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Predicting opioid consumption after surgical discharge: a multinational derivation and validation study using a foundation model

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Chris Varghese^{1,2}✉, Luke Peters³, Lorane Gaborit⁴, William Xu¹, Kaviya Kalyanasundaram⁵, Aya Basam⁶, Melissa Park⁷, Cameron Wells¹, Kenneth A. McLean^{8,9}, Gabriel Schamberg¹, Greg O'Grady¹, Deborah Wright¹⁰, Jennifer Martin³, Ewen Harrison^{8,9}, Peter Pockney³ & TASMAN Collaborative*

Opioids are frequently overprescribed after surgery. We applied a tabular foundation model to predict the risk of post-discharge opioid consumption. The model was trained and internally validated on an 80:20 training/test split of the ‘Opioid PrEscRiptions and usage After Surgery’ (ACTRN12621001451897p) study cohort, including adult patients undergoing general, orthopaedic, gynaecological and urological operations ($n = 4267$), with external validation in a distinct cohort of patients discharged after general surgical procedures ($n = 826$). The area under the receiver operator curve was 0.84 (95% confidence interval [CI] 0.81–0.88) at internal testing and 0.77 (95% CI 0.74–0.80) at external validation. Brier scores were 0.13 (95% CI 0.12–0.14) and 0.19 (95% CI 0.17–0.2). Patients with a <50% predicted risk of opioid consumption consumed a median of 0 oral morphine equivalents in the first week after surgery. Applying this model would reduce opioid prescriptions by 4.5% globally, and counterfactual modelling suggests without increasing time in severe pain (−4.3%, 95% CI −17.7 to 8.6).

Excess opioid prescribing at surgical discharge is a significant contributor to the global opioid crisis¹. Inappropriate opioid prescribing is associated with higher rates of persistent opioid use and opioid-related deaths². Whilst opioids are prescribed with the aim of reducing postoperative pain and discomfort to optimise recovery, accumulating evidence shows that the harms frequently outweigh the benefits^{3–5}. Even among those who do not consume their prescribed opioids, diversion of unused opioids into the community poses serious risks of exacerbating the opioid epidemic⁶.

Opioids are frequently overprescribed at hospital discharge following surgery, with quantities larger than typically consumed by patients^{5,7,8}. The ‘Opioid PrEscRiptions and usage After Surgery’ (OPERAS) study found that patients are prescribed more than double the quantity of opioids they would consume in the first week after surgery. It is also acknowledged that analgesic prescribing is complex, with multifactorial contributors driving clinician and patient decision making. Therefore, personalised, data-driven strategies are needed to guide opioid prescribing in the post-discharge

setting, tailored to patients’ needs. However, accurately identifying these needs requires reliable measures of patient-reported opioid consumption after discharge⁸.

The OPERAS study enrolled a large, prospective cohort of surgical patients across a range of specialties with patient-reported, post-discharge opioid consumption data⁹. This offers an opportunity to reduce the quantity of unused opioid prescriptions based on robust, patient-reported opioid consumption data. We therefore aimed to develop and validate a model to predict opioid consumption within the first week after surgical discharge and assess the potential clinical impact of applying such a model in this context on patient-reported outcomes.

Results

Between 4 April 2022 and 4 September 2022, data from 4267 patients across 144 hospitals in 25 countries were collected and analysed (2268 women, 53.2%; median age 50 years; median length of stay 2 [IQR 1–3] days).

¹Department of Surgery, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand. ²Department of Surgery, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. ³Department of Surgery, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, NSW, Australia. ⁴Australian National University, Canberra, ACT, Australia. ⁵University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ⁶Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ⁷Northern Sydney Local Health District, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ⁸Department of Clinical Surgery, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland. ⁹Centre for Medical Informatics, Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland. ¹⁰Department of Surgical Sciences, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand. *A list of authors and their affiliations appears at the end of the paper. ✉e-mail: cvar706@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Patients were followed up at a median of 7 days (IQR 7–8). Overall, 1308 (31%) were discharged with an opioid prescription, but only 1014 (23.8%) consumed an opioid within 7 days post-discharge; 297 (22.7% of those prescribed an opioid) did not consume any opioid. Only 3 (0.1%) not prescribed an opioid consumed an opioid during this time.

Predictors of opioid consumption

Consumption of opioids after discharge occurred more frequently after discharge in patients undergoing orthopaedic surgery or emergency surgery; when patients consumed higher quantities of opioids 24 h prior to discharge; when patients used opioids in the 6 months prior to admission; or were from a high-income country (Table 1). Age, gender, smoking status, urgency of surgery, the surgery type, discharge day opioid use, and 6-month opioid use prior to admission, were all considered and were available in both datasets, known to plausibly influence opioid consumption, and were included in our *a priori* protocol. Feature importance was then compared, including all candidate variables (Supplementary Figs. 1 and 2 and Supplementary Table 3) to guide feature selection. The variables alcohol use and BMI category had >10% missing data and were excluded¹⁰. Based on the mean dropout loss of the RMSE, ASA category and indication for surgery were excluded. Our final predictors used for model training were therefore age, gender, smoking status, urgency of surgery, procedure mapped to BUPA severity categories, discharge day opioid use, and prior 6-month opioid use (Supplementary Table S3).

In a multivariable model of the whole OPERAS cohort, in reference to appendicectomy, we found ACL repair surgery (odds ratios (OR) 7.61, 95% confidence interval (CI) 3.00–19.3; $p < 0.001$), cholecystectomy (OR 1.54, 95% CI 1.04–2.28; $p = 0.031$), hip arthroplasty (OR 4.20, 95% CI 2.19–8.09; $p < 0.001$), inguinal hernia repair (OR 2.78, 95% CI 1.67–4.64; $p < 0.001$), knee arthroplasty (OR 13.74, 95% CI 7.26–26.0; $p < 0.001$), oophorectomy and salpingectomy (OR 3.14, 95% CI 1.11–8.87; $p = 0.031$), rotator cuff repair (OR 21.15, 95% CI 6.15–72.67; $p < 0.001$), and shoulder arthroplasty (OR 22.83, 95% CI 4.29–121.57; $p < 0.001$) were associated with higher risks of opioid consumption. Malignant indication, day of discharge opioid use quantity, and prior 6-month opioid use were also significant predictors (Supplementary Fig. 3).

Model development and validation

Use of a model with all candidate predictors and a refined model with the final set of predictors were compared in ROC and PR curves (with AUROC and AUPRC metrics), as reported in Supplementary Fig. 4 and Table 2. Results of internal validation in the OPERAS testing cohort and external validation in the Newcastle cohort are shown in Fig. 1 and Table 2. The internal validation AUROC was 0.84 (95% CI 0.81–0.88), and the external validation AUROC was 0.77 (95% CI 0.74–0.80), showing excellent and good discrimination, respectively. Brier scores were 0.13 (95% CI 0.12–0.14) and 0.19 (95% CI 0.17–0.20), respectively, indicating good calibration, with a tendency toward under-predicting the need for an opioid when visually assessing calibration plots. AUPRC was 0.64 (95% CI 0.57–0.72) and 0.62 (95% CI 0.56–0.68). Sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative predictive values across different risk thresholds are summarised in Table 3. Sensitivity cross-validation analysis, excluding individual procedures, is reported in Supplementary Results.

Clinical implications

Taking the ground truth as a patient consuming opioids, in the OPERAS testing set, the sensitivity (99.2%) of clinician prescribing is expectedly high as very few patients consume an opioid when not prescribed it, but their specificity of 89.2% is associated with a false positive rate of 10.8%. In the external Newcastle cohort, the sensitivity of clinician prescribing was 100% and the specificity was 91.5% with a false positive rate of 8.5%. Using the model could improve specificity relative to clinicians by targeting opioid prescriptions to individuals with >50% risk of consuming them (see Table 3: specificity of 93.3 and false positive rate of 6.7%). Setting the classification threshold at 50%, 15.6% were predicted to require an opioid, compared to

31.9% that were prescribed opioids. In the external Newcastle cohort, 15.9% were predicted to require an opioid versus the 40.1% of the cohort that were prescribed opioids (see example cases in Table 4).

To assess harm, we looked at the quantity of opioids consumed in the proportion of patients predicted not to require an opioid by the algorithm but who had consumed opioids after discharge (i.e. false negatives). Among those predicted to require an opioid in the OPERAS testing dataset, the median quantity of opioids consumed was 37.5 OME (IQR 0.0–90.0; mean 83.4 ± 172.0) compared to a median of 0.0 OME (IQR 0.0–0.0; mean 15.4 ± 52.3 ; $p < 0.0001$) among those predicted not to require an opioid (122 [16.9%] of whom consumed some opioid). Similarly, among those predicted to require an opioid in the Newcastle external cohort, the median quantity of opioids consumed was 37.5 OME (IQR 0.0–71.2; mean 48.8 ± 61.3) compared to a median of 0.0 OME (IQR 0.0–12.5; mean 15.4 ± 36.4 ; $p < 0.0001$) among those predicted not to require an opioid (196 [28.2%] of whom consumed some opioid; Fig. 2). Further, applying the TabPFN regression model to predict OME quantities consumed in the week after surgery; the median predicted quantity was 11.0 (IQR 1–25; range 0.7–56; mean 13.5 ± 13.3), which can be taken to mean that generally prescribing more than 10 OME per day in the first week after surgery is likely in excess to requirements (Supplementary Fig. 5).

We then calculated the observed effect of prescribing opioids on quality of life, proportion of time spent in severe pain, and mean satisfaction with analgesia, and then formulated a counterfactual, i.e. quality of life, pain severity, and satisfaction when the model prediction was discordant with the clinician's prescribing decision. Taking the difference between the observed and counterfactual effects provides an estimate of the impact of these errors (i.e. discordant prescribing decisions) on these outcomes. There were no differences in patient satisfaction (+0.6, 95% CI –0.19 to 1.5; $p = 0.08$), proportion of time spent in severe pain (–4.3%, 95% CI –17.7 to 8.6; $p = 0.7$) or quality of life (–0.03, 95% CI –0.12 to 0.06; $p = 0.8$) with the use of our model compared to the real-world opioid prescribing in the OPERAS testing set.

Global impact

Applying our predictions from this model to surgical case volumes globally, this personalised prescribing approach would result in 12,129,908 fewer prescriptions (22.5% reduction in opioid prescribing rate), and a 4.5% decrease in overall quantities of oral morphine equivalents (OMEs) prescribed translating to an average 667,596,123 (SD 4,405,314,710) fewer OMEs globally (Fig. 3).

Discussion

We have developed and validated an algorithm to predict the need for an opioid prescription at surgical discharge. Derived from a multispecialty, global dataset, this model generates generalisable and specific predictions across a diverse range of surgical patients. Our model offers guidance to support a personalised approach to analgesic prescribing that may facilitate reductions in overall opioid prescribing after surgery, particularly when they are unlikely to be used (reducing false positive prescriptions by >20%). Further counterfactual simulations suggest that this overall reduction in predicted opioid prescriptions could be achieved without negatively impacting patient-reported quality of life, satisfaction with analgesia, and pain severity. Additionally, when opioids were predicted not to be required where patients had actually consumed some in the real world, quantities consumed averaged less than 20 OME (approximately two 10 mg oral morphine tablets), such that opioid omission would have been safe.

Guidelines advocate for a personalised approach to opioid prescribing at surgical discharge^{11,12}, yet little data is available to guide the decision to prescribe an opioid¹³. This work expands on recent work that has highlighted the large discrepancy between what is prescribed after surgery and what is actually consumed by patients⁸. Coupled with rising awareness of the harms of opioid overprescription, and possibly overstated analgesic benefits in the post-discharge setting^{5,14}, there is an urgent need for a reliable method to curtail opioid overprescription. A web application that allows

Table 1 | Demographics and candidate variables across datasets, by consumption of opioids post-discharge from surgery

		Overall OPERAS Cohort (<i>n</i> = 4267)				Newcastle External Validation Cohort (<i>n</i> = 826)			
		Did not consume opioid	Consumed opioid	Total	<i>p</i>	Did not consume opioid	Consumed opioid	Total	<i>p</i>
Total <i>N</i> (%)		3253 (76.2)	1014 (23.8)	4267		542 (65.6)	284 (34.4)	826	
Age	Median (IQR)	49.0 (34.0 to 64.0)	52.0 (36.0 to 65.0)	50.0 (34.0 to 64.0)	0.029	57.0 (37.2 to 70.0)	44.0 (30.8 to 58.2)	52.5 (34.0 to 67.0)	<0.001
Gender	Female	1728 (53.1)	540 (53.3)	2268 (53.2)	0.969	242 (44.6)	172 (60.6)	414 (50.1)	<0.001
	Male	1525 (46.9)	474 (46.7)	1999 (46.8)		300 (55.4)	112 (39.4)	412 (49.9)	
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)		0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	
Alcohol	Heavy (11+)	30 (0.9)	42 (4.1)	72 (1.7)	<0.001				
	Light (1–5)	472 (14.5)	272 (26.8)	744 (17.4)					
	Moderate (6–10)	84 (2.6)	57 (5.6)	141 (3.3)					
	Non-drinker (0)	2281 (70.1)	436 (43.0)	2717 (63.7)					
	(Missing)	386 (11.9)	207 (20.4)	593 (13.9)					
BMI	Normal (18.5–4.9)	908 (27.9)	253 (25.0)	1161 (27.2)	<0.001				
	Obese (31–40)	677 (20.8)	256 (25.2)	933 (21.9)					
	Overweight (25–30)	1160 (35.7)	302 (29.8)	1462 (34.3)					
	Severely obese (>40)	128 (3.9)	77 (7.6)	205 (4.8)					
	Underweight (<18.5)	61 (1.9)	8 (0.8)	69 (1.6)					
	(Missing)	319 (9.8)	118 (11.6)	437 (10.2)					
Smoking	No	2425 (74.5)	797 (78.6)	3222 (75.5)	0.01	484 (89.3)	229 (80.6)	713 (86.3)	0.001
	Yes	828 (25.5)	217 (21.4)	1045 (24.5)		58 (10.7)	55 (19.4)	113 (13.7)	
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)		0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	
Procedure	ACL repair	61 (1.9)	17 (1.7)	78 (1.8)	<0.001				0.002
	Appendectomy	574 (17.6)	187 (18.4)	761 (17.8)		138 (25.5)	67 (23.6)	205 (24.8)	
	Cholecystectomy	962 (29.6)	263 (25.9)	1225 (28.7)		169 (31.2)	125 (44.0)	294 (35.6)	
	Colorectal resection	299 (9.2)	94 (9.3)	393 (9.2)		72 (13.3)	28 (9.9)	100 (12.1)	
	Cystectomy	29 (0.9)	3 (0.3)	32 (0.7)					
	Hip arthroplasty	131 (4.0)	70 (6.9)	201 (4.7)					
	Hysterectomy	246 (7.6)	41 (4.0)	287 (6.7)					
	Inguinal hernia repair	474 (14.6)	102 (10.1)	576 (13.5)		107 (19.7)	38 (13.4)	145 (17.6)	
	Knee arthroplasty	125 (3.8)	131 (12.9)	256 (6.0)					
	Nephrectomy	72 (2.2)	28 (2.8)	100 (2.3)					
	Nissen fundoplication	26 (0.8)	2 (0.2)	28 (0.7)					
	Oophorectomy and Salpingectomy	29 (0.9)	12 (1.2)	41 (1.0)					
	Oophorectomy only	22 (0.7)	2 (0.2)	24 (0.6)					
	Prostatectomy	77 (2.4)	24 (2.4)	101 (2.4)					
	Rotator cuff repair	12 (0.4)	10 (1.0)	22 (0.5)					
	Salpingectomy only	35 (1.1)	6 (0.6)	41 (1.0)					
	Shoulder arthroplasty	10 (0.3)	9 (0.9)	19 (0.4)					
	Shoulder labral repair	13 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	13 (0.3)					

Table 1 (continued) | Demographics and candidate variables across datasets, by consumption of opioids post-discharge from surgery

