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Prescription drugs misuse in “clubbers” and disco goers in Ibiza

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Author Contribution

Massimo di Giannantonio and Attilio Negri wrote the manuscript. Chiara Vannini, Juan Iglesias Lopez, Mariangela Corbo, Cristina Merino Del Villar, Attilio Negri and Giovanni Martinotti recruited patients inside the Can Misses Hospital of Ibiza. Stefania Schiavone and Luigia Tarabace performed the statistical analysis. Mauro Pettorruso, Valeria Verrastro, Fabrizio Schifano, and Giovanni Martinotti elaborated the study protocol and performed the translation for scales and questionnaire. Fabio De Giorgio, Rossella Gottardo, Cristian Camuto, and Monica Mazzarino executed the urine analysis in the different centres. Andrea Barra and Domenico De Berardis performed literature search about the topic and elaborated all the ethical procedures required for the study approval in both countries. Giovanni Martinotti coordinated all the study processes.

Abstract

51 **Background:** Prescription drugs misuse and its related risks are considered a worldwide public health
52 issue. Current trends show that the extent of such phenomenon may not be limited to subjects with
53 psychiatric disorders, as it also spreads to dance party and nightclub attendees, who often consume
54 prescription drugs in combination with alcohol and psychoactive substances. This study aims to report
55 the sociodemographic data and the psychiatric and clinical features of a sample of clubbers reporting
56 prescription drugs use.

57 **Methods:** Patients admitted to the psychiatry ward of the Can Misses Hospital in Ibiza were recruited
58 for the study during a span of four consecutive years (2015-2018). The inclusion criteria were age
59 18-75 years old and the intake of psychoactive substances or more than five alcohol units during the
60 previous 24 hours. Substances use habits, psychopathological features and use of unprescribed
61 pharmaceuticals were investigated. Urine samples were collected and analysed using Gas
62 Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry.

63 **Results:** A total of 110 subjects with psychoactive substance intoxication were recruited for the study.
64 Among these, 37 (40%) disclosed the use of prescription drugs without medical supervision. The
65 most common compounds were benzodiazepines (66%), antiepileptic drugs (8%), antidepressants
66 (6%), opioids (6%), antipsychotics (6%), stimulants (6%) and Non-Steroidal Anti Inflammatory
67 Drugs (NSAIDs, 2%). Prescription drugs misuse was negatively associated with the use of
68 psychodysleptics (Two-tailed Fisher's exact test $p=0,018$, $p = -0,262$).

69 **Conclusions:** The use of prescription drugs is also common among clubbers, usually characterised
70 by low propensity to be prescribed benzodiazepines, antipsychotics, or antidepressants. Prescription
71 drugs may be an alternative to classic and novel psychoactive compounds or may be used to tamper
72 and self-medicate the effects determined by the use of substances. Party goers should be adequately
73 informed about possible risks of co-intake of psychoactive substances and prescription drugs to
74 prevent serious medical and psychiatric consequences.

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77 **Keywords:**

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79 Prescription drugs, Club drugs, novel psychoactive substances, psychopathology, Substance Use
80 Disorders

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83 **Background**

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85 Prescription drugs misuse and related risks, including co-ingestion with recreational drugs, have
86 recently risen as a worldwide public health phenomenon. They may involve a variety of medical and
87 social consequence that require effective public health policies to counteract such habit, as well as
88 continuous updates for health professionals to promote education and harm reduction (Young et al.,
89 2012; Blanco et al., 2007). Prescription medicine misuse or non-medical use is commonly defined
90 as the use of medications without a prescription or in a manner other than prescribed (NIDA, 2020).
91 This includes a number of conditions, such as using these compounds for purposes other than the
92 medical condition they were prescribed for (i.e. recreational use or self-harm), consuming at larger
93 doses or higher frequencies than intended, using an alternative route of administration (e.g.
94 intravenous), or co-using with alcohol or recreational drugs (Bersani & Imperatori, 2018). Studies
95 report that prevalence of misuse of any prescription drug in the United States increased by 67% from
96 1991–1992 to 2001–2002, while treatment-seeking for prescription drugs use disorders increased by
97 53% (Blanco et al., 2007). In 2017, 14 countries in EU reported on the non-medical use of such
98 compounds (UNODC 2019). Among the 10,956 drug-related acute toxicity Emergency Room (ER)
99 presentations in the Euro-DEN Plus dataset, approximately 29% involved at least one prescription

100 medicine (most commonly benzodiazepines and opioids), and 45% of these involved only
101 prescription drugs, with no illicit compounds involved (EMCDDA, 2016).

