

A Double-Blind, Randomized, Controlled Pilot Trial of N-Acetylcysteine in Veterans With Posttraumatic Stress Disorder and Substance Use Disorders

Sudie E. Back, PhD^{a,c,*}; Jenna L. McCauley, PhD^a; Kristina J. Korte, MS^{a,c}; Daniel F. Gros, PhD^{a,c}; Virginia Leavitt, MD^a; Kevin M. Gray, MD^a; Mark B. Hamner, MD^{a,c}; Stacia M. DeSantis, PhD^a; Robert Malcolm, MD^{a,c}; Kathleen T. Brady, MD, PhD^{a,c}; and Peter W. Kalivas, PhD^b

ABSTRACT

Objective: The antioxidant *N*-acetylcysteine is being increasingly investigated as a therapeutic agent in the treatment of substance use disorders (SUDs). This study explored the efficacy of *N*-acetylcysteine in the treatment of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), which frequently co-occurs with SUD and shares impaired prefrontal cortex regulation of basal ganglia circuitry, in particular at glutamate synapses in the nucleus accumbens.

Methods: Veterans with PTSD and SUD per *DSM-IV* criteria (*N* = 35) were randomly assigned to receive a double-blind, 8-week course of *N*-acetylcysteine (2,400 mg/d) or placebo plus cognitive-behavioral therapy for SUD (between March 2013 and April 2014). Primary outcome measures included PTSD symptoms (Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale, PTSD Checklist-Military) and craving (Visual Analog Scale). Substance use and depression were also assessed.

Results: Participants treated with *N*-acetylcysteine compared to placebo evidenced significant improvements in PTSD symptoms, craving, and depression (β values < -0.33; *P* values < .05). Substance use was low for both groups, and no significant between-group differences were observed. *N*-acetylcysteine was well tolerated, and retention was high.

Conclusions: This is the first randomized controlled trial to investigate *N*-acetylcysteine as a pharmacologic treatment for PTSD and SUD. Although preliminary, the findings provide initial support for the use of *N*-acetylcysteine in combination with psychotherapy among individuals with co-occurring PTSD and SUD.

Trial Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT02499029

J Clin Psychiatry 2016;77(11):e1439–e1446
dx.doi.org/10.4088/JCP.15m10239

© Copyright 2016 Physicians Postgraduate Press, Inc.

^aDepartments of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences and
^bNeuroscience, Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston

^cRalph H. Johnson Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Charleston, South Carolina

*Corresponding author: Sudie E. Back, PhD, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Medical University of South Carolina, 5 Charleston Center Dr, Ste 151, Charleston, SC 29407 (backs@muscc.edu).

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is the most common mental health disorder among veterans presenting at US Veterans Affairs (VA) hospitals,¹ and 45.7% of military personnel with PTSD remain symptomatic 3 years after discontinuing service.² Data from the Department of Veterans Affairs indicate that, among veterans serving in the Vietnam era or later (*N* = 1,001,996), 41.4% with a substance use disorder (SUD) meet criteria for current PTSD.³ Veterans with co-occurring PTSD/SUD have poor treatment outcomes on multiple indices of functioning (eg, social problems, suicide attempts) and undergo more episodes of SUD treatment.⁴

Pharmacologic treatment for co-occurring PTSD/SUD is not well explored. Only selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) have received US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval for the treatment of PTSD.^{5,6} Investigations of pharmacologic treatments of co-occurring PTSD/SUD have had suboptimal results.^{7–10} The antioxidant *N*-acetylcysteine has been used in the treatment of acetaminophen overdose for over 3 decades¹¹ and is being increasingly investigated as a therapeutic agent for a variety of psychiatric disorders that share impaired executive functioning, impulse control, and top-down regulation, including addiction (ie, cannabis, cocaine, nicotine), gambling, and trichotillomania.^{11–13} Preclinical and clinical research suggests that *N*-acetylcysteine normalizes extracellular glutamate by restoring the activity of glutamate transporters and antiporters in the nucleus accumbens.¹⁴ Animal models demonstrate that chronic SUD down-regulates the glial glutamate transporter (GLT-1, EAAT-2) in the nucleus accumbens, and treatment with *N*-acetylcysteine restores this transporter, thereby normalizing synaptic glutamate transmission.¹²

Accumulating research suggests that there may be shared neurobiological mechanisms underlying PTSD and SUD,¹⁵ which might respond favorably to *N*-acetylcysteine. For example, PTSD and SUD share impaired prefrontal cortex regulation of basal ganglia circuitry, in particular at glutamate synapses in the nucleus accumbens.^{16–18} Neuroimaging studies demonstrate that individuals with PTSD exhibit hypoactive executive functioning (prefrontal cortex) and hyperactive fear circuitry (amygdala) activity^{19–21} and significant uncoupling between the prefrontal cortex and amygdala at rest and during symptom provocation.^{22,23} Similarly, individuals with SUD also demonstrate attenuated prefrontal-amygdala functional connectivity,^{18,24} which is a marker of early relapse risk.²⁵ This converging evidence suggests that the prefrontal cortex of individuals with PTSD/SUD is less able to disrupt maladaptive anxiety-related and drug-seeking behaviors that are driven, in part, by intrusive thoughts and/or cravings.^{18,26}

In light of the capacity of *N*-acetylcysteine to restore glutamatergic synaptic physiology in prefrontal cortex projections and to inhibit drug use in animal models and human addiction, as well as the shared prefrontal impairments identified in PTSD and SUD, we examined *N*-acetylcysteine

- Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and substance use disorders (SUDs) are chronic and debilitating conditions that often co-occur.
- Substantial gaps in the treatment of PTSD/SUD exist, and little evidence is available to guide the provision of care. The pharmacologic treatment of PTSD/SUD remains largely ineffective.
- For patients with co-occurring PTSD and SUD, *N*-acetylcysteine may help reduce PTSD symptoms, craving, and depressive symptoms.

as a candidate pharmacotherapy for comorbid PTSD/SUD. We conducted a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled pilot trial of *N*-acetylcysteine versus placebo, plus cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) for SUD among US military veterans. We hypothesized that *N*-acetylcysteine treatment combined with CBT for SUD would reduce PTSD symptoms, craving, and substance use.

