Understanding Chronic Pain in Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorders

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<u>OVERVIEW</u>

DEVELOPMENT OF CHRONIC PAIN

 ASSESSING PAIN IN INDIVIDUALS WITH ASD

 POSSIBLE REASONS FOR PAIN IN INDIVIDUALS WITH ASD

• EVALUATION AND TREATMENT IMPLICATIONS

Chronic Pain

 Continued visceral or somatic sensory central nervous system noxious input related to injury, infection, metabolic disease, inflammation, or structural changes (e.g bowel obstruction)

 Dysregulated integration of pain transmission and inhibitory systems (e.g. irritable bowel disorder: neuroenteric dysregulation)

Pain Assessment

Verbal: pain ratings, descriptors

- Behavior:
 - Crying
 - Withdrawal
 - Avoidance of movement
 - Protection of a body part
 - Irritablity

Pain Assessment

Physiologic:

Tachycardia

-Increased BP

High stress hormones

Increased beta endorphin

Pain Assessment

 Chronic pain responses can be different from acute pain responses: e.g. flat cortisol response

Difficulties in communication

 Narrowed focus of interest (which may become the pain)

 Limited array of self-soothing or means of coping with pain

 May respond to stress with self-injurious or aggressive behaviors

May have co-morbid anxiety

 Difficulties filtering sensory stimuli, increasing overall arousal and making pain worse.

 Communication about the personal experience of chronic pain is complicated and difficult in ASD

 Interpreting pain behavior in ASD is complicated, since the setting/environment can influence pain behaviors which can be more global or stereotypic than pain specific

 Are there inherent differences in pain sensitivity in individuals with ASD and how do we know?

Pain Assessment in Autism 73 ASD children/adolescents vs 115 controls

- Behavioral, physiological (heart rate: HR), and plasma beta-endorphin (BE) pain responses
- Matched for age, sex, pubertal status
- 3 settings: home, school, during a venipuncture

Response to venipuncture:

- Higher plasma BE and HR in ASD vs controls (both p<0.05)
- Absent/low behavioral reactivity in ASD (41%) vs controls (9%)(p<0.0001)
- Correlation between serum BE and HR Tordiman et al; PLoS One, 2009

- Dissonance between pain sensitivity and pain reactivity:
 - Increased plasma BE levels and heart rates in ASD vs controls despite less behavioral reactivity in ASD vs controls
- Setting impacts pain reactivity:
 - 22% ASD normally reactive to venipuncture vs
 - 78% ASD normally reactive to burning (home)

Tordiman et al; PLoS One, 2009

 ASD individuals may experience more ongoing stress than controls

 Higher plasma BE than in controls: plasma (not central) BE as a stress response hormone

Venipuncture pain reactions videotaped in 21 ASD & 22 control children

Parent observer reports of pain

Coded facial activity (objective behavioral measure of pain)

Nader et al; Clin J Pain. 2004

Pain Assessment in ASD Results:

- facial pain reactivity: ASD > controls
- Parent ratings of behavior: no sig difference between ASD & control parents
- No concordance betw parental reports & observed pain responses
 - Concordance: controls > ASD

Nader et al; Clin J Pain. 2004

Pain Sensitivity

 ASD children have more tactile, taste/smell sensory abnormalities and sensory filtering problems than do other children with developmental delays (Wiggins, et al 2009)

Pain Sensitivity

 Sig difference between ASD and controls in presence/frequency of sensory symptoms

greatest difference in under-responsivity,
 followed by over-responsivity and
 sensation seeking (Ben-Sasson et al, 2009)

 Sensory abnormalities very common in young children with autism (Klintwall et al, 2011)

Pain Assessment Summary

ASD individuals do not have decreased sensitivity to pain

Less support for opioid theories of autism

absence of real endogenous analgesia

absence of clear benefits of opiate antagonist therapies

 inconsistent results of studies measuring central opioid levels in autism

Pain Assessment Summary

 Enhanced biological and physiological stress responses are dissociated from observable emotional and behavioral reactions

 Large population based longitudinal study in Norway 6-9 and 11-13 year olds: ASD vs controls

Sleep problems 10 times higher in ASD then in controls

- **Contributors to Pain in ASD: Sleep Problems**
- Sleep problems increased over time: at wave 2 of cohort 37.5% in ASD vs 8.6% in controls

 Sleep problems more persistent over time: remission rate 8.3% in ASD vs 52.4% in controls

 Conclusion: Sleep is a sig problem in ASD and insufficient restorative sleep impacts pain sensitivity and tolerance

- Parent-rated questionnaire in 137 children with ASD and 112 healthy controls (Smith et al, 2009)
 - Bowel problems: 35% ASD vs 4% controls
- Questionnaire based survey of 412 children with autism vs cohort of 43 age-matched siblings (Horvath et al, 2002)
 - 84% ASD vs 31% controls had ≥ 1 bowel symptoms

Medical records evaluated in 137 children in an autism clinic for history of bowel symptoms

– 24% with ≥ 1 chronic bowel symptom

Most common symptoms: diarrhea and constipation

- 2% with pain (via medical record)

Molloy et al, 2003

- Lactase deficiency not associated with intestinal inflammation or injury is common in autistic children and may contribute to abdominal pain
 - 65% of 199 ASD children with lactase deficiency
 - Lactase activity declined with age (p<0.02)
 - Boys had 1.7 fold lower lactase activity than girls
 - On biopsies only 6% had intestinal inflammation

 Gastrointestinal problems with motility, sensitivity, and/or allergies are common in individuals with autism

