

Drug Addiction and Brain Damage

Jacob Barg

Former lecturers and emeritus of the Department of Criminology, Ashkelon Academic College, Israel

***Corresponding Author:** Jacob Barg, Former lecturers and emeritus of the Department of Criminology, Ashkelon Academic College, Israel

ABSTRACT

The consequences of drug addiction extend to multiple domains of an individual's life, encompassing social, psychological, and medical aspects. Socially, addiction often leads to feelings of isolation, strained relationships with family members, and difficulties in securing employment. Psychologically, it can contribute to the development of mood disorders, anxiety, and cognitive impairments, ultimately disrupting reward, motivation, and executive control circuits. This disruption impairs decision-making and emotional processing. From a medical perspective, chronic drug use is associated with severe complications, including cardiovascular, hepatic, and infectious diseases such as AIDS and Hepatitis. Furthermore, drug use can result in serious physical health problems, including withdrawal symptoms, cardiovascular effects, and brain damage. Prolonged drug use affects both structural and functional brain aspects, leading to neurotransmitter imbalance, structural changes, reduced brain volume, and impaired cognitive function. This review primarily focuses on the irreversible brain damage caused by drug addiction, highlighting the variability in the extent of damage based on factors such as the type and duration of drug use, age, and overall health. Moreover, the brain damage caused by drug addiction can be long-lasting and even permanent, underscoring its significance in the recovery process.

Keywords: Drug addiction, Neurotransmitter, Structural change, Cognitive, Emotional, Recovery.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Received: 17 June 2025

Accepted: 16 July 2025

Published: 30 July 2025

Cite this article as:

Jacob Barg. Drug Addiction and Brain Damage. Research Journal of Innovative Studies in Medical and Health sciences, 2025; 2(1): 44-51.

Copyright: © 2025. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.



Introduction

Drug addiction has profound social and psychological consequences. Socially, individuals with substance use disorders often experience strained relationships, social isolation, and stigmatization. Negative social influences, such as peer pressure and social stress, can exacerbate drug-seeking behaviours and increase the risk of relapse. [1-2] Additionally, drug addiction can lead to criminal behaviour, further complicating social reintegration and increasing the burden on legal and correctional systems[3]

Psychologically, addiction is associated with significant mental health issues, including depression, anxiety, and cognitive impairments. Chronic drug use disrupts brain circuits involved in reward, motivation, and executive function, leading to compulsive drug-seeking behaviours

and impaired decision-making. [4-5] The interplay between social stress and addiction can perpetuate a cycle of drug use and relapse, as stress-related neural alterations overlap with addiction-related brain changes.[2]

Overall, the social and psychological consequences of drug addiction are interlinked, with social stress and negative social influences playing critical roles in the development and persistence of substance use disorders.

Addictive drugs severely harm the brain, altering neurotransmitter levels and causing structural changes. Prolonged use impairs cognitive functions, reduces brain volume, and disrupts emotional regulation. Key brain areas like the prefrontal cortex, hippocampus, and gray and white matter are affected, leading to issues with decision-making, memory, and behaviour control. Cocaine, methamphetamine, cannabis, and alcohol each impact

specific regions, further increasing the risk of mental health disorders such as anxiety, depression, and psychosis. These changes make natural rewards less satisfying, deepening dependency and addiction.

The Main Aspects of Drug Damage to the Nervous System

There is extensive reference in the scientific literature to the damage caused by drugs to the nervous system. What is notable in scientific writing on this subject is that most of the time each article presents a narrow aspect of the damage caused. This review focuses on the totality of the damage caused by drug use. Aspects related to the transmission of information between nerve cells, structural changes in tissues and various brain regions, and also the mental and emotional consequences are presented.

Addictive drugs can cause various damages to the brain, including:

Neurotransmitter Imbalance

Addictive drugs cause imbalances in several key neurotransmitters, primarily affecting dopamine, glutamate, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA).

