



ADDRESSING OPIOID USE DISORDER IN GENERAL MEDICAL SETTINGS

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— Maya Angelou

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ABOUT THE INSTRUCTOR

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He has been teaching, training, consulting and conducting research in the fields of Medical Physiology and Behavioral Biology for over twenty-nine years. Dr. Tinsley has authored over twenty-five professional and refereed articles, including invited reviews. He has been a member of the American Society for Physiology, and work done in 2001 led to an international award from The European Society on Microcirculation. Dr. Tinsley has received research funding from the Veteran's Administration, American Heart Association, and Scott and White Hospital. In addition, he has served on numerous review committees for national grant-funding agencies and scientific journals.

Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings: How the Treatment Landscape Has Changed

TIP 63 Part 2 was written to guide healthcare professionals in identifying, assessing, and treating or referring patients with opioid use disorder in general medical settings, primary care offices, emergency departments, hospitals, and community health centers. Since this course was published, three developments have fundamentally altered how OUD treatment operates in these settings: the elimination of the X-waiver requirement for buprenorphine prescribing, the expansion of the prescriber workforce beyond physicians, and the accumulation of evidence that emergency department-initiated treatment produces measurably better outcomes than referral alone.

The most consequential regulatory change was the January 2023 elimination of the X-waiver requirement through the Consolidated Appropriations Act. A retrospective analysis of over one million adults with OUD diagnoses examined prescribing patterns before and after the elimination and found that buprenorphine initiation increased by 14% in the post-waiver period compared to the waiver-required period (Tuan et al., 2026). This is the kind of concrete, population-level evidence that validates the policy change: removing a regulatory barrier produced a measurable increase in treatment access. For practitioners working in the general medical settings this course describes, the elimination means that any DEA-registered clinician with Schedule III prescribing authority can now prescribe buprenorphine for OUD without additional certification. The practical implication is that buprenorphine prescribing is no longer the exclusive domain of addiction specialists or specially trained physicians, it is a clinical skill that general medical practitioners are expected to develop, much like managing hypertension or diabetes. This course's coverage of buprenorphine assessment, initiation, and monitoring is no longer specialized knowledge. It is a core competency for primary care practice.

The prescriber workforce has shifted accordingly. A retrospective analysis of Philadelphia Medicaid prescription data from 2017 to 2023 found that "primary care nurse practitioners became the largest group of buprenorphine prescribers to Medicaid beneficiaries with OUD by 2023." Both nurse practitioners and physicians treated patients with comparable clinical complexity. Notably, "the removal of the X-waiver was not associated with significant changes in buprenorphine prescribing rates for either provider type," suggesting that the workforce expansion preceded the regulatory change rather than being caused by it (Turi et al., 2026). For treatment systems implementing the approaches described in this course, this finding means that OUD treatment capacity in general medical settings increasingly depends on non-physician providers. The screening, assessment, and treatment planning skills this course teaches are not just relevant for physicians, they are essential for the nurse practitioners who now prescribe the majority of buprenorphine in some Medicaid populations.

A 2024 study examining the earlier relaxation of X-waiver training requirements across 33 communities in four high-burden opioid states found more nuanced results. While the number of waived clinicians increased, "only communities in Kentucky showed an increase in the number of X-waivered clinicians prescribing buprenorphine" and "only communities in Massachusetts experienced an increase in patients receiving buprenorphine." The researchers concluded that "training requirements may not be the primary barrier to expanding buprenorphine treatment," suggesting that regulatory access alone is insufficient without addressing the clinical confidence, workflow integration, and institutional support that determine whether practitioners actually prescribe (Christine et al., 2024). For general medical settings, this finding identifies the next challenge beyond regulatory access: building the clinical

infrastructure, screening protocols, treatment algorithms, supervision arrangements, and referral partnerships, that converts prescribing authority into actual treatment delivery. This course's content on practice-level implementation is where that conversion happens.

The rural dimension of OUD treatment in general medical settings was documented in a 2024 qualitative study of rural VA health systems that successfully expanded buprenorphine prescribing between 2015 and 2020. Successful integration required "a targeted hire" to serve as an initial catalyst, followed by champions who restructured primary care teams and redesigned clinical processes with active leadership involvement (Wyse et al., 2024). For rural practitioners using this course's framework, the finding confirms that integration is not a passive process, it requires deliberate organizational action, starting with identifying a clinical champion willing to lead the effort and administration willing to support the structural changes needed to embed OUD treatment into primary care workflow.

The emergency department, a critical entry point for OUD identification described in this course, has become a site for active treatment initiation, not just screening and referral. A 2026 systematic review and meta-analysis of nine clinical trials involving 1,172 participants compared ED-initiated buprenorphine with brief intervention for OUD. Buprenorphine initiation yielded 61% adherence compared to 52% for brief intervention, and lower opioid use prevalence (17% vs 28%). The authors found that "multiple RCTs consistently favored buprenorphine for short-term engagement, whereas brief intervention showed minimal effects on treatment utilization, overdose risk, or substance use outcomes" (Bavali-Gazik et al., 2026). For the screening and referral framework described in this course, this evidence strengthens the case for moving beyond SBIRT toward same-visit medication initiation in emergency settings, treating the ED encounter not as a referral opportunity but as a treatment opportunity. The 17% vs 28% opioid use difference represents lives affected by whether the clinician screens and refers or screens and treats.

The medication landscape itself continues to evolve. A 2025 expert review confirmed that "oral methadone and buprenorphine remain the gold standard" for OUD maintenance treatment, while noting that depot buprenorphine formulations "may improve adherence and facilitate clinical management" by eliminating daily dosing requirements (Soyka, 2025). For general medical practitioners implementing the treatment approaches described in this course, extended-release formulations reduce the clinical burden of daily observed dosing and may improve outcomes for patients whose adherence is compromised by lifestyle instability, geographic distance from treatment sites, or the stigma associated with daily clinic visits.

The Mortality Stakes: Why Medication in General Settings Saves Lives

The urgency behind bringing opioid use disorder treatment into general medical settings rests on a simple, well-established fact: medication for opioid use disorder is one of the most life-saving treatments in all of medicine, and the general medical setting is where most people with the disorder can actually be reached. The foundational evidence comes from a 2017 systematic review and meta-analysis of 19 cohort studies following 122,885 people treated with methadone and 15,831 treated with buprenorphine. All-cause mortality was 11.3 per 1,000 person-years while patients were in methadone treatment versus 36.1 per 1,000 person-years out of it, and overdose mortality carried an out-to-in rate ratio of 4.80, meaning people were nearly five times more likely to die of overdose when not in treatment (Sordo et al., 2017). Treatment does not merely improve function or reduce use; it keeps

people alive, and stopping treatment sharply raises the risk of death.

The general-medical relevance of this finding is underscored by a 2018 cohort study of 17,568 Massachusetts adults who had survived a nonfatal opioid overdose, exactly the kind of patient a general medical practitioner encounters. Methadone was associated with a 53 percent reduction in all-cause mortality, with an adjusted hazard ratio of 0.47, and buprenorphine with a 37 percent reduction, at 0.63, while naltrexone showed no significant mortality association in this sample (Larochelle et al., 2018). The clinical message is direct and consequential: after a patient survives an overdose, offering and initiating medication is not an optional referral but a decision that measurably changes whether the patient lives, and the medical setting where the overdose is treated is the natural place for that decision to be made.

For the practitioner, this evidence reframes the entire enterprise this course describes. Screening, assessment, and treatment of opioid use disorder in general medical settings are not a specialty service grafted onto primary care but a core life-saving intervention comparable to treating any other lethal chronic condition. A clinician who identifies opioid use disorder and does not act on it, whether from discomfort, lack of training, or the assumption that someone else will treat it, has missed an opportunity of the same magnitude as failing to treat a patient's severe hypertension or diabetes, and the mortality data make that comparison literal rather than rhetorical.

The mortality evidence also carries a specific warning about the periods of highest risk, which the general medical practitioner is positioned to address. The same body of research shows that the risk of death is elevated during the induction period at the very start of treatment and again during the period immediately after treatment stops, when tolerance has changed and the patient is unprotected. This pattern has direct clinical implications: careful management of the induction, with appropriate dosing and monitoring, matters for safety, and retention in treatment is itself protective, because the danger returns when treatment ends. A practitioner who understands this will treat continuity as a clinical priority, working to keep patients engaged rather than treating a missed appointment or a lapse as grounds for discharge, because the evidence is clear that the patient out of treatment is the patient most likely to die. Retention is not merely a program metric; it is, in this population, a matter of survival.

This reframes what success looks like in the treatment of opioid use disorder as a chronic condition. Just as no one expects a single course of treatment to cure diabetes or hypertension, the goal in opioid use disorder is sustained management that keeps the patient in the protective window of active treatment, and relapse or a period of instability is a reason to intensify engagement rather than to conclude that treatment has failed. The general medical setting, oriented as it is to the long-term management of chronic conditions, is in many ways the natural home for this kind of sustained care, and a practitioner who brings the chronic-disease management mindset to opioid use disorder, expecting a long course with ups and downs rather than a quick resolution, is applying exactly the model the evidence supports.

Office-Based and Collaborative Treatment in Practice

The removal of regulatory barriers means little unless general medical practices actually deliver treatment, and the evidence on how to do that in primary care is encouraging. A randomized trial of collaborative care for opioid and alcohol use disorders in a federally qualified health center, involving 377 patients, found that patients receiving collaborative care were far more likely to receive any treatment than those in usual care, 39.0 percent versus 16.8 percent, an adjusted odds ratio of 3.97, and were more likely to report abstinence at six months (Watkins et al., 2017). The collaborative-care model, in which a care manager supports the primary care clinician and coordinates the behavioral and pharmacological components, is a proven way to embed opioid use disorder treatment into a general medical practice rather than leaving it to the individual clinician's initiative.

There is no single required model, and a scoping review conducted for the field identified twelve representative approaches to integrating medication treatment into primary care, sharing common components of pharmacotherapy, provider and community education, care coordination, and access to psychosocial services (Korthuis et al., 2017). The variety is itself a useful message: a practice need not adopt one prescribed structure but can build integration in the way that fits its size, staffing, and population, provided the essential components are present. What the successful models share is not a particular organizational chart but the deliberate construction of the roles, workflows, and supports that turn prescribing authority into delivered treatment.

For the practitioner, the applied lesson connects directly to this course's emphasis on practice-level implementation. Prescribing buprenorphine is clinically straightforward for most patients, but doing it sustainably in a busy practice requires the surrounding structure, a way to induct patients, to monitor them, to handle the behavioral health component, and to manage the occasional complexity, and building that structure is what distinguishes a practice that treats opioid use disorder from one that only could. The clinician who understands both the simplicity of the core clinical task and the importance of the supporting structure is positioned to make treatment a durable part of the practice rather than an occasional exception.

Stigma is one of the most persistent obstacles to delivering this treatment well, and it operates on both sides of the encounter. Clinicians may carry unexamined attitudes that treat opioid use disorder as a moral failing rather than a medical condition, or may feel that these patients are difficult, unrewarding, or outside the proper scope of general medical practice, and such attitudes translate into missed diagnoses, reluctant prescribing, and encounters that patients experience as judgmental. Patients, for their part, often arrive having been treated poorly in prior medical encounters, and they anticipate the same judgment, which can suppress honest disclosure and drive avoidance of care precisely when engagement matters most. A clinician aware of this dynamic can counteract it deliberately, approaching the patient with the same matter-of-fact clinical respect afforded any other patient with a chronic illness, and that respect is not merely courtesy but a clinical intervention that makes honest disclosure and sustained engagement possible.

The language a clinician uses is a concrete expression of this stance and a practical tool for reducing stigma. Describing a patient as having a substance use disorder rather than as an addict, referring to medication treatment rather than to substituting one drug for another, and framing a positive drug test as clinical information rather than as a moral failure all shape how the patient experiences the encounter and whether they return. The evidence that stigma from prior healthcare encounters discourages future

care-seeking makes this more than a matter of politeness; it is part of the clinical skill of keeping a patient engaged in the treatment that keeps them alive. A general medical practice that treats opioid use disorder as the routine, treatable chronic condition it is, in its language as much as its protocols, removes one of the largest barriers between patients and the care they need.

Naloxone and Overdose Prevention as Part of Care

Treating opioid use disorder in a general medical setting also means taking responsibility for overdose prevention, and naloxone is the concrete tool for that responsibility. The evidence that making naloxone available saves lives is strong at the population level: a Massachusetts study of overdose education and nasal naloxone distribution across 19 communities, in which 2,912 bystanders were trained and reported 327 rescues, found that communities with naloxone distribution had significantly lower opioid overdose death rates than those without, with adjusted rate ratios of 0.73 in lower-enrollment communities and 0.54 in higher-enrollment ones (Walley et al., 2013). Putting naloxone into the hands of people positioned to witness an overdose measurably reduces deaths.

The general-medical application of this evidence is co-prescribing, and it works. A study of naloxone co-prescription for 1,985 primary care patients on long-term opioid therapy, of whom 38.2 percent were prescribed naloxone, found that patients who received naloxone had 47 percent fewer opioid-related emergency department visits at six months and 63 percent fewer at one year, with no change in their opioid dose (Coffin et al., 2016). Co-prescribing naloxone did not reduce the medical use of opioids or signal distrust of the patient; it simply added a safety measure that reduced harm, and it did so in exactly the general medical setting this course addresses.

For the practitioner, naloxone belongs in the routine care of any patient with opioid use disorder and any patient on opioids at elevated overdose risk. Prescribing or dispensing it, explaining its use to the patient and to family or others likely to be present in an overdose, and normalizing it as a standard safety step rather than an alarming exception are all part of competent care. The same clinical encounter in which a clinician assesses opioid use disorder and considers medication is the natural place to ensure the patient leaves with naloxone, and treating overdose prevention as integral to the treatment, rather than as a separate harm-reduction concern, is part of what it means to address opioid use disorder responsibly in a general medical setting.