102 Current trends show that the extent of prescription drugs misuse is not limited to subjects with
103 psychiatric disorders or co-occurring Substance Use Disorders (SUDs). Admissions to ER and
104 psychiatric intensive care units due to psychotropic pharmaceuticals intoxications involve a
105 heterogeneous cohort of users, including traditional drug users, ‘psychonauts’ [from the Ancient
106 Greek ψυχή (‘soul’) and ναύτης (‘sailor’), i.e. subjects who define themselves as explorers of the
107 human soul through the use of psychoactive substances], clubbers, students, marginalized populations
108 and individuals with patterns of non-habitual recreational drug consumption (Martinotti et al., 2018).

109 In this context, the phenomenon of co-ingesting prescription drugs in order to imitate, potentiate,
110 modulate, or counteract the effects of prohibited psychoactive substances has been increasingly
111 reported (Schifano et al., 2018). This trend involves not only novel highly potent opioid such as
112 fentanyl and its derivatives, or designer benzodiazepines, but also antipsychotics, antidepressants,
113 stimulants, performance enhancing drugs (PEDs), hormones, vitamins, beta-blockers, gabapentinoids
114 and over-the-counter (OTC) drugs (Schifano et al., 2018).

115 For example, students and workers may consume attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)
116 medications such as methylphenidate to improve their academic performance or working tasks
117 (Young et al., 2012). Gamma hydroxybutyrate (GHB), a drug used for many conditions, has been
118 increasingly associated with practices such as ‘chemsex’ (Edmunson et al., 2018). Furthermore,
119 compounds such as benzodiazepines (e.g. diazepam, alprazolam), or atypical antipsychotics (e.g.
120 quetiapine, risperidone) are often used by club goers to counteract the effects of psychostimulant
121 drugs, such as cocaine or methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) (Messina et al., 2016; Vento
122 et al., 2020). Venlafaxine, a selective noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor, has been associated with
123 recreational use at high dosages, earning for itself the name of “baby ecstasy” (i.e. MDMA) (Schifano
124 et al., 2018). With regard to the nightlife and clubbing scene, the situation shows peculiar
125 characteristics. The growing offer of novel and traditional prescription drugs has found a fertile
126 ground in this scenario. Summer holiday periods in popular resorts have historically represented an
127 opportunity for excesses and experimentation, especially among young people who find an
128 environment in which hedonistic partying is socially accepted and drugs are typically easily available
129 (Kelly et al., 2014). Alcohol use, particularly during binge drinking, and psychoactive substances use
130 are commonly reported among festival-goers and clubbers in holiday resorts; practices such as poly-
131 substance abuse and prescription drugs misuse have also been reported (Esser et al., 2019; Busto
132 Miramontes et al., 2019; Grigg et al., 2018; Martins et al., 2017). The use of a variety of
133 pharmaceuticals including benzodiazepines (Kurtz et al., 2005; Kurtz et al., 2017), stimulants (Butler
134 & Sheridan, 2010; Leon & Martinez, 2017), opioids (Palamar, 2019), antidepressants (Schifano et
135 al., 2018) and sedatives such as GHB (Brennan & Van Hout, 2014) has been associated to dance
136 music party attendees. Such heterogeneous cohort of compounds, presented in different forms and
137 with various ways of intake (e.g. ingested, snorted, intravenous), may lead to potential negative
138 medical outcomes, including acute intoxications, SUD and other psychiatric disorders. Nevertheless,
139 pharmaceuticals are often perceived as less harmful and less stigmatizing than illicit drugs,
140 particularly among young people, partly due to these substances’ legitimate medical purposes
141 (Hernandez & Nelson, 2010; Kelly & Vuolo, 2019). Moreover, information on the actions of these
142 drugs is widely available in package inserts, advertisements and on the internet, therefore their effects
143 (including adverse reactions) and dosages are considered more predictable (UNODC, 2010).

144 Such phenomenon is further complicated by the rise on the nightlife market of Novel Psychoactive
145 Substances (NPS). A number of these substances were originally developed as research chemicals
146 and diverted for recreational purposes, as they often mimic the pharmacological effect of traditional
147 drugs of abuse or popular prescription drugs (Bersani & Imperatori, 2018). Their effects and related
148 risks are often unknown to both users and health professionals, due to the scarcity of evidence-based
149 information regarding their toxicological profiles and to the ever-changing nature of this market
150 (Schifano et al., 2003; O. Corazza, et al., 2013; Martinotti et al., 2018). Nevertheless, growing

151 evidence reported potential acute and chronic psychiatric risks associated to NPS consumption,
152 including confusion, paranoid thoughts, auditory and visual hallucinations, dissociation, delusions of
153 reference, persecution, grandeur and jealousy, cognitive impairment, hypomanic states,
154 aggressiveness and irritability, violence and suicidal thoughts (Kehr J, et al, 2011; Lovrecic B et al,
155 2019; Schifano et al, 2016; Martinotti et al., 2020).

