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3 **1 Concordance between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribing:**  
4 **2 Can we identify common targets for antibiotic and opioid stewardship?**  
5 **3**

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**Abstract****Background**

Antimicrobial resistance and opioid misuse both present major public health challenges. Identifying high prescribers of both of these agents can help to provide a common target for intervention. We sought to determine the correlation between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribers and identify predictors of concordant high prescribers in the primary care setting.

**Methods**

We performed a 1-year cross-sectional study of primary care physicians in Ontario, Canada. We defined high prescribers as the top quartile of antibiotic or opioid prescribers using three antibiotic and three opioid prescribing metrics. We tabulated agreement between prescribing categories using the kappa statistic. We built a multivariable logistic regression model to identify predictors of both high antibiotic and opioid initiation.

**Results**

We included 9,469 physicians. We observed minimal overlap between high antibiotic initiation and opioid initiation (6% of prescribers) with kappa=0.00 (95% CI -0.02 to 0.02). After adjustment for patient population, key predictors of being a high prescriber in both categories include older patient population (aOR 1.42, 95%CI 1.24 to 1.62), physician male gender (aOR 1.46, 95%CI 1.14 to 1.86), and late career stage (aOR 1.76, 95%CI 1.26 to 2.46).

**Interpretation**

Among primary care physicians, there was a lack of association between high antibiotic prescribing and high opioid prescribing. While there is overlap in the behavioural science underlying suboptimal prescribing, our findings suggest separate tailored approaches to antibiotic and opioid stewardship strategies are needed.

## 47 Introduction

48 Rising antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is an urgent public health threat. Most antibiotics  
49 prescribed in humans are in the outpatient setting, acting as an important driver for antibiotic  
50 resistance in the community (1). In the US alone, antibiotic resistant infections claim 23,000  
51 lives annually (2). At the same time another drug-related public health crisis looms. The  
52 epidemic of opioid overuse is rapidly evolving, and in the United States, prescription opioids are  
53 associated with 17,000 overdose-related deaths annually (3). While the use of non-prescribed  
54 opioid related deaths is increasing, prescription opioids still account for at least 25% of opioid-  
55 related deaths (4).

56 Despite their obvious differences, these two public health threats have notable commonalities.  
57 In North America, both antibiotic and opioid overuse are largely iatrogenic in origin due to over-  
58 prescribing behaviour (5). There is wide variability in prescribing practices for both of these  
59 drug classes, which is not fully explained by differences in practice settings and patient  
60 populations (6–8). Additionally, patients of high prescribers of both antibiotics and opioids are  
61 more likely to experience harm (6,8) providing an impetus for urgent intervention.

62 Understanding overlap in over-prescribing can help identify unique prescriber populations  
63 where antibiotic and opioid stewardship can be focused and support aligned efforts to improve  
64 the use of these agents and reduce their harm. Our objective was to evaluate the correlation  
65 between suboptimal opioid and antibiotic prescribers as well as to identify predictors of  
66 concordant high prescribers in the primary care setting.

## 68 Methods

### 69 Study Design and Setting

70 We performed a 1 year cross-sectional study evaluating primary care physician prescribers of  
71 opioids and antibiotics during the period of March 1, 2017 to February 28, 2018. We conducted  
72 this study at ICES (formerly the Institute for Clinical Evaluative Sciences) in Ontario, Canada's  
73 most populous province. ICES is an independent, non-profit research institute whose legal

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2  
3 74 status under Ontario's health information privacy law allows it to collect and analyze health  
4 75 care and demographic data, without consent, for health system evaluation and improvement.  
5  
6 76 ICES is considered a prescribed entity under Ontario's *Personal Health Information Protection*  
7  
8 77 *Act*, which securely collects, stores, and analyzes personal health information for the 14 million  
9  
10 78 residents of the province.

## 11 12 79 **Eligible Population**

13  
14  
15 80 Eligible physicians included all primary care physicians in Ontario. We excluded physicians with  
16  
17 81 less than 500 patient visits per year, physicians prescribing the lowest 5% of antibiotic  
18  
19 82 prescriptions, the lowest 5% of opioid prescribers to ensure that only active prescribers were  
20  
21 83 included in the cohort. We also excluded physicians with a focus or specialty of pain (20 or  
22  
23 84 more billings for pain management) or palliative care (25% or more of all billings were for a  
24  
25 85 palliative care indication) to ensure high opioid prescribers were not categorized as such due to  
26  
27 86 their unique practice setting and patient population.