Dopamine: Addictive substances such as opioids, stimulants, and alcohol increase dopamine levels in the nucleus accumbens, reinforcing drug-seeking behaviour. Chronic drug use leads to neuroadaptations that reduce the sensitivity of the dopamine system, contributing to tolerance and dependence.[6-8]

Glutamate: Chronic exposure to addictive drugs disrupts glutamate homeostasis, particularly in the nucleus accumbens. This disruption affects synaptic plasticity and enhances the brain's reactivity to drug cues, which is critical for the development of addiction and relapse vulnerability.[6][8-9]

GABA: Addictive drugs also impact GABAergic transmission. For instance, alcohol and benzodiazepines enhance GABAergic activity, leading to sedative effects. Chronic use can result in compensatory changes that reduce GABAergic function, contributing to withdrawal symptoms and anxiety.[10-12]

These neurotransmitter imbalances collectively contribute to the compulsive drug-seeking behaviour and the difficulty in achieving sustained abstinence seen in addiction. Understanding these changes is crucial for developing effective treatment strategies.

Structural Changes

Prolonged use can change brain structure, affecting areas responsible for decision-making, memory, and behaviour control. Addictive drugs induce significant structural

changes in the brain, particularly in regions associated with reward, motivation, and executive function. These changes include alterations in gray matter volume, dendritic spine density, and synaptic plasticity.

Gray Matter Volume: Chronic use of addictive substances such as cocaine, opioids, and alcohol are associated with reductions in gray matter volume in key brain regions, including the medial frontal cortex, anterior cingulate cortex (ACC), and insula. These changes are linked to impairments in decision-making, emotional regulation, and impulse control.[13]

Dendritic Spine Density: Addictive drugs like cocaine and amphetamines increase dendritic spine density in the nucleus accumbens and prefrontal cortex. This structural plasticity enhances synaptic connectivity, reinforcing drug-seeking behaviors and contributing to the persistence of addiction.[14-15]

Synaptic Plasticity: Drug-induced synaptic plasticity involves long-term potentiation (LTP) and long-term depression (LTD) of synapses, particularly in the mesocorticolimbic dopamine system. These changes alter the balance of excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmission, promoting compulsive drug use and reducing sensitivity to natural rewards.[12,15-17]

Network-Level Implications: Structural alterations in the brain due to drug use impact large-scale brain networks, including the default mode network, salience network, and executive control network. These network-level changes are associated with the perpetuation of substance use and neurocognitive deficits.[13]

These structural changes underscore the complexity of addiction and highlight the need for targeted interventions to address the neurobiological underpinnings of substance use disorders.

Reduced Brain Volume

Addictive drugs reduce brain volume in several key regions:

Medial Prefrontal Cortex (mPFC): Chronic substance use, including heroin and cocaine, is associated with reduced gray matter volume in the mPFC. This region is crucial for decision-making and impulse control.[13,18-20]

Anterior Cingulate Cortex (ACC): The ACC, involved in emotional regulation and cognitive processing, shows decreased volume in individuals with substance use disorders.[19-21]

Insula: The insula, which plays a role in interoceptive awareness and craving, exhibits reduced gray matter volume in substance-dependent individuals.[22,23]

Nucleus Accumbens (NAcc): Heroin use, in particular, is linked to decreased volume in the NAcc, a key region in the brain's reward circuitry.[18]

Inferior Frontal Gyrus (IFG): Cocaine use is specifically associated with reduced gray matter volume in the IFG, which is involved in inhibitory control.[18]

Putamen: The putamen, part of the striatum, shows volume reductions associated with addiction severity across various substances.[18,19]

These structural changes highlight the impact of addictive drugs on brain regions critical for reward processing, impulse control, and emotional regulation, contributing

Impaired Cognitive Function

Addictive drugs impair several cognitive functions, including:

Executive Functions: Chronic substance use disrupts executive functions such as attention, working memory, inhibition, and decision-making. These impairments are well-documented across various substances, including alcohol, psychostimulants, and opioids. [23,24]

Memory: Both episodic and prospective memory are affected by drug use. Episodic memory deficits are common in users of cannabis, psychostimulants, and opioids, while prospective memory is particularly impaired in cannabis and methamphetamine users. [25,26]

Emotional Processing: Addictive drugs alter emotional processing, leading to difficulties in recognizing and responding to emotional cues. This is particularly evident in the impaired response inhibition and salience attribution (iRISA) model, which highlights the dysregulation of emotional and cognitive processing in addiction. [27,28]