Naloxone provision also extends the reach of the clinical encounter beyond the patient to the people around them, which matters because most overdoses are witnessed by someone other than a medical professional. A patient equipped with naloxone and the knowledge to use it becomes, in effect, a resource for their own community, and a family member or friend trained alongside them becomes a potential rescuer at the moment when rescue is possible. The general medical practitioner who takes a few minutes to explain overdose recognition and naloxone use to a patient and their support person is therefore doing prevention work whose benefit radiates outward, and the community-level evidence that naloxone distribution lowers overdose death rates reflects exactly this multiplication of a single clinical act into many potential rescues. Framing naloxone education as a routine part of care, delivered without alarm or judgment, is how a clinician turns a prescription into a genuine safety net.

The hospital and emergency department deserve particular mention as settings where naloxone provision and treatment initiation intersect, because these are often the points where a patient's opioid

use disorder becomes undeniable, whether through an overdose, an infection related to injection, or a withdrawal syndrome during admission for something else. These moments are opportunities that were historically wasted, with the patient stabilized and discharged with nothing but a referral, but the evidence now supports using them for active intervention: initiating buprenorphine, arranging follow-up, and ensuring the patient leaves with naloxone. A hospitalization or an emergency visit for a patient with opioid use disorder is a moment of contact with the medical system that may not come again soon, and treating it as an opportunity to begin treatment rather than merely to address the acute problem is one of the clearest applications of the principle that identification must connect to treatment. The general medical settings this course addresses are, in this sense, not passive way stations but active points of intervention, and using them fully is what the evidence and the mortality stakes together demand.

From Identification to Treatment: The Whole Task

The developments this course describes, the expanded prescriber authority, the growing role of non-physician clinicians, the movement of treatment initiation into emergency departments, and the accumulating evidence on medications, all point toward a single conclusion: opioid use disorder is a treatable, indeed a highly treatable, chronic condition, and general medical settings are where the treatment can reach the most people. The mortality evidence establishes the stakes, the office-based and collaborative-care evidence establishes the feasibility, and the naloxone evidence establishes the safety net, and together they describe a standard of care that any general medical practitioner can and should aspire to meet.

What connects these pieces is the recognition that identification without treatment accomplishes little, the same lesson that runs through screening and assessment in every setting. A practice that screens for opioid use disorder but does not treat it, or that identifies a patient and refers into a system the patient never reaches, has closed only the first step of a chain that saves lives only when it is completed. The competencies this course teaches are valuable precisely because they close the whole chain, from identifying the disorder through initiating or arranging medication, providing naloxone, and supporting the patient over the long course of a chronic condition, and the evidence assembled here shows that a general medical practice equipped to do this work changes outcomes that are ultimately measured in lives.

The remaining barrier, as the implementation research makes clear, is often not regulation or even clinical knowledge but the will and the structure to act, and this is where the individual practitioner's commitment matters. The tools exist, the evidence is strong, and the authority to prescribe is now widely held, so what determines whether a given patient with opioid use disorder receives life-saving treatment is increasingly whether the clinician in front of them is prepared to provide it. A practitioner who has absorbed both the clinical content of this course and the evidence that treatment in general settings saves lives is equipped to be that clinician, and to make the general medical setting the place where opioid use disorder is not merely detected but effectively treated.



Part 2: Addressing Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings *For Healthcare Professionals*

Part 2 of this **Treatment Improvement Protocol (TIP)** will guide practitioners' efforts to identify, assess, and treat or refer patients with opioid use disorder (OUD) in general medical settings.

TIP Navigation

Executive Summary

For healthcare and addiction professionals, policymakers, patients, and families

Part 1: Introduction to Medications for Opioid Use Disorder Treatment

For healthcare and addiction professionals, policymakers, patients, and families

Part 2: Addressing Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings *For healthcare professionals*

Part 3: Pharmacotherapy for Opioid Use Disorder

For healthcare professionals

Part 4: Partnering Addiction Treatment Counselors With Clients and Healthcare Professionals

For healthcare and addiction professionals

Part 5: Resources Related to Medication for Opioid Use Disorder

For healthcare and addiction professionals, policymakers, patients, and families

KEY MESSAGES

- All healthcare practices should screen for alcohol, tobacco, and other substance misuse (including opioid misuse).
- Validated screening tools, symptom surveys, and other resources are readily available; this part lists many of them.
- When patients screen positive for risk of harm from substance use, practitioners should assess them using tools that determine whether substance use meets diagnostic criteria for a substance use disorder (SUD).
- Thorough assessment should address patients' medical, social, SUD, and family histories.
- Laboratory tests can inform treatment planning.
- Practitioners should develop treatment plans or referral strategies (if onsite SUD treatment is unavailable) for patients who need SUD treatment.





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PART 2 of 5

Addressing Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings

Part 2 of this TIP is for healthcare professionals who work in general medical settings* and care for patients who misuse opioids or have OUD. Healthcare professionals in such settings address most personal healthcare needs, develop sustained partnerships with patients, and practice in the context of family and community. Thus, they have a good basis from which to understand patients' needs related to OUD screening, assessment, and treatment (or referral to specialty treatment).

Scope of the Problem

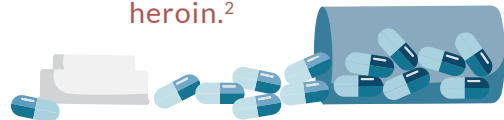
The number of patients presenting with OUD in medical clinics, community health centers, and private practices is increasing. Healthcare professionals in these general settings are in an important position to identify, assess, and treat OUD or to refer patients for treatment. Moreover, patients who are medically and mentally stable can benefit from receiving OUD medications in integrated care settings, where they often have already established therapeutic relationships with their healthcare providers.

Exhibit 2.1 defines key terms in Part 2. For more definitions, see the glossary in Part 5 of this TIP.

Screening

Screening can identify patients who may have diseases or conditions related to their substance use. Health care in general medical settings routinely includes screening for common, treatable conditions such as cancer that are associated with significant morbidity and mortality. Screening for SUDs is important, as misuse of alcohol, tobacco, and other substances is common among patients in medical settings (Exhibit 2.2).¹

An estimated **1.9M AMERICANS** have OUD related to opioid painkillers; **589K**, related to heroin.²



Screening can identify substance misuse in patients who wouldn't otherwise discuss it or connect it with the negative consequences they're experiencing. Some patients may spontaneously reveal their substance use and ask for help. This is more likely when they're experiencing harmful consequences of substance use. However, screening may identify unhealthy substance use (e.g., binge drinking) and SUDs

The TIP expert panel recommends that healthcare professionals screen patients for alcohol, tobacco, prescription drug, and illicit drug use at least annually.

*In this TIP, the term "general medical setting" includes medical clinics, community health centers, and private practices.



EXHIBIT 2.1. Key Terms

Addiction: As defined by the American Society of Addiction Medicine (ASAM),³ “a primary, chronic disease of brain reward, motivation, memory, and related circuitry.” It is characterized by inability to consistently abstain, impairment in behavioral control, craving, diminished recognition of significant problems with one’s behaviors and interpersonal relationships, and a dysfunctional emotional response. Like other chronic diseases, addiction often involves cycles of **relapse** and **remission**. The *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, Fifth Edition⁴ (DSM-5), does not use the term for diagnostic purposes, but it commonly describes the more severe forms of OUD.

Healthcare professionals: Physicians, nurse practitioners (NPs), physician assistants (PAs), and other medical service professionals who are eligible to prescribe medications for and treat patients with OUD. The term “**prescribers**” also refers to these healthcare professionals.

Maintenance treatment: Providing medications to achieve and sustain clinical remission of signs and symptoms of OUD and support the individual process of recovery without a specific endpoint (as with the typical standard of care in medical and psychiatric treatment of other chronic illnesses).

Medically supervised withdrawal (formerly called detoxification): Using an opioid agonist (or an alpha-2 adrenergic agonist if an opioid agonist is not available) in tapering doses or other medications to help a patient discontinue illicit or prescription opioids.

Medical management: Process whereby healthcare professionals provide medication, basic brief supportive counseling, monitoring of drug use and medication adherence, and referrals, when necessary, to addiction counseling and other services to address the patient’s medical, mental health, comorbid addiction, and psychosocial needs.

Office-based opioid treatment (OBOT): Providing medication for OUD in outpatient settings other than certified opioid treatment programs (OTPs).

Opioid misuse: The use of prescription opioids in any way other than as directed by a prescriber; the use of any opioid in a manner, situation, amount, or frequency that can cause harm to self or others.⁵

Opioid receptor agonist: A substance that has an affinity for and stimulates physiological activity at cell receptors in the central nervous system that are normally stimulated by opioids. **Mu-opioid receptor full agonists** (e.g., methadone) bind to the mu-opioid receptor and produce actions similar to those produced by the endogenous opioid beta-endorphin. Increasing the dose increases the effect. **Mu-opioid receptor partial agonists** (e.g., buprenorphine) bind to the mu-opioid receptor. Unlike with full agonists, increasing their dose may not produce additional effects once they have reached their maximal effect. At low doses, partial agonists may produce effects similar to those of full agonists.

Opioid receptor antagonist: A substance that has an affinity for opioid receptors in the central nervous system without producing the physiological effects of opioid agonists. Mu-opioid receptor antagonists (e.g., naltrexone) can block the effects of exogenously administered opioids.

Opioid treatment program (OTP): An accredited treatment program with Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) certification and Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) registration to administer and dispense opioid agonist medications that are approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to treat opioid addiction. Currently, these include methadone and buprenorphine products. Other pharmacotherapies, such as naltrexone, may be provided but are not subject to these regulations. OTPs must provide adequate medical, counseling, vocational, educational, and other assessment and treatment services either onsite or by referral to an outside agency or practitioner through a formal agreement.⁶

Continued on next page



EXHIBIT 2.1. Key Terms (continued)

Opioid use disorder (OUD): Per DSM-5,⁷ a disorder characterized by loss of control of opioid use, risky opioid use, impaired social functioning, tolerance, and withdrawal. Tolerance and withdrawal do not count toward the diagnosis in people experiencing these symptoms when using opioids under appropriate medical supervision. OUD covers a range of severity and replaces what the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, Fourth Edition, termed “opioid abuse” and “opioid dependence.” An OUD diagnosis is applicable to a person who uses opioids and experiences at least 2 of the 11 symptoms in a 12-month period. (See Exhibit 2.13 and the Appendix in Part 2 for full DSM-5 diagnostic criteria for OUD.)

Recovery: A process of change through which individuals improve their health and wellness, live a self-directed life, and strive to reach their full potential. Even individuals with severe and chronic SUDs can, with help, overcome their SUDs and regain health and social function. Although abstinence from all substance misuse is a cardinal feature of a recovery lifestyle, it is not the only healthy, prosocial feature. Patients taking FDA-approved medication to treat OUD can be considered in recovery.

Relapse: A process in which a person with OUD who has been in **remission** experiences a return of symptoms or loss of remission. A relapse is different from a **return to opioid use** in that it involves more than a single incident of use. Relapses occur over a period of time and can be interrupted. Relapse need not be long lasting. The TIP uses relapse to describe relapse prevention, a common treatment modality.

Remission: A medical term meaning a disappearance of signs and symptoms of the disease.⁸ DSM-5 defines remission as present in people who previously met OUD criteria but no longer meet any OUD criteria (with the possible exception of craving).⁹ Remission is an essential element of **recovery**.

Return to opioid use: One or more instances of **opioid misuse** without a return of symptoms of OUD. A return to opioid use may lead to **relapse**.

Tolerance: Alteration of the body’s responsiveness to alcohol or other drugs (including opioids) such that higher doses are required to produce the same effect achieved during initial use. See also **medically supervised withdrawal**.

before patients connect their substance use with their presenting complaint. Screening is also helpful when patients feel ashamed or afraid to reveal their concerns spontaneously.

Every medical practice should determine which screening tools to use and when, how, and by whom they will be administered.

Each practice should also identify steps to take when a patient screens positive. One efficient workflow strategy is to have clinical assistants or nurses administer the screening instrument in an interview or provide patients with a paper or computer tablet version for self-administration. (Self-administration is generally as reliable as interviewer administration.)¹⁰ Providers should be nonjudgmental and rely on established rapport when discussing screening results with patients.

The following sections summarize reliable screening tools. (See Part 5 for more resources.)

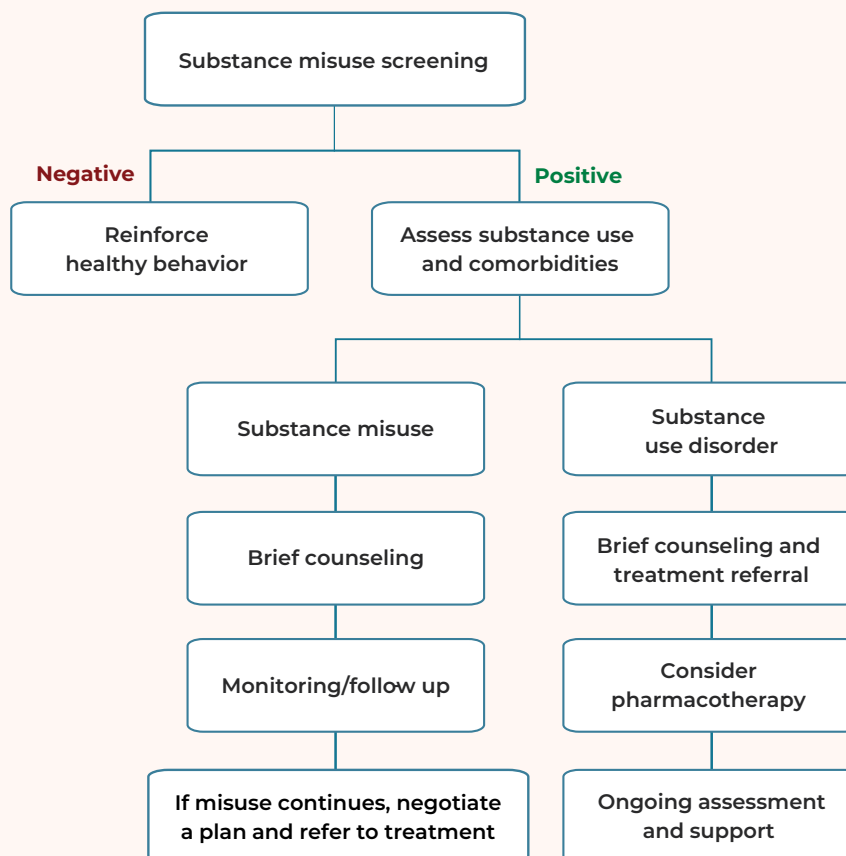
Alcohol Screening

Screening for alcohol misuse can identify patients at increased risk for opioid use.