METHODS

Design

Treatment-seeking veterans with PTSD and SUD were randomly assigned to receive a double-blind, 8-week course of *N*-acetylcysteine or placebo, along with group CBT for SUD (ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT02499029). A 1-month assessment following medication discontinuation was conducted. The Investigational New Drug application for this study was approved by the FDA. All study procedures were approved by the institutional review boards and were in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975.

Participants

Veterans ($N = 35$) were enrolled in the Substance Abuse Treatment Clinic (SATC) at the Ralph H. Johnson VA Medical Center in Charleston, South Carolina, between March 2013 and April 2014. Participants were 18–65 years old; were US military veterans; met *DSM-IV*²⁷ diagnostic criteria for the past 6 months for SUD (ie, alcohol or drug use disorder) and PTSD or subthreshold PTSD (ie, met criteria for cluster B [re-experiencing] and either cluster C [avoidance] or D [hyperarousal], as well as duration of 1 month and clinically significant impairment); and scored > 21 on the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE).²⁸ Participants were excluded for unstable medical conditions, significant cognitive impairment, bipolar or psychotic disorders, seizures or asthma, prior treatment with *N*-acetylcysteine, ongoing PTSD treatment, or use of carbamazepine, phenytoin, nitrous oxide, methotrexate, or nitroglycerin within the last 14 days or any other medication felt to have a hazardous interaction if taken with *N*-acetylcysteine. Female participants could not be pregnant or lactating.

General Procedures

Veterans were recruited through clinical referral and local advertisements. After receiving a complete description of

the study, participants provided written informed consent. Interested veterans completed a baseline assessment that involved diagnostic interviews, history and physical examination, self-report questionnaires, breathalyzer tests, and urine drug screen tests to assess inclusion/exclusion criteria as well as baseline characteristics and symptom severity. Eligible participants were randomly assigned after at least 1 week of abstinence from alcohol and drugs, as indicated by self-report, urine drug screen test, and breathalyzer test. Participants came into the office twice weekly for visits. Vital signs and concomitant medications were assessed weekly. Participants received \$510 for completing all visits.

Interventions

Medication. Participants were randomly assigned to *N*-acetylcysteine (2,400 mg/d) or placebo for 8 weeks. The starting dose of *N*-acetylcysteine was 1,200 mg twice daily (2,400 mg/d). One participant achieved target dose at week 4 (1,200 mg/d for the first 4 weeks). Equivalent numbers of identical appearing placebo capsules were dispensed. All *N*-acetylcysteine and placebo capsules contained riboflavin 25 mg, which was used as a biomarker for medication compliance. Weekly pill counts and missed doses were recorded each week.

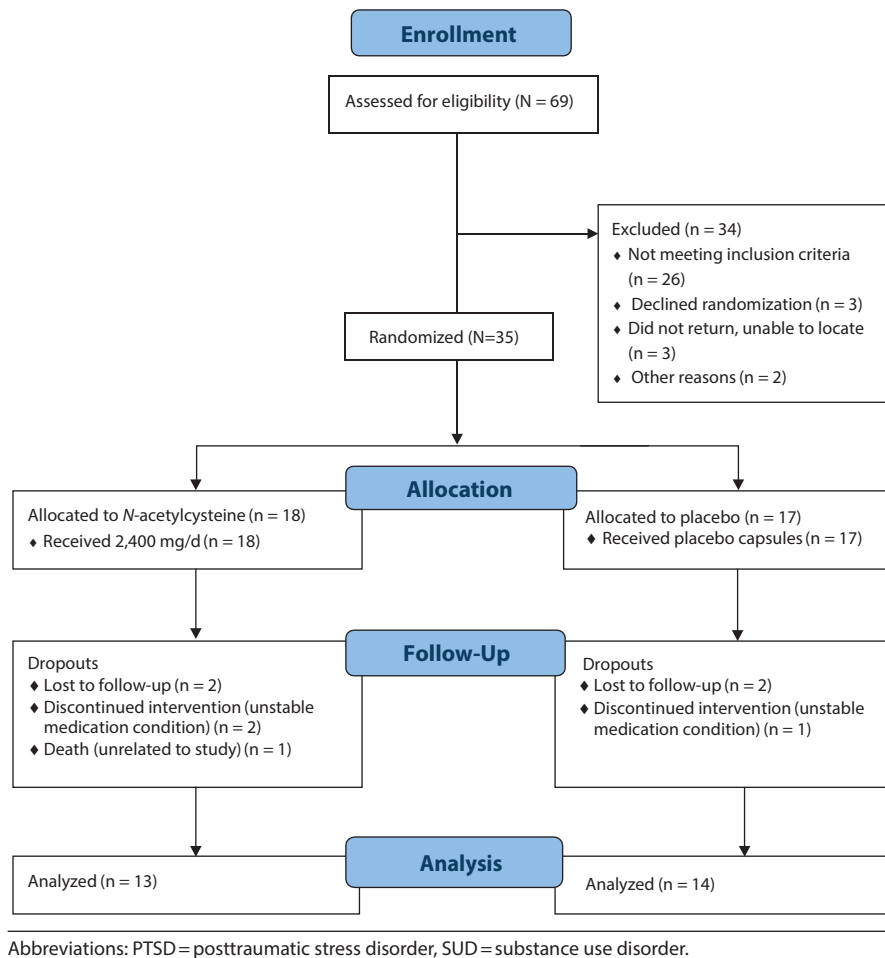
Study medications (United States Pharmacopeia [USP]-grade *N*-acetylcysteine and matched placebo capsules) were compounded by Pitt Street Pharmacy in Charleston, South Carolina, and dispensed weekly by study staff. Treatment assignment followed a prearranged randomization scheme and was carried out by study personnel at the pharmacy to preserve the double-blind design.

