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1 Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

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1 Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among Patients receiving Opioid Treatment in

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33 34 36 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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36
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38
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40
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42
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44
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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

WC was Principal investigator of the study. AM, GM, DS, DL, JK and WC led preparation of the manuscript with a core group of authors. The remaining authors were involved in the design and planning of the study. All authors read and approved the final draft of this manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Mr. Anderson has received payment for developing a psychosocial program for Lundbeck A/S called Brief Cases in 2013–2014. Payments were for developing the program and for implementation, training, and educating primary care professionals. Mr. Anderson is an addiction counsellor, not a medical doctor. Dr Smyth received honoraria for speaking at conferences from Shire and Lilly. The other authors report no financial relationships with commercial interest.

ABSTRACT

Background: Identifying and treating problem alcohol use among people who also use illicit drugs is a challenge. Primary care is well placed to address this challenge but there are several barriers which may prevent this occurring. The objective of this study was to determine if a complex intervention designed to support screening and brief intervention for problem alcohol use among people receiving opioid agonist treatment is feasible and acceptable to healthcare providers and their patients in a primary care setting.

Methods: A randomised, controlled, pre-and-post design measured feasibility and acceptability of alcohol screening based on recruitment and retention rates among patients and practices. Efficacy was measured by screening and brief intervention rates and the proportion of patients with problem alcohol use.

Results: Of 149 practices that were invited, 19 (12.8%) agreed to participate. At follow up, 13 (81.3%) practices with 81 (62.8%) patients were retained. Alcohol screening rates in the intervention group were higher at follow up than in the control group (53% versus 26%) as were brief intervention rates (47% versus 19%). Four (18%) people reduced their problem drinking (measured by AUDIT-C), compared to two (7%) in the control group.

Conclusions: Alcohol screening among people receiving opioid agonist treatment in primary care seems feasible. A definitive trial is needed. Such a trial would require over sampling and greater support for participating practices to allow for challenges in recruitment of patients and practices.

Keywords: alcohol, primary care, screening, agonist treatment, methadone, general practice, implementation, feasibility, brief intervention, SBIRT

4 **100 INTRODUCTION**

5
6 101 Problem alcohol use, defined as a positive AUDIT (Alcohol Use Disorders Identification
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8
9 102 Test) score [1], is common among patients attending primary care for opioid agonist treatment.
10
11 103 Ryder et al. (2009) estimated that 35% of patients attending primary care for addiction treatment
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14 104 had problem alcohol use [2], and higher rates have been reported in more specialist addiction
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16 105 treatment centres [3]. Among people receiving addiction treatment, problem alcohol use poses
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19 106 additional challenges as alcohol is associated with increased risk of mortality in this vulnerable
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21 107 population [4]. It impacts adversely on many health issues that commonly affect this population,
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24 108 e.g. chronic hepatitis C infection [5], increased risk of fatal opiate overdose [6] and compromised
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26 109 metabolism of methadone [7]. To address these challenges, psychosocial interventions
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28
29 110 incorporating alcohol screening and brief intervention (SBI) can effectively identify patients with
30
31 111 this problem and guide management [8].
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34 112 Screening, brief intervention, and referral to treatment (SBIRT) for a range of substance
35
36 113 use problems is a cost-effective, comprehensive, and integrated system of early intervention and
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39 114 treatment services for individuals who use tobacco, alcohol, or other drugs [9]. A review of brief,
40
41 115 multi-contact behavioural counselling interventions among adult patients attending primary care
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44 116 found such interventions reduced the average number of drinks per week by 13–34%, increased
45
46 117 the proportion drinking at moderate or low risk levels by 10–19%, concluding such interventions
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48
49 118 were feasible and potentially highly effective components of an overall public health approach to
50
51 119 reducing problem alcohol use [10]. The World Health Organisation (WHO) recommends that
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53 120 health professionals provide alcohol SBI for heavy drinkers, however, it is underused with less
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56 121 than 10% of those who might benefit from SBI, receiving a brief intervention [11].
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122 The integration of complex interventions which can increase the uptake of screening and
123 brief intervention in primary care is a priority to address problem alcohol use among patients
124 attending primary care for opioid agonist treatment. Primary care is an accessible and frequently
125 used health care service. It offers continued patient centred care and an ideal setting for
126 individual, group and community interventions to encourage health promotion and disease
127 prevention. However, the ability to incorporate such interventions into practice may be
128 challenged through workload, lack of time, knowledge or skills [12]. This is especially the case
129 for problem alcohol use among people receiving opioid agonist treatment. Though common in
130 this population [2], implementation rates of SBIRT are low [13, 14], despite there being
131 increased risks from poly-drug use through additive or synergistic effects [15]. Interventions
132 which promote screening and brief intervention in practice are likely to benefit problem alcohol
133 use among this population [13, 16]. A cross sectional study showed screening and brief
134 intervention were inconsistent and associated with practitioner and system factors (such as lack
135 of time, lack of specialist staff and poor service availability), whereas experience / education and
136 integration with other services were among the key enablers [17]. An educational intervention
137 was subsequently developed to enable GPs to deliver brief interventions for problem alcohol use
138 among people receiving opioid agonist treatment and its possible feasibility, acceptability and
139 usefulness in practice was demonstrated in a pilot study [18]. The PINTA (*Psychosocial*
140 *INTerventions for problem Alcohol use*) project has therefore further developed a complex
141 intervention (which includes this educational intervention) to enhance screening and brief
142 intervention.