Cognitive Flexibility: Impairments in cognitive flexibility, the ability to adapt to changing situations, are frequently observed in individuals with substance use disorders, especially those using psychostimulants and alcohol. [25,29]

Decision-Making: Drug addiction is associated with poor decision-making, characterized by an increased preference for immediate rewards over long-term benefits. This is linked to structural and functional changes in the prefrontal cortex and other related brain regions.[28,30]

These cognitive deficits are significant predictors of relapse and poor treatment outcomes, underscoring the need for targeted cognitive interventions in addiction treatment. [24,31]

Increased Risk of Mental Disorders

Drug use can increase the risk of developing mental health

disorders such as depression, anxiety, and psychosis. Addictive drugs significantly increase the risk of various mental disorders. Among individuals with opioid use disorder (OUD), there is a high prevalence of comorbid mental disorders, including depression (36.1%), anxiety (29.1%), attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (20.9%), post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (18.1%), and bipolar disorder (8.7%). Additionally, lifetime prevalence rates for antisocial personality disorder (33.6%) and borderline personality disorder (18.2%) are notably high.[32]

Illicit drug users also show a high prevalence of psychiatric comorbidities, with independent mood and anxiety disorders being particularly common. For instance, major depression is prevalent in 17% of illicit drug users, and antisocial or borderline personality disorders are present in 22.9% of this population.[33]

Furthermore, there is robust evidence of increased comorbidity between mood disorders and substance-related disorders. For example, there is a sixfold elevated risk of comorbidity between broadly defined mood disorders and drug dependence, and a fivefold risk between depression and cannabis dependence.[34]

Substance use can also lead to substance-induced psychiatric disorders, such as substance-induced mood disorders and substance-induced anxiety conditions. These findings underscore the critical need for integrated treatment approaches that address both substance use and co-occurring mental health disorders to improve overall outcomes for affected individuals.[35]

Reward System Alteration

Drugs can hijack the brain's reward system, making natural rewards less satisfying and increasing dependency. Addictive drugs induce several alterations in the brain's reward system:

Dopamine Signaling

Addictive substances trigger supraphysiologic surges of dopamine in the nucleus accumbens (NAc), which is central to the brain's reward system. This increase in dopamine activates the direct striatal pathway via D1 receptors and inhibits the indirect striato-cortical pathway via D2 receptors, reinforcing drug-seeking behavior.[36,37]

Neuroplastic Changes

Chronic drug use leads to neuroplastic changes in glutamatergic inputs to the striatum and midbrain dopamine neurons. These changes enhance the brain's reactivity to drug cues, reduce sensitivity to non-drug rewards, and weaken self-regulation.[6,8,38]

Reward Deficiency

In addicted individuals, there is an attenuated dopamine response to the actual drug consumption compared to the expected reward. This discrepancy drives compulsive drug-seeking behaviour to achieve the anticipated reward. [39,40]

Extended Amygdala

Changes in the extended amygdala contribute to negative emotional states, perpetuating drug use as an attempt to alleviate these states temporarily. [39]

Functional Connectivity

Drug-induced alterations in the functional connectivity between the prefrontal cortex, NAc, and other limbic regions impair executive function and decision-making, further promoting compulsive drug use. [39]

These alterations collectively contribute to the development and persistence of addiction, highlighting the complex interplay between reward processing, emotional regulation, and executive control in substance use disorders.

Brain Regions that are Most Commonly Affected by Different Types of Addictive Drugs

Different types of addictive drugs impact specific brain regions, often involving the dopaminergic system and associated neural circuits.

Heroin use disorder is associated with reduced gray matter volume in the ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC) and nucleus accumbens (NAcc), as well as the putamen. These regions are critical for reward processing and decision-making. [41]

Cocaine use disorder shows distinct alterations, particularly in the inferior frontal gyrus (IFG), which is linked to inhibitory control. Additionally, cocaine use is associated with changes in the putamen, which correlates with addiction severity. [41]

Alcohol use disorder impacts the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC), temporal cortex, frontal premotor cortex, and putamen. These regions are involved in executive function, motor planning, and reward processing. [42]

Cannabis use is associated with alterations in the DLPFC and temporal cortex, similar to other substances, indicating a common impact on executive function and memory. [42]

Nicotine use disorder shows marked alterations in the insula and thalamic regions, which are involved in interoceptive awareness and sensory processing. [7,43]

