

Volume 1, Issue 2

Research Article

Date of Submission: 12 May, 2025

Date of Acceptance: 03 June, 2025

Date of Publication: 10 June, 2025

The Common Items Involved in Substance Use Disorder and their Pharmacology

Mei Jung Chen*

Department of Biomedical Engineering, School of Health and Medical Engineering, Ming Chuan University, China

*Corresponding Author:

Mei Jung Chen, Department of Biomedical Engineering, School of Health and Medical Engineering, Ming Chuan University, China.

Citation: Chen, M. J. (2025). The Common Items Involved in Substance Use Disorder and their Pharmacology. *Public Health Epidemiol OA*, 1(2), 01-06.

Abstract

People with substance use and addiction (SUD) is characterized as uncontrollable use of the substance even they know it is harmful with using the substance, and then get addictive. Once these substances have been addictive, they are able to change mental condition, develop severe psychiatric problems and induce other chronic diseases subsequently. Due to this kind of mental change, patients will not only hurt themselves but also jeopardize other people or stuff uncontrollably. Consequently, it develops a major social problem. These phenomena have become more and more common worldwide.

According to the announcement by the Food and Drug Administration of Taiwan, the case numbers of SUD were increasing year by year. Besides, the user's age is younger than before. Report from the [Analysis of the 112 Annual Report on Drug Abuse Cases and Inspection Statistics] shows that the priority of abused substances are central stimulants, sedative, cannabis, tobacco, and alcohol. In this paper, the neurotransmitters triggered by these substances will be discussed, followed by the mechanisms and physiological responses induced by these substances. Information from this paper may provide more knowledge for clinical diagnosis and management.

Keywords: Substance Abuse, Addictive, Central Stimulant, Central Depressant, and Sedative

Introduction

Substance use and addiction (SUD) has become a global problem. One of its characteristics of SUD is uncontrollable use even the patients have known the harm caused by the substance [1]. According to the announcement by the Food and Drug Administration of Taiwan, the case numbers was increasing year by year. It was over three million in 2023, and increase in 3.1% reaching the total case number to 329885 in 2024. According to the [Analysis of the 112 Annual Report on Drug Abuse Cases and Inspection Statistics] cases of student population was 483, which was elevated 20.8% comparing to that in the previous year. However, it still kept elevating up to 18.9% in 2024. The major substances used in this population were claimed as the third-level drugs including ketamine, FM2 and nitrometazepam.

The total consumption had an increase up to nearly 30% compared with 2022. The following was the Class II drugs such as amphetamines, MDMA and cannabis, which was reported as the number of 100 cases, an increase of 5.3% comparing to that in the 2022. The priority of the abused substances was as follows, heroin (33.9% of the total number of claimed reports), followed by methamphetamine (30.7%) and benzodiazepines (11.3%). Compared with those investigated in 2022, the consumption of those of heroin, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (ecstasy), zopiclone, pethidine, codeine and cocaine decreased in 2023. However, consumption of those of methamphetamines, benzodiazepines, ketamine, marijuana, zopemian and morphine raised in 2023.

On the other hand, the most popular substance was marijuana in Europe, followed by central stimulants such as cocaine. Although the proportion of opium users is not the largest, the problem of disease transmission through the injection of cocaine cannot be ignored. However, in recent years the SUD population has been shifted to the young age, and the categories of abused substances were also much different than before. Combined administering of more than one addictive substance leads to non-specific symptoms of users, which increases the difficulty of accurately determining which drugs cause toxicity in clinical practice. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to focus on the neurotransmitters

affected by these substances, then we can get more understanding about their mechanisms and physiological responses. Information from this paper may provide more knowledge for clinical diagnosis and management.

The main neurotransmitters affected by the above drugs/substances include: epinephrine, dopamine, glutamine, serotonin, opiates, etc., which are discussed following.

