

Adrenergic $\alpha 2A$ receptor gene is not associated with methylphenidate response in adults with ADHD

Verônica Contini · Marcelo M. Victor · Caio C. S. Cerqueira · Evelise R. Polina · Eugênio H. Grevet · Carlos A. I. Salgado · Rafael G. Karam · Eduardo S. Vitola · Paulo Belmonte-de-Abreu · Claiton H. D. Bau

Received: 26 May 2010 / Accepted: 9 November 2010 / Published online: 20 November 2010
© Springer-Verlag 2010

Abstract Adrenergic $\alpha 2A$ receptor gene (*ADRA2A*) is one of the most promising candidate genes for ADHD pharmacogenetics. Thus far, three studies have investigated the association between the *ADRA2A* –1291 C>G polymorphism and the therapeutic response to methylphenidate (MPH) in children with ADHD, all of them with positive results. The aim of this study is to investigate, for the first time, the association between three *ADRA2A* polymorphisms (–1291 C>G, –262 G>A, and 1780 C>T) and the response to MPH in adults with ADHD. The sample comprises 165 Brazilians of European descent evaluated in the adult ADHD outpatient clinic of the Hospital de Clínicas de Porto Alegre. The diagnostic procedures followed the DSM-IV criteria. Drug response was assessed by both categorical and dimensional approaches, through the scales Swanson, Nolan, and Pelham Rating scale version IV and the Clinical Global Impression-Severity Scale, applied at the beginning and after the 30th day of treatment. We found no evidence of association between the three *ADRA2A* polymorphisms and

the therapeutic response to MPH treatment. Our findings do not support a significant role for the *ADRA2A* gene in ADHD pharmacogenetics, at least among adult patients.

Keywords Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder · Pharmacogenetics · *ADRA2A* gene · Methylphenidate

Introduction

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a highly heritable psychiatric disorder characterized by impairments in attention, inhibitory control, and increased motor activity [1]. The core symptoms of the disorder arise during the childhood and are accompanied by high rates of comorbidities and significant social, emotional, and occupational impairments [6, 7, 55]. The worldwide prevalence of ADHD is estimated in 5.3% in children and adolescents [42] and 2.5% in adults [50].

Although the precise mechanisms of ADHD development are not completely understood, converging evidence from genetic and neurobiology studies strongly suggest that dysfunctions in the catecholamine neurotransmission play a crucial role in the pathophysiology of the disorder [4, 45]. In accordance, the clinical experience has demonstrated that stimulant drugs, which potentiate the catecholamine neurotransmission, are the most effective ADHD treatment [24, 59]. Methylphenidate hydrochloride (MPH) is the most prescribed psychostimulant for children and adults with ADHD and several controlled clinical trials have proven the effectiveness and safety of the treatment [8, 15, 24, 28]. However, many patients still do not show an appropriate clinical response to the MPH treatment [29, 51, 52]. Additionally, there is a considerable variability in dosage, tolerability, and adherence among responders [9, 20].

V. Contini · C. C. S. Cerqueira · E. R. Polina ·
C. H. D. Bau (✉)

Department of Genetics, Instituto de Biociências, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS), Caixa Postal 15053, CEP 91501-970 Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil
e-mail: claiton.bau@ufrgs.br

M. M. Victor · E. H. Grevet · C. A. I. Salgado ·
R. G. Karam · E. S. Vitola · P. Belmonte-de-Abreu ·
C. H. D. Bau

Adult ADHD Outpatient Clinic, Hospital de Clínicas de Porto Alegre, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

P. Belmonte-de-Abreu
Department of Psychiatry, Faculdade de Medicina,
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul,
Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil

Taking into account this scenario, several efforts to identify genetic factors associated with the variability in the therapeutic response to MPH treatment have focused on catecholaminergic genes, but most loci have not revealed robust findings across replications. Likewise, the results of the first genome-wide association study for the response to MPH did not reveal any markers that met criteria for statistical significance genome wide [38]. Among the most promising pharmacogenetic findings revealed is the adrenergic α 2A receptor gene (*ADRA2A*) [17, 27]. In fact, *ADRA2A* is also a candidate gene in ADHD etiology. A meta-analysis revealed substantial heterogeneity in effect sizes of an *ADRA2A* polymorphism (1780 C>T) across studies, suggesting that more studies are warranted to explain these findings [19]. Adrenergic α 2A receptors are important modulators of the prefrontal cortex (PFC) function, which is highly relevant to ADHD [3, 4], and there is evidence that α 2A receptors mediate directly the therapeutic effects of MPH in the PFC [2].