156 The current dynamic of recreational substance use is a serious matter of concern for public health
157 institutions worldwide. In particular, the threats posed by psychoactive compounds and concomitant
158 prescription drugs misuse require updated policies provided by local and supranational regulatory
159 agencies, as well as appropriate approaches by health professional, to prevent negative outcomes and
160 reduce associated harms (Santacroce et al, 2017), including deaths (Corkery et al., 2020). In such
161 context, Ibiza and the Balearic Islands, two of the most popular destinations with nightlife resorts for
162 summer holidays in Europe, may be considered as an interesting real life scenario to explore such
163 phenomenon. Previous studies confirmed a higher prevalence of risky behaviours for both residents
164 and tourists in Ibiza, including problematic alcohol use, substances use and sexual disinhibition
165 (Bellis et al, 2000; Bellis et al, 2002; Martinotti et al, 2017). Moreover, it has been reported that
166 traffickers and dealers have introduced NPS and pharmaceuticals into the Ibiza drug market to test
167 new compounds and drugs combinations on unaware customers (Martinotti et al., 2017).

168 This study aimed to assess patients admitted to the psychiatric ward of the Can Misses Hospital in
169 Ibiza for psychoactive substance intoxication, in order to: (1) identify which psychotropic
170 prescription drugs are mostly involved in cases of concomitant psychoactive substance use and (2)
171 report the psychopathological features and patterns of consumption associated to prescription drugs
172 use in a nightlife resort setting.

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175 **Material & Methods**

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177 Patients admitted to the psychiatry ward of the Can Misses Hospital in Ibiza during summer when
178 nightclubs are open (May – October) were recruited for the study during a span of four consecutive
179 years (2015-2018). The subjects were evaluated according to the DSM-5 diagnostic classification.
180 The inclusion criteria were age 18–75 years old and the intake of psychoactive substances or more
181 than five alcohol units (i.e. 10ml or 8g of pure alcohol) during the previous 24 hours. Clinical
182 conditions such as *delirium tremens*, epilepsy, liver encephalopathy, dementia and other neurological
183 diseases, severe cardiac failure, diabetes mellitus, severe liver impairment, kidney failure or
184 neoplastic diseases were among the exclusion criteria, as the presence of such conditions could
185 present a confounding factor. Demographic (age, gender, family, nationality) and socioeconomic data
186 (living status, job status, level of education) were collected, as well as recent and past medical and
187 psychiatric history, current pharmacological treatment, alcohol and substance use habits (including
188 NPS), with a specific focus on prescription drugs misuse. Among these, recent and lifetime use of
189 benzodiazepines (e.g. diazepam, alprazolam, lorazepam), ADHD medications (e.g.
190 amphetamine/dextroamphetamine, methylphenidate) and opioid painkillers (e.g. morphine,
191 methadone, oxycodone, fentanyl), as well as other popular prescription drugs (e.g. GHB,
192 gabapentinoids) was investigated.

193 To explore the different psychopathological aspects related to substance use, such as depressive or
194 manic symptoms, anxiety, psychosis negative and positive symptoms, somatic disorders,
195 aggressiveness, and suicidality, the following psychodiagnostic tests were administered to patients
196 during their hospitalization: Timeline follow-back for psychoactive substances and alcohol (TLFB);
197 Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS); Positive and Negative Symptoms Scale (PANSS); Mania
198 Rating Scale (MRS); Hamilton Depression Scale (HAM-D); Hamilton Anxiety Scale (HAM-A);
199 Modified Overt Aggression Scale (MOAS). TLFB was used to identify the main substance of abuse
200 for each patient. The subjects were divided in three macro groups according to the TLFB and the
201 results of the urinalysis: psychostimulants (e.g. cocaine, amphetamines, synthetic cathinones),

202 depressors (e.g. opioids, alcohol, benzodiazepines), psychodysleptics (e.g. cannabinoids,
203 psychedelics, dissociatives). This classification was derived from our previous reports on the topic
204 (Martinotti et al., 2017; Martinotti et al., 2018).

205 Data collection was carried out in an anonymous and confidential way; all participants received a
206 detailed explanation of the design of the study and a written informed consent was systematically
207 obtained from every subject, according to the Declaration of Helsinki. Ethics approval was granted
208 by the University of Hertfordshire Health and Human Sciences ECDA, protocol no.
209 aPHAEC1042(03); by the CEI Illes Balears, protocol no. IB 2561/15 PI; and by the University “G.
210 d'Annunzio” of Chieti-Pescara, no. 7/09-04-2015. Majorcan local ethics committee also gave
211 approval to the study.

