

Substance-Related and Addictive Disorders

The substance-related disorders encompass 10 separate classes of drugs: alcohol; caffeine; cannabis; hallucinogens (with separate categories for phencyclidine [or similarly acting arylcyclohexylamines] and other hallucinogens); inhalants; opioids; sedatives, hypnotics, and anxiolytics; stimulants (amphetamine-type substances, cocaine, and other stimulants); tobacco; and other (or unknown) substances. These 10 classes are not fully distinct. All drugs that are taken in excess have in common direct activation of the brain reward system, which is involved in the reinforcement of behaviors and the production of memories. They produce such an intense activation of the reward system that normal activities may be neglected. Instead of achieving reward system activation through adaptive behaviors, drugs of abuse directly activate the reward pathways. The pharmacological mechanisms by which each class of drugs produces reward are different, but the drugs typically activate the system and produce feelings of pleasure, often referred to as a "high." Furthermore, individuals with lower levels of self-control, which may reflect impairments of brain inhibitory mechanisms, may be particularly predisposed to develop substance use disorders, suggesting that the roots of substance use disorders for some persons can be seen in behaviors long before the onset of actual substance use itself.

In addition to the substance-related disorders, this chapter also includes gambling disorder, reflecting evidence that gambling behaviors activate reward systems similar to those activated by drugs of abuse and produce some behavioral symptoms that appear comparable to those produced by the substance use disorders. Other excessive behavioral patterns, such as Internet gaming, have also been described, but the research on these and other behavioral syndromes is less clear. Thus, groups of repetitive behaviors, which some term *behavioral addictions*, with such subcategories as "sex addiction," "exercise addiction," or "shopping addiction," are not included because at this time there is insufficient peer-reviewed evidence to establish the diagnostic criteria and course descriptions needed to identify these behaviors as mental disorders.

The substance-related disorders are divided into two groups: substance use disorders and substance-induced disorders. The following conditions may be classified as substance-induced: intoxication, withdrawal, and other substance/medication-induced mental disorders (psychotic disorders, bipolar and related disorders, depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, obsessive-compulsive and related disorders, sleep disorders, sexual dysfunctions, delirium, and neurocognitive disorders).

The current section begins with a general discussion of criteria sets for a substance use disorder, substance intoxication and withdrawal, and other substance/medication-induced mental disorders, at least some of which are applicable across classes of substances. Reflecting some unique aspects of the 10 substance classes relevant to this chapter, the remainder of the chapter is organized by the class of substance and describes their unique aspects. To facilitate differential diagnosis, the text and criteria for the remaining substance/medication-induced mental disorders are included with disorders with which they share phenomenology (e.g., substance/medication-induced depressive disorder is in the chapter "Depressive Disorders"). The broad diagnostic categories associated with each specific group of substances are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Diagnoses associated with substance class

	Psychotic disorders	Bipolar disorders	Depressive disorders	Anxiety disorders	Obsessive-compulsive and related disorders	Sleep disorders	Sexual dysfunctions	Delirium	Neurocognitive disorders	Substance use disorders	Substance intoxication	Substance withdrawal
Alcohol	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W		I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W/P	X	X	X
Caffeine				I		I/W					X	X
Cannabis	I			I		I/W		I		X	X	X
Hallucinogens												
Phencyclidine	I	I	I	I				I		X	X	
Other hallucinogens	I*	I	I	I				I		X	X	
Inhalants	I		I	I				I	I/P	X	X	
Opioids			I/W	W		I/W	I/W	I/W		X	X	X
Sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics			I/W	W		I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W/P	X	X	X
Stimulants**	I	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I	I		X	X	X
Tobacco						W				X		X
Other (or unknown)	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W	I/W/P	X	X	X

Note. X = The category is recognized in DSM-5.

I = The specifier "with onset during intoxication" may be noted for the category.

W = The specifier "with onset during withdrawal" may be noted for the category.

I/W = Either "with onset during intoxication" or "with onset during withdrawal" may be noted for the category.

P = The disorder is persisting.

*Also hallucinogen persisting perception disorder (flashbacks).

**Includes amphetamine-type substances, cocaine, and other or unspecified stimulants.

Substance-Related Disorders

Substance Use Disorders

Features

The essential feature of a substance use disorder is a cluster of cognitive, behavioral, and physiological symptoms indicating that the individual continues using the substance despite significant substance-related problems. As seen in Table 1, the diagnosis of a substance use disorder can be applied to all 10 classes included in this chapter except caffeine. For certain classes some symptoms are less salient, and in a few instances not all symptoms apply (e.g., withdrawal symptoms are not specified for phencyclidine use disorder, other hallucinogen use disorder, or inhalant use disorder).

An important characteristic of substance use disorders is an underlying change in brain circuits that may persist beyond detoxification, particularly in individuals with severe disorders. The behavioral effects of these brain changes may be exhibited in the repeated relapses and intense drug craving when the individuals are exposed to drug-related stimuli. These persistent drug effects may benefit from long-term approaches to treatment.

Overall, the diagnosis of a substance use disorder is based on a pathological pattern of behaviors related to use of the substance. To assist with organization, Criterion A criteria can be considered to fit within overall groupings of *impaired control*, *social impairment*, *risky use*, and *pharmacological criteria*. Impaired control over substance use is the first criteria grouping (Criteria 1–4). The individual may take the substance in larger amounts or over a longer period than was originally intended (Criterion 1). The individual may express a persistent desire to cut down or regulate substance use and may report multiple unsuccessful efforts to decrease or discontinue use (Criterion 2). The individual may spend a great deal of time obtaining the substance, using the substance, or recovering from its effects (Criterion 3). In some instances of more severe substance use disorders, virtually all of the individual's daily activities revolve around the substance. Craving (Criterion 4) is manifested by an intense desire or urge for the drug that may occur at any time but is more likely when in an environment where the drug previously was obtained or used. Craving has also been shown to involve classical conditioning and is associated with activation of specific reward structures in the brain. Craving is queried by asking if there has ever been a time when they had such strong urges to take the drug that they could not think of anything else. Current craving is often used as a treatment outcome measure because it may be a signal of impending relapse.

Social impairment is the second grouping of criteria (Criteria 5–7). Recurrent substance use may result in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home (Criterion 5). The individual may continue substance use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of the substance (Criterion 6). Important social, occupational, or recreational activities may be given up or reduced because of substance use (Criterion 7). The individual may withdraw from family activities and hobbies in order to use the substance.

Risky use of the substance is the third grouping of criteria (Criteria 8–9). This may take the form of recurrent substance use in situations in which it is physically hazardous (Criterion 8). The individual may continue substance use despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the substance (Criterion 9). The key issue in evaluating this criterion is not the existence of the problem, but rather the individual's failure to abstain from using the substance despite the difficulty it is causing.

Pharmacological criteria are the final grouping (Criteria 10 and 11). Tolerance (Criterion 10) is signaled by requiring a markedly increased dose of the substance to achieve the desired effect or a markedly reduced effect when the usual dose is consumed. The degree to which tolerance develops varies greatly across different individuals as well as across substances and may involve a variety of central nervous system effects. For example, tolerance to respiratory depression and tolerance to sedating and motor coordination may develop at different rates, depending on the substance. Tolerance may be difficult to determine by history alone, and laboratory tests may be helpful (e.g., high blood levels of the substance coupled with little evidence of intoxication suggest that tolerance is likely). Tolerance must also be distinguished from individual variability in the initial sensitivity to the effects of particular substances. For example, some first-time alcohol drinkers show very little evidence of intoxication with three or four drinks, whereas others of similar weight and drinking histories have slurred speech and incoordination.

Withdrawal (Criterion 11) is a syndrome that occurs when blood or tissue concentrations of a substance decline in an individual who had maintained prolonged heavy use of the substance. After developing withdrawal symptoms, the individual is likely to consume the substance to relieve the symptoms. Withdrawal symptoms vary greatly across the classes of substances, and separate criteria sets for withdrawal are provided for the drug classes. Marked and generally easily measured physiological signs of withdrawal are common with alcohol, opioids, and sedatives, hypnotics, and anxiolytics. Withdrawal signs and symptoms with stimulants (amphetamines and cocaine), as well as tobacco and cannabis, are often present but may be less apparent. Significant withdrawal has *not* been documented in humans after repeated use of phencyclidine, other hallucinogens, and inhalants; therefore, this criterion is not included for these substances. Neither tolerance nor withdrawal is necessary for a diagnosis of a substance use disorder. However, for most classes of substances, a past history of withdrawal is associated with a more severe clinical course (i.e., an earlier onset of a substance use disorder, higher levels of substance intake, and a greater number of substance-related problems).

Symptoms of tolerance and withdrawal occurring during appropriate medical treatment with prescribed medications (e.g., opioid analgesics, sedatives, stimulants) are specifically *not* counted when diagnosing a substance use disorder. The appearance of normal, expected pharmacological tolerance and withdrawal during the course of medical treatment has been known to lead to an erroneous diagnosis of "addiction" even when these were the only symptoms present. Individuals whose *only* symptoms are those that occur as a result of medical treatment (i.e., tolerance and withdrawal as part of medical care when the medications are taken as prescribed) should not receive a diagnosis solely on the basis of these symptoms. However, prescription medications can be used inappropriately, and a substance use disorder can be correctly diagnosed when there are other symptoms of compulsive, drug-seeking behavior.

Severity and Specifiers

Substance use disorders occur in a broad range of severity, from mild to severe, with severity based on the number of symptom criteria endorsed. As a general estimate of severity, a *mild* substance use disorder is suggested by the presence of two to three symptoms, *moderate* by four to five symptoms, and *severe* by six or more symptoms. Changing severity across time is also reflected by reductions or increases in the frequency and/or dose of substance use, as assessed by the individual's own report, report of knowledgeable others, clinician's observations, and biological testing. The following course specifiers and descriptive features specifiers are also available for substance use disorders: "in early remission," "in sustained remission," "on maintenance therapy," and "in a controlled environment." Definitions of each are provided within respective criteria sets.

Recording Procedures for Substance Use Disorders

The clinician should use the code that applies to the class of substances but record the name of the *specific substance*. For example, the clinician should record 304.10 (F13.20) moderate alprazolam use disorder (rather than moderate sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder) or 305.70 (F15.10) mild methamphetamine use disorder (rather than mild stimulant use disorder). For substances that do not fit into any of the classes (e.g., anabolic steroids), the appropriate code for “other substance use disorder” should be used and the specific substance indicated (e.g., 305.90 [F19.10] mild anabolic steroid use disorder). If the substance taken by the individual is unknown, the code for the class “other (or unknown)” should be used (e.g., 304.90 [F19.20] severe unknown substance use disorder). If criteria are met for more than one substance use disorder, all should be diagnosed (e.g., 304.00 [F11.20] severe heroin use disorder; 304.20 [F14.20] moderate cocaine use disorder).

The appropriate ICD-10-CM code for a substance use disorder depends on whether there is a comorbid substance-induced disorder (including intoxication and withdrawal). In the above example, the diagnostic code for moderate alprazolam use disorder, F13.20, reflects the absence of a comorbid alprazolam-induced mental disorder. Because ICD-10-CM codes for substance-induced disorders indicate both the presence (or absence) and severity of the substance use disorder, ICD-10-CM codes for substance use disorders can be used only in the absence of a substance-induced disorder. See the individual substance-specific sections for additional coding information.

Note that the word *addiction* is not applied as a diagnostic term in this classification, although it is in common usage in many countries to describe severe problems related to compulsive and habitual use of substances. The more neutral term *substance use disorder* is used to describe the wide range of the disorder, from a mild form to a severe state of chronically relapsing, compulsive drug taking. Some clinicians will choose to use the word *addiction* to describe more extreme presentations, but the word is omitted from the official DSM-5 substance use disorder diagnostic terminology because of its uncertain definition and its potentially negative connotation.

Substance-Induced Disorders

The overall category of substance-induced disorders includes intoxication, withdrawal, and other substance/medication-induced mental disorders (e.g., substance-induced psychotic disorder, substance-induced depressive disorder).

Substance Intoxication and Withdrawal

Criteria for substance intoxication are included within the substance-specific sections of this chapter. The essential feature is the development of a reversible substance-specific syndrome due to the recent ingestion of a substance (Criterion A). The clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes associated with intoxication (e.g., belligerence, mood lability, impaired judgment) are attributable to the physiological effects of the substance on the central nervous system and develop during or shortly after use of the substance (Criterion B). The symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D). Substance intoxication is common among those with a substance use disorder but also occurs frequently in individuals without a substance use disorder. This category does *not* apply to tobacco.

The most common changes in intoxication involve disturbances of perception, wakefulness, attention, thinking, judgment, psychomotor behavior, and interpersonal behavior. Short-term, or “acute,” intoxications may have different signs and symptoms than

sustained, or “chronic,” intoxications. For example, moderate cocaine doses may initially produce gregariousness, but social withdrawal may develop if such doses are frequently repeated over days or weeks.

When used in the physiological sense, the term *intoxication* is broader than substance intoxication as defined here. Many substances may produce physiological or psychological changes that are not necessarily problematic. For example, an individual with tachycardia from substance use has a physiological effect, but if this is the only symptom in the absence of problematic behavior, the diagnosis of intoxication would not apply. Intoxication may sometimes persist beyond the time when the substance is detectable in the body. This may be due to enduring central nervous system effects, the recovery of which takes longer than the time for elimination of the substance. These longer-term effects of intoxication must be distinguished from withdrawal (i.e., symptoms initiated by a decline in blood or tissue concentrations of a substance).

Criteria for substance withdrawal are included within the substance-specific sections of this chapter. The essential feature is the development of a substance-specific problematic behavioral change, with physiological and cognitive concomitants, that is due to the cessation of, or reduction in, heavy and prolonged substance use (Criterion A). The substance-specific syndrome causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms are not due to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D). Withdrawal is usually, but not always, associated with a substance use disorder. Most individuals with withdrawal have an urge to re-administer the substance to reduce the symptoms.

Route of Administration and Speed of Substance Effects

Routes of administration that produce more rapid and efficient absorption into the bloodstream (e.g., intravenous, smoking, intranasal “snorting”) tend to result in a more intense intoxication and an increased likelihood of an escalating pattern of substance use leading to withdrawal. Similarly, rapidly acting substances are more likely than slower-acting substances to produce immediate intoxication.

Duration of Effects

Within the same drug category, relatively short-acting substances tend to have a higher potential for the development of withdrawal than do those with a longer duration of action. However, longer-acting substances tend to have longer withdrawal duration. The half-life of the substance parallels aspects of withdrawal: the longer the duration of action, the longer the time between cessation and the onset of withdrawal symptoms and the longer the withdrawal duration. In general, the longer the acute withdrawal period, the less intense the syndrome tends to be.

Use of Multiple Substances

Substance intoxication and withdrawal often involve several substances used simultaneously or sequentially. In these cases, each diagnosis should be recorded separately.

Associated Laboratory Findings

Laboratory analyses of blood and urine samples can help determine recent use and the specific substances involved. However, a positive laboratory test result does not by itself indicate that the individual has a pattern of substance use that meets criteria for a substance-induced or substance use disorder, and a negative test result does not by itself rule out a diagnosis.

Laboratory tests can be useful in identifying withdrawal. If the individual presents with withdrawal from an unknown substance, laboratory tests may help identify the substance and may also be helpful in differentiating withdrawal from other mental disorders.

In addition, normal functioning in the presence of high blood levels of a substance suggests considerable tolerance.

Development and Course

Individuals ages 18–24 years have relatively high prevalence rates for the use of virtually every substance. Intoxication is usually the initial substance-related disorder and often begins in the teens. Withdrawal can occur at any age as long as the relevant drug has been taken in sufficient doses over an extended period of time.

Recording Procedures for Intoxication and Withdrawal

The clinician should use the code that applies to the class of substances but record the name of the *specific substance*. For example, the clinician should record 292.0 (F13.239) secobarbital withdrawal (rather than sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal) or 292.89 (F15.129) methamphetamine intoxication (rather than stimulant intoxication). Note that the appropriate ICD-10-CM diagnostic code for intoxication depends on whether there is a comorbid substance use disorder. In this case, the F15.129 code for methamphetamine indicates the presence of a comorbid mild methamphetamine use disorder. If there had been no comorbid methamphetamine use disorder, the diagnostic code would have been F15.929. ICD-10-CM coding rules require that all withdrawal codes imply a comorbid moderate to severe substance use disorder for that substance. In the above case, the code for secobarbital withdrawal (F13.239) indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate to severe secobarbital use disorder. See the coding note for the substance-specific intoxication and withdrawal syndromes for the actual coding options.

For substances that do not fit into any of the classes (e.g., anabolic steroids), the appropriate code for “other substance intoxication” should be used and the specific substance indicated (e.g., 292.89 [F19.929] anabolic steroid intoxication). If the substance taken by the individual is unknown, the code for the class “other (or unknown)” should be used (e.g., 292.89 [F19.929] unknown substance intoxication). If there are symptoms or problems associated with a particular substance but criteria are not met for any of the substance-specific disorders, the unspecified category can be used (e.g., 292.9 [F12.99] unspecified cannabis-related disorder).

As noted above, the substance-related codes in ICD-10-CM combine the substance use disorder aspect of the clinical picture and the substance-induced aspect into a single combined code. Thus, if both heroin withdrawal and moderate heroin use disorder are present, the single code F11.23 is given to cover both presentations. In ICD-9-CM, separate diagnostic codes (292.0 and 304.00) are given to indicate withdrawal and a moderate heroin use disorder, respectively. See the individual substance-specific sections for additional coding information.

Substance/Medication-Induced Mental Disorders

The substance/medication-induced mental disorders are potentially severe, usually temporary, but sometimes persisting central nervous system (CNS) syndromes that develop in the context of the effects of substances of abuse, medications, or several toxins. They are distinguished from the substance use disorders, in which a cluster of cognitive, behavioral, and physiological symptoms contribute to the continued use of a substance despite significant substance-related problems. The substance/medication-induced mental disorders may be induced by the 10 classes of substances that produce substance use disorders, or by a great variety of other medications used in medical treatment. Each substance-induced mental disorder is described in the relevant chapter (e.g., “Depressive Disorders,” “Neurocognitive Disorders”), and therefore, only a brief description is offered here. All substance/medication-induced disorders share common characteristics. It is important to recognize these common features to aid in the detection of these disorders. These features are described as follows:

- A. The disorder represents a clinically significant symptomatic presentation of a relevant mental disorder.
- B. There is evidence from the history, physical examination, or laboratory findings of both of the following:
 - 1. The disorder developed during or within 1 month of a substance intoxication or withdrawal or taking a medication; and
 - 2. The involved substance/medication is capable of producing the mental disorder.
- C. The disorder is not better explained by an independent mental disorder (i.e., one that is not substance- or medication-induced). Such evidence of an independent mental disorder could include the following:
 - 1. The disorder preceded the onset of severe intoxication or withdrawal or exposure to the medication; or
 - 2. The full mental disorder persisted for a substantial period of time (e.g., at least 1 month) after the cessation of acute withdrawal or severe intoxication or taking the medication. This criterion does not apply to substance-induced neurocognitive disorders or hallucinogen persisting perception disorder, which persist beyond the cessation of acute intoxication or withdrawal.
- D. The disorder does not occur exclusively during the course of a delirium.
- E. The disorder causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.

Features

Some generalizations can be made regarding the categories of substances capable of producing clinically relevant substance-induced mental disorders. In general, the more sedating drugs (sedative, hypnotics, or anxiolytics, and alcohol) can produce prominent and clinically significant depressive disorders during intoxication, while anxiety conditions are likely to be observed during withdrawal syndromes from these substances. Also, during intoxication, the more stimulating substances (e.g., amphetamines and cocaine) are likely to be associated with substance-induced psychotic disorders and substance-induced anxiety disorders, with substance-induced major depressive episodes observed during withdrawal. Both the more sedating and more stimulating drugs are likely to produce significant but temporary sleep and sexual disturbances. An overview of the relationship between specific categories of substances and specific psychiatric syndromes is presented in Table 1.

The medication-induced conditions include what are often idiosyncratic CNS reactions or relatively extreme examples of side effects for a wide range of medications taken for a variety of medical concerns. These include neurocognitive complications of anesthetics, antihistamines, antihypertensives, and a variety of other medications and toxins (e.g., organophosphates, insecticides, carbon monoxide), as described in the chapter on neurocognitive disorders. Psychotic syndromes may be temporarily experienced in the context of anticholinergic, cardiovascular, and steroid drugs, as well as during use of stimulant-like and depressant-like prescription or over-the-counter drugs. Temporary but severe mood disturbances can be observed with a wide range of medications, including steroids, antihypertensives, disulfiram, and any prescription or over-the-counter depressant or stimulant-like substances. A similar range of medications can be associated with temporary anxiety syndromes, sexual dysfunctions, and conditions of disturbed sleep.

In general, to be considered a substance/medication-induced mental disorder, there must be evidence that the disorder being observed is not likely to be better explained by an independent mental condition. The latter are most likely to be seen if the mental disorder was present before the severe intoxication or withdrawal or medication administration, or, with the exception of several substance-induced persisting disorders listed in Table 1, continued more than 1 month after cessation of acute withdrawal, severe intoxication, or use

of the medications. When symptoms are only observed during a delirium (e.g., alcohol withdrawal delirium), the mental disorder should be diagnosed as a delirium, and the psychiatric syndrome occurring during the delirium should not also be diagnosed separately, as many symptoms (including disturbances in mood, anxiety, and reality testing) are commonly seen during agitated, confused states. The features associated with each relevant major mental disorder are similar whether observed with independent or substance/medication-induced mental disorders. However, individuals with substance/medication-induced mental disorders are likely to also demonstrate the associated features seen with the specific category of substance or medication, as listed in other subsections of this chapter.

Development and Course

Substance-induced mental disorders develop in the context of intoxication or withdrawal from substances of abuse, and medication-induced mental disorders are seen with prescribed or over-the-counter medications that are taken at the suggested doses. Both conditions are usually temporary and likely to disappear within 1 month or so of cessation of acute withdrawal, severe intoxication, or use of the medication. Exceptions to these generalizations occur for certain long-duration substance-induced disorders: substance-associated neurocognitive disorders that relate to conditions such as alcohol-induced neurocognitive disorder, inhalant-induced neurocognitive disorder, and sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced neurocognitive disorder; and hallucinogen persisting perception disorder (“flashbacks”; see the section “Hallucinogen-Related Disorders” later in this chapter). However, most other substance/medication-induced mental disorders, regardless of the severity of the symptoms, are likely to improve relatively quickly with abstinence and unlikely to remain clinically relevant for more than 1 month after complete cessation of use.

As is true of many consequences of heavy substance use, some individuals are more and others less prone toward specific substance-induced disorders. Similar types of predispositions may make some individuals more likely to develop psychiatric side effects of some types of medications, but not others. However, it is unclear whether individuals with family histories or personal prior histories with independent psychiatric syndromes are more likely to develop the induced syndrome once the consideration is made as to whether the quantity and frequency of the substance was sufficient to lead to the development of a substance-induced syndrome.

There are indications that the intake of substances of abuse or some medications with psychiatric side effects in the context of a preexisting mental disorder is likely to result in an intensification of the preexisting independent syndrome. The risk for substance/medication-induced mental disorders is likely to increase with both the quantity and the frequency of consumption of the relevant substance.

The symptom profiles for the substance/medication-induced mental disorders resemble independent mental disorders. While the symptoms of substance/medication-induced mental disorders can be identical to those of independent mental disorders (e.g., delusions, hallucinations, psychoses, major depressive episodes, anxiety syndromes), and although they can have the same severe consequences (e.g., suicide), most induced mental disorders are likely to improve in a matter of days to weeks of abstinence.

The substance/medication-induced mental disorders are an important part of the differential diagnoses for the independent psychiatric conditions. The importance of recognizing an induced mental disorder is similar to the relevance of identifying the possible role of some medical conditions and medication reactions before diagnosing an independent mental disorder. Symptoms of substance- and medication-induced mental disorders may be identical cross-sectionally to those of independent mental disorders but have different treatments and prognoses from the independent condition.

Functional Consequences of Substance/Medication-Induced Mental Disorders

The same consequences related to the relevant independent mental disorder (e.g., suicide attempts) are likely to apply to the substance/medication-induced mental disorders, but these are likely to disappear within 1 month after abstinence. Similarly, the same functional consequences associated with the relevant substance use disorder are likely to be seen for the substance-induced mental disorders.

Recording Procedures for Substance/Medication-Induced Mental Disorders

Coding notes and separate recording procedures for ICD-9-CM and ICD-10-CM codes for other specific substance/medication-induced mental disorders are provided in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters: "Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders," "Bipolar and Related Disorders," "Depressive Disorders," "Anxiety Disorders," "Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders," "Sleep-Wake Disorders," "Sexual Dysfunctions," and "Neurocognitive Disorders"). Generally, for ICD-9-CM, if a mental disorder is induced by a substance use disorder, a separate diagnostic code is given for the specific substance use disorder, in addition to the code for the substance/medication-induced mental disorder. For ICD-10-CM, a single code combines the substance-induced mental disorder with the substance use disorder. A separate diagnosis of the comorbid substance use disorder is not given, although the name and severity of the specific substance use disorder (when present) are used when recording the substance/medication-induced mental disorder. ICD-10-CM codes are also provided for situations in which the substance/medication-induced mental disorder is not induced by a substance use disorder (e.g., when a disorder is induced by one-time use of a substance or medication). Additional information needed to record the diagnostic name of the substance/medication-induced mental disorder is provided in the section "Recording Procedures" for each substance/medication-induced mental disorder in its respective chapter.

Alcohol-Related Disorders

Alcohol Use Disorder

Alcohol Intoxication

Alcohol Withdrawal

Other Alcohol-Induced Disorders

Unspecified Alcohol-Related Disorder

Alcohol Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of alcohol use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Alcohol is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control alcohol use.

3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain alcohol, use alcohol, or recover from its effects.
4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use alcohol.
5. Recurrent alcohol use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
6. Continued alcohol use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of alcohol.
7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of alcohol use.
8. Recurrent alcohol use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
9. Alcohol use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by alcohol.
10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of alcohol to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of alcohol.
11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for alcohol (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for alcohol withdrawal, pp. 499–500).
 - b. Alcohol (or a closely related substance, such as a benzodiazepine) is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for alcohol use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for alcohol use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use alcohol,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for alcohol use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for alcohol use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use alcohol,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to alcohol is restricted.

Code based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If an alcohol intoxication, alcohol withdrawal, or another alcohol-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for alcohol use disorder. Instead, the comorbid alcohol use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the alcohol-induced disorder code (see the coding note for alcohol intoxication, alcohol withdrawal, or a specific alcohol-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid alcohol intoxication and alcohol use disorder, only the alcohol intoxication code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid alcohol use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F10.129 for mild alcohol use disorder with alcohol intoxication or F10.229 for a moderate or severe alcohol use disorder with alcohol intoxication.

Specify current severity:

305.00 (F10.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

303.90 (F10.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

303.90 (F10.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Severity of the disorder is based on the number of diagnostic criteria endorsed. For a given individual, changes in severity of alcohol use disorder across time are also reflected by reductions in the frequency (e.g., days of use per month) and/or dose (e.g., number of standard drinks consumed per day) of alcohol used, as assessed by the individual’s self-report, report of knowledgeable others, clinician observations, and, when practical, biological testing (e.g., elevations in blood tests as described in the section “Diagnostic Markers” for this disorder).

Diagnostic Features

Alcohol use disorder is defined by a cluster of behavioral and physical symptoms, which can include withdrawal, tolerance, and craving. Alcohol withdrawal is characterized by withdrawal symptoms that develop approximately 4–12 hours after the reduction of intake following prolonged, heavy alcohol ingestion. Because withdrawal from alcohol can be unpleasant and intense, individuals may continue to consume alcohol despite adverse consequences, often to avoid or to relieve withdrawal symptoms. Some withdrawal symptoms (e.g., sleep problems) can persist at lower intensities for months and can contribute to relapse. Once a pattern of repetitive and intense use develops, individuals with alcohol use disorder may devote substantial periods of time to obtaining and consuming alcoholic beverages.

Craving for alcohol is indicated by a strong desire to drink that makes it difficult to think of anything else and that often results in the onset of drinking. School and job performance may also suffer either from the aftereffects of drinking or from actual intoxication at school or on the job; child care or household responsibilities may be neglected; and alcohol-related absences may occur from school or work. The individual may use alcohol in physically hazardous circumstances (e.g., driving an automobile, swimming, operating machinery while intoxicated). Finally, individuals with an alcohol use disorder may continue to consume alcohol despite the knowledge that continued consumption poses significant physical (e.g., blackouts, liver disease), psychological (e.g., depression), social, or interpersonal problems (e.g., violent arguments with spouse while intoxicated, child abuse).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Alcohol use disorder is often associated with problems similar to those associated with other substances (e.g., cannabis; cocaine; heroin; amphetamines; sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics). Alcohol may be used to alleviate the unwanted effects of these other substances or to substitute for them when they are not available. Symptoms of conduct problems, depression, anxiety, and insomnia frequently accompany heavy drinking and sometimes precede it.

Repeated intake of high doses of alcohol can affect nearly every organ system, especially the gastrointestinal tract, cardiovascular system, and the central and peripheral nervous systems. Gastrointestinal effects include gastritis, stomach or duodenal ulcers, and, in about 15% of individuals who use alcohol heavily, liver cirrhosis and/or pancreatitis. There is also an increased rate of cancer of the esophagus, stomach, and other parts of the gastrointestinal tract. One of the most commonly associated conditions is low-grade hypertension. Cardiomyopathy and other myopathies are less common but occur at an in-

creased rate among those who drink very heavily. These factors, along with marked increases in levels of triglycerides and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, contribute to an elevated risk of heart disease. Peripheral neuropathy may be evidenced by muscular weakness, paresthesias, and decreased peripheral sensation. More persistent central nervous system effects include cognitive deficits, severe memory impairment, and degenerative changes in the cerebellum. These effects are related to the direct effects of alcohol or of trauma and to vitamin deficiencies (particularly of the B vitamins, including thiamine). One devastating central nervous system effect is the relatively rare alcohol-induced persisting amnesic disorder, or Wernicke-Korsakoff syndrome, in which the ability to encode new memory is severely impaired. This condition would now be described within the chapter "Neurocognitive Disorders" and would be termed a *substance/medication-induced neurocognitive disorder*.

Alcohol use disorder is an important contributor to suicide risk during severe intoxication and in the context of a temporary alcohol-induced depressive and bipolar disorder. There is an increased rate of suicidal behavior as well as of completed suicide among individuals with the disorder.

Prevalence

Alcohol use disorder is a common disorder. In the United States, the 12-month prevalence of alcohol use disorder is estimated to be 4.6% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 8.5% among adults age 18 years and older in the United States. Rates of the disorder are greater among adult men (12.4%) than among adult women (4.9%). Twelve-month prevalence of alcohol use disorder among adults decreases in middle age, being greatest among individuals 18- to 29-years-old (16.2%) and lowest among individuals age 65 years and older (1.5%).