Epinephrine and Norepinephrine

Epinephrine and norepinephrine belong to the group of monoamine neurotransmitters. They activate adrenergic receptors, which consist of five subtypes: α_1 , α_2 , β_1 , β_2 and β_3 . Activation of these receptors can induce excitation of sympathetic nerve system, including the cardiovascular system, pulmonary function, and metabolism [2]. Activation of each subtype of receptor mentioned above will lead to the following effect:

- Activating α_1 receptors will enhance myocardial contractility, improve motor system, and induce glycolysis in fat tissue and liver, and glycogenesis.
- Since the activation of α_2 receptor is to inhibit the release of adrenaline, it causes effects of sedation, inhibiting lipolysis of adipose tissue, reducing intraocular pressure, attenuating renin and insulin secretion.
- Activation of β_1 receptor causes increases the myocardial contractility, as well as the rate of spontaneous depolarization and conduction. In addition, it also induces the release of renin, antidiuretic hormone from the posterior pituitary gland, and amylase from the salivary gland.
- Activation of β_2 receptors lead to relaxation of the smooth muscle in blood vessels, uterus, bladder, lungs, digestive tract etc. Besides, it makes increases in skeletal muscle contractility, liver glycolysis and the permeability of potassium.
- Effects of β_3 receptors in the periphery are similar to those of β_2 receptors. While in the central, β_3 receptors activating is able to affect mental stability, which, in turn, leads to some phenomena such as headaches, palpitations, tremors, cramps etc. [2,3].

Dopamine

Dopamine is another member of the monoamine neurotransmitters. Its receptors are distributed in the nervous system. The function of dopamine includes modulating of cognition, motivation, endocrine, reward system, memory, attention, impulse control, movement, learning, and sleep [4]. The mesolimbic dopamine system plays an important role in substance abuse. DA receptors in peripheral nerves regulate bloodflow to the glomeruli, inhibiting sodium resorption and vasopressin release. One of the common features of schizophrenia found clinically is an abnormal concentration of dopamine in brain.

Glutamine

The effect of glutamine is to regulate the function of N-Methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA), α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA), kainite, etc., which in turn is related to nerve inflammation and degeneration [5].

Serotonin

Serotonin is associated with the change of mood and behavior such as depression, mania, autism, schizophrenia, anxiety, obesity and pain. There are many types of serotonin receptors in the limbic system, and their functions are related to sensation, autonomic neurocognition, memory, sexual behavior, etc. [6].

GABA (-Aminobutyric Acid)

GABA is an inhibitory neurotransmitter that is involved in chloride regulation in neurons. GABA affects not only ion channel regulation but also the metabolic activity. Consequently, causes kinds of mental disorders. Benzodiazepines possess a calming effect by activating GABA and inhibiting adenosine reabsorption. GABA_{A1} receptor activation induces sedative, forgetful and antiepileptic effects, while GABA_{A2} receptor is associated with anti-anxiety and muscle relaxant effects.

Cannabinoids

Cannabinoid-related effects are all generated through activating the cannabinoid receptors/CB receptors, which have a wide variety of receptors, including metabotropic receptors that bind to G proteins, and intracellular receptors, which are widely distributed in the brain, skeletal muscle, liver, pancreas and other organs. CB₁ receptors are distributed in the brain, skeletal muscle, liver, pancreas, etc.

When the CB₁ receptors activate, the metabolism of human body gets altering. Another one, CB₂ receptors, is distributed in the testicles and brain. Cannabinoid receptors have been implicated in responses to learning, memory, neurodegeneration, addiction, epilepsy, appetite, etc.

Opioid Receptors

Opioid receptors are divided into μ , κ , and δ receptors, which can be activated by a variety of endogenous molecules, such as endorphins, enkephalins, dynorphins, and alkaloids. In addition, they are also affected by some synthetic molecules, and the activation of these receptors is related to substance abuse, tolerance and addiction.

Brain and Behavior Changes in Drug Abuse and Addicts

Drug abuse can affect the concentration of several biochemical substances in blood, such as dopamine, serotonin, GABA, etc. Because these drugs affect cognition, judgment, mood, etc., it is related to the compulsion of seeking more drugs during drug abuse. Long-term abuse can cause structural and functional damage to the brain.