Some studies have already shown an effect of the *ADRA2A* –1291 C>G polymorphism in the response to treatment in psychiatric disorders, such as depression [33, 57] and schizophrenia [40]. In ADHD, three studies have investigated the association between the –1291 C>G polymorphism and the therapeutic response to MPH in children samples [10, 12, 43]. In all studies, the presence of the G-allele was associated with improvement in ADHD symptoms after MPH treatment, providing additional evidence for the involvement of the noradrenergic system in the modulation of MPH action. Interestingly, the influence of the *ADRA2A* –1291 C>G polymorphism in the response to MPH treatment seems to be more specific for the symptoms of inattention [12, 43], which is in accordance with previous reports of an effect of the G-allele in the inattentive dimension of ADHD [41, 46, 47, 49].

Thus, considering the possible effect of the *ADRA2A* gene in therapeutic response to MPH treatment, the aim of this investigation is to evaluate the association between three *ADRA2A* polymorphisms and the clinical response to MPH in a sample of adults with ADHD. In addition to the most investigated *ADRA2A* polymorphism, –1291 C>G, we selected two other (–262 G>A and 1780 C>T), since there is evidence that the main haplotype families of the gene can be characterized by these 3 markers [30].

Materials and methods

Subjects

The sample comprised 165 adults with ADHD from the ADHD Outpatient Program at the Hospital de Clinicas de Porto Alegre. The inclusion criteria were as follows: (a)

Native-Brazilian of European descent; (b) age 18 years or older; (c) fulfillment of DSM-IV diagnostic criteria for ADHD [1], both currently and during childhood; and (d) eligibility to immediate-release methylphenidate (IR-MPH) treatment. Exclusion criteria were the presence of: (a) clinical contra-indication to IR-MPH; (b) any significant neurological disease (e.g., delirium, dementia, epilepsy, head trauma, multiple sclerosis); (c) current or past history of psychosis; (d) intelligence quotient (IQ) <70, and (e) current clinically significant comorbid disorders (excluding tobacco dependence, oppositional defiant disorder (ODD), and antisocial personality disorder). The project was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the hospital (IRB # 00000921). All patients signed an informed consent. This protocol is part of a larger study on predictors of MPH treatment response, including phenotypic characteristics [56].

The diagnostic procedures in our unit have been described elsewhere [16, 22, 25]. Briefly, diagnoses of ADHD and comorbidities were achieved through the following semi-structured interviews: (1) K-SADS-E (Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia for School-Age Children-Epidemiologic Version), adapted to adults as described in Grevet et al. [21] and Karam et al. [26], for ADHD and ODD; (2) SCID-IV-R (Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV) for the Axis I psychiatric comorbidities, and (3) M.I.N.I (Mini-international Psychiatric Interview) for the diagnoses of conduct and antisocial personality disorder. The estimated IQ scores were obtained from the vocabulary and block design subtests of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale—Revised (WAIS-R) [58] administered by a trained psychologist.

Pharmacological intervention and drug response

Patients were treated with weekly increases in IR-MPH dose until symptom control or occurrence of limiting adverse effects. All patients took at least the minimum MPH dose of 0.3 mg/kg/day. Although this dose is considered low, there is evidence that it may be effective [48]. IR-MPH was administered twice or three times a day according to the patient's daily activities. Patients were usually reassessed one or two times in a period of 30 days after initiation and titration of IR-MPH. The final measurements were taken after the 30th day of treatment.

The outcome measures of MPH treatment were the Portuguese version of the Swanson, Nolan, and Pelham Rating Scale version IV (SNAP-IV) [54] and the Clinical Global Impression-Severity scale (CGI-S) [23]. Stimulants side effects were assessed with the Barkley Side Effect Rating Scale (SERS) [5]. All scales were applied at the beginning of the treatment (baseline levels) and after the

30th day of treatment. A detailed description of the application of these scales in MPH pharmacogenetics is in accordance with Contini et al. [11].

