THE UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND

University of Rhode Island DigitalCommons@URI

Pharmacy Practice Faculty Publications

Pharmacy Practice

2018

Rx for addiction and medication safety: An evaluation of teen education for opioid misuse prevention

Emily Patry University of Rhode Island

Jeffrey P. Bratberg University of Rhode Island, jefbratberg@uri.edu

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/php_facpubs

The University of Rhode Island Faculty have made this article openly available. Please let us know how Open Access to this research benefits you.

This is a pre-publication author manuscript of the final, published article.

Terms of Use

This article is made available under the terms and conditions applicable towards Open Access Policy Articles, as set forth in our Terms of Use.

Citation/Publisher Attribution

Patry, E., Bratberg, J. P., Buchanan, A., Paiva, A. L., Balestrieri, S., & Matson, K. L. (2018). Rx for addiction and medication safety: An evaluation of teen education for opioid misuse prevention. *Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy*, 15(8), 917-924. doi: 10.1016/j.sapharm.2018.07.006

Available at: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sapharm.2018.07.006

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Pharmacy Practice at DigitalCommons@URI. It has been accepted for inclusion in Pharmacy Practice Faculty Publications by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@URI. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@etal.uri.edu.

Authors

Emily Patry, Jeffrey P. Bratberg, Ashley L. Buchanan, Andrea L. Paiva, Sara Balestrieri, and Kelly L. Matson

1 ABSTRACT

2

3 Background: Rhode Island (RI) ninth graders report lifetime nonmedical use of prescription opioids 4 (NMUPO) of 8.9%. NMUPO is associated with transition to heroin use, opioid overdose, and death. 5 6 Objectives: Measure changes in 9th grade students' knowledge, confidence, perceptions of opioid use 7 disorder prevention, overdose response with naloxone, treatment, and recovery, following the delivery 8 of an interactive substance use disorder curriculum. 9 10 Methods: Eight RI public high schools were recruited to participate. Freshman in each school were 11 administered identical surveys that collected demographic data, substance use and misuse knowledge, 12 students' perceptions of substance misuse harm, reported drug use, and risk and protective behaviors 13 before and after the curriculum. 14 15 Results: Among 969 pre-intervention survey respondents, 19% reported use of marijuana, 3% heroin 16 use, and 21% nonmedical use of prescription opioids. Between the pre-intervention to the post-17 intervention survey, significantly more students identified that addiction is a chronic brain disease (79% 18 to 83%, p = 0.05), drug users are not responsible for their addiction (81% to 88%, p = 0.001), and that 19 non-medical use of a prescription medication is use without a prescription (81% to 88%, p = 0.001). 20 Improved confidence was also reported in identifying opioid withdrawal symptoms (26% to 45%, $p < 10^{-10}$ 21 0.0001), identifying signs of an opioid overdose from 29% to 46% (p < 0.0001), and knowing when to 22 administer naloxone (17% to 45%, p < 0.0001). Confidence to refer someone to treatment improved 23 from 31% to 45% (p < 0.0001). Logistic regression showed associations between mental health, peer 24 use, parental affection, and academic performance factors as related to NMUPO.

26	Conclusions: Students reported significant NMUPO prevalence. Ninth grade students' knowledge and
27	confidence of opioid misuse, overdose response, and recovery resources increased following the
28	delivery of a multi-modal interactive substance use disorder curriculum. Community, school, and
29	student-level multifaceted interventions are needed to prevent reduce NMUPO among adolescents.
30	
31	Keywords: opioids, misuse, prevention, pharmacy, adolescent
32	Abbreviations: nonmedical use of prescription opioids (NMUPO), opioid use disorder (OUD), Rx for
33	Addiction and Medication Safety (RAMS)
34	Funding: This work was supported by the University of Rhode Island College of Pharmacy Healthcare
35	Research Operating Fund Kingston RI. The URI College of Pharmacy Healthcare Research Operating
36	Fund did not have a role in study design, collection or analysis of data, or in the writing of the
37	manuscript.
38	
39	
40	
41	

42 BACKGROUND

43

44	In 2016, 881,000 or 4% of 12-17 year olds in the United States misused opioid pain relievers in the past
45	year, defined as taking them not as directed, using someone else's prescription, or using them for
46	reasons other than intended. ¹ The most common opioid reported misused was hydrocodone, and the
47	most common reason reported for misuse was to relieve physical pain. An average of 5% of Rhode
48	Islanders aged 12 and older reported past year nonmedical use of prescription opioids (NMUPO)
49	between 2012-2014, the highest in New England. ^{2,3} While past year NMUPO is prevalent in 12-17 year
50	olds (5%), it almost doubles in young adults aged 18-25 to 7.6%. ⁴ In 2017, the percentage of students in
51	9th grade that reported ever using prescription pain medicine non-medically was 8.9%, 10.6% of males
52	and 6.3% females. ⁵ Importantly, these measures are self-reported and subject to social desirability bias,
53	and thus NMUPO may be underreported by as much as 35% in this population. ⁶
54	
55	People who misuse opioids frequently obtained opioids from a friend or relative, or were prescribed
55 56	People who misuse opioids frequently obtained opioids from a friend or relative, or were prescribed them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent
56	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent
56 57	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent family members nationally, prescribing among children and adolescents was infrequent and
56 57 58	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent family members nationally, prescribing among children and adolescents was infrequent and unchanging. ⁷ Still, Miech, et al. reported a 33% increase in the risk of NMUPO among young adults who
56 57 58 59	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent family members nationally, prescribing among children and adolescents was infrequent and unchanging. ⁷ Still, Miech, et al. reported a 33% increase in the risk of NMUPO among young adults who were appropriately prescribed an opioid before 12th grade. ⁸ NMUPO is associated with increasing rates
56 57 58 59 60	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent family members nationally, prescribing among children and adolescents was infrequent and unchanging. ⁷ Still, Miech, et al. reported a 33% increase in the risk of NMUPO among young adults who were appropriately prescribed an opioid before 12th grade. ⁸ NMUPO is associated with increasing rates of emergency room visits, inpatient admissions, transition to subsequent heroin use, increased risk of
56 57 58 59 60 61	them from one doctor. ¹ As opioid prescribing dramatically increased among adults and adolescent family members nationally, prescribing among children and adolescents was infrequent and unchanging. ⁷ Still, Miech, et al. reported a 33% increase in the risk of NMUPO among young adults who were appropriately prescribed an opioid before 12th grade. ⁸ NMUPO is associated with increasing rates of emergency room visits, inpatient admissions, transition to subsequent heroin use, increased risk of HIV and HCV infection, opioid-involved overdose, and death among adolescents. ^{9–13} The risk of