The Behavior of Drug Abusers

Inhibitors

Heroin and opium bind to μ , κ , and δ receptors, which are distributed in the cerebral cortex, optic thalamus, nucleus accumbens, basolateral amygdala, etc. The activation of σ receptors in these areas can produce analgesic effects on the spinal cord and spinal cord, increase prolactin secretion, inhibit peristalsis of the respiratory and digestive systems, sedation, pupil constriction, immunosuppression and euphoria, and the euphoria in these areas can induce drug dependence in users. Once addictive effects develop, poor judgment and cognitive impairment become, leading to compulsive substance use [7]. When the K -receptors located in the hypothalamus are activated, individuals experience irritability and decreased dopamine release [7]. Anxiety occurs when D receptors in the basal nucleus are activated [7]. Opium induces feelings of euphoria, sedation, and restlessness when withdrawal occurs [8].

In addition, activation of central M receptors increases intersynaptic dopamine concentration, increases the desire to use drugs repeatedly, and leads to an increase in drug addiction, including the left posterior inferior temporal gyrus, hippocampus, amygdala, talar sulcus, precuneus, caudal nucleus, and nucleus accumbens [9]. In addition, lesions in the gray matter structure of the brain can cause neuroadaptations that are associated with substance addiction [10].

Symptoms of acute heroin and opiate intoxication are in a broad spectrum, such as sedation, drowsiness, decreased alertness, nausea, vomiting, dizziness, euphoria, etc. [7, 8, 11]. The appearance of euphoria is also one of the trigger factors of substance addiction. In addition, itchy skin, flushing, constipation, low body temperature, and decreased heart rate may occur. Needle pupil can be used as one of the basic clues for the diagnosis of opium poisoning. In addition, inhibition of the respiratory center can slow down the breathing rate and result in shallow breathing, which will be fatal if not addressed in time [11]. Immediate identification of the symptoms of opiate poisoning and administration of appropriate antidote is the best way to prevent death from poisoning [8]. Chronic intoxication from long-term use of cocaine or opium can cause weight loss, pallor, dry skin, rashes, dilated pupils, and antisocial behavior.

Withdrawal symptoms of these CNS inhibitors include agitation, anxiety, palpitations, cramps, high blood pressure, elevated body temperature, headache, insomnia, nausea, vomiting, sweating, abdominal pain, and disorientation. In addition to the above, withdrawal symptoms caused by cessation of cocaine or opium use include running nose, drooling, watery eyes, dilated pupils, muscle pain, muscle spasms, goose bumps, dehydration, acid-base imbalance, weakness, severe depression, and anxiety, etc. Alcohol is a central nervous system depressant, and at low and medium doses, euphoria occurs, followed by poor judgment, and then dose-related sedative effects [8]. At high doses, the brainstem and cerebellum are depressed, resulting in inhibition, aggression, emotional swings, sadness, and anger.

The inhibitory effect of alcohol is caused by the activation of GABA and the inhibition of NMDA, resulting in a sedative response [9]. Alcohol can also increase the activity of opioid neurotransmitters, followed by an increase in the dopamine concentration in the nucleus accumbens. For long-term alcohol abusers, neuroplasticization reactions are observed, which is the main cause of alcohol withdrawal syndrome development once the patient tries to quit drinking [9]. On the other hand, drinking alcohol will generate pleasant and satisfying sensation, thereby increasing the amount of alcohol drunk and gradually becoming addictive. The effect of alcohol on the periphery is to increase the content of nitric oxide, acetaldehyde, and insulin, causing vasodilation and lowering blood pressure. Conversely, high doses of alcohol induce 20-hydroxyicosatetraenoic acid production, which inhibits tubular sodium resorption, resulting in vasoconstriction [13].

In addition, alcohol can increase the nerve activity of the midsagittal anterior cingulate cortex, which is closely related to the structural change in gray matter of the brain ACC (dorsal anterior cingulate cortex) (10) (10) among long-term alcohol abusers clinically. The white matter volume in the cerebral cingulate gyrus and corpus callosum is lower in alcohol abusers than that of normal population, and the dendritic integration is also low, which is related to impaired motor, cognition, emotion, attention and other functions [14].