Drug response was assessed by both categorical and dimensional approaches. The a priori categorical definition of response was a 30% or greater symptom reduction in SNAP-IV and a CGI-S score of two points or less. The dimensional evaluation of drug response was measured by the variation in SNAP-IV scores.

Laboratory methods

DNA was extracted from whole blood by an adaptation of Lahiri and Nurnberger [31]. The *ADRA2A* –1291 C>G (rs1800544) polymorphism was amplified using the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) conditions adapted from Lario et al. [32] and Lima et al. [34]. The –262 G>A (rs1800545) and the 1780 C>T (rs553668) polymorphisms were genotyped using the Taqman SNP genotyping assays (Applied Biosystems), according to the manufacturer's recommended protocol.

Statistical analysis

Responders and non-responders were compared regarding demographic characteristics, IQ, baseline SNAP-IV, CGI-S and SERS scores, ADHD subtype, comorbidities, use of concomitant medication, and MPH dose. The chi-square test was used for categorical variables and the ANOVA test for continuous variables. The characterization of the linkage disequilibrium and the estimation of the haplotypes comprising the three *ADRA2A* polymorphisms were performed with the MLOCUS program [35, 36].

The association between specific alleles or haplotypes with the categorical response to MPH treatment was analyzed by logistic regression analyses. Genetic effects in the dimensional variation in SNAP-IV scores after the MPH treatment were analyzed by ANCOVA considering baseline scores as covariates. Potential confounders (demographic characteristics, IQ, ADHD subtype, comorbidities, use of concomitant medication, and MPH dose) were included as covariates using a statistical definition (association with both the study factor and outcome for a $P \leq 0.20$) [37].

Results

The sample comprised 90 men and 75 women. The mean age of the subjects was 35 years (± 11). Ninety-three percent of patients were currently employed, and the average number of years of schooling was 13.9 (± 3.6). The average estimated full scale IQ of the sample is 101.6 (± 9.5). Mean

baseline scores for the overall symptoms of ADHD according to the SNAP-IV and CGI-S were 1.7 (± 0.5) and 4.5 (± 0.7), respectively. The most frequent comedications were antidepressants and mood stabilizers, with no significant evidence for pharmacointeractions.

To confirm the general efficacy of MPH treatment in this sample, we explored effects of its use over SNAP-IV total scores during the first month of treatment. A significant reduction in total scores was detected during the follow-up period ($t = 22.90$; $P < 0.001$). One hundred and thirty-seven patients (83%) responded to treatment (responders), as defined by a 30% or greater symptom reduction in SNAP-IV plus a CGI-S score of two points or less. Twenty-eight participants (17%) failed to show a clinical response to MPH. The characteristics of both groups (responders and non-responders) are given in Table 1.

The estimated allele frequencies for the *ADRA2A* polymorphisms were (1) 0.67 (C) and 0.33 (G) for the –1291 C>G; (2) 0.88 (G) and 0.12 (A) for the –262 G>A and (3) 0.80 (C) and 0.20 (T) for the 1780 C>T. Genotype frequencies in all polymorphisms did not reveal a significant deviation from expected values for the Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (all $P > 0.20$). The haplotype analysis revealed that the polymorphisms are in strong linkage disequilibrium. The pairwise linkage disequilibrium was as follows: –1291/–262: $D' = 1.00$, $r^2 = 0.28$, $P < 0.001$; –1291/1780: $D' = 0.95$, $r^2 = 0.46$, $P < 0.001$; –262/1780: $D' = 1.00$, $r^2 = 0.034$, $P < 0.001$. The most frequent haplotypes observed in our sample and respective frequencies were C-1291/G-262/C1780 (0.67); G-1291/G-262/T1780 (0.19), and G-1291/A-262/C1780 (0.12).

Considering the low frequency of homozygous genotypes for the less frequent alleles, the statistical analyses for the MPH response were performed between carriers (homozygous plus heterozygous) and non-carriers of the rare alleles. In the haplotype analysis, we focused on the risk haplotype for ADHD (G-1291/G-262/T1780) (carriers vs. non-carriers), as suggested by Park et al. [41]. The results of the stratified analysis of response to MPH are presented in Tables 2 and 3. There were no significant differences in genotype or haplotype frequencies between MPH responders and non-responders in any *ADRA2A* polymorphisms (Table 2). Likewise, there are no significant effects of the *ADRA2A* polymorphisms on the response to MPH evaluated through the variation between pre- and post-treatment SNAP-IV scores (Table 3).