143 We aimed to determine if a complex intervention designed to support screening and brief
144 intervention for problem alcohol use among people receiving opioid agonist treatment is feasible

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4 145 and acceptable to healthcare providers and their patients in a primary care setting. The specific
5
6 146 objectives were: i) to develop a multi-sided complex intervention (incorporating practice visits,
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9 147 distribution of best practice guidelines and education), ii) to explore its feasibility and
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11 148 acceptability, and iii) to inform the subsequent design of a definitive cluster randomised trial by
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14 149 estimating the possible impact of the intervention on practice (i.e. screening, brief intervention
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16 150 and referral to treatment) and outcomes (i.e. the proportion of patients with problem alcohol use).
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22 152 **METHODS**

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25 153 We used a controlled pre-and-post intervention design to establish the feasibility of a
26
27 154 complex intervention to promote SBI for problem alcohol use among people receiving opioid
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30 155 agonist treatment, with cluster randomisation at the level of general practice [14]. Participants
31
32 156 (GPs, patients) were surveyed on addiction care processes before and after the intervention (3
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35 157 months).

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37 158 The intervention consisted of two key components: (i) an academic group intervening at
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40 159 practices (recruitment, education, study procedures); and (ii) participating GPs treating patients
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42 160 (screening, advice, study procedures).
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45 161 **Participants**

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48 162 Based on the recommendations for good practice in pilot studies [19, 20], it was
49
50 163 estimated that 160 patients (attending 16 general practices) would be adequate to examine the
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53 164 actual recruitment and retention rates (i.e. feasibility), and to provide data on acceptability of
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55 165 study processes and outcome measures, which would inform a future definitive trial [21].
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4 166 General practitioners (n=16) were selected using random stratified sampling, with
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6 167 geographical location (Health Service Executive Mid-West and Dublin Mid- Leinster regions)
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9 168 and the level of methadone provision training forming the strata in the sampling [14]. To
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11
12 169 prescribe methadone, GPs are subject to clinical audit and must complete special training, while
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14 170 GPs providing methadone treatment for 15 or more patients are subject to more regular audit and
15
16 171 advanced training. GPs who prescribe methadone for less than 15 patients are referred to as
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19 172 “level 1 GPs”, and those prescribing for 15 or more as “level 2 GPs” [21].
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22 173 Individual participants were recruited by GPs over a 16 week period between December
23
24 174 2013 and April 2014. Participating practices were asked to recruit 10 consecutive patients who
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26 175 were aged 18 years or over and receiving addiction treatment / care (e.g. methadone) at the
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29 176 practice. Patients were excluded from the study if they had language difficulties (i.e., unable to
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31 177 speak, read, and write English sufficiently well to complete study questionnaires), were acutely
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34 178 intoxicated, and/or were cognitively impaired (including severe mental health illness) to the
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36 179 extent that they were unable to provide informed consent to participate. Participating practices
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39 180 were found to have an average timeframe of five weeks to complete recruitment.
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41 181 The study procedures [21] and sampling framework [14] have been reported previously
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44 182 and recruitment process / subsequent engagement with practices are outlined in Summary Box
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46 183 1.
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49 184 [SUMMARY BOX 1 HERE]
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52 185 **Intervention** 53

