



Low-dose naltrexone for disease prevention and quality of life

Norman Brown^{a,*}, Jaak Panksepp^b

^a Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, Daytona Beach, FL 32114, United States

^b Department of VCAPP, College of Veterinary Medicine, Washington State University, P.O. Box 646520, Pullman, WA 99164-6520, United States

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 3 June 2008

Accepted 12 June 2008

SUMMARY

The use of low-dose naltrexone (LDN) for the treatment and prophylaxis of various bodily disorders is discussed. Accumulating evidence suggests that LDN can promote health supporting immune-modulation which may reduce various oncogenic and inflammatory autoimmune processes. Since LDN can upregulate endogenous opioid activity, it may also have a role in promoting stress resilience, exercise, social bonding, and emotional well-being, as well as amelioration of psychiatric problems such as autism and depression. It is proposed that LDN can be used effectively as a buffer for a large variety of bodily and mental ailments through its ability to beneficially modulate both the immune system and the brain neurochemistries that regulate positive affect.

© 2008 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Introduction

Preventive medicine has excelled in reducing the risk factors of high cholesterol with various statins, and accruing cardiac damage with baby aspirin blood thinners. There is considerable controversy about general health sustaining effects of adequate vitamins, minerals, herbals and specific purified nutritionals, but there is relatively little medical research on discrete biochemical supplements to facilitate general health and well-being. In this essay we introduce low-dose naltrexone (LDN) as a potential way to strengthen brain and bodily resources to facilitate emotional homeostasis and also provide background prophylaxis against and potential treatment of various cancers and autoimmune disorders – an idea that has already been extensively discussed on the web (e.g., www.Lowdosenaltrexone.org).

Naltrexone, an orally effective, long-lasting opiate receptor antagonist, was approved by the FDA for treating alcohol and opiate addiction in 1984, but its general patent expired the following year. It is a non-selective antagonist, with robust effects on pleasure promoting mu opioid receptors (MOR) and delta opioid receptors (DOR) [1], with less antagonism of aversion-mediating kappa opioid receptors (KOR) [2] but substantial effect on the more recently discovered orphanin FQ or nociceptin [N/OFQ] opioid family [3]. The benefits of high dose naltrexone in narcotic addiction are explained by blockade of all pleasure producing effects of opioids, and similar mechanisms may explain the ability of naltrexone to reduce binging on alcohol.

Here we will consider the potential benefits of low-dose naltrexone (LDN) as a way to strengthen both brain and bodily resources to promote psychological well-being as well as bodily

health, especially along the dimension of reduced likelihood of cancers and autoimmune problems. Intermediate levels of LDN (at ~0.25 mg/kg given every other day) were initially found to have some benefits in the treatment of a subset of autistic children [4,5]. One of the clinical impressions was an increased social initiative and cheerfulness, especially on the non-medication days, as if a rebound effect of positive social chemistries (e.g., opioids) was occurring. There is now increasing data that would suggest that a temporary blockade of opioid receptors with LDN may lead to an upregulation of mood enhancing endogenous opioids, and hence perhaps dopamine activity, which may further promote positive frames of mind. As importantly, endogenous opioids have robust immune modulatory properties, which may be harnessed through LDN to facilitate body resources to retard and combat oncogenic and autoimmune processes and reduce the impact of allostatic load on the body.

Although the data is only now emerging for beneficial endogenous brain and body opioid rebound effects from LDN supplementation, indirect evidence does exist for such effects, including the ability of ultra-low LDN to facilitate the analgesic effects of opioids [6], and the ability of LDN to facilitate maintenance of drug abstinence in former opiate addicts [7]. In this essay we will focus on the potential ability of LDN to serve as a facilitator of immunocompetence that may provide prophylaxis for a variety of disorders, from oncogenesis to neurological disorders, where a compromised immune system hastens bodily decline.

Hypotheses

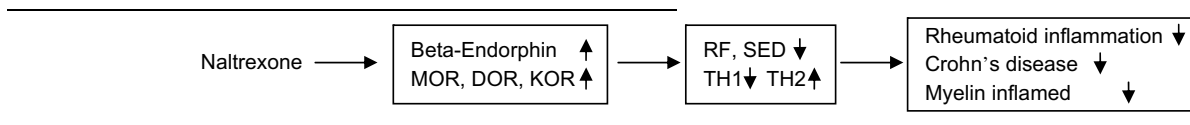
When administered in low-doses of 3–4.5 mg daily, naltrexone increases the expression of mu, delta, and epsilon opioid receptors as well as central and circulating met-enkephalin (ME) and beta-endorphin (BE), which may improve psychological well-being.