There are many symptoms and complications of alcohol poisoning, and the ability to perceive the surrounding environment is reduced due to blurred vision. Euphoria will make users relaxed, increase self-confidence and social performance. In addition, alcohol can cause an increase in heart rate and a feeling of palpitations. Its vasodilating effect, which leads to dilation of superficial blood vessels, heat dissipation, flushing and a sensation of increased body temperature; In addition, alcohol directly irritates the mucosa of the digestive tract, so symptoms of nausea and vomiting often occur, and in some special cases, alcohol poisoning has been found to cause respiratory arrest and heart failure and other fatal effects.

Chronic poisoning caused by long-term alcohol consumption will cause poor memory, convulsions, physiological and psychological dependence, and mental status changes and even schizophrenia. Long-term intake of medium and high doses of alcohol is easy to increase the chance of accidents. Moreover, alcohol abuse also leads to a variety of chronic

diseases, such as hypertension, heart disease, stroke, digestive tract diseases and even cancer.

Studies have found that the alcohol drinking will inhibit the REM phase of the sleep cycle initially. However, after 3-5 consecutive days, the effect of inhibition of REM disappears, which is inferred to be a compensatory phenomenon, so withdrawal symptoms that occur during alcohol withdrawal are often accompanied by delirium tremens. It is worth mentioning that absorption of alcohol before birth can cause fetal neurodevelopmental defects, facial abnormalities, and growth defects, which is the so-called fetal alcohol syndrome. Neonatal withdrawal symptoms include hallucinations, epilepsy, agitation, anxiety, palpitations, cramps, high blood pressure, increased body temperature, insomnia, nausea, vomiting, sweating, abdominal pain, and disorientation.

Inhalers

The vapor of inhalers is used as central anesthetics in clinic. Psychiatric activities are also revealed. The vapor of inhalers contains aerosols, and nitrites, etc. Those are commonly found in household products, factory chemicals and pharmaceutical preparations. Through inhalation into the lungs, these substances are advanced into the brain via bloodstream and directly act on GABA and its receptors, resulting in central inhibition and obstruction of brain function in users.

Inhalers can induce euphoria, euphoria, headache, dizziness, sweating, nausea, vomiting, delirium, drunkenness, tonic episodes, respiratory depression, fatigue, irritability, memory loss, restlessness, sleep disturbance, confusion, loss of appetite, weight loss, conjunctivitis, bronchitis, dermatitis, anemia, and leukopenia [14]. Generally speaking, most of these poisoning symptoms last only for a short time, and repeated use of these agents will gradually jeopardize the body. Long-term abuse will cause harm to the brain, liver, kidneys, lungs and other organs.

Benzodiazepine Sedatives

The abuse rate of such central inhibitors among substance addiction in Taiwan is more than 10%, and its acute poisoning symptoms include lethargy, slurred speech, ataxia, coma, apnea, hyperreflexia, loss of pupil reflexes, and hypothermia; Chronic poisoning, on the other hand, can impair motor coordination, drunkenness, muscle relaxation, irritability, frustration, limb tremors, muscle twitching, and poor appetite. Among them, slurred speech is a special symptom caused by the central inhibition effect of this type of drug, which is acting through relaxation of articulation muscles and abnormal joint movement, and these movement disorders also create a comorbid disorder response. People with severe benzodiazepine poisoning can develop coma and respiratory depression, and the latter one is fatal. Severely symptomatic individuals may fall into coma, fatal respiratory depression, and pupil centering.

Stimulants (Amphetamines, Methamphetamines, MDMA) Anandamide and Methamphetamine and other Central Stimulants

Amphetamine administering produces intense euphoria, and as a result, it is often used illegally in order to create alertness and reduce feelings of exhaustion. Amphetamines are often used as a stimulant. In amphetamine addiction, the dose needs to be increased with time to maintain the same degree of pleasure. However, with the increasing dose, kinds of delusions occur, including persecution, auditory hallucinations, and paranoia. Therefore, amphetamines can aggravate the symptoms of schizophrenia, which is presumably related to the increase in dopamine concentration in the brain, and it is in turn related to the reward response which feeds back into the addiction phenomenon. Schizophrenia and inattention after the use of amphetamines are mostly generated through dopamine pathways; Alertness is contributed by adrenaline; Interference with the action of serotonin can lead to schizophrenia and delusions.