65 students' reported use and impressions of drug risk and availability, shows improving trends regarding

66 opioid misuse.¹⁶ 12th graders report the lowest levels of non-heroin opioid use, and 8th, 10th, and 12th 67 graders report decreasing opioid availability, and increasing or sustained perceived risk and disapproval 68 of non-medical use of prescription opioids.¹⁶ Even as nonmedical use declines in this population, opioid 69 use disorder diagnoses have increased,¹⁷ along with opioid overdose deaths, primarily attributed to 70 heroin and fentanyl.¹⁸ The overall prescription opioid overdose age-adjusted death rate among 15-24 71 year olds increased from 2% in 2015 to 2.6% in 2016, a 30% annual rate change, while the overall opioid 72 overdose death rate (including heroin and fentanyl) increased from 7% to 9.3% over the same period, a 73 32.9% change in rate. ¹⁹ The overall societal costs of NMUPO among all ages were estimated to be more 74 than \$55 billion per year.²⁰

75

76 Risk and Protective Factors

77

78 Predictors of opioid misuse and use disorder have been identified among adolescents.^{21–25} These risk 79 and protective factors become influential at various times during an adolescents development, and 80 often relate to physiological changes or psychosocial concerns^{23,24,26,27} Categorization of individual, 81 family, school and community factors are defined by the Office of the United States Surgeon General.²¹ 82 Examples include early initiation of opioid use, mental health problems, peer use, and misperception of 83 normative use and risk of use for individual factors. Lack of family support and academic success, as 84 well as, increased availability of opioids are also associated predictors of misuse. Social media use may 85 also affect substance misuse as heavy use has been associated with higher levels of depression and 86 anxiety and increased exposure to pro-substance use content that reinforces misuse. (Woods HC et al. 87 Journal of Adolescence 2016; 51:41-49. Tucker JS et al. J Adoles Health 2013; 53:400-4. Steers et al. 88 Curr Addict Rep 2016; 3:343-348. AAP Council on Communications and Media. Media Use in School-89 Aged Children and Adolescents. Pediatrics 2016; 138: e20162592)

90 For every \$1 invested in youth prevention, researchers observed a \$4 savings in health care costs and \$7 91 savings in law enforcement and other criminal justice costs.²⁷ Once a child's NMUPO is diagnosable as 92 with an opioid use disorder (OUD), less than 25% of adolescents and young adults are offered and receive evidence-based, medication-first treatment, in part due to healthcare worker stigma.^{28,29} While 93 94 treatment programs require sustainable funding to ensure adolescents manage their OUD and recover 95 into adulthood, universal prevention programs have proven patient-, school-, community-level and 96 economic benefits.^{30–32} An example of a universal approach, PROSPER (PROmoting School-community-97 university Partnership to Enhance Resilience) model uses school- and family-based prevention 98 programs. The PROSPER model has observed a decreased in prescription opioid and prescription drug misuse in adolescents both in the short- and long-term outcomes.^{30, 32} 99 100 101 This study evaluates a student pharmacist-delivered, opioid misuse prevention program developed for 102 high school students and builds upon previous work for school-based prevention strategies for adolescents.³³⁻³⁶ The primary objective of this study was to assess high school students' recall of 103 104 knowledge of opioid misuse and awareness of medication safety considerations, including appropriate 105 use, overdose identification and naloxone administration. Secondarily, the study examined the effects 106 of student substance misuse and its relationship to risk and protective factors. Recognizing predictors of 107 opioid misuse and use disorder, such as early exposure to opioids, experiencing a safe initial experience 108 with a psychotropic medication, sibling and/or parent misuse of opioids, parental attention, peer 109 NMUPO, depression, perceived stress, and academic problems in school, can help direct educational 110 goals for prevention among this at-risk population.^{21,23–25,37} 111 112

113

METHODS

114 The Rx for Addiction and Medication Safety (RAMS) program was a universal, opioid misuse prevention 115 program developed by University of Rhode Island (URI) College of Pharmacy clinical practice-based 116 faculty and reviewed and approved by an educational consultant with a Master in Education degree. 117 The 3-hour curriculum provided 3-4 interactive educational sessions, including a focus on medication 118 safety (i.e. safe use and storage, proper disposal of opioids), signs and symptoms and risk factors for 119 opioid misuse and withdrawal, opioid overdose identification and response, and local treatment and 120 recovery resources for adolescents and their families and friends. The program used role-play, case 121 scenarios, and the Frayer Model³⁸ to help guide student learning and knowledge application to real-122 world examples. The program was also augmented by social media to reinforce information for high-123 school students and faculty, as well as family members who joined the campaign.