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 386 226 6631; fax: +1 386 226 7210.

E-mail address: NPHbrown@aol.com (N. Brown).

The associated bodily changes result in enhanced immune functions that may stop inflammation and the progression of rheumatoid, gastrointestinal and neurological autoimmune disorders. These hypothesized disease-modifying effects of enhanced immune functions contradict current medical opinion that immune functions must be globally suppressed to retard the progression of autoimmune diseases. Yet evidence is mounting that LDN may have substantial therapeutic effects in such disorders. Furthermore, naltrexone's enhancement of the immune system is a novel approach to arresting or preventing a variety of cancers. Resistance to viral diseases may also be enhanced, with a trial currently in progress to evaluate efficacy of LDN for treating AIDS.

Background evidence: Since naltrexone entered the public domain in 1984, little funding has been available for researching treatment for any diseases except alcoholism and opiate addiction, both heavily supported by federal grants. Now, however, there have been widespread anecdotal reports of successful treatments of various cancers, AIDS [8,9], and Multiple Sclerosis [10], and autoimmune diseases such as lupus, arthritis, and fibromyalgia [11]. If chronic LDN could potentiate and regulate the immune sys-



tem in health promoting ways, it may serve to combat AIDS and some cancers and reduce autoimmunological self-destructive actions in various disorders.

The first successful clinical trials were for Crohn's disease in 2006 [12] and in late 2007 for Multiple Sclerosis [13]. Trials for MS and fibromyalgia are underway at medical centers in California and Cleveland, along with an AIDS trial in Mali.

The normal 50 mg naltrexone dose that blocks opioid receptors 24 h per day is commonly prescribed for alcoholics and heroin addicts who wish to resist a relapse. This typically amounts to more than 0.5 mg/kg for most adults. In contrast, the most common LDN use is typically 4.5 mg, which generally means most adults get no more than 0.08 mg/kg per day, which can block mu opioid receptors for only a few hours, perhaps up to 6 h. If taken at bedtime, this would mean that an individual might wake up the next morning with a homeostatic rebound-induced over-activity of their own endogenous opioid systems. It is this type of bodily change in opioid dynamics that we focus on here. Until recently significant increases in mu, delta and perhaps epsilon opiate receptor expression have only been documented in animal models for chronic opiate blockade with high dose naltrexone [14,15], which leads to elevated morphine analgesia [16]. However, a recent animal study confirmed that a low-dose (0.1 mg/kg of naloxone) could elevate mu opioid receptor density as well [17]. More significantly, the recently completed Italian Multiple Sclerosis trial utilizing 5 mg of naltrexone daily found significant increases in circulating beta-endorphin, along with widespread reports of symptom relief [13].

Chronic naltrexone affects both immune and endorphin systems

While high dose naltrexone can counteract the reduction of immune system activity caused by opiate analgesics [18,19], when given alone, it can facilitate immune system parameters [20,21]. Zagon and McLaughlin [22] clearly delineated differences between high and low-dose naltrexone while studying mice with transplanted neuroblastoma tumors. The full dose of naltrexone [10 mg/kg] producing constant blockade of opiate receptors had

no beneficial effect and actually facilitated tumor growth. In contrast, a low-dose [0.1 mg/kg] decreased oncogenesis significantly [23]. Zagon and McLaughlin concluded that LDN increased opiate receptors and elevated circulating BE and ME after a 4–6 h period of receptor blockade. This “rebound phase” may release the increased density of mu and delta opioid receptors for endogenous opioid stimulation with the increasingly available BE and ME. The general principle operative here may be that the increased concentrations of BE and ME that gain access to increased density of MOR and DOR receptors may “functionally supersensitize” [24] endogenous opioid functions throughout the body with beneficial downstream effects on various body parameters, especially immunocompetence.

The beta-endorphin pathway in immune regulation

To grasp potential LDN paths of action, let us consider the following well articulated opioid antagonist's pathways for treating autoimmune disease. The potential action of BE in ameliorating autoimmune disease is sketched below.

