



Effect fingerprinting of new psychoactive substances (NPS): What can we learn from *in vitro* data?

Laura Hondebrink^{a,1}, Anne Zwartsen^{a,b,1}, Remco H.S. Westerink^{b,*}

^a Dutch Poisons Information Center (DPIC), University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht University, The Netherlands

^b Neurotoxicology Research Group, Division Toxicology, Institute for Risk Assessment Sciences (IRAS), Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Utrecht University, P.O. Box 80.177, NL-3508 TD, Utrecht, The Netherlands



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ABSTRACT

The use of new psychoactive substances (NPS) is increasing and currently > 600 NPS have been reported. However, limited information on neuropharmacological and toxicological effects of NPS is available, hampering risk characterization.

We reviewed the literature on the *in vitro* neuronal modes of action to obtain effect fingerprints of different classes of illicit drugs and NPS. The most frequently reported NPS were selected for review: cathinones (MDPV, α -PVP, mephedrone, 4-MEC, pentedrone, methylene), cannabinoids (JWH-018), (hallucinogenic) phenethylamines (4-fluoroamphetamine, benzofurans (5-APB, 6-APB), 2C-B, NBOMes (25B-NBOMe, 25C-NBOMe, 25I-NBOMe)), arylcyclohexylamines (methoxetamine) and piperazine derivatives (mCPP, TFMPP, BZP).

Our effect fingerprints highlight the main modes of action for the different NPS studied, including inhibition and/or reversal of monoamine reuptake transporters (cathinones and non-hallucinogenic phenethylamines), activation of 5-HT₂ receptors (hallucinogenic phenethylamines and piperazines), activation of cannabinoid receptors (cannabinoids) and inhibition of NDMA receptors (arylalicyclohexylamines). Importantly, we identified additional targets by relating reported effect concentrations to the estimated human brain concentrations during recreational use. These additional targets include dopamine receptors, α - and β -adrenergic receptors, GABA_A receptors and acetylcholine receptors, which may all contribute to the observed clinical symptoms following exposure.

Additional data is needed as the number of NPS continues to increase. Also, the effect fingerprints we have obtained are still incomplete and suffer from a large variation in the reported effects and effect sizes. Dedicated *in vitro* screening batteries will aid in complementing specific effect fingerprints of NPS. These fingerprints can be implemented in the risk assessments of NPS that are necessary for eventual control measures to reduce Public Health risks.

Abbreviations: 2C-B, 2,5-Dimethoxy-4-bromophenethylamine; 4-FA, 4-Fluoroamphetamine; 4-MEC, 4-Methylethcathinone; 4-MMC, 4-Methylmethcathinone, a.k.a. mephedrone; 5-APB, 5-(2-Aminopropyl)benzofuran; 6-APB, 6-(2-Aminopropyl)benzofuran; 5-HT, Serotonin; 25B-NBOMe, 4-Bromo-2,5-dimethoxy-N-(2-methoxybenzyl)phenethylamine; 25C-NBOMe, 4-Chloro-2,5-dimethoxy-N-(2-methoxybenzyl)phenethylamine; 25I-NBOMe, 4-Iodo-2,5-dimethoxy-N-(2-methoxybenzyl)phenethylamine; α -PVP, 1-Phenyl-2-(1-pyrrolidinyl)-1-pentanone, a.k.a. Flakka; ACh, Acetylcholine; AMPA, α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid; BPF, Brain partitioning factor; BZP, 1-Benzylpiperazine; CB, Cannabinoid; COMT, Catechol-O-methyltransferase; DA, Dopamine; EC₅₀, Drug concentration that induces a half-maximal response; EMCDDA, European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction; EU, European Union; EWS, Early Warning System; GABA, γ -Aminobutyric acid; GPCR, G-protein coupled receptor; (h)DAT, (human) Dopamine reuptake transporter; (h)NET, (human) Norepinephrine reuptake transporter; (h)SERT, (human) Serotonin reuptake transporter; IC₅₀, Drug concentration that inhibits the response by 50%; JWH-018, 1-pentyl-3-(1-naphthoyl) indole; MAO-A, Monoamine oxidase A; mACh-R, Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor; mCPP, 1-(3-Chlorophenyl)piperazine; MDMA, 3,4-Methylenedioxymethamphetamine; MDPV, 3,4-Methylenedioxypyrovalerone; MXE, Methoxetamine ((RS)-2-(ethylamino)-2-(3-methoxyphenyl)cyclohexanone); nACh-R, Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; NE, Norepinephrine; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate; NPS, New psychoactive substance; PCP, 1-(1-Phenylcyclohexyl)piperidine, a.k.a. phencyclidine; TFMPP, 1-(3-Trifluoromethyl)phenylpiperazine; THC, Tetrahydrocannabinol; UNODC, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime; VGCCs, Voltage-gated calcium channels

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: r.westerink@uu.nl (R.H.S. Westerink).

¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

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1. Introduction

The use of illicit drugs is high; around 5% of the adult population worldwide used an illicit drug in the last year (World Drug Report, 2016). The prevalence of last year illicit drug use in specific populations can be much higher compared to the overall adult population. For example, the prevalence of last year drug use in Dutch young adults (15–35 years) who went to clubs, parties or festivals in the last year, was reported to be 61% for ecstasy, 52% for cannabis, 33% for speed and 27% for cocaine (Monshouwer, van der Pol, Drost, & van Laar, 2016). Cannabis, cocaine, ecstasy (active substance often 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA)) and amphetamines are also worldwide the most frequently used illicit drugs (EMCDDA, 2016b).

While the use of these common illicit drugs appears to decrease slightly (World Drug Report, 2015), more and more new psychoactive substances (NPS) are entering the drug market. NPS are a chemically diverse class of substances that often induce effects comparable to common illicit drugs. NPS are also known as synthetic drugs, legal highs, bath salts, research chemicals and are even advertised as plant fertilizers. The most commonly used definition of NPS is 'a new narcotic or psychotropic drug, in pure form or in preparation, that is not controlled by the United Nations drug conventions, but which may pose a public health threat comparable to that posed by substances listed in these conventions' (EMCDDA, 2016a). These conventions date back to 1961 and 1971 and the term 'new' does not necessarily refer to newly developed drugs, since several NPS were first synthesized as pharmaceutical candidates already 40 years ago. 'New' rather refers to substances that have recently (re)emerged on the drug market and have not been scheduled under the drug conventions (UNODC, 2013).

Currently, over 700 different NPS have been reported to monitoring centers worldwide and around 5% of the European population has used a NPS during the last year (World Drug Report, 2017). While NPS use appears comparable to the use of common illicit drugs, the last year prevalence of use for NPS differs strongly between European countries, for example, it was 31% in Poland and only 1% in Switzerland (Global Drug Survey, 2015). Also, for specific NPS and specific populations, the last year prevalence of use is as high as that of common illicit drugs. For example, the last year use of 4-fluoroamphetamine (4-FA) among Dutch young adults (15–35 years) who went to clubs, parties or festivals in the last year, was 25% (Monshouwer et al., 2016).

When a NPS enters the drug market, the positive as well as the adverse effects are initially often unknown. Notably, around 10% of all drug-related emergency department visits in Europe involved NPS exposure (EMCDDA, 2015a). Moreover, the European Union (EU) Early Warning System (EWS) for NPS has issued 34 public health alerts since 2014 to warn for severe health risks of specific NPS (EMCDDA, 2016b). For example, synthetic cannabinoids were linked to more than 200 emergency department visits within one week in Poland (EMCDDA, 2016b) and methylenedioxypyrovalerone (MDPV) resulted in nearly 100 deaths and over 200 intoxications at the time of risk assessment by the EU-EWS (EMCDDA, 2015a).

Legal approaches to control NPS vary per country. Some countries, such as the United States and Canada, have implemented legal instruments using a 'generic approach' (controlling a family of substances that are precisely defined) or an 'analogue approach' (based on chemical similarity to an already controlled substance) to control substances not explicitly mentioned in the legislation (UNODC, Legal responses). On the other hand, many countries perform a risk assessment of each individual NPS that has been related to severe adverse effects or fatalities. However, the yearly stream of NPS reported for the first time to monitoring centers in Europe (EMCDDA), 98 in 2015, and worldwide

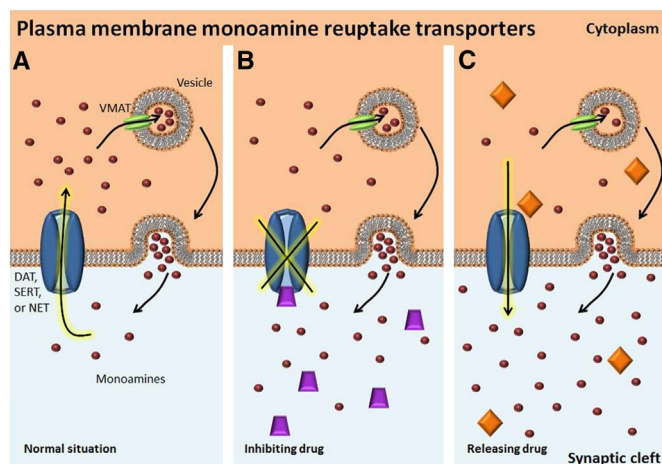


Fig. 1. Plasma membrane monoamine reuptake transporters (DAT, SERT and NET). Cytosolic monoamines are stored in vesicles by the vesicular monoamine transporter (VMAT). Upon neuronal stimulation, these monoamines are released into the synaptic cleft through fusion of the vesicles with the cell membrane (exocytosis). Presynaptic plasma membrane dopamine, serotonin or norepinephrine reuptake transporters (DAT, SERT and NET, respectively) are responsible for the reuptake of released monoamines following exocytosis. This normalizes the extracellular monoamine concentration (A). However, drugs that inhibit monoamine reuptake transporters prevent efficient clearance of the synaptic cleft and thus increase extracellular monoamine levels (B). Drugs that induce reversal of monoamine reuptake transporters may increase extracellular monoamine levels even further as they induce efflux of monoamines, even in the absence of vesicle fusion (C).

(UNODC) seems never-ending and regulators can hardly keep up. In addition, the legal status of a specific NPS may not reduce its use and the associated health risks remain.

Risk assessments on NPS include data on occurrence (e.g., seizures), acute intoxications, deaths, animal experiments and *in vitro* data on specific mechanisms of action. The primary mode of action of illicit drugs like MDMA, amphetamine and cocaine involves inhibition and/or reversal of monoamine transporters such as the dopamine (DA), norepinephrine (NE) and serotonin (5-HT) reuptake transporters (DAT, NET and SERT respectively, Fig. 1) (Fleckenstein, Volz, Riddle, Gibb, & Hanson, 2007; Gowrishankar, Hahn, & Blakely, 2014; Korpi et al., 2015; Rietjens, Hondebrink, Westerink, & Meulenbelt, 2012; Torres, Gainetdinov, & Caron, 2003; Verrico, Miller, & Madras, 2007; Williams & Galli, 2006). Exposure to these illicit drugs therefore results in increased extracellular brain levels of monoamines. These increased neurotransmitter levels can lead to both the desired and adverse behavioral and clinical effects. For example, increased NE levels can result in cardiovascular effects (e.g., tachycardia and hypertension) and hyperthermia (Greene, Kerr, & Braitberg, 2008). Increased DA levels are related to reinforcing and behavioral-stimulating effects of drugs (Kimmel, Carroll, & Kuhar, 2001; Volkow, Fowler, Wang, Baler, & Telang, 2009). Also, drugs that primarily affect DAT have a high abuse liability (Howell & Kimmel, 2008; Koob & Volkow, 2010). Finally, increased serotonin levels can result in entactogenic effects, as well as adverse effects, such as the potentially life-threatening serotonin syndrome (Mugele, Nañagas, & Tormoehlen, 2012).

In addition, extracellular brain monoamines levels can also be increased via indirect effects of (illicit) drugs. Increased stimulatory input (e.g., activation of glutamate receptors) or decreased inhibitory input (e.g., inhibition of GABA receptors) can increase the output of monoaminergic neurons. Targets other than reuptake transporters are less frequently investigated, but MDMA and amphetamine have been

reported to also affect GABA- and acetylcholine (ACh)-receptor function and voltage-gated calcium channels (VGCCs; Hondebrink, Meulenbelt, Meijer, Van Den Berg, & Westerink, 2011; Hondebrink, Meulenbelt, Rietjens, Meijer, & Westerink, 2012). Activation of the GABA receptor is linked to sedative effects, whereas ACh receptor antagonists can cause an increased heart rate and reduce synaptic transmission and muscle contraction. On the other hand, ketamine primarily inhibits the glutamate N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor (Monteggia & Zarate, 2015), inducing hallucinations and the feeling of dissociation. Thus, in addition to the well-known effects on monoamine reuptake transporters, illicit drugs can exert their (clinical) effects through numerous additional targets, including neurotransmitter receptors and ion channels. However, for the rapidly increasing number of NPS this is less well studied.

In the past years, an increasing number of studies described effects of NPS on a multitude of targets. However, literature is scattered and pharmacological profiles are lacking. A summary of the effects of a specific NPS, a ‘fingerprint’, could aid risk characterization. This review therefore aims to compare the effects of common illicit drugs and NPS, based on chemical similarity (for example amphetamine versus 4-fluoroamphetamine and ketamine versus methoxetamine) on specific neuronal molecular targets. NPS were selected based on continued presence on the drug market. For hazard characterization purposes, drugs were divided into groups based on chemical structure, i.e. cathinones (mephedrone, 4-MEC, pentadron, methylone, MDPV and α -PVP), cannabinoids (THC and JWH-018), non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines (amphetamine, 4-FA, MDMA, 5-APB and 6-APB), hallucinogenic phenethylamines (amphetamines, 4-FA, MDMA, 5-APB and 6-APB), hallucinogenic phenethylamines (2C-B, 25B-NBOMe, 25C-NBOMe and

25I-NBOMe), arylcyclohexylamines (ketamine and methoxetamine (MXE)) and piperazines (BZP, TFMPP and mCPP).

2. Methods

2.1. Literature search

A PubMed search for English-written literature published up to 1 October 2017 was performed. The search strategy combined search terms for specific neuronal targets with NPS that were most frequently notified to the EU-EWS (EMCDDA, 2016b). These included cathinones, cannabinoids, phenethylamines, hallucinogenic phenethylamines, arylcyclohexylamines and piperazines (Fig. 2). In total, the search strategy resulted in 9276 hits. Based on titles, 1314 abstracts were considered potentially relevant. Thorough screening of these abstracts, resulted in 496 articles that were suitable and consistent with the aims of this review (see Supplemental methods for the full search strategy and an overview of the resulting hits). For other common illicit drugs (THC, amphetamine and MDMA) that were considered relevant for comparison with NPS, data was gathered using selected articles and reviews, in addition to relevant articles derived from the search strategy, rather than using a full search strategy. Unfortunately, not all existing (negative) data is available via Pubmed. To further complete the effect fingerprints, we encourage scientists to submit their data on cellular and molecular neurotoxic effects of NPS via the ‘submit NPS data’ option in the contact form on www.neurotoxicology.nl.