When screening patients for opioid misuse, providers should also screen for alcohol misuse and alcohol use disorder (AUD), which cause considerable morbidity and mortality.¹¹ Providers should warn patients who use opioids that alcohol may increase opioid overdose risk.¹² The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) recommends screening adults for alcohol misuse, including risky drinking and AUD. USPSTF also recommends brief counseling for patients with risky drinking.^{13,14}



EXHIBIT 2.2. Substance Misuse and SUD Screening



Adapted with permission.¹⁵

USPSTF recommends the following alcohol screeners:

- **The single-item National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) Screener** is the briefest tool available (Exhibit 2.3). It can help distinguish at-risk patients who require further screening from those not at risk for AUD. Encourage patients in the latter category to maintain healthy behavior.
- **The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT)¹⁶ or its briefer version, the AUDIT-Consumption,¹⁷** can elicit more information from patients who screen positive on the single-item screener. The full AUDIT tool (Exhibit 2.4) and its briefer version have

demonstrated acceptable reliability in AUD screening.¹⁸ Assess patients with positive screens for AUD.

Practitioners should consider pharmacotherapy and referral for counseling for people with AUD. The three FDA-approved medications to treat AUD—acamprosate, disulfiram, and naltrexone (oral and extended-release injectable naltrexone [XR-NTX])—can be prescribed in general medical and specialty SUD treatment settings. (For more information on AUD treatment, see the SAMHSA/NIAAA publication *Medication for the Treatment of Alcohol Use Disorder: A Brief Guide*.)¹⁹



EXHIBIT 2.3. NIAAA Single-Item Screener

How many times in the past year have you had five or more drinks in a day (four drinks for women and all adults older than age 65)?

Adapted with permission.²⁰



One or more times constitutes a positive screen. Patients who screen positive should have an assessment for AUD.

Tobacco Screening

More than 80 percent of patients who are opioid dependent smoke cigarettes.²¹

Understanding of the major health consequences and risks associated with tobacco use has grown significantly over the past 50 years. Among preventable causes of premature death, smoking remains most prevalent, with more than 480,000 deaths per year in the United States.²² In addition, more than 40 percent of all people who smoke are mentally ill or have SUDs.^{23,24}

USPSTF recommends that primary care providers screen for tobacco use, advise patients to quit, and provide counseling and FDA-approved medications for tobacco cessation.²⁵ The six-item Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence²⁶ assesses cigarette use and nicotine dependence. The maximum score is 10; the higher the total score, the more severe the patient's nicotine dependence. The two-item Heaviness of Smoking Index (Exhibit 2.5) is also useful.²⁷

Drug Screening

Screening for illicit drug use and prescription medication misuse is clinically advantageous.

USPSTF's position as of this writing is that insufficient evidence exists to recommend for or against routine screening for illicit drug use in primary care.²⁸ However, there are clinical reasons to screen for prescription medication misuse and use of illicit substances. Identifying misuse of prescription or illegal drugs can prevent harmful drug interactions, lead to adjustments in prescribing practices, improve

medical care adherence, and increase the odds of patients getting needed interventions or treatment.²⁹

Brief screening instruments for drug use can determine which patients need further assessment. Providers should reinforce healthy behaviors among patients who report "no use" and direct those who report "some use" for further screening and assessment to obtain a diagnosis.

Several brief screening instruments for drug use can help primary care practitioners identify patients who use drugs.^{30,31} For example, a single-item screen is available for the general public (Exhibit 2.6).³² A two-item valid screener is available for use with U.S. veterans (Exhibit 2.7).³³

Brief drug screens don't indicate specific types of drugs used (nor does the longer Drug Abuse Screening Test; see the Part 2 Appendix).³⁴ If providers use nonspecific screens, they need to assess further which substances patients use and to what degree.

The TIP expert panel recommends universal OUD screening. Given the high prevalence of SUDs in patients visiting primary care settings and the effectiveness of medications to treat OUD specifically, the TIP expert panel recommends screening all patients for opioid misuse.



EXHIBIT 2.4. AUDIT Screener

1. How often do you have a drink containing alcohol?

- (0) Never *[Skip to Questions 9–10]*
- (1) Monthly or less
- (2) 2 to 4 times a month
- (3) 2 to 3 times a week
- (4) 4 or more times a week

6. How often during the last year have you needed an alcoholic drink first thing in the morning to get yourself going after a night of heavy drinking?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

2. How many drinks containing alcohol do you have on a typical day when you are drinking?

- (0) 1 or 2
- (1) 3 or 4
- (2) 5 or 6
- (3) 7, 8, or 9
- (4) 10 or more

7. How often during the last year have you had a feeling of guilt or remorse after drinking?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

3. How often do you have six or more drinks on one occasion?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

Skip to Questions 9 and 10 if total score for Questions 2 and 3 = 0

8. How often during the last year have you been unable to remember what happened the night before because you had been drinking?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

4. How often during the last year have you found that you were not able to stop drinking once you had started?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

9. Have you or someone else been injured as a result of your drinking?

- (0) No
- (2) Yes, but not in the last year
- (4) Yes, during the last year

5. How often during the last year have you failed to do what was normally expected from you because of drinking?

- (0) Never
- (1) Less than monthly
- (2) Monthly
- (3) Weekly
- (4) Daily or almost daily

10. Has a relative, friend, doctor, or another health professional expressed concern about your drinking or suggested you cut down?

- (0) No
- (2) Yes, but not in the last year
- (4) Yes, during the last year

Note: Add up the points associated with answers. A score of 8 or more is considered a positive test for unhealthy drinking.

Adapted from material in the public domain.³⁵ Available online (<http://auditscreen.org>).



EXHIBIT 2.5. Heaviness of Smoking Index

Ask these two questions of current or recent smokers:

- How soon after waking do you smoke your first cigarette?
 - Within 5 minutes (3 points)
 - 5–30 minutes (2 points)
 - 31–60 minutes (1 point)
 - 61 or more minutes (no points)
- How many cigarettes a day do you smoke?
 - 10 or less (no points)
 - 11–20 (1 point)
 - 21–30 (2 points)
 - 31 or more (3 points)

Total score:

1–2 points = very low dependence
 3 points = low to moderate dependence
 4 points = moderate dependence
 5 or more points = high dependence

Adapted with permission.³⁶

EXHIBIT 2.6. Single-Item Drug Screener

How many times in the past year have you used an illegal drug or a prescription medication for nonmedical reasons?

(A positive screen is 1 or more days.)

Reprinted with permission.³⁹

EXHIBIT 2.7. Two-Item Drug Use Disorder Screener for Primary Care Clinics Serving U.S. Veterans

Question 1: How many days in the past 12 months have you used drugs other than alcohol? (A positive screen is 7 or more days.) If fewer than 7, proceed with Question 2.

Question 2: How many days in the past 12 months have you used drugs more than you meant to? (A positive screen is 2 or more days.)

Adapted with permission.⁴⁰

The Alcohol, Smoking, and Substance Involvement Screening Test (ASSIST) screens patients for all categories of substance misuse, including alcohol and tobacco. This World Health Organization (WHO) screener also assesses substance-specific risk. The ASSIST's length and rather complex scoring system have hindered its adoption, but a computerized version and a briefer hard copy version (ASSIST-lite) make its use more efficient.^{37,38} (See the "Screening, Assessment, and Drug Testing

The TIP expert panel does not recommend routine universal drug testing with urine, blood, or oral fluids in primary care. Still, drug testing can confirm recent drug use in patients receiving diagnostic workups for changes in mental status, seizures, or other disorders. Conduct drug testing before patients start OUD medication and during treatment for monitoring.

Resources" section for a link to a modified version of the ASSIST.)

Follow up any positive one-question screen with a brief assessment. An example of a two-step screening and brief assessment is the Tobacco, Alcohol, Prescription Medications, and Other Substance Use (TAPS Tool; see Part 2 Appendix), developed and tested in primary care settings.⁴¹ This tool is based on the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) Quick Screen V1.0^{42,43} and a modified WHO ASSIST-lite.⁴⁴

The TAPS Tool screens for clinically relevant heroin and prescription opioid misuse (meeting one or more DSM-5 SUD criteria) and misuse of an array of other substances in primary care patients. However, it may also detect SUDs only for the most often-used substances (i.e., alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana). Patients with positive screens for heroin or prescription opioid misuse need more in-depth assessment.⁴⁵

Assessment

Determine the Need for and Extent of Assessment

Assess patients for OUD if:

- They screen positive for opioid misuse.
- They disclose opioid misuse.
- Signs or symptoms of opioid misuse are present.

The extent of assessment depends on a provider's ability to treat patients directly.

If a provider does not offer pharmacotherapy, the focus should be on medical assessment, making a diagnosis of OUD, and patient safety. This allows the provider to refer patients to the appropriate level of treatment. The provider can also conduct:

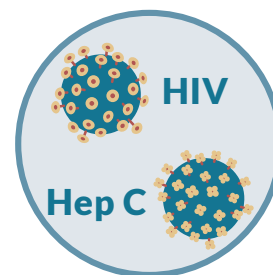
- Assessment and treatment for co-occurring medical conditions or mental disorders.
- Motivational brief interventions to promote safer behavior and foster effective treatment engagement.
- Overdose prevention education and provide a naloxone prescription.
- Education for patients who inject drugs on how to access sterile injecting equipment.
- An in-person follow-up, regardless of referral to specialty treatment.

If the provider offers pharmacotherapy, the patient needs more comprehensive assessment, including:

- A review of the prescription drug monitoring program (PDMP).
- A history, including a review of systems.
- A targeted physical exam for signs of opioid withdrawal, intoxication, injection, and other medical consequences of misuse.
- Determination of OUD diagnosis and severity.
- Appropriate laboratory tests (e.g., urine or oral fluid drug tests, liver function tests, hepatitis B and C tests, HIV tests).⁴⁶

OPIOID ADDICTION

is linked with significant **MORBIDITY** and **MORTALITY** related to HIV and hepatitis C.⁴⁷



A comprehensive assessment is intended to:

- Establish the diagnosis of OUD.
- Determine the severity of OUD.
- Identify contraindicated medications.
- Indicate other medical conditions to address during treatment.
- Identify mental and social issues to address.

Set the Stage for Successful Assessment

The medical setting should create a welcoming environment that is nonjudgmental, respectful, and empathetic. Many patients with OUD are reluctant to discuss their opioid use in medical settings.⁴⁸ A welcoming environment can help patients feel safe disclosing facts they may find embarrassing.⁴⁹ Motivational interviewing strategies, such as asking open-ended questions, foster successful assessment.⁵⁰ (Refer to TIP 34, *Brief Interventions and Brief Therapies for Substance Abuse*, for more specific examples of interview questions and responses.)⁵¹

Staff should explore patients' ambivalence and highlight problem areas to help them find motivations for change. Almost all patients have some ambivalence about their opioid use. They will find some aspects pleasant and



Open-ended, thought-provoking questions encourage patients to explore their own experiences. Ask questions like “In what ways has oxycodone affected your life?” or “What could you do to prevent infections like this in the future?” Closed-ended questions with yes/no answers—like “Has oxycodone caused your family trouble?”—can seem judgmental to patients who already feel ashamed and defensive. Closed-ended questions don’t help patients become aware of and express their own circumstances and motivations, nor do they encourage patients to identify what they see as the consequences of their substance use.

beneficial, but others problematic, painful, or destructive. By exploring that ambivalence and highlighting problem areas, providers can help patients discover their own motivations for change. *Motivational Interviewing: Helping People Change*⁵² discusses specific applications of motivational interviewing in health care.

Take a Complete History

Staff should prioritize medical, mental health, substance use, and SUD treatment histories. When obtaining patient histories, staff should address these domains before starting treatment. As providers and staff build trust over future visits, they can get into more detailed elements of the assessment.

Medical history

Taking a complete medical history of patients with OUD is critical, as it is for patients with any other medical condition treatable with pharmacotherapy. Asking about patients’ medical/surgical history can:

- Reveal medical effects of substance use (e.g., endocarditis, soft tissue infection, hepatitis B or C, HIV infection) that may need treatment.

- Highlight consequences that motivate change.
- Identify medical issues (e.g., severe liver disease) that contraindicate or alter dosing approaches for OUD pharmacotherapies.
- Reveal chronic pain issues.
- Help providers consider interactions among various medications and other substances.

Exhibit 2.8 lists medical problems associated with opioid misuse.

Mental health history

Assessing for comorbid mental illness is critical. Mental illness is prevalent among people with SUDs; it can complicate their treatment and worsen their prognosis. In one study, nearly 20 percent of primary care patients with OUD had major depression.⁵³ SUDs can also mimic or induce depression and anxiety disorders. Although substance-induced depression and anxiety disorders may improve with abstinence, they may still require treatment in their own right after a period of careful observation.⁵⁴ Take a history of the relationship between a patient’s psychiatric symptoms and periods of substance use and abstinence. Treatment for mental disorders and SUDs can occur concurrently.

Substance use history

Substance use histories can help gauge OUD severity, inform treatment planning, clarify potential drug interactions, and highlight the negative consequences of patients’ opioid use.