Twelve-month prevalence varies markedly across race/ethnic subgroups of the U.S. population. For 12- to 17-year-olds, rates are greatest among Hispanics (6.0%) and Native Americans and Alaska Natives (5.7%) relative to whites (5.0%), African Americans (1.8%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (1.6%). In contrast, among adults, the 12-month prevalence of alcohol use disorder is clearly greater among Native Americans and Alaska Natives (12.1%) than among whites (8.9%), Hispanics (7.9%), African Americans (6.9%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (4.5%).

Development and Course

The first episode of alcohol intoxication is likely to occur during the mid-teens. Alcohol-related problems that do not meet full criteria for a use disorder or isolated problems may occur prior to age 20 years, but the age at onset of an alcohol use disorder with two or more of the criteria clustered together peaks in the late teens or early to mid 20s. The large majority of individuals who develop alcohol-related disorders do so by their late 30s. The first evidence of withdrawal is not likely to appear until after many other aspects of an alcohol use disorder have developed. An earlier onset of alcohol use disorder is observed in adolescents with preexisting conduct problems and those with an earlier onset of intoxication.

Alcohol use disorder has a variable course that is characterized by periods of remission and relapse. A decision to stop drinking, often in response to a crisis, is likely to be followed by a period of weeks or more of abstinence, which is often followed by limited periods of controlled or nonproblematic drinking. However, once alcohol intake resumes, it is highly likely that consumption will rapidly escalate and that severe problems will once again develop.

Alcohol use disorder is often erroneously perceived as an intractable condition, perhaps based on the fact that individuals who present for treatment typically have a history of many years of severe alcohol-related problems. However, these most severe cases represent only a small proportion of individuals with this disorder, and the typical individual with the disorder has a much more promising prognosis.

Among adolescents, conduct disorder and repeated antisocial behavior often co-occur with alcohol- and with other substance-related disorders. While most individuals with alcohol use disorder develop the condition before age 40 years, perhaps 10% have later onset. Age-related physical changes in older individuals result in increased brain susceptibility to the depressant effects of alcohol; decreased rates of liver metabolism of a variety of substances, including alcohol; and decreased percentages of body water. These changes can cause older people to develop more severe intoxication and subsequent problems at lower levels of consumption. Alcohol-related problems in older people are also especially likely to be associated with other medical complications.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Environmental. Environmental risk and prognostic factors may include cultural attitudes toward drinking and intoxication, the availability of alcohol (including price), acquired personal experiences with alcohol, and stress levels. Additional potential mediators of how alcohol problems develop in predisposed individuals include heavier peer substance use, exaggerated positive expectations of the effects of alcohol, and suboptimal ways of coping with stress.

Genetic and physiological. Alcohol use disorder runs in families, with 40%–60% of the variance of risk explained by genetic influences. The rate of this condition is three to four times higher in close relatives of individuals with alcohol use disorder, with values highest for individuals with a greater number of affected relatives, closer genetic relationships to the affected person, and higher severity of the alcohol-related problems in those relatives. A significantly higher rate of alcohol use disorders exists in the monozygotic twin than in the dizygotic twin of an individual with the condition. A three- to fourfold increase in risk has been observed in children of individuals with alcohol use disorder, even when these children were given up for adoption at birth and raised by adoptive parents who did not have the disorder.

Recent advances in our understanding of genes that operate through intermediate characteristics (or phenotypes) to affect the risk of alcohol use disorder can help to identify individuals who might be at particularly low or high risk for alcohol use disorder. Among the low-risk phenotypes are the acute alcohol-related skin flush (seen most prominently in Asians). High vulnerability is associated with preexisting schizophrenia or bipolar disorder, as well as impulsivity (producing enhanced rates of all substance use disorders and gambling disorder), and a high risk specifically for alcohol use disorder is associated with a low level of response (low sensitivity) to alcohol. A number of gene variations may account for low response to alcohol or modulate the dopamine reward systems; it is important to note, however, that any one gene variation is likely to explain only 1%–2% of the risk for these disorders.

Course modifiers. In general, high levels of impulsivity are associated with an earlier onset and more severe alcohol use disorder.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

In most cultures, alcohol is the most frequently used intoxicating substance and contributes to considerable morbidity and mortality. An estimated 3.8% of all global deaths and 4.6% of global disability-adjusted life-years are attributable to alcohol. In the United States, 80% of adults (age 18 years and older) have consumed alcohol at some time in their lives, and 65% are current drinkers (last 12 months). An estimated 3.6% of the world population (15–64 years old) has a current (12-month) alcohol use disorder, with a lower prevalence (1.1%) found in the African region, a higher rate (5.2%) found in the American region (North, South, and Central America and the Caribbean), and the highest rate (10.9%) found in the Eastern Europe region.

Polymorphisms of genes for the alcohol-metabolizing enzymes alcohol dehydrogenase and aldehyde dehydrogenase are most often seen in Asians and affect the response to alcohol. When consuming alcohol, individuals with these gene variations can experience a flushed face and palpitations, reactions that can be so severe as to limit or preclude future alcohol consumption and diminish the risk for alcohol use disorder. These gene variations are seen in as many as 40% of Japanese, Chinese, Korean, and related groups worldwide and are related to lower risks for the disorder.

Despite small variations regarding individual criterion items, the diagnostic criteria perform equally well across most race/ethnicity groups.

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Males have higher rates of drinking and related disorders than females. However, because females generally weigh less than males, have more fat and less water in their bodies, and metabolize less alcohol in their esophagus and stomach, they are likely to develop higher blood alcohol levels per drink than males. Females who drink heavily may also be more vulnerable than males to some of the physical consequences associated with alcohol, including liver disease.

Diagnostic Markers

Individuals whose heavier drinking places them at elevated risk for alcohol use disorder can be identified both through standardized questionnaires and by elevations in blood test results likely to be seen with regular heavier drinking. These measures do not establish a diagnosis of an alcohol-related disorder but can be useful in highlighting individuals for whom more information should be gathered. The most direct test available to measure alcohol consumption cross-sectionally is *blood alcohol concentration*, which can also be used to judge tolerance to alcohol. For example, an individual with a concentration of 150 mg of ethanol per deciliter (dL) of blood who does not show signs of intoxication can be presumed to have acquired at least some degree of tolerance to alcohol. At 200 mg/dL, most nontolerant individuals demonstrate severe intoxication.

Regarding laboratory tests, one sensitive laboratory indicator of heavy drinking is a modest elevation or high-normal levels (>35 units) of gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT). This may be the only laboratory finding. At least 70% of individuals with a high GGT level are persistent heavy drinkers (i.e., consuming eight or more drinks daily on a regular basis). A second test with comparable or even higher levels of sensitivity and specificity is carbohydrate-deficient transferrin (CDT), with levels of 20 units or higher useful in identifying individuals who regularly consume eight or more drinks daily. Since both GGT and CDT levels return toward normal within days to weeks of stopping drinking, both state markers may be useful in monitoring abstinence, especially when the clinician observes increases, rather than decreases, in these values over time—a finding indicating that the person is likely to have returned to heavy drinking. The combination of tests for CDT and GGT may have even higher levels of sensitivity and specificity than either test used alone. Additional useful tests include the mean corpuscular volume (MCV), which may be elevated to high-normal values in individuals who drink heavily—a change that is due to the direct toxic effects of alcohol on erythropoiesis. Although the MCV can be used to help identify those who drink heavily, it is a poor method of monitoring abstinence because of the long half-life of red blood cells. Liver function tests (e.g., alanine aminotransferase [ALT] and alkaline phosphatase) can reveal liver injury that is a consequence of heavy drinking. Other potential markers of heavy drinking that are more nonspecific for alcohol but can help the clinician think of the possible effects of alcohol include elevations in blood levels of lipids (e.g., triglycerides and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol) and high-normal levels of uric acid.

Additional diagnostic markers relate to signs and symptoms that reflect the consequences often associated with persistent heavy drinking. For example, dyspepsia, nausea, and bloat-

ing can accompany gastritis, and hepatomegaly, esophageal varices, and hemorrhoids may reflect alcohol-induced changes in the liver. Other physical signs of heavy drinking include tremor, unsteady gait, insomnia, and erectile dysfunction. Males with chronic alcohol use disorder may exhibit decreased testicular size and feminizing effects associated with reduced testosterone levels. Repeated heavy drinking in females is associated with menstrual irregularities and, during pregnancy, spontaneous abortion and fetal alcohol syndrome. Individuals with preexisting histories of epilepsy or severe head trauma are more likely to develop alcohol-related seizures. Alcohol withdrawal may be associated with nausea, vomiting, gastritis, hematemesis, dry mouth, puffy blotchy complexion, and mild peripheral edema.

Functional Consequences of Alcohol Use Disorder

The diagnostic features of alcohol use disorder highlight major areas of life functioning likely to be impaired. These include driving and operating machinery, school and work, interpersonal relationships and communication, and health. Alcohol-related disorders contribute to absenteeism from work, job-related accidents, and low employee productivity. Rates are elevated in homeless individuals, perhaps reflecting a downward spiral in social and occupational functioning, although most individuals with alcohol use disorder continue to live with their families and function within their jobs.

Alcohol use disorder is associated with a significant increase in the risk of accidents, violence, and suicide. It is estimated that one in five intensive care unit admissions in some urban hospitals is related to alcohol and that 40% of individuals in the United States experience an alcohol-related adverse event at some time in their lives, with alcohol accounting for up to 55% of fatal driving events. Severe alcohol use disorder, especially in individuals with antisocial personality disorder, is associated with the commission of criminal acts, including homicide. Severe problematic alcohol use also contributes to disinhibition and feelings of sadness and irritability, which contribute to suicide attempts and completed suicides.

Unanticipated alcohol withdrawal in hospitalized individuals for whom a diagnosis of alcohol use disorder has been overlooked can add to the risks and costs of hospitalization and to time spent in the hospital.

Differential Diagnosis

Nonpathological use of alcohol. The key element of alcohol use disorder is the use of heavy doses of alcohol with resulting repeated and significant distress or impaired functioning. While most drinkers sometimes consume enough alcohol to feel intoxicated, only a minority (less than 20%) ever develop alcohol use disorder. Therefore, drinking, even daily, in low doses and occasional intoxication do not by themselves make this diagnosis.

Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. The signs and symptoms of alcohol use disorder are similar to those seen in sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. The two must be distinguished, however, because the course may be different, especially in relation to medical problems.

Conduct disorder in childhood and adult antisocial personality disorder. Alcohol use disorder, along with other substance use disorders, is seen in the majority of individuals with antisocial personality and preexisting conduct disorder. Because these diagnoses are associated with an early onset of alcohol use disorder as well as a worse prognosis, it is important to establish both conditions.

Comorbidity

Bipolar disorders, schizophrenia, and antisocial personality disorder are associated with a markedly increased rate of alcohol use disorder, and several anxiety and depressive disorders

may relate to alcohol use disorder as well. At least a part of the reported association between depression and moderate to severe alcohol use disorder may be attributable to temporary, alcohol-induced comorbid depressive symptoms resulting from the acute effects of intoxication or withdrawal. Severe, repeated alcohol intoxication may also suppress immune mechanisms and predispose individuals to infections and increase the risk for cancers.

Alcohol Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent ingestion of alcohol.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., inappropriate sexual or aggressive behavior, mood lability, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, alcohol ingestion.
- C. One (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing during, or shortly after, alcohol use:
 - 1. Slurred speech.
 - 2. Incoordination.
 - 3. Unsteady gait.
 - 4. Nystagmus.
 - 5. Impairment in attention or memory.
 - 6. Stupor or coma.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **303.00**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid alcohol use disorder. If a mild alcohol use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F10.129**, and if a moderate or severe alcohol use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F10.229**. If there is no comorbid alcohol use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F10.929**.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of alcohol intoxication is the presence of clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., inappropriate sexual or aggressive behavior, mood lability, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning) that develop during, or shortly after, alcohol ingestion (Criterion B). These changes are accompanied by evidence of impaired functioning and judgment and, if intoxication is intense, can result in a life-threatening coma. The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition (e.g., diabetic ketoacidosis), are not a reflection of conditions such as delirium, and are not related to intoxication with other depressant drugs (e.g., benzodiazepines) (Criterion D). The levels of incoordination can interfere with driving abilities and performance of usual activities to the point of causing accidents. Evidence of alcohol use can be obtained by smelling alcohol on the individual's breath, eliciting a history from the individual or another observer, and, when needed, having the individual provide breath, blood, or urine samples for toxicology analyses.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Alcohol intoxication is sometimes associated with amnesia for the events that occurred during the course of the intoxication ("blackouts"). This phenomenon may be related to the presence of a high blood alcohol level and, perhaps, to the rapidity with which this level is reached. During even mild alcohol intoxication, different symptoms are likely to be

observed at different time points. Evidence of mild intoxication with alcohol can be seen in most individuals after approximately two drinks (each standard drink is approximately 10–12 grams of ethanol and raises the blood alcohol concentration approximately 20 mg/dL). Early in the drinking period, when blood alcohol levels are rising, symptoms often include talkativeness, a sensation of well-being, and a bright, expansive mood. Later, especially when blood alcohol levels are falling, the individual is likely to become progressively more depressed, withdrawn, and cognitively impaired. At very high blood alcohol levels (e.g., 200–300 mg/dL), an individual who has not developed tolerance for alcohol is likely to fall asleep and enter a first stage of anesthesia. Higher blood alcohol levels (e.g., in excess of 300–400 mg/dL) can cause inhibition of respiration and pulse and even death in nontolerant individuals. The duration of intoxication depends on how much alcohol was consumed over what period of time. In general, the body is able to metabolize approximately one drink per hour, so that the blood alcohol level generally decreases at a rate of 15–20 mg/dL per hour. Signs and symptoms of intoxication are likely to be more intense when the blood alcohol level is rising than when it is falling.

Alcohol intoxication is an important contributor to suicidal behavior. There appears to be an increased rate of suicidal behavior, as well as of completed suicide, among persons intoxicated by alcohol.

Prevalence

The large majority of alcohol consumers are likely to have been intoxicated to some degree at some point in their lives. For example, in 2010, 44% of 12th-grade students admitted to having been “drunk in the past year,” with more than 70% of college students reporting the same.

Development and Course

Intoxication usually occurs as an episode usually developing over minutes to hours and typically lasting several hours. In the United States, the average age at first intoxication is approximately 15 years, with the highest prevalence at approximately 18–25 years. Frequency and intensity usually decrease with further advancing age. The earlier the onset of regular intoxication, the greater the likelihood the individual will go on to develop alcohol use disorder.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Episodes of alcohol intoxication increase with personality characteristics of sensation seeking and impulsivity.

Environmental. Episodes of alcohol intoxication increase with a heavy drinking environment.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

The major issues parallel the cultural differences regarding the use of alcohol overall. Thus, college fraternities and sororities may encourage alcohol intoxication. This condition is also frequent on certain dates of cultural significance (e.g., New Year’s Eve) and, for some subgroups, during specific events (e.g., wakes following funerals). Other subgroups encourage drinking at religious celebrations (e.g., Jewish and Catholic holidays), while still others strongly discourage all drinking or intoxication (e.g., some religious groups, such as Mormons, fundamentalist Christians, and Muslims).

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Historically, in many Western societies, acceptance of drinking and drunkenness is more tolerated for males, but such gender differences may be much less prominent in recent years, especially during adolescence and young adulthood.

Diagnostic Markers

Intoxication is usually established by observing an individual's behavior and smelling alcohol on the breath. The degree of intoxication increases with an individual's blood or breath alcohol level and with the ingestion of other substances, especially those with sedating effects.

Functional Consequences of Alcohol Intoxication

Alcohol intoxication contributes to the more than 30,000 alcohol-related drinking deaths in the United States each year. In addition, intoxication with this drug contributes to huge costs associated with drunk driving, lost time from school or work, as well as interpersonal arguments and physical fights.

Differential Diagnosis

Other medical conditions. Several medical (e.g., diabetic acidosis) and neurological conditions (e.g., cerebellar ataxia, multiple sclerosis) can temporarily resemble alcohol intoxication.

Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication. Intoxication with sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic drugs or with other sedating substances (e.g., antihistamines, anticholinergic drugs) can be mistaken for alcohol intoxication. The differential requires observing alcohol on the breath, measuring blood or breath alcohol levels, ordering a medical workup, and gathering a good history. The signs and symptoms of sedative-hypnotic intoxication are very similar to those observed with alcohol and include similar problematic behavioral or psychological changes. These changes are accompanied by evidence of impaired functioning and judgment—which, if intense, can result in a life-threatening coma—and levels of incoordination that can interfere with driving abilities and with performing usual activities. However, there is no smell as there is with alcohol, but there is likely to be evidence of misuse of the depressant drug in the blood or urine toxicology analyses.

Comorbidity

Alcohol intoxication may occur comorbidly with other substance intoxication, especially in individuals with conduct disorder or antisocial personality disorder.

Alcohol Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Cessation of (or reduction in) alcohol use that has been heavy and prolonged.
- B. Two (or more) of the following, developing within several hours to a few days after the cessation of (or reduction in) alcohol use described in Criterion A:
 1. Autonomic hyperactivity (e.g., sweating or pulse rate greater than 100 bpm).
 2. Increased hand tremor.
 3. Insomnia.
 4. Nausea or vomiting.
 5. Transient visual, tactile, or auditory hallucinations or illusions.
 6. Psychomotor agitation.
 7. Anxiety.
 8. Generalized tonic-clonic seizures.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.

D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Specify if:

With perceptual disturbances: This specifier applies in the rare instance when hallucinations (usually visual or tactile) occur with intact reality testing, or auditory, visual, or tactile illusions occur in the absence of a delirium.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **291.81**. The ICD-10-CM code for alcohol withdrawal without perceptual disturbances is **F10.239**, and the ICD-10-CM code for alcohol withdrawal with perceptual disturbances is **F10.232**. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe alcohol use disorder, reflecting the fact that alcohol withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe alcohol use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild alcohol use disorder with alcohol withdrawal.

Specifiers

When hallucinations occur in the absence of delirium (i.e., in a clear sensorium), a diagnosis of substance/medication-induced psychotic disorder should be considered.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of alcohol withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic withdrawal syndrome that develops within several hours to a few days after the cessation of (or reduction in) heavy and prolonged alcohol use (Criteria A and B). The withdrawal syndrome includes two or more of the symptoms reflecting autonomic hyperactivity and anxiety listed in Criterion B, along with gastrointestinal symptoms.

Withdrawal symptoms cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (e.g., generalized anxiety disorder), including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance (e.g., sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal) (Criterion D).

Symptoms can be relieved by administering alcohol or benzodiazepines (e.g., diazepam). The withdrawal symptoms typically begin when blood concentrations of alcohol decline sharply (i.e., within 4–12 hours) after alcohol use has been stopped or reduced. Reflecting the relatively fast metabolism of alcohol, symptoms of alcohol withdrawal usually peak in intensity during the second day of abstinence and are likely to improve markedly by the fourth or fifth day. Following acute withdrawal, however, symptoms of anxiety, insomnia, and autonomic dysfunction may persist for up to 3–6 months at lower levels of intensity.

Fewer than 10% of individuals who develop alcohol withdrawal will ever develop dramatic symptoms (e.g., severe autonomic hyperactivity, tremors, alcohol withdrawal delirium). Tonic-clonic seizures occur in fewer than 3% of individuals.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Although confusion and changes in consciousness are not core criteria for alcohol withdrawal, alcohol withdrawal delirium (see “Delirium” in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders”) may occur in the context of withdrawal. As is true for any agitated, confused state, regardless of the cause, in addition to a disturbance of consciousness and cognition, withdrawal delirium can include visual, tactile, or (rarely) auditory hallucinations (delirium tremens). When alcohol withdrawal delirium develops, it is likely that a clinically relevant medical condition may be present (e.g., liver failure, pneumonia, gastrointestinal bleeding, sequelae of head trauma, hypoglycemia, an electrolyte imbalance, postoperative status).

Prevalence

It is estimated that approximately 50% of middle-class, highly functional individuals with alcohol use disorder have ever experienced a full alcohol withdrawal syndrome. Among individuals with alcohol use disorder who are hospitalized or homeless, the rate of alcohol withdrawal may be greater than 80%. Less than 10% of individuals in withdrawal ever demonstrate alcohol withdrawal delirium or withdrawal seizures.

Development and Course

Acute alcohol withdrawal occurs as an episode usually lasting 4–5 days and only after extended periods of heavy drinking. Withdrawal is relatively rare in individuals younger than 30 years, and the risk and severity increase with increasing age.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Environmental. The probability of developing alcohol withdrawal increases with the quantity and frequency of alcohol consumption. Most individuals with this condition are drinking daily, consuming large amounts (approximately more than eight drinks per day) for multiple days. However, there are large inter-individual differences, with enhanced risks for individuals with concurrent medical conditions, those with family histories of alcohol withdrawal (i.e., a genetic component), those with prior withdrawals, and individuals who consume sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic drugs.

Diagnostic Markers

Autonomic hyperactivity in the context of moderately high but falling blood alcohol levels and a history of prolonged heavy drinking indicate a likelihood of alcohol withdrawal.

Functional Consequences of Alcohol Withdrawal

Symptoms of withdrawal may serve to perpetuate drinking behaviors and contribute to relapse, resulting in persistently impaired social and occupational functioning. Symptoms requiring medically supervised detoxification result in hospital utilization and loss of work productivity. Overall, the presence of withdrawal is associated with greater functional impairment and poor prognosis.

Differential Diagnosis

Other medical conditions. The symptoms of alcohol withdrawal can also be mimicked by some medical conditions (e.g., hypoglycemia and diabetic ketoacidosis). Essential tremor, a disorder that frequently runs in families, may erroneously suggest the tremulousness associated with alcohol withdrawal.

Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal produces a syndrome very similar to that of alcohol withdrawal.

Comorbidity

Withdrawal is more likely to occur with heavier alcohol intake, and that might be most often observed in individuals with conduct disorder and antisocial personality disorder. Withdrawal states are also more severe in older individuals, individuals who are also dependent on other depressant drugs (sedative-hypnotics), and individuals who have had more alcohol withdrawal experiences in the past.

Other Alcohol-Induced Disorders

The following alcohol-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): alcohol-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); alcohol-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); alcohol-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); alcohol-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); alcohol-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake Disorders”); alcohol-induced sexual dysfunction (“Sexual Dysfunctions”); and alcohol-induced major or mild neurocognitive disorder (“Neurocognitive Disorders”). For alcohol intoxication delirium and alcohol withdrawal delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These alcohol-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of alcohol intoxication or alcohol withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Features

The symptom profiles for an alcohol-induced condition resemble independent mental disorders as described elsewhere in DSM-5. However, the alcohol-induced disorder is temporary and observed after severe intoxication with and/or withdrawal from alcohol. While the symptoms can be identical to those of independent mental disorders (e.g., psychoses, major depressive disorder), and while they can have the same severe consequences (e.g., suicide attempts), alcohol-induced conditions are likely to improve without formal treatment in a matter of days to weeks after cessation of severe intoxication and/or withdrawal.

Each alcohol-induced mental disorder is listed in the relevant diagnostic section and therefore only a brief description is offered here. Alcohol-induced disorders must have developed in the context of severe intoxication and/or withdrawal from the substance capable of producing the mental disorder. In addition, there must be evidence that the disorder being observed is not likely to be better explained by another non-alcohol-induced mental disorder. The latter is likely to occur if the mental disorder was present before the severe intoxication or withdrawal, or continued more than 1 month after the cessation of severe intoxication and/or withdrawal. When symptoms are observed only during a delirium, they should be considered part of the delirium and not diagnosed separately, as many symptoms (including disturbances in mood, anxiety, and reality testing) are commonly seen during agitated, confused states. The alcohol-induced disorder must be clinically relevant, causing significant levels of distress or significant functional impairment. Finally, there are indications that the intake of substances of abuse in the context of a preexisting mental disorder are likely to result in an intensification of the preexisting independent syndrome.

The features associated with each relevant major mental disorder (e.g., psychotic episodes, major depressive disorder) are similar whether observed with an independent or an alcohol-induced condition. However, individuals with alcohol-induced disorders are likely to also demonstrate the associated features seen with an alcohol use disorder, as listed in the subsections of this chapter.

Rates of alcohol-induced disorders vary somewhat by diagnostic category. For example, the lifetime risk for major depressive episodes in individuals with alcohol use disorder is approximately 40%, but only about one-third to one-half of these represent independent major depressive syndromes observed outside the context of intoxication. Similar rates of alcohol-induced sleep and anxiety conditions are likely, but alcohol-induced psychotic episodes are fairly rare.

Development and Course

Once present, the symptoms of an alcohol-induced condition are likely to remain clinically relevant as long as the individual continues to experience severe intoxication and/or with-

drawal. While the symptoms are identical to those of independent mental disorders (e.g., psychoses, major depressive disorder), and while they can have the same severe consequences (e.g., suicide attempts), all alcohol-induced syndromes other than alcohol-induced neurocognitive disorder, amnesic confabulatory type (alcohol-induced persisting amnesic disorder), regardless of the severity of the symptoms, are likely to improve relatively quickly and unlikely to remain clinically relevant for more than 1 month after cessation of severe intoxication and/or withdrawal.

The alcohol-induced disorders are an important part of the differential diagnoses for the independent mental conditions. Independent schizophrenia, major depressive disorder, bipolar disorder, and anxiety disorders, such as panic disorder, are likely to be associated with much longer-lasting periods of symptoms and often require longer-term medications to optimize the probability of improvement or recovery. The alcohol-induced conditions, on the other hand, are likely to be much shorter in duration and disappear within several days to 1 month after cessation of severe intoxication and/or withdrawal, even without psychotropic medications.

The importance of recognizing an alcohol-induced disorder is similar to the relevance of identifying the possible role of some endocrine conditions and medication reactions before diagnosing an independent mental disorder. In light of the high prevalence of alcohol use disorders worldwide, it is important that these alcohol-induced diagnoses be considered before independent mental disorders are diagnosed.

Unspecified Alcohol-Related Disorder

291.9 (F10.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of an alcohol-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific alcohol-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Caffeine-Related Disorders

Caffeine Intoxication

Caffeine Withdrawal

Other Caffeine-Induced Disorders

Unspecified Caffeine-Related Disorder

Caffeine Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

305.90 (F15.929)

- A. Recent consumption of caffeine (typically a high dose well in excess of 250 mg).
- B. Five (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing during, or shortly after, caffeine use:
 1. Restlessness.
 2. Nervousness.

3. Excitement.
 4. Insomnia.
 5. Flushed face.
 6. Diuresis.
 7. Gastrointestinal disturbance.
 8. Muscle twitching.
 9. Rambling flow of thought and speech.
 10. Tachycardia or cardiac arrhythmia.
 11. Periods of inexhaustibility.
 12. Psychomotor agitation.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.
-

Diagnostic Features

Caffeine can be consumed from a number of different sources, including coffee, tea, caffeinated soda, “energy” drinks, over-the-counter analgesics and cold remedies, energy aids (e.g., drinks), weight-loss aids, and chocolate. Caffeine is also increasingly being used as an additive to vitamins and to food products. More than 85% of children and adults consume caffeine regularly. Some caffeine users display symptoms consistent with problematic use, including tolerance and withdrawal (see “Caffeine Withdrawal” later in this chapter); the data are not available at this time to determine the clinical significance of a caffeine use disorder and its prevalence. In contrast, there is evidence that caffeine withdrawal and caffeine intoxication are clinically significant and sufficiently prevalent.

The essential feature of caffeine intoxication is recent consumption of caffeine and five or more signs or symptoms that develop during or shortly after caffeine use (Criteria A and B). Symptoms include restlessness, nervousness, excitement, insomnia, flushed face, diuresis, and gastrointestinal complaints, which can occur with low doses (e.g., 200 mg) in vulnerable individuals such as children, the elderly, or individuals who have not been exposed to caffeine previously. Symptoms that generally appear at levels of more than 1 g/day include muscle twitching, rambling flow of thought and speech, tachycardia or cardiac arrhythmia, periods of inexhaustibility, and psychomotor agitation. Caffeine intoxication may not occur despite high caffeine intake because of the development of tolerance. The signs or symptoms must cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The signs or symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (e.g., an anxiety disorder) or intoxication with another substance (Criterion D).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Mild sensory disturbances (e.g., ringing in the ears and flashes of light) may occur with high doses of caffeine. Although large doses of caffeine can increase heart rate, smaller doses can slow heart rate. Whether excess caffeine intake can cause headaches is unclear. On physical examination, agitation, restlessness, sweating, tachycardia, flushed face, and increased bowel motility may be seen. Caffeine blood levels may provide important information for diagnosis, particularly when the individual is a poor historian, although these levels are not diagnostic by themselves in view of the individual variation in response to caffeine.

Prevalence

The prevalence of caffeine intoxication in the general population is unclear. In the United States, approximately 7% of individuals in the population may experience five or more symptoms along with functional impairment consistent with a diagnosis of caffeine intoxication.

Development and Course

Consistent with a half-life of caffeine of approximately 4–6 hours, caffeine intoxication symptoms usually remit within the first day or so and do not have any known long-lasting consequences. However, individuals who consume very high doses of caffeine (i.e., 5–10 g) may require immediate medical attention, as such doses can be lethal.

With advancing age, individuals are likely to demonstrate increasingly intense reactions to caffeine, with greater complaints of interference with sleep or feelings of hyperarousal. Caffeine intoxication among young individuals after consumption of highly caffeinated products, including energy drinks, has been observed. Children and adolescents may be at increased risk for caffeine intoxication because of low body weight, lack of tolerance, and lack of knowledge about the pharmacological effects of caffeine.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Environmental. Caffeine intoxication is often seen among individuals who use caffeine less frequently or in those who have recently increased their caffeine intake by a substantial amount. Furthermore, oral contraceptives significantly decrease the elimination of caffeine and consequently may increase the risk of intoxication.

Genetic and physiological. Genetic factors may affect risk of caffeine intoxication.

Functional Consequences of Caffeine Intoxication

Impairment from caffeine intoxication may have serious consequences, including dysfunction at work or school, social indiscretions, or failure to fulfill role obligations. Moreover, extremely high doses of caffeine can be fatal. In some cases, caffeine intoxication may precipitate a caffeine-induced disorder.

Differential Diagnosis

Other mental disorders. Caffeine intoxication may be characterized by symptoms (e.g., panic attacks) that resemble primary mental disorders. To meet criteria for caffeine intoxication, the symptoms must not be associated with another medical condition or another mental disorder, such as an anxiety disorder, that could better explain them. Manic episodes; panic disorder; generalized anxiety disorder; amphetamine intoxication; sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal or tobacco withdrawal; sleep disorders; and medication-induced side effects (e.g., akathisia) can cause a clinical picture that is similar to that of caffeine intoxication.

