

## Analytical strategies in the detection of stimulants and narcotics in sports drug testing

Sachin Dubey<sup>1\*</sup>, Chandrakant P. Shinde<sup>2</sup>, Tejinder Kaur<sup>1</sup>, Alka Beotra<sup>1</sup>, Shila Jain<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>National Dope Testing Laboratory, Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports, JN Stadium Complex, Lodhi Road, New Delhi, (INDIA)

<sup>2</sup>School of studies in chemistry, Jiwaji University, Gwalior, (INDIA)

E-mail: sachindubey@ndtlindia.in

### ABSTRACT

The desire to win has led some athletes to resort to use of performance enhancing drugs since ancient times. The stimulants and narcotics represent one of the oldest classes of doping agents. The stimulants have a direct stimulating effect on the central nervous system (CNS), by increasing the excitation of brain and spinal cord, cardiac output and rate of metabolism. The four most notorious examples of stimulants that are used in sport are amphetamine, cocaine, ephedrine and caffeine. The narcotics are powerful pain killers like opiates buprenorphine, heroin, hydromorphone, morphine, oxymorphone, oxycodone, pethidine, dextromoramide, fentanyl and its derivatives. A critical overview of the contributions of analytical detection techniques viz. GC-NPD, GC-MSD and LC-MS/MS to testing of stimulants and narcotics in sports is provided, with special emphasis on mass spectrometry. The review also includes prevalence of misuse in sports of stimulants and narcotics.

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### KEYWORDS

Stimulants;  
Narcotics;  
Doping control;  
GC-NPD;  
GC-MS;  
LC-MS/MS.

### INTRODUCTION

The problem of drug abuse in sports in the modern age was first tackled by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in the 1960s, with the first definition of doping given in 1964 and the foundation of medical Commission in 1967. Later, the international agency to regulate and harmonize doping controls worldwide was established in 1999 as World Anti Doping Agency (WADA). The misuse of the performance enhancing substances/methods is prohibited by WADA and its prohibited list is updated on regular basis to ensure an environment of drug free

sports<sup>[1-4]</sup>.

The substances prohibited at all times (in- and out-of-competition) include Anabolic steroids, Hormones and related substances,  $\beta_2$ -agonists, Agents with anti-estrogenic activity, Diuretic and other masking agent. The methods prohibited at all times (in- and out-of-competition) include Enhancement of oxygen transfer, Chemical and physical manipulation and Gene doping. The substances prohibited in-competition include Stimulants, Narcotics, Cannabinoids, Glucocorticosteroids and the substances prohibited in particular sports include alcohol and  $\beta$ -blockers<sup>[5, 6]</sup>.

## Review

Drug testing is a highly complex task. The anti-doping laboratories are one of the most important element in the whole doping control process as they are responsible for producing reliable results. The analytical challenge for the experts working in the field of drug testing in sports is to improve the effectiveness of antidoping tests, which means to reduce as much as possible the percent of false-negative cases, avoiding at the same time the risk of any false-positive result<sup>[3, 7, 8]</sup>. The ongoing research in various areas to provide measures to combat doping is of equal importance for sporting community<sup>[9-11]</sup>.

### Stimulants & narcotics abuse in sports and their analytical aspects

#### Stimulants

Stimulants are substances, which have a direct stimulating effect on the central nervous system (CNS), because they mimic the adrenaline activity and enhance the cardiac rhythm. They are used therapeutically to increase or maintain alertness, to counteract fatigue, to counteract abnormal states that diminish alertness, consciousness to promote weight loss as well as to enhance the ability to concentrate in people diagnosed with attentional disruption (ADHD)<sup>[12, 13]</sup>.