Overall, common brain regions affected across various

substances include the prefrontal cortex, striatum, and limbic structures such as the amygdala and hippocampus. These regions are involved in reward processing, executive control, and emotional regulation, which are critical in the development and maintenance of addiction. [25,44,45]

The Common Neurological Symptoms In Individuals with Prolonged Addictive Drug Use

Common neurological symptoms in individuals with prolonged use of addictive drugs, considering the known damages to the brain such as white matter abnormalities, prefrontal cortex impairments, and long-lasting neurobiological changes, include:

1. *Cognitive Impairments*: These include deficits in attention, memory, and executive functions such as decision-making and impulse control. Chronic use of substances like cocaine and heroin is associated with significant alterations in these neuropsychological domains. [46-48]

2. *Emotional Dysregulation*: Increased anxiety, depressive symptoms, and emotional instability are frequently observed. These symptoms are linked to dysfunctions in the prefrontal cortex and limbic system, which are critical for emotional regulation. [46,47,49]

3. *Motor Deficits*: Chronic methamphetamine use, for example, is associated with corticostriatal deficits, leading to poor motor control and coordination. [49]

4. *Seizures and Stroke*: Seizures can occur due to acute intoxication or withdrawal, while both ischemic and haemorrhagic strokes are common complications, particularly with cocaine use. [49-51]

5. *Perceptual Disturbances*: Hallucinations and other perceptual abnormalities are often reported, especially with the use of psychostimulants and hallucinogens. [51]

6. *Neuropsychiatric Symptoms*: These include psychosis, characterized by delusions and hallucinations, particularly with chronic use of substances like methamphetamine and cocaine. [52,53]

7. *Autonomic Dysfunctions*: Dysautonomia, including irregular heart rate and blood pressure, can be a less overt but significant neurological manifestation. [53]

These symptoms are underpinned by structural and functional brain changes, such as white matter abnormalities, prefrontal cortex impairments, and disruptions in neurobiological pathways, which are well-documented in the literature. [46-50]

The Populations that are Most at Risk for Developing Neurological Symptoms

The risk of developing neurological symptoms in the

drug-addicted population is greater than in the non-drug-using population. However, there are populations of drug users who are at increased risk of developing neurological symptoms due to drug use. The neurological symptoms include cognitive impairments, emotional dysregulation, motor deficits, seizures, perceptual disturbances, neuropsychiatric symptoms, and autonomic dysfunctions from prolonged use of addictive drugs.

Adolescents, pregnant women and children of addicted pregnant women that use drugs during their pregnancy are the populations most at risk for developing neurological symptoms from prolonged use of addictive drugs. Adolescence is a critical period for brain development, making the adolescent brain highly susceptible to the long-term consequences of drug exposure. Studies have shown that adolescent exposure to substances like alcohol, nicotine, opioids, cannabinoids, and psychostimulants can lead to persistent changes in brain function, including disruptions in the prefrontal cortex and mesolimbic dopamine pathways, which affect reward systems, socio-emotional processing, and cognition.[46]

Prenatal exposure to addictive drugs also poses significant risks. Drug use during pregnancy can lead to long-lasting disturbances in brain development in the offspring, resulting in cognitive and emotional impairments. These effects can occur even at low doses and with short periods of drug exposure during pregnancy. Additionally, pre-conception drug use by both females and males can adversely affect subsequent generations.[55]

Furthermore, individuals with substance use disorders, particularly those with chronic use of substances like cocaine and heroin, exhibit widespread white matter abnormalities, which are associated with cognitive deficits, emotional dysregulation, and other neurological symptoms.[56]

In summary, adolescents, pregnant women and children that were prenatally exposed to drugs are particularly vulnerable to the neurological consequences of prolonged addictive drug use, with significant implications for both their own health and the health of their offspring.

