

Approaches to Detoxification of Patients during the Opioid Epidemic

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DISCLOSURE

I have nothing to disclose.





Objectives

- 1. Identify the epidemiology and pharmacological characteristics of central nervous system depressants that augment the clinical complexity for the treating physician of patients who present for treatment during the so-called "opioid epidemic".
- 2. Outline the neurobiology of neuroadaption to drugs of abuse and relate these to clinical complications associated with their discontinuation.
- Differentiate between approaches to safe and effective detoxification of patients who present for treatment of opioid use disorder but use other drugs of abuse in addition to opioids.



Intelligencer / INTERESTING TIMES

The Opioid Epidemic Is This Generation's AIDS Crisis

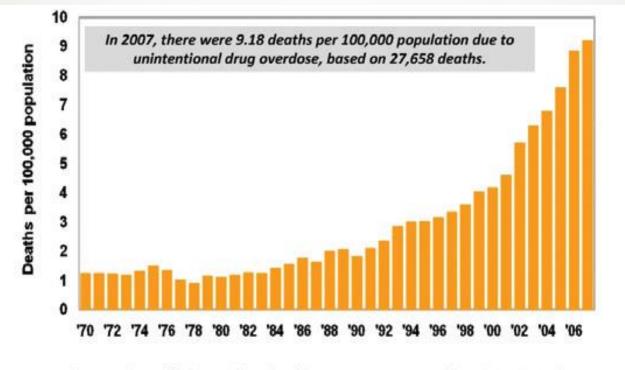
By Andrew Sullivan



Snow covers a cemetery in Gloucester, Massachusetts. Photo: John Moore/Getty Images



Clarion Call from the CDC Came in 2012: U.S. Drug Overdose Deaths, 1970-2007

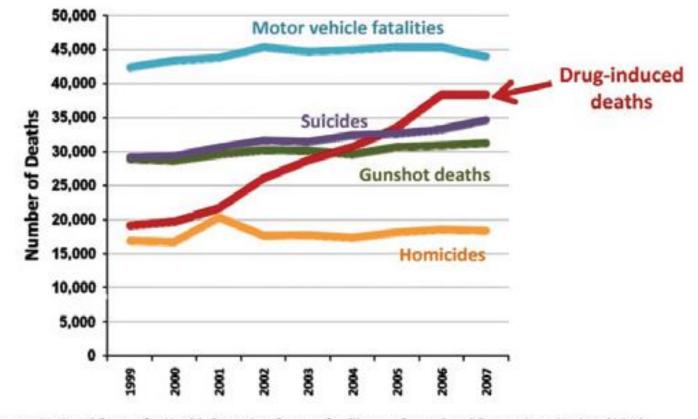


Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Unintentional Drug Poisoning in the United States (July 2010).

CDC MMWR / January 13, 2012 / Vol. 61 / No. 1



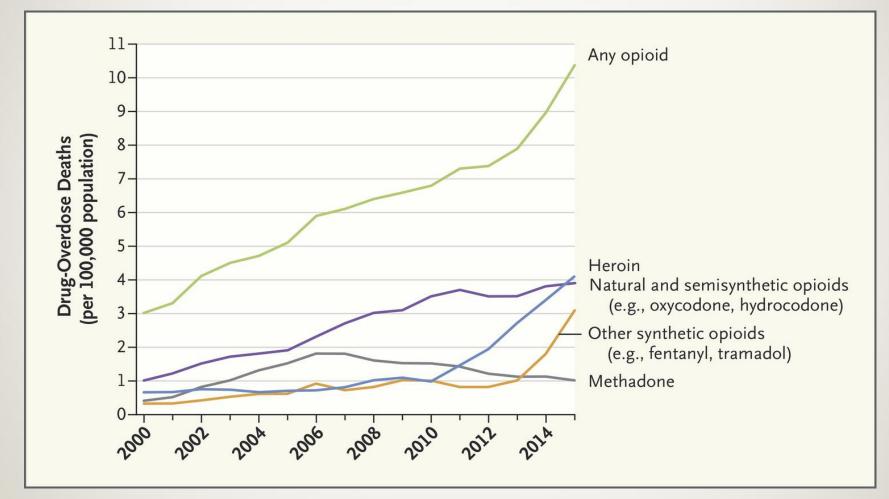
Drug-induced Deaths Second Only to Motor Vehicle Fatalities, 1999-2007



Source: National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Vital Statistics Reports Deaths: Final Data for the years 1999 to 2007 (2001 to 2010).



Opioid Overdose Deaths by Type of Opioid, United States, 2000–2014



Frank RG, Pollack HA. N Engl J Med 2017;376:605-607.



Remember that *opioids are not the only drugs* involved in the Opioid Epidemic!