Naltrexone modulation of immune regulation and treatment of autoimmune disease

Recent studies have shown BE concentration in circulating blood cells to be dramatically low in rheumatic diseases such as arthritis, lupus and gout, with significant inverse correlations between BE and both rheumatoid factor and erythrocyte sedimentation rate and hence the likelihood of inflammation [25]. Levels of BE were as low as 1/8 to 1/4 normal in other autoimmune-related diseases, including fibromyalgia [26], Crohn's disease [27], multiple sclerosis [28], chronic migraine [29] and cluster headaches [30] and endometriosis [31].

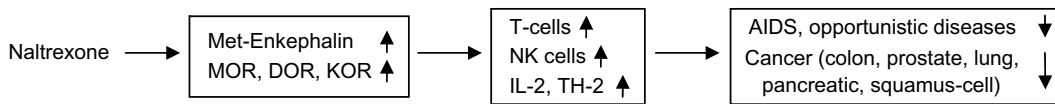
A preliminary pilot trial of 4.5 mg naltrexone for Crohn's Disease, completed at Penn State in 2005, yielded promising results. In 3 months 89% of the patients achieved significant reduction in symptoms and improvement in quality of life measures, and 67% went into remission. These results were maintained after 4 weeks of no naltrexone [12].

Recent work on collagen-induced arthritis in rats have found BE treatment to reduce clinical arthritis manifestations by shifting the balance of TH-1 and TH-2 cells toward TH-2. This comes from down-regulating the NF-kappa2 pathway, including tumor necrosis factor alpha, Interleukin-1beta, Interleukin-6, inducible nitric oxide synthase, and mRNA for matrix metalloproteinase-2 and mmp-9 [32]. Dr. Sacerdote and her colleagues in Milan have reached the same conclusion that BE increases ameliorate autoimmune diseases by suppressing TH-1 and augmenting TH-2 cells [33].

Low-dose naltrexone may work through methionine-enkephalin as well

The scientific case for LDN's positive effect on immune parameters is strengthened by studies that have evaluated infused ME in the treatment of cancers. Plotnikoff et al. [34] report that ME stimulates expression of interleukin-2 receptors and blood levels of interleukin-2, along with increases in white blood cells, natural killer cell activity, gamma-interferon, active T-cells and other ele-

ments of the immune system. These results were obtained both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and with normal volunteers as well as people suffering from a variety of cancers, including Kaposi's sarcoma, lung cancer, melanoma, and hypernephroma. These benefits might be sketched as follows:



Naltrexone's potential for cancer prevention and treatment

Potential benefit for cancer treatment has arisen largely from the work of Penn State investigators Ian Zagon and his colleagues. Zagon published initial evidence that chronic LDN (0.1 mg/kg in mice) reduced neuroblastoma tumor incidence by 66%, retarded tumor development by 98% and lengthened survival by 36% over controls [35]. The apparently intermittent receptor blockade via LDN significantly reduced cancer cell development, in contrast to a constant blockade that accelerated tumor growth [36]. Furthermore, the specific mu receptor blocker beta-Funaltrexamine did not significantly retard tumor development, yet the nonspecific blocker naltrexone did [37].

Both ME and BE may enhance NK cell activity via the mu receptor [38] and also by binding to receptors on cancer cells themselves [23]. Animal studies have shown full dose naltrexone to reduce tumor activity in mammary cancer [39]. In humans, high dose naltrexone has been involved (along with IL-2) in arresting 6 of 10 metastasized renal cancers [40] and [along with IL-2 and melatonin] in retarding metastasized cancer growth in terminal cases of kidney, stomach, pancreatic, colorectal, and thymus cancer [41].

While studying the efficacy of ME for neuroblastoma and squamous cell, colon, and pancreatic cancer, Zagon and colleagues used full dose naltrexone to block ME's retardation of tumor growth [42]. This contrasts with their prior studies which have shown low-dose treatments to be effective on colon cancer [43], and neuroblastoma [35]. Though acute high doses of naltrexone effectively block opioid retardation of the growth of some cancer cells, chronic low-doses foster that retardation. Furthermore, LDN has arrested B-cell lymphoma in one published case [44] and, along with alpha-Lipoic Acid, metastasized pancreatic cancer for 3 years in another [45]. Anecdotal reports of LDN causing remission include colorectal, mammary, ovarian, small-cell and non-small-cell lung, and prostate cancers, as well as Hodgkins and non-Hodgkins lymphoma, multiple myeloma, and neuroblastoma [46]. Intravenous ME may turn out to be a better treatment for some cancers, or more effective when combined with LDN. But the paradoxical effect of low-dose generic naltrexone of increasing *both* circulating BE and ME *and* the density of their *mu* and *delta* receptors bears further study because of its impressive cost-effectiveness.

