

A study on dopaminergic and serotonergic genes that have a role in smoking addiction at the DNA level

Ülgen Sever^{1*}, Mehmet Atilla Uysal², Özge Pasin³, Sacide Pehlivan¹

¹Department of Medical Biology, Istanbul Faculty of Medicine, Institute of Graduate Studies in Health Sciences, Istanbul University, Istanbul, Türkiye

²Department of Chest Diseases, Yedikule Hospital for Chest Diseases and Thoracic Surgery, Health Sciences University, Istanbul, Türkiye

³Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, Faculty of Medicine, Bezmialem Vakıf University, Istanbul, Türkiye

ABSTRACT

Aim: To investigate *DRD2* (TaqIA and -141C Ins/Del), *DAT* (40-bp VNTR) and *MAO-A* (uVNTR) gene variants which have a role in dopaminergic and serotonergic systems within the frame of comparing them in smoker and non-smoker individuals; as well as to investigate them in case of clinical parameters such as their effects on age of starting to smoke, average number of cigarettes smoked each day and Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence score.

Methods: 164 smoker (90 male, 74 female) and 124 non-smoker (58 male, 66 female) individuals included in the study. Variants were analyzed by PCR or the PCR-RFLP method. Results were compared between groups and with clinical parameters.

Results: *DRD2*/-141C Ins/Del variant was found to be associated with smoking addiction ($p<0.001$) and clinical parameters ($p=0.037$), whereas *MAO-A*/uVNTR variant was associated with smoking addiction solely in male ($p=0.003$). No significant association was found in relation to smoking addiction and clinical parameters in *DRD2*/TaqIA and *DAT*/40 bp VNTR variants.

Conclusion: It was shown that *DRD2* Del/Del genotype, *MAO-A* 4R allele presence in males may contribute to the risk of smoking addiction; that *DRD2* Ins/Ins genotype, *MAO-A* 3.5R alleles in males may be linked to a protective effect. *DRD2* Ins/Del genotype was found to be associated with less smoking per day.

Key words: Genetics, nicotine dependence, dopamine, serotonin, variant.

✉ Ülgen Sever, Department of Medical Biology, Istanbul Faculty of Medicine, Institute of Graduate Studies in Health Sciences, Istanbul University, Istanbul, Türkiye

E-mail: ulgen.sever@ogr.iu.edu.tr

Received: 2024-06-12 / Revisions: 2024-07-19

Accepted: 2024-08-01 / Published: 2024-09-30

1. Introduction

Smoking addiction is a critical public health hazard in our country and in the whole world. According to data provided by World Health

Organization (WHO), there are more than 1 billion smokers whose age is 15 and older globally and approximately 19 million cigarette smokers who are between 13 and 15 years old [1]. Cancer types caused by smoking, lung diseases, and cardiovascular diseases are among the leading reasons of death in Turkey as well as in many countries of the world. In addition, passive exposure to cigarette smoke also causes these diseases. This addiction behavior is responsible for around 7 million deaths

worldwide each year [2].

Nicotine is the main component in cigarette smoke that causes the addiction [3]. Nicotine has the potential to become as severely addictive as heroin and cocaine. The effect of nicotine, as well as other addictive substances, on dopaminergic and serotonergic systems in the brain is critical in case of addiction [4, 5]. Dopamine secretion from nucleus accumbens due to nicotine plays a crucial role in generating nicotine reward [6, 7]. Studies have shown that the nicotine susceptibility of variations in dopaminergic systems controls the smoking phenotypes such as starting to smoke early and desire to smoke under stress [8-10]. There are evidences demonstrating that the serotonergic mechanisms may mediate behavioral effects of nicotine besides dopamine system. Studies have shown that the presence of nicotine in the brain increases serotonin secretion, whereas nicotine withdrawal has quite the opposite effect on it [11, 12]. It is hypothesized that the smoking addiction may be related to decreased serotonin neurotransmission originating from genetic variant [13]. Parallel to these findings; dopamine receptor D2 (DRD2), monoamine oxidase-A (MAO-A) that plays a role in dopamine and serotonin breakdown, and genes that code dopamine transporter (DAT) proteins which regulate recovery of dopamine from synaptic gap are the suitable candidate genes that may be related to the genetic bases of smoking addiction. *DRD2* gene is located on chromosome 11q23.2 [14]. TaqIA polymorphism on this gene is a functional single-nucleotide polymorphism causing glutamic acid (A2 allele) and lysine (A1 allele) amino acid replacement on codon 713, and it is found to be related to DRD2 protein amount and change in substrate connection specificity [15, 16]. Other polymorphism in this gene is in gene's promotor region, is on -141 position and is either cytosine (C) insertion (Ins)

or deletion (Del), hence named as -141C Ins/Del. This functional polymorphism alters *DRD2* expression, and Del allele is associated with low promotor activity [17].

The gene that codes DAT (*SLC6A3*, *DAT1*) is located on chromosome 5p15.33. *DAT* variant, which is the most studied variant, is a 40-bp VNTR located on 3'-untranslated region (3'-UTR) and may repeat between 3 and 13 times. It is proclaimed that this polymorphism may affect *DAT* expression [18].

MAO-A gene is located on chromosome X [19]. A 30-bp VNTR polymorphism is spotted on its promotor region of its gene that affects transcription level [20]. Studies shown that transcription efficiency is two to three times more in long alleles (3.5R, 4R and 5R) compared to short alleles (3R and 2R) and that 4R variant is transcribed more efficiently than other variants [20, 21].

The objective of this study is to evaluate DRD2 (TaqIA and -141C Ins/Del), *DAT* (40-bp VNTR), *MAO-A* (uVNTR) functional gene variants between smokers and non-smokers. It also aims to explore the association of these genetic variants with various clinical factors, such as the age of smoking initiation, the average number of cigarettes smoked each day and the scores obtained from the Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND).

