

# Biopsychosocial Spiritual Approach to Addiction Treatment

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## Introduction

Substance use disorder is best understood through an integrated model rather than as a defect of will, morality, or spirituality. Biological vulnerability, learning and emotion, relationships and social conditions, and questions of meaning can all influence the beginning, continuation, and recovery process. A biopsychosocial-spiritual approach does not claim that every factor has equal importance for every person. It creates a framework for individualized assessment and treatment. (Moss and Dyer)

The clinical overlap is discussed further in [co-occurring psychiatric and substance-use disorders](#).

The original essay appropriately described addiction as a complex health condition but used language that could promote hopelessness, including the claim that it is “incurable” and inevitably fatal if untreated. Substance use disorders can be chronic and relapsing, but many people improve, achieve remission, and describe themselves as recovered or in recovery. Effective treatment may include medications, behavioral therapies, harm reduction, peer and family support, stable housing, treatment of co-occurring disorders, and optional spiritual or faith-based resources.

## The Biological Dimension

The biological dimension includes genetics, brain adaptation, metabolism, tolerance, withdrawal, physical health, pain, sleep, age, pregnancy, and exposure to substances. Repeated use can alter reward, motivation, stress, learning, and executive-control systems. These changes help explain why a person may continue using despite serious consequences. They do not eliminate agency, but they can make change more difficult and increase the need for structured support.

Physical dependence and addiction are not identical. Dependence means that the body adapts to a substance and withdrawal can occur after abrupt reduction. A patient taking an opioid exactly as prescribed may develop physical dependence without compulsive harmful use. Addiction involves impaired control, craving, risky use, and continued use despite harm. Distinguishing the two prevents stigmatizing patients and supports safe prescribing and tapering.

Withdrawal varies by substance. Alcohol and sedative withdrawal can become medically dangerous and may require supervised care. Opioid withdrawal is extremely distressing and increases relapse

and overdose risk, especially when reduced tolerance follows abstinence. Treatment plans should include overdose prevention, naloxone where opioid risk is present, infectious-disease screening, reproductive and general medical care, and attention to interactions between substances and medications.

## Medication as Evidence-Based Treatment

Medication is not a substitute for recovery. For opioid use disorder, methadone, buprenorphine, and extended-release naltrexone are evidence-based options selected according to clinical circumstances and patient preference. Methadone and buprenorphine reduce withdrawal and craving and are associated with improved survival and treatment retention. For alcohol use disorder, medications such as naltrexone, acamprosate, and disulfiram may be considered. Tobacco use disorder can be treated with nicotine-replacement therapy, varenicline, or bupropion. (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, “Treatment Options”)

The correct medication, dose, duration, and monitoring require a qualified clinician. Requiring a person to become “drug free” by stopping prescribed medication can increase risk. Recovery goals should focus on health, functioning, informed choice, and reduction of harmful nonmedical use.

## The Psychological Dimension

Psychological assessment examines craving, reinforcement, trauma, depression, anxiety, attention, coping, beliefs, impulsivity, shame, self-efficacy, and readiness for change. Substances may initially produce pleasure, relief, alertness, sleep, social confidence, or emotional numbness. Over time, negative reinforcement becomes important: use is continued to avoid withdrawal, dysphoria, stress, or painful memories. (Koob)

Evidence-based therapies include motivational interviewing, cognitive behavioral therapy, contingency management, community reinforcement, relapse-prevention training, and trauma-informed interventions. Treatment should avoid confrontation and humiliation. A collaborative relationship helps the patient identify personal goals, recognize triggers, practice alternatives, and plan for high-risk situations.

A recurrence of use does not erase progress. It signals that the plan, environment, dose, level of care, or support may need adjustment. Immediate priorities include survival, re-engagement, and examination of what happened. Language such as “dirty” urine or “failed treatment” can intensify shame and discourage care.

## The Social Dimension

Social conditions shape both risk and recovery. Family conflict, childhood adversity, discrimination, poverty, unstable housing, unemployment, isolation, criminalization, exposure to drug markets, and lack of health care can increase vulnerability. Protective factors include safe housing, supportive relationships, education, meaningful employment, transportation, legal assistance, and accessible treatment.

Family involvement can be beneficial when it is safe and desired. Relatives may learn communication, boundary setting, overdose response, and ways to support treatment without controlling the patient. Some people need protection from violent or coercive relationships, so family participation should never be automatic.

Peer support can reduce isolation and provide practical hope. Twelve-step fellowships help many people, while others prefer secular mutual aid, recovery community organizations, culturally specific groups, or individual support. The existence of multiple pathways is a strength, not evidence that one model is invalid. (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, “About Recovery”)

## The Spiritual Dimension

Spirituality may involve religion, connection, values, purpose, forgiveness, awe, identity, service, or a sense of belonging. For some patients, prayer, worship, pastoral counseling, meditation, or faith community is central. For others, spirituality is nonreligious or irrelevant. Ethical practice begins by asking what gives the person meaning and whether spiritual resources should be included.