124

125 The RAMS program was piloted with a nonrandomized pre-post study design (Thiese et al.

126 Observational and interventional study design types; an overview. Biochem Med (Zagreb) 2014; 24:199-127 210) in 8 Rhode Island public schools among 9th grade students. Transition into high school increases 128 the risk of misuse as freshmen face additional social and psychological challenges, and an environment 129 with more drug exposure potential.²⁷ The educational consultant of the program recruited schools over 130 a 6-month period. Monetary incentives were provided for school participation and additional stipends 131 were offered for up to 2 high school students to attend a national drug prevention and leadership 132 summer conference. Prior to program delivery, school committee approval of the curriculum and 133 corresponding study for all 8 schools was required. Additionally, Rhode Island Department of Education 134 approval was also needed. Delivery of the program was unique because URI pharmacy students 135 provided the majority of the curriculum to the schools. Student pharmacists have successfully delivered 136 a presentation on substance misuse focused on the neuroscience of addiction as a service learning 137 activity to high school students.³⁹ The authors noted several advantages of using student pharmacists to

138 deliver the presentation, notably to increase the number of presentations delivered, and to have them 139 delivered by relatable, typically younger individuals than the researchers. In this study, the 140 presentations were positively received by both the presenters, the schools, and the students.³⁹ Student 141 delivery was decided upon for bolstering educational resources, but also to foster peer relationships 142 with teens.⁴⁰ Before receiving authorization to deliver the curriculum, students volunteered to complete 143 a faculty-run, train-the-trainer program. The program included adolescent communication and life-skill 144 development, as well as opioid safety and use disorder, overdose recognition and naloxone 145 administration, and family/community outreach to prepare for on-school site presentation of the 146 curriculum.

147

148 Associated with program participation, 9th grade students were invited to complete a confidential, 149 matched pre- and post-curriculum survey. Parents received opt-out permission forms at least two 150 weeks prior to survey administration and high-school students were required to assent directly before 151 completing survey. URI Institutional Review Board approval was also obtained prior to study initiation. 152 College faculty developed survey to include items on risk and protective factors for substance misuse. 153 Additional survey items included past nonmedical use of prescription opioids, alcohol and other illicit 154 drugs, students' perception of risk and/or harm from prescription opioids, and awareness of local and 155 national treatment and recovery resources. The survey also evaluated for changes in students' 156 knowledge of proper storage and disposal of prescription drugs, misuse knowledge and addiction 157 awareness, overdose identification and naloxone administration. Questions used were based on the 158 2015 Youth Risk Behaviors Survey from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention⁴¹ and the 2015 159 Ontario Study Survey from the Canadian Centre for Addiction and Mental Health.⁴² A behavioral science 160 research professor reviewed final survey for methodology and implemented it for administration via 161 SurveyMonkey[®]. High school students were provided the survey link and matched by collecting

162	confidential identifiers (i.e. first 3 letters of mother's maiden name, first 2 letters of student's middle
163	name and day of their birth). Pre-survey administration occurred on the first day of curriculum prior to
164	delivery and post-survey data was collected at least one month after curriculum conclusion.
165	
166	Statistical Analysis

167

168 Bivariate analysis was completed separately among pre-intervention survey respondents and the 169 matched pre-intervention and post intervention survey respondents. Differences between the two 170 groups of survey respondents (i.e., pre-survey and matched sample) were compared for each variable 171 using a chi-square test or Fisher's exact test, as appropriate. Bivariate analysis was also completed for 172 two dichotomous substance use outcome groups during the pre-survey: (1) non-medical use of 173 prescription pain relief medications in the past 30 days; (2) prescription pain relief, attention-174 deficient/hyperactivity disorder and sedative medications, over-the-counter cough medications and/or 175 loperamide, marijuana and heroin in the previous 30 days. The association of each possible risk factor 176 with each substance use outcome was evaluated using a chi-square test or Fisher's exact test, as 177 appropriate. For each of the substance use outcomes, univariate logistic regression was conducted for 178 each independent variable to determine statistically significant associations with the outcome of 179 interest. All independent variables with P value <0.20 were included in the adjusted logistic regression 180 model for each substance use outcome. Diagnostic tests for collinearity were performed between 181 independent variables and diagnostics of model fit were examined, as guided by Akaike information 182 criterion and the Hosmer Lemeshow test (David W. Hosmer & Stanley 183 Lemesbow (2007) Goodness of fit tests for the multiple logistic regression 184 model, Communications in Statistics - Theory and Methods, 9:10, 1043-185 1069, DOI: 10.1080/03610928008827941) . Based on the adjusted models, the measure of

association between outcome and each independent variable was determined by an estimated oddsratio with a corresponding 95% confidence interval.

188

For the matched set of pre/post intervention respondent surveys, change in knowledge from the preintervention survey to the post intervention survey was evaluated using McNemar's test for paired data. For the continuous pre/post scores, each person serves as their own control, allowing for comparisons across the two groups because all time-invariant confounding is subtracted out by the individual level differencing and secular trends are less of a concern for this short of a follow-up period. All statistical tests were two-sided and performed at the 0.05 significance level. All statistical analysis was performed using SAS 9.4 (Cary, NC.)

196

197 RESULTS

198

199 The RAMS program was piloted during the 2016-2017 academic year. There were 969 adolescents who 200 completed the pre-intervention survey (Table 1). The majority were 14 years old (45%), 52% were male, 201 and 62% were white. Most (80%) lived in one home only and spoke English at home (82%) and 54% 202 lived with two parents and siblings. Twenty-four percent reported 5 or more hours of social media use 203 per day and 22% received mostly C's or lower in school. Forty-seven percent had a mother who 204 graduated from college and 36% had a father who graduated from college. In their free time, 64% 205 reported that at least one of their parents always knew where they were. Among those who completed 206 the pre-intervention survey, 9% reported use of marijuana, 1% reported heroin use, and 7% reported 207 NMUPO.