2. Materials and methods

In this case-control study, 164 smoker individuals (90 males, 74 females) who applied to Yedikule Chest Diseases and Thoracic Surgery Training and Research Hospital, Smoking Cessation Polyclinic between ages of 18 and 80 are included in patient group. 124 non-smoker healthy individuals (58 males, 66 females) with no addictions between ages of 18 and 67 in control group. Our research has begun after acquiring the permission of Istanbul

University Istanbul Faculty of Medicine Clinic Studies Ethics Committee (2014/1196). Each voluntary participant is informed regarding the study and signed forms of consents are received.

Demographic data of the individuals in non-smoker group and demographic and clinical data and data regarding smoking addiction levels are recorded of the individuals in smoker group. Smoking addiction levels of individuals have been determined by using Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND) that consists of six items which evaluate the smoking behavior in different aspects [22, 23].

DNA is extracted from the peripheral blood samples of participants. Genetic variants of DRD2 (-141C Ins/Del) and DRD2 (TaqIA) are analyzed by PCR, while genetic variants of DAT (40bç VNTR) and MAO-A (uVNTR) are assessed by PCR-RFLP, according to previously established protocols [17, 24, 25, 26]. Details regarding the primers, annealing temperatures, and restriction enzymes utilized are provided in Table 1. PCR products are separated on 2.5% agarose gel, and digestion products are separated on 3.5% agarose gel, subjected to 80V for a minimum duration of 1 hour. The gels are subsequently visualized under UV light using a gel imaging system and individual genotypes are determined.

The results are compared both between the groups and with clinical parameters. Data analyses are performed with IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 21.0 (Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.). The genotype and allele distributions between smokers and non-smokers are compared by chi-square test or when appropriate by Fisher's exact test. Additionally, deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium are evaluated in both groups. The significance tests are two-tailed, and the results are considered statistically significant when p is less than 0.05.

3. Results

164 smokers and 124 non-smokers are included into our study. The age average of smoker group is 42.87 ± 13.24 , whereas non-smoker group's age average is 33.95 ± 12.48 . Gender distribution between smoker and non-smoker groups are determined to be similar ($p=0.173$).

Age of starting to smoke in individuals in the smoker group ranges between 8 and 44 and calculated to be 19.22 ± 6.09 age on average. Duration of smoking varies between 1 and 60 years, and average duration is calculated to be 23.87 ± 13.66 years. The number of cigarettes smoked per day by individuals in smoker group

Table 1. Primer sequences and methods used in analysis of studied region.

Studied Region	Method (Restriction Enzyme)	Primer Sequence	Annealing Temperature /Number of Cycles	[Ref]
DRD2 (-141C Ins/Del)	PCR-RFLP (BstNI*)	ACTGGCGAGCAGACGGTGAGGACCC TGCGCGCGTGAGGCTGCCGGTTCGG	63°C / 35 cycles	[17]
DRD2 (TaqIA)	PCR-RFLP (TaqI**)	GCACGTGCCACCATAACCC TGCAGAGCAGTCAGGCTG	57°C / 30 cycles	[24]
DAT (40bç VNTR)	PCR	TGTGGTGTAGGGAACGGCCTGAG CTTCCTGGAGGTCACGGCTCAAGG	65°C / 42 cycles	[25]
MAO-A (uVNTR)	PCR	ACAGCCTGACCGTGGAGAAG GAACGGACGCTCCATTCGGA	62°C / 35 cycles	[26]

* Thermo Scientific ** Thermo Scientific – Fast Digest

varies between 1 and 60. Average number of cigarettes smoked in a day is 20.34 ± 11.92 .

74.8% of the individuals in smoker group (N=116) tried to cease smoking at least once, and 25.2% of them (N=39) has never tried to cease smoking. After following for six months, it is determined that the ratio of the people who ceased smoking is 15.5% (N=23), and the ratio of the people who continued to smoke is 84.5% (N=125). The distribution of the answers given by individuals in the smoker group to Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence is demonstrated in Table 2.

3.1. DRD2 TaqIA

DRD2 TaqIA variant genotype and allele frequencies have been compared between smoker/non-smoker groups and no significant difference is observed (Table 3). It is determined that in smoker group, genotype distribution deviates from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($p=0.045$) (Table 3). Genotype and allele distribution in groups who ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment is also compared, and no significant relationship is found ($p>0.05$ for each) (data is not shown). DRD2 TaqIA genotypes have been compared in terms of

Table 2. Patient results for fagerstrom test for nicotine dependence.

Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence Questions	Answers	N (%)
How soon after you wake up do you smoke your first cigarette?	After 1 hour	36 (%22.9)
	30-60 minutes	41 (%26.1)
	6-9 minutes	26 (%16.6)
	Within 5 minutes	54 (%34.4)
Do you find it difficult to refrain from smoking in places where it is forbidden?	No	68 (%43.3)
	Yes	89 (%56.7)
Which cigarette would you hate most to give up?	All others	64 (%40.8)
	The first one in the morning	93 (%59.2)
How many cigarettes/day do you smoke?	10 or less	37 (%23.6)
	11-20	62 (%39.5)
	21-30	40 (%25.5)
	31 or more	18 (%11.5)
Do you smoke more frequently during the first hours after waking than during the rest of the day?	No	63 (%40.1)
	Yes	94 (%59.9)
Do you smoke if you are so ill that you are in bed most of the day?	No	68 (%43.6)
	Yes	88 (%56.4)

Table 3. DRD2 TaqIA genotype and allele distribution in smoker/non-smoker groups.

Variables		Smoker	Non-smoker	p
		N (%)	N (%)	
DRD2 TaqIA Genotype	A1/A1	8 (%5.1)	5 (%5.8)	0.147
	A1/A2	37 (%23.6)	30 (%34.9)	
	A2/A2	112 (%71.3)	51 (%59.3)	
	Total	157 (%100.0)	86 (%100.0)	
	HWEp	0.045	0.833	
DRD2 TaqIA Allele	A1	53 (%16.9)	40 (%23.3)	0.087
	A2	261 (%83.1)	132 (%76.7)	
	Total	314 (%100.0)	172 (%100.0)	

number of cigarettes smoked each day, Fagerstrom nicotine dependence score and age of starting to smoke, and no significant difference has been observed ($p>0.05$ for each) (data is not shown).