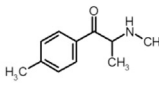
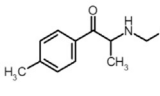
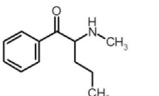
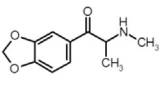
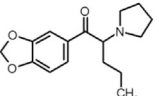
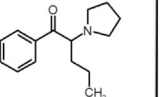
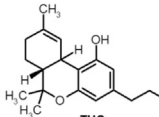
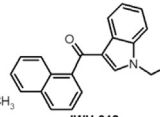
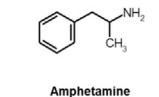
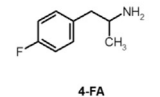
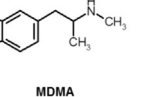
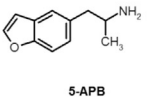
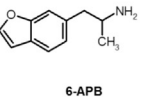
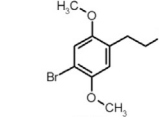
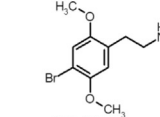
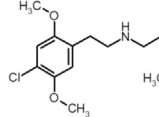
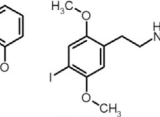
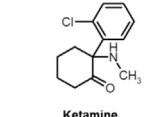
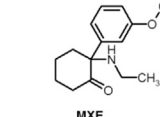
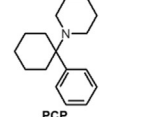
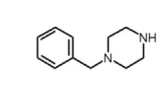
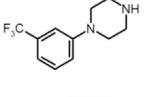
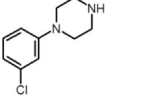
Cathinones	 Mephedrone	 4-MEC	 Pentadron	 Methylone	 MDPV	 α -PVP
Cannabinoids	 THC	 JWH-018				
Phenethylamines	 Amphetamine	 4-FA	 MDMA	 5-APB	 6-APB	
Hallucinogenic phenethylamines	 2C-B	 25B-NBOMe	 25C-NBOMe	 25I-NBOMe		
Arylcyclohexylamines	 Ketamine	 MXE	 PCP			
Piperazines	 BZP	 TFMPP	 mCPP			

Fig. 2. Chemical structures of drugs included in this review grouped by drug classes. Different cathinones, cannabinoids, phenethylamines, hallucinogenic phenethylamines, arylcyclohexylamines and piperazines were included. See list of abbreviations for full names.

2.2. Targets

Effect concentrations of drugs obtained from literature are reported per target (e.g., transporter inhibition, receptor activation) and displayed in Tables 1–3, Figs. 3, 4, 6–8, 11, 12 (single target, multiple NPS), and Supplemental Figs. 1–24 (single drug, all targets). Data are reported in Box plots showing the lowest and highest reported effects concentrations, the median and the interquartile range (IQR 25–75%) using GraphPad Prism (version 6.05). All reported effect concentrations are included in the Box plots as single data points. Effect concentrations mentioned in the main text represent the most potent reported concentrations, as reported in Table 1. When maximal effect sizes were reported, a threshold of 5% was applied for the effect to be classified as an (ant)agonistic effect and to include the reported IC_{50} or EC_{50} value in the results. References used for the data presented in the figures are included in the legends. References of all data points that are presented in supplemental figures, are only included in the supplemental material.

2.3. Estimated drug concentration in the brain

For all drugs, we estimated the concentration in the brain during recreational use according to Zwartsen et al. (2017). Briefly, human recreational serum, blood or plasma levels were obtained from literature and a brain partitioning factor (BPF: [brain] / ([serum], [blood] or [plasma])) was calculated for each drug using human post mortem or animal data. Human recreational serum, blood or plasma levels were multiplied with the corresponding BPF to estimate human brain concentrations resulting from (recreational) drug use. Estimated human brain concentrations were used to provide relevant test concentrations (Table 2).

3. Results

3.1. Cathinones

3.1.1. Introduction

Cathinone is a naturally occurring β -ketone amphetamine analogue. It is the major active constituent of khat, the leaf from the *Catha edulis* that can be chewed recreationally for its mild amphetamine-like effects. The first synthetic cathinones were produced for medical use almost 100 years ago. In the late 1920s, mephedrone (4-MMC, 4-methylmethcathinone) and ephedrone (methcathinone) were synthesized (see Kelly, 2011 for review). While mephedrone was never marketed as a potential drug, ephedrone was marketed in the 1930s as an antidepressant in the Soviet Republic. Due to heavy abuse, ephedrone was prohibited in the 1990s, but numerous new synthetic derivatives of cathinone have emerged on the recreational drug scene in the last decade. To avoid regulation, these synthetic cathinones were marketed as bath salts, plant food or fertilizer and labelled “not for human consumption” (Prosser & Nelson, 2012).

In 2013, mephedrone, methylone (3,4-methylenedioxymethcathinone), pentadone (α -ethylaminovalerophenone), 4-MEC (4-methylethcathinone) and the substituted cathinones α -PVP (α -pyrrolidinovalerophenone) and MDPV (3,4-methylenedioxypropylvalerone) were the most seized cathinones in Europe (EMCDDA, 2015a). Also in the US, these six synthetic cathinones were most reported (2010–2013) and represented over 90% of 30,000 synthetic cathinone seizures in the US (Drug Enforcement Administration, 2014). Since 2008, mephedrone is reported every year, showing the persistence of some of these drugs (World Drug Report, 2016).

Although prevalence numbers are not available for most synthetic cathinones, lifetime prevalence of synthetic cathinones use in general

varies strongly, from just over 1% in a self-report survey amongst 2349 students at a large university in the Southeastern US (Stogner & Miller, 2013) up to almost 61% for mephedrone use among 560 readers of UK clubbers' magazine (Winstock, 2011; for review see Bretteville-Jensen, Tuv, Bilgieri, Fjeld, & Bachs, 2013). The prevalence derived from such self-report surveys likely underestimates the actual use, also because synthetic cathinones are sometimes sold as MDMA. For example, 11.5% of pills sold as MDMA in the Netherlands in 2009 contained mephedrone (96–155 mg per tablet) as the only pharmacological active compound (Brunt, Poortman, Niesink, & van den Brink, 2011).

3.1.2. Clinical effects

Synthetic cathinones are preferably administered by insufflation or oral uptake and to a lesser extent by smoking or injecting. Administration typically results in stimulant-related subjective effects, including euphoria, intensification of sensory experiences, sexual arousal, reduced appetite and increased alertness, awareness and energy (Glennon, 2014; Zawilska, 2014a).

Synthetic cathinones have been implicated in many intoxications and fatalities worldwide. For example, within eight months after the first appearance of synthetic cathinones in the US, over 1400 intoxications were reported to American poison centers in 47 out of 50 states (Spiller, Ryan, Weston, & Jansen, 2011). Similarly, the number of cathinone-intoxicated patients in a London inner-city emergency department increased from none in 2006 to 82 in 2010 (Wood, Greene, & Dargan, 2013).

The most commonly reported clinical effects include altered mental status (agitation, violent behavior, hallucinations, paranoia), tachycardia, hypertension and hyperthermia (Glennon, 2014; Zawilska, 2014a). Additionally reported severe effects include hyponatremia, acute kidney and liver failure, rhabdomyolysis, compartment syndrome, cardiomyopathy and in severe cases death (Baumann et al., 2017; Zawilska, 2014a).

3.1.3. Mechanism of action

Just like many other NPS and illicit drugs, synthetic cathinones interact with monoamine reuptake transporters in the plasma membrane of neuronal cells to increase brain monoamine levels, resulting in the desired psychological effects. In addition to inhibition of these transporters, some synthetic cathinones can also act as a transporter substrate, thereby entering the neurons to stimulate non-exocytotic release of monoamines through the transporter (Glennon, 2014; Green, King, Shortall, & Fone, 2014; Zawilska, 2014a; Fig. 1). Although monoamine levels can also increase indirectly via the inhibition of the monoamine metabolizing enzymes monoamine-oxidase A (MAO-A) and catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT; Napolitano, Cesura, & Da Prada, 1995), literature reports on effects of synthetic cathinones on MAO-A or COMT are very sparse.

Mephedrone and methylone appear to act as a substrate for DAT, like amphetamine, thereby causing both inhibition and reversal of this transporter at sub- and low micromolar concentrations. Mephedrone and methylone are also efficient in inducing inhibition and reversal of SERT and NET at sub- and low micromolar concentrations. Although limited data is available for pentadone and 4-MEC, these compounds seem roughly equipotent compared to mephedrone and methylone (see Figs. 3–4).

The substituted cathinones α -PVP and MDPV are very potent inhibitors of DAT and NET, with IC_{50} values in the nanomolar range. However, α -PVP and MDPV act as relatively poor SERT inhibitors (IC_{50} values in the micromolar range). While some studies indicate that α -PVP and MDPV inhibit monoamine transporters without affecting release via reversal, one study (Baumann et al., 2013) identified MDPV

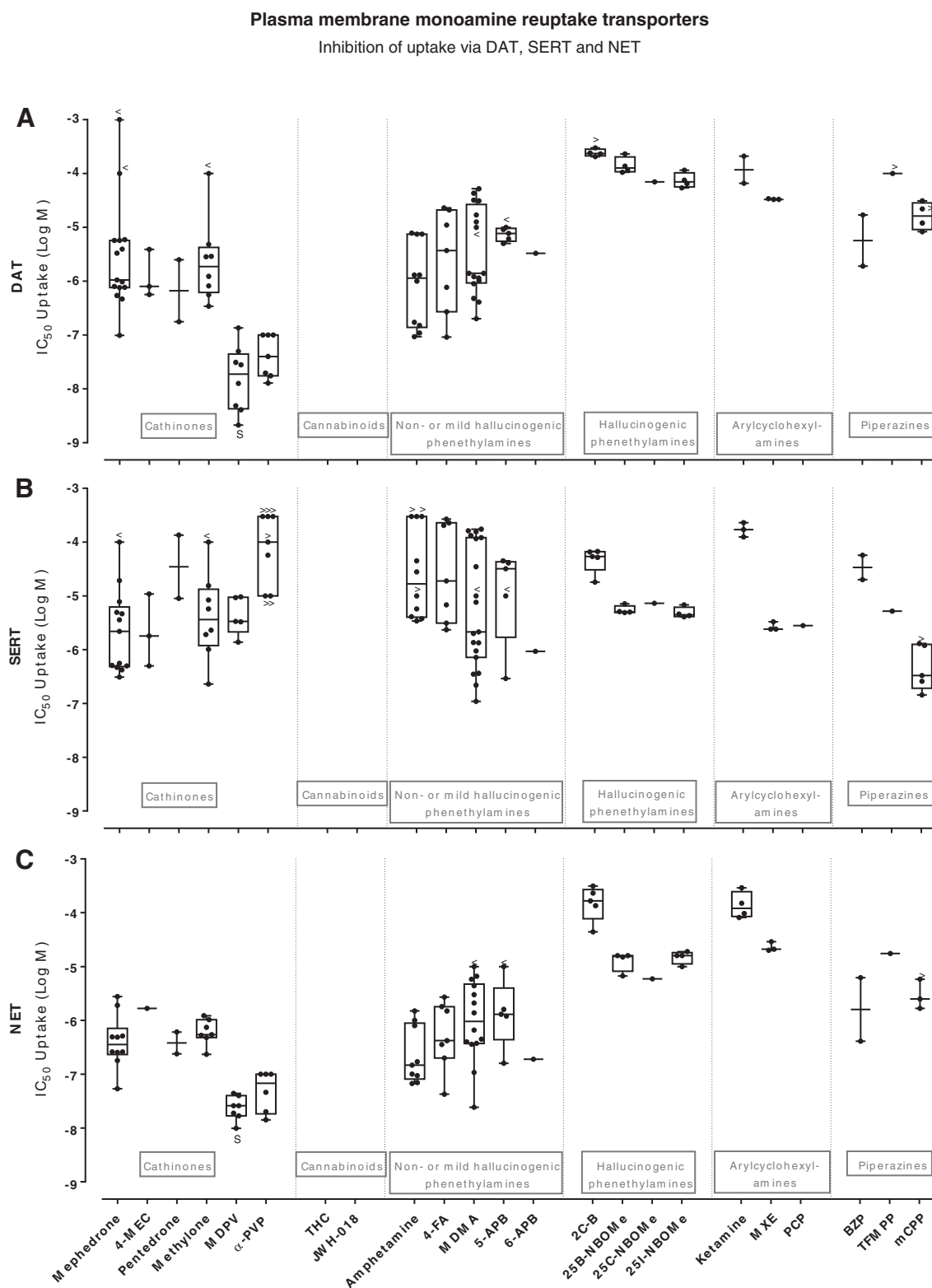


Fig. 3. Inhibition of monoamine reuptake transporters by different classes of drugs. Graphs depict IC_{50} values for inhibition of monoamine reuptake for DAT (A), SERT (B) and NET (C). > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, < : effect size larger than 50% at this concentration (IC_{50} not specified) at this concentration, S: S-enantiomer of the drug. References: Cathinones: (Baumann et al., 2013; Cameron, Kolanos, Solis, Glennon, & De Felice, 2013; Eshleman et al., 2013; Hadlock et al., 2011; Martínez-Clemente, Escubedo, Pubill, & Camarasa, 2012; Mayer et al., 2016; Pifl, Reither, & Hornykiewicz, 2015; Saha et al., 2015; Rickli, Hoener, & Liechti, 2015; Simmler et al., 2013; McLaughlin et al., 2017; Iversen, White, & Treble, 2014; López-Arnau, Martínez-Clemente, Pubill, Escubedo, & Camarasa, 2012; Simmler, Rickli, Hoener, & Liechti, 2014; Eshleman et al., 2017; Cozzi, Sievert, Shulgin, Jacob, & Ruoho, 1999; Nagai, Nonaka, & Kamimura, 2007; Sogawa et al., 2011; Kolanos, Partilla, et al., 2015; Kolanos, Solis, Sakloth, Defelice, & Glennon, 2013; Kolanos, Sakloth, et al., 2015; Marusich et al., 2014; Zwartsen et al., 2017; Luethi et al., in press). Cannabinoids: No data. Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines: (Simmler et al., 2013; Marona-Lewicka, Rhee, Sprague, & Nichols, 1995; Iversen et al., 2014; Baumann et al., 2013; Rickli, Hoener, et al., 2015; Holmes & Rutledge, 1976; Crespi, Mennini, & Gobbi, 1997; Eshleman et al., 2017; Nagai et al., 2007; Hadlock et al., 2011; Pifl et al., 2015; Eshleman et al., 2013; Cozzi et al., 1999; Verrico et al., 2007; Shimshoni, Winkler, Golan, & Nutt, 2017; Rickli, Kopf, Hoener, & Liechti, 2015; Montgomery et al., 2007; Zwartsen et al., 2017). Hallucinogenic phenethylamines: (Rickli, Luethi, et al., 2015; Montgomery et al., 2007; Zwartsen et al., 2017). Arylcyclohexylamines: (Shahani, Lingamaneni, & Hemmings, 2002; Nishimura et al., 1998; Hara et al., 1998; Zhao & Sun, 2008; Barann et al., 2015; Hori et al., 1996; Zwartsen et al., 2017). Piperazines: (Nagai et al., 2007; Simmler, Rickli, Schramm, Hoener, & Liechti, 2014; Baumann, Ayestas, Dersch, Partilla, & Rothman, 2000; Samanin et al., 1979; Gobbi et al., 2002).