Cognitive-behavioral therapy. All participants received group CBT through the VA intensive outpatient program. This ensured that all participants, regardless of medication arm, received adequate psychosocial support, and it restricted variability resulting from varied types of behavioral interventions thereby enhancing statistical power.²⁹ Structured group therapy was provided 5 days per week and focused on SUD topics including cognitive restructuring, coping with cravings, drink refusal skills, and relaxation skills.

Measures

At baseline, participants completed a demographic form, the MMSE,²⁸ and the Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI)³⁰ to assess SUD and other psychiatric diagnoses. The Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS) assessed trauma history, PTSD diagnosis, and symptom severity.³¹ CAPS total and subscale scores (Re-experiencing, Avoidance, Hyperarousal) were obtained at baseline, week 4, week 8, and follow-up. The PTSD Checklist-Military (PCL-M), a 17-item self-report measure, assessed weekly PTSD symptoms.³² The Timeline Follow-Back (TLFB),³³ a self-report, calendar-based instrument, measured the amount and frequency of substance use at baseline (past 60 days) and weekly during the study. Visual Analog Scales assessed craving over the past week. Participants rated 3 items

Figure 1. Enrollment and Study Flow of Veterans With PTSD and SUD Assigned to N-Acetylcysteine or Placebo



(amount, intensity, and frequency) using anchors of 0 (“not at all”) to 10 (“extreme” or “all the time”). Urine drug screen tests for cocaine, marijuana, opiates, methamphetamines, amphetamines, and benzodiazepines were collected weekly. Alcohol breathalyzer tests measured blood alcohol concentration each week.

The Beck Depression Inventory, second edition (BDI-II), a 21-item self-report questionnaire, measured depressive symptoms.³⁴ The Columbia-Suicide Severity Rating Scale (C-SSRS) was conducted at baseline for study eligibility.³⁵ Adverse events were assessed weekly using a 6-item checklist measuring the most common adverse events as indicated on the FDA-approved label for N-acetylcysteine (Ajinomoto North America Inc).

Statistical Analyses

Analyses were conducted using SPSS Version 22 (IBM Corporation). Demographic characteristics were compared using χ^2 tests for categorical variables and *t* tests for continuous variables. The primary hypothesis was that N-acetylcysteine would significantly decrease PTSD symptoms and craving. Secondary analyses examined the effect of N-acetylcysteine on substance use and depression. A series of hierarchical linear

regression analyses were conducted to examine the effects of treatment group (N-acetylcysteine or placebo) on PTSD symptomatology, craving, substance use, and depression. The primary outcome measure was entered as the criterion variable. Baseline levels of the respective outcome measures were entered in Step 1 of the model to adjust for any baseline differences. Treatment group was entered as the predictor in Step 2. This was a pilot study with adequate power to detect within-group changes on key outcome measures. Thus, we conducted a series of paired samples *t* tests to examine within-group changes in PTSD symptoms, depressive symptoms, craving, and substance use. The significance threshold was set at a *P* value of .05 (2-sided) for all statistical tests.

RESULTS

Study Retention and Medication Compliance

Figure 1 illustrates the flow diagram based on the Consolidated Standards Of Reporting Trials (CONSORT). Sixty-nine participants completed the baseline assessment for eligibility and 35 participants were randomly assigned (18 to N-acetylcysteine, 17 to placebo). The majority of participants (77%) completed the 8-week treatment phase,

