

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

## On the challenges of hair testing to detect underreported substance use in research settings

### This is the author's manuscript

*Original Citation:*

*Availability:*

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1950390> since 2024-01-04T14:34:06Z

*Published version:*

DOI:10.1080/00952990.2023.2166414

*Terms of use:*

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)



Published in final edited form as:

*Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse*. 2023 January 02; 49(1): 1–4. doi:10.1080/00952990.2023.2166414.

## On the challenges of hair testing to detect underreported substance use in research settings

Joseph J. Palamar<sup>a</sup>, Alberto Salomone<sup>b,c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Population Health, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA;

<sup>b</sup>Department of Chemistry, University of Turin, Turin, Italy;

<sup>c</sup>Centro Regionale Antidoping, Orbassano (TO), Italy

### Keywords

Hair testing; cannabis; alcohol

In a new manuscript published in *the American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, Wade et al. examined the concordance between self-reported substance use and hair test results among a large sample of adolescents (1). This important study is among the first to compare hair test results to self-report in a large sample of adolescents (mean age = 11). Findings suggest that 10% of adolescents reported past-year psychoactive substance use and a mostly non-overlapping 10% tested positive for such substances.

We thank the authors for conducting this study and for properly acknowledging the various strengths and limitations of self-report and hair testing. In this commentary, we discuss some of this study's findings and expand upon some of the noted limitations. We further discuss two challenges to hair testing when used in epidemiology studies; the first is the ability of hair testing to detect two of the most common substances – alcohol and cannabis, the second is the feasibility of collecting analyzable hair samples.

### Hair analysis and substance use detection capability

Compared to more commonly collected biospecimens such as urine, blood, and saliva, hair is unique in that it allows for many substances and their metabolites to be detected for many months post-exposure (2). However, there are some limitations to detection when using hair testing. An often-unacknowledged limitation is that exposure to psychoactive substances is typically not detectable within the first 1–2 weeks post-exposure. Therefore, while hair can allow us to detect exposure to substances within a wide window of time, it typically does not allow us to detect very recent use. Indeed, exposure to substances can typically be detected in urine, blood, and saliva within a few days post-exposure, but despite being able to detect

<sup>✉</sup> CONTACT Joseph J. Palamar joseph.palamar@nyulangone.org @JosephPalamar Department of Population Health, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, 180 Madison Avenue, Room 1752, New York, NY 10016.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

current use, this is a much smaller detection window (3,4). As such, hair may arguably be among the best toxicological measures to indicate past-year substance use.

Another limitation of hair testing is varying sensitivity to detect exposure to different substances. Compared to urine testing, which is the most common method of biospecimen testing, hair testing appears to be superior in detecting exposure to substances such as cocaine and oxycodone (5). However, hair testing is less sensitive than other measures (e.g., urine testing) in detecting sporadic use of more common substances such as alcohol and cannabis (5,6). We stress this limitation because these were the two most prevalent substances in Wade et al.'s study. While hair test results from this study appeared to under-detect only about 2–3% of self-reported use of alcohol and cannabis, it is unknown to what extent detection was missed for use that was underreported (as drug use is commonly underreported in research). In contrast to the under-detection of reported use of opioids and stimulants being <1%, the under-detection of alcohol and cannabis was likely underestimated because hair testing is not the most efficacious in detecting lower frequency and lower volume use of these two substances (5–7).