Plasma membrane monoamine reuptake transporters

Release via DAT, SERT and NET

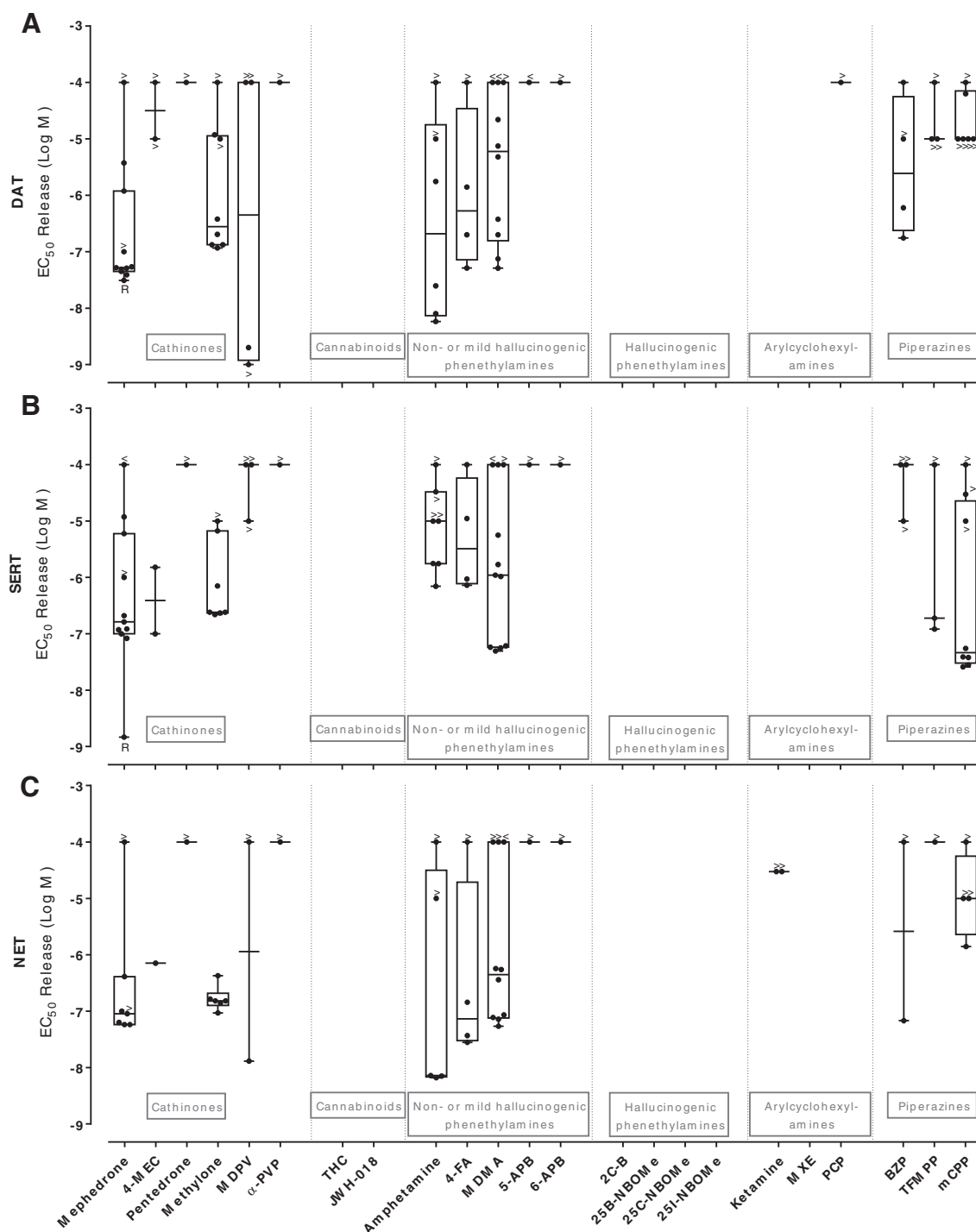


Fig. 4. Reversal of monoamine reuptake transporters by different classes of drugs. Graphs depict EC₅₀ values for transporter-mediated release, i.e., reversal of monoamine transporters, for DAT (A), SERT (B) and NET (C). > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, < : effect size larger than 50% (EC₅₀ not specified) at this concentration, R: R-enantiomer of the drug.

References: Cathinones: (Baumann et al., 2012; Baumann et al., 2013; Eshleman et al., 2013; Gregg et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 2016; Saha et al., 2015; Simmler et al., 2013; McLaughlin et al., 2017; Pifl et al., 2015; Eshleman et al., 2017; Del Bello, Sakloth, Partilla, Baumann, & Glennon, 2015; Nagai et al., 2007; Kolanos et al., 2013; Elmore et al., 2017; Shekar et al., 2017; Luethi et al., in press). Cannabinoids: No data. Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines: (Samanin et al., 1979; Baumann et al., 2011; Rickli, Hoener, et al., 2015; Baumann et al., 2013; Simmler et al., 2013; Rothman et al., 2001; Eshleman et al., 2017; Nagai et al., 2007; Simmler, Rickli, Hoener, et al., 2014; Rickli, Kopf, et al., 2015; Eshleman et al., 2013; Del Bello et al., 2015; Baumann et al., 2012; Hysek et al., 2012; Heal, Cheetham, Prow, Martin, & Buckett, 1998; Rickli, Luethi, et al., 2015). Hallucinogenic phenethylamines: No data. Arylcyclohexylamines: (Eshleman, Henningsen, Neve, & Janowsky, 1994; Pashkov & Hemmings, 2002; Uryu et al., 2000). Piperazines: (Nagai et al., 2007; Simmler, Rickli, Schramm, et al., 2014; Baumann et al., 2014; Baumann et al., 2004; Rothman & Baumann, 2002; Samanin et al., 1979; Baumann et al., 2000; Rothman et al., 2010; Gobbi et al., 2002).

as potent on reversing both DAT and NET (see Figs. 3–4), clearly arguing for more studies on this particular endpoint.

The effect concentrations of the synthetic cathinones on DAT, NET and SERT are generally well within the range of estimated human brain concentrations (Table 2). However, the reported effects on neurotransmitter receptors are likely less relevant, because these occur only at higher concentrations. Mephedrone, methylone, pentadone, 4-MEC, α -PVP and MDPV all show limited binding affinity for dopamine D1, D2 and D3 receptors (K_i binding > 10 μ M). Mephedrone, 4-MEC, methylone and MDPV also have a K_i binding > 10 μ M for dopamine D4 receptors. Binding to dopamine D5 receptors has been reported only for mephedrone and 4-MEC (K_i binding > 10 μ M; see Table 1). Similarly, these synthetic cathinones display limited binding affinity for 5-HT₁, 5-HT₂ and α -adrenergic receptors (micromolar range, see Table 1 and Supplemental Figs. 2–7). Effects on other neurotransmitter receptors (GABA_A, NMDA, AMPA, kainate, nACh, CB) or ion channels have not been reported, except for limited binding affinity of mephedrone and 4-MEC for mACh receptors (K_i binding > 10 μ M). Also see Supplemental Figs. 2–7 for a full overview of the targets and effect concentrations of mephedrone, methylone, pentadone, 4-MEC, α -PVP and MDPV.

3.2. Cannabinoids

3.2.1. Introduction

Cannabinoids can be divided in three classes: endocannabinoids, phytocannabinoids from the *Cannabis* plant, and synthetic cannabinoids. *Cannabis* plants contain over 80 different phytocannabinoids, but Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) is the only psychoactive component (Di Marzo & Piscitelli, 2015). Synthetic cannabinoids appeared on the drug market most recently (EMCDDA, 2009). Nevertheless, they are currently the largest group of NPS monitored by the EMCDDA and, besides cathinones, also one of the fastest growing groups of NPS (EMCDDA, 2016b). Synthetic cannabinoids share limited structural commonality with THC and are chemically manufactured cannabinoids. Initially, synthetic cannabinoids were developed as lead compounds for potential medicines (Pertwee, 2008a, 2008b). Synthetic cannabinoids are smoked similar to cannabis use; they are applied to an inert herbal product after being dissolved in a solvent (Auwärter, Dargan, & Wood, 2013, chap. 13).

In 2008, the first synthetic cannabinoid (JWH-018) was reported through the EU-EWS for NPS (EMCDDA, 2009). In 2015, 24 of the 98 NPS that were reported for the first time to the EU-EWS concerned synthetic cannabinoids (EMCDDA, 2016b). The last year prevalence of use varies between 6–11% in the US, whereas a lower prevalence of use is reported in Europe, between 0.1–1% (World Drug Report, 2016). Synthetic cannabinoids are also known as spice, K2, AM-2201, MDMB-CHMICA, AB-FUBINACA, MAM-2201 and XLR-11, the latter 5 representing the top 5 of seized synthetic cannabinoids in 2014 (EMCDDA, 2016b). New synthetic cannabinoids are constantly appearing on the drug market, although many also disappear quickly and are only reported for a limited time. JWH-018 is a synthetic cannabinoid that has been reported every year by a large number of countries since 2008 (World Drug Report, 2016). Therefore, this review focused on the effects of JWH-018 on the selected targets.

3.2.2. Clinical effects

Although many effects of Δ^9 -THC and synthetic cannabinoids overlap during acute intoxication (for review see Fattore, 2016), synthetic cannabinoids are often more toxic than Δ^9 -THC, with mass poisonings and even deaths reported (EMCDDA, 2016b). Clinical effects include agitation, anxiety, hallucinations, psychosis, memory and cognitive impairment, acute kidney injury, chest pain, tachyarrhythmia,

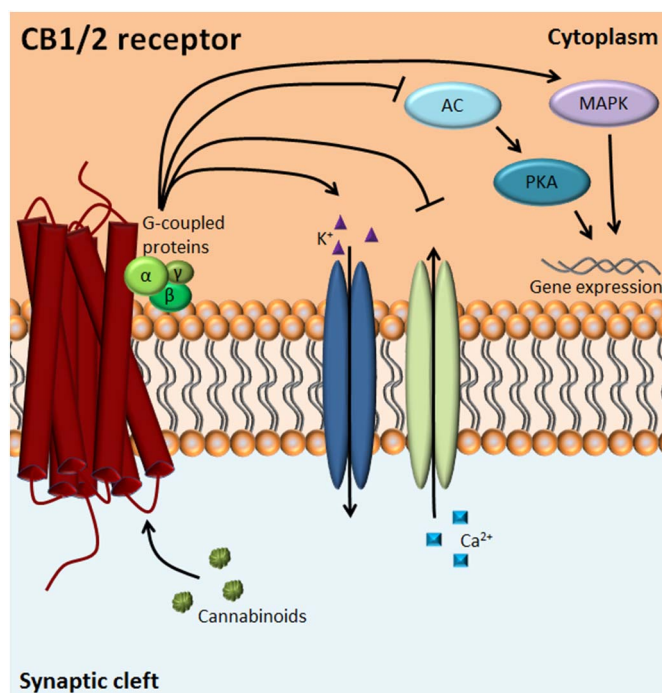


Fig. 5. Cannabinoid receptors. Cannabinoid (CB) receptors are G-protein-coupled receptors located in the (presynaptic) cell membrane. Upon activation by cannabinoids, CB receptors inhibit Ca^{2+} channels and activate (inwardly rectifying) K^{+} channels, resulting in a hyperpolarization and reduction in neurotransmitter release. Additionally, CB receptors can regulate cell functions via controlled gene expression by activation of mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) and inhibition of adenylyl cyclase (AC) and cyclic AMP–protein kinase A (PKA) signaling.

seizures and unresponsiveness (for review see Fattore, 2016). In the US, emergency department visits due to synthetic cannabinoids exposure have doubled from 2010–2011 to nearly 30,000 (61 visits per 100,000 population), more recent data is unavailable. Also, 65% of the drug-related emergency department visits of younger people (< 20 yrs) were due to synthetic cannabinoids exposure (Bush & Woodwell, 2014).

3.2.3. Mechanism of action

Synthetic cannabinoids affect the same receptors as Δ^9 -THC; the cannabinoid (CB) receptors CB1 and CB2, both G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). CB1 receptors are amongst the most abundant GPCRs in the central nervous system, although they are also present in the peripheral nervous system (Di Marzo, Bifulco, & Petrocellis, 2004). CB2 receptors are mostly present on immune tissues and immune cells, but are also moderately expressed in specific brain areas. Recently CB2 receptors have been implicated in animal drug seeking behavior and were also reported to modulate neuronal network activity (Chen, Gao, Gao, Su, & Wu, 2017). Activation of CB receptors can modulate neurotransmission through many different pathways, resulting in inhibition or stimulation, depending on the location of their expression (Chen et al., 2017; Di Marzo et al., 2004). Activation of CB1 and CB2 receptors results in activation of mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) and inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and cyclic AMP–protein kinase A (PKA) signaling (Fig. 5). Activation of CB1 receptors also inhibits L-, N- and P/Q-type VGCCs and stimulates inwardly rectifying K^{+} channels, which reduces neurotransmitter release (for review see Di Marzo, Stella, & Zimmer, 2015).

JWH-018 and Δ^9 -THC most potently affect the cannabinoid receptors (Table 1). While Δ^9 -THC has a somewhat higher binding affinity for CB1 receptors than JWH-018 (low nanomolar range, Fig. 6A, left),

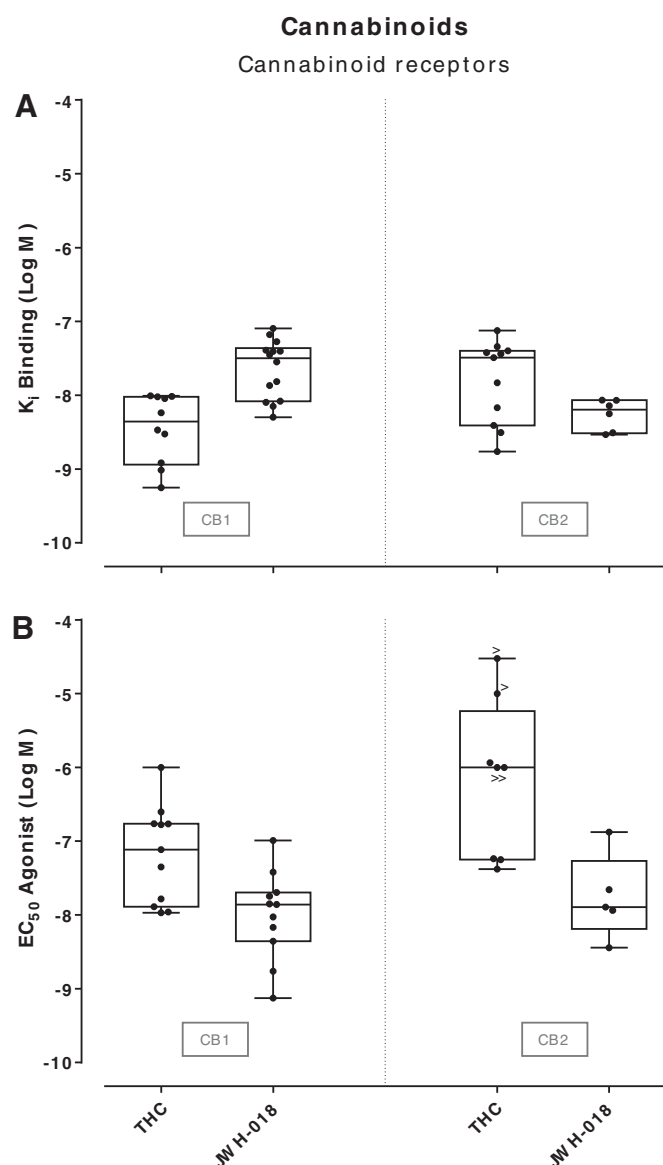


Fig. 6. Binding to and activation of CB receptors by different cannabinoids. Graphs depict effects of THC and JWH-018 on binding (K_i ; A) and activation (EC_{50} ; B) of CB1 (left) and CB2 (right) receptors. > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration.

