# **Genetic Factors in Addiction**

Mukaddes GÜRLER <sup>1</sup> , [MD],	~ ABSTRACT Com
Hacettepe University, Medical Faculty, Department of Medical Biochemistry and Forensic Medicine-Forensic Toxicology <i>Corresponding Author: Assoc. Prof.Dr. Mukaddes</i> <i>GÜRLER, MD, Hacettepe University, Medical</i>	Addiction is receiving any foreign substance (harmful chemicals, etc.), even though the person does not need and becoming dependent on it and could not stop to use it. This topic is a worldwide serious health problem in the interests of the individual, the family and the society. Due to the effects of drugs such as maintaining social relationships, providing temporary happiness and fitness, strengthening the emotion of independence, they are especially widely used by young society. Many factors play role in the addiction behaviors. Studies that reveal genetic fac- tors in addiction are mostly concentrated on alcohol and nicotine dependence. However, there are several studies showing that genetic variations are present in cocaine, heroin, opiates, and other drug dependences. Some of them are re- lated to dopamine, serotonin, and cannabinoid receptors and cytochrome P450 enzyme system. Addiction is a health problem difficult to explain with a single gene. Both genetic and environmental factors play role in the use of addictive agents and in the transition from use to dependence. Epigenetic factors, single
Faculty, Department of Medical Biochemistry and Forensic Medicine-Forensic Toxicology, 06100, Sıhhiye, Ankara, Turkey	nucleotide polymorphisms are discussed in the text.
e-mail: mukaddes.gurler@hacettepe.edu.tr	Key words: substance abuse, addiction, genetic factors
Received 2 February 2016; accepted 28 March 2016; nublished online 25 April 2016	

## Introduction

1

ddiction is a harmful problem for the person, the family and the community. It is a situation where the individual self-enslaves and cannot get rid of despite being aware of the damage. According to the American Psychiatric Association [1] addiction is a substance use disorder causing severe clinical impairments or distress, as defined by three (or more) of the following seven criteria, occurring during one year: 1) Tolerance, 2) Withdrawal, 3) Taking the substance in large quantity or over a long-time than desired, 4) Failed efforts to stop, control or use the substance, 5) Spending much more time to obtain (visiting doctors and travelling) and take the substance or get rid of from its effects, 6) Reduced social and occupational activities due to substance abuse, 7) Continued use of the substance despite being aware of its consistent adverse effects on health and social life.

The use and abuse of addictive agents are a worldwide common health priority. The World Health Organization reported in an 2012 survey that between 162 million and 324 million people (3.5% and 7.0% of the world's population aged 15-64 years) used an illicit drug (mainly cannabinoids, or the opioid, cocaine or amphetamine-type stimulants) at least once in a year and between 16 million and 39 million people are regular drug user [2].

A lot of addiction based community and health problems occur as a consequence of illegal drug use. There is a relationship between substance use, crime, sexual abuse and interpersonal violence [3]. On average, 13.1% of all people who use drugs intravenously are HIV positive and more than half of them are hepatitis *C* positive. [2].

Why a person uses these substances and become dependent? Many factors determine the likelihood that someone will become an addict. Several characters and disorders may influence the risk of dependence. Antisocial personality disorder, such as dishonest, manipulative, insensitive and criminal behavior, is the most associated with addiction among all personality disorders. A wide-ranging epidemiological research revealed that 18% of people with illicit-drug-use problems have antisocial personality disorder, as do 9% of people with alcohol-use problems (more than the 4% found in the general population) [4,3].

Genetic predisposition may be significantly effective in the etiology of substance dependence. Bevilacqua and Goldman showed that heritability of substance use disorders range from 0.39 for hallucinogens to 0.72 for cocaine [6]. But there is a paradox in the heritability of addiction. First of all, addiction depends on the presence of the substance and then the person's choice to take and use it. The availability of addictive substances is determined by economic status, culture, religion, social policy, and narco-trafficking, and it varies along the time and place. This is why twin studies on addiction do not disclose the full reaction range of genotype but demonstrate that under particular social conditions, genotype plays a considerable role in vulnerability [7]. While addictions can not be clarified by Mendelian inheritance and their complexity is less understood, it is obvious that they are highly affected by heritable variations, and identification of genes related with substance abuse, such as alcohol, cigarette and drugs, can reveal to understand basic mechanisms of causality.