Discussion

This is the first pharmacogenetic investigation into *ADRA2A* polymorphisms in adults with ADHD, a gene with promising findings in previous studies of children

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of the sample according to MPH response

Characteristic	Total N = 165	Responders N = 137	Non-responders N = 28	P*
Age, median (\pm SD)	35 (\pm 11)	34 (\pm 11)	37 (\pm 11)	0.18
Sex: Male, N (%)	90 (54.5)	71 (51.8)	19 (67.9)	0.12
IQ, median (\pm SD) ^a	101.6 (9.5)	101.7 (9.9)	101.4 (8.1)	0.91
ADHD subtype, N (%) ^b				
Combined	92 (56.1)	79 (57.7)	13 (48.2)	0.60
Inattentive	64 (39.0)	52 (37.9)	12 (44.4)	
Hyperactive	8 (4.9)	6 (4.4)	2 (7.4)	
Lifetime comorbid conditions, N (%) ^b				
Any bipolar disorder	18 (11.0)	15 (11.0)	3 (10.7)	1.00
Major depression	50 (30.5)	46 (33.8)	4 (14.3)	0.04
Generalized anxiety disorder	19 (11.6)	16 (11.8)	3 (10.7)	1.00
Oppositional defiant disorder	57 (43.8)	48 (35.3)	9 (32.1)	0.75
Antisocial personality disorder	13 (7.9)	11 (8.1)	2 (7.1)	0.87
Alcohol dependence	9 (5.5)	6 (4.4)	3 (10.7)	0.18
Nicotine use	72 (43.9)	62 (45.6)	10 (35.7)	0.34
SNAP-IV baseline scores, median (\pm SD)				
Total	1.71 (\pm 0.52)	1.73 (\pm 0.51)	1.61 (\pm 0.52)	0.26
Inattentive	1.86 (\pm 0.54)	1.87 (\pm 0.53)	1.81 (\pm 0.62)	0.57
Hyperactivity-impulsivity	1.56 (\pm 0.71)	1.59 (\pm 0.70)	1.41 (\pm 0.73)	0.22
Oppositional	0.85 (\pm 0.63)	0.85 (\pm 0.64)	0.85 (\pm 0.58)	0.98
CGI-S baseline scores, median (\pm SD)	4.50 (\pm 0.72)	4.56 (\pm 0.74)	4.21 (\pm 0.57)	0.02
Concomitant use of medication, N (%)	22 (13.3)	17 (12.4)	5 (17.9)	0.54
MPH dose, mg/kg median (\pm SD)				
At baseline	0.15 (\pm 0.06)	0.15 (\pm 0.06)	0.14 (\pm 0.06)	0.69
At endpoint	0.52 (\pm 0.20)	0.51 (\pm 0.21)	0.53 (\pm 0.16)	0.69
SERS baseline score, median (\pm SD) ^c	38.37 (\pm 23.55)	36.75 (\pm 22.91)	45.83 (\pm 25.68)	0.14

MPH methylphenidate hydrochloride, SD standard deviation, IQ intelligence coefficient, ADHD attention/deficit hyperactivity disorder, SNAP-IV Swanson, Nolan, and Pelham scale version IV, CGI-S clinical global impression, severity scale, SERS Barkley effect rating scale

* Responders and non-responders were compared using the chi-square (categorical variables) or the ANOVA test (continuous variables)

^a Total N = 140; responders N = 115, non-responders N = 25

^b One patient with missing information

^c Total N = 101; responders N = 83, non-responders N = 1

Table 2 Association of ADRA2A polymorphisms with categorical response to MPH

ADRA2A polymorphism	Genotype (N)	Responders N (%)	Non-responders N (%)	P*	OR (CI)
-1291 C>G	CC (64)	53 (44.2)	11 (45.8)	1.00 ^a	1.00 (0.41–2.45)
	CG+GG (80)	67 (55.8)	13 (54.2)		
-262 G>A	GG (125)	106 (78.5)	19 (70.4)	0.55 ^{b,c}	0.75 (0.29–1.94)
	GA+AA (37)	29 (21.5)	8 (29.6)		
1780 C>T	CC (100)	85 (63.4)	16 (59.3)	0.34 ^{a,b}	0.65 (0.26–1.57)
	CT+TT (60)	49 (36.6)	11 (40.7)		
Haplotype	-1291G/-262G/1780T (59)	49 (36.3)	10 (37.0)	0.73 ^a	0.86 (0.36–2.06)
	Others (103)	86 (63.7)	17 (63.0)		