## 28 29 87 **Data Sources**

30  
31 88 Antibiotic prescribing was identified using Xponent™, a database owned by IQVIA. This  
32  
33 89 database includes dispensed outpatient medications aggregated at the physician level. We  
34  
35 90 included oral antibiotics in the World Health Organization Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical  
36  
37 91 Classification J01. (9) A list of included antibiotic classes is shown in Appendix 1. Only new  
38  
39 92 antibiotic prescriptions were included. Xponent™ captures 61% of medications dispensed from  
40  
41 93 community pharmacies in the province, and a patented, internally-validated geospatial  
42  
43 94 projection algorithm extrapolates these data to estimate 100% of prescribing by physicians  
44  
45 95 (10). We previously undertook a validation analysis in patients ≥65 years of age which revealed  
46  
47 96 that this database has reasonable performance at identifying high antibiotic prescribing  
48  
49 97 physicians when compared with the Ontario Drug Benefit (ODB) database, the province's highly  
50  
51 98 accurate outpatient drug dispensing database (11).

52  
53 99 Opioid prescribing was identified using the province's Narcotics Monitoring System (NMS)  
54  
55 100 which collects patient-level dispensing data for all controlled drugs (including opioids) from all  
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3 101 outpatient pharmacies in Ontario, regardless of payer (12). All opioids or opioid-containing  
4 102 combination products within NMS were captured regardless of indication with the exception of  
5  
6 103 opioids primarily used for managing opioid use disorder (methadone and  
7  
8 104 buprenorphine/naloxone). A list of included opioids is shown in Appendix 2.  
9

10  
11 105 Both Xponent™ and NMS include unique identifiers for each physician, allowing data to be  
12  
13 106 linked with ICES databases. Ontario has a universal healthcare system which provides publicly  
14  
15 107 funded access to healthcare to all citizens, permanent residents, and certain refugees.  
16  
17 108 Population-wide ICES databases included the Registered Persons Database (RPDB) which  
18  
19 109 contains demographic information such as date of birth, date of death, and sex; the Ontario  
20  
21 110 Health Insurance Plan (OHIP) database which contains all physician billing information; ICES  
22  
23 111 Physician Database (IPDB), which contains demographic information on all licensed Ontario  
24  
25 112 physicians; and the Canadian Institute for Health Information Discharge Abstract Database  
26  
27 113 (CIHI-DAD), containing hospital visit-related information.

#### 28 114 **Exposures and Covariates**

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30  
31 115 Our main exposures of interest included practice and physician level factors that may be  
32  
33 116 associated with suboptimal prescribing practices. Practice-level covariates included aggregate  
34  
35 117 patient age, sex, neighborhood income quintile, comorbidities (i.e., acute myocardial infarction,  
36  
37 118 congestive heart failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, diabetes, hypertension,  
38  
39 119 asthma, mental health diagnosis in previous year), and previous healthcare utilization.  
40  
41 120 Physician-level covariates included gender, years since medical graduation (early career: <11  
42  
43 121 years, mid-career: 11-24 years, late career: >24 years), country of medical school, and patient  
44  
45 122 visits.

#### 46 123 **Outcomes: Suboptimal Antibiotic and Opioid Prescribing Indicators**

47  
48  
49 124 The main primary and secondary outcomes were measured at the prescriber level, as six  
50  
51 125 separate metrics. Physicians ranked in the top quartile of any of these metrics were considered  
52  
53 126 “high prescribers” for that particular metric.

#### 54 55 127 **Primary Outcomes**

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2  
3 128 *Antibiotic Initiation* was defined as a physician's antibiotic prescription volume (number of  
4 129 prescriptions) divided by their patient visits to determine their antibiotic initiation rate. *Opioid*  
5  
6 130 *Initiation* was estimated as the volume of opioid prescriptions initiated by a prescriber. It was  
7  
8 131 calculated by dividing the number of patients with one or more opioid prescription written by  
9  
10 132 that physician by the number of patients seen by that physician during the study period.

### 11 12 133 **Secondary Outcomes**

13  
14  
15 134 *Antibiotic Selection* was defined as the proportion of all antibiotics prescribed that were broad-  
16  
17 135 spectrum. Broad-spectrum antibiotic classes included penicillin with beta lactamase inhibitor,  
18  
19 136 fluoroquinolones, macrolides, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> generation cephalosporins, and clindamycin. This  
20  
21 137 definition is based on previous studies on broad spectrum prescribing and identified risk of  
22  
23 138 community-acquired *C. difficile* infection (13,14).

24  
25 139 *Opioid Selection* was defined as the proportion of a physician's patients prescribed an opioid  
26  
27 140 who received a prescription for one or more high-dose opioids. High dose opioids were defined  
28  
29 141 as any prescription with a dispensed daily dose greater than 90 morphine milligram equivalents  
30  
31 142 (MME). The Canadian Guideline for Opioids for Chronic Non-Cancer Pain and United States  
32  
33 143 Centers for Disease Control Guideline for Prescribing Opioids for Chronic Pain recommend  
34  
35 144 avoiding increasing doses beyond 90 MME or carefully justifying any decisions to titrate to this  
36  
37 145 dose (15,16).

