

No Geiger Counter for Holocaust Radioactivity: Possible or Impossible Biomarkers of Holocaust Traumatization?

Natan P.F. Kellermann, PhD

AMCHA – National Israeli Center for Psychosocial Support of Survivors of the Holocaust and the Second Generation

ABSTRACT

For many years, transgenerational transmission of trauma used to be explained with learning theories or in psychoanalytic terms as “radioactive identification.” At that time, nobody believed that a trauma of a parent could also leave physical “scars” on the child. During the last decade, however, significant progress in neuroscience has begun to uncover the biological mysteries of hereditary memory. This biological line of research assumes that exposure to “Holocaust radiation” might be highly toxic for a developing embryo. Despite this progress, however, there is still no radiation detection instrument, such as the Geiger counter for “Holocaust radioactivity.” This paper discusses the possible use of biomarkers to measure Holocaust traumatization. Because of the many obstacles in this line of biological research, we are still unable to confirm that the traumatization of the first generation “lingered on” as a result of a germline transmission of epigenetic information between generations. Thus it seems that the theory of a specific genetic predisposition for Holocaust traumatization still needs to be supplemented by a more integrative bio-psycho-social explanatory model.

Transgenerational transmission of Holocaust trauma (TTT) from traumatized parents to their offspring has been a focus of interest for many years. Numerous publications have suggested what was transmitted (or not), how this transmission may have occurred and when it may take place (during which critical periods of development and under which conditions) (1). The question is no longer if children of traumatized parents suffer from psychological

disorders or not, but who. It is now generally accepted that only particular parents transmit various influences to certain individual children under specific circumstances and at different critical time periods.

For example, parents with some kind of stress disorder may transmit their emotional burden to sensitive children if an extra-family support network is lacking. Such children may then continue to carry an “allostatic overload” (2) that they inherited from their parents and may suffer from “transgenerational stress disorder,” a subtype of generalized anxiety disorder, or “secondary traumatization.”

Studies on the etiology of TTT, however, are less conclusive. Most likely there is a combination of psychosocial learning factors and gene-environment interaction in its development and a combination of nurture and nature. But the biological part of this assumption has not yet been verified by sufficient empirical data. The present paper discusses the possible use of biomarkers to gain such data.

BIOMARKERS

For many years, TTT used to be explained with learning theories or in psychoanalytic terms (3) as “radioactive identification.” At that time, nobody believed that a trauma of a parent can also leave physical “scars” on the child. Neither was it assumed that such “radioactivity” could be as hazardous as ionizing radiation and that it could cause actual physical damage to the body of the children. During the last decade, however, significant progress in cognitive neuroscience, molecular biology and epigenetics have begun to uncover the biological mysteries and cellular basis of hereditary memory (4, 5). This biological line of research assumes that exposure to “Holocaust radiation” may be highly toxic for a developing embryo (6) and that it may enter into a cell membrane and modify biomolecules in the cytoplasm of the first generation which may

cause epi-mutations in the gametes of the child (7-9). Such defective developmental programming may have serious consequences for the formation of vulnerability and resilience and lead to mental disorders throughout the life in the child (10).

Despite this progress, however, there is still no radiation detection instrument, such as the Geiger counter for Holocaust radioactivity. Neither has thermal biophoton emission, which reveals information about the health of cells under stress in living organisms (11), been used for this purpose on human subjects. As a result, we cannot (yet?) get direct access to the biological footprints of inherited implicit memories of fear, nor directly study the epigenetic “switches” that control human fear responses (12). Most importantly, we still cannot directly study the physical representations of fear memories (engrams) in human beings to determine if they are based on current experiences or if they may somehow be traces of repressed memories of traumatized parents (13). Research on TTT is therefore still based only on subjective client self-reports rather than on any specific psychobiological measures or “biomarkers” that objectively measures cellular, biochemical or molecular alterations in human tissues, cells or fluids (14, 15). Similarly, PTSD is also lacking any specific and cost efficient biomarkers (16). In fact, psychiatry as a whole has not identified valid clinically biomarkers for most mental disorders (17).