The class of stimulants prohibited by the WADA<sup>[6]</sup> contains various agents with different structural features. Many of these compounds are derived from phenethylamine or phenylpropanolamine core structures and represent drugs such as amphetamine (1), methamphetamine (2), methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA, ecstasy) (3), or cathine (4), ephedrine (5), and metamfepramone (6). Additional alkaloids with stimulating properties are cocaine (7) and strychnine (8), which bear entirely different structures based on tropane and indole nuclei. Moreover, alkylamines such as tuaminoheptane (9) or 4-methylhexan-2-amine (10) as well as designer substances such as the hybrid of amphetamine and piracetam referred to as carphedone (11) were considered relevant for doping controls. For most of the stimulants the minimum required performance limit is 100 ng/ml. In contrast ephedrine, methylephedrine, and cathine

which are banned only when they exceed a urinary threshold level of 10 mg/ml (ephedrine and methylephedrine) or 5 mg/ml (cathine)<sup>[14]</sup>.

The first case of doping offence in sports as per modern regulations was recorded in 18<sup>th</sup> century for abuse of cocaine in race walking competition. During the earlier half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century with advancements of pharmacognosy, natural product & synthetic chemistry, isolation & production of various other natural origin as well as synthetic stimulants like strychnine, ephedrine was evidentiary<sup>[15, 16]</sup>. Since then, stimulants have been major problems in elite sports and numerous adverse analytical findings (AAFs) have been annually reported by doping control laboratories worldwide.

The WADA statistics of 2003 to 2013 is summarized in TABLE 1, indicating that in last 11 years 6.4-19% of all AAFs were related to drugs belonging to the class of stimulating agents. In 2003, more than 50% of doping offenses with stimulants were because of ephedrine and its stereoisomer pseudoephedrine. The latter was removed, together with caffeine, from the prohibited list at the end of 2003. In the following five years, amphetamine was constantly the most frequently detected stimulant, representing up to 54% of all AAFs resulting from stimulant misuse. However, it must be considered that various drugs categorized as stimulating agents metabolize to give amphetamine, which might contribute to and explain the prominent occurrence of amphetamine cases. The year 2010 brought a new substance "methylhexanamine" hitting the top of AAF% (21.4%) in stimulants which is constantly topping the list of AAFs in this category since then.

#### Detection methods for stimulants in doping controls

##### Gas chromatography, mass spectrometry/nitrogen-phosphorus specific detection

In the late 1950s, the capability of gas chromatography (GC) to separate compounds relevant for doping controls was recognized and introduced into sports drug testing to measure various classes of analytes, predominantly sympathomimetic amines<sup>[17-21]</sup>. Analyzers such as flame ionization and nitrogen-

TABLE 1 : Prevalence of misuse of stimulants in sports in 11 years (2003-2013)

Year	Total samples tested	Total AAFs	Total AAF stimulants	% AAF of stimulants	Top 5 drugs	% within drug class
2003	151210	2,716	516	19.0	Pseudoephedrine*	36.6
					Ephedrine	9.4
					Cocaine & metabolites	9.3
					Amphetamine	8.3
					Caffeine**	7.6
2004	169187	3,305	382	11.6	Amphetamine	29.3
					Ephedrine	26.7
					Cocaine & metabolites	19.6
					MDMA	3.9
					Phentermine	3.4
2005	183337	4,298	509	11.8	Amphetamine	38.1
					Ephedrine	18.3
					Cocaine & metabolites	16.7
					Methylphenidate	3.3
					Cathine	2.8
2006	198143	4,332	490	11.3	Amphetamine	40.6
					Cocaine & metabolites	17.3
					Ephedrine	13.5
					Methylphenidate	6.5
					Cathine	4.5
2007	223898	4,850	793	16.4	Amphetamine	54.2
					Cocaine & metabolites	12.7
					Ephedrine	6.3
					Methylphenidate	4.8
					Cathine	4.2
2008	274615	5,523	472	8.5	Amphetamine	35.2
					Cocaine & met	16.3
					Ephedrine	11.4
					Methylphenidate	8.5
					Sibutramine	3.6
2009	277928	5,084	325	6.4	Cocaine	18.5
					Ephedrine	13.5
					Methylphenidate	9.5
					Methylhexaneamine	9.5
					Amphetamine	8.3
2010	258,267	5,546	574	10.3	Methylhexaneamine	21.4
					Amphetamine	19.5
					Methylphenidate	12.7
					Cocaine	11.3
					Ephedrine	5.6
2011	243,193	5,600	718	12.8	Methylhexaneamine	39.4
					Amphetamine	18.5
					Methylphenidate	8.2
					Cocaine	5.6
					Ephedrine	4.6
2012	285,868	4,500	697	15.5	Methylhexaneamine	45.9
					Cocaine	8.5
					Amphetamine	8.3
					Methylphenidate	6.7
					Methamphetamine (D-)	4.4
2013	269,878	5,271	530	10	Methylhexaneamine	31.9
					Methylphenidate	12.5
					Cocaine	9.8
					Amphetamine	8.9
					Oxilofrine	4.2