Clinicians must not impose beliefs, present addiction as divine punishment, or replace medical treatment with spiritual advice. Spiritual struggle can also be clinically relevant. A patient may feel abandoned, guilty, or alienated from a religious community. With consent, a trained chaplain or trusted faith leader can become part of the care team while respecting confidentiality and evidence-based treatment.

## Assessment Across the Four Dimensions

A comprehensive assessment should identify the substances used, route, amount, pattern, last use, overdose history, withdrawal risk, previous treatment, medications, medical conditions, mental-health symptoms, suicide risk, trauma exposure, housing, food, employment, legal concerns, relationships, culture, values, and recovery goals. The clinician should also ask about strengths: periods of improvement, supportive people, skills, responsibilities, interests, and reasons for living.

Level-of-care decisions should match severity and risk. Some patients can be treated in outpatient

care; others need intensive outpatient, residential, withdrawal-management, hospital, or integrated psychiatric services. Placement should be reassessed rather than treated as a permanent label.

## A Person-Centered Treatment Plan

A plan may combine the following elements:

- medical stabilization and withdrawal management when indicated;
- medication for opioid, alcohol, or tobacco use disorder;
- individual or group behavioral therapy;
- treatment of depression, anxiety, trauma, pain, or other co-occurring conditions;
- overdose education and naloxone;
- infectious-disease prevention and treatment;
- housing, employment, transportation, childcare, and legal support;
- family or peer involvement chosen by the patient;
- spiritual care when requested;
- continuing care and a plan for setbacks.

## Harm Reduction and Recovery

Harm reduction recognizes that safety can improve before abstinence or remission is achieved. Examples include sterile-syringe services, naloxone, fentanyl test information where legally available, safer-use education, vaccination, and rapid access to treatment. These measures do not encourage addiction; they reduce death and disease while maintaining contact with people who may later choose additional change.

SAMHSA defines recovery as a process through which people improve health and wellness, live self-directed lives, and strive to reach their potential. Its dimensions of health, home, purpose, and community show why symptom reduction alone is insufficient. A patient who stops using but remains homeless, isolated, and untreated for depression still faces major risk.

## Ethics and Stigma

People with substance use disorders deserve confidentiality, informed consent, respectful language, and equitable treatment. Stigma can appear in health care when pain is dismissed, medication is withheld, or every symptom is attributed to drug use. Structural stigma also appears when treatment is difficult to access while punishment is easy to impose.

Clinicians should use person-first language and make decisions based on evidence and individual risk. The patient's culture, disability, gender, sexuality, immigration status, and experiences with

institutions can influence trust. Shared decision-making is essential because coercive treatment may produce apparent compliance without durable engagement.

## Co-Occurring Mental and Physical Conditions

Integrated care is particularly important when substance use occurs with depression, bipolar disorder, psychosis, post-traumatic stress, attention disorders, chronic pain, liver disease, HIV, hepatitis, or pregnancy. Sequential models that require one condition to be solved before the other can lead to repeated exclusion. Coordinated teams should share a plan, clarify responsibility, and avoid prescribing combinations that increase sedation or overdose risk.

Suicide assessment is essential because intoxication, withdrawal, hopelessness, trauma, and social loss can increase danger. A person with immediate suicidal intent, severe withdrawal, overdose symptoms, psychosis, or inability to care for basic needs requires urgent evaluation. Spiritual discussion cannot replace crisis intervention.

## Measuring Progress

Progress should be measured across outcomes selected with the patient: reduced overdose, fewer days of harmful use, improved retention, stable housing, employment, sleep, family contact, mental-health improvement, and quality of life. Toxicology can provide useful clinical information but should not be used as the only measure or as punishment. Results require consent, correct interpretation, and awareness of false positives and detection windows.

Programs should also measure access and equity. Long waiting lists, lack of language services, refusal of patients taking medication, and abrupt discharge after recurrence are system failures. Quality improvement asks not only whether a patient complied but whether the service was reachable, respectful, safe, and effective.

## Conclusion

The biopsychosocial-spiritual approach recognizes substance use disorder as a complex, treatable condition embedded in a person's body, mind, relationships, environment, and values. Biological care may include medication and management of withdrawal or chronic disease. Psychological care develops motivation and coping. Social care addresses housing, relationships, work, and access. Spiritual care supports meaning only when the patient wants it. Recovery is not one standardized path, and recurrence is not proof of moral failure. Coordinated, hopeful, evidence-based, and person-centered care offers the strongest foundation for survival and long-term improvement.

## References

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