Gender differences in cannabis use disorder symptoms: A network analysis

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1. Introduction

Men compared to women use cannabis at almost double the rate (UNODC, 2019). However, cannabis use in women is increasing (Colell et al., 2013), paralleling the increasing legalisation of cannabis use in multiple countries and US states (SAMHSA, 2018; UNODC, 2019). Studies are suggestive of gender differences in both the acute effects of cannabis (Fogel et al., 2017; Matheson et al., 2020; Sholler et al., 2020) – with women usually showing larger subjective responses to similar doses of THC – and the withdrawal symptoms when ceasing cannabis use (Cuttler et al., 2016; Schlienz et al., 2017) – with women reporting more nausea and anxiety and men reporting more sleep-related withdrawal symptoms (Bassir Nia et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2013). Also, while psychiatric comorbidities are highly prevalent (>90%) in men and women (Khan et al., 2013), women are more likely to report comorbid anxiety and mood disorders, specifically. Furthermore, women appear to transition more quickly from first use to cannabis use disorder (CUD) (Khan et al., 2013). Taken together, these differences could affect prevention and treatment efforts and highlights the importance of research into gender differences in cannabis use and CUD.

CUD is responsible for the most treatment entries for Illicit Substance Use Disorders (SUDs) worldwide (UNODC, 2018). While CUD treatment...
effects are unsuccessful for most, research into evidence-based CUD treatment is still limited (Gates et al., 2016). In response to the limited effective treatment for mental health problems including CUD (24–35% abstinence after 6 months; Denis et al., 2006; Hoch et al., 2013), research interest has been shifting towards a symptom network approach. Rather than focusing on a general clinical diagnosis, the network theory of mental disorders (Borsboom, 2017) proposes that individual symptoms and their interaction are crucial components in understanding the development and maintenance of mental disorders. Instead of viewing all symptoms as originating from a common cause, the mental disorder, symptoms should be studied as entities that interact with each other in causal ways giving rise to mental health problems. These interactions between symptoms can be seen as a network in which the nodes represent the symptoms, and the edges represent the association between pairs of symptoms (accounting for the presence of all other symptoms). The structure of the network as well as the weight of the connections between symptoms could provide valuable insights into the development of mental disorders, how they can effectively be treated, and even how treatment could be tailored to an individual using idiographic network models (e.g. Howe et al., 2020).

This theoretical transition from diagnosis to symptoms is also reflected in the increasing number of studies using network models to assess mental disorders, such as depression (Hoorelbeke et al., 2016), psychosis (van Rooijen et al., 2017), and common comorbidities between psychopathologies (Fried et al., 2017; Iavoraru et al., 2021). However, while rapidly increasing, the number of studies assessing the symptom networks in SUDs is currently limited and the evidence base too small to inform treatment. Rhemtulla et al. (2016) applied network models to substance abuse and dependence symptoms of a variety of substances, including cannabis, in a large sample of adult twins that used at least one illicit substance a minimum of six times in their life (Rhemtulla et al., 2016). Across substances, using more than planned was the most central symptom, also showing a strong association with tolerance. However, there were substantial differences between substances in both edge weight between symptoms and centrality of specific symptoms in the network. Looking at cannabis, there was a strong association between inappropriate timing of use, the time it takes to use and recover from it, and the interference of use with work and other obligations. While this study showed the feasibility of using a network approach in assessing CUD symptoms, replication using the most recent DSM-5 CUD symptoms as well as the assessment of the potentially crucial role of gender is needed. With the previous differentiation between cannabis abuse and dependence symptoms in the DSM-IV, men reported more symptoms of abuse than women, but no differences emerged in symptoms of dependence (Khan et al., 2013). Now that the DSM-5 forgoes the differentiation between abuse and dependence, it is important to assess whether gender differences in CUD symptoms are still present.

The current study aimed to explore gender differences in CUD symptoms using a network approach in Dutch individuals that used cannabis at least once per week during the last year. First, we constructed a network including the 11 items of the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI) DSM-5 interview to assess the interaction between symptoms of CUD. Second, we assessed whether men and women differed in the prevalence of specific symptoms. Third, we assessed potential gender differences in the symptom networks as well as differences in pairwise symptom associations and measures of centrality. Fourth, analyses were run to assess the role of plans to quit or reduce cannabis use, daily cigarette use (particularly common in Dutch individuals that use cannabis, e.g. van Laar et al., 2020), and comorbid mental health problems in the CUD symptom networks in both men and women. As most previous studies were conducted in dissimilar samples (e.g., in countries with cannabis legislation incommensurate with Dutch legislation), using different measures (e.g., DSM-IVinstead of DSM-5), and not assessing the complex associations between CUD symptoms, cigarette use, and mental health problems in both men and women, all aims of this study were treated as exploratory.