		Overall OPERAS Cohort (<i>n</i> = 4267)				Newcastle External Validation Cohort (<i>n</i> = 826)				
		Did not consume opioid	Consumed opioid	Total	<i>p</i>	Did not consume opioid	Consumed opioid	Total	<i>p</i>	
ASA		Sleeve gastrectomy	56 (1.7)	13 (1.3)	69 (1.6)					
		Thyroidectomy	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	56 (10.3)		26 (9.2)	82 (9.9)	
		(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)					
Indication	I-II	2776 (85.3)	828 (81.7)	3604 (84.5)	0.007					
	III-V	474 (14.6)	184 (18.1)	658 (15.4)						
	(Missing)	3 (0.1)	2 (0.2)	5 (0.1)						
Urgency	Benign	2848 (87.5)	892 (88.0)	3740 (87.6)	0.765					
	Malignancy	405 (12.5)	122 (12.0)	527 (12.4)						
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)						
Total OME consumed 24-h pre-discharge	Elective	2280 (70.1)	633 (62.4)	2913 (68.3)	<0.001	284 (52.4)	146 (51.4)	430 (52.1)	0.9	
	Emergency	973 (29.9)	381 (37.6)	1354 (31.7)		255 (47.0)	135 (47.5)	390 (47.2)		
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)		3 (0.6)	3 (1.1)	6 (0.7)		
Pre-admission opioid use		Median (IQR)	0.0 (0.0 to 30.0)	40.0 (15.0 to 75.0)	9.0 (0.0 to 40.0)	<0.001	0.0 (0.0 to 15.0)	22.5 (15.0 to 45.0)	7.5 (0.0 to 22.5)	<0.001
Country Income Level	No	3186 (97.9)	897 (88.5)	4083 (95.7)	<0.001	537 (99.1)	269 (94.7)	806 (97.6)	<0.001	
	Yes	67 (2.1)	117 (11.5)	184 (4.3)		5 (0.9)	15 (5.3)	20 (2.4)		
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)		0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)		
	HIC	1115 (34.3)	804 (79.3)	1919 (45.0)	<0.001	542 (65.6)	284 (34.4)	826		
	LMIC	2138 (65.7)	210 (20.7)	2348 (55.0)						
	(Missing)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)						

Table 2 | Performance metrics of models in the derivation cohort, calculated using 10-fold cross-validation

Cohort	Model	Area under the receiver operator curve	Area under the precision-recall curve	Brier score
Internal	All predictors	0.86 95% CI: 0.84–0.89	0.64 95% CI: 0.57–0.71	0.13 95% CI: 0.11–0.14
Internal	Refined predictors	0.84 95% CI: 0.81–0.88	0.64 95% CI: 0.57–0.72	0.13 95% CI: 0.12–0.14
External	Refined predictors	0.77 95% CI: 0.74–0.80	0.62 95% CI: 0.56–0.68	0.19 95% CI: 0.17–0.20

input of variables for the final predictors and reports the model's predicted risk of patients consuming an opioid in the first week after surgical discharge can be accessed here: <https://operas-model.shinyapps.io/OPERAS/>.

Several rule-based, procedure-specific, or protocolised approaches to opioid prescribing exist. Some examples include specialty-specific standardisations^{15–17}, while others stratify prescriptions based on inpatient opioid consumption^{18–20}. Our data are congruent in finding inpatient opioid consumption to be an important predictor of analgesic needs based on patient-reported post-discharge opioid consumption. This work also advances on recent efforts using deep learning to predict opioid refills, offering improved discrimination in a broader surgical and geographic cohort²¹.

Importantly, broad rule-based approaches to opioid prescribing can inadvertently lead to protocolised overprescription²². This highlights the need for individualised prescribing, hence, the value of a predictive model in

place of a one-size-fits-all approach. Additionally, administrative datasets and dispensing data may not accurately reflect patients' opioid consumption. Hence, our patient-reported consumption data, robustly obtained through standardised telephone interviews, offers a more accurate parallel to patients' need for an opioid after surgery^{8,9}. Hence, this work is a substantial advance to previous single-centre and specialty-specific studies by offering personalised recommendations that incorporate patient-, procedure-, and pathology-specific predictors.

While this study does not explore long-term outcomes of implementing this algorithm in practice, our modelling is in agreement with previous literature, which shows that reducing opioid prescribing in a landscape where overprescription is so common can occur without negatively impacting patient recovery²³. Our algorithm predicted a reduction in opioid prescribing by up to 73% without a significant predicted detriment in pain-satisfaction, quality of life, or pain-severity. Others have also shown

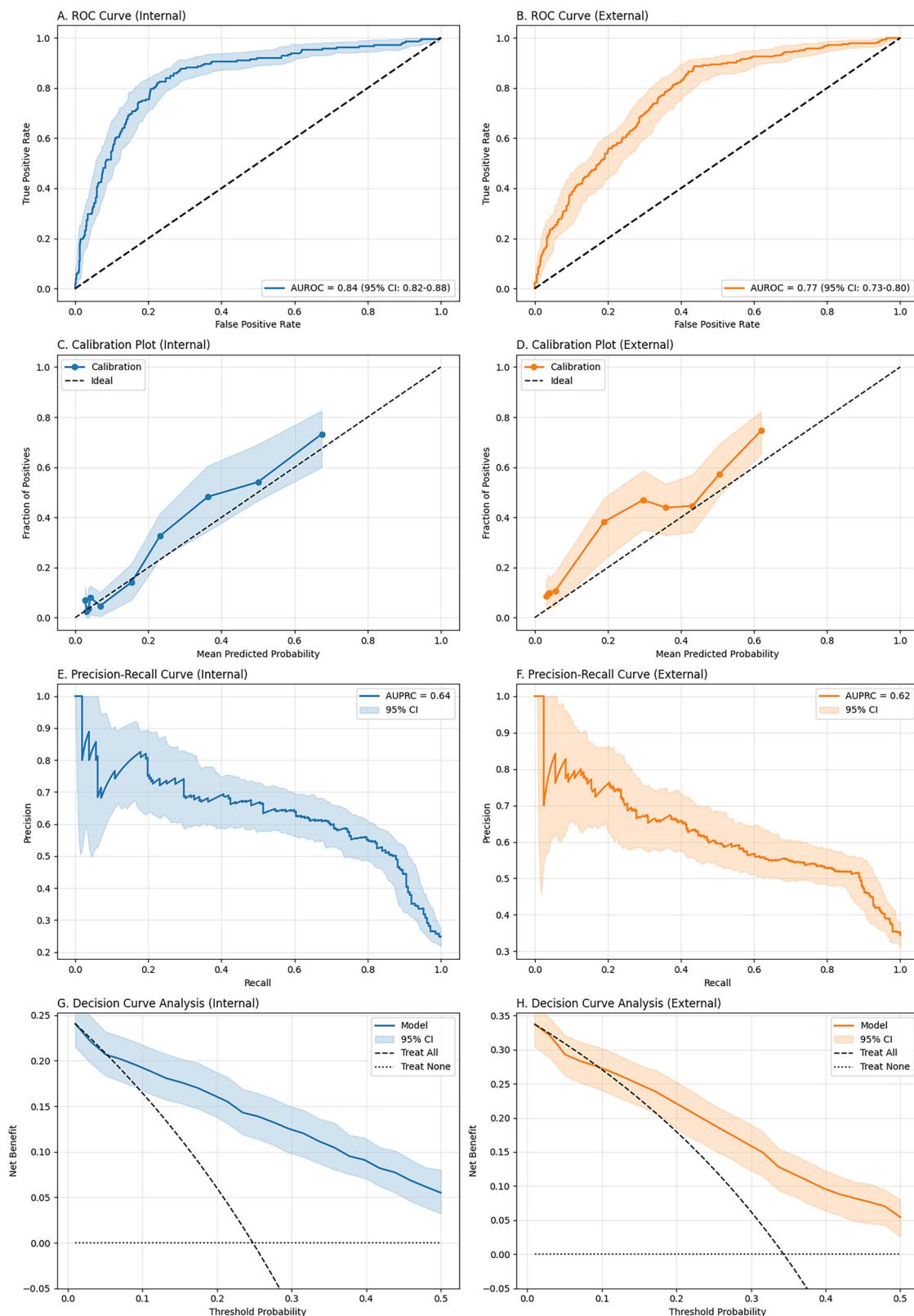


Fig. 1 | Model predictive performance plots. A, B Receiver operator curve (ROC), C, D calibration plot, E, F precision-recall (PR) curve, and G, H decision curve analysis of our model during internal (blue) and external (orange) validation. The shaded area represents 95% confidence intervals.

that implementing protocols to reduce postsurgical opioid prescribing could significantly reduce chronic opioid use without negatively impacting patient recovery^{24,25}. In further support, a recent meta-analysis of randomised evidence suggests the omission of opioids, particularly in the setting of minor

surgery, was frequently associated with equivalent analgesia and fewer opioid-related adverse events¹⁴.

This work has significant implications for postoperative opioid stewardship globally. Our modelling estimates substantial reductions in the

Table 3 | Proportion of patients that consumed an opioid stratified by model predictions across varying risk classification thresholds, tabulated with accompanying sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value (PPV), and negative predictive value (NPV)

Cut-off value	Low risk rate (%)	High risk rate (%)	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV (%)	NPV (%)
10	4.8 (n = 20/421)	44.3 (n = 192/433)	90.6	62.5	44.3	95.2
20	7.1 (n = 37/521)	52.6 (n = 175/333)	82.5	75.4	52.6	92.9
30	10.3 (n = 62/604)	60.0 (n = 150/250)	70.8	84.4	60	89.7
40	13.5 (n = 90/665)	64.6 (n = 122/189)	57.5	89.6	64.6	86.5
50	16.9 (n = 122/721)	67.7 (n = 90/133)	42.5	93.3	67.7	83.1
60	20.5 (n = 161/784)	72.9 (n = 51/70)	24.1	97	72.9	79.5
70	23.3 (n = 193/828)	73.1 (n = 19/26)	9	98.9	73.1	76.7

quantities of opioids that would be prescribed based on extrapolating the model-predicted versus observed differences in opioid prescribing. This is likely to have particular value in high-income countries where excess opioid prescribing is more common²⁶, and this study supports that these personalised reductions can be achieved without detriment to patients' quality of pain relief^{5,14}.

A key limitation of the present study is that patients' consumption patterns can be influenced by what they are prescribed by doctors⁸. Hence, a residual risk of overestimating opioid requirements persists in the absence of randomised evidence to offer counterfactual data. However, as it is well known that clinicians prescribe in excess of what patients consume⁸, and therefore, offering a predictive tool that is likely to result in overall reductions in opioid prescribing whilst better matching patients' consumption needs within the first week after discharge remains attractive. We also did not include some variables that were found to be important prognostically (such as alcohol use and BMI), this was due to the high missing data rates that may introduce bias¹⁰, and also indicate challenges in using these parameters in routine use. A further limitation is that whilst the OPERAS study included a range of surgical specialties and procedures, this list was not comprehensive, and extrapolation of these findings to different surgeries and diverse cohorts should be cautioned. Additionally, our external validation cohort had a more restrictive set of included procedures that lacked orthopaedic operations. Further external validation of this model would therefore be of value.

We envision this tool being used on the day of discharge by the discharging clinician in collaboration with patients and the wider clinical team. Algorithmic clinical decision making should not occur in isolation. Our algorithm, which considers individual patient factors, offers advantages compared to 'one-size-fits-all' protocols, to enable both judicious and personalised opioid prescribing. Such an algorithm, however, does not obviate the need for clinical judgement, consideration of patient circumstances and preferences, safe prescription quantities, and appropriate disposal advice. Prospective evaluation is now required ahead of widespread clinical implementation.

In conclusion, we have developed and validated a novel foundation model for predicting the consumption of opioid analgesia after surgical discharge. This tool is derived from a global cohort and is underpinned by patient-reported opioid consumption data, offering a generalisable tool for surgeons globally. Future studies should prospectively investigate the clinical impacts of utilising our model in practice.

Methods

Study design

This was an international, prospective, multicentre, observational cohort study. Analyses were based on a prespecified, published protocol, and the study was registered in the Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry in October 2021 (ANZCTR: ACTRN12621001451897p)⁹. This is a secondary analysis of the OPERAS dataset, which addresses the per protocol, a priori aim of addressing risk factors for opioid consumption at 7 days; we extend this work here through development and validation of a prognostic

model using a pre-trained foundation model to aid clinical decision making regarding who should be prescribed opioids on the day of discharge following surgery. This study is reported in accordance with the TRIPOD+AI guidelines²⁷.

Ethical approval

The Hunter New England Human Research Ethics Committee approved both the OPERAS study (2021/ETH11508) and data collection for the external validation cohort from Newcastle, Australia (2021/ETH11508). For the OPERAS study, institutional approvals were also obtained according to the requirements at each participating centre and verified by the central steering committee.

Development cohort

In the OPERAS dataset, all hospitals routinely performing general, orthopaedic, gynaecological and urological procedures were eligible to enrol. Data were collected prospectively whilst patients were in hospital from clinical records and discharge prescriptions, and post-discharge via standardised telephone interviews at 7 days²⁸. Data collection took place over six pre-defined 14-day data collection periods between 4 April 2022 and 4 September 2022. Centres could choose to participate in any number of 14-day consecutive recruitment periods.

External validation cohort

An independent prospective cohort of patients aged 18 years or older undergoing elective or emergency general surgical procedures across two metropolitan hospitals in Newcastle, Australia, between March 2019 and March 2020 was used for external validation²⁸. This cohort included patients undergoing thyroidectomies, which were not included in the OPERAS study. Prescribing was per the discharging clinician's discretion.

Eligibility criteria

Centres participating in the OPERAS study prospectively screened and approached all consecutive patients who met eligibility criteria to obtain informed participant consent where this was a requirement of the site ethics approval (Supplementary Table 1). Participants could withdraw at any stage. Consecutive adult patients aged 18 years or older undergoing either elective (planned) or emergency (unplanned) common general surgical (cholecystectomy, appendectomy, inguinal hernia repair, colon resection, fundoplication, or sleeve gastrectomy), orthopaedic (total or reverse shoulder arthroplasty, rotator cuff or labral repair, anterior cruciate ligament repair, or hip or knee arthroplasty), gynaecological (hysterectomy, oophorectomy, or salpingectomy and oophorectomy), and urological procedures (prostatectomy, cystectomy or nephrectomy) were eligible to be included⁹. Only patients discharged home or to a non-healthcare setting were included. Patients receiving medication-assisted treatment of opioid dependence with methadone, suboxone, or buprenorphine, discharged to rehabilitation, nursing-supported care services, another hospital, or discharged with palliative intent were excluded. Patients undergoing multivisceral resections or who required return to theatre were also excluded from the OPERAS study.

Table 4 | Table of five example patients, their contributory predictor variables with their model-derived predicted risk of consuming an opioid in the first week after surgical discharge, alongside the prediction classification at a 50% threshold, the real-world clinician decision and real-world patient consumption outcome

Age	Gender	Smoking status	Procedure	BUPA category	Urgency	Discharge day OME used on the day of discharge	Prior 6-month opioid use	Total OME consumed after discharge	Predicted risk of consuming opioids	Binary prediction	Clinician decision	Patient consumption
62	Female	No	Knee arthroplasty	MAJOR	Elective	65	Yes	334.6	0.906	Yes	Yes	Yes
21	Male	No	Appendicectomy	INTER	Emergency	25	No	80	0.514	Yes	Yes	Yes
24	Male	No	Appendicectomy	INTER	Elective	0	No	0	0.024	No	No	No
77	Male	No	Inguinal hernia repair	MINOR	Elective	40	No	26	0.2	No	Yes	Yes
58	Female	No	Colorectal resection	MAJOR	Elective	0.4	No	0	0.078	No	No	No

Outcome variable

The dependent variable for model development was the binary variable of whether patients had consumed any OMEs after discharge from the hospital or not. We pragmatically chose this outcome for prognostic modelling to avoid undue harms possibly associated with predicting excess quantity of opioids, owing to the skewed distribution of both quantitative opioid prescribing and consumption patterns as overviewed in our sentinel analysis⁷. Individuals predicted not to consume an opioid within 7 days were considered a target group in which opioids could be safely omitted. An exploratory regression analysis using the same model architecture applied to our primary categorical outcome was also performed.