Table 48–1Prevalence of Substance Use in Last Month(Per 100 Persons Aged 12 Years or Older)

Drug	Prevalence (%)
Alcohol Binge drinker* Heavy drinker** 	51.8 23.1 6.7
Tobacco	27.4
 An illicit drug Marijuana Cocaine Methamphetamine Hallucinogens Heroin 	8.9 6.9 0.6 0.1 0.5 0.1
 Nonmedical use of psychotherapeutic drugs Pain relievers Tranquillizers Stimulants Sedatives 	2.7 2.0 0.9 0.4 0.1

*Defined as having five or more drinks on the same occasion on at least 1 day in the 30 days prior to the survey. **Defined as binge drinking on at least 5 days in the past 30 days.

Martin PR in Ebert MH, Leckman JF, Petrakis IL. Current Diagnosis & Treatment: Psychiatry, 3e; 2019.



Table 48–2 Prevalence of Substance-Use Disorders During the Previous Year (Per 100 Persons Aged 12 Years or Older)*

Substance-Use Disorder	Prevalence (%)
Any substance-use disorder	8.7
Alcohol abuse or dependence, no illicit drug-use disorder	5.9
 Illicit drug abuse or dependence, no alcohol use disorder 	1.7
Alcohol and illicit drug abuse or dependence	1.1
-Marijuana abuse or dependence	1.8
Cocaine abuse or dependence	0.4
-Opioid abuse or dependence	0.8

*Prevalence rates obtained using DSM-IV criteria in which construct substance-use disorder is dichotomized as abuse (mild substance-use disorder) or dependence (moderate/severe substance-use disorder).

Martin PR in Ebert MH, Leckman JF, Petrakis IL. Current Diagnosis & Treatment: Psychiatry, 3e; 2019.



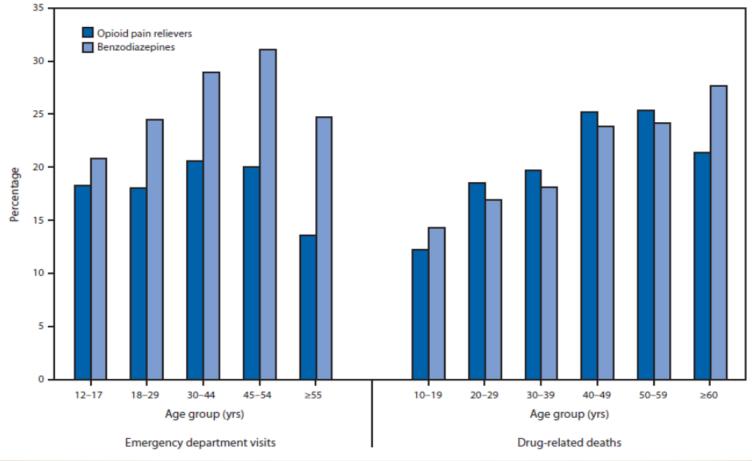
Increasing Prevalence of 12-Month Alcohol Use, High-Risk Drinking, and DSM-IV Alcohol Use Disorder (2001-02 to 2012-13)

	Alcohol Use (%)	High Risk Drinking (%)	DSM-IV AUD (%)
2001-2002	65.4	9.7	8.5
2012-2013	72.7	12.6	12.7
Percentage Increase	11.2	29.9	49.4

Grant et al, JAMA Psychiatry. 2017;74(9):911-923.



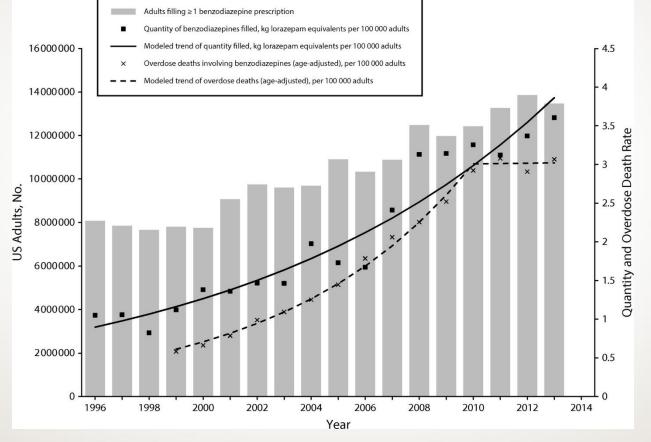
FIGURE. Percentage of opioid pain reliever and benzodiazepine drug abuse–related emergency department visits in the United States and drug-related deaths in 13 states that involved alcohol, by age group — Drug Abuse Warning Network, 2010



