

## Review article

### **Risks and benefits of oral modified-release compared with oral immediate-release opioid use after surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis**

S. Liu,<sup>1,2</sup> A. Athar,<sup>3</sup> D. Quach,<sup>4</sup> A. E. Patanwala,<sup>5, 6</sup> J. M. Naylor,<sup>7,8</sup> J. A. Stevens,<sup>9,10</sup> N. Levy,<sup>11</sup> R. D. Knaggs,<sup>12</sup> D. N. Lobo,<sup>13,14</sup> J. Penm,<sup>2,15</sup>

1 PhD Candidate, 5 Professor, 15 Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Medicine and Health, School of Pharmacy, University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

2 Pharmacist, Department of Pharmacy, Prince of Wales Hospital, Randwick, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

3 Medical Student, Faculty of Medicine and Health, School of Medicine, University of Notre Dame, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

4 Pharmacy Student, Faculty of Medical and Health Sciences, School of Pharmacy, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

6 Chair of Clinical Pharmacy, Department of Pharmacy, Royal Prince Alfred Hospital, Camperdown, NSW, Australia

7 Senior Principal Research Fellow, Whitlam Orthopaedic Research Centre, Orthopaedic Department, Liverpool Hospital, Liverpool, NSW, Australia.

8 Conjoint Professor, South Western Sydney Clinical School, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

9 Associate Professor, School of Clinical Medicine, St Vincent's Clinical Campus, University of New South Wales, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

10 Adjunct Associate Professor, University of Notre Dame, Sydney, NSW, Australia.

11 Consultant, Department of Anaesthesia and Perioperative Medicine, West Suffolk Hospital, Bury St. Edmunds, UK.

12 Associate Professor, School of Pharmacy, University of Nottingham, and Primary Integrated Community Services, Nottingham, UK.

13 Professor, Nottingham Digestive Diseases Centre and National Institute for Health Research Nottingham Biomedical Research Centre, Nottingham University Hospitals and University of Nottingham, Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham, UK.

14 Clinical Director, David Greenfield Metabolic Physiology Unit, MRC Versus Arthritis Centre for Musculoskeletal Ageing Research, School of Life Sciences, University of Nottingham, Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham, UK.

**Short title:** Modified-release opioid use after surgery

**Keywords:** modified-release, opioid, acute pain, surgery

**Twitter:** @ShaniaLiu\_; @sidpatan; @nicholasalevy; @justjenstevens; @DL08OMD; @JonPenm

## Summary

Prescription of modified-release opioids for acute postoperative pain is widespread despite evidence to show their use may be associated with an increased risk of adverse effects. This systematic review and meta-analysis aimed to examine the available evidence on the safety and efficacy of oral modified-release, compared with oral immediate-release, opioids for postoperative pain in adults. We searched five electronic databases from 1 January 2003 to 1 January 2023. Published randomised clinical trials and observational studies on adults who underwent surgery which compared those who received oral modified-release opioids postoperatively with those receiving oral immediate-release opioids were included. Two reviewers independently extracted data on the primary outcomes of safety (incidence of adverse events) and efficacy (pain intensity, analgesic and opioid use, physical function) and secondary outcomes (length of hospital stay, hospital readmission, psychological function, costs, quality of life) up to 12 months postoperatively. Of the eight articles included, five were randomised clinical trials and three were observational studies. Based on low-quality evidence, modified-release opioid use was associated with a higher incidence of adverse events ( $n = 645$ , odds ratio (95%CI) 2.76 (1.52–5.04)) and worse pain ( $n = 550$ , standardised mean difference (95%CI) 0.2 (0.04–0.37)) compared with immediate-release opioid use following surgery. Our narrative synthesis concluded that modified-release opioids showed no superiority over immediate-release opioids for analgesic consumption, length of hospital stay, hospital readmissions or physical function after surgery. One study showed that modified-release opioid use is associated with higher rates of persistent postoperative opioid use compared with immediate-release opioid use. None of the included studies reported on psychological function, costs, or quality of life.

Correspondence to: S Liu

Email: shania.liu@sydney.edu.au

Accepted: 12 June 2023

## Introduction

Prescription of modified-release opioid analgesics for acute postoperative pain is widespread. Since their introduction in the late 1990s [1], modified-release opioid use has increased to account for over 30% of all opioids prescribed after surgery [2]. Modified-release opioids were introduced into peri-operative clinical practice where there was a dearth of effective analgesic techniques, reliance on unimodal analgesia (including as-required intramuscular morphine, patient-controlled analgesia and epidurals), and minimal use of simple analgesics (including non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and paracetamol). The introduction of oral opioids coupled with administration of non-opioid analgesics allowed shorter lengths of stay and cost savings [3,4]. The subsequent embedding of modified-release opioids into routine clinical practice was driven by beliefs that they provide greater and sustained pain relief, produce fewer 'peak and trough' serum opioid concentrations leading to a lower risk of opioid dependence and reduce nursing workload by reducing the frequency of analgesic dosing compared with immediate-release opioid formulations [4,5].

Emerging evidence now suggests that the use of modified-release opioids for acute postoperative pain may be associated with more harm than benefit. Modified-release opioid use for acute postoperative pain is associated with a greater risk of opioid-related adverse events, in particular opioid-induced ventilatory impairment [6-9]. Due to their slow onset and offset, titration of the dose of modified-release opioids is difficult, resulting in a sustained duration of any adverse effects encountered [10]. Existing studies indicate that modified-release opioids yield less effective pain relief compared with immediate-release opioids, and that a higher cumulative dose may be required [8,11]. Modified-release opioids have also been associated with a longer length of hospital stay [2]. Since 2017, there has been irrefutable evidence that the use of modified-release opioids is one of the main risk factors for persistent opioid use [12], with a recent study by Lam et al. providing further evidence of this [13]. Increasing awareness of the potential harms associated with modified-release opioid use prompted the release of guidelines advising against the use of modified-release opioids for the management of acute pain internationally [14-17].