To help determine the severity of patients’ substance use, explore historical features of their use, like:

- Age at first use.
- Routes of ingestion (e.g., injection).
- History of tolerance, withdrawal, drug mixing, and overdose.

Histories should also explore current patterns of use,⁵⁵ which inform treatment planning and include:

- Which drugs patients use.



EXHIBIT 2.8. Medical Problems Associated With Opioid Misuse⁵⁶

CATEGORY	POSSIBLE COMPLICATIONS
Cancer	Injection drug use: Hepatocellular carcinoma related to hepatitis C
Cardiovascular	Injection drug use: Endocarditis, septic thrombophlebitis
Endocrine/metabolic	Opioids: Osteopenia, hypogonadism, erectile dysfunction, decreased sperm motility, menstrual irregularity including amenorrhea, infertility
Hematologic	Injection drug use/sharing intranasal use equipment: Hematologic consequences of liver disease from hepatitis C, hepatitis C-related cryoglobulinemia and purpura
Hepatic	Injection drug use/sharing intranasal use equipment: Hepatitis B, C, D; infectious and toxic hepatitis
Infectious	Opioids: Aspiration pneumonia, sexually transmitted infections Injection drug use: Endocarditis, cellulitis, necrotizing fasciitis, pneumonia, septic thrombophlebitis, mycotic aneurysm, septic arthritis (unusual joints, such as sternoclavicular), osteomyelitis (including vertebral), epidural and brain abscess, abscesses and soft tissue infections, mediastinitis, malaria, tetanus, hepatitis B, hepatitis C, hepatitis D, HIV, botulism
Neurologic	Opioids: Seizure (overdose and hypoxia), compression neuropathy (following overdose), sleep disturbances
Nutritional	Opioids: Protein malnutrition
Other gastrointestinal	Opioids: Constipation, ileus, intestinal pseudo-obstruction, sphincter of Oddi spasm, nausea
Pulmonary	Opioids: Respiratory depression/failure, bronchospasm, exacerbation of sleep apnea, noncardiogenic pulmonary edema, bullae Injection drug use: Pulmonary hypertension, talc granulomatosis, septic pulmonary embolism, pneumothorax, emphysema, needle embolization
Renal	Opioids: Rhabdomyolysis, acute renal failure (not direct toxic effect of opioids but secondary to central nervous system depression and resulting complications), factitious hematuria Injection drug use: Focal glomerular sclerosis (HIV, heroin), glomerulonephritis from hepatitis or endocarditis, chronic renal failure, amyloidosis, nephrotic syndrome (hepatitis C)

- Comorbid alcohol and tobacco use.
- Frequency, recency, and intensity of use.

To diagnose an SUD, assess patients' negative consequences of use, which can affect:

- Physical health.
- Mental health.

- Family relationships.
- Work/career status.
- Legal involvement.
- Housing status.

Buprenorphine and methadone can cause complications for patients who misuse or have



SUDs involving alcohol or benzodiazepines. Providers should take specific histories on the use of these substances.

SUD treatment history

Information about a patient's past efforts to get treatment or quit independently can inform treatment planning. The same is true for details about the events and behaviors that led to a patient's return to substance use after periods of abstinence and remission of SUD. Similarly, identifying the features of successful quit attempts can help guide treatment plan decisions. Such features may involve:

- Specific treatment settings.
- Use of support groups.
- Previous responses to OUD medications.

Social history

Information about a patient's social environments and relationships can aid treatment planning. Social factors that may influence treatment engagement and retention, guide treatment planning, and affect prognosis include:

- Transportation and child care needs.
- Adequacy and stability of housing.
- Criminal justice involvement.
- Employment status and quality of work environment.
- Close/ongoing relationships with people with SUDs.
- Details about drug use from people the patient lives or spends time with (obtained with patient's consent).
- Sexual orientation, identity, and history, including risk factors for HIV/sexually transmitted infections.
- Safety of the home environment. Substance misuse substantially increases the risk of intimate partner violence; screen all women presenting for treatment for domestic violence.⁵⁷

Family history

Learn the substance use histories of patients' parents, siblings, partners, and children. One

Understanding patients' motivations for change can be more useful than assessing "readiness" for change.

Patients coerced into treatment—such as through parole and probation or drug courts—are as likely to succeed in treatment as patients engaging voluntarily. Readiness fluctuates and depends on context. Helping patients explore why they want to change their drug use can motivate them and prepare their providers to support them during assessment and treatment.

of the strongest risk factors for developing SUDs is having a parent with an SUD. Genetic factors, exposure to substance use in the household during childhood, or both can contribute to the development of SUDs.⁵⁸

Conduct a Physical Examination

Perform a physical exam as soon as possible if recent exam records aren't accessible.

Assess for:

- Opioid intoxication or withdrawal.
- Physical signs of opioid use.
- Medical consequences of opioid use.

Exhibit 2.9 provides an overview of physical and mental status findings for opioid intoxication.

EXHIBIT 2.9. Signs of Opioid Intoxication

Physical findings

Drowsy but arousable
Sleeping intermittently ("nodding off")
Constricted pupils

Mental status findings

Slurred speech
Impaired memory or concentration
Normal to euphoric mood



PATIENT TESTIMONY

Opioid Withdrawal

“Severe opioid withdrawal isn’t something I’d wish on my worst enemy. The last time I went cold turkey, I was determined to come off all the way. The physical symptoms were just the tip of the iceberg. My mind was a nightmare that I thought I would never wake up from. There were times when I was almost convinced that dying would be better than what I was feeling. I did not experience a moment of ease for the first 3 months, and it was 6 months until I started to feel normal.”

Opioid withdrawal

Opioid withdrawal can be extremely uncomfortable. Symptoms are similar to experiencing gastroenteritis, severe influenza, anxiety, and dysphoria concurrently.

Severity of withdrawal can indicate a patient’s level of physical dependence and can inform medication choices and dosing decisions. The duration of withdrawal depends on the specific opioid from which the patient is withdrawing and can last 1 to 4 weeks. After the initial withdrawal phase is complete, many patients experience a prolonged phase of dysphoria, craving, insomnia, and hyperalgesia that can last for weeks or months.

Assess opioid withdrawal in the physical exam by noting physical signs and symptoms (Exhibit 2.10). Structured measures (e.g., Clinical Opiate Withdrawal Scale [COWS]; Clinical Institute Narcotic Assessment Scale for Withdrawal Symptoms) can help standardize documentation of signs and symptoms to support diagnosis, initial management, and treatment planning. See the “Resources” section for links to standardized

EXHIBIT 2.10. Physical Signs of Opioid Withdrawal and Time to Onset

STAGE	GRADE	PHYSICAL SIGNS/ SYMPTOMS
Early withdrawal Short-acting opioids: 8–24 hours after last use Long-acting opioids: Up to 36 hours after last use	Grade 1	Lacrimation, rhinorrhea, or both Diaphoresis Yawning Restlessness Insomnia
Early withdrawal Short-acting opioids: 8–24 hours after last use Long-acting opioids: Up to 36 hours after last use	Grade 2	Dilated pupils Piloerection Muscle twitching Myalgia Arthralgia Abdominal pain
Fully developed withdrawal Short-acting opioids: 1–3 days after last use Long-acting opioids: 72–96 hours after last use	Grade 3	Tachycardia Hypertension Tachypnea Fever Anorexia or nausea Extreme restlessness
Fully developed withdrawal Short-acting opioids: 1–3 days after last use Long-acting opioids: 72–96 hours after last use	Grade 4	Diarrhea, vomiting, or both Dehydration Hyperglycemia Hypotension Curled-up position

Total duration of withdrawal:

- Short-acting opioids: 7–10 days
- Long-acting opioids: 14 days or more

scales. Part 3 of this TIP covers withdrawal symptom documentation for pharmacotherapy initiation.

**The physical signs of opioid misuse vary depending on the route of ingestion:**

- Patients who primarily smoke or sniff (“snort”) opioids or take them orally often have few physical signs of use other than signs of intoxication and withdrawal. However, snorting can cause congestion and damage nasal mucosa.
- Patients who inject opioids may develop:
 - Sclerosis or scarring of the veins and needle marks, or “track marks,” in the arms, legs, hands, neck, or feet (intravenous use).
 - Edema in the foot, hand, or both (common in injection use, but may occur in oral use).
 - Abscesses or cellulitis.
 - Jaundice, caput medusa, palmar erythema, spider angiomas, or an enlarged or hardened liver secondary to liver disease.
 - Heart murmur secondary to endocarditis.

Obtain Appropriate Laboratory Tests***Urine or oral fluid drug testing***

Urine or oral fluid drug testing is useful before initiating OUD pharmacotherapy. Testing establishes a baseline of substances the patient has used so that the provider can monitor the patient’s response to treatment over time. Testing for a range of commonly used substances helps confirm patient histories, facilitates discussion of recent drug use and symptoms, and aids in diagnosing and determining severity of SUDs. Drug testing is an important tool in the diagnosis and treatment of addiction. A national guideline on the use of drug testing is available from ASAM.⁵⁹ Exhibit 2.11 provides guidance on talking with patients about drug testing.

During ongoing pharmacotherapy with buprenorphine or methadone, drug testing can confirm medication adherence.

EXHIBIT 2.11. Patient–Provider Dialog: Talking About Drug Testing

Frame drug testing in a clinical, nonpunitive way. For example, before obtaining a drug test, ask the patient, “What do you think we’ll find on this test?” The patient’s response is often quite informative and may make the patient less defensive than confrontation with a positive test result.

SCENARIO: A provider discusses urine drug testing with a patient being assessed for OUD treatment with medication.

Provider: When we assess patients for medication for opioid addiction, we always check urine samples for drugs.

Patient: I’ll tell you if I used. You don’t need to test me.

Provider: Thank you, I really appreciate that. The more we can talk about what’s going on with you, the more I can help. I’m not checking the urine to catch you or because I don’t trust you. I trust you. I can see how motivated you are. But I don’t trust the addiction because I know how powerful addiction can be, too. To monitor your safety on medication and help determine what other services you may need, it’s important for us to test you periodically and discuss the results. Does that sound okay?

Patient: Yeah, that makes sense.



To assess and manage patients with OUD properly, providers must know which tests to order and how to interpret results. There are many drug testing panels; cutoffs for positive results vary by laboratory. One widely used panel, the NIDA-5, tests for cannabinoids, cocaine, amphetamines, opiates, and phencyclidine. Additional testing for benzodiazepines, the broader category of opioids, and specific drugs commonly used in the patient's locality may be warranted. The typical opioid immunoassay will only detect morphine, which is a metabolite of heroin, codeine, and some other opioids. The typical screen will not detect methadone, buprenorphine, or fentanyl and may not detect hydrocodone, hydromorphone, or oxycodone. Specific testing is needed to identify these substances.

Co-occurring SUDs require separate, specific treatment plans.

Testing for substances that can complicate OUD pharmacotherapy is essential. Testing for cocaine, benzodiazepines, and methamphetamine is clinically important because these and other substances (and related SUDs, which may require treatment in their own right), especially benzodiazepines, can complicate pharmacotherapy for OUD. Benzodiazepine and other sedative misuse can increase the risk of overdose among patients treated with opioid agonists. When assessing benzodiazepine use, note that typical benzodiazepine urine immunoassays will detect diazepam but perhaps not lorazepam or clonazepam. Providers must specifically request testing for these two benzodiazepines. Exhibit 2.12 shows urine drug testing windows of detection.

EXHIBIT 2.12. Urine Drug Testing Window of Detection^{60,61}

DRUG	POSITIVE TEST	WINDOW OF DETECTION*	COMMENTS
Amphetamine; methamphetamine; 3,4-methylenedioxy-methamphetamine	Amphetamine	1–2 days	False positives with bupropion, chlorpromazine, desipramine, fluoxetine, labetalol, promethazine, ranitidine, pseudoephedrine, trazadone, and other common medications. Confirm unexpected positive results with the laboratory.
Barbiturates	Barbiturates	Up to 6 weeks	N/A
Benzodiazepines	Benzodiazepines	1–3 days; up to 6 weeks with heavy use of long-acting benzodiazepines	Immunoassays may not be sensitive to therapeutic doses, and most immunoassays have low sensitivity to clonazepam and lorazepam. Check with your laboratory regarding sensitivity and cutoffs. False positives with sertraline or oxaprozin.

*Detection time may vary depending on the cutoff.

Continued on next page

**EXHIBIT 2.12. Urine Drug Testing Window of Detection (continued)**

DRUG	POSITIVE TEST	WINDOW OF DETECTION*	COMMENTS
Buprenorphine	Buprenorphine	3–4 days	Will screen negative on opiate screen. Tramadol can cause false positives. Can be tested for specifically.
Cocaine	Cocaine, benzoylecgonine	2–4 days; 10–22 days with heavy use	N/A
Codeine	Morphine, codeine, high-dose hydrocodone	1–2 days	Will screen positive on opiate immunoassay.
Fentanyl	Fentanyl	1–2 days	Will screen negative on opiate screen. Can be tested for specifically. May not detect all fentanyl-like substances. ⁶²
Heroin	Morphine, codeine	1–2 days	Will screen positive on opiate immunoassay. 6-monoacetylmorphine, a unique metabolite of heroin, is present in urine for about 6 hours. Can be tested for specifically to distinguish morphine from heroin, but this is rarely clinically useful.
Hydrocodone	Hydrocodone, hydromorphone	2 days	May screen negative on opiate immunoassay. Can be tested for specifically.
Hydromorphone	May not be detected	1–2 days	May screen negative on opiate immunoassay. Can be tested for specifically.
Marijuana	Tetrahydrocannabinol	Infrequent use of 1–3 days; chronic use of up to 30 days	False positives possible with efavirenz, ibuprofen, and pantoprazole.
Methadone	Methadone	2–11 days	Will screen negative on opiate screen. Can be tested for specifically.
Morphine	Morphine, hydromorphone	1–2 days	Will screen positive on opiate immunoassay. Ingestion of poppy plant/seed may screen positive.
Oxycodone	Oxymorphone	1–1.5 days	Typically screens negative on opiate immunoassay. Can be tested for specifically.