2. Methods

2.1. Sample

Data were collected online as part of the screening process for an MRI study on CUD. All procedures were approved by the ethics committee of the department of psychology of the University of Amsterdam (2018-DP-9616). The Dutch-speaking participants, all between 18 and 30 years old and living in the Netherlands at the moment of assessment, were only included if they consented to the storage and use of the screening data, indicated using cannabis at least once a week during the last year, and identified as either man or woman. A total of 1257 individuals (59.3% men) met these inclusion criteria.

2.2. Measures

Qualtrics online questionnaire software was used. Age and gender (‘What is your gender?’; answers: man, woman, other (non-binary, not further specified)) were assessed and a digitalized Dutch version of the DSM-5 CUD section of the MINI 7.0.2 (Sheehan et al., 1997) was administered to assess 11 CUD symptoms (Table 1). Participants also reported the average number of days per week they used cannabis over the last year, whether they had plans to either quit or reduce cannabis use, and whether they used cigarettes on a daily basis (yes/no). To assess additional substance use for descriptive purposes, participants completed the alcohol use disorder identification test (AUDIT; Saunders et al., 1993), and self-reported their lifetime use of any other substance (excluding alcohol, cigarettes and cannabis). To assess history of mental health problems, participants reported lifetime diagnoses of any psychological disorder. Disorders that fit within the categories of mood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>DSM-5 MINI Cannabis Use Disorder (CUD) Symptoms.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Label</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UseMore</td>
<td>Use more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RedQuit</td>
<td>Reduce or quit attempt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Time investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crave</td>
<td>Craving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respon.</td>
<td>Responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Social effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risky</td>
<td>Risky use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Health effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activ.</td>
<td>Less activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toler.</td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withd.</td>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * Both questions were asked as separate items and later score according to the scoring guidelines.
disorder (dysthymia, depression & bipolar disorder), anxiety disorder (social anxiety, generalized anxiety disorder, OCD & PTSD) or externalizing disorder (ODD, ADHD & ADD) were included in the analysis.

2.3. Data analysis

Gender differences on all measures were assessed using Mann-Whitney U tests (violation of normality assumption) or chi-square tests (categorical variables) using JASP 0.14.1.0 (JASP Team, 2020). All other analyses were performed with R version 4.0.2 and 4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2020). Network analysis was performed for the full sample and separately for men and women with the eLasso method and the Ising model using the R package Bootnet (Epskamp et al., 2018; default = “IsingFit”). Model selection was based on the Extended Bayesian Information Criterion (EBIC) with gamma = 0.25 and the AND-rule. Strength centrality was estimated with the R package qgraph (Epskamp et al., 2012). Bootstrapped confidence intervals (1000 bootstraps) were used to investigate accuracy of edge-weights (Supplementary Figs. S2-S7), centrality was estimated with the R package qgraph (Epskamp et al., 2012). Bootstrapped confidence intervals (1000 bootstraps) were used to test for significant differences between edges within the same network (Supplementary Fig. S11; Epksam et al., 2018). To test for gender differences in the network structure, global strength, strength of all nodes, and weight of all edges, we performed a network comparison test with the R package NetworkComparisonTest (van Borkulo et al., 2017; 1000 iterations, gamma = 0.25, AND-rule). Two participants with missing data on the variables “plan to reduce” and “plan to quit” were excluded from the network analyses including these variables. All analyses should be considered exploratory in nature.

3. Results

3.1. Sample characteristics

On average, participants used cannabis 5.3 days per week ($SD = 1.9$; Table 2). Their average CUD severity score was 5.0 ($SD = 3.0$), indicative of moderate CUD. Men scored higher on CUD severity, cannabis use days per week, and alcohol use and related problems (AUDIT). Women were more likely to have self-reported diagnoses of mood and anxiety disorders (Table 2).