\*\*Removed from WADA prohibited list in 2004 and re-introduced in 2009; \*Removed from WADA prohibited list in 2004; Data derived from WADA, Laboratory statistics, 2003-2013. Available at: <http://www.wada-ama.org> Accessed on 27<sup>th</sup> July 2014.

## Review

phosphorus detectors (FID and NPD, respectively) as well as ionization  $\beta$ -ray (strontium 90) or electron capture detectors were used, and sample extraction and concentration methodologies were mostly adapted from earlier purely “chemical” procedures. The need to improve GC properties of target analytes and to obtain supporting information that would provide additional confidence in analytical results led to the development of various derivatization strategies, which improved chromatographic peak shapes and yielded additional data characterizing a substance.

Trimethylsilylation (e.g., N-methyl-N-trimethylsilyltrifluoroacetamide [MSTFA]; acylation (e.g., acetic or heptafluorobutyric anhydride, bis[acylamide]); alkylation; formation of several Schiff-bases (eg, acetone-, propionaldehyde, benzyl methyl ketone-Schiff-bases); or preparation of mixed derivatives were used<sup>[22]</sup>. Seminal assays for doping controls were finally based on trimethylsilylation or acylation as established by Donike and coworkers<sup>[23-26]</sup>,

The enormous complexity of biologic matrices and the continuously increasing number of therapeutics have, however, necessitated more specific and unequivocal analyzers than for instance NPD and FID alone. This resulted in the frequent use of GC equipped with NPD plus mass spectrometry (MS), a combination that allows the exploitation of advantages provided by both analytical techniques simultaneously. MS is commonly operated using electron

ionization (EI), which frequently results in comprehensive fragmentation of analytes and thus hardly yields information on the molecular weight; however, the obtained EI mass spectra contain diagnostic ions and provide detailed information that enables the characterization and identification of target compounds. Moreover, various derivatives of stimulants have been shown to produce stable molecular ions also under EI conditions.

As an example, the proposed dissociation pathway of ephedrine, which gives rise to an EI mass spectrum is depicted in Figure 1 which states that the molecular ion  $[M^+]$  is hardly or not observed in mass spectra after EI. However, the elimination of a hydrogen atom yields the ion at  $m/z$  164 in case of ephedrine. The subsequent loss of water (- 18 Da) gives rise to  $m/z$  146. The fragment ions at  $m/z$  117 and 115 result from further dissociation of  $m/z$  146, that eliminates HCN (- 27 Da) and one or two hydrogen molecules, respectively.

### Liquid chromatography–(tandem) mass spectrometry

The considerable proton affinity of amines, has enabled the use of robust and sensitive instruments composed of liquid chromatography (LC) combined with (tandem) mass spectrometers (LC-MS/MS) to detect and quantify stimulants in doping controls<sup>[27]</sup>. The analytes are commonly ionized by means of electrospray ionization (ESI) that yields a protonated molecule  $[M+H]^+$ . Subsequent collision-induced

