

Addiction by Any Other Name is Still Addiction: Embracing Molecular Neurogenetic/Epigenetic Basis of Reward Deficiency

Drew Edwards¹, A. Kenison Roy III², Brent Boyett³, Rajendra D. Badgaiyan⁴⁻⁶, Panayotis K. Thanos⁷, David Baron⁸, Mary Hauser⁹, Sampada Badgaiyan¹⁰, Raymond Brewer¹⁰, David B. Siwicky¹⁰, William Downs¹¹, David E. Smith¹² and Kenneth Blum^{*3,8-11,13-15}

¹Drew Edwards & Associates, Lakeview, FL, USA

²Department of Psychiatry, Tulane University School of Medicine, New Orleans, LA, USA

³Division of Neuroscience & Addiction Therapy Research, Pathway Healthcare, LLC., Birmingham, AL, USA

⁴Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine Mt Sinai, New York, NY, USA

⁵Department of Psychiatry, South Texas Veteran Health Care System, Audie L. Murphy Memorial VA Hospital, San Antonio, TX, USA

⁶Long School of Medicine, University of Texas Medical Center, San Antonio, TX, USA

⁷Department of Psychology & Behavioral Neuropharmacology and Neuroimaging Laboratory on Addictions (BNNLA), Research Institute on Addictions, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY, USA

⁸Western University Health Science Centers, Pompano, CA, USA

⁹Division of Addiction Services, Dominion Diagnostics, North Kingston, RI, USA

¹⁰Department of Nutrigenomics, Geneus Health, LLC, San Antonio, TX, USA

¹¹Division of Nutrigenomics, Victory Nutrition International, LLC., Lederach, PA, USA

¹²Haight Ashbury Free Clinics, San Francisco, CA, USA

¹³Department of Psychiatry, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT, USA

¹⁴Eotvos Loránd University, Institute of Psychology, Budapest, Hungary

¹⁵Department of Psychiatry, Wright University Boonshoft School of Medicine, Dayton, OH, USA

*Correspondence to:

Kenneth Blum, PhD
Department of Psychiatry
University of Florida, Box 100183, Gainesville
FL 32610-0183, USA
Tel: 352-392-6680
Fax: 352-392-8217
E-mail: drd2gene@ufl.edu

Received: December 09, 2019

Accepted: January 16, 2020

Published: January 21, 2020

Citation: Edwards D, Roy III AK, Boyett B, Badgaiyan RD, Thanos PK, et al. 2020. Addiction by Any Other Name is Still Addiction: Embracing Molecular Neurogenetic/Epigenetic Basis of Reward Deficiency. *J Addict Sci* 6(1): 1-4.

Copyright: © 2020 Edwards et al. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC-BY) (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) which permits commercial use, including reproduction, adaptation, and distribution of the article provided the original author and source are credited.

Published by United Scientific Group

The Human Genome Project and the database it created established a plausible observatory, so to speak, for scientists to identify the etiology of genetic variants and their expression. It is well-known that “Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms” (SNPs) which involve the cumulative presence of nucleic acids in sufficient volume and proximity along the DNA strands to create novel variants in the transcription and encoding of replicate genes--thus creating phenotypical risk for pathological expression [1]. One of these created phenotypes involves the molecular rearrangement of known base pairs sitting in chromosomes leading to an uncontrollable desire to self-administrate various drugs and even risky behaviours to overcome a known neurochemical deficiency or hypodopaminergia resulting in drug or non-drug seeking behaviours [2].

In the field of *behavioral and addiction medicine researchers* [3-6] have identified numerous SNPs and genetic variants in several candidate genes. For example, CADM2, is associated with sensation seeking and drug experimentation. CADM2 is just one of many candidate genes associated with Substance Use Disorder [7]. However, following the seminal work of our group on the first association of the DRD2 A1 allele and severe alcoholism the field of Psychiatric Genetics was born. A PUBMED search (12-6-19) reveals that there are now over 22,981. Along these lines is it well known that there over 393 genes that have associated with drug and alcohol seeking behaviours, whereby the two major pathways that have been consistently identified are glutaminergic and dopaminergic [8] While there have been many reports trying to untangle the specific role of dopamine in reward processing, the idea of “liking” and “wanting” revealed that in terms of dopaminergic mechanisms “wanting” seems to be the most relevant [9, 10]. However, it is well-established that dopamine especially in the brain reward circuitry is responsible in-part for motivation, cognitive abilities, achievement of pleasure, pain tolerance and even anti-stress functions [11]. One important aspect that requires consideration in terms of both treatment and prophylaxis of addictive behavioral seeking is balancing the

