

Substance Use Disorders Perinatal Methamphetamine Use Disorder (MUD) Self-Study

Contributor

Marley Doyle, M.D.

Learning Objectives

- 1. Describe the epidemiology of perinatal methamphetamine use, including changes in use over time
- 2. Discuss the risks of methamphetamine use during pregnancy and lactation
- 3. Describe treatment options for perinatal methamphetamine use disorder

4. Explain the relationship between perinatal methamphetamine use disorder and other substance, psychiatric, and medical comorbidities

Introduction and history

- Methamphetamine is a more potent compound than its parent drug, amphetamine.
- Also known as: Meth, speed, ice, crystal, black beauties, biker's coffee
- World War II
 - Given to soldiers for fatigue and appetite suppression
- 1950-1960s
 - Amphetamines widely prescribed for depression and obesity.
- 1970's
 - Abuse potential recognized.
 - o Reclassified to a more restricted schedule which limited medical use
- 2005
 - o Combat Meth Act restricted public access to pseudoephedrine
 - Rates of meth use began to decrease
- 2005-present
 - o Manufacturers began using P2P (phentyl-2-propanone) methods (schedule II)
 - Meth is now more pure, potent and cheaper
 - Price decreased 61% between 2007 to 2010 from \$270 to \$105 per gram
 - Purity increased from 39% to 83% in this same time period

Epidemiology

- 2nd most commonly used illicit substance worldwide
- Methamphetamine is the 3rd most commonly used substance in some Western and Midwestern states (behind alcohol and tobacco)



- 2009 RAND Corporation estimated the burden of disease in US associated with methamphetamine use to be \$23.4 billion
- 2012 National Survey of Drug use and Health:
 - o 4.7% of US adults have used methamphetamines in their lifetime
 - 0.4% of US adults have used in last year
 - \circ 0.2% of US adults used in past month
 - o 7.2% of pregnant women ages 12-44 reported ever using stimulants including methamphetamines
- Estimates appear to be growing.
 - According to World Drug Report (2013) "The market for amphetamines appears to be expanding in terms of locations of manufacture and trafficking routes, as well as in terms of demand."
- Treatment admissions of pregnant women in federally-funded treatment programs rose from 8% in 1994 to 24% in 2006
- TEDS (Treatment Episode Data Set) 2012
 - Data set for patients seeking inpatient admission for substance use disorders at federally-funded treatment programs
 - o 6.6% were admitted for primary methamphetamine use disorder
 - 47% admissions for methamphetamine use disorder were female
- Infant Environment and Lifestyle study (2006)
 - 5.2% of women in highest use areas (Western and Midwestern states) reported use methamphetamine during pregnancy

Pharmacology

- Methamphetamine is psychostimulant
 - Exists in 2 stereoisomers (L and D)
 - 0 D form is a more powerful psychostimulant (3-5x the CNS activity v. L form)
 - Both can release dopamine and cause stereotypy and psychosis at high doses
- May be sold as pure D form or racemic mixture
- May be powder or crystal in form which is smoked.
 - Crystal is a highly potent D form and similar in potency to IV
 - Crystal has increased risk for dependence
- Lipophilic molecule
- Mechanism of action:
 - Stimulates the release and partially blocks the reuptake of newly synthesized catechol amines in the CNS
 - Inhibits MAO further enabling buildup of monoamines in the synapse
- Longer half-life (12h v. 1h) than cocaine
- Metabolized in liver with multiple metabolites and excreted by kidney
 - \circ 70% is excreted in using within 24h.
 - With repeated doses, it can accumulate in urine.
- Routes of administration
 - Can be smoked (most common), snorted, injected or ingested orally or anally
 - o Smoking and IV use
 - Near-immediate euphoric effect that lasts several minutes
 - Bioavailability: 90%
 - Nasal and oral use