Methamphetamine increases monoamine neurotransmitters in synapses, including epinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin. Anandamide disrupts the active transport of intrasynaptic monoamine neurotransmitters to empty neural messages. At the same time, it will also slow down the metabolism of catecholamines and inhibit the recovery of dopamine. MDMA (methylenedioxyamphetamine) is structurally similar to methamphetamine and therefore possess a central excitation effect. MDMA also increases the concentration of dopamine and adrenaline, resulting in hallucinations, which is thought to be induced by affecting the function of serotonergic neurons projected into the occipital lobe by the nuclei raphe [10]. Since amphetamine inhibits REM during sleep, it has been observed that the time of REM when the drug is stopped will rebound by up to 75%, and the time of occurrence is much earlier, which may be related to the user's tendency to have nightmares when the drug is stopped.

Acute reactions to amphetamines include unconsciousness, anxiety, restlessness, headache, anorexia, confusion, teeth grinding, agitation, convulsions, coma, palpitations, arrhythmia, hypertension, shortness of breath, chest pain, pulmonary edema, night sweats, nausea, vomiting, etc. Chronic poisoning is characterized by delirium, weight loss, and thirst and personality changes due to long-term loss of appetite. Withdrawal symptoms of anandamide include severe depression, suicidal tendencies, unusual agitation, exhaustion, lethargy, polyphagia, abdominal cramps, and gastroenteritis.

Phenethylamines

phenethylamines will act on the cardiovascular system, lead to rising of blood pressure, palpitations, arrhythmia, individual nervousness, irritability, restlessness and other emotional changes. Delusional psychosis, persecution, threatening delusions, dissociation, headaches, seizures, hallucinations, and panic attacks may also occur when using phenylethylamine.

Among these side effects, insomnia will aggravate other adverse effect.

Ethylenediamine (Piperazines)

The structure of this kind of central stimulant can promote the release of dopamine and adrenaline, resulting in hallucinations, so it is usually abused by substance addicts. Users will experience convulsions, hallucinations, and increased body temperature. Hallucinations may lead to changes in vision, hearing, and taste. Hyperthermia will be developed and even lead to death.

Synthetic cathinone, or named as benzoylethanamine, is a central nerve system stimulant based on the structure of amphetamine. It is able to induce the effects similar to epinephrine, dopamine and serotonin. The active components extracted from the leaves and buds of *Catha edulis* are used against starvation and lethargy in ancient time. Initially, ingestion of cathinone will induce euphoria, increase awareness so it was frequently be abused. Acute intoxication will develop severe psychological symptoms such as anxiety in somnia psychological disorder, depression, self-harm, suicide, agitation, restless, and even panic oppressiveness tachycardia tachypnea chest pain □ tremor □ irritation. Besides, some peculiar behavior such as disoriented limb movement, provocative and aggressive behavior, loss or orientation, hallucinations will also be presented. Discontinuation of cathinone sometimes will induce severe depression and headache.

Cocaine

Using cocaine can cause intense euphoria, increased alertness and confidence, all of which are related to the effects of dopamine. Its high euphoria, accompanied by confusion and hallucinations, is related to the increase of dopamine, while a sudden decrease in dopamine can cause feelings of irritability. Cocaine reduces the amount of monoamine neurotransmitters reabsorbed in the presynapse, thereby increases the effects of adrenaline, dopamine, and serotonin on postsynaptic receptors, and also increases the concentration of catecholamines in the blood. For measuring dopamine concentration in rat striatum by using micro-dialysis; the result showed young rat striatum generated more dopamine than adult rat after administering cocaine [15].

The mechanism of cocaine addiction is related to the activity of dopamine in the cortical pathway at mid brain, especially the ventral tegmental projecting pathway and nucleus accumbens, and it is related to the reward pathway of drug addiction. On the other hand, cocaine can act directly on the receptors of adrenalin, NMDA and also opioid receptors. Among them, opioid receptor is related to the reward path way mechanism of cocaine [16,17].