3.2. DRD2 -141C Ins/Del

Upon comparing genotype frequencies of this region between smoker/non-smoker groups, it is determined that in non-smoker group Ins/Ins genotype is significantly increased, whereas Del/Del genotype is significantly high in smoker group ($p<0.001$) (Table 4). In addition, allele

non-smoker group are determined to be deviating from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (respectively; $p=0.000$ and $p=0.027$) (Table 4). Genotype and allele distribution in groups who ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment is also compared and no significant relationship is found ($p>0.05$ for each) (data is not shown).

DRD2 -141C Ins/Del genotypes have been compared in terms of number of cigarettes smoked per day, Fagerstrom nicotine dependence score and age of starting to smoke; and the difference between genotypes is

Table 4. DRD2 -141C Ins/Del genotype and allele distribution in smoker/non-smoker groups.

Variables		Smoker	Non-smoker	<i>p</i>
		N (%)	N (%)	
DRD2 -141C Ins/Del Genotype	Ins/Ins	72 (%49.3)	64 (%81.0)	<0.001
	Ins/Del	32 (%21.9)	12 (%15.2)	
	Del/Del	42 (%28.8)	3 (%3.8)	
	Total	146 (%100.0)	79 (%100.0)	
	HWEp	0.000	0.027	
DRD2 -141C Ins/Del Allele	Ins	176 (%60.3)	140 (%88.6)	<0.001
	Del	116 (%39.7)	18 (%11.4)	
	Total	292 (%100.0)	158 (%100.0)	

Table 5. Comparison of DRD2 -141C Ins/Del genotypes in terms of various parameters.

Variables		N	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	<i>p</i>
Number of cigarettes smoked per day	Ins/Ins	70	23.43	20	2	60	0.037
	Ins/Del	30	16.80	20	5	35	
	Del/Del	42	18.76	20	1	60	
Fagerstrom nicotine dependence score	Ins/Ins	72	5.39	6	0	10	0.824
	Ins/Del	28	4.96	5.5	0	10	
	Del/Del	41	5.37	6	0	10	
Age of starting to smoke	Ins/Ins	70	18.77	18	10	40	0.084
	Ins/Del	31	21.55	20	10	44	
	Del/Del	41	18.00	17	8	37	

distribution in smoker and non-smoker groups is found to be significantly different ($p<0.001$). Ins allele is higher in non-smoker group, whereas Del allele is high in smoker group (Table 4). Genotype distributions both in smoker group and

statistically significant in case of number of cigarettes smoked per day ($p=0.037$) (Table 5). The differences are examined in detail, and it is found that the individuals having Ins/Del genotype smoke significantly less than the

individuals having Ins/Ins genotype (heterozygote advantage) ($p=0.022$). There is no significant difference between genotypes in terms of other parameters ($p>0.05$ for each) (Table 5).

3.3. DAT 40-bp VNTR

Distribution of genotypes and alleles of *DAT* 40-bp VNTR variant in smoker/non-smoker groups and also distribution of it in groups who cease/not cease smoking after treatment is determined. Genotypes determined in order for making statistical evaluation, divided into two groups as 10R/10R genotype and other genotypes [27]. When genotype groups are compared in smoker/non-smoker groups, no significant difference is determined ($p>0.05$) (data is not shown). Distribution of the genotype groups in groups who ceased/not ceased smoking is also compared, and no significant relationship is observed ($p>0.05$ for each) (data is not shown).

3.4. MAO-A uVNTR

As *MAO-A* is a gene located on X chromosome, genotype frequencies of *MAO-A* uVNTR variant are separately handled for men and women groups. There is no statistically significant difference observed in women in smoker/non-smoker groups ($p>0.005$) (Table 6). In men, it is

determined that 3.5R variant is significantly high in non-smoker group than smoker group and 4R variant is significantly high in smoker group ($p=0.003$) (Table 6). There is no significant difference observed in genotype distribution of people who ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment ($p>0.05$) (data is not shown).

4. Discussion

Nicotine, one of the important components of cigarette smoke, elevates synaptic concentrations of dopamine and serotonin more than natural rewards do. This is regarded as one of the factors as to why smoking habit is maintained. It is assumed that the genes regulating extracellular dopamine and serotonin concentrations are related to developing smoking addiction risk and cessation of smoking. *DRD2* (TaqIA and -141C Ins/Del), *DAT* (40-bp VNTR), *MAO-A* (uVNTR) gene variants in dopaminergic and serotonergic pathways of smoker and non-smoker individuals have been compared in this study and the relations of these gene variants regarding the clinical parameters such as age of starting to smoke, number of cigarettes smoked per day, and

Table 6. MAO-A uVNTR genotype and allele distribution in smoker/non-smoker groups.

Variables		Smoker	Non-smoker	<i>p</i>
		N (%)	N (%)	
Females <i>MAO-A</i> uVNTR Genotype	3.5R/3.5R	17 (%23.6)	6 (%9.7)	<i>0.081</i>
	3.5R/4R	30 (%41.7)	29 (%46.8)	
	3.5R/5R	0 (%0.0)	3 (%4.8)	
	4R/4R	23 (%31.9)	23 (%37.1)	
	4R/5R	2 (%2.8)	1 (%1.6)	
	Total	72(%100.0)	62 (%100.0)	
Males <i>MAO-A</i> uVNTR Genotype	3.5R	26 (%30.2)	29 (%56.9)	<i>0.003</i>
	4R	58 (%67.4)	20 (%39.2)	
	5R	2 (%2.3)	2 (%3.9)	
	Total	86 (%100.0)	51 (%100.0)	

Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND) score have been studied. There is no comprehensive study in the literature that examine the relationship between these genetic factors, smoking status, and clinical parameters within our population. Our research fills this gap by identifying genetic factors specific to our population. This research will enhance our understanding of the causes of smoking addiction and provide insights into the effectiveness of various treatment approaches.