Within these guidelines, modified-release opioids are not recommended for acute pain unless there is a demonstrable need or in exceptional circumstances [17]. However, there remains a paucity of literature to describe the circumstances in which modified or immediate-release opioids may be most appropriate for the management of acute postoperative pain. Existing systematic reviews comparing modified-release with immediate-release opioids are largely limited to cancer-related pain or chronic pain contexts [18,19]. Furthermore, previous literature showing positive outcomes

associated with modified-release opioid use largely involve patient-controlled analgesia as the comparator group, whereby improvements in physical function and reduced length of stay are attributable to removing the need for intravenous access and connection to a patient-controlled analgesia pump [20]. There remains a research gap on the risks and benefits of oral modified-release opioids compared with oral immediate-release opioids for acute pain. Therefore, this systematic review and meta-analysis aimed to examine the available evidence on the safety and efficacy of oral modified-release opioids compared with oral immediate-release opioids for acute postoperative pain.

## **Methods**

This review was performed in adherence to the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [21]. Original peer-reviewed randomised clinical trials and observational studies were included. Studies involving adults (aged 18 y or older) who had undergone surgery were included. To ensure study findings were relevant to contemporary practice, we included articles published within the previous two decades. Articles written in languages other than English, conference abstracts, retracted articles and all other study types (including case reports, case series, editorials, expert opinion, literature reviews and qualitative studies) were excluded. Studies in which opioids are used exclusively for cancer-related pain, palliative care, opioid-substitution therapy (e.g. methadone oral liquid or sublingual buprenorphine), or for indications other than analgesia were excluded as they are outside the scope of this review. Modified-release opioid formulations were defined as any opioid formulation with a mechanism designed to produce a sustained delivery or release rate of the active ingredient (such as modified-release tablets) [22]. We included studies involving the use of oral modified-release opioids for the management of postoperative pain. The comparator group(s) included oral immediate-release opioid use for the management of postoperative pain. We did not include studies in which the comparator group(s) involved placebo or usual care only (where the proportion of patients taking immediate-release opioid analgesia was < 50% of the comparator group or not specified).

The primary outcomes of this review included safety (incidence of adverse events including opioid-induced ventilatory impairment [23] as defined by the study) and efficacy (including pain intensity, quantity of analgesic use including opioid use in oral morphine milligram equivalents as an indicator of pain intensity, and physical function) as reported by individual studies, up to 12 months postoperatively. Secondary outcomes included length of hospital stay; hospital readmission rate; incidence of persistent postoperative opioid use (defined as opioid use for postoperative pain at 90

days or more after surgery [23]); psychological functioning; and costs and quality of life collected at up to 12 months after surgery.

We conducted a systematic search on five electronic databases for material published between 1 January 2003 and 1 January 2023. The full search strategy is available in online Supporting Information Table S1. After the removal of duplicates, two authors (AA and DQ) independently filtered articles by title and abstract for potentially eligible studies. Full-text articles were then assessed independently by the same two authors to confirm eligibility. They also independently extracted data using a standard data extraction form including details of participants, study design, intervention method and duration and treatment outcomes. Discrepancies were discussed with other team members (SL and JP) to reach consensus. Where necessary, authors of included studies were contacted to obtain further data not present in the published articles.

Quality assessment of all included studies was conducted by two authors (SL and AA) independently. Randomised controlled trials were assessed using the Revised Cochrane Risk of Bias Assessment Tool for randomised trials [24] and non-randomised studies were assessed using the Risk of Bias in Non-randomised Studies of Interventions [25]. Two authors (SL and JN) used the GRADE component to categorise the quality and strength of the evidence reported in randomised controlled trials included in the meta-analysis as very low, low, moderate or high for the primary outcomes (incidence of opioid-related adverse events and pain intensity) [26]. Discrepancies were resolved by consensus between two authors (SL and JN). A GRADE assessment checklist was used to ensure consistency and reproducibility (online Supporting Information Table S2) [27] and findings were summarised using the GRADEpro software (<https://gradepr.org>).

Data were synthesised from all included studies (randomised controlled trials and non-randomised studies) for safety outcomes and from included randomised controlled trials only for efficacy outcomes.

Safety and efficacy outcomes reported in included randomised controlled trials were considered separately for meta-analysis. We used odds ratios with 95%CI for categorical safety outcomes and standardised mean differences (Hedges'  $g$ ) with 95%CI for continuous efficacy outcomes with different units. We calculated the  $I^2$  statistic to assess statistical heterogeneity among included studies. Heterogeneity was evaluated according to definitions in the Cochrane Handbook [28]. One study was not included in the meta-analysis as information on safety and efficacy outcomes required

to pool data were not available [29]. One study was removed from the meta-analysis for efficacy outcomes [30] and one was removed for safety outcomes [31] due to significant methodological heterogeneity in the pain intensity and adverse event outcomes reported, respectively. The mean (SD) values reported in the study by Park et al. were reversed between modified-release and immediate-release groups to account for the direction of effect [32]. A random effects model with inverse variance was used for all meta-analyses [33]. We planned to explore publication bias using funnel plots if there were 10 or more studies included in the meta-analysis, but the number of studies included did not reach this. The a-priori  $\alpha$  level used was 0.05 for all analyses. RevMan software (version 5.4, Copenhagen, Denmark) was used to compile data and perform statistical analyses.

## Results

The search strategy yielded 3660 articles, of which 59 full-text articles were assessed for eligibility. Refinement using the inclusion and exclusion criteria resulted in eight studies eligible for inclusion [13,29-32,34-36] (Fig. 1). There were five randomised controlled trials [29-32,36] and three observational studies [13,34,35] included. Of the five randomised controlled trials, four [30-32,36] were included in the meta-analysis.

Two studies were performed in Germany [35,36], two in Australia [13,31] and the remainder in a range of countries including the USA [34], South Korea [32] and Canada [29]. Four studies involved oxycodone [30,31,34,35], one involved morphine [36], and three involved other opioids including codeine [29], tramadol [32] and all opioids (Table 1) [13].

Of the five randomised controlled trials, two were graded as having some concerns of bias [29,31] and three as having a low risk of bias [30,32,36]. Two trials contained some concerns of bias arising from selection of reported results because pre-specified analysis plans were not reported [29,31]. Of the three observational studies, all were graded as having a moderate risk of bias due to potential confounding and bias in measurement of outcomes as outcome assessors were not blinded (online Supporting Information Table S3) [13,34,35].

Of the eight included studies, six reported on the incidence of opioid-related adverse events after surgery [29-32,35,36], including five randomised controlled trials [29-32,36] and one observational study [35]. Three randomised controlled trials were included in the meta-analysis on safety

outcomes (Table 2, Fig. 2) [30,32,36]. For the remaining three studies [29,31,35], a brief qualitative summary is provided.

