

Psychedelic Chemicals and Depression Treatment

Ayşe Zağlı¹, İlknur Altuntaş¹, Oytun Erbaş^{1,2}

DEPRESSION

Depression or major depressive disorder (MDD) is the most common and debilitating psychiatric disorder, with more than 300 million individuals to suffer around the world.^[1] Depression differs from the usual mood swings and short-term emotional responses to daily life challenges in terms of depressed mood such as sad, empty, and irritable feelings, lack of interest in formerly activities, loss or increased appetite, loss of energy, sleep disturbances, trouble concentrating, difficulty making a decision, negative thoughts about oneself or others, feelings of worthlessness, hopelessness, and guilt, and at its worst, thoughts of suicide.^[2]

The most basic way to diagnose depression is a high degree of clinical suspicion. In general, clinicians take the detailed history that includes specific symptoms that clients expressed their own besides that assessment tools such as Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HAM-D), or the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) to assess depression.^[3,4]

ABSTRACT

Depression is a psychiatric disorder that is widespread around the world and affects more than 300 million individuals. Treatment of depression divides into psychological counseling and antidepressant medication. Although antidepressants are an effective method of treating depression, alternative treatments are necessary due to their strong adverse effects. As an alternative treatment of depression, commonly used psychedelics are classic serotonergic psychedelics, entactogens, the atypical psychedelic ibogaine, and dissociative anesthetics. Psilocybin in particular, as well as LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide) and ayahuasca containing DMT (N, N-dimethyltryptamine), are seen as promising novel treatments for depression. In this review, the effect of psychedelic drugs, in particular LSD, psilocybin, and DMT on the treatment of depression will be discussed.

Keywords: Ayahuasca, depression, lysergic acid diethylamide, psilocybin, psychedelics.

ETIOLOGY OF DEPRESSION

There is no single reason that explains depression, and sometimes individuals who live in good conditions experience it. Depression usually consists of not just one cause, but a combination of many causes. Both environmental and biological factors can cause depression in people. Many psychological theories and approaches have interpreted causes of depression in different ways. The psychodynamic approach focuses on the inner world conflicts that occur in the client's consciousness.^[5] According to cognitive theories of depression, individuals who have maladaptive cognitive beliefs such as negative thoughts about themselves, the world, or others tend to have depression when they encounter a stressful life event.^[6] In the humanistic approach, the pyramid of Maslow's "Hierarchy of Needs"^[7] that represents our needs to fulfill in a lifetime period is used as a base to explain the cause of depression. At the top of the pyramid, there is the "self-actualization"

¹ERBAS Institute of Experimental Medicine, Illinois, USA & Gebze, Turkey

²Department of Physiology, Medical Faculty of Demirođlu Bilim University, Istanbul, Turkey

Correspondence: Ayşe Zağlı, Deneysel Tıp Enstitüsü, 41470 Gebze-Kocaeli, Türkiye.

E-mail: aysezagli@gmail.com

Cite this article as: Zağlı A, Altuntaş İ, Erbaş O. Psychedelic Chemicals and Depression Treatment. JEB Med Sci 2021;2(2):274-282.

doi: 10.5606/jebms.2021.75667

Received : April 20, 2021

Accepted : July 27, 2021

Published online : September 29, 2021

that final stage individuals have innate drives to develop their potential. If anything prevents to become "self-actualized" that can be a cause of depression.^[8]

THE NEUROBIOLOGY OF DEPRESSION

Depression has a set of complex biological processes that include genetics, brain structure and function, neurotransmitter and neuroendocrine, and immune system. The broader picture of the neurobiology of depression is not fully understood, it is known that both environmental and genetics play a very important role in this area.^[9]

Twin studies on depression point to a very strong hereditary effect, which shows that separate genetic factors from environmental factors. According to twin studies on individuals with depression showed that about one-third of the risk derived from genetic differences between individuals.^[10,11] Those research also provide that genes can explain 50% to 70% of the etiology of depression.^[12]

Changes in neuroendocrine and behavioral responses in individuals with depression can be caused initially by an abnormal biogenic amine-containing neuron. Also, dysfunction in the immune system and acceleration of inflammatory reactions may induce depression.^[13]

Individuals with depression have higher than normal levels of the stress hormone cortisol, which leads to neuronal damage, particularly, in the hippocampus. The stress-responsive hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA) with increased cortisol concentrations and dexamethasone non-suppression could induce abnormalities in individuals with depression.^[14]

Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) plays a crucial role in nerve growth, sustainability, and development that is active in the hippocampus which is important in learning, memory, and thinking. Serum BDNF concentrations are decreased in individuals with depression.^[15,16]

Dysfunction in the monoamine neurotransmitters has been associated with the neurobiology of several mood disorders. Two neurotransmitters that play a fundamental role in the emergence of depression are noradrenaline and serotonin (5-HT/5-hydroxytryptamine). An interruption in noradrenaline production and destruction makes the individual vulnerable to any

stressful situation.^[12] Serotonin was found to be abnormal in many individuals with depression.^[17]

Neuroplasticity, which involves structural and functional brain adaptations in response to changes in environmental life-event, is abnormal in individuals with depression.^[18]

CONVENTIONAL TREATMENTS OF DEPRESSION

There are two main methods that are effective in the treatment of depression. One of them is psychological counseling and the other is pharmacotherapy. Cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) which is based on changing behavioral and cognitive biases, and psychodynamic therapies (PT) which is revealing the subconscious content of the client, are the two most commonly used approaches in the treatment of depression.^[19]

Common pharmacotherapy is originated from the hypothesis that deficiency of monoamine neurotransmitters, such as serotonin, dopamine, and norepinephrine that play a role in the regulation of mood, arousal, and memory.^[20] Antidepressants inhibit the reuptake of breakdown of monoamine 5-HT and norepinephrine with 5-HT selective reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) which represent the most prescribed drug for the treatment of depression.^[21]

Although pharmacotherapy has been used as the most effective depression treatment for years, these antidepressants have significant limitations which include long-lasting uses (weeks to months), low response rates (one-third of individuals with depression are treatment-resistant), and adherence problems. Patients who suffer from depression have to use pharmacotherapy for at least 2-4 weeks to get any beneficial effects.^[22,23] Also, antidepressants can show some strong adverse effects including weight gain, sexual dysfunction, and cardiovascular problems.^[24]

Given some limitations and side effects, innovative treatment approaches for depression are needed. Thus, in this context, a lot of research, particularly on psychedelic drugs, is being conducted as a potential treatment for depression, although there is a bias in this area.^[25]

PSYCHEDELICS AS AN ALTERNATIVE TREATMENT

Psychedelics or psychedelic drugs are psychoactive substances that robustly change

perception, mood, and lots of cognitive processes that used by humanity for centuries in ritual settings.^[26] Psychedelics include classical serotonergic psychedelics (psilocybin, Lysergic acid diethylamide [LSD], and N, N-dimethyltryptamine [DMT]), entactogens (the serotonin-releasing drug and 3,4-Methylenedioxyamphetamine [MDMA]), the atypical psychedelic ibogaine, and dissociative anesthetics (N-Nitrosodimethylamine [NDMA] antagonist ketamine).^[27]

Psychedelic drugs have been investigated and found promising in other mental disorders such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD),^[28] obsessive and compulsive disorder (OCD),^[29] substance use disorder,^[30] cancer-related anxiety,^[31] and suicidal ideation.^[32]

Ketamine has also proved as a fast-acting antidepressant with sustained effects by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for treatment-resistant depression.^[33] It has also been observed that beneficial results have been obtained in the treatment of PTSD^[34] and heroin addiction.^[35] Ketamine is a drug that is the only anesthetic agent with analgesic, hypnotic and amnesic effects. Although the receptors it binds to have not been fully explained, it has an antagonist effect on N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors throughout the central nervous system (CNS), used as a sedative and anesthetic in individuals and animals.^[36]

However, according to a study comparing the effect of ketamine and serotonergic psychedelics on the treatment of depression, psilocybin showed a rapid and persistent antidepressant-like effect in the rat model. In contrast, ketamine only produced a temporary antidepressant-like effect. The results show that psilocybin is a more effective method in the treatment of depression.^[24]

The most conducted studies exist for MDMA and psilocybin, which have recently been approved by the FDA as "breakthrough therapies designation" for PTSD and treatment-resistant depression, respectively. Studies about LSD and DMT is observational, yet, there is significant evidence that therapeutic effects in various mental disorders, particularly depression.^[37]

NEUROBIOLOGICAL MECHANISMS OF PSYCHEDELIC DRUGS

Psychedelic drugs have the characteristic of changing individuals' behaviors, moods, and

perceptions. Imaging studies show that psychedelics affect connecting network functions in various parts of the brain that do not communicate with each other under normal conditions.^[38]