The other important factor in addiction is the epigenetic mechanism, which manage the genes by turning them on and off. It is found that addiction can epigenetically 'rewire' the brain by stimulating the genes that are generally activated only during brain growth [8]. Addiction reactivates brain-improvement genes, which involves more common variants. Childhood trauma affects both epigenetics and addiction risk. According to a study from Sweden, people who experienced their parent's death or diagnosis of cancer or witnessed violence especially in their family are at twice the risk of addiction to any substance later in life than those who have not experienced them [8]. Both addiction and chronic stress can stimulate some of the same epigenetic variations in stress systems and in those involved with enjoyment, which may in part explain why addiction and trauma are so firmly linked [8].

## Methods

Article searches were conducted with terms involved substance abuse, addiction, genetic factors and genetic etiology of substance addiction mainly by using PubMed. Full text articles or resulting abstracts with relevant specific topics of genetic etiology for substance addiction were reviewed.

## Genetic Risk Factors For Alcohol Dependence

Studies performed by The Collaborative Study on the Genetics of Alcoholism (COGA) and the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism investigators showed that there is a loci on chromosome 4 which enhances the risk for alcohol dependence [10,11]. Another report suggested a link between alcohol addiction and signs on chromosome 10 in African Americans (12). Studies on a society-based sample of Australian adults defined a suggestive link on human chromosome 5p [13]. Works on Family Alcoholism revealed some suggestive regions related to DSM-IV alcohol dependence (chromosomes 1, 2, 8, 9, 18, and 22) [14].

There is no consensus among these studies because of basic epigenetic variability in the risk for alcohol abuse.

Genetic metabolic factors such as enzymes, which convert alcohols to aldehydes, play a great role in the etiology of alcoholism [15]. Ethanol is oxidized to acetaldehyde and then to acetate by the enzymes alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) and aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH) respectively.

ADH catalyzes the rate-limiting step in the metabolism of ethanol. There are seven ADH-encoding genes (ADH1A, ADH1B, ADH1C, ADH4, ADH5, ADH6, and ADH7) found as a group on chromosome 4q22-23 [15]. Enzymes encoded by ADH1A, ADH1B, and ADH1C include the most important ADH isoforms in the oxidation process of ethanol [15]. ADH7 acts in stomach mucosa where alcohol is in high concentration. ADH7 forms with the effect of ADH1A, ADH1B, and ADH4 are related with the first steps of alcohol elimination in European people. Variants in the ADH7 -ADH1C -ADH1B gene cluster affect post-absorptive alcohol metabolism [16]. There is a relationship between *ADH1B\*2* allele (amino-acid changes at positions 48) and decreased alcohol use or risk for alcohol abuse in general population, although the allele frequencies vary among different ethnicities. [17,18]. African American families and southwest California Native Americans are protected on risk for alcoholism due to ADH1B\*3 allele [19,20]. Studies demonstrated that Asian and African people are resistant to alcoholism because of ADH1C\*1 allele [15,21]. The higher presence of ADH1C\*2 allele is found to be related with alcohol

abuse whereas *ADH1B* and *ADH1C* genotypes are found not to be related with the individual risk of alcoholism in Turkish population [22,23]. Both the genomic region and the frequencies of functional variants vary among populations according to ethnicity [24]. Therefore it is possible to say that the effects of functional variants are specific for ethnicity.

Another polymorphism is in the *ALDH2* gene. The *ALDH2\*2* (*Glu504Lys*) allele is relatively common in Asians and is powerfully related with a reduced risk for alcohol addiction [25]. *ALDH1A1* and *ALDH1B1* alleles found in Finn and Danish society are observed to have a link with alcohol consumption [26, 27].