Table 1. Baseline Demographic and Clinical Characteristics

Variable	Placebo (n = 14) n (%)	N-Acetylcysteine (n = 13) n (%)	Total (N = 27) n (%)
Gender, male	14 (100.0)	12 (92.3)	26 (96.3)
Race, white	4 (28.6)	4 (30.8)	8 (29.6)
Race, African-American	10 (71.4)	9 (69.2)	19 (70.4)
Relationship, married	3 (21.4)	3 (23.1)	6 (22.2)
Education, at least some college	6 (42.9)	9 (69.2)	15 (55.5)
Unemployed/retired/disabled	9 (64.3)	12 (92.3)	21 (77.7)
Trauma history			
Military, combat	2 (14.3)	3 (23.1)	5 (18.5)
Military, noncombat	4 (28.6)	5 (38.5)	9 (33.3)
Civilian-related event(s)	8 (57.1)	5 (38.5)	13 (48.1)
Substance use disorders			
Alcohol use disorder	12 (85.7)	10 (76.9)	22 (81.5)
Cocaine use disorder	9 (64.3)	11 (84.6)	20 (74.1)
Opioid use disorder	1 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.7)
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Age, y	49.9 (8.1)	48.2 (8.6)	49.0 (8.2)
Substance use severity ^a			
Average drinks per day ^b	4.9 (4.5)	3.7 (3.5)	4.3 (3.9)
Average drinks per drinking day ^b	12.9 (5.7)	9.77 (6.8)	11.5 (6.2)
Age at onset of alcohol use disorder, y	22.8 (6.7)	26.8 (10.4)	24.9 (8.9)
Average dollar amount of cocaine used per day, ^c US \$	17.3 (10.4)	20.3 (14.6)	18.9 (12.4)
Average dollar amount of cocaine used per using day, ^c US \$	72.5 (32.6)	72.6 (38.9)	72.6 (34.1)
Age at onset of cocaine use disorder, y	29.9 (4.5)	30.4 (9.5)	30.2 (6.9)
PTSD severity			
PCL-M total score	43.4 (18.6)	45.7 (14.6)	44.5 (16.5)
CAPS total score	68.6 (23.7)	58.8 (21.2)	63.8 (22.6)
Re-experiencing subscale	21.9 (7.3)	18.8 (9.5)	20.4 (8.4)
Avoidance subscale	25.5 (12.5)	18.3 (8.3)	22.0 (11.1)
Hyperarousal subscale	21.2 (6.97)	21.8 (7.5)	21.5 (7.1)
Depression			
BDI-II total score	22.8 (13.1)	19.1 (6.7)	21.0 (10.5)

^aOnly 3 substances (ie, alcohol, cocaine, and opioids) were endorsed by participants.

^bAverage number of standard drink units consumed per day, or per drinking day, during the past 60 days.

^cAverage dollar amount of cocaine used per day, or per using day, during the past 60 days.

Abbreviations: BDI-II = Beck Depression Inventory, second edition; CAPS = Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale; PCL-M = PTSD Checklist-Military; PTSD = posttraumatic stress disorder.

and there were no group differences in retention (13/18, *N*-acetylcysteine; 14/17, placebo). Similarly, 12 (67%) of 18 in the *N*-acetylcysteine group and 12 (71%) of 17 in the placebo group completed the follow-up. Of the 8 participants who did not complete the study, 4 were lost to follow-up, 3 were excluded due to unstable medical conditions, and 1 died of cardiovascular collapse, judged to be unrelated to the study. Medication compliance (ie, $\geq 1,000$ ng/mL of riboflavin and greater than baseline at $\geq 2/3$ assessment time points) was 82.9% and did not differ by group. This resulted in 13 participants in the *N*-acetylcysteine group and 14 in the placebo group who were included in the final per-protocol analyses.

Demographics

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics for the sample. Participants were primarily male (96.3%), and the majority of participants were diagnosed with alcohol use disorder (81.5%) and/or cocaine use disorder (77.8%).

PTSD Symptoms

Self-report PTSD symptoms. The PCL-M was reduced by 32% in the *N*-acetylcysteine group versus 3% in the placebo

group from baseline to week 8 (Table 2). The adjusted regression model examining *N*-acetylcysteine versus placebo on PCL-M scores at week 8 accounted for 73.8% of the variance ($F_{2,24} = 33.89$, $P < .001$), with the *N*-acetylcysteine group having significantly lower scores at week 8 than the placebo group ($\beta = -0.36$, $P < .01$). Examination of follow-up revealed a trend toward a significant between-group difference ($\beta = -0.70$, $P = .06$). Significant within-group effects were observed in the *N*-acetylcysteine group on the PCL-M from baseline to week 4 ($d = 1.84$, $P < .01$) and week 8 ($d = 1.30$, $P < .001$), reflecting large effect sizes.³⁶ In contrast, no significant within-group effects on the PCL-M were observed in the placebo group.

Clinician-rated PTSD symptoms. The CAPS was reduced by 46% in the *N*-acetylcysteine group versus 25% in the placebo group from baseline to week 8 (Table 2). Examination of between-group differences in the CAPS total and subscales scores revealed no statistically significant differences. Significant within-group effects in the *N*-acetylcysteine group on the CAPS total score from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.27$, $P < .001$) and to week 12 ($d = 1.48$, $P < .05$) were observed. Further, significant within-group effects on the Re-experiencing, Avoidance, and Hyperarousal subscales

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website.

Table 2. Efficacy of N-Acetylcysteine Treatment on Symptoms of PTSD, Depression, and Craving^a