DRD2 is located in dopaminergic neurons which are centrally present in brain's reward pathways and serves a function in dopamine secretion as an auto receptor [28]. The substantial place of it in regulating the dopaminergic system turned DRD2 into the focus of many genetic studies regarding the addictions. *DRD2* TaqIA variant is one of the most studied variants in terms of addiction. It is asserted that A1 allele is related to DRD2 receptor intensity and function decrease [16, 29]. Various studies propose that A1 allele is correlated with alcoholism [30], substance use disorder [31] and obesity [32]. Some studies which study relationship between *DRD2* TaqIA variant and smoking addiction correlates A1 allele with smoking addiction tendency [33-36]. In a research containing Malay male population it is found that A1/A2 genotype is related to smoking [37], whereas in researches in Japan population, A2/A2 genotype is correlated with high smoking addiction risk [38, 39]. Styn et al. alleged that the individuals who have A2/A2 genotype have more tendency to cease smoking compared to the individuals who have at least one A1 allele [40]. There are also some studies in literature that compared smoking and non-smoking individuals in terms of *DRD2* TaqIA variant and found no significant difference in allele distribution [41-43]. However, in various studies, it is asserted that there is no significant relationship between

TaqIA variant and smoking cessation [44, 45]. Liu et al. determined a correlation between *DRD2* TaqIA variation and number of cigarettes smoked per day in a study they performed on Chinese males *DRD2* TaqIA [46]. On the contrary, in various studies that evaluate TaqIA genotypes in terms of age of starting to smoke, number of cigarettes smoked per day and FTND score, there is no relationship is found [42, 47, 48]. Whereas in our study; when TaqIA variant is examined in terms of smoking and smoking cessation, there is no significant difference is observed between groups. Suchlike, there is no significant correlation is spotted between TaqIA genotypes and number of cigarettes smoked per day, FTND score and age of starting to smoke.

-141C Ins/Del functional variant in *DRD2* gene changes the *DRD2* expression, Del allele is correlated with low promotor activity and Del allele is determined to cause 21-43% less *DRD2* expression (17). It is seen that in the studies in literature, there is no significant relationship between -141C Ins/Del variant and smoking status, smoking cessation, age of starting to smoke and number of cigarettes smoked per day [36, 38, 40, 48]. In a study consisting of electronic cigarette smokers, there is no significant relationship is found between -141C Ins/Del variation and smoking status again [49]. In our study, -141C Ins/Del variant is determined to be significantly correlated with smoking both on genotype and allele level (Table 4). Ins/Ins genotype exhibits a significantly higher frequency among non-smokers, while Del/Del genotype is predominantly found in the smoker group. Similarly, the presence of Ins allele increases among non-smokers, while Del allele is more prevalent in smokers. These findings suggest that Ins allele may be associated with a protective effect against smoking addiction, whereas Del allele appears to be linked to a predisposition for smoking addiction.

Genotypes, when investigated in case of number of cigarettes smoked per day, it is observed that the number of the cigarettes smoked per day by the individuals that have Ins/Del genotype is significantly lower than those who have Ins/Ins genotype (Table 5). This circumstance can be interpreted as the individuals having Ins/Del genotype have the heterozygote advantage. There is no relationship observed between -141C Ins/Del variant and smoking cessation in our study. When genotypes are compared in terms of age of starting to smoke and FTND score, there is no significant difference observed as well.

DAT1 gene codes dopamine transporter (DAT) which is an important part of dopaminergic system and regulator of extracellular dopamine intensity [50-52]. It is proposed that the 40-bp VNTR variant may affect *DAT* expression [18]. 9R and 10R alleles are the most common ones, and allele frequencies differ among populations. Uzun et al. [53] found mostly 10R and 11R variants in the study they performed on Turkish population regarding the relation between obesity and *DAT1* VNTR gene variant. The results of the studies that examine the correlation between DAT protein level and 10R allele are contradictory. DAT intensity in individuals having homozygote 10R genotype is observed to be significantly increased via some of the brain imaging studies [54]. In various studies, 10R allele is correlated with abnormally active DAT level, correspondingly increasing the dopamine retrieval [55]. It is assumed that individuals having 10R allele may receive higher rewards from nicotine [56].

There are also some studies that correlate 10R allele with decreased DAT intensity [57, 58]. Ohmoto et al. [27] expressed that 10R/10R genotype may decrease *DAT* expression, causing high synaptic dopamine level; and this situation may prevent heavy smoking. Some reports show

that there are no functional differences in this variant [59-61]. There are some studies that correlate *DAT1* gene with addiction behavior [40, 62-65]. Studies that investigate the relationship between smoking addiction and 40-bp VNTR variant brought a wide variety of results. Various studies correlate *DAT1* 9R allele with low smoking addiction risk and increase in smoking cessation [62, 66-68]. Laucht et al. [69] found out that *DAT1* 10R/10R genotype is related to early smoking and decrease in smoking cessation. On contrary of these studies, Vandenberg et al. [70] suggested that 10R allele is observed more frequently in adults who never smoked, whereas Ohmoto et al. [27] observed in the wake of a study they performed in 2014 that 10R/10R genotype is correlated with low nicotine addiction. There are studies that do not discover a relation between *DAT* 40-bp VNTR variant and smoking addiction. Sieminska et al. [56] observed in the wake of a study they performed in 2009 that there is no significant difference in *DAT1* gene variants distribution in smokers and non-smokers. Yet in the same study, when they compared 10R/10R variant to other genotypes, they could not determine a significant difference in terms of number of cigarette smoked each day and the age of smoking initiation. Jorm et al. [71] did not determine a significant relation between *DAT1* gene and starting and ceasing to smoke. In other studies, no relationship is observed between smoking cessation and *DAT1* gene variant [44, 72]. In our study; genotypes belonging to *DAT* 40-bp VNTR variant are split into two groups for enabling statistical evaluation: 10R/10R genotype and other genotypes [27]. Genotype groups have been compared between smoker/non-smoker groups and no significant difference is determined. There is no significant difference observed in distribution of people who ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment.