5-HT receptors contain the broadest subfamily of G-protein coupled receptors (GPCR). Currently, of 14 different types of 5-HT receptors divided into seven classes of receptors, the 5-HT_{2A} (serotonin 2A/subtype of the 5-HT₂) receptor plays a crucial role in the effects of hallucinogens and some mental illnesses with complex etiologies. Although hallucinogens do not only link to 5-HT_{2A} receptors (such as LSD linked to 5-HT receptor subtypes, dopaminergic and adrenergic receptors), activation of 5-HT_{2A} receptors is required to produce hallucinogenesis.^[39] It is also effective in certain processes such as mood, learning, memory, sleep-wake cycles, and appetite and also in neurogenesis.^[40,41]

Although the 5-HT_{2A} receptor is mainly studied in the Central Nervous System (CNS), also expressed in platelets and the gastro-intestinal tract. 5-HT_{2A} receptor binds to various downstream signaling pathways through the recruitment of a series of cytosolic proteins, including the canonical Gαq protein and the scaffolding protein β-arrestin 2 (βarr2).^[39]

Psychedelic drugs as many drugs that target this receptor activate these various G-protein-coupled receptors. However, 5-HT_{2A} is the main receptor responsible for the behavioral effects of psychedelic medicines. LSD more robustly is linked to 5-HT₁ and 5-HT_{2A} receptors compared to other serotonergic psychedelics such as psilocybin and DMT. Besides, LSD is linked to adrenergic and dopaminergic receptors that other serotonergic psychedelics are not associated with.^[42]

In addition, due to the complex therapeutic effects, deeper research is required. 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT_{2C}, 5-HT₄, 5-HT₅, 5-HT₆, and 5-HT₇ are also other serotonin receptors that could be interacted to some degree.^[43] DMT and LSD activate trace amine-associated receptors (TAAR1) which are closely associated with psychiatric and neurological disorders.^[44] TAAR1 has a modulating effect in areas where dopaminergic, serotonergic, and glutamatergic neurons emerge, reward circuits, limbic networks, cognitive processes, and mood states. Also, it is responsible for the regulation of hormone release, glucose levels, and body weight.^[45] DMT also has an agonist effect on the

sigma-1 receptor which are ligand-regulated molecular chaperones whose function contains blocking several voltage-sensitive ion channels.^[46]

In a study assuming that psychedelics support structural and functional neural plasticity, it was stated that almost all psychedelics increase the level of neurotrophic factors in neuritogenesis, spinogenesis, and synaptogenesis. In addition, an increase in the number and function of synapses has also been observed. These structural changes caused by psychedelics result from the stimulation of tyrosine receptor kinase B (TrkB), mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), and 5-HT_{2A} signaling pathways.^[47] Taken together, psychedelic medications can help repair the brain networks of individuals whose prefrontal cortex has been damaged from depression.

Psychedelic drugs, particularly LSD and 2.5-Dimethoxy-4-iodoamphetamine (DOI) which is a synthetic psychedelic have anti-inflammatory and anti-cancer effects.^[48,49]

Studies measuring neuroendocrine system-related factors such as the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis and oxytocin have been conducted. LSD, psilocybin, and DMT increase serum cortisol and adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH). Oxytocin levels are low in individuals with depression, studies have shown that LSD increases oxytocin levels.^[50]

Although many other compounds are used as drugs in the treatment of various psychiatric diseases and also alter consciousness, this study will discuss the serotonergic psychedelics which are LSD,^[51] psilocybin,^[52,53] and DMT,^[54,55] as considered to be the most effective in the treatment of depression.

LYSERGIC ACID DIETHYLAMIDE (LSD)

LSD was first discovered by Albert Hofmann in 1938. It is one of the classical psychedelics which are psychoactive substances that typically produce perceptual distortions and change in states of consciousness, mainly by agonistic action at the serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor.^[26] Some experimental researches showed that LSD increases positive mood, social behavior, emotional empathy and reduces negative emotional states.^[56,57] LSD is the strongest psychedelic that has very slow dissociation kinetics at the 5-HT_{2A} receptor and therefore long-lasting effects.^[58]

Mental effects of LSD include distortion of the sense of time and identity, changes in in-depth and time perception, visual hallucinations, sense of euphoria, distorted perception in senses of visual, auditory, touch and smell, and body image and delusions.^[59] "Bad trip", defined as acute anxiety, dysphoria, and confusion which can lead to unpredictable behavior in uncontrolled settings and exacerbation of psychotic disorders or the development of long-term psychotic reactions that may be related to the individual's previous predisposition are adverse effects. Also, in terms of physiological effects, increasing blood pressure and heart rate is another possible adverse effect of LSD.^[60,61]