- 15-20 minutes to reach peak euphoric state
- Bioavailability: 67%

Physical effects of intoxication/withdrawal

- Low-moderate doses (5-30mg)
 - euphoria, arousal, reduced fatigue, tachycardia, pupil dilation, peripheral hyperthermia, reduced appetite, behavioral disinhibition, short-term improvement in cognitive domains, anxiety
- High doses (>30mg)

0

- o Psychotic symptoms, agitation
 - Frequent, high doses over the long-term cause neurotoxicity.
 - Irreversible damage of serotonin and norepinephrine nerve terminals and neuron cell bodies
- Long term: addiction, anxiety, confusion, insomnia, memory loss, weight loss, dental problems, depression, violent behaviors, psychotic symptoms (paranoia, VH, delusions). May last for months or years after use and recur over time.
- Withdrawal
 - Depressive symptoms are hallmark.
 - Anhedonia, hypersomnia, irritability, anxiety, intense cravings.
 - Severity appears to be related to frequency of use.
 - Symptoms usually resolves spontaneously and within 14 days.
 - Protracted withdrawal may take several weeks and obstacle to sustained recovery.

Co-morbidities

- Psychiatric disorders
 - Methamphetamine users are twice as likely to have a psychiatric condition compared to the general population
 - o Lifetime
 - Mood disorders (33-51%)
 - Anxiety disorder (25-39%)
- Other substance use disorders
 - o Current
 - 78% tobacco
 - 14% alcohol
 - 24% tested positive for other illicit substances
 - Lifetime
 - 57% have lifetime dependence on other substances
 - Alcohol 33%
 - Cocaine 27%
 - Cannabis 15%
 - Opioids 12%
 - Medical conditions
 - o HIV
 - Hepatitis C
- Social conditions
 - o Associated with homelessness, crime, imprisonment and unemployment



0

Gender Differences in Methamphetamine Use Disorder (MUD)

- About 50% of methamphetamine users are female.
 - Male and female users differ in several areas
 - Demographic differences
 - Female users are more likely to:
 - Be younger
 - Be unmarried
 - Have children under the age of 17 living with them
 - Live with partners who sold drugs or who had been incarcerated
 - Psychological Differences
 - Female users were more likely to:
 - Have received a mental health diagnosis
 - Have experienced abuse and neglect as children
 - o Patterns of use
 - Female users are more likely to:
 - Became dependent more quickly (shorter lag between first use and presentation for treatment)
 - List benefits of methamphetamine
 - Doing more housework, caring for children, weight loss, not be depressed, help with self esteem
 - Legal Differences

- Female users more likely to have been arrested for theft and prostitution in the past year
- Pregnant women and women with small children in treatment
 - Multiple responsibilities at home
 - High levels of exhaustion and may believe that struggles can be overcome with meth use

Effects on pregnancy

- Comorbidities
 - More likely to use marijuana and alcohol during pregnancy
- Maternal complications
 - Higher rates of (after adjusting for confounding variables):
 - Gestational HTN (OR 1.8)
 - Preeclampsia (OR 2.7)
 - IUFD (OR 5.1)
 - Placental abruption (OR 5.5)
 - Preterm birth (OR 2.9)
- Effects on fetal growth
 - Low birth weight (LBW) and small-gestational-age (SGA) consistently demonstrated compared to controls
 - o Prospective study with methamphetamine users
 - Rate of SGA was 3.5X higher after controlling for alcohol, tobacco and weight gain
- Data exist from case reports and retrospective studies, but prospective studies do not confirm cardiac, GI, limb and lip/palate abnormalities



Effects on neonate/children

- Effects on neonate
 - Higher rates of (after adjusting for confounding variables):
 - Neonatal death (OR 3.1)
 - Infant death (OR 2.5)
 - ? Withdrawal symptoms
 - Decreased arousal, feeding difficulties, sleep disruptions, abnormal muscle movements
 - Symptoms resolve spontaneously within a few weeks and only 4% require supportive medical intervention
- Effects on children:
 - Childhood behavioral abnormalities