Multiple single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) in *GABRA2*, which encodes the GABAA (Gamma amino butyric acid-A) receptor  $\alpha 2$  subunit, is related to high risk for alcohol addiction [28]. Beside *GABRA2*, the *GABRG1* gene, which encodes the GABAA receptor  $\gamma$  1subunit, also reported to have a link with the risk for alcohol abuse and drinking behaviors [29].

According to a recent study, synuclein alpha (SNCA), which is known as non A-beta component of amyloid precursor significantly distinguished alcoholics from controls and the alcohol misuse cohort. Low levels of SNCA that causes high neurobiological activity can make vulnerable for alcohol and resultant alcoholism; excessive alcohol drinking then raises SNCA expression beyond that seen in non-alcohol-using controls [30].

Although candidate gene researches succeeded to identify functional types in alcohol metabolism genes such as *ADH1B*, *ADH1C*, and *ALDH2*, several genome-wide association studies of alcoholism have shown no exact proof for special genetic risk factors [31] To find out the genetic metabolic factors suspected in the etiology of alcoholism, more studies should be performed on larger populations.

#### **Genetic Risk Factors For Smoking**

Nicotine is the primary harmfull agent found in tobacco that causes dependence in smokers. After smoking, about 80% of nicotine is converted to ineffective metabolite cotinine; nearly 90% of this reaction is catalyzed by CYP2A6 (cytochrome P450 2A6) enzyme [32]. Cotinine is further oxidized to trans -3' -hydroxycotinine with the reaction mediated also by extremely polymorphic enzyme CYP2A6 [31]. The frequency of *CYP2A6* alleles differs within ethnic populations [34]. Decreased activity or lack of CYP2A6 enzyme is associated with little risk of smoking, as well as reduced cigarette using, smoking intensity, and withdrawal symptoms; shorter smoking period; and increased cessation. There are also studies that couldn't show any linkage between CYP2A6 alterations and smoking behaviour [35].

Genome-wide association studies put forward that variations among the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) subunit genes on the long arm of chromosomes 15 (CHRNA5 -CHRNA3 -CHRNB4) and 8 (CHRNA6 -CHRNB3) affect risk for nicotine addiction [36].

It is reported that the nonsynonymous SNP rs16969968 in exon 5 of CHRNA5 had coherent influences on the risk for nicotine addiction in both European and African populations. A second locus marked by rs578776 in CHRNA3 is in close relationship with nicotine dependence in European Americans but not in African Americans. Another location marked by an intronic SNP in CHRNA5, rs588765, presents a protective role in nicotine dependence in European populations [37, 38]. It is shown that both the locations labeled by rs578776 and rs588765, which are overlapped, have role in the initiation, cessation, and quantity of smoking [39]. The low-frequency coding modifications R37H in CHRNA3 and T375I and T91I in CHRNB4 are reported to lower the risk for nicotine dependence in regular smokers [41].

Risk factors for nicotine dependence have been successfully detected by genetic researches [31,37]. But, these factors clarify the genetic etilogy partially in nicotine dependence. Advanced researches are necessary to identify the genetic factors affecting smoking status further.

#### **Genetic Risk Factors For Drug Dependence**

Loci on human chromosomes 3 (3q21) and 9 (9q34) are suggested to influence cannabis-dependence symptoms in adolescents [41]. An American community study reported a considerable correlation between heavy cannabis use and antisocial subtype on human chromosomes 16 and 19 [42].

Important link points have been detected on human chromosomes 9 (near the region related with cannabis use) and 12 for cocaine abuse, on chromosome 17 at 103.5 cM for a severe opioid-use group-defined feature, and on 14q for opioid abuse [43- 45]. A significant relation between alcohol-use disorders and illicit drug dependence on human chromosome 2 has been reported after analysis in families [46]. A wide population study showed a suggestive relation between cannabis abuse and variants in the *ANKFN1 (Ankyrin-Repeat And Fibronectin Type III Domain Containing 1)* gene on human chromosome 17 [47].