Explanatory variables

Data were also collected on patient demographics (age, gender, tobacco use, vaping status, alcohol use, BMI), Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) physical status classification, comorbidities, diagnosis and procedure-specific details (indication, surgical approach, and urgency), opioid use in the 6 months prior to admission (6-month opioid use), opioid quantity consumed in the 24 h prior to hospital discharge (discharge day opioid use), opioid prescription quantity at the time of discharge from hospital (including opioid type, dose, and quantity of pills). Procedures were mapped to BUPA severity classification codes (minor, intermediate, major)²⁹. Data on opioid doses were converted to OMEs to account for the potencies of different medications and allow comparison. OME conversion ratios were calculated using conversion ratios defined by the Australian and New Zealand College of Anaesthetics (ANZCA) Faculty of Pain Medicine³⁰. Where opioid conversion ratios were not defined by ANZCA, accepted conversion ratios were identified through a literature review⁹. Methods for the calculation of OMEs are further detailed in Supplementary Note 1 and Supplementary Table 2. Patient satisfaction with analgesia was measured on a numeric rating scale between 0 (lowest satisfaction) and 100 (highest satisfaction).

Data analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with R version 4.2.0 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) and Python version 3.9.6 (Python Software Foundation, Amsterdam, Netherlands). An a priori sample size calculation was performed, necessitating a minimum sample size of 852 for a multivariate linear regression model⁹. For a binary classification model, targeting an AUC of 0.8, with 12 parameters and 30% prevalence of opioid prescribing, a minimum sample size of 413 (with 124 events, events per predictor 10.32)³¹.

Descriptive statistics were used to compare demographic and prescription-specific variables based on whether or not patients were prescribed opioids at discharge using the χ^2 test for categorical variables and the Kruskal-Wallis test for continuous variables. Data are presented as median (IQR) or mean \pm SD. A two-tailed α level was set at 5% for interpretation of significance. Missing data were explored via visual inspection. For descriptive purposes, a mixed effects binomial logistic regression model, including individual procedures and country as the random effect, was produced and presented with associated OR and 95% CIs.

For feature selection, we utilised the descriptive machine learning explanations (DALEX) package in R, enabling model agnostic variable importance quantification across various model types³². This framework was employed to assess variable importance via a permutation-based approach. This was supplemented by the use of Shapley Additive Explanations.

Models were trained with a state-of-the-art tabular foundation model (TabPFN)³³, a new model that is well suited to smaller (<10,000 sample) datasets, capable of handling missing data, and outperforms best-in-class machine learning approaches such as gradient boosting (comparison to logistic regression, and hyperparameter optimised, random forest, gradient boosted and neural network models are reported in Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). TabPFN is a generative transformer-based foundation model tailored for prediction tasks trained on tabular data by itself, having been pre-trained on millions of synthetic datasets, including various patterns of

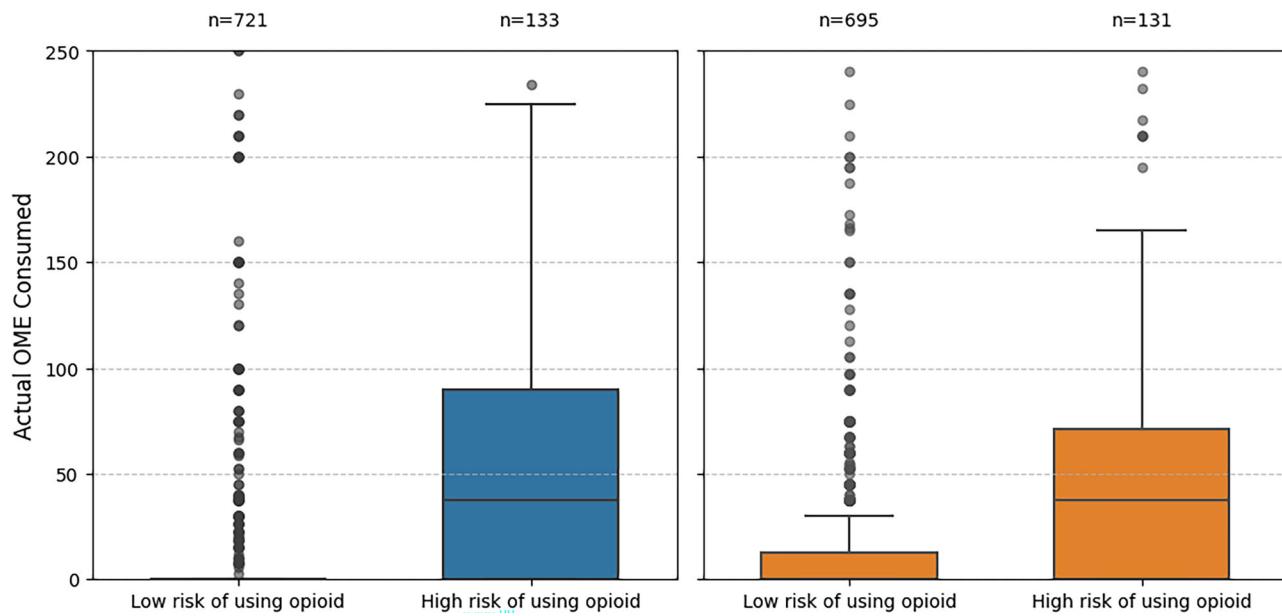


Fig. 2 | Box plots depicting total milligram morphine equivalents consumed stratified by patients predicted to be <50% and >50% risk of consuming an opioid in the first week after surgical discharge. Left: internal validation (blue); right:

external validation (orange). The box represents the interquartile range (IQR), and the whiskers extend to 1.5× the IQR, with outlier dots plotted beyond the whisker extents.

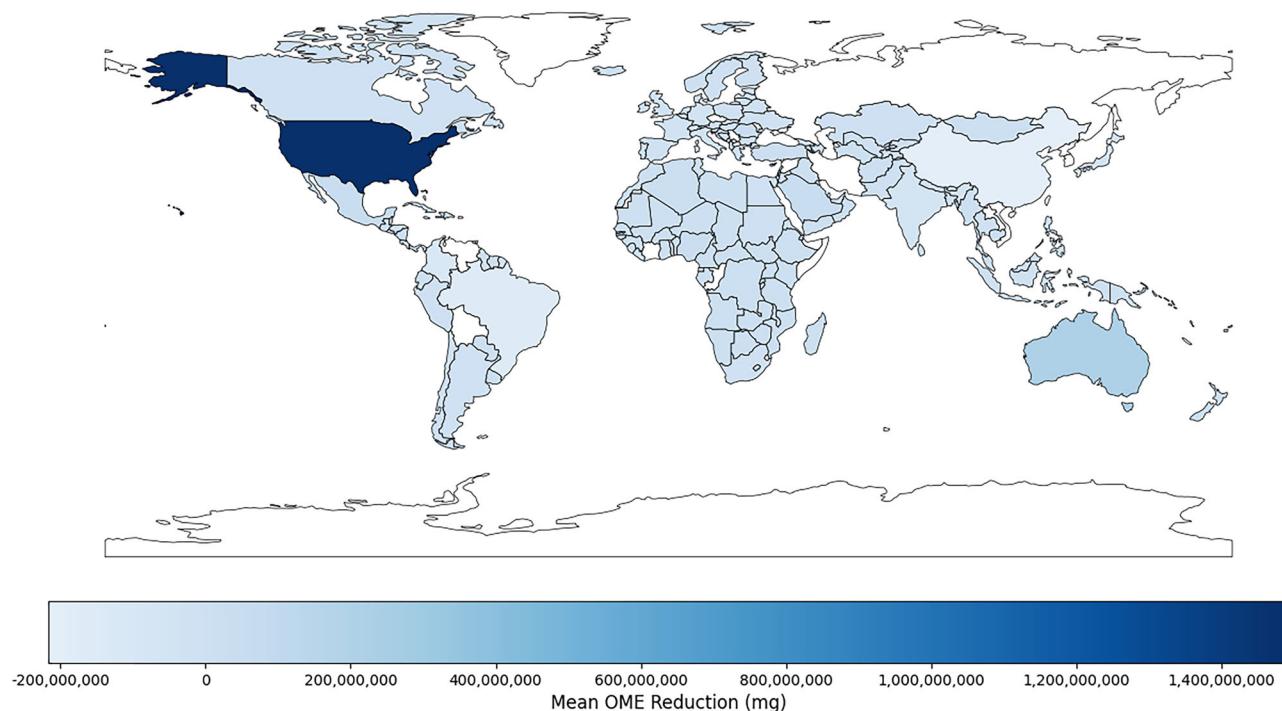


Fig. 3 | Global opioid reduction modelling. Modelled global reductions in average oral morphine equivalents (OMEs) prescribed based on country-level case volume and predicted reductions in OMEs. Darker shades of blue indicate greater reductions in OME prescribed, while countries with missing data are shown in white.

missing data. Regarding data preprocessing, we first converted categorical variables to numeric, and missing data were retained. Two TabPFN models were subsequently trained to classify the likelihood of opioid consumption in the first week after surgical discharge, in an 80% subset of the original OPERAS cohort. The first model contained all candidate predictors, and the second model only contained the refined subset of predictors determined by the feature selection approaches described above. Cross-validation with a leave-one-out approach for each procedure was performed as a sensitivity

analysis when using BUPA severity classifications in place of the procedure. Receiver operator curves (ROC) and precision-recall (PR) curves, with the respective area under the receiver operator curve (AUROC) and average under the precision-recall curve (AUPRC) metrics, were interrogated to compare models. Thereafter, the results of the refined model in the testing and external Newcastle cohorts were presented. ROC, PR curve, calibration plots, and decision curve analysis plots were plotted with bootstrapped 95% CIs from 100 draws, and presented alongside their respective AUROC,

AUPRC, and Brier score metrics (initially, using the >0.5 risk threshold for positive classification). AUC values between 0.5–0.59 were considered ‘poor’, 0.6–0.69 ‘moderate’, 0.7–0.79 ‘good’ and ≥0.8 ‘excellent’ discrimination³⁴.

To assess clinical utility and impact, we first compared the quantity of opioids consumed by patients in OMEs by prediction class in the OPERAS testing set and the external Newcastle cohort. A sample of example cases is presented with variables, predictions, the original clinician’s prescribing decision, and the patient’s actual consumption outcome. Further, the TabPFN regression model was applied to assess the range of quantities of opioids predicted to be consumed within 1 week post-discharge. In the OPERAS testing set, where patient-reported outcomes were available, we then developed counterfactual simulations to assess the impact on quality of life (EQ-5D score), proportion of time spent in severe pain (0–100; herein pain severity), and satisfaction with analgesia (0–10). First, the observed effect was calculated as the mean difference in EQ-5D score, pain severity, and satisfaction with analgesia between those originally discharged with an opioid and those not discharged with an opioid. The counterfactual effect was then defined as the mean difference in satisfaction between (a) the group that the model predicted requiring an opioid, but clinicians did not; and (b) the group where the model predicted not requiring an opioid, but clinicians did (i.e. when model predictions disagreed with clinician decisions). The impact of the model was determined by subtracting the effect size in the counterfactual model from the observed effect. We then assessed for statistical significance by bootstrapping 95% CIs with 1000 resamples.

The global impact of applying our predictions was modelled using country-level case volume data from Holmer et al.³⁵. Opioid prescribing rate was taken for available countries from the OPERAS study, and supplemented by rates described by Kaafarani et al.²⁶. First the difference in rates of observed and predicted opioid prescribing was calculated and described. Thereafter, the average quantity of OME prescribed per patient was multiplied by the average prescribing rate, and the absolute difference between observed and predicted rates and presented as mean and standard deviation (SD). These data are visualised with a choropleth.

Data availability

Full data are not available to be shared due to data protection issues, however, the corresponding author is can be contacted for enquiries.

Code availability

Analysis code is available at <https://github.com/kriz98/operas>.

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Author contributions

C.V., P.P., G.O.G., and E.H. conceived and initiated the reported analysis. L.P. and P.P. led the study that generated the external validation cohort. C.V., L.G., W.X., K.K., A.B., M.P., C.W., D.W., J.M., and P.P. led the OPERAS study. Data collection, hospital-level, national-level, and regional-level coordination were performed by TASMAN Collaborative collaborators

(as outlined in the Supplementary Appendix). Data were analysed by C.V. with oversight from K.M., G.S., and E.H. C.V. led the writing of the manuscript. All members of the writing group contributed to drafting, editing, data interpretation, and critical revision of the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the manuscript. All members of the data analysis group had full access to the data in the study and verified the underlying data in the study.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Chris Varghese.

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TASMAN Collaborative

Chris Varghese¹¹, Luke Peters¹², Lorane Gaborit¹³, Kaviya Kalyanasundaram¹⁴, Aya Basam¹⁵, Deborah Wright¹⁶, Jennifer Martin¹², Melissa Park¹², Peter Pockney¹², William Xu¹¹, Cameron Wells¹¹, Gabriel Schamberg¹¹, Greg O'Grady¹¹, Kenneth A. McLean¹⁷, Ewen Harrison¹⁷, Chris Varghese¹¹, Gabriel Schamberg¹¹, Billy Wu¹¹, Ewen Harrison¹⁷, Aya Basam¹⁵, Sarah Goh¹⁵, Jiting Li¹⁵, Jainil Shah¹⁵, Abdullah Waraich¹⁵, Lorane Gaborit¹³, Upasana Pathak¹³, Amie Hilder¹⁸, Muhammed Elhadi¹⁹, Aiden Jabur²⁰, Kaviya Kalyanasundaram¹⁴, Christina Ohis²¹, Chui Foong Ong²², Melissa Park¹², Venesa Siribaddana¹², Kyle Raubenheimer²³, Jennifer Vu²⁴, Cameron Wells¹¹, Gordon Liu¹¹, Liam Ferguson¹¹, William Xu¹¹, Chris Varghese¹¹, Peter Pockney¹², Kristy Atherton¹², Amanda Dawson¹², Jennifer Martin¹², Arnab Banerjee¹³, Nagendra Dudi-Venkata²⁵, Nicholas Lightfoot¹¹, Isabella Ludbrook²⁶, Luke Peters²⁷, Rachel Sara²⁸, David Watson²⁹, Deborah Wright¹⁶, Ademola Adeyeye⁶, Luis Adrian Alvarez-Lozada³⁰, Semra Demirli Atici³¹, Milos Buhavac³², Giacomo Calini³³, Muhammed Elhadi¹⁹, Orestis Ioannidis³⁴, Mustafa Deniz Tepe³⁵, Upanmanyu Nath³⁶, Ahmad Uzair³⁷, Wah Yang³⁸, Faseeh Zaidi¹¹, Surya Singh¹¹, Bahiyah Abdullah³⁹, Diana Sofia Garces Palacios⁴⁰, Ahmed Ragab⁴¹, Ahmed Ahmed⁴¹, Kyle Raubenheimer⁴², Davina Daudu⁴³, Sarah Goh¹⁵, Simran Vinod Benyani¹⁵, Nandini Karthikeyan¹⁵, Laure Taher Mansour¹⁴, Warren Seow¹⁴, Zoya Tasi⁴⁴, Aiden Jabur²⁰, Upasana Pathak¹³, Melissa Park¹², Dhia Errahmane Abdelmelek⁴⁵, Ikram Fatima Zohra Boussahel⁴⁵, Oumelaz Kaabache⁴⁵, Naoual Lemdaoui⁴⁵, Oualid Nebbar⁴⁵, Mounira Rais⁴⁶, Meriem Abdoun⁴⁶, Aya Tinhinane Kouicem⁴⁶, Souad Bouaoud⁴⁶, Kamel Bouchenak⁴⁶, Hind Saada⁴⁶, Amel Ouyahia⁴⁶, Wassila Messai⁴⁶, Zhi Shyuan Choong⁴⁷, Clarissa Ting⁴⁷, Michelle Larkin⁴⁷, Pei Jun Fong⁴⁷, Isabel Soh⁴⁷, Alyssia De Grandi⁴⁷, Hareem Iftikhar⁴⁷, Akansha Sinha⁴⁷, Dhruv Kapoor⁴⁷, Tara Chlewicka⁴⁷,