Meta-analysis of three randomised controlled trials showed participants (n = 645) who received modified-release opioids following surgery had 2.76-fold higher odds (95%CI 1.52–5.04, p = 0.0009) of experiencing an opioid-related adverse event during inpatient stay compared with those receiving immediate-release opioids only (Fig. 2). Based on GRADE assessment, there is limited confidence that this estimate of effect lies close to the true effect due to an insufficient timeframe of outcome measurement and potential publication bias related to pharmaceutical-industry funding (Table 2). Minimal heterogeneity was found across studies reporting safety outcomes (Fig. 2).

Of the three studies not included in the meta-analysis, two were randomised controlled trials [29,31] and one was an observational study [35]. All three studies reported no difference in the incidence of opioid-related adverse events between patients given modified-release or immediate-release opioids after surgery (Table 1) [29,31,35].

Data were synthesised from included randomised controlled trials only for the efficacy outcomes. All five randomised controlled trials included reported on efficacy outcomes after surgery [29-32,36]. Pain intensity was reported in five trials [29-32,36], quantity of opioid use in five trials [29-32,36], and physical function in one trial [29].

Three randomised controlled trials were included in the meta-analysis on pain intensity following surgery (Table 2, Fig 3) [31,32,36]. A brief qualitative summary is provided for the remaining two trials [29,30].

Meta-analysis of three randomised controlled trials showed participants (n = 550) who received modified-release opioids following surgery experienced worse pain during the first 24 h postoperatively compared with those given immediate-release opioids only, with an absolute standardised mean difference (95%CI) in pain scores 0.2 (0.04–0.37, p = 0.02) higher in the modified-release opioid group over this time period (Fig. 3). Based on the GRADE component, there is low confidence that this estimate of effect lies close to the true effect due to subjective and an insufficient timeframe for outcome measurement, potential publication bias related to pharmaceutical industry funding and limited applicability of pain outcomes to surgical contexts

outside of the procedures reported in the included trials (Table 2). Minimal heterogeneity was found across studies reporting safety outcomes (Fig. 3).

Of the two randomised controlled trials not included in the meta-analysis [29,30], one reported that modified-release oxycodone use was associated with higher visual analogue scale pain scores at all time-points compared with those patients given immediate-release oxycodone after elective coronary artery bypass graft ( $p < 0.05$ ) [30]. The other randomised controlled trial reported no difference in pain intensity between modified-release and immediate-release opioid groups following laparoscopic cholecystectomy (Table 1) [29].

Of five trials reporting on the quantity of opioid use after surgery [29-32,36], three examined opioid dose [29-31] and five examined rescue analgesia use [29-32,36]. Due to significant heterogeneity in reporting of opioid or rescue analgesic use between included trials, a meta-analysis was not conducted.

One randomised controlled trial reported higher oxycodone use among patients given modified-release compared with immediate-release oxycodone after elective caesarean section, with a median (IQR) oxycodone dose over 28 h of 30 (30–40) mg vs. 25 (20–35) mg ( $p = 0.001$ ) [31]. The remaining two trials reported no significant difference in the quantity of opioids used between modified-release and immediate-release opioid groups [29,30].

Two trials reported a higher quantity of rescue analgesia used among the modified-release compared with the immediate-release opioid group [30,36]. One trial reported higher quantities of immediate-release oxycodone ( $p = 0.01$ ) and paracetamol ( $p = 0.05$ ) used at all time-points after elective coronary artery bypass graft [30] among participants given modified-release compared with immediate-release oxycodone after surgery. Another trial reported participants given modified-release morphine used higher quantities of paracetamol, with a mean (SD) paracetamol use over 24 h after primary unilateral bunionectomy of 1320.0 (978.1) mg compared with 1219.3 (881.4) mg among those given immediate-release opioids (statistical significance not reported) [36].

Three trials reported no difference in the quantity of rescue analgesics used between modified-release and immediate-release opioid groups (Table 1) [29,31,32].

One trial allocated 84 participants randomly to receive modified-release or immediate-release codeine after laparoscopic cholecystectomy and reported no difference in physical function between groups ( $p = 0.7$ ) [29].

Two double-blind randomised controlled trials reported on length of hospital stay and hospital readmission rates [29,30]. Both reported no difference in length of hospital stay [30] or hospital readmission rates [29,30] between modified-release and immediate-release opioid groups (Table 1). One retrospective cohort study examined the incidence of persistent postoperative opioid use among 92,863 surgical patients following hospital discharge [13]. Patients given modified-release opioids following surgery had a higher incidence of persistent opioid use at three months (opioid naïve 4.8% vs. 1.3%; opioid experienced 32.6% vs. 23.7%, statistical significance not reported) and six months (opioid naïve 0.9% vs. 0.3%; opioid experienced 19.7% vs. 15.4%, statistical significance not reported) postoperatively compared with those given only immediate-release opioids after surgery (Table 1) [13]. No studies reported on psychological function, costs, or quality of life outcomes.

## **Discussion**

This systematic review and meta-analysis identified eight studies examining the safety and efficacy of oral modified-release opioids compared with oral immediate-release opioids after surgery. Based on low-quality evidence, modified-release opioid use was associated with a higher incidence of opioid-related adverse events and worse pain compared with immediate-release opioid use only following surgery. Modified-release opioids showed no superiority over immediate-release opioids for analgesic consumption or physical function after surgery. Few studies reported on length of hospital stay and readmission rates after discharge and, where included, no significant differences between groups overall were observed. One large observational study showed that modified-release opioid use is associated with a higher incidence of persistent postoperative opioid use compared with immediate-release opioid use only after surgery [13]. No studies examined differences in the incidence of opioid-induced ventilatory impairment, psychological functioning, costs or quality of life associated with the use of modified vs. immediate-release opioids after surgery.