The first research on using LSD in treating depression was conducted on 15 individuals suffering from depression in 1952 by Savage. Improvement acquired using LSD therapy was no greater than without its use. However, therapeutically valuable data into unconscious processes were obtained.^[62]

LSD has been used from the 1950s to the 1970s to achieve behavioral and personality changes as well as treatments of various disorders such as anxiety, depression, psychosomatic diseases, and addiction.^[52] Some researches showed that LSD could decrease pain, anxiety, and depression in patients with cancer.^[63]

Some researches indicated that LSD has a therapeutic potential even with lower doses and without the psychedelic experience. Some of the reviewed researches showed that positive effects on cognitive and affective processes that are dysfunctional on individuals suffering from depression.^[64]

PSILOCYBIN

Psilocybin is hallucinogenic mushrooms that structurally belong to the group of tryptamine hallucinogens and are structurally related to serotonin. Its chemical compounds have a similar structure to LSD. In the history of psilocybin, it was used for ritual in Mexico 3000 years ago, and regionally its use is continuing today. In the 1960s, experimental research on mental disorders was conducted using psilocybin. Nowadays, psilocybin is one of the most used psychedelics due to its safety and long-time positive effect.^[65,66]

It is known that 5-HT_{1A} and 5-HT_{2A} receptors have an important role in the pathophysiology of dysfunctional emotional biases. In the light of those

researches, Kometer and his colleagues investigated the effects of psilocybin on facial recognition, goal-directed behavior, and mood state in 2012. Psilocybin increased positive mood and weakened recognition of negative facial expression. Also, psilocybin has been found to have a positive effect on goal-directed behaviors.^[56] Psilocybin has a strong effect on mood contrast than other drugs. Bernasconi and his colleagues researched in 2014 to determine neurophysiological modulation induced by psilocybin to emotional face processing. The result showed that psilocybin affects the neuronal correlates of emotional face processing, consistent with a modulation of the top-down control.^[67]

Research conducted on 12 individuals suffering from severe depression has provided strong evidence that reduction in depression severity at 1 week was sustained in the majority for 3 months after psilocybin use. Also, any unexpected or serious adverse events were not observed.^[68]

AYAHUASCA (CONTAINS DMT)

Ayahuasca is a brew obtained from a combination of the plant of *Psychotria Viridis* which has DMT, and the plant of *Banisteriopsis Caapi* which contains β -carboline (harmine, harmaline, and tetrahydroharmine) that act as reversible monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAO)-A. For ages, it has been utilized in shamanic rituals and for therapeutic purposes.^[69]

The researchers have indicated the potential benefits of ayahuasca and DMT in mood disorders.^[51] Several studies indicated that harmine has an antidepressant effect.^[70,71] It has shown decreased stress parameters in the hippocampus, a structure related to mood regulation.^[72]

The first controlled trial has been conducted to test the antidepressant effects of ayahuasca which is the psychedelic substance in 29 patients with treatment-resistant depression in 2018. The Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) and Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HAM-D) have been used to assess changes in depression severity. Compared to placebo, HAM-D scores on the 7th day were significantly lower in individuals treated with ayahuasca, and MADRS scores were significantly decreased in the group of individuals treated with ayahuasca at all times (at days 1, 2, and 7).^[54]

Although some researches indicated that ayahuasca has effectiveness in the treatment

of depression, there is a great need to conduct preclinical and clinical randomized controlled studies to determine its clinical and pharmacological effects and safety. Also, more detailed researches need to be done about the adverse effects of psychedelics, despite the fact that it appears to be relatively mild.^[73]

PSYCHEDELIC-ASSISTED PSYCHOTHERAPY (PAP)

Psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy (PAP) has been defined as using ketamine, MDMA, psilocybin, LSD, and ibogaine as part of detailed psychotherapy sessions under the control of therapists.^[74] Although there are several methodologies used in psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy, psycholytic therapy, and psychedelic therapy are two of the most commonly used among them.^[75,76]

Psycholytic therapy, which emerged in Europe in the 1950s, refers to a kind of psychoanalytically informed talk therapy integrating with the administration of low doses of LSD (30-200 mg) over several sessions. The sessions were believed to give patients deeper access to the unconscious for emotional relaxation.^[77]

In psychedelic therapy developed in the United States, high doses (250 mg LSD) were used to create an "overwhelming and transcendent experience" and the aim was novel insights into the patient's condition. Psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy consists of three sessions which are preparatory, medication, and integration. The aim of these three parts is to prepare the patients for the psychedelic sessions and set the therapeutic alliance. The therapist acts as a guide to help the patient gain insight during the psychedelic session safely and convert the process of that experience into meaningful, long-lasting change. Before given the drugs, preparation and orientation to the therapy are crucial.^[78]