Other caffeine-induced disorders. The temporal relationship of the symptoms to increased caffeine use or to abstinence from caffeine helps to establish the diagnosis. Caffeine intoxication is differentiated from caffeine-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during intoxication (see “Substance/Medication-Induced Anxiety Disorder” in the chapter “Anxiety Disorders”), and caffeine-induced sleep disorder, with onset during intoxication (see “Substance/Medication-Induced Sleep Disorder” in the chapter “Sleep-Wake Disorders”), by the fact that the symptoms in these latter disorders are in excess of those usually associated with caffeine intoxication and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Comorbidity

Typical dietary doses of caffeine have not been consistently associated with medical problems. However, heavy use (e.g., >400 mg) can cause or exacerbate anxiety and somatic symptoms and gastrointestinal distress. With acute, extremely high doses of caffeine, grand mal seizures and respiratory failure may result in death. Excessive caffeine use is associated with depressive disorders, bipolar disorders, eating disorders, psychotic disorders, sleep disorders, and substance-related disorders, whereas individuals with anxiety disorders are more likely to avoid caffeine.

Caffeine Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

292.0 (F15.93)

- A. Prolonged daily use of caffeine.
 - B. Abrupt cessation of or reduction in caffeine use, followed within 24 hours by three (or more) of the following signs or symptoms:
 1. Headache.
 2. Marked fatigue or drowsiness.
 3. Dysphoric mood, depressed mood, or irritability.
 4. Difficulty concentrating.
 5. Flu-like symptoms (nausea, vomiting, or muscle pain/stiffness).
 - C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
 - D. The signs or symptoms are not associated with the physiological effects of another medical condition (e.g., migraine, viral illness) and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.
-

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of caffeine withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic withdrawal syndrome that develops after the abrupt cessation of (or substantial reduction in) prolonged daily caffeine ingestion (Criterion B). The caffeine withdrawal syndrome is indicated by three or more of the following (Criterion B): headache; marked fatigue or drowsiness; dysphoric mood, depressed mood, or irritability; difficulty concentrating; and flu-like symptoms (nausea, vomiting, or muscle pain/stiffness). The withdrawal syndrome causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms must not be associated with the physiological effects of another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D).

Headache is the hallmark feature of caffeine withdrawal and may be diffuse, gradual in development, throbbing, severe, and sensitive to movement. However, other symptoms of caffeine withdrawal can occur in the absence of headache. Caffeine is the most widely used behaviorally active drug in the world and is present in many different types of beverages (e.g., coffee, tea, maté, soft drinks, energy drinks), foods, energy aids, medications, and dietary supplements. Because caffeine ingestion is often integrated into social customs and daily rituals (e.g., coffee break, tea time), some caffeine consumers may be unaware of their physical dependence on caffeine. Thus, caffeine withdrawal symptoms could be unexpected and misattributed to other causes (e.g., the flu, migraine). Furthermore, caffeine withdrawal symptoms may occur when individuals are required to abstain from foods and beverages prior to medical procedures or when a usual caffeine dose is missed because of a change in routine (e.g., during travel, weekends).

The probability and severity of caffeine withdrawal generally increase as a function of usual daily caffeine dose. However, there is large variability among individuals and within individuals across different episodes in the incidence, severity, and time course of withdrawal symptoms. Caffeine withdrawal symptoms may occur after abrupt cessation of relatively low chronic daily doses of caffeine (i.e., 100 mg).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Caffeine abstinence has been shown to be associated with impaired behavioral and cognitive performance (e.g., sustained attention). Electroencephalographic studies have shown that caffeine withdrawal symptoms are significantly associated with increases in theta power and decreases in beta-2 power. Decreased motivation to work and decreased sociability have also been reported during caffeine withdrawal. Increased analgesic use during caffeine withdrawal has been documented.

Prevalence

More than 85% of adults and children in the United States regularly consume caffeine, with adult caffeine consumers ingesting about 280 mg/day on average. The incidence and prevalence of the caffeine withdrawal syndrome in the general population are unclear. In the United States, headache may occur in approximately 50% of cases of caffeine abstinence. In attempts to permanently stop caffeine use, more than 70% of individuals may experience at least one caffeine withdrawal symptom (47% may experience headache), and 24% may experience headache plus one or more other symptoms as well as functional impairment due to withdrawal. Among individuals who abstain from caffeine for at least 24 hours but are not trying to permanently stop caffeine use, 11% may experience headache plus one or more other symptoms as well as functional impairment. Caffeine consumers can decrease the incidence of caffeine withdrawal by using caffeine daily or only infrequently (e.g., no more than 2 consecutive days). Gradual reduction in caffeine over a period of days or weeks may decrease the incidence and severity of caffeine withdrawal.

Development and Course

Symptoms usually begin 12–24 hours after the last caffeine dose and peak after 1–2 days of abstinence. Caffeine withdrawal symptoms last for 2–9 days, with the possibility of withdrawal headaches occurring for up to 21 days. Symptoms usually remit rapidly (within 30–60 minutes) after re-ingestion of caffeine.

Caffeine is unique in that it is a behaviorally active drug that is consumed by individuals of nearly all ages. Rates of caffeine consumption and overall level of caffeine consumption increase with age until the early to mid-30s and then level off. Although caffeine withdrawal among children and adolescents has been documented, relatively little is known about risk factors for caffeine withdrawal among this age group. The use of highly caffeinated energy drinks is increasing with in young individuals, which could increase the risk for caffeine withdrawal.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Heavy caffeine use has been observed among individuals with mental disorders, including eating disorders; smokers; prisoners; and drug and alcohol abusers. Thus, these individuals could be at higher risk for caffeine withdrawal upon acute caffeine abstinence.

Environmental. The unavailability of caffeine is an environmental risk factor for incipient withdrawal symptoms. While caffeine is legal and usually widely available, there are conditions in which caffeine use may be restricted, such as during medical procedures, pregnancy, hospitalizations, religious observances, wartime, travel, and research partici-

pation. These external environmental circumstances may precipitate a withdrawal syndrome in vulnerable individuals.

Genetic and physiological factors. Genetic factors appear to increase vulnerability to caffeine withdrawal, but no specific genes have been identified.

Course modifiers. Caffeine withdrawal symptoms usually remit within 30–60 minutes of reexposure to caffeine. Doses of caffeine significantly less than one's usual daily dose may be sufficient to prevent or attenuate caffeine withdrawal symptoms (e.g., consumption of 25 mg by an individual who typically consumes 300 mg).

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Habitual caffeine consumers who fast for religious reasons may be at increased risk for caffeine withdrawal.

Functional Consequences of Caffeine Withdrawal Disorder

Caffeine withdrawal symptoms can vary from mild to extreme, at times causing functional impairment in normal daily activities. Rates of functional impairment range from 10% to 55% (median 13%), with rates as high as 73% found among individuals who also show other problematic features of caffeine use. Examples of functional impairment include being unable to work, exercise, or care for children; staying in bed all day; missing religious services; ending a vacation early; and cancelling a social gathering. Caffeine withdrawal headaches may be described by individuals as "the worst headaches" ever experienced. Decrements in cognitive and motor performance have also been observed.

Differential Diagnosis

Other medical disorders and medical side effects. Several disorders should be considered in the differential diagnosis of caffeine withdrawal. Caffeine withdrawal can mimic migraine and other headache disorders, viral illnesses, sinus conditions, tension, other drug withdrawal states (e.g., from amphetamines, cocaine), and medication side effects. The final determination of caffeine withdrawal should rest on a determination of the pattern and amount consumed, the time interval between caffeine abstinence and onset of symptoms, and the particular clinical features presented by the individual. A challenge dose of caffeine followed by symptom remission may be used to confirm the diagnosis.

Comorbidity

Caffeine withdrawal may be associated with major depressive disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, antisocial personality disorder in adults, moderate to severe alcohol use disorder, and cannabis and cocaine use.

Other Caffeine-Induced Disorders

The following caffeine-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): caffeine-induced anxiety disorder ("Anxiety Disorders") and caffeine-induced sleep disorder ("Sleep-Wake Disorders"). These caffeine-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of caffeine intoxication or caffeine withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Caffeine-Related Disorder

292.9 (F15.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a caffeine-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific caffeine-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Cannabis-Related Disorders

Cannabis Use Disorder

Cannabis Intoxication

Cannabis Withdrawal

Other Cannabis-Induced Disorders

Unspecified Cannabis-Related Disorder

Cannabis Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of cannabis use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Cannabis is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control cannabis use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain cannabis, use cannabis, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use cannabis.
 5. Recurrent cannabis use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
 6. Continued cannabis use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of cannabis.
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of cannabis use.
 8. Recurrent cannabis use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
 9. Cannabis use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by cannabis.
10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
- a. A need for markedly increased amounts of cannabis to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. Markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of cannabis.
11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
- a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for cannabis (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for cannabis withdrawal, pp. 517–518).

- b. Cannabis (or a closely related substance) is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for cannabis use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for cannabis use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use cannabis,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for cannabis use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for cannabis use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use cannabis,” may be present).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to cannabis is restricted.

Code based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If a cannabis intoxication, cannabis withdrawal, or another cannabis-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for cannabis use disorder. Instead, the comorbid cannabis use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the cannabis-induced disorder code (see the coding note for cannabis intoxication, cannabis withdrawal, or a specific cannabis-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid cannabis-induced anxiety disorder and cannabis use disorder, only the cannabis-induced anxiety disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid cannabis use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F12.180 for mild cannabis use disorder with cannabis-induced anxiety disorder or F12.280 for a moderate or severe cannabis use disorder with cannabis-induced anxiety disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.20 (F12.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.30 (F12.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.30 (F12.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Changing severity across time in an individual may also be reflected by changes in the frequency (e.g., days of use per month or times used per day) and/or dose (e.g., amount used per episode) of cannabis, as assessed by individual self-report, report of knowledgeable others, clinician’s observations, and biological testing.

Diagnostic Features

Cannabis use disorder and the other cannabis-related disorders include problems that are associated with substances derived from the cannabis plant and chemically similar synthetic compounds. Over time, this plant material has accumulated many names (e.g., weed, pot, herb, grass, reefer, mary jane, dagga, dope, bhang, skunk, boom, gangster, kif, and ganja). A concentrated extraction of the cannabis plant that is also commonly used is hashish. *Cannabis* is the generic and perhaps the most appropriate scientific term for the psychoactive substance(s) derived from the plant, and as such it is used in this manual to refer to all forms of cannabis-like substances, including synthetic cannabinoid compounds.

Synthetic oral formulations (pill/capsules) of delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (delta-9-THC) are available by prescription for a number of approved medical indications (e.g., for nausea and vomiting caused by chemotherapy; for anorexia and weight loss in individuals with AIDS). Other synthetic cannabinoid compounds have been manufactured and distributed for nonmedical use in the form of plant material that has been sprayed with a cannabinoid formulation (e.g., K2, Spice, JWH-018, JWH-073).

The cannabinoids have diverse effects in the brain, prominent among which are actions on CB1 and CB2 cannabinoid receptors that are found throughout the central nervous system. Endogenous ligands for these receptors behave essentially like neurotransmitters. The potency of cannabis (delta-9-THC concentration) that is generally available varies greatly, ranging from 1% to approximately 15% in typical cannabis plant material and 10%–20% in hashish. During the past two decades, a steady increase in the potency of seized cannabis has been observed.

Cannabis is most commonly smoked via a variety of methods: pipes, water pipes (bongs or hookahs), cigarettes (joints or reefers), or, most recently, in the paper from hollowed out cigars (blunts). Cannabis is also sometimes ingested orally, typically by mixing it into food. More recently, devices have been developed in which cannabis is “vaporized.” Vaporization involves heating the plant material to release psychoactive cannabinoids for inhalation. As with other psychoactive substances, smoking (and vaporization) typically produces more rapid onset and more intense experiences of the desired effects.

Individuals who regularly use cannabis can develop all the general diagnostic features of a substance use disorder. Cannabis use disorder is commonly observed as the only substance use disorder experienced by the individual; however, it also frequently occurs concurrently with other types of substance use disorders (i.e., alcohol, cocaine, opioid). In cases for which multiple types of substances are used, many times the individual may minimize the symptoms related to cannabis, as the symptoms may be less severe or cause less harm than those directly related to the use of the other substances. Pharmacological and behavioral tolerance to most of the effects of cannabis has been reported in individuals who use cannabis persistently. Generally, tolerance is lost when cannabis use is discontinued for a significant period of time (i.e., for at least several months).

New to DSM-5 is the recognition that abrupt cessation of daily or near-daily cannabis use often results in the onset of a cannabis withdrawal syndrome. Common symptoms of withdrawal include irritability, anger or aggression, anxiety, depressed mood, restlessness, sleep difficulty, and decreased appetite or weight loss. Although typically not as severe as alcohol or opiate withdrawal, the cannabis withdrawal syndrome can cause significant distress and contribute to difficulty quitting or relapse among those trying to abstain.

Individuals with cannabis use disorder may use cannabis throughout the day over a period of months or years, and thus may spend many hours a day under the influence. Others may use less frequently, but their use causes recurrent problems related to family, school, work, or other important activities (e.g., repeated absences at work; neglect of family obligations). Periodic cannabis use and intoxication can negatively affect behavioral and cognitive functioning and thus interfere with optimal performance at work or school, or place the individual at increased physical risk when performing activities that could be physically hazardous (e.g., driving a car; playing certain sports; performing manual work activities, including operating machinery). Arguments with spouses or parents over the use of cannabis in the home, or its use in the presence of children, can adversely impact family functioning and are common features of those with cannabis use disorder. Last, individuals with cannabis use disorder may continue using despite knowledge of physical problems (e.g., chronic cough related to smoking) or psychological problems (e.g., excessive sedation or exacerbation of other mental health problems) associated with its use.

Whether or not cannabis is being used for legitimate medical reasons may also affect diagnosis. When a substance is taken as indicated for a medical condition, symptoms of

tolerance and withdrawal will naturally occur and should not be used as the primary criteria for determining a diagnosis of a substance use disorder. Although medical uses of cannabis remain controversial and equivocal, use for medical circumstances should be considered when a diagnosis is being made.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Individuals who regularly use cannabis often report that it is being used to cope with mood, sleep, pain, or other physiological or psychological problems, and those diagnosed with cannabis use disorder frequently do have concurrent other mental disorders. Careful assessment typically reveals reports of cannabis use contributing to exacerbation of these same symptoms, as well as other reasons for frequent use (e.g., to experience euphoria, to forget about problems, in response to anger, as an enjoyable social activity). Related to this issue, some individuals who use cannabis multiple times per day for the aforementioned reasons do not perceive themselves as (and thus do not report) spending an excessive amount of time under the influence or recovering from the effects of cannabis, despite being intoxicated on cannabis or coming down from its effects for the majority of most days. An important marker of a substance use disorder diagnosis, particularly in milder cases, is continued use despite a clear risk of negative consequences to other valued activities or relationships (e.g., school, work, sport activity, partner or parent relationship).

Because some cannabis users are motivated to minimize their amount or frequency of use, it is important to be aware of common signs and symptoms of cannabis use and intoxication so as to better assess the extent of use. As with other substances, experienced users of cannabis develop behavioral and pharmacological tolerance such that it can be difficult to detect when they are under the influence. Signs of acute and chronic use include red eyes (conjunctival injection), cannabis odor on clothing, yellowing of finger tips (from smoking joints), chronic cough, burning of incense (to hide the odor), and exaggerated craving and impulse for specific foods, sometimes at unusual times of the day or night.

Prevalence

Cannabinoids, especially cannabis, are the most widely used illicit psychoactive substances in the United States. The 12-month prevalence of cannabis use disorder (DSM-IV abuse and dependence rates combined) is approximately 3.4% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 1.5% among adults age 18 years and older. Rates of cannabis use disorder are greater among adult males (2.2%) than among adult females (0.8%) and among 12- to 17-year-old males (3.8%) than among 12- to 17-year-old females (3.0%). Twelve-month prevalence rates of cannabis use disorder among adults decrease with age, with rates highest among 18- to 29-year-olds (4.4%) and lowest among individuals age 65 years and older (0.01%). The high prevalence of cannabis use disorder likely reflects the much more widespread use of cannabis relative to other illicit drugs rather than greater addictive potential.

Ethnic and racial differences in prevalence are moderate. Twelve-month prevalences of cannabis use disorder vary markedly across racial-ethnic subgroups in the United States. For 12- to 17-year-olds, rates are highest among Native American and Alaska Natives (7.1%) compared with Hispanics (4.1%), whites (3.4%), African Americans (2.7%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.9%). Among adults, the prevalence of cannabis use disorder is also highest among Native Americans and Alaska Natives (3.4%) relative to rates among African Americans (1.8%), whites (1.4%), Hispanics (1.2%), and Asian and Pacific Islanders (1.2%). During the past decade the prevalence of cannabis use disorder has increased among adults and adolescents. Gender differences in cannabis use disorder generally are concordant with those in other substance use disorders. Cannabis use disorder is more commonly observed in males, although the magnitude of this difference is less among adolescents.

Development and Course

The onset of cannabis use disorder can occur at any time during or following adolescence, but onset is most commonly during adolescence or young adulthood. Although much less frequent, onset of cannabis use disorder in the preteen years or in the late 20s or older can occur. Recent acceptance by some of the use and availability of “medical marijuana” may increase the rate of onset of cannabis use disorder among older adults.

Generally, cannabis use disorder develops over an extended period of time, although the progression appears to be more rapid in adolescents, particularly those with pervasive conduct problems. Most people who develop a cannabis use disorder typically establish a pattern of cannabis use that gradually increases in both frequency and amount. Cannabis, along with tobacco and alcohol, is traditionally the first substance that adolescents try. Many perceive cannabis use as less harmful than alcohol or tobacco use, and this perception likely contributes to increased use. Moreover, cannabis intoxication does not typically result in as severe behavioral and cognitive dysfunction as does significant alcohol intoxication, which may increase the probability of more frequent use in more diverse situations than with alcohol. These factors likely contribute to the potential rapid transition from cannabis use to a cannabis use disorder among some adolescents and the common pattern of using throughout the day that is commonly observed among those with more severe cannabis use disorder.

Cannabis use disorder among preteens, adolescents, and young adults is typically expressed as excessive use with peers that is a component of a pattern of other delinquent behaviors usually associated with conduct problems. Milder cases primarily reflect continued use despite clear problems related to disapproval of use by other peers, school administration, or family, which also places the youth at risk for physical or behavioral consequences. In more severe cases, there is a progression to using alone or using throughout the day such that use interferes with daily functioning and takes the place of previously established, prosocial activities.

With adolescent users, changes in mood stability, energy level, and eating patterns are commonly observed. These signs and symptoms are likely due to the direct effects of cannabis use (intoxication) and the subsequent effects following acute intoxication (coming down), as well as attempts to conceal use from others. School-related problems are commonly associated with cannabis use disorder in adolescents, particularly a dramatic drop in grades, truancy, and reduced interest in general school activities and outcomes.

Cannabis use disorder among adults typically involves well-established patterns of daily cannabis use that continue despite clear psychosocial or medical problems. Many adults have experienced repeated desire to stop or have failed at repeated cessation attempts. Milder adult cases may resemble the more common adolescent cases in that cannabis use is not as frequent or heavy but continues despite potential significant consequences of sustained use. The rate of use among middle-age and older adults appears to be increasing, likely because of a cohort effect resulting from high prevalence of use in the late 1960s and the 1970s.

Early onset of cannabis use (e.g., prior to age 15 years) is a robust predictor of the development of cannabis use disorder and other types of substance use disorders and mental disorders during young adulthood. Such early onset is likely related to concurrent other externalizing problems, most notably conduct disorder symptoms. However, early onset is also a predictor of internalizing problems and as such probably reflects a general risk factor for the development of mental health disorders.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. A history of conduct disorder in childhood or adolescence and antisocial personality disorder are risk factors for the development of many substance-related disorders, including cannabis-related disorders. Other risk factors include externalizing

or internalizing disorders during childhood or adolescence. Youths with high behavioral disinhibition scores show early-onset substance use disorders, including cannabis use disorder, multiple substance involvement, and early conduct problems.

Environmental. Risk factors include academic failure, tobacco smoking, unstable or abusive family situation, use of cannabis among immediate family members, a family history of a substance use disorder, and low socioeconomic status. As with all substances of abuse, the ease of availability of the substance is a risk factor; cannabis is relatively easy to obtain in most cultures, which increases the risk of developing a cannabis use disorder.

Genetic and physiological. Genetic influences contribute to the development of cannabis use disorders. Heritable factors contribute between 30% and 80% of the total variance in risk of cannabis use disorders. It should be noted that common genetic and shared environmental influences between cannabis and other types of substance use disorders suggest a common genetic basis for adolescent substance use and conduct problems.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Cannabis is probably the world's most commonly used illicit substance. Occurrence of cannabis use disorder across countries is unknown, but the prevalence rates are likely similar among developed countries. It is frequently among the first drugs of experimentation (often in the teens) of all cultural groups in the United States.

Acceptance of cannabis for medical purposes varies widely across and within cultures. Cultural factors (acceptability and legal status) that might impact diagnosis relate to differential consequences across cultures for detection of use (i.e., arrest, school suspensions, or employment suspension). The general change in substance use disorder diagnostic criteria from DSM-IV to DSM-5 (i.e., removal of the recurrent substance-related legal problems criterion) mitigates this concern to some degree.

Diagnostic Markers

Biological tests for cannabinoid metabolites are useful for determining if an individual has recently used cannabis. Such testing is helpful in making a diagnosis, particularly in milder cases if an individual denies using while others (family, work, school) purport concern about a substance use problem. Because cannabinoids are fat soluble, they persist in bodily fluids for extended periods of time and are excreted slowly. Expertise in urine testing methods is needed to reliably interpret results.

Functional Consequences of Cannabis Use Disorder

Functional consequences of cannabis use disorder are part of the diagnostic criteria. Many areas of psychosocial, cognitive, and health functioning may be compromised in relation to cannabis use disorder. Cognitive function, particularly higher executive function, appears to be compromised in cannabis users, and this relationship appears to be dose dependent (both acutely and chronically). This may contribute to increased difficulty at school or work. Cannabis use has been related to a reduction in prosocial goal-directed activity, which some have labeled an *amotivational syndrome*, that manifests itself in poor school performance and employment problems. These problems may be related to pervasive intoxication or recovery from the effects of intoxication. Similarly, cannabis-associated problems with social relationships are commonly reported in those with cannabis use disorder. Accidents due to engagement in potentially dangerous behaviors while under the influence (e.g., driving, sport, recreational or employment activities) are also of concern. Cannabis smoke contains high levels of carcinogenic compounds that place chronic users at risk for respiratory illnesses similar to those experienced by tobacco smokers. Chronic cannabis use may contribute to the onset or exacerbation of many other mental disorders. In particular, concern has been raised about cannabis use as a causal factor in schizophrenia and other psychotic disorders. Cannabis use can contribute to the onset of an acute psy-

chotic episode, can exacerbate some symptoms, and can adversely affect treatment of a major psychotic illness.

Differential Diagnosis

Nonproblematic use of cannabis. The distinction between nonproblematic use of cannabis and cannabis use disorder can be difficult to make because social, behavioral, or psychological problems may be difficult to attribute to the substance, especially in the context of use of other substances. Also, denial of heavy cannabis use and the attribution that cannabis is related to or causing substantial problems are common among individuals who are referred to treatment by others (i.e., school, family, employer, criminal justice system).

Other mental disorders. Cannabis-induced disorder may be characterized by symptoms (e.g., anxiety) that resemble primary mental disorders (e.g., generalized anxiety disorder vs. cannabis-induced anxiety disorder, with generalized anxiety, with onset during intoxication). Chronic intake of cannabis can produce a lack of motivation that resembles persistent depressive disorder (dysthymia). Acute adverse reactions to cannabis should be differentiated from the symptoms of panic disorder, major depressive disorder, delusional disorder, bipolar disorder, or schizophrenia, paranoid type. Physical examination will usually show an increased pulse and conjunctival injection. Urine toxicological testing can be helpful in making a diagnosis.

Comorbidity

Cannabis has been commonly thought of as a “gateway” drug because individuals who frequently use cannabis have a much greater lifetime probability than nonusers of using what are commonly considered more dangerous substances, like opioids or cocaine. Cannabis use and cannabis use disorder are highly comorbid with other substance use disorders. Co-occurring mental conditions are common in cannabis use disorder. Cannabis use has been associated with poorer life satisfaction; increased mental health treatment and hospitalization; and higher rates of depression, anxiety disorders, suicide attempts, and conduct disorder. Individuals with past-year or lifetime cannabis use disorder have high rates of alcohol use disorder (greater than 50%) and tobacco use disorder (53%). Rates of other substance use disorders are also likely to be high among individuals with cannabis use disorder. Among those seeking treatment for a cannabis use disorder, 74% report problematic use of a secondary or tertiary substance: alcohol (40%), cocaine (12%), methamphetamine (6%), and heroin or other opiates (2%). Among those younger than 18 years, 61% reported problematic use of a secondary substance: alcohol (48%), cocaine (4%), methamphetamine (2%), and heroin or other opiates (2%). Cannabis use disorder is also often observed as a secondary problem among those with a primary diagnosis of other substance use disorders, with approximately 25%–80% of those in treatment for another substance use disorder reporting use of cannabis.

Individuals with past-year or lifetime diagnoses of cannabis use disorder also have high rates of concurrent mental disorders other than substance use disorders. Major depressive disorder (11%), any anxiety disorder (24%), and bipolar I disorder (13%) are quite common among individuals with a past-year diagnosis of a cannabis use disorder, as are antisocial (30%), obsessive-compulsive, (19%), and paranoid (18%) personality disorders. Approximately 33% of adolescents with cannabis use disorder have internalizing disorders (e.g., anxiety, depression, posttraumatic stress disorder), and 60% have externalizing disorders (e.g., conduct disorder, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder).

Although cannabis use can impact multiple aspects of normal human functioning, including the cardiovascular, immune, neuromuscular, ocular, reproductive, and respiratory systems, as well as appetite and cognition/perception, there are few clear medical conditions that commonly co-occur with cannabis use disorder. The most significant health

effects of cannabis involve the respiratory system, and chronic cannabis smokers exhibit high rates of respiratory symptoms of bronchitis, sputum production, shortness of breath, and wheezing.

Cannabis Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of cannabis.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., impaired motor coordination, euphoria, anxiety, sensation of slowed time, impaired judgment, social withdrawal) that developed during, or shortly after, cannabis use.
- C. Two (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing within 2 hours of cannabis use:
 - 1. Conjunctival injection.
 - 2. Increased appetite.
 - 3. Dry mouth.
 - 4. Tachycardia.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Specify if:

With perceptual disturbances: Hallucinations with intact reality testing or auditory, visual, or tactile illusions occur in the absence of a delirium.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether or not there is a comorbid cannabis use disorder and whether or not there are perceptual disturbances.

For cannabis intoxication, without perceptual disturbances: If a mild cannabis use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.129**, and if a moderate or severe cannabis use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.229**. If there is no comorbid cannabis use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.929**.

For cannabis intoxication, with perceptual disturbances: If a mild cannabis use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.122**, and if a moderate or severe cannabis use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.222**. If there is no comorbid cannabis use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F12.922**.

Specifiers

When hallucinations occur in the absence of intact reality testing, a diagnosis of substance/medication-induced psychotic disorder should be considered.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of cannabis intoxication is the presence of clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes that develop during, or shortly after, cannabis use (Criterion B). Intoxication typically begins with a “high” feeling followed by symptoms that include euphoria with inappropriate laughter and grandiosity, sedation, lethargy, impairment in short-term memory, difficulty carrying out complex mental processes, impaired judgment, distorted sensory perceptions, impaired motor performance, and the sensation that time is passing slowly. Occasionally, anxiety (which can be severe),

dysphoria, or social withdrawal occurs. These psychoactive effects are accompanied by two or more of the following signs, developing within 2 hours of cannabis use: conjunctival injection, increased appetite, dry mouth, and tachycardia (Criterion C).

Intoxication develops within minutes if the cannabis is smoked but may take a few hours to develop if the cannabis is ingested orally. The effects usually last 3–4 hours, with the duration being somewhat longer when the substance is ingested orally. The magnitude of the behavioral and physiological changes depends on the dose, the method of administration, and the characteristics of the individual using the substance, such as rate of absorption, tolerance, and sensitivity to the effects of the substance. Because most cannabinoids, including delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (delta-9-THC), are fat soluble, the effects of cannabis or hashish may occasionally persist or reoccur for 12–24 hours because of the slow release of psychoactive substances from fatty tissue or to enterohepatic circulation.

Prevalence

The prevalence of actual episodes of cannabis intoxication in the general population is unknown. However, it is probable that most cannabis users would at some time meet criteria for cannabis intoxication. Given this, the prevalence of cannabis users and the prevalence of individuals experiencing cannabis intoxication are likely similar.

Functional Consequences of Cannabis Intoxication

Impairment from cannabis intoxication may have serious consequences, including dysfunction at work or school, social indiscretions, failure to fulfill role obligations, traffic accidents, and having unprotected sex. In rare cases, cannabis intoxication may precipitate a psychosis that may vary in duration.

Differential Diagnosis

Note that if the clinical presentation includes hallucinations in the absence of intact reality testing, a diagnosis of substance/medication-induced psychotic disorder should be considered.

Other substance intoxication. Cannabis intoxication may resemble intoxication with other types of substances. However, in contrast to cannabis intoxication, alcohol intoxication and sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication frequently decrease appetite, increase aggressive behavior, and produce nystagmus or ataxia. Hallucinogens in low doses may cause a clinical picture that resembles cannabis intoxication. Phencyclidine, like cannabis, can be smoked and also causes perceptual changes, but phencyclidine intoxication is much more likely to cause ataxia and aggressive behavior.

Other cannabis-induced disorders. Cannabis intoxication is distinguished from the other cannabis-induced disorders (e.g., cannabis-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during intoxication) because the symptoms in these latter disorders predominate the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Cannabis Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

292.0 (F12.288)

- A. Cessation of cannabis use that has been heavy and prolonged (i.e., usually daily or almost daily use over a period of at least a few months).
- B. Three (or more) of the following signs and symptoms develop within approximately 1 week after Criterion A:
 -
 -
 -

1. Irritability, anger, or aggression.
 2. Nervousness or anxiety.
 3. Sleep difficulty (e.g., insomnia, disturbing dreams).
 4. Decreased appetite or weight loss.
 5. Restlessness.
 6. Depressed mood.
 7. At least one of the following physical symptoms causing significant discomfort: abdominal pain, shakiness/tremors, sweating, fever, chills, or headache.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is 292.0. The ICD-10-CM code for cannabis withdrawal is F12.288. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe cannabis use disorder, reflecting the fact that cannabis withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe cannabis use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild cannabis use disorder with cannabis withdrawal.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of cannabis withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic withdrawal syndrome that develops after the cessation of or substantial reduction in heavy and prolonged cannabis use. In addition to the symptoms in Criterion B, the following may also be observed postabstinence: fatigue, yawning, difficulty concentrating, and rebound periods of increased appetite and hypersomnia that follow initial periods of loss of appetite and insomnia. For the diagnosis, withdrawal symptoms must cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). Many cannabis users report smoking cannabis or taking other substances to help relieve withdrawal symptoms, and many report that withdrawal symptoms make quitting difficult or have contributed to relapse. The symptoms typically are not of sufficient severity to require medical attention, but medication or behavioral strategies may help alleviate symptoms and improve prognosis in those trying to quit using cannabis.