38  
39 146 *Antibiotic Duration* was defined as the proportion of all antibiotic prescriptions that were  
40  
41 147 prescribed for a duration of longer than 8 days. This threshold was selected as most  
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43 148 uncomplicated infections managed in primary care settings require duration of antibiotic  
44  
45 149 therapy of 7 days or less (17). A previous analysis by our team found wide inter-physician  
46  
47 150 variability in long duration antibiotic prescribing in the community setting (18).

48  
49 151 *Opioid Duration* was defined as the proportion of a physician's patients prescribed an opioid  
50  
51 152 with one or more opioid prescriptions with a dispensed duration longer than 28 days.  
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53 153 Guidelines recommend limiting initial opioid treatment for acute pain to no longer than 7 days  
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55 154 (15). The probability of continuing on a long-term opioid (1 year or longer) increases

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3 155 significantly when the first prescription supply exceeds 10 or 30 days (19). A conservative  
4 156 estimate of 28 days was selected to identify prescribers who select longer courses of opioid  
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6 157 therapy.  
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## 8 9 158 **Statistical Analysis**

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11 159 Physicians in the bottom 75% (non-high prescriber) and top 25% (high prescriber) of antibiotic  
12 160 and opioid initiation categories were compared descriptively in terms of their individual and  
13 161 practice characteristics. A kappa statistic with 95% confidence intervals was calculated to  
14  
15 162 determine the agreement between high antibiotic and high opioid initiation (primary analysis)  
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17 163 and high prescribing in at least two categories of antibiotic and opioid categories (e.g.,  
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19 164 initiation, selection, and duration). Kappa values were categorized in terms of their extent of  
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21 165 agreement between categories: 0 to 0.20 (none to slight); 0.21 to 0.40 (fair); 0.41 to 0.60  
22  
23 166 (moderate); 0.61 to 0.80 (substantial); 0.81 to 1.00 (almost perfect) (20).  
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27 167 We built a mixed-effects logistic regression model with the binary outcome of high opioid *and*  
28 168 high antibiotic initiating physicians compared to all other physicians, with random intercepts for  
29 169 each physician. First, a null model was prepared with only the physician random intercept, then  
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31 170 we added the physician and practice characteristics listed above to identify independent  
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33 171 predictors associated with high initiation of both antibiotics and opioids.  
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## 37 172 *Ethics*

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40 173 This project has Ethics Research Board approval from Public Health Ontario  
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## 46 175 **Results**

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48 176 During the study period, there were 13,091 potentially eligible family or general practice  
49 177 physicians, of which we included 9,994. (Figure 1) The median number of daily patient visits  
50  
51 178 per physician was 18 (IQR 14-25). Ninety one (91%) of practices were in an urban setting.  
52  
53 179 Antibiotic and opioid prescribing indices varied across physicians. Antibiotics were initiated in a  
54  
55 180 median of 8.9% of visits (IQR 6.0 to 13.1%); the median proportion of patients with an opioid  
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3 181 initiated during the study period was 5.7% (IQR 3.4 to 9.1%); broad spectrum antibiotics were  
4 182 selected in 40% of antibiotic prescriptions (IQR 31 to 51%); high dose opioids were selected in  
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6 183 6.1% of prescriptions (IQR 2.0% to 10.9%); proportion of prolonged duration antibiotic  
7  
8 184 prescriptions was 32% (IQR 21 to 46%); and the proportion of prolonged duration opioid  
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10 185 prescriptions was 27% (IQR 11 to 41%).

### 11 12 186 *High Antibiotic Prescribers*

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15 187 High antibiotic initiators tended to work in busier practices with a greater proportion of patient  
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17 188 visits per day, were more likely to be male and had a greater proportion of visits that were  
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19 189 emergency room visits when compared to non-high prescribers of antibiotics. (Table 1).

20  
21 190 There was negligible to weak association between the different antibiotic prescribing indices:  
22  
23 191 antibiotic initiation-antibiotic selection (kappa 0.05, 95%CI 0.03 to 0.07); antibiotic initiation-  
24  
25 192 antibiotic duration (kappa 0.06, 95% CI 0.04 to 0.08); and antibiotic selection-antibiotic duration  
26  
27 193 (kappa 0.06, 95% CI 0.04 to 0.08). (Figure 2)

### 28 29 30 194 *High Opioid Prescribers*

31  
32 195 High opioid initiators were more likely to be male, are in late career, have more nursing home  
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34 196 patient visits, have a greater proportion of patients aged 65 or older, and a greater number of  
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36 197 patient visits when compared to non-high prescribers of opioids. (Table 1)