Discussion

Drug addiction exerts profound effects across multiple domains of an individual's life, including social, psychological, and medical aspects. Socially, individuals with substance use disorders face challenges such as social isolation, strained relationships, and stigmatization. This isolation is often compounded by difficulties in securing stable employment, further exacerbating social instability and dependency [1,3]. Psychologically, addiction disrupts critical circuits in the brain responsible for reward,

motivation, and executive control. These disruptions manifest as impaired decision-making, emotional instability, and the emergence of mood disorders like anxiety and depression. Over time, these effects create a vicious cycle that reinforces addiction and diminishes the individual's capacity for recovery [4,5]. Medically, prolonged substance use is associated with severe complications, including cardiovascular and hepatic diseases, as well as heightened vulnerability to infections like HIV and Hepatitis. Among the most alarming consequences is the damage inflicted on the brain, where chronic drug use leads to neurotransmitter imbalances, structural changes, and impaired cognitive functions. This damage can vary based on factors such as the type and duration of drug use, age, and overall health, and it often proves to be long-lasting or even permanent [13,31].

Conclusions

The broad review of the implications of drug use leads to a number of conclusions that have future implications for the health and functioning of drug addicts and the environmental damage caused by drug use. The main conclusions are:

1. **Impact on Brain Health:** The article clearly demonstrates that drug addiction leads to substantial and often irreversible changes in brain health. Structural alterations such as reductions in gray matter volume, changes in dendritic spine density, and disruptions in synaptic plasticity are all strongly linked to the challenges of recovery. These changes, particularly in the prefrontal cortex, limbic system, and reward networks, impair critical functions such as decision-making and emotional regulation. This highlights the complex interplay between addiction and brain structure [18,19,31,40].
2. **Cognitive and Emotional Impairments:** One of the most troubling outcomes of addiction is its profound impact on cognitive and emotional capacities. Neurotransmitter imbalances, especially involving dopamine, glutamate, and GABA, result in chronic deficits in memory, attention, and executive functions. These effects are further compounded by emotional dysregulation, making individuals more susceptible to relapse and mental health comorbidities such as depression and anxiety [6,10,28].
3. **Vulnerable Populations:** Adolescents and prenatally exposed children are disproportionately affected by the neurological consequences of addiction. Adolescents, whose brains are still undergoing significant developmental changes, face heightened risks of long-term impairments in socio-emotional processing and cognition. Similarly, prenatal drug

exposure can lead to lasting cognitive and emotional deficits in offspring, underscoring the generational impact of addiction[46].

4. Long-Term Mental Health Risks: Addiction not only results in neurological damage but also increases the likelihood of co-occurring mental health disorders. The prevalence of depression, anxiety, and psychosis among individuals with substance use disorders is significantly higher, further complicating recovery efforts and underscoring the need for integrated treatment approaches [32,34,35].

Recommendations for the Future

From the review, we can also learn about the future importance of steps that can influence and shape the ability to cope with the drug scourge. All of the above leads to a number of main recommendations that have the power to prevent the situation from deteriorating and perhaps even lead to significant improvements.

1. Integrated Treatment Programs: Future treatment approaches must adopt a holistic view that addresses both the neurological and psychological dimensions of addiction. Interventions aimed at restoring neurotransmitter balance, enhancing neuroplasticity, and improving cognitive function should be prioritized. Additionally, combining pharmacological therapies with behavioural and cognitive interventions can improve long-term outcomes [15,23,24].
2. Early Intervention: Preventive measures and early interventions play a critical role in mitigating the long-term consequences of addiction. This is especially important for vulnerable populations like adolescents and pregnant women. School-based education programs, community outreach initiatives, and routine screening for substance use in healthcare settings can significantly reduce the incidence of addiction and its associated neurological consequences [46].
3. Policy and Awareness: Public policies that promote awareness of the long-term effects of addiction on brain health are crucial. Governments and organizations should invest in education campaigns that highlight the risks associated with substance use and encourage individuals to seek help early. Reducing stigma and improving access to treatment services are also key steps toward fostering recovery [18,33].
4. Advancements in Research: Continued research into the neurobiology of addiction is essential for developing innovative treatments. Areas of focus should include the mechanisms of neuroplasticity, the role of specific brain regions in recovery, and the development of targeted therapies for reversing brain damage caused by substance abuse. Collaborative efforts between neuroscientists, psychologists, and clinicians can drive progress in this field [8,13,16,19].

