.
156. Toblin RL, Paulozzi LJ, Logan JE, Hall AJ, Kaplan JA. Mental illness and psychotropic drug use among prescription drug overdose deaths: A medical examiner chart review. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2010; 71:491-496.
157. Methadone Mortality Working Group Drug Enforcement Administration, Office of Diversion Control, April 2007. www.deadiversion.usdoj.gov/drugs_concern/methadone/methadone_presentation0407_revised.pdf
158. Xu J, Kochanek KD, Murphy SL, Tejada-Vera B. Deaths: Final data for 2007. National vital statistics reports; Vol. 58 No. 19. National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD, 2010. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr58/nvsr58_01.pdf.
159. Warner M, Chen LH, Makuc DM, Anderson RN, Miniño AM. Drug poisoning deaths in the United States, 1980-2008. NCHS data brief, no. 81. National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD, 2011.
160. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Vital signs: Overdoses of prescription opioid pain relievers – United States, 1999-2008. *MMWR. Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2011; 60:1487-1492.
161. Degenhardt L, Hall W. Extent of illicit drug use and dependence, and their contribution to the global burden of disease. *Lancet* 2012; 379:55-70.
162. National Health Services, The National Treatment Agency for Substance Misuse. Addiction to Medicine. An investigation into the configuration and commissioning of treatment services to support those who develop problems with prescription-only or over-the-counter medicine. May 2011. www.nta.nhs.uk/uploads/addictiontomedicinesmay2011a.pdf
163. Wunsch MJ, Nakamoto K, Behonick G, Massello W. Opioid deaths in rural Virginia: A description of the high prevalence of accidental fatalities involving prescribed medications. *Am J Addict* 2009; 18:5-14.
164. Hudson TJ, Edlund MJ, Steffick DE, Tripathi SP, Sullivan MD. Epidemiology of regular prescribed opioid use: Results from a national, population-based survey. *J Pain Sympt Mgmt* 2008; 36:280-288.
165. Caudill-Slosberg MA, Schwartz LM, Wolloshin S. Office visits and analgesic prescriptions for musculoskeletal pain in US: 1980 vs. 2000. *Pain* 2004; 109:514-519.
166. Franklin GM, Mai J, Wickizer T, Turner JA, Fulton-Kehoe D, Grant L. Opioid dosing trends and mortality in Washington State workers' compensation, 1996-2002. *Am J Ind Med* 2005; 48:91-99.
167. Luo X, Pietrobon R, Hey L. Patterns and trends in opioid use among individuals with back pain in the United States. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2004; 29:884-891.
168. Zerzan JT, Morden NE, Soumerai S, Ross-Degnan D, Roughead E, Zhang F, Simoni-Wastila L, Sullivan SD. Trends and geographic variation of opiate medication use in state Medicaid fee-for-service programs, 1996 to 2002. *Med Care* 2006; 44:1005-1010.
169. Manchikanti L, Pampati S, Damron KS, Cash KA, McManus CD, Fellows B. Identification of doctor shoppers with KASPER: A comparative evaluation over a decade in western Kentucky. *J Ky Med Assoc* 2012; in press.
170. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. *Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Summary of National Findings*. NSDUH Series H-41, HHS Publication No. (SMA) 11-4658. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Rockville, MD, 2011. www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10NSDUH/2k10Results.pdf.
171. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. *Results from the 2010 National Survey on Drug Use and Health: Mental Health Findings*. NSDUH Series H-42, HHS Publication No. (SMA) 11-4667. Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2012. www.samhsa.gov/data/NSDUH/2k10MH_Findings/2k10MHResults.pdf
172. Volkow ND, McLellan TA, Cotto JH. Characteristics of opioid prescriptions in 2009. *JAMA* 2011; 305:1299-1301.
173. Governale L. Outpatient prescription opioid utilization in the U.S., years 2000 – 2009. Drug Utilization Data Analysis Team Leader, Division of Epidemiology, Office of Surveillance and Epidemiology. Presentation for U.S. Food and Drug Administration, July 22, 2010. www.fda.gov/downloads/AdvisoryCommittees/CommitteesMeetingMaterials/Drugs/AnestheticAndLifeSupportDrugsAdvisoryCommittee/UCM220950.pdf
174. Source: SDI, Vector One ©: National.
175. IMS Institute for Healthcare Informatics. The use of medicines in the United States: Review of 2011. April 2012. www.imshealth.com/ims/Global/Content/Insights/IMS%20Institute%20for%20Healthcare%20Informatics/IHII_Medicines_in_U.S_Report_2011.pdf
176. Ricks D. UN: US consumes 80% of world's oxycodone. *Newsday*, January 21, 2012.
177. Report of the International Narcotics Control Board for 2004. New York, United Nations, 2005. www.incb.org/pdf/e/ar/2004/incb_report_2004_full.pdf
178. Report of the International Narcotics Control Board 2008. New York, United Nations, 2009. www.incb.org/pdf/annual-report/2008/en/AR_08_English.pdf
179. National Center for Health Statistics. Health, United States, 2008 with chartbook. National Center for Health Statistics, Hyattsville, MD, 2009.
180. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Adult use of prescription opioid pain medications – Utah, 2008. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2010; 59:153-157.
181. Sullivan MD, Edlund MJ, Fan MY, Devries A, Brennan Braden J, Martin BC. Trends in use of opioids for non-cancer pain conditions 2000-2005 in commercial and Medicaid insurance plans: the TROUP study. *Pain* 2008; 138:440-449.
182. Vogt MT, Kwok CK, Cope DK, Osial TA,

- Culyba M, Starz TW. Analgesic usage for low back pain: Impact on health care costs and service use. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2005; 30:1075-1081.
183. Manchikanti L, Damron KS, McManus CD, Barnhill RC. Patterns of illicit drug use and opioid abuse in patients with chronic pain at initial evaluation: a prospective, observational study. *Pain Physician* 2004; 7:431-437.
 184. Manchikanti L, Pampati V, Damron KS, Beyer CD, Barnhill RC, Fellows B. Prevalence of prescription drug abuse and dependency in patients with chronic pain in western Kentucky. *J KY Med Assoc* 2003; 101:511-517.
 185. Manchikanti L, Damron KS, Pampati V, McManus CD. Prevalence of illicit drug use among individuals with chronic pain in the Commonwealth of Kentucky: an evaluation of patterns and trends. *J KY Med Assoc* 2005; 103:55-62.
 186. Vaglienti RM, Huber SJ, Noel KR, Johnstone RE. Misuse of prescribed controlled substances defined by urinalysis. *WV Med J* 2003; 99:67-70.
 187. Michna E, Jamison RN, Pham LD, Ross EL, Janfaza D, Nedeljkovic SS, Narang S, Palombi D, Wasan AD. Urine toxicology screening among chronic pain patients on opioid therapy: Frequency and predictability of abnormal findings. *Clin J Pain* 2007; 23:173-179.
 188. Manchikanti L, Manchukonda R, Pampati V, Damron KS, Brandon DE, Cash KA, McManus CD. Does random urine drug testing reduce illicit drug use in chronic pain patients receiving opioids? *Pain Physician* 2006; 9:123-129.
 189. Wu PC, Lang C, Hasson NK, Linder SH, Clark DJ. Opioid use in young veterans. *J Opioid Manag* 2010; 6:133-139.
 190. Unintentional Drug Poisoning in the United States. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. July 2010. <http://www.cdc.gov/HomeandRecreationalSafety/pdf/poison-issue-brief.pdf>
 191. Paulozzi LJ, Weisler RH, Patkar AA. A national epidemic of unintentional prescription opioid overdose deaths: how physicians can help control it. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2011; 72:589-592.
 192. Ohio Department of Health. Epidemic of prescription drug overdose in Ohio. 2010. www.healthyohiprogram.org/diseaseprevention/dpoison/drugdata.aspx.
 193. Edlund MJ, Martin BC, Fan MY, Braden JB, Devries A, Sullivan MD. An analysis of heavy utilizers of opioids for chronic noncancer pain in the TROUP study. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2010; 40:279-289.
 194. Katz N, Panas L, Kim M, Audet AD, Bilansky A, Eadie J, Kreiner P, Paillard FC, Thomas C, Carrow G. Usefulness of prescription monitoring programs for surveillance--analysis of Schedule II opioid prescription data in Massachusetts, 1996-2006. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2010; 19:115-123.
 195. Bohnert AS, Valenstein M, Bair MJ, Ganoczy D, McCarthy JF, Ilgen MA, Blow FC. Association between opioid prescribing patterns and opioid overdose-related deaths. *JAMA* 2011; 305:1315-1321.
 196. Lanier WA. Prescription drug overdose deaths – Utah, 2008-2009. In *Proceedings at the 59th Annual Epidemic Intelligence Service Conference*. Atlanta, GA, April 23, 2010.
 197. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Boswell MV. Interventional pain management at crossroads: The perfect storm brewing for a new decade of challenges. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E111-E140.
 198. Benyamin RM, Datta S, Falco FJE. A perfect storm in interventional pain management: Regulated, but unbalanced. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:109-116.