LDN also holds promise for prostate cancer prevention and early treatment, since all of the anecdotal prostate cancer cases in one report that had not undergone hormone treatments went into remission [46]. Independently, medical interest has begun to focus on the immune system for a first defense against this cancer [47]. Furthermore, Dr. Bihari, whose experiences with LDN have been extensively summarized [46], reported success retarding or arresting AIDS in 1988 [9]. Low concentrations of naltrexone *in vitro* have also been shown to potentiate the effectiveness of the antiretroviral drugs zidovudine (AZT) and indinavir, lending support to Bihari's claims [48].

Thus, LDN, through its enhancement of immune functions [21] and specifically of natural killer cell activity [49] may promote prevention and treatment of viral diseases and bacterial infections. Evidence from animal models suggests that naltrexone's path to supporting immune defenses against viral disease begins by

increasing both beta-endorphin and met-enkephalin, which may then bind to sensitized mu opioid receptors to increase natural killer cell activity for quelling viral infection [50]. Since we only have clinical evidence from uncontrolled observations in the many disorders mentioned above, well-controlled double-blind clinical studies are warranted, despite the difficulty in financing studies off-patent medicines.

Conclusion

Low-dose naltrexone's potential for enhancing the quality of life through both reward and energy functions arises from the well-demonstrated links between mu opioid receptors and central dopamine neurons in the mesencephalon [51,52]. Solid evidence for safety and tolerability of chronic LDN is present in the recent Crohn's trial [12] and MS trial [13], as well as decades of FDA approved daily 50 mg doses for alcoholism. There is *no* published evidence to support the old "black box" warning about potential liver damage from chronic high doses [53]. This only happened at extremely high doses that were used in some of the early toxicology trials.

In sum, we conclude that low-dose naltrexone presents a safe and promising approach to prevention and/or treatment of many autoimmune diseases and cancer variants, as well as potentially various viral (e.g., AIDS) and neurological diseases (Multiple Sclerosis) that are exacerbated by compromised immunity. LDN's potential for modulating both opioid and immune systems yields a very wide field for clinical experimentation as well as novel research directions for strengthening the scientific evidence for linkages between opioid and immune systems in the regulation of various disease processes. There are solid reasons to believe LDN can also promote positive emotional states through the endogenous opioid amplification of positive affect and energy [52]. From a psychiatric perspective, the facilitation of endogenous opioids should alleviate depression since, to some degree, that multifaceted problem reflects reduced ability to experience pleasure. Evidence also exists for resilience against cardiovascular stress [54,55] and for specific enhancement of the reward system for exercise [56], palatable tastes [57,58], laughter [59,60], sex [61], social bonding [4,62], and even the placebo effect of positive expectations [63].

In a time of imperative health care reform, the prospect of so many novel contributions to both disease suppression and quality of life by a generic pharmaceutical presents significant challenges and opportunities for government, the medical research community, the pharmaceutical industry and health care management.

Acknowledgement

This work is supported by generous gifts from Skip's Pharmacy of Boca Raton, FL, The Compounder Pharmacy of Aurora, IL, and Irmat Pharmacy of New York, NY.