References

1. Pomrenze MB, Paliarin F, Maiya R. Friend of the Devil: Negative Social Influences Driving Substance Use Disorders. *Frontiers in Behavioral Neuroscience*. 2022;16:836996. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2022.836996.
2. Sahani V, Hurd YL, Bachi K. Neural Underpinnings of Social Stress in Substance Use Disorders. *Current Topics in Behavioral Neurosciences*. 2022;54:483-515. doi:10.1007/7854_2021_272.
3. Gu C, Geng YC, Zhu LN. Dysregulation of Dopamine Neurotransmission in Drug Addicts: Implications for Criminal Behavior and Corrective Interventions. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*. 2024;15:1434083. doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2024.1434083.
4. Cadet JL, Bisagno V, Milroy CM. Neuropathology of Substance Use Disorders. *Acta Neuropathologica*. 2014;127(1):91-107. doi:10.1007/s00401-013-1221-7.
5. Volkow ND, Boyle M. Neuroscience of Addiction: Relevance to Prevention and Treatment. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*. 2018;175(8):729-740. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2018.17101174.
6. Koob GF, Volkow ND. Neurobiology of Addiction: A Neurocircuitry Analysis. *The Lancet. Psychiatry*. 2016;3(8):760-773. doi:10.1016/S2215-0366(16)00104-8.
7. Volkow ND, Michaelides M, Baler R. The Neuroscience of Drug Reward and Addiction. *Physiological Reviews*. 2019; 99(4): 2115-2140. doi:10.1152/physrev.00014.2018.
8. Volkow ND, Morales M. The Brain on Drugs: From Reward to Addiction. *Cell*. 2015;162(4):712-25. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2015.07.046.
9. Scofield MD, Heinsbroek JA, Gipson CD, et al. The Nucleus Accumbens: Mechanisms of Addiction Across Drug Classes Reflect the Importance of Glutamate Homeostasis. *Pharmacological Reviews*. 2016;68(3):816-71. doi:10.1124/pr.116.012484.
10. Engeli EJE, Zoelch N, Hock A, et al. Impaired Glutamate Homeostasis in the Nucleus Accumbens in Human Cocaine Addiction. *Molecular Psychiatry*. 2021;26(9):5277-5285. doi:10.1038/s41380-020-0828-z.
11. Moeller SJ, London ED, Northoff G. Neuroimaging Markers of Glutamatergic and GABAergic Systems in Drug Addiction: Relationships to Resting-State Functional Connectivity. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*. 2016;61:35-52. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2015.11.010.
12. Lüscher C, Malenka RC. Drug-Evoked Synaptic Plasticity