209 There were 527 adolescents in the matched sample and they were comparable to the pre-survey sample 210 for the demographic factors in Table 1. The majority were 14 (49%) old, 48% were male, and 70% were 211 white. Most (80%) lived in one home only and spoke English at home (85%) and 58% lived with two 212 parents and siblings. Twenty-four percent reported 5 or more hours of social media use per day and 17% 213 received mostly C's or lower in school. Fifty-two percent had a mother who graduated from college and 214 39% had a father who graduated from college. In their free time, 68% reported that at least one of their 215 parents always knew where they were. Among those in the matched sample, 7% reported use of 216 marijuana, 0% reported heroin use, and 6% reported NMUPO. The matched sample was comparable to 217 the respondents at the pre-intervention survey, except more were white, and less received mostly C's or 218 lower. 219 220 Pre-Post Changes in Substance Misuse Knowledge 221 222 Among the matched sample of adolescents, there were significant increases in the number of correct 223 responses reported for opioid misuse knowledge questions (Table 2). From the pre-intervention survey 224 to the post-intervention survey, significantly more students correctly identified that addiction is a 225 chronic brain disease (79% to 83%, p = 0.05), drug users are not responsible for their addiction (81% to 226 88%, p = 0.003), and drug users do not have weak characters (49% to 57%, p = 0.004). The number of 227 students who correctly identified drug misuse as accepting prescription medications from a friend and 228 exceeding the recommended dose, increased (70% to 81%, p < 0.0001 and 85% to 88%, p = 0.14, 229 respectively). Finally, there was a significant increase in the number of students who correctly identified 230 that non-medical use of a prescription medication is defined as use without a prescription (81% to 88%, 231 p = 0.001).

233	Students were assigned a score for the number of correctly identified opioid withdrawal symptoms
234	(observed score range, 0 to 12) and steps for managing an opioid overdose (observed score range, -4 to
235	7; negative values represent only choosing incorrect responses). Students' scores for opioid withdrawal
236	symptoms increased from 5.9 correct responses (standard deviation (SD) = 3.6) to 6.3 (SD = 3.9; p =
237	0.04) and scores for identifying the steps to manage an opioid overdose improved from 3.2 correct
238	responses (SD = 1.7) to 3.9 (SD = 2.3; p < 0.0001).
239	
240	As knowledge increased, improved confidence was also reported in identifying opioid withdrawal
241	symptoms (26% to 45%, p < 0.0001), identifying signs of an opioid overdose (29% to 46%, p < 0.0001),
242	knowing when to administer naloxone (17% to 45%, p < 0.0001) and educating friends and family to
243	recognize an opioid overdose and safely give naloxone when indicated (27% to 41%, p < 0.0001).
244	Confidence in referral to treatment of friends and family with opioid misuse or use disorder also
245	improved among 9 th grade students (31% to 45%, p < 0.0001).
246	
247	Predictors of Substance Use at Pre-Survey
248	
249	The prevalence of non-medical use of prescription pain relief drugs, and non-medical use of any drugs
250	captured in the pre-intervention survey are reported for each level of the demographic factors. These
251	findings are displayed in Supplementary Table 1.
252	
253	At the pre-intervention survey, reports of feeling depressed, under stress, peer use, and perception of
254	low parental affection increased the odds of NMUPO (Table 3). Adolescents who reported feeling

255 depressed a little or all the time had over 2 times the odds of reported NMUPO compared to those who

256 were depressed none of the time, while adolescents who felt stressed or strained had over 5 times the

odds of reported NMUPO compared to those that did not feel stressed at all. Reported peer NMUPO in
the past year increased the odds of 9th grade students by 1.9 compared to those who had friends who
did not engage NMUPO. Adolescents who reported their parents showed affection 2 times per year or
less had twice the odds of reported NMUPO, compared to adolescents who reported their parents
showed affection 1-2 times per month.

262

263 At the pre-intervention survey, older age, being under stress, reported illegal drug sale attempts, peer 264 use of marijuana, and low parental affection were associated with increased odds of non-medical use of 265 drugs (Table 4). Academic success was reported with decreased odds of non-medical use compared to 266 earning lower grades (i.e., mostly C's or lower). Adolescents who were 17 years old had five times the 267 increased odds of non-medical use of drugs compared to 14-year-old peers. Adolescents who felt 268 stressed or strained had over two times the odds of reported non-medical use of drugs when compared 269 to those who were not stressed in the last month. Adolescents who reported illegal drug sale attempts 270 had over three times the odds of reported non-medical use of drugs compared to those who did not 271 report illegal drug sale attempts. Those surveyed who that reported some to all of their closest friends 272 used marijuana had twice the odds of reported non-medical use of drugs compared to those that 273 reported none of their friends were using marijuana. Adolescents who reported their parents showed 274 affection 2 times per year or less had over twice the odds of reported non-medical use of prescription 275 pain relief drugs, compared to adolescents who reported their parents showed affection 1-2 times per 276 month. Grades of C's or lower had 1.5 times the odds of reported non-medical use, where earning A's 277 decreased the odds by 50% compared to those who received mostly B's.

278

279 DISCUSSION

The RAMS program provided a universal opioid misuse education program to adolescents uniquely through its curriculum design and delivery. Freshmen students who participated improved their overall knowledge of opioid misuse and use disorder (i.e., addiction). Improved knowledge and confidence were also observed for overdose identification and naloxone administration, as well as increased selfconfidence of knowing when treatment is indicated for a friend or family member and what resources are available for treatment and recovery.

287

Educational prevention programs for teen substance misuse are abundant^{21,27,43} though most do not 288 289 specifically target opioid misuse. ^{21,27,43} Programs are usually aimed for students using drug resistance 290 and general social skills as prevention strategies^{27,33} Many others only target risk factors for general 291 substance misuse or educate specifically on prescription medication safety.^{32,43} The RAMS curriculum 292 provided drug resistance skills through awareness of opioid misuse dangers and situational social skills 293 by way of role play, but its distinction is its inclusion of content on opioid safety, proper medication 294 storage and disposal, treatment and recovery support for peers, and overdose recognition and reversal, 295 including naloxone use. Several states in addition to Rhode Island⁴³ have proposed or passed substance 296 use and misuse prevention high school curricula,^{45,46} but none have included naloxone education, 297 despite policies that mandate or recommend naloxone be available in schools⁴⁷. Adolescents can be 298 successfully trained to administer the one-step intranasal formulation; ⁴⁸ thus, naloxone education 299 should be part of prevention curricula. Harm reduction has been effective for alcohol and tobacco 300 prevention, but related evidence for prescription or illicit drug use has not been studied.⁴⁹ A 301 multifaceted approach, such as RAMS, follows the prevention plan from the Substance Abuse and 302 Mental Health Services Administration by addressing prescription drug misuse awareness, but 303 additionally addresses medication safety considerations, harm reduction strategies, and treatment 304 resources⁵⁰ in 9th grade students.