David Singer⁴⁸, Kim Goddard⁴⁸, Lisa Matthews⁴⁸, Rosalina Lin⁴⁹, Jessica Chambers⁴⁹, Juliet Chan⁴⁹, Brooke Macnab⁴⁹, John Barker⁴⁹, Morgan Mckenzie⁴⁹, Neil Ferguson⁴⁹, Ghanisht Juwaheer⁵⁰, Vijayaragavan Muralidharan⁵⁰, Sonia Gill⁵⁰, Nakjun Sung⁵⁰, Rohan Patel⁵⁰, Chris Walters⁵⁰, Kevin Nguyen⁵⁰, David Liu⁵⁰, Carlos Cabalag⁵⁰, Jennifer Lee⁵⁰, San-Hui Anita Leow⁵⁰, Suat Li Ng⁵⁰, Hamza Ashraf⁵⁰, Fraizer Mulder⁵⁰, Jonathan Loo⁵⁰, David Proud⁵⁰, Samantha Wong⁵⁰, Yida Zhou⁵⁰, Qi Rui Soh⁵⁰, David Chye⁵⁰, Sean Stevens⁵⁰, Patrick Tang⁵⁰, Stephen Krisharides⁵⁰, Jason Dong⁵⁰, Oscar Morice⁵⁰, Dora Huang⁵⁰, Andrew Hardidge⁵⁰, Mishka Amarasekara⁵⁰, Aleah Kink⁵⁰, Damien Bolton⁵⁰, Alisha Rawal⁵¹, Jasraaj Singh⁵¹, Matthew Heard⁵¹, Yusuf Hassan⁵¹, Ahmed Naqeeb⁵¹, Andrew Cobden⁵¹, Duron Prinsloo⁵¹, Dwain Quadros⁵¹, Emma Gunn⁵¹, Ha Jin Kim⁵¹, Jennifer Ekwebelam⁵¹, James Shanahan⁵¹, Mustafa Alkazali⁵¹, Mariyah Hoosenally⁵¹, Naveen Nara⁵¹, Peter Nguyen⁵¹, Sally Barker⁵¹, Zaccharay Tamsett⁵¹, Naomi Rigby⁵¹, Hinal Patel⁵¹, Eloise Ferguson⁵¹, Lauren Byrnes⁵¹, Alexander Bravo⁵¹, Amie Hilder⁵², Ally Hui⁵², Antara Karmakar⁵², Bill Wang⁵², Janindu Goonawardena⁵², King Tung Cheung⁵², Nicholas Chan⁵², Ragul Natarajan⁵², Richard Cade⁵², Rong Jin⁵², Shomik Sengupta⁵², Ruth Snider⁵², Harsha Morisetty⁵³, Lewis Weeda⁵³, Phoebe Sun⁵³, Lalita Chilaka⁵³, Jacinta Cover⁵³, Aashrinee De Silva Abeweera Gunasekara⁵⁴, Rahavi Senthilrajah⁵⁴, Anas Alwhaib⁵⁴, Alexandra Limmer⁵⁴, Bushra Zamanbandhon⁵⁴, Kumail Jaffry⁵⁵, Yijia Shen⁵⁶, Alan Chua⁵⁶, Saifulla Syed⁵⁶, Sushanth Saha⁵⁷, John Glynatsis⁵⁷, Lori Aitchison⁵⁷, Bernard Lagana⁵⁷, Mason Crossman⁵⁷, David Watson⁵⁷, Abby Dawson⁵⁷, Bryan Fong⁵⁷, Ella Harrison⁵⁷, Eleanor Horsburgh⁵⁷, John Glynatsis⁵⁷, Michael Khoo⁵⁷, Kritika Mishra⁵⁷, Lewis Hewton⁵⁷, Alex Mesecke⁵⁷, Hien Tu⁵⁷, Than Tun⁵⁷, Jason Wong⁵⁷, Elynn Ong⁵⁸, Tara-Nyssa Law⁵⁸, Ashlee Landy⁵⁸, Alyssa Leano⁵⁸, Andrea Li⁵⁸, Akshay Soni⁵⁸, Benjamin Dowdle⁵⁸, Charles Pilgrim⁵⁸, Dewmi Abeysirigunawardana⁵⁸, Deepak Rajan Jeyarajan⁵⁸, Diya Patel⁵⁸, Jason Chung⁵⁸, Kyle Mckinnon⁵⁸, Madeline Gould⁵⁸, Paul Gilmore⁵⁸, Ruxi Geng⁵⁸, Rachael Loughnan⁵⁸, Sarahjane Norton-Smith⁵⁸, Solomon Nyame⁵⁸, Sarah Tan⁵⁸, Sewni Samarawickrama⁵⁸, Si Woo Yoon⁵⁸, Yantong Wang⁵⁸, Yichi Zhang⁵⁸, Zixuan Wang⁵⁸, Hans Mare⁵⁹, Indrajith Withanage⁵⁹, Mitali Khattar⁶⁰, Alexandra Toft⁶⁰, Goutham Sivasuthan⁶⁰, Hailin Zhao⁶⁰, Jordan Addley⁶⁰, Lucinda O'brien⁶⁰, Muhammad Raza⁶⁰, Randipsingh Bindra⁶⁰, Sonakshi Sharma⁶⁰, Charlotte Cornwell⁶¹, Aditya Patil⁶¹, Aiden Cheung⁶¹, Ashleigh Lown⁶¹, Amanda Dawson⁶¹, Aneel Blassey⁶¹, Benjamin Ochigbo⁶¹, Felicity Cheng⁶¹, Aleeza Fatima⁶¹, Edward Zhang⁶¹, Henry Kocatekin⁶¹, Charles Roth⁶¹, Dani Brewster⁶¹, Kelvin Kwok⁶¹, Paul Chen⁶¹, Sharon Laura⁶¹, Dominic Tynan⁶¹, Edward Latif⁶¹, Elizabeth Lun⁶¹, Elodie Honore⁶¹, Felix Ziergiebel⁶¹, Jessica Blake⁶¹, Karan Chandiok⁶¹, Katie Bird⁶¹, Lynette Ngothanh⁶¹, Melissa Lee⁶¹, Mariam El-Masry⁶¹, Peter Hamer⁶¹, Ramanathan Rm Palaniappan⁶¹, Richard Mcgee⁶¹, Sarah Huang⁶¹, Shane Zhang⁶¹, Shubhang Hariharan⁶¹, Yannick De Silva⁶¹, Celeste Lee⁶¹, Penelope Fotheringham⁶¹, Ian Incoll⁶¹, Timothy Cordingley⁶¹, Felicity Cheng⁶¹, Matthew Brown⁶¹, Leannedra Kang⁶¹, Rivindu Wijayaratne⁶¹, Parisse Moore⁶¹, Gemma Qian⁶¹, Yara Elgindy⁶¹, Emma Carnuccio⁶², Hamish Rae⁶², Mena Shehata⁶², Mingchun Liu⁶³, Brodee Lockwood⁶³, John Van Bockxmeer⁶³, Ali Alsoudani⁶⁴, Daniel Swan⁶⁴, Justin Hsieh⁶⁴, Francesca Orchard-Hall⁶⁵, Kai Yun Jodene Tay⁶⁵, Raagini Mehra⁶⁵, Alpha Gebeh⁶⁵, Ashley Bailey⁶⁵, Georgia Brown⁶⁵, Ashley Colaco⁶⁵, Hemashree Gopal⁶⁵, Jessica Boyley⁶⁵, Varun Changati⁶⁵, Joseph Fletcher⁶⁵, Tanishq Khandelwal⁶⁵, Colin House⁶⁵, Chris O'neil⁶⁵, Emily Jaarsma⁶⁵, Victor Ly⁶⁵, Zsolt Balogh⁶⁵, Amanda Shui⁶⁵, Vinogi Sathasivam⁶⁵, Hannah Legge-Wilkinson⁶⁵, King Ho Wong⁶⁶, Andrew Chen⁶⁶, Anthony Tran⁶⁶, Peter Rehfisch⁶⁶, Grace Wang⁶⁶, Jonathan Nguyen⁶⁶, Joshua Peker⁶⁶, Kayla Gallert⁶⁶, Mia Komesaroff⁶⁶, Manideep Namburi⁶⁶, Elisabeth Goldfinch⁶⁷, Ropafadzo Muchabaiwa⁶⁷, Aishwarya Jangam⁶⁷, Isobel Taylor⁶⁷, Iulian Nusem⁶⁷, Jin Hyuk (David) Park⁶⁷, Justin Gundara⁶⁷, Rachael Heigan⁶⁷, Tam Tran⁶⁷, Thomas Mackay⁶⁷, Yasmine Butterworth⁶⁷, Tomas Sadauskas⁶⁷, Melody Tung⁶⁷, Hasthika Ellepola⁶⁷, Christine Gan⁶⁸, Hakim Fong⁶⁸, Ankita Das⁶⁸, Leshya Naicker⁶⁸, Samantha Hauptman⁶⁸, Aditi Kamath⁶⁸, Anthea Yew⁶⁸, Anupam Parange⁶⁸, Katie Kim⁶⁸, Sahil Kharwadkar⁶⁸, Tharushi Gamage⁶⁸, Lucille Vance⁶⁹, Alexandra Seldon⁶⁹, Moheb Ghaly⁶⁹, Jainam Shah⁷⁰, Victoria Phan⁷⁰, Karanjeet Chauhan⁷¹, Ahmad Bassam⁷¹, Beverley Vollenhoven⁷¹, Kumail Jaffry⁷¹, Kajal Mandhan⁷¹, Mithra Sritharan⁷¹, Mahesh Sakthivel⁷¹, Natalie Evans⁷¹, Samuel Robinson⁷¹, Seiyon Sivakumar⁷¹, Liberty Marrison⁷², David Jollow⁷², Krishna Joshi⁷², Steve Tao⁷², Pallavi Shrestha⁷², Sai Keerthana Nukala⁷², Russell Hodgson⁷³, Anna Crotty⁷³, Adriana Esho⁷³, Alasdair Harris⁷³, Amy Surkitt⁷³, Laura Bland⁷³, Blake Mcleod⁷³, Chonghao Yin⁷³, Cambo Keng⁷³, Emily Greenwood⁷³, Grace Yuan⁷³, Emma Haege⁷³, Hongyi Wu⁷³, Haotian Xiao⁷³, Isabella Pozzi⁷³, Jeff Fu⁷³, Jessica Stott Ross⁷³, Juliette Gentle⁷³, Kathy Gan⁷³, Kelvin Chang⁷³, Kexin Sun⁷³, Madhavi Singh⁷³, Maria Xie⁷³, Nicholas McCabe⁷³, Mark Slavec⁷³, Nick Clarnette⁷³, Behzad Niknami⁷³, Peishan Zou⁷³, Sean Flintoft⁷³, Shenuka Jayatileke⁷³, Rumnea Sok⁷³, Suqi Tan⁷³, Sanya Wadhwa⁷³, Will Swansson⁷³, Daniel Abulafia⁷⁴, Jian Blundell⁷⁴, Amie Sweetapple⁷⁴, Caitlin Del Solar⁷⁴, Cameron Martin⁷⁴, David Bell⁷⁴, Isuru Fernando⁷⁴, Jared Chang⁷⁴, Katie Vanzuylekom⁷⁴, Katie Van Zuylekom⁷⁴, Kate Van Zuylekom⁷⁴, Katie Hobbs⁷⁴, Richard Liang⁷⁴, Aiden Jabur⁷⁵, Jazmina Tarmidi⁷⁵, Mahmoud Ugool⁷⁵, Nicholas Beatson⁷⁵, Sarah Bowman⁷⁵, Sophie Moin⁷⁵, Wen Po Jonathan Tan⁷⁶, Seevakan Chidambaram⁷⁶, Siang Wei Gan⁷⁶, Pengnan Wang⁷⁶, Leshya Naicker⁷⁶, Katie Kim⁷⁶, Nicole Qiwen Wang⁷⁶, Yi Xin Kwan⁷⁶, Chinmai Patil⁷⁶, Divyanshu Joshi⁷⁶, Aditi Kamath⁷⁶, Aishath Hanan⁷⁶, Arfaan Sheriff⁷⁶, Jaime Duffield⁷⁶, Leshya Naiker⁷⁶, Peter Smitham⁷⁶, Eu Ling Neo⁷⁶, Matthew Chua⁷⁶, Shalvin Prasad⁷⁶, Armitesh Nagaratnam⁷⁶, Tarik Sammour⁷⁶, Yuxin Lin⁷⁶, Christine Lee⁷⁶, Eve Hopping⁷⁶, Muskan Jangra⁷⁶, Ankita Das⁷⁶, Ken Lin⁷⁶, Zachary Bunjo⁷⁶, Kyle Raubenheimer⁷⁷, Mohamed Haseef Mohamed Yunos⁷⁷, Kar Long Yeung⁷⁷, Rachel Phu⁷⁷, Aisling Betts⁷⁷, Benjamin Just⁷⁷, Sahil Gera⁷⁷, Hilary Leeson⁷⁷, Jodie Jamieson⁷⁷, Katie Wang⁷⁷, Emily Luu⁷⁷, Michael Innes⁷⁷, Jennifer Vu⁷⁸, Jonathan Hong⁷⁸, Stephen Dzator⁷⁸, Aki Flame⁷⁸, Vincent