37  
38  
39 198 There was slight agreement between the different opioid prescribing indices: opioid initiation-  
40  
41 199 opioid selection (kappa 0.16, 95% CI 0.14 to 0.18); opioid initiation-opioid duration (kappa 0.15,  
42  
43 200 95% CI 0.13 to 0.17); and opioid selection-opioid duration (kappa 0.18, 95% CI 0.16 to 0.20).  
44  
45 201 (Figure 2)

### 46 47 202 *High Prescribers of Both Antibiotics and Opioids*

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49 203 The kappa coefficient between high antibiotic and high opioid initiators was 0.00 (95% CI -0.02  
50  
51 204 to 0.02) indicating there is a lack of agreement between these 2 groups and the overlap in the  
52  
53 205 groups is no greater than that due to chance alone. Among all physicians, a small subset, 573



206 (6.2%) were both high antibiotic *and* high opioid initiators (antibiotic initiation-opioid initiation).  
207 (Figure 3)

208 There was low agreement between the other antibiotic and opioid prescribing indices. The  
209 highest agreement, albeit slight, was between antibiotic selection-opioid initiation (kappa 0.18,  
210 95% CI 0.16 to 0.20) and antibiotic selection-opioid duration (kappa 0.12, 95% CI 0.10 to 0.14).  
211 The lowest agreement was between antibiotic duration-opioid selection (kappa 0.03, 95% CI  
212 0.01 to 0.05), antibiotic selection-opioid selection (kappa -0.02, 95% CI -0.04 to 0.00) and  
213 antibiotic initiation-opioid initiation (as above). (Figure 3)

#### 214 *Predictors of Combined High Opioid and Antibiotic Initiation*

215 In the multivariable analysis, predictors of physicians who ranked as both high antibiotic and  
216 high opioid prescribers included proportion of adult patients aged 65 or older (aOR 1.42, 95%CI  
217 1.24 to 1.62, per 10% increase), proportion of patients with ER visits within the previous two  
218 years (aOR 1.24 95%CI 1.10 to 1.39, per 10% increase), physician male gender (aOR 1.46, 95%CI  
219 1.14 to 1.86), mid-career compared to early career (aOR 1.41, 95%CI 1.01 to 1.99), late career  
220 compared to early career (aOR 1.76, 95%CI 1.26 to 2.46), proportion of all visits that were  
221 nursing home visits (aOR 1.08, 95%CI 1.01 to 1.15, per 10% increase). Variables associated with  
222 not ranking as a high prescriber of both antibiotics and opioids include a higher number of daily  
223 visits (compared to less than 10 visits/day, 10-20 visits/ day (aOR 0.59, 95%CI 0.44-0.78, >20  
224 visits per day (aOR 0.61 95%CI 0.45-0.83)), rural practice (aOR 0.56, 95% CI 0.40 to 0.78) and  
225 high income quintile of patient population (aOR 0.70, 95%CI 0.54-0.90). (Table 2)

#### 226 **Interpretation**

227 Our study of over 9,000 primary care physicians indicates that there is a lack of correlation  
228 between being a high antibiotic prescriber and being a high opioid prescriber when considering  
229 various categories of suboptimal prescribing (initiation, selection and duration). This finding  
230 indicates that suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribers tend to be different, with minimal  
231 overlap, suggesting key differences in patient populations and drivers for antibiotic and opioid  
232 overuse. Although we did not observe a significant overlap beyond what would be expected by

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2  
3 233 chance in physicians who are both high antibiotic and high opioid prescribers, we did find a  
4 234 small subset of high prescribers of both antibiotics and opioids that have unique characteristics  
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6 235 when compared to other physicians. Most notably, these physicians were more likely to be  
7  
8 236 male and be practicing in a later stage of career.  
9

10 237 Other studies have found associations between antibiotic and prescribing of other medications.  
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12 238 Quinn *et al.* conducted a population-based cohort study of nursing home physicians, also in the  
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14 239 province of Ontario, Canada (21). The authors found that compared to average intensity  
15  
16 240 antibiotic prescribers, high intensity antibiotic prescribers were more likely to prescribe proton-  
17  
18 241 pump inhibitors (OR 1.38, 95% CI 1.27 to 1.51), benzodiazepines (OR 1.21, 95% CI 1.11 to 1.32),  
19  
20 242 and opioids (OR 1.28, 95% CI 1.17 to 1.39). The authors defined high prescribers as those that  
21  
22 243 prescribe above the upper 2 standard-deviation limit based on proportions of their patients  
23  
24 244 receiving a prescription for one of these medications. This equated to 17% of physicians being  
25  
26 245 classified as high antibiotic prescribers whereas in our study we defined a high prescriber as  
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28 246 being in the top 25%. These differences in definitions, methodology, as well as the more narrow  
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30 247 and defined population of long-term care prescribers, may account for the differences in  
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32 248 findings compared to our study. Similarly, a study by Li *et al.* evaluating primary care practices  
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34 249 in the UK found that antibiotic prescribing was associated with prescribing of other  
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36 250 medications, which persisted after adjustment for practice and patient characteristics (22).  
37  
38 251 Prescribing was defined by the number of prescriptions for a given medication divided by the  
39  
40 252 practice size. However, the authors didn't specifically explore the association between  
41  
42 253 antibiotic and opioid prescribing. The authors conclude that the propensity to prescribe  
43  
44 254 antibiotics is linked to the propensity to prescribe medications in general, suggesting that  
45  
46 255 antimicrobial stewardship interventions should address broader prescribing behaviours beyond  
47  
48 256 knowledge of appropriate antibiotic use.