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213 **Urine sample analysis**

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215 A urine sample was collected at admission, stored at -30°C and subsequently analysed at the
216 laboratory of the Department of Forensic Toxicology of the Università Politecnica delle Marche, at
217 the FMSI Antidoping of Rome, and at University of Verona, Italy. The urine samples were analysed
218 at FMSI Antidoping of Rome using a routine screening test for drugs of abuse. The urine samples
219 were extracted with a solid phase cartridge (Oasis MCX), the obtained solution was evaporated until
220 dry and reconstituted with mobile phase. An Agilent 1290 Infinity II UHPLC with a binary gradient
221 system and an automatic injector (Agilent Technologies, Cernusco sul Naviglio, Milano, Italy) was
222 used for the chromatographic separation. The instrument was equipped with an Agilent Zorbax
223 Eclipse plus C18 column (100×2.1 mm i.d., particle size 1.8 μm) (Chieffi et al., 2020). The detector
224 was an Orbitrap Q Exactive (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with an ESI source. The method was validated
225 according to WADA guidelines and for a screening method in antidoping test defining selectivity,
226 limit of detection (LOD), recovery, carry over and repeatability (Camuto et al., 2020). The method
227 showed no interference or carry over, LOD $<1\text{ng/ml}$, recovery $>70\%$ and repeatability estimated as
228 $\text{CV}\% < 1\%$ for all the analytes.

229 A comprehensive screening of urine samples were performed at both the Unit of Forensic Medicine
230 of the University of Verona and at the Politecnico of Ancona, by using a ToxtyperTM LC/IT-MS
231 platform (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) consisting of an ultra-high-performance-liquid-
232 chromatography (UHPLC) coupled to a high-speed ion trap mass analyzer (IT-MS). The instrument
233 applied the analytical protocols provided by the manufacturer and compound identification was
234 provided by using the Maurer/ Wissenbach/Weber (MWW) library containing as many as 4500
235 therapeutic, toxic/illicit drugs and their metabolites (including NPS) (Gottardo et al., 2020). Prior to
236 injection, urine sample were diluted 1/10 (v/v) with water (van der Schaar et al., 2020).

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239 **Data Analysis**

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241 Statistical analysis was performed by using IBM SPSS® Statistics software, version 20 and GraphPad
242 5.0 software for Windows (La Jolla, CA, USA). Fisher's exact test was used to determine whether or
243 not there was a significant association between the categorical variables “abuse of prescription drugs”
244 and “use of distinct categories of psychoactive substances”. Spearman's correlation value (ρ) was
245 calculated to determine if variables (abuse of prescription drugs and categories of substances) were
246 positively or negatively correlated. Independent samples *t*-test was used to determine whether or not
247 there was a significant difference in scale scores between subjects who abused and subjects who did
248 not abuse prescription drugs. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post-
249 hoc test was used to assess whether or not there was a significant difference in scale scores among
250 subjects who abused different classes of prescription drugs. For all tests, a two-tailed *p*-value < 0.05
251 was considered statistically significant.

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Results

A total of 110 subjects were recruited for the study, with most of them being of European nationality (n=76, 71,8%). Age ranged from 19 years old to 63 years old, with the majority of patients (n=57, 51,8%) under 30 years old. The median age of the 110 patients was 32,57 years. A higher percentage of males (n=76, 69,1%) was reported in our sample. Nine patients were full-time or part-time students (8,1%), 52 (47,3%) were employees and 40 (36,4%) were unemployed.

All the subjects of the sample were diagnosed with substance intoxication at admission. Although the majority of patients declared multiple substance use (n=77, 70,0%) and 33% of them reported the use of more than two substance, the participants were divided in three macro groups according to their responses to the TLFB test and their urinalysis results to identify a category of substances 'of choice' for each patient. Thus, 17 (15%) depressors users, 44 (40%) stimulant users and 49 (45%) psychodysleptics users were identified.

When asked about lifetime use of specific groups of substances, stimulant use was disclosed by 74 patients (32%), and cannabinoids use by 68 patients (29%). These were followed by depressors (n=32, 14%), empathogens-entactogens (n=28, 12%), dissociatives (n=15, 6%), opioids (n=9, 4%), and psychedelic drugs (n=7, 3%). Almost half of the participants (46%) declared to have used a substance without knowing what it was at least once in their life. These results will be described in a separate manuscript (Martinotti et al., in press).