Jiang⁷⁸, Jianing Kwok⁷⁸, Aaron Lawrence⁷⁸, Kate Meads⁷⁸, Liam Pearce⁷⁸, Pavatharane Sarangadasa⁷⁸, Haylee Shaw⁷⁸, Victor Yu⁷⁸, Elizabeth Crostella⁷⁹, James Wong⁷⁹, Sriya Bobba⁷⁹, Maddison Muller⁷⁹, Yin Chi Hebe Hau⁷⁹, Thomas Wilson⁷⁹, Aleksandra Markovic⁷⁹, Jemma Green⁷⁹, Clara Forbes⁷⁹, Emalee Burrows⁷⁹, Lachlan Hou⁷⁹, Clare O'sullivan⁷⁹, Jonathon Foo⁷⁹, Hannah Greig⁸⁰, A.-J Collins⁸⁰, Callum Chandler⁸⁰, Emily Heaney⁸⁰, Hannah Gross⁸⁰, Monica Morgan⁸⁰, Rebecca Loder⁸⁰, Krishnankutty Rajesh⁸⁰, Shravankrishna Ananthapadmanabhan⁸¹, Akeedh Razmi⁸¹, Crystal Vong⁸¹, Prasanna Pothukuchi⁸¹, Mary Theophilus⁸¹, Roshni Sriranjan⁸¹, Sharon Kaur⁸¹, Marcelo Kanczuk⁸¹, Julia De Groot⁸², Angela Corrigan⁸², Damon Li⁸², Dannie Badri⁸², Dominico Ciranni⁸², Elangovan Thaya Needi⁸², Matthew Clanfield⁸², Nicolas Copertino⁸², William Rumble⁸², Maria Kristina Vanguardia⁸³, Chen Lew⁸³, Rami Dennaoui⁸³, Jainil Shah⁸³, Joseph Kong⁸³, Imogen Koh⁸³, Raymond Zeng⁸³, Kristian Baziotis-Kalfas⁸³, Hannah Denby⁸³, Andy Li⁸³, Will Tran⁸³, Abhinav Singh⁸³, Olivia Lin⁸³, Michelle Chau⁸³, Olivia Donaldson⁸³, Christina (Seojung) Min⁸³, Shirahn Ballah⁸³, Sonia Ching Ting Tsui⁸³, Nathania Yong⁸³, Lucy Standish⁸³, Sarah Tan⁸³, Asuka Fujihara⁸³, Lily Davies⁸³, Ramin Odisho⁸³, Anjana Ravi⁸³, Josh Collins⁸³, Pooja Chandra⁸³, Rana Abdelmeguid⁸³, Gopal Singh⁸³, Xireaili Feierdaiweisei⁸³, Dharani Seneviratne⁸³, Shambhavi Srivastava⁸³, Michelle Yao⁸³, Cherilyn Teng⁸³, Nebula Chowdhury⁸³, Sasini Vidanagama⁸³, Charles Lin⁸³, Tharushi Sampatha-Waduge⁸³, Erica Wang⁸³, Chatnapa Yodkitydomying⁸³, Imogen Koh⁸³, Julia Silveri⁸³, Aaron Lam⁸³, Raymond Zeng⁸³, Krisha Solanki⁸³, Angus Franks⁸³, Liam Edwards⁸³, Ridvan Atilhan⁸³, Rohan Nandurkar⁸³, Oliver Wells⁸³, Kristina Vanguardia⁸³, Dennis King⁸³, Elton Edwards⁸³, Liam Edwards⁸³, Quang Tran⁸³, Michelle Chau⁸³, Seojung Min⁸³, Abdul Rauf⁸⁴, Yangzirui Fu⁸⁴, Hodo Haximolla⁸⁴, Mengge Shang⁸⁴, Sharrada Segaran⁸⁴, Shelley Wang⁸⁴, Gananadha Sivakumar⁸⁴, Jaspreet Kaur Sandhu⁸⁵, Neel Mishra⁸⁵, Samantha Hauptman⁸⁵, Alyssa Chua⁸⁵, Danielle Chene⁸⁵, Guy Maddern⁸⁵, Henry Shaw⁸⁵, Qiwen Wang⁸⁵, Siyuan Pang⁸⁶, Christine Lu⁸⁶, James Fung⁸⁶, Kathryn Cyr⁸⁶, Karen Lu⁸⁶, Ming Zhou How⁸⁶, Nelson Hu⁸⁶, Paul Anderson⁸⁶, Philip Jakanovski⁸⁶, Arkan Youssef⁸⁷, Howard Tang⁸⁷, Rory Keenan⁸⁷, Alex Chan⁸⁷, Mitch Cannay⁸⁷, Farah Tahir⁸⁷, James Egerton⁸⁷, Justin Yeung⁸⁷, Justin Chan⁸⁷, Lea Tiffany⁸⁷, Michael Bei⁸⁷, Mariolyn Raj⁸⁷, Peter Williams⁸⁷, Sakshar Nagpal⁸⁷, Tim Outhred⁸⁷, Russel Krawitz⁸⁷, Colin Chan-Min Choi⁸⁷, Khadijah Younus⁸⁸, Mary Giurgius⁸⁸, Rosemary Kirk⁸⁸, Amanda Gonzalez Pegorer⁸⁸, Pattarapan Tang-Team⁸⁸, Jack Ward⁸⁸, Asanka Wijetunga⁸⁸, Caitlin Zhang⁸⁸, Chris Nahm⁸⁸, Christine Wang⁸⁸, Damian Golja⁸⁸, Gregory Jenkins⁸⁸, Helena Qian⁸⁸, Jason Luong⁸⁸, Kim Nguyen⁸⁸, Sean Suttor⁸⁸, Sherman Lai⁸⁸, Vanessa Ma⁸⁸, Yan Chen⁸⁸, Hoi Hang Yu⁸⁹, Amos Lee⁸⁹, Antonio Barbaro⁸⁹, Cameron Mcguinness⁸⁹, Guy Maddern⁸⁹, Stevie Young⁸⁹, Ye Fang Lim⁹⁰, Georgina Trotta⁹⁰, Phoebe Chao⁹⁰, George Ding⁹⁰, Carol Fang⁹⁰, Andi Lu⁹⁰, Prabhath Wagaarachchi⁹⁰, Charlotte Cornwell⁹¹, Amy Gojnich⁹¹, Peter Stewart⁹¹, Isabella Dong⁹¹, Kenneth Wong⁹¹, Luca Burruso⁹¹, Lucinda Hogan⁹¹, Nathan Mcorist⁹¹, Ramnik Singh⁹¹, Ragavi Jeyamohan⁹¹, Zhen Hou⁹¹, William Lai⁹¹, Emily Taylor⁹¹, Diana Sofia Garces Palacios⁴⁰, Maria Alejandra Nanez Pantoja⁴⁰, Daniel Mauricio Bolanos Nanez⁴⁰, Gilmer Omar Perez Hernandez⁴⁰, Lia Jasmin Jimenez Ramirez⁴⁰, Mohamed Mohamed⁹², Ahmed Kamal El-Taher⁹², Ahmed Elewa⁹², Mahmoud Ayman Soliman⁹², Menna Diab⁹², Radwa Ali⁹², Ahmed Ahmed⁹³, Adham Galal⁹³, Ahmed Elkhdary⁹³, Ali Alaa⁹³, Arwa Faisal⁹³, Asmaa Badawy⁹³, Donia Eldomiaty⁹³, Mohamed Al Sayed⁹³, Esraa Rasslan⁹³, Mohamed Ramadan⁹³, Gamal Elsayed Fares⁹³, Hashem Altabbaa⁹³, Humam Emad⁹³, Muneera Alboridy⁹³, Mahmoud Mongy⁹³, Osama Albarhom⁹³, Osama Selim⁹³, Rawan Rafaei⁹³, Raneem Atta⁹³, Ahmad Altaweei⁹³, Yara Sherif⁹³, Youssef Elghoul⁹³, Yousef Tarek⁹³, Ahmed Abdelfatah Sabry⁹³, Ahmad Moustafa⁹³, Osama AbouHiekai⁹³, Osama Al Shaqran⁹³, Zeyad Haggag⁹³, Dina Atef⁹⁴, Ahmed Mahmoud⁹⁴, Mahmoud Saad⁹⁴, Mohamed Ragab⁹⁴, Aya Hussien⁹⁴, Mostafa Abdelbaky⁹⁴, Ismail Muhammad⁹⁴, Afnan Morad⁹⁴, Ahmed Ali⁹⁴, Ahmed Hussien⁹⁴, Ahmed Shipa⁹⁴, Ahmed Aboulfotouh⁹⁴, Ahmed Mohamed Hashem⁹⁴, Ahmed Morsi⁹⁴, Alshymaa Ebrahim⁹⁴, Ahmed Mohamed Sayed⁹⁴, Amira Abdelrahman⁹⁴, Aml Ali⁹⁴, Samah Abdelnaeem⁹⁴, Asmaa Emam⁹⁴, Aya Shaban⁹⁴, Fady Barsoum⁹⁴, Esraa Mostafa⁹⁴, Doaa Abdelbaset⁹⁴, Dina Othman⁹⁴, Safaa Othman⁹⁴, Nour Salah Khairallah⁹⁴, Salma Morsi⁹⁴, Armia Azer⁹⁴, Enas Abdelbaset Abdelsamed⁹⁴, Islam Ibrahim⁹⁴, Esraa Abdelbaset⁹⁴, Esraa Hamoda⁹⁴, Fatma Monib⁹⁴, Fatma Harb⁹⁴, Hager Maher⁹⁴, Haitham Mohammed⁹⁴, Kerollo Henes⁹⁴, Kerollo Shamshoon⁹⁴, Mahmoud Hassanein⁹⁴, Magdy Mahdy⁹⁴, Mahmoud Khalil⁹⁴, Manal Ali⁹⁴, Mansour Khalifa⁹⁴, Marwa Amary⁹⁴, Merna Ezz Suliman⁹⁴, Mohammed Saif Al Nasr⁹⁴, Michael Elia⁹⁴, Michael Adly⁹⁴, men Roshdy⁹⁴, Mohammed Al-Quossi⁹⁴, Mohammed Fargaly⁹⁴, Mona Saber⁹⁴, Mostafa Abbas⁹⁴, Ola Haroon⁹⁴, Omima Khalil⁹⁴, Omnia Talaat⁹⁴, Rahma Elnagar⁹⁴, Randa Soliman⁹⁴, Reham Aboelela⁹⁴, Salem Salah⁹⁴, Samia Abdelgawad⁹⁴, Tarek Hussien⁹⁴, George Sobhy⁹⁴, Yasmeen Sayed⁹⁴, Yousra Othman⁹⁴, Reham Silem⁹⁵, Ali Dawood⁹⁵, Tarek Hemaida⁹⁵, Reem Ahmed⁹⁵, Aya Kamal⁹⁵, Mohamed Salah⁹⁵, Ahmed Zaharia⁹⁵, Ebrahim Salem⁹⁶, Osama Fathy Ali Ali Rashed⁹⁶, Mohamed Halawa⁹⁶, Hossam Elfeki⁹⁷, Abdelrahman Mosaad⁹⁷, Abdelrahman Shaaban⁹⁷, Hebatalla Abdelsalam⁹⁷, Ahmed Sakr⁹⁷, Aly Sanad⁹⁷, Amr Elsawy⁹⁷, Bassant Maged Maged⁹⁷, Dana Hegazy⁹⁷, Mohamed Abdelmaksoud⁹⁷, Mahmoud Laymon⁹⁷, Mohamed Taman⁹⁷, Esraa R. Moawad⁹⁷, Hadeer Elsaied Aboelfarh⁹⁷, Karim Elkenawi⁹⁷, Manar Osama⁹⁷, Mirna Sadek⁹⁷, Mohamed Abdelaziz Elghazy⁹⁷, Mohammed Attiah⁹⁷, Mohamed Nader⁹⁷, Mostafa Shalaby⁹⁷, Omar Attiya⁹⁷, Osama Samir Gaarour⁹⁷, Ahmed Zaghloul⁹⁷, Pola Mikhai⁹⁸, Karim Badr⁹⁸, Hatem Soltan⁹⁸, Mohamed Donia⁹⁸, Mohammed Gaafar⁹⁸, Khaled Abdelwahab⁹⁹, Abdelaziz Sallam⁹⁹, Ahmed Eid⁹⁹, Mohamed Yousri⁹⁹, Omar Hamdy⁹⁹, Aiman Al-Touny¹⁰⁰, Abdelrhman Alshawadfy¹⁰⁰, Ahmed Hamdy¹⁰⁰, Ahmed Ellilly¹⁰⁰, Ahmed Mahdy¹⁰⁰, Ahmed El-Sakka¹⁰⁰, Hamdy Hendawy¹⁰⁰, Asmaa Salah¹⁰⁰, Bassma Raslan¹⁰⁰, Eman Teema¹⁰⁰, Eslam Albayadi¹⁰⁰, Esraa Nasser¹⁰⁰, Hanaa Mohamed¹⁰⁰, Mohamed Mahmoud¹⁰⁰, Mostafa Elsaied¹⁰⁰, Omima Taha¹⁰⁰, Shaimaa Dahshan¹⁰⁰, Shimaa Al-Touny¹⁰⁰, Ahmed Karrar¹⁰⁰, Ahmed Khairy¹⁰⁰, Abdelrahman Farag¹⁰⁰, Asmaa