Cannabis

Cannabis will alter attention, cognition, and the ability of exercise, memory and learning. Long term addition will cause serious psychiatric diseases. Cannabis will induce organic lesions of brain, and the severity is related to the degree of addition. For young patient who use cannabis once a week, the volume of right amigdala and bilateral hippocampus are tend to be decreased [15, 18]. Repeating use of cannabis affects the reward pathway of CB1 receptor in GABA neuropathway. The dopamine concentration between synaps increases, resulted in addiction.

Once the cannabis receptors have been activated, the adenosin cyclase activity will be reduced, also attenuate the neural excitability and the release amount neurotransmitters. Otherwise, GABA release also be reduced, which in turn to increase the concentration of dopamine between the synaps.

The effects of cannabis are through the cannabinoid system, indicating activation of CB receptors. The CB1 cannabinoid receptors is located in the neural system, bones, heart, liver, lungs, vascular endothelium, and reproductive system. The CB2 cannabinoid receptors is expressed in the immune system and nerve system. Activation of the CB1 cannabinoid receptors significantly decrease the amount of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), which elicit the responses including irritability, confusion, delusions, agitation, hallucination, and even psychosis [19,20].

Besides the responses mentioned above, the phenomenon of acute intoxication is included vomiting, convulsion, slurred speech, restless euphoria conjunctival injection mydriasis fine tremor panic schizophrenia impaired thinking and attention, loss of orientation, loss of logicity, disorganized thinking orthostatic hypotension and loss of consciousness in severe condition. Slurred speech is caused by the central activity of cannabinoids affecting the coordination of the muscles and joints involved in articulation. The severity of symptoms is related to the route of intake, so intravenous injection yields more severe symptoms than inhalation.

For long term cannabinoid addicts, symptoms of schizophrenia will be revealed. Presenting of cognition deficiency, memory loss, pharyngitis, pharyngeal cancer, periodontitis, dental caries, chronic bronchitis, endocrine disorders, immunodeficiency, leukocytopenia, tachycardia, heart disease, impaired of neural development, insomnia, disorientation, hallucination, gastrointestinal tract symptoms such as nausea and vomiting, anorexia nervosa, cachexia with low body weight will also be observed. It can also cause testicular lesions, cancer, sex hormone imbalance, and sexual dysfunction Cannabis withdraw will induce convulsion, nystagmus, diaphoresis, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, irritable, anorexia nervosa and sleep disorder, and depression.

Conclusions

According to the Analysis of drug abuse cases and inspection statistics– Annual Report Year [2023], total cases of drug abuse reported by all official agencies is 20159, among them, 82.4% are males. The largest number of occupations is "workers" and unemployed, about 64.5%. Analyzing by marriage status, most are single, about 73.3%. Analyzing by education level, junior high school graduate accounting for the largest numbers (47.8%). It is obviously to show that drug abuse and addiction are closely related to social pressures such as occupation, education and family conditions. Understanding the physical hazard of drug abuse and addiction and effectively promoting it should increase people's vigilance against addictive substances and reduce the number of abuse cases on the other hand, government should improve the environment of working and studying in order to decrease the social pressure upon our nationals, so that it will provide effective control to drug abuse and addiction.