References: K_i binding: (Canazza et al., 2016; Seely et al., 2012; Brents et al., 2011; Bayewitch et al., 1996; Felder et al., 1995; Rhee et al., 1997; Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1994; Iwamura, Suzuki, Ueda, Kaya, & Inaba, 2001; Brents, Zimmerman, Saffell, Prather, & Fantegrossi, 2013; Brents et al., 2011; De Luca et al., 2016; Vigolo et al., 2015; Aung et al., 2000; Chin, Murphy, Huffman, & Kendall, 1999; Compton et al., 1993; Rajasekaran, Brents, Franks, Moran, & Prather, 2013; Vigolo et al., 2015; Showalter, Compton, Martin, & Abood, 1996; Ford et al., 2017). EC_{50} agonist: (Cannaert, Storme, Franz, Auwärter, & Stove, 2016; Brents et al., 2011; Brents et al., 2012; Banister et al., 2016; Banister, Moir, et al., 2015; Banister, Stuart, et al., 2015; Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1994; Bayewitch et al., 1996; Felder et al., 1995; Rhee et al., 1997; Canazza et al., 2016; De Luca et al., 2016; Seely et al., 2012; Vigolo et al., 2015; Atwood, Huffman, Straiker, & MacKie, 2010; Rajasekaran et al., 2013; Ford et al., 2017).

both drugs appear to have comparable binding affinities for CB2 receptors (nanomolar range, Fig. 6A, right). Functionally, Δ^9 -THC and JWH-018 have agonistic effects on CB receptors, mostly between 10–100 nM, while Δ^9 -THC only activated CB2 receptors around and above 100 nM (Fig. 6B). CB receptor activation occurs at concentrations around the estimated human brain concentration during recreational

use (Table 2).

Besides cannabinoid receptors, effects of synthetic cannabinoids on several other targets have been investigated. However, at 10 μ M, Δ^9 -THC and JWH-018 appear unable to bind to monoamine reuptake transporters, dopamine receptors D1-5, serotonin receptors 5-HT_{1,2A,2C,3,5,6,7}, α - and β -adrenergic receptors and muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. Binding to the serotonin receptor 5-HT_{2B} was observed around 1 μ M JWH-018 or Δ^9 -THC. Similarly, binding to GABA_A receptors was observed at \sim 1 μ M JWH-018 (Supplemental Figs. 8–9).

Functional data is limited for targets other than cannabinoid receptors, although JWH-018 was shown to activate potassium channels ($EC_{50} \sim$ 250 μ M) and to inhibit GABA_A receptors ($IC_{50} \sim$ 250 nM). Also, JWH-018 potently inhibited neuronal activity ($IC_{50} \sim$ 10 nM).

3.3. Phenethylamines

3.3.1. Introduction

Phenethylamines are a class of substances that were on the drug market long before active monitoring was put into place. This class includes older drugs like amphetamine and MDMA, all of which are controlled under the 1971 Convention (EMCDDA, 2012). More recently developed phenethylamines are the third largest group of NPS monitored by the EMCDDA (EMCDDA, 2016b) and were one of the earliest NPS appearing on the market in the late 1980s (EMCDDA, 2009). NPS of the phenethylamine type include 4-fluoroamphetamine (4-FA), benzofurans (5-APB, 6-APB), substances of the 2C series (2C-B, 2C-E etc), and 2C-x-NBOMes (25B-NBOMe, 25C-NBOMe and 25I-NBOMe). Many were developed as psychotropic candidates for psychotherapy, but were never marketed due to adverse effects or lack of desired pharmaceutical effects. The chemist Alexander Shulgin, sometimes called the “godfather of psychedelics”, developed many phenethylamines. He described his work and personal experiences with these drugs in his book *Phenethylamines I Have Known And Loved* (PIHKAL), which was published in 1991 (Shulgin & Shulgin, 1991).

The prevalence of use depends on the specific phenethylamine and the population investigated. For example, the last year prevalence of MDMA use was around 2% among young adults (15–34 yrs, World Drug Report, 2016), whereas this was 46% among Dutch young adults (15–35 years) who went to clubs, parties or festivals in the last year. In that same group, the last year prevalence of 4-FA and 2C-B use was respectively 25% and 10% in 2016, indicating that the use of NPS of the phenethylamine type is closing in on use of older phenethylamines (Monshouwer et al., 2016).

3.3.2. Clinical effects

Exposure to phenethylamines results in stimulatory effects and, depending on the specific phenethylamine, entactogenic and/or psychedelic effects. For example, MDMA is well known for its entactogenic effects, such as intense feelings of euphoria, friendliness, comfort, intimacy, pleasure and empathy (for review see Green, Mechan, Elliott, Shea, & Colado, 2003; Capela et al., 2009). Desirable effects reported following 4-FA exposure overlap those of MDMA and the subjective effects following 4-FA exposure ranged between those of MDMA and amphetamine (Linsen et al., 2015). Exposure to NPS of the 2C series result in a combination of stimulatory and hallucinogenic effects (for review see Dean, Stellpflug, Burnett, & Engebretsen, 2013).

Adverse effects that have been reported following exposure to most phenethylamines include agitation, sympathomimetic toxicity (tachycardia, hypertension), hyperthermia, seizures, rhabdomyolysis and renal failure. Exposure to hallucinogenic phenethylamines (2C series, NBOMes) can also result in unpleasant hallucinations (for review see Green et al., 2003; Devlin & Henry, 2008; Dean et al., 2013;

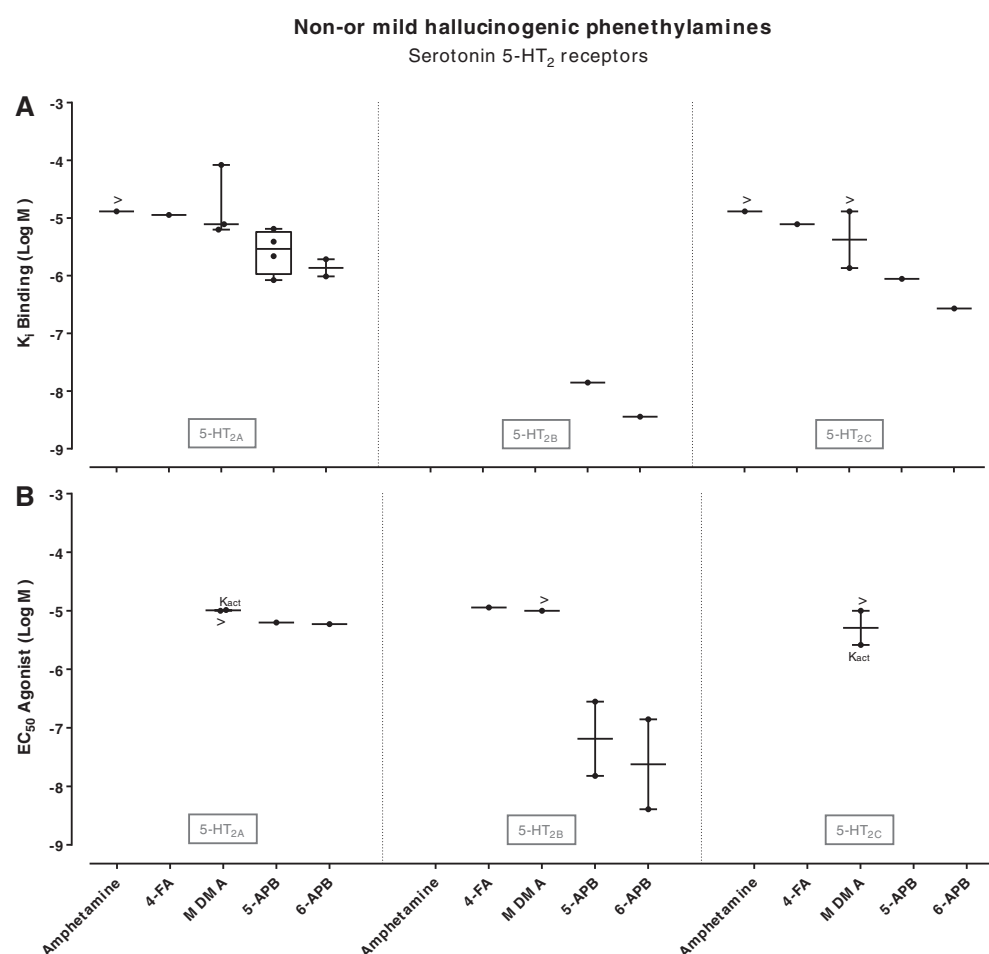


Fig. 7. Binding to and activation of 5-HT₂ receptors by different non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines. Graphs depict effects on binding (K_i ; A) and activation (EC_{50} ; B) of 5-HT_{2A} (left), 5-HT_{2B} (middle) and 5-HT_{2C} (right) receptors. > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, K_{act} : activation constant.

References: K_i binding: (Iversen et al., 2013; Simmler et al., 2013; Rickli, Hoener, et al., 2015; Eshleman et al., 2013; Dawson et al., 2014; Rickli, Kopf, et al., 2015). EC_{50} agonist: (Shimshoni et al., 2017; Nash, Roth, Brodtkin, Nichols, & Gudelsky, 1994; Rickli, Hoener, et al., 2015; Rickli, Kopf, et al., 2015; Iversen et al., 2013).

Halberstadt, 2017). For many phenethylamines that only recently entered the drug market, little scientific data on clinical effects is available. Recently, acute toxicity of 4-FA was reported and effects included agitation, severe headache, anxiety, tachycardia, hypertension, and chest pain. In several users, serious and sometimes life-threatening clinical conditions were reported, including severe cardiotoxicity, convulsions, cerebral hemorrhage and death, even following exposure to just one tablet (Hondebrink, Nugteren-van Lonkhuyzen, et al., 2017; Wijers, van Litsenburg, Hondebrink, Niesink, & Croes, 2017).

3.3.3. Mechanism of action

We distinguished two groups of phenethylamines to describe the mechanism of action; no or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines and hallucinogenic phenethylamines.

3.3.3.1. Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines (Amphetamine, 4-FA, MDMA, 5-APB and 6-APB). The primary mode of action of most non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines is inhibition and/or reversal of plasma membrane monoamine reuptake transporters (DAT, NET, SERT) (Table 1, Figs. 1, 3–4), which occurs at levels relevant for human exposure (Table 2). IC_{50} values for uptake overlap for most drugs and transporters, although most studies show more potent inhibition of NET and DAT by amphetamine and 4-FA, compared to MDMA, 5-APB and 6-APB. In contrast, SERT appears to be more potently inhibited by MDMA, 5-APB and 6-APB (Fig. 3).

The data on transporter-mediated release of monoamines shows a large variation. For example, release through DAT following

amphetamine exposure is reported at 10 nM (EC_{50}), while other studies reported no release at 100 μ M (Fig. 4). Looking at the lowest reported values for release, amphetamine, MDMA and 4-FA potentially induce release via DAT and NET (EC_{50} values 5–50 nM). MDMA also potentially induces release via SERT, while amphetamine and MDMA only do so at low micromolar levels. 5-APB and 6-APB do not result in release up to 100 μ M, although this was investigated in only one study (Supplemental Figs. 10–14).

The primary mode of action of 5-APB and 6-APB appears to be activation of the serotonin 5-HT_{2B} receptors (EC_{50} values low nanomolar range), while MDMA does not activate these receptors at 10 μ M. 4-FA has also been reported to activate 5-HT_{2B} receptors, although at a higher concentration (EC_{50} value low micromolar range; Fig. 7). In addition, 5-APB and 6-APB bind to α 2-adrenergic receptors with K_i values of respectively 500 nM and 50 nM. At higher concentrations, non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines also bind to other targets, including dopamine D1–3, serotonin 5-HT_{1A,2A,2C}, GABA_A and glutamatergic receptors (NMDA/Kainate/AMPA; Supplemental Figs. 10–14).

3.3.3.2. Hallucinogenic phenethylamines (2C-B, 25B-NBOMe, 25C-NBOMe, 25I-NBOMe). The most important mechanism of action of hallucinogenic phenethylamines appears to be activation of serotonin 5-HT_{2A,B,C} receptors (EC_{50} 1–100 nM, Fig. 8, Table 1). Serotonin 5-HT₂ receptors are G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) that upon activation increase the activity of phospholipase C and/or phospholipase D and phospholipase A2. Ultimately, this can result in

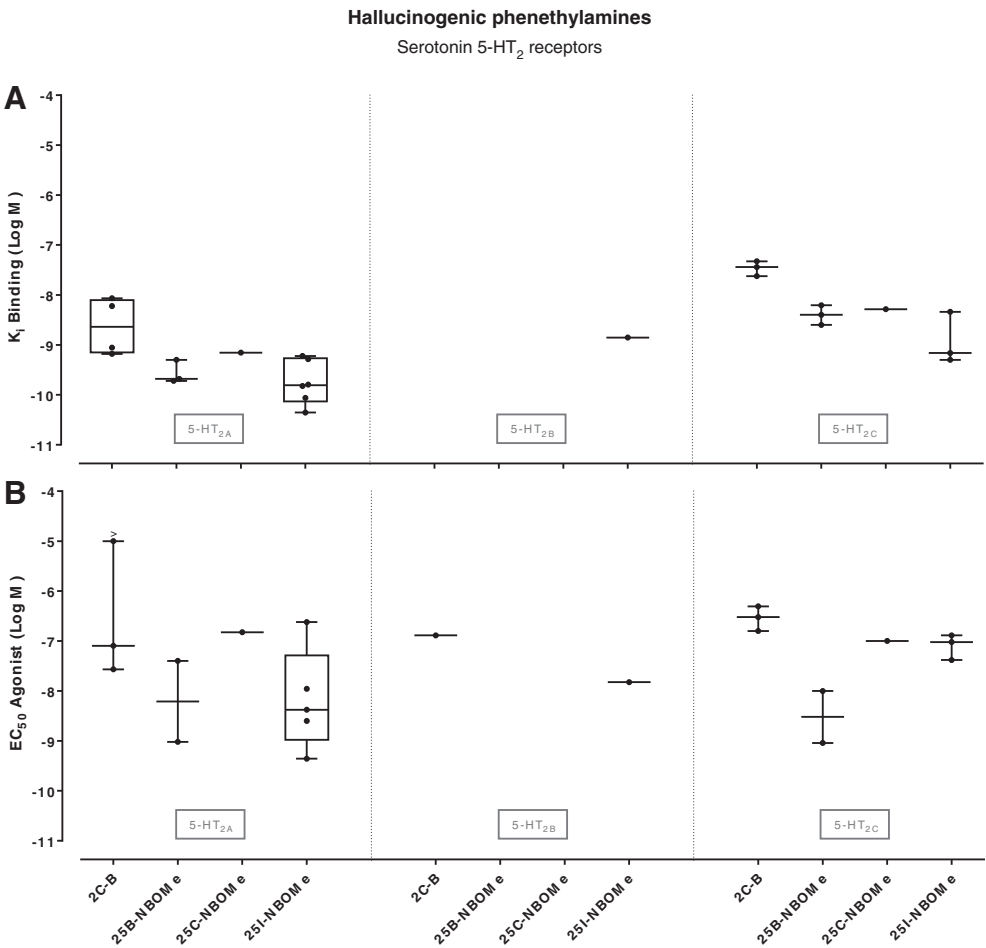


Fig. 8. Binding to and activation of 5-HT₂ receptors by different hallucinogenic phenethylamines Graphs depict effects on binding (K_i; A) and activation (EC₅₀; B) of 5-HT_{2A} (left), 5-HT_{2B} (middle) and 5-HT_{2C} (right) receptors. > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration.