49 257 Our study also differs from previous analyses in that we have evaluated three different decision  
50  
51 258 points of antibiotic and opioid prescribing: initiation, selection of the regimen, and treatment  
52  
53 259 duration. Daneman *et al.* evaluated antibiotic prescribers in nursing homes and found that  
54  
55 260 prescribing behaviour differs substantially across these three domains of prescribing (23).  
56  
57 261 Although prescribing tendencies remain consistent over time for each individual prescriber,  
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3 262 similar to our findings, there was weak to no correlation between the different tendencies of  
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5 263 initiation, selection, and duration of antibiotics prescribed by primary care physicians in a long-  
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7 264 term care setting. This suggests that strategies to optimize prescribing should be tailored to the  
8  
9 265 specific prescribing behaviour of interest.

10  
11 266 While high prescribing of antibiotics did not predict high prescribing of opioids, a small subset  
12  
13 267 of clinicians are high prescribers in both categories. These findings echo recent cohort studies  
14  
15 268 indicating that male physicians were more likely to prescribe an antibiotic for a viral indication  
16  
17 269 (24) and that those physicians who have been in late career were more likely to prescribe  
18  
19 270 unnecessary or prolonged antibiotic courses (24,25).

20  
21 271 Behavioural, emotional and sociological drivers are associated with overuse of both antibiotics  
22  
23 272 and opioids. Beliefs about consequences centered around fear of under-treatment have been  
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25 273 reported with both of these agents. Additionally the social influence of patient pressures or  
26  
27 274 perceived desire for these agents may play a role in prescribing them unnecessarily (26,27).  
28  
29 275 Despite these similarities, there are clear differences in the drivers of antibiotic and opioid  
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31 276 misuse. Antibiotics, typically prescribed acutely often have a perceived benefit that outweighs  
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33 277 their harms, especially as the harms of antibiotics are less visible to the prescriber and may be  
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35 278 more distant or dealt with by another provider (e.g., antimicrobial resistance or *C. difficile*  
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37 279 infection). On the other hand opioids are typically problematic when used chronically, hence  
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39 280 inter-disciplinary and continuity of care issues arise in terms of starting and stopping the  
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41 281 medication. Additionally the harms of opioid overuse (e.g., addiction, diversion) may be more  
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43 282 visible and tangible to the prescriber as the initial prescriber may need to re-assess, titrate,  
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45 283 taper or discontinue the medication. Despite their important role as public health threats,  
46  
47 284 these stark differences in drivers of misuse mean that the physicians over-prescribing  
48  
49 285 antibiotics and opioids are mostly distinct. There is much overlap in the behavioural science  
50  
51 286 behind over-prescribing, but public health efforts should be tailored to the specific drug class,  
52  
53 287 and prescribing behaviour, of interest. These findings may be useful for public health  
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55 288 professionals, family physicians, opioid and antibiotic stewards seeking to develop strategies  
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57 289 and identify efficiencies in addressing high prescribing practices.  
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3 290 *Limitations*  
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5 291 Limitations to this work include the potential for unmeasured confounders. Since high-opioid  
6 292 and high-antibiotic prescribers tend to work in different practice settings these differences may  
7 293 contribute to less overlap than would otherwise be expected. Canadian opioid prescribing  
8 294 guidelines for chronic non-cancer pain (16) were released in 2017 during this study period and  
9 295 may have shifted practice patterns towards reduced opioid use, particularly for those who were  
10 296 previously high prescribers. This could have potentially masked any overlap that may have  
11 297 previously existed between high opioid and antibiotic prescribers. In fact, abrupt  
12 298 discontinuation of opioids represents inappropriate prescribing as this can lead to withdrawal  
13 299 symptoms. It is also important to note that although six separate metrics of antibiotic and  
14 300 opioid prescribing were selected as proxy measures of appropriateness, this does not equate to  
15 301 a definitive assessment of appropriateness. This is significant since opioid and antibiotic  
16 302 stewardship efforts aim to optimize the appropriate use of these medications rather than  
17 303 indiscriminately reduce their use. An additional limitation is that there is no standard definition  
18 304 of “high-prescriber”. We chose to use top quartile in our study as this has been previously  
19 305 measured and validated against other standard metrics of antibiotic use (11).  
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33 306 *Conclusion*  
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36 307 Among primary care physicians, there was minimal overlap between those who are high  
37 308 antibiotic prescribers and high opioid prescribers. Although these physicians tend to be  
38 309 different, predictors of a small subset of both high antibiotic and high opioid prescribers include  
39 310 practices with an older patient population, late career physicians and male gender. Antibiotic  
40 311 and opioid stewardship strategies to address these public health crises require tailored  
41 312 approaches.  
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19