MAO enzyme facilitates oxidative deamination of biogenic amines, including dopamine and serotonin [73, 74]. The gene that codes MAO-A protein, one of the two subtypes of MAO, is located on the short arm of chromosome X [75]. This gene is an important candidate in terms of smoking addiction genetics. Some evidence shows that the individual differences in MAO enzyme amount and activity may affect smoking or smoking cessation behaviors [76]. Fowler et al. [77, 78] demonstrated in a study in which positron emission tomography method is used that smokers have less active MAO-A isoenzyme compared to that of non-smokers. It is asserted that *MAO-A* (uVNTR) variant in this gene causes differences in enzyme level and activity. It is shown in studies that *MAO-A* 4R variant is transcribed more efficiently than other variants and that transcription efficiency is up to two to three times higher in long alleles (3.5R, 4R and 5R) than short alleles (3R and 2R) [21]. Ito et al. [79] have not determined a significant distribution difference between smoker and non-smokers in males in terms of *MAO-A* genotype, whereas males that have 4R allele have a higher FTND score compared to those that do not. In females, having 4R allele is correlated with lower smoking risk. Jin et al. (2006) [80] designated that males that have 3R genotype, which causes low MAO-A enzyme activity, have a higher risk of smoking compared to the males that have 4R genotype. *MAO* gene variants that have a low enzyme activity are stated to be protective against heavy smoking, in a meta-analysis study, comprising 11 articles, made in order to evaluate the relationship between *MAO* variants and smoking habits. In addition, *MAO-A* uVNTR active variant is specified to lower the success rate of smoking cessation in males. In the study of Tochigi et al. [81], there is no significant relation is found between *MAO-A* uVNTR and

smoking habit. Alike, in the study of Huang et al. [82], 1518 persons were genotyped in terms of *MAO-A* uVNTR variant and no significant correlation is spotted between *MAO-A* uVNTR variant and smoking habit. In a different study, it is ascertained that females having a short allele have a lower risk of starting to smoke. In the same study, compared to non-smoker females, homozygote short allele is observed more frequently in smoker females [83]. Kōks et al. [84] correlated 3R allele with a stronger smoking addiction in a study performed on Vietnamese male population. In our study; genotype distributions of *MAO-A* uVNTR variant is compared between smoker/non-smoker and groups that ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment (separately for males and females). No statistically significant difference is observed in females, whereas in males 3.5R variant is found to be higher in non-smoker group and 4R variant is found to be higher in smoker group (Table 6). Nevertheless, it is observed that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups that ceased/not ceased smoking after treatment.

4.1. Conclusions

Consequently, both genotype and allele distributions of *DRD2*/-141C Ins/Del variants are determined to be significantly different between smoker and non-smoker groups. In non-smoker group, Ins/Ins genotype and Ins allele is significantly high, whereas in smoker group Del/Del genotype and Del allele is significantly high. No significant difference is observed in case of *MAO-A*/uVNTR variant genotype distribution in females between smoker and non-smoker groups; whereas in males 3.5R variant is observed significantly more frequently in non-smoker group, and 4R variant is observed significantly more frequently in smoker. No significant difference is determined between smoker and non-smoker groups in terms of

DRD2/TaqIA and *DAT*/40-bp VNTR variants' genotype and allele distribution. Also, when the studied variants are investigated in cases of clinical parameters such as age of starting to smoke, Fagerstrom Test for Nicotine Dependence score and number of cigarettes smoked per day; a significant correlation is determined between *DRD2*-141C Ins/Del variant and number of the cigarettes smoked per day only. The number of cigarettes smoked per day by individuals having Ins/Del genotype is significantly lower than that of individuals having Ins/Ins genotype.

This study has several limitations, including its relatively small sample size from a single center and its focus solely on the Turkish population. Despite these limitations, it is the first research to examine *DRD2* (TaqIA and -141C Ins/Del), *DAT* (40-bp VNTR), and *MAO-A* (uVNTR) gene variants in relation to smoking behavior and associated clinical parameters in the Turkish population. Our findings suggest that the *DRD2* Del/Del genotype and presence of the *MAO-A* 4R allele in males may contribute to the tendency for smoking addiction; and that the *DRD2* Ins/Ins genotype and presence of the *MAO-A* 3.5R allele in males may be correlated with protection. These results contribute valuable insights into the genetic underpinnings of smoking addiction in the Turkish population. Future research should involve larger sample sizes and diverse populations, and should also consider epigenetic factors. Addressing these limitations could contribute to the development of more effective strategies for preventing and treating nicotine addiction.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank the “Yedikule Smoking Cessation Study Group” for their contributions. Yedikule Smoking Cessation Study Group: Ayşe Bahadır, Sibel Yurt, Efsun Gonca

Uğur Chousein, Seda Tural Onur, Balma Akbaba Bağcı, Didem Görgün Hattatoğlu, M. Gönenç Ortaköylü, Barış Açıkmeşe, Şule Gül, Elif Tanrıverdi O.

Funding: *The present work was supported by the Research Fund of Istanbul University (Project No. 50695) and by Turkish Green Crescent Postgraduate Scholarship Program.*

Conflict of Interest: *The other authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to report.*

Ethical Statement: *This study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Ethics Committee of Istanbul University, Faculty of Medicine (2014/1196).*

Open Access Statement

Experimental Biomedical Research is an open access journal and all content is freely available without charge to the user or his/her institution. This journal is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Users are allowed to read, download, copy, distribute, print, search, or link to the full texts of the articles, or use them for any other lawful purpose, without asking prior permission from the publisher or the author.

