The Neurobiology and Pharmacology of Addiction

Charles Chavkin, Ph.D.

Allan & Phyllis Treuer Chair of Pain Research & Professor, Dept of Pharmacology University of Washington School of Medicine Seattle, WA

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- None
- There will be no unannounced discussion of experimental treatments or non-FDA approved medications

Lecture Objectives

- Describe the pharmacological properties of the principal addictive drugs and medications used in the treatment of addictive disorders; and
- Discuss how these drugs affect brain function.

Lecture Outline

- Explain the location of the brain reward system
- *Review basic clinical pharmacology of commonly used substances*
- *Review the treatments for opioids, nicotine, alcohol*
- Possible effects of opioids on neuro development?

Principal Addictive Drugs and Sites of Action in Brain

Opiates mu opioid receptors

Cocainedopamine, serotonin & norepinephrine& Methamphetaminereuptake transporters

Nicotine acetylcholine receptors

Alcohol GABA receptors Benzodiazepines Barbiturates

Marijuana cannabinoid receptors

(other commonly abused drugs that you may hear about: ecstasy, hallucinogens, K2/spice, cough medicine)

Key point #1: addictive drugs act by binding to specific proteins in the brain and disrupt their normal function.

Some are pharmacological agonists (e.g. fentanyl) and activate the receptor by mimicking the endogenous transmitter (e.g. enkephalin). Some are inhibitors and block the transporter function (e.g. dopamine reuptake).

What is the medical definition of Addiction?

- 1. Any un-approved use of an illegal or dangerous drug
- 2. Excessive use of any substance that impairs thinking
- 3. Use of any drug that causes dependence
- 4. None of the above

What is the medical definition of Addiction?

Correct Answer: None of the above

Medical definition (DSM-V) defines 'substance use disorder' based on 11 objective criteria:

Mild 2-3/11 Moderate 4-5/11 Severe +6 (Addiction)

Diagnostic Criteria. DSM 5

- 1. Recurrent drug use in physically hazardous situations
- 2. Repeatedly unable to carry out major obligations at work, school or home due to drug use
- 3. Continued drug use despite social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by drug use
- 4. Tolerance as defined by either a need for markedly increased amounts to achieve desired effect or diminished effect with continued use of the same amount
- 5. Withdrawal manifesting as physical syndrome or continuing use to avoid withdrawal
- 6. Using greater amounts over a longer time period than intended
- 7. Persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control drug use
- 8. Spending a lot of time obtaining, using or recovering from drug
- 9. Stopping or reducing important social, occupational, or recreational activities due to drug use

10.Persistent use of drug despite acknowledgment of harm

11.Craving or strong desire to use drug

Can you be addicted to chocolate?

Are you addicted to oxygen?

Can you be addicted to chocolate? unlikely

Are you addicted to oxygen?

Is drug addiction a disease or a choice?

Is drug addiction a disease or a choice?

mild substance use disorder likely a choice

severe substance use disorder is not a choice

Diagnostic Criteria. DSM 5

Substance Use Disorder (May 2013) mild 2-3/11, moderate 4-5/11, severe 6-7/11

- 1. Recurrent drug use in physically hazardous situations
- 2. Repeatedly unable to carry out major obligations at work, school or home due to drug use
- 3. Continued drug use despite social or interpersonal problems caused or

Addiction is an acquired brain disease that results from structural reorganization of the nervous system.

- 6. Using greater amounts over a longer time period than intended
- 7. Persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control drug use
- 8. Spending a lot of time obtaining, using or recovering from drug
- 9. Stopping or reducing important social, occupational, or recreational activities due to drug use

10. Persistent use of drug despite acknowledgment of harm

11. Craving or strong desire to use drug

Current opioid crisis – people are dying of respiratory depression at phenomenal rates.

Causes are complex (but this is not the first opioid crisis):

- Aggressive marketing by drug companies that minimized the risks
- Over prescription of opioid analgesics by providers treating acute pain
- Lack of good alternative options to treat chronic non-cancer pain
- Under appreciation by providers of the risks of abuse
- Import of very potent fentanyl (and related compounds) used to spike 'heroin'

Risk of opioid abuse is ~10-20%, but not universal. People differ in their risk, but predicting who is vulnerable is hard.