Cannabis withdrawal is commonly observed in individuals seeking treatment for cannabis use as well as in heavy cannabis users who are not seeking treatment. Among individuals who have used cannabis regularly during some period of their lifetime, up to one-third report having experienced cannabis withdrawal. Among adults and adolescents enrolled in treatment or heavy cannabis users, 50%–95% report cannabis withdrawal. These findings indicate that cannabis withdrawal occurs among a substantial subset of regular cannabis users who try to quit.

Development and Course

The amount, duration, and frequency of cannabis smoking that is required to produce an associated withdrawal disorder during a quit attempt are unknown. Most symptoms have their onset within the first 24–72 hours of cessation, peak within the first week, and last approximately 1–2 weeks. Sleep difficulties may last more than 30 days. Cannabis withdrawal has been documented among adolescents and adults. Withdrawal tends to be more common and severe among adults, most likely related to the more persistent and greater frequency and quantity of use among adults.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Environmental. Most likely, the prevalence and severity of cannabis withdrawal are greater among heavier cannabis users, and particularly among those seeking treatment for cannabis use disorders. Withdrawal severity also appears to be positively related to the severity of comorbid symptoms of mental disorders.

Functional Consequences of Cannabis Withdrawal

Cannabis users report using cannabis to relieve withdrawal symptoms, suggesting that withdrawal might contribute to ongoing expression of cannabis use disorder. Worse outcomes may be associated with greater withdrawal. A substantial proportion of adults and adolescents in treatment for moderate to severe cannabis use disorder acknowledge moderate to severe withdrawal symptoms, and many complain that these symptoms make cessation more difficult. Cannabis users report having relapsed to cannabis use or initiating use of other drugs (e.g., tranquilizers) to provide relief from cannabis withdrawal symptoms. Last, individuals living with cannabis users observe significant withdrawal effects, suggesting that such symptoms are disruptive to daily living.

Differential Diagnosis

Because many of the symptoms of cannabis withdrawal are also symptoms of other substance withdrawal syndromes or of depressive or bipolar disorders, careful evaluation should focus on ensuring that the symptoms are not better explained by cessation from another substance (e.g., tobacco or alcohol withdrawal), another mental disorder (generalized anxiety disorder, major depressive disorder), or another medical condition.

Other Cannabis-Induced Disorders

The following cannabis-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): cannabis-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); cannabis-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); and cannabis-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake Disorders”). For cannabis intoxication delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These cannabis-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of cannabis intoxication or cannabis withdrawal when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Cannabis-Related Disorder

292.9 (F12.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a cannabis-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific cannabis-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Hallucinogen-Related Disorders

- Phencyclidine Use Disorder
- Other Hallucinogen Use Disorder
- Phencyclidine Intoxication
- Other Hallucinogen Intoxication
- Hallucinogen Persisting Perception Disorder
- Other Phencyclidine-Induced Disorders
- Other Hallucinogen-Induced Disorders
- Unspecified Phencyclidine-Related Disorder
- Unspecified Hallucinogen-Related Disorder

Phencyclidine Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A pattern of phencyclidine (or a pharmacologically similar substance) use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Phencyclidine is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control phencyclidine use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain phencyclidine, use the phencyclidine, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use phencyclidine.
 5. Recurrent phencyclidine use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home (e.g., repeated absences from work or poor work performance related to phencyclidine use; phencyclidine-related absences, suspensions, or expulsions from school; neglect of children or household).
 6. Continued phencyclidine use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of the phencyclidine (e.g., arguments with a spouse about consequences of intoxication; physical fights).
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of phencyclidine use.
 8. Recurrent phencyclidine use in situations in which it is physically hazardous (e.g., driving an automobile or operating a machine when impaired by a phencyclidine).
 9. Phencyclidine use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the phencyclidine.
 10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the phencyclidine to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the phencyclidine.

Note: Withdrawal symptoms and signs are not established for phencyclidines, and so this criterion does not apply. (Withdrawal from phencyclidines has been reported in animals but not documented in human users.)

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for phencyclidine use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for phencyclidine use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the phencyclidine,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for phencyclidine use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for phencyclidine use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the phencyclidine,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to phencyclidines is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If a phencyclidine intoxication or another phencyclidine-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for phencyclidine use disorder. Instead, the comorbid phencyclidine use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the phencyclidine-induced disorder code (see the coding note for phencyclidine intoxication or a specific phencyclidine-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder, only the phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid phencyclidine use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F16.159 for mild phencyclidine use disorder with phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder or F16.259 for a moderate or severe phencyclidine use disorder with phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.90 (F16.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.60 (F16.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.60 (F16.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

The phencyclidines (or phencyclidine-like substances) include phencyclidine (e.g., PCP, “angel dust”) and less potent but similarly acting compounds such as ketamine, cyclohexamine, and dizocilpine. These substances were first developed as dissociative anesthetics in the 1950s and became street drugs in the 1960s. They produce feelings of separation from mind and body (hence “dissociative”) in low doses, and at high doses, stupor and coma can result. These substances are most commonly smoked or taken orally, but they may also be snorted or injected. Although the primary psychoactive effects of PCP last for a few hours, the total elimination rate of this drug from the body typically extends 8 days or longer. The hallucinogenic effects in vulnerable individuals may last for weeks and may precipitate a persistent psychotic episode resembling schizophrenia. Ketamine has been observed to have utility in the treatment of major depressive disorder. Withdrawal symp-

toms have not been clearly established in humans, and therefore the withdrawal criterion is not included in the diagnosis of phencyclidine use disorder.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Phencyclidine may be detected in urine for up to 8 days or even longer at very high doses. In addition to laboratory tests to detect its presence, characteristic symptoms resulting from intoxication with phencyclidine or related substances may aid in its diagnosis. Phencyclidine is likely to produce dissociative symptoms, analgesia, nystagmus, and hypertension, with risk of hypotension and shock. Violent behavior can also occur with phencyclidine use, as intoxicated persons may believe that they are being attacked. Residual symptoms following use may resemble schizophrenia.

Prevalence

The prevalence of phencyclidine use disorder is unknown. Approximately 2.5% of the population reports having ever used phencyclidine. The proportion of users increases with age, from 0.3% of 12- to 17-year-olds, to 1.3% of 18- to 25-year-olds, to 2.9% of those age 26 years and older reporting ever using phencyclidine. There appears to have been an increase among 12th graders in both ever used (to 2.3% from 1.8%) and past-year use (to 1.3% from 1.0%) of phencyclidine. Past-year use of ketamine appears relatively stable among 12th graders (1.6%–1.7% over the past 3 years).

Risk and Prognostic Factors

There is little information about risk factors for phencyclidine use disorder. Among individuals admitted to substance abuse treatment, those for whom phencyclidine was the primary substance were younger than those admitted for other substance use, had lower educational levels, and were more likely to be located in the West and Northeast regions of the United States, compared with other admissions.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Ketamine use in youths ages 16–23 years has been reported to be more common among whites (0.5%) than among other ethnic groups (range 0%–0.3%). Among individuals admitted to substance abuse treatment, those for whom phencyclidine was the primary substance were predominantly black (49%) or Hispanic (29%).

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Males make up about three-quarters of those with phencyclidine-related emergency room visits.

Diagnostic Markers

Laboratory testing may be useful, as phencyclidine is present in the urine in intoxicated individuals up to 8 days after ingestion. The individual's history, along with certain physical signs, such as nystagmus, analgesia and prominent hypertension, may aid in distinguishing the phencyclidine clinical picture from that of other hallucinogens.

Functional Consequences of Phencyclidine Use Disorder

In individuals with phencyclidine use disorder, there may be physical evidence of injuries from accidents, fights, and falls. Chronic use of phencyclidine may lead to deficits in memory, speech, and cognition that may last for months. Cardiovascular and neurological toxicities (e.g., seizures, dystonias, dyskinesias, catalepsy, hypothermia or hyperthermia) may result from intoxication with phencyclidine. Other consequences include intracranial hemorrhage, rhabdomyolysis, respiratory problems, and (occasionally) cardiac arrest.

Differential Diagnosis

Other substance use disorders. Distinguishing the effects of phencyclidine from those of other substances is important, since it may be a common additive to other substances (e.g., cannabis, cocaine).

Schizophrenia and other mental disorders. Some of the effects of phencyclidine and related substance use may resemble symptoms of other psychiatric disorders, such as psychosis (schizophrenia), low mood (major depressive disorder), violent aggressive behaviors (conduct disorder, antisocial personality disorder). Discerning whether these behaviors occurred before the intake of the drug is important in the differentiation of acute drug effects from preexisting mental disorder. Phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder should be considered when there is impaired reality testing in individuals experiencing disturbances in perception resulting from ingestion of phencyclidine.

Other Hallucinogen Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of hallucinogen (other than phencyclidine) use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. The hallucinogen is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control hallucinogen use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the hallucinogen, use the hallucinogen, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the hallucinogen.
 5. Recurrent hallucinogen use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home (e.g., repeated absences from work or poor work performance related to hallucinogen use; hallucinogen-related absences, suspensions, or expulsions from school; neglect of children or household).
 6. Continued hallucinogen use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of the hallucinogen (e.g., arguments with a spouse about consequences of intoxication; physical fights).
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of hallucinogen use.
 8. Recurrent hallucinogen use in situations in which it is physically hazardous (e.g., driving an automobile or operating a machine when impaired by the hallucinogen).
 9. Hallucinogen use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the hallucinogen.
 10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the hallucinogen to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the hallucinogen.

Note: Withdrawal symptoms and signs are not established for hallucinogens, and so this criterion does not apply.

Specify the particular hallucinogen.*Specify if:*

In early remission: After full criteria for other hallucinogen use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for other hallucinogen use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the hallucinogen,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for other hallucinogen use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for other hallucinogen use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the hallucinogen,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to hallucinogens is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If a hallucinogen intoxication or another hallucinogen-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for hallucinogen use disorder. Instead, the comorbid hallucinogen use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the hallucinogen-induced disorder code (see the coding note for hallucinogen intoxication or specific hallucinogen-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid hallucinogen-induced psychotic disorder and hallucinogen use disorder, only the hallucinogen-induced psychotic disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid hallucinogen use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F16.159 for mild hallucinogen use disorder with hallucinogen-induced psychotic disorder or F16.259 for a moderate or severe hallucinogen use disorder with hallucinogen-induced psychotic disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.30 (F16.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.50 (F16.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.50 (F16.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

Hallucinogens comprise a diverse group of substances that, despite having different chemical structures and possibly involving different molecular mechanisms, produce similar alterations of perception, mood, and cognition in users. Hallucinogens included are phenylalkylamines (e.g., mescaline, DOM [2,5-dimethoxy-4-methylamphetamine], and MDMA [3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine; also called “ecstasy”]); the indoleamines, including psilocybin (i.e., psilocin) and dimethyltryptamine (DMT); and the ergolines, such as LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide) and morning glory seeds. In addition, miscellaneous other ethnobotanical compounds are classified as “hallucinogens,” of which *Salvia divinorum* and jimsonweed are two examples. Excluded from the hallucinogen group are cannabis and its active compound, delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) (see the section “Cannabis-Related Disorders”). These substances can have hallucinogenic effects but are diagnosed separately because of significant differences in their psychological and behavioral effects.

Hallucinogens are usually taken orally, although some forms are smoked (e.g., DMT, salvia) or (rarely) taken intranasally or by injection (e.g., ecstasy). Duration of effects varies

across types of hallucinogens. Some of these substances (i.e., LSD, MDMA) have a long half-life and extended duration such that users may spend hours to days using and/or recovering from the effects of these drugs. However, other hallucinogenic drugs (e.g., DMT, salvia) are short acting. Tolerance to hallucinogens develops with repeated use and has been reported to have both autonomic and psychological effects. Cross-tolerance exists between LSD and other hallucinogens (e.g., psilocybin, mescaline) but does not extend to other drug categories such as amphetamines and cannabis.

MDMA/ecstasy as a hallucinogen may have distinctive effects attributable to both its hallucinogenic and its stimulant properties. Among heavy ecstasy users, continued use despite physical or psychological problems, tolerance, hazardous use, and spending a great deal of time obtaining the substance are the most commonly reported criteria—over 50% in adults and over 30% in a younger sample, while legal problems related to substance use and persistent desire/inability to quit are rarely reported. As found for other substances, diagnostic criteria for other hallucinogen use disorder are arrayed along a single continuum of severity.

One of the generic criteria for substance use disorders, a clinically significant withdrawal syndrome, has not been consistently documented in humans, and therefore the diagnosis of hallucinogen withdrawal syndrome is not included in DSM-5. However, there is evidence of withdrawal from MDMA, with endorsement of two or more withdrawal symptoms observed in 59%–98% in selected samples of ecstasy users. Both psychological and physical problems have been commonly reported as withdrawal problems.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

The characteristic symptom features of some of the hallucinogens can aid in diagnosis if urine or blood toxicology results are not available. For example, individuals who use LSD tend to experience visual hallucinations that can be frightening. Individuals intoxicated with hallucinogens may exhibit a temporary increase in suicidality.

Prevalence

Of all substance use disorders, other hallucinogen use disorder is one of the rarest. The 12-month prevalence is estimated to be 0.5% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 0.1% among adults age 18 and older in the United States. Rates are higher in adult males (0.2%) compared with females (0.1%), but the opposite is observed in adolescent samples ages 12–17, in which the 12-month rate is slightly higher in females (0.6%) than in males (0.4%). Rates are highest in individuals younger than 30 years, with the peak occurring in individuals ages 18–29 years (0.6%) and decreasing to virtually 0.0% among individuals age 45 and older.

There are marked ethnic differences in 12-month prevalence of other hallucinogen use disorder. Among youths ages 12–17 years, 12-month prevalence is higher among Native Americans and Alaska Natives (1.2%) than among Hispanics (0.6%), whites (0.6%), African Americans (0.2%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.2%). Among adults, 12-month prevalence of other hallucinogen use disorder is similar for Native Americans and Alaska Natives, whites, and Hispanics (all 0.2%) but somewhat lower for Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.07%) and African Americans (0.03%). Past-year prevalence is higher in clinical samples (e.g., 19% in adolescents in treatment). Among individuals currently using hallucinogens in the general population, 7.8% (adult) to 17% (adolescent) had a problematic pattern of use that met criteria for past-year other hallucinogen use disorder. Among select groups of individuals who use hallucinogens (e.g., recent heavy ecstasy use), 73.5% of adults and 77% of adolescents have a problematic pattern of use that may meet other hallucinogen use disorder criteria.

Development and Course

Unlike most substances where an early age at onset is associated with elevations in risk for the corresponding use disorder, it is unclear whether there is an association of an early age

at onset with elevations in risk for other hallucinogen use disorder. However, patterns of drug consumption have been found to differ by age at onset, with early-onset ecstasy users more likely to be polydrug users than their later-onset counterparts. There may be a disproportionate influence of use of specific hallucinogens on risk of developing other hallucinogen use disorder, with use of ecstasy/MDMA increasing the risk of the disorder relative to use of other hallucinogens.

Little is known regarding the course of other hallucinogen use disorder, but it is generally thought to have low incidence, low persistence, and high rates of recovery. Adolescents are especially at risk for using these drugs, and it is estimated that 2.7% of youths ages 12–17 years have used one or more of these drugs in the past 12 months, with 44% having used ecstasy/MDMA. Other hallucinogen use disorder is a disorder observed primarily in individuals younger than 30 years, with rates vanishingly rare among older adults.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. In adolescents but not consistently in adults, MDMA use is associated with an elevated rate of other hallucinogen use disorder. Other substance use disorders, particularly alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis, and major depressive disorder are associated with elevated rates of other hallucinogen use disorder. Antisocial personality disorder may be elevated among individuals who use more than two other drugs in addition to hallucinogens, compared with their counterparts with less extensive use history. The influence of adult antisocial behaviors—but not conduct disorder or antisocial personality disorder—on other hallucinogen use disorder may be stronger in females than in males. Use of specific hallucinogens (e.g., salvia) is prominent among individuals ages 18–25 years with other risk-taking behaviors and illegal activities. Cannabis use has also been implicated as a precursor to initiation of use of hallucinogens (e.g., ecstasy), along with early use of alcohol and tobacco. Higher drug use by peers and high sensation seeking have also been associated with elevated rates of ecstasy use. MDMA/ecstasy use appears to signify a more severe group of hallucinogen users.

Genetic and physiological. Among male twins, total variance due to additive genetics has been estimated to range from 26% to 79%, with inconsistent evidence for shared environmental influences.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Historically, hallucinogens have been used as part of established religious practices, such as the use of peyote in the Native American Church and in Mexico. Ritual use by indigenous populations of psilocybin obtained from certain types of mushrooms has occurred in South America, Mexico, and some areas in the United States, or of ayahuasca in the Santo Daime and União de Vegetal sects. Regular use of peyote as part of religious rituals is not linked to neuropsychological or psychological deficits. For adults, no race or ethnicity differences for the full criteria or for any individual criterion are apparent at this time.

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

In adolescents, females may be less likely than males to endorse “hazardous use,” and female gender may be associated with increased odds of other hallucinogen use disorder.

Diagnostic Markers

Laboratory testing can be useful in distinguishing among the different hallucinogens. However, because some agents (e.g., LSD) are so potent that as little as 75 micrograms can produce severe reactions, typical toxicological examination will not always reveal which substance has been used.

Functional Consequences of Other Hallucinogen Use Disorder

There is evidence for long-term neurotoxic effects of MDMA/ecstasy use, including impairments in memory, psychological function, and neuroendocrine function; serotonin system dysfunction; and sleep disturbance; as well as adverse effects on brain microvasculature, white matter maturation, and damage to axons. Use of MDMA/ecstasy may diminish functional connectivity among brain regions.

Differential Diagnosis

Other substance use disorders. The effects of hallucinogens must be distinguished from those of other substances (e.g., amphetamines), especially because contamination of the hallucinogens with other drugs is relatively common.

Schizophrenia. Schizophrenia also must be ruled out, as some affected individuals (e.g., individuals with schizophrenia who exhibit paranoia) may falsely attribute their symptoms to use of hallucinogens.

Other mental disorders or medical conditions. Other potential disorders or conditions to consider include panic disorder, depressive and bipolar disorders, alcohol or sedative withdrawal, hypoglycemia and other metabolic conditions, seizure disorder, stroke, ophthalmological disorder, and central nervous system tumors. Careful history of drug taking, collateral reports from family and friends (if possible), age, clinical history, physical examination, and toxicology reports should be useful in arriving at the final diagnostic decision.

Comorbidity

Adolescents who use MDMA/ecstasy and other hallucinogens, as well as adults who have recently used ecstasy, have a higher prevalence of other substance use disorders compared with nonhallucinogen substance users. Individuals who use hallucinogens exhibit elevations of nonsubstance mental disorders (especially anxiety, depressive, and bipolar disorders), particularly with use of ecstasy and salvia. Rates of antisocial personality disorder (but not conduct disorder) are significantly elevated among individuals with other hallucinogen use disorder, as are rates of adult antisocial behavior. However, it is unclear whether the mental illnesses may be precursors to rather than consequences of other hallucinogen use disorder (see the section "Risk and Prognostic Factors" for this disorder). Both adults and adolescents who use ecstasy are more likely than other drug users to be polydrug users and to have other drug use disorders.

Phencyclidine Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of phencyclidine (or a pharmacologically similar substance).
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral changes (e.g., belligerence, assaultiveness, impulsiveness, unpredictability, psychomotor agitation, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, phencyclidine use.
- C. Within 1 hour, two (or more) of the following signs or symptoms:

Note: When the drug is smoked, "snorted," or used intravenously, the onset may be particularly rapid.

1. Vertical or horizontal nystagmus.
2. Hypertension or tachycardia.

3. Numbness or diminished responsiveness to pain.
4. Ataxia.
5. Dysarthria.
6. Muscle rigidity.
7. Seizures or coma.
8. Hyperacusis.

D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid phencyclidine use disorder. If a mild phencyclidine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.129**, and if a moderate or severe phencyclidine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.229**. If there is no comorbid phencyclidine use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.929**.

Note: In addition to the section “Functional Consequences of Phencyclidine Intoxication,” see the corresponding section in phencyclidine use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Phencyclidine intoxication reflects the clinically significant behavioral changes that occur shortly after ingestion of this substance (or a pharmacologically similar substance). The most common clinical presentations of phencyclidine intoxication include disorientation, confusion without hallucinations, hallucinations or delusions, a catatonic-like syndrome, and coma of varying severity. The intoxication typically lasts for several hours but, depending on the type of clinical presentation and whether other drugs besides phencyclidine were consumed, may last for several days or longer.

Prevalence

Use of phencyclidine or related substances may be taken as an estimate of the prevalence of intoxication. Approximately 2.5% of the population reports having ever used phencyclidine. Among high school students, 2.3% of 12th graders report ever using phencyclidine, with 57% having used in the past 12 months. This represents an increase from prior to 2011. Past-year use of ketamine, which is assessed separately from other substances, has remained stable over time, with about 1.7% of 12th graders reporting use.

Diagnostic Markers

Laboratory testing may be useful, as phencyclidine is detectable in urine for up to 8 days following use, although the levels are only weakly associated with an individual’s clinical presentation and may therefore not be useful for case management. Creatine phosphokinase and aspartate aminotransferase levels may be elevated.

Functional Consequences of Phencyclidine Intoxication

Phencyclidine intoxication produces extensive cardiovascular and neurological (e.g., seizures, dystonias, dyskinesias, catalepsy, hypothermia or hyperthermia) toxicity.

Differential Diagnosis

In particular, in the absence of intact reality testing (i.e., without insight into any perceptual abnormalities), an additional diagnosis of phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder should be considered.

Other substance intoxication. Phencyclidine intoxication should be differentiated from intoxication due to other substances, including other hallucinogens; amphetamine, co-

caine, or other stimulants; and anticholinergics, as well as withdrawal from benzodiazepines. Nystagmus and bizarre and violent behavior may distinguish intoxication due to phencyclidine from that due to other substances. Toxicological tests may be useful in making this distinction, since phencyclidine is detectable in urine for up to 8 days after use. However, there is a weak correlation between quantitative toxicology levels of phencyclidine and clinical presentation that diminishes the utility of the laboratory findings for patient management.

Other conditions. Other conditions to be considered include schizophrenia, depression, withdrawal from other drugs (e.g., sedatives, alcohol), certain metabolic disorders like hypoglycemia and hyponatremia, central nervous system tumors, seizure disorders, sepsis, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, and vascular insults.

Other Hallucinogen Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of a hallucinogen (other than phencyclidine).
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., marked anxiety or depression, ideas of reference, fear of “losing one’s mind,” paranoid ideation, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, hallucinogen use.
- C. Perceptual changes occurring in a state of full wakefulness and alertness (e.g., subjective intensification of perceptions, depersonalization, derealization, illusions, hallucinations, synesthesias) that developed during, or shortly after, hallucinogen use.
- D. Two (or more) of the following signs developing during, or shortly after, hallucinogen use:
 - 1. Pupillary dilation.
 - 2. Tachycardia.
 - 3. Sweating.
 - 4. Palpitations.
 - 5. Blurring of vision.
 - 6. Tremors.
 - 7. Incoordination.
- E. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid hallucinogen use disorder. If a mild hallucinogen use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.129**, and if a moderate or severe hallucinogen use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.229**. If there is no comorbid hallucinogen use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F16.929**.

Note: For information on Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis and Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues, see the corresponding sections in other hallucinogen use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Other hallucinogen intoxication reflects the clinically significant behavioral or psychological changes that occur shortly after ingestion of a hallucinogen. Depending on the specific hallucinogen, the intoxication may last only minutes (e.g., for salvia) or several hours or longer (e.g., for LSD [lysergic acid diethylamide] or MDMA [3,4-methylenedioxyamphetamine]).

Prevalence

The prevalence of other hallucinogen intoxication may be estimated by use of those substances. In the United States, 1.8% of individuals age 12 years or older report using hallucinogens in the past year. Use is more prevalent among younger individuals, with 3.1% of 12- to 17-year-olds and 7.1% of 18- to 25-year-olds using hallucinogens in the past year, compared with only 0.7% of individuals age 26 years or older. Twelve-month prevalence for hallucinogen use is more common in males (2.4%) than in females (1.2%), and even more so among 18- to 25-year-olds (9.2% for males vs. 5.0% for females). In contrast, among individuals ages 12–17 years, there are no gender differences (3.1% for both genders). These figures may be used as proxy estimates for gender-related differences in the prevalence of other hallucinogen intoxication.

Suicide Risk

Other hallucinogen intoxication may lead to increased suicidality, although suicide is rare among users of hallucinogens.

Functional Consequences of Other Hallucinogen Intoxication

Other hallucinogen intoxication can have serious consequences. The perceptual disturbances and impaired judgment associated with other hallucinogen intoxication can result in injuries or fatalities from automobile crashes, physical fights, or unintentional self-injury (e.g., attempts to “fly” from high places). Environmental factors and the personality and expectations of the individual using the hallucinogen may contribute to the nature of and severity of hallucinogen intoxication. Continued use of hallucinogens, particularly MDMA, has also been linked with neurotoxic effects.

Differential Diagnosis

Other substance intoxication. Other hallucinogen intoxication should be differentiated from intoxication with amphetamines, cocaine, or other stimulants; anticholinergics; inhalants; and phencyclidine. Toxicological tests are useful in making this distinction, and determining the route of administration may also be useful.

Other conditions. Other disorders and conditions to be considered include schizophrenia, depression, withdrawal from other drugs (e.g., sedatives, alcohol), certain metabolic disorders (e.g., hypoglycemia), seizure disorders, tumors of the central nervous system, and vascular insults.

Hallucinogen persisting perception disorder. Other hallucinogen intoxication is distinguished from hallucinogen persisting perception disorder because the symptoms in the latter continue episodically or continuously for weeks (or longer) after the most recent intoxication.

Other hallucinogen-induced disorders. Other hallucinogen intoxication is distinguished from the other hallucinogen-induced disorders (e.g., hallucinogen-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during intoxication) because the symptoms in these latter disorders predominate the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Hallucinogen Persisting Perception Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

292.89 (F16.983)

- A. Following cessation of use of a hallucinogen, the reexperiencing of one or more of the perceptual symptoms that were experienced while intoxicated with the hallucinogen (e.g., geometric hallucinations, false perceptions of movement in the peripheral visual fields, flashes of color, intensified colors, trails of images of moving objects, positive afterimages, halos around objects, macropsia and micropsia).
 - B. The symptoms in Criterion A cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
 - C. The symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition (e.g., anatomical lesions and infections of the brain, visual epilepsies) and are not better explained by another mental disorder (e.g., delirium, major neurocognitive disorder, schizophrenia) or hypnopompic hallucinations.
-

Diagnostic Features

The hallmark of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder is the reexperiencing, when the individual is sober, of the perceptual disturbances that were experienced while the individual was intoxicated with the hallucinogen (Criterion A). The symptoms may include any perceptual perturbations, but visual disturbances tend to be predominant. Typical of the abnormal visual perceptions are geometric hallucinations, false perceptions of movement in the peripheral visual fields, flashes of color, intensified colors, trails of images of moving objects (i.e., images left suspended in the path of a moving object as seen in stroboscopic photography), perceptions of entire objects, positive afterimages (i.e., a same-colored or complementary-colored “shadow” of an object remaining after removal of the object), halos around objects, or misperception of images as too large (macropsia) or too small (micropsia). Duration of the visual disturbances may be episodic or nearly continuous and must cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion B). The disturbances may last for weeks, months, or years. Other explanations for the disturbances (e.g., brain lesions, preexisting psychosis, seizure disorders, migraine aura without headaches) must be ruled out (Criterion C).

Hallucinogen persisting perception disorder occurs primarily after LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide) use, but not exclusively. There does not appear to be a strong correlation between hallucinogen persisting perception disorder and number of occasions of hallucinogen use, with some instances of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder occurring in individuals with minimal exposure to hallucinogens. Some instances of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder may be triggered by use of other substances (e.g., cannabis or alcohol) or in adaptation to dark environments.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Reality testing remains intact in individuals with hallucinogen persisting perception disorder (i.e., the individual is aware that the disturbance is linked to the effect of the drug). If this is not the case, another disorder might better explain the abnormal perceptions.

Prevalence

Prevalence estimates of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder are unknown. Initial prevalence estimates of the disorder among individuals who use hallucinogens is approximately 4.2%.

Development and Course

Little is known about the development of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder. Its course, as suggested by its name, is persistent, lasting for weeks, months, or even years in certain individuals.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

There is little evidence regarding risk factors for hallucinogen persisting perception disorder, although genetic factors have been suggested as a possible explanation underlying the susceptibility to LSD effects in this condition.

Functional Consequences of Hallucinogen Persisting Perception Disorder

Although hallucinogen persisting perception disorder remains a chronic condition in some cases, many individuals with the disorder are able to suppress the disturbances and continue to function normally.

Differential Diagnosis

Conditions to be ruled out include schizophrenia, other drug effects, neurodegenerative disorders, stroke, brain tumors, infections, and head trauma. Neuroimaging results in hallucinogen persisting perception disorder cases are typically negative. As noted earlier, reality testing remains intact (i.e., the individual is aware that the disturbance is linked to the effect of the drug); if this is not the case, another disorder (e.g., psychotic disorder, another medical condition) might better explain the abnormal perceptions.

Comorbidity

Common comorbid mental disorders accompanying hallucinogen persisting perception disorder are panic disorder, alcohol use disorder, and major depressive disorder.

Other Phencyclidine-Induced Disorders

Other phencyclidine-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): phencyclidine-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); phencyclidine-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); phencyclidine-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); and phencyclidine-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”). For phencyclidine-induced intoxication delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These phencyclidine-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of phencyclidine intoxication only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Other Hallucinogen-Induced Disorders

The following other hallucinogen-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): other hallucinogen-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); other hallucinogen-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); other hallucinogen-induced

depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); and other hallucinogen-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”). For other hallucinogen intoxication delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These hallucinogen-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of other hallucinogen intoxication only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Phencyclidine-Related Disorder

292.9 (F16.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a phencyclidine-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific phencyclidine-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Unspecified Hallucinogen-Related Disorder

292.9 (F16.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a hallucinogen-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific hallucinogen-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Inhalant-Related Disorders

Inhalant Use Disorder
Inhalant Intoxication
Other Inhalant-Induced Disorders
Unspecified Inhalant-Related Disorder

Inhalant Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of use of a hydrocarbon-based inhalant substance leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. The inhalant substance is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control use of the inhalant substance.