References: K_i binding: (McLean et al., 2006; Rickli, Luethi, et al., 2015; Juncosa et al., 2013; Leth-Petersen et al., 2016; Braden, Parrish, Naylor, & Nichols, 2006; Nichols et al., 2015; Glennon et al., 1994). EC₅₀ agonist: (McLean et al., 2006; Rickli, Luethi, et al., 2015; Leth-Petersen et al., 2016; Braden et al., 2006; Nichols et al., 2015; Acuña-Castillo et al., 2002; Moya et al., 2007).

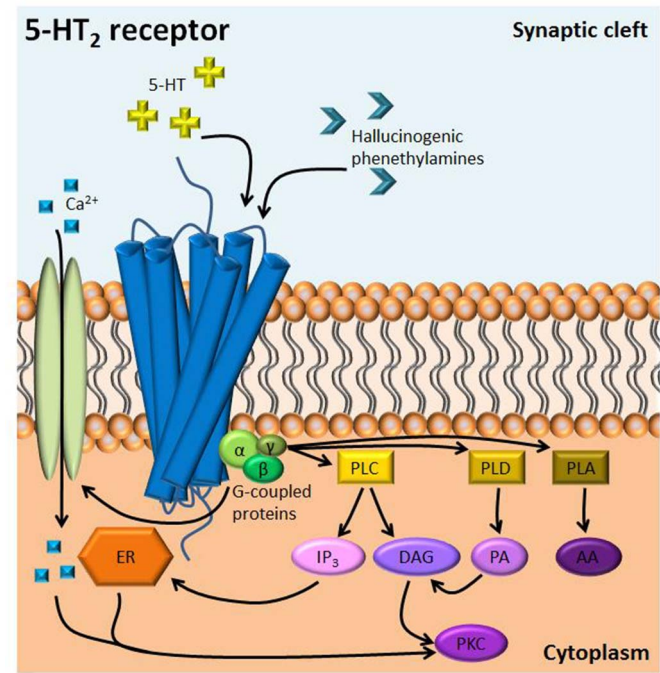


Fig. 9. Serotonin 5-HT₂ receptors. Serotonin 5-HT₂ receptors are G-protein-coupled receptors located in the (postsynaptic) cell membrane. Upon activation by endogenous serotonin or hallucinogenic phenethylamines, 5-HT₂ receptors increase the influx of Ca²⁺ and the activity of phospholipase C (PLC), phospholipase D (PLD) and/or phospholipase A (PLA). This results in an increase in inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃), diacylglycerol (DAG), phosphatidic acid (PA) and arachidonic acid (AA) as well as subsequent Ca²⁺ release from intracellular stores such as the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and activation of protein kinase C (PKC).

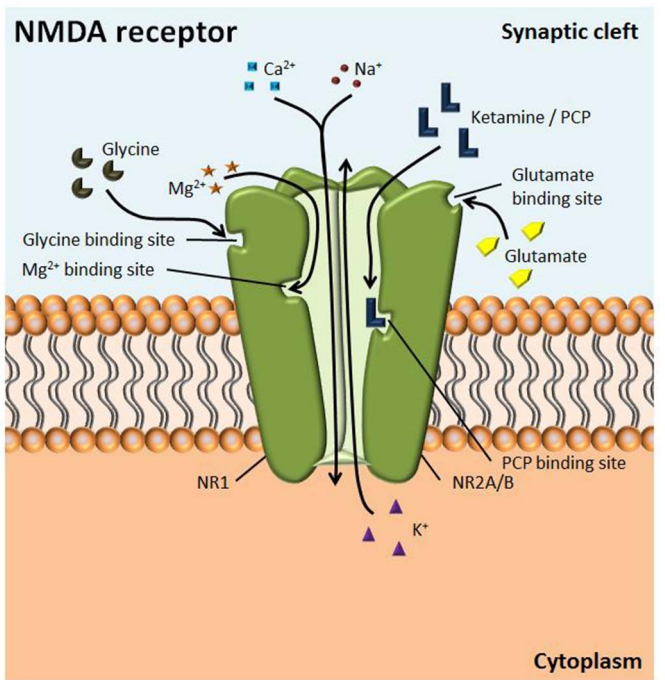


Fig. 10. NMDA receptors. NMDA receptors are ligand-gated, voltage-sensitive ionotropic receptors located in the (postsynaptic) cell membrane. Activation of NMDA receptors by endogenous glutamate or glycine results in membrane depolarization via the influx of Na⁺/Ca²⁺, efflux of K⁺, and subsequent activation of intracellular signaling pathways. Arylcyclohexylamines bind to the PCP binding site in the pore of the channel, thereby effectively preventing ion fluxes by physically blocking the pore.

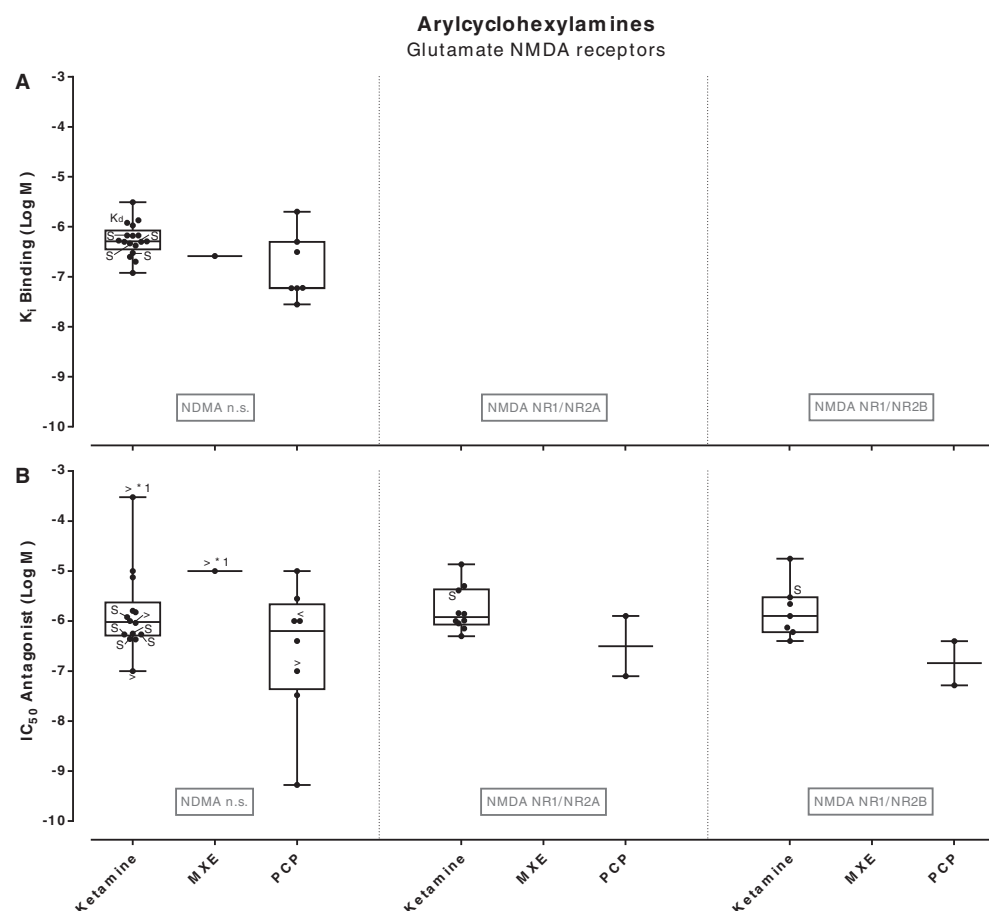


Fig. 11. Binding to and inhibition of NMDA receptors by different arylcyclohexylamines. Graphs depict effects on binding (K_d ; A) and inhibition (IC_{50} ; B) of NMDA receptors: n.s. non-specified (left), NR1/NR2A (middle) and NR1/NR2B (right). > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, K_d : dissociation constant, S: S-enantiomer of the drug. *1: glutamate n.s. References: K_d binding: (Bonifazi et al., 2015; Ebert, Mikkelsen, Thorkildsen, & Borgbjerg, 1997; Salat et al., 2015; Moaddel et al., 2013; Parsons et al., 1995; Roth et al., 2013; Seeman, Ko, & Tallerico, 2005; Gilling, Jatzke, Hechenberger, & Parsons, 2009; Makhro et al., 2016; Kapur & Seeman, 2002; Köhler, Bergander, Fabian, Schepmann, & Wünsch, 2012; Kang et al., 2017; Rammes, Rupprecht, Ferrari, Zieglgänsberger, & Parsons, 2001; Zanos et al., 2016; Morris et al., 2017). IC_{50} antagonist: (Drejer & Honoré, 1987; Emnett et al., 2013; Parsons et al., 1995; Parsons, 1996; Zanos et al., 2016; Orser, Pennefather, & MacDonald, 1997; Ebert et al., 1997; Pin, Van-Vliet, & Bockaert, 1988; Sekiguchi, Okamoto, & Sakai, 1990; Karasawa et al., 2002; Wang & Takigawa, 2002; Gilling et al., 2009; Heusler, Tourette, & Cussac, 2015; Brosnan & Pham, 2011; Emnett et al., 2015; Liu, Hollmann, Hoenemann, Liu, & Durieux, 2001; Zarantonello et al., 2011; Ogata et al., 2006; Yamakura et al., 2005; Rammes et al., 2001; Yamakura, Sakimura, & Shimoi, 2000; Hondebrink, Kasteel, et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2017; Glasgow, Povysheva, Azofeifa, & Johnson, 2017).

increases in intracellular Ca^{2+} and activation of PKC and intracellular signaling pathways (Millan, Marin, & Mannoury la Cour, 2008; Fig. 9). Serotonin 5-HT₂ receptors play important roles in the (central) nervous and cardiovascular system and dysfunction can result in depression, psychosis, addiction and impulsivity as well as hypertension and cardiac failure (Maroteaux et al., 2017). The hallucinogenic effects evoked by phenethylamines are primarily due to activation of the 5-HT_{2A} receptor (Nichols, 2004). For 2C-B, two studies reported activation of the 5-HT_{2A} receptor (EC_{50} 27 and 80 nM), while one study reported inhibition (IC_{50} 5 nM) and another study reported no effect at 10 μ M. All NBOMes also potentially activate serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptors (low nanomolar range). Also, 2C-B and the NBOMes all activate 5-HT_{2C} receptors in the low nanomolar range. 2C-B and 25I-NBOMe also potentially activate 5-HT_{2B} receptors. In addition to effects on 5-HT₂ receptors, hallucinogenic phenethylamines also inhibit uptake of monoamine reuptake transporters, although less potent than the non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines. Of the hallucinogenic phenethylamines, the NBOMes most potently inhibit SERT and NET (IC_{50} ~10 μ M; Table 1, Supplemental Figs. 15–18).

For some hallucinogenic phenethylamines binding to other targets is described, including dopamine D1-3 and serotonin 5-HT_{1,3,5,6,7} receptors, although mostly at higher concentrations (K_i values of 250 nM - 10 μ M). However, 25I-NBOMe potently binds to serotonin 5-HT₆ receptors (K_i value ~30 nM). Hallucinogenic phenethylamines also bind more potently than most non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines to α -adrenergic receptors (K_i < 1 μ M; Table 1, Supplemental Figs. 15–18).

3.4. Arylcyclohexylamines

3.4.1. Introduction

The first arylcyclohexylamines were synthesized and used in a clinical setting in the 1960's and 1970's. The most well-known arylcyclohexylamine is probably ketamine (2-(2-chlorophenyl)-2-(methylamino)-cyclohexanone), also known as 'Special K' or just 'K'. Ketamine is a water soluble phencyclidine (PCP, also known as 'angel dust') derivative that in the past 50 years has been used as a general (and dissociative) anesthetic and in pain management (Chen & Malek, 2015; Sinner & Graf, 2008) as well as in the treatment of several disorders, in particular depression (Sassano-Higgins, Baron, Juarez, Esmaili, & Gold, 2016; Singh et al., 2017; Xu & Lei, 2014). However, by blocking the NMDA receptors, ketamine was reported to produce schizophrenia-like symptoms in healthy adults and to worsen symptoms in schizophrenics (Corazza, Assi, & Schifano, 2013; Javitt, 2004). Just like PCP (Grayson et al., 2016; Mouri, Noda, Enomoto, & Nabeshima, 2007), ketamine has therefore been used for decades to produce rodent models of schizophrenia (Javitt, 2004; Moghaddam & Krystal, 2012). The schizophrenia-like effects of PCP and ketamine not only limit their clinical use, but likely initiated their recreational use. When recreationally used, ketamine is preferably administered by insufflation and to a lesser extent by smoking or injecting (intramuscularly or occasionally intravenously).

PCP is often smoked in combination with tobacco or marijuana and its recreational use has been fluctuating strongly. It was heavily used in the 1960s and '70s (Lodge & Mercier, 2015), after which its use strongly

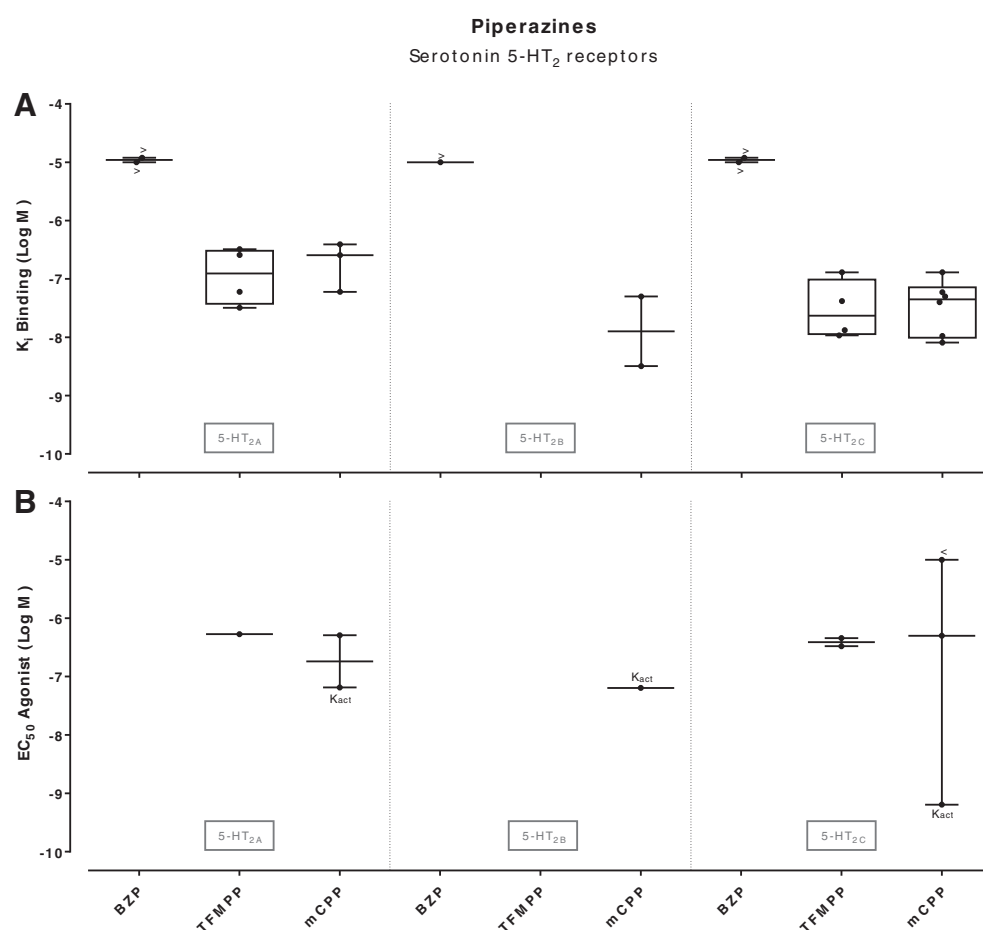


Fig. 12. Binding to and activation of 5-HT₂ receptors by different piperazines. Graphs depict effects on binding (K_i ; A) and activation (EC_{50} ; B) for 5-HT_{2A} (left), 5-HT_{2B} (middle) and 5-HT_{2C} (right) receptors. > : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, < : effect size larger than 50% at this concentration, K_{act} : activation constant.