306	Seven and six percent of adolescents who completed the pre-intervention and matched survey,
307	respectively, reported NMUPO. Use among the study population corresponds with the 2017 self-
308	reported data from Rhode Island of 8.9% NMUPO among 9 th grade students. ⁵ Of those adolescents that
309	state NMUPO, their associated risks were depression, stress, peer use, and perception of low parental
310	affection. Additional studies have observed similar mental health risk factors for NMUPO. ^{23–25} Though
311	self-medication for physical pain is the most common reason for misuse ¹ , motives to self-treat
312	depression and anxiety (i.e., emotional pain) have been observed in adolescents. ^{23,24,51} . Peer use and
313	perception of low parental support both have been reported as known risks for NMUPO. ^{21,37} Risks
314	associated with overall substance misuse, including prescription opioids in the pre-intervention group
315	were older age, lack of academic success, being approached to purchase drugs, as well as stress, peer
316	use and lack of parental affection. School-risk factors, such as academic failure as early as late
317	elementary school, and community-risk factors of ease of drug access have both been observed in other
318	studies and are risks defined by the Surgeon General. ^{21,37} Age, it seems, may be a reflection of the early
319	initiation of substance use, given the increasing odds with each year of age. ²¹ RAMS curriculum currently
320	focuses on peer use and drug access through normative education, misuse awareness, and proper
321	storage and disposal. A potential expansion is to further the discussion of self-medication risks and
322	stress reduction strategies as outcomes indicate stress management and mental health resources may
323	be warranted for schools. The perceived lack of support among adolescents in the study highlights the
324	need for family-centered prevention strategies in addition to a school-based approach. ^{32,35} Parental
325	involvement is essential for prevention strategies though parents and caregivers are difficult to recruit
326	and retain in such programs. ^{21,52} Use of social media may be a novel approach to reach and connect
327	parents and teens; however, evidence is needed on its effectiveness.

329 RAMS is delivered in several short, active-learning sessions with student pharmacists within the 330 classroom, modified to fit the pilot school's schedule. This approach allows for pharmacy students to 331 enhance the discussion and knowledge recall among adolescents as they are serving as peer instructors. 332 Student pharmacists also provided advanced knowledge of prescription opioids, overdose education, 333 including naloxone, which is in contrast to National Institute on Drug Abuse teen program that simply 334 use online materials to serve as teacher facilitator guides.^{50,53} This is the first work to demonstrate 335 comprehensive opioid misuse prevention education in a school-setting using pharmacy students. 336 However, student pharmacists have provided opioid safety and overdose prevention to emergency 337 department patients, and this program was found to be both feasible and improve patients knowledge 338 of opioids. ⁵⁴ Prevention education by student pharmacists in a school-setting through the RAMS 339 program is achievable, improves knowledge of opioid misuse and its risks, and enhances students' 340 confidence to engagement in harm reduction strategies and support family and friends in treatment and 341 recovery of opioid use disorder.

342

343 Limitations

344

Development of the opioid misuse curriculum was based on clinical faculty expertise and evidencebased literature supporting the need for education on opioid misuse and increasing awareness of its risks and consequences, as well as safe use of opioids, proper medication storage and disposal, harm reduction strategies and treatment support.^{50,55} Therefore, our curriculum was not matched to a standard and may possess features not tailored to adolescent education. Though in its design, the curriculum does provide drug resistance skills and normative education to students while additionally providing harm reduction strategies to help enhance competence skills training.

353 Delivery of the curriculum proved to be difficult at times. Pharmacy student recruitment for the train-354 the-trainer program was robust; however, continued interest and motivation of pharmacy students to 355 participate in more than 1 or 2 classroom sessions was limited. Steps to enhance pharmacy student 356 participation has been implementation for subsequent curriculum delivery in the form of student 357 professional development funds. Conversely, pharmacy students were unprepared for occasional 358 behavioral issues within the classroom among high-school students. Incentives provided to high schools 359 were to be set aside to offset costs of having teachers present for classroom management and 360 discipline. However, some pharmacy students found classroom management of adolescents challenging 361 and an obstacle to facilitating discussion of the program key elements. Additional limitations include 362 miscommunication of high school administration and staff which led to conflicts in delivery and timing of 363 the curriculum, necessitating shortened duration of sessions and rescheduled sessions. Certain schools 364 also had different classroom needs, such as auditorium-style delivery, advisory times and rotating 365 schedules adding to the challenge of presenting curriculum as an interactive program. Challenges of 366 existing school culture when implementing a novel curriculum is expected. As the RAMS program 367 continues within schools, scheduling and communication issues hopefully will subside as curriculum 368 expectations will be known be all parties.

369

Data collection also presented implementation challenges. Surveys were tested for length prior to
administration and found to be 10- to 15-minute duration. Thus, pre-surveys were originally scheduled
to be administered directly prior to the opening curriculum session. However, some high school
students took upwards of 45-60 minutes to complete the survey and arrangements had to be made to
reschedule subsequent sessions. In addition, youth had trouble with the confidential identifiers,
particularly mother's maiden name. Therefore, the number of matched results were significantly
reduced based on student understanding of the identifiers, as students and faculty were unprepared to

explain what we assumed was common knowledge. A new process for matched data collection will be
implemented going forward with the removal of mother's maiden name and replaced by street name
where they reside. Post surveys were to be administered 1-2 months after curriculum intervention.
Nevertheless, some schools scheduled post surveys several months after curriculum, thus recall bias
may be relevant due to different timing of the administration for post results.