Metabolic pathways of dopamine play a major role in illicit drug use such as amphetamine and cocaine [48]. *DRD2 Taq1 A1* allele (11q23) may influence heroin addiction and polymorphism in dopamine transporter gene 1 (DAT) may be associated with alcoholism and cigarette consumption in young ages [49-51].

*OPRM1*, encoding the G protein-coupled mu opioid receptor, is the primary site of opioid activity. A nonsynonymous SNP in exon 1 of *OPRM1*, *A118G*, is the common form for opioid addiction, but its relation is arguable [52-56].

Two well-characterized cannabinoid receptors, CB1 (*CNR1*) and CB2 (*CNR2*), have been noticed to have a linkage with psychiatric problems, like substance misuse [57]. Intravenous application of addictive agents has been related with the genetic variant (*AAT*)*n* trinucleotide shorttandem repeat in *CNR1* [58]. Beside cannabis dependence, cocaine and other substance dependences were also found to be related with *CNR1* variants [59-62].

Polymorphisms in the COMT (Catechol-Omethyltransferase) gene may be the reason for some psychiatric disorders and substance abuse [63, 64]. An interesting point is the rs16969968 nonsynonymous variant in the  $\alpha 5$  nicotinic acetylcholine receptor is also related to cocaine dependence, however the minor allele decreases the risk for cocaine dependence [65]. Serotonin metabolism is also investigated in the genetic etiology of drug addiction. Receptor gene polymorphisms for 5HT may influence addictive tendency, side effects or treatment success [66]. Glutamate decarboxylase (GAD, catalyzis the rate limiting step in GABA synthesis) coding genes are of potential concern in drug and alcohol dependence. The isoforms GAD1 and GAD2 are reported to have a linkage with alcohol dependence in males of Han Taiwanese (GAD1) and Russian (GAD2) descent [67, 68].

Circadian clock genes (*Per, Clock, Bmal1 and Cry*) may influence starting and further using of drugs and alcohol. In the last decade, clock genes

have been disclosed to have a major role in revealing acute and chronic alcohol or drug use symptoms. Researches demonstrated both their direct or indirect association with the stress hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal axis and/or reward system [69].

Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) is known as a different marker of stress adaptation and has long been investigated in the field of addiction and its significance in controlling drug addiction-related behavior. In a recent study *BDNF rs6265* and *DRD2 rs1799978* variations were found unrelated with chronic illegal opioid use in methadone treated patients. [70].

#### Conclusion

Substance addiction varies considerably among individuals due to their society or ancestry. It is a polygenic condition and is difficult to explain with a single gene. Both genetic and environmental factors influence dependence. Genomic approaches yield signals to the underlying genetic etiology of addiction by genome wide procedures and by candidate gene researches. Studies center on drug-induced modifications in the expression and structure of chromatin, lead to improve our knowledge of the ways in which genetic/epigenetic variations and environmental attacks together cause neuronal molecular changes essential to the tendency to dependencies and to the course of dependence and treatment.

In summary, studies and science of genetic etiology for substance related health problems are still in its infancy. For smoking, which is the most cause of diseases and deaths worldwide, several favorable loci found in repeated studies have possibility for clinical translation. For alcohol, epigenetic signs found in several studies are subtler, but there is potency for translation if the last findings are repeated. For other illicit substances, even with active studies for candidate genes, there is no evidence with prompt potential for clinical translation. Studies and replication of any findings before translation are required in this area.

As a consequence, further investigations of epigenetic variations along whole-genome are needed for detecting novel biomarkers for substance misuse or addiction.

