



Chair: OPCAT Commission 3
Austrian Ombudsmen Board NPM: National Prevention
Mechanism

Gender specific treatment approaches

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Definition of sex and gender

Sex

The biological sex

Gender

Includes psychosocial aspects

Gender mainstreaming - consideration in all areas

www.nature.com/nature

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Putting gender on the agenda (Editorial)

"Medicine as it is currently applied to \$\foat{\tau}\$ is less evidence-based than that being applied to \$\foat{\tau}\$."

Substance use disorders (SUD) frequently co-occur with other psychiatric disorders → a phenomenon also named "dual diagnosis"

- At least 50% of SUD patients suffer from at least one additional psychiatric disorder (EMCDDA, 2015) - significant sex & gender differences
- However, psychiatric comorbidities in SUD patients remain largely undiagnosed and untreated
 - → this can lead to many complications in the treatment process, as well as to a high incidence of relapses (Bradizza, et al., 2006; Drake, Mueser & Brunette, 2007) & in continuation to criminal activities

Gender differences & SUD – Treatment entry

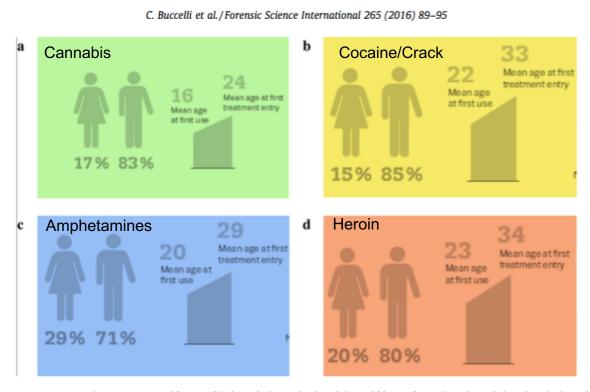
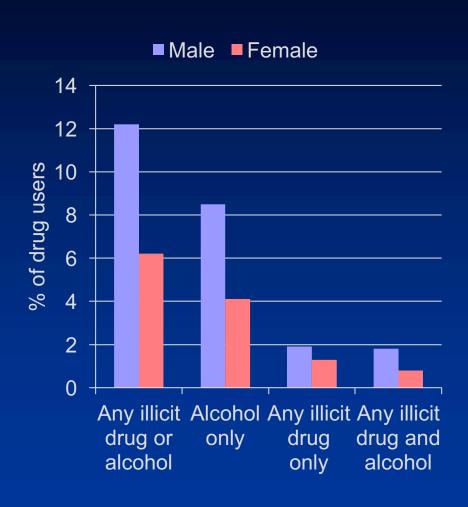


Fig. 2. Proportion of men vs. women entering treatment with cannabis (panel a), cocaine/crack (panel b), amphetamines (panel c), or heroin (panel d) as the primary drug. Source: European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (2015).

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Sex differences in prevalence are narrowing



 Percentage of persons aged 12 years or under abusing alcohol or illicit drugs in 2003

lifetime prevalence of substance exposure

- 85.7% of the sample reported any lifetime exposure (49.2% ♀)
- Lifetime prevalence of <u>exposure</u> was significantly higher for ♂ compared to ♀ in all categories (after adjusting for sociodemographic variables, all ORs > 1)

TABLE 1. Comparison of lifetime exposure to substances among females and males in the NESARC 2001–2002

Substance	Female (% [CI])	Male (% [CI])	Unadjusted OR [†] (CI)		Adjusted OR ^{†,‡} (CI)
Heroin	0.2 (0.1-0.2)	0.5 (0.4-0.6)	3.23 (2.09-4.97)	abla	3.37 (2.12–5.37)
Cocaine	4.2 (3.8–4.7)	8.3 (7.6–8.9)	2.04 (1.83-2.28)		2.06 (1.84–2.31)
Cannabis	16.6 (15.6–17.7)	24.9 (23.7–26.0)	1.66 (1.56–1.77)		1.67 (1.57–1.78)
Nicotine*	38.1 (36.7–39.6)	49.7 (48.2-51.2)	1.60 (1.53-1.68)	\ \	1.77 (1.68–1.87)
Alcohol	77.5 (75.7–79.1)	88.4 (87.4-89.4)	2.22 (2.04-2.42)	4	2.31 (2.12–2.52)
Hallucinogens	3.9 (3.5-4.3)	7.9 (7.3–8.6)	2.14 (1.94-2.36)		2.12 (1.91–2.35)
Inhalants	.9 (.7-1.0)	2.7 (2.4-3.0)	3.18 (2.57-3.93)		3.10 (2.50-3.84)
Sedatives	3.1 (2.8–3.4)	5.2 (4.7–5.6)	1.69 (1.51–1.89)		1.72 (1.53-1.92)
Tranquilizers	2.4 (2.2–2.7)	4.5 (4.1–5.0)	1.91 (1.66-2.18)		1.90 (1.65-2.18)
Opioids	3.5 (3.2–3.9)	6.1 (5.5–6.7)	1.77 (1.57–2.00)		1.79 (1.57–2.03)
Amphetamines	3.4 (2.9–3.8)	6.1 (5.5–6.7)	1.87 (1.65–2.11)		1.88 (1.66–2.13)