3.2. CUD Symptom Network

Fig. 1A represents the full sample symptom network in which the nodes represent all MINI CUD symptoms and edges represent partial associations (controlled for all other associations) between those symptoms. The network was dense (mean weight = .37), with 43 non-zero edges over 55 possible edges. As can be seen from the edges, craving was associated with several other symptoms including unsuccessful quit attempts, withdrawal, tolerance, time spent on use and social effects. Furthermore, there was an association between using more than planned and having experienced unsuccessful quit attempts. While most symptoms were closely interconnected and similarly central based on strength, tolerance and risky use were less interconnected. Risky use was connected to the rest of the network solely through social effects, health effects and responsibilities, while tolerance had the strongest direct relationship with craving. This was also reflected in the lower strength of tolerance and risky use (Supplementary Fig. S1A).

3.3. CUD symptoms in men and women

Men and women were equally likely to report using more than planned (1), reducing or giving up activities (9), and experiencing craving (4), health problems (8), or withdrawal symptoms (11; Table 3). However, men more often reported unsuccessful attempts to reduce or quit use (2), a substantial time investment (3), less time spend on responsibilities (5), social effects (6), risky use (7), and tolerance (10).

3.4. Gender Differences in CUD Symptom Networks

Estimated CUD symptom networks of men (Fig. 1D) and women (Fig. 1C) were similar; they did not differ in structure ($M = 0.60, p = .94$), global strength ($S = 0.11, p = .97$) or centrality (strength: lowest p-value = .19; Supplementary Fig. S1B & S1C). Like the network including the full sample, the networks were dense (men: mean weight = 0.34, 38 non-zero edges over 55 possible edges; women: mean weight = 0.34, 37 non-zero edges over 55 possible edges; all edge weights presented in Supplementary Table S1). Most associations appeared similar between genders, except for tolerance; for men tolerance was connected through craving, time investment and responsibilities, while in women tolerance was connected through using more than expected, less activities and craving. When comparing specific edges between genders, there only appeared to be one significant difference in the association between time investment and tolerance ($p = .02$); while there was a direct association between tolerance and time investment in men, even after controlling for the presence of all other associations, this association was not observed in women.

3.5. CUD Symptoms, Comorbidity, and Plans to Reduce or Quit Networks: Gender Differences

Network analyses showed that cigarette use was associated with the CUD symptom network through withdrawal and time investment, a potential effect of the co-occurrence of nicotine dependence in these individuals (Fig. 2A). Plans to quit and plans to reduce were related to each other but differentially connected to symptoms. Plans to reduce were primarily related to previous unsuccessful attempts to reduce or quit, while

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Women (N = 512)</th>
<th>Men (N = 745)</th>
<th>Total (N = 1257)</th>
<th>Comparison test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>Mdn</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>Mdn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>21.8 (3.2)</td>
<td>21.1 (3.1)</td>
<td>21.7 (3.1)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannabis use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CUD severity score</td>
<td>4.7 (2.9)</td>
<td>5.2 (3.0)</td>
<td>5.0 (3.0)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last year days per week</td>
<td>5.1 (2.1)</td>
<td>5.5 (1.8)</td>
<td>5.3 (1.9)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans to reduce</td>
<td>N = 270 (52.7%)</td>
<td>N = 409 (54.9%)</td>
<td>N = 679 (54.0%)</td>
<td>N = 1255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans to quit</td>
<td>N = 59 (11.5%)</td>
<td>N = 114 (15.3%)</td>
<td>N = 173 (13.4%)</td>
<td>N = 1255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other substance use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily cigarette use</td>
<td>N = 317 (61.9%)</td>
<td>N = 472 (63.4%)</td>
<td>N = 789 (62.8%)</td>
<td>N = 1257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUDIT score</td>
<td>7.2 (4.9)</td>
<td>8.4 (5.7)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood disorder</td>
<td>N = 143 (27.9%)</td>
<td>N = 96 (12.9%)</td>
<td>N = 239 (19.0%)</td>
<td>N = 1257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety disorder</td>
<td>N = 97 (19.9%)</td>
<td>N = 30 (4.0%)</td>
<td>N = 127 (10.1%)</td>
<td>N = 1257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Externalizing disorder</td>
<td>N = 95 (18.6%)</td>
<td>N = 159 (21.3%)</td>
<td>N = 254 (20.2%)</td>
<td>N = 1257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: AUDIT = alcohol use disorder identification test; CUD = cannabis use disorder; M = mean; Mdn = median; SD = standard deviation
plans to quit were more consistently associated with real-life outcomes of heavy use, such as health problems, less activities, social effects, and effects on responsibilities. The presence of externalizing disorders was not connected to the network. The presence of mood disorders was connected primarily through withdrawal and was connected to the presence of anxiety disorders, which in turn was only connected to the CUD network.
Comparing these networks across genders (Fig. 2 B–2 C), while daily smoking was only connected to the network in men, this did not constitute a significant difference between genders \((p = .77)\). The connection of anxiety and mood disorders with the network did differ between men and women. In men, anxiety was connected to unsuccessful reduce or quit attempts while this was not the case in women (significant difference, \(p = .004\)). Also, in men, mood disorders were only connected to CUD symptoms through their association with anxiety, while the reverse was true for women, in which anxiety was only related to CUD symptoms through its association with mood disorders. Mood disorders in women connected to the rest of the network differently than anxiety did in men. The direct associations were with craving (significant difference, \(p = .03\)) and withdrawal (no significant difference, \(p = .23\)). In these models, the difference in the association between time investment and tolerance was still significant \((p = .006)\). Additional differences were observed in the associations between responsibilities and risky use \((p = .04)\) and between less activities and tolerance \((p = .03)\), which were only present in women, and in the association between craving and social effects \((p = .04)\), which was only present in men. When correcting results for multiple comparisons with the Holm–Bonferroni method, the gender difference in the relationship between anxiety and unsuccessful reduce or quit attempts remained significant (all edge weights presented in Supplementary Table S2).