 199. Office of National Drug Control Policy. 2011 National Drug Control Strategy. <http://www.whitehouse.gov/ondcp/2011-national-drug-control-strategy>
 200. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Cash KA, Pampati V, Damron KS, Boswell MV. A randomized, controlled, double-blind trial of fluoroscopic caudal epidural injections in the treatment of lumbar disc herniation and radiculitis. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2011; 36:1897-1905.
 201. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Cash KA, Pampati V, Datta S. Management of pain of post lumbar surgery syndrome: One-year results of a randomized, double-blind, active controlled trial of fluoroscopic caudal epidural injections. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:509-521.
 202. Manchikanti L, Cash RA, McManus CD, Pampati V, Fellows B. Fluoroscopic caudal epidural injections with or without steroids in managing pain of lumbar spinal stenosis: One year results of randomized, double-blind, active-controlled trial. *J Spinal Disord* 2011; April 5 [Epub ahead of print].
 203. Manchikanti L, Cash KA, McManus CD, Pampati V, Benyamin RM. Preliminary results of a randomized, double-blind, controlled trial of fluoroscopic lumbar interlaminar epidural injections in managing chronic lumbar discogenic pain without disc herniation or radiculitis. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E279-E292.
 204. Manchikanti L, Cash KA, McManus CD, Damron KS, Pampati V, Falco FJE. Lumbar interlaminar epidural injections in central spinal stenosis: Preliminary results of a randomized, double-blind, active control trial. *Pain Physician* 2012; 15:51-64.
 205. Manchikanti L, Malla Y, Cash KA, McManus CD, Pampati V. Fluoroscopic epidural injections in cervical spinal stenosis: Preliminary results of a randomized, double-blind, active control trial. *Pain Physician* 2012; 15:E59-E70.
 206. Manchikanti L, Malla Y, Cash KA, McManus CD, Pampati V. Fluoroscopic cervical interlaminar epidural injections in managing chronic pain of cervical post-surgery syndrome: Preliminary results of a randomized, double-blind active control trial. *Pain Physician* 2012; 15:13-26.
 207. Manchikanti L, Cash KA, McManus CD, Pampati V, Benyamin RM. A preliminary report of a randomized double-blind, active controlled trial of fluoroscopic thoracic interlaminar epidural injections in managing chronic thoracic pain. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E357-E369.
 208. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Falco FJE, Cash KA, Pampati V. Evaluation of lumbar facet joint nerve blocks in managing chronic low back pain: a randomized, double-blind, controlled trial with a 2-year follow-up. *Int J Med Sci* 2010; 7:124-135.
 209. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Falco FJE, Cash KA, Fellows B. Comparative outcomes of a 2-year follow-up of cervical medial branch blocks in management of chronic neck pain: a randomized, double-blind controlled trial. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:437-450.
 210. Chou R, Huffman L. *Guideline for the Evaluation and Management of Low Back Pain: Evidence Review*. American Pain Society, Glenview, IL, 2009. www.ampainsoc.org/pub/pdf/LBPEvidRev.pdf.
 211. Manchikanti L, Singh V, Falco FJE, Cash KA, Pampati V, Fellows B. Comparative effectiveness of a one-year follow-up of thoracic medial branch blocks in management of chronic thoracic pain: a randomized, double-blind active controlled trial. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:535-548.
 212. Staal JB, de Bie RA, de Vet HC, Hildebrandt J, Nelemans P. Injection therapy

- for subacute and chronic low back pain: an updated Cochrane review. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2009; 34:49-59.
213. American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine (ACOEM) Low back Disorders. In: *Occupational Medicine Practice Guidelines: Evaluation and Management of Common Health Problems and Functional Recovery of Workers, Second Edition*. American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine Press, Elk Grove Village, 2007.
 214. Manchikanti L, Datta S, Derby R, Wolfer LR, Benyamin RM, Hirsch JA. A critical review of the American Pain Society clinical practice guidelines for interventional techniques: Part 1. Diagnostic interventions. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E141-E174.
 215. Manchikanti L, Datta S, Gupta S, Munglani R, Bryce DA, Ward SP, Benyamin RM, Sharma ML, Helm II S, Fellows B, Hirsch JA. A critical review of the American Pain Society clinical practice guidelines for interventional techniques: Part 2. Therapeutic interventions. *Pain Physician* 2010; 13:E215-E264.
 216. Manchikanti L, Manchukonda R, Pampati V, Damron KS. Evaluation of abuse of prescription and illicit drugs in chronic pain patients receiving short-acting (hydrocodone) or long-acting (methadone) opioids. *Pain Physician* 2005; 8:257-261.
 217. Macintyre PE, Loadsman JA, Scott DA. Opioids, ventilation and acute pain management. *Anaesth Intensive Care* 2011; 39:545-558.