All percentages are weighted. CI, Confidence interval; OR, Odds ratio.

^{*}Lifetime exposure to nicotine was defined as at least 100 cigarettes smoked; †Female is the reference group (OR = 1.0); ‡Adjusted for age, race, educational level, household income, marital status, urbanicity, and region.

^{*}prescription opioids

lifetime prevalence of substance dependence

- d had a significantly higher prevalence for alcohol and cannabis dependence
- P had a higher prevalence of amphetamine dependence

TABLE 2. Comparison of lifetime prevalence of substance dependence among females and males with lifetime exposure to substances in the NESARC 2001–2002

Substance	Female (% [CI])	Male (% [CI])	Unadjusted OR [†] (CI)	Adjusted OR ^{†,‡} (CI)
Heroin	25.6 (14.7–40.6)	29.1 (20.7–39.2)	1.20 (0.54–2.66)	1.24 (0.51-3.00)
Cocaine	17.8 (14.8–21.1)	15.0 (13.0–17.3)	0.82 (0.62–1.07)	0.85 (0.65-1.11)
Cannabis	5.3 (4.5–6.3)	7.0 (6.1–8.1)	1.35 (1.08–1.68)	1.37 (1.09–1.72)
Nicotine*	40.6 (39.1–42.1)	32.3 (36.4–39.7)	0.90 (0.83-0.97)	0.97 (0.89-1.05)
Alcohol	10.3 (9.6–11.1)	19.6 (18.6-20.8)	2.13 (1.96-2.30)	2.27 (2.09–2.47)
Hallucinogens	3.1 (2.1-4.6)	4.8 (3.4–6.6)	1.56 (0.89-2.72)	1.52 (0.87-2.66)
Inhalants	2.5 (1.0-6.0)	2.2 (1.0-4.7)	0.85 (0.25-2.88)	0.76 (3.16-3.58)
Sedatives	6.6 (4.8-8.9)	5.8 (4.2–7.9)	0.88 (0.54-1.43)	0.96 (0.60-1.55)
Tranquilizers	7.7 (5.5–10.7)	5.9 (4.0-8.4)	0.74 (0.44-1.26)	0.79 (0.47-1.33)
Opioids	7.9 (6.0–10.4)	6.8 (4.9–9.2)	0.84 (0.55-1.29)	0.86 (0.55-1.32)
Amphetamines	17.6 (14.1–21.7)	10.2 (8.0–12.9)	0.53 (0.36-0.78)	0.55 (0.37-0.81)

All percentages are weighted.

CI, Confidence interval; OR, Odds ratio.

^{*}Lifetime exposure to nicotine was defined as at least 100 cigarettes smoked; †Female is the reference group (OR = 1.0); ‡Adjusted for age, race, educational level, household income, marital status, urbanicity, and region.

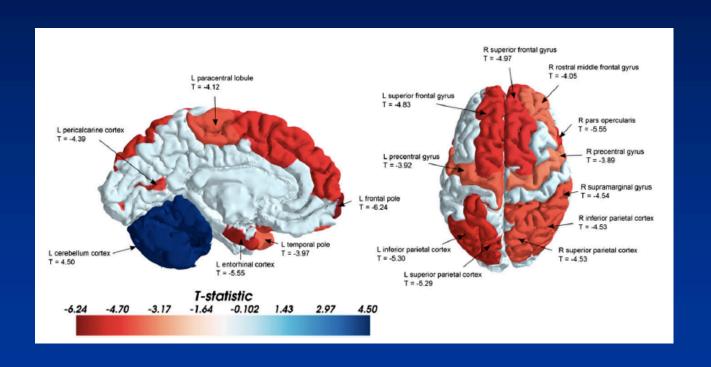
^{*}prescription opioids

Sex differences in the structural connectome of the human brain

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• Addiction is a chronic relapsing mental health disorder

- Stigma
- Retention is higher for ? in the medical field, but not in addiction



Demographic and clinical differences

- with SUD are more likely to
 - come from families where members are addicted
 - be in relationships with drug-abusing partners
 - experience more affective disorders (♂: criminal behaviour)
 - support their addiction through prostitution (: robbery, burglary...)