Deafallah¹⁰⁰, Alaa Mohamed Ads¹⁰¹, Rabiaa Alomar¹⁰¹, Issa AbuShawareb¹⁰¹, Abdallah Saeed¹⁰¹, Abdelhafeez Mashaal¹⁰¹, Adel Mohamed Ads¹⁰¹, Sohila Ghanem¹⁰¹, Ahmed Elghamry¹⁰¹, Eman Ayman Nada¹⁰¹, Youssef Ali Noureldin¹⁰¹, Mohamed Fayed Fouda¹⁰¹, Nourhan Shaheen¹⁰¹, Shereen Allam¹⁰¹, Ibrahim Mazrou¹⁰¹, Ali Fahmy Shehab¹⁰¹, Wesam Kussaili¹⁰¹, Dimitrios Korkolis¹⁰², Evangelos Fradelos¹⁰², Aikaterini Sarafi¹⁰², Nikolaos Machairas¹⁰³, Konstantinos S. Giannakopoulos¹⁰³, Fotios Stavratis¹⁰³, Georgios Korovesis¹⁰³, Gerasimos Tsourouflis¹⁰³, Myrto D. Keramida¹⁰³, Nikolaos Kydonakis¹⁰³, Stylianos Kyklas¹⁰³, Athanasios Syllaios¹⁰³, Panagiotis Dorovinis¹⁰³, Dimitrios Schizas¹⁰³, Orestis Ioannidis¹⁰⁴, Anastasia Malliora¹⁰⁴, Elissavet Anestiadou¹⁰⁴, Konstantinos Zapsalis¹⁰⁴, Fotios Kontidis¹⁰⁴, Lydia Loutzidou¹⁰⁴, Nikolaos Ouzounidis¹⁰⁴, Stefanos Bitsianis¹⁰⁴, Savvas Symeonidis¹⁰⁴, Smaragda Skalidou¹⁰⁴, Orestis Ioannidis¹⁰⁴, Olga Maria Valaroutsou¹⁰⁴, Themistoklis Dagklis¹⁰⁵, Alexandra Arvanitaki¹⁰⁵, Apostolos Mamopoulos¹⁰⁵, Apostolos Athanasiadis¹⁰⁵, Stergios Kopatsaris¹⁰⁵, Ioannis Kalogiannidis¹⁰⁵, Ioannis Tsakiridis¹⁰⁵, Georgios Kapetanios¹⁰⁵, Evangelos Papanikolaou¹⁰⁵, Nikolaos Tsakiridis¹⁰⁵, Fotios Zachomitros¹⁰⁵, Andreas Larentzakis¹⁰⁶, Argyrios Gyftopoulos¹⁰⁶, Konstantinos Albanopoulos¹⁰⁶, Apostolos Champipis¹⁰⁶, Christos Yiannakopoulos¹⁰⁶, Gavriella Zoi Vrakopoulou¹⁰⁶, Konstantinos Saliaris¹⁰⁶, Konstantinos Lathouras¹⁰⁶, Spyridon Skoufias¹⁰⁶, Georgia Doulami¹⁰⁶, Metaxia Bareka¹⁰⁷, Eleni Arnaoutoglou¹⁰⁷, Fragkiskos Angelis¹⁰⁷, Fragkiskos Angeslis¹⁰⁷, Michael Hantes¹⁰⁷, Maria Ntalouka¹⁰⁷, Maytham A. Al-Juaifari¹⁰⁸, Mohammed Alwash¹⁰⁸, Rasool Maala¹⁰⁸, Yasir Adnan Zwain¹⁰⁸, Sara Ahmed Saleh¹⁰⁸, Mohammed Khorsheed¹⁰⁸, Antonio Pesce¹⁰⁹, Carlo V. Feo¹⁰⁹, Massimiliano Bernabei¹⁰⁹, Francesca Petrarulo¹⁰⁹, Nicolò Fabri¹⁰⁹, Raffaele Labriola¹⁰⁹, Silvia Jasmine Barbara¹⁰⁹, Simone Bosi¹¹⁰, Angela Romano¹¹⁰, Anna Canavese¹¹⁰, Caterina Cataioto¹¹⁰, Claudio Isopi¹¹⁰, Cristina Larotonda¹¹⁰, Gerti Dajti¹¹⁰, Matteo Rottoli¹¹⁰, Iris Shari Russo¹¹⁰, Stefano Cardelli¹¹⁰, Francesco Castagnini¹¹¹, Francesco Traina¹¹¹, Giulia Guizzardi¹¹¹, Giulia Giuzzardi¹¹¹, Mara Gorgone¹¹¹, Marco Maestri¹¹¹, Pasquale Cianci¹¹², Ivana Conversano¹¹², Enrico Restini¹¹², Domenico Gattulli¹¹², Giorgia Grillea¹¹², Marco Varesano¹¹², Giacomo Calini¹¹³, Adelaide Andriani¹¹³, Davide Gattesco¹¹³, Giovanni Terrosu¹¹³, Mattia Zambon¹¹³, Pietro Matucci Cerinic¹¹³, Luisa Moretti¹¹³, Davide Muschitiello¹¹³, Samantha Polo¹¹³, Vittorio Bresadola¹¹³, Salah Abu Wardeh¹¹⁴, Mahmoud Al-Baw¹¹⁴, Saif Alhaleeq¹¹⁴, Subhi Al-Issawi¹¹⁴, Abdalqader Al Smadi¹¹⁴, Esmat Alsaify¹¹⁴, Farah Banihani¹¹⁴, Noor Massadeh¹¹⁴, Nada Massadeh¹¹⁴, Dima Al-issawi¹¹⁴, Basel Elyan¹¹⁴, Qotadah Al-Shami¹¹⁴, Yazan Alomari¹¹⁴, Abed Alazeez Alkhatab¹¹⁵, Bader Alzghoul¹¹⁵, Ahmad Saleh¹¹⁵, Jamal Yaghmour¹¹⁵, Mahmoud Shahin¹¹⁵, Mohammed Maali¹¹⁵, Dawood Alatefi¹¹⁶, Heba Al-Smirat¹¹⁶, Abdulhakim Hezam¹¹⁶, Nassar Alathameen¹¹⁶, Amr Al Hammoud¹¹⁷, Abdulrahim Al Kaddah¹¹⁷, Salem Ayasrah¹¹⁷, Hamza Abuuqteish¹¹⁷, Tesneem Al-Mwajeh¹¹⁷, Reena Makableh¹¹⁷, Saad Bataineh¹¹⁷, Amin Shabaneh¹¹⁷, Wesam Alnatsheh¹¹⁷, Marwan Aldeges¹¹⁷, Huda Hamad¹¹⁷, Sireen Shehaha¹¹⁷, Dima Khassawneh¹¹⁷, Osama Alzyoud¹¹⁷, Risan Alrosan¹¹⁷, Hasan Awad¹¹⁷, Tariq Khaldoon¹¹⁷, Rabab Shannaq¹¹⁷, Mohammad Al hamoud¹¹⁷, Bader Abo fadalah¹¹⁷, ath Al-Hazaimeh¹¹⁷, Wail Khraise¹¹⁷, Lara Alnajjar¹¹⁸, Majd Alnajjar¹¹⁸, Sohaib Al-Omary¹¹⁸, Adnan Ababneh¹¹⁸, Alaa Albashaireh¹¹⁸, Mohammad Khadrawi¹¹⁸, Mohammad Aljamal¹¹⁸, Tayseer Athamneh¹¹⁸, Ro-a Muqbel¹¹⁸, Maryam Al-jammal¹¹⁸, Ahmad Masarrat¹¹⁸, Alia Al-zawaydeh¹¹⁸, Ibrahim Taha¹¹⁸, Taima' Qattawi¹¹⁸, Rayyan Smadi¹¹⁸, Ayah Alhaleem¹¹⁸, Mosab Alboon¹¹⁸, Omar Hazaymeh¹¹⁸, Leen Karasneh¹¹⁸, Safa' Al-Haek¹¹⁸, Marin Almahroush¹¹⁹, Tamam Alfrijat¹¹⁹, Aya Elporgay¹¹⁹, Hadeel Shanag¹¹⁹, Hamza Agilla¹¹⁹, Hind Alameen¹¹⁹, Marya Ben-salem¹¹⁹, Mawadda Altair¹¹⁹, Malak Ghemmied¹¹⁹, Rehab Alarabi¹¹⁹, Sara Alhudhairy¹¹⁹, Rima Gweder¹²⁰, Amal Alzarroug¹²⁰, Ebtihal Alabed¹²⁰, Fadwa Elreaid¹²⁰, Omar A. Elkharaz¹²⁰, Fatma Fathi Elreaid¹²⁰, Safa Sasi Albatni¹²⁰, Haitham Elmehdawi¹²¹, Milad Gahwagi¹²¹, Ayman Mohamed¹²¹, Tariq Alfrjani¹²¹, Khaled Khafifi¹²¹, Ayat Rasheed¹²¹, Ayoub Akwaisah¹²¹, Hassan Bushaala¹²¹, Mustafa Elfadli¹²¹, Mohamed Moftah¹²¹, Salima Algabbasi¹²¹, Salma Esaiti¹²¹, Sara Elfallah¹²¹, Abtisam Alharam¹²¹, Fatima Alaraby¹²¹, Mohamed Isweesi¹²¹, Tarik Ahmed Eldarat¹²¹, Ayman Arhuma Dabas¹²¹, Akram Alkaseek¹²², Ahmed Mohammed Abodina¹²², Aya Alqaarh¹²², Hibah Bileid Bakeer¹²², Hoda Salem Alhaddad¹²², Husein Aboudlal¹²², Sawsan Alsaih¹²², Noora Abubaker¹²³, Najwa Abdelrahim¹²³, Ali Alzarga¹²³, Basma Omar¹²³, Farah Faris¹²³, Qamrah Alhadad¹²³, Asma Abufanjas¹²⁴, Hussameddin Badi¹²⁴, Israa Benismai¹²⁴, Hawa Obeid¹²⁴, Abdulwahab Abdalei¹²⁴, Ahmed Abdulrahman¹²⁴, Aisha Swalem¹²⁴, Ebtisam Alzarouq¹²⁴, Amna Safar¹²⁴, Esra Shagroun¹²⁴, Boshra Hashem¹²⁴, Fatheia Elrishi¹²⁴, Fatima Abdulali¹²⁴, Habeeba Ahmed¹²⁴, Ibrahim Eltaib¹²⁴, Joma Elzoubia¹²⁴, Aisha Albarki¹²⁴, Hoda El Mugassabi¹²⁴, Fatima Abushala¹²⁴, Amany Abuzaho¹²⁴, Nida Juha¹²⁴, Raneem Egzait¹²⁴, Sundes Shetwan¹²⁴, Alzahra Lemhaishi¹²⁴, Faisel Matoug¹²⁴, Eman Abdulwahed¹²⁵, Aamal Askar¹²⁵, Abir Ben Ashur¹²⁵, Adel Bezweek¹²⁵, Bushra Altughar¹²⁵, David Emhimed¹²⁵, Donia Elferis¹²⁵, Laila Elgherwi¹²⁵, Enas Soula¹²⁵, Doaa Gidiem¹²⁵, Maren Grada¹²⁵, Khawla Derwish¹²⁵, Maram Alameen¹²⁵, Nassib Algatanesh¹²⁵, Ahlam Elkheshebi¹²⁵, Reem Ghmagh¹²⁵, Sharf Barka¹²⁵, Sultan Ahmeed¹²⁵, Sarah Aljamal¹²⁵, Zahra Alragig¹²⁵, Mohamed Addalla¹²⁵, Ahmed Atia¹²⁵, Atab Kharim¹²⁵, Fathia Mahmoud¹²⁵, Muhannud Binnawara¹²⁵, Entisar Alshareea¹²⁵, Mohamed Alsori¹²⁶, Aisha Alshawesh¹²⁶, Ghaliya Mohamed H. Alrifae¹²⁶, Amira Ashour¹²⁶, Anwaar Abozid¹²⁶, Asil Omar Saleh Alflight¹²⁶, Anwar Mohamed¹²⁶, Jaber Arebi¹²⁶, Fatma Alagelli¹²⁶, Hana Yousef Gineeb¹²⁶, Rawia Ghmagh¹²⁶, Rihab Mohammed Bin Omar¹²⁶, Retaj Alaqoubi¹²⁶, Sara Mohammed¹²⁶, Serien Hossain Bensalem¹²⁶, Tahani Elgadi¹²⁶, Wesam Sami¹²⁶, Yara Bariun¹²⁶, Abdulhadi Mohammed Alhadi Alhashimi¹²⁶, Dheba Almukhtar Abdulla¹²⁶, Heba Rhuma¹²⁶, Husam Enaami¹²⁶, Asraa Ali Alboueishi¹²⁶, Hayat Ben Hasan¹²⁷, Mohamad A. A. Alkchr¹²⁷, Bashir Albakosh¹²⁷, Nahaj Alsari¹²⁷, Mohammed Aldreawi¹²⁷, Najat Ben Hasan¹²⁷, Khaled Abushanab¹²⁷, Rawad Yahya¹²⁷, Narimantas Samalavicius¹²⁸, Vitalijus Eismontas¹²⁸, Jonas Jurgaitis¹²⁸, Oleg Aliosin¹²⁸, Vitalija Nutautiene¹²⁸, Andee Dzulkarnaen Zakaria¹²⁹, Anil Kumar Sree Kumar Pillai¹²⁹, Dinesh Kumar Vadioaloo¹²⁹, Mohamed Ashraf Mohamed Daud¹²⁹,

Jien Yen Soh¹²⁹, Mohd Zaim Zakaria¹²⁹, Siti Mayuha Rusli¹³⁰, Nur Ayuni Khirul Ashar¹³⁰, Zatul Akmar Ahmad¹³⁰, Afiq Aizat Ramlee¹³⁰, Sharifah Nor Amirah Syed Abdul Latiff Alsagoff¹³⁰, Ahmad Anuar Sofian¹³⁰, Muhammad Badrul Hisyam Mohamad Jamil¹³⁰, Bahiyah Abdullah¹³⁰, Mohamad Faiz Noorman¹³⁰, Muhammad Fihmi Zainal Abidin¹³⁰, Mohamed Izzad Isahak¹³⁰, Siti Nasyirah Nisyah Adnan¹³⁰, Zaidatul Husna Mohamad Noor¹³⁰, Luis Adrian Alvarez-Lozada¹³¹, Alejandro Quiroga Garza¹³¹, Andrea Aguilar Leal¹³¹, Bernardo Alfonso Fernández Reyes¹³¹, Ethel Valeria Orta Guerra¹³¹, Francisco Javier Arrambide Garza¹³¹, Héctor Erasmo Alcocer Mey¹³¹, Jorge Arath Rosales Isaías¹³¹, Juventino Tadeo Guerrero Zertuche¹³¹, Patricia Ludivina González García¹³¹, Luis Antonio Heredia Sánchez¹³¹, Marcela Patricia Flores Mercado¹³¹, Oscar Alonso Verduzco Sierra¹³¹, Pedro Emilio Ramos Morales¹³¹, Stephie Oyervides Fuentes¹³¹, Víctor Manuel Peña Martínez¹³¹, Yesika Alejandra Guerra-Juárez¹³¹, Ana Karina Flores-González¹³¹, Surya Singh¹³², Arwa Hadi¹³², Christian Woodbridge¹³², David Thornton-Hume¹³², Jack Forsythe¹³², Isini Dharmaratne¹³², Vivian Pai¹³², John Windsor¹³², Kamran Zargar¹³², Lucy Waldin¹³², Lily Winthrop¹³², Matias Alvarez¹³², Meileen Huang¹³², Matt Kumove¹³², Marta Simonetti¹³², Namisha Chand¹³², Oliver Goldsmith¹³², Oscar Guo¹³², Paul Monk¹³², Karen Zhou¹³², Sai Harshitha Penneru¹³², Shaamnil Prasad¹³², Seifei Ren¹³², Terrence Hill¹³², Vyoma Mistry¹³², Selena Sun¹³², Ashley Pereira¹³³, Scott McLaughlin¹³³, Andrew Stokes¹³³, Avinash Sathiyaseelan¹³³, Jeremy Ross-saak¹³³, Janice Lim¹³³, Kenya Brooke¹³³, Liam Quinlan¹³³, Mark Pottier¹³³, Nayanika Podder¹³³, Puja Jinu¹³³, Shanay Rampthal¹³³, Wikus Vermeulen¹³³, Flavio Ordóñez¹³³, Fraser Jeffery¹³⁴, Ibrahim S. Al Busaidi¹³⁴, Janelle Divinagracia¹³⁴, William Ju¹³⁴, Yizhuo Liu¹³⁴, Tamara Glyn¹³⁴, Nasya Thompson¹³⁴, Vivien Graziadei¹³⁵, Joshua Canton¹³⁵, Joseph Furey¹³⁵, Horim Choi¹³⁵, Grace Coomber¹³⁵, Tanya Divekar¹³⁵, Tessa English¹³⁵, Erin Gernhoefer¹³⁵, Tom Healy¹³⁵, Justin Chou¹³⁵, Dikshya Parajuli¹³⁵, Catherine Reed¹³⁵, Rod Studd¹³⁵, Anthony Lin¹³⁵, Cameron Wells¹³⁶, Cindy Xu¹³⁶, Arwa Hadi¹³⁶, Andrew McCormick¹³⁶, Heejun Park¹³⁶, Athulya Rathnayake¹³⁶, Brittany Williams¹³⁶, Ashley Chan¹³⁶, Corinne Smith¹³⁶, Francesca Casciola¹³⁶, Jainey Bhikha¹³⁶, Jonathan Luo¹³⁶, Kevin Yi¹³⁶, Megan Singhal¹³⁶, Ria George¹³⁶, Rosie Luo¹³⁶, Taylor Frost¹³⁶, Fatima Hakak¹³⁷, Akhita George¹³⁷, Angela Carlos¹³⁷, Annie Ho¹³⁷, Connor Mcrae¹³⁷, Jonathan Lescheid¹³⁷, Jenny Soek¹³⁷, Andrew Pham¹³⁷, Sophie St Clair¹³⁷, Su-Ann Yee¹³⁷, Jennifer Lim¹³⁷, Chun-Yen Wu¹³⁷, Taehoon Kim¹³⁸, Anne Qi Chua¹³⁸, Christopher Harmston¹³⁸, Hamish Boyes¹³⁸, Holly Cook¹³⁸, Jamie Struthers¹³⁸, Jess Radovanovich¹³⁸, Nicholas Quek¹³⁸, Chekodi Fearnley-Fitzgerald¹³⁹, Deborah Wright¹³⁹, Kushan Ghandi¹³⁹, Natalie Matheson¹³⁹, Matthew James McGuinness¹⁴⁰, Brian Chen¹⁴⁰, Rebecca Indiana Douglas¹⁴⁰, Konrad Richter¹⁴⁰, Nisha Bianca Soliman¹⁴⁰, Scott Matthew Bolam¹⁴⁰, Vineeth Vimalan¹⁴⁰, William Currie¹⁴⁰, Mitchell Cuthbert¹⁴¹, Poppy Ross¹⁴¹, Amy Nicholson¹⁴¹, Briar Garton¹⁴¹, Emilie Agnew¹⁴¹, Niamh Conlon¹⁴¹, Nicholas Waaka¹⁴¹, Ritwik Kejriwal¹⁴¹, Sean Nguyen¹⁴¹, Edmund Leung¹⁴¹, Miliudu Ratnayake¹⁴², Quintin Smith¹⁴², Nejo Joseph¹⁴², Bosco Yue¹⁴², Calvin Fraser¹⁴², Charles Lam¹⁴², Ethan Figgitt¹⁴², Gordon Liu¹⁴², Kevin Tan¹⁴², Ha Seong You¹⁴², Helen Zheng¹⁴², Jenny Luo¹⁴², James Sharp¹⁴², Kabir Khanna¹⁴², Levi Simiona¹⁴², Michel Luo¹⁴², Miliudu Ratnayake¹⁴², Patrick Wong¹⁴², Rebecca Luu¹⁴², Rohit Paul¹⁴², Shiva Nair¹⁴², Shadie Asadyari-Lupo¹⁴², Wing Hung¹⁴², Geoffrey Ying¹⁴², Jess Ho⁵¹, Alan Wu⁵¹, Eamon Walsh⁵¹, Jouyee Lee⁵¹, Jessie Liu⁵¹, Sunny Yao⁵¹, Omar Nosseir⁵¹, Jennifer Dang⁵¹, Simon Young⁵¹, Sof'ya Zyul'korneeva⁵¹, Theresa Boyd⁵¹, Jess Ho¹⁴³, Alan Wu¹⁴³, Sunny Yao¹⁴³, Abdullahi Musa Kirfi⁴, Adamu Bala Ningi⁴, Mohammad Albuhari Garba⁴, Makama Baje Salihu⁴, Ohia Ernest Ukwuoma⁴, Abdullahi Ibrahim⁴, Isa Mienda Sajo⁴, Muhammad Baffah Aminu⁴, Liman Haruna Usman⁴, Oloko Nasirudeen Lanre⁴, Ibrahim Shaphat Shuaibu⁴, Stephen Yusuf⁴, Tiamiyu Ismail⁴, Gabi Ibrahim Umar⁴, Ademola Adeyeye⁵, Ehis Afeikhena⁵, Favour Chinene Nnaji⁵, Joy Onyekachi Agu⁵, Temiloluwa Peace Maxwell⁵, Oluwatosin Olakunle Motajo⁵, Oghenekaro Ifoto⁵, Seubong-Abasi Imoh Okon⁵, Jerry Godfrey Makama¹⁴⁴, Amina Abosede Mohammed-Durosinlorun¹⁴⁴, Bashiru Aminu¹⁴⁴, Polite Iwedike Onwuahfua¹⁴⁴, Caleb Mohammed¹⁴⁴, Lubabatu Abdulrasheed¹⁴⁴, Joel Amwe Adze¹⁴⁴, Khadijah Richifa Suleiman¹⁴⁴, Lydia Regina Airede¹⁴⁴, Mathew Chum Taingson¹⁴⁴, Stephen Bodam Bature¹⁴⁴, Stephen Akau Kache¹⁴⁴, Uchechukwu Ohijie Ogbonna¹⁴⁴, Mohammed Bello Fufore¹⁴⁵, Abdulkarim Iya¹⁴⁵, Adeshina A. Ajulo¹⁴⁵, Ahmad Mahmud¹⁴⁵, Bilal Shuaibu Yahya¹⁴⁵, Farida Onimisi-Yusuf¹⁴⁵, Hope Isaac¹⁴⁵, Timothy Jawa¹⁴⁵, Fashe Joseph¹⁴⁵, Bemi Kala¹⁴⁵, Maisaratu A. Bakari¹⁴⁵, David Wujika Ngwan¹⁴⁵, Abubakar umar¹⁴⁵, Abraham L. Filikus¹⁴⁵, Daniel Wycliff¹⁴⁵, Abiodun Okunlola¹⁴⁶, Olukayode Abiola¹⁴⁶, Adebayo Adeniyi¹⁴⁶, Olabisi Adeyemo¹⁴⁶, Babatunde Awoyinka¹⁴⁶, Olakunle Babalola¹⁴⁶, Adewumi Bakare¹⁴⁶, Taiwo Buari¹⁴⁶, Cecilia Okunlola¹⁴⁶, Gbadebo Adeleye¹⁴⁶, Adedayo Salawu¹⁴⁶, Henry Abiyere¹⁴⁶, Adetolu Ogidi¹⁴⁶, Tesleem Orewole¹⁴⁶, Habiba Ibrahim Abdullahi¹⁴⁷, Godwin Akaba¹⁴⁷, Arome Achém¹⁴⁷, Asi-oqua Bassey¹⁴⁷, Emeka Ayogu¹⁴⁷, Bilal Sulaiman¹⁴⁷, Dennis Anthony Isah¹⁴⁷, Chukwunonso Nnamdi Akpamgbo¹⁴⁷, Felicia Asudo¹⁴⁷, Nathaniel Adewole¹⁴⁷, Omachoko Oguche¹⁴⁷, Peter Ejembi¹⁴⁷, Samuel Ali Sani¹⁴⁷, Paul Chimezie Andrew¹⁴⁷, AliyuYabagi Isah¹⁴⁷, Bolarinwa Eniola¹⁴⁷, Zumnan Songden¹⁴⁷, Teddy Agida¹⁴⁷, Terkaa Atim¹⁴⁷, Taofiq Olayinka Mohammed¹⁴⁸, Hadijat Olaide Raji¹⁴⁸, Femi Ibiyemi¹⁴⁸, Hafeez Salawu¹⁴⁸, Olushola Fasiku¹⁴⁸, Remi Sanyaolu Solagbade¹⁴⁸, Mariam Motunrayo Shiru¹⁴⁸, Gbadebo Hakeem Ibraheem¹⁴⁸, Justina Oruade¹⁴⁸, Grace Ezeoke¹⁴⁸, Tabish Chawla¹⁴⁹, Aliya Begum Aziz¹⁴⁹, Anoosha Marium¹⁴⁹, Ayesha Akbar Waheed¹⁴⁹, Faiqa Binte Aamir¹⁴⁹, Faiza Qureshi¹⁴⁹, M. Hammad Ather¹⁴⁹, Iqra Fatima Munawar Ali¹⁴⁹, Izza Tahir¹⁴⁹, Maha Ghulam Akbar¹⁴⁹, Ronika Devi Ukrani¹⁴⁹, Sajjan Raja¹⁴⁹, Sehar Salim Virani¹⁴⁹, Shahryar Noordin¹⁴⁹, Saif Ur Rehman¹⁴⁹, Shalni Golani¹⁴⁹, Syed Roohan Aamir¹⁴⁹, Syed Musa Mufarrih¹⁴⁹, Usama Waqr¹⁴⁹, Maliha Taufiq¹⁴⁹, Ahmed Siddique Ammar¹⁵⁰, Adya Ejaz¹⁵⁰, Albash Sarwar¹⁵⁰, Ahmed Usman Khalid¹⁵⁰, Shehrbano Khattak¹⁵⁰, Aliza Imran¹⁵¹, Omer Bin Khalid¹⁵¹, Urauba Kaleem¹⁵¹, Urwah Muneer¹⁵¹, Yumna Kashaf¹⁵¹, Fatima Zafar¹⁵², Adil Zaheer¹⁵², Muhammad Ali¹⁵², Amna Shafaat¹⁵², Arisha Qazi¹⁵², Asjad Imran¹⁵², Mahnoor Tariq¹⁵²,