There is increasing evidence to suggest that the harms associated with modified-release opioid use for acute postoperative pain may outweigh potential benefits. The manufacturers of modified-release opioid formulations such as modified-release oxycodone in Australia [37], the UK [38] and the USA [39] explicitly advise against use within the first 24 h after surgery, first 12–24 h after

surgery and immediate postoperative periods, respectively. Previous systematic reviews assessing the safety and efficacy of modified-release opioid preparations have largely focused on cancer-related pain and chronic non-cancer pain [18,19]. A systematic review performed by Mesgarpour et al. in 2013 examining nine studies involving modified-release opioids for the management of cancer-related pain showed no significant differences in safety or efficacy among patients given modified-release compared with immediate-release opioids [18]. Another systematic review of six studies by Pedersen et al. published in 2014 reported that modified-release opioid use in the context of chronic non-cancer pain was associated with no difference in pain relief, rescue analgesia consumption, the incidence of adverse events, sleep quality or physical function compared with immediate-release opioid use [19]. Therefore, the existing literature on the use of modified-release opioids in other contexts aligns with our findings that modified-release opioids do not provide superior pain relief, physical function or analgesic use outcomes compared with immediate-release opioids. Our systematic review adds to the literature by highlighting that modified-release opioid use in the context of acute postoperative pain is associated with a higher incidence of opioid-related adverse events during hospital stay and persistent postoperative opioid use, and worse pain compared with immediate-release opioids. This aligns with and provides support for existing international guidelines discouraging prescription of modified-release opioids for acute postoperative pain [14-17,40]. Given modified-release opioids provide limited benefits over immediate-release opioids and are associated with an increased risk of harm when used after surgery, they should not be used for the management of acute postoperative pain in adults. In light of these findings, revision of guidelines which continue to recommend the use of modified-release opioids for postoperative analgesia [41,42] may be required.

Of the included studies, many failed to report a pre-specified analysis plan or adequately blind patients and investigators, which led to an increased risk of bias. The overall quality of the evidence was low. Further high-quality studies examining the safety and efficacy of modified-release compared with immediate-release opioid use after surgery are warranted to validate our findings. Future studies should consider comprehensive reporting of outcomes in line with existing literature to enhance generalisability and facilitate comparison against other studies. Limited studies reported on the length of hospital stay, readmission rates and persistent postoperative opioid use, and no studies examined the incidence of opioid-induced ventilatory impairment, costs, psychological functioning, or quality of life associated with the use of oral modified-release compared with immediate-release opioids after surgery. This represents an avenue for future research to strengthen the available evidence in this area.

A study describing the use of modified-release opioids for postoperative pain has since been retracted due to falsification [43] and was not eligible for inclusion in this review. Furthermore, five [13,29,32,35,36] of the eight studies included in the present review declared affiliations or funding from the pharmaceutical industry. A previous systematic review demonstrated that pharmaceutical industry sponsorship is associated with an increased likelihood of outcomes that are favourable to the funder than studies with other sponsors [44]. The impact of research funding by the pharmaceutical industry on study outcomes related to modified-release opioid use remains unknown. Further investigation is warranted to examine the impact of the retracted or pharmaceutical industry-sponsored articles describing modified-release opioid use on the literature and subsequent effects on health policy and clinical practice.

There are several limitations to this study. Although we performed a rigorous search across five electronic databases, the search strategy was limited to articles written in the English language. Thus, relevant articles in other languages may have been excluded. Grey literature was not searched, and this may introduce a degree of publication bias. There was variability in opioid dosing frequency between studies, where opioid dosing on a regular or as-required basis may produce different serum opioid concentrations postoperatively, leading to variability in outcomes between studies. Given that pain scores are non-parametric outcomes, reporting of median (IQR) is more appropriate than reporting of mean (SD). However, several of the included studies reported pain scores using mean and SD, which may compromise the reliability of the findings of individual studies and thus the review as a whole. The definition of opioid-related adverse events varied between studies, which limits the accuracy and reliability of the aggregated incidence of adverse events across studies. Furthermore, the incidence of persistent postoperative opioid use was only reported in one study, which limits the reliability of conclusions regarding this outcome. The study findings may not be generalisable to surgery types that were not included in the review. Thus, the safety and efficacy of modified-release opioids in patients undergoing these surgeries remains unknown. Finally, several studies showed some concerns of bias and the overall quality of the evidence was low. This may reduce confidence that the reported findings reflect the true effect of the interventions for these studies.

### **Acknowledgements**

This review was registered prospectively on PROSPERO (ID: CRD42022313665). SL and AA contributed jointly to the manuscript. The authors would like to acknowledge the support provided

by E. Tam (Academic Liaison Librarian, University of Sydney) during search strategy development. SL, JS, JP have received grant funding for an unrelated trial from the AVANT Research Foundation. SL is supported by a NHMRC Postgraduate Scholarship and a Prince of Wales Hospital Foundation Grant. DL has received an unrestricted educational grant from B. Braun for unrelated work and also received speaker's honoraria for unrelated work from Abbott, Nestlé and Corza. These funding sources had no role in the design of the study, data collection and analysis or preparation of the manuscript.