References: K_i binding: (Simmler, Rickli, Schramm, et al., 2014; Grotewiel, Chu, & Sanders-Bush, 1994; Titeler, Lyon, Davis, & Glennon, 1987; Rothman et al., 2000; Thomas, Gager, Holland, Brown, & Wood, 1996; Quirk et al., 2001; Katz et al., in press). EC_{50} agonist: (Grotewiel et al., 1994; Rothman et al., 2000; Berg et al., 1998; Akiyoshi, Isogawa, Yamada, Nagayama, & Fujii, 1996).

declined. However, it seems that PCP is regaining popularity as the number of PCP-related emergency department visits increased more than 4-fold between 2005–2011 (Bush, 2013). Similarly, ketamine abuse was limited until it became a popular drug on the ‘rave’ scene in the 1990s. Its popularity increased and a survey among people who went to parties or festivals in the last year in the UK showed that in 2001 25% of the respondents had ever used ketamine, a number that increased up to 68% in 2009. While this percentage is lower in other countries (e.g., 40% in Australia in 2008), ketamine use is widespread in the party scene worldwide, including Asia where it is becoming the drug of choice among young drug users (Kalsi, Wood, & Dargan, 2011; Liu, Lin, Wu, & Zhou, 2016; Morgan & Curran, 2011). Outside the club scene, the prevalence of use is much lower. Last year prevalence among young people (16–24 year) in the UK was around 2%, which is comparable to the US and Canada (Kalsi et al., 2011; Morgan & Curran, 2011).

While ketamine and PCP have an extensive history as a drug of abuse, the ketamine analogue methoxetamine ((RS)-2-(ethylamino)-2-(3-methoxyphenyl)cyclohexanone) entered the drug market as an NPS only in 2010. Methoxetamine, also known as ‘MXE’, ‘Special M’, ‘M-Ket’ and ‘MEXXY’, was specifically designed to have greater potency at lower doses than ketamine in an attempt to create a ‘bladder-friendly’ ketamine substitute (Zanda, Fadda, Chiamulera, Fratta, & Fattore, 2016; Zawilska, 2014b). Administration of MXE occurs predominantly by insufflation and oral consumption. It rapidly gained popularity with a life-time prevalence around 5% in the US and the UK. Among ketamine users, lifetime prevalence even amounts to 28% (US: 2012) and 13% (UK: 2012) among ketamine users (Lawn, Borschmann, Cottrell, & Winstock, 2014).

3.4.2. Clinical effects

At low recreational doses, ketamine and PCP induce ‘giggles’, hallucinations, mild dissociative effects and ‘out of body experiences’. At high doses, ketamine induces more severe psychotropic effects (known as the “K-hole”) that can range from vivid dreams and hallucinations, to flashbacks, confusion, dissociation, depersonalization and in more severe cases to psychosis and near-death experiences (Corazza et al., 2013; Morgan & Curran, 2011). PCP is additionally known for its tendency to induce aggression and violent behavior as well as psychosis, seizures and coma at higher doses (Bush, 2013).

Due to its wide therapeutic range, death and non-fatal emergencies attributed to ketamine use are relatively rare (Kalsi et al., 2011; Morgan & Curran, 2011). Nevertheless, the number of ketamine-related deaths has increased 10-fold in the UK from 1999 to 2008 (Morgan & Curran, 2011) and severe clinical effects have been reported, including impaired consciousness, tachycardia, chest pain and temporary paralysis (Corazza et al., 2013; Morgan & Curran, 2011; Sassano-Higgins et al., 2016). In addition to these acute symptoms, a range of chronic symptoms has been described, including ulcerative cystitis, intense abdominal pain (known as ‘K-cramps’), kidney dysfunction and urinary tract damage, psychosis, and cognitive impairment (Bokor & Anderson, 2014; Corazza et al., 2013; Morgan & Curran, 2011; Sassano-Higgins et al., 2016; Xu & Lei, 2014). However, as ketamine is often used in combination with other drugs such as ethanol, gamma-hydroxybutyrate (GHB), cocaine or MDMA (Kalsi et al., 2011; Morgan & Curran, 2011), it is difficult to ascribe clinical symptoms specifically to a single compound.

As a dissociative anesthetic, MXE produces similar but longer lasting subjective effects as ketamine, including derealization and ‘out of body

Table 1
Effect fingerprint of different (classes of) NPS and other drugs. Drugs are grouped in cathinones, cannabinoids, (non- or mild) hallucinogenic phenethylamines, arylcyclohexylamines, and piperazines. Targets are grouped by effects on monoamine reuptake transporters, receptors and ion channels. The lowest reported drug concentration (log M) that affects the target is listed. For all reported effect concentrations see Figs. 3, 4, 6–8, 11, 12 and Supplemental Figs. 2–24. Colors represent the potency of a drug to affect a specific target; green (> -5.0 M), yellow (-5.1 to -6.0 M), orange (-6.1 to -7.0 M) and red (-7.1 to -10.0 M).

Drug classification:				Cathinones				Cannabinoids	Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines				Hallucinogenic phenethylamines				Arylcyclohexylamines				Piperazines																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																													
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-5.0 ⁴⁶⁷	> -5.0 ⁴⁶⁸	> -5.0 ⁴⁶⁹	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁰	> -5.0 ⁴⁷¹	> -5.0 ⁴⁷²	> -5.0 ⁴⁷³	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁴	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁵	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁶	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁷	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁸	> -5.0 ⁴⁷⁹	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁰	> -5.0 ⁴⁸¹	> -5.0 ⁴⁸²	> -5.0 ⁴⁸³	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁴	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁵	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁶	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁷	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁸	> -5.0 ⁴⁸⁹	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁰	> -5.0 ⁴⁹¹	> -5.0 ⁴⁹²	> -5.0 ⁴⁹³	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁴	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁵	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁶	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁷	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁸	> -5.0 ⁴⁹⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁰¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁰²	> -5.0 ⁵⁰³	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁰⁹	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁰	> -5.0 ⁵¹¹	> -5.0 ⁵¹²	> -5.0 ⁵¹³	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁴	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁵	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁶	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁷	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁸	> -5.0 ⁵¹⁹	> -5.0 ⁵²⁰	> -5.0 ⁵²¹	> -5.0 ⁵²²	> -5.0 ⁵²³	> -5.0 ⁵²⁴	> -5.0 ⁵²⁵	> -5.0 ⁵²⁶	> -5.0 ⁵²⁷	> -5.0 ⁵²⁸	> -5.0 ⁵²⁹	> -5.0 ⁵³⁰	> -5.0 ⁵³¹	> -5.0 ⁵³²	> -5.0 ⁵³³	> -5.0 ⁵³⁴	> -5.0 ⁵³⁵	> -5.0 ⁵³⁶	> -5.0 ⁵³⁷	> -5.0 ⁵³⁸	> -5.0 ⁵³⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁴¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁴²	> -5.0 ⁵⁴³	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁴⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁵¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁵²	> -5.0 ⁵⁵³	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁵⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁶¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁶²	> -5.0 ⁵⁶³	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁶⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁷¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁷²	> -5.0 ⁵⁷³	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁷⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁸¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁸²	> -5.0 ⁵⁸³	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁸⁹	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁰	> -5.0 ⁵⁹¹	> -5.0 ⁵⁹²	> -5.0 ⁵⁹³	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁴	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁵	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁶	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁷	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁸	> -5.0 ⁵⁹⁹	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁰	> -5.0 ⁶⁰¹	> -5.0 ⁶⁰²	> -5.0 ⁶⁰³	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁴	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁵	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁶	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁷	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁸	> -5.0 ⁶⁰⁹	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁰	> -5.0 ⁶¹¹	> -5.0 ⁶¹²	> -5.0 ⁶¹³	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁴	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁵	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁶	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁷	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁸	> -5.0 ⁶¹⁹	> -5.0 ⁶²⁰	> -5.0 ⁶²¹	> -5.0 ⁶²²	> -5.0 ⁶²³	> -5.0 ⁶²⁴	> -5.0 ⁶²⁵	> -5.0 ⁶²⁶	> -5.0 ⁶²⁷	> -5.0 ⁶²⁸	> -5.0 ⁶²⁹	> -5.0 ⁶³⁰	> -5.0 ⁶³¹	> -5.0 ⁶³²	> -5.0 ⁶³³	> -5.0 ⁶³⁴	> -5.0 ⁶³⁵	> -5.0 ⁶³⁶	> -5.0 ⁶³⁷	> -5.0 ⁶³⁸	> -5.0 ⁶³⁹	> -5.0 ⁶⁴⁰

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Drug classification:					Cathinones				Cannabinoids	Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines			Hallucinogenic phenethylamines				Arylcyclohexylamines		Piperazines					
> 5.0 M	5.1 – 6.0 M	6.1 – 7.0 M	7.1 – 8.0 M	> 8.1 M	Mephedrone	4-MEC	Pentetronone	MDPV	α-PVP	THC	JWH-018	Amphetamine			2C-B	25B-NBOMe	25C-NBOMe	25I-NBOMe	Ketamine	MXE	PCP	BZP	TFMPP	mCPP
Receptors																								
5-HT ₁	n.s.	1a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	K _i Binding	1b	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		1d	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		1e	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		1f	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	IC ₅₀ Binding	1a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
5-HT ₂	n.s.	1a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	K _i Binding	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2b	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2c	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		IC ₅₀ Binding	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	EC ₅₀ Agonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
5-HT ₃	n.s.	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	IC ₅₀ Antagonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2b	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2c	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		IC ₅₀ Binding	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	EC ₅₀ Agonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
5-HT ₄	n.s.	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	IC ₅₀ Antagonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2b	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2c	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		IC ₅₀ Binding	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	EC ₅₀ Agonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
5-HT ₇	n.s.	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	IC ₅₀ Antagonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2b	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		2c	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
		IC ₅₀ Binding	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ¹⁰	> -5.0 ¹⁰
	EC ₅₀ Agonist	2a	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ¹²	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0 ⁶	> -5.0									

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Table 1 (continued)

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Table 1 (continued)

Drug classification:				Cathinones			Cannabinoids	Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines			Hallucinogenic phenethylamines			Arylcyclohexylamines		Piperazines											
GABA _A	> 5.0 M	5.1 – 6.0 M	6.1 – 7.0 M	7.1 – 8.0 M	> 8.1 M	Mephedrone	4-MEC	Pentetrone	MDPV	α-PVP	THC	JWH-018	Amphetamine	4-FA	MDMA	5-APB	6-APB	2C-B	25B-NBOMe	25C-NBOMe	25I-NBOMe	Ketamine	MXE	PCP	BZP	TFMPP	mCPP
	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
GABA _B	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
NMDA	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
AMPA	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Kainate	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
mACh	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
nACh	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

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(Grotewiel et al., 1994),⁶⁸; (Nash et al., 1994),⁶⁹; (Moya et al., 2007),⁷⁰; (Berg et al., 1998),⁷¹; (Dawson et al., 2014),⁷²; (Villalobos, Bull, Sáez, Cassels, & Huidobro-Toro, 2004),⁷³; (Thomas et al., 1996),⁷⁴; (Appadu & Lambert, 1996),⁷⁵; (Kilpatrick, Jones, & Tyers, 1987),⁷⁶; (Ramirez et al., 2001),⁷⁷; (Wood, Chaubey, Atkinson, & Thomas, 2000),⁷⁸; (Bevan, Rose, & Duggan, 1997),⁷⁹; (Hara, Yamakura, Sata, & Harris, 2005),⁸⁰; (Wang, Penna, & Orser, 2017),⁸¹; (Hevers, Hadley, Lu, & Amin, 2008),⁸²; (De Luca et al., 2015),⁸³; (Hondebrink et al., 2015),⁸⁴; (Bonifazi et al., 2015),⁸⁵; (Kang et al., 2017),⁸⁶; (Drejer & Honoré, 1987),⁸⁷; (Orser et al., 1997),⁸⁸; (Sekiguchi et al., 1990),⁸⁹; (Emmett et al., 2015),⁹⁰; (Heusler et al., 2015),⁸⁹⁰; (Glasgow et al., 2017),⁹²; (Hirota, Hashimoto, & Lambert, 2002),⁹³; (Aronstam, Narayanan, & Wenger, 1982),⁹⁴; (Brog & Beinfeld, 1990),⁹⁵; (Weber et al., 2005),⁹⁶; (Durieux, 1995),⁹⁷; (Arias, Feuerbach, Targowska-Duda, & Jozwiak, 2010),⁹⁸; (Makhro et al., 2016),⁹⁹; (Hondebrink et al., 2012),¹⁰⁰; (Salgado, 2016),¹⁰¹; (Moaddel et al., 2013),¹⁰²; (Abdrakhmanova et al., 2010),¹⁰³; (Coates & Flood, 2001),¹⁰⁴; (Connolly, Boulter, & Heinemann, 1992),¹⁰⁵; (Yamakura, Chavez-Noriega, & Harris, 2000),¹⁰⁶; (Flood & Krasowski, 2000),¹⁰⁷; (Eaton, Labarca, & Eterovic, 2000),¹⁰⁸; (Iwamura et al., 2001),¹⁰⁹; (Seely et al., 2012),¹¹⁰; (Aung et al., 2000),¹¹¹; (Rinaldi-Carmona et al., 1994),¹¹²; (Ford et al., 2017),¹¹³; (Felder et al., 1995),¹¹⁴; (Rajasekaran et al., 2013),¹¹⁵; (Meng et al., 2012),¹¹⁶; (Imatien, Wang, Venkatesan, et al., 2002),¹¹⁷; (Rogawski, Pleniek, Suzuki, & Ffrench-Mullen, 1988),¹¹⁸; (Ffrench-Mullen & Rogawski, 1989),¹¹⁹; (Hirota & Lambert, 1996),¹²⁰; (Hondebrink, Meulenbelt, Timmerman, Van Den Berg, & Westerink, 2009),¹²¹; (Hatakeyama, Yamazaki, Shibuya, Yamamura, & Momose, 2001),¹²²; (Hondebrink, Kasteel, et al., 2017),¹²³; (Ffrench-Mullen & Rogawski, 1992),¹²⁴; (Dupas, Cloëz, & Fillion, 1991),¹²⁵; (Hondebrink, Meulenbelt, Meijer, et al., 2011),¹²⁶; (Stenovec et al., 2016),¹²⁷; (Hoffman et al., 2017),¹²⁸; (Hondebrink et al., 2016),¹²⁹; (Antkowiak, 1995),¹³⁰; (Den Hollander et al., 2015),¹³¹; (Valente et al., 2017),¹³²; (Liu et al., 2013),¹³³; (Arbo et al., 2016),¹³⁴; (Den Hollander et al., 2014),¹³⁵; (Wojcieszak, Andrzejczak, Woldan-Tambor, & Zawilska, 2016),¹³⁶; (Toniyama & Funada, 2014),¹³⁷; (Sinner, Friedrich, Zink, Zausig, & Graf, 2011),¹³⁸; (Adachi et al., 2013),¹³⁹; (Kolanos, Partilla, et al., 2015),¹⁴⁰; (Baumann et al., 2002),¹⁴²; (Rothman & Baumann, 2002),¹⁴³; (Pashkov & Hemmings, 2002),¹⁴⁴; (Uryu et al., 2000),¹⁴⁵; (Hondebrink, Meulenbelt, van Kleef, van den Berg, & Westerink, 2011),¹⁴⁶; (Imatien, Wang, Chang, & Andresen, 2002),¹⁴⁸; (Mantz, Delumeau, Cordier, & Petit, 1994),¹⁴⁹; (Nakanishi et al., 2007).

experiences' as well as euphoria, feelings of peacefulness and increased empathy and social interaction. However, the slow onset of the desired effects increases the risk of overdosing (Corazza et al., 2013; Zanda et al., 2016; Zawilska, 2014b). Despite being on the market only since 2010, MXE has already been implicated in a number of fatal and numerous non-fatal intoxications (EMCDDA, 2014; Zanda et al., 2016; Zawilska, 2014b). Clinical symptoms of MXE include reduced ability to focus and concentrate, impaired motor coordination, tremor and in more severe cases anxiety, hypertension, tachycardia and sometimes death (Corazza et al., 2013; Zanda et al., 2016; Zawilska, 2014b).