Measure	Placebo (n = 14) Within-Group Outcomes Weeks			N-Acetylcysteine (n = 13) Within-Group Outcomes Weeks			Between Groups Weeks 0–8
	0	4	8	0	4	8	
PCL-M	43.4 (18.6)	41.9 (21.7)	41.9 (22.8)	45.7 (14.6)	33.8 (10.6) ^b	31.2 (9.7) ^b	–0.355 ^c
CAPS	68.6 (23.7)	52.8 (36.9) ^b	51.5 (43.1)	58.8 (21.2)	38.7 (20.0) ^b	32.0 (23.5) ^b	–0.127
CAPS-R	21.9 (7.3)	15.6 (10.2) ^b	12.4 (13.1) ^b	18.8 (9.5)	12.6 (6.9) ^b	10.1 (8.1) ^b	–0.119
CAPS-A	25.5 (12.5)	21.6 (16.1)	20.4 (19.6)	18.3 (8.3)	10.5 (9.1) ^b	10.7 (9.2) ^b	–0.330
CAPS-H	21.2 (6.9)	15.6 (11.9)	13.6 (13.0)	21.8 (7.5)	15.6 (8.3) ^b	11.8 (9.5) ^b	–0.194
BDI-II	22.8 (13.1)	18.5 (14.8)	19.3 (15.8)	19.1 (6.7)	10.9 (6.4)	9.9 (6.7) ^b	–0.325 ^c
Craving-A	4.1 (3.1)	2.8 (2.6)	2.8 (2.8)	3.7 (3.4)	1.8 (1.9) ^b	0.7 (0.7) ^b	–0.413 ^c
Craving-F	4.2 (3.2)	2.4 (2.3)	3.0 (2.9)	3.6 (3.0)	1.8 (2.0) ^b	1.0 (0.9) ^b	–0.387 ^c
Craving-I	3.7 (3.0)	2.9 (2.8)	2.8 (3.1)	3.7 (3.1)	1.8 (2.1)	1.3 (1.9) ^b	–0.288

^aValues given as mean (SD).

^b $P < .05$ indicates a significant within-group difference as compared to baseline (week 0).

^c $P < .05$ indicates a between-group difference at the end of treatment (week 8) as compared to baseline (week 0).

Abbreviations: BDI-II = Beck Depressive Inventory, second edition; CAPS = Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale total score; CAPS-A = CAPS Avoidance subscale; CAPS-H = CAPS Hyperarousal subscale; CAPS-R = CAPS Re-experiencing subscale; Craving-A = amount of craving; Craving-F = frequency of craving; Craving-I = intensity of craving; PCL-M = PTSD Checklist-Military, PTSD = posttraumatic stress disorder.

were observed in the N-acetylcysteine group from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.01$, $d = 1.03$, and $d = 1.16$, respectively; P values $< .01$) and week 12 ($d = 1.04$, $d = 1.34$, and $d = 1.57$, respectively; P values $< .01$). Among the placebo group, no significant within-group effect on the CAPS total score was observed, but a within-group effect on the Re-experiencing subscale score was observed from baseline to week 8 ($d = 0.73$, $P < .05$) and week 12 ($d = 0.67$, $P < .05$).

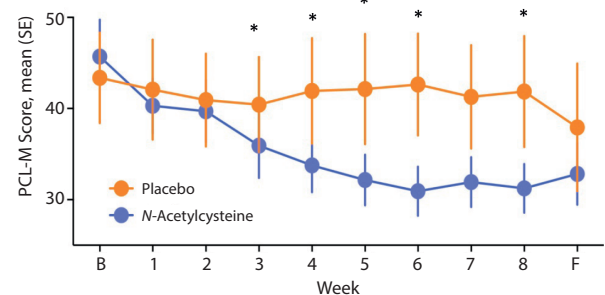
Comparisons of responders. Responders were defined as participants who demonstrated ≥ 1 standard deviation (SD) difference on the outcome measure of interest from pretreatment to posttreatment (baseline to week 8). Chi-square analyses were conducted to investigate differences in responders by treatment group (N-acetylcysteine vs placebo). For the PCL-M, responders were defined as having a pre-post reduction of ≥ 16 points. For the CAPS, responders were defined as having a pre-post reduction of ≥ 23 points. A significant χ^2 was observed for the N-acetylcysteine group (61.5% responders) compared to placebo (21.4% responders) on the PCL-M ($\chi^2 = 4.49$; $P = .03$). Although in the same direction, no statistically significant difference was observed for the N-acetylcysteine group (53.9% responders) compared to placebo (35.7% responders) on the CAPS ($\chi^2 = 0.90$; $P = .34$).

Craving and Substance Use

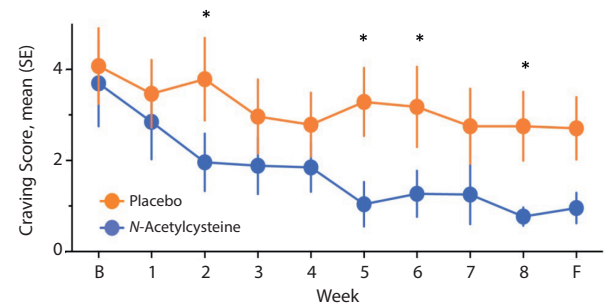
Craving. As illustrated in Figure 2, amount of craving was reduced 81% in the N-acetylcysteine group as compared to 32% in the placebo group from baseline to week 8. The adjusted regression equation model examining the efficacy of N-acetylcysteine versus placebo on reduction of amount of craving from baseline to week 8 accounted for 32.7% of the variance ($F_{2,24} = 18.34$, $P < .001$), with the N-acetylcysteine group having significantly lower amount of craving than the placebo group ($\beta = -0.41$, $P < .05$). Tests of within-group effects revealed a significant effect for amount of craving in the N-acetylcysteine, but not placebo, group from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.03$, $P < .05$) and week 12 ($d = 0.75$, $P < .05$).