- American Psychiatric Association, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders IV, Wachington, DC, 2000.
- [2] World drug report 2014. Vienna: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime; 2014.
- [3] http://www.who.int/violenceprevention/interpersonal\_violence\_and\_illicit\_drug\_use.pdf (accessed 18 November 2014).
- Goldstein RB1, Compton WM, Pulay AJ, Ruan WJ, Pickering RP, Stinson FS, et al. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2007; 90: 145-58.
- [5] Goldstein RB, Dawson DA, Saha TD, Ruan WJ, Compton WM, Grant BF. Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res. 2007; 31: 814–28.
- [6] L Bevilacqua and D Goldman. Genes and Addictions. Clin Pharmacol Ther. 2009; 85(4): 359–61.
- [7] Kendler KS, Schmitt E, Aggen SH, Prescott CA. Genetic and environmental influences on alcohol, caffeine, cannabis, and nicotine use from early adolescence to middle adulthood. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry 2008; 65:674–82.
- [8] Maia Szalavitz. Genetics: No more addictive personality. Nature. 2015 Jun 25; 522(7557):S48-9.
- [9] Giordano GN, Ohlsson H, Kendler KS, Sundquist K, Sundquist J. Addiction 2014; 109:1119–27.
- [10] Foroud T1, Edenberg HJ, Goate A, Rice J, Flury L, Koller DL, et al. Alcoholism susceptibility loci:confirmation studies in a replicate sample and further mapping. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2000; 24:933–45.
- [11] Long JC, Knowler WC, Hanson RL, Robin RW, Urbanek M, Moore E, et al. Evidence for genetic linkage to alcohol dependence on chromosomes 4 and 11 from an autosome-wide scan in an American Indian population. Am J Med Genet. 1998; 81:216–21.
- [12] Gelernter J, Kranzler HR, Panhuysen C, Weiss RD, Brady K, Polling C, et al. Dense genome wide linkage scan for alcohol dependence in African Americans: significant linkage on chromosome 10. Biol Psychiatry. 2009; 65:111–15.
- [13] Hansell NK, Agrawal A, Whitfield JB, Morley KI, Gordon SD, Lind PA, et al. Linkage analysis of alcohol dependence symptoms in the community. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2010; 34:158–63.
- [14] Gizer IR, Ehlers CL, Vieten C, Seaton-Smith KL, Feiler HS, Lee JV, et al. Linkage scan of alcohol dependence in the UCSF Family Alcoholism Study. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2011; 113:125–32.
- [15] Edenberg HJ. The genetics of alcohol metabolism: role of alcohol dehydrogenase and aldehyde dehydrogenase variants. Alcohol Res Health. 2007; 30:5–13.
- [16] Birley AJ, James MR, Dickson PA, Montgomery GW, Heath AC, Martin NG, et al. ADH single nucleotide polymorphism associations with alcohol metabolism in vivo. Hum Mol Genet. 2009; 18:1533–42.
- [17] Bierut LJ, Goate AM, Breslau N, Johnson EO, Bertelsen S, Agrawal A, et al. ADH1B is associated with alcohol dependence and alcohol consumption in populations of European and African ancestry. Mol Psychiatry. 2012 Apr;17:445-50.
- [18] Whitfield JB. Alcohol dehydrogenase and alcohol dependence: variation in genotype-associated risk between populations. Am J Hum Genet. 2002; 71:1247–50.