Tuchman, E. (2010). Women and addiction: The importance of gender issues in substance abuse research. *Journal of addictive diseases*, 29(2), 127-138.

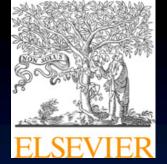
• Gender & sex sensitive approaches may be the first steps in the direction of *truly personalized* medicine

what, after all, is more personal than sex.









peripartum pain management in opioid maintained women

Following cesarean delivery opioid maintained $\frac{1}{2}$ received significantly less opioid analgesics (day of delivery p = 0.038; day 1: p = 0.02), NSAIDs were administered more frequently than to the comparison group during cesarean section and postpartum.

Hoeflich A, Langer M, Jagsch R, Baewert A, Winklbaur B, Fischer G., Unger A.,: Peripartum pain management in opioid dependent women. European Journal of Pain 16 (4) (2012)



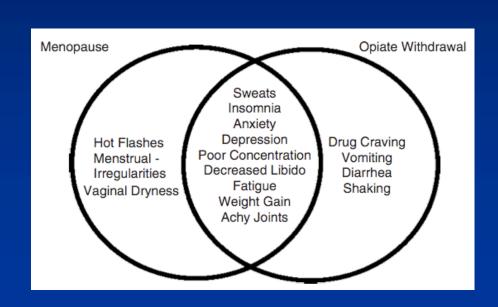
who abuse prescription opioids:

29,906 US adults entering substance abuse treatment

	Gender Differences		Limitations
•	P more likely to use and abuse prescription opioids	•	Some important risk factors not assessed; smoking, medical/psychiatric diagnoses
•	♀ prefer fast-release, ♂ prefer extended-release	•	Cross-sectional design
•	Strongest predictor: prescription of pain medication	•	No causation can be concluded from correlations
•	Need gender-specific strategies for monitoring/prevention/Rx	•	Potential selection bias (treatment program attendees)
		•	Large number of associations examined (type I error?)
		•	Time frame used for obtaining covariates (past month)

Menopause symptoms of $\stackrel{\frown}{+}$ in MMT

- 15.6% of adults receiving treatment for opioid dependence in 2004 were >50 years old (up from 5.5% in 1994)¹
- High rates of vasomotor symptoms
- Mood overshadows classical menopause symptoms
- Multiplicity of symptomproducing entities²
- Need menopause research agenda for
 - ? in MMT

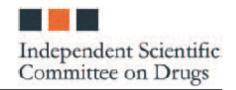


Barriers to teatment entry for women



- P view SUD more negatively and are more concerned about social stigma
- <u>Pregnancy:</u> massive stigma associated with SUD in pregnant $\frac{9}{7}$, lack of services for pregnant $\frac{9}{7}$, fear of losing custody, fear of prosecution; lack of available, affordable childcare
- More frequently than : inadequate health insurance, poverty
- Relationship with drug-abusing partner
- Less likely than \overline{O} to have active social support
- Treatment entry is less facilitated by social institutions (employers or criminal justice system) for \$\foperall

Tuchman, E. (2010). Women and addiction: The importance of gender issues in substance abuse research. *Journal of addictive diseases*, 29(2), 127-138.



Health-related and legal interventions: A comparison of allegedly delinquent and convicted opioid addicts in Austria

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Laura Brandt and Gabriele Fischer

Introduction

Opioid addiction is a significant public health, policy and law problem (Nutt et al., 2010), with >4% (12-month prevalence) of the general population in the EU suffering from alcohol and drug dependence (Wittchen et al., 2011). Substance-related addiction alone is the fifth most frequent and, with €65.7 billion/year, also the fifth most expensive psychiatric disorder in the EU (following mood disorders, dementia, psychotic and anxiety disorders). Yearly costs of

addiction in the EU are composed of €27.7 billion direct health care, €13.6 billion direct non-medical (expenses associated with the delivery of health care and health services, e.g. transportation) and €24.4 billion indirect costs of all resources used or lost due to illness (e.g. absenteeism from work), irrespective of paying source (Olesen et al., 2012).