382

383 The responses to the survey were self-report and subject to reporting bias. In addition, based on the 384 self-reported data, adolescents' substance use and knowledge could be misclassified.⁶ The matched 385 adolescents may not be representative of the study sample; thus, our results are subject to selection 386 bias. In addition, secular trends may be present that our current approach did not consider, and our 387 analyses could be subject to unmeasured confounding. The results from baseline are cross-sectional, so 388 temporal sequence and causality are not possible to establish. Future longitudinal studies evaluating risk 389 factors and subsequent opioid use initiation are warranted. In these studies, the intervention could be 390 randomized to eliminate unmeasured confounding. Our pilot project evaluated this training among high 391 school students in Rhode Island and these results may not be generalizable to a broader population 392 without additional considerations.

393

Future goals are to create a video booster curriculum to sustain knowledge gained and evaluate the disseminated or spillover effects of the RAMS training among high school students. We plan to evaluate this program in additional Rhode Island schools to address gaps in opioid misuse prevention education in the state. Further goals are to evaluate the longitudinal effect of prescription opioid misuse, measure the prevalence of heroin and other substance use among adolescents, with the objective to observe a decrease in use as a result of increased knowledge of opioid misuse, its risks, and treatment of opioid use disorder. Additionally, we are creating a corresponding RAMS website for high school teachers and 401 students, as well as parents and caregivers to expand upon the social media campaign. The website will
402 have video curriculum and additional teacher and parent resources to enhance recruitment and
403 participation in prevention strategies.
404
405 CONCLUSIONS

406

407 Among adolescents surveyed the lifetime prevalence of NMUPO was 6%-7%. NMUPO was associated

- 408 with mental health problems, peer use and perceived lack of parental affection. Students receiving
- 409 multi-modal prevention education for prescription opioid misuse increased their knowledge and
- 410 confidence in understanding of opioid misuse, overdose identification and its response, and recovery
- 411 resources. Inclusion of harm reduction strategies delivered by student pharmacists is a novel approach
- 412 to prevention education. Further evidence is needed to ensure the curricula decreases NMUPO and
- 413 whether interventions for stress management and mental health, as well as family-centered strategies
- 414 should be incorporated into the universal-school based program.
- 415
- 416 CONFLICT OF INTEREST: The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest to disclose.
- 417
- 418 REFERENCES

419

 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. (2017). Key Substance Use and Mental Health Indicators in the United States: Results from the 2016 National Survey on Drug Use and Health (HHS Publication No. SMA 17-5044, NSDUH Series H-52). Rockville, MD: Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. Retrieved from Https://Www.Samhsa.Gov/Data/.
 https://www.samhsa.gov/data/sites/default/files/NSDUH-FFR1-2016/NSDUH-FFR1-2016.htm.

Lipari, R.N., Van Horn, S.L., Hughes, A. and Williams, M. State and Substate Estimates of Nonmedical
 Use of Prescription Pain Relievers from the 2012–2014 National Surveys on Drug Use and Health.
 The CBHSQ Report: July 13, 2017. Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality, Substance

- 429 Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, Rockville, MD.
- 430 https://www.samhsa.gov/data/sites/default/files/report_3187/ShortReport-3187.html.
- 431 3. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control. US
 432 State Prescribing Rates, 2016. https://www.cdc.gov/drugoverdose/maps/rxstate2016.html.
- 43 4. Hu M-C, Griesler P, Wall M, Kandel DB. Age-related patterns in nonmedical prescription opioid use
 434 and disorder in the US population at ages 12-34 from 2002 to 2014. Drug Alcohol Depend.
 435 2017;177:237-243. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2017.03.024
- 436 5. Rhode Island Department of Health. Youth Risk Behavioral Survey. 2017.
 437 http://www.health.ri.gov/materialbyothers/yrbs/2017HighSchoolSummaryTables.pdf.
- 438 6. Murphy SM, Friesner DL, Rosenman R. Opioid misuse among adolescents: new evidence from a
 439 misclassification analysis. Appl Health Econ Health Policy. 2015;13(2):181-192. doi:10.1007/s40258440 015-0151-z
- 441 7. Groenewald CB, Rabbitts JA, Gebert JT, Palermo TM. Trends in opioid prescriptions among children
 442 and adolescents in the United States: a nationally representative study from 1996 to 2012. Pain.
 443 2016;157(5):1021-1027. doi:10.1097/j.pain.0000000000475
- 444 8. Miech R, Johnston L, O'Malley PM, Keyes KM, Heard K. Prescription Opioids in Adolescence and
 445 Future Opioid Misuse. Pediatrics. 2015;136(5):e1169-1177. doi:10.1542/peds.2015-1364
- Weiss AJ (Truven Health Analytic), Elixhauser A (AHRQ), Barrett ML (M.L. Barrett, Inc.), Steiner CA
 (AHRQ), Bailey MK (Truven Health Analytics), O'Malley L (Truven Health Analytics). Opioid-Related
 Inpatient Stays and Emergency Department Visits by State, 2009–2014. HCUP Statistical Brief #219.
 December 2016. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, Rockville, MD. http://www.hcup us.ahrq.gov/reports/statbriefs/sb219-Opioid-Hospital-Stays-ED-Visits-by-State.pdf.
- 451 10. Compton WM, Jones CM, Baldwin GT. Relationship between Nonmedical Prescription-Opioid Use
 452 and Heroin Use. N Engl J Med. 2016;374(2):154-163. doi:10.1056/NEJMra1508490
- 453 11. Jones CM. Heroin use and heroin use risk behaviors among nonmedical users of prescription opioid
 454 pain relievers United States, 2002-2004 and 2008-2010. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2013;132(1-2):95455 100. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2013.01.007
- Lankenau SE, Teti M, Silva K, Jackson Bloom J, Harocopos A, Treese M. Initiation into prescription
 opioid misuse amongst young injection drug users. Int J Drug Policy. 2012;23(1):37-44.
 doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2011.05.014
- 459 13. Mars SG, Bourgois P, Karandinos G, Montero F, Ciccarone D. "Every 'never' I ever said came true":
 460 transitions from opioid pills to heroin injecting. Int J Drug Policy. 2014;25(2):257-266.
 461 doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2013.10.004
- 462 14. Carlson RG, Nahhas RW, Martins SS, Daniulaityte R. Predictors of transition to heroin use among
 463 initially non-opioid dependent illicit pharmaceutical opioid users: A natural history study. Drug
 464 Alcohol Depend. 2016;160:127-134. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.12.026