- [19] Wall TL, Carr LG, Ehlers CL. Protective association of genetic variation in alcohol dehydrogenase with alcohol dependence in Native American Mission Indians. Am J Psychiatry.2003; 160:41–46.
- [20] Edenberg HJ, Xuei X, Chen HJ, Tian H, Wetherill LF, Dick M, et al. Association of alcohol dehydrogenasegenes with alcohol dependence: a comprehensive analysis. Hum Mol Genet. 2006; 15:1539–49.
- [21] Moore S, Montane-Jaime LK, Carr LG, Ehlers CL. Variations in alcohol-metabolizing enzymes in people of East Indian and African descent from Trinidad and Tobago. Alcohol Res Health. 2007; 30:28–30.
- [22] Kortunay S, Köseler A, Ozdemir F, Atalay EÖ. Association of a genetic polymorphism of the alcohol-metabolizing enzyme ADH1C with alcohol dependence: results of a case-control study. Eur Addict Res. 2012;18:161-6.
- [23] Vatansever S, Tekin F, Salman E, Altintoprak E, Coskunol H, Akarca US. Genetic polymorphisms of ADH1B, ADH1C and ALDH2 in Turkish alcoholics: lack of association with alcoholism and alcoholic cirrhosis. Bosn J Basic Med Sci. 2015; 17;15:37-41.
- [24] Osier MV, Pakstis AJ, Soodyall H, Comas D, Goldman D, Odunsi A, et al. A global perspective on genetic variation at the ADH genes reveals unusual patterns of linkage disequilibrium and diversity. Am J Hum Genet. 2002; 71:84–99.
- [25] Oota H, Pakstis AJ, Bonne-Tamir B, Goldman D, Grigorenko E, Kajuna SL, et al. The evolution and population genetics of the ALDH2 locus: random genetic drift, selection, and low levels of recombination. Ann Hum Genet. 2004; 68:93–109.
- [26] Lind PA, Eriksson CJ, Wilhelmsen KC. The role of aldehyde dehydrogenase-1 (ALDH1A1) polymorphisms in harmful alcohol consumption in a Finnish population. Hum Genomics. 2008; 3: 24-35.
- [27] Linneberg A, Gonzalez-Quintela A, Vidal C, Jørgensen T, Fenger M, Hansen T, et al. Genetic determinants of both ethanol and acetaldehyde metabolism influence alcohol hypersensitivity and drinking behaviour among Scandinavians. Clin Exp Allergy. 2010; 40: 123-30.
- [28] Edenberg HJ, Dick DM, Xuei X, Tian H, Almasy L, Bauer LO, et al. Variations in GABRA2, encoding the α 2 subunit of the GABAA receptor, are associated with alcohol dependence and with brain oscillations. Am J Hum Genet. 2004; 74:705–14.
- [29] Enoch MA. The role of GABAA receptors in the development of alcoholism. Pharmacol Biochem Behav. 2008; 90:95–104.
  [PubMed: 18440057], 27- Ray LA, Hutchison KE. Associations among GABRG1, level of response to alcohol, and drinking behaviors. Alcohol Clin Exp Res. 2009; 33:1382–90.
- [30] Levey DF, Le-Niculescu H, Frank J, Ayalew M, Jain N, Kirlin B, et al. Genetic risk prediction and neurobiological understanding of alcoholism. Transl Psychiatry. 2014; 20; 4:e391.
- [31] Wang JC, Kapoor M, Goate AM. The genetics of substance dependence. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. 2012; 13:241-61.
- [32] Benowitz NL, Jacob P III. Metabolism of nicotine to cotinine studied by a dual stable isotope method. Clin Pharmacol Ther. 1994; 56:483–93.