## References

1. Karanges EA, Blanch B, Buckley NA, Pearson SA. Twenty-five years of prescription opioid use in Australia: a whole-of-population analysis using pharmaceutical claims. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology* 2016; **82**: 255-67.
2. Awadalla R, Liu S, Kemp-Casey A, et al. Impact of an Australian/New Zealand organisational position statement on extended-release opioid prescribing among surgical inpatients: a dual centre before-and-after study. *Anaesthesia* 2021; **76**: 1607-15.
3. Kehlet H, Dahl JB. The value of “multimodal” or “balanced analgesia” in postoperative pain treatment. *Anesthesia and Analgesia* 1993; **77**: 1048-56.
4. Levy N, Mills P. Controlled-release opioids cause harm and should be avoided in management of postoperative pain in opioid naïve patients. *British Journal of Anaesthesia* 2019; **122**: e86-e90.
5. Quinlan J, Levy N, Lobo DN, Macintyre PE. No place for routine use of modified-release opioids in postoperative pain management. *British Journal of Anaesthesia* 2022; **129**: 290-3.
6. Lee LA, Caplan RA, Stephens LS, et al. Postoperative opioid-induced respiratory depression: a closed claims analysis. *Anesthesiology* 2015; **122**: 659-65.
7. Liu S, Patanwala AE, Naylor JM, Penm J. Effect of discharge opioid on persistent postoperative opioid use. *Anaesthesia* 2023; **78**: 659.
8. Sunshine A, Olson NZ, Colon A, et al. Analgesic efficacy of controlled-release oxycodone in postoperative pain. *Journal of Clinical Pharmacology* 1996; **36**: 595-603.
9. Tan ACH, Bugeja BA, Begley DA, Stevens JA, Khor K-E, Penm J. Postoperative use of slow-release opioids: The impact of the Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists/Faculty of Pain Medicine position statement on clinical practice. *Anaesthesia and Intensive Care* 2020; **48**: 444-53.
10. Schug SA PG, Scott DA et al. *Acute Pain Management Scientific Evidence 5th edition*. Melbourne: Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists and Faculty of Pain Medicine, 2020.
11. Cheville A, Chen A, Oster G, McGarry L, Narcessian E. A randomized trial of controlled-release oxycodone during inpatient rehabilitation following unilateral total knee arthroplasty. *Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery (American Volume)* 2001; **83**: 572-6.
12. Shah A, Hayes CJ, Martin BC. Characteristics of initial prescription episodes and likelihood of long-term opioid use — United States, 2006–2015. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2017; **66**: 265-9.
13. Lam T, Xia T, Biggs N, et al. Effect of discharge opioid on persistent postoperative opioid use: a retrospective cohort study comparing tapentadol with oxycodone. *Anaesthesia* 2023; **78**: 420-31.
14. United Kingdom Royal College of Anaesthetists and Faculty of Pain Medicine. Surgery and Opioids: Best Practice Guidelines, 2021. [https://fpm.ac.uk/sites/fpm/files/documents/2021-03/surgery-and-opioids-2021\\_4.pdf](https://fpm.ac.uk/sites/fpm/files/documents/2021-03/surgery-and-opioids-2021_4.pdf) (Accessed 18 February 2023).
15. Dowell D, Ragan KR, Jones CM, Baldwin GT, Chou R. CDC Clinical Practice Guideline for Prescribing Opioids for Pain - United States, 2022. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report Recommendations and Reports* 2022; **71**: 1-95.
16. Chou R, Gordon DB, de Leon-Casasola OA, et al. Management of Postoperative Pain: a clinical practice guideline from the American Pain Society, the American Society of Regional Anesthesia and Pain Medicine, and the American Society of Anesthesiologists' Committee on Regional Anesthesia, Executive Committee, and Administrative Council. *Journal of Pain* 2016; **17**: 131-57.
17. Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists (ANZCA) and the Faculty of Pain Medicine (FPM). PS41(G) Position statement on acute pain management, 2022. <https://www.anzca.edu.au/getattachment/558316c5-ea93-457c-b51f-d57556b0ffa7/PS41-Guideline-on-acute-pain-management> (Accessed 23 November 2022).

18. Mesgarpour B, Griebler U, Glechner A, et al. Extended-release opioids in the management of cancer pain: A systematic review of efficacy and safety. *European Journal of Pain* 2014; **18**: 605-16.
19. Pedersen L, Borchgrevink P, Riphagen I, Fredheim O. Long-or short-acting opioids for chronic non-malignant pain? A qualitative systematic review. *Acta Anaesthesiologica Scandinavica* 2014; **58**: 390-401.
20. Wainwright TW, Gill M, McDonald DA, et al. Consensus statement for perioperative care in total hip replacement and total knee replacement surgery: Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS®) Society recommendations. *Acta Orthopaedica* 2020; **91**: 3-19.
21. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *British Medical Journal* 2021; **372**: n71.
22. Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists (ANZCA). Position statement on the use of slow-release opioid preparations in the treatment of acute pain., 2018. <https://www.anzca.edu.au/getattachment/d9e2a7c5-0f17-42d3-bda7-c6dae7e55ced/Position-statement-on-the-use-of-slow-release-opioid-preparations-in-the-treatment-of-acute-pain> (Accessed 10 May 2021).
23. Levy N, Quinlan J, El-Boghdadly K, et al. An international multidisciplinary consensus statement on the prevention of opioid-related harm in adult surgical patients. *Anaesthesia* 2021; **76**: 520-36.
24. Sterne JA, Savović J, Page MJ, et al. RoB 2: a revised tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. *British Medical Journal* 2019; **366**: l4898.
25. Sterne JAC, Hernán MA, Reeves BC, et al. ROBINS-I: a tool for assessing risk of bias in non-randomised studies of interventions. *British Medical Journal* 2016; **355**: i4919.
26. Schünemann H, Brožek J, Guyatt G, Oxman A. Handbook for grading the quality of evidence and the strength of recommendations using the GRADE approach. *Updated October 2013*; <https://gdt.gradepro.org/app/handbook/handbook.html> (Accessed 10 January 2023)
27. Meader N, King K, Llewellyn A, et al. A checklist designed to aid consistency and reproducibility of GRADE assessments: development and pilot validation. *Systematic Reviews* 2014; **3**: 1-9.
28. Deeks JJ HJ, Altman DG (editors). Chapter 10: Analysing data and undertaking meta-analyses. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA (editors), 2022. [www.training.cochrane.org/handbook](http://www.training.cochrane.org/handbook) (Accessed 10 January 2023)
29. Chung F, Tong D, Miceli PC, et al. Controlled-release codeine is equivalent to acetaminophen plus codeine for post-cholecystectomy analgesia. *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia* 2004; **51**: 216-21.
30. Kogan A, Medalion B, Raanani E, et al. Early oral analgesia after fast-track cardiac anesthesia. *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia* 2007; **54**: 254-61.
31. Schoenwald A, Windsor C, Gosden E, Douglas C. Nurse practitioner led pain management the day after caesarean section: A randomised controlled trial and follow-up study. *International Journal of Nursing Studies* 2018; **78**: 1-9.
32. Park Y-B, Ha C-W, Cho S-D, et al. A randomized study to compare the efficacy and safety of extended-release and immediate-release tramadol HCl/acetaminophen in patients with acute pain following total knee replacement. *Current Medical Research and Opinion* 2015; **31**: 75-84.
33. DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials revisited. *Contemporary Clinical Trials* 2015; **45**: 139-45.
34. Kerpsack JM, Fankhauser RA. The use of controlled-release versus scheduled oxycodone in the immediate postoperative period following total joint arthroplasty. *Orthopedics* 2005; **28**: 491-4.