Copyright (c) 2024: Author (s).

References

- [1] WHO global report on trends in prevalence of tobacco use 2000–2030. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2024. Licence: CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 IGO. Available from: <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240088283>
- [2] Dai X, Gakidou E, Lopez AD. Evolution of the global smoking epidemic over the past half century: strengthening the evidence base

- for policy action. *Tob Control*. 2022;31(2):129-137.
- [3]Stolerman IP, Jarvis MJ. The scientific case that nicotine is addictive. *Psychopharmacology*. 1995; 117:2–10.
- [4]Koob GF. Neural mechanisms of drug reinforcement. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 1992; 654:171–191.
- [5]Wise RA. Dopamine, learning and motivation. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2004; 5:483–494.
- [6]Corrigall WA, Coen KM, Adamson KL. Self-administered nicotine activates the mesolimbic dopamine system through the ventral tegmental area. *Brain Res*. 1994; 653:278-284
- [7]Di Chiara G, Bassareo V, Fenu S, et al. Dopamine and drug addiction: the nucleus accumbens shell connection. *Neuropharmacology*. 2004; 47(1):227-241.
- [8]Perkins KA, Lerman C, Coddington S, et al. Gene and gene by sex associations with initial sensitivity to nicotine in nonsmokers. *Behav Pharmacol*. 2008; 19:630-640.
- [9]Ling D, Niu T, Feng Y, et al. Association between polymorphism of the dopamine transporter gene and early smoking onset: an interaction risk on nicotine dependence. *J Hum Genet*. 2004; 49:35-39.
- [10]Erblich J, Lerman C, Self DW, et al. Stress-induced cigarette craving: effects of the DRD2 TaqI RFLP and SLC6A3 VNTR polymorphisms. *Pharmacogenomics J*. 2004; 4:102-109.
- [11]Ribeiro EB, Bettiker RL, Bogdanov M, et al. Effects of systemic nicotine on serotonin release in rat brain. *Brain Res*. 1993; 621:311-318.
- [12]Mihailescu S, Palomero-Rivero M, Meade-Huerta P, et al. Effects of nicotine and mecamylamine on rat dorsal raphe neurons. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 1998; 360:31-36.
- [13]Lerman C, Shields PG, Audrain J, et al. The role of the serotonin transporter gene in cigarette smoking. *Cancer Epidem Biomar*. 1998; 7:253-255.
- [14]Eubanks JH, Djabali M, Selleri L, et al. Structure and linkage of the D2 dopamine receptor and neural cell adhesion molecule genes on human chromosome 11q23. *Genomics*. 1992; 14(4):1010-1018.
- [15]Neville MJ, Johnstone EC, Walton RT. Identification and characterization of ANKK1: a novel kinase gene closely linked to DRD2 on chromosome band 11q23.1. *Hum Mutat*. 2004; 23:540-545.
- [16]Jonsson EG, Nothen MM, Grunhage F, et al. Polymorphisms in the dopamine D2 receptor gene and their relationships to striatal dopamine receptor density of healthy volunteers. *Mol Psychiatry*. 1999; 4:290-296
- [17]Arinami T, Gao M, Hamaguchi H, et al. A functional polymorphism in the promoter region of the dopamine D2 receptor gene is associated with schizophrenia. *Hum Mol Genet*. 1997; 6(4):577-582.
- [18]Vandenbergh DJ, Persico AM, Hawkins AL, et al. Human dopamine transporter gene (DAT1) maps to chromosome 5p15.3 and displays a VNTR. *Genomics*. 1992; 14:1104-1106.
- [19]Berlin I, Anthenelli RM. Monoamine oxidases and tobacco smoking. *Int J Neuropsychoph*. 2001; 4:33–42.
- [20]Sabol S, Hu S, Hamer D. A functional polymorphism in the monoamine oxidase A gene promoter. *Hum Genet*. 1998; 103:273-279.
- [21]Deckert J, Catalano M, Sygailo YV, et al. Excess of high activity monoamine oxidase A gene promoter alleles in female patients with panic disorder. *Hum Mol Genet*. 1999; 8:621-624.