Brain Reward Cascade (BRC) with the net effect of ensuring “dopamine homeostasis”. Failure to do so will result in high relapse rates [12]. One major issue that we take issue with has to do with the long term implications of treating opioid addiction with agonistic (methadone) or even partial agonistic opioids (buprenorphine) or even blocking opioid receptors with injectable Naltrexone [13]. In spite of the positive life saving aspects of using MAT to treat opioids and even alcohol, especially linked to reducing “societal harm” there is benefit in terms of quality of life especially in terms of prevention of overdose. However, while on these pharmaceuticals long term, they could impair cognitive abilities [14]. In fact, Hill et al., [15] evaluating emotional reactivity as measured by automatic detection of speech, found that long-term combinations of buprenorphine and naloxone resulted in a flattening of affect among some patients, compared to the general population and early attenders of Alcoholics Anonymous groups ($p < 0.01$). From as early as the late 60’s notable work from Myers group [16] showing the role of serotonin in alcohol intake and the initial work of Blum’s group [17] showing the blocking of ethanol dependence with the narcotic antagonist naloxone, and Davis’s group [18] showing the involvement of isoquinolones (an opioid like condensation product of dopamine and acetaldehyde among others) initiated the concept of common mechanisms for opioids and alcohol [19]. This early work provided the actual framework for Blum’s original concept he termed Reward Deficiency Syndrome (RDS) [20]. Following many years of study globally with 185 PubMed listed articles, RDS is featured as an abnormal psychological disorder in Sage Encyclopaedia of Clinical and abnormal Psychology [21].

These findings are supported through transcriptome analysis (the volume of messenger RNA molecules). Addictive disease (drug and non- drug (process) [22], depression [23], anxiety disorder [24], attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) [25] and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) [26] are all phenotypical conditions. Because these conditions share candidate genes and the co- occurring expression of neuropsychiatric conditions affecting the midbrain, ventral striatum, the term Reward Deficiency Syndrome has been coined to describe their shared etiology and pathophysiology [27].

In addition, new imaging technology has shed much needed light on the brain’s “functional anatomy.” Over the last five decades of research concerned with the role and significance of specific neurotransmitters, their bioavailability, and the neurocircuitry that enables the brain to communicate electrochemically, has framed our modern-day view of all addictive behaviours [28]. Pleasure, contentment, mood, focus and cognition all conspire to determine our mental and behavioral health, our life trajectory, and quality. For those with Addictive Disease, and its most common comorbidities, life can seem empty and hopeless.

It’s important to note that SNPs and phenotypical risk factors are not in themselves causal. Environmental and familial stressors combined with genomic variants may result in a disease or condition being expressed. Over the last two decades our new understanding of the role environmental factors play in terms of gene expression termed epigenetics, has paved the way to understanding the simple well-known

equation $P = G + E$. Where P = Addiction Phenotype; G = Genetic Trait; E = Epigenetic impact which could occur without changing DNA per se [29]. One strong example of the role of epigenetics as studied by Szutorisz et al. [30] whereby they found that parental THC exposure leads to compulsive heroin-seeking and altered striatal synaptic plasticity in the subsequent generation. Thus based on this and other definitive work [31], we can now ascribe a better understanding of why persons without genetic risk factors who persistently use intoxicants, or chronic stressors can cause epigenetic changes that redefine pleasure and reward through neuroadaptation for up to at least subsequent generations.

Finally, the good news is that genetic testing technology currently exists which can identify SNPs and determine one’s specific risk for phenotypical Reward Deficiencies. This test is known as the Genetic Addiction Risk Score (GARS) coupled with a precision matched Pro-dopamine regulator (KB220) and this system has been referred to as Precision Behavioral Management (PBM) [32, 33]. Who knows, perhaps one day CRISPR or other gene editing technologies (gene splicing, editing) will prevent the expression of some phenotypical risks for addictive disease. This in-part could be accomplished for example by editing the DNA code to change the mRNA expression of DRD2 A1 carriers to expressing the so called normal variant A2 and as such attenuation of self- medicating for a “dopamine fix”.