Figure 2. Change in PTSD Symptoms and Drug Craving Over Time by Treatment Condition

A. Weekly Total Score on PTSD Checklist-Military (PCL-M)^a



B. Weekly Subjective Craving Score Measured by a Visual Analog Scale^b



^aN-acetylcysteine showed a significant treatment effect to reduce PTSD symptoms over the 8-week treatment period. Follow-up measure was obtained 4 weeks after discontinuing N-acetylcysteine or placebo (ie, week 12 of the study).

^bN-acetylcysteine showed a significant treatment effect to reduce drug cravings over the 8-week treatment period.

* $P < .05$.

Abbreviations: B = baseline, F = follow-up, PTSD = posttraumatic stress disorder.

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website.

Frequency of craving was reduced by 72% in the *N*-acetylcysteine group versus 29% in the placebo group from baseline to week 8. The adjusted regression equation model examining the efficacy of *N*-acetylcysteine versus placebo on frequency of craving from baseline to week 8 accounted for 30.3% of the variance ($F_{2,24} = 6.65$, $P < .001$), with the *N*-acetylcysteine group having significantly lower level of frequency of craving than the placebo group ($\beta = -0.39$, $P < .05$). There was a significant group difference in frequency of craving at follow-up, with the adjusted regression equation model accounting for 27.9% of the variance ($F_{2,24} = 4.057$, $P < .05$) and with the *N*-acetylcysteine group demonstrating significantly lower frequency of craving at week 12 than the placebo group ($\beta = -0.40$, $P < .05$). Tests of within-group effects revealed a significant effect for frequency of craving in the *N*-acetylcysteine, but not placebo, group from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.03$, $P < .05$) and week 12 ($d = 0.79$, $P < .05$).

Treatment condition was not a significant predictor of intensity of craving at week 8 ($\beta = -0.28$, $P < .05$) or week 12 ($\beta = -0.51$, $P < .05$) in the between-group analyses. However, significant within-group effects from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.06$) and to week 12 ($d = 0.82$) were revealed in the *N*-acetylcysteine but not placebo group.

Substance use. Substance use was low in both groups, and no significant between-group differences were revealed using the TLFB (ie, frequency and amount of use for each substance assessed). A linear regression was computed to examine *N*-acetylcysteine versus placebo and a trend was observed ($F_{2,24} = 3.60$, $\beta = -0.36$, $P = .07$), with *N*-acetylcysteine having slightly fewer positive urine drug screen tests during the course of treatment.

Depression

The BDI-II was reduced by 48% in the *N*-acetylcysteine versus 15% in the placebo group from baseline to week 8. The adjusted regression equation examining the impact of treatment group on BDI-II score at week 8 accounted for 57.1% of the variance ($F_{2,24} = 18.34$, $P < .001$), with the *N*-acetylcysteine group having significantly lower BDI-II scores ($\beta = -0.33$, $P < .05$). Significant within-group effects in the *N*-acetylcysteine group on the BDI from baseline to week 8 ($d = 1.62$, $P < .001$) and week 12 ($d = 0.71$, $P < .05$) were observed. Among the placebo group, no significant within-group effects were observed from baseline to week 8; however, a significant within-group effect was found at week 12 ($d = 0.71$, $P < .05$).

Adverse Events

There were 31 adverse events, with the most common being dry mouth and heartburn. Adverse events were reported in 66.7% of participants ($n = 12$) in the *N*-acetylcysteine group and 47.1% ($n = 8$) in the placebo group. Three participants experienced a serious adverse event during the trial, which involved cardiac arrhythmia, pancreatitis, syncopal episode, and hospitalization for suicidality. Of these serious adverse events, 1 was conservatively estimated as possibly related to the study (syncopal episode).

DISCUSSION

This is the first double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial to investigate *N*-acetylcysteine as a pharmacologic treatment for comorbid PTSD/SUD. Results showed that *N*-acetylcysteine combined with CBT significantly reduced PTSD symptoms and craving. *N*-acetylcysteine produced reductions in craving that were more than 2.5 times the magnitude of placebo. In addition, participants treated with *N*-acetylcysteine experienced significant reductions in depression, which may be due to overlap between PTSD, SUD, and depression symptoms.³⁷

Although group differences in craving were observed, there was a lack of significant between-group differences in substance use (ie, frequency and amount of alcohol or drug use). Both groups demonstrated low use of substances during the trial. The observed "floor effect" may be due, in part, to the fact that all participants were enrolled in an intensive outpatient treatment program for SUD. Nonetheless, the findings add to the extant literature and suggest that the effects of *N*-acetylcysteine may not be specific to a particular psychosocial platform, but rather generalizable to disorders involving impaired regulation of compulsive, intrusive thinking.^{18,38–41}

Several randomized clinical trials have examined pharmacotherapies for comorbid PTSD/SUD, all with a focus on alcohol use disorder, and the findings reveal mixed results.^{7–10,42} For example, Petrakis and colleagues⁴² found desipramine to be more efficacious than paroxetine in reducing alcohol use, but no differences were observed in PTSD improvement. Brady and colleagues⁸ found no overall benefits of sertraline, as compared to placebo, in reducing alcohol use, but observed a trend toward lower PTSD symptoms in the sertraline group and greater benefits among participants with primary PTSD. Foa et al⁹ found naltrexone to be effective in reducing drinking but not PTSD. At follow-up, patients who received naltrexone plus exposure therapy demonstrated the best alcohol use outcomes. More recently, Batki and colleagues⁷ found topiramate to be more effective than placebo in reducing alcohol use and craving and observed a trend toward greater reduction of PTSD arousal symptoms. Previous trials demonstrate some efficacy for *N*-acetylcysteine in treating SUD, and *N*-acetylcysteine is currently under investigation for treating PTSD (ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT01664260), but the current study is the first to assess the effects of *N*-acetylcysteine on comorbid PTSD and a broad range of SUDs. The 8-week treatment with *N*-acetylcysteine significantly reduced PTSD symptoms and led to a qualitative shift to subdiagnostic PTSD symptom presentation (< 50 CAPS score) for many participants. In combination with animal research and human imaging studies showing impaired corticostriatal regulation in SUD and PTSD, we postulate that by normalizing corticostriatal transmission, *N*-acetylcysteine reduces intrusive thinking and restores top-down control in disorders sharing this endophenotype.