- 465 15. Cerdá M, Santaella J, Marshall BDL, Kim JH, Martins SS. Nonmedical Prescription Opioid Use in
 466 Childhood and Early Adolescence Predicts Transitions to Heroin Use in Young Adulthood: A National
 467 Study. J Pediatr. 2015;167(3):605-612.e1-2. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2015.04.071
- 468
 16. Johnston, L. D., Miech, R. A., O'Malley, P. M., Bachman, J. G., Schulenberg, J. E., & Patrick, M. E.
 469
 469 (2018). Monitoring the Future National Survey Results on Drug Use: 1975-2017: Overview, Key
 470 Findings on Adolescent Drug Use. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, The University of
 471 Michigan. http://www.monitoringthefuture.org//pubs/monographs/mtf-overview2017.pdf.
- 472 17. Jones CM. The paradox of decreasing nonmedical opioid analgesic use and increasing abuse or
 473 dependence An assessment of demographic and substance use trends, United States, 2003-2014.
 474 Addict Behav. 2017;65:229-235. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2016.08.027
- 475 18. Curtin SC, Tejada-Vera B, Warner M. Drug Overdose Deaths among Adolescents Aged 15–19 in the
 476 United States: 1999–2015. NCHS Data Brief, No 282. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health
 477 Statistics. 2017. https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs/db282.htm.
- 478 19. Seth, Puja, Scholl L, Rudd RA, Bacon, Sarah. Overdose Deaths Involving Opioids, Cocaine, and
 479 Psychostimulants United States, 2015-2016. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2018;67(12):349-358.
- 480 20. Birnbaum HG, White AG, Schiller M, Waldman T, Cleveland JM, Roland CL. Societal costs of
 481 prescription opioid abuse, dependence, and misuse in the United States. Pain Med Malden Mass.
 482 2011;12(4):657-667. doi:10.1111/j.1526-4637.2011.01075.x
- 483 21. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (US), Office of the Surgeon General
 484 (US). Facing Addiction in America: The Surgeon General's Report on Alcohol, Drugs, and Health.
 485 Washington (DC): US Department of Health and Human Services; 2016.
 486 http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK424857/. Accessed September 20, 2017.
- 487 22. Dube SR, Felitti VJ, Dong M, Chapman DP, Giles WH, Anda RF. Childhood abuse, neglect, and
 488 household dysfunction and the risk of illicit drug use: the adverse childhood experiences study.
 489 Pediatrics. 2003;111(3):564-572.
- 490 23. Young AM, Glover N, Havens JR. Nonmedical Use of Prescription Medications Among Adolescents in
 491 the United States: A Systematic Review. J Adolesc Health. 2012;51(1):6-17.
 492 doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2012.01.011
- 493 24. Young A, McCabe SE, Cranford JA, Ross-Durow P, Boyd CJ. Nonmedical Use of Prescription Opioids
 494 Among Adolescents: Subtypes Based on Motivation for Use. J Addict Dis. 2012;31(4):332-341.
 495 doi:10.1080/10550887.2012.735564
- 496 25. Schwinn TM, Schinke SP, Hopkins J, Thom B. Risk and protective factors associated with adolescent
 497 girls' substance use: Data from a nationwide Facebook sample. Subst Abuse. 2016;37(4):564-570.
 498 doi:10.1080/08897077.2016.1154495
- 499 26. Masten AS. Regulatory Processes, Risk, and Resilience in Adolescent Development. Ann N Y Acad Sci.
 500 2004;1021(1):310-319. doi:10.1196/annals.1308.036