While the authors did not appear to report the prevalence of adolescents self-reporting use or testing positive, 3% reported cannabis use and 6.1% of a largely non-overlapping sample tested positive, suggesting about 9% used cannabis based on self-report and toxicology results. This is lower than estimated prevalence of past-year cannabis use among 8<sup>th</sup> graders participating in the 2019 United States *Monitoring the Future (MTF) National Survey* (11.8%) (8). With respect to alcohol use, while 54% of adolescents in the sample reported having sipped alcohol, only 3% reported consuming one or more full drinks, and only 1.9% tested positive for alcohol exposure despite the range of concentrations being compatible with occasional consumption (9). Again, assuming largely non-overlapping prevalence as suggested by the authors, only about 5% are estimated to have engaged in consumption of full drinks. Yet, 19.3% of 8<sup>th</sup> graders in 2019 MTF were estimated to have consumed “more than just a few sips” of alcohol in the past year (and 6.6% were estimated to have gotten drunk) (8). It is unknown, however, how 8<sup>th</sup> graders interpret “more than just a few sips.” Results are more in line with estimates of adolescents age 12–13 participating in the 2019 *National Survey of Drug Use and Health (NSDUH)* (10), in which 5.3% were estimated as having consumed a full alcoholic beverage that year (11). The true prevalence of use in this age group is likely somewhere *in between* NSDUH and MTF estimates as adolescents participating in NSDUH may underreport use given that a guardian is home with them during survey administration, and MTF, which is conducted in schools, may be subject to overreporting, in part, due to mischievous responding which is common among adolescents, particularly in school settings (12,13). Either way, these national prevalence estimates of students in the same age group may further suggest underreporting and/or under-detection of exposure via hair testing. We do believe, though, that potential under-detection would have been even more severe if the authors relied on urine-, blood-, or saliva-testing in this sample as such tests would typically only detect use within the few days prior to assessment. Ultimately, adding one of these tests with shorter detection windows to hair testing would certainly improve detection power (14).

In addition, it is not clear whether the analytical procedure used by the laboratory was sensitive enough to identify traces of exposure to a substance, namely a single intake (15). In such epidemiological studies, it might be convenient and more informative to set the limit of detection as the minimum criterion to establish use of a certain substance. The length of participant hair must also be congruent with the timeframe of interest. For example, very short hair that allows for (say) a four-month detection window will inevitably under-detect use that was closer to a year from assessment.

## Hair analysis efficacy and feasibility of collecting and analyzing quality samples

In many respects, hair collection is more feasible than collection of blood or urine. Extensive training typically is not needed, there is less of a need for protective equipment and sanitary conditions, collection is not painful or invasive, storage and shipping is less burdensome, and hair can often be collected quickly in any type of environment (2,16). Hair testing is also efficacious in comparison to urine testing as it also allows us to avoid individuals attempting to dilute their sample or submit someone else's sample. We believe feasibility, however, can at times be offset by low response rates, usability of samples, and cost of analysis. We briefly discuss these three limitations below.

Relatively low hair collection response rates have been a limitation in many studies (17–19). Hair response rates tend to be lower than response rates for collection of saliva or urine (20), although some epidemiology studies that did not appear to require a hair submission have, in fact, had overall response rates as high as 91% (21). We commend the study staff overseeing the study published by Wade et al. for being able to achieve a 68% hair collection response rate in which only 4% refused. Low response rates are driven by refusal to provide hair, and also by insufficient hair samples (discussed below) (5,17). In one of our earlier street-intercept survey studies, only 33% of participants provided a hair sample (16). The main reasons for refusing were lack of interest (21.0%), not enough time (19.8%), not wanting someone touching their hair (17.7%), and not wanting their hair cut in public (13.8%). Of course, every study is different, but researchers should consider adjusting their methods to counter specific reasons for refusal. For example, we also provided an option for body hair collection, but this method is likely not as applicable or allowable regarding adolescent populations.

Despite low refusal rates, among responders in the study published by Wade et al., 23% had insufficient hair to provide. This relates to our second noted limitation to feasibility – insufficient hair quantity – as discovered during collection or later before analysis (17–20). It appears that sufficient hair quantity is more of an issue in studies that do not require hair collection because when hair collection is an inclusion criterion the researcher likely ensures beforehand there is enough hair to collect. We have never required hair submissions in our nightclub epidemiology studies as this would affect generalizability of substance use estimates, but we, too, have learned that when hair collection is optional, many hair samples we collect do not meet our 20 mg criterion. For example, in one of our recent street-intercept surveys outside of nightclubs, only 27% provided a hair sample, and of these, only 65%

met our criteria for analysis. Anecdotally, many of our staff members collected samples that were too small because participants demonstrated fear that too much would be cut or that the cut will lead to a visible bald spot. The quantity issue is particularly relevant when – as per the Wade et al. study – several classes of compounds are screened, and eventually, confirmed. In this scenario, multianalyte screening and confirmation methods are becoming promising opportunities for large cohort studies (22–24). It should also be noted that there are typically differential response rates and rates of usability of samples according to demographic characteristics (e.g., race, sex) and substance use (16,20,21). This may also require special attention in hair analysis studies as this can further bias results.