54
55 186 The complex intervention development was informed by the U.K. Medical Research
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57 187 Council (MRC) ‘Framework for design and evaluation of complex interventions to improve
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59 188 health’ [18]. The complex intervention designed to support screening and brief intervention for
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4 189 problem alcohol use among opioid agonist patients used in the study consisted of: practice visits,
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6 190 distribution of best practice guidelines, brief intervention training (see Summary Box 2).
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9 [SUMMARY BOX 2 HERE]
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14 193 A staggered intervention design was adopted, whereby participating practices were
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16 194 randomised to receive the complex intervention after baseline data collection. The control group
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18 195 received the complex intervention three months later.
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22 196 **Data Collection**

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25 197 Demographic details (GPs and patients) and data on process / outcome measures (i.e.
26
27 198 feasibility, acceptability and possible efficacy), were measured at baseline and follow up (three
28
29 199 months) by completing study instruments with GPs and patients, and by reviewing clinical
30
31 200 records. Health care professionals at participating practices also completed a postal questionnaire
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33 201 on practice/professional details, experience of training and attitudes.
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37 202 **Measures of feasibility**

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40 203 We measured the feasibility as numbers of recruited and retained GPs and people
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42 204 receiving opioid agonist treatment in primary care.
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45 205 **Measures of acceptability**

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48 206 GPs' attitudes towards the provision of care for patients with alcohol use disorders were
49
50 207 assessed pre / post intervention. They completed the 'Shortened Alcohol and Alcohol Problems
51
52 208 Perception Questionnaire' (SAAPPQ). This 10-item, 7-point Likert-type questionnaire measured
53
54 209 the attitudes of professionals towards the provision of care for patients with alcohol use disorders
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57 210 [22]. Total scores range from 10 to 70, with lower scores indicative of more negative attitudes.
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211 The role security domain within the SAAPPQ includes 2 sub-domains: role adequacy, and role
212 legitimacy (e.g. “I feel I can appropriately advise my patients about drinking and its effects”; “I
213 feel I have the right to ask patients questions about their drinking when necessary”). Therapeutic
214 commitment involves motivation, task specific self-esteem, and work satisfaction [23]. Within
215 the scales of role security and therapeutic commitment (ratings on a 7-point Likert scale ranging
216 from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’) means were calculated. See Additional file 1 for
217 SAAPPQ scoring key.

218 GPs rated the importance of each of five barriers to alcohol screening, specifically: lack
219 of training and education, lack of time, lack of specialist staff, poor service availability and
220 attitude of patients. They rated their answers on a Likert scale from one to five (1= most
221 important and 5= least important; composite score 5-25).

222 Usefulness of training, practice visits, materials, guidelines and remuneration was also
223 measured on a five-point Likert scale (1= very useful and 5= not at all useful; composite score 5-
224 25).

225 In addition, qualitative interviews were conducted with both patients and GPs to
226 determine the acceptability of the complex intervention. Semi-structured interviews were
227 conducted with 14 patients and eight General Practitioners (GPs) who had been purposively
228 sampled from practices that had participated in the feasibility study. The interviews were
229 transcribed verbatim and analysed thematically. The qualitative work is reported in more detail
230 separately [24].

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233 **Process / outcome measures**

234 Though not powered to determine effectiveness, the possible impact of the intervention
235 on care process was measured by examining whether patients had received alcohol screening,
236 brief intervention and referral to a specialist alcohol service in the previous three months (i.e. the
237 study duration). Possible impact of the intervention on care outcomes was measured using the
238 ‘AUDIT-Consumption (AUDIT-C)’, a validated and practical three-item screening test for
239 alcohol use disorders or risky drinking which consists of the first three questions of the AUDIT
240 pertaining to consumption [25]. The selection threshold for positive AUDIT-C scores was ≥ 3 for
241 women and ≥ 4 for men [26, 27].

242 **Human Subjects Protection**

243 The Irish College of General Practitioners’ (ICGP) Research Ethics Committee approved
244 the study. During recruitment, GPs informed potential participants of study objectives and
245 procedures, provided written information and asked them to provide their written informed
246 consent to participate. The study was conducted in accordance with relevant ethical standards,
247 the Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2000.