However, we and most experts agree these newer concepts will not end addiction, as humans are hedonically inclined and, likely, will continue seeking more diverse pleasures, convenience and shortcuts toward reward attainment. In support of this statement, based on the now thousands of subjects GARS tested in the America, it has been found (unpublished) that there is a very high genetic risk for RDS.

But, for now, treatment for addictive disease is most effective when

1. Treatment is individualized, patient and family centered.
2. Delivered within a chronic disease, multimodal framework of optimal intensity and duration.
3. Provided by a highly trained multidisciplinary professional team [34].

It is now well established that genetic and epigenetic risks factors underlie disease manifestation. Accordingly, the expansion of a bio-psycho-social model of treatment as outlined in Gustin et al. [35], will incorporate GARS or other empirically proven testing for genetic and epigenetic risk factors. This advancement in how addicted persons are assessed will serve to direct treatment intervention toward hastening “dopamine homeostasis”, thusly improving treatment success and quality of life for those suffering from addictive disease [34].

As a preventative strategy, identifying those at risk for RDS could be implemented throughout our healthcare system in much the same way as identification and quantification of Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) are now being integrated into primary care settings. In both cases, early

identification prompts early intervention strategies so that patients at risk can be saved from a pathologically driven life trajectory and diverted toward early intervention of appropriate treatment. In the case of RDS, restorative and brain-building care, including the use of precision pharmacological intervention as suggested by Shonesy et al. may prevent serious psychopathology from fully manifesting [36].

The more we learn, the more we know that addictive disease is a complex multifaceted neuropsychiatric disease in which no single intervention modality is sufficient. The best available evidence reveals that the integration of the appropriate use MATs for life saving intervention, and within a chronic disease treatment framework, delivered by competent and experienced professional, are yielding the best outcomes to date. The addition of genetic testing serves to streamline and focus clinical and precision pharmacological interventions to further improve outcomes for this disabling and deadly disease.

While many names have been used to accurately define and describe addiction and RDS [38], e.g., the other side of darkness [39], anti-reward [40], dopamine deficiency [41], endorphin deficiency [42], etc., our message is simply this: Addiction by any other name is still addiction—but what one becomes addicted to serves as a modifying, and often confusing, nosology [37, 43]. As William Shakespeare, so eloquently wrote: “A rose by any other name is still a rose.”.