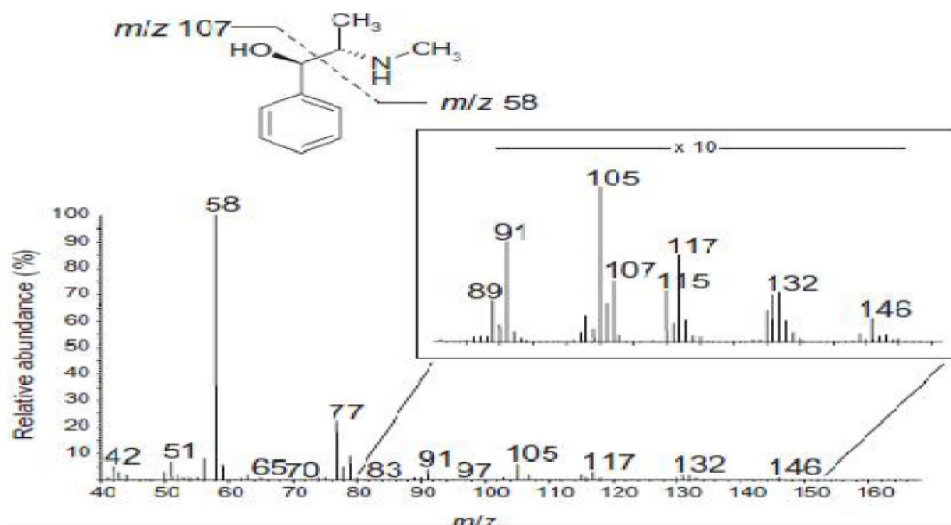


Figure 1 : EI mass spectra of (a) ephedrine (mol wt = 165) with an inset enlarging the region  $m/z$  80 – 150

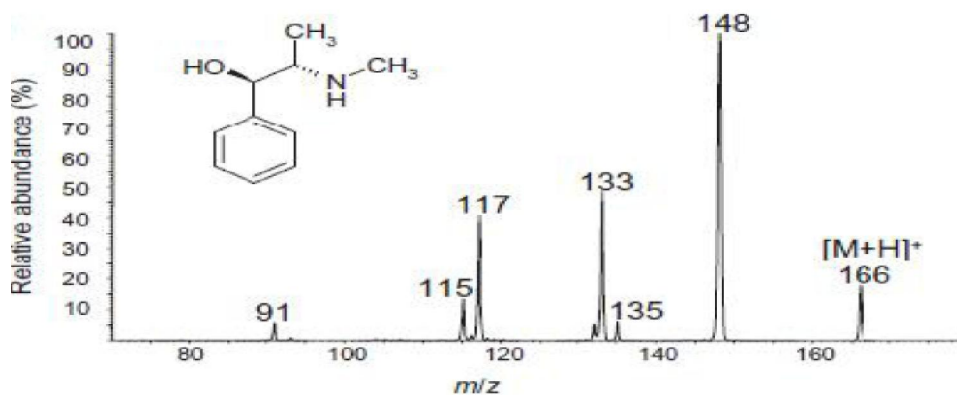


Figure 2 : ESI product ion mass spectra of protonated molecules  $[M+H]^+$  of ephedrine (mol.wt. =165)

dissociation (CID) of  $[M+H]^+$  gives rise to product ion mass spectra that allow the sensitive and specific analysis of numerous stimulants with the advantages that the intact molecular ion is recorded in addition to diagnostic product ions and that no derivatization is required even in case of heavy volatile or thermolabile analytes. The positive ESI yielded informative product ion mass spectra for ephedrine as shown in Figure 2.

### Narcotics

The narcotic analgesics are derived from opium, which in turn is derived from the poppy plant (*Papaver somniferum*). They act on the CNS & surrounding tissues by stimulating opioid receptors and reduce feelings of pain. Narcotic analgesics have been and are abused in sports, and therefore the IOC medical commission has issued a ban on their use during the Olympic Games in 1967<sup>[2]</sup>. These drugs are widely used to provide relief from pain, hence their use, misuse and abuse potential in sports may be high because of pressure on the athlete to perform competitively despite varied musculoskeletal injuries. They are listed as banned substances in competition but are permitted when out of competition. There is a strict legal control over most narcotics because of high potential for addiction. The exception to this control is codeine, which is widely available in variety of medications such as cough syrups and cold remedies. Generally, the level of codeine in these medications is too low to produce the adverse effects.