3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the inhalant substance, use it, or recover from its effects.
4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the inhalant substance.
5. Recurrent use of the inhalant substance resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
6. Continued use of the inhalant substance despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of its use.
7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of use of the inhalant substance.
8. Recurrent use of the inhalant substance in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
9. Use of the inhalant substance is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the substance.
10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the inhalant substance to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the inhalant substance.

Specify the particular inhalant: When possible, the particular substance involved should be named (e.g., “solvent use disorder”).

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for inhalant use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for inhalant use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the inhalant substance,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for inhalant use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for inhalant use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the inhalant substance,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to inhalant substances is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If an inhalant intoxication or another inhalant-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for inhalant use disorder. Instead, the comorbid inhalant use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the inhalant-induced disorder code (see the coding note for inhalant intoxication or a specific inhalant-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid inhalant-induced depressive disorder and inhalant use disorder, only the inhalant-induced depressive disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid inhalant use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F18.14 for mild inhalant use disorder with inhalant-induced depressive disorder or F18.24 for a moderate or severe inhalant use disorder with inhalant-induced depressive disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.90 (F18.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.60 (F18.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.60 (F18.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

This manual recognizes volatile hydrocarbon use meeting the above diagnostic criteria as inhalant use disorder. Volatile hydrocarbons are toxic gases from glues, fuels, paints, and other volatile compounds. When possible, the particular substance involved should be named (e.g., "toluene use disorder"). However, most compounds that are inhaled are a mixture of several substances that can produce psychoactive effects, and it is often difficult to ascertain the exact substance responsible for the disorder. Unless there is clear evidence that a single, unmixed substance has been used, the general term inhalant should be used in recording the diagnosis. Disorders arising from inhalation of nitrous oxide or of amyl-, butyl-, or isobutyl nitrite are considered as other (or unknown) substance use disorder.

"In a controlled environment" applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

The severity of individuals' inhalant use disorder is assessed by the number of diagnostic criteria endorsed. Changing severity of individuals' inhalant use disorder across time is reflected by reductions in the frequency (e.g., days used per month) and/or dose (e.g., tubes of glue per day) used, as assessed by the individual's self-report, report of others, clinician's observations, and biological testing (when practical).

Diagnostic Features

Features of inhalant use disorder include repeated use of an inhalant substance despite the individual's knowing that the substance is causing serious problems for the individual (Criterion A9). Those problems are reflected in the diagnostic criteria.

Missing work or school or inability to perform typical responsibilities at work or school (Criterion A5), and continued use of the inhalant substance even though it causes arguments with family or friends, fights, and other social or interpersonal problems (Criterion A6), may be seen in inhalant use disorder. Limiting family contact, work or school obligations, or recreational activities (e.g., sports, games, hobbies) may also occur (Criterion A7). Use of inhalants when driving or operating dangerous equipment (Criterion A8) is also seen.

Tolerance (Criterion A10) and mild withdrawal are each reported by about 10% of individuals who use inhalants, and a few individuals use inhalants to avoid withdrawal. However, because the withdrawal symptoms are mild, this manual neither recognizes a diagnosis of inhalant withdrawal nor counts withdrawal complaints as a diagnostic criterion for inhalant use disorder.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

A diagnosis of inhalant use disorder is supported by recurring episodes of intoxication with negative results in standard drug screens (which do not detect inhalants); possession, or lingering odors, of inhalant substances; peri-oral or peri-nasal "glue-sniffer's rash"; association with other individuals known to use inhalants; membership in groups with prevalent inhalant use (e.g., some native or aboriginal communities, homeless children in street gangs); easy access to certain inhalant substances; paraphernalia possession; presence of the disorder's characteristic medical complications (e.g., brain white matter pathology, rhabdomyolysis); and the presence of multiple substance use disorders. Inhalant use and inhalant use disorder are associated with past suicide attempts, especially among adults reporting previous episodes of low mood or anhedonia.

Prevalence

About 0.4% of Americans ages 12–17 years have a pattern of use that meets criteria for inhalant use disorder in the past 12 months. Among those youths, the prevalence is highest

in Native Americans and lowest in African Americans. Prevalence falls to about 0.1% among Americans ages 18–29 years, and only 0.02% when all Americans 18 years or older are considered, with almost no females and a preponderance of European Americans. Of course, in isolated subgroups, prevalence may differ considerably from these overall rates.

Development and Course

About 10% of 13-year-old American children report having used inhalants at least once; that percentage remains stable through age 17 years. Among those 12- to 17-year-olds who use inhalants, the more-used substances include glue, shoe polish, or toluene; gasoline or lighter fluid; or spray paints.

Only 0.4% of 12- to 17-year-olds progress to inhalant use disorder; those youths tend to exhibit multiple other problems. The declining prevalence of inhalant use disorder after adolescence indicates that this disorder usually remits in early adulthood.

Volatile hydrocarbon use disorder is rare in prepubertal children, most common in adolescents and young adults, and uncommon in older persons. Calls to poison-control centers for “intentional abuse” of inhalants peak with calls involving individuals at age 14 years. Of adolescents who use inhalants, perhaps one-fifth develop inhalant use disorder; a few die from inhalant-related accidents, or “sudden sniffing death”. But the disorder apparently remits in many individuals after adolescence. Prevalence declines dramatically among individuals in their 20s. Those with inhalant use disorder extending into adulthood often have severe problems: substance use disorders, antisocial personality disorder, and suicidal ideation with attempts.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Predictors of progression from nonuse of inhalants, to use, to inhalant use disorder include comorbid non-inhalant substance use disorders and either conduct disorder or antisocial personality disorder. Other predictors are earlier onset of inhalant use and prior use of mental health services.

Environmental. Inhalant gases are widely and legally available, increasing the risk of misuse. Childhood maltreatment or trauma also is associated with youthful progression from inhalant non-use to inhalant use disorder.

Genetic and physiological. *Behavioral disinhibition* is a highly heritable general propensity to not constrain behavior in socially acceptable ways, to break social norms and rules, and to take dangerous risks, pursuing rewards excessively despite dangers of adverse consequences. Youths with strong behavioral disinhibition show risk factors for inhalant use disorder: early-onset substance use disorder, multiple substance involvement, and early conduct problems. Because behavioral disinhibition is under strong genetic influence, youths in families with substance and antisocial problems are at elevated risk for inhalant use disorder.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Certain native or aboriginal communities have experienced a high prevalence of inhalant problems. Also, in some countries, groups of homeless children in street gangs have extensive inhalant use problems.

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Although the prevalence of inhalant use disorder is almost identical in adolescent males and females, the disorder is very rare among adult females.

Diagnostic Markers

Urine, breath, or saliva tests may be valuable for assessing concurrent use of non-inhalant substances by individuals with inhalant use disorder. However, technical problems and

the considerable expense of analyses make frequent biological testing for inhalants themselves impractical.

Functional Consequences of Inhalant Use Disorder

Because of inherent toxicity, use of butane or propane is not infrequently fatal. Moreover, any inhaled volatile hydrocarbons may produce "sudden sniffing death" from cardiac arrhythmia. Fatalities may occur even on the first inhalant exposure and are not thought to be dose-related. Volatile hydrocarbon use impairs neurobehavioral function and causes various neurological, gastrointestinal, cardiovascular, and pulmonary problems.

Long-term inhalant users are at increased risk for tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases, depression, anxiety, bronchitis, asthma, and sinusitis. Deaths may occur from respiratory depression, arrhythmias, asphyxiation, aspiration of vomitus, or accident and injury.

Differential Diagnosis

Inhalant exposure (unintentional) from industrial or other accidents. This designation is used when findings suggest repeated or continuous inhalant exposure but the involved individual and other informants deny any history of purposeful inhalant use.

Inhalant use (intentional), without meeting criteria for inhalant use disorder. Inhalant use is common among adolescents, but for most of those individuals, the inhalant use does not meet the diagnostic standard of two or more Criterion A items for inhalant use disorder in the past year.

Inhalant intoxication, without meeting criteria for inhalant use disorder. Inhalant intoxication occurs frequently during inhalant use disorder but also may occur among individuals whose use does not meet criteria for inhalant use disorder, which requires at least two of the 10 diagnostic criteria in the past year.

Inhalant-induced disorders (i.e., inhalant-induced psychotic disorder, depressive disorder, anxiety disorder, neurocognitive disorder, other inhalant-induced disorders) without meeting criteria for inhalant use disorder. Criteria are met for a psychotic, depressive, anxiety, or major neurocognitive disorder, and there is evidence from history, physical examination, or laboratory findings that the deficits are etiologically related to the effects of inhalant substances. Yet, criteria for inhalant use disorder may not be met (i.e., fewer than 2 of the 10 criteria were present).

Other substance use disorders, especially those involving sedating substances (e.g., alcohol, benzodiazepines, barbiturates). Inhalant use disorder commonly co-occurs with other substance use disorders, and the symptoms of the disorders may be similar and overlapping. To disentangle symptom patterns, it is helpful to inquire about which symptoms persisted during periods when some of the substances were not being used.

Other toxic, metabolic, traumatic, neoplastic, or infectious disorders impairing central or peripheral nervous system function. Individuals with inhalant use disorder may present with symptoms of pernicious anemia, subacute combined degeneration of the spinal cord, psychosis, major or minor cognitive disorder, brain atrophy, leukoencephalopathy, and many other nervous system disorders. Of course, these disorders also may occur in the absence of inhalant use disorder. A history of little or no inhalant use helps to exclude inhalant use disorder as the source of these problems.

Disorders of other organ systems. Individuals with inhalant use disorder may present with symptoms of hepatic or renal damage, rhabdomyolysis, methemoglobinemia, or symptoms of other gastrointestinal, cardiovascular, or pulmonary diseases. A history of little or no inhalant use helps to exclude inhalant use disorder as the source of such medical problems.

Comorbidity

Individuals with inhalant use disorder receiving clinical care often have numerous other substance use disorders. Inhalant use disorder commonly co-occurs with adolescent conduct disorder and adult antisocial personality disorder. Adult inhalant use and inhalant use disorder also are strongly associated with suicidal ideation and suicide attempts.

Inhalant Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent intended or unintended short-term, high-dose exposure to inhalant substances, including volatile hydrocarbons such as toluene or gasoline.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., belligerence, assaultiveness, apathy, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, exposure to inhalants.
- C. Two (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing during, or shortly after, inhalant use or exposure:
 - 1. Dizziness.
 - 2. Nystagmus.
 - 3. Incoordination.
 - 4. Slurred speech.
 - 5. Unsteady gait.
 - 6. Lethargy.
 - 7. Depressed reflexes.
 - 8. Psychomotor retardation.
 - 9. Tremor.
 - 10. Generalized muscle weakness.
 - 11. Blurred vision or diplopia.
 - 12. Stupor or coma.
 - 13. Euphoria.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid inhalant use disorder. If a mild inhalant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F18.129**, and if a moderate or severe inhalant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F18.229**. If there is no comorbid inhalant use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F18.929**.

Note: For information on Development and Course, Risk and Prognostic Factors, Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues, and Diagnostic Markers, see the corresponding sections in inhalant use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Inhalant intoxication is an inhalant-related, clinically significant mental disorder that develops during, or immediately after, intended or unintended inhalation of a volatile hydrocarbon substance. Volatile hydrocarbons are toxic gases from glues, fuels, paints, and other volatile compounds. When it is possible to do so, the particular substance involved should be named (e.g., toluene intoxication). Among those who do, the intoxication clears within a few minutes to a few hours after the exposure ends. Thus, inhalant intoxication usually occurs in brief episodes that may recur.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Inhalant intoxication may be indicated by evidence of possession, or lingering odors, of inhalant substances (e.g., glue, paint thinner, gasoline, butane lighters); apparent intoxication occurring in the age range with the highest prevalence of inhalant use (12–17 years); and apparent intoxication with negative results from the standard drug screens that usually fail to identify inhalants.

Prevalence

The prevalence of actual episodes of inhalant intoxication in the general population is unknown, but it is probable that most inhalant users would at some time exhibit use that would meet criteria for inhalant intoxication disorder. Therefore, the prevalence of inhalant use and the prevalence of inhalant intoxication disorder are likely similar. In 2009 and 2010, inhalant use in the past year was reported by 0.8% of all Americans older than 12 years; the prevalence was highest in younger age groups (3.6% for individuals 12 to 17 years old, and 1.7% for individuals 18 to 25 years old).

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Gender differences in the prevalence of inhalant intoxication in the general population are unknown. However, if it is assumed that most inhalant users eventually experience inhalant intoxication, gender differences in the prevalence of inhalant users likely approximate those in the proportions of males and females experiencing inhalant intoxication. Regarding gender differences in the prevalence of inhalant users in the United States, 1% of males older than 12 years and 0.7% of females older than 12 years have used inhalants in the previous year, but in the younger age groups more females than males have used inhalants (e.g., among 12- to 17-year-olds, 3.6% of males and 4.2% of females).

Functional Consequences of Inhalant Intoxication

Use of inhaled substances in a closed container, such as a plastic bag over the head, may lead to unconsciousness, anoxia, and death. Separately, “sudden sniffing death,” likely from cardiac arrhythmia or arrest, may occur with various volatile inhalants. The enhanced toxicity of certain volatile inhalants, such as butane or propane, also causes fatalities. Although inhalant intoxication itself is of short duration, it may produce persisting medical and neurological problems, especially if the intoxications are frequent.

Differential Diagnosis

Inhalant exposure, without meeting the criteria for inhalant intoxication disorder. The individual intentionally or unintentionally inhaled substances, but the dose was insufficient for the diagnostic criteria for inhalant use disorder to be met.

Intoxication and other substance/medication-induced disorders from other substances, especially from sedating substances (e.g., alcohol, benzodiazepines, barbiturates). These disorders may have similar signs and symptoms, but the intoxication is attributable to other intoxicants that may be identified via a toxicology screen. Differentiating the source of the intoxication may involve discerning evidence of inhalant exposure as described for inhalant use disorder. A diagnosis of inhalant intoxication may be suggested by possession, or lingering odors, of inhalant substances (e.g., glue, paint thinner, gasoline, butane lighters); paraphernalia possession (e.g., rags or bags for concentrating glue fumes); perioral or perinasal “glue-sniffer’s rash”; reports from family or friends that the intoxicated individual possesses or uses inhalants; apparent intoxication despite negative results on standard drug screens (which usually fail to identify inhalants); apparent intoxication occurring in that age range with the highest prevalence of inhalant use (12–17

years); association with others known to use inhalants; membership in certain small communities with prevalent inhalant use (e.g., some native or aboriginal communities, homeless street children and adolescents); or unusual access to certain inhalant substances.

Other inhalant-related disorders. Episodes of inhalant intoxication do occur during, but are not identical with, other inhalant-related disorders. Those inhalant-related disorders are recognized by their respective diagnostic criteria: inhalant use disorder, inhalant-induced neurocognitive disorder, inhalant-induced psychotic disorder, inhalant-induced depressive disorder, inhalant-induced anxiety disorder, and other inhalant-induced disorders.

Other toxic, metabolic, traumatic, neoplastic, or infectious disorders that impair brain function and cognition. Numerous neurological and other medical conditions may produce the clinically significant behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., belligerence, assaultiveness, apathy, impaired judgment) that also characterize inhalant intoxication.

Other Inhalant-Induced Disorders

The following inhalant-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): inhalant-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); inhalant-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); inhalant-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); and inhalant-induced major or mild neurocognitive disorder (“Neurocognitive Disorders”). For inhalant intoxication delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These inhalant-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of inhalant intoxication only when symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Inhalant-Related Disorder

292.9 (F18.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of an inhalant-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific inhalant-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Opioid-Related Disorders

Opioid Use Disorder

Opioid Intoxication

Opioid Withdrawal

Other Opioid-induced Disorders

Unspecified Opioid-Related Disorder

Opioid Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of opioid use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Opioids are often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control opioid use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the opioid, use the opioid, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use opioids.
 5. Recurrent opioid use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
 6. Continued opioid use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of opioids.
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of opioid use.
 8. Recurrent opioid use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
 9. Continued opioid use despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the substance.
 10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of opioids to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of an opioid.

Note: This criterion is not considered to be met for those taking opioids solely under appropriate medical supervision.
 11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic opioid withdrawal syndrome (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for opioid withdrawal, pp. 547–548).
 - b. Opioids (or a closely related substance) are taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Note: This criterion is not considered to be met for those individuals taking opioids solely under appropriate medical supervision.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for opioid use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for opioid use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use opioids,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for opioid use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for opioid use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use opioids,” may be met).

Specify if:

On maintenance therapy: This additional specifier is used if the individual is taking a prescribed agonist medication such as methadone or buprenorphine and none of the criteria for opioid use disorder have been met for that class of medication (except tolerance to, or withdrawal from, the agonist). This category also applies to those individ-

uals being maintained on a partial agonist, an agonist/antagonist, or a full antagonist such as oral naltrexone or depot naltrexone.

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to opioids is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If an opioid intoxication, opioid withdrawal, or another opioid-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for opioid use disorder. Instead, the comorbid opioid use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the opioid-induced disorder code (see the coding note for opioid intoxication, opioid withdrawal, or a specific opioid-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid opioid-induced depressive disorder and opioid use disorder, only the opioid-induced depressive disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid opioid use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F11.14 for mild opioid use disorder with opioid-induced depressive disorder or F11.24 for a moderate or severe opioid use disorder with opioid-induced depressive disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.50 (F11.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.00 (F11.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.00 (F11.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

The “on maintenance therapy” specifier applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and receiving maintenance therapy. “In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Changing severity across time in an individual is also reflected by reductions in the frequency (e.g., days of use per month) and/or dose (e.g., injections or number of pills) of an opioid, as assessed by the individual’s self-report, report of knowledgeable others, clinician’s observations, and biological testing.

Diagnostic Features

Opioid use disorder includes signs and symptoms that reflect compulsive, prolonged self-administration of opioid substances that are used for no legitimate medical purpose or, if another medical condition is present that requires opioid treatment, that are used in doses greatly in excess of the amount needed for that medical condition. (For example, an individual prescribed analgesic opioids for pain relief at adequate dosing will use significantly more than prescribed and not only because of persistent pain.) Individuals with opioid use disorder tend to develop such regular patterns of compulsive drug use that daily activities are planned around obtaining and administering opioids. Opioids are usually purchased on the illegal market but may also be obtained from physicians by falsifying or exaggerating general medical problems or by receiving simultaneous prescriptions from several physicians. Health care professionals with opioid use disorder will often obtain opioids by writing prescriptions for themselves or by diverting opioids that have been prescribed for patients or from pharmacy supplies. Most individuals with opioid use disorder have significant levels of tolerance and will experience withdrawal on abrupt discontinuation of opioid substances. Individuals with opioid use disorder often develop conditioned responses to drug-related stimuli (e.g., craving on seeing any heroin powder-like substance)—a phenomenon that occurs with most drugs that cause intense psychological changes. These responses probably contribute to relapse, are difficult to extinguish, and typically persist long after detoxification is completed.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Opioid use disorder can be associated with a history of drug-related crimes (e.g., possession or distribution of drugs, forgery, burglary, robbery, larceny, receiving stolen goods). Among health care professionals and individuals who have ready access to controlled substances, there is often a different pattern of illegal activities involving problems with state licensing boards, professional staffs of hospitals, or other administrative agencies. Marital difficulties (including divorce), unemployment, and irregular employment are often associated with opioid use disorder at all socioeconomic levels.

Prevalence

The 12-month prevalence of opioid use disorder is approximately 0.37% among adults age 18 years and older in the community population. This may be an underestimate because of the large number of incarcerated individuals with opioid use disorders. Rates are higher in males than in females (0.49% vs. 0.26%), with the male-to-female ratio typically being 1.5:1 for opioids other than heroin (i.e., available by prescription) and 3:1 for heroin. Female adolescents may have a higher likelihood of developing opioid use disorders. The prevalence decreases with age, with the prevalence highest (0.82%) among adults age 29 years or younger, and decreasing to 0.09% among adults age 65 years and older. Among adults, the prevalence of opioid use disorder is lower among African Americans at 0.18% and over-represented among Native Americans at 1.25%. It is close to average among whites (0.38%), Asian or Pacific Islanders (0.35%), and Hispanics (0.39%).

Among individuals in the United States ages 12–17 years, the overall 12-month prevalence of opioid use disorder in the community population is approximately 1.0%, but the prevalence of heroin use disorder is less than 0.1%. By contrast, analgesic use disorder is prevalent in about 1.0% of those ages 12–17 years, speaking to the importance of opioid analgesics as a group of substances with significant health consequences.

The 12-month prevalence of problem opioid use in European countries in the community population ages 15–64 years is between 0.1% and 0.8%. The average prevalence of problem opioid use in the European Union and Norway is between 0.36% and 0.44%.

Development and Course

Opioid use disorder can begin at any age, but problems associated with opioid use are most commonly first observed in the late teens or early 20s. Once opioid use disorder develops, it usually continues over a period of many years, even though brief periods of abstinence are frequent. In treated populations, relapse following abstinence is common. Even though relapses do occur, and while some long-term mortality rates may be as high as 2% per year, about 20%–30% of individuals with opioid use disorder achieve long-term abstinence. An exception concerns that of military service personnel who became dependent on opioids in Vietnam; over 90% of this population who had been dependent on opioids during deployment in Vietnam achieved abstinence after they returned, but they experienced increased rates of alcohol or amphetamine use disorder as well as increased suicidality.

Increasing age is associated with a decrease in prevalence as a result of early mortality and the remission of symptoms after age 40 years (i.e., “maturing out”). However, many individuals continue have presentations that meet opioid use disorder criteria for decades.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Genetic and physiological. The risk for opiate use disorder can be related to individual, family, peer, and social environmental factors, but within these domains, genetic factors play a particularly important role both directly and indirectly. For instance, impulsivity and novelty seeking are individual temperaments that relate to the propensity to develop

a substance use disorder but may themselves be genetically determined. Peer factors may relate to genetic predisposition in terms of how an individual selects his or her environment.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Despite small variations regarding individual criterion items, opioid use disorder diagnostic criteria perform equally well across most race/ethnicity groups. Individuals from ethnic minority populations living in economically deprived areas have been overrepresented among individuals with opioid use disorder. However, over time, opioid use disorder is seen more often among white middle-class individuals, especially females, suggesting that differences in use reflect the availability of opioid drugs and that other social factors may impact prevalence. Medical personnel who have ready access to opioids may be at increased risk for opioid use disorder.

Diagnostic Markers

Routine urine toxicology test results are often positive for opioid drugs in individuals with opioid use disorder. Urine test results remain positive for most opioids (e.g., heroin, morphine, codeine, oxycodone, propoxyphene) for 12–36 hours after administration. Fentanyl is not detected by standard urine tests but can be identified by more specialized procedures for several days. Methadone, buprenorphine (or buprenorphine/naloxone combination), and LAAM (L-alpha-acetylmethadol) have to be specifically tested for and will not cause a positive result on routine tests for opiates. They can be detected for several days up to more than 1 week. Laboratory evidence of the presence of other substances (e.g., cocaine, marijuana, alcohol, amphetamines, benzodiazepines) is common. Screening test results for hepatitis A, B, and C virus are positive in as many as 80%–90% of injection opioid users, either for hepatitis antigen (signifying active infection) or for hepatitis antibody (signifying past infection). HIV is prevalent in injection opioid users as well. Mildly elevated liver function test results are common, either as a result of resolving hepatitis or from toxic injury to the liver due to contaminants that have been mixed with the injected opioid. Subtle changes in cortisol secretion patterns and body temperature regulation have been observed for up to 6 months following opioid detoxification.

Suicide Risk

Similar to the risk generally observed for all substance use disorders, opioid use disorder is associated with a heightened risk for suicide attempts and completed suicides. Particularly notable are both accidental and deliberate opioid overdoses. Some suicide risk factors overlap with risk factors for an opioid use disorder. In addition, repeated opioid intoxication or withdrawal may be associated with severe depressions that, although temporary, can be intense enough to lead to suicide attempts and completed suicides. Available data suggest that nonfatal accidental opioid overdose (which is common) and attempted suicide are distinct clinically significant problems that should not be mistaken for each other.

Functional Consequences of Opioid Use Disorder

Opioid use is associated with a lack of mucous membrane secretions, causing dry mouth and nose. Slowing of gastrointestinal activity and a decrease in gut motility can produce severe constipation. Visual acuity may be impaired as a result of pupillary constriction with acute administration. In individuals who inject opioids, sclerosed veins (“tracks”) and puncture marks on the lower portions of the upper extremities are common. Veins sometimes become so severely sclerosed that peripheral edema develops, and individuals switch to injecting in veins in the legs, neck, or groin. When these veins become unusable, individuals often inject directly into their subcutaneous tissue (“skin-popping”), resulting

in cellulitis, abscesses, and circular-appearing scars from healed skin lesions. Tetanus and *Clostridium botulinum* infections are relatively rare but extremely serious consequences of injecting opioids, especially with contaminated needles. Infections may also occur in other organs and include bacterial endocarditis, hepatitis, and HIV infection. Hepatitis C infections, for example, may occur in up to 90% of persons who inject opioids. In addition, the prevalence of HIV infection can be high among individuals who inject drugs, a large proportion of whom are individuals with opioid use disorder. HIV infection rates have been reported to be as high as 60% among heroin users with opioid use disorder in some areas of the United States or the Russian Federation. However, the incidence may also be 10% or less in other areas, especially those where access to clean injection material and paraphernalia is facilitated.

Tuberculosis is a particularly serious problem among individuals who use drugs intravenously, especially those who are dependent on heroin; infection is usually asymptomatic and evident only by the presence of a positive tuberculin skin test. However, many cases of active tuberculosis have been found, especially among those who are infected with HIV. These individuals often have a newly acquired infection but also are likely to experience reactivation of a prior infection because of impaired immune function.

Individuals who sniff heroin or other opioids into the nose (“snorting”) often develop irritation of the nasal mucosa, sometimes accompanied by perforation of the nasal septum. Difficulties in sexual functioning are common. Males often experience erectile dysfunction during intoxication or chronic use. Females commonly have disturbances of reproductive function and irregular menses.

In relation to infections such as cellulitis, hepatitis, HIV infection, tuberculosis, and endocarditis, opioid use disorder is associated with a mortality rate as high as 1.5%–2% per year. Death most often results from overdose, accidents, injuries, AIDS, or other general medical complications. Accidents and injuries due to violence that is associated with buying or selling drugs are common. In some areas, violence accounts for more opioid-related deaths than overdose or HIV infection. Physiological dependence on opioids may occur in about half of the infants born to females with opioid use disorder; this can produce a severe withdrawal syndrome requiring medical treatment. Although low birth weight is also seen in children of mothers with opioid use disorder, it is usually not marked and is generally not associated with serious adverse consequences.

Differential Diagnosis

Opioid-induced mental disorders. Opioid-induced disorders occur frequently in individuals with opioid use disorder. Opioid-induced disorders may be characterized by symptoms (e.g., depressed mood) that resemble primary mental disorders (e.g., persistent depressive disorder [dysthymia] vs. opioid-induced depressive disorder, with depressive features, with onset during intoxication). Opioids are less likely to produce symptoms of mental disturbance than are most other drugs of abuse. Opioid intoxication and opioid withdrawal are distinguished from the other opioid-induced disorders (e.g., opioid-induced depressive disorder, with onset during intoxication) because the symptoms in these latter disorders predominate the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Other substance intoxication. Alcohol intoxication and sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication can cause a clinical picture that resembles that for opioid intoxication. A diagnosis of alcohol or sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication can usually be made based on the absence of pupillary constriction or the lack of a response to naloxone challenge. In some cases, intoxication may be due both to opioids and to alcohol or other sedatives. In these cases, the naloxone challenge will not reverse all of the sedative effects.

Other withdrawal disorders. The anxiety and restlessness associated with opioid withdrawal resemble symptoms seen in sedative-hypnotic withdrawal. However, opioid withdrawal is also accompanied by rhinorrhea, lacrimation, and pupillary dilation, which

are not seen in sedative-type withdrawal. Dilated pupils are also seen in hallucinogen intoxication and stimulant intoxication. However, other signs or symptoms of opioid withdrawal, such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal cramps, rhinorrhea, or lacrimation, are not present.

Comorbidity

The most common medical conditions associated with opioid use disorder are viral (e.g., HIV, hepatitis C virus) and bacterial infections, particularly among users of opioids by injection. These infections are less common in opioid use disorder with prescription opioids. Opioid use disorder is often associated with other substance use disorders, especially those involving tobacco, alcohol, cannabis, stimulants, and benzodiazepines, which are often taken to reduce symptoms of opioid withdrawal or craving for opioids, or to enhance the effects of administered opioids. Individuals with opioid use disorder are at risk for the development of mild to moderate depression that meets symptomatic and duration criteria for persistent depressive disorder (dysthymia) or, in some cases, for major depressive disorder. These symptoms may represent an opioid-induced depressive disorder or an exacerbation of a preexisting primary depressive disorder. Periods of depression are especially common during chronic intoxication or in association with physical or psychosocial stressors that are related to the opioid use disorder. Insomnia is common, especially during withdrawal. Antisocial personality disorder is much more common in individuals with opioid use disorder than in the general population. Posttraumatic stress disorder is also seen with increased frequency. A history of conduct disorder in childhood or adolescence has been identified as a significant risk factor for substance-related disorders, especially opioid use disorder.

Opioid Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of an opioid.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., initial euphoria followed by apathy, dysphoria, psychomotor agitation or retardation, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, opioid use.
- C. Pupillary constriction (or pupillary dilation due to anoxia from severe overdose) and one (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing during, or shortly after, opioid use:
 1. Drowsiness or coma.
 2. Slurred speech.
 3. Impairment in attention or memory.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Specify if:

With perceptual disturbances: This specifier may be noted in the rare instance in which hallucinations with intact reality testing or auditory, visual, or tactile illusions occur in the absence of a delirium.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether or not there is a comorbid opioid use disorder and whether or not there are perceptual disturbances.

For opioid intoxication without perceptual disturbances: If a mild opioid use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.129**, and if a moderate or severe opioid

use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.229**. If there is no comorbid opioid use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.929**.

For opioid intoxication with perceptual disturbances: If a mild opioid use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.122**, and if a moderate or severe opioid use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.222**. If there is no comorbid opioid use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F11.922**.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of opioid intoxication is the presence of clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., initial euphoria followed by apathy, dysphoria, psychomotor agitation or retardation, impaired judgment) that develop during, or shortly after, opioid use (Criteria A and B). Intoxication is accompanied by pupillary constriction (unless there has been a severe overdose with consequent anoxia and pupillary dilation) and one or more of the following signs: drowsiness (described as being “on the nod”), slurred speech, and impairment in attention or memory (Criterion C); drowsiness may progress to coma. Individuals with opioid intoxication may demonstrate inattention to the environment, even to the point of ignoring potentially harmful events. The signs or symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D).