Principal Opioid Drugs

Morphine Fentanyl Oxycodone Methadone Heroin Codeine Hydrocodone Tramadol / Tapentadol Buprenorphine Naloxone Naltrexone Loperamide

What are the key things to know about the pharmacology of opioids?

Key point #1: Opioid drugs can be distinguished by important differences in their Receptor Selectivity (mu, delta, kappa opioid receptors) Receptor affinity

Analgesic Efficacy (partial agonists / partial antagonists)

Key point #2: Sustained exposure to opioids produces adverse effects

Tolerance

Physical dependence & Withdrawal

Hyperalgesia

Addiction (severe substance use disorder defined by DSM)

Key point #3: Opioids differ profoundly in pharmacokinetics

Principal Opioid Drugs

Agonists Morphine Fentanyl Oxycodone Methadone Heroin Opioids differ in efficacy Partial Agonists Codeine Hydrocodone Tramadol / Tapentado Buprenorphine Antagonists Naloxone Naltrexone

Peripherally restricted agonists Loperamide

Principal Opioid Drugs



Multiple types of opioid receptors expressed by neurons

Enkephalin/β-endorphin Dynorphin



- *Morphine, oxycontin, heroin, & fentanyl selectively activate the mu opioid receptor*
- Less selective opioids that activate kappa receptors are dysphoric. Off-target effects of meperidine cause seizures.

Take home message

• Opioids activate the Mu receptor for pain relief and euphoria by mimicking the normal effects of the endogenous endorphins and enkephalins.

Morphine

Principal opioid – central & peripheral mu opioid receptor agonist

> Analgesia Sedation Constipation Respiratory depression Nausea & vomiting Pruritus (Itching) Urinary retention Endocrine regulatory effects Hyperalgesia Tolerance & Physical dependence Euphoria & Addiction



Morphine impact on Mu receptors





Decreases intestinal peristalsis.

GI spasm reduces propulsion. Inhibits GI secretions.

Other smooth muscle actions:

Contracts biliary smooth muscle, Increases ureteral & bladder sphincter tone Miosis – pupillary constriction Morphine impact on Mu receptors



Principal cause of overdose death

Slowed breathing rate, minute volume, and tidal exchange

Inhibition of brainstem CO₂ sensors in respiratory center

- Different opioids produce different degrees of respiratory depression
- Tolerance to analgesia doesn't always match tolerance to respiratory depression
- Dose necessary to produce lethal respiratory depression not always predictable





Opioids are effective for acute pain, but can cause hyperalgesia both with increased and reduced doses.





Receptor desensitization & compensatory adaptation of the nervous system to restore homeostasis

Rebound withdrawal (abstinence) symptoms: rhinorrhea, lacrimation, chills, gooseflesh, muscle aches, diarrhea, yawning, anxiety, and hostility, relieved by morphine or opioids

Neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome

Opioid Effects on Development ?

Neonatal Intensive Care Unit *(not always necessary)* manage withdrawal *persistent developmental issues?*



Infants born to opioid exposed mothers have neurodevelopmental delays & smaller cerebral volumes. However the developmental delays are not significantly different from other babies of comparable socio economic status and other non-opioid exposures.

The NEOPAIN trial (2004) included 893 children and showed no significant overall differences in composite outcome between placebo and morphine-treated infants of very preterm age. *(VERY Different from ETOH which has no safe fetal exposure limit)*

Opioid Effects (con't)



Opioids disinhibit (indirectly stimulate) the reward circuits in brain (midbrain dopamine systems in ventral tegmental area to striatum).

Changes in this reward circuit lead to compulsive drug use and difficulty in maintaining abstinence



Addiction (Severe substance use disorder)



Functional selectivity of Mu opioid ligands. – Possibly safer opioids?



 $G\beta\gamma$ activation of K⁺ channels -> hyperpolarization Inhibition of Ca⁺⁺ channels -> presynaptic inhibition -> analgesia

> *PZM21; Manglik 2016; SR17108, Schmid 2017;* TRV130, TRV734 - Trevena

Risk of developing opioid use disorder

- >100 people/day are dying from opioid overdose in USA, many using multiple substances at time of death (benzo's are particularly risky).
- Unclear how recreational/prescription use progresses to addiction
- High doses and long duration of use increases risk.
- Safer alternatives to relieve *chronic pain* are needed
- More effective treatments for *co-morbid anxiety* and *depression*
- Better understanding of the *genetic* risk factors underlying drug addiction

*Source: Shah A, Hayes CJ, Martin BC. Characteristics of Initial Prescription Episodes and Likelihood of Long-Term Opioid Use — United States, 2006–2015. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep 2017;66:265–269. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6610a1.