- [33] Nakajima M, Yamamoto T, Nunoya K, Yokoi T, Nagashima K, Inoue K et al. Characterization of CYP2A6 involved in 3 -hydroxylation of cotinine in human liver microsomes. J Pharmacol Exp Ther. 1996; 277:1010–15.
- [34] Mwenifumbo JC, Sellers EM, Tyndale RF. Nicotine metabolism and CYP2A6 activity in a population of black African descent: impact of gender and light smoking. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2007; 89:24–33.
- [35] Ho MK, Tyndale RF. Overview of the pharmacogenomics of cigarette smoking. Pharmacogenomics J. 2007; 7:81–98.
- [36] Bierut LJ, Stitzel JA, Wang JC, Hinrichs AL, Grucza RA, Xuei X, et al. Variants in nicotinic receptors and risk for nicotine dependence. Am J Psychiatry. 2008; 165:1163–71.
- [37] Saccone NL, Saccone SF, Hinrichs AL, Stitzel JA, Duan W, Pergadia ML, et al. Multiple distinct risk loci for nicotine dependence identified by dense coverage of the complete family of nicotinic receptor subunit (CHRN) genes. Am J Med Genet B. 2009; 150B:453–66.
- [38] Wang JC, Cruchaga C, Saccone NL, Bertelsen S, Liu P, Budde JP, et al. Risk for nicotine dependence and lung cancer is conferred by mRNA expression levels and amino acid change in CHRNA5. Hum Mol Genet. 2009; 18:3125–35.
- [39] Li MD, Yoon D, Lee JY, Han BG, Niu T, Payne TJ, et al. Associations of variants in CHRNA5/A3/B4 gene cluster with smoking behaviors in a Korean population. PLoS ONE. 2010; 5:e12183.
- [40] Haller G, Druley T, Vallania FL, Mitra RD, Li P, Akk G, et al. Rare missense variants in CHRNB4 are associated with reduced risk of nicotine dependence. Hum Mol Genet. 2012; 21(3): 647-55.
- [41] Hopfer CJ, Lessem JM, Hartman CA, Stallings MC, Cherny SS, Corley RP, et al. A genome-wide scan for loci influencing adolescent cannabis dependence symptoms: evidence for linkage on chromosomes 3 and 9. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2007; 89:34–41.
- [42] Ehlers CL, Gilder DA, Gizer IR, Wilhelmsen KC. Heritability and a genome-wide linkage analysis of a Type II/B cluster construct for cannabis dependence in an American Indian community. Addict Biol. 2009; 14:338–48.
- [43] Gelernter J, Panhuysen C, Weiss R, Brady K, Hesselbrock V, Rounsaville B, et al. Genome wide linkage scan for cocaine dependence and related traits: significant linkages for a cocaine-related trait and cocaine induced paranoia. Am J Med Genet B. 2005; 136B: 45–52.
- [44] Gelernter J, Panhuysen C, Wilcox M, Hesselbrock V, Rounsaville B, Polling J, et al. Genome wide linkage scan for opioid dependence and related traits. Am J Hum Genet. 2006; 78:759–69.
- [45] Lachman HM, Fann CS, Bartzis M, Evgrafov OV, Rosenthal RN, Nunes EV, et al. Genomewide suggestive linkage of opioid dependence to chromosome 14q. Hum Mol Genet. 2007; 16:1327–34.
- [46] Agrawal A, Hinrichs AL, Dunn G, Bertelsen S, Dick DM, Saccone SF, et al. Linkage scan for quantitative traits identifies new regions of interest for substance dependence in the Collaborative Study on the Genetics of Alcoholism (COGA) sample. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2008; 93:12–20.
- [47] Agrawal A, Lynskey MT, Hinrichs A, Grucza R, Saccone SF, Krueger R, et al. A genome-wide association study of DSM-IV cannabis dependence. Addict Biol. 2011; 16:514–18.