Differential Diagnosis

Other substance intoxication. Alcohol intoxication and sedative-hypnotic intoxication can cause a clinical picture that resembles opioid intoxication. A diagnosis of alcohol or sedative-hypnotic intoxication can usually be made based on the absence of pupillary constriction or the lack of a response to a naloxone challenge. In some cases, intoxication may be due both to opioids and to alcohol or other sedatives. In these cases, the naloxone challenge will not reverse all of the sedative effects.

Other opioid-related disorders. Opioid intoxication is distinguished from the other opioid-induced disorders (e.g., opioid-induced depressive disorder, with onset during intoxication) because the symptoms in the latter disorders predominate in the clinical presentation and meet full criteria for the relevant disorder.

Opioid Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

292.0 (F11.23)

A. Presence of either of the following:

1. Cessation of (or reduction in) opioid use that has been heavy and prolonged (i.e., several weeks or longer).
2. Administration of an opioid antagonist after a period of opioid use.

B. Three (or more) of the following developing within minutes to several days after Criterion A:

1. Dysphoric mood.
2. Nausea or vomiting.
3. Muscle aches.
4. Lacrimation or rhinorrhea.
5. Pupillary dilation, piloerection, or sweating.

6. Diarrhea.
7. Yawning.
8. Fever.
9. Insomnia.

- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is 292.0. The ICD-10-CM code for opioid withdrawal is F11.23. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe opioid use disorder, reflecting the fact that opioid withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe opioid use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild opioid use disorder with opioid withdrawal.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of opioid withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic withdrawal syndrome that develops after the cessation of (or reduction in) opioid use that has been heavy and prolonged (Criterion A1). The withdrawal syndrome can also be precipitated by administration of an opioid antagonist (e.g., naloxone or naltrexone) after a period of opioid use (Criterion A2). This may also occur after administration of an opioid partial agonist such as buprenorphine to a person currently using a full opioid agonist.

Opioid withdrawal is characterized by a pattern of signs and symptoms that are opposite to the acute agonist effects. The first of these are subjective and consist of complaints of anxiety, restlessness, and an “achy feeling” that is often located in the back and legs, along with irritability and increased sensitivity to pain. Three or more of the following must be present to make a diagnosis of opioid withdrawal: dysphoric mood; nausea or vomiting; muscle aches; lacrimation or rhinorrhea; pupillary dilation, piloerection, or increased sweating; diarrhea; yawning; fever; and insomnia (Criterion B). Piloerection and fever are associated with more severe withdrawal and are not often seen in routine clinical practice because individuals with opioid use disorder usually obtain substances before withdrawal becomes that far advanced. These symptoms of opioid withdrawal must cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D). Meeting diagnostic criteria for opioid withdrawal alone is not sufficient for a diagnosis of opioid use disorder, but concurrent symptoms of craving and drug-seeking behavior are suggestive of comorbid opioid use disorder. ICD-10-CM codes only allow a diagnosis of opioid withdrawal in the presence of comorbid moderate to severe opioid use disorder.

The speed and severity of withdrawal associated with opioids depend on the half-life of the opioid used. Most individuals who are physiologically dependent on short-acting drugs such as heroin begin to have withdrawal symptoms within 6–12 hours after the last dose. Symptoms may take 2–4 days to emerge in the case of longer-acting drugs such as methadone, LAAM (L-alpha-acetylmethadol), or buprenorphine. Acute withdrawal symptoms for a short-acting opioid such as heroin usually peak within 1–3 days and gradually subside over a period of 5–7 days. Less acute withdrawal symptoms can last for weeks to months. These more chronic symptoms include anxiety, dysphoria, anhedonia, and insomnia.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Males with opioid withdrawal may experience piloerection, sweating, and spontaneous ejaculations while awake. Opioid withdrawal is distinct from opioid use disorder and does not necessarily occur in the presence of the drug-seeking behavior associated with opioid use disorder. Opioid withdrawal may occur in any individual after cessation of repeated use of an opioid, whether in the setting of medical management of pain, during opioid agonist therapy for opioid use disorder, in the context of private recreational use, or following attempts to self-treat symptoms of mental disorders with opioids.

Prevalence

Among individuals from various clinical settings, opioid withdrawal occurred in 60% of individuals who had used heroin at least once in the prior 12 months.

Development and Course

Opioid withdrawal is typical in the course of an opioid use disorder. It can be part of an escalating pattern in which an opioid is used to reduce withdrawal symptoms, in turn leading to more withdrawal at a later time. For persons with an established opioid use disorder, withdrawal and attempts to relieve withdrawal are typical.

Differential Diagnosis

Other withdrawal disorders. The anxiety and restlessness associated with opioid withdrawal resemble symptoms seen in sedative-hypnotic withdrawal. However, opioid withdrawal is also accompanied by rhinorrhea, lacrimation, and pupillary dilation, which are not seen in sedative-type withdrawal.

Other substance intoxication. Dilated pupils are also seen in hallucinogen intoxication and stimulant intoxication. However, other signs or symptoms of opioid withdrawal, such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal cramps, rhinorrhea, and lacrimation, are not present.

Other opioid-induced disorders. Opioid withdrawal is distinguished from the other opioid-induced disorders (e.g., opioid-induced depressive disorder, with onset during withdrawal) because the symptoms in these latter disorders are in excess of those usually associated with opioid withdrawal and meet full criteria for the relevant disorder.

Other Opioid-Induced Disorders

The following opioid-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): opioid-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); opioid-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); opioid-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake Disorders”); and opioid-induced sexual dysfunction (“Sexual Dysfunctions”). For opioid intoxication delirium and opioid withdrawal delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These opioid-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of opioid intoxication or opioid withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Opioid-Related Disorder

292.9 (F11.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of an opioid-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific opioid-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Sedative-, Hypnotic-, or Anxiolytic-Related Disorders

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Use Disorder

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Intoxication

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Withdrawal

Other Sedative-, Hypnotic-, or Anxiolytic-Induced Disorders

Unspecified Sedative-, Hypnotic-, or Anxiolytic-Related Disorder

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics are often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic; use the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic; or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic.
 5. Recurrent sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home (e.g., repeated absences from work or poor work performance related to sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use; sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-related absences, suspensions, or expulsions from school; neglect of children or household).
 6. Continued sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics (e.g., arguments with a spouse about consequences of intoxication; physical fights).
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use.

8. Recurrent sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use in situations in which it is physically hazardous (e.g., driving an automobile or operating a machine when impaired by sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use).
9. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic.
10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic.

Note: This criterion is not considered to be met for individuals taking sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics under medical supervision.

11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal, pp. 557–558).
 - b. Sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics (or a closely related substance, such as alcohol) are taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Note: This criterion is not considered to be met for individuals taking sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics under medical supervision.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication; sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal; or another sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. Instead the comorbid sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorder (see the coding note for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication; sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal; or specific sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced depressive disorder and sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, only the sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced depressive disorder code is given with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F13.14 for mild sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder with sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced depressive disorder or F13.24 for a moderate or severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder with sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced depressive disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.40 (F13.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.10 (F13.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.10 (F13.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic substances include benzodiazepines, benzodiazepine-like drugs (e.g., zolpidem, zaleplon), carbamates (e.g., glutethimide, meprobamate), barbiturates (e.g., secobarbital), and barbiturate-like hypnotics (e.g., glutethimide, methaqualone). This class of substances includes all prescription sleeping medications and almost all prescription antianxiety medications. Nonbenzodiazepine antianxiety agents (e.g., buspirone, gepirone) are not included in this class because they do not appear to be associated with significant misuse.

Like alcohol, these agents are brain depressants and can produce similar substance/medication-induced and substance use disorders. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic substances are available both by prescription and illegally. Some individuals who obtain these substances by prescription will develop a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, while others who misuse these substances or use them for intoxication will not develop a use disorder. In particular, sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics with rapid onset and/or short to intermediate lengths of action may be taken for intoxication purposes, although longer acting substances in this class may be taken for intoxication as well.

Craving (Criterion A4), either while using or during a period of abstinence, is a typical feature of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. Misuse of substances from this class may occur on its own or in conjunction with use of other substances. For example, individuals may use intoxicating doses of sedatives or benzodiazepines to “come down” from cocaine or amphetamines or use high doses of benzodiazepines in combination with methadone to “boost” its effects.

Repeated absences or poor work performance, school absences, suspensions or expulsions, and neglect of children or household (Criterion A5) may be related to sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, as may the continued use of the substances despite arguments with a spouse about consequences of intoxication or despite physical fights (Criterion A6). Limiting contact with family or friends, avoiding work or school, or stopping participation in hobbies, sports, or games (Criterion A7) and recurrent sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use when driving an automobile or operating a machine when impaired by sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use (Criterion A8) are also seen in sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder.

Very significant levels of tolerance and withdrawal can develop to the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic. There may be evidence of tolerance and withdrawal in the absence of a diagnosis of a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder in an individual who has abruptly discontinued use of benzodiazepines that were taken for long periods of time at prescribed and therapeutic doses. In these cases, an additional diagnosis of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is made only if other criteria are met. That is, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic medications may be prescribed for appropriate medical purposes, and depending on the dose regimen, these drugs may then produce tolerance and with-

drawal. If these drugs are prescribed or recommended for appropriate medical purposes, and if they are used as prescribed, the resulting tolerance or withdrawal does not meet the criteria for diagnosing a substance use disorder. However, it is necessary to determine whether the drugs were appropriately prescribed and used (e.g., falsifying medical symptoms to obtain the medication; using more medication than prescribed; obtaining the medication from several doctors without informing them of the others' involvement).

Given the unidimensional nature of the symptoms of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, severity is based on the number of criteria endorsed.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is often associated with other substance use disorders (e.g., alcohol, cannabis, opioid, stimulant use disorders). Sedatives are often used to alleviate the unwanted effects of these other substances. With repeated use of the substance, tolerance develops to the sedative effects, and a progressively higher dose is used. However, tolerance to brain stem depressant effects develops much more slowly, and as the individual takes more substance to achieve euphoria or other desired effects, there may be a sudden onset of respiratory depression and hypotension, which may result in death. Intense or repeated sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication may be associated with severe depression that, although temporary, can lead to suicide attempt and completed suicide.

Prevalence

The 12-month prevalences of DSM-IV sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder are estimated to be 0.3% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 0.2% among adults age 18 years and older. Rates of DSM-IV sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder are slightly greater among adult males (0.3%) than among adult females, but for 12- to 17-year-olds, the rate for females (0.4%) exceeds that for males (0.2%). The 12-month prevalence of DSM-IV sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder decreases as a function of age and is greatest among 18- to 29-year-olds (0.5%) and lowest among individuals 65 years and older (0.04%).

Twelve-month prevalence of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder varies across racial/ethnic subgroups of the U.S. population. For 12- to 17-year-olds, rates are greatest among whites (0.3%) relative to African Americans (0.2%), Hispanics (0.2%), Native Americans (0.1%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.1%). Among adults, 12-month prevalence is greatest among Native Americans and Alaska Natives (0.8%), with rates of approximately 0.2% among African Americans, whites, and Hispanics and 0.1% among Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders.

Development and Course

The usual course of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder involves individuals in their teens or 20s who escalate their occasional use of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic agents to the point at which they develop problems that meet criteria for a diagnosis. This pattern may be especially likely among individuals who have other substance use disorders (e.g., alcohol, opioids, stimulants). An initial pattern of intermittent use socially (e.g., at parties) can lead to daily use and high levels of tolerance. Once this occurs, an increasing level of interpersonal difficulties, as well as increasingly severe episodes of cognitive dysfunction and physiological withdrawal, can be expected.

The second and less frequently observed clinical course begins with an individual who originally obtained the medication by prescription from a physician, usually for the treatment of anxiety, insomnia, or somatic complaints. As either tolerance or a need for higher doses of the medication develops, there is a gradual increase in the dose and frequency of self-administration. The individual is likely to continue to justify use on the basis of his or her original symptoms of anxiety or insomnia, but substance-seeking behavior becomes

more prominent, and the individual may seek out multiple physicians to obtain sufficient supplies of the medication. Tolerance can reach high levels, and withdrawal (including seizures and withdrawal delirium) may occur.

As with many substance use disorders, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder generally has an onset during adolescence or early adult life. There is an increased risk for misuse and problems from many psychoactive substances as individuals age. In particular, cognitive impairment increases as a side effect with age, and the metabolism of sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics decreases with age among older individuals. Both acute and chronic toxic effects of these substances, especially effects on cognition, memory, and motor coordination, are likely to increase with age as a consequence of pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic age-related changes. Individuals with major neurocognitive disorder (dementia) are more likely to develop intoxication and impaired physiological functioning at lower doses.

Deliberate intoxication to achieve a "high" is most likely to be observed in teenagers and individuals in their 20s. Problems associated with sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics are also seen in individuals in their 40s and older who escalate the dose of prescribed medications. In older individuals, intoxication can resemble a progressive dementia.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Impulsivity and novelty seeking are individual temperaments that relate to the propensity to develop a substance use disorder but may themselves be genetically determined.

Environmental. Since sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics are all pharmaceuticals, a key risk factor relates to availability of the substances. In the United States, the historical patterns of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic misuse relate to the broad prescribing patterns. For instance, a marked decrease in prescription of barbiturates was associated with an increase in benzodiazepine prescribing. Peer factors may relate to genetic predisposition in terms of how individuals select their environment. Other individuals at heightened risk might include those with alcohol use disorder who may receive repeated prescriptions in response to their complaints of alcohol-related anxiety or insomnia.

Genetic and physiological. As for other substance use disorders, the risk for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder can be related to individual, family, peer, social, and environmental factors. Within these domains, genetic factors play a particularly important role both directly and indirectly. Overall, across development, genetic factors seem to play a larger role in the onset of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder as individuals age through puberty into adult life.

Course modifiers. Early onset of use is associated with greater likelihood for developing a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

There are marked variations in prescription patterns (and availability) of this class of substances in different countries, which may lead to variations in prevalence of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorders.

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Females may be at higher risk than males for prescription drug misuse of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic substances.

Diagnostic Markers

Almost all sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic substances can be identified through laboratory evaluations of urine or blood (the latter of which can quantify the amounts of these

agents in the body). Urine tests are likely to remain positive for up to approximately 1 week after the use of long-acting substances, such as diazepam or flurazepam.

Functional Consequences of Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Use Disorder

The social and interpersonal consequences of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder mimic those of alcohol in terms of the potential for disinhibited behavior. Accidents, interpersonal difficulties (such as arguments or fights), and interference with work or school performance are all common outcomes. Physical examination is likely to reveal evidence of a mild decrease in most aspects of autonomic nervous system functioning, including a slower pulse, a slightly decreased respiratory rate, and a slight drop in blood pressure (most likely to occur with postural changes). At high doses, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic substances can be lethal, particularly when mixed with alcohol, although the lethal dosage varies considerably among the specific substances. Overdoses may be associated with a deterioration in vital signs that signals an impending medical emergency (e.g., respiratory arrest from barbiturates). There may be consequences of trauma (e.g., internal bleeding or a subdural hematoma) from accidents that occur while intoxicated. Intravenous use of these substances can result in medical complications related to the use of contaminated needles (e.g., hepatitis and HIV).

Acute intoxication can result in accidental injuries and automobile accidents. For elderly individuals, even short-term use of these sedating medications at prescribed doses can be associated with an increased risk for cognitive problems and falls. The disinhibiting effects of these agents, like alcohol, may potentially contribute to overly aggressive behavior, with subsequent interpersonal and legal problems. Accidental or deliberate overdoses, similar to those observed for alcohol use disorder or repeated alcohol intoxication, can occur. In contrast to their wide margin of safety when used alone, benzodiazepines taken in combination with alcohol can be particularly dangerous, and accidental overdoses are reported commonly. Accidental overdoses have also been reported in individuals who deliberately misuse barbiturates and other nonbenzodiazepine sedatives (e.g., methaqualone), but since these agents are much less available than the benzodiazepines, the frequency of overdosing is low in most settings.

Differential Diagnosis

Other mental disorders or medical conditions. Individuals with sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders may present with symptoms (e.g., anxiety) that resemble primary mental disorders (e.g., generalized anxiety disorder vs. sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during withdrawal). The slurred speech, incoordination, and other associated features characteristic of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication could be the result of another medical condition (e.g., multiple sclerosis) or of a prior head trauma (e.g., a subdural hematoma).

Alcohol use disorder. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder must be differentiated from alcohol use disorder.

Clinically appropriate use of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic medications. Individuals may continue to take benzodiazepine medication according to a physician's direction for a legitimate medical indication over extended periods of time. Even if physiological signs of tolerance or withdrawal are manifested, many of these individuals do not develop symptoms that meet the criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder because they are not preoccupied with obtaining the substance and its use does not interfere with their performance of usual social or occupational roles.

Comorbidity

Nonmedical use of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic agents is associated with alcohol use disorder, tobacco use disorder, and, generally, illicit drug use. There may also be an over-

lap between sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder and antisocial personality disorder; depressive, bipolar, and anxiety disorders; and other substance use disorders, such as alcohol use disorder and illicit drug use disorders. Antisocial behavior and antisocial personality disorder are especially associated with sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder when the substances are obtained illegally.

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic.
- B. Clinically significant maladaptive behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., inappropriate sexual or aggressive behavior, mood lability, impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use.
- C. One (or more) of the following signs or symptoms developing during, or shortly after, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use:
 1. Slurred speech.
 2. Incoordination.
 3. Unsteady gait.
 4. Nystagmus.
 5. Impairment in cognition (e.g., attention, memory).
 6. Stupor or coma.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. If a mild sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F13.129**, and if a moderate or severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F13.229**. If there is no comorbid sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F13.929**.

Note: For information on Development and Course; Risk and Prognostic Factors; Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues; Diagnostic Markers; Functional Consequences of Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Intoxication; and Comorbidity, see the corresponding sections in sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication is the presence of clinically significant maladaptive behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., inappropriate sexual or aggressive behavior, mood lability, impaired judgment, impaired social or occupational functioning) that develop during, or shortly after, use of a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic (Criteria A and B). As with other brain depressants, such as alcohol, these behaviors may be accompanied by slurred speech, incoordination (at levels that can interfere with driving abilities and with performing usual activities to the point of causing falls or automobile accidents), an unsteady gait, nystagmus, impairment in cognition (e.g., attentional or memory problems), and stupor or coma (Criterion C). Memory impairment is a prominent feature of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication and is most often characterized by an anterograde amnesia that resembles “alcoholic blackouts,” which can be disturbing to the individual. The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another

mental disorder (Criterion D). Intoxication may occur in individuals who are receiving these substances by prescription, are borrowing the medication from friends or relatives, or are deliberately taking the substance to achieve intoxication.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Associated features include taking more medication than prescribed, taking multiple different medications, or mixing sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic agents with alcohol, which can markedly increase the effects of these agents.

Prevalence

The prevalence of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication in the general population is unclear. However, it is probable that most nonmedical users of sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics would at some time have signs or symptoms that meet criteria for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication; if so, then the prevalence of nonmedical sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use in the general population may be similar to the prevalence of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication. For example, tranquilizers are used non-medically by 2.2% of Americans older than 12 years.

Differential Diagnosis

Alcohol use disorders. Since the clinical presentations may be identical, distinguishing sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication from alcohol use disorders requires evidence for recent ingestion of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic medications by self-report, informant report, or toxicological testing. Many individuals who misuse sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics may also misuse alcohol and other substances, and so multiple intoxication diagnoses are possible.

Alcohol intoxication. Alcohol intoxication may be distinguished from sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication by the smell of alcohol on the breath. Otherwise, the features of the two disorders may be similar.

Other sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication is distinguished from the other sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders (e.g., sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during withdrawal) because the symptoms in the latter disorders predominate in the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant clinical attention.

Neurocognitive disorders. In situations of cognitive impairment, traumatic brain injury, and delirium from other causes, sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics may be intoxicating at quite low dosages. The differential diagnosis in these complex settings is based on the predominant syndrome. An additional diagnosis of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication may be appropriate even if the substance has been ingested at a low dosage in the setting of these other (or similar) co-occurring conditions.

Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Cessation of (or reduction in) sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use that has been prolonged.
- B. Two (or more) of the following, developing within several hours to a few days after the cessation of (or reduction in) sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use described in Criterion A:
 1. Autonomic hyperactivity (e.g., sweating or pulse rate greater than 100 bpm).
 2. Hand tremor.

3. Insomnia.
 4. Nausea or vomiting.
 5. Transient visual, tactile, or auditory hallucinations or illusions.
 6. Psychomotor agitation.
 7. Anxiety.
 8. Grand mal seizures.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Specify if:

With perceptual disturbances: This specifier may be noted when hallucinations with intact reality testing or auditory, visual, or tactile illusions occur in the absence of a delirium.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.0**. The ICD-10-CM code for sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal depends on whether or not there is a comorbid moderate or severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder and whether or not there are perceptual disturbances. For sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal without perceptual disturbances, the ICD-10-CM code is **F13.239**. For sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal with perceptual disturbances, the ICD-10-CM code is **F13.232**. Note that the ICD-10-CM codes indicate the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder, reflecting the fact that sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder with sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal.

Note: For information on Development and Course; Risk and Prognostic Factors; Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues; Functional Consequences of Sedative, Hypnotic, or Anxiolytic Withdrawal; and Comorbidity, see the corresponding sections in sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic syndrome that develops after a marked decrease in or cessation of intake after several weeks or more of regular use (Criteria A and B). This withdrawal syndrome is characterized by two or more symptoms (similar to alcohol withdrawal) that include autonomic hyperactivity (e.g., increases in heart rate, respiratory rate, blood pressure, or body temperature, along with sweating); a tremor of the hands; insomnia; nausea, sometimes accompanied by vomiting; anxiety; and psychomotor agitation. A grand mal seizure may occur in perhaps as many as 20%–30% of individuals undergoing untreated withdrawal from these substances. In severe withdrawal, visual, tactile, or auditory hallucinations or illusions can occur but are usually in the context of a delirium. If the individual's reality testing is intact (i.e., he or she knows the substance is causing the hallucinations) and the illusions occur in a clear sensorium, the specifier "with perceptual disturbances" can be noted. When hallucinations occur in the absence of intact reality testing, a diagnosis of substance/medication-induced psychotic disorder should be considered. The symptoms cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (e.g., alcohol withdrawal or generalized anxiety disorder) (Criterion D). Relief of withdrawal symptoms with administration of any sedative-hypnotic agent would support a diagnosis of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

The timing and severity of the withdrawal syndrome will differ depending on the specific substance and its pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. For example, withdrawal from shorter-acting substances that are rapidly absorbed and that have no active metabolites (e.g., triazolam) can begin within hours after the substance is stopped; withdrawal from substances with long-acting metabolites (e.g., diazepam) may not begin for 1–2 days or longer. The withdrawal syndrome produced by substances in this class may be characterized by the development of a delirium that can be life-threatening. There may be evidence of tolerance and withdrawal in the absence of a diagnosis of a substance use disorder in an individual who has abruptly discontinued benzodiazepines that were taken for long periods of time at prescribed and therapeutic doses. However, ICD-10-CM codes only allow a diagnosis of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal in the presence of comorbid moderate to severe sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic use disorder.

The time course of the withdrawal syndrome is generally predicted by the half-life of the substance. Medications whose actions typically last about 10 hours or less (e.g., lorazepam, oxazepam, temazepam) produce withdrawal symptoms within 6–8 hours of decreasing blood levels that peak in intensity on the second day and improve markedly by the fourth or fifth day. For substances with longer half-lives (e.g., diazepam), symptoms may not develop for more than 1 week, peak in intensity during the second week, and decrease markedly during the third or fourth week. There may be additional longer-term symptoms at a much lower level of intensity that persist for several months.

The longer the substance has been taken and the higher the dosages used, the more likely it is that there will be severe withdrawal. However, withdrawal has been reported with as little as 15 mg of diazepam (or its equivalent in other benzodiazepines) when taken daily for several months. Doses of approximately 40 mg of diazepam (or its equivalent) daily are more likely to produce clinically relevant withdrawal symptoms, and even higher doses (e.g., 100 mg of diazepam) are more likely to be followed by withdrawal seizures or delirium. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal delirium is characterized by disturbances in consciousness and cognition, with visual, tactile, or auditory hallucinations. When present, sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal delirium should be diagnosed instead of withdrawal.

Prevalence

The prevalence of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal is unclear.

Diagnostic Markers

Seizures and autonomic instability in the setting of a history of prolonged exposure to sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic medications suggest a high likelihood of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal.

Differential Diagnosis

Other medical disorders. The symptoms of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal may be mimicked by other medical conditions (e.g., hypoglycemia, diabetic ketoacidosis). If seizures are a feature of the sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal, the differential diagnosis includes the various causes of seizures (e.g., infections, head injury, poisonings).

Essential tremor. Essential tremor, a disorder that frequently runs in families, may erroneously suggest the tremulousness associated with sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal.

Alcohol withdrawal. Alcohol withdrawal produces a syndrome very similar to that of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal.

Other sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders. Sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal is distinguished from the other sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders (e.g., sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced anxiety disorder, with onset during withdrawal) because the symptoms in the latter disorders predominate in the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant clinical attention.

Anxiety disorders. Recurrence or worsening of an underlying anxiety disorder produces a syndrome similar to sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal. Withdrawal would be suspected with an abrupt reduction in the dosage of a sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic medication. When a taper is under way, distinguishing the withdrawal syndrome from the underlying anxiety disorder can be difficult. As with alcohol, lingering withdrawal symptoms (e.g., anxiety, moodiness, and trouble sleeping) can be mistaken for non-substance/medication-induced anxiety or depressive disorders (e.g., generalized anxiety disorder).

Other Sedative-, Hypnotic-, or Anxiolytic-Induced Disorders

The following sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake Disorders”); sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced sexual dysfunction (“Sexual Dysfunctions”); and sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced major or mild neurocognitive disorder (“Neurocognitive Disorders”). For sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication delirium and sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic intoxication or sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Sedative-, Hypnotic-, or Anxiolytic-Related Disorder

292.9 (F13.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific sedative-, hypnotic-, or anxiolytic-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Stimulant-Related Disorders

- Stimulant Use Disorder
- Stimulant Intoxication
- Stimulant Withdrawal
- Other Stimulant-Induced Disorders
- Unspecified Stimulant-Related Disorder

Stimulant Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A pattern of amphetamine-type substance, cocaine, or other stimulant use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. The stimulant is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control stimulant use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the stimulant, use the stimulant, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the stimulant.
 5. Recurrent stimulant use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
 6. Continued stimulant use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of the stimulant.
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of stimulant use.
 8. Recurrent stimulant use in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
 9. Stimulant use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the stimulant.
 10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the stimulant to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the stimulant.
- Note:** This criterion is not considered to be met for those taking stimulant medications solely under appropriate medical supervision, such as medications for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder or narcolepsy.
11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for the stimulant (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for stimulant withdrawal, p. 569).
 - b. The stimulant (or a closely related substance) is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Note: This criterion is not considered to be met for those taking stimulant medications solely under appropriate medical supervision, such as medications for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder or narcolepsy.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for stimulant use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for stimulant use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, "Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the stimulant," may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for stimulant use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for stimulant use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, "Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the stimulant," may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to stimulants is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If an amphetamine intoxication, amphetamine withdrawal, or another amphetamine-induced mental disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for amphetamine use disorder. Instead, the comorbid amphetamine use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the amphetamine-induced disorder code (see the coding note for amphetamine intoxication, amphetamine withdrawal, or a specific amphetamine-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid amphetamine-type or other stimulant-induced depressive disorder and amphetamine-type or other stimulant use disorder, only the amphetamine-type or other stimulant-induced depressive disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid amphetamine-type or other stimulant use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F15.14 for mild amphetamine-type or other stimulant use disorder with amphetamine-type or other stimulant-induced depressive disorder or F15.24 for a moderate or severe amphetamine-type or other stimulant use disorder with amphetamine-type or other stimulant-induced depressive disorder. Similarly, if there is comorbid cocaine-induced depressive disorder and cocaine use disorder, only the cocaine-induced depressive disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid cocaine use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F14.14 for mild cocaine use disorder with cocaine-induced depressive disorder or F14.24 for a moderate or severe cocaine use disorder with cocaine-induced depressive disorder.

Specify current severity:

Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

305.70 (F15.10) Amphetamine-type substance

305.60 (F14.10) Cocaine

305.70 (F15.10) Other or unspecified stimulant

Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.40 (F15.20) Amphetamine-type substance

304.20 (F14.20) Cocaine

304.40 (F15.20) Other or unspecified stimulant

Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

304.40 (F15.20) Amphetamine-type substance

304.20 (F14.20) Cocaine

304.40 (F15.20) Other or unspecified stimulant

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

The amphetamine and amphetamine-type stimulants include substances with a substituted-phenylethylamine structure, such as amphetamine, dextroamphetamine, and methamphetamine. Also included are those substances that are structurally different but have similar effects, such as methylphenidate. These substances are usually taken orally or intravenously, although methamphetamine is also taken by the nasal route. In addition to the synthetic amphetamine-type compounds, there are naturally occurring, plant-derived stimulants such as *khât*. Amphetamines and other stimulants may be obtained by prescription for the treatment of obesity, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, and narcolepsy. Consequently, prescribed stimulants may be diverted into the illegal market. The effects of amphetamines and amphetamine-like drugs are similar to those of cocaine, such that the criteria for stimulant use disorder are presented here as a single disorder with the ability to specify the particular stimulant used by the individual. Cocaine may be consumed in several preparations (e.g., coca leaves, coca paste, cocaine hydrochloride, and cocaine alkaloids such as freebase and crack) that differ in potency because of varying levels of purity and speed of onset. However, in all forms of the substance, cocaine is the active ingredient. Cocaine hydrochloride powder is usually “snorted” through the nostrils or dissolved in water and injected intravenously.

Individuals exposed to amphetamine-type stimulants or cocaine can develop stimulant use disorder as rapidly as 1 week, although the onset is not always this rapid. Regardless of the route of administration, tolerance occurs with repeated use. Withdrawal symptoms, particularly hypersomnia, increased appetite, and dysphoria, can occur and can enhance craving. Most individuals with stimulant use disorder have experienced tolerance or withdrawal.

Use patterns and course are similar for disorders involving amphetamine-type stimulants and cocaine, as both substances are potent central nervous system stimulants with similar psychoactive and sympathomimetic effects. Amphetamine-type stimulants are longer acting than cocaine and thus are used fewer times per day. Usage may be chronic or episodic, with binges punctuated by brief non-use periods. Aggressive or violent behavior is common when high doses are smoked, ingested, or administered intravenously. Intense temporary anxiety resembling panic disorder or generalized anxiety disorder, as well as paranoid ideation and psychotic episodes that resemble schizophrenia, is seen with high-dose use.