20 325 *MOHLTC is intended or should be inferred.*  
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420 **Table 1. Characteristics of High and Low Antibiotic and Opioid Initiators**

Variables	Antibiotic Initiators		Opioid Initiators		
	Lowest 75%	Highest 25%	Lowest 75%	Highest 25%	
	N = 7496	N = 2498	N = 7496	N = 2498	
<b>Physician characteristics, n (%)</b>					
Median daily patient visits					
	<10	528 (7.04)	194 (7.77)	494 (6.59)	228 (9.13)
	10-20	3746 (49.97)	1068 (42.75)	3814 (50.88)	1000 (40.03)
	>20	3222 (42.98)	1236 (49.48)	3188 (42.53)	1270 (50.84)
Age (median, IQR)		53 (44-61)	53 (44-61)	51 (42-59)	58 (49-66)
Gender					
	F	3533 (47.13)	933 (37.35)	3784 (50.48)	682 (27.3)
	M	3963 (52.87)	1565 (62.65)	3712 (49.52)	1816 (72.7)
Years since medical graduation					
	<11y	1644 (21.93)	482 (19.3)	1830 (24.41)	296 (11.85)
	11-24y	2173 (28.99)	767 (30.7)	2410 (32.15)	530 (21.22)
	>24y	3679 (49.08)	1249 (50)	3256 (43.44)	1672 (66.93)
Country of medical school					
	Canada/U.S.	4661 (62.18)	1527 (61.13)	4525 (60.37)	1663 (66.57)
	Other	1703 (22.72)	620 (24.82)	1657 (22.11)	666 (26.66)
	Unknown	1132 (15.1)	351 (14.05)	1314 (17.53)	169 (6.77)
Rurality					
	Urban	6791 (90.59)	2296 (91.91)	6891 (91.93)	2196 (87.91)
	Rural	705 (9.41)	202 (8.09)	605 (8.07)	302 (12.09)
Emergency visits (mean proportion, SD)		8.35 (22.56)	20.9 (35.13)	14.03 (29.34)	3.85 (14.78)
Long-term care visits (mean proportion, SD)		2.44 (8.95)	1.59 (8.74)	1.03 (4.78)	5.81 (15.22)
Roster size (median, IQR)		1101 (751.5-1540)	1080 (616-1561)	1026 (683-1448)	1303 (893-1729)
<b>Practice characteristics, n (%)</b>					
Age group (mean proportion, SD)					
	<18	15.55 (7.08)	17.73 (6.95)	17.1 (7.06)	13.06 (6.37)
	18-64	60.48 (9.97)	61.29 (9.61)	62 (8.98)	56.72 (11.33)
	65+	23.98 (12.38)	20.98 (11.45)	20.9 (10.25)	30.21 (14.73)
Female (mean proportion, SD)		57.07 (9.09)	56.07 (6.86)	57.71 (8.54)	54.15 (8.2)
Neighbourhood income quintile of patient population**					
	Low (quintile 1-3)	6141 (81.92)	2050 (82.07)	5942 (79.27)	2249 (90.03)
	High (quintile 4-5)	1355 (18.08)	448 (17.93)	1554 (20.73)	249 (9.97)
Comorbidities in the previous 2 years (mean proportion, SD)					
	AMI	0.52 (0.5)	0.51 (0.44)	0.47 (0.45)	0.66 (0.56)
	CHF	0.88 (0.94)	0.8 (0.74)	0.78 (0.81)	1.09 (1.1)
	COPD	1.16 (0.82)	1.14 (0.7)	1.07 (0.73)	1.43 (0.91)
	Diabetes	1.55 (0.79)	1.42 (0.6)	1.45 (0.71)	1.72 (0.83)
	Hypertension	2.26 (0.88)	2.09 (0.78)	2.15 (0.8)	2.42 (1)
	Asthma	0.94 (0.48)	1.07 (0.46)	1.01 (0.46)	0.84 (0.52)
	Psychiatric	20.62 (7.82)	20.75 (6.22)	20.59 (6.89)	20.84 (8.92)
Healthcare utilization in the previous 2 years (mean proportion, SD)					
	Hospitalization	14.65 (6.28)	14.99 (5.99)	14.44 (5.75)	15.62 (7.34)
	ED visits	41.94 (12.17)	46.09 (13.69)	42.69 (12.75)	43.82 (12.49)