- [48] Cagniard B, Sotnikova TD, Gainetdinov RR, Zhuang X. The dopamine transporter expression level differentially affects responses to cocaine and amphetamine. J Neurogenet. 2014; 28: 112-21.
- [49] Levran O, Randesi M, da Rosa JC, Ott J, Rotrosen J, Adelson M, et al. Overlapping dopaminergic pathway genetic susceptibility to heroin and cocaine addictions in African Americans. Ann Hum Genet. 2015; 79: 188-98.,
- [50] Jasiewicz A, Rubiś B, Samochowiec J, Małecka I, Suchanecka A, Jabłoński M, et al. DAT1 methylation changes in alcohol-dependent individuals vs. controls. J Psychiatr Res. 2015 May; 64:130-3.
- [51] Franklin TR, Lohoff FW, Wang Z, Sciortino N, Harper D, Li Y, et al. DAT genotype modulates brain and behavioral responses elicited by cigarette cues. Neuropsychopharmacology. 2009; 34: 717-28)
- [52] Levran O, Awolesi O, Linzy S, Adelson M, Kreek MJ. Haplotype block structure of the genomic region of the mu opioid receptor gene. J Hum Genet. 2011; 56:147–55.
- [53] Tan EC, Tan CH, Karupathivan U, Yap EP. Mu opioid receptor gene polymorphisms and heroin dependence in Asian populations. Neuroreport. 2003; 14:569–72.
- [54] Andersen AM, Dogan MV, Beach SR, Philibert RA. Current and Future Prospects for Epigenetic Biomarkers of Substance Use Disorders. Genes (Basel). 2015; 6: 991-1022.
- [55] Nikolov MA, Beltcheva O, Galabova A, Ljubenova A, Jankova E, Gergov G, et al. No evidence of association between 118A>G OPRM1 polymorphism and heroin dependence in a large Bulgarian case-control sample. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2011; 117:62-65.
- [56] Walter C, Lotsch J. Meta-analysis of the relevance of the OPRM1 118A>G genetic variant for pain treatment. Pain. 2009; 146:270-75.
- [57] Van der Stelt M, Di Marzo V. The endocannabinoid system in the basal ganglia and in the mesolimbic reward system: implications for neurological and psychiatric disorders. Eur J Pharmacol. 2003; 480:133–50.
- [58] Comings DE, Muhleman D, Gade R, Johnson P, Verde R, Saucier G, et al. Cannabinoid receptor gene (CNR1): association with IV drug use. Mol Psychiatry. 1997; 2:161–68.
- [59] Agrawal A, Lynskey MT. Candidate genes for cannabis use disorders: findings, challenges and directions. Addiction. 2009; 104:518–32.
- [60] Hopfer CJ, Young SE, Purcell S, Crowley TJ, Stallings MC, et al. Cannabis receptor haplotype associated with fewer cannabis dependence symptoms in adolescents. Am J Med Genet B. 2006; 141B: 895–901.
- [61] Zuo L, Kranzler HR, Luo X, Yang BZ, Weiss R, Brady K, et al. Interaction between two independent CNR1 variants increases risk for cocaine dependence in European Americans: a replication study in family-based sample and population-based sample. Neuropsychopharmacology. 2009; 34:1504–13.
- [62] Zuo L, Kranzler HR, Luo X, Covault J, Gelernter J. CNR1 variation modulates risk for drug andalcohol dependence. Biol Psychiatry. 2007; 62:616–26.
- [63] Chen CK, Lin SK, Chiang SC, Su LW, Wang LJ. Polymorphisms of COMT Val158Met and DAT1 3'-UTR VNTR in illicit drug use and drug-related psychiatric disorders. Subst Use Misuse. 2014; 49: 1385-91.

- [64] Ermis A, Erkiran M, Dasdemir S, Turkcan AS, Ceylan ME, Bireller ES, et al. The relationship between catechol-O-methyltransferase gene Val158Met (COMT) polymorphism and premorbid cannabis use in Turkish male patients with schizophrenia. In Vivo. 2015; 29(1): 129-32.
- [65] 63-Grucza RA, Wang JC, Stitzel JA, Hinrichs AL, Saccone SF, Saccone NL, et al. A risk allele for nicotine dependence in CHRNA5 is a protective allele for cocaine dependence. Biol Psychiatry. 2008; 64:922–29.
- [66] Müller CP, Homberg JR. The role of serotonin in drug use and addiction. Behav Brain Res. 2015; 277:146-92.
- [67] Kuo PH, Kalsi G, Prescott CA, Hodgkinson CA, Goldman D, Alexander J, et al. Associations of glutamate decarboxylase genes with initial sensitivity and age-at-onset of alcohol

dependence in the Irish Affected Sib Pair Study of Alcohol Dependence. Drug Alcohol Depend. 2009 Apr 1; 101(1-2): 80-7.

- [68] Izzo E, Auta J, Impagnatiello F, Pesold C, Guidotti A, Costa E. Glutamic acid decarboxylase and glutamate receptor changes during tolerance and dependence to benzodiazepines. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2001; 98(6):3483-8.
- [69] Perreau-Lenz S, Spanagel R. Clock genes × stress × reward interactions in alcohol and substance use disorders. Alcohol. 2015; 49:351-7.
- [70] Bawor M, Dennis BB, Tan C, Pare G, Varenbut M, Daiter J, et al. Contribution of BDNF and DRD2 genetic polymorphisms to continued opioid use in patients receiving methadone treatment for opioid use disorder: an observational study. Addict Sci Clin Pract. 2015; 10:19.