ADRA2A adrenergic α 2A receptor gene, MPH methylphenidate hydrochloride, OR odds ratio, CI confidence interval

* Calculated by logistic regression analyses. Potential confounders considered in analyses: ^a age; ^b sex; ^c alcohol dependence (lifetime)

Table 3 Association of *ADRA2A* polymorphisms with response to MPH according to SNAP-IV scores

ADRA2A Polymorphism	Genotype (N)	Hyperactivity		Inattention		Total ADHD		Opposition	
		Δ SNAP-IV	P*	Δ SNAP-IV	P*	Δ SNAP-IV	P*	Δ SNAP-IV	P*
-1291 C>G	CC (64)	0.87	0.59 ^a	1.00	0.33 ^b	0.93	0.85 ^c	0.50	0.63 ^d
	CG+GG (80)	0.89		1.17		1.03		0.46	
-262 G>A	GG (125)	0.88	0.42 ^a	1.07	0.86 ^{b,e,f}	0.97	0.58 ^c	0.49	0.24 ^{d,f}
	GA+AA (37)	0.92		1.23		1.07		0.48	
1780 C>T	CC (101)	0.94	0.20 ^{a,g}	1.12	0.62 ^{b,e,h}	1.03	0.54 ^c	0.53	0.60 ^{d,g,h,i}
	CT+TT (60)	0.79		1.09		0.94		0.41	
Haplotype	-1291G/-262G/1780T (59)	0.82	0.20 ^{a,g}	1.11	0.81 ^b	0.96	0.69 ^c	0.41	0.54 ^{d,g,i}
	Others (103)	0.93		1.10		1.01		0.52	

ADRA2A adrenergic $\alpha 2A$ receptor gene, *MPH* methylphenidate hydrochloride, *SNAP-IV* Swanson, Nolan, and Pelham scale version IV, *SD* standard deviation, Δ *SNAP-IV* baseline—endpoint *SNAP-IV* scores (mean \pm SD)

* Calculated by ANCOVA. Potential confounders considered in analyses: ^a hyperactivity baseline *SNAP-IV* scores; ^b inattention baseline *SNAP-IV* scores; ^c total baseline *SNAP-IV* scores; ^d opposition baseline *SNAP-IV* scores; ^e sex; ^f MPH dose (at endpoint); ^g nicotine use; ^h age; ⁱ concomitant use of medication

with ADHD. However, we found no evidence of association between three *ADRA2A* polymorphisms (-1291 C>G, -262 G>A, and 1780 C>T) or haplotypes and the response to MPH treatment. Although there are three previous *ADRA2A* pharmacogenetic studies, all of them with positive findings, none of them included adults. Furthermore, we assessed two additional *ADRA2A* polymorphisms, which were never investigated in ADHD pharmacogenetic studies, and performed a haplotype analysis.

The therapeutic response to MPH, similarly to other drugs, is the result of a complex matrix of factors in which several genes may play a part [53]. The fact that we did not find a putative association is consistent with the complex effect of the *ADRA2A* gene in ADHD etiology [19]. Considering the significant heterogeneity found in the meta-analysis of association studies [19], we cannot rule out the possibility of heterogeneity in pharmacogenetic studies as well. The effect of *ADRA2A* polymorphisms may be related to other phenotypes, such as tobacco smoking [44] and personality [13], which could mediate the response to the treatment.

Of special interest is the fact that the all positive results for the *ADRA2A* gene in ADHD pharmacogenetic studies were found in pediatric samples, where the male/female ratio is approximately 3:1. In our sample, however, this proportion is near 1:1. This is consistent with the reported differences in male/female ratios between children and adults with ADHD [14, 18, 22, 39]. Thus, this gender difference in the sample composition of ADHD children and adults might influence pharmacogenetic results. This hypothesis is supported by a post-hoc finding that the subsample of men carrying the G-allele of the *ADRA2A* -1291C>G polymorphism tended to show lower

inattentive scores after MPH treatment than subjects without the G-allele ($P = 0.08$, data not shown).