421 **Table 2. Predictors of Physicians Who Are Both High Antibiotic and High Opioid Prescribers**

Variables	Model	
	Unadjusted OR (95% CI)	Adjusted OR (95% CI)
<b>Practice characteristics</b>		
Age group proportion (per 10%)		
	<18 0.71 (0.63-0.8)	1.25 (1.03-1.53)
	65+ 1.31 (1.24-1.38)	1.42 (1.24-1.62)
Female proportion (per 10%)	0.74 (0.67-0.81)	0.85 (0.74-0.97)
Mean Neighbourhood income quintile of patient population		
	High 0.62 (0.49-0.79)	0.7 (0.54-0.90)
	Low reference	Reference
Comorbidities proportion in the previous 2 years		
	AMI 1.37 (1.20-1.56)	1.12 (0.86-1.47)
	CHF 1.13 (1.05-1.22)	0.68 (0.55-0.83)
	COPD 1.22 (1.12-1.33)	1.03 (0.9-1.17)
	Diabetes 1.1 (1-1.21)	0.95 (0.83-1.08)
	Hypertension 1.09 (1-1.19)	1.03 (0.92-1.14)
	Asthma 0.62 (0.51-0.75)	0.85 (0.69-1.05)
	Psychiatric 1 (0.99-1.01)	1 (0.99-1.01)
Healthcare utilization proportion in the previous 2 years (per 10%)		
	Hospitalization 1.22 (1.09-1.37)	0.95 (0.69-1.32)
	ED visits 1.11 (1.05-1.19)	1.24 (1.1-1.39)
<b>Physician characteristics</b>		
Gender		
	M 2.12 (1.77-2.53)	1.46 (1.14-1.86)
	F reference	reference
Years since medical graduation		
	11-24y 1.76 (1.31-2.37)	1.41 (1.01-1.99)
	>24y 2.79 (2.13-3.64)	1.76 (1.26-2.46)
	<11y reference	reference
Country of medical school		
	Other 0.89 (0.73-1.08)	0.96 (0.78-1.18)
	Unknown 0.34 (0.24-0.48)	0.6 (0.4-0.9)
	Canada/U.S. reference	reference
Median daily patient visits		
	10-20 0.38 (0.26-0.55)	0.59 (0.44-0.78)
	20+ 1.13 (0.93-1.37)	0.61 (0.45-0.83)
	0-9 reference	reference
Rurality		
	Rural 0.98 (0.73-1.3)	0.56 (0.4-0.78)
	Urban reference	reference
Proportion Emergency visits (per 10%)	0.96 (0.93-0.99)	0.94 (0.9-0.98)
Proportion Long-term care visits (per 10%)	1.14 (1.06-1.22)	1.08 (1.01-1.15)

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423 **Figure 1. Flow Diagram of Study Exclusions**