References

- [1] Weerts EM, Kim YK, Wand GS, Dannals RF, Lee JS, Frost JJ, et al. Differences in delta- and mu-opioid receptor blockade measured by positron emission tomography in naltrexone-treated recently abstinent alcohol-dependent subjects. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2008;33:653–65.
- [2] Gharagozlou P, Hashemi E, DeLorey TM, Clark JD, Lameh J. Pharmacological profiles of opioid ligands at kappa opioid receptors. *BMC Pharmacol* 2006;6:3.
- [3] Schlicker E, Morari M. Nociceptin/orphanin FQ and neurotransmitter release in the central nervous system. *Peptides* 2000;21:1023–9.
- [4] Panksepp J, Lensing P, Leboyer M, Bouvard MP. Naltrexone and other potential new pharmacological treatments of autism. *Brain Dysfunc* 1991;4:281–300.
- [5] Bouvard MP, Leboyer M, Launay JM, Recasens C, Plumet MH, Waller-Perotte D, et al. Low-dose naltrexone effects on plasma chemistries and clinical symptoms in autism, a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Psychiat Res* 1995;58:191–201.
- [6] Webster LR, Butera PG, Moran LV, Wu N, Burns LH, Friedmann N. Oxytrex minimizes physical dependence while providing effective analgesia, a randomized controlled trial in low back pain. *J Pain* 2006;7:937–46.
- [7] Mannelli P, Patkar AA, Peindl K, Murray HW, Wu LT, Hubbard R. Effectiveness of low-dose naltrexone in the post-detoxification treatment of opioid dependence. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2007;27:468–74.
- [8] Bihari B. Efficacy of low dose naltrexone as an immune stabilizing agent for the treatment of HIV/AIDS [letter]. *AIDS Patient Care* 1995;9:3.
- [9] Bihari B, Drury FM, Ragone VP, Ottomanelli GA, Buimovici-Klein E, Orbe MG, et al. Low dose naltrexone in the treatment of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. In: Poster presentation at the IV international AIDS conference, Stockholm, Sweden; 1988.
- [10] Agrawal YP. Low dose naltrexone therapy for multiple sclerosis. *Med Hyp* 2005;64:721–74.
- [11] <Lowdosenaltrexone@yahoo.com>.
- [12] Smith JP, Stock H, Bingaman S, Mauger D, Rogosnitzky M, Zagon IS. Low-dose naltrexone therapy improves active Crohn's disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 2007;102:1–9.
- [13] Gironi M, Martinelli-Boneschi F, Sacerdote P, Solaro C, Zaffaroni M, Cavaretta R, Muiola L, Bucello S, Radelli M, Pilato V, Rodegher M, Corsi M, Franchi S, Martinelli V, Nemni R, Comi G, Martino G. A Pilot Trial of Low Dose Naltrexone in Primary Progressive Multiple Sclerosis. *Mult Scler* 2008;14(8):1076–83.
- [14] Tempel A, Gardner EL, Zukin RS. Neurochemical and functional correlates of naltrexone-induced opiate receptor up-regulation. *J Pharmacol Exp Therap* 1985;232:439–44.
- [15] Giordano AL, Nock B, Cicero TJ. Antagonist-induced up-regulation of the putative epsilon opioid receptor in rat brain, comparison with kappa, mu and delta opioid receptors. *J Pharmacol Exp Therap* 1990;255:536–40.
- [16] Yoburn BC, Goodman RR, Cohen AH, Pasternak GW, Inturrisi CE. Increased analgesic potency of morphine and increased brain opioid binding sites in the rat following chronic naltrexone treatment. *Life Sci* 1985;36:2325–32.
- [17] Rajashekara V, Patel CN, Patel K, Purohit V, Yoburn BC. Chronic opioid antagonist treatment dose-dependently regulates mu-opioid receptors and trafficking proteins in vivo. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 2003;75:909–13.
- [18] Perez L, Lysle DT. Conditioned immunomodulation, investigations of the role of endogenous activity at mu, kappa, and delta opioid receptor subtypes. *J Neuroimmunol* 1997;79:101–12.
- [19] Holan V, Zajicova A, Krulova M, Blahoutova V, Wilczek H. Augmented production of proinflammatory cytokines and accelerated alltransplantation reactions in heroin-treated mice. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2003;132:40–5.
- [20] Kraut RP, Grtenberg AH. Effects of endogenous and exogenous opioids on splenic natural killer cell activity. *Nat Immun Cell Growth Regul* 1986;5:28–40.