CDC MMWR October 10, 2014 / 63(40);881-885



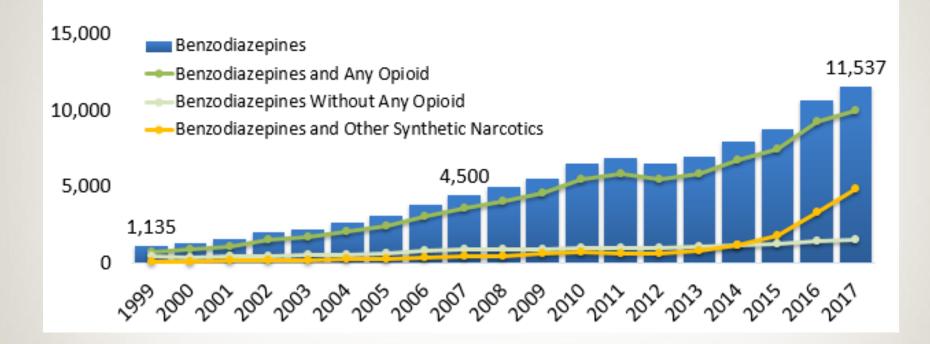
Benzodiazepine Prescriptions, Quantity, and Associated OD Deaths in US (1996–2013)



Bachhuber et al. Am. J. Pub. Health 106: 686 (2016)



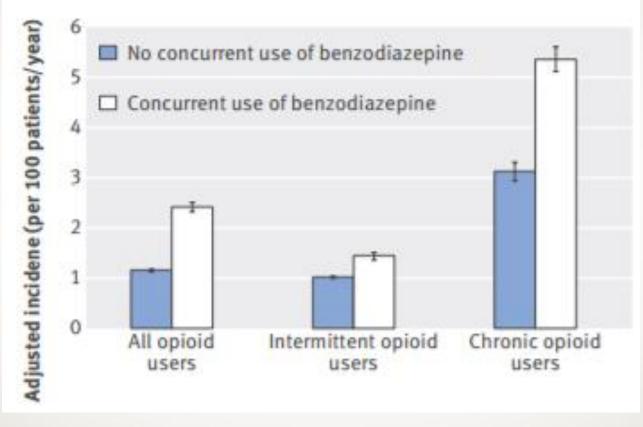
National Drug Overdose Deaths Involving Benzodiazepines, 1999-2017



Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. Multiple Cause of Death 1999-2017 on CDC WONDER Online Database, released December, 2018



Adjusted incidence of "opioid" overdose



Sun et al, BMJ 2017



A Case Example

CS is a 56 year old female who presented for SI, HI, and worsening depression. SI was in the context of functional decline and poor health; HI was directed toward "people selling methamphetamine to my children, destroying their lives." She denied substance abuse; admitted to occasionally smoking marijuana to help with sleep/pain; had documented prescriptions for benzodiazepines and opioids; and UDS was positive for BZD, opiates, and cannabis. She asked to continue her home diazepam, Lortab and gabapentin while in hospital. She requested AMA discharge when she started to feel better because she was worried about her children on methamphetamine. She eventually admitted to abusing both benzodiazepines and opioids and agreed to their discontinuation. Detoxification required loading with 1080 mg phenobarbital which made her more comfortable. She felt incapable of staying abstinent from opioids and requested MAT. She was induced on 8/2 mg buprenorphine/naloxone daily and was started on oxcarbazepine 300 mg bid for PTSD and mood instability. She enrolled in our MAT program on discharge. She attends regularly, has remained euthymic, and UDS monitoring remains negative (except cannabis).



Sedative/Hypnotic/Anxiolytic: Medications or Drugs of Abuse?

- Alcohol identified on 5000-year-old archeological traces; alcoholism mentioned in the Bible, e.g., "Wine is a mocker and beer a brawler: whoever is led astray by them is not wise" (Proverbs 20:1)
- Bromides, chloral and paraldehyde date to the 19th century; 21 % of patients admitted to Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic, Johns Hopkins Hospital had positive bromide blood levels (Wuth, 1927)
- **Barbiturates** first used in 1903; first published case of barbital abuse in 1904 (Fernandez & Clark)



Sedative/Hypnotic/Anxiolytic: Medications or Drugs of Abuse?

- Non-barbiturate sedative-hypnotics first used in mid-1950s; abuse followed shortly: ethinamate (Cahn, 1959), glutethimide (Battegay, 1957), meprobamate (Lemere, 1956), methaqualone (Ewart & Priest, 1967), and methyprylon Jensen, 1960); also, note carisoprodol (Soma) is a congener of meprobamate
- Benzodiazepines have been the most widely prescribed psychotropics since 1960's; a myriad of publications have documented their abuse (e.g., Marks, 1978)
- Benzodiazepine agonists ("Z drugs"-zaleplon, zolpidem, eszopiclone) date to late 1990s; are now recognized to have abuse liability (e.g., Griffiths & Johnson, 2005)



Sedative/Hypnotic/ Anxiolytics: Lessons Learned

- Each new wave of sedative-hypnotics is initially marketed with claims of pharmacologic novelty, particularly a *lack of dependence liability* and hence, "*minimal risk of abuse*"
- Reports of the *abuse of every sedative-hypnotic* have appeared within a few years of the introduction of each new drug of this class
- Dependence on each new drug is recognized, as are challenges of safe discontinuation, e.g., *delirium, seizures*
- Perhaps the only real "advance" has been that neuroadaptation to newer drugs becomes more subtle, and hence, difficult to recognize, complicating differential diagnosis....
- Also, many physicians tend to become complacent, thinking that newer drugs can be used with impunity (earlier ones were the actual problem)....
- Hence, much *potentially treatable psychopathology may be disguised* for convenience (of both patient and physician) as anxiety is but a symptom...