 218. Webster LR, Cochella S, Dasgupta N, Fakata KL, Fine PG, Fishman SM, Grey T, Johnson EM, Lee LK, Passik SD, Peppin J, Porucznik CA, Ray A, Schnoll SH, Stieg RL, Wakeland W. An analysis of the root causes for opioid-related overdose deaths in the United States. *Pain Med* 2011; 12:S26-S35.
 219. Perrin-Terrin A, Pathak A, Lapeyre-Mestre M. QT interval prolongation: Prevalence, risk factors and pharmacovigilance data among methadone-treated patients in France. *Fundam Clin Pharmacol* 2011; 25:503-510.
 220. Anchersen K, Hansteen V, Gossop M, Clausen T, Waal H. Opioid maintenance patients with QTc prolongation: Congenital long QT syndrome mutation may be a contributing risk factor. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 2010; 112:216-219.
 221. Modesto-Lowe V, Brooks D, Petry N. Methadone deaths: Risk factors in pain and addicted populations. *J Gen Intern Med* 2010; 25:305-309.
 222. Mayet S, Gossop M, Lintzeris N, Markides V, Strang J. Methadone maintenance, QTc and torsade de pointes: Who needs an electrocardiogram and what is the prevalence of QTc prolongation? *Drug Alcohol Rev* 2011; 30:388-396.
 223. Manchikanti L, Damron KS, Beyer CD, Pampati V. A comparative evaluation of illicit drug use in patients with or without controlled substance abuse in interventional pain management. *Pain Physician* 2003; 6:281-285.
 224. Fillingim RB, Doleys DM, Edwards RR, Lowery D. Clinical characteristics of chronic back pain as a function of gender and oral opioid use. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2003; 28:143-150.
 225. Webster BS, Verma SK, Gatchel RJ. Relationship between early opioid prescribing for acute occupational low back pain and disability duration, medical costs, subsequent surgery, and late opioid use. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2007; 32:2127-2132.
 226. Mahmud MA, Webster BS, Courtney TK, Matz S, Tacci JA, Christiani DC. Clinical management and the duration of disability for work-related low back pain. *J Occup Environ Med* 2000; 42:1178-1187.
 227. Franklin GM, Stover BD, Turner JA, Fulton-Kehoe D, Wickizer TM; Disability Risk Identification Study Cohort. Early opioid prescription and subsequent disability among workers with back injuries: The Disability Risk Identification Study Cohort. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2008; 33:199-204.
 228. Rhee Y, Taitel MS, Walker DR, Lau DT. Narcotic drug use among patients with lower back pain in employer health plans: a retrospective analysis of risk factors and health care services. *Clin Ther* 2007; 29:2603-2612.
 229. Gross DP, Stephens B, Bhambhani Y, Haykowsky M, Bostick GP, Rashid S. Opioid prescriptions in canadian workers' compensation claimants: Prescription trends and associations between early prescription and future recovery. *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 2009; 34:525-531.
 230. Volinn E, Fargo JD, Fine PG. Opioid therapy for nonspecific low back pain and the outcome of chronic work loss. *Pain* 2009; 142:194-201.
 231. Cifuentes M, Webster B, Genevay S, Pransky G. The course of opioid prescribing for a new episode of disabling low back pain: Opioid features and dose escalation. *Pain* 2010; 151:22-29.
 232. Becker N, Sjogren P, Bech P, Olsen AK, Eriksen J. Treatment outcome of chronic non-malignant pain patients managed in a Danish multidisciplinary pain centre compared to general practice: a randomised controlled trial. *Pain* 2000; 84:203-211.
 233. Webster BS, Cifuentes M, Verma S, Pransky G. Geographic variation in opioid prescribing for acute, work-related, low back pain and associated factors: A multilevel analysis. *Am J Ind Med* 2009; 52:162-171.
 234. Franklin GM, Rahman EA, Turner JA, Daniell WE, Fulton-Kehoe D. Opioid use for chronic low back pain: a prospective, population-based study among injured workers in Washington state, 2002-2005. *Clin J Pain* 2009; 25:743-751.
 235. Stover BD, Turner JA, Franklin G, Gluck JV, Fulton-Kehoe D, Sheppard L, Wickizer TM, Kaufman J, Egan K. Factors associated with early opioid prescription among workers with low back injuries. *J Pain* 2006; 7:718-725.
 236. White AG, Birnbaum HG, Mareva MN, Daher M, Vallow S, Schein J, Katz N. Direct costs of opioid abuse in an insured population in the United States. *J Manag Care Pharm* 2005; 11:469-479.
 237. Fishbain DA, Rosomoff HL, Rosomoff RS. Drug abuse, dependence, and addiction in chronic pain patients. *Clin J Pain* 1992; 8:77-85.