Fig. 2. Cannabis use disorder (CUD) symptom networks including exploratory variables. Nodes represent the eleven MINI CUD symptoms and additional exploratory variables. The edges represent their positive associations, controlled for all other associations. Edge width and saturation reflect edge weight. To improve comparability, edge width and saturation were scaled to the largest edge weight across the three networks (edge weight = 2.039). Wider nodes’ margins and bold node legends indicate variables that were different in men and women. Different node colors represent different groups of variables (CUD symptoms, comorbidities, and plans). The average of the Spring layout of the men and women networks was used to plot all networks to improve network comparability and visibility. \(N = 1255\).

4. Discussion

We evaluated the associations between DSM-5 CUD symptoms in individuals reporting weekly cannabis use using a network approach, with a specific focus on gender differences. While several symptoms were more commonly reported by men than women, the pattern and strength of the associations between symptoms appeared similar between genders. However, exploratory analyses assessing the association of comorbid mental health problems with CUD symptoms did reveal gender differences; while the presence of anxiety and mood disorders were associated with each other in both men and women, the way they
connected to the CUD symptom network was different.

The estimated CUD symptom network was dense, in line with a previous study assessing the DSM-IV CUD symptom network (Rhemtulla et al., 2016), and consistent between men and women. This density might theoretically affect the developmental trajectory of CUD; in denser networks, when one symptom occurs (e.g., craving) the pathology can more easily spread (i.e., other symptoms develop) through the network because the initial symptom is connected to many other symptoms (e.g. Borsboom and Cramer, 2013). Centrality was similar for most symptoms, except risky use and tolerance. Tolerance was primarily associated with other symptoms through craving, which could indicate that while there are reciprocal connections between craving and tolerance, tolerance mainly affects other symptoms through craving. Risky use, a former DSM-IV criteria of abuse rather than dependence, was only connected to the rest of the network through responsibility, social effects, and health effects. Consequently, individuals reporting risky cannabis use could represent a clinically relevant sub-group. Of note, only 16.7% reported risky use (Table 3). Dutch young adults (mean age = 21.7) may encounter limited situations in which risky use would occur (e.g., due to lack of car ownership), warranting replication in other countries, including samples with a wider age range.

Men over-reported six out of eleven MINI CUD symptoms compared to women, while total CUD scores differed less than one point on average (Table 2). Interestingly, while symptom prevalence differed, symptom networks did not; when present, the symptoms interacted in the same way in men and women. So, while this could indicate that the CUD symptom network is activated through different symptoms, and that different symptoms might pose early warning signs for CUD in men and women, symptoms appear to interact in similar ways. As the network is dense and interconnected in both men and women, targeting treatment to those symptoms that are central and pose the biggest daily life problem for a specific individual will likely also help diminish other symptoms (e.g. Borsboom and Cramer, 2013).

Plans to reduce or quit, which might trigger seeking treatment, were related to each other. Having plans to reduce, was associated to the network through unsuccessful attempts to quit – potentially indicative of a lack of self-efficacy in quitting, but a persistent willingness to reduce use. Plans to quit were associated with the network through several symptoms that are indicative of daily life negative effects (i.e., social effects, health effects, less activities, and affected responsibilities) – potentially initiating the desire to quit (e.g. Copersino et al., 2006; Terry-McElrath et al., 2008).