Why discontinue CNS depressants (even if patient wishes not to)?

- Adverse effects of chronic use of CNS depressants include:
 - Alcohol <u>+</u> benzodiazepine <u>+</u> other CNS depressant use disorder
 - Cognitive impairment, confusion, anterograde amnesia
 - Enhanced anxiety (neuroadaptation), progressing to increasing depression, suicidal behavior
 - Psychomotor dysfunction, falls
 - Disrupted sleep architecture, daytime sedation, automobile accidents, etc.
 - Delirium, disinhibition
 - Worse outcomes in diverse psychiatric disorders, esp. PTSD, SUD, including OD morbidity/mortality
- Anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs were associated with an age adjusted hazard ratio for mortality of 3.32 over a mean observation period of 7.6 years (Welch et al., BMJ 2014)
- Accurate diagnosis and appropriate psychiatric treatment may not be possible in patients who are actively using CNS depressants



Treatment of SUD begins with Management of Withdrawal

- Careful clinical evaluation with emphasis on medical and psychiatric complications
- Identification and appropriate management of the relevant withdrawal syndrome(s)
- Inpatient, outpatient, residential, aftercare
- Psychotherapies (social or milieu, insight-oriented, behavioral, individual, and group)
- Introduce/encourage participation in 12-step selfsupport groups, e.g. AA, NA, CA
- Chronic (life-long) illness with expected relapses that should be anticipated and managed in a non-punitive manner



Safe Treatment: Consider Withdrawal Syndrome Severity for Each Abused Drug

- 1. Barbiturates, nonbarbiturate hypnosedatives
- 2. Alcohol
- 3. Benzodiazepines
- 4. Opioids
- 5. Cannabinoids



Discontinuation of CNS depressants

CNS Depressants	Withdrawal Seizures (%)	Withdrawal Delirium (%)	Withdrawal Minor (%)	(N)	Reference
Barbiturates	30	25	25	85	Wulff, 1959*
Barbiturates	66	48	?	100	Whitlock, 1970
"Sedatives", "Tranquilizers"	18	14	?	110	Swanson, 1973
Benzodiazepines, Meprobamate, Methaqualone, Barbiturates	9	35	60	55	Allgulander, 1978
Alcohol	"Delirium tremens occurs in 5%, with mortality in these as high as 15%"		•		Sellers & Kalant, 1976

*Only study in which patients were observed without treatment—40% of abusers of short-acting barbiturates suffered withdrawal convulsions, delirium or both which were absent during withdrawal from long-acting barbiturates.

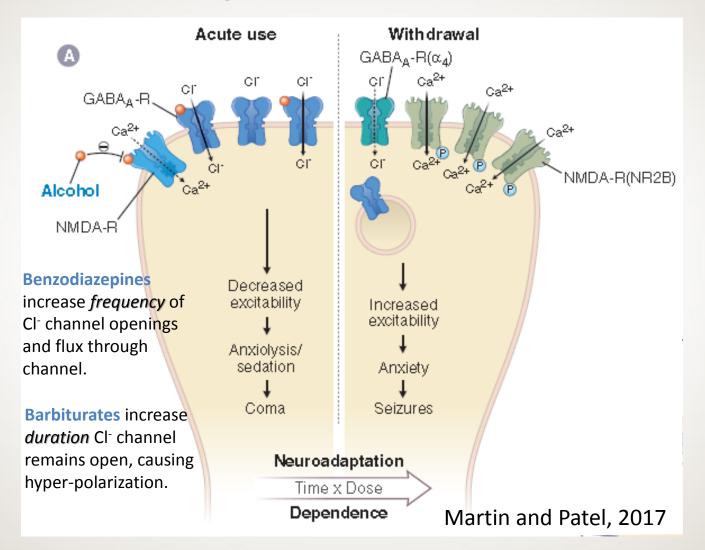


Goals of CNS Depressant Discontinuation

- Relief of symptoms
- Prevention or treatment of complications (e.g., seizures, delirium)
- Accurate post-withdrawal diagnosis
- Appropriate treatment of drug use disorder and co-occurring disorders