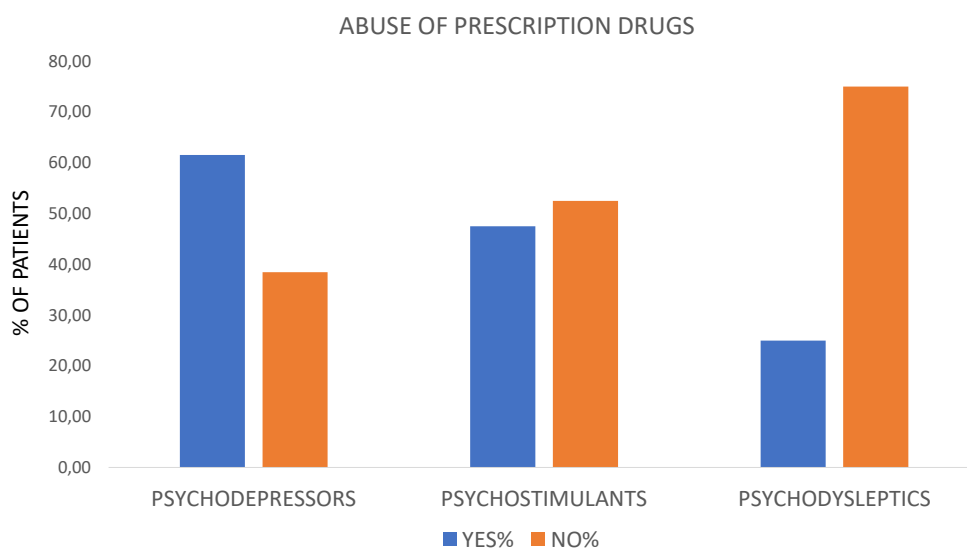
In our sample, 37 patients (40%) disclosed a lifetime misuse of prescription drugs. The most commonly reported compounds were benzodiazepines, which were used by 32 subjects. Table 1 presents the complete information on the type of pharmaceuticals reported by users.

Table 1: The most common substances used by patients who declared prescription drugs misuse

Prescription Drug	N	%
Benzodiazepines (e.g. diazepam, alprazolam)	32	66
NSAIDs (e.g. paracetamol)	1	2
Antidepressants (e.g. paroxetine, clomipramine)	3	6
Antipsychotics (e.g. risperidone, clotiapine)	3	6
Anticonvulsants (e.g. valproate, pregabalin)	4	8
Opioid derivatives and Syntethic opioids (e.g. methadone, fentanyl)	3	6
Stimulants (e.g. Methylphenidate)	3	6

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Prescription drugs misuse was reported for eight psycho-depressors (e.g. non-prescription opioids, alcohol) users, 19 psycho-stimulants (e.g. cocaine, amphetamines) users and 10 psychodysleptics (e.g. cannabis, dissociatives) users. The percentage for each group of substances users is reported in Figure 1. Abuse of unprescribed pharmaceuticals was negatively associated with the use of psychodysleptics (Two tailed Fisher's exact test $p=0,018$, $\rho=-0,262$).

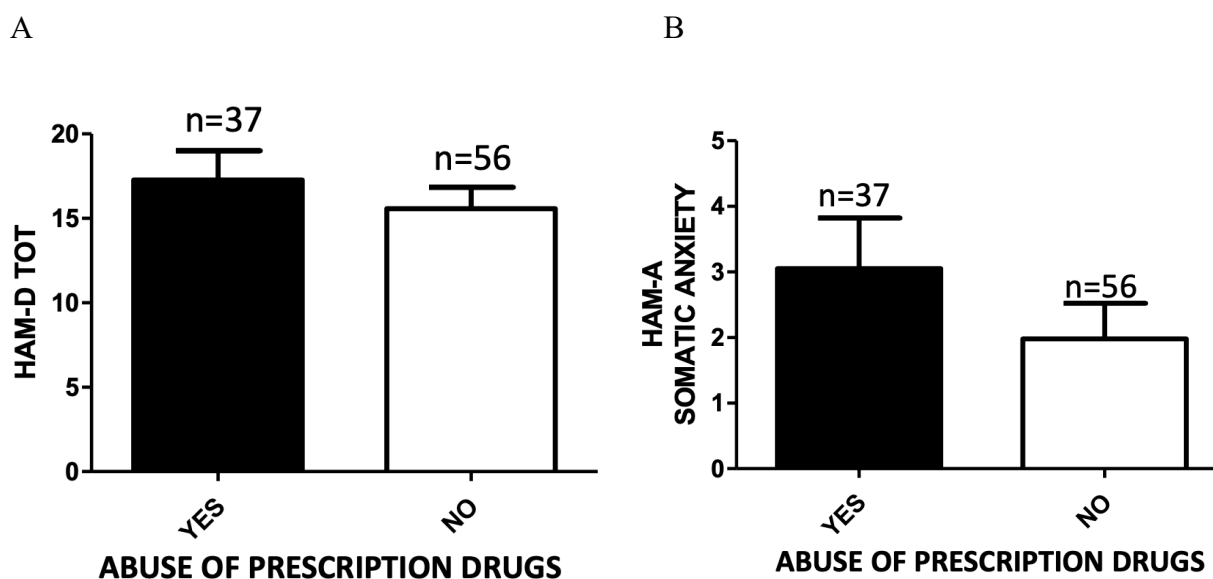


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Figure 1: Percentage of patients abusing (YES%) or not abusing (NO%) prescription drugs stratified for the following substance categories: Psychodepressors, Psychostimulants or Psychodysleptics.