Our study should be understood in the context of some limitations. This is not a controlled, but a naturalistic design; we did not have a placebo arm in this trial, so we did not have an internal control to correct for any effect of time. The rate of improvement in ADHD symptoms, however, was similar to those generally found in placebo-controlled studies. In addition, this limitation would be more severe if the placebo response was related to the *ADRA2A* polymorphisms assessed, which is unlikely. The lack of a strictly standardized medication titration is another limitation of our study. However, the fact that all patients were treated in a comparable manner by the same experienced psychiatrist trained in our protocol minimizes, to some extent, the limitations of the approach. Negative findings are not surprising in pharmacogenetic studies of ADHD. Currently, there is no known genetic polymorphism with substantial evidence for involvement in MPH treatment response, notably in adults [17, 27]. Another issue, considering the small effect of *ADRA2A* in ADHD, is the risk of a type II error. Our sample size, however, is similar to previous studies and analyses one of the largest samples of adults with ADHD ever presented in pharmacogenetic investigations. Therefore, if this gene plays a role in the response to MPH in ADHD patients, we propose that the effect would be small and of limited clinical relevance or limited to a subset of patients (e.g., men). In conclusion, our findings fail to support a significant role of three relevant *ADRA2A* polymorphisms in the clinical response to MPH treatment in ADHD, at least among Brazilian adults.

Acknowledgments Thanks are due to Felipe A. Picon, Paula O. G. da Silva, Katiane Silva, Nyvia O. Sousa and Rafael S. Giordani for

help in the sample collection of ADHD patients and to Francine Z. Marques for part of the laboratory analysis. Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq, Brazil), Instituto do Milênio (CNPq), FIPE-HCPA, Fundação de Amparo a Pesquisa do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul (FAPERGS), DECIT/SCTIE/MS/PPSUS and PRONEX funded this study.

Conflicts of interest The ADHD Program received educational and research support from the following pharmaceutical companies in the last 3 years: Abbott, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Eli-Lilly, Janssen-Cilag, and Novartis. Dr Belmonte-de-Abreu is on the speaker's bureau or is a consultant for Janssen-Cilag and Bristol-Myers Squibb. Dr Grevet is on the speaker's bureau or is a consultant for Novartis and Janssen-Cilag.