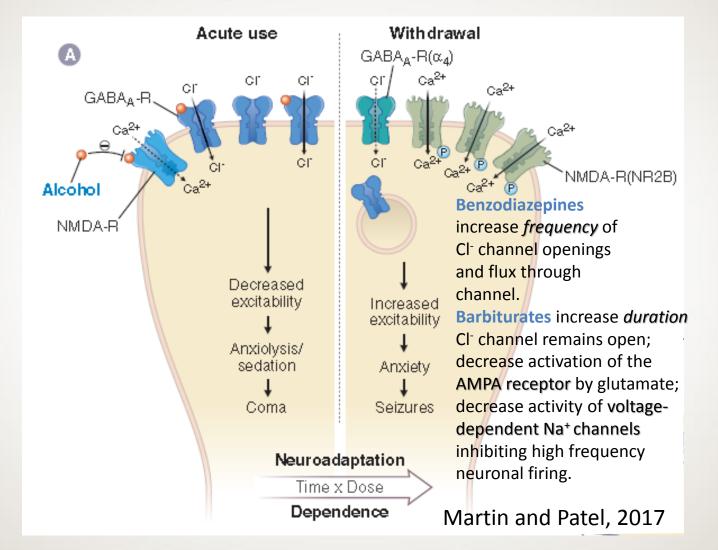


CNS Depressants: Intoxication





CNS Depressants: Withdrawal





Clinical Determinants of CNS Depressant Withdrawal Severity

- Barbiturates (non-barbiturate hypnosedatives) > alcohol > benzodiazepines > non-BZP GABA agonists
- Short-acting > long-acting (elimination rate; active metabolites)
- Quantity used (more > less)
- Combinations of CNS depressants may have synergistic effects
- History of severe previous withdrawal episodes
- History of seizures (<u>+</u> withdrawal)



Intoxication

- Disinhibition (inappropriate sexual or aggressive behavior, impaired judgment, mood lability)
- Hypotension (note usual BP)
- Somnolence, stupor, or coma
- Impaired attention or memory
- Slurred speech
- Incoordination
- Ataxic gait
- Nystagmus

<u>Withdrawal</u>

- Anxiety or psychomotor agitation
- Tremor, hyperreflexia
- Craving
- Autonomic hyperactivity (pulse, BP, T, sweating, arrhythmia)
- Insomnia
- Sensory distortions or transient hallucinations
- Nausea or vomiting
- Seizures
- Delirium

Intoxication can be enhanced by GABA agonists and reversed with benzodiazepine antagonists, e.g. flumazenil.



How to discontinue CNS depressants

- Abrupt withdrawal of CNS depressants in a physically dependent person is challenging due to distressing symptoms and potentially life-threatening consequences. Historically, the following approaches to discontinuation of CNS depressants have been employed:
 - A small doses of a short-acting drug with cross-tolerance/dependence to the drug of abuse (e.g., pentobarbital) was administered until intoxication is attained; thereafter, this stabilizing dose was gradually tapered (days to weeks) (Ewing & Bakewell, 1967)
 - Substitution of a long-acting cross-tolerant/dependent agent (e.g., phenobarbital) followed by slow tapering (days) (Smith & Wesson 1970)
 - A symptom-triggered (objective) loading dose technique (e.g. phenobarbital) without need to taper doses which offers significant advantages, including promoting focus on recovery rather than drug-seeking and enhancing the physician-patient alliance (Martin et al, 1979)
- The symptom-triggered loading dose strategy has found wide application worldwide for detoxification from other drugs of abuse, especially in the treatment of alcohol withdrawal (Sellers et al, 1983)
- Trials of other agents (e.g. sympatholytic, other anticonvulsant) not compelling



Symptom-triggered intravenous administration

INTRAVENOUS PHENOBARBITAL THERAPY IN BARBITURATE AND OTHER HYPNOSEDATIVE WITHDRAWAL REACTIONS: A KINETIC APPROACH

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> Reprinted from CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS St. Louis

Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 256-264, August, 1979 (Copyright © 1979 by The C. V. Mosby Company) (Printed in the U. S. A.) Intravenous phenobarbital therapy in barbiturate and other

hypnosedative withdrawal reactions: A kinetic approach

Phenobarbital (0.03 to 0.04 mg/kg/min) was infused intravenously in 7 patients with clinical hypnosedative withdrawal reactions until patients slept but were arousable. The infusion time to reach this clinical end point was 7.8 ± 1.1 hr (mean \pm SEM), the total dose was 992 ± 144 mg, and the peak serum phenobarbital concentration was 26.1 ± 5.1 µg/ml. A user of minimal hypnosedatives required 54% less phenobarbital and 65% lower concentration than any of the abusers to reach an equivalent state of intoxication. The mean serum half-life ($1\frac{1}{2}$) was 57.5 ± 4.9 hr for hypnosedative abusers and 86 ± 3 hr for 8 normal volunteers (p < 0.001). Only the patient with the shortest $1\frac{1}{2}$ (36.4 hr) required oral phenobarbital supplements to prevent withdrawal symptoms. Dosage supplements required can be calculated from the postinfusion rate of fall of serum phenobarbital. Slow infusion of large amounts of phenobarbital provides a safe, efficacious single-dose treatment.