248 **Data analysis**

249 Per-protocol analysis was performed with respect to care process and outcome measures.
250 Means, frequencies and percentages were calculated using Statistical Packages for the Social
251 Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. To account for potential cluster effects in a future definitive trial,
252 an intracluster correlation coefficient for care process and outcome measures was calculated
253 [28].

254

RESULTS

Characteristics of participants

Of 16 practices randomly sampled and allocated to either intervention or control groups, 15 facilitated patient recruitment and baseline data collection on 106 patients (Figure 1). At follow up, 13 practices (Table 1) facilitated data collection on 81 patients (Table 2).

[FIGURE 1 HERE]

FIGURE 1: Flow diagram showing the recruitment of participants from 16 general practices 2013-14

[TABLE 1 HERE]

Overall, the study population (n=81) was similar to those receiving methadone in the national study reporting prevalence of problem alcohol use in Ireland [2]. With the exception of methadone dose (higher in intervention group), both intervention (n=34) and control (n=47) groups were comparable in terms of socio-demographic characteristics and addiction characteristics (Table 2).

[TABLE 2 HERE]

Feasibility

Of 149 invited, 19 GPs expressed an interest and were eligible to participate. Of these 19 practices, we selected 16 by stratified random sampling and 15 of those GPs completed patient recruitment. One hundred and twenty nine patients were recruited, from which we obtained baseline data by reviewing charts (n=129) and interviewing most of the patients (n=106). At follow up, we collected data from 13 GPs. We also collected data by reviewing charts (n=115) and by interviewing 81 of those patients (see Figure 1).

277 **Acceptability**

278 Of the seven GPs assigned to the intervention arm, six completed the training and four
279 took part in the educational outreach / practice visits.

280 The SAAPPQ score increased among both groups between baseline and follow up, but
281 more so in the intervention group (Table three, +3.3 versus +1.6). Five out of the six GPs in the
282 intervention group revealed an improvement in attitudes towards the provision of care for
283 patients with alcohol use disorders in comparison to four out of the seven GPs in the control
284 group. For the intervention group attitudes regarding role security and therapeutic commitment
285 increased by 2.9 % and 9.7 % respectively, whereas there was an increase in scores relating to
286 attitudes on role security and therapeutic commitment of 4.6 % and 1.75 % respectively for the
287 control group.

288 The composite score for perceived barriers to implementing SBI in general practice
289 decreased for both groups from baseline to follow up with a greater decrease in the intervention
290 group (-1.4 versus -0.6), with ‘lack of specialist support staff’ the barrier which was most
291 affected (-1.0 versus -0.1).

[TABLE 3 HERE]

293 When asked about which elements of the intervention they found useful, four (66.7%)
294 indicated they found hand-outs, guidelines, and remuneration ‘useful’ or ‘very useful’. These
295 were followed by training (3, 50.0%) and practice visits (2, 33.4%). Overall, the mean composite
296 score for all five intervention elements at participating practices was 10 (SD=3.4, where 5 = very
297 useful and 25=not at all useful).

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300 Process / outcome measures

301 With respect to process measures, the proportion of patients who had (in the past three
302 months) been screened for problem alcohol use was higher (53% versus 26%) in the intervention
303 compared to control group (Table 4). This was also the case for the proportions who had
304 received a brief alcohol intervention (47% versus 19%) and the proportion that had been referred
305 for specialist alcohol treatment (3% versus 0%). In the intervention group, 22 people had an
306 abnormal AUDIT-C at baseline, while 18 had an abnormal AUDIT-C at follow up (18%
307 reduction). In the control group, the number also fell from baseline to follow up (29 to 27, 7%
308 reduction). In the intervention group, while 14 people had an abnormal AUDIT at baseline, this
309 fell to 8 at follow up (43% reduction). In the control group, the number also fell from baseline to
310 follow up (18 to 10, 44% reduction). The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) and standard
311 error for the proportion of patients with positive AUDIT-C results were 0.11 (SE = 0.013). The
312 ICC will be used to determine sample size for the future definitive trial.

[TABLE 4 HERE]

DISCUSSION

316 The study aimed to examine the feasibility and acceptability a complex intervention to
317 enhance identification and treatment of problem alcohol use among people receiving opioid
318 agonist treatment in primary care. Though not adequately powered to examine effectiveness the
319 follow-up alcohol screening rates in the intervention group were higher than in the control group
320 (53% versus 26%), as were alcohol brief intervention rates (47% versus 19%). The follow-up
321 prevalence of problem alcohol use in the intervention group (measured by AUDIT-C) dropped
322 by 18%, compared to seven per cent in the control group.