Finding such biomarkers would not only facilitate the diagnosis of children of survivors, but also potentially help explain the biological etiology of TTT. Primarily, it would verify the repeated observation from anecdotal clinical reports and cohort studies that the physical “scars” within the mind and body of survivors in the first generation may be present also in the offspring. By observing the manifestation of Holocaust traumatization in the brain and periphery with actual biomarkers in the first affected generation (F0) and then detecting the same biomarkers also in the second generation (F1), we would have actual evidence of transmitted trauma over the generation barrier (18, 19). To prove that such an influence was inherited and not only a result of psychosocial factors, we would thereafter ideally need to show that the same biomarker also appears in the third (F2), fourth (F3) and perhaps in future generations. Only then would we be able to confirm that the traumatization “lingered on” and was a result of a germline transmission of epigenetic information between generations in the absence of direct exposure (20). Anything less than this would leave TTT as an assumption at best or a myth at worst (21-23).

POSSIBLE BIOMARKERS OF HOLOCAUST TRAUMA

Since all traumatization involves some form of adaptation to stress, possible biomarkers of TTT may be found within any or all of the physiological systems that regulate stress. Most research on biological TTT has therefore focused on the activity of the various systems within the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, the sympathetic adreno-medullary (SAM) axis and the limbic system. These systems are all central to threat assessment within the brain and body through complex interactions among the nervous, endocrine and immune systems in which receptors on critical cells send and receive information to their subsequent programming effects (24). A large number of studies (25-27) have investigated the relevant biomarkers within any or all of these (1) neuroendocrine (28) (2) neuroanatomical (29) and (3) epigenetic systems (30-32). If the “scar” was caused by HPA-dysregulation, it would be measured by the level of cortisol in the saliva of the second generation (33). Children of Holocaust survivors with PTSD were found to have significantly lower cortisol, but better cortisol suppression in their blood, than offspring of survivors without PTSD (34). If the “scar” was caused by a hyperactive Amygdala (35) or by a weakened medial prefrontal cortex (36) it would be measured in the brain abnormalities of an fMRI scan. If the “scar” was explained in epigenetic terms it would be measured in alterations of the DNA methylation around the glucocorticoid receptor gene in the hippocampus or in the estrogen receptor in diverse brain regions (37). In one recent study, Holocaust survivors and their offspring had methylation changes on the same site in a functional intronic region of the FKBP5 gene, but in the opposite direction (38). In addition, biomarkers have been studied within many other biological systems, such as oxytocin, p11, mRNA and telomere shortening. For example, a recent study in Israel found that individuals after war captivity who suffered from depression but not from PTSD had decreased telomere length (39).

However, while all these studies may have found significant findings on one or the other physiological correlate measured, none have yet proven to be clinically useful or sufficiently valid as a definite biomarker of traumatization. First, within neuroendocrinology, there is disagreement regarding baseline levels of cortisol observed in people with PTSD (40) and cortisol responses show large intra- and inter-individual variability (41). Second, there is no consensus as to what has gone wrong within the brain as a result of abnormal fear learning, exaggerated threat detection, and in the regulation of emotion/cognition (42). As a

result, there are currently no state-of-the-art neuroimaging technologies of the brain that are clinically useful for establishing a reliable diagnosis of mood disorders (43, 44). In fact, brain imaging plays no accepted role in psychiatric diagnosis beyond ruling out medical factors such as tumors or traumatic brain injuries (45). Finally, within epigenetic studies, the findings are inconclusive since they are based mostly on animal studies (46) that are difficult to translate to human subjects because responses to psychological trauma in humans are fundamentally more complex than in animals (47, 48). In addition, such studies on humans still struggle with methodological difficulties and ethical constraints (21) and require information across multiple generations. Some of these difficulties may be illustrated in the (first?) human epigenetic study of TTT mentioned above (49). Most of what we know about TTT in humans is therefore based on retrospective cohort studies (e.g., 50) that suffer from selection bias and confounding factors. While neurobiological laboratories all over the world are struggling to overcome these obstacles, large-scale genome- and epigenome-wide association studies are also conducted (51). One such effort is the Research Domain Criteria (RDoC) project (52) that was created in order to discover the underlying neurobiological and bio-behavioral mechanisms of mental disorders. So far, however, a recent review of its core findings in neurobiological PTSD research found that it had not yet produced substantial, new knowledge on the pathobiology of this disorder, nor had any drug that specifically target PTSD core symptoms progressed to clinical use (53, 54). As of this writing, the RDoC has not yet made a significant impact on the diagnostic system used within psychiatry as a whole (55).