- [22] Heatherton TF, Kozlowski LT, Frecker RC, et al. The Fagerström test for nicotine dependence: a revision of the Fagerstrom Tolerance Questionnaire. *Brit J Addict.* 1991; 86(9):1119-1127.
- [23] Fagerstrom KO, Heatherton TF, Kozlowski LT. Nicotine addiction and its assessment. *Ear Nose Throat J.* 1990; 69(11):763-5.
- [24] He M, Yan H, Duan ZX, et al. Genetic distribution and association analysis of DRD2 gene polymorphisms with major depressive disorder in the Chinese Han population. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol.* 2013; 6(6):1142.
- [25] Shinohara M, Mizushima H, Hirano M, et al. Eating disorders with binge-eating behaviour are associated with the s allele of the 3'-UTR VNTR polymorphism of the dopamine transporter gene. *J Psychiatr Neurosci.* 2004; 29(2):134.
- [26] Haberstick BC, Lessem JM, Hopfer CJ, et al. Monoamine oxidase A (MAOA) and antisocial behaviors in the presence of childhood and adolescent maltreatment. *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet.* 2005; 135:59-64.
- [27] Ohmoto M, Takahashi T, Kubota Y, et al. Genetic influence of dopamine receptor, dopamine transporter, and nicotine metabolism on smoking cessation and nicotine dependence in a Japanese population. *BMC Genet.* 2014; 15(1):1.
- [28] L'hirondel M, Chery A, Godeheu G, et al. Lack of autoreceptor-mediated inhibitory control of dopamine release in striatal synaptosomes of D2 receptor-deficient mice. *Brain Res.* 1998; 792(2):253-262.
- [29] Thompson J, Thomas N, Singleton A, et al. D2 dopamine receptor gene (DRD2) Taq1 A polymorphism: reduced dopamine D2 receptor binding in the human striatum associated with the A1 allele. *Pharmacogenetics.* 1997; 7:479-484.
- [30] Lawford BR, Young RM, Rowell JA, et al. Bromocriptine in the treatment of alcoholics with the D2 dopamine receptor A1 allele. *Nat Med.* 1995; 1:337-341.
- [31] Comings DE, Muhleman D, Ahn C, et al. The dopamine D2 receptor gene: a genetic risk factor in substance abuse. *Drug Alcohol Depen.* 1994; 34:175-180.
- [32] Noble EP, Noble RE, Ritchie T, et al. D2 dopamine receptor gene and obesity. *Int J Eat Disord.* 1994; 15:205-217
- [33] Comings DE, Ferry L, Bradshaw-Robinson S, et al. The dopamine D2 receptor (DRD2) gene: a genetic risk factor in smoking. *Pharmacogenetics.* 1996; 6:73-79.
- [34] Noble EP, Jeor SS, Ritchie T, et al. D2 dopamine receptor gene and cigarette smoking: a reward gene? *Med Hypotheses.* 1994; 42:257-260.
- [35] Li MD, Ma JZ, Beuten J. Progress in searching for susceptibility loci and genes for smoking-related behaviour. *Clin Genet.* 2004; 66:382-392.
- [36] Voisey J, Swagell CD, Hughes IP, et al. A DRD2 and ANKK1 haplotype is associated with nicotine dependence. *Psychiatr Res.* 2012; 196(2):285-289.
- [37] Ruzilawati AB, Islam MA, Muhamed SKS, et al. Smoking Genes: A Case-Control Study of Dopamine Transporter Gene (SLC6A3) and Dopamine Receptor Genes (DRD1, DRD2 and DRD3) Polymorphisms and Smoking Behaviour in a Malay Male Cohort. *Biomolecules.* 2020; 10(12):1633.
- [38] Yoshida K, Hamajima N, Kozaki KI, et al. Association between the dopamine D2 receptor A2/A2 genotype and smoking behavior in the Japanese. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2001; 10(4):403-405.
- [39] Hamajima N, Ito H, Matsuo K, et al. Association between Smoking Habits and Dopamine Receptor D2 Taq1 A A2 Allele in

- Japanese Males: a Confirmatory Study. *J Epidemiol*. 2002; 12(4):297-304.
- [40] Styn MA, Nukui T, Romkes M, et al. The impact of genetic variation in DRD2 and SLC6A3 on smoking cessation in a cohort of participants 1 year after enrollment in a lung cancer screening study. *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet*. 2009; 150(2):254-261.
- [41] Spitz MR, Shi H, Yang F, et al. Case-control study of the D2 dopamine receptor gene and smoking status in lung cancer patients. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1998; 90:358-363.
- [42] Batra A, Gelfort G, Bartels M, et al. The dopamine D2 receptor (DRD2) gene—a genetic risk factor in heavy smoking? *Addict Biol*. 2000; 5:429-436.
- [43] Johnstone EC, Yudkin P, Griffiths SE, et al. The dopamine D2 receptor C32806T polymorphism (DRD2 Taq1A RFLP) exhibits no association with smoking behaviour in a healthy UK population. *Addict Biol*. 2004; 9:221-226.
- [44] Ton TG, Rossing MA, Bowen DJ, et al. Genetic polymorphisms in dopamine-related genes and smoking cessation in women: a prospective cohort study. *Behav Brain Funct*. 2007; 3:22.
- [45] Berlin I, Covey LS, Jiang H, et al. Lack of effect of D2 dopamine receptor TaqI A polymorphism on smoking cessation. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2005; 7(5):725-728.
- [46] Liu Q, Xu Y, Mao Y, et al. Genetic and epigenetic analysis revealing variants in the NCAM1–TTC12–ANKK1–DRD2 cluster associated significantly with nicotine dependence in Chinese Han smokers. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2019.
- [47] Radwan GN, El-Setouhy M, Mohamed MK, et al. DRD2/ANKK1 TaqI polymorphism and smoking behavior of Egyptian male cigarette smokers. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2007; 9(12):1325-1329.
- [48] Svyryd Y, Ramírez-Venegas A, Sánchez-Hernández B, et al. Genetic Risk Determinants for Cigarette Smoking Dependence in Mexican Mestizo Families. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2016; 18(5):620-625.
- [49] Grzywacz A, Suchanecka A, Chmielowiec J, et al. Personality Traits or Genetic Determinants—Which Strongly Influences E-Cigarette Users? *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2020; 17(1):365.
- [50] Dani JA, Heinemann S. Molecular and cellular aspects of nicotine abuse. *Neuron*. 1996; 16:905-908.
- [51] Caron MG. Images in neuroscience. Molecular biology, II. A dopamine transporter mouse knockout. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1996; 153:1515.
- [52] Uhl GR. Dopamine transporter: basic science and human variation of a key molecule for dopaminergic function, locomotion, and parkinsonism. *Mov Disord*. 2003; 18(7):71–80
- [53] Uzun M, Saglar E, Kucukyildirim S, et al. Association of VNTR polymorphisms in DRD4, 5-HTT and DAT1 genes with obesity. *Arch Physiol Biochem*. 2015; 121(2):75-79.
- [54] Heinz A, Goldman D, Jones DW, et al. Genotype influences in vivo dopamine transporter availability in human striatum. *Neuropsychopharmacol*. 2000; 22:133-139.
- [55] Mill J, Asherson P, Browes C, et al. Expression of the dopamine transporter gene is regulated by the 3' UTR VNTR. Evidence from brain and lymphocytes using quantitative RT-PCR. *Am J Med Genet*. 2002; 114(8):975-979
- [56] Sieminska A, Buczkowski K, Jassem E, et al. Influences of polymorphic variants of DRD2 and SLC6A3 genes, and their combinations on smoking in Polish population. *BMC Med Genet*. 2009; 10(1):1.