3.4.3. Mechanism of action

Due to their clinical use, ketamine and to a lesser extent PCP, are among the best studied illicit drugs. Ketamine and PCP are primarily known for their antagonistic effect on NMDA receptors, which is mediated by binding to the PCP binding site (Sinner & Graf, 2008). NMDA receptors are ionotropic glutamate receptors that upon activation allow for the influx of Na^+ and to a lesser extent Ca^{2+} . As a result, NMDA receptors activation causes depolarization and subsequent activation of intracellular signaling pathways (Fig. 10), which are essential in controlling synaptic plasticity, learning and memory (Bouvier, Bidoret, Casado, & Paoletti, 2015; Iacobucci & Popescu, 2017).

Both ketamine and PCP are potent antagonists of both NR2A and NR2B containing NMDA receptors, with IC_{50} s in the low and sub-micromolar range (Table 1, Fig. 11). In addition to this presumed primary mode of action, ketamine and PCP have multiple additional targets. For example, ketamine and PCP bind to and activate dopamine D2 receptors in the nanomolar range, though binding affinity for the other dopamine receptor subtypes seems limited and is hardly investigated. Additionally, ketamine is a modest (micromolar range) inhibitor of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nACh), VGCC, voltage-gated sodium channels (VGSC), and the monoamine reuptake transporters (DAT, NET and SERT). On the other hand, ketamine has (very) limited binding affinity for 5-HT receptors, α - and β -adrenergic receptors, GABA_A receptors, M1-5 muscarinic acetylcholine receptors and CB1 receptors (Table 1, Supplemental Fig. 19).

Similarly, PCP, although slightly less well-studied, has modest (micromolar range) binding affinity for 5-HT₂ receptors and the monoamine reuptake transporters DAT, NET and SERT. Moreover, PCP is reported to be a modest (micromolar range) inhibitor of nACh and VGCCs (Table 1, Supplemental Fig. 21).

In strong contrast to ketamine and PCP, MXE effects have hardly been studied. Recent studies indicate that MXE potently inhibits neuronal activity (IC_{50} values $< 1 \mu\text{M}$) and potently binds to NMDA receptors (submicromolar affinity) and SERT (submicromolar affinity). Additionally, MXE inhibits DAT, SERT and NET (micromolar range), but has very limited effects on GABA_A- and nACh-receptors and VGCCs (Table 1, Supplemental Fig. 20).

3.5. Piperazines

3.5.1. Introduction

Piperazine derivatives are a class of substances that contain a piperazine ring within their chemical structure. Piperazine was originally developed as an anthelmintic and is also included in the chemical structure of many prescription medicines, such as antidepressants and antipsychotics. In addition, piperazine derivatives can be formed during metabolism of prescription medicines, e.g., mCPP is synthesized during metabolism of trazodone and nefazodone (Rotzinger, Fang, Coutts, & Baker, 1998). Misuse of piperazine derivatives as NPS started in New Zealand and became popular NPS in Europe in 2004 (EMCDDA, 2015b). They were often sold as ecstasy pills, but also under different names, such as "Rapture," "Frenzy," "Bliss," "Charge," "Herbal ecstasy," "A2," "Legal X" and "Legal E". Derivatives most frequently reported include BZP, TFMP and mCPP (Arbo, Bastos, & Carmo, 2012). Compared to other classes of NPS, the number of new piperazines reported annually

Table 2

Estimated brain concentrations of illicit drugs and NPS. Estimated brain concentrations were calculated using human blood, serum, or plasma concentrations and brain partitioning factors (BPF) found in literature. All human serum, **blood** (bold reference number) or plasma (underlined) concentrations were obtained from recreational use doses (voluntary intake, driving under the influence or accidental non-fatal intoxications). BPFs were based on human, **rat** (bold) or *mouse* (italic) data from which blood/brain, plasma/brain (underlined) or serum/brain (double underlined) partition coefficients were calculated. When no BPF was found in literature (*; 4-MEC, 5-APB, 6-APB and BZP) a value of 1 was used since most BPFs are > 1.

Group	Drug	Serum concentration (μM)	Brain partitioning factor (BPF)	Estimated brain concentration (μM)	Estimated relevant test concentration (μM)
Cathinones	Mephedrone	0.1–6 ^{1,2,3}	5.6–6.2 ⁴	0.6–37	< 100
	4-MEC	0.2–1.8 ^{1,5}	1 [*]	0.2–1.8	< 10
	Pentedrone	0.04–1.9 ^{1,6}	1.6 ⁷	0.1–3.0	< 10
	Methylone	0.01–18 ^{1,8,9}	1.4–2.0 ^{8,10}	0.01–36	< 100
	MDPV	0.02–6.9 ^{1,11,12,13}	0.8–4.4 ^{12,14}	0.02–30	< 100
	α-PVP	0.01–2.6 ^{15,16}	0.1–0.8 ^{7,17}	0.001–2.1	< 10
Cannabinoids	THC	0.001–0.1 ^{18,19}	2.7–3.5 ²⁰	0.003–0.4	< 1
	JWH-018	0.001–0.03 ^{21,22,23}	1.4–16 ^{24,25}	0.001–0.5	< 1
Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines	Amphetamine	0.04–28 ^{26,27,28}	8.6–12 ^{29,30,31}	0.3–336	< 1000
	4-FA	0.03–3.8 ^{32,33}	3.2 ³⁴	0.1–12	< 100
	MDMA	0.1–14 ^{28,35,36}	2.3–32 ^{37,38,39}	0.2–448	< 1000
	5-APB	0.01–0.2 ⁴⁰	1 [*]	0.1–0.2	< 1
	6-APB	1.1 ⁴¹	1 [*]	1.1	< 10
Hallucinogenic phenethylamines	2C-B	0.01–0.1 ⁴²	6.6–15 ⁴³	0.1–1.5	< 10
	25B-NBOMe	0.0004–0.03 ^{44,45}	10 ⁴⁶	0.004–0.3	< 1
	25C-NBOMe	0.001–0.002 ^{47,48}	4.7–9.8 ^{48,49}	0.005–0.02	< 0.1
	25I-NBOMe	0.001–0.1 ^{50,51}	7.2 ⁵²	0.01–0.7	< 1
Arylcyclohexyl-amines	Ketamine	0.04–7.6 ^{53,54}	2.5–4.0 ^{55,56}	0.1–30	< 100
	MXE	0.04–2.1 ^{57,58,59}	2.1–2.9 ⁶⁰	0.1–6.1	< 10
	PCP	0.02–0.8 ^{61,62}	9.0 ⁶³	0.2–7.2	< 10
	BZP	0.2–36 ^{64,65,66}	1 [*]	0.2–36	< 100
Piperazines	TFMPP	0.3–1.2 ^{64,67}	74 ⁶⁸	22–89	< 100
	mCPP	0.1–1.6 ^{42,69}	17–53 ^{68,70,71,72,73,73}	1.7–85	< 100

¹: (Elliott & Evans, 2014), ²: (Wood et al., 2010), ³: (Cosbey, Peters, Quinn, & Bentley, 2013), ⁴: (Hadlock et al., 2011), ⁵: (Férec et al., 2013), ⁶: (Expert committee on drug dependence, 2016), ⁷: (Sykutera, Cychowska, & Bloch-Boguslawska, 2015), ⁸: (DeRoux & Dunn, 2017), ⁹: (Cawrse et al., 2012), ¹⁰: (López-Arnau et al., 2012), ¹¹: (Thornton, Geron, & Tomaszewski, 2012), ¹²: (Marinetti & Antonides, 2013), ¹³: (Krikkku, Wilhelm, Schwarz, & Rintatalo, 2011), ¹⁴: (Wyman et al., 2013), ¹⁵: (Beck, Franzén, Bäckberg, Signell, & Helander, 2016), ¹⁶: (Adamowicz et al., 2016b), ¹⁷: (Hasegawa et al., 2014), ¹⁸: (Daldrop & Mußhoff, 1993), ¹⁹: (Khiabani, Bramness, Bjorneboe, & Morland, 2006), ²⁰: (Hartung, Kaufenstein, Ritz-Timme, & Daldrop, 2014), ²¹: (Mußhoff et al., 2014), ²²: (Yeakel & Logan, 2013), ²³: (Kneisel & Auwärter, 2012), ²⁴: (Poklis et al., 2012), ²⁵: (Wielbelhaus et al., 2012), ²⁶: (Lee, Song, Hwang, & Chou, 2000), ²⁷: (Gustavsen, Morland, & Bramness, 2006), ²⁸: (Senna et al., 2010), ²⁹: (Rivière, Gentry, & Owens, 2000), ³⁰: (White et al., 2014), ³¹: (Hendrickson, Laurenzana, & Owens, 2006), ³²: (Röhrich, Becker, Kaufmann, Zörntlein, & Urban, 2012), ³³: (Karinen & Hoiseith, 2017), ³⁴: (Shiue et al., 1993), ³⁵: (Morefield, Keane, Felgate, White, & Irvine, 2011), ³⁶: (Augsburger et al., 2005), ³⁷: (Mueller, Yuan, & Felim, 2009), ³⁸: (García-Repetto et al., 2003), ³⁹: (De Letter, Bouche, Van Boclaer, Lambert, & Piette, 2004), ⁴⁰: (Welter, Kavanagh, Meyer, & Maurer, 2015), ⁴¹: (Férec et al., 2014), ⁴²: (Adamowicz et al., 2016a), ⁴³: (Rohanová, Páleníček, & Balíková, 2008), ⁴⁴: (Poklis, Nanco, Troendle, Wolf, & Poklis, 2014), ⁴⁵: (Gee, Schep, Jensen, Moore, & Barrington, 2016), ⁴⁶: Shintani-Ishida, Saka, Nakamura, Yoshida, & Ikegaya, in press), ⁴⁷: (Rose, Poklis, & Poklis, 2013), ⁴⁸: (Kristofic et al., 2016), ⁴⁹: (Wardwell et al., 2015), ⁵⁰: (Poklis, Charles, Wolf, & Poklis, 2013), ⁵¹: (Hermanns-Clausen, Angerer, Kithinji, Grunmann, & Auwärter, 2017), ⁵²: (Poklis, Devers, et al., 2014), ⁵³: (Abbara et al., 2017), ⁵⁴: (Cheng & Dao, 2017), ⁵⁵: (Moore et al., 1997), ⁵⁶: (Hartvig et al., 1995), ⁵⁷: (Wood, Davies, Puchaniewicz, Johnston, & Dargan, 2012), ⁵⁸: (Wikström, Thelander, Dahlgren, & Kronstrand, 2013), ⁵⁹: (Elian & Hackett, 2014), ⁶⁰: (Horsley et al., 2016), ⁶¹: (Walberg, McCarron, & Schulze, 1983), ⁶²: (Kunsmann, Levine, Costantino, & Smith, 1997), ⁶³: (Jackson, 1989), ⁶⁴: (Wood et al., 2008), ⁶⁵: (Gee et al., 2008), ⁶⁶: (Button et al., 2006), ⁶⁷: (Elliott, 2011), ⁶⁸: (Caccia, Fong, Garattini, & Notarnicola, 1985), ⁶⁹: (Kovaleva, Devuyt, De Paepe, & Verstraete, 2008), ⁷⁰: (Ulrichsen, Partilla, & Dax, 1992), ⁷¹: (DeVane, Boulton, Miller, & Miller, 1999), ⁷²: (Caccia, Ballabio, Fanelli, Guiso, & Zanini, 1981), ⁷³: (Nacca, Guiso, Fracasso, Cervo, & Caccia, 1998).

to monitoring agencies is very low; in 2015 only 3 piperazines were reported for the first time (EMCDDA, 2016b). Prevalence data on the use of piperazines is very limited, outdated and scattered. In Spain, the last year prevalence of use was below 1% from 2010–2013, while BZP was used in the last year by 13% of the New Zealand youth (16–17 yrs) in 2008 (World Drug Report, 2016). In the UK, a last year prevalence use of BZP use among people regularly going to (dance) clubs was reported to be 12% and 5% in 2010 and 2011 respectively (EMCDDA, 2015b).

3.5.2. Clinical effects

Desirable effects reported following BZP exposure include stimulatory effects, euphoria and increased sociability (Lin, Bangs, Lee, Kydd, & Russell, 2009). The stimulant effects of BZP are milder than those of methamphetamine, and when combined with TFMPP, the euphoria and entactogenic effects perceived are similar to that induced by MDMA. TFMPP alone produces mild stimulant and hallucinogenic effects, as does mCPP. At higher doses of BZP, hallucinogenic effects are also reported. Adverse effects following BZP exposure include anxiety, agitation, confusion, headache, palpitations, tachycardia, hypertension, chest pain, hyperthermia, seizures and collapse (for review see Elliott,

2011; Schep, Slaughter, Vale, Beasley, & Gee, 2011).

3.5.3. Mechanism of action

Several targets have been investigated for piperazines, although the results for most targets only consist of a single data point (see Supplemental Figs. 22–24). TFMPP and mCPP most potently bind to serotonin receptors 5-HT_{1A-D}, 2A-C (K_i values 3–300 nM), while BZP only binds to these receptors at micromolar levels. In correspondence, mCPP potently activates 5-HT_{2A-C} (K_{act} in nanomolar range, Fig. 12). However, while TFMPP has a nanomolar binding affinity for 5-HT_{2A-C}, activation only occurs at higher concentrations (300–500 nM). Functional data for activation of inhibition of 5-HT₁ receptors is absent. Compared to the other drugs and drug groups, mCPP binds to α-adrenergic receptors relatively potently (K_i 250 nM). Piperazines also inhibit uptake by monoamine reuptake transporters, but mostly at a higher concentration (IC₅₀ values in low micromolar range). However, mCPP potently inhibits uptake via SERT (IC₅₀ ~150 nM) and BZP via NET (IC₅₀ ~400 nM). In addition, at a low concentration, BZP induces release of monoamines via DAT and NET (IC₅₀ ~150 and 50 nM, respectively), while TFMPP and mCPP induce release via SERT (IC₅₀ ~125 nM and 25 nM, respectively; Supplemental Figs. 22–24).