References

- Ingram VM. 1956. A specific chemical difference between the globins of normal human and sickle-cell anaemia haemoglobin. *Nature* 178(4537): 792-794. <https://doi.org/10.1038/178792a0>
- McLaughlin T, Blum K, Steinberg B, Siwicki D, Campione J, et al. 2017. Hypothesizing Las Vegas and Sutherland springs mass shooters suffer from reward deficiency syndrome: “Born Bad”. *J Reward Defic Syndr Addict Sci* 3(2): 28-31. <https://doi.org/10.17756/jrdsas.2017-038>
- Reilly MT, Noronha A, Goldman D, Koob GF. 2017. Genetic studies of alcohol dependence in the context of the addiction cycle. *Neuropharmacology* 122: 3-21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2017.01.017>
- Hirth N, Meinhardt MW, Noori HR, Salgado H, Torres-Ramirez O, et al. 2016. Convergent evidence from alcohol-dependent humans and rats for a hyperdopaminergic state in protracted abstinence. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 113(11): 3024-3029. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1506012113>
- Levey DF, Le-Niculescu H, Frank J, Ayalew M, Jain N, et al. 2014. Genetic risk prediction and neurobiological understanding of alcoholism. *Transl Psychiatry* 4: e391. <https://doi.org/10.1038/tp.2014.29>
- Kim B, Yoon S, Nakajima R, Lee HJ, Lim HJ, et al. 2018. Dopamine D2 receptor-mediated circuit from the central amygdala to the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis regulates impulsive behaviour. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 115(45): E10730-E10739. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1811664115>
- Sanchez-Roige S, Fontanillas P, Elson SL, Gray JC, de Wit H, et al. 2019. Genome-wide association studies of impulsive personality traits (BIS-11 and UPPS-P) and drug experimentation in up to 22,861 adult research participants identify loci in the *CACNA1I* and *CADM2* genes. *J Neurosci* 39(13): 2562-2572. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2662-18.2019>
- Li CY, Mao X, Wei L. 2008. Genes and (common) pathways underlying drug addiction. *PLoS Comput Biol* 4(1): e2. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.0040002>
- Blum K, Gardner E, Oscar-Berman M, Gold M. 2012. “Liking” and “wanting” linked to Reward Deficiency Syndrome (RDS): hypothesizing differential responsivity in brain reward circuitry. *Curr Pharm Des* 18(1): 113-118. <https://doi.org/10.2174/138161212798919110>
- Berridge KC. 2007. The debate over dopamine’s role in reward: the case for incentive salience. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 191(3): 391-431. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00213-006-0578-x>
- Mohebi A, Pettibone JR, Hamid AA, Wong JT, Vinson LT, et al. 2019. Dissociable dopamine dynamics for learning and motivation. *Nature* 570(7759): 65-70. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1235-y>
- Dong Y, Taylor JR, Wolf ME, Shaham Y. 2017. Circuit and synaptic plasticity mechanisms of drug relapse. *J Neurosci* 37(45): 10867-10876. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1821-17.2017>
- Blum K, Modestino EJ, Badgaiyan RD, Baron D, Thanos PK, et al. 2018. Analysis of evidence for the combination of pro-dopamine regulator (KB220PAM) and naltrexone to prevent opioid use disorder relapse. *EC Psychol Psychiatr* 7(8): 564-579.
- Blum K, Baron D. 2019. Opioid substitution therapy: achieving harm reduction while searching for a prophylactic solution. *Curr Pharm Biotechnol* 20(3): 180-182. <https://doi.org/10.2174/138920102003190422150527>
- Hill E, Han D, Dumouchel P, Dehak N, Quatieri T, et al. 2013. Long term Suboxone™ emotional reactivity as measured by automatic detection in speech. *PLoS One* 8(7): e69043. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0069043>
- Myers RD, Veale WL. 1968. Alcohol preference in the rat: reduction following depletion of brain serotonin. *Science* 160: 1469-1471. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.160.3835.1469>
- Blum K, Futterman S, Wallace JE, Schwertner HA, et al. 1977. Naloxone-induced inhibition of ethanol dependence in mice. *Nature* 265(5589): 49-51. <https://doi.org/10.1038/265049a0>
- Halushka PV, Hoffmann PC. 1970. Alcohol addiction and tetrahydropapaveroline. *Science* 169(3950): 1104-1105. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.169.3950.1104>
- Blum K, Hamilton MG, Hirst M, Wallace JE. 1978. Putative role of isoquinoline alkaloids in alcoholism: a link to opiates. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res* 2(2): 113-120. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-0277.1978.tb04710.x>
- Blum K, Sheridan PJ, Wood RC, Braverman ER, Chen TJ, et al. 1996. The D2 dopamine receptor gene as a determinant of reward deficiency syndrome. *J R Soc Med* 89(7): 396-400.
- Wenzel A. 2017. The sage encyclopedia of abnormal and clinical psychology.
- Smith DE. 2012. The process addictions and the new ASAM definition of addiction. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 44(1): 1-4. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.2012.662105>
- Gold MS, Blum K, Febo M, Baron D, Modestino EJ, et al. 2018. Molecular role of dopamine in anhedonia linked to reward deficiency syndrome (RDS) and anti-reward systems. *Front Biosci (Schol Ed)* 10: 309-325. <https://doi.org/10.2741/s518>
- Blum K, Gold M, Modestino EJ, Baron D, Boyett B, et al. 2018. Would induction of dopamine homeostasis via coupling genetic addiction risk score (GARS[®]) and pro-dopamine regulation benefit benzodiazepine use disorder (BUD)? *J Syst Integr Neurosci* 4. <https://doi.org/10.15761/JSIN.1000196>
- McLaughlin T, Blum K, Steinberg B, Modestino EJ, Fried L, et al. 2018. Pro-dopamine regulator, KB220Z, attenuates hoarding and shopping behavior in a female, diagnosed with SUD and ADHD. *J Behav Addict* 7(1): 192-203. <https://doi.org/10.1556/2006.6.2017.081>
- Blum K, Gondré-Lewis MC, Modestino EJ, Lott L, Baron D, et al. 2019. Understanding the scientific basis of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD): precision behavioral management overrides stigmatization. *Mol Neurobiol* 56(11): 7836-7850. <https://doi.org/10.1556/2006.6.2017.081>