Visceral hyperalgesia likely common in this population

 Pain with eating or defecation can lead to food aversion or chronic constipation

Abdominal pain can lead to ongoing altered behaviors

Recommendations of a pediatric autism consensus conference

 Considering pain and look for medical reasons for pain in individuals with autism who have changes in behavior ("setting event")

 When medical evaluations, especially of the gastrointestinal tract, are negative for defined pathology, visceral hyperalgesia should be considered as a cause of abdominal pain

Oxytocin (OT), Pain & Autism

Converging evidence that OT increases trust, empathy, eye contact, face memory, and generosity (Domes et al., 2007b; Guastella et al., 2008; Kosfeld et al., 2005; Savaskan et al., 2008; Zak et al., 2005; Zak et al., 2007)

OT reduces the amygdala activation following threatening stimuli (Kirsch et al., 2005)

OT effect on amygdala activation more evident in response to social threats (faces) (Kirsch et al., 2005)

Oxytocin (OT), Pain & Autism

Marked reduction in OT in children with autism relative to age matched controls (Modahl et al., 1998)

Relative to placebo, OT administered intranasally to high functioning autistic patients improved eye contact, social memory, and use of social information (Andari et al.; Guastella et al., 2009a; Hollander et al., 2007; Hollander et al., 2003)

Females have greater OT than males Autism males 3:1 females

Oxytocin, Social Support and Pain

- Social support has been shown to be a buffer for stress and for pain
- If individuals with autism have lower levels of oxytocin and difficulties in utilizing social support, one key pain buffer is unavailable to people with autism
- Autism may be a risk factor for development of chronic pain in part because of inability to access a key environmental component of pain reduction, social support

 There is a disconnect between biological and behavioral pain responses

 Apparent hyposensitivity reflects behavioral dissonance with pain experience

-Parents report high levels of GI concerns (e.g. constipation, diarrhea) but lower concerns about pain (in questionnaires)

 Parents, caretakers, medical personnel may not be the best reporters of pain in individuals with autism

- Difference in pain expression compared to non-autistic individuals is related to difficulties with:
 - verbal communication
 - body representation
 - problems representing sensations and emotions
 - problems establishing cause-effect relationships

High prevalence of GI symptoms in autistic individuals

Hi prevalence of lactase deficiency but low prevalence of GI inflammation

 Suggestion of high prevalence of visceral hyperalgesia and irritable bowel syndrome in autism

 Neuroenteric dysregulation leading to hypersensitivity of intestinal tract (functional abdominal pain) or pain with constipation, diarrhea and/or other GI symptoms (IBS)

 Self-injurious behaviors may be behavioral manifestions of experienced pain (attempts at reducing pain by creating other pain: as in descending noxious inhibitory control or DNIC)

 Oxytocin may play role in pain networks in individuals with autism

 Pain may be a problem in autism also because of:

 High prevalence of visceral hyperalgesia causing abdominal pain

Difficulty filtering sensory stimuli

Perseveration on symptoms

Difficulties in self-soothing

 Obstacles to seeking social support to help reduce discomfort

Increased anxiety and arousal that, in turn, increases pain

 Need to develop better methods of assessing pain in autistic individuals and treatments aimed at potential mechanisms

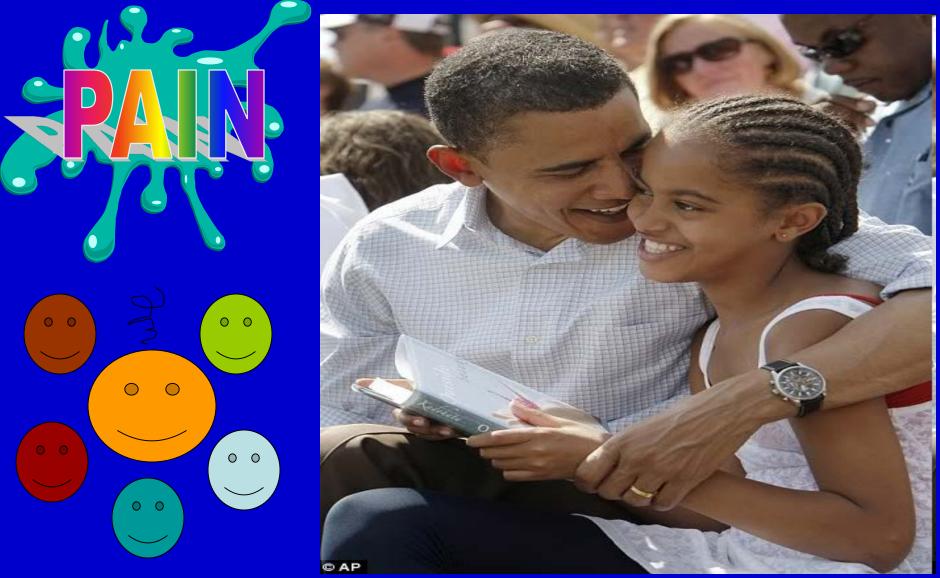
 Need to target pharmacological therapies at pain and anxiety, as well as reducing perseveration, which leads to more anxiety and more focus on the pain

 Pharmacotherapy of pain is complicated by high incidence of side effects and need to start in very low doses

Complementary Medicine

- Hypnotherapy
- Acupuncture
- Iyengar Yoga
- Biofeedback
- Massage Therapy
- Relaxation Training
- Art Therapy
- Music, Dance,
- Drama, Writing
- Meditation





Family support is key to good pain management in individuals with autism