Lactation

- Effects on milk supply
 - Inhibits prolactin release and may decrease milk supply
- Infant plasma concentration
 - 2.8-7.5x than maternal plasma concentration
- Effects on infant
 - Irritability, agitation and increased crying
- Recommendation
 - Women who are using methamphetamines should not breastfeed
 - Breastfeeding can be safely initiated in mother whose urine MA screen has turned negative for over 24 hours

Screening

- UDS only done with consent and women informed of positive results
- Meconium testing after parental consent and confirmed with gas chromatography because false positive is frequent
- •

Treatment

- Treatments available are mostly psychosocial
 - Contingency management
 - CBT with relapse prevention
 - o 12 step programs
 - Trauma-focused interventions
 - Housing support
- No FDA approved medications for methamphetamine use disorder
 - No studies done on pregnant women
 - Recommendation to treat co-morbid psychiatric and substance use disorders



References

American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Committee on Health Care for Underserved Women. (2011). Committee opinion no. 479: Methamphetamine abuse in women of reproductive age. *Obstetrics and Gynecology*, *117*(3), 751-755.

Ballester, J., Valentine, G., & Sofuoglu, M. (2017). Pharmacological treatments for methamphetamine addiction: Current status and future directions. *Expert Review of Clinical Pharmacology*, *10*(3), 305-314.

Chomchai, C., Chomchai, S., & Kitsommart, R. (2016). Transfer of methamphetamine (MA) into breast milk and urine of postpartum women who smoked MA tablets during pregnancy: Implications for initiation of breastfeeding. *Journal of Human Lactation: Official Journal of International Lactation Consultant Association*, *32*(2), 333-339.

Courtney, K. E., & Ray, L. A. (2014). Methamphetamine: An update on epidemiology, pharmacology, clinical phenomenology, and treatment literature. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 143*, 11-21.

Davidson, C. (2016). Developing treatments for stimulant abuse: A brief overview. *East Asian Archives of Psychiatry: Official Journal of the Hong Kong College of Psychiatrists = Dong Ya Jing Shen Ke Xue Zhi : Xianggang Jing Shen Ke Yi Xue Yuan Qi Kan, 26*(2), 52-59.

Forray, A., & Foster, D. (2015). Substance use in the perinatal period. Current Psychiatry Reports, 17(11),

Gorman, M. C., Orme, K. S., Nguyen, N. T., Kent, E. J., 3rd, & Caughey, A. B. (2014). Outcomes in pregnancies complicated by methamphetamine use. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 211(4), 429.e1-429.e7.

Hartwell, E. E., Moallem, N. R., Courtney, K. E., Glasner-Edwards, S., & Ray, L. A. (2016). Sex differences in the association between internalizing symptoms and craving in methamphetamine users. *Journal of Addiction Medicine*, *10*(6), 395-401.1

House, S. J., Coker, J. L., & Stowe, Z. N. (2016). Perinatal substance abuse: At the clinical crossroads of policy and practice. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, 173(11), 1077-1080.

Maxwell, J. C. (2014). A new survey of methamphetamine users in treatment: Who they are, why they like "meth," and why they need additional services. *Substance use & Misuse, 49*(6), 639-644.

McCabe, J. E., & Arndt, S. (2012). Demographic and substance abuse trends among pregnant and non-pregnant women: Eleven years of treatment admission data. *Maternal and Child Health Journal, 16*(8), 1696-1702.

Wouldes, T. A., LaGasse, L. L., Derauf, C., Newman, E., Shah, R., Smith, L. M., . . . Lester, B. M. (2013). Comorbidity of substance use disorder and psychopathology in women who use methamphetamine during pregnancy in the US and New Zealand. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, *127*(1-3), 101-107.

Wu, M., Lagasse, L. L., Wouldes, T. A., Arria, A. M., Wilcox, T., Derauf, C., . . . Lester, B. M. (2013). Predictors of inadequate prenatal care in methamphetamine-using mothers in New Zealand and the United States. *Maternal and Child Health Journal*, *17*(3), 566-575.