27. Febo M, Blum K, Badgaiyan RD, Baron D, Thanos PK, et al. 2017. Dopamine homeostasis: brain functional connectivity in reward deficiency syndrome. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)* 22: 669-691. <https://doi.org/10.2741/4509>
28. Blum K, Chen AL, Giordano J, Borsten J, Chen TJ, et al. 2012. The addictive brain: all roads lead to dopamine. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 44(2): 134-143. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02791072.2012.685407>
29. Pandey SC, Kyzar EJ, Zhang H. 2017. Epigenetic basis of the dark side of alcohol addiction. *Neuropharmacology* 122: 74-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2017.02.002>
30. Sutorisz H, DiNieri JA, Sweet E, Egervari G, Michaelides M, et al. 2014. Parental THC exposure leads to compulsive heroin-seeking and altered striatal synaptic plasticity in the subsequent generation. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 39(6): 1315-1323. <https://doi.org/10.1038/npp.2013.352>
31. Vanyukov MM, Tarter RE, Kirillova GP, Kirisci L, Reynolds MD, et al. 2012. Common liability to addiction and "gateway hypothesis": theoretical, empirical and evolutionary perspective. *Drug Alcohol Depend* 123(Suppl 1): S3-S17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2011.12.018>
32. Blum K, Gondré-Lewis MC, Baron D, Thanos PK, Braverman ER, et al. 2018. Introducing precision addiction management of reward deficiency syndrome, the construct that underpins all addictive behaviors. *Front Psychiatry* 9: 548. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2018.00548>
33. Blum K, Modestino EJ, Neary J, Gondré-Lewis MC, Siwicki D, et al. 2018. Promoting precision addiction management (PAM) to combat the global opioid crisis. *Biomed J Sci Tech Res* 2(2): 1-4. <https://doi.org/10.26717/BJSTR.2018.02.000738>
34. DuPont RL, Skipper GE. 2012. Six lessons from physician health programs to promote long-term recovery. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 44(1): 72-78. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02791072.2012.660106>
35. Gustin R, Nichols J, Martin PR. 2015. Individualizing opioid use disorder (OUD) treatment: time to fully embrace a chronic disease model. *J Reward Defic Syndr* 1(1): 10-15. <http://doi.org/10.17756/jrds.2015-003>
36. Shonesy BC, Williams D, Simmons D, Dorval E, Gitlow S, et al. 2019. Screening, brief intervention, and referral to treatment in a retail pharmacy setting: the pharmacist's role in identifying and addressing risk of substance use disorder. *J Addict Med* 13(5): 403-407. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ADM.0000000000000525>
37. Blum K, Baron D. 2019. Opioid substitution therapy: achieving harm reduction while searching for a prophylactic solution. *Curr Pharm Biotechnol* 20(3): 180-182. <https://doi.org/10.2174/138920102003190422150527>
38. McLaughlin T, Blum K, Oscar-Berman M, Febo M, Demetrovics Z, et al. 2015. Using the neuroadaptogen KB200z™ to ameliorate terrifying, lucid nightmares in RDS patients: the role of enhanced, brain-reward, functional connectivity and dopaminergic homeostasis. *J Reward Defic Syndr* 1(1): 24-35. <https://doi.org/10.17756/jrds.2015-006>
39. Koob GF, Le Moal M. 2005. Plasticity of reward neurocircuitry and the 'dark side' of drug addiction. *Nat Neurosci* 8(11): 1442-1444. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nn1105-1442>
40. Gardner EL. 2011. Addiction and brain reward and anti-reward pathways. *Adv Psychosom Med* 30: 22-60. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000324065>
41. Blum K, Elston SF, DeLallo L, Briggs AH, Wallace JE. 1983. Ethanol acceptance as a function of genotype amounts of brain [Met]enkephalin. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 80(21): 6510-6512. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.80.21.6510>
42. Elman I, Borsook D, Volkow ND. 2013. Pain and suicidality: insights from reward and addiction neuroscience. *Prog Neurobiol* 109: 1-27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pneurobio.2013.06.003>
43. Di Chiara G, Imperato A. 1988. Drugs abused by humans preferentially increase synaptic dopamine concentrations in the mesolimbic system of freely moving rats. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 85(14): 5274-5278. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.85.14.5274>