Given the high co-occurrence in individuals that use cannabis (Connor et al., 2013), we assessed how daily cigarette smoking and the presence of mood disorders, anxiety disorders, and externalizing disorders were associated with CUD symptoms. Cigarette use was primarily related to the network through withdrawal, an association that might arise from associated nicotine withdrawal. While further investigation into different types of withdrawal symptoms and how they associate with CUD symptoms in individuals that also report using cigarettes is crucial, our results highlight the importance of considering cigarette smoking in treatment for CUD to potentially prevent withdrawal-related return to use. Further research is needed to assess whether simultaneous cessation negatively affects the chance one returns to use (e.g. Vandrey et al., 2008) or not (e.g. Apollonio et al., 2016). Notably, when looking at both men and women separately, daily smoking was connected to withdrawal only in men, but gender differences were not significant.

Looking at symptoms, externalizing disorders were very prevalent (20.2%) but did not relate to the CUD symptom network. This indicates that individuals reporting weekly cannabis use who have an externalizing disorder are not more or less likely to report one or more CUD symptoms compared to other individuals reporting weekly cannabis use. While having an externalizing disorder might be a risk factor for heavy cannabis use and CUD (e.g. Farmer et al., 2015), within a group of individuals reporting weekly cannabis use, externalizing disorder presence may not influence CUD symptoms.

The prevalence of both mood (women: 27.9%; men: 12.9%) and anxiety disorders (women: 19.9%; men: 4.0%) was higher in women than men. Depression and anxiety were related to each other in both genders, but the way they were associated with the CUD symptoms differed. In men, anxiety disorders were related to CUD symptoms through unsuccessful attempts to reduce or quit, which could increase anxiety but also be increased by anxiety (i.e., possible feedback loop). Mood disorders were only related to CUD symptoms through anxiety disorders in men. In contrast, in women, depression was associated with CUD symptoms through craving and withdrawal, while anxiety only related to the rest of the network through mood disorders. This could indicate potential gender-specific self-medication mechanisms (e.g. Levin et al., 2010). Since using to reduce anxiety or depressive feelings is part of the withdrawal spectrum, these associations could be indicative of a self-medication feedback loop between depression and using to feel better, which in turn also affects craving and additional CUD symptoms. Nevertheless, research into specific withdrawal symptoms is crucial to unravel these mechanisms.

Some limitations should be noted. First, the MINI DSM-5 CUD semi-structured interview (Sheehan et al., 1997) is not validated for use as an online self-report. While this warrants clinical validation, assessment of the DSM-5 CUD symptoms through online self-report can be highly informative as large-scale data collection is not feasible in in-person interview settings. Second, the current sample is a convenience sample and large samples based on set criteria that ensure matching on most variables are needed to confirm our results. Third, splitting the data by gender did affect our sample size, which resulted in two smaller groups of unequal size. However, sample size differences were not large enough to justify concerns with regards to the network comparison test results. Furthermore, we identified stable edges in women that were not present in men (Supplementary Figs. S2-S7), making it unlikely that sample size affected our outcomes. Nevertheless, the relatively small sample size of the subgroups made it unfeasible to test more complex models in which continuous levels of other drug use and AUDIT scores could be added. Future studies with sufficient power should assess how CUD symptoms are associated with a wider range of substances, including more detailed assessments of substance use and related problems. Fourth, individual time series data is needed to further assess and confirm the proposed development of symptomology based on current results. Finally, while our results can be important to guide future hypotheses, our study was exploratory and the findings should be treated as such.

5. Conclusions

Our study shows that CUD symptoms are highly interconnected and that while there are gender differences in prevalence of symptoms, the symptoms interact with each other in similar ways in men and women. However, gender differences in how comorbidities are associated with CUD symptoms as well as the association between cigarette use and withdrawal symptoms highlight the importance of further research into complex associations between these factors to inform clinical practice.

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Author Contributors

All authors reviewed and approved the final version. Conceptualization: EK, AM, RW & JC; Methodology: EK, JK, JC & AM; Investigation: EK & JK; Formal Analysis: EK & AM; Data curation: EK & AM; Writing – Original draft: EK & AM; Writing – Review & Editing: JK, RW, FF & JC; Visualization: AM; Supervision: JC & RW; Funding Acquisition: JC & FF.
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Conflict of interest
No conflict declared.

Data Availability
The data, code and materials of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Appendix A. Supporting information
Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2022.109733.

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