293 According to their lifetime use of specific compounds, prescription drugs consumption without
294 medical supervision was reported by 31 stimulants users, 21 cannabinoids users, 10 depressors users,
295 7 opioids users, 7 empathogen-entactogens users, 5 dissociatives users and one psychedelic user.
296 The severity of psychiatric symptoms according to HAM-A Psychotic Anxiety scale, PANNS BPRS
297 and MRS were comparable among users and non-users of unprescribed pharmaceuticals. Patients
298 who disclosed prescription drugs misuse tended to report higher scores in HAM-D and HAM-A
299 Somatic Anxiety, although this tendency did not reach the statistical significance (Figure 2)

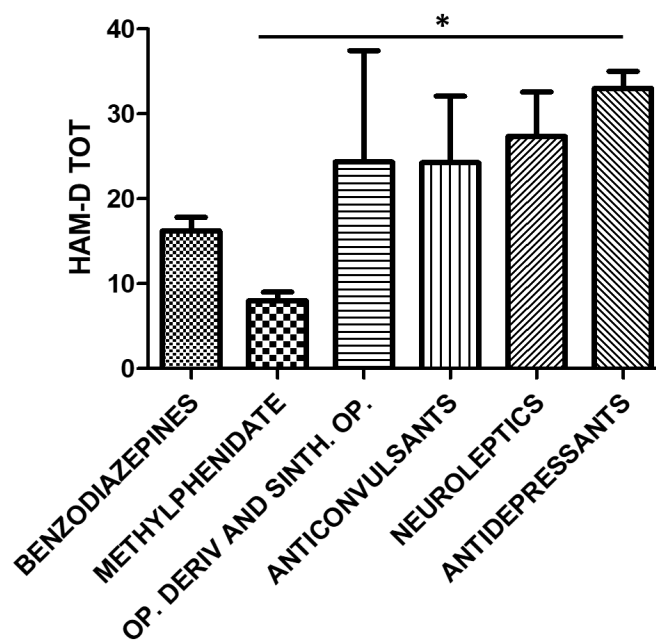
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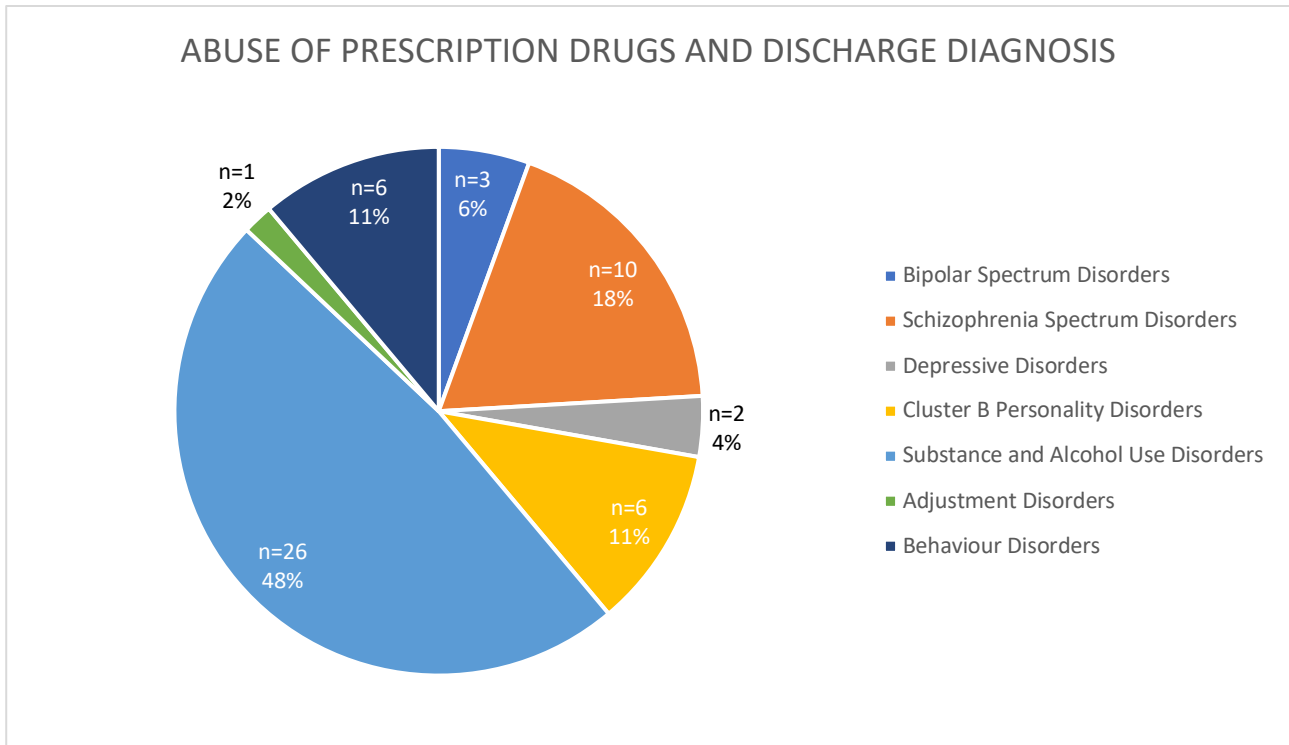
305 **Figure 2 A) HAM-D total score of subjects abusing (YES, n=37) or not abusing (NO, n=56)**
306 **prescription drugs. Independent samples *t*-test , p >0.05; B) HAM-A SOMATIC ANXIETY**
307 **scale score of subjects abusing (YES, n=37) or not abusing (NO, n=56) prescription drugs.**
308 **Student's t test, p >0.05.**
309