- [21] Sacerdote P, Manfredi B, Mantegazza P, Panerai AE. Antinociceptive and immunosuppressive effects of opiate drugs, a structure-related activity study. *Br J Pharmacol* 1997;121:834–40.
- [22] Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ. Opioid antagonist modulation of murine neuroblastoma, a profile of cell proliferation and opioid peptides and receptors. *Brain Res* 1989;480:16–28.
- [23] McLaughlin PJ, Zagon IS. Modulation of human neuroblastoma transplanted into nude mice by endogenous opioid systems. *Life Sci* 1987;41:1465–72.
- [24] Zukin RS, Sugarman JR, Fitz-Syage ML, Gardner EL, Zukin SR, Gintzler AR. Naltrexone-induced opiate receptor supersensitivity. *Brain Res* 1982;245:285–92.
- [25] Wiedermann CJ, Sacerdote P, Mur E, Kinigadner U, Wicker T, Panerai AE, et al. Decreased immunoreactive beta-endorphin in mononuclear leucocytes from patients with rheumatic diseases. *Clin Exp Immunol* 1992;87:178–82.
- [26] Panerai AE, Vecchiet J, Panzeri P, Meroni P, Scarone S, Pizzigallo E, et al. Peripheral blood mononuclear cell beta-endorphin concentration is decreased in chronic fatigue syndrome and fibromyalgia but not in depression, preliminary report. *Clin J Pain* 2002;18:270–3.
- [27] Wiedermann CJ, Sacerdote P, Propst A, Propst T, Judmaier G, Kathrein H, et al. Decreased beta-endorphin content in peripheral blood mononuclear leukocytes from patients with Crohn's disease. *Brain Behav Immun* 1994;8:261–9.
- [28] Gironi M, Furlan R, Rovaris M, Comi G, Filippi M, Panerai AE, et al. Beta endorphin concentrations in PBMC of patients with different clinical phenotypes of multiple sclerosis. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiat* 2003;74:495–7.
- [29] Leone M, Sacerdote P, D'Amico D, Panerai AE, Bussone G. Beta-endorphin concentrations in the peripheral blood mononuclear cells of migraine and tension-type headache patients. *Cephalalgia* 1992;12:154–7.
- [30] Leone M, Sacerdote P, D'Amico D, Panerai AE, Bussone G. Beta-endorphin levels are reduced in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of cluster headache patients. *Cephalalgia* 1993;13:413–6.
- [31] Vercellini P, Sacerdote P, Panerai AE, Manfredi B, Bocciolone L, Crosignani G. Mononuclear cell beta-endorphin concentration in women with and without endometriosis. *Obstet Gynecol* 1992;79(Pt. 1):743–6.
- [32] Yin H, Yu M, Cheng H, Zhang F, Gao Y, Lin J, et al. Beta-endorphin prevents collagen induced arthritis by neuroimmuno-regulation pathway. *Neuro-Endocrinol Let* 2005;26:739–44.
- [33] Sacerdote P, Gaspani L, Panerai AE. Role of beta-endorphin in the modulation of immune responses, perspectives in autoimmune diseases. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2001;493:137–42.
- [34] Plotnikoff NP, Miller GC, Nimeh N, Faith RE, Murgio AJ, Wybran J. Enkephalins and T-cell enhancement in normal volunteers and cancer patients. *Ann New York Acad Sci* 1987;496:608–19.
- [35] Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ. Naltrexone modulates tumor response in mice with neuroblastoma. *Science* 1983;221:671–3.
- [36] Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ. Duration of opiate receptor blockade determines tumorigenic response in mice with neuroblastoma, a role for endogenous opioid systems in cancer. *Life Sci* 1984;35:409–16.
- [37] Zagon IS, McLaughlin PJ, Takemori AE, Portoghese PS. beta-Funaltrexamine (beta-FNA) and neural tumor response in mice. *Eur J Pharmacol* 1985;116:165–9.
- [38] Hsueh CM, Chen SF, Huang HJ, Ghanta VK, Hiramoto RN. Activation of mu-opioid receptors are required for the conditioned enhancement of NK cell activity. *Brain Res* 1996;737:263–8.
- [39] Tejwani GA, Gudehithlu KP, Hanissian SH, Gienapp IE, Whitacre CC, Malarkey WB. Facilitation of dimethylbenz[*a*]anthracene-induced rat mammary tumorigenesis by restraint stress, role of beta-endorphin, prolactin and naltrexone. *Carcinogenesis* 1991;12(4):637–41.
- [40] Lissoni P, Malugani F, Bordin V, Conti A, Maestroni G, Tancini G. A new neuroimmunotherapeutic strategy of subcutaneous low-dose interleukin-2 plus the long-acting opioid antagonist naltrexone in metastatic cancer patients progressing on interleukin-2 alone. *Neuroendocrinol Let* 2002;23:255–8.