35. Oppermann JMD, Bredow JMD, Spies CKMD, et al. Effect of prolonged-released oxycodone/naloxone in postoperative pain management after total knee replacement: a nonrandomized prospective trial. *Journal of Clinical Anesthesia* 2016; **33**: 491-7.
36. Scholz A, Bothmer J, Kok M, Hoschen K, Daniels S. Cebranopadol: A Novel, First-in-class, strong analgesic: results from a randomized phase IIa clinical trial in postoperative acute pain. *Pain Physician* 2018; **21**: E193-E205.
37. MIMS Australia. OxyContin Product Information (MIMs Online), 2021. [https://www-mimsonline-com-au.ezproxy.library.sydney.edu.au/Search/FullPI.aspx?ModuleName=Product%20Info&searchKeyword=oxycontin&PreviousPage=~/Search/QuickSearch.aspx&SearchType=&ID=15530001\\_2](https://www-mimsonline-com-au.ezproxy.library.sydney.edu.au/Search/FullPI.aspx?ModuleName=Product%20Info&searchKeyword=oxycontin&PreviousPage=~/Search/QuickSearch.aspx&SearchType=&ID=15530001_2) (Accessed 22 February 2023).
38. Electronic Medicines Compendium. OxyContin 5 mg prolonged release tablets, 2022. <https://www.medicines.org.uk/emc/product/3415/smpc#gref> (Accessed 22 February 2023).
39. The United States Food and Drug Administration. OxyContin Package Insert, 2009. [https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\\_docs/label/2009/020553s060lbl.pdf](https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2009/020553s060lbl.pdf) (Accessed 22 February 2023).
40. United States Food and Drug Administration. FDA announces new safety label changes for opioid pain medicines, 2023. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-safety-and-availability/fda-announces-new-safety-label-changes-opioid-pain-medicines> (Accessed 28 May 2023).
41. Tan M, Law LS-C, Gan TJ. Optimizing pain management to facilitate Enhanced Recovery After Surgery pathways. *Canadian Journal of Anesthesia* 2015; **62**: 203-18.
42. National Health Service Getting It Right First Time. National Day Surgery Delivery Pack, 2020. [https://www.gettingitrightfirsttime.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/NSDSP\\_appendices\\_final.pdf](https://www.gettingitrightfirsttime.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/NSDSP_appendices_final.pdf) (Accessed 14 February 2023).
43. Reuben SS, Connelly NR, Maciolek H. Postoperative analgesia with controlled-release oxycodone for outpatient anterior cruciate ligament surgery [retracted]. *Anesthesia and Analgesia* 1999; **88**: 1286-91.
44. Lexchin J, Bero LA, Djulbegovic B, Clark O. Pharmaceutical industry sponsorship and research outcome and quality: systematic review. *British Medical Journal* 2003; **326**: 1167-70.

**Table 1 Summary of included studies reporting on the safety and effect of modified-release opioid use after surgery.**

Author, Funding	Study design, Study size: modified-release opioid group vs. comparison group, Surgery performed	Analgesics: modified-release opioid group vs. comparison group	Outcomes (modified-release opioid group vs. comparison group)				
			Safety (adverse events)	Effectiveness/efficacy			Other (incidence of PPOU, length of hospital stay, hospital readmission, psychological function, costs, quality of life)
				Pain intensity	Analgesic use	Physical function	
Chung et al. [29]  Study partially supported by grant from Purdue Pharma (Canada) Inc.	Double-blind, randomised controlled trial  n = 42 vs. 42  Laparoscopic cholecystectomy	MR oral codeine 150 mg twice daily on POD 1, then 100 mg twice daily on POD 2 regularly  vs.  IR oral codeine 60 mg with paracetamol 600 mg 6-hourly on POD 1, then codeine 30 mg with paracetamol 300 mg 6-hourly on POD 2 regularly	No significant difference for incidence of adverse events (incidence NR, p = NR).	No significant difference in reduction in mean VAS pain intensity from baseline between groups (30 minutes after first dose 29.5% vs. 29.4%, p = 0.7, other time-points p = NR).	No significant differences for daily dose (p = 0.4) or number of doses of rescue fentanyl per day (p = 0.5).	No significant difference for physical function between groups (p = 0.7).	Length of stay: no significant difference between groups (p = NR).  Hospital readmission: no significant difference between groups (p = NR).
Kogan et al. [30]	Double-blind	MR oral oxycodone	Overall: 20% vs. 11.7%	MR mean VAS pain	Total mean	NR	Length of

<p>No funding declared.</p>	<p>randomised controlled trial  n = 60 vs. 60  Elective coronary artery bypass graft</p>	<p>10 mg twice daily regularly  vs.  IR oral oxycodone 5 mg four times daily regularly</p>	<p>(p = NR)  Somnolence: 11.7% vs. 2.2% (p = 0.01)  No significant difference for nausea (23.3% vs. 26.7%, p = 0.52), pruritus (3.3% vs. 3.3%, p = NR), vomiting (3.3% vs. 5%, p = 0.31), dizziness (1.7% vs. 1.7%, p = NR), headache (1.7% vs. 0%, p = NR) and atrial fibrillation (20% vs. 18.3%, p = 0.26).</p>	<p>scores were significantly higher (p &lt; 0.05) at all time points, including at 24 h postoperatively: 2.2 (0.4) vs. 1.1 (0.4) (p &lt; 0.05).</p>	<p>morphine equivalent use: 9.5 (5.6) vs. 8.8 (5.1) mg (p = 0.09)  MR had more rescue oxycodone IR (p = 0.01) and paracetamol (p = 0.05) at all time-points</p>		<p>hospital stay: 4.1 (1.3) vs. 4.5 (1.8) days (p = 0.3).</p>
<p>Park et al. [32]  Two authors are employees of Janssen Korea.</p>	<p>Double-blind randomised controlled trial  n = 161 vs. 153  Total knee arthroplasty</p>	<p>MR oral tramadol 150 mg with 1300 mg paracetamol 12-hourly regularly  vs.  IR oral tramadol 75 mg with 650 mg paracetamol 6-hourly regularly</p>	<p>Discontinuation due to adverse event: 9.9% vs. 3.3% (p = 0.018).  Nausea: 49.7% vs. 44.4% (p = NR).  Vomiting: 28% vs. 24.2% (p = NR).  Constipation: 24.2% vs. 19.6% (p = NR).</p>	<p>MR opioid group reported less pain relief than IR opioid group: SPID at 24-h post-administration 14.7(15.3) vs. 18.1(12.5) (p = 0.034). Mean difference in SPID at 24 h post-administration -3.37 (one-sided 97.5%CI - 6.47 to - 0.26).</p>	<p>No significant difference in mean frequency or dosage of rescue medication used between groups (p &gt; 0.05).</p>	<p>NR</p>	<p>NR</p>