The WADA statistics of 2003 to 2013 for narcotics is summarized in TABLE 2, indicating that in last 11 years 0.4-1 % of all AAFs were related to

drugs belonging to the class of narcotic agents. Since 2003 till date, morphine has topped the list of most abused narcotic.

### Detection methods for narcotics in doping controls

#### Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry detection

The most common method for screening of these drugs in urine is liquid-liquid extraction (LLE) or solid-phase extraction (SPE) for sample preparation, followed by derivatization of the polar functional groups and analysis of the extract by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). Screening methods for the analysis of conjugated narcotic agents using GC-MS require derivatising agents to generate the required number of three diagnostic ions characterizing the detected substance. In doping control most often *N*-methyl-*N*-trimethylsilyltrifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) is used creating *O*-TMS functionalities. Moreover, MSTFA is frequently combined with *N*-methylbistrifluoroacetamide (MBTFA) resulting in *N*-TFA functionalities<sup>[28, 29]</sup>. Although, the properties of GC and instability of some derivatives may limit the use of GC-MS for routine analysis of narcotics in doping control,<sup>[30, 31]</sup> which led to the development of alternative techniques for screening of narcotics in doping control.

The mass spectrometric behavior of morphine shows that the initial ionization of morphine takes place at the nitrogen atom, which induces typical  $\alpha$ -cleavages as and concurrent rearrangement and fragmentation pathways yields the most abundant ions

## Review

TABLE 2 : Prevalence of misuse of narcotics in sports in 11 years (2003-2013)

Year	Total samples tested	Total AAFs	Total AAF narcotics	% AAF of narcotics	Top 5 drugs	% within drug class
2003	151,210	2,716	26	1	Morphine	84.6
					Pethidine	7.7
					Hyromorphone	3.8
					Methadone	3.8
					--	--
2004	169,187	3,305	15	0.5	Morphine	66.7
					Methadone	13.3
					Dextromoramide	6.7
					Hydromorphone	6.7
					Oxycodone	6.7
2005	183,337	4,298	17	0.4	Morphine	88.2
					Methadone	5.9
					Hydromorphone	5.9
					--	--
					--	--
2006	198,143	4,332	16	0.4	Morphine	68.8
					Methadone	18.8
					Hydromorphone	6.3
					Pethidine	6.3
					--	--
2007	223,898	4,850	21	0.4	Morphine	90.5
					Methadone	4.8
					Hydromorphone	4.8
					--	--
					--	--
2008	274,615	5,523	28	0.5	Morphine	75
					Methadone	7.1
					Hydromorphone	7.1
					Heroin	3.6
					Oxycodone	3.6
2009	277,928	5,084	24	0.5	Morphine	70.8
					Oxycodone	16.7
					Methadone	4.2
					Hydromorphone	4.2
					Buprenorphine	4.2
2010	258,267	5,546	20	0.4	Morphine	30.5
					Oxycodone	15
					Methadone	10
					Hydromorphone	10
					Buprenorphine	10
2011	243,193	5,600	20	0.4	Morphine	55
					Methadone	30
					Oxycodone	10
					Hydromorphone	5
					--	--
2012	285,868	4,500	26	0.6	Morphine	53.8
					Oxycodone	23.1
					Fentanyl & derivatives	19.2
					Methadone	3.8
					--	--
2013	269,878	5,271	43	0.8	Morphine	58.1
					Oxycodone	14
					Methadone	11.6
					Fentanyl & derivatives	9.3
					Buprenorphine	4.7

Data derived from WADA, Laboratory statistics, 2003-2013. Available at: <http://www.wada-ama.org> Accessed on 27<sup>th</sup> July 2014