References

- American Psychiatric Association (1994) Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, 4th edn. American Psychiatric Association, Washington, DC
- Arnsten AF, Dudley AG (2005) Methylphenidate improves prefrontal cortical cognitive function through alpha2 adrenoceptor and dopamine D1 receptor actions: Relevance to therapeutic effects in Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. *Behav Brain Funct* 1(1):2
- Arnsten AF, Li BM (2005) Neurobiology of executive functions: catecholamine influences on prefrontal cortical functions. *Biol Psychiatry* 57(11):1377–1384
- Arnsten AF (2009) Toward a new understanding of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder pathophysiology: an important role for prefrontal cortex dysfunction. *CNS Drugs* 23(Suppl 1):33–41
- Barkley RA (1990) Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder: A Handbook for Diagnosis and Treatment. Guilford Press, New York
- Biederman J (2004) Impact of comorbidity in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *J Clin Psychiatry* 65(Suppl 3):3–7
- Biederman J, Faraone SV (2005) Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Lancet* 366(9481):237–248
- Brown RT, Amler RW, Freeman WS et al (2005) Treatment of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: overview of the evidence. *Pediatrics* 115(6):e749–e757
- Charach A, Ickowicz A, Schachar R (2004) Stimulant treatment over five years: adherence, effectiveness, and adverse effects. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 43(5):559–567
- Cheon KA, Cho DY, Koo MS et al (2009) Association between homozygosity of a G allele of the alpha-2a-adrenergic receptor gene and methylphenidate response in Korean children and adolescents with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 65(7):564–570
- Contini V, Victor MM, Marques FZ et al (2010) Response to methylphenidate is not influenced by DAT1 polymorphisms in a sample of Brazilian adult patients with ADHD. *J Neural Transm* 117(2):269–276
- da Silva TL, Pianca TG, Roman T et al (2008) Adrenergic alpha2A receptor gene and response to methylphenidate in attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder-predominantly inattentive type. *J Neural Transm* 115(2):341–345
- de Cerqueira CCS, Polina ER, Contini V et al (2010) ADRA2A polymorphisms and ADHD in adults: possible mediating effect of personality. *Psychiatry Res*. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2010.08.032
- Faraone SV, Biederman J, Weber W et al (1998) Psychiatric, neuropsychological, and psychosocial features of DSM-IV subtypes of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: results from a clinically referred sample. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 37(2):185–193
- Faraone SV, Spencer T, Aleardi M et al (2004) Meta-analysis of the efficacy of methylphenidate for treating adult attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 24(1):24–29
- Fischer AG, Bau CHD, Grevet EH et al (2007) The role of comorbid major depressive disorder in the clinical presentation of adult ADHD. *J Psychiatr Res* 41:991–996
- Froehlich TE, McGough JJ, Stein MA (2010) Progress and promise of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder pharmacogenetics. *CNS Drugs* 24(2):99–117
- Gaub M, Carlson CL (1997) Gender differences in ADHD: a meta-analysis and critical review. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 36(8):1036–1045
- Gizer IR, Ficks C, Waldman ID (2009) Candidate gene studies of ADHD: a meta-analytic review. *Hum Genet* 126(1):51–90
- Greenhill L, Beyer DH, Finkleson J et al (2002) Guidelines and algorithms for the use of methylphenidate in children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *J Atten Disord* 6(Suppl 1):S89–100
- Grevet EH, Bau CHD, Salgado CA et al (2005) Interrater reliability for diagnosis in adults of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and oppositional defiant disorder using K-SADS-E. *Arq Neuropsiquiatr* 63:307–310
- Grevet EH, Bau CHD, Salgado CA et al (2006) Lack of gender effects on subtype outcomes in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: support for the validity of subtypes. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 256:311–319
- Guy W (1976) ECDU Assessment manual for psychopharmacology, Revised. Bethesda, MD: US Department of Health, Education and Welfare
- Heal DJ, Cheetham SC, Smith SL (2009) The neuropharmacology of ADHD drugs in vivo: insights on efficacy and safety. *Neuropharmacology* 57(7–8):608–618
- Kalil KL, Bau CH, Grevet EH et al (2008) Smoking is associated with lower performance in WAIS-R Block Design scores in adults with ADHD. *Nicotine Tob Res* 10(4):683–688
- Karam RG, Bau CH, Salgado CA et al (2009) Late-onset ADHD in adults: milder, but still dysfunctional. *J Psychiatr Res* 43(7):697–701
- Kieling C, Genro JP, Hutz MH, Rohde LA (2010) A current update on ADHD pharmacogenomics. *Pharmacogenomics* 11(3):407–419
- Kolar D, Keller A, Golfinopoulos M et al (2008) Treatment of adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat* 4(1):107–121
- Kooij JJ, Burger H, Boonstra AM et al (2004) Efficacy and safety of methylphenidate in 45 adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. A randomized placebo-controlled double-blind cross-over trial. *Psychol Med* 34(6):973–982
- Kurnik D, Muszkat M, Li C et al (2006) Variations in the alpha2A-adrenergic receptor gene and their functional effects. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 79(3):173–185
- Lahiri DK, Nurnberger JI Jr (1991) A rapid non-enzymatic method for the preparation of HMW DNA from blood for RFLP studies. *Nucleic Acids Res* 11:5444
- Lario S, Calls J, Cases A et al (1997) MspI identifies a biallelic polymorphism in the promoter region of the alpha 2A-adrenergic receptor gene. *Clin Genet* 51(2):129–130
- Lee HY, Kang RH, Paik JW et al (2009) Association of the adrenergic alpha 2a receptor-1291C/G polymorphism with