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Table 2. Lifetime prevalences of psychiatric comorbidities in HRM groups

	Male	Female	Total	Р	OR
Serious depression	51 (59.3%)	9 (90.0%)	60 (62.5%)	0.084	0.16
Serious anxiety or tension	47 (54.7%)	9 (90.0%)	56 (58.3%)	0.042*	0.13
Problems understanding, concentrating or remembering	31 (36.1%)	6 (60.0%)	37 (38.5%)	0.177	0.38
Serious thoughts of suicide	38 (44.2%)	6 (60.0%)	44 (45.8%)	0.505	0.53
Attempted suicide	20 (23.3%)	3 (30.0%)	23 (24.0%)	0.699	0.71
Hallucinations	12 (14.0%)	I (10.0%)	13 (13.5%)	1.000	1.46
Problems controlling violent behaviour	41 (47.7%)	0 (0.0%)	41 (42.7%)	0.004**	-
Prescribed medication for any psychological/emotional problem	40 (46.5%)	8 (80.0%)	48 (50.0%)	0.045*	0.22

HRM: health-related measure, OR: odds ratio, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 of Fischer's exact test between gender and lifetime prevalence.

SUD & ADHD

- Recently, the co-occurrence of ADHD (attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder) and SUD has received attention
 - → Childhood ADHD persists during adulthood in 2/3 of cases (Lara et al., 2009)
 - → Prevalence of adult ADHD in SUD patients is reported around 23% (van Emmerik-van Oortmerssen et al., 2012)
- SUD patients with ADHD
 - Are younger at onset of substance abuse (Fatseas et al., 2016)
 - Have more severe forms of substance abuse (Kaye et al., 2014)
 - Engage into risk taking behavior more frequently (Young et al., 2015)
 compared to SUD patients without ADHD





Comorbidity Patterns Among Patients With Opioid Use Disorder and Problem Gambling: ADHD Status Predicts Class Membership

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Results

Sample characteristics of the three groups

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of problem gamblers and opioid maintenance treatment patients recruited from community and prison populations.

Characteristic	PrG (n = 80)	OMT-P (n = 142)	OMT-P prison (n = 133)	р	η²/Cramer's V ^a
Female gender, n (%)	16 (20.0)	55 (38.7)	29 (21.8)	.001	0.19
Age in years, M (SD)	43.11 (12.43)	35.86 (8.88)	35.71 (7.64)	<.001	0.10
In a relationship/married, n (%)	27 (33.8)	28 (19.7)	21 (15.9)	.007	0.17
Austrian citizenship, n (%)	52 (65.0)	137 (96.5)	100 (75.2)	<.001	0.33
Compulsory education or lower, n (%)	15 (18.8)	61 (43.0)	71 (54.1)	<.001	0.27
Full- or part-time employment, n (%) ^b	33 (41.3)	39 (27.4)	73 (54.9)	<.000	0.26

^aIn case of continuous outcome variables (age), η^2 is reported. Effect sizes of $\eta^2 \ge 0.02$ signified small, $\eta^2 \ge 0.06$ medium, and $\eta^2 \ge 0.14$ large effects. In case of categorical variables Cramer V is reported. Effect sizes of <0.3 indicate small, 0.3–0.4 medium, and >0.4 large effects.

^bIn case of OMT-P in prison, this refers to the usual employment pattern in the three years prior to imprisonment.

Results

Adult ADHD

Prevalence of ADHD persistent into adulthood

PrG: 12.5%

OMT patients from the community: 14.8%

OMT patients from prisons: 17.3%

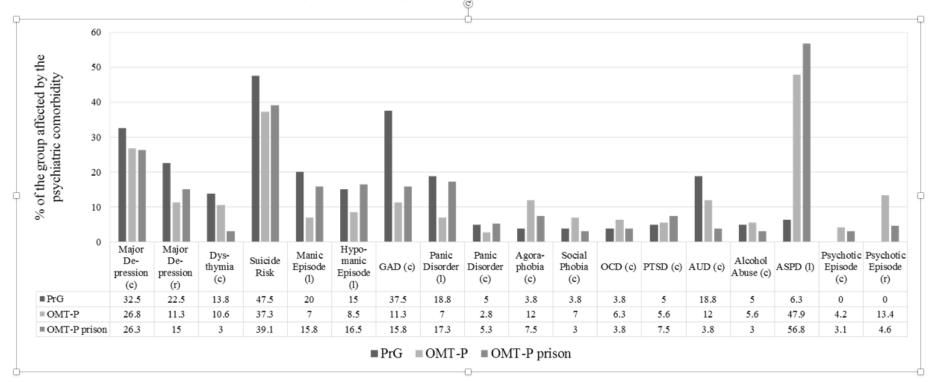
For comparison:

Adult ADHD in the general population has a globally estimated prevalence of 2.5% (Simon et al., 2009)

Results con't

Psychiatric comorbidities according to group of patients (prevalence in %)

Figure 1. Psychiatric comorbidities by group: Problem gamblers (PrG, N = 80), opioid-maintenance treatment patients recruited from the community (OMT-P, N = 142), and OMT-P in prison (OMT-P prison, N = 133)



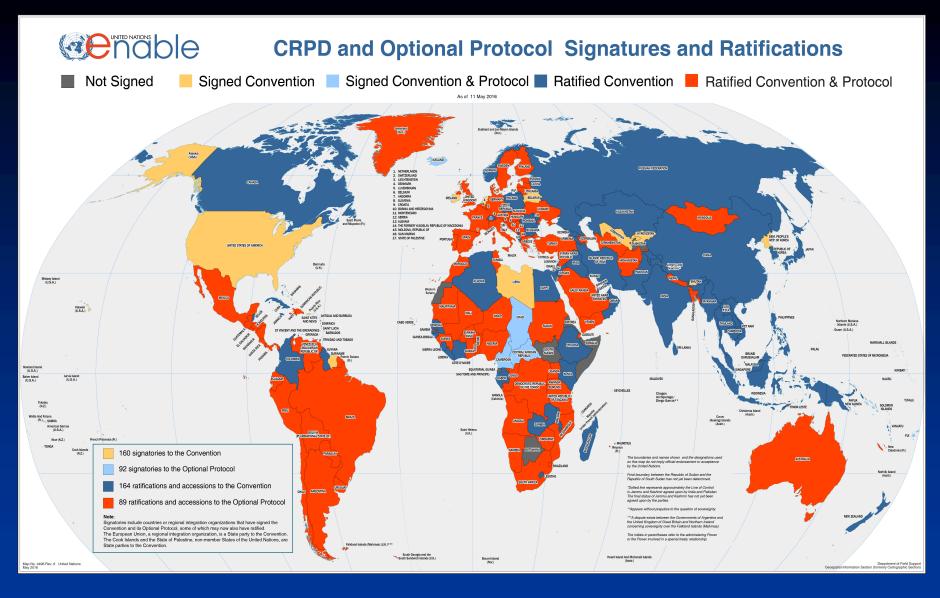
(c): current; (r): recurrent; (l): lifetime; GAD: Generalized Anxiety Disorder; OCD: Obsessive Compulsive Disorder; PTSD: Posttraumatic Stress Disorder; AUD: Alcohol Use Disorder; ASPD: Antisocial Personality Disorder

Gender differences & gambling disorder

Individuals with gambling disorder have an increased mortality:

→ 1.8-fold (age group 20-74 years) compared to the general population

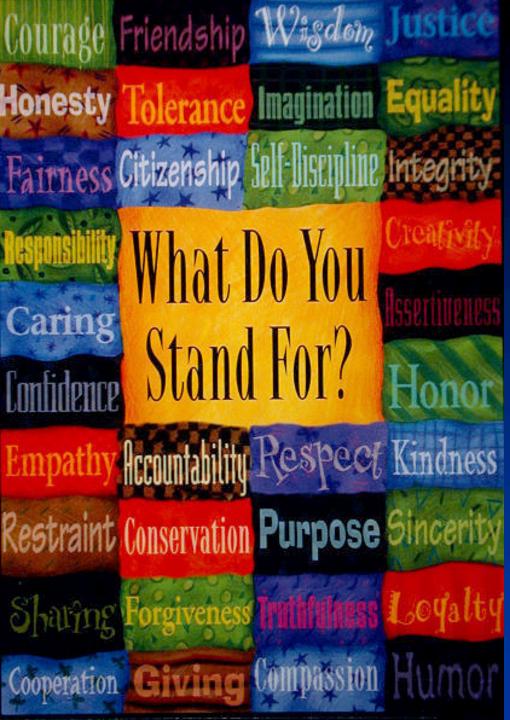
- \rightarrow Gender differences: \bigcirc (1.5 fold increase) vs. \bigcirc (2.1-fold increase)
- → In younger patients (20-49 years) the mortality risk increases even further to a 6.2-fold compared to the general population
 - Also the "gender gap" increases:
 - 4.6- fold for **?** vs. 10.5- fold for **?**



Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD)

Accordingly, article 1 CRPD states:

Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, *mental*, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others (emphasis added).



...and evidence-based medicine