4 323 The key parameters identified from this study for a definitive cluster randomised
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6 324 controlled trial (RCT) to determine the effectiveness of this intervention were GP recruitment
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9 325 rate (13%), patient recruitment rate (81%), GP retention rate (81%) and patient retention (63%).
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12 326 The GP recruitment rate was lower than planned. Recruitment issues are echoed in other
13
14 327 primary care research [29, 30]. Recruitment in primary care has particular challenges related to
15
16 328 the characteristics of primary care practitioners, their patients and the dispersed nature of clinics
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19 329 [31]. Additional challenges, such as physical, psychological co-morbidity and adverse social
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21 330 circumstances [32] in conjunction with practices located in deprived areas, should be considered
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24 331 when planning RCTs involving this group of patients.
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27 332 Our GP recruitment strategy targeting socio-economically deprived areas in the Dublin-
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29 333 Mid Leinster and the Mid-West regions and use of postal invitations, limited our recruitment rate
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31 334 and undermined the generalizability of our findings. Although, there has been significant growth
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34 335 in prevalence of opiate users outside of Dublin [33], the lower number of patients receiving
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36 336 opioid agonist treatment in the Mid-West region resulted in a disproportionately lower
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39 337 acceptance rate than the Dublin-Mid Leinster region. Future strategies will encompass a larger
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41 338 sample size targeting a greater proportion of MMT (methadone maintenance treatment) GPs in
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44 339 Ireland and the implementation of a more rigorous recruitment process. We will (i) Engage with
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46 340 networks of practices (thematic or geographical) with an interest in conducting research and
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49 341 development in MESUDs (Mental Health Substance Use Disorders) as a key priority; (ii)
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51 342 Develop a relationship with practice staff and ensure adequate practice support to enhance
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54 343 recruitment and retention of practitioners and patients; and (iii) Implement active recruitment
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56 344 measures, involving personal contact between researchers and practitioners that avoids mailing
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59 345 unsolicited information, which may also encourage participation.
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4 346 Following a review of qualitative interviews with GPs, time constraints were identified as
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6 347 the primary obstacle in the implementation of the intervention. In addition, some GPs tended to
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9 348 overestimate their competency in detecting problem alcohol use relying on visual and verbal
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12 349 cues from patients rather than screening patients routinely. This highlights the need for greater
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14 350 researcher support for GPs, improved study format and delivery of educational intervention to
15
16 351 improve SBI rates among this cohort of patients.

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19 352 Positive attitudes towards caring for patients with problem alcohol use were observed
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22 353 among participating GPs, with the SAAPPQ score improving in both intervention and control
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24 354 groups at follow up, and to a greater extent in the intervention group, particularly in relation to
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26 355 therapeutic commitment. Though the improved SAAPPQ score was modest, this is nonetheless
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29 356 important as attitudes are important predictors of GPs' involvement in managing alcohol
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31 357 problems (especially in role security and therapeutic commitment domains) [34]. The CME-
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34 358 approved educational workshops to enable GPs to screen for or treat problem alcohol use among
35
36 359 people receiving opioid agonist treatment were also received favourably. Most useful
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39 360 components of the training were hand-outs, guidelines and remuneration. The findings suggest
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41 361 GPs found the intervention useful. This is consistent with other research that indicates training
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44 362 GPs in the management of alcohol use disorders among people receiving opioid agonist
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46 363 treatment is likely to be of use to GPs [18] and perhaps patients.

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48 364 The assessment of perceived barriers to alcohol screening suggested that training
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51 365 heightened GPs' awareness of how to manage problem alcohol use and focused their attention on
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53 366 how to address the practicalities of implementing it in their everyday consultations. The need for
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56 367 specialist staff was the most important barrier further highlighting the importance of
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368 implementing the provision of additional support and resources for a less motivated cohort of
369 GPs.

370 Qualitative interviews found that while all GPs found the intervention informative and
371 feasible, most considered it challenging to incorporate into practice. Barriers included time
372 constraints, and overlooking and underestimating problem alcohol use among this cohort of
373 patients. Patients reported that (in the absence of the intervention) their use of alcohol was rarely
374 discussed with their GP, and were reticent to initiate conversations on their alcohol use for fear
375 of having their methadone dose reduced. The findings suggested that while a complex
376 intervention seems feasible and acceptable, the barriers highlighted must be overcome to enable
377 consistent, regular, and accurate screening by GPs.