Muhammad Nadeem Aslam¹⁵², Shehroz Ali¹⁵², Tabish Atiq¹⁵², Tayyiba Wasim¹⁵², Daniyal Babar¹⁵², Ahmad Zain¹⁵², Muhammad Ibtisam¹⁵², Uzair Ahmed¹⁵³, Syed Talha Bin Aqeel¹⁵³, Muhammad Muhib¹⁵³, Muhammad Anas Abbal¹⁵³, Nasar Ahmad Khan¹⁵³, Imran Javed¹⁵³, Layth Alkaraja¹⁵⁴, Dana Amro¹⁵⁴, Ghaida Manasrah¹⁵⁴, Ibraheem Hammouri¹⁵⁴, Ihab Abu Hilail¹⁵⁴, Jihad Zalloum¹⁵⁴, Laith Alamlili¹⁵⁴, Mahmoud Nasereddin¹⁵⁴, Munia Rajabi¹⁵⁴, Sa'ed Shalafeh¹⁵⁴, Zeinab Natsheh¹⁵⁴, Khamis Elessi¹⁵⁵, Mustafa Abu Jayyab¹⁵⁵, Mohammed Astal¹⁵⁵, Mosheer Al-Dahdouh¹⁵⁵, Alaa Eddin Salameh¹⁵⁶, Alaa Ayyad¹⁵⁶, Nimatee Dawod¹⁵⁶, Hamza Alsaaid¹⁵⁶, Iyas Matar¹⁵⁶, Majd Hassan¹⁵⁶, Mohammed Bakeer¹⁵⁶, Mohammad Malasah¹⁵⁶, Shehab Abuhashem¹⁵⁶, Mohammed Salem¹⁵⁶, Sorinel Lunca¹⁵⁷, Mihail Gabriel Dimofte¹⁵⁷, Stefan Morarasu¹⁵⁷, Ana Maria Musina¹⁵⁷, Cristian Ene Roata¹⁵⁷, Natalia Velenciu¹⁵⁷, Aleksandr Butyrskii¹⁵⁸, Maxim Bozhko¹⁵⁸, Amet Ametov¹⁵⁸, Sharfuddin Chowdhury¹⁵⁹, Doaa Bagazi¹⁵⁹, Julio Domenech¹²¹, Alejandro Rosello-Añon¹²¹, Ana Monis¹²¹, Caterina Chiappe¹²¹, Beatriz Cuneo¹²¹, Pablo Clemente-Navarro¹²¹, Jorge Febre¹²¹, Jorge Sanz-Romera¹²¹, Marcos Lopez-Vega¹²¹, Ignacio Miranda¹²¹, Rocio Valverde-Vazquez¹²¹, Sara Garcia¹²¹, Maria Jose Sanguesa¹²¹, Zutoia Balciscueta¹²¹, Enrique Ruiz¹⁶⁰, Eduardo Marco¹⁶⁰, Elena Talavera¹⁶⁰, Joan Farre¹⁶⁰, Loreto Bacariza¹⁶⁰, Mireia Duart¹⁶⁰, Violeta Ureña¹⁶⁰, Xenia Carre¹⁶⁰, Hytham K. S. Hamid¹⁶¹, Montasir A. Abd-Albain¹⁶¹, Sami Galal-Eldin¹⁶¹, Monira Sarif¹⁶², Eithar Adam¹⁶², Samir Ismail¹⁶², Malaz Azhari¹⁶², Tawfieg Hassan¹⁶², Mohamed Salaheldeen¹⁶³, Zainab Abdalla¹⁶³, Wahiba Ahmed¹⁶³, Monzer Abdulatif Mohamed Alhassan¹⁶⁴, Hozifa Mohamed Abdalla Suliman¹⁶⁴, Hozifa Mohamed Bdalla Suliman¹⁶⁴, Rogia Ahmed Abdalla Ahmed¹⁶⁵, Enas Mohammedtom Abdulhameed Babekir¹⁶⁵, Munya Ali Talab Khairy¹⁶⁵, Maha Mukhtar Ahmed Mukhtar¹⁶⁵, Rzan Ali Hamedelneel Ali¹⁶⁵, Yasir Babkir Ali Al-Shambaty¹⁶⁵, Fatima Imdad Yousif¹⁶⁶, Hawa Mohammed Hassan Mohammed¹⁶⁶, Lana Osher¹⁶⁶, Lana Osher¹⁶⁶, Menhag Abdelbast¹⁶⁶, Mohamed Yassin¹⁶⁶, Noon Moawia¹⁶⁶, Rowa Abdalsadeg¹⁶⁶, Abrar Husein¹⁶⁷, Baraa Elhassan¹⁶⁷, Alnazeer Y. Abdelbagi¹⁶⁷, Mohammed A. Adam¹⁶⁷, Eithar M. Ali¹⁶⁷, Ibrahim A. B. Mohammed¹⁶⁷, Maab Mohamed¹⁶⁷, Mohamed Abdulaziz¹⁶⁷, Mazin Akasha¹⁶⁷, Muaz Hassan¹⁶⁷, Nadir Hilai¹⁶⁷, Noon Abdalla Abdelrahman Mohamed¹⁶⁷, Noora Abubaker¹⁶⁷, Omeralfarouk Mohammed¹⁶⁷, Shakir Mohamed¹⁶⁷, Walaa Osman¹⁶⁷, Fatima Mustafa¹⁶⁷, Alaa A. Salih¹⁶⁷, Doua Ali¹⁶⁸, Doha Mohammed Ahmed Almakki¹⁶⁸, Hanan Elnour Mohamed¹⁶⁸, Abdelhadi Elmubark¹⁶⁸, Mohamed Hassan¹⁶⁸, Ammar Alnour¹⁶⁸, Amna Elaagib¹⁶⁸, Ayman Abdelrahman¹⁶⁸, Mubarak Abdelkhalig¹⁶⁸, Khalid Nour Eldaim¹⁶⁸, Afra Babiker¹⁶⁸, Entisar Ahmed¹⁶⁸, Maab Ali¹⁶⁸, Eman Hussain¹⁶⁸, Mansour Wedatalla¹⁶⁸, Alaaaldeen Ahmed¹⁶⁸, Alla Aldeen Hamza¹⁶⁸, Mohab Mohammed¹⁶⁸, Omer Osman¹⁶⁸, Reham Ibrahim¹⁶⁸, Rihab Ahmed¹⁶⁸, Ruwa Ahmed¹⁶⁸, Ruwa Yasir¹⁶⁸, Safaa Awadallah¹⁶⁸, Sara Mohammed¹⁶⁸, Suhaib Hassan¹⁶⁸, Walid Shaban¹⁶⁹, Aisha Hussein¹⁶⁹, Reem Rafea¹⁶⁹, Ahmed Abdalla¹⁶⁹, Abdalla Ahmed¹⁶⁹, Khalid Mohamed¹⁶⁹, Mansour Mohammed¹⁶⁹, Mohamed Altahir¹⁶⁹, Mohammed Adam¹⁶⁹, Omer Mohamed¹⁶⁹, Walaa Abdulla¹⁶⁹, Hammad Fadlalmola¹⁷⁰, Ahmed Yassir Abdalla¹⁷⁰, Ahmed Ali Omer¹⁷⁰, Ahmed Alfatih Mustafa¹⁷⁰, Rawan Elnoman Elhadi¹⁷⁰, Essam Eldien Abuobaida Banaga¹⁷⁰, Fatima Osman¹⁷⁰, Mohamed Galal Ali Abdalla¹⁷⁰, Hala Abdelhalim Mohamed Taha¹⁷⁰, Noon Ezzeldien Abdalmahmoud¹⁷⁰, Rofuida Hussien Nafie¹⁷⁰, Sami Jamal¹⁷⁰, Sharwany Ahmed¹⁷⁰, Doha Amir AtaAlmanan¹⁷⁰, Rawan Alsheikh Ali¹⁷¹, Abdallah Aladna¹⁷¹, Abdullah Aljoumaa¹⁷¹, Hamdi Nawfal¹⁷¹, Salma Jamali¹⁷¹, Fatima Khouja¹⁷¹, Ammar Niazi¹⁷¹, Al Rawashdeh¹⁷¹, Nahla Kechiche¹⁷², Mouna Gara¹⁷², Mouna Nasr¹⁷², Marwen Baccar¹⁷², Oumayma Benamor¹⁷², Sawssen Chakroun¹⁷², Ahmet Necati Sanli¹⁷³, Ahmet Yildiz¹⁷³, Mehmet Ali Demirkiran¹⁷³, Yildiz Buyukdereli Atadag¹⁷³, Yusuf Iskender Tandogan¹⁷³, Esin Ozkan¹⁷⁴, Yıldırım Ozer¹⁷⁴, Esin Ozkan¹⁷⁴, Mohammed Miran Oncel¹⁷⁴, Senad Kalkan¹⁷⁴, Tolga Gover¹⁷⁵, Berke Manoglu¹⁷⁵, Ilayda Oksak¹⁷⁵, Ipek Kurt¹⁷⁵, Kerem Rifaioglu¹⁷⁵, Selman Sokmen¹⁷⁵, Tayfun Bisgin¹⁷⁵, Yasemin Yildirim¹⁷⁵, Abdil Yetkin Keskin¹⁷⁵, Tugce Dogan¹⁷⁶, Berfin Ilgaz Sahin¹⁷⁶, Cemil Aydin¹⁷⁶, Duygu Ece Benek¹⁷⁶, Hale Nur Tiras¹⁷⁶, Mert Arslangilay¹⁷⁶, Mert Aslangilay¹⁷⁶, Muhammet Yaytokgil¹⁷⁶, Mehmet Ali Capar¹⁷⁶, Yasemin Yazgan¹⁷⁶, Sebnem Bektas¹⁷⁷, Ahmet Can Alagoz¹⁷⁷, Alara Ece Dagsali¹⁷⁷, Aylin Izgis¹⁷⁷, Kadir Uzel¹⁷⁷, Mustafa Soytas¹⁷⁷, Niyazi Cakir¹⁷⁷, Abdullah Emre Askin¹⁷⁷, Ibrahim Azboy¹⁷⁷, Kubilay Sabuncu¹⁷⁷, Merve Aslan¹⁷⁷, Melek Sahin¹⁷⁷, Mustafa Oncel¹⁷⁷, Nuri Okkabaz¹⁷⁷, Ramazan Kemal Sivrikaya¹⁷⁷, Alparslan Sayilar¹⁷⁷, Dr. Alparslan Sayilar¹⁷⁷, Meltem Yasar¹⁷⁷, Ergin Erginoz¹⁷⁸, Haktan Oval Bozkir¹⁷⁸, Kagan Zengin¹⁷⁸, Mehmet Faik Ozcelik¹⁷⁸, Server Sezgin Uludag¹⁷⁸, Zeynep Ozdemir¹⁷⁸, Osman Sibic¹⁷⁹, Hatice Telci¹⁷⁹, Mehmet Abdussamet Bozkurt¹⁷⁹, Yasin Kara¹⁷⁹, Mustafa Deniz Tepe¹⁸⁰, Adnan Gündogdu¹⁸⁰, Bilge Akin¹⁸⁰, Dilan Pehlivan¹⁸⁰, Ali Guner¹⁸⁰, Duygu Baysallar¹⁸⁰, Berkay Yildiz¹⁸⁰, Hale Cepe¹⁸⁰, Murat Emre Reis¹⁸⁰, Ayse Nilufer Yuzgenc¹⁸⁰, Nurtac Kirali¹⁸⁰, Taha Anil Kodalak¹⁸⁰, Mehmet Ulusahin¹⁸⁰, Kamar Selim¹⁸¹, Ahmet Kale¹⁸¹, Mehmet Emre Gecici¹⁸¹, Melis Ozbilen¹⁸¹, Zeynep Düzyol¹⁸², Aylin Gemici¹⁸², Elzem Korkmaz¹⁸², Eminenur Sen¹⁸², Mohammed Enes Taşçı¹⁸², Elifsu Camkiran¹⁸², Güsta Elieyioğlu¹⁸², İkbal Kayabaş¹⁸², Tevfik Kivilcim Uprak¹⁸², Canan Aral¹⁸², Ayten Saraçoğlu¹⁸², Mustafa Ümit Uğurlu¹⁸², Zeynep Hazal Baltaci¹⁸², Ege Nur Akkaya¹⁸³, Cem Fergar¹⁸³, Elif Zeynep Tabak¹⁸³, Guldane Zehra Kocigit¹⁸³, Ilgaz Kayilioglu¹⁸³, Süleyman Polat¹⁸⁴, Elif Çolak¹⁸⁴, Mehmet Emin Kara¹⁸⁴, Mert Candan¹⁸⁴, Mustafa Safa Uyanik¹⁸⁴, Ahmet Can Sarı¹⁸⁴, Attila Ulkucu¹⁸⁵, Alperen Taha Certel¹⁸⁵, Arzu Dindar¹⁸⁵, Beyza Durdu¹⁸⁵, Cigdem Bayram¹⁸⁵, Eslem Kaya¹⁸⁵, Hakan Akdere¹⁸⁵, Ibrahim Ethem Cakcak¹⁸⁵, Ikranur Yavuz¹⁸⁵, Mert Omur¹⁸⁵, Mirac Ajredini¹⁸⁵, Erhan Onur Aydoğdu¹⁸⁵, EYLÜL ŞENÖDEYİCİ¹⁸⁵, Ulku Ceren Koksoy¹⁸⁶, Baturay Kansu Kazbek¹⁸⁶, Deniz Serim Korkmaz¹⁸⁶, Dogancan Yavuz¹⁸⁶, Hakan Yilmaz¹⁸⁶, Zeynep Sahan Cetinkaya¹⁸⁶, Elif Durmus¹⁸⁶, Filiz Tuzuner¹⁸⁶, Furkan Hokelekli¹⁸⁶, Mucahid Mutlu¹⁸⁶, Seyma Orcan Akbuz¹⁸⁶, Ziya Can Kus¹⁸⁶, Ziya Can Kus¹⁸⁶, Michael Farrell¹⁸⁷, Alayna Craig-Lucas¹⁸⁷, Matthew Painter¹⁸⁷, Ashley Titan¹⁸⁸, Aditya Narayan¹⁸⁸, Bunmi Fariyike¹⁸⁸, Lisa Knowlton¹⁸⁸, Tiffany Yue¹⁸⁸, Emily Benham¹⁸⁸, Abdelrahman Nimeri¹⁸⁸, Hope Werenski¹⁸⁸, Nicole Kaiser¹⁸⁸ & Caroline Reinke¹⁸⁸