- in Addiction: From Molecular Changes to Circuit Remodeling. *Neuron*. 2011;69(4):650-63. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2011.01.017.
13. Hill-Bowen LD, Riedel MC, Salo T, et al. Convergent Gray Matter Alterations Across Drugs of Abuse and Network-Level Implications: A Meta-Analysis of Structural MRI Studies. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2022;240:109625. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2022.109625.
14. Barrientos C, Knowland D, Wu MMJ, et al. Cocaine-Induced Structural Plasticity in Input Regions to Distinct Cell Types in Nucleus Accumbens. *Biological Psychiatry*. 2018;84(12):893-904. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2018.04.019.
15. Robinson TE, Kolb B. Structural Plasticity Associated With Exposure to Drugs of Abuse. *Neuropharmacology*. 2004;47 Suppl 1:33-46. doi:10.1016/j.neuropharm.2004.06.025.
16. Barg J, Brochman A. Why are we concerned about the Legal Use of Cannabis for Recreational Purposes? *Mathews J Case Rep*. 2024, 9(1):148.
17. Vatury, O. Barg, J. et al. Altered localization of choline transporter sites in the mouse hippocampus after prenatal heroin exposure. *Brain research bulletin*. 2004. 63:25-32.
18. Ceceli AO, Huang Y, Kronberg G, et al. Common and Distinct Fronto-Striatal Volumetric Changes in Heroin and Cocaine Use Disorders. *Brain : A Journal of Neurology*. 2023;146(4):1662-1671. doi:10.1093/brain/awac366.
19. Yan H, Xiao S, Fu S, et al. Functional and Structural Brain Abnormalities in Substance Use Disorder: A Multimodal Meta-Analysis of Neuroimaging Studies. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica*. 2023;147(4):345-359. doi:10.1111/acps.13539.
20. Litman, P. **Barg, J.** and Ginzburg, I. Microtubules are involved in the localization of tau mRNA in primary neuronal cell cultures. *Neuron*. 1994;13:1463-1474.
21. Zhang M, Gao X, Yang Z, et al. Shared Gray Matter Alterations in Subtypes of Addiction: A Voxel-Wise Meta-Analysis. *Psychopharmacology*. 2021;238(9):2365-2379. doi:10.1007/s00213-021-05920-w.
22. Mackey S, Allgaier N, Chaarani B, et al. Mega-Analysis of Gray Matter Volume in Substance Dependence: General and Substance-Specific Regional Effects. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*. 2019;176(2):119-128. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2018.17040415.
23. Ramey T, Regier PS. Cognitive Impairment in Substance Use Disorders. *CNS Spectrums*. 2019;24(1):102-113. doi:10.1017/S1092852918001426.
24. Verdejo-Garcia A, Garcia-Fernandez G, Dom G. Cognition and Addiction. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience*. 2019;21(3):281-290. doi:10.31887/DCNS.2019.21.3/gdom.
25. Fernández-Serrano MJ, Pérez-García M, Verdejo-García A. What Are the Specific vs. Generalized Effects of Drugs of Abuse on Neuropsychological Performance?. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*. 2011;35(3):377-406. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2010.04.008.
26. Rezayof A, Ghasemzadeh Z, Sahafi OH. Addictive Drugs Modify Neurogenesis, Synaptogenesis and Synaptic Plasticity to Impair Memory Formation Through Neurotransmitter Imbalances and Signaling Dysfunction. *Neurochemistry International*. 2023;169:105572. doi:10.1016/j.neuint.2023.105572.
27. Zilverstand A, Huang AS, Alia-Klein N, Goldstein RZ. Neuroimaging Impaired Response Inhibition and Salience Attribution in Human Drug Addiction: A Systematic Review. *Neuron*. 2018;98(5):886-903. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2018.03.048.
28. Ceceli AO, Bradberry CW, Goldstein RZ. The Neurobiology of Drug Addiction: Cross-Species Insights Into the Dysfunction and Recovery of the Prefrontal Cortex. *Neuropsychopharmacology : Official Publication of the American College of Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2022;47(1):276-291. doi:10.1038/s41386-021-01153-9.
29. D'Souza MS. Brain and Cognition for Addiction Medicine: From Prevention to Recovery Neural Substrates for Treatment of Psychostimulant-Induced Cognitive Deficits. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*. 2019;10:509. doi:10.3389/fpsy.2019.00509.
30. Schultz W. Potential Vulnerabilities of Neuronal Reward, Risk, and Decision Mechanisms to Addictive Drugs. *Neuron*. 2011;69(4):603-17. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2011.02.014.
31. Sofuoglu M, DeVito EE, Waters AJ, Carroll KM. Cognitive Enhancement as a Treatment for Drug Addictions. *Neuropharmacology*. 2013;64:452-63. doi:10.1016/j.neuropharm.2012.06.021.
32. Santo T, Campbell G, Gisev N, et al. Prevalence of Mental Disorders Among People With Opioid Use Disorder: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2022;238:109551. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2022.109551.
33. Torrens M, Gilchrist G, Domingo-Salvany A. Psychiatric Comorbidity in Illicit Drug Users: Substance-Induced Versus Independent Disorders. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*. 2011;113(2-3):147-56. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.07.013.
34. Saha S, Lim CC, Degenhardt L, et al. Comorbidity Between Mood and Substance-Related Disorders: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*. 2022;56(7):757-770. doi:10.1177/00048674211054740.
35. Schuckit MA. Comorbidity Between Substance Use