378 Although screening for problem alcohol use is a prevention priority in primary care for
379 adults (especially high risk groups such as people receiving opioid agonist treatment [21]), thus
380 far it has one of the lowest delivery rates, with screening or intervention typically completed only
381 when a risk factor is evident [35]. Our study suggests that if adequately supported, primary care
382 providers can screen and intervene more, based on our biased, small sample size. Furthermore
383 education of GPs on the importance of screening this cohort of patients and the integration of the
384 screening instrument within electronic medical records can improve treatment for at risk groups
385 [36, 37]

386 The decrease of drinking in the control group is consistent with improvements that have
387 been observed in intervention trials targeting various health behaviours and may occur in
388 response to undergoing baseline assessment, participants' awareness of being involved in
389 experimental studies, or due to the delivery of a more intensive 'usual care' than would be

390 typically experienced [38, 39]. Given the interaction with practices in the ‘control’ group, this is
391 most likely what improved outcome measures in this group.

392 This feasibility study was not designed to determine effectiveness and thus inferences on
393 the likely efficacy of the intervention should be interpreted with caution. Furthermore, it is likely
394 that we recruited practices and patients who were more positively disposed toward the
395 intervention. While it is evident that the final 15 GPs out of an original pool of 149 represented a
396 biased, self-selected sample, the findings are still of value because we followed guidelines on
397 feasibility studies and we achieved our objectives, i.e. estimating sample size for a future
398 definitive trial, testing integrity of study protocol, data collection instruments, randomisation
399 procedure, recruitment, consent, acceptability of intervention and identification of most
400 appropriate primary outcome measure [22].

401 It appeared that the poor rate of GP participation was directly connected to the
402 complexity of the study protocol, the intervention, the multiple data collection and measurement
403 instruments. The GP recruitment method and the proposed intervention did not appear to be
404 sufficiently attractive in the eyes of the busy practitioners, despite the financial incentive offered
405 to them. The recognition of the importance of the intervention was sufficient to attract
406 participating practitioners to the dedicated CME sessions; nonetheless, for a definitive study, the
407 research protocol and instruments should be simplified and modified / minimised to increase
408 acceptability to GPs and to improve GP recruitment rate.

409 A complex intervention to support alcohol screening and brief intervention among people
410 receiving opioid agonist treatment in primary care appears feasible. Future research should
411 address improving the complex intervention to provide additional support to GPs in making
412 SBIRT a consistent part of their treatment for people receiving opioid agonist treatment.

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413 Strategies that maximise and enhance recruitment (e.g. focussed engagement with practices,
414 targeting deprived regions, etc.) will be integral to this study protocol. Enhanced contact and
415 interaction of researchers with GPs during the recruitment process may encourage more active
416 involvement of GPs.

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Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

TABLE 1: Participating practices characteristics

Characteristic/Category	GPs Total (N=13)	
	Intervention (n=6)	Control (n=7)
Geographical area of GP:		
Ireland East	5	6
Ireland Mid-West	1	1
Level of training in providing addiction related care:		
Level 1 GP ^a	2	3
Level 2 GP ^b	4	4
Gender of GP:		
Male	5	7
Female	1	0
Type of Practice:		
Mixed ^c	6	6
GMS ^d	0	1
Number of full time GPs per practice:		
≤ 2	6	5
≥ 3	0	2
Practice Nurse:		
Yes	5	6
No	1	1

^aLevel 1GP: GPs who prescribe methadone for less than 15 patients are referred to as “level 1 GPs”.

^bLevel 2 GP: GPs who prescribe methadone for 15 or more are referred to as “level 2 GPs”.

^cMixed: Mixed Practice accepts both GMS patients and private patients.

^dGMS: General Medical Services Scheme provides free general practitioner services and free drugs and medicines to persons with full eligibility.