¹Dokuz Eylul University Hospital, Izmir, Turkey. ¹²Istanbul University Cerrahpasa—Cerrahpasa School of Medicine, Istanbul, Turkey. ¹³Karadeniz Technical University, Trabzon, Turkey. ¹⁴Faculty of Medicine, Bezmialem Vakif University, Istanbul, Turkey. ¹⁵King Abdullah University Hospital, Irbid, Jordan. ¹⁶Canuni Sultan Suleyman Training and Research Hospital, Istanbul, Turkey. ¹⁷Faculty of Medicine, Çorum Research and Training Hospital, Hıtit University, Çorum, Turkey. ¹⁸Bunbury Hospital, Bunbury, WA, Australia. ¹⁹Kartal Dr. Lutfi Kirdar Training and Research Hospital, Istanbul, Turkey. ²⁰Northern Beaches Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ²¹Samsun Training and Research Hospital, Samsun, Turkey. ²²Hospital Lorenzo Bonomo, Andria, Italy. ²³New Plymouth Hospital, New Plymouth, New Zealand. ²⁴Palestine Medical Complex, Ramallah, Palestine. ²⁵Afe Babalola University Multisystem Hospital, Ado Ekiti, Nigeria. ²⁶The Alfred Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ²⁷Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital, Kaduna, Nigeria. ²⁸Ballarat Base Hospital, Ballarat, VIC, Australia. ²⁹Gosford Hospital, Gosford, NSW, Australia. ³⁰Nilratan Sircar Medical College and Hospital, Kolkata, India. ³¹Istanbul Medipol University Hospital, Istanbul, Turkey. ³²Emergency Municipal Hospital No. 6, Moscow, Russia. ³³Aleppo University Hospital, Aleppo, Syria. ³⁴Latrobe Regional Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ³⁵El Tadamon Specialised Hospital, Port Said, Egypt. ³⁶Wellington Hospital, Wellington, New Zealand. ³⁷Suez Canal University Hospital, Ismailia, Egypt. ³⁸Hospital Sant Joan Reus, Tarragona, Spain. ³⁹St John of God Midland Public and Private Hospital, Perth, WA, Australia. ⁴⁰New South Wales Local Health District Site Bega Hospital, Bega, NSW, Australia. ⁴¹Royal Australasian College of Surgeons, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ⁴²Federal Teaching Hospital, Ido Ekiti, Nigeria. ⁴³School of Medicine, Marmara University, Istanbul, Turkey. ⁴⁴Karadeniz Technical University Farabi Hospital, Trabzon, Turkey. ⁴⁵Armidale Rural Referral Hospital, Armidale, NSW, Australia. ⁴⁶CHU Saadna Abdennour Hospital, Sétif, Algeria. ⁴⁷Sydney University, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ⁴⁸Afe Babalola University Multisystem Hospital, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria. ⁴⁹Autonomous University of Nuevo León, Monterrey, Mexico. ⁵⁰George Papanikolaou Hospital, Thessaloniki, Greece. ⁵¹Hospital Universiti Teknologi MARA (HUITM), Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia. ⁵²University of Tasmania, Hobart, TAS, Australia. ⁵³Center Anti Cancer, Sétif, Algeria. ⁵⁴Albury Wodonga Health, Albury, NSW, Australia. ⁵⁵Armada Health Service, Perth, WA, Australia. ⁵⁶Austin Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ⁵⁷Gold Coast University Hospital, Gold Coast, QLD, Australia. ⁵⁸Goulburn Base Hospital, Goulburn, NSW, Australia. ⁵⁹Logan Hospital, Logan, QLD, Australia. ⁶⁰Manning Base Hospital, Taree, NSW, Australia. ⁶¹Maroondah Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ⁶²Monash Medical Centre, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ⁶³Orange Base Hospital, Orange, NSW, Australia. ⁶⁴Women's and Children's Hospital, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ⁶⁵Alexandria Main University Hospital, Alexandria, Egypt. ⁶⁶General Hospital of Thessaloniki "George Papanikolaou", Thessaloniki, Greece. ⁶⁷Iaso, Athens, Greece. ⁶⁸Larissa University Hospital, Larissa, Greece. ⁶⁹Al-Najaf Al-Ashraf Teaching Hospital, Najaf, Iraq. ⁷⁰IRCCS Istituto Ortopedico Rizzoli, Bologna, Italy. ⁷¹Alkarak Governmental Hospital, Al-Karak, Jordan. ⁷²Middlemore Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand. ⁷³Rotorua Hospital, Rotorua, New Zealand. ⁷⁴Dunedin Hospital, Dunedin, New Zealand. ⁷⁵North Shore Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand. ⁷⁶Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University Teaching Hospital Bauchi, Bauchi, Nigeria. ⁷⁷Modibbo Adama University Teaching Hospital, Yola, Nigeria. ⁷⁸University of Abuja Teaching Hospital, Gwagwalada, Nigeria. ⁷⁹Creek General Hospital, Karachi, Pakistan. ⁸⁰Christchurch Hospital, Christchurch, New Zealand. ⁸¹Services Hospital Lahore, Lahore, Pakistan. ⁸²Nasser Medical Complex, Gaza, Palestine. ⁸³King Saud Medical City, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. ⁸⁴Hospital Arnau De Vilanova, Valencia, Spain. ⁸⁵Al-Moalem Medical City, Khartoum, Sudan. ⁸⁶Alandalus Clinic, El Duem, Sudan. ⁸⁷Mugla Training and Research Hospital, Mugla, Turkey. ⁸⁸Faculty of Medicine, Trakya University, Edirne, Turkey. ⁸⁹Ufuk Üniversitesi Tip Fakültesi Dr. Ridvan Ege Sağlık Araştırma Uygulama Merkezi Hastanesi, Ankara, Turkey. ⁹⁰Lehigh Valley Health Network, Allentown, PA, USA. ⁹¹Stanford Health Care, Palo Alto, CA, USA. ⁹²Griffith University, Gold Coast, QLD, Australia. ⁹³Hunter New England Network, Newcastle, NSW, Australia. ⁹⁴University of Health Sciences, Tepecik Training and Research Hospital, Izmir, Turkey. ⁹⁵Texas Tech University Health Sciences Center, Lubbock, TX, USA. ⁹⁶Central Gippsland Health, Sale, VIC, Australia. ⁹⁷Azienda Unità Sanitaria Locale di Ferrara-University of Ferrara, Ferrara, Italy. ⁹⁸University Hospital of Udine, Udine, Italy. ⁹⁹Whangarei Base Hospital, Whangarei, New Zealand. ¹⁰⁰Hebron Government Hospital, Hebron, Palestine. ¹⁰¹Regional Institute of Oncology Iasi, Iasi, Romania. ¹⁰²University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK. ¹⁰³Ipswich Hospital, Ipswich, QLD, Australia. ¹⁰⁴John Hunter Hospital, Newcastle, NSW, Australia. ¹⁰⁵Queen Elizabeth II Jubilee Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia. ¹⁰⁶The Royal Melbourne Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁰⁷General Hospital of Athens "Laiko", Athens, Greece. ¹⁰⁸Melbourne Training Circuit, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁰⁹King Edward Medical University Hospital, Lahore, Pakistan. ¹¹⁰The Canberra Hospital, Canberra, ACT, Australia. ¹¹¹The Queen Elizabeth Hospital, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹¹²Royal Prince Alfred Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ¹¹³National Ribat University Hospital, Khartoum, Sudan. ¹¹⁴Deakin University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹¹⁵University of Tripoli, Tripoli, Libya. ¹¹⁶Counties Manukau Health, Auckland, New Zealand. ¹¹⁷Oncology Center Mansoura University, Mansoura, Egypt. ¹¹⁸Waikato Hospital, Hamilton, New Zealand. ¹¹⁹University of Newcastle, Newcastle, NSW, Australia. ¹²⁰Flinders University, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹²¹Royal Perth Hospital, Perth, WA, Australia. ¹²²Lyell McEwin Hospital, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹²³Western Health, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹²⁴Al Basheer Hospital, Amman, Jordan. ¹²⁵Education Karima Hospital, Merowe, Sudan. ¹²⁶El Duem Teaching Hospital, El Duem, Sudan. ¹²⁷Atrium Health, Charlotte, NC, USA. ¹²⁸Agios Savvas Anticancer Hospital of Athens, Athens, Greece. ¹²⁹Aga Khan University Hospital, Karachi, Pakistan. ¹³⁰Sunshine Coast University Hospital, Birtinya, QLD, Australia. ¹³¹Ibrahim Malik Teaching Hospital, Khartoum, Sudan. ¹³²Abu Saleem Trauma Hospital, Tripoli, Libya. ¹³³Al Khadra Hospital, Tripoli, Libya. ¹³⁴Benghazi Medical Center, Benghazi, Libya. ¹³⁵Gharyan Central Hospital, Gharyan, Libya. ¹³⁶Ibn Sina Teaching Hospital, Sirte, Libya. ¹³⁷Misurata Central Hospital, Misurata, Libya. ¹³⁸Tripoli Central Hospital, Tripoli, Libya. ¹³⁹Tripoli Medical Center/Tripoli University Hospital, Tripoli, Libya. ¹⁴⁰Zliten Medical Centre, Zliten, Libya. ¹⁴¹Klaipeda University Hospital, Klaipeda City Municipality, Lithuania. ¹⁴²School of Medical Sciences & Hospital USM, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Kota Bharu, Malaysia. ¹⁴³University Hospital Dr. Jose Eleuterio Gonzalez, Monterrey, Nuevo Leon, Mexico. ¹⁴⁴Hospital Susana Lopez De Velencia, Popayán, Cauca, Colombia. ¹⁴⁵Al Istiklal Hospital, Amman, Jordan. ¹⁴⁶Geraldton Regional Hospital, Geraldton, WA, Australia. ¹⁴⁷University Hospital Fattouma Bourguiba, University of Monastir, Monastir, Tunisia. ¹⁴⁸Abdulkadir Yuksel State Hospital, Gaziantep, Turkey. ¹⁴⁹University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand. ¹⁵⁰The First Affiliated Hospital of Jinan University, Guangzhou, China. ¹⁵¹Box Hill Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁵²Bahria International Hospital Lahore, Lahore, Pakistan. ¹⁵³Ibn-Sina Hospital, Khartoum, Sudan. ¹⁵⁴Northern Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁵⁵Auckland City Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand. ¹⁵⁶Invercargill (Kew) Hospital, Invercargill, New Zealand. ¹⁵⁷Waitakere Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand. ¹⁵⁸Frankston Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁵⁹Tanta University Hospital, Tanta, Egypt. ¹⁶⁰Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Perth, WA, Australia. ¹⁶¹Western Sydney University, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ¹⁶²Perth Metro Training Circuit, Perth, WA, Australia. ¹⁶³Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt. ¹⁶⁴Casey Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ¹⁶⁵Flinders Medical Centre, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹⁶⁶Hedland Health Campus, Port Hedland, WA, Australia. ¹⁶⁷Westmead Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ¹⁶⁸Whyalla Hospital & Health Services, Whyalla, SA, Australia. ¹⁶⁹Menofia University Hospital, Shubin el Kom, Egypt. ¹⁷⁰Tauranga Hospital, Tauranga, New Zealand. ¹⁷¹Royal Australasian College of Surgeons, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹⁷²Khartoum North Teaching Hospital (Bahr Hospital), Khartoum, Sudan. ¹⁷³University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand. ¹⁷⁴University of Western Australia, Perth, WA, Australia. ¹⁷⁵Campbelltown Hospital, Sydney, NSW, Australia. ¹⁷⁶Royal Adelaide Hospital, Adelaide, SA, Australia. ¹⁷⁷Wyong Public Hospital, Wyong, NSW, Australia. ¹⁷⁸Al Tayseer Hospital, Zagazig, Egypt. ¹⁷⁹Assiut University Hospital, Assiut, Egypt. ¹⁸⁰Aswan University Hospital, Aswan, Egypt. ¹⁸¹Mansoura University Hospital, Mansoura, Egypt. ¹⁸²IRCCS Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria di Bologna, Bologna, Italy. ¹⁸³Princess Basma Teaching Hospital, Irbid, Jordan. ¹⁸⁴University of Ilorin Teaching Hospital, Ilorin, Nigeria. ¹⁸⁵Bashair Teaching Hospital, Khartoum, Sudan. ¹⁸⁶Gadarif Teaching Hospital, Gadarif City, Sudan. ¹⁸⁷Hippokratio General Hospital of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece. ¹⁸⁸United Hospital, Karachi, Pakistan.