Table 1.

Drug classification:		Cathinones			Amphetamine			Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines			Hallucinogenic phenethylamines			Ketamine			Arycyclohexylamines			Piperazines									
<Estimated relevant test concentration	> Estimated concentration relevant test	Mephedrone	4-MEC	Pentredone	Methylone	MDPV	α-PVP	THC	JWH-018	Amphetamine			4-FA	MDMA	5-APB	6-APB	2C-B	25B-NBOMe	25C-NBOMe	25I-NBOMe	Ketamine			MIXE	PCP	BZP	TFMPP	mCPP	
		< -4.0	< -5.0	< -5.0	< -4.0	< -4.0	< -5.0	< -6.0	< -6.0	< -6.0	< -3.0	< -4.0	< -3.0	< -6.0	< -6.0	< -5.0	< -5.0	< -5.0	< -7.0	< -6.0	< -6.0	< -4.0	< -5.0	< -5.0	< -4.0	< -4.0	< -4.0	< -4.0	
Estimated relevant test concentration (Log M) :																													
Monoamine transporters																													
Plasma membrane	DAT	-5.8	-6.1	-6.5	-5.6	-8.0	-8.2	-5.8	>5.0	-5.2	-5.0	-5.2	-5.6	-6.2	-6.2	-6.2	>4.5	-5.1	-4.9	-5.3	>5.0	>5.0	>4.6	>5.2	>5.0	>4.6	-5.2		
	K _i Binding	>-5.0	-5.4	-4.8	>-4.5	-5.9	>-4.5	>5.0	>5.0	-4.7	-6.2	-4.7	-5.5	-4.9	-5.5	-4.9	-5.0	-6.1	-5.8	-6.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.2	
	NET	>-5.0	-5.2	-5.7	-4.8	-7.1	-7.2	>5.0	>5.0	-6.0	-4.9	-6.8	-5.5	-5.7	-5.5	-5.7	-4.5	-6.0	-5.8	-5.9	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.5	
	DAT									>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.4		
	SERT									>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.3		
	NET									>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-6.6		
	DAT																				>5.0	>5.0					>-4.0		
	SERT																				>5.0	>5.0							
	NET																				>5.0	>5.0							
	K _i Uptake																					>5.0	>5.0						
Vesicular membrane	DAT	-7.0	-6.2	-6.8	-6.5	-8.4	-7.9	-5.8	>5.0	-7.0	-7.0	-6.7	-5.3	-5.5	-5.2	-4.0	-3.7	-4.0	-4.2	-4.3	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.1	
	K _i Binding	-6.5	-6.3	-5.0	-6.6	-5.9	>-5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.5	-5.6	-7.0	-6.5	-6.0	-6.0	-6.0	-4.7	-5.3	-5.1	-5.4	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-6.8	
	NET	-7.3	-5.8	-6.6	-6.6	-5.8	-7.8	>5.0	>5.0	-7.2	-7.4	-7.6	-6.8	-6.7	-6.7	-6.7	-4.4	-5.2	-5.0	-5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-5.8	
	DAT	R -7.5	>-5.0	>-4.0	-6.9	-9.0	>-4.0	>5.0	>5.0	-8.2	-7.3	-7.3	<-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-7.6	
	SERT	R -8.8	>-4.0	>-4.0	-6.7	>-5.0	>-4.0	>5.0	>5.0	-6.2	-6.1	-7.3	>-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-6.9	
	NET	-7.2	-6.1	>-4.0	-7.0	-7.9	>-4.0	>5.0	>5.0	-8.2	-7.6	-7.3	>-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0	>-4.0					>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	>5.0	-7.2	
	VMAT 1									R -4.4	-4.7										>-4.5							-5.9	
	VMAT 2	>-3.0			>-3.0	-6.0				R -5.9	-5.4																	-3.7	
	IC ₅₀ Binding									-4.4	>-4.0																	>-4.0	
	K _i Uptake									R -5.9	-5.0																		-4.5
Dopamine	VMAT n.s.									-5.3																			
	IC ₅₀ Uptake	-5.5			-4.7	>-4.0				R -5.5	-5.2																	>-4.0	
	VMAT 2									R -5.7	-5.7																	>-4.0	
	EC ₅₀ Release	-4.2			>-4.0	-3.8				R -5.6	-4.8																	>-4.0	
	D1	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.2	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-4.9
	D2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.5	>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.7	>-6.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D3	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D4	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D5	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D1	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
D2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.5	>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.7	>-6.0	>-5.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	
D3	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	
D4	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	
D5	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	
5-HT ₁	D1	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.5	>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D3	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D4	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D5	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
EC ₅₀ Agonist	D1	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.5	>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D3	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D4	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D5	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
K _i Binding	D1	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.9	>-5.0	>-5.8	>-6.0	>-5.2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D2	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.5	>-4.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D3	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D4	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.6	>-5.5	>-5.7	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0
	D5	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-4.8	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0	>-5.0												

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Table 3 (continued)

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Table 3 (continued)

Drug classification:		Cathinones												Cannabinoids		Non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines					Hallucinogenic phenethylamines				Arylcyclohexylamines		Piperazines	
<Estimated relevant test concentration	> Estimated relevant test concentration (Log M) :	Mephedrone	4-MEC	Pentetrone	Methylone	MDPV	α -PVP	THC	JWH-018	Amphetamine	4-FA	MDMA	5-APB	6-APB	2C-B	25B-NBOMe	25C-NBOMe	25I-NBOMe	Ketamine	MXE	PCP	BZP	TFMPP	mCPP				
Estimated relevant test concentration (Log M) :																												
GABA _A	n.s.							> -5.0	-6.2																			
	$\alpha 1$																											
	$\alpha 2$																											
	$\alpha 3$																											
	$\alpha 5$																											
	$\alpha 6$																											
	IC ₅₀ Binding																											
	n.s.																											
	EC ₅₀ Agonist																											
	$\alpha 6$ B36																											
GABA _B	IC ₅₀ Antagonist																											
	$\alpha 1$ B2V2																											
	n.s.																											
	K _i Binding																											
	n.s.																											
	IC ₅₀ Binding																											
	n.s.																											
	IC ₅₀ Antagonist																											
	NR1/NR2A																											
	NR1/NR2B																											
AMPA	IC ₅₀ Binding																											
	n.s.																											
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	n.s.																											
mACh	M1																											
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	M5																											
	n.s.																											
	IC50 Binding																											
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	M3																											
	M5																											
nACh	n.s.																											
	IC50 Binding																											
	n.s.																											
	$\alpha 3$ B4																											
	n.s.																											
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	$\alpha 4$ B2																											
	$\alpha 7$																											
IC ₅₀ Antagonist																												
$\alpha 2$ B2																												
$\alpha 3$ B2																												
$\alpha 2$ B4																												
$\alpha 4$ B4																												
$\alpha 5$																												

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

[illegible]

> : effect size smaller than 50% at this concentration, < : effect size larger than 50% at this concentration. K_d : dissociation constant, K_a : activation constant, S: S-isomer of corresponding compound, R: R-isomer of corresponding compounds, n.s.: non-specified.^{1,1}; GABA n.s.,²; Glutamate n.s.,³; Acetylcholine n.s., [Ca²⁺]_i: Intracellular calcium concentration, Neuronal act.: Neuronal activity, LOEC: Lowest observed effect concentration.

4. Discussion

We reviewed the available data on effects and effect concentrations of a large number of specific NPS on distinct molecular targets to obtain *effect fingerprints*. The full overview is provided in Table 1 and clearly illustrates that many data gaps exist. Not surprisingly, effects on plasma membrane monoamine reuptake transporters are well studied for most illicit drugs and NPS. Receptor binding profiles for dopamine and serotonin receptors are also well studied. However, binding profiles for other receptors or ion channels are largely absent, with the exception of CB receptors for (synthetic) cannabinoids. Similarly, functional data regarding effects on receptors, ion channels and integrated endpoints such as neuronal activity are largely missing. Notably, it is difficult to establish if the gaps in the profiles are simply due to a lack of data (i.e. not studied) or result from publication bias, which likely hampers publication of negative/low potency results. Until these gaps are filled, complete effect fingerprints are hard to derive, even for the well-studied drugs and NPS.

Nevertheless, these data clearly highlight the main mechanisms of action for the different NPS studied. Inhibition and/or reversal of monoamine reuptake transporters is the main mechanism of action for cathinones and several phenethylamines, whereas hallucinogenic phenethylamines and piperazines primarily activate 5-HT₂ receptors. For cannabinoids the main mechanism of action is the activation of cannabinoid receptors. Arylcyclohexylamines primarily inhibit NDMA receptors, but also seem potent dopamine D2 receptor agonists. Besides effects on the main mechanism(s) of action, it is clear that most of these drugs and NPS affect additional targets (Table 1, Supplemental Figs. 1–24). However, to determine the human relevance of the primary and additional targets, effect concentrations should be correlated to the estimated human brain concentrations during recreational use of these NPS.

For most drugs, estimated brain concentrations exceed blood concentrations (brain partitioning factor (BPF) > 1, Table 2). Notably, the estimated brain concentrations can differ several orders of magnitude for the different NPS. For example, estimated brain concentrations are in the low nanomolar range for most hallucinogenic phenethylamines, with the exception of 2C-B that can reach micromolar levels. The relative contribution of a particular target to the clinical effects is thus largely determined by whether the effect concentration of a particular target is within the estimated brain concentration (Table 3, concentrations in red indicate targets that are likely to be affected during recreational use).

When effect concentrations are related to concentrations relevant for human exposure during recreational use, additional relevant targets become apparent for most NPS. As shown in Table 3, the clinical symptoms of cathinones may also be due to binding to 5-HT_{1,2} receptors and α 1 adrenergic receptors, as well as inhibition and/or reversal of vesicular monoamine transporters. Also for non- or mild hallucinogenic phenethylamines many more targets may contribute to the clinical symptoms, including vesicular monoamine transporters, 5-HT receptors, α - and β -adrenergic receptors, AMPA- and kainate receptors, and mACh receptors. Similarly, the clinical symptoms of cannabinoids may be due to activation of cannabinoid receptors as well as to effects on other targets (DAT, 5-HT₂ receptors, GABA_A receptors and mACh receptors). At estimated brain concentrations during recreational use, arylcyclohexylamines also affect a number of additional targets, including DAT, SERT, NET, serotonin receptors, muscarinic and nicotinic ACh receptors and VGCCs. In particular piperazines show a broad range of targets at estimated brain concentrations including not only 5-HT₂ receptors, but also DAT, SERT, NET, vesicular monoamine transporters, α - and β -adrenergic receptors, mACh receptors and VGCCs. On the other hand, most hallucinogenic phenethylamines seem to only affect 5-HT₂ receptors at estimated brain concentrations. 2C-B is a clear exception in this group as it seems that effects on SERT, NET, dopamine receptors, 5-HT receptors and α -adrenergic receptors may also

contribute to the clinical symptoms.

While the effect fingerprints of NPS are still incomplete, relating them to human relevant concentrations highlights that many targets can contribute to the clinical symptoms. It is therefore essential to complement the current effect fingerprints with additional data to fill the gaps as this will aid in risk assessment and possibly in predicting which NPS may likely result in severe clinical effects.

Importantly, the current data clearly argue for additional measurements as the data show a large variation in reported effects and effect sizes, often spanning up to 4–5 orders of magnitude (see Figs. 3, 4, 6–8, 11, 12 and Supplemental Figs. 2–24). For example, release of monoamines via NET following BZP exposure resulted in EC₅₀ values ranging from 63 nM to > 100 μ M (Supplemental Fig. 22) and activation of CB2 receptors by THC resulted in EC₅₀ values ranging from 42 nM to > 30 μ M (Supplemental Fig. 8). In addition, for many NPS-target combinations only a single data point is currently available. Furthermore, for many targets, only binding data is available and functional data is lacking. Binding studies provide limited pharmacological insight, since it remains unknown whether NPS binding activates or inhibits a specific target, or does not affect the target at all. For example, mephedrone did not bind to NET at 10 μ M (Supplemental Figs. 1–2), while functional studies reported inhibition of uptake at 50 nM (Fig. 3 and Supplemental Fig. 2) and release of monoamines via NET at 63 nM (Fig. 4 and Supplemental Fig. 2). Similarly, not all studies report the maximum effect, although EC₅₀ values are reported. Even for extremely low efficacies (maximum responses as little as 4%), EC₅₀ values have been calculated (e.g., Acuña-Castillo et al., 2002; note that when such a low efficacy was reported, we did not include this data as agonistic activity as we used a threshold of > 5% minimal effect size). Overall, there is thus a clear need to extend existing data and until that time, interpretation of reported data can be challenging.

Additionally, there is a clear need to derive new data as many targets have not been studied yet, while the number of NPS is enormous and continues to grow. To obtain useful neuropharmacological effect fingerprints, a battery of *in vitro* assays should be applied that preferably focusses on functional effects rather than on binding. Based on our review of affected targets, such a battery should include at least: inhibition and reversal of both plasma membrane and vesicular monoamine transporter as well as activation or inhibition of dopamine, serotonin, ACh, GABA, glutamate, cannabinoid, and adrenergic receptors.

Notably, investigating the effect of a specific NPS on an integrated endpoint, such as neuronal activity, could replace (and thus speedup) several single targets in the future. Although neuronal activity is potentially inhibited by drugs that potentially activate cannabinoid receptors (JWH-018; Table 1, Supplemental Fig. 9) and drugs that inhibit NMDA receptors (ketamine, MXE, Table 1 Supplemental Figs. 19–20), more data is necessary to investigate the predictive value of such integrated endpoints. Preferably, such novel assays have metabolic capacity or include testing of metabolites to better mimic the human *in vivo* situation.

While this review focused on neuropharmacological and neurotoxicological effects of NPS, other target organs are also of relevance. For example, looking at the clinical effects, the potency of NPS to induce cardiovascular- and hepatotoxicity should be investigated. Also, to realistically mimic the human exposure situation, it may be needed to include pyrolysis products as some NPS are heated before use, which can alter their chemical structure and result in different pharmacological activity (Thomas et al., 2017).

To reduce variation in reported effect concentrations, experimental guidelines may be formulated regarding which cell lines and assays are appropriate to measure activation or inhibition of specific targets. Due to the large variation observed in effect concentrations, these should preferably be obtained by at least two separate laboratories. Human models are preferred over cell lines derived from animal models and human induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived models are

preferred over human (immortalized/cancer) cell lines. However, application of iPSC-derived models for pharmacology and toxicity testing (Tukker et al., 2016) and future technologies like 3D-cultures, microfluidics and organ-on-a-chip are still in their infancy.

The increasing use of NPS and the large gap in neuropharmacological data for most NPS poses a risk for public health, which is clear from the reported intoxications and fatalities following NPS use. Although a large overlap in clinical effects is observed between different NPS, some classes are more associated with severe effects or mortality than others. Predicting which NPS is likely to result in severe effects, prior to the actual occurrence of severe effects, could improve public health. Although guidelines and innovative (combinations of) assays may need to be developed, *in vitro* screening batteries are best suited to provide neuropharmacological data in a high-throughput and cost-effective manner. These batteries will yield specific effect fingerprints of NPS that aid risk assessment and could possibly shorten the time between market entering and regulation.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pharmthera.2017.10.022>.

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