- [57] Jacobsen LK, Staley JK, Zoghbi SS, et al. Prediction of dopamine transporter binding availability by genotype: a preliminary report. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2000; 157:1700-1703.
- [58] van Dyck CH, Malison RT, Jacobsen LK, et al. Increased dopamine transporter availability associated with the 9-repeat allele of the SLC6A3 gene. *J Nucl Med*. 2005; 46:745-751.
- [59] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Cigarette smoking among adults United States, 2002. *MMWR-Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*. 2004; 53(20):427-431.
- [60] Anthony JC, Warner LA, Kessler RC. Comparative epidemiology of dependence on tobacco, alcohol, controlled substances, and inhalants: basic findings from the National Comorbidity Survey. *Exp Clin Psychopharmacol*. 1994; 2(3):244-68.
- [61] Kandel D, Chen K, Warner LA, et al. Prevalence and demographic correlates of symptoms of last year dependence on alcohol, nicotine, marijuana and cocaine in the U.S. population. *Drug Alcohol Dependence*. 1997; 44(1):11-29.
- [62] Lerman C, Caporaso NE, Audrain J, et al. Evidence suggesting the role of specific genetic factors in cigarette smoking. *Health Psychol*. 1999; 18:14-20.
- [63] Sabol SZ, Nelson ML, Fisher C, et al. A genetic association for cigarette smoking behavior. *Health Psychol*. 1999; 18:7-13.
- [64] Hiemstra M, Engels RC, Barker ED, et al. Smoking-specific parenting and smoking onset in adolescence: the role of genes from the dopaminergic system (DRD2, DRD4, DAT1 genotypes). *Plos One*. 2013; 8(4):e61673.
- [65] Samochowiec J, Kucharska-Mazur J, Grzywacz A, et al. Family-based and case-control study of DRD2, DAT, 5HTT, COMT genes polymorphisms in alcohol dependence. *Neurosci Lett*. 2006; 410:1-5.
- [66] Segman RH, Kanyas K, Karni O, et al. Why do young women smoke? IV. Role of genetic variation in the dopamine transporter and lifetime traumatic experience. *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet*. 2007; 144(4):533-540.
- [67] Ma Y, Yuan W, Cui W, et al. Meta-analysis reveals significant association of 3'-UTR VNTR in SLC6A3 with smoking cessation in Caucasian populations. *Pharmacogenomics J*. 2016; 16(1):10-17.
- [68] Tiili EM, Mitiushkina NV, Sukhovskaya OA, et al. The effect of SLC6A3 variable number of tandem repeats and methylation levels on individual susceptibility to start tobacco smoking and on the ability of smokers to quit smoking. *Pharmacogenetics and Genomics*. 2020; 30(6):117-123.
- [69] Laucht M, Becker K, Frank J, et al. Genetic variation in dopamine pathways differentially associated with smoking progression in adolescence. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2008; 47(6):673-681.
- [70] Vandenberg DJ, Bennett CJ, Grant MD, et al. Smoking status and the human dopamine transporter variable number of tandem repeats (VNTR) polymorphism: failure to replicate and finding that never-smokers may be different. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2002; 4(3):333-340.
- [71] Jorm AF, Henderson AS, Jacomb PA, et al. Association of smoking and personality with a polymorphism of the dopamine transporter gene: results from a community survey. *Am J Med Genet*. 2000; 96:331-334.
- [72] Tashkin DP, Rabinoff M, Noble EP, et al. Association of dopamine-related gene alleles, smoking behavior and decline in FEV1 in subjects with COPD: findings from the lung health study. *COPD*. 2012; 9(6):620-628.

- [73] Lewis A, Miller JH, Lea RA. Monoamine oxidase and tobacco dependence. *Neurotoxicology*. 2007; 28(1):182-195.
- [74] Rendu F, Peoc'h K, Berlin I, et al. Smoking related diseases: the central role of monoamine oxidase. *Int J Env Res Pub He*. 2011; 8(1):136-147.
- [75] Chen K. Organization of MAO A and MAO B promoters and regulation of gene expression. *Neurotoxicology*. 2004; 25(1):31-36.
- [76] Harro J, Fischer K, Vansteelandt S, et al. Both low and high activities of platelet monoamine oxidase increase the probability of becoming a smoker. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol*. 2004; 14:65-69.
- [77] Fowler JS, Volkow ND, Wang GJ, et al. Brain monoamine oxidase A inhibition in cigarette smokers. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1996; 93:14065-14069.
- [78] Fowler JS, Volkow ND, Wang GJ, et al. Inhibition of monoamine oxidase B in the brains of smokers. *Nature*. 1996; 379:733-736.
- [79] Ito H, Hamajima N, Matsuo K, et al. Monoamine oxidase polymorphisms and smoking behaviour in Japanese. *Pharmacogenet Genom*. 2003; 13(2):73-79.
- [80] Jin Y, Chen D, Hu Y, et al. Association between monoamine oxidase gene polymorphisms and smoking behaviour in Chinese males. *Int J Neuropsychop*. 2006; 9(5):557-564
- [81] Tochigi M, Suzuki K, Kato C, et al. Association study of monoamine oxidase and catechol-O-methyltransferase genes with smoking behavior. *Pharmacogenet Genom*. 2007; 17: 867-872.
- [82] Huang S, Cook DG, Hinks LJ, et al. CYP2A6, MAOA, DBH, DRD4, and 5HT2A genotypes, smoking behaviour and cotinine levels in 1518 UK adolescents. *Pharmacogenet Genom*. 2005; 15:839-850
- [83] Tiili EM, Mitiushkina NV, Sukhovskaya OA, et al. The genotypes and methylation of MAO genes as factors behind smoking behavior. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*. 2017; 27(11):394-401.
- [84] Kõks G, Prans E, Ho XD, et al. Genetic interaction between two VNTRs in the MAOA gene is associated with the nicotine dependence. *Experimental Biology and Medicine*. 2020; 245(8):733-739.