What are the treatments for opioid, nicotine, alcohol dependence?

- Opioids methadone (long acting agonist to prevent relapse) buprenorphine (weak partial agonist and kappa receptor antagonist) naltrexone-extended release (mu receptor antagonist) naloxone (antagonist to prevent overdose death from respiratory depression)
- Nicotine nicotine patch or gum (slow release replacement) bupropion (Wellbutrin, Zyban) atypical antidepressant, norepinephrine,-dopamine reuptake inhibitor) varenicline (Chantix) high affinity partial agonist

Ethanol

acute withdrawal risk of seizures is managed by carbamazepine or a benzodiazepine

naltrexone (mu receptor antagonist) nalmefene (mu receptor antagonist) acamprosate (glutamate receptor antagonist & GABA receptor positive allosteric modulator)

These medication assisted treatment options complement psychosocial interventions

What controls the risk for developing opioid use disorder?

Not currently predictable (except with persons with history of abuse)
Absence of socially protective environmental features
Genetic component: *Impulsivity & risk taking traits*Increased by co-morbid depression disorders: *self-medication*Increased by *stress vulnerability*Interactions with *chronic pain* syndromes
Neurodevelopmental vulnerabilities?

Open research questions...

Chronic relapsing disorder (defined by DSM5 criteria)

Initiation of drug use

Progression to habitual use

Escalation of drug consumption

Multiple failed attempts of abstinence

Progression from recreational use to compulsive use

How can we understand this process and develop effective treatments?

How does chronic social stress increase drug addiction risk?



In mice & rats...

norBNI blocked stress potentiated cocaine CPP



norBNI blocked escalation of heroin self-administration



McLaughlin 2003

Schlossburg 2013

Stress increases the rewarding valence of drugs of abuse, promotes CPP and reinstates extinguished drug seeking behaviors.

Stress-induced dysphoria (aversion) and anxiety-like behaviors are mediated by CRF-induced activation of the dynorphin/KOR system.

norBNI specifically blocks the aversion and anxiety-like behaviors, not learning.

How does dynorphin produce its proaddictive actions?

Dynorphins

Endogenous opioid peptides first detected in early 1970's 1973 Goldstein first detected dynorphin in pituitary extracts 1979 & 1981 Goldstein reported the sequence of dynorphin A 1982 Numa cloned and sequenced the dynorphin precursor



Kappa antagonists may have therapeutic benefit in the treatment of addiction

- Promote stress resilience reduce stress-induced relapse
- Attenuate the dysphoria during withdrawal reduce craving
- Will not block the euphorigenic effects of abused drugs

Depends on the validity of the preclinical models and the role of dynorphin in human brain – additional Pet imaging necessary Kappa antagonists in clinical trials

Buprenorphine (multiple trials establish therapeutic efficacy for opioids) Buprenorphine/naltrexone for opioids/cocaine (Rothman 2000; Gerra 2006) CURB study for cocaine dependence (Ling 2016). *Nonselective opioid drug*

CERC-501 (LY-2456302) *short acting KOR antagonist developed by Eli Lilly*

ALKS 5461 (Buprenorphine-Samidorphan) treatment resistant depression developed by Alkermes

JDTic (Buda 2015) Phase 1 trial (non-sustained ventricular tachycardia) developed by Ivy Carroll at Research Triangle Institute

PF-04455242 (Pfizer) *dropped because of toxicity*

Why Kappa Opioid Receptor Antagonists May Fail in Clinical Trials for Addiction and Depression Treatment.

- Preclinical animal models may lack predictive validity or reproducibility
- Dynorphin may function differently in humans than in rodents
- Relapse risk, drug-craving, drug seeking behaviors by humans may not be uniquely controlled by dynorphin / KOR function
- Competitive antagonist doses may be inadequate or require frequent and high dosing increasing the probability of off target effects
- Receptor-inactivating KOR antagonists may fail to get FDA approval

Wrap-up Summary:

- What are the principal addictive drugs and how do they act on brain?
- What is the brain reward system?
- How do opioids differ in their clinical pharmacology?
- What are the treatments for opioid, nicotine, alcohol dependence?
- Do opioids produce lasting effects on neuro development?

Questions?