<p>Schoenwald et al. [31]</p> <p>Funding from Queensland University of Technology Scholarship</p>	<p>Double-blind randomised controlled trial</p> <p>n = 66 vs. 65</p> <p>Elective caesarean section</p>	<p>MR oral oxycodone 10 mg twice daily regularly</p> <p>vs.</p> <p>IR oral oxycodone 20 mg daily dose (divided in 3 doses) when required</p>	<p>No significant difference for nausea (U = 1333, p = 0.8), itching (U = 1367, p = 0.9) or drowsiness (U = 1326, p = 0.7).</p>	<p>No significant difference for VAS pain at rest (95%CI - 4.8–11.9 mm, p = 0.40) or during sitting/movement (95%CI -15.2–8.3 mm, p = 0.6) over 24 h.</p> <p>Median (IQR) total Brief Pain Inventory pain interference (higher score indicating more pain interference): 25 (11–39) vs. 15 (8–34) (p = 0.03).</p>	<p>Median (IQR) oxycodone dose over 28 h: 30 (30–40) mg vs. 25 (20–35) mg (p = 0.001)<sup>a</sup></p> <p>No difference for rescue tramadol use (U = 1565, p = 1.0).</p>	<p>NR</p>	<p>NR</p>
<p>Scholz et al. [36]</p> <p>Grünenthal funded and designed the trial and analysed and interpreted the data. Several authors are employees of Grünenthal.</p>	<p>Double-blind randomised controlled trial</p> <p>n = 50 vs. 161</p> <p>Primary unilateral bunionectomy</p>	<p>MR oral morphine 60 mg single dose</p> <p>vs.</p> <p>IR oral cebranopadol 200 µg, 400 µg or 600 µg single dose</p>	<p>Total treatment-emergent adverse events: 92% vs. 76% (p = NR).</p>	<p>Mean (SD) sum of pain intensity using NRS for first 2–10 h for MR morphine 43.8 (22.5) vs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- cebranopadol 600 µg: vs. 37.0 (22.9) (p = 0.04).</li> <li>- cebranopadol 400 µg: 36.6 (19.3) (p = 0.06).</li> <li>- cebranopadol 200 µg: 47.8 (19.6)</li> </ul>	<p>Median time to first paracetamol use: MR morphine 4.2 h vs. 7.2 h (p = NR).</p> <p>Mean (SD) amount of paracetamol used in first 24 h: MR morphine 1320.0 (978.1) mg vs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- cebranopadol 600 µg: 1219.3 (881.4) mg</li> </ul>	<p>NR</p>	<p>NR</p>

				(p = 0.2).	- cebranopadol 400 µg: 1281.3 (972.5) mg - cebranopadol 200 µg: 1490.6 (890.6) mg (p = NR).		
Kerpsack et al. [34]  No funding declared.	Prospective observational study  n = 57 vs. 59  Primary total knee or hip arthroplasty	MR oral oxycodone 20 mg to 40 mg (frequency NR)  vs.  IR oral oxycodone 10 mg with paracetamol (dose NR) 4-hourly regularly	NR	Total McGill Short Form Pain Questionnaire total score on morning of POD 1: 9.8 vs. 12.0 (p = 0.03).  VAS pain intensity on morning of POD 2: 4.0 vs. 3.5 (p = 0.02).  No significant differences between groups at all other time-points (p = NR).	No significant difference for mean number of breakthrough doses between groups (2.6 vs. 3.2, p = 0.6).	NR	NR
Lam et al. [13]  Funded by untied educational grant from Seqirus Pty Ltd.	Retrospective observational study  n = 43,473 vs. 79,363 (opioid naïve 31,952 vs. 66,485 opioid experienced	Any oral MR opioid ± oral IR opioid prescribed after hospital discharge  vs.  Any IR oral opioid	NR	NR	NR	NR	Incidence of PPOU: - At 3 months after surgery among opioid naïve patients: 4.8% vs. 1.3% (p = NR)

	11,521 vs. 12,878)  All surgical procedures	prescribed after hospital discharge					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- At 6 months after surgery among opioid naïve patients 0.9% vs. 0.3% (p = NR)</li> <li>- At 3 months after surgery among opioid experienced patients 32.6% vs. 23.7% (p = NR)</li> <li>- At 6 months after surgery among opioid experienced patients 19.7% vs. 15.4% (p = NR)</li> </ul>
Oppermann et al. [35]  Study designed and conducted under sponsorship by Mundipharma	Prospective observational study  n = 43 vs. 37  Primary total knee arthroplasty	MR oral oxycodone/naloxone 10/5 mg twice daily regularly  vs.  IR piritramide, IR	Overall: 23% vs. 38% (p = NR).  No significant difference for bowel function index (p = NR).	No significant difference for Brief Pain Inventory Short-Form scores between groups (p > 0.001).	Mean (SD) daily oxycodone dose: 23.3 (15.3) mg vs. 19.9 (8.3) mg (p = NR).  Rescue opioid analgesic use: 39.5%	MR oxycodone/naloxone group had higher modified Larson function score (p = 0.02).	NR

Research GmbH & Co KG, Limburg an der Lahn, Germany		tramadol, or IR oxycodone (dose, route, frequency NR)			vs. 86.5% (p = NR).	No significant differences for Hospital for Special Surgery score (p = 0.19) or ability to attend physical therapy (p = NR).	
--	--	---	--	--	---------------------	--	--

<sup>a</sup> Values confirmed with corresponding author of study.

PPOU, persistent postoperative opioid use; MR, modified-release; POD, postoperative day; IR, immediate-release; NR, not reported; VAS, visual analogue scale; SPID, sum of pain intensity difference; NRS, numerical rating scale.

**Table 2 GRADE assessment for safety and efficacy outcomes associated with modified-release compared with immediate-release opioid use following surgery.**

Outcomes	No. of participants	Certainty of the evidence, GRADE component <sup>a</sup>	Effect estimates	
			Relative (95%CI)	Absolute (95%CI)
Incidence of opioid-related adverse events during inpatient stay	645 (3 RCTs)	⊕⊕○○ Low <sup>b, c</sup>	OR 2.76 (1.52–5.04)	248 more per 1000 (101 more–379 more)
Pain intensity 0–24 h postoperatively	550 (3 RCTs)	⊕⊕○○ Low <sup>b, c, d, e</sup>	N/A	SMD 0.2 higher (0.04 higher–0.37 higher)

RCT, randomised controlled trial; N/A, not applicable; SMD, standardised mean difference.