- 501 27. National Institute of Drug Abuse. Preventing Drug Use among Children and Adolescents: A Research-502 Based Guide for Parents, Educators, and Community Leaders, 2nd Ed.
- 503 https://www.drugabuse.gov/sites/default/files/preventingdruguse 2.pdf.
- 504 28. Bagley SM, Hadland SE, Carney BL, Saitz R. Addressing Stigma in Medication Treatment of 505 Adolescents With Opioid Use Disorder. J Addict Med. August 2017. 506 doi:10.1097/ADM.00000000000348
- 507 29. Hadland SE, Wharam JF, Schuster MA, Zhang F, Samet JH, Larochelle MR. Trends in Receipt of 508 Buprenorphine and Naltrexone for Opioid Use Disorder Among Adolescents and Young Adults, 509 2001-2014. JAMA Pediatr. 2017;171(8):747-755. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2017.0745
- 510 30. Crowley DM, Jones DE, Coffman DL, Greenberg MT. Can we build an efficient response to the 511 prescription drug abuse epidemic? Assessing the cost effectiveness of universal prevention in the 512 PROSPER trial. Prev Med. 2014;62:71-77. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2014.01.029
- 513 31. Chilenski SM, Welsh JA, Perkins DF, Feinberg ME, Greenberg MT. Universal Prevention Exposure as a 514 Moderator of the Community Context: Findings from the PROSPER Project. Am J Community 515 Psychol. 2016;57(1-2):8-19. doi:10.1002/ajcp.12032
- 516 32. Spoth R, Trudeau L, Shin C, et al. Longitudinal Effects of Universal Preventive Intervention on 517 Prescription Drug Misuse: Three Randomized Controlled Trials With Late Adolescents and Young 518 Adults. Am J Public Health. 2013;103(4):665-672. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2012.301209
- 519 33. Griffin KW, Botvin GJ. Evidence-Based Interventions for Preventing Substance Use Disorders in 520 Adolescents. Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am. 2010;19(3):505-526. doi:10.1016/j.chc.2010.03.005
- 521 34. Botvin GJ, Griffin KW, Diaz T, Scheier LM, Williams C, Epstein JA. Preventing illicit drug use in 522 adolescents: long-term follow-up data from a randomized control trial of a school population. 523 Addict Behav. 2000;25(5):769-774.
- 524 35. Spoth R, Redmond C, Shin C, Greenberg M, Feinberg M, Schainker L. PROSPER community-525 university partnership delivery system effects on substance misuse through 6 1/2 years past baseline 526 from a cluster randomized controlled intervention trial. Prev Med. 2013;56(3-4):190-196. 527 doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2012.12.013
- 528 36. Spoth R, Trudeau L, Shin C, et al. Longitudinal Effects of Universal Preventive Intervention on 529 Prescription Drug Misuse: Three Randomized Controlled Trials With Late Adolescents and Young 530 Adults. Am J Public Health. 2013;103(4):665-672. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2012.301209
- 531 37. Nargiso JE, Ballard EL, Skeer MR. A systematic review of risk and protective factors associated with 532 nonmedical use of prescription drugs among youth in the United States: a social ecological 533 perspective. J Stud Alcohol Drugs. 2015;76(1):5-20.
- 534 38. Frayer DA, Frederick WC, Klausmeier HG. A Schema for Testing the Level of Concept Mastery. 535 Working Paper No. 16. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin, April 1969.
- 536 http://brainimaging.waisman.wisc.edu/~perlman/frayer-frederick-klausmeier.pdf.

- 537 39. Surratt CK, Desselle SP. The Neuroscience Behind Drugs of Abuse: A PharmD Service-Learning
 538 Project. Am J Pharm Educ. 2004;68(4):99. doi:10.5688/aj680499
- 40. Mackenzie S, Pearson C, Frye V, et al. Agents of Change: Peer Mentorship as HIV Prevention Among
 HIV-Positive Injection Drug Users. Subst Use Misuse. 2012;47(5):522-534.
 doi:10.3109/10826084.2012.644122
- 542 41. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2015 National Youth Risk Behavior Survey.
 543 https://ftp.cdc.gov/pub/data/YRBS/2015/2015_xxh_questionnaire.pdf.
- 544 42. Centre for Addiction and Mental Health. 2015 Ontario Student Survey.
 545 http://www.camh.ca/en/research/news_and_publications/ontario-student-drug-use-and-health546 survey/Pages/default.aspx.
- 547 43. GenerationRx. Safe Medication Practices for Life. https://www.generationrx.org/.
- 44. 2018- H7987. State of Rhode Island in General Assembly, January Sessions, AD 2018. An Act
 Relating to Education Curriculum [See Title 16 Chapter 97 The Rhode Island Board of Education
 Act]. Introduced March 22, 2018.
- 551 http://webserver.rilin.state.ri.us/BillText/BillText18/HouseText18/H7987.pdf.
- 45. HB4403 Analysis as Enacted (1/17/2018). https://www.legislature.mi.gov/documents/20172018/billanalysis/House/htm/2017-HLA-4403-79CB217E.htm. Accessed March 29, 2018.
- 46. Opioid Abuse Prevention | Ohio Department of Education.
 http://education.ohio.gov/Topics/Learning-in-Ohio/Health-Education/Opioid-Abuse-Prevention.
 Accessed March 29, 2018.
- 47. Naloxone Use in the School Setting–The Role of the School Nurse: Position Statement. NASN Sch
 Nurse. 2016;31(2):119-120. doi:10.1177/1942602X15622637
- 48. Beck, M, Aker J. Usability of Naloxone Nasal Spray by Age and Literacy Level: A Pooled Analysis of
 Human Factors Studies. Association for Medical Education and Research in Substance Abuse. 41st
 Annual National Conference Book of Abstracts. https://amersa.org/wp-content/uploads/Book-ofAbstracts-2017.pdf.
- 49. Midford R. Drug prevention programmes for young people: where have we been and where should
 we be going?: Prevention for young people: where should we be going? Addiction.
 2010;105(10):1688-1695. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2009.02790.x
- 50. Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's Center for the Application of
 Prevention Technologies. Preventing Rx Drug Misuse: Programs and Strategies, 2016.
 https://www.samhsa.gov/capt/sites/default/files/resources/preventing-prescription-drug-misusestrategies.pdf.
- 570 51. McCabe SE, West BT, Boyd CJ. Motives for Medical Misuse of Prescription Opioids Among
 571 Adolescents. J Pain. 2013;14(10):1208-1216. doi:10.1016/j.jpain.2013.05.004

572 573 574	52.	Midford R. Drug prevention programmes for young people: where have we been and where should we be going? Addict Abingdon Engl. 2010;105(10):1688-1695. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2009.02790.x
575 576	53.	National Institute on Drug Abuse for Teachers. Teachers: Classroom Resources on Drug Effects. https://teens.drugabuse.gov/teachers.
577 578 579	54.	Winstanley EL, Mashni R, Schnee S, Miller N, Mashni SM. The development and feasibility of a pharmacy-delivered opioid intervention in the emergency department. J Am Pharm Assoc. 2017;57(2):S87-S91. doi:10.1016/j.japh.2017.01.021
580 581 582	55.	National Institute on Drug Abuse. Principles of Adolescent Substance Use Disorder Treatment: A Research-Based Guide. https://d14rmgtrwzf5a.cloudfront.net/sites/default/files/podata_1_17_14.pdf.
583		
584		
585		
586		
587		
588		
589		
590		
591		
592		
593		
594		
595		
596		
597		
598		
599		