The session should be conducted in a well-decorated and comfortable environmental setting that makes the patients feel familiar. After drug ingestion, the therapist supports the patient to focus and trust on his or her inner healing intelligence. Because the patient needs to accept the belief that the power to heal is hidden within her. Several tools can be used in the therapeutic setting such as listening to music, in particular instrumental evocative music,^[79] wearing eyeshades, or breathing technique.^[80,81]

Under the drug effect, the therapist listens to the patient carefully and seeks to increase the benefits of the inner experience. The goal should be to maintain and strengthen the bonds of trust, safety, and openness between the therapist and the patient. Finally, the therapist works with the patient to integrate this experience into meaningful long-term change by identifying the insights that arise during the psychedelic session and interpreting the thoughts.^[37]

It is unknown that what is providing change is the psychedelic medicine itself, the psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy, or drug-facilitated improvement in the therapeutic alliance.^[77] So, more studies focusing on psychedelic-assisted therapy are required.

Conclusion

The number of individuals affected by depression is increasing day by day. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), current estimates suggest that depression will be one of the global burdens of disease by 2030. In addition to the treatment costs of people affected by depression, it may cause economic difficulties in countries due to occupational inadequacy. So, future studies on alternative treatments that conduct to modern standards are necessary.

Psychedelics have been used for shamanic rituals for centuries. It has proven its effectiveness as a robust drug today. Studying psychedelic drugs for the treatment of depression can be seen as taboo because we do not fully describe the changes in the human mind, perception, mood, and behavior neurobiological, or because we know its potential to be used as a pleasurable substance. However, FDA approval of psilocybin for the treatment of depression has shown that it can be used as a potential drug for mental disorders. Although generally observational study is conducted on LSD and ayahuasca, their therapeutic effects in various mental disorders are robustly promising for the future.

Nevertheless, more research is necessary to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of psychedelic treatments on depression to inform potential future use in psychiatric practice.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declared no conflicts of interest with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research and/or authorship of this article.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization. World Health Organization [Internet]. Vol. 22, *Int J Health Care Qual. Assur.* 2009 [cited 2020 Jan 11]. p. 51. Available at: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/depression>
2. Regier DA, Kuhl EA, Kupfer DJ. The DSM-5: Classification and criteria changes. *World Psychiatry* 2013;12:92-8.
3. Wang YP, Gorenstein C. Assessment of depression in medical patients: a systematic review of the utility of the Beck Depression Inventory-II. *Clinics (Sao Paulo)* 2013;68:1274-87.
4. Hanwella R, de Silva V. Diagnosis and management of depression. *Ceylon Med J* 2008;53:60-2.
5. Luyten P, Blatt SJ. Psychodynamic treatment of depression. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 2012;35:111-29.
6. McGinn LK. Cognitive behavioral therapy of depression: Theory, treatment, and empirical status. *Am J Psychother* 2000;54:257-62.
7. Maslow AH. A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review* 1943;50:370-96.
8. Churchill R, Davies P, Caldwell D, Moore TH, Jones H, Lewis G, et al. Humanistic therapies versus other psychological therapies for depression. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2010;2010:CD008700.
9. Maletic V, Robinson M, Oakes T, Iyengar S, Ball SG, Russell J. Neurobiology of depression: An integrated view of key findings. *Int J Clin Pract* 2007;61:2030-40.
10. Sullivan PF, Neale MC, Kendler KS. Genetic epidemiology of major depression: Review and meta-analysis. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000;157:1552-62.
11. Kendler KS, Gardner CO, Prescott CA. Toward a comprehensive developmental model for major depression in men. *Am J Psychiatry* 2006;163:115-24.
12. Kendler KS, Kessler RC, Walters EE, MacLean C, Neale MC, Heath AC, et al. Stressful life events, genetic liability, and onset of an episode of major depression in women. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995;152:833-42.
13. Jeon SW, Kim YK. Neuroinflammation and cytokine abnormality in major depression: Cause or consequence in that illness? *World J Psychiatry* 2016;6:283-93.
14. Keller J, Gomez R, Williams G, Lembke A, Lazzeroni L, Murphy GM Jr, et al. HPA axis in major depression: Cortisol, clinical symptomatology and genetic variation predict cognition. *Mol Psychiatry* 2017;22:527