CONCLUSION

We still do not have any valid and clinically applicable biomarkers for Holocaust trauma and there is no *tangible* evidence for the epigenetic inheritance of phenotypes in the etiology of TTT. As a consequence, we still cannot prove that massive stress exposure in parents can in fact influence PTSD risk also in their children.

Finding valid biomarkers of Holocaust traumatization (HT) is obviously a challenging task. Obstacles are not only caused by methodological constraints, but also because HT cannot simply be regarded as one specific and persistent disorder detached from the human mind. It has also become increasingly clear that the difficulties in finding biomarkers are caused by the fact that such traumatization (1) cannot be easily measured in human beings; (2) is not

clearly identified; (3) tends to vary between individuals and populations; (4) is not constant over time; and (5) may be the result of a failure to regain physiological homeostasis rather than a simple physiological response to stress (56). This compels us to take a fresh look at our basic assumptions (57). Perhaps the theory of a specific genetic predisposition for Holocaust traumatization is fundamentally flawed. If so, the search for specific biomarkers, like the search for the Holy Grail (58), might lead to a blind alley (59, 60). And, if so, there will be a need to develop a more integrative bio-psycho-social explanatory model to the study of traumatization and its possible transmission than pure biological reductionism.

References

1. Kellermann NPF. Holocaust trauma: Psychological effects and treatment. New York: Bloomington, iUniverse, 2009.
2. McEwen BS, Stellar E. Stress and the individual. Mechanisms leading to disease. Arch Intern Med 1993;153:2093-2101.
3. Gampel Y. Access to the non-verbal through modelling in the psychoanalytic situation. Br J Psychother 1993;9:280-290.
4. Neigh GN, Gillespie CF, Nemeroff CB, et al. The neurobiological toll of child abuse and neglect. Isr J Psychiatry Relat Sci 2013;50:33-39.
5. Sharma A. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: Focus on soma to germline information transfer. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 2013;113:439-446.
6. Bohacek J, Mansuy IM. A guide to designing germline-dependent epigenetic inheritance experiments in mammals. Nat Methods 2017;14:243-249.
7. Daxinger L, Whitelaw E. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: More questions than answers. Genome Res 2010;20:1623-1628.
8. Gillespie CF, Phifer J, Bradley B, Ressler KJ. Risk and resilience: Genetic and environmental influences on development of the stress response. Depress Anxiety 2009;26:984-992.
9. McCarrey JR. Distinctions between transgenerational and non-transgenerational epimutations. Vol. 398, Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology 2014; pp. 13-23.
10. Daskalakis NP, Bagot RC, Parker KJ, et al. The three-hit concept of vulnerability and resilience: Toward understanding adaptation to early-life adversity outcome. Psychoneuroendocrinology 2013;38:1858-1873.
11. Creath K, Schwartz GE. Imaging auras around and between plants: A new application of biophoton imaging. Photoessay J Altern Complementary Med 2005;11:951-953.
12. Reul JMHM, Collins A, Saliba RS, et al. Glucocorticoids, epigenetic control and stress resilience. Neurobiol Stress 2015;1:44-59.
13. Josselyn SA, Köhler S, Frankland PW. Finding the engram. Nat Rev Neurosci 2015;16:521-534.
14. Kilimann I, Thyrian JR, Hoffmann W, Teipel SJ. Translation of imaging biomarkers from clinical research to healthcare. Z Gerontol Geriatr 2017; 50:84-88.
15. North C, Surís A. Advances in psychiatric diagnosis: Past, present, and future. Behav Sci (Basel) 2017;7:27.
16. Lehrner A, Yehuda R. Biomarkers of PTSD: Military applications and considerations. Eur J Psychotrauma 2014;5:10.3402/ejpt.v5.23797. doi:10.3402/ejpt.v5.23797.
17. Venkatasubramanian G, Keshavan MS. Biomarkers in psychiatry – A critique. Ann Neurosci 2016; 23:3-5.
18. Babenko O, Kovalchuk I, Metz GAS. Stress-induced perinatal and transgenerational epigenetic programming of brain development and mental health. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 2015;48:70-91.
19. Klengel T, Dias BG, Ressler KJ. Models of intergenerational and