*Detection time may vary depending on the cutoff.



Positive opioid tests can confirm recent use. Document recent use before starting patients on buprenorphine or methadone. Positive methadone or buprenorphine tests are expected for patients receiving these treatments. **Positive opioid tests contraindicate starting naltrexone.**

Negative opioid test results require careful interpretation. A patient may test negative for opioids despite presenting with opioid withdrawal symptoms if he or she hasn't used opioids for several days. A negative opioid test in the absence of symptoms of opioid withdrawal likely indicates that the patient has little or no opioid tolerance, which is important information for assessment and treatment planning. Consider that the opioid the patient reports using may not be detected on the particular immunoassay.

Screening tests are not definitive; false positive and false negative test results are possible. Confirmatory testing should follow all unexpected positive screens. Urine drug testing will detect metabolites from many prescription opioids but miss others, so it is easy to misinterpret results in patients taking these medications.⁶³ False positives are also common in amphetamine testing.⁶⁴

Point-of-service testing provides the opportunity to discuss results with patients immediately. However, cutoffs for positive screens are not standardized across point-of-service tests. Know the specifications of the screens used.⁶⁵

Other laboratory tests

Patients with OUD, particularly those who inject drugs, are at risk for liver disease and blood-borne viral infections. Pregnancy is another important consideration in determining treatment course. **Recommended laboratory tests for patients with OUD include:**

Pregnancy testing, which is important because:

- It is not advisable for patients to start naltrexone during pregnancy.
- Pregnant women treated for active OUD typically receive buprenorphine or methadone.

- The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists and a recent SAMHSA-convened expert panel on the treatment of OUD in pregnancy⁶⁶ recommend that pregnant women with OUD receive opioid receptor agonist pharmacotherapy.⁶⁷
- Providers should refer pregnant women to prenatal care or, if qualified, provide it themselves.

Liver function tests (e.g., aspartate aminotransferase, alanine aminotransferase, bilirubin), which can:

- Guide medication selection and dosing.
- Rule out severe liver disease, which may contraindicate OUD medication (see Part 3 of this TIP).

Hepatitis B and C serology, which can indicate:

- Patients with positive tests (evaluate for hepatitis treatment).
- The need to administer hepatitis A and B and tetanus vaccines, if appropriate.

HIV serology, which can help identify:

- Patients who are HIV positive (evaluate for antiretroviral treatment).
- Patients who are HIV negative (evaluate for preexposure prophylaxis and targeted education).

Review the PDMP

Before initiating OUD medication, providers should check their states' PDMPs to determine whether their patients receive prescriptions for controlled substances from other healthcare professionals. Using the PDMP improves the ability to manage the risks of controlled substances and to identify potentially harmful drug interactions.⁶⁸ Although OTPs are not permitted to report methadone treatment to PDMPs, pharmacies that dispense buprenorphine and other controlled substances do report to PDMPs. Medications that need monitoring and required frequency of updates vary by state (for more information about state PDMPs, visit www.pdmpassist.org/content/state-profiles).



Determine Diagnosis and Severity of OUD

Use DSM-5 criteria to make an OUD diagnosis

(Exhibit 2.13).⁶⁹ Patients who meet two or three criteria have mild OUD. Those meeting four or five criteria have moderate OUD, and those meeting six or more criteria have severe OUD.⁷⁰ A printable checklist of DSM-5⁷¹ criteria is available in the Part 2 Appendix.

Treatment Planning or Referral

Making Decisions About Treatment

Start by sharing the diagnosis with patients and hearing their feedback. Patients with OUD need to make several important treatment decisions:

- Whether to begin medication to treat OUD.
- What type of OUD medication to take.

RESOURCE ALERT

Shared Decision-Making Tool for Patients and Family Members

SAMHSA's online shared decision-making tool for patients is a good information source for patients to review before their visit or in the office (<http://brsstacs.com/Default.aspx>). In addition, providers can suggest that family, friends, and other potential recovery supports (e.g., 12-Step program sponsors, employers, clergy) read educational material tailored for them. See *Medication-Assisted Treatment for Opioid Addiction: Facts for Families and Friends* <http://mha.ohio.gov/Portals/0/assets/Initiatives/GCOAT/SMA14-4443.pdf>.

EXHIBIT 2.13. DSM-5 Criteria for OUD⁷²

A problematic pattern of opioid use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:

1. Opioids are often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period of time than was intended.
2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control opioid use.
3. A great deal of time is spent in activities to obtain the opioid, use the opioid, or recover from its effects.
4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use opioids.
5. Recurrent opioid use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
6. Continued opioid use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused by or exacerbated by the effects of opioids.
7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of opioid use.
8. Recurrent opioid use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
9. Continued opioid use despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that's likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the substance.
10. Tolerance,* as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of opioids to achieve intoxication or desired effect
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of an opioid
11. Withdrawal,* as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic opioid withdrawal syndrome
 - b. The same—or a closely related—substance is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms

*This criterion is not met for individuals taking opioids solely under appropriate medical supervision.
Severity: mild = 2–3 symptoms; moderate = 4–5 symptoms; severe = 6 or more symptoms



- Where and how to access desired treatment.
- Whether to access potentially beneficial mental health, recovery support, and other ancillary services, whether or not they choose pharmacotherapy.

Offer information to patients about the various treatments for OUD and collaborate with them to make decisions about treatment plans or referrals (Exhibit 2.14). Consider discussing:

- Indications, risks, and benefits of medications and alternatives to pharmacotherapy.
- Types of settings that deliver medications (including healthcare professionals' own practice locations, if applicable).
- Availability of and accessibility to treatment (i.e., transportation).
- Alternative treatments without medication (e.g., residential treatment, which often offers medically supervised opioid withdrawal).
- Costs of treatment with OUD medication, including insurance coverage and affordability.

Give patients' expressed preferences significant weight when making decisions. Patient characteristics can't reliably predict greater likelihood of success with one approved medication or another. For detailed information on medications to treat OUD, refer to Part 3 of this TIP.

Strategies to engage patients in shared decision making include:

- Indicating to patients a desire to collaborate with them to find the best medication and treatment setting for them.
- Including family members in the treatment planning process, if possible (and only with patients' consent).
- Exploring what patients already know about treatment options and dispelling misconceptions.
- Offering information on medications and their side effects, benefits, and risks (Exhibit 2.14; Part 3).

Part 1 of this TIP gives an overview of the three FDA-approved medications used to treat OUD. Part 3 covers the details of their use.

- Informing patients of the requirements of the various treatment options (e.g., admission criteria to an OTP; frequency of visits to an OBOT or OTP).
- Offering options, giving recommendations after deliberation, and supporting patients' informed decisions.

Understanding Treatment Settings and Services

Support patient preferences for treatment settings and services. Some patients prefer to receive OUD medication via physicians' offices. Others choose outpatient treatment programs that provide opioid receptor agonist treatment for medically supervised withdrawal (with or without naltrexone) or for ongoing opioid receptor agonist maintenance treatment. Still others may want OUD treatment in a residential program with or without pharmacotherapy (Exhibit 2.15).

Many patients initially form a preference for a certain treatment without knowing all the risks, benefits, and alternatives. Providers should ensure that patients understand the risks and benefits of all options. Without this understanding, patients can't give truly informed consent.

Outpatient OUD Treatment Settings

Refer patients who prefer treatment with methadone or buprenorphine via an OTP and explain that:

- They will have to visit the program from 6 to 7 times per week at first.
- Additional methadone take-home doses are possible at every 90 days of demonstrated progress in treatment.
- Buprenorphine take-home doses are not bound by the same limits as methadone.



EXHIBIT 2.14. Comparison of OUD Medications To Guide Shared Decision Making

CATEGORY	BUPRENORPHINE	METHADONE	NALTREXONE
Appropriate patients	Typically for patients with OUD who are physiologically dependent on opioids	Typically for patients with OUD who are physiologically dependent on opioids and who meet federal criteria for OTP admission	Typically for patients with OUD who are abstinent from short-acting opioids for 7 days and long-acting opioids for 10–14 days
Outcome: Retention in treatment	Higher than treatment without medication and treatment with placebo ⁷³	Higher than treatment without OUD medication and treatment with placebo ⁷⁴	Treatment retention with oral naltrexone is no better than with placebo or no medication; ⁷⁵ for XR-NTX, treatment retention is higher than for treatment without OUD medication and treatment with placebo; ^{76,77} treatment retention is lower than with opioid receptor agonist treatment
Outcome: Suppression of illicit opioid use	Effective	Effective	Effective
Outcome: Overdose mortality	Lower for people in treatment than for those not in it	Lower for people in treatment than for those not in it	Unknown
Location/frequency of office visits	Office/clinic: Begins daily to weekly, then tailored to patient's needs OTP: Can treat with buprenorphine 6–7 days/week initially; take-homes are allowed without the time-in-treatment requirements of methadone	OTP only: 6–7 days/week initially; take-homes are allowed based on time in treatment and patient progress	Office/clinic: Varies from weekly to monthly
Who can prescribe/order?	Physicians, NPs,* and PAs* possessing federal waiver can prescribe and dispense; can be dispensed by a community pharmacy or an OTP	OTP physicians order the medication; nurses and pharmacists administer and dispense it	Physicians, NPs,* and PAs*

*NPs and PAs should check with their state to determine whether prescribing buprenorphine, naltrexone, or both is within their allowable scope of practice.

Continued on next page



EXHIBIT 2.14. Comparison of OUD Medications To Guide Shared Decision Making (continued)

CATEGORY	BUPRENORPHINE	METHADONE	NALTREXONE
Administration	Sublingual/buccal; implant by specially trained provider, and only for stabilized patients	Oral	Oral or intramuscular (Note: Oral naltrexone is less effective than the other OUD medications.)
Misuse/diversion potential	Low in OTPs or other settings with observed dose administration; moderate for take-home doses; risk can be mitigated by providing take-homes to stable patients and a diversion control plan	Low in OTPs with directly observed therapy; moderate for take-home doses; risk can be mitigated by a diversion control plan	None
Sedation	Low unless concurrent substances are present (e.g., alcohol, benzodiazepines)	Low unless dose titration is too quick or dose is not adjusted for the presence of concurrent substances (e.g., alcohol, benzodiazepines)	None
Risk of medication-induced respiratory depression	Very rare; lower than methadone	Rare, although higher than buprenorphine; may be elevated during the first 2 weeks of treatment or in combination with other sedating substances	None
Risk of precipitated withdrawal when starting medication	Can occur if started too prematurely after recent use of other opioids	None	Severe withdrawal is possible if period of abstinence is inadequate before starting medication
Withdrawal symptoms on discontinuation	Present; lower than methadone if abruptly discontinued	Present; higher than buprenorphine if abruptly discontinued	None
Most common side effects	Constipation, vomiting, headache, sweating, insomnia, blurred vision	Constipation, vomiting, sweating, dizziness, sedation	Difficulty sleeping, anxiety, nausea, vomiting, low energy, joint and muscle pain, headache, liver enzyme elevation XR-NTX: Injection site pain, nasopharyngitis, insomnia, toothache

D. Coffa, December 2017 (personal communication). Adapted with permission.

EXHIBIT 2.15. Treatment Setting Based on Patient's Choice of OUD Medication

MEDICATION	POSSIBLE TREATMENT SETTING
Buprenorphine	Office-based treatment, outpatient or residential SUD treatment programs (prescriber must have a federal waiver), OTP
Methadone	OTP
Naltrexone	Office-based treatment, outpatient or residential SUD treatment programs, OTP

- Counseling and drug testing are required parts of OTP treatment.
- Some programs also offer case management, peer support, medical services, mental disorder treatment, and other services.

Try to arrange OTP intake appointments for patients before they leave the office. If no immediate openings are available, consider starting buprenorphine as a bridge or alternative to the OTP.

Gauge the appropriate intensity level for patients seeking non-OTP outpatient treatment for OUD. These programs range from low intensity (individual or group counseling once to a few times a week) to high intensity (2 or more hours a day of individual and group counseling several days a week). Appropriate treatment intensity depends on each patient's:⁷⁸

- Social circumstances.
- Severity of addiction.
- Personal preferences.
- Psychiatric/psychological needs.
- Ability to afford treatment at a given intensity.

Outpatient medical settings

Healthcare professionals cannot provide methadone in their clinics. Only those with a buprenorphine waiver can provide buprenorphine. Any healthcare professional with a license can provide naltrexone.

Once providers obtain the necessary waiver, they should offer buprenorphine treatment to all patients who present with OUD if such treatment is available and appropriate. Referring them to treatment elsewhere will likely result in delay or lack of patient access to care. Develop a treatment plan to determine where patients will receive continuing care (see the "Treatment Planning" section). Continue to provide naltrexone for patients who were already receiving it from some other setting (e.g., a prison, a specialty addiction treatment program) or for patients who meet opioid abstinence requirements and wish to take a medication for relapse prevention.

Residential drug treatment settings

Patients who have OUD, concurrent other substance use problems, unstable living situations, or a combination of the three may be appropriate candidates for residential treatment, which can last from a week to several weeks or more. Inform patients about the services and requirements typical of this treatment setting.

Some patients taking buprenorphine (or methadone) who have other SUDs, such as AUD or cocaine use disorder, can benefit from residential treatment. If such treatment is indicated, determine whether the residential program allows patients to continue their opioid receptor agonist medication while in treatment. Some residential programs require patients to discontinue these medications to receive residential treatment, which could destabilize patients and result in opioid overdose.

**Residential treatment programs typically provide:**

- Room and board.
- Recovery support.
- Counseling.
- Case management.
- Medically supervised withdrawal (in some programs).
- Starting buprenorphine or naltrexone (in some programs).
- Onsite mental health services (in some cases).
- Buprenorphine or methadone continuation for patients already enrolled in treatment prior to admission if their healthcare professionals have waivers or their OTP permits.