Peter R. Martin, M.D., C.M., Bhushan M. Kapur, Ph.D., Edwin A. Whiteside, M.D., and Edward M. Sellers, M.D., Ph.D. *Toronto*, *Ontario*, *Canada*

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Oral administration

Barbiturate and hypnosedative withdrawal by a multiple oral phenobarbital loading dose technique

Although intravenous phenobarbital loading is effective in barbiturate withdrawal, controlled infusions of drug are inconvenient. To develop a practical and more widely applicable method, oral loading doses of phenobarbital were given to 21 barbiturate addicts, whose estimated mean daily intake of barbiturates was 1 gm (range 0.5 to 4 gm). Twelve had a past or present history of barbiturate withdrawal seizures. Phenobarbital was given orally at a rate of 120 mg/hr until a predetermined clinical end point of phenobarbital effect was achieved. This end point was the presence of at least three of the following: nystagmus, drowsiness, ataxia, dysarthria, or emotional lability. The total phenobarbital loading dose ($\bar{x} \pm SD$) was 23.4 \pm 7.1 mg/kg, median phenobarbital concentration after loading was 35.9 mg/l (range 13.2 to 71.6 mg/l), and median half-life (1½) of phenobarbital was 90 hr (range 38 to 240 hr). One patient with t½ = 38 hr was given supplemental doses of phenobarbital. None developed seizures or other evidence of barbiturate withdrawal.

Geoffrey M. Robinson, M.B., Ch.B., Edward M. Sellers, M.D., Ph.D., and

Eva Janecek, B.Sc.Phm. Toronto, Ontario

Clinical Institute, Addiction Research Foundation, and Departments of Pharmacology and Medicine, University of Toronto



CNS Depressant Protocol

WITHDRAWAL SIGNS	- MILD	- MODERATE TO SEVERE		
Blood pressure elevation	+1	Diastolic rise >20mmHg in 2 hours or less		
Increased pulse	+1	Tachycardia increased 20bpm in 2 hours or less		
Agitated, irritable	+1	Marked agitation, irritability		
Restless, anxious	+1	Marked increase in anxiety, restless		
Lightheaded, dizzy	+1	Progressive confusion, disorientation		
Paresthesia, tingling	+1	Twitching or fasciculation		
Mild tremor	+1	Severe tremor		
Nausea, anorexia	+1	Vomiting or dry heaves		
Mild diaphoresis	+1	Increasing diaphoresis		
Insomnia	+1	Pre-seizure aura, bright lights Visual or tactile hallucinations		
TOTAL # MILD SIGNS	PLUS	AT LEAST 2 MODERATE TO SEVERE SIGNS		

Discontinue (120 mg phenobarbital/hr): 2+ signs of intoxication (Drowsy, ataxia, nystagmus)



Mistakes to Avoid

- Insufficient phenobarbital dosing might result in recurrence of withdrawal symptoms/seizures
 - Patient is not yet in withdrawal when load initiated
 - Cross-tolerant medications are continued while loading, esp. neuroleptics (lower seizure threshold), anxiolytics, less effective anticonvulsant with shorter half-life
 - Premature discontinuation of load (e.g., "low" BP, disinhibition)
 - Load can always be reinitiated (e.g., if load started prior to withdrawal signs due to significant seizure history)
- Use in **pregnancy** due to teratogenicity
- Monitor drug interactions (e.g., warfarin)



Pharmacokinetic Advantages of Phenobarbital

- Acid dissociation pH, slow CNS permeation, low side effect profile, including less reinforcing properties than benzodiazepines
- High doses can be administered over 10-15 hours as a single procedure providing a body "depot" of phenobarbital that serves to maintain brain levels
- Because elimination half-life is 90-120 hours, brain phenobarbital levels decrease very slowly, providing a "pharmacological umbrella" for >10 days, that allows coverage while the brain re-equilibrates, preventing withdrawal complications



Pharmacodynamic Advantages of Phenobarbital

- Enhances efficacy of GABA by increasing time Cl⁻ channel remains open (greater influx of Cl⁻ ions for each activated GABA_A channel)
- Broad spectrum CNS depressant also decreases activation of AMPA glutamate receptor, voltage-dependent Na⁺ channels inhibiting high frequency firing
- Therefore, effective for treating all CNS depressant withdrawal syndromes (benzodiazepines are only effective for alcohol/benzodiazepines):
 - Barbiturates, non-barbiturate sedative-hypnotics, muscle relaxants
 - Alcohol
 - Benzodiazepines, GABA agonists



Load vs Taper

- Less TIME and greater EFFICIENCY—vital in an era of shortened LOS
- Provides objective evidence for tolerance ergo severity of dependence and need for addiction treatment per se
- May provide insights about underlying **DIAGNOSIS**, e.g.
 - Disinhibition (hyperthymic disorder)
 - Comfortable calming (MDD, PTSD)
 - Confusion (neurocognitive disorder)

- Requires long-term monitoring, may fog actual other psychiatric diagnosis, delay appropriate treatment
- Focus for the physician-patient relationship becomes **whether** to reduce the drug dosage
- Emerging anxiety causes fear of withdrawal (patient and physician)
- Patients may be continued on benzodiazepine for weeks to months or never be detoxified