310 One Way Anova analysis for HAM-A Tot (F=0,6808, p>0,05), PANNS (F=1,487, p>0,05), MRS
311 (F=0,4402, p>0,05) and BPRS (F=3,094, p>0,05) did not report any statistically significant difference
312 among users of benzodiazepines, methylphenidate, prescription opioids, anticonvulsants,
313 antipsychotics and antidepressants. A statistical difference was found for HAM-D scores between
314 methylphenidate and antidepressants users (One Way Anova, followed by Tukey's post hoc test,
315 F=3,032, *p<0,05 methylphenidate vs antidepressants) (Figure 3), with higher scores of depression
316 in the group of patients taking antidepressants.
317



318 **Figure 3: HAM-D total score stratified for the following classes of abused prescription drugs:**
319 **benzodiazepines (n=32), methylphenidate (n=3), opioid derivatives and synthetic opioids (n=3),**
320 **anticonvulsants (n=4), neuroleptics (n=3) and antidepressants (n=3). One Way ANOVA,**
321 **followed by Tukey's post-hoc test, F=3,032, *p<0,05 methylphenidate vs antidepressants.**
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324 The most common diagnosis at discharge among the patients who disclosed prescription drugs use
325 was Substance or Alcohol use disorder (n=26, 48%), followed by Schizophrenia spectrum disorders
326 (n=10, 18%) (Figure 4).
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330 **Figure 4 Discharge diagnosis (expressed both as raw number of patients and %) of patients**
331 **abusing of prescription drugs.**

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334 **Discussion**

335

336 Our study evaluated the use of prescription drugs among a sample of clubbers, who were mainly
337 composed of young subjects (more than 50% of the participants being aged under 30) with a medium-
338 high socioeconomic status. Many subjects (40%) reported the use of prescription drugs. Therefore,
339 our results show that such use is not only limited to subjects with psychiatric disorders and co-
340 occurring SUD but can also involve subjects who are usually not considered as typical psychoactive
341 substance users. This data pave the way for serious considerations on the possible pharmacological
342 interactions with alcohol and other substances, as well as on other short- and long-term consequences,
343 both physical and psychiatric. As users may concomitantly consume various prescription drugs and
344 substances of abuse, an increased risk of drug-drug interactions may be observed, both
345 pharmacokinetic (e.g. between prescription opioids and heroin) and pharmacodynamic (e.g. between
346 opioids of abuse and benzodiazepines or other CNS sedative drugs) (Pérez-Mañá et al., 2018). This
347 involves not only depressors, such as benzodiazepines, opioids and alcohol, but also stimulant drugs
348 commonly used by clubbers. For example, metabolic pathways of synthetic cathinones,
349 antidepressants, and ADHD medications have been shown to overlap, including metabolism via
350 cytochrome P450 enzymes and their inhibition (Contrucci et al., 2020).

351 Benzodiazepines were the most prevalent class of prescription drugs reported in our sample. This
352 result may be explained by the use of benzodiazepines as a ‘trip terminator’ to calm-down the strong
353 experience caused by the use of multiple substances. This confirms the data from Messina et al., who
354 showed that benzodiazepines and atypical antipsychotics are often used by club goers to counteract
355 the effects of psychostimulant drugs, such as cocaine or MDMA (Messina et al., 2016). In terms of
356 preventive strategies, the use of benzodiazepines in the context of a multiple substance use could be
357 dangerous as it causes respiratory depression and risk of overdoses, specifically in combination with
358 opiates, alcohol, ketamine and derivatives, and inhalants (Kurtz et al., 2017; Riley et al., 2016;
359 Anderson et al., 2020). Specific policies and harm reduction approaches should be advised for these

360 potentially lethal combinations, particularly with the intake of large amounts of long half-life
361 compounds, such as diazepam. Furthermore, a number of novel designer benzodiazepines, with
362 undisclosed toxicological profiles and variable potencies, has recently been made available in the
363 drug market. They are developed in order to mimic prescription benzodiazepines and Z-drugs, but
364 they may lead users to adverse events of various severities, particularly if used in combination with
365 other substances (Bersani & Imperatori, 2018; Orsolini et al., 2020; Batisse et al., 2020).