Transitioning out of residential settings requires careful planning. During a patient's stay in residential treatment, plan for his or her transition out of the program. A good transition plan maximizes the likelihood of continuity of care after discharge. Plans should also address overdose risk. Patients who are no longer

RESOURCE ALERT**Treatment and Provider Locator**

SAMHSA's Behavioral Health Treatment Services Locator (<https://findtreatment.samhsa.gov>) provides information on drug and alcohol treatment programs across states. Another SAMHSA tool identifies the locations of buprenorphine providers (www.samhsa.gov/medication-assisted-treatment/physician-program-data/treatment-physician-locator).

opioid tolerant are at heightened risk of opioid overdose if they don't get OUD medication at discharge. Providing XR-NTX, buprenorphine, or methadone during treatment and continuing the medication after discharge can help prevent return to opioid use after discharge. Providing a naloxone prescription and overdose prevention information is appropriate.

RESOURCE ALERT**Maintaining Confidentiality**

Providers who treat patients with addiction must know substance use-related disclosure rules and confidentiality requirements. SAMHSA's webpage lists frequently asked questions on substance use confidentiality and summarizes federal regulations about disclosure and patient records that federal programs maintain on addiction treatment (<https://www.samhsa.gov/about-us/who-we-are/laws-regulations/confidentiality-regulations-faqs>). Key points include:

- Confidentiality regulations prohibit specialty SUD treatment programs from sharing information with healthcare professionals about patients' SUD treatment without specific consent from patients.

- Referrals to other behavioral health services require consent for sharing information on treatment progress.
- Healthcare professionals should discuss confidentiality and consent with patients during the referral process.
- OUD pharmacotherapy prescribers may consider requiring patient consent for communicating with treatment programs as a condition of receiving OUD treatment.

Treatment program staff members can help identify returns to substance use, or risk of such, before the prescriber and can work with the prescriber to stabilize patients.



Determining OUD Service Intensity and Ensuring Follow-Through

Use ASAM placement criteria for guidance on selecting the right level of OUD treatment.

ASAM criteria define the level of care and key features that may make a given level (e.g., residential, intensive outpatient, standard outpatient) appropriate for a patient⁷⁹ (see the “Treatment Planning” section). To help patients select programs, note that some focus on specific populations (e.g., gender-specific programs; parents with children; lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning populations).

Make an appointment with the referral program during the patient’s visit rather than giving the patient a phone number to call. Follow up with the patient later to determine whether he or she kept the appointment. Doing so increases the chances of a successful referral.

Referring patients to behavioral health and support services

Discuss patients’ potential need for behavioral health, peer support, and other ancillary services, like:

- Drug and alcohol counseling.
- Mental health services.
- Case management.
- Mutual-help groups.
- Peer recovery support services.

Offer referrals to counseling and tailored psychosocial support to patients receiving OUD medication (Exhibit 2.16).

Drug Addiction Treatment Act of 2000 legislation requires that buprenorphine prescribers be able to refer patients to counseling, but making referrals is not mandatory.⁸⁰ Many patients benefit from referral to mental health services or specialized addiction counseling and recovery support services. However, four randomized trials found no extra benefit to adding adjunctive counseling to well-conducted medical management visits delivered by the

RESOURCE ALERT

Mutual-Support Groups

For an introduction to mutual-support groups, see SAMHSA’s *Substance Abuse in Brief*, “An Introduction to Mutual Support Groups for Alcohol and Drug Abuse” (<https://store.samhsa.gov/shin/content/SMA08-4336/SMA08-4336.pdf>).

buprenorphine prescriber. There is evidence of benefits to adding contingency management to pharmacotherapy.^{81,82,83,84,85}

Make referrals to mutual-help groups.

Patients may wish to participate in mutual-help groups (e.g., Alcoholics Anonymous, Narcotics Anonymous, Methadone Anonymous, Medication-Assisted Recovery Services, SMART Recovery) in addition to or instead of specialized treatment. These programs can be highly supportive, but they may pressure patients to stop taking OUD medication. If possible, refer patients to groups that welcome patients who take OUD medication.

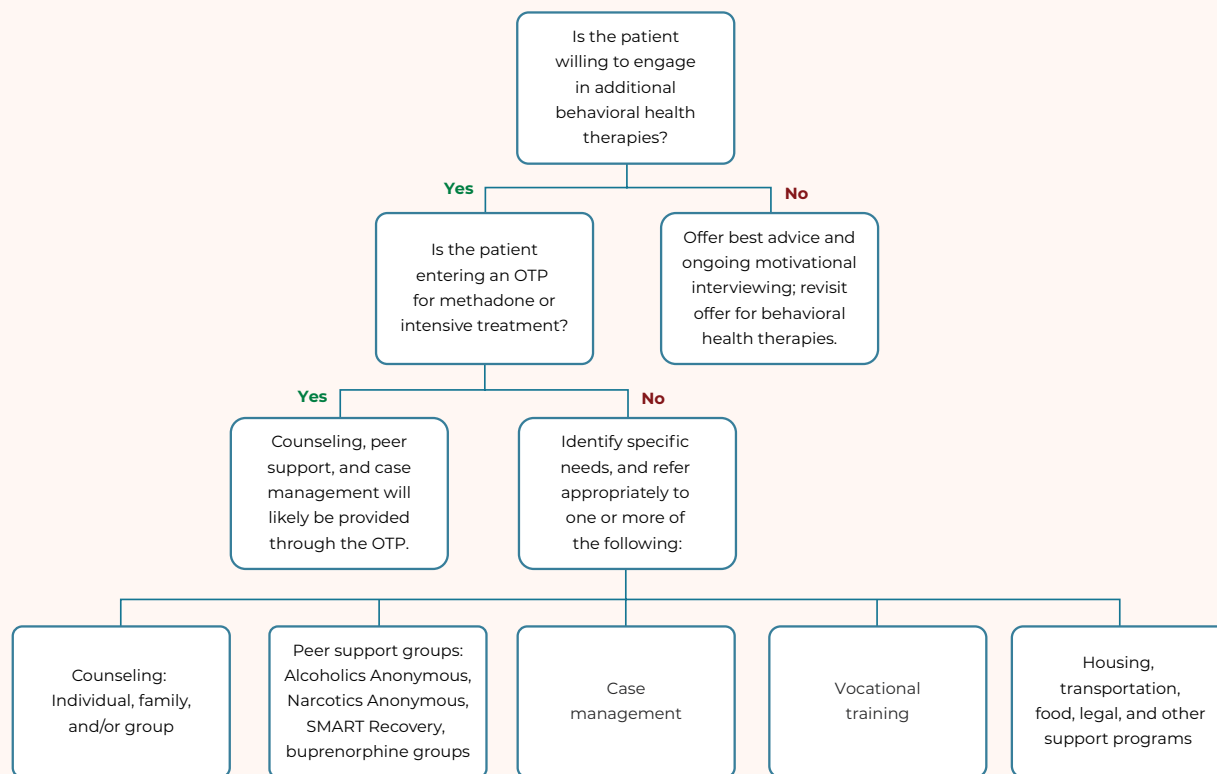
Make referrals to medical and mental health services. Respectful, consistent medical care can support patients’ efforts to recover from OUD and all other SUDs. As for any patient, providers should make appropriate referrals for patients with OUD to receive medical or mental health services beyond the providers’ own scope of practice.

Patients with depression, anxiety disorders, and other mental disorders may be more likely to succeed in addiction treatment if those conditions are managed.⁸⁶ If the severity or type of a patient’s psychiatric comorbidity is beyond a provider’s scope of practice, the provider should refer the patient to mental health services as appropriate.

Make referrals to ancillary services. Besides medical care and mental health services, OUD patients, like patients with other illnesses, may



EXHIBIT 2.16. Referring Patients Who Receive OUD Pharmacotherapy to Behavioral Health Therapies



RESOURCE ALERT

Guidance on Providing Integrated Care

Fragmented healthcare services are less likely to meet all patient needs. Integrated medical and behavioral healthcare delivery can effectively provide patient-focused, comprehensive treatments that address the full range of symptoms and service needs patients with OUD often have.⁸⁷ The key components of integration should be in place to make sure that SUD treatment in a primary care setting works. For more information about how to provide integrated services for individuals taking medication for OUD, see:

- The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality's report *Medication-Assisted Treatment Models of Care for Opioid Use Disorder in Primary Care Settings*. (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK402352).
- The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality's Academy for Integrating Behavioral Mental Health and Primary Care. (<https://integrationacademy.ahrq.gov>).
- SAMHSA's Center for Integrated Health Solutions' Resource Library for providing integrated care. (www.samhsa.gov/integrated-health-solutions/resource-library?combine=substance+abuse&=Apply%20or%20https://www.samhsa.gov/integrated-health-solutions).



OPPORTUNITY ALERT

Becoming an OUD Medication Treatment Provider

SAMHSA strongly urges physicians, NPs, and PAs to obtain waivers that will qualify them to offer buprenorphine pharmacotherapy. They can become qualified to use buprenorphine to taper appropriate patients with OUD off illicit or prescription opioids or to provide long-term OUD treatment.

Only healthcare professionals with a federal waiver may prescribe buprenorphine for the treatment of OUD. To get waivers, providers must meet set criteria, complete buprenorphine training (online or in person), and apply for a waiver from SAMHSA. Waivered prescribers

are assigned an additional DEA registration number (usually their existing number with an added “X”).

NPs and PAs need to meet additional criteria for waivers.⁸⁸

Check with the state licensing board about restrictions and requirements at the state level before applying for a waiver.

Waiver training: ASAM, the American Academy of Addiction Psychiatry, the American Psychiatric Association, and the American Osteopathic Academy of Addiction Medicine all provide the waiver training courses for physicians. Providers’ Clinical Support System for Medication

Assisted Treatment (PCSS-MAT) provides the required 8-hour OUD medication waiver course for physicians and 24-hour waiver course for NPs and PAs for free (<https://pcssmat.org/education-training/mat-waiver-training>). ASAM and others also provide NP and PA courses.

New prescribers can benefit from mentorship from experienced providers in their practice or community. Mentorship is available for free from PCSS-MAT (<http://pcssmat.org/mentoring>).

For detailed information on prescribing OUD medications, review Part 3 of this TIP.

need more support in some areas, including ancillary services such as:

- Case management.
- Food access.
- Vocational training.
- Housing.
- Transportation.
- Legal assistance.

Helping patients who are not ready to engage in OUD treatment

Help reluctant patients be safer and approach readiness. Patients may seem unwilling to discuss their drug use if they’re ashamed or fear being judged. Accepting, nonjudgmental attitudes help patients overcome shame and discuss concerns honestly while also instilling hope.

Every visit is a chance to help patients begin healthy changes and move toward treatment and recovery. Patients may not be ready to change right away. Successfully quitting drug use can take many attempts. Returns to substance use, even after periods of remission, are expected parts of the recovery process.

Patients with OUD are much more likely to die than their peers,^{89,90} and HIV, hepatitis C, and skin and soft tissue infections are common among this population. **Help reduce these OUD-related risks by educating patients** about:

- Using new syringes.
- Avoiding syringe sharing.
- Avoiding sharing other supplies during the injection process.
- Preventing opioid overdose (see the “Preventing Opioid-Related Overdose” section).



- Obtaining overdose prevention information and resources (e.g., *SAMHSA Opioid Overdose Prevention Toolkit* [<https://store.samhsa.gov/product/SAMHSA-Opioid-Overdose-Prevention-Toolkit/SMA16-4742>]).
- Obtaining naloxone and instructions for its use.

Refer patients to syringe exchange sites.

The North American Syringe Exchange Network provides options (see the “Syringe Exchange” section).

Preventing Opioid-Related Overdose

Every patient who misuses opioids or has OUD should receive opioid overdose prevention education and a naloxone prescription.⁹¹

Healthcare professionals should educate patients and their families about overdose risk, prevention, identification, and response (Exhibit 2.17). FDA has approved an autoinjectable naloxone device (Evzio) and a naloxone nasal spray (Narcan) for use by patients and others. For information about all forms of naloxone,

EXHIBIT 2.17. Opioid Overdose: Risk, Prevention, Identification, and Response**Overdose risk**

- Using heroin (possibly mixed with illicitly manufactured fentanyl or fentanyl analogs)
- Using prescription opioids that were not prescribed
- Using prescription opioids more frequently or at higher doses than prescribed
- Using opioids after a period of abstinence or reduced use (e.g., after medically supervised withdrawal or incarceration)
- Using opioids with alcohol, benzodiazepines, or both

Overdose prevention

- Don't use opioids that were not prescribed.
- Take medications only as prescribed.
- Don't use drugs when you are alone.
- Don't use multiple substances at once.
- Have naloxone available and make sure others know where it is and how to use it.
- Use a small “test dose” if returning to opioid use after a period of abstinence, if the substance appears altered, or if it has been acquired from an unfamiliar source. Beware: This doesn't guarantee safety; illicitly manufactured fentanyl or other substances may be present in the drug, and **any use may be fatal.**

Overdose identification

- Fingernails or lips are blue or purple.
- Breathing or heartbeat is slow or stopped.
- The person is vomiting or making gurgling noises.
- The person can't be awakened or is unable to speak.

Overdose response

- Call 9-1-1.
- Administer naloxone (more than one dose may be needed to restore adequate spontaneous breathing).
- Perform rescue breathing. If certified to provide cardiopulmonary resuscitation, perform chest compressions if there is no pulse.
- Put the person in the “recovery position,” on his or her side and with the mouth facing to the side to prevent aspiration of vomit, if he or she is breathing independently.
- Stay with the person until emergency services arrive. Naloxone's duration of action is 30–90 minutes. The person should be observed after this time for a return of opioid overdose symptoms.