There are several limitations of this pilot study that warrant attention. Mainly, the sample size was small, limiting statistical power and generalizability. Individuals with both alcohol and/or drug use disorders were included, which expands prior research and enhances ecological validity but may limit the specificity of the findings. Given the limited scope of the study, a psychotherapy-only arm was not included. Finally, no assessment of quality of life was included. Despite these limitations, the study represents an important first step in the investigation of *N*-acetylcysteine in the treatment of PTSD/SUD.

CONCLUSION

The findings provide encouraging preliminary support for combining *N*-acetylcysteine and cognitive-behavioral therapy for SUD among patients with PTSD and SUD. The wide availability, low cost, and low side effect profile of *N*-acetylcysteine make it a potentially promising pharmacologic intervention for PTSD/SUD. A larger trial and additional research are warranted to disentangle specific mechanisms through which *N*-acetylcysteine promotes symptom reduction among individuals with comorbid PTSD/SUD.

Submitted: July 15, 2015; accepted April 20, 2016.

Online first: October 11, 2016.

Drug names: carbamazepine (Tegretol, Epitol, and others), desipramine (Norpramin and others), methotrexate (Trexall and others), naltrexone (ReVia and others), nitroglycerin (Nitro-Bid and others), paroxetine (Paxil, Pexeva, and others), phenytoin (Dilantin, Phenytek, and others), sertraline (Zoloft and others), topiramate (Topamax and others).

Potential conflicts of interest: Dr Back has received grant/research support from the US Department of Defense. Dr Hamner has received grant/research support from Alkermes and Pfizer. The other authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

Funding/support: The authors acknowledge support from the US Department of Defense grant number W81XWH-11-2-0145 (Dr Kalivas), National Institute on Drug Abuse grant number K02 DA039229 (Dr Back), and Department of Veterans Affairs Clinical Science Research and Development Career Development Award CX000845 (Dr Gros).

Role of the sponsors: None.

Disclaimer: The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the Department of Veterans Affairs or the US government.

Previous presentation: A portion of the findings were presented by at the 2014 annual meeting of the College on Problems of Drug Dependence (CPDD); June 14–19, 2014; San Juan, Puerto Rico.