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

TABLE 2: Characteristics of patient study population attending intervention and control practices at baseline

Characteristic/Category	Intervention (n=34)		Control (n=47)	
	n (%)	Mean (SD)	n (%)	Mean (SD)
Male	20 (58.8%)		30 (63.8%)	
Age		41.5 (7.9)		42.4 (8.8)
Ever injected drugs	23 (67.6%)		38 (80.9%)	
Age of first injection		21.3 (3.4)		21.8(6.3)
Hepatitis C positive	20 (58.8%)		29 (61.7%)	
Receiving methadone	33 (97.1%)		47 (100%)	
Age first methadone use		25.6 (8.3)		25.8 (7.9)
Mean methadone dose		82.2 (22.7)		65.2 (28.6)
Attends Level 1 GP	15 (44.1%)		26 (55.3%)	
Attends Level 2 GP	19 (55.9%)		21 (44.7%)	
Geographical area of GP:				
East	30 (88.2%)		43 (91.5%)	
West	4 (11.8%)		4 (8.5%)	
Employed	6 (17.6%)		2 (4.3%)	
Current accommodation:				
Rented	9 (26.5%)		16 (34%)	
Owned	4 (11.8%)		4 (8.5%)	
Family of origin	3 (8.8%)		8 (17%)	
Social housing	15 (44.1%)		17 (36.2%)	
Supported housing	2 (5.9%)		2 (4.3%)	
No Fixed abode	1 (2.9%)		0 (0%)	
<i>Past 30-day drug use (self-reported)¹</i>				
<i>Number of patients who used illicit drugs in the last 30 days^a</i>	14 (41.2 %)		17 (36.2%)	
Alcohol screening*	19 (55.9%)		31 (66%)	
<i>Q: Have you ever been asked about your alcohol use by healthcare professionals?</i>				
Alcohol brief intervention**	14 (41.2%)		23 (48.9%)	
<i>Q: Did they advise you on safe drinking or talk to you about alcohol?</i>				
Specialist referral***	7 (20.6%)		7 (14.9%)	
<i>Q: Have you ever been referred to a specialist/ addiction counsellor for alcohol use?</i>				

¹Data obtained from patient questionnaires with baseline and follow up data referring to the previous 30 days

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

^aHeroin, illicit methadone, illicit benzodiazepines, cocaine, amphetamines, cannabis, other drugs

* ICC (SE) = 0.016 (0.014)

** ICC (SE) = -0.06 (0.017)

*** ICC (SE) = 0.22 (0.026)

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

TABLE 3: SAAPPQ measuring general practitioners' attitudes towards the provision of care with those with alcohol use disorders and GPs' perceived barriers to alcohol screening at baseline and follow up

	Intervention (n=6)	Control (n=7)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Doctors' Attitudes Total SAAPPQ ¹ (SD)		
Baseline	50.7 (6.7)	54.4 (7.6)
Follow Up	54 (6.8)	56 (6.3)
Doctors' Attitudes SAAPPQ: Role Security ² (SD)		
Baseline	23.2 (2.2)	21.9 (4.7)
Follow Up	23.8 (3.8)	22.9 (1.2)
Doctors' Attitudes SAAPPQ: Therapeutic Commitment ³ (SD)		
Baseline	27.5 (5.6)	32.6 (4.3)
Follow Up	30.2 (4.5)	33.1 (3.9)
Barriers Total Mean ⁴ (SD)		
Baseline	15.2 (5.2)	16.2 (2)
Follow Up	13.8 (1.6)	15.6 (1.6)
Lack of training in addiction		
Baseline	3.2 (1.5)	4 (1.1)
Follow Up	3.6 (1.3)	4.3 (0.8)
Lack of time		
Baseline	2.8 (1.3)	2.3 (1.8)
Follow Up	2.3 (1.8)	2.6 (0.5)
Lack of specialist staff		
Baseline	2.8 (1.8)	3 (1.4)
Follow Up	1.8 (0.8)	2.9 (1.5)
Poor service availability		
Baseline	2.8 (1.7)	3.1 (1.1)
Follow Up	2.3 (1.3)	2.7 (1.3)

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

Attitude of patient

Baseline	3.5 (1.4)	3.3 (1.5)
Follow Up	3 (1.5)	3.1 (1.2)

¹Doctors' Attitudes Total SAAPPQ - Shortened Alcohol and Alcohol Problems Perception Questionnaire' (SAAPPQ). This 10-item, 7-point Likert-type questionnaire measured the attitudes of professionals towards the provision of care for patients with alcohol use disorders. Total scores range from 10 to 70, with lower scores indicative of more negative attitudes (refer to Additional File 1 for scoring code).