Finally, with respect to limitations to hair analysis feasibility is cost. While testing for rare substances (e. g., new psychoactive substances) can be expensive regardless of the type of biospecimen used, testing for exposure to common substances can typically be done using relatively cheap disposable urine- or saliva-testing devices, although only recent use can be detected. The cost for hair testing – even when only focusing on the most common psychoactive substances – can easily be over \$100 per sample. The high cost of hair testing may be a reason why the authors of this study only analyzed a random sample of 6% of hair samples, focusing only on adolescents deemed low- or high-risk by an algorithm. Despite the respectable method of choosing which samples to analyze, however, the authors described a “surprising” finding that there was a higher-than-expected prevalence of substance detection (including cocaine use) among those deemed low risk. This is informative as it serves to remind us that, when possible, all available samples should be analyzed instead of a small subset (e.g., deemed to be high-risk). Although, it would likely be extremely expensive for the authors to analyze all of the >22,000 samples collected in their study. We have also limited some of our own toxicology analyses to detect unintentional synthetic cathinone (“bath salt”) adulteration to subsamples of people reporting ecstasy use (25,26), but the surprising finding by Wade et al. reminds us that our results are likely biased as we did not analyze hair samples for those denying ecstasy use who might have actually used.

## Conclusion

Given adequate hair length, hair testing can detect exposure to psychoactive substances within wide time-frames – much wider than with urine, blood, and saliva. However, hair testing cannot detect very recent exposure, and infrequent cannabis use in particular can be difficult to detect. Ultimately, a researcher’s decision to use hair testing instead of other biological testing should depend on the type of population being studied. Hair testing appears to be much more efficacious when focusing on high-risk populations that report frequent substance use. But regardless of the study population and keeping both the strengths and limitations of hair testing in mind, the combination of self-report and biological testing has again proved effective to investigate trends and patterns of substance use.

## Funding

The work was supported by the National Institute on Drug Abuse [R01DA044207]

## References

1. Wade N, Sullivan R, Tapert S, Pelham W, Huestis M, Lisdahl K, Haist F. Concordance between substance use self-report and hair analysis in community-based adolescents. *Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse*. 2023; in press.
2. Kintz P, Salomone A, Vincenti M. *Hair analysis in clinical and forensic toxicology*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press; 2015.
3. Verstraete AG. Detection times of drugs of abuse in blood, urine, and oral fluid. *Ther Drug Monit*. 2004;26:200–05. doi:10.1097/00007691-200404000-00020. [PubMed: 15228165]
4. Musshoff F, Madea B. Review of biologic matrices (urine, blood, hair) as indicators of recent or ongoing cannabis use. *Ther Drug Monit*. 2006;28:155–63. doi:10.1097/01.ftd.0000197091.07807.22. [PubMed: 16628124]
5. Palamar JJ, Le A, Guarino H, Mateu-Gelabert P. A comparison of the utility of urine- and hair testing in detecting self-reported drug use among young adult opioid users. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2019;200:161–67. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2019.04.008. [PubMed: 31146203]
6. Lees R, Kingston R, Williams TM, Henderson G, Lingford-Hughes A, Hickman M. Comparison of ethyl glucuronide in hair with self-reported alcohol consumption. *Alcohol*. 2012;47:267–72. doi:10.1093/alcalc/ags010.
7. Gryczynski J, Schwartz RP, Mitchell SG, O'Grady KE, Ondersma SJ. Hair drug testing results and self-reported drug use among primary care patients with moderate-risk illicit drug use. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2014;141:44–50. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2014.05.001. [PubMed: 24932945]
8. Miech RA, Johnston LD, Patrick ME, O'Malley PM, Bachman JG, Schulenberg JE. *Monitoring the future national survey results on drug use, 1975–2022: secondary school students*. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan; 2023.
9. Pirro V, Di Corcia D, Seganti F, Salomone A, Vincenti M. Determination of ethyl glucuronide levels in hair for the assessment of alcohol abstinence. *Forensic Sci Int*. 2013;232:229–36. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2013.07.024. [PubMed: 24053885]
10. Substance Abuse Mental Health Services Administration. CBHSQ methodology report. In: *Comparing and evaluating youth substance use estimates from the national survey on drug use and health and other surveys*. Rockville (MD): Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (US); 2012.
11. Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality. *Results from the 2019 national survey on drug use and health: detailed tables*. Rockville, MD: Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration; 2020.
12. Robinson-Cimpian JP. Inaccurate estimation of disparities due to mischievous responders: several suggestions to assess conclusions. *Educ Res*. 2014;43:171–85. doi:10.3102/0013189X14534297.
13. Furlong MJ, Fullchange A, Dowdy E. Effects of mischievous responding on universal mental health screening: i love rum raisin ice cream, really I do! *Sch Psychol Q*. 2017;32:320–35. doi:10.1037/spq0000168.
14. Fendrich M, Johnson TP, Wislar JS, Hubbell A, Spiehler V. The utility of drug testing in epidemiological research: results from a general population survey. *Addiction*. 2004;99:197–208. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2003.00632.x. [PubMed: 14756712]
15. Kintz P. Value of the concept of minimal detectable dosage in human hair. *Forensic Sci Int*. 2012;218:28–30. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2011.10.018. [PubMed: 22018745]
16. Palamar JJ, Salomone A, Cleland CM, Sherman S. Willingness to provide a hair sample for drug testing among electronic dance music party attendees. *Subst Abuse*. 2019;40:116–23. doi:10.1080/08897077.2018.1469106.
17. Colon HM, Robles RR, Sahai H. The validity of drug use responses in a household survey in Puerto Rico: comparison of survey responses of cocaine and heroin use with hair tests. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2001;30:1042–49. doi:10.1093/ije/30.5.1042. [PubMed: 11689520]
18. Sharma G, Oden N, VanVeldhuisen PC, Bogenschutz MP. Hair analysis and its concordance with self-report for drug users presenting in emergency department. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2016;167:149–55. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2016.08.007. [PubMed: 27522871]