366 Among the different categories of substances, psychodepressors were the most commonly associated
367 with the use of prescription drugs, whereas only a small percentage of psychodysleptics users reported
368 such habit. The typology of subject using psychodysleptics such as LSD, psilocybin, MDMA,
369 ayahuasca and other plants, is characterised by the search for a strong inner experience, spirituality,
370 and high level of emotionality (Hupli et al., 2019; Orsolini et al., 2018). The use of benzodiazepines
371 and antipsychotics can inhibit or temper the perception of these experiences and therefore may not
372 be chosen by users. With regard to antidepressants, which can determine affective blunting and
373 enhance the distance from emotional experiences, the same consideration can be reported.

374 Interestingly, patients who disclosed prescription drugs misuse tended to report higher scores in
375 HAM-D and HAM-A Somatic Anxiety. This finding emphasises how those patients are the most
376 vulnerable in terms of psychopathological load. In this regard, those who report taking prescription
377 drugs may actually be the subjects with a psychiatric history. A prescription drug may have already
378 been tested for therapeutic purposes and therefore may have made the patient more accustomed to its
379 use out of indication. Moreover, the high level of depression is an issue that needs to be considered
380 and can represent a significant suicidal risk factor in people who misuse alcohol and psychoactive
381 substances. In fact, the use of psychotropics can represent an additional risk factor, given the
382 possibility of a consistent increase in the levels of impulsivity, violence and self-directed aggression
383 due to such drugs. Therefore, it is very relevant to evaluate these patients and to put specific strategies
384 in place to manage these psychopathological manifestations, with a specific focus on the prevention
385 of anti-conservative behaviours.

386 A further point of interest, although expected, is the presence of high levels of depressive symptoms
387 on the Hamilton scale in relation to the use of antidepressants without a specific medical prescription.
388 This fact suggests how sometimes the use of prescription drugs may not only be related to the goal
389 of 'get high' or to the management of an intoxication, but also to the self-medication need of patients
390 who perceive a sub-levelling of their mood. For this reason, a shared strategy could be justified, even
391 more than in other types of patients with dual disorders. Conversely, methylphenidate use was
392 associated with lower scores at the Hamilton depression scale. This prescription drug with stimulant
393 properties (Guthrie et al., 2003; Sussman et al., 2006), usually indicated for Attention Deficit
394 Hyperactivity Disorder, can probably be chosen by users of psychostimulants as a cheaper alternative
395 to cocaine and amphetamine. In the short run it could also show some antidepressant properties, thus
396 explaining the data observed at the HAM-D. The detection of methylphenidate among the
397 prescription drugs reported in our sample may indicate some level of comorbidity between adult
398 ADHD disorder and SUD, as recently reported (Özgen et al., 2020)

399 In terms of the role of the discharge psychiatric diagnosis, alcohol or substance use disorder showed
400 a high prevalence, although the diagnoses of schizophrenia and bipolar spectrum disorder were also
401 significantly reported. In some cases, the presence of a psychiatric comorbidity could justify the use
402 of prescription drugs such as antidepressants, mood stabilizers and benzodiazepines. However, the
403 presence of a relevant percentage of addiction diagnoses (Alcohol use disorder and/or Substance use
404 disorder) further confirms that these patients do not typically represent pure psychiatric patients who
405 increase their dosages of prescribed drugs, but are instead classical party-goers who use prescription
406 drugs for other purposes.

407 Limitations of this study are represented by a low and heterogeneous sample size, with a high
408 prevalence of benzodiazepine as the main prescription drug. Moreover, although the target of the
409 study is that of young clubbers, a significant subgroup of participants were middle-aged adults.

410 In conclusion, in this study we have highlighted how the use of prescription drugs is common also
411 among clubbers and disco-goers. These subjects usually do not have a previous psychiatric history
412 and share a low propensity to be prescribed with benzodiazepines, antipsychotics, and antidepressants
413 by a mental health professional. These data confirm that prescription drugs may be an alternative for
414 classic and novel psychoactive compounds, may be used to modulate and temper the experience and,
415 in some cases, may be used to reduce the negative effects determined by the use of substances. From
416 the treatment perspective and as a useful preventive strategy, a specific psycho-education process
417 should be indicated for subjects at risk. Party-goers should be adequately informed about the possible
418 risks of co-intake of NPS, classical substances and prescription drugs to prevent serious medical and
419 psychiatric consequences.

420

421

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423

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