Adapted from material in the public domain.⁹²



The United States is experiencing a death epidemic related to opioid overdose. Opioids (including prescription opioids and heroin) killed more than 33,000 people in 2015, more than in any prior year. Almost half of opioid overdose deaths involve prescription opioids. Since 2010, heroin overdose deaths have more than quadrupled.^{93,94} Overdose deaths from illicit fentanyl have risen sharply.⁹⁵

prescribing, and patient and community education, see the *SAMHSA Opioid Overdose Prevention Toolkit* (<https://store.samhsa.gov/product/SAMHSA-Opioid-Overdose-Prevention-Toolkit/SMA16-4742>).

Municipalities with community-based naloxone distribution programs have seen substantial decreases in opioid overdose death rates.^{96,97}

Many syringe exchange programs also dispense naloxone. For information and resources on prescribing naloxone for overdose prevention, including educational patient handouts and videos, see the “Opioid-Related Overdose Prevention” section.



Resources

The following selected resources address key content presented in Part 2. Part 5 of this TIP includes comprehensive resources on topics pertaining to substance misuse and medications to treat OUD.

Alcohol and Drug Use Screening

- **American Academy of Addiction Psychiatry:** Provides Performance in Practice Clinical Modules for screening of tobacco use and AUD. www.aaap.org/education-training/cme-opportunities
- **NIAAA, Professional Education Materials:** Provides links to screening, treatment planning, and general information for clinicians in outpatient programs. www.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/clinical-guides-and-manuals
- **NIDA, Medical and Health Professionals:** Provides resources for providers to increase awareness of the impact of substance use on patients' health and help identify drug use early and prevent it from escalating to misuse or addiction. www.drugabuse.gov/nidamed-medical-health-professionals

Tobacco Screening

- **American Psychiatric Nursing Association, Tobacco & Nicotine Use Screening Tools and Assessments:** Provides the Fagerström screening tools for nicotine dependence and smokeless tobacco and a screening checklist for tobacco use. www.apna.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageID=6150
- **U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Be Tobacco Free:** Provides information for individuals struggling with nicotine addiction and links for clinicians that provide guidance on caring for patients with nicotine addiction. <https://betobaccofree.hhs.gov/health-effects/nicotine-health>

- **U.S. Department of Health and Human Services' Million Hearts Initiative:** Provides templates for developing and guidance on implementing tobacco cessation programs and guidance on implementing them as part of clinical care. <https://millionhearts.hhs.gov/tools-protocols/protocols.html>
- **Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC):** Offers resources and information for patients and clinicians; includes a webpage with resource links for clinicians on treating tobacco dependence. www.cdc.gov/tobacco/index.htm and www.cdc.gov/tobacco/basic_information/related_links/index.htm

Buprenorphine Treatment Locator

- **SAMHSA, Buprenorphine Treatment Practitioner Locator:** Provides a state-by-state list of providers who offer buprenorphine. www.samhsa.gov/medication-assisted-treatment/physician-program-data/treatment-physician-locator

Buprenorphine Training, Mentorship, and Waivers

- **SAMHSA, Buprenorphine Waiver Management:** Provides information on buprenorphine waivers with links to waiver applications; explains waiver processes, requirements, and recordkeeping. www.samhsa.gov/medication-assisted-treatment/buprenorphine-waiver-management
- **SAMHSA, Buprenorphine Training for Physicians:** Provides links to organizations that train physicians on buprenorphine treatment. www.samhsa.gov/medication-assisted-treatment/training-resources/buprenorphine-physician-training
- **SAMHSA, Qualify for NPs and PAs Waiver:** Provides information for NPs and PAs about the buprenorphine waiver training, with links to trainings and the application process. www.samhsa.gov/medication-assisted-treatment/qualify-nps-pas-waivers



- **PCSS-MAT:** Provides buprenorphine waiver training and mentorship for healthcare professionals (physicians, NPs, and PAs); includes updates and other resources about medication for OUD. <http://pcssmat.org>

Medication Treatment for OUD

- **SAMHSA, Medication-Assisted Treatment of Opioid Use Disorder:** Provides a clinical pocket guide for medication treatment for OUD. <https://store.samhsa.gov/shin/content/SMA16-4892PG/SMA16-4892PG.pdf>
- **SAMHSA, MATx Mobile App to Support Medication-Assisted Treatment of OUD:** Provides a mobile app to support healthcare professionals providing medication treatment for OUD. <https://store.samhsa.gov/apps/mat>
- **SAMHSA, Advisory, Sublingual and Transmucosal Buprenorphine for Opioid Use Disorder: Review and Update:** Summarizes information on the use of buprenorphine to treat OUD. <https://store.samhsa.gov/product/Advisory-Sublingual-and-Transmucosal-Buprenorphine-for-Opioid-Use-Disorder-Review-and-Update/SMA16-4938>
- **SAMHSA, Clinical Use of Extended-Release Injectable Naltrexone in the Treatment of Opioid Use Disorder: A Brief Guide:** Provides a brief review of the use of XR-NTX. <https://store.samhsa.gov/product/Clinical-Use-of-Extended-Release-Injectable-Naltrexone-in-the-Treatment-of-Opioid-Use-Disorder-A-Brief-Guide/SMA14-4892R>
- **ASAM, The ASAM National Practice Guideline for the Use of Medications in the Treatment of Addiction Involving Opioid Use:** Provides national practice guidelines for the use of medications to treat OUD. www.asam.org/docs/default-source/practice-support/guidelines-and-consensus-docs/asam-national-practice-guideline-supplement.pdf
- **Department of Veterans Affairs/ Department of Defense, VA/DoD Clinical Practice Guideline for the Management of Substance Use Disorders:** Provides substance use disorder practice guidelines. www.healthquality.va.gov/guidelines/MH/sud/VADoDSUDCPGRevised22216.pdf
- **PCSS-MAT:** Provides training and mentorship for healthcare professionals (physicians, NPs, and PAs) on medications for OUD treatment including buprenorphine, naltrexone, and methadone. [https://pcssmat.org](http://pcssmat.org)

Syringe Exchange

- **North American Syringe Exchange Network:** Provides a national directory of syringe exchange programs in the United States. <https://nasen.org/directory>

Opioid-Related Overdose Prevention

- **Prescribe To Prevent:** Provides information about naloxone prescribing for overdose prevention, including educational patient handouts and videos. <http://prescribeto prevent.org>
- **SAMHSA Opioid Overdose Prevention Toolkit:** Provides healthcare professionals, communities, and local governments with material to develop practices and policies to help prevent opioid-related overdoses and deaths. It addresses issues for healthcare professionals, first responders, treatment providers, and those recovering from opioid overdose as well as their families. <https://store.samhsa.gov/product/SAMHSA-Opioid-Overdose-Prevention-Toolkit/SMA16-4742>
- **CDC—Injury Prevention and Overdose:** Provides links and tools for clinicians to help prevent opioid overdose deaths. <https://www.cdc.gov/drugoverdose/prevention/index.html>



- **NIDA, Opioid Overdose Reversal with Naloxone (Narcan, Evzio):** Provides naloxone information for providers. www.drugabuse.gov/related-topics/opioid-overdose-reversal-naloxone-narcan-evzio

Opioid Withdrawal Scales

- **WHO Guidelines for the Psychosocially Assisted Pharmacological Treatment of Opioid Dependence: Annex 10:** Provides COWS and other opioid withdrawal scales. www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK143183
- **The Clinical Institute Narcotic Assessment Scale for Withdrawal Symptoms:** Provides a scale that measures signs and symptoms observed in patients during withdrawal. www.ncpoep.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Appendix_7_Clinical_Institute_Narcotic_Assessment_CINA_Scale_for-Withdrawal_Symptoms.pdf

Patient and Family Education on Medications To Treat OUD

- **SAMHSA Store:** Provides patient and family educational resources about OUD and medication treatment for OUD; some resources are available in multiple languages, including Spanish. <https://store.samhsa.gov>
 - Buprenorphine. <https://store.samhsa.gov/product/The-Facts-about-Buprenorphine-for-Treatment-of-Opioid-Addiction/SMA15-4442>
 - Methadone. <https://store.samhsa.gov/product/What-Every-Individual-Needs-to-Know-About-Methadone-Maintenance/SMA06-4123>
- **ASAM Resources:** Provides patient and family education tools about addiction in general and OUD specifically.
 - Patient Resources. www.asam.org/resources/patientresources

- *Opioid Addiction Treatment: A Guide for Patients, Families, and Friends.* https://www.asam.org/docs/default-source/publications/asam-opioid-patient-piece-5bopt2-5d_3d.pdf

Referral and Treatment Locators

- **SAMHSA, OTP Directory:** Provides a state-by-state directory of methadone OTPs. <https://dpt2.samhsa.gov/treatment/directory.aspx>
- **SAMHSA, Behavioral Health Treatment Services Locator:** Provides a directory of treatment facilities. <https://findtreatment.samhsa.gov>
- **SAMHSA, Behavioral Health Treatment Services Locator—Self-Help, Peer Support, and Consumer Groups:** Provides a directory for mutual-help groups. <https://findtreatment.samhsa.gov/locator/link-focSelfGP>

Screening, Assessment, and Drug Testing Resources

- **NIDA, Screening, Assessment, and Drug Testing Resources:** Provides an evidence-based screening tool chart for adolescents and adults, drug use screening tool support materials, and a clinician resource and quick reference guide for drug screening in general medical settings, including a brief version of the ASSIST-lite. www.drugabuse.gov/nidamed-medical-health-professionals/tool-resources-your-practice/additional-screening-resources
- **ASAM, The ASAM Appropriate Use of Drug Testing in Clinical Addiction Medicine:** Discusses appropriate use of drug testing in identifying, diagnosing, and treating people with or at risk for SUDs. www.asam.org/quality-practice/guidelines-and-consensus-documents/drug-testing



Treatment Planning

- **The ASAM Criteria:** Provides criteria and a comprehensive set of guidelines for placement, continued stay, and transfer/discharge of patients with addiction and co-occurring conditions. The ASAM six-dimensional assessment tool is designed to guide treatment planning and offers a template to organize assessments and to determine level of care.⁹⁸ www.asam.org/quality-practice/guidelines-and-consensus-documents/the-asam-criteria
- **SAMHSA, Decisions in Recovery—Treatment for Opioid Use Disorder:** Provides an online interactive tool to support people with OUD in making informed decisions about their care. <https://archive.samhsa.gov/MAT-Decisions-in-Recovery>

An accompanying handbook is also available.

<https://store.samhsa.gov/product/Decisions-in-Recovery-Treatment-for-Opioid-Use-Disorders/SMA16-4993>

- **SAMHSA, TIP 42, Substance Abuse Treatment for Persons With Co-Occurring Disorders:** Provides comprehensive treatment guidance for individuals with co-occurring mental and substance use disorders. <https://store.samhsa.gov/shin/content//SMA13-3992/SMA13-3992.pdf>



Appendix

Stable Resource Toolkit

Audit-C – Overview

The AUDIT-C is a 3-item alcohol screen that can help identify persons who are hazardous drinkers or have active alcohol use disorders (including alcohol abuse or dependence). The AUDIT-C is a modified version of the 10 question AUDIT instrument.

Clinical Utility

The AUDIT-C is a brief alcohol screen that reliably identifies patients who are hazardous drinkers or have active alcohol use disorders.

Scoring

The AUDIT-C is scored on a scale of 0-12.

Each AUDIT-C question has 5 answer choices. Points allotted are:

a = 0 points, **b** = 1 point, **c** = 2 points, **d** = 3 points, **e** = 4 points

- **In men**, a score of 4 or more is considered positive, optimal for identifying hazardous drinking or active alcohol use disorders.
- **In women**, a score of 3 or more is considered positive (same as above).
- However, when the points are all from Question #1 alone (#2 & #3 are zero), it can be assumed that the patient is drinking below recommended limits and it is suggested that the provider review the patient's alcohol intake over the past few months to confirm accuracy.³
- Generally, the higher the score, the more likely it is that the patient's drinking is affecting his or her safety.

Psychometric Properties

For identifying patients with heavy/hazardous drinking and/or Active-DSM alcohol abuse or dependence

	MEN ¹	WOMEN ²
≥3	Sens: 0.95 / Spec. 0.60	Sens: 0.66 / Spec. 0.94
≥4	Sens: 0.86 / Spec. 0.72	Sens: 0.48 / Spec. 0.99

For identifying patients with active alcohol abuse or dependence

	MEN ¹	WOMEN ²
≥3	Sens: 0.90 / Spec. 0.45	Sens: 0.80 / Spec. 0.87
≥4	Sens: 0.79 / Spec. 0.56	Sens: 0.67 / Spec. 0.94

1. Bush K, Kivlahan DR, McDonnell MB, et al. The AUDIT Alcohol Consumption Questions (AUDIT-C): An effective brief screening test for problem drinking. *Arch Internal Med.* 1998 (3): 1789-1795.

2. Bradley KA, Bush KR, Epler AJ, et al. Two brief alcohol-screening tests from the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT): Validation in a female veterans affairs patient population. *Arch Internal Med* Vol 165, April 2003: 821-829.

3. Frequently Asked Questions guide to using the AUDIT-C can be found via the website:
<https://www.queri.research.va.gov/tools/alcohol-misuse/alcohol-faqs-print.cfm>

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AUDIT-C Questionnaire

Patient Name: _____ Dates of Visit: _____

1. How often do you have a drink containing alcohol?

- ☐ a. Never
- ☐ b. Monthly or less
- ☐ c. 2-4 times a month
- ☐ d. 2-3 times a week
- ☐ e. 4 or more times a week

2. How many standard drinks containing alcohol do you have on a typical day?

- ☐ a. 1 or 2
- ☐ b. 3 or 4
- ☐ c. 5 or 6
- ☐ d. 7 to 9
- ☐ e. 10 or more

3. How often do you have six or more drinks on one occasion?

- ☐ a. Never
- ☐ b. Less than monthly
- ☐ c. Monthly
- ☐ d. Weekly
- ☐ e. Daily or almost daily

AUDIT-C is available for use in the public domain.

Reprinted from material in the public domain.⁹⁹ Available online (https://www.integration.samhsa.gov/images/res/tool_auditc.pdf).



Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST-10)

General Instructions

"Drug use" refers to (1) the use of prescribed or over-the-counter drugs in excess of the directions, and (2) any nonmedical use of drugs. The various classes of drugs may include cannabis (i.e., marijuana, hashish), solvents (e.g., paint thinner), tranquilizers (e.g., Valium), barbiturates, cocaine, stimulants (e.g., speed), hallucinogens (e.g., LSD), or narcotics (e.g., heroin). The questions do not include alcoholic beverages.

Please answer every question. If you have trouble with a question, then choose the response that is mostly right.

Segment: _____ Visit Number: _____ Date of Assessment: ____/____/____

These questions refer to drug use in the past 12 months. Please answer No or Yes.

1.	Have you used drugs other than those required for medical reasons?	☐ No	☐ Yes
2.	Do you use more than one drug at a time?	☐ No	☐ Yes
3.	Are you always able to stop using drugs when you want to?	☐ No	☐ Yes
4.	Have you had "blackouts" or "flashbacks" as a result of drug use?	☐ No	☐ Yes
5.	Do you ever feel bad or guilty about your drug use?	☐ No	☐ Yes
6.	Does your spouse (or parents) ever complain about your involvement with drugs?	☐ No	☐ Yes
7.	Have you neglected your family because of your use of drugs?	☐ No	☐ Yes
8.	Have you engaged in illegal activities to obtain drugs?	☐ No	☐ Yes
9.	Have you ever experienced withdrawal symptoms (i.e., felt sick) when you stopped taking drugs?	☐ No	☐ Yes
10.	Have you had medical problems as a result of your drug use (e.g., memory loss, hepatitis, convulsions, bleeding)?	☐ No	☐ Yes

Comments:

Scoring

Score 1 point for each "Yes," except for question 3, for which a "No" receives 1 point.

DAST Score: _____

Interpretation of Score:

Score	Degree of Problems Related to Drug Abuse	Suggested Action
	No problems reported	None at this time
1–2	Low level	Monitor, reassess at a later date
3–5	Moderate level	Further investigation
6–8	Substantial level	Intensive assessment
9–10	Severe level	Intensive assessment

Adapted with permission.^{100,101}



DSM-5 Opioid Use Disorder Checklist¹⁰²

Patient's Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Worksheet for DSM-5 Criteria for Diagnosis of Opioid Use Disorder

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA (Opioid use disorder requires that at least 2 criteria be met within a 12-month period.)	MEETS CRITERIA? Yes OR No	NOTES/SUPPORTING INFORMATION
1. Opioids are often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period of time than intended.		
2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control opioid use.		
3. A lot of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the opioid, use the opioid, or recover from its effects.		
4. Craving, or a strong desire to use opioids.		
5. Recurrent opioid use resulting in failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.		
6. Continued opioid use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of opioids.		
7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of opioid use.		
8. Recurrent opioid use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.		
9. Continued use despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by opioids.		
10. Tolerance,* as defined by either of the following: (a) a need for markedly increased amounts of opioids to achieve intoxication or desired effect (b) markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of an opioid		
11. Withdrawal,* as manifested by either of the following: (a) the characteristic opioid withdrawal syndrome (b) the same (or a closely related) substance is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms		

*This criterion is not met for individuals taking opioids solely under appropriate medical supervision.

Severity: mild = 2–3 symptoms; moderate = 4–5 symptoms; severe = 6 or more symptoms

Signed: _____ Date: _____



TAPS Tool Part I

Directions: The TAPS Tool Part 1 is a 4-item screening for tobacco use, alcohol use, prescription medication misuse, and illicit substance use in the PAST YEAR. Question 2 should be answered by males, and Question 3 should be answered by females. Each of the four multiple-choice items has five possible responses to choose from. Check the box to select your answer.

In the PAST 12 MONTHS:

-
1. How often have you used any tobacco product (for example, cigarettes, ecigarettes, cigars, pipes, or smokeless tobacco)?
☐ Never ☐ Less than monthly ☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly ☐ Daily or almost daily

 2. How often have you had 5 or more drinks containing alcohol in 1 day? One standard drink is about 1 small glass of wine (5 oz), 1 beer (12 oz), or 1 single shot of liquor. *(Note: This question should only be answered by males.)*
☐ Never ☐ Less than monthly ☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly ☐ Daily or almost daily

 3. How often have you had 4 or more drinks containing alcohol in 1 day? One standard drink is about 1 small glass of wine (5 oz), 1 beer (12 oz), or 1 single shot of liquor. *(Note: This question should only be answered by females.)*
☐ Never ☐ Less than monthly ☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly ☐ Daily or almost daily

 4. How often have you used any drugs including marijuana, cocaine or crack, heroin, methamphetamine (crystal meth), hallucinogens, or ecstasy/MDMA?
☐ Never ☐ Less than monthly ☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly ☐ Daily or almost daily

 5. How often have you used any prescription medications just for the feeling, more than prescribed, or that were not prescribed for you? Prescription medications that may be used this way include opiate pain relievers (for example, OxyContin, Vicodin, Percocet, or methadone), medications for anxiety or sleeping (for example, Xanax, Ativan, or Klonopin), or medications for ADHD (for example, Adderall or Ritalin).
☐ Never ☐ Less than monthly ☐ Monthly ☐ Weekly ☐ Daily or almost daily
-



TAPS Tool Part 2

Directions: The TAPS Tool Part 2 is a brief assessment for tobacco use, alcohol use, illicit substance use, and prescription medication misuse in the PAST 3 MONTHS ONLY. Each of the following questions and subquestions has two possible answers, yes or no. Check the box to select your answer.

In the PAST 3 MONTHS:

- | | | |
|-------|---|--|
| 1. | Did you smoke a cigarette containing tobacco? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Did you usually smoke more than 10 cigarettes each day? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Did you usually smoke within 30 minutes after waking? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| <hr/> | | |
| 2. | Did you have a drink containing alcohol? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Did you have 4 or more drinks containing alcohol in a day?* | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | (Note: This question should only be answered by females.) | |
| | • Did you have 5 or more drinks containing alcohol in a day?* | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | (Note: This question should only be answered by males.) | |
| | • Have you tried and failed to control, cut down, or stop drinking? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Has anyone expressed concern about your drinking? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| <hr/> | | |
| 3. | Did you use marijuana (hash, weed)? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Have you had a strong desire or urge to use marijuana at least once a week or more often? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Has anyone expressed concern about your use of marijuana? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| <hr/> | | |
| 4. | Did you use cocaine, crack, or methamphetamine (crystal meth)? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Did you use cocaine, crack, or methamphetamine (crystal meth) at least once a week or more often? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Has anyone expressed concern about your use of cocaine, crack, or methamphetamine (crystal meth)? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| <hr/> | | |
| 5. | Did you use heroin? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Have you tried and failed to control, cut down, or stop using heroin? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Has anyone expressed concern about your use of heroin? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| <hr/> | | |
| 6. | Did you use a prescription opiate pain reliever (for example, Percocet or Vicodin) not as prescribed or that was not prescribed for you? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | If "Yes," answer the following questions: | |
| | • Have you tried and failed to control, cut down, or stop using an opiate pain reliever? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |
| | • Has anyone expressed concern about your use of an opiate pain reliever? | ☐ Yes ☐ No |

*One standard drink is about 1 small glass of wine (5 oz), 1 beer (12 oz), or 1 single shot of liquor.

Continued on next page



TAPS Tool Part 2 (continued)

-
7. **Did you use medication for anxiety or sleep (for example, Xanax, Ativan, or Klonopin) not as prescribed or that was not prescribed for you?** ☐ Yes ☐ No

If "Yes," answer the following questions:

- Have you had a strong desire or urge to use medications for anxiety or sleep at least once a week or more often? ☐ Yes ☐ No
- Has anyone expressed concern about your use of medication for anxiety or sleep? ☐ Yes ☐ No

-
8. **Did you use medication for ADHD (for example, Adderall or Ritalin) not as prescribed or that was not prescribed for you?** ☐ Yes ☐ No

If "Yes," answer the following questions:

- Did you use a medication for ADHD (for example, Adderall or Ritalin) at least once a week or more often? ☐ Yes ☐ No
- Has anyone expressed concern about your use of medication for ADHD (for example, Adderall or Ritalin)? ☐ Yes ☐ No

-
9. **Did you use any other illegal or recreational drugs (for example, ecstasy, molly, GHB, poppers, LSD, mushrooms, special K, bath salts, synthetic marijuana ["spice"], or whip-its)?** ☐ Yes ☐ No

If "Yes," answer the following question:

- What were the other drug(s) you used? (write in response)
-

The complete tool is available online (<https://cde.drugabuse.gov/instrument/29b23e2e-e266-f095-e050-bb89ad43472f>). Adapted from material in the public domain.¹⁰³

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Appendix A: Addressing Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings

Directions: To receive credits for this course, you are required to take a post test and receive a passing score. We have set a minimum standard of 80% as the passing score to assure the highest standard of knowledge retention and understanding. The test is comprised of multiple choice and/or true/false questions that will investigate your knowledge and understanding of the materials found in this CEU Matrix – The Institute for Addiction and Criminal Justice distance learning course.

After you complete your reading and review of this material, you will need to answer each of the test questions. Then, submit your test to us for processing. This can be done in the following manner:

Submit your test via the Internet. All of our tests are posted electronically, allowing immediate test results and quicker processing. First, you may want to answer your post test questions found at the end of this appendix. Then, return to your browser and go to the Student Center located at:

<http://www.ceumatrix.com/studentcenter>

Once there, log in as a Returning Customer using your Email Address and Password. Then click on 'View Lesson Quiz' and you will be presented with the electronic exam.

To take the exam, simply select from the choices of "a" through "e" for each multiple choice question. For true/false questions, select either "a" for true, or "b" for false. Once you are done, simply click on the submit button at the bottom of the page. Your exam will be graded and you will receive your results immediately. If your score is 80% or greater, you will receive a link to the course evaluation. You will also receive a link to the Certificate of Completion. This is the final step in the process, and you may save and / or print your Certificate of Completion.

If, however, you do not achieve a passing score of at least 80%, you will need to review the course material and return to the Student Center to resubmit your answers.

NOTE: THE EXAM QUESTIONS AND /OR ANSWERS MAY BE IN A DIFFERENT ORDER IN THE ONLINE EXAM

Answer the following questions by selecting the most appropriate response.

1. Thorough assessment should address patients' _____ history.
 - a. social
 - b. substance use disorder
 - c. medical
 - d. family
 - e. all of the above.
2. Patients are less likely to reveal their substance use when experiencing harmful consequences.
 - a. true
 - b. false
3. An example of a Mu-opioid receptor full agonist is _____.
 - a. buprenorphine
 - b. methadone
 - c. naltrexone
 - d. extended release naltrexone
4. When a person with opioid use disorder has a return of symptoms or loss of remission this is termed _____.
 - a. recovery
 - b. tolerance
 - c. withdrawal
 - d. relapse
5. All except _____ are FDA-approved medications to treat alcohol use disorder.
 - a. acamprosate
 - b. disulfiram
 - c. methadone
 - d. naltrexone
6. Brief drug screens usually don't indicate specific types of drugs used.
 - a. true
 - b. false
7. The intent of a comprehensive assessment is to:
 - a. identify contraindicated medications
 - b. determine the severity of opioid use disorder
 - c. identify mental and social issues to address
 - d. establish the diagnosis of opioid use disorder
 - e. all of the above
8. Asking open-ended questions, a type of motivational interviewing strategy, does not help in fostering successful assessment.
 - a. true
 - b. false

Addressing Opioid Use Disorder in General Medical Settings

9. Which of these is a sign of opioid intoxication?
- a. extreme excitability
 - b. dilated pupils
 - c. enhanced memory
 - d. constricted pupils
10. Opioid withdrawal, which depends on the specific opioid involved, can last _____.
- a. 1-2 days
 - b. 7-10 days
 - c. 1-4 weeks
 - d. 2-3 years
11. The typical screen will only detect _____, a metabolite of heroin, codeine, and some other opioids.
- a. morphine
 - b. methadone
 - c. buprenorphine
 - d. fentanyl
12. Heroin can be detected up to 1-2 weeks after use by urine testing.
- a. true
 - b. false
13. During pregnancy it is not advisable for patients to take _____.
- a. buprenorphine
 - b. methadone
 - c. ibuprofen
 - d. naltrexone
14. Mild opioid use disorder can be diagnosed in patients by meeting only ____ of the criteria in the DSM-5 manual.
- a. three
 - b. two
 - c. four
 - d. six
15. A patient can't truly give informed consent for treatment unless they _____.
- a. know the risks, benefits, and alternatives
 - b. are aware of the treatment costs
 - c. have been addicted for at least 1 year
 - d. only use opioids occasionally
16. Buprenorphine, methadone, and naltrexone all carry with them the possibility of withdrawal symptoms upon discontinuation.
- a. true
 - b. false

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17. Appropriate treatment intensity depends on each patient's _____
- a. personal preferences
 - b. addiction severity
 - c. social circumstances
 - d. (b) and (c) but not (a)
 - e. (a), (b), and (c)
18. Substance Use Disorder treatment programs must obtain _____ to share information with healthcare professionals about patients'.
- a. a court order
 - b. references
 - c. test results
 - d. patient consent
19. Patients who are no longer opioid tolerant are at heightened risk of _____ if they don't get OUD medication at discharge from a treatment facility.
- a. relapse
 - b. societal shunning
 - c. opioid overdose
 - d. alcoholism
20. The Drug Addiction Treatment Act of 2000 legislation requires that buprenorphine prescribers be required to refer patients to counseling.
- a. true
 - b. false
21. Mutual help groups such as AA and NA may actually pressure patients to _____ OUD medication.
- a. stop taking
 - b. increase dosage of
 - c. share their
 - d. continue taking
22. Opioid overdose can be identified by all of the following except:
- a. vomiting
 - b. hyperactivity
 - c. blue or purple fingernails and lips
 - d. slow or stopped breathing