- transgenerational transmission of risk for psychopathology in mice. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2015;41:1-13.
20. Martos SN, Yee Tang W, Wang Z, et al. Elusive inheritance: Transgenerational effects and epigenetic inheritance in human environmental disease. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol* 2015;118:44-54.
 21. Dias BG, Maddox SA, Klengel T, Ressler KJ. Epigenetic mechanisms underlying learning and the inheritance of learned behaviors. *Trends in Neurosciences NIH Public Access* 2015: 96-107.
 22. Grossniklaus U, Kelly WG, Kelly B, et al. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: How important is it? *Nat Rev Genet* 2013;14:228-235.
 23. Heard E, Martienssen RA. Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: Myths and mechanisms. *Cell* 2014;157:95-109.
 24. Juruena MF, Agustini B, Cleare AJ, Young AH. A translational approach to clinical practice via stress-responsive glucocorticoid receptor signaling. *Stem Cell Investig* 2017;4:13.
 25. Daskalakis NP, Cohen H, Nievergelt CM, et al. New translational perspectives for blood-based biomarkers of PTSD: From glucocorticoid to immune mediators of stress susceptibility. *Experimental Neurology NIH Public Access* 2016: pp. 133-140.
 26. Naylor S. Biomarkers: Current perspectives and future prospects. *Expert Rev Mol Diagn* 2003;3:525-529.
 27. Walker FR, Pflingst K, Carnevali L, et al. In the search for integrative biomarker of resilience to psychological stress. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2017;74:310-320.
 28. Bowers ME, Yehuda R. Intergenerational transmission of stress in humans. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2016;41:232-244.
 29. Venkatraman A, Edlow BL, Immordino-Yang MH. The brainstem in emotion: A review. *Front Neuroanat* 2017;11:15.
 30. Blaze J, Roth TL. Caregiver maltreatment causes altered neuronal DNA methylation in female rodents. *Dev Psychopathol* 2017;29:477-489.
 31. Choi Y, Mango SE. Hunting for Darwin's gemmules and Lamarck's fluid: Transgenerational signaling and histone methylation. *Biochim Biophys Acta - Gene Regul Mech* 2014;1839:1440-1453.
 32. Kellermann NPF. Epigenetic transgenerational transmission of Holocaust trauma: A review. *Researchgate* 2015:1-20. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284350803_Epigenetic_transgenerational_transmission_of_Holocaust_trauma_A_Review
 33. Yehuda R, Teicher MH, Seckl JR, et al. Parental posttraumatic stress disorder as a vulnerability factor for low cortisol trait in offspring of Holocaust survivors. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2007;64:1040-1048.
 34. Yehuda R. Status of glucocorticoid alterations in post-traumatic stress disorder. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2009;1179:56-69.
 35. McEwen BS, Nasca C, Gray JD. Stress effects on neuronal structure: Hippocampus, amygdala, and prefrontal cortex. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2016;41:3-23.
 36. Yehuda R, LeDoux J, Labinsky E, et al. Response variation following trauma: A translational neuroscience approach to understanding PTSD. *Neuron* 2007;56:19-32.
 37. Labonté B, Azoulay N, Yerko V, et al. Epigenetic modulation of glucocorticoid receptors in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Transl Psychiatry* 2014;4:e368.
 38. Yehuda R, Daskalakis NP, Bierer LM, et al. Holocaust exposure induced intergenerational effects on FKBP5 methylation. *Biol Psychiatry* 2016;80:372-380.
 39. Solomon Z, Tsur N, Levin Y, et al. The implications of war captivity and long-term psychopathology trajectories for telomere length. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 2017;19:855-856.