Withdrawal states are associated with temporary but intense depressive symptoms that can resemble a major depressive episode; the depressive symptoms usually resolve within 1 week. Tolerance to amphetamine-type stimulants develops and leads to escalation of the dose. Conversely, some users of amphetamine-type stimulants develop sensitization, characterized by enhanced effects.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

When injected or smoked, stimulants typically produce an instant feeling of well-being, confidence, and euphoria. Dramatic behavioral changes can rapidly develop with stimulant use disorder. Chaotic behavior, social isolation, aggressive behavior, and sexual dysfunction can result from long-term stimulant use disorder.

Individuals with acute intoxication may present with rambling speech, headache, transient ideas of reference, and tinnitus. There may be paranoid ideation, auditory hallucinations in a clear sensorium, and tactile hallucinations, which the individual usually recognizes as drug effects. Threats or acting out of aggressive behavior may occur. Depression, suicidal ideation, irritability, anhedonia, emotional lability, or disturbances in attention and concentration commonly occur during withdrawal. Mental disturbances associated with cocaine use usually resolve hours to days after cessation of use but can persist for 1 month. Physiological changes during stimulant withdrawal are opposite to those of the intoxication phase, sometimes including bradycardia. Temporary depressive symptoms may meet symptomatic and duration criteria for major depressive episode. Histories consistent with repeated panic attacks, social anxiety disorder (social phobia)-like behavior, and generalized anxiety-like syndromes are common, as are eating disorders. One extreme instance of stimulant toxicity is stimulant-induced psychotic disorder, a disorder that resembles schizophrenia, with delusions and hallucinations.

Individuals with stimulant use disorder often develop conditioned responses to drug-related stimuli (e.g., craving on seeing any white powderlike substance). These responses contribute to relapse, are difficult to extinguish, and persist after detoxification.

Depressive symptoms with suicidal ideation or behavior can occur and are generally the most serious problems seen during stimulant withdrawal.

Prevalence

Stimulant use disorder: amphetamine-type stimulants. Estimated 12-month prevalence of amphetamine-type stimulant use disorder in the United States is 0.2% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 0.2% among individuals 18 years and older. Rates are similar among adult males and females (0.2%), but among 12- to 17-year-olds, the rate for females (0.3%) is greater than that for males (0.1%). Intravenous stimulant use has a male-to-female ratio of 3:1 or 4:1, but rates are more balanced among non-injecting users, with males representing 54% of primary treatment admissions. Twelve-month prevalence is greater among 18- to 29-year-olds (0.4%) compared with 45- to 64-year-olds (0.1%). For 12- to 17-year-olds, rates are highest among whites and African Americans (0.3%) compared with Hispanics (0.1%) and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.01%), with amphetamine-type stimulant use disorder virtually absent among Native Americans. Among adults, rates are highest among Native Americans and Alaska Natives (0.6%) compared with whites (0.2%) and Hispanics (0.2%), with amphetamine-type stimulant use disorder virtually absent among African Americans and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders. Past-year nonprescribed use of prescription stimulants occurred among 5%–9% of children through high school, with 5%–35% of college-age persons reporting past-year use.

Stimulant use disorder: cocaine. Estimated 12-month prevalence of cocaine use disorder in the United States is 0.2% among 12- to 17-year-olds and 0.3% among individuals 18 years and older. Rates are higher among males (0.4%) than among females (0.1%). Rates are highest among 18- to 29-year-olds (0.6%) and lowest among 45- to 64-year-olds (0.1%). Among adults, rates are greater among Native Americans (0.8%) compared with African Americans (0.4%), Hispanics (0.3%), whites (0.2%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.1%). In contrast, for 12- to 17-year-olds, rates are similar among Hispanics (0.2%), whites (0.2%), and Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (0.2%); and lower among African Americans (0.02%); with cocaine use disorder virtually absent among Native Americans and Alaska Natives.

Development and Course

Stimulant use disorders occur throughout all levels of society and are more common among individuals ages 12–25 years compared with individuals 26 years and older. First regular use

among individuals in treatment occurs, on average, at approximately age 23 years. For primary methamphetamine–primary treatment admissions, the average age is 31 years.

Some individuals begin stimulant use to control weight or to improve performance in school, work, or athletics. This includes obtaining medications such as methylphenidate or amphetamine salts prescribed to others for the treatment of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Stimulant use disorder can develop rapidly with intravenous or smoked administration; among primary admissions for amphetamine-type stimulant use, 66% reported smoking, 18% reported injecting, and 10% reported snorting.

Patterns of stimulant administration include episodic or daily (or almost daily) use. Episodic use tends to be separated by 2 or more days of non-use (e.g., intense use over a weekend or on one or more weekdays). “Binges” involve continuous high-dose use over hours or days and are often associated with physical dependence. Binges usually terminate only when stimulant supplies are depleted or exhaustion ensues. Chronic daily use may involve high or low doses, often with an increase in dose over time.

Stimulant smoking and intravenous use are associated with rapid progression to severe-level stimulant use disorder, often occurring over weeks to months. Intranasal use of cocaine and oral use of amphetamine-type stimulants result in more gradual progression occurring over months to years. With continuing use, there is a diminution of pleasurable effects due to tolerance and an increase in dysphoric effects.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Comorbid bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, antisocial personality disorder, and other substance use disorders are risk factors for developing stimulant use disorder and for relapse to cocaine use in treatment samples. Also, impulsivity and similar personality traits may affect treatment outcomes. Childhood conduct disorder and adult antisocial personality disorder are associated with the later development of stimulant-related disorders.

Environmental. Predictors of cocaine use among teenagers include prenatal cocaine exposure, postnatal cocaine use by parents, and exposure to community violence during childhood. For youths, especially females, risk factors include living in an unstable home environment, having a psychiatric condition, and associating with dealers and users.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Stimulant use–attendant disorders affect all racial/ethnic, socioeconomic, age, and gender groups. Diagnostic issues may be related to societal consequences (e.g., arrest, school suspensions, employment suspension). Despite small variations, cocaine and other stimulant use disorder diagnostic criteria perform equally across gender and race/ethnicity groups.

Chronic use of cocaine impairs cardiac left ventricular function in African Americans. Approximately 66% of individuals admitted for primary methamphetamine/amphetamine-related disorders are non-Hispanic white, followed by 21% of Hispanic origin, 3% Asian and Pacific Islander, and 3% non-Hispanic black.

Diagnostic Markers

Benzoyllecgonine, a metabolite of cocaine, typically remains in the urine for 1–3 days after a single dose and may be present for 7–12 days in individuals using repeated high doses. Mildly elevated liver function tests can be present in cocaine injectors or users with concomitant alcohol use. There are no neurobiological markers of diagnostic utility. Discontinuation of chronic cocaine use may be associated with electroencephalographic changes, suggesting persistent abnormalities; alterations in secretion patterns of prolactin; and downregulation of dopamine receptors.

Short-half-life amphetamine-type stimulants (MDMA [3,4-methylenedioxy-*N*-methylamphetamine], methamphetamine) can be detected for 1–3 days, and possibly up to 4 days

depending on dosage and metabolism. Hair samples can be used to detect presence of amphetamine-type stimulants for up to 90 days. Other laboratory findings, as well as physical findings and other medical conditions (e.g., weight loss, malnutrition; poor hygiene), are similar for both cocaine and amphetamine-type stimulant use disorder.

Functional Consequences of Stimulant Use Disorder

Various medical conditions may occur depending on the route of administration. Intranasal users often develop sinusitis, irritation, bleeding of the nasal mucosa, and a perforated nasal septum. Individuals who smoke the drugs are at increased risk for respiratory problems (e.g., coughing, bronchitis, and pneumonitis). Injectors have puncture marks and “tracks,” most commonly on their forearms. Risk of HIV infection increases with frequent intravenous injections and unsafe sexual activity. Other sexually transmitted diseases, hepatitis, and tuberculosis and other lung infections are also seen. Weight loss and malnutrition are common.

Chest pain may be a common symptom during stimulant intoxication. Myocardial infarction, palpitations and arrhythmias, sudden death from respiratory or cardiac arrest, and stroke have been associated with stimulant use among young and otherwise healthy individuals. Seizures can occur with stimulant use. Pneumothorax can result from performing Valsalva-like maneuvers done to better absorb inhaled smoke. Traumatic injuries due to violent behavior are common among individuals trafficking drugs. Cocaine use is associated with irregularities in placental blood flow, abruptio placentae, premature labor and delivery, and an increased prevalence of infants with very low birth weights.

Individuals with stimulant use disorder may become involved in theft, prostitution, or drug dealing in order to acquire drugs or money for drugs.

Neurocognitive impairment is common among methamphetamine users. Oral health problems include “meth mouth” with gum disease, tooth decay, and mouth sores related to the toxic effects of smoking the drug and to bruxism while intoxicated. Adverse pulmonary effects appear to be less common for amphetamine-type stimulants because they are smoked fewer times per day. Emergency department visits are common for stimulant-related mental disorder symptoms, injury, skin infections, and dental pathology.

Differential Diagnosis

Primary mental disorders. Stimulant-induced disorders may resemble primary mental disorders (e.g., major depressive disorder) (for discussion of this differential diagnosis, see “Stimulant Withdrawal”). The mental disturbances resulting from the effects of stimulants should be distinguished from the symptoms of schizophrenia; depressive and bipolar disorders; generalized anxiety disorder; and panic disorder.

Phencyclidine intoxication. Intoxication with phencyclidine (“PCP” or “angel dust”) or synthetic “designer drugs” such as mephedrone (known by different names, including “bath salts”) may cause a similar clinical picture and can only be distinguished from stimulant intoxication by the presence of cocaine or amphetamine-type substance metabolites in a urine or plasma sample.

Stimulant intoxication and withdrawal. Stimulant intoxication and withdrawal are distinguished from the other stimulant-induced disorders (e.g., anxiety disorder, with onset during intoxication) because the symptoms in the latter disorders predominate the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Comorbidity

Stimulant-related disorders often co-occur with other substance use disorders, especially those involving substances with sedative properties, which are often taken to reduce in-

somnia, nervousness, and other unpleasant side effects. Cocaine users often use alcohol, while amphetamine-type stimulant users often use cannabis. Stimulant use disorder may be associated with posttraumatic stress disorder, antisocial personality disorder, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, and gambling disorder. Cardiopulmonary problems are often present in individuals seeking treatment for cocaine-related problems, with chest pain being the most common. Medical problems occur in response to adulterants used as “cutting” agents. Cocaine users who ingest cocaine cut with levamisole, an antimicrobial and veterinary medication, may experience agranulocytosis and febrile neutropenia.

Stimulant Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Recent use of an amphetamine-type substance, cocaine, or other stimulant.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes (e.g., euphoria or affective blunting; changes in sociability; hypervigilance; interpersonal sensitivity; anxiety, tension, or anger; stereotyped behaviors; impaired judgment) that developed during, or shortly after, use of a stimulant.
- C. Two (or more) of the following signs or symptoms, developing during, or shortly after, stimulant use:
 1. Tachycardia or bradycardia.
 2. Pupillary dilation.
 3. Elevated or lowered blood pressure.
 4. Perspiration or chills.
 5. Nausea or vomiting.
 6. Evidence of weight loss.
 7. Psychomotor agitation or retardation.
 8. Muscular weakness, respiratory depression, chest pain, or cardiac arrhythmias.
 9. Confusion, seizures, dyskinesias, dystonias, or coma.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Specify the specific intoxicant (i.e., amphetamine-type substance, cocaine, or other stimulant).

Specify if:

With perceptual disturbances: This specifier may be noted when hallucinations with intact reality testing or auditory, visual, or tactile illusions occur in the absence of a delirium.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether the stimulant is an amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant; whether there is a comorbid amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant use disorder; and whether or not there are perceptual disturbances.

For amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant intoxication, without perceptual disturbances: If a mild amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.129**, and if a moderate or severe amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.229**. If there is no comorbid amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.929**. Similarly, if a mild cocaine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.129**, and if a moderate or severe cocaine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.229**. If there is no comorbid cocaine use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.929**.

For amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant intoxication, with perceptual disturbances: If a mild amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.122**, and if a moderate or severe amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.222**. If there is no comorbid amphetamine or other stimulant use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F15.922**. Similarly, if a mild cocaine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.122**, and if a moderate or severe cocaine use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.222**. If there is no comorbid cocaine use disorder, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F14.922**.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of stimulant intoxication, related to amphetamine-type stimulants and cocaine, is the presence of clinically significant behavioral or psychological changes that develop during, or shortly after, use of stimulants (Criteria A and B). Auditory hallucinations may be prominent, as may paranoid ideation, and these symptoms must be distinguished from an independent psychotic disorder such as schizophrenia. Stimulant intoxication usually begins with a “high” feeling and includes one or more of the following: euphoria with enhanced vigor, gregariousness, hyperactivity, restlessness, hypervigilance, interpersonal sensitivity, talkativeness, anxiety, tension, alertness, grandiosity, stereotyped and repetitive behavior, anger, impaired judgment, and, in the case of chronic intoxication, affective blunting with fatigue or sadness and social withdrawal. These behavioral and psychological changes are accompanied by two or more of the following signs and symptoms that develop during or shortly after stimulant use: tachycardia or bradycardia; pupillary dilation; elevated or lowered blood pressure; perspiration or chills; nausea or vomiting; evidence of weight loss; psychomotor agitation or retardation; muscular weakness, respiratory depression, chest pain, or cardiac arrhythmias; and confusion, seizures, dyskinesias, dystonias, or coma (Criterion C). Intoxication, either acute or chronic, is often associated with impaired social or occupational functioning. Severe intoxication can lead to convulsions, cardiac arrhythmias, hyperpyrexia, and death. For the diagnosis of stimulant intoxication to be made, the symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D). While stimulant intoxication occurs in individuals with stimulant use disorders, intoxication is not a criterion for stimulant use disorder, which is confirmed by the presence of two of the 11 diagnostic criteria for use disorder.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

The magnitude and direction of the behavioral and physiological changes depend on many variables, including the dose used and the characteristics of the individual using the substance or the context (e.g., tolerance, rate of absorption, chronicity of use, context in which it is taken). Stimulant effects such as euphoria, increased pulse and blood pressure, and psychomotor activity are most commonly seen. Depressant effects such as sadness, bradycardia, decreased blood pressure, and decreased psychomotor activity are less common and generally emerge only with chronic high-dose use.

Differential Diagnosis

Stimulant-induced disorders. Stimulant intoxication is distinguished from the other stimulant-induced disorders (e.g., stimulant-induced depressive disorder, bipolar disorder, psychotic disorder, anxiety disorder) because the severity of the intoxication symptoms exceeds that associated with the stimulant-induced disorders, and the symptoms warrant independent clinical attention. Stimulant intoxication delirium would be distinguished by a disturbance in level of awareness and change in cognition.

Other mental disorders. Salient mental disturbances associated with stimulant intoxication should be distinguished from the symptoms of schizophrenia, paranoid type; bipolar and depressive disorders; generalized anxiety disorder; and panic disorder as described in DSM-5.

Stimulant Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. Cessation of (or reduction in) prolonged amphetamine-type substance, cocaine, or other stimulant use.
- B. Dysphoric mood and two (or more) of the following physiological changes, developing within a few hours to several days after Criterion A:
 - 1. Fatigue.
 - 2. Vivid, unpleasant dreams.
 - 3. Insomnia or hypersomnia.
 - 4. Increased appetite.
 - 5. Psychomotor retardation or agitation.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Specify the specific substance that causes the withdrawal syndrome (i.e., amphetamine-type substance, cocaine, or other stimulant).

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.0**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether the stimulant is an amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant. The ICD-10-CM code for amphetamine or an other stimulant withdrawal is **F15.23**, and the ICD-10-CM for cocaine withdrawal is **F14.23**. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant use disorder, reflecting the fact that amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant use disorder with amphetamine, cocaine, or other stimulant withdrawal.

Diagnostic Features

The essential feature of stimulant withdrawal is the presence of a characteristic withdrawal syndrome that develops within a few hours to several days after the cessation of (or marked reduction in) stimulant use (generally high dose) that has been prolonged (Criterion A). The withdrawal syndrome is characterized by the development of dysphoric mood accompanied by two or more of the following physiological changes: fatigue, vivid and unpleasant dreams, insomnia or hypersomnia, increased appetite, and psychomotor retardation or agitation (Criterion B). Bradycardia is often present and is a reliable measure of stimulant withdrawal.

Anhedonia and drug craving can often be present but are not part of the diagnostic criteria. These symptoms cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning (Criterion C). The symptoms must not be attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder (Criterion D).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Acute withdrawal symptoms (“a crash”) are often seen after periods of repetitive high-dose use (“runs” or “binges”). These periods are characterized by intense and unpleasant feelings of lassitude and depression and increased appetite, generally requiring several days of rest and recuperation. Depressive symptoms with suicidal ideation or behavior can occur and are generally the most serious problems seen during “crashing” or other forms of stimulant withdrawal. The majority of individuals with stimulant use disorder experience a withdrawal syndrome at some point, and virtually all individuals with the disorder report tolerance.

Differential Diagnosis

Stimulant use disorder and other stimulant-induced disorders. Stimulant withdrawal is distinguished from stimulant use disorder and from the other stimulant-induced disorders (e.g., stimulant-induced intoxication delirium, depressive disorder, bipolar disorder, psychotic disorder, anxiety disorder, sexual dysfunction, sleep disorder) because the symptoms of withdrawal predominate the clinical presentation and are severe enough to warrant independent clinical attention.

Other Stimulant-Induced Disorders

The following stimulant-induced disorders (which include amphetamine-, cocaine-, and other stimulant-induced disorders) are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): stimulant-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); stimulant-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); stimulant-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); stimulant-induced anxiety disorder (“Anxiety Disorders”); stimulant-induced obsessive-compulsive disorder (“Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders”); stimulant-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake Disorders”); and stimulant-induced sexual dysfunction (“Sexual Dysfunctions”). For stimulant intoxication delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These stimulant-induced disorders are diagnosed instead of stimulant intoxication or stimulant withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Stimulant-Related Disorder

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a stimulant-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific stimulant-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.9**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether the stimulant is an amphetamine, cocaine, or another stimulant. The ICD-10-CM code for an unspecified amphetamine- or other stimulant-related disorder is **F15.99**. The ICD-10-CM code for an unspecified cocaine-related disorder is **F14.99**.

Tobacco-Related Disorders

Tobacco Use Disorder
Tobacco Withdrawal
Other Tobacco-Induced Disorders
Unspecified Tobacco-Related Disorder

Tobacco Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of tobacco use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. Tobacco is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control tobacco use.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain or use tobacco.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use tobacco.
 5. Recurrent tobacco use resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home (e.g., interference with work).
 6. Continued tobacco use despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of tobacco (e.g., arguments with others about tobacco use).
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of tobacco use.
 8. Recurrent tobacco use in situations in which it is physically hazardous (e.g., smoking in bed).
 9. Tobacco use is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by tobacco.
 10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of tobacco to achieve the desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of tobacco.
 11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for tobacco (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria set for tobacco withdrawal).
 - b. Tobacco (or a closely related substance, such as nicotine) is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for tobacco use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for tobacco use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, "Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use tobacco," may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for tobacco use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for tobacco use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, "Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use tobacco," may be met).

Specify if:

On maintenance therapy: The individual is taking a long-term maintenance medication, such as nicotine replacement medication, and no criteria for tobacco use disorder have been met for that class of medication (except tolerance to, or withdrawal from, the nicotine replacement medication).

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to tobacco is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If a tobacco withdrawal or tobacco-induced sleep disorder is also present, do not use the codes below for tobacco use disorder. Instead, the comorbid tobacco use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the tobacco-induced disorder code (see the coding note for tobacco withdrawal or tobacco-induced sleep disorder). For example, if there is comorbid tobacco-induced sleep disorder and tobacco use disorder, only the tobacco-induced sleep disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid tobacco use disorder is moderate or severe: F17.208 for moderate or severe tobacco use disorder with tobacco-induced sleep disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild tobacco use disorder with a tobacco-induced sleep disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.1 (Z72.0) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

305.1 (F17.200) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

305.1 (F17.200) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“On maintenance therapy” applies as a further specifier to individuals being maintained on other tobacco cessation medication (e.g., bupropion, varenicline) and as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and on maintenance therapy. “In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

Tobacco use disorder is common among individuals who use cigarettes and smokeless tobacco daily and is uncommon among individuals who do not use tobacco daily or who use nicotine medications. Tolerance to tobacco is exemplified by the disappearance of nausea and dizziness after repeated intake and with a more intense effect of tobacco the first time it is used during the day. Cessation of tobacco use can produce a well-defined withdrawal syndrome. Many individuals with tobacco use disorder use tobacco to relieve or to avoid withdrawal symptoms (e.g., after being in a situation where use is restricted). Many individuals who use tobacco have tobacco-related physical symptoms or diseases and continue to smoke. The large majority report craving when they do not smoke for several hours. Spending excessive time using tobacco can be exemplified by chain-smoking (i.e., smoking one cigarette after another with no time between cigarettes). Because tobacco sources are readily and legally available, and because nicotine intoxication is very rare, spending a great deal of time attempting to procure tobacco or recovering from its effects is uncommon. Giving up important social, occupational, or recreational activities can occur when an individual forgoes an activity because it occurs in tobacco use-restricted areas. Use of tobacco rarely results in failure to fulfill major role obligations (e.g., interference with work, interference with home obligations), but persistent social or interpersonal problems (e.g., having arguments with others about tobacco use, avoiding social situations because of others’ disapproval of tobacco use) or use that is physically hazardous (e.g., smoking in

bed, smoking around flammable chemicals) occur at an intermediate prevalence. Although these criteria are less often endorsed by tobacco users, if endorsed, they can indicate a more severe disorder.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Smoking within 30 minutes of waking, smoking daily, smoking more cigarettes per day, and waking at night to smoke are associated with tobacco use disorder. Environmental cues can evoke craving and withdrawal. Serious medical conditions, such as lung and other cancers, cardiac and pulmonary disease, perinatal problems, cough, shortness of breath, and accelerated skin aging, often occur.

Prevalence

Cigarettes are the most commonly used tobacco product, representing over 90% of tobacco/nicotine use. In the United States, 57% of adults have never been smokers, 22% are former smokers, and 21% are current smokers. Approximately 20% of current U.S. smokers are nondaily smokers. The prevalence of smokeless tobacco use is less than 5%, and the prevalence of tobacco use in pipes and cigars is less than 1%.

DSM-IV nicotine dependence criteria can be used to estimate the prevalence of tobacco use disorder, but since they are a subset of tobacco use disorder criteria, the prevalence of tobacco use disorder will be somewhat greater. The 12-month prevalence of DSM-IV nicotine dependence in the United States is 13% among adults age 18 years and older. Rates are similar among adult males (14%) and females (12%) and decline in age from 17% among 18- to 29-year-olds to 4% among individuals age 65 years and older. The prevalence of current nicotine dependence is greater among Native American and Alaska Natives (23%) than among whites (14%) but is less among African Americans (10%), Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (6%), and Hispanics (6%). The prevalence among current daily smokers is approximately 50%.

In many developing nations, the prevalence of smoking is much greater in males than in females, but this is not the case in developed nations. However, there often is a lag in the demographic transition such that smoking increases in females at a later time.

Development and Course

The majority of U.S. adolescents experiment with tobacco use, and by age 18 years, about 20% smoke at least monthly. Most of these individuals become daily tobacco users. Initiation of smoking after age 21 years is rare. In general, some of the tobacco use disorder criteria symptoms occur soon after beginning tobacco use, and many individuals' pattern of use meets current tobacco use disorder criteria by late adolescence. More than 80% of individuals who use tobacco attempt to quit at some time, but 60% relapse within 1 week and less than 5% remain abstinent for life. However, most individuals who use tobacco make multiple attempts such that one-half of tobacco users eventually abstain. Individuals who use tobacco who do quit usually do not do so until after age 30 years. Although nondaily smoking in the United States was previously rare, it has become more prevalent in the last decade, especially among younger individuals who use tobacco.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Individuals with externalizing personality traits are more likely to initiate tobacco use. Children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder or conduct disorder, and adults with depressive, bipolar, anxiety, personality, psychotic, or other substance use disorders, are at higher risk of starting and continuing tobacco use and of tobacco use disorder.

Environmental. Individuals with low incomes and low educational levels are more likely to initiate tobacco use and are less likely to stop.

Genetic and physiological. Genetic factors contribute to the onset of tobacco use, the continuation of tobacco use, and the development of tobacco use disorder, with a degree of heritability equivalent to that observed with other substance use disorders (i.e., about 50%). Some of this risk is specific to tobacco, and some is common with the vulnerability to developing any substance use disorder.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Cultures and subcultures vary widely in their acceptance of the use of tobacco. The prevalence of tobacco use declined in the United States from the 1960s through the 1990s, but this decrease has been less evident in African American and Hispanic populations. Also, smoking in developing countries is more prevalent than in developed nations. The degree to which these cultural differences are due to income, education, and tobacco control activities in a country is unclear. Non-Hispanic white smokers appear to be more likely to develop tobacco use disorder than are smokers. Some ethnic differences may be biologically based. African American males tend to have higher nicotine blood levels for a given number of cigarettes, and this might contribute to greater difficulty in quitting. Also, the speed of nicotine metabolism is significantly different for whites compared with African Americans and can vary by genotypes associated with ethnicities.

Diagnostic Markers

Carbon monoxide in the breath, and nicotine and its metabolite cotinine in blood, saliva, or urine, can be used to measure the extent of current tobacco or nicotine use; however, these are only weakly related to tobacco use disorder.

Functional Consequences of Tobacco Use Disorder

Medical consequences of tobacco use often begin when tobacco users are in their 40s and usually become progressively more debilitating over time. One-half of smokers who do not stop using tobacco will die early from a tobacco-related illness, and smoking-related morbidity occurs in more than one-half of tobacco users. Most medical conditions result from exposure to carbon monoxide, tars, and other non-nicotine components of tobacco. The major predictor of reversibility is duration of smoking. Secondhand smoke increases the risk of heart disease and cancer by 30%. Long-term use of nicotine medications does not appear to cause medical harm.

Comorbidity

The most common medical diseases from smoking are cardiovascular illnesses, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and cancers. Smoking also increases perinatal problems, such as low birth weight and miscarriage. The most common psychiatric comorbidities are alcohol/substance, depressive, bipolar, anxiety, personality, and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorders. In individuals with current tobacco use disorder, the prevalence of current alcohol, drug, anxiety, depressive, bipolar, and personality disorders ranges from 22% to 32%. Nicotine-dependent smokers are 2.7–8.1 times more likely to have these disorders than nondependent smokers, never-smokers, or ex-smokers.

Tobacco Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

292.0 (F17.203)

- A. Daily use of tobacco for at least several weeks.
- B. Abrupt cessation of tobacco use, or reduction in the amount of tobacco used, followed within 24 hours by four (or more) of the following signs or symptoms:
 - 1. Irritability, frustration, or anger.
 - 2. Anxiety.
 - 3. Difficulty concentrating.
 - 4. Increased appetite.
 - 5. Restlessness.
 - 6. Depressed mood.
 - 7. Insomnia.
- C. The signs or symptoms in Criterion B cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The signs or symptoms are not attributed to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication or withdrawal from another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is 292.0. The ICD-10-CM code for tobacco withdrawal is F17.203. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe tobacco use disorder, reflecting the fact that tobacco withdrawal can only occur in the presence of a moderate or severe tobacco use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild tobacco use disorder with tobacco withdrawal.

Diagnostic Features

Withdrawal symptoms impair the ability to stop tobacco use. The symptoms after abstinence from tobacco are in large part due to nicotine deprivation. Symptoms are much more intense among individuals who smoke cigarettes or use smokeless tobacco than among those who use nicotine medications. This difference in symptom intensity is likely due to the more rapid onset and higher levels of nicotine with cigarette smoking. Tobacco withdrawal is common among daily tobacco users who stop or reduce but can also occur among nondaily users. Typically, heart rate decreases by 5–12 beats per minute in the first few days after stopping smoking, and weight increases an average of 4–7 lb (2–3 kg) over the first year after stopping smoking. Tobacco withdrawal can produce clinically significant mood changes and functional impairment.

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Craving for sweet or sugary foods and impaired performance on tasks requiring vigilance are associated with tobacco withdrawal. Abstinence can increase constipation, coughing, dizziness, dreaming/nightmares, nausea, and sore throat. Smoking increases the metabolism of many medications used to treat mental disorders; thus, cessation of smoking can increase the blood levels of these medications, and this can produce clinically significant outcomes. This effect appears to be due not to nicotine but rather to other compounds in tobacco.

Prevalence

Approximately 50% of tobacco users who quit for 2 or more days will have symptoms that meet criteria for tobacco withdrawal. The most commonly endorsed signs and symptoms are anxiety, irritability, and difficulty concentrating. The least commonly endorsed symptoms are depression and insomnia.

Development and Course

Tobacco withdrawal usually begins within 24 hours of stopping or cutting down on tobacco use, peaks at 2–3 days after abstinence, and lasts 2–3 weeks. Tobacco withdrawal symptoms can occur among adolescent tobacco users, even prior to daily tobacco use. Prolonged symptoms beyond 1 month are uncommon.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Smokers with depressive disorders, bipolar disorders, anxiety disorders, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, and other substance use disorders have more severe withdrawal.

Genetic and physiological. Genotype can influence the probability of withdrawal upon abstinence.

Diagnostic Markers

Carbon monoxide in the breath, and nicotine and its metabolite cotinine in blood, saliva, or urine, can be used to measure the extent of tobacco or nicotine use but are only weakly related to tobacco withdrawal.

Functional Consequences of Tobacco Withdrawal

Abstinence from cigarettes can cause clinically significant distress. Withdrawal impairs the ability to stop or control tobacco use. Whether tobacco withdrawal can prompt a new mental disorder or recurrence of a mental disorder is debatable, but if this occurs, it would be in a small minority of tobacco users.

Differential Diagnosis

The symptoms of tobacco withdrawal overlap with those of other substance withdrawal syndromes (e.g., alcohol withdrawal; sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic withdrawal; stimulant withdrawal; caffeine withdrawal; opioid withdrawal); caffeine intoxication; anxiety, depressive, bipolar, and sleep disorders; and medication-induced akathisia. Admission to smoke-free inpatient units or voluntary smoking cessation can induce withdrawal symptoms that mimic, intensify, or disguise other disorders or adverse effects of medications used to treat mental disorders (e.g., irritability thought to be due to alcohol withdrawal could be due to tobacco withdrawal). Reduction in symptoms with the use of nicotine medications confirms the diagnosis.