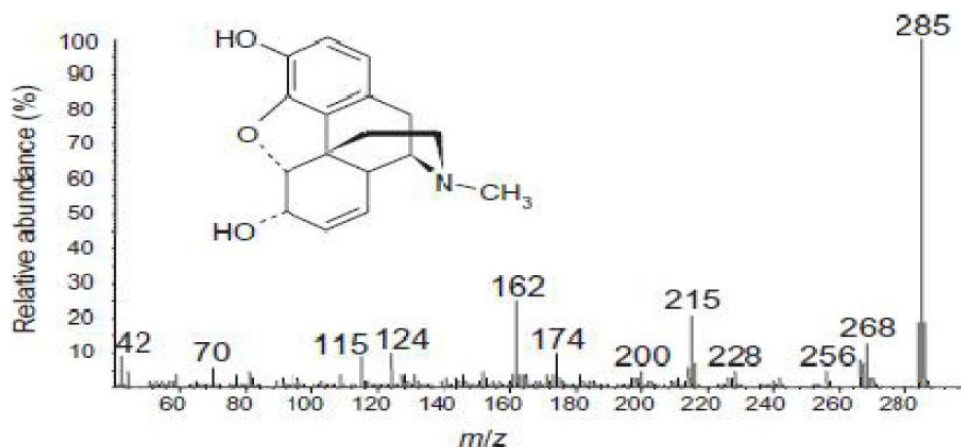


Figure 3 : EI mass spectra of morphine (mol wt = 285)

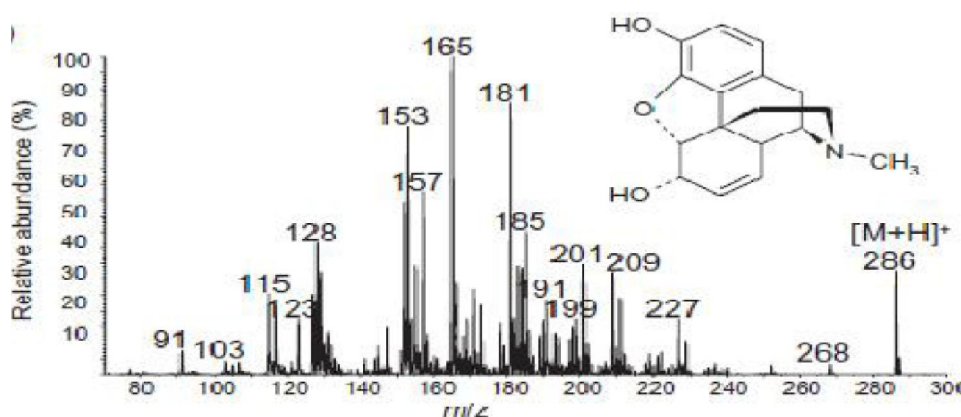


Figure 4 : ESI product ion mass spectra of protonated molecules  $[M+H]^+$  of morphine (mol. wt. =285)

as shown in the EI spectrum of morphine (Figure 3) yielding the ions at  $m/z$  268, 215, 174, 162, 124, 115, and 70.

### Liquid chromatography–(tandem) mass spectrometry

The high proton affinity of most narcotics such as morphine and related compounds (e.g., heroin, buprenorphine) or the synthetic opioids pethidine, fentanyl, and its derivatives allows the efficient ionization by means of ESI and, thus sensitive detection of the active drugs as well as major metabolites in doping control samples<sup>[32, 33]</sup>. The product ion mass spectrum of morphine is depicted in Figure 4, which illustrates the fragmentation of the protonated molecule after collisional activation.

### CONCLUSION

The use of stimulants and narcotics during competition is prohibited in sports since the very begin-

ning and the same is applicable as per 2015 WADA prohibited list. These drugs are known for their medicinal and recreational properties since ancient time. The analysis of stimulants and narcotics most frequently rely on gas chromatography coupled nitrogen–phosphorus detector (NPD) or mass spectrometric detector (MSD). However, LC–MS/MS has considerably influenced doping control analysis of stimulants and narcotics. This has led to reduced sample preparation efforts and significantly improved detection limits for the determination of stimulants and narcotics in doping control. The future major area of research interest is now focused on metabolic studies of stimulants and narcotics and improvement in their detection techniques employing high resolution mass spectrometry technique.

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## Review

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