What *can* go wrong (but rarely does)

- Robinson et al (1981) first implemented oral STPLP; total phenobarbital loading dose: 23.4 ± 7.1 mg/kg (**1640 mg in average person**); median peak blood concentration 35.9 mg/L (range 13.2 to 71.6 mg/L); and median t_{1/2} 90 hours (range 38 to 240 hr); complications that can occur:
 - Hypotension (usually orthostatic, sedated patients lie down)
 - Falls (requires fall precautions)
 - Allergic reaction (unpredictable but rare)
 - Disinhibition (can require staff time, but might be informative with respect to diagnosis)
 - Respiratory depression is not a significant concern (unless combined with opioids?)
 - It is *almost* impossible to over-dose patient with symptom-triggered administration protocol is followed UNLESS PATIENT IS ALSO ADMINISTERED OPIOIDS



What *can* go wrong (but rarely does)

- The safety of the approach has received more recent support from others, e.g., Kawasaki et al (2012) who reviewed 20 years of experience detoxifying patients from benzodiazepines at Hopkins using a similar protocol for administering phenobarbital and reported the following rates of complications:
 - Seizures 0%
 - Delirium 1.0%
 - Falls 0%
 - Sedation 27.1%
 - Left AMA 17.1%
 - ED visits within 30 days 7.1%
 - Readmission with 30 days 6.1%

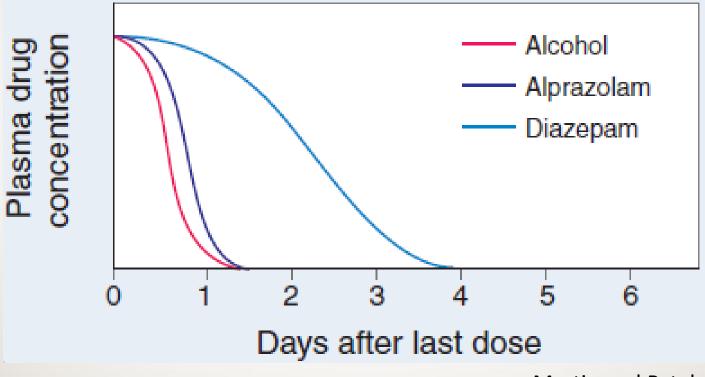


Treatment Goals of CIWA vs CNSDP

- Symptom-triggered treatment (Clinical Institute Withdrawal Assessment, CIWA-A) with diazepam is designed to suppress alcohol withdrawal syndrome during a short period of risk (12-48 hr) only
- Symptom-triggered treatment (Central Nervous System Depressant Protocol, CNSDP) with phenobarbital is to designed provide coverage for all other CNS depressant withdrawal syndromes (period of risk, 6-100 hr) using intoxication as a biological endpoint



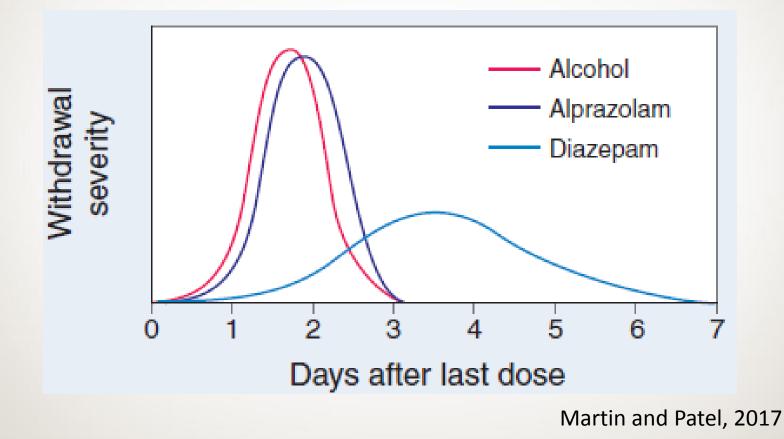
Elimination of alcohol and benzodiazepines from plasma