- weight change and treatment response to mirtazapine in patients with major depressive disorder. *Brain Res* 1262:1–6
34. Lima JJ, Feng H, Duckworth L et al (2007) Association analyses of adrenergic receptor polymorphisms with obesity and metabolic alterations. *Metabolism* 56(6):757–765
 35. Long JC, Williams RC, Urbanek M (1995) An E-M algorithm and testing strategy for multiple locus haplotypes. *Am J Hum Genet* 56:799–810
 36. Long JC (1999) Multiple locus haplotype analysis, version 3.0. Software and documentation distributed by the author. Department of Human Genetics, University of Michigan Medical School, 4909 Buhl Bldg., Ann Arbor, MI 4819-0618
 37. Maldonado G, Greenland S (1993) Simulation study of confounder-selection strategies. *Am J Epidemiol* 138(11):923–936
 38. Mick E, Neale B, Middleton FA et al (2008) Genome-wide association study of response to methylphenidate in 187 children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet* 147B(8):1412–1418
 39. Murphy K, Barkley RA (1996) Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder adults: comorbidities and adaptive impairments. *Compr Psychiatry* 37(6):393–401
 40. Park YC, Chung SH, Lee KJ et al (2006) Weight gain associated with the alpha2a-adrenergic receptor-1, 291 C/G polymorphism and olanzapine treatment. *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet* 141:394–397
 41. Park L, Nigg JT, Waldman ID et al (2005) Association and linkage of alpha-2A adrenergic receptor gene polymorphisms with childhood ADHD. *Mol Psychiatry* 10(6):572–580
 42. Polanczyk G, de Lima MS, Horta BL et al (2007) The worldwide prevalence of ADHD: a systematic review and meta-regression analysis. *Am J Psychiatry* 164(6):942–948
 43. Polanczyk G, Zeni C, Genro JP et al (2007) Association of the adrenergic alpha2A receptor gene with methylphenidate improvement of inattentive symptoms in children and adolescents with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 64(2):218–224
 44. Prestes AP, Marques FZ, Hutz MH et al (2007) Tobacco smoking and the ADRA2A C-1291G polymorphism. *J Neural Transm* 114(11):1503–1506
 45. Prince J (2008) Catecholamine dysfunction in attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: an update. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 28(3 Suppl 2):S39–S45
 46. Roman T, Polanczyk GV, Zeni C et al (2006) Further evidence of the involvement of alpha-2A-adrenergic receptor gene (ADRA2A) in inattentive dimensional scores of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Mol Psychiatry* 11(1):8–10
 47. Roman T, Schmitz M, Polanczyk GV et al (2003) Is the alpha-2A adrenergic receptor gene (ADRA2A) associated with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder? *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet* 120(1):116–120
 48. Rösler M, Fischer R, Ammer R et al (2009) A randomised, placebo-controlled, 24-week, study of low-dose extended-release methylphenidate in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 259(2):120–129
 49. Schmitz M, Denardin D, Silva TL et al (2006) Association between alpha-2a-adrenergic receptor gene and ADHD inattentive type. *Biol Psychiatry* 60(10):1028–1033
 50. Simon V, Czobor P, Bálint S et al (2009) Prevalence and correlates of adult attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder: meta-analysis. *Br J Psychiatry* 194(3):204–211
 51. Spencer T, Biederman J, Wilens T et al (2005) A large, double-blind, randomized clinical trial of methylphenidate in the treatment of adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 57(5):456–463
 52. Spencer J, Biederman T, Wilens M et al (1996) Pharmacotherapy of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder across the lifespan. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 35:409–428
 53. Staddon S, Arranz MJ, Mancama D et al (2002) Clinical applications of pharmacogenetics in psychiatry. *Psychopharmacology* 162(1):18–23
 54. Swanson JM (1992) School-based assessments and interventions for ADD students. KC Publishing, Irvine
 55. Tamam L, Karakus G, Ozpoyraz N (2008) Comorbidity of adult attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder and bipolar disorder: prevalence and clinical correlates. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci* 258(7):385–393
 56. Victor MM, Grevet EH, Salgado CA et al (2009) Reasons for pretreatment attrition and dropout from methylphenidate in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: the role of comorbidities. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 29(6):614–616
 57. Wakeno M, Kato M, Okugawa G et al (2008) The alpha 2A-adrenergic receptor gene polymorphism modifies antidepressant responses to milnacipran. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 28(5):518–524
 58. Wechsler D (1981) WAIS-R—manual for the wechsler adult intelligence scale—revised. The Psychological Corporation, San Antonio, Texas
 59. Wilens TE (2008) Effects of methylphenidate on the catecholaminergic system in attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 28(3 Suppl 2):S46–S53