Other Tobacco-Induced Disorders

Tobacco-induced sleep disorder is discussed in the chapter “Sleep-Wake Disorders” (see “Substance/Medication-Induced Sleep Disorder”).

Unspecified Tobacco-Related Disorder

292.9 (F17.209)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of a tobacco-related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific tobacco-related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related and addictive disorders diagnostic class.

Other (or Unknown) Substance-Related Disorders

Other (or Unknown) Substance Use Disorder

Other (or Unknown) Substance Intoxication

Other (or Unknown) Substance Withdrawal

Other (or Unknown) Substance-Induced Disorders

Unspecified Other (or Unknown) Substance-Related Disorder

Other (or Unknown) Substance Use Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. A problematic pattern of use of an intoxicating substance not able to be classified within the alcohol; caffeine; cannabis; hallucinogen (phencyclidine and others); inhalant; opioid; sedative, hypnotic, or anxiolytic; stimulant; or tobacco categories and leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least two of the following, occurring within a 12-month period:
1. The substance is often taken in larger amounts or over a longer period than was intended.
 2. There is a persistent desire or unsuccessful efforts to cut down or control use of the substance.
 3. A great deal of time is spent in activities necessary to obtain the substance, use the substance, or recover from its effects.
 4. Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the substance.
 5. Recurrent use of the substance resulting in a failure to fulfill major role obligations at work, school, or home.
 6. Continued use of the substance despite having persistent or recurrent social or interpersonal problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of its use.
 7. Important social, occupational, or recreational activities are given up or reduced because of use of the substance.
 8. Recurrent use of the substance in situations in which it is physically hazardous.
 9. Use of the substance is continued despite knowledge of having a persistent or recurrent physical or psychological problem that is likely to have been caused or exacerbated by the substance.

10. Tolerance, as defined by either of the following:
 - a. A need for markedly increased amounts of the substance to achieve intoxication or desired effect.
 - b. A markedly diminished effect with continued use of the same amount of the substance.
11. Withdrawal, as manifested by either of the following:
 - a. The characteristic withdrawal syndrome for other (or unknown) substance (refer to Criteria A and B of the criteria sets for other [or unknown] substance withdrawal, p. 583).
 - b. The substance (or a closely related substance) is taken to relieve or avoid withdrawal symptoms.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the substance,” may be met).

In sustained remission: After full criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder have been met at any time during a period of 12 months or longer (with the exception that Criterion A4, “Craving, or a strong desire or urge to use the substance,” may be met).

Specify if:

In a controlled environment: This additional specifier is used if the individual is in an environment where access to the substance is restricted.

Coding based on current severity: Note for ICD-10-CM codes: If an other (or unknown) substance intoxication, other (or unknown) substance withdrawal, or another other (or unknown) substance-induced mental disorder is present, do not use the codes below for other (or unknown) substance use disorder. Instead, the comorbid other (or unknown) substance use disorder is indicated in the 4th character of the other (or unknown) substance-induced disorder code (see the coding note for other (or unknown) substance intoxication, other (or unknown) substance withdrawal, or specific other (or unknown) substance-induced mental disorder). For example, if there is comorbid other (or unknown) substance-induced depressive disorder and other (or unknown) substance use disorder, only the other (or unknown) substance-induced depressive disorder code is given, with the 4th character indicating whether the comorbid other (or unknown) substance use disorder is mild, moderate, or severe: F19.14 for other (or unknown) substance use disorder with other (or unknown) substance-induced depressive disorder or F19.24 for a moderate or severe other (or unknown) substance use disorder with other (or unknown) substance-induced depressive disorder.

Specify current severity:

305.90 (F19.10) Mild: Presence of 2–3 symptoms.

304.90 (F19.20) Moderate: Presence of 4–5 symptoms.

304.90 (F19.20) Severe: Presence of 6 or more symptoms.

Specifiers

“In a controlled environment” applies as a further specifier of remission if the individual is both in remission and in a controlled environment (i.e., in early remission in a controlled environment or in sustained remission in a controlled environment). Examples of these environments are closely supervised and substance-free jails, therapeutic communities, and locked hospital units.

Diagnostic Features

The diagnostic class other (or unknown) substance use and related disorders comprises substance-related disorders unrelated to alcohol; caffeine; cannabis; hallucinogens (phen-cyclidine and others); inhalants; opioids; sedative, hypnotics, or anxiolytics; stimulants (including amphetamine and cocaine); or tobacco. Such substances include anabolic steroids; nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; cortisol; antiparkinsonian medications; antihistamines; nitrous oxide; amyl-, butyl-, or isobutyl-nitrites; betel nut, which is chewed in many cultures to produce mild euphoria and a floating sensation; kava (from a South Pacific pepper plant), which produces sedation, incoordination, weight loss, mild hepatitis, and lung abnormalities; or cathinones (including *khât* plant agents and synthetic chemical derivatives) that produce stimulant effects. Unknown substance-related disorders are associated with unidentified substances, such as intoxications in which the individual cannot identify the ingested drug, or substance use disorders involving either new, black market drugs not yet identified or familiar drugs illegally sold under false names.

Other (or unknown) substance use disorder is a mental disorder in which repeated use of an other or unknown substance typically continues, despite the individual's knowing that the substance is causing serious problems for the individual. Those problems are reflected in the diagnostic criteria. When the substance is known, it should be reflected in the name of the disorder upon coding (e.g., nitrous oxide use disorder).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

A diagnosis of other (or unknown) substance use disorder is supported by the individual's statement that the substance involved is not among the nine classes listed in this chapter; by recurring episodes of intoxication with negative results in standard drug screens (which may not detect new or rarely used substances); or by the presence of symptoms characteristic of an unidentified substance that has newly appeared in the individual's community.

Because of increased access to nitrous oxide ("laughing gas"), membership in certain populations is associated with diagnosis of nitrous oxide use disorder. The role of this gas as an anesthetic agent leads to misuse by some medical and dental professionals. Its use as a propellant for commercial products (e.g., whipped cream dispensers) contributes to misuse by food service workers. With recent widespread availability of the substance in "whippet" cartridges for use in home whipped cream dispensers, nitrous oxide misuse by adolescents and young adults is significant, especially among those who also inhale volatile hydrocarbons. Some continuously using individuals, inhaling from as many as 240 whippets per day, may present with serious medical complications and mental conditions, including myeloneuropathy, spinal cord subacute combined degeneration, peripheral neuropathy, and psychosis. These conditions are also associated with a diagnosis of nitrous oxide use disorder.

Use of amyl-, butyl-, and isobutyl nitrite gases has been observed among homosexual men and some adolescents, especially those with conduct disorder. Membership in these populations may be associated with a diagnosis of amyl-, butyl-, or isobutyl-nitrite use disorder. However, it has not been determined that these substances produce a substance use disorder. Despite tolerance, these gases may not alter behavior through central effects, and they may be used only for their peripheral effects.

Substance use disorders generally are associated with elevated risks of suicide, but there is no evidence of unique risk factors for suicide with other (or unknown) substance use disorder.

Prevalence

Based on extremely limited data, the prevalence of other (or unknown) substance use disorder is likely lower than that of use disorders involving the nine substance classes in this chapter.

Development and Course

No single pattern of development or course characterizes the pharmacologically varied other (or unknown) substance use disorders. Often unknown substance use disorders will be reclassified when the unknown substance eventually is identified.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Risk and prognostic factors for other (or unknown) substance use disorders are thought to be similar to those for most substance use disorders and include the presence of any other substance use disorders, conduct disorder, or antisocial personality disorder in the individual or the individual's family; early onset of substance problems; easy availability of the substance in the individual's environment; childhood maltreatment or trauma; and evidence of limited early self-control and behavioral disinhibition.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Certain cultures may be associated with other (or unknown) substance use disorders involving specific indigenous substances within the cultural region, such as betel nut.

Diagnostic Markers

Urine, breath, or saliva tests may correctly identify a commonly used substance falsely sold as a novel product. However, routine clinical tests usually cannot identify truly unusual or new substances, which may require testing in specialized laboratories.

Differential Diagnosis

Use of other or unknown substances without meeting criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder. Use of unknown substances is not rare among adolescents, but most use does not meet the diagnostic standard of two or more criteria for other (or unknown) substance use disorder in the past year.

Substance use disorders. Other (or unknown) substance use disorder may co-occur with various substance use disorders, and the symptoms of the disorders may be similar and overlapping. To disentangle symptom patterns, it is helpful to inquire about which symptoms persisted during periods when some of the substances were not being used.

Other (or unknown) substance/medication-induced disorder. This diagnosis should be differentiated from instances when the individual's symptoms meet full criteria for one of the following disorders, and that disorder is caused by an other or unknown substance: delirium, major or mild neurocognitive disorder, psychotic disorder, depressive disorder, anxiety disorder, sexual dysfunction, or sleep disorder.

Other medical conditions. Individuals with substance use disorders, including other (or unknown) substance use disorder, may present with symptoms of many medical disorders. These disorders also may occur in the absence of other (or unknown) substance use disorder. A history of little or no use of other or unknown substances helps to exclude other (or unknown) substance use disorder as the source of these problems.

Comorbidity

Substance use disorders, including other (or unknown) substance use disorder, are commonly comorbid with one another, with adolescent conduct disorder and adult antisocial personality disorder, and with suicidal ideation and suicide attempts.

Other (or Unknown) Substance Intoxication

Diagnostic Criteria

- A. The development of a reversible substance-specific syndrome attributable to recent ingestion of (or exposure to) a substance that is not listed elsewhere or is unknown.
- B. Clinically significant problematic behavioral or psychological changes that are attributable to the effect of the substance on the central nervous system (e.g., impaired motor coordination, psychomotor agitation or retardation, euphoria, anxiety, belligerence, mood lability, cognitive impairment, impaired judgment, social withdrawal) and develop during, or shortly after, use of the substance.
- C. The signs or symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including intoxication with another substance.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is **292.89**. The ICD-10-CM code depends on whether there is a comorbid other (or unknown) substance use disorder involving the same substance. If a mild other (or unknown) substance use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F19.129**, and if a moderate or severe other (or unknown) substance use disorder is comorbid, the ICD-10-CM code is **F19.229**. If there is no comorbid other (or unknown) substance use disorder involving the same substance, then the ICD-10-CM code is **F19.929**.

Note: For information on Risk and Prognostic Factors, Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues, and Diagnostic Markers, see the corresponding sections in other (or unknown) substance use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Other (or unknown) substance intoxication is a clinically significant mental disorder that develops during, or immediately after, use of either a) a substance not elsewhere addressed in this chapter (i.e., alcohol; caffeine; cannabis; phencyclidine and other hallucinogens; inhalants; opioids; sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics; stimulants; or tobacco) or b) an unknown substance. If the substance is known, it should be reflected in the name of the disorder upon coding.

Application of the diagnostic criteria for other (or unknown) substance intoxication is very challenging. Criterion A requires development of a reversible “substance-specific syndrome,” but if the substance is unknown, that syndrome usually will be unknown. To resolve this conflict, clinicians may ask the individual or obtain collateral history as to whether the individual has experienced a similar episode after using substances with the same “street” name or from the same source. Similarly, hospital emergency departments sometimes recognize over a few days numerous presentations of a severe, unfamiliar intoxication syndrome from a newly available, previously unknown substance. Because of the great variety of intoxicating substances, Criterion B can provide only broad examples of signs and symptoms from some intoxications, with no threshold for the number of symptoms required for a diagnosis; clinical judgment guides those decisions. Criterion C requires ruling out other medical conditions, mental disorders, or intoxications.

Prevalence

The prevalence of other (or unknown) substance intoxication is unknown.

Development and Course

Intoxications usually appear and then peak minutes to hours after use of the substance, but the onset and course vary with the substance and the route of administration. Generally,

substances used by pulmonary inhalation and intravenous injection have the most rapid onset of action, while those ingested by mouth and requiring metabolism to an active product are much slower. (For example, after ingestion of certain mushrooms, the first signs of an eventually fatal intoxication may not appear for a few days.) Intoxication effects usually resolve within hours to a very few days. However, the body may completely eliminate an anesthetic gas such as nitrous oxide just minutes after use ends. At the other extreme, some “hit-and-run” intoxicating substances poison systems, leaving permanent impairments. For example, MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine), a contaminating by-product in the synthesis of a certain opioid, kills dopaminergic cells and induces permanent parkinsonism in users who sought opioid intoxication.

Functional Consequences of Other (or Unknown) Substance Intoxication

Impairment from intoxication with any substance may have serious consequences, including dysfunction at work, social indiscretions, problems in interpersonal relationships, failure to fulfill role obligations, traffic accidents, fighting, high-risk behaviors (i.e., having unprotected sex), and substance or medication overdose. The pattern of consequences will vary with the particular substance.

Differential Diagnosis

Use of other or unknown substance, without meeting criteria for other (or unknown) substance intoxication. The individual used an other or unknown substance(s), but the dose was insufficient to produce symptoms that meet the diagnostic criteria required for the diagnosis.

Substance intoxication or other substance/medication-induced disorders. Familiar substances may be sold in the black market as novel products, and individuals may experience intoxication from those substances. History, toxicology screens, or chemical testing of the substance itself may help to identify it.

Different types of other (or unknown) substance-related disorders. Episodes of other (or unknown) substance intoxication may occur during, but are distinct from, other (or unknown) substance use disorder, unspecified other (or unknown) substance-related disorder, and other (or unknown) substance-induced disorders.

Other toxic, metabolic, traumatic, neoplastic, vascular, or infectious disorders that impair brain function and cognition. Numerous neurological and other medical conditions may produce rapid onset of signs and symptoms mimicking those of intoxications, including the examples in Criterion B. Paradoxically, drug withdrawals also must be ruled out, because, for example, lethargy may indicate withdrawal from one drug or intoxication with another drug.

Comorbidity

As with all substance-related disorders, adolescent conduct disorder, adult antisocial personality disorder, and other substance use disorders tend to co-occur with other (or unknown) substance intoxication.

Other (or Unknown) Substance Withdrawal

Diagnostic Criteria

292.0 (F19.239)

- A. Cessation of (or reduction in) use of a substance that has been heavy and prolonged.
- B. The development of a substance-specific syndrome shortly after the cessation of (or reduction in) substance use.
- C. The substance-specific syndrome causes clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
- D. The symptoms are not attributable to another medical condition and are not better explained by another mental disorder, including withdrawal from another substance.
- E. The substance involved cannot be classified under any of the other substance categories (alcohol; caffeine; cannabis; opioids; sedatives, hypnotics, or anxiolytics; stimulants; or tobacco) or is unknown.

Coding note: The ICD-9-CM code is 292.0. The ICD-10-CM code for other (or unknown) substance withdrawal is F19.239. Note that the ICD-10-CM code indicates the comorbid presence of a moderate or severe other (or unknown) substance use disorder. It is not permissible to code a comorbid mild other (or unknown) substance use disorder with other (or unknown) substance withdrawal.

Note: For information on Risk and Prognostic Factors and Diagnostic Markers, see the corresponding sections in other (or unknown) substance use disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Other (or unknown) substance withdrawal is a clinically significant mental disorder that develops during, or within a few hours to days after, reducing or terminating dosing with a substance (Criteria A and B). Although recent dose reduction or termination usually is clear in the history, other diagnostic procedures are very challenging if the drug is unknown. Criterion B requires development of a “substance-specific syndrome” (i.e., the individual’s signs and symptoms must correspond with the known withdrawal syndrome for the recently stopped drug)—a requirement that rarely can be met with an unknown substance. Consequently, clinical judgment must guide such decisions when information is this limited. Criterion D requires ruling out other medical conditions, mental disorders, or withdrawals from familiar substances. When the substance is known, it should be reflected in the name of the disorder upon coding (e.g., betel nut withdrawal).

Prevalence

The prevalence of other (or unknown) substance withdrawal is unknown.

Development and Course

Withdrawal signs commonly appear some hours after use of the substance is terminated, but the onset and course vary greatly, depending on the dose typically used by the person and the rate of elimination of the specific substance from the body. At peak severity, withdrawal symptoms from some substances involve only moderate levels of discomfort, whereas withdrawal from other substances may be fatal. Withdrawal-associated dysphoria often motivates relapse to substance use. Withdrawal symptoms slowly abate over days, weeks, or months, depending on the particular drug and doses to which the individual became tolerant.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Culture-related issues in diagnosis will vary with the particular substance.

Functional Consequences of Other (or Unknown) Substance Withdrawal

Withdrawal from any substance may have serious consequences, including physical signs and symptoms (e.g., malaise, vital sign changes, abdominal distress, headache), intense drug craving, anxiety, depression, agitation, psychotic symptoms, or cognitive impairments. These consequences may lead to problems such as dysfunction at work, problems in interpersonal relationships, failure to fulfill role obligations, traffic accidents, fighting, high-risk behavior (e.g., having unprotected sex), suicide attempts, and substance or medication overdose. The pattern of consequences will vary with the particular substance.

Differential Diagnosis

Dose reduction after extended dosing, but not meeting the criteria for other (or unknown) substance withdrawal. The individual used other (or unknown) substances, but the dose that was used was insufficient to produce symptoms that meet the criteria required for the diagnosis.

Substance withdrawal or other substance/medication-induced disorders. Familiar substances may be sold in the black market as novel products, and individuals may experience withdrawal when discontinuing those substances. History, toxicology screens, or chemical testing of the substance itself may help to identify it.

Different types of other (or unknown) substance-related disorders. Episodes of other (or unknown) substance withdrawal may occur during, but are distinct from, other (or unknown) substance use disorder, unspecified other (or unknown) substance-related disorder, and unspecified other (or unknown) substance-induced disorders.

Other toxic, metabolic, traumatic, neoplastic, vascular, or infectious disorders that impair brain function and cognition. Numerous neurological and other medical conditions may produce rapid onset of signs and symptoms mimicking those of withdrawals. Paradoxically, drug intoxications also must be ruled out, because, for example, lethargy may indicate withdrawal from one drug or intoxication with another drug.

Comorbidity

As with all substance-related disorders, adolescent conduct disorder, adult antisocial personality disorder, and other substance use disorders likely co-occur with other (or unknown) substance withdrawal.

Other (or Unknown) Substance-Induced Disorders

Because the category of other or unknown substances is inherently ill-defined, the extent and range of induced disorders are uncertain. Nevertheless, other (or unknown) substance-induced disorders are possible and are described in other chapters of the manual with disorders with which they share phenomenology (see the substance/medication-induced mental disorders in these chapters): other (or unknown) substance-induced psychotic disorder (“Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance-induced bipolar disorder (“Bipolar and Related Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance-induced depressive disorder (“Depressive Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance-induced anxiety disorders (“Anxiety Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance-induced obsessive-compulsive disorder (“Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance-induced sleep disorder (“Sleep-Wake

Disorders”); other (or unknown) substance–induced sexual dysfunction (“Sexual Dysfunctions”); and other (or unknown) substance/medication–induced major or mild neurocognitive disorder (“Neurocognitive Disorders”). For other (or unknown) substance–induced intoxication delirium and other (or unknown) substance–induced withdrawal delirium, see the criteria and discussion of delirium in the chapter “Neurocognitive Disorders.” These other (or unknown) substance–induced disorders are diagnosed instead of other (or unknown) substance intoxication or other (or unknown) substance withdrawal only when the symptoms are sufficiently severe to warrant independent clinical attention.

Unspecified Other (or Unknown) Substance–Related Disorder

292.9 (F19.99)

This category applies to presentations in which symptoms characteristic of an other (or unknown) substance–related disorder that cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning predominate but do not meet the full criteria for any specific other (or unknown) substance–related disorder or any of the disorders in the substance-related disorders diagnostic class.

Non-Substance-Related Disorders

Gambling Disorder

Diagnostic Criteria

312.31 (F63.0)

- A. Persistent and recurrent problematic gambling behavior leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as indicated by the individual exhibiting four (or more) of the following in a 12-month period:
1. Needs to gamble with increasing amounts of money in order to achieve the desired excitement.
 2. Is restless or irritable when attempting to cut down or stop gambling.
 3. Has made repeated unsuccessful efforts to control, cut back, or stop gambling.
 4. Is often preoccupied with gambling (e.g., having persistent thoughts of reliving past gambling experiences, handicapping or planning the next venture, thinking of ways to get money with which to gamble).
 5. Often gambles when feeling distressed (e.g., helpless, guilty, anxious, depressed).
 6. After losing money gambling, often returns another day to get even (“chasing” one’s losses).
 7. Lies to conceal the extent of involvement with gambling.
 8. Has jeopardized or lost a significant relationship, job, or educational or career opportunity because of gambling.
 9. Relies on others to provide money to relieve desperate financial situations caused by gambling.
- B. The gambling behavior is not better explained by a manic episode.

Specify if:

Episodic: Meeting diagnostic criteria at more than one time point, with symptoms subsiding between periods of gambling disorder for at least several months.

Persistent: Experiencing continuous symptoms, to meet diagnostic criteria for multiple years.

Specify if:

In early remission: After full criteria for gambling disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for gambling disorder have been met for at least 3 months but for less than 12 months.

In sustained remission: After full criteria for gambling disorder were previously met, none of the criteria for gambling disorder have been met during a period of 12 months or longer.

Specify current severity:

Mild: 4–5 criteria met.

Moderate: 6–7 criteria met.

Severe: 8–9 criteria met.

Note: Although some behavioral conditions that do not involve ingestion of substances have similarities to substance-related disorders, only one disorder—gambling disorder—has sufficient data to be included in this section.

Specifiers

Severity is based on the number of criteria endorsed. Individuals with mild gambling disorder may exhibit only 4–5 of the criteria, with the most frequently endorsed criteria usually related to preoccupation with gambling and “chasing” losses. Individuals with moderately severe gambling disorder exhibit more of the criteria (i.e., 6–7). Individuals with the most severe form will exhibit all or most of the nine criteria (i.e., 8–9). Jeopardizing relationships or career opportunities due to gambling and relying on others to provide money for gambling losses are typically the least often endorsed criteria and most often occur among those with more severe gambling disorder. Furthermore, individuals presenting for treatment of gambling disorder typically have moderate to severe forms of the disorder.

Diagnostic Features

Gambling involves risking something of value in the hopes of obtaining something of greater value. In many cultures, individuals gamble on games and events, and most do so without experiencing problems. However, some individuals develop substantial impairment related to their gambling behaviors. The essential feature of gambling disorder is persistent and recurrent maladaptive gambling behavior that disrupts personal, family, and/or vocational pursuits (Criterion A). Gambling disorder is defined as a cluster of four or more of the symptoms listed in Criterion A occurring at any time in the same 12-month period.

A pattern of “chasing one’s losses” may develop, with an urgent need to keep gambling (often with the placing of larger bets or the taking of greater risks) to undo a loss or series of losses. The individual may abandon his or her gambling strategy and try to win back losses all at once. Although many gamblers may “chase” for short periods of time, it is the frequent, and often long-term, “chase” that is characteristic of gambling disorder (Criterion A6). Individuals may lie to family members, therapists, or others to conceal the extent of involvement with gambling; these instances of deceit may also include, but are not limited to, covering up illegal behaviors such as forgery, fraud, theft, or embezzlement to obtain money with which to gamble (Criterion A7). Individuals may also en-

gage in “bailout” behavior, turning to family or others for help with a desperate financial situation that was caused by gambling (Criterion A9).

Associated Features Supporting Diagnosis

Distortions in thinking (e.g., denial, superstitions, a sense of power and control over the outcome of chance events, overconfidence) may be present in individuals with gambling disorder. Many individuals with gambling disorder believe that money is both the cause of and the solution to their problems. Some individuals with gambling disorder are impulsive, competitive, energetic, restless, and easily bored; they may be overly concerned with the approval of others and may be generous to the point of extravagance when winning. Other individuals with gambling disorder are depressed and lonely, and they may gamble when feeling helpless, guilty, or depressed. Up to half of individuals in treatment for gambling disorder have suicidal ideation, and about 17% have attempted suicide.

Prevalence

The past-year prevalence rate of gambling disorder is about 0.2%–0.3% in the general population. In the general population, the lifetime prevalence rate is about 0.4%–1.0%. For females, the lifetime prevalence rate of gambling disorder is about 0.2%, and for males it is about 0.6%. The lifetime prevalence of pathological gambling among African Americans is about 0.9%, among whites about 0.4%, and among Hispanics about 0.3%.

Development and Course

The onset of gambling disorder can occur during adolescence or young adulthood, but in other individuals it manifests during middle or even older adulthood. Generally, gambling disorder develops over the course of years, although the progression appears to be more rapid in females than in males. Most individuals who develop a gambling disorder evidence a pattern of gambling that gradually increases in both frequency and amount of wagering. Certainly, milder forms can develop into more severe cases. Most individuals with gambling disorder report that one or two types of gambling are most problematic for them, although some individuals participate in many forms of gambling. Individuals are likely to engage in certain types of gambling (e.g., buying scratch tickets daily) more frequently than others (e.g., playing slot machines or blackjack at the casino weekly). Frequency of gambling can be related more to the type of gambling than to the severity of the overall gambling disorder. For example, purchasing a single scratch ticket each day may not be problematic, while less frequent casino, sports, or card gambling may be part of a gambling disorder. Similarly, amounts of money spent wagering are not in themselves indicative of gambling disorder. Some individuals can wager thousands of dollars per month and not have a problem with gambling, while others may wager much smaller amounts but experience substantial gambling-related difficulties.

Gambling patterns may be regular or episodic, and gambling disorder can be persistent or in remission. Gambling can increase during periods of stress or depression and during periods of substance use or abstinence. There may be periods of heavy gambling and severe problems, times of total abstinence, and periods of nonproblematic gambling. Gambling disorder is sometimes associated with spontaneous, long-term remissions. Nevertheless, some individuals underestimate their vulnerability to develop gambling disorder or to return to gambling disorder following remission. When in a period of remission, they may incorrectly assume that they will have no problem regulating gambling and that they may gamble on some forms nonproblematically, only to experience a return to gambling disorder.

Early expression of gambling disorder is more common among males than among females. Individuals who begin gambling in youth often do so with family members or

friends. Development of early-life gambling disorder appears to be associated with impulsivity and substance abuse. Many high school and college students who develop gambling disorder grow out of the disorder over time, although it remains a lifelong problem for some. Mid- and later-life onset of gambling disorder is more common among females than among males.

There are age and gender variations in the type of gambling activities and the prevalence rates of gambling disorder. Gambling disorder is more common among younger and middle-age persons than among older adults. Among adolescents and young adults, the disorder is more prevalent in males than in females. Younger individuals prefer different forms of gambling (e.g., sports betting), while older adults are more likely to develop problems with slot machine and bingo gambling. Although the proportions of individuals who seek treatment for gambling disorder are low across all age groups, younger individuals are especially unlikely to present for treatment.

Males are more likely to begin gambling earlier in life and to have a younger age at onset of gambling disorder than females, who are more likely to begin gambling later in life and to develop gambling disorder in a shorter time frame. Females with gambling disorder are more likely than males with gambling disorder to have depressive, bipolar, and anxiety disorders. Females also have a later age at onset of the disorder and seek treatment sooner, although rates of treatment seeking are low (<10%) among individuals with gambling disorder regardless of gender.

Risk and Prognostic Factors

Temperamental. Gambling that begins in childhood or early adolescence is associated with increased rates of gambling disorder. Gambling disorder also appears to aggregate with antisocial personality disorder, depressive and bipolar disorders, and other substance use disorders, particularly with alcohol disorders.

Genetic and physiological. Gambling disorder can aggregate in families, and this effect appears to relate to both environmental and genetic factors. Gambling problems are more frequent in monozygotic than in dizygotic twins. Gambling disorder is also more prevalent among first-degree relatives of individuals with moderate to severe alcohol use disorder than among the general population.

Course modifiers. Many individuals, including adolescents and young adults, are likely to resolve their problems with gambling disorder over time, although a strong predictor of future gambling problems is prior gambling problems.

Culture-Related Diagnostic Issues

Individuals from specific cultures and races/ethnicities are more likely to participate in some types of gambling activities than others (e.g., pai gow, cockfights, blackjack, horse racing). Prevalence rates of gambling disorder are higher among African Americans than among European Americans, with rates for Hispanic Americans similar to those of European Americans. Indigenous populations have high prevalence rates of gambling disorder.

Gender-Related Diagnostic Issues

Males develop gambling disorder at higher rates than females, although this gender gap may be narrowing. Males tend to wager on different forms of gambling than females, with cards, sports, and horse race gambling more prevalent among males, and slot machine and bingo gambling more common among females.

Functional Consequences of Gambling Disorder

Areas of psychosocial, health, and mental health functioning may be adversely affected by gambling disorder. Specifically, individuals with gambling disorder may, because of their involvement with gambling, jeopardize or lose important relationships with family members or friends. Such problems may occur from repeatedly lying to others to cover up the extent of gambling or from requesting money that is used for gambling or to pay off gambling debts. Employment or educational activities may likewise be adversely impacted by gambling disorder; absenteeism or poor work or school performance can occur with gambling disorder, as individuals may gamble during work or school hours or be preoccupied with gambling or its adverse consequence when they should be working or studying. Individuals with gambling disorder have poor general health and utilize medical services at high rates.

Differential Diagnosis

Nondisordered gambling. Gambling disorder must be distinguished from professional and social gambling. In professional gambling, risks are limited and discipline is central. Social gambling typically occurs with friends or colleagues and lasts for a limited period of time, with acceptable losses. Some individuals can experience problems associated with gambling (e.g., short-term chasing behavior and loss of control) that do not meet the full criteria for gambling disorder.

Manic episode. Loss of judgment and excessive gambling may occur during a manic episode. An additional diagnosis of gambling disorder should be given only if the gambling behavior is not better explained by manic episodes (e.g., a history of maladaptive gambling behavior at times other than during a manic episode). Alternatively, an individual with gambling disorder may, during a period of gambling, exhibit behavior that resembles a manic episode, but once the individual is away from the gambling, these manic-like features dissipate.

Personality disorders. Problems with gambling may occur in individuals with antisocial personality disorder and other personality disorders. If the criteria are met for both disorders, both can be diagnosed.

Other medical conditions. Some patients taking dopaminergic medications (e.g., for Parkinson's disease) may experience urges to gamble. If such symptoms dissipate when dopaminergic medications are reduced in dosage or ceased, then a diagnosis of gambling disorder would not be indicated.

Comorbidity

Gambling disorder is associated with poor general health. In addition, some specific medical diagnoses, such as tachycardia and angina, are more common among individuals with gambling disorder than in the general population, even when other substance use disorders, including tobacco use disorder, are controlled for. Individuals with gambling disorder have high rates of comorbidity with other mental disorders, such as substance use disorders, depressive disorders, anxiety disorders, and personality disorders. In some individuals, other mental disorders may precede gambling disorder and be either absent or present during the manifestation of gambling disorder. Gambling disorder may also occur prior to the onset of other mental disorders, especially anxiety disorders and substance use disorders.