Martin and Patel, 2017

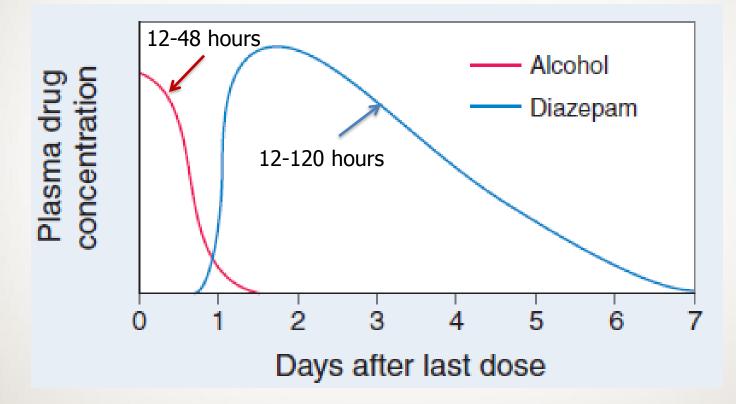


Onset, severity and duration of CNSdepressant withdrawal syndrome





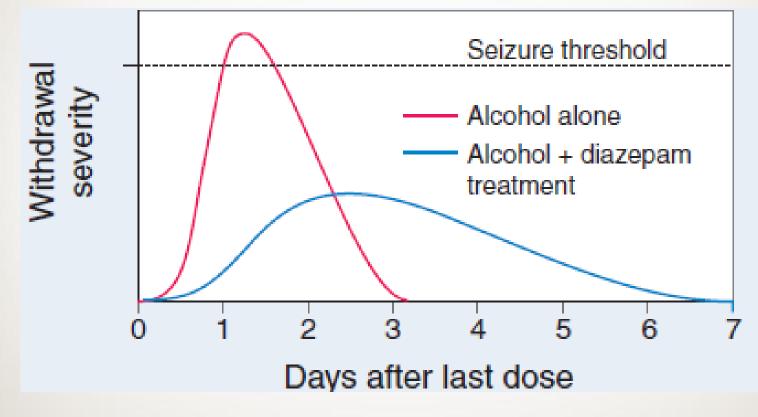
Time required until system re-equilibrates and to maintain GABA_A-receptor occupancy



Martin and Patel, 2017



Gradual reduction in receptor occupancy reduces withdrawal severity/complications



Martin and Patel, 2017



Recommendations

- CNSDP and CIWA protocols are both very safe and effective when used appropriately but are NOT interchangeable (diazepam is not a "safer" version of phenobarbital)
- Combining diazepam and phenobarbital can result in enhanced toxicity:
 - Choose the correct protocol at the front end
 - If unsure about which protocol is indicated, start the phenobarbital load and continue until completion;
 - only start diazepam when certain that only alcohol detoxification is required;
 - do not switch from diazepam to phenobarbital or vice versa as this may result in neuropsychiatric toxicity



Withdrawal from Multiple Substances: Manage in Sequence

1. CNS depressants

- Stabilizing phenobarbital/diazepam dose objectively determined (symptom based)
- Auto-tapered due to slow elimination/active metabolites
- Benzodiazepines/Barbiturates MUST NOT be co-prescribed with an opioid agonist due to significant risk of respiratory compromise/ death

2. Opioids

- Alleviate withdrawal signs and symptoms (COWS protocol) and provide estimate of maintenance dose if MAT requested
- MAT comprises maintenance with opioid partial/full agonist under comprehensive treatment program and monitoring



Opioid Intoxication and Withdrawal

Intoxication

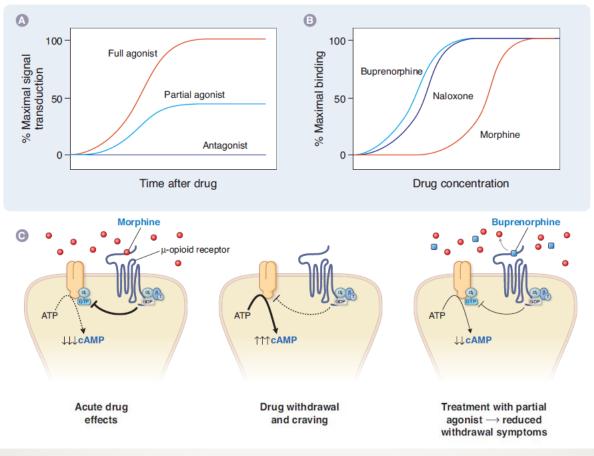
- Activation/"rush" (early/low doses) and sedation /apathy/ "nod" (late/high doses)
- Euphoria or dysphoria
- Feelings of warmth, facial flushing, or itching
- Impaired judgment, attention, or memory
- Analgesia
- Constipation
- Pupillary constriction
- Drowsiness
- Respiratory depression, areflexia, hypotension, tachycardia
- Apnea, cyanosis, coma

<u>Withdrawal</u>

- Depressed mood, anxiety, dysphoria
- Craving
- Piloerection ("goose flesh"), lacrimation, rhinorrhea
- Hyperalgesia, joint/muscle aches
- Diarrhea and gastrointestinal cramping, nausea, or vomiting
- Pupillary dilation and photophobia
- Insomnia
- Autonomic hyperactivity (P, BP, T, sweating), hyperreflexia
- Yawning



Treatment of opioid withdrawal vs. medication-assisted treatment



Martin and Patel, 2017



Summary

- Manage CNS depressant withdrawal first due to associated morbidity/mortality
- Do not co-administer opioids with CNS depressants (risk of respiratory depression)
- Start Clinical Opioid Withdrawal Scale (COWS)triggered opioid detoxification only upon completion of CIWA/CNSDP
- Consider whether goal is detoxification or opioid agonist maintenance (MAT)