References

1. Rysztak, L. G., & Jutkiewicz, E. M. (2022). The role of enkephalinergic systems in substance use disorders. *Frontiers in Systems Neuroscience*, *16*, 932546.
2. Graham, R. M. (1990). Adrenergic receptors: structure and function. *Cleve Clin J Med*, *57*(5), 481-491.
3. Zhang, H., Cui, M., Cao, J. L., & Han, M. H. (2022). The role of beta-adrenergic receptors in depression and resilience. *Biomedicines*, *10*(10), 2378.
4. Bhatia, A., Lenchner, J. R., & Saadabadi, A. (2022). StatPearls. StatPearls Publishing. Orlando FL. USA: Biochemistry. Dopamine Receptors.
5. Henter, I. D., Park, L. T., & Zarate Jr, C. A. (2021). Novel glutamatergic modulators for the treatment of mood disorders: current status. *CNS drugs*, *35*(5), 527-543.
6. De Deurwaerdere, P., & Di Giovanni, G. (2020). Serotonin in health and disease. *International journal of molecular sciences*, *21*(10), 3500.
7. Bonhomme, J., Shim, R. S., Gooden, R., Tysu, D., & Rust, G. (2012). Opioid addiction and abuse in primary care practice: a comparison of methadone and buprenorphine as treatment options. *Journal of the National Medical Association*, *104*(7-8), 342-350.
8. Ciucă Anghel, D. M., Nițescu, G. V., Tiron, A. T., Guțu, C. M., & Baconi, D. L. (2023). Understanding the mechanisms of action and effects of drugs of abuse. *Molecules*, *28*(13), 4969.
9. Devoto, F., Zapparoli, L., Spinelli, G., Scotti, G., & Paulesu, E. (2020). How the harm of drugs and their availability affect brain reactions to drug cues: a meta-analysis of 64 neuroimaging activation studies. *Translational psychiatry*, *10*(1), 429.
10. Long, Y., Pan, N., Ji, S., Qin, K., Chen, Y., Zhang, X., ... & Gong, Q. (2022). Distinct brain structural abnormalities in attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and substance use disorders: A comparative meta-analysis. *Translational psychiatry*, *12*(1), 368.
11. Rickli, A., Liakoni, E., Hoener, M. C., & Liechti, M. E. (2018). Opioid-induced inhibition of the human 5-HT and noradrenaline transporters in vitro: link to clinical reports of serotonin syndrome. *British journal of pharmacology*, *175*(3), 532-543.
12. Fuchs, F. D., & Fuchs, S. C. (2021). The effect of alcohol on blood pressure and hypertension. *Current hypertension reports*, *23*(10), 42.
13. Spindler, C., Mallien, L., Trautmann, S., Alexander, N., & Muehlhan, M. (2022). A coordinate-based meta-analysis of white matter alterations in patients with alcohol use disorder. *Translational Psychiatry*, *12*(1), 40.
14. Flanagan, R. J., Ruprah, M., Meredith, T. J., & Ramsey, J. D. (1990). An introduction to the clinical toxicology of volatile substances. *Drug Safety*, *5*, 359-383.
15. Nennig, S. E., & Schank, J. (2017). The role of NFκB in drug addiction: beyond inflammation. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, *52*(2), 172-179.
16. Wee, S., Orío, L., Ghirmai, S., Cashman, J. R., & Koob, G. F. (2009). Inhibition of kappa opioid receptors attenuated increased cocaine intake in rats with extended access to cocaine. *Psychopharmacology*, *205*, 565-575.
17. De Sa Nogueira, D., Bourdy, R., Filliol, D., Romieu, P., & Befort, K. (2021). Hippocampal mu opioid receptors are modulated following cocaine self-administration in rat. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, *53*(10), 3341-3349.
18. Hoch, E., Bonnet, U., Thomasius, R., Ganzer, F., Havemann-Reinecke, U., & Preuss, U.W. (2015). Risks associated with the non-medicinal use of cannabis. *DtschArztebl Int.* *112*, 271-278.
19. Howlett, A. C., Johnson, M. R., Melvin, L. S., & Milne, G. M. (1988). Nonclassical cannabinoid analgetics inhibit adenylate cyclase: development of a cannabinoid receptor model. *Molecular pharmacology*, *33*(3), 297-302.
20. Gunderson, E. W., Haughey, H. M., Ait-Daoud, N., Joshi, A. S., & Hart, C. L. (2012). "Spice" and "K2" herbal highs: a case series and systematic review of the clinical effects and biopsychosocial implications of synthetic cannabinoid use in humans. *The American journal on addictions*, *21*(4), 320-326.
21. European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and DrugAddiction (EMCDDA) European Drug Report 2022: Trends and Developments. Publications Office of the European Union; Luxembourg: 2022.