- [41] Lissoni P, Malugani F, Malysheva O, Kozlov V, Laudon M, Conti A, et al. Neuroimmunotherapy of untreatable metastatic solid tumors with subcutaneous low-dose interleukin-2, melatonin and naltrexone, modulation of interleukin-2-induced antitumor immunity by blocking the opioid system. *Neuroendocrinol Let* 2002;23:341–4.
- [42] Zagon IS, Roesener CD, Verderame MF, Ohlsson-Wilhelm BM, Levin RJ, McLaughlin PJ. Opioid growth factor regulates the cell cycle of human neoplasias. *Int J Oncol* 2000;17:1053–61.
- [43] Hytrek SD, McLaughlin PJ, Lang CM, Zagon IS. Inhibition of human colon cancer by intermittent opioid receptor blockade with naltrexone. *Cancer Let* 1996;101:159–64.
- [44] Berkson BM, Rubin DM, Berkson AJ. Reversal of signs and symptoms of a B-cell lymphoma in a patient using only low-dose naltrexone. *Integ Cancer Therap* 2007;6:293–6.
- [45] Berkson BM, Rubin DM, Berkson AJ. The long-term survival of a patient with pancreatic cancer with metastases to the liver after treatment with the intravenous alpha-lipoic acid/low-dose naltrexone protocol. *Integ Cancer Therap* 2006;5:83–9.
- [46] <www.Lowdosenaltrexone.org>, doctor-managed website.
- [47] Dalglish A, Whelan M. Novel immunotherapeutic approaches to prostate cancer. *Curr Opin Molec Therap* 2005;7:30–4.
- [48] Gekker G, Lokensgard JR, Peterson PK. Naltrexone potentiates anti-HIV-1 activity of antiretroviral drugs in CD4+ lymphocyte cultures. *Drug Alc Depend* 2001;64:257–63.
- [49] Boyadjieva NI, Chaturvedi K, Poplawski MM, Sarkar DK. Opioid antagonist naltrexone disrupts feedback interaction between mu and delta opioid receptors in splenocytes to prevent alcohol inhibition of NK cell function. *J Immunol* 2004;173:42–9.
- [50] Tseng RJ, Padgett DA, Dhabhar FS, Engler H, Sheridan JF. Stress-induced modulation of NK activity during influenza viral infection, role of glucocorticoids and opioids. *Brain Behav Immunol* 2005;19:153–64.
- [51] Panksepp J. *Affective neuroscience*. Oxford University Press; 1998.
- [52] Alcaro A, Huber R, Panksepp J. Behavioral functions of the mesolimbic dopaminergic system: an affective neuroethological perspective. *Brain Res Revs* 2007;56:283–321.
- [53] Brewer C, Wong VS. Naltrexone, report of lack of hepatotoxicity in acute viral hepatitis, with a review of the literature. *Addict Biol* 2004;9:81–7.
- [54] McCubbin JA, Cheung R, Montgomery TB, Bulbulian R, Wilson JF. Aerobic fitness and opioidergic inhibition of cardiovascular stress reactivity. *Psychophysiology* 1992;29:687–97.
- [55] McCubbin JA, Wilson JF, Bruehl S, Ibarra P, Carlson CR, Norton JA, et al. Relaxation training and opioid inhibition of blood pressure response to stress. *J Consult Clin Psychol* 1996;64:593–601.
- [56] Harte JL, Eifert GH, Smith R. The effects of running and meditation on beta-endorphin, corticotropin-releasing hormone and cortisol in plasma, and on mood. *Biol Psychol* 1995;40:251–65.
- [57] Jarosz PA, Sekhon P, Coscina DV. Effect of opioid antagonism on conditioned place preferences to snack foods. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 2006;83:257–64.

- [58] Benton D, Donohoe RT. The effects of nutrients on mood. *Public Health Nutr* 1999;3A:403–9.
- [59] Burgdorf J, Panksepp J. Tickling induces reward in adolescent rats. *Physiol Behav* 2001;72:167–73.
- [60] Berk LS, Felten DL, Tan SA, Bittman BB, Westengard J. Modulation of neuroimmune parameters during the eustress of humor-associated mirthful laughter. *Alt Therap Health Med* 2001;7:62–72 [p. 74–6].
- [61] Sathe RS, Komisaruk BR, Ladas AK, Godbole SV. Naltrexone-induced augmentation of sexual response in men. *Arch Med Res* 2001;32:221–6.
- [62] Odendaal, JS Meintjes RA. Neurophysiological correlates of affiliative behaviour between humans and dogs. *Vet J* 2003;165:296–301.
- [63] Benedetti F. How the doctor's words affect the patient's brain. *Eval Health Profess* 2002;25:369–86.