REFERENCES

- Seal KH, Metzler TJ, Gima KS, et al. Trends and risk factors for mental health diagnoses among Iraq and Afghanistan veterans using Department of Veterans Affairs health care, 2002–2008. *Am J Public Health*. 2009;99(9):1651–1658.
- Smith TC, Ryan MA, Wingard DL, et al; Millennium Cohort Study Team. New onset and persistent symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder self reported after deployment and combat exposures: prospective population based US military cohort study. *BMJ*. 2008;336(7640):366–371.
- Petrakis IL, Rosenheck R, Desai R. Substance use comorbidity among veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder and other psychiatric illness. *Am J Addict*. 2011;20(3):185–189.
- Young HE, Rosen CS, Finney JW. A survey of PTSD screening and referral practices in VA addiction treatment programs. *J Subst Abuse Treat*. 2005;28(4):313–319.
- Hertzberg MA, Feldman ME, Beckham JC, et al. Lack of efficacy for fluoxetine in PTSD: a placebo controlled trial in combat veterans. *Ann Clin Psychiatry*. 2000;12(2):101–105.
- Friedman MJ, Marmar CR, Baker DG, et al. Randomized, double-blind comparison of sertraline and placebo for posttraumatic stress disorder in a Department of Veterans Affairs setting. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2007;68(5):711–720. 10.4088/JCP.v68n0508
- Batki SL, Pennington DL, Lasher B, et al. Topiramate treatment of alcohol use disorder in veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder: a randomized controlled pilot trial. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res*. 2014;38(8):2169–2177.
- Brady KT, Sonne S, Anton RF, et al. Sertraline in the treatment of co-occurring alcohol dependence and posttraumatic stress disorder. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res*. 2005;29(3):395–401.
- Foa EB, Yusko DA, McLean CP, et al. Concurrent naltrexone and prolonged exposure therapy for patients with comorbid alcohol dependence and PTSD: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA*. 2013;310(5):488–495.
- Sofuoglu M, Rosenheck R, Petrakis I. Pharmacological treatment of comorbid PTSD and substance use disorder: recent progress. *Addict Behav*. 2014;39(2):428–433.
- Dean O, Giorlando F, Berk M. *N*-acetylcysteine in psychiatry: current therapeutic evidence and potential mechanisms of action. *J Psychiatry Neurosci*. 2011;36(2):78–86.
- Kalivas PW, Volkow ND. New medications for drug addiction hiding in glutamatergic neuroplasticity. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2011;16(10):974–986.
- Grant JE, Odlaug BL, Chamberlain SR, et al. A randomized, placebo-controlled trial of *N*-acetylcysteine plus imaginal desensitization for nicotine-dependent pathological gamblers. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2014;75(1):39–45. 10.4088/JCP.13m08411
- Baker DA, McFarland K, Lake RW, et al. Neuroadaptations in cystine-glutamate exchange underlie cocaine relapse. *Nat Neurosci*. 2003;6(7):743–749.
- Norman SB, Myers US, Wilkins KC, et al. Review of biological mechanisms and pharmacological treatments of comorbid PTSD and substance use disorder. *Neuropharmacology*. 2012;62(2):542–551.
- Aupperle RL, Melrose AJ, Stein MB, et al. Executive function and PTSD: disengaging from trauma. *Neuropharmacology*. 2012;62(2):686–694.
- Bremner JD, Elzinga B, Schmahl C, et al. Structural and functional plasticity of the human brain in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Prog Brain Res*. 2008;167:171–186.
- Goldstein RZ, Volkow ND. Dysfunction of the prefrontal cortex in addiction: neuroimaging findings and clinical implications. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2011;12(11):652–669.
- Huang MX, Yurgil KA, Robb A, et al. Voxel-wise resting-state MEG source magnitude imaging study reveals neurocircuitry abnormality in active-duty service members and veterans with PTSD. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2014;5:408–419.
- Pitman RK, Rasmusson AM, Koenen KC, et al. Biological studies of post-traumatic stress disorder. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2012;13(11):769–787.
- Rauch SL, Whalen PJ, Shin LM, et al. Exaggerated amygdala response to masked facial stimuli in posttraumatic stress disorder: a functional MRI study. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2000;47(9):769–776.
- Osuch EA, Willis MW, Bluhm R, et al; CSTS Neuroimaging Study Group. Neurophysiological responses to traumatic reminders in the acute aftermath of serious motor vehicle collisions using [15O]-H₂O positron emission tomography. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2008;64(4):327–335.
- Sripada RK, King AP, Garfinkel SN, et al. Altered resting-state amygdala functional connectivity in men with posttraumatic stress disorder. *J Psychiatry Neurosci*. 2012;37(4):241–249.
- Gu H, Salmeron BJ, Ross TJ, et al. Mesocorticolimbic circuits are impaired in chronic cocaine users as demonstrated by resting-state functional connectivity. *Neuroimage*. 2010;53(2):593–601.
- McHugh MJ, Demers CH, Salmeron BJ, et al. Cortico-amygdala coupling as a marker of early relapse risk in cocaine-addicted individuals. *Front Psychiatry*. 2014;5:16.
- Feil J, Sheppard D, Fitzgerald PB, et al. Addiction, compulsive drug seeking, and the role of frontostriatal mechanisms in regulating inhibitory control. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 2010;35(2):248–275.
- American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders*. Fourth Edition, Text Revision. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association; 2000.
- Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Minimal state": a practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J Psychiatr Res*. 1975;12(3):189–198.
- Carroll KM, Kosten TR, Rounsaville BJ. Choosing a behavioral therapy platform for pharmacotherapy of substance users. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2004;75(2):123–134.
- Sheehan DV, Lecrubier Y, Sheehan KH, et al. The Mini-International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI): the development and validation of a structured diagnostic psychiatric interview for DSM-IV and ICD-10. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 1998;59(suppl 20):22–33, quiz 34–57.
- Blake DD, Weathers FW, Nagy LM, et al. The development of a clinician-administered PTSD scale. *J Trauma Stress*. 1995;8(1):75–90.
- Weathers FW, Huska JA, Keane T. *M: PCL-M for DSM-IV*. Boston, MA: National Center for PTSD -Behavioral Science Division; 1991.
- Sobell LC, Sobell MB. Timeline follow-back: a technique for assessing self-reported alcohol consumption. In: Litten RZ, Allen JP, eds.

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website.

34. Beck A, Steer R, Brown G. *Beck Depression Inventory-II*. San Antonio, TX: Psychological Corporation; 1996.
35. Posner K, Brown GK, Stanley B, et al. The Columbia-Suicide Severity Rating Scale: initial validity and internal consistency findings from three multisite studies with adolescents and adults. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2011;168(12):1266–1277.
36. Cohen J. *Statistical Power for the Social Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Laurence Erlbaum and Associates; 1988.
37. Gros DF, Price M, Magruder KM, et al. Symptom overlap in posttraumatic stress disorder and major depression. *Psychiatry Res*. 2012;196(2–3):267–270.
38. Goldstein RZ, Craig AD, Bechara A, et al. The neurocircuitry of impaired insight in drug addiction. *Trends Cogn Sci*. 2009;13(9):372–380.
39. Grant JE, Odlaug BL, Kim SW. N-acetylcysteine, a glutamate modulator, in the treatment of trichotillomania: a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2009;66(7):756–763.
40. Gray KM, Carpenter MJ, Baker NL, et al. A double-blind randomized controlled trial of N-acetylcysteine in cannabis-dependent adolescents. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2012;169(8):805–812.
41. Asevedo E, Mendes AC, Berk M, et al. Systematic review of N-acetylcysteine in the treatment of addictions. *Rev Bras Psiquiatr*. 2014;36(2):168–175.
42. Petrakis IL, Ralevski E, Desai N, et al. Noradrenergic vs serotonergic antidepressant with or without naltrexone for veterans with PTSD and comorbid alcohol dependence. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2012;37(4):996–1004.

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website.