- Disorders and Psychiatric Conditions. *Addiction* (Abingdon, England). 2006;101 Suppl 1:76-88. doi:10.1111/j.1360-0443.2006.01592.x.
36. Belcheva, M.M. Vogel, Z. Et al. Opioid modulation of ERK activity is Ras dependent and involves G $\beta\gamma$ subunits. *Journal of neurochemistry*. 1998;70:635-645.
37. Juarez B, Han MH. Diversity of Dopaminergic Neural Circuits in Response to Drug Exposure. *Neuropsychopharmacology : Official Publication of the American College of Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2016;41(10):2424-46. doi:10.1038/npp.2016.32.
38. Barg J. The Truth about Prescription Drug Abuse. *J Addict Addictv Disord* 2024, 11: 158 DOI: 10.24966/AAD-7276/100158.
39. Volkow ND, Wang GJ, Fowler JS, Tomasi D, Telang F. Addiction: Beyond Dopamine Reward Circuitry. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 2011;108(37):15037-42. doi:10.1073/pnas.1010654108.
40. Avidor-Reiss, T. Zippel, R. Et al. k-Opioid receptor-transfected cell lines: modulation of adenylyl cyclase activity following acute and chronic opioid treatments. *FEBS Letter*. 1995;361:70-74.
41. Moreno-López L, Stamatakis EA, Fernández-Serrano MJ, et al. Neural Correlates of the Severity of Cocaine, Heroin, Alcohol, MDMA and Cannabis Use in Polysubstance Abusers: A Resting-Pet Brain Metabolism Study. *PloS One*. 2012;7(6):e39830. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039830.
42. Klugah-Brown B, Di X, Zweerings J, et al. Common and Separable Neural Alterations in Substance Use Disorders: A Coordinate-Based Meta-Analyses of Functional Neuroimaging Studies in Humans. *Human Brain Mapping*. 2020;41(16):4459-4477. doi:10.1002/hbm.25085.
43. Brochman A. and Barg J. The risks associated with using the web to look up medical information. *GSC Advanced Research and Reviews*, 2023, 17(03), 145–155. DOI: 10.30574/gscarr.
44. Rosário BDA, de Nazaré MFS, Estadella D, Ribeiro DA, Viana MB. Behavioral and Neurobiological Alterations Induced by Chronic Use of Crack Cocaine. *Reviews in the Neurosciences*. 2019;31(1):59-75. Doi:10.1515/revneuro-2018-0118.
45. Barg, J. Fride, E. Et ak. Cannabinomimetic behavioral effects and adenylyl cyclase inhibition by two new endogenous anandamides. *European journal of pharmacology*. 1995;287:145-152.
46. Gaudreault PO, King SG, Malaker P, Alia-Klein N, Goldstein RZ. Whole-Brain White Matter Abnormalities in Human Cocaine and Heroin Use Disorders: Association With Craving, Recency, and Cumulative Use. *Molecular Psychiatry*. 2023;28(2):780-791. Doi:10.1038/s41380-022-01833-y.
47. London ED, Kohn M, Morales AM, Ballard ME. Chronic Methamphetamine Abuse and Corticostriatal Deficits Revealed by Neuroimaging. *Brain Research*. 2015;1628(Pt A):174-85. Doi:10.1016/j.brainres.2014.10.044.
48. Caplan RA, Zuflacht JP, Barash JA, Fehnel CR. Neurotoxicology Syndromes Associated With Drugs of Abuse. *Neurologic Clinics*. 2020;38(4):983-996. Doi:10.1016/j.ncl.2020.08.005.
49. Brust JC. Neurologic Complications of Substance Abuse. *Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes* (1999). 2002;31 Suppl 2:S29-34. Doi:10.1097/00126334-200210012-00002.
50. Neiman J, Haapaniemi HM, Hillbom M. Neurological Complications of Drug Abuse: Pathophysiological Mechanisms. *European Journal of Neurology*. 2000;7(6):595-606. Doi:10.1046/j.1468-1331.2000.00045.x.
51. Lappin JM, Sara GE. Psychostimulant Use and the Brain. *Addiction* (Abingdon, England). 2019;114(11):2065-2077. Doi:10.1111/add.14708.
52. Salmanzadeh H, Ahmadi-Soleimani SM, Pachenari N, et al. Adolescent Drug Exposure: A Review of Evidence for the Development of Persistent Changes in Brain Function. *Brain Research Bulletin*. 2020;156:105-117. Doi:10.1016/j.brainresbull.2020.01.007.
53. Karatayev O, Collier AD, Targoff SR, Leibowitz SF. Neurological Disorders Induced by Drug Use: Effects of Adolescent and Embryonic Drug Exposure on Behavioral Neurodevelopment. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*. 2024;25(15):8341. Doi:10.3390/ijms25158341.