²Doctors' Attitudes SAAPPQ: Role Security - The role security domain within the SAAPPQ includes 2 sub-domains: role adequacy, and role legitimacy.

³Doctors' Attitudes SAAPPQ: Therapeutic Commitment - Therapeutic commitment involves motivation, task specific self-esteem, and work satisfaction.

⁴Barriers Total Mean - GPs rated the importance of each of five barriers to alcohol screening, specifically: lack of training and education, lack of time, lack of specialist staff, poor service availability and attitude of patients. They rated their answers on a Likert scale from one to five (1= most important and 5= least important; composite score 5-25).

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

TABLE 4: Process / outcome measures at follow up (and baseline where comparable) according to patient interviews

Process / outcome measure	Intervention (n=34)	Control (n=47)
	n (%)	n (%)
Alcohol screening		
<i>Q: Have you been asked about your alcohol use by healthcare professionals in the last 3 months?</i>	18 (52.9%)	12 (25.5%)
Brief Intervention		
<i>Q: Did they advise you on safe drinking or talk to you about alcohol in the last 3 months?</i>	16 (47.1%)	9 (19.2%)
Specialist referral		
<i>Q: Have you been referred to a specialist/ addiction counsellor for alcohol use in the last 3 months?</i>	1 (2.9%)	0 (0%)
Abnormal AUDIT-C		
At Baseline	22 (66.7%)	29 (61.7%)
At Follow Up*	18 (54.5%)	27 (57.5%)
Abnormal AUDIT		
At Baseline	14 (41.2%)	18 (38.3%)
At Follow Up	8 (23.5%)	10 (21.3%)

*ICC (SE)=0.11 (0.013)

Feasibility of Alcohol Screening among People receiving Opioid Agonist Treatment in Primary Care

SUMMARY BOX 1: Outline of researcher interaction with recruited practices.

- Initial invite / practice recruitment:
 - 149 GPs received written invitation to participate.
 - Invitation outlined: (a) study purpose; (b) remuneration for administrative workload generated; (c) GP / practice requirements on participation and content of the intervention.
 - Sixteen practices were selected to participate in the study
- Practice Visits: Patient recruitment and baseline data collection was completed over a series of four practice visits.
 - Visit 1: Researcher visited practices to outline the study, explain patient recruitment, and provided a resource pack outlining study requirements in greater detail.
 - Visit 2: Researcher facilitated practices to complete a register of patients attending the practice for management of problem drug use.
 - Visit 3: Researcher conducted a detailed review of clinical records of participating patients during the baseline data collection phase. GPs were also asked about each patient's problem alcohol use and drug use by the researcher.
 - Visit 4: Baseline patient interviews conducted in person or by telephone.
- Three months after the complex intervention had been delivered (see summary box 2), follow-up data was collected (i.e. patient interviews, review of clinical records and GP questionnaires)
- The 'control group' received the complex intervention upon completion of follow-up data collection.

SUMMARY BOX 2: PINTA Complex intervention description.

- A multi-sided complex intervention strategy, incorporating practice visits, distribution of best practice guidelines and education (including CME-approved small group sessions); multimedia educational tools (i.e. DVD); MI (motivational interviewing) related training presentation; and demonstration of intervention implementation to attendees.
- Dissemination of a resource pack which included:
 - (i) Clinical guidelines for the management of problem alcohol use among problem drug users;
 - (ii) 'A Quick Question' HSE (Health Service Executive) leaflet promoting reduced alcohol use;
 - (iii) A multimedia educational video demonstrating screening using AUDIT (Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test) and delivering a BI (brief intervention) using the 'FRAMES' model which identifies key elements of brief intervention: feedback, responsibility, advice, menu of strategies, empathy, and self-efficacy;
 - (iv) Resource manual with up-to-date information on support services to help practices in the management of patients with problem alcohol.
- Educational support for participating GPs following workshop. The specific objectives were to: (i) outline the importance of routine, annual screening of all problem drug users; (ii) encourage use of the full AUDIT questionnaire for patients with positive annual screen; (iii) promote delivery of brief intervention to patients in the 'hazardous' / 'harmful' category, and referral to specialist services for patients in the 'dependent' category.

FIGURE 1: Flow diagram showing the recruitment of participants from 16 general practices 2013-14