19. Palamar JJ, Salomone A, Keyes KM. Underreporting of drug use among electronic dance music party attendees. *Clin Toxicol.* 2021;59:185–92. doi:10.1080/15563650.2020.1785488.
20. Fendrich M, Johnson TP, Wislar JS, Hubbell A. Drug test feasibility in a general population household survey. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2004;73:237–50. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2003.09.004. [PubMed: 15036546]
21. Ford JL, Boch SJ, McCarthy DO. Feasibility of hair collection for cortisol measurement in population research on adolescent health. *Nurs Res.* 2016;65:249–55. doi:10.1097/NNR.000000000000154. [PubMed: 27124260]
22. Boumba VA, Di Rago M, Peka M, Drummer OH, Gerostamoulos D. The analysis of 132 novel psychoactive substances in human hair using a single step extraction by tandem LC/MS. *Forensic Sci Int.* 2017;279:192–202. doi:10.1016/j.forsciint.2017.08.031. [PubMed: 28910664]
23. Mannocchi G, Di Trana A, Tini A, Zaami S, Gottardi M, Pichini S, Busardò FP. Development and validation of fast UHPLC-MS/MS screening method for 87 NPS and 32 other drugs of abuse in hair and nails: application to real cases. *Anal Bioanal Chem.* 2020;412:5125–45. doi:10.1007/s00216-020-02462-6. [PubMed: 32062830]
24. Salomone A, Palamar JJ, Gerace E, Di Corcia D, Vincenti M. Hair testing for drugs of abuse and new psychoactive substances in a high-risk population. *J Anal Toxicol.* 2017;41:376–81. doi:10.1093/jat/bkx020. [PubMed: 28334805]
25. Palamar JJ, Salomone A, Vincenti M, Cleland CM. Detection of “Bath Salts” and other novel psychoactive substances in hair samples of ecstasy/MDMA/“Molly” users. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2016;161:200–05. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2016.02.001. [PubMed: 26883685]
26. Palamar JJ, Salomone A, Gerace E, Di Corcia D, Vincenti M, Cleland CM. Hair testing to assess both known and unknown use of drugs amongst ecstasy users in the electronic dance music scene. *Int J Drug Policy.* 2017;48:91–98. doi:10.1016/j.drugpo.2017.07.010. [PubMed: 28810159]