<sup>a</sup> High, high confidence that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect; moderate, moderate confidence that the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but with a possibility that it is substantially different; low, confidence and the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect; very low, very little confidence and the true effect is likely to be substantially different from estimate of effect.

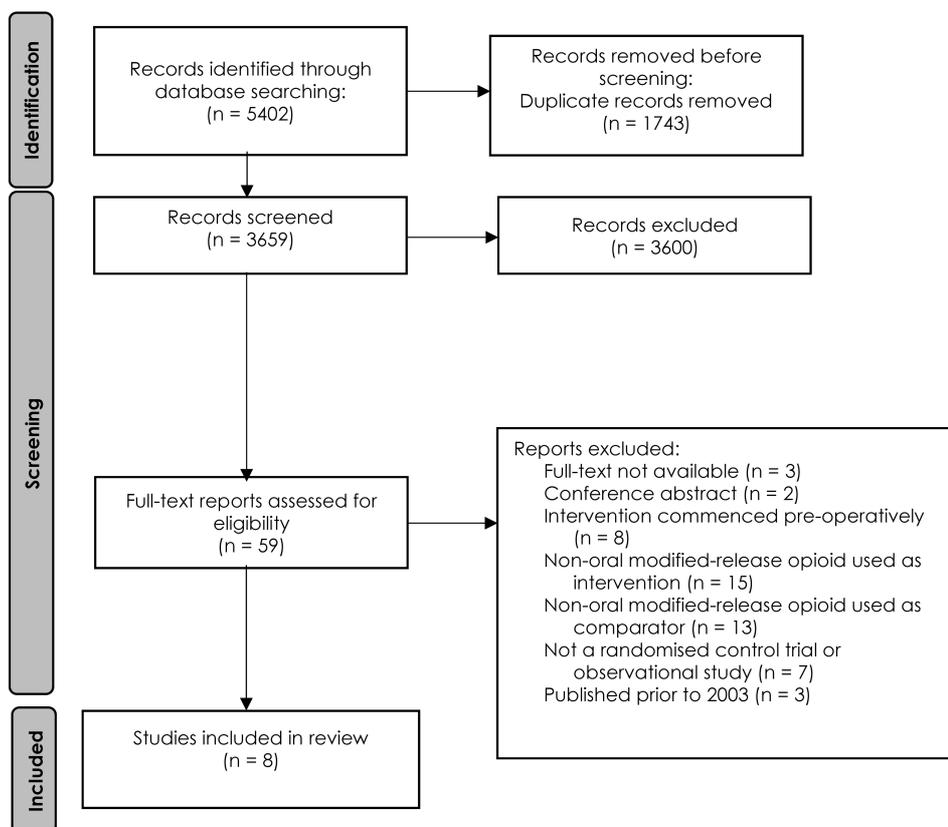
<sup>b</sup> Some studies only measured this outcome during hospital inpatient stay. Given modified-release opioids are often supplied following hospital discharge after surgery, this outcome timeframe may be insufficient to detect outcomes occurring after hospital discharge.

<sup>c</sup> Two authors in Park et al. [33] were employees of Janssen Korea. The study by Scholz et al. [38] was funded, designed and analysed by Grünenthal.

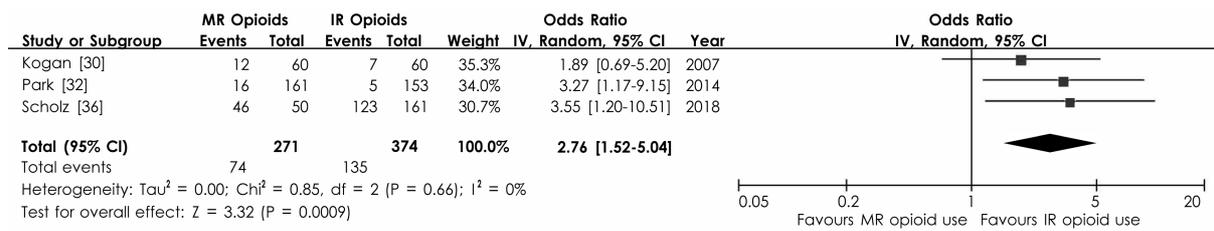
<sup>d</sup> Pain intensity may be a subjective outcome measure (measured using visual analogue scale or numeric rating scale)

<sup>e</sup> Pain outcomes related to the surgical populations in the included studies may not be applicable to other contexts.

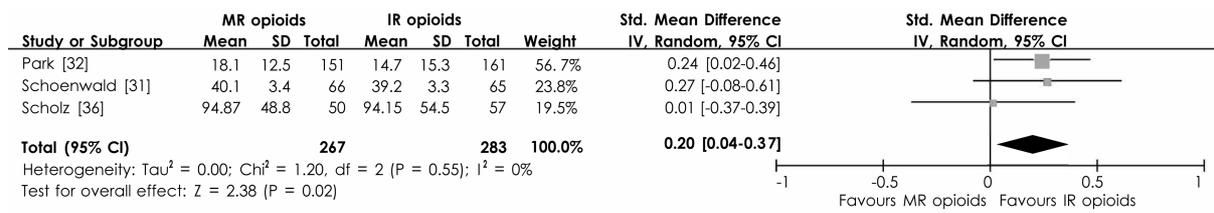
## Figures



**Figure 1** Study flow diagram.



**Figure 2** Incidence of opioid-related adverse events during inpatient stay among participants given modified-release opioids compared with immediate-release opioids in sensitivity analysis articles with low risk of bias. MR, modified-release; IR, immediate-release; IV, Random, inverse variance random effects model used.



**Figure 3** Pain intensity over the first 24 h postoperatively among participants given modified-release opioids compared with immediate-release opioids in sensitivity analysis articles with low risk of bias. MR, modified-release; IR, immediate-release; IV, Random, inverse variance random effects model used.

## **Online Supporting Information**

**Table S1** Full search strategy

**Table S2** GRADE assessment checklist of studies included in the meta-analysis.

**Table S3** Risk of bias assessments of the included studies.