 40. Marshall RD, Garakani A. Psychobiology of the acute stress response and its relationship to the psychobiology of post-traumatic stress disorder. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 2002;25:385-395.
 41. Yehuda R, Seckl J. Minireview: Stress-related psychiatric disorders with low cortisol levels: A metabolic hypothesis. *Endocrinology* 2011;152:4496-4503.
 42. Liberzon I, Abelson JL. Context processing and the neurobiology of post-traumatic stress disorder. Vol. 92, *Neuron NIH Public Access*, 2016: pp. 14-30.
 43. Bois C, Whalley H, McIntosh A, Lawrie S. Structural magnetic resonance imaging markers of susceptibility and transition to schizophrenia: A review of familial and clinical high risk population studies. *J Psychopharmacol* 2015; 29:144-154.
 44. Thakur GS, Daigle Jr BJ, Dean KR, et al. Systems biology approach to understanding post-traumatic stress disorder. *Mol Biosyst* 2015;11:980-993.
 45. Farah MJ, Gillihan SJ. The puzzle of neuroimaging and psychiatric diagnosis: Technology and nosology in an evolving discipline. *AJOB Neurosci* 2012;3:31-41.
 46. Kuzawa CW, Eisenberg DTA. The long reach of history: Intergenerational and transgenerational pathways to plasticity in human longevity. In: Weinstein M, Lane MA, editors. *Committee on Population; Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education; National Research Council; Sociality, Hierarchy, Health: Comparative Biodemography: A Collection of Papers*. Washington D.C.: National Academies Press, 2014.
 47. Bracken MB. Why animal studies are often poor predictors of human reactions to exposure. *J R Soc Med* 2009;102:120-122.
 48. Matthews RAJ. Medical progress depends on animal models - doesn't it? *J R Soc Med* 2008;101:95-98.
 49. Yehuda R, Flory JD, Bierer LM, et al. Lower methylation of glucocorticoid receptor gene promoter 1F in peripheral blood of veterans with posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 2015;77:356-364.
 50. Bercovich E, Keinan-Boker L, Shasha SM. Long-term health effects in adults born during the Holocaust. *Isr Med Assoc J* 2014;16:203-207.
 51. Daskalakis NP, Rijal CM, King C, et al. Recent genetics and epigenetics approaches to PTSD. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 2018;20:30.
 52. Insel T, Cuthbert B, Garvey M, et al. Research Domain Criteria (RDoC): Toward a new classification framework for research on mental disorders. *Am J Psychiatry* 2010; 167:748-751.
 53. Schmidt U, Vermetten E. Integrating NIMH Research Domain Criteria (RDoC) into PTSD research. In *Current Topics in Behavioral Neurosciences*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, 2017.
 54. Miller MW. Leveraging genetics to enhance the efficacy of PTSD pharmacotherapies. *Neurosci Lett* 2018, April 22. pii: S0304-3940(18)30302-1 [Epub ahead of print].
 55. Akram F, Giordano J. Research domain criteria as psychiatric nosology. *Cambridge Q Healthc Ethics* 2017;26:592-601.
 56. Kellermann NPF. The search for biomarkers of Holocaust trauma. *J Trauma Stress Disord Treat* 2018;7:1-13. DOI: 10.4172/2324-8947.1000184 <https://www.scitechnol.com/peer-review/the-search-for-biomarkers-of-holocaust-trauma-LhHo.pdf>
 57. Yehuda R, Spiegel D, Southwick S, et al. What I have changed my mind about and why. *Eur J Psychotrauma* 2016;7:10.3402/ejpt.v7.33768.
 58. Hutchinson L, DeVita VT. The Holy Grail of biomarkers. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 2009;6:553.
 59. Joyner MJ, Paneth N, Ioannidis JPA. What happens when underperforming big ideas in research become entrenched? *JAMA* 2016; 316: 1355-1356.
 60. Read J, Bentall RP, Fosse R. Time to abandon the bio-bio-bio model of psychosis: Exploring the epigenetic and psychological mechanisms by which adverse life events lead to psychotic symptoms. *Epidemiol Psychiatr Soc* 2015;18:299-310.