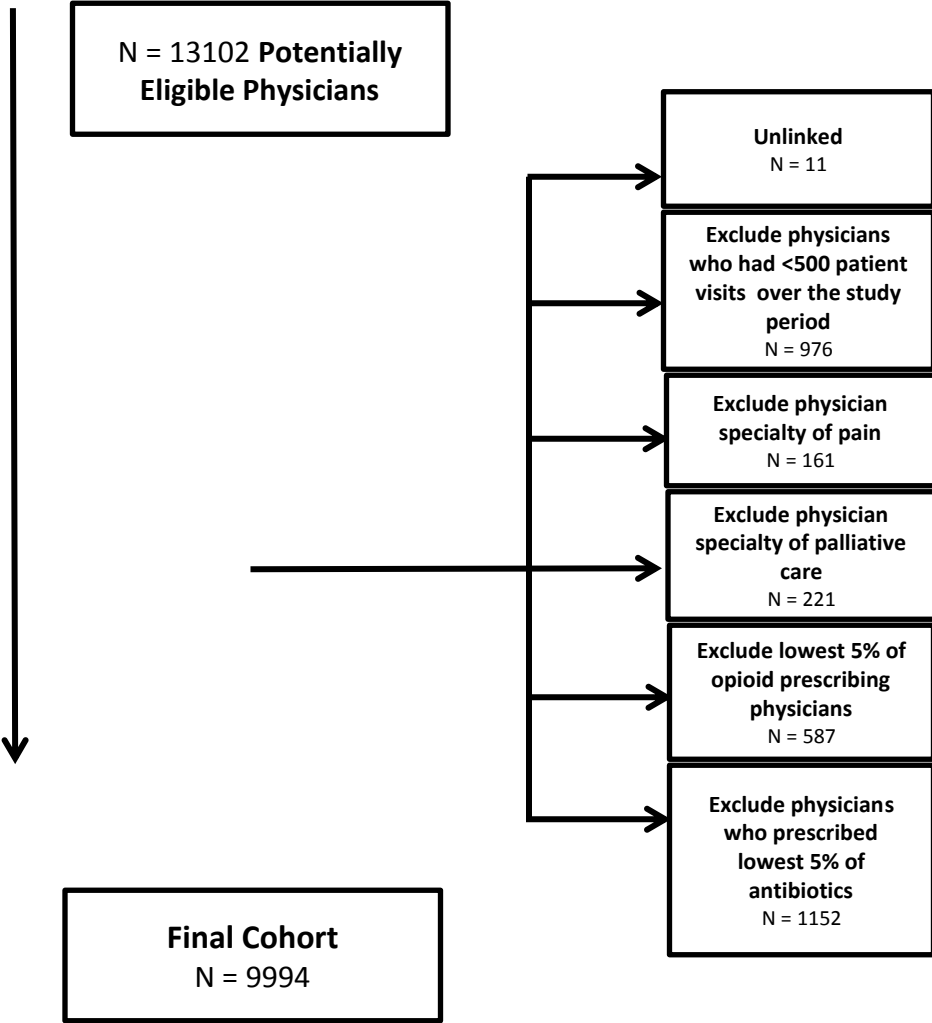
424 **Figure 2. Concordance between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribing metrics (within class)**  
425 kappa (95% CI)

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427 **Figure 3. Concordance between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribing metrics (cross opioid-**  
428 **antibiotic class) kappa (95% CI)**

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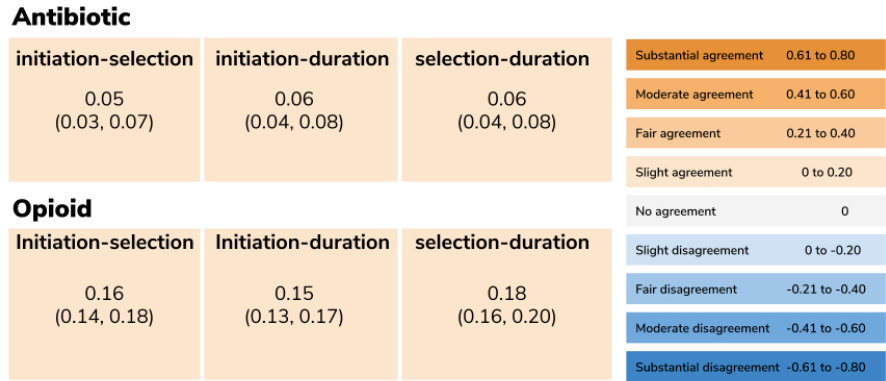


Figure 2. Concordance between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribing metrics (within class) kappa (95% CI)

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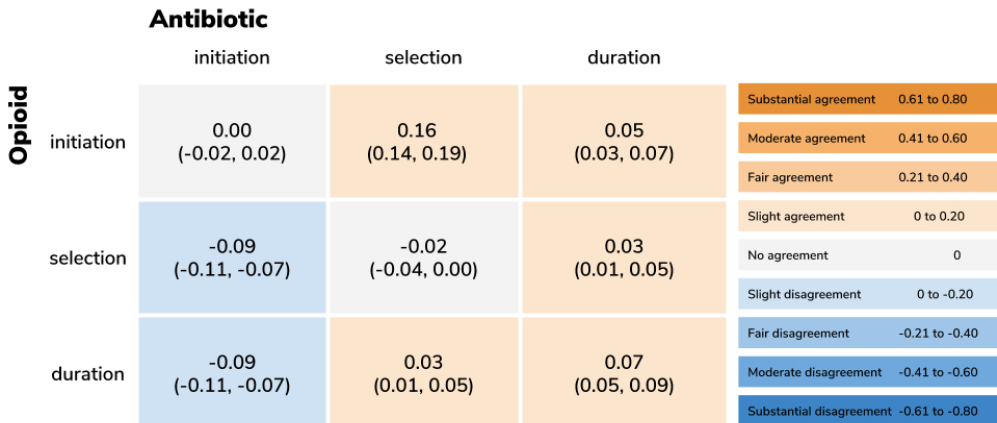


Figure 3. Concordance between suboptimal antibiotic and opioid prescribing metrics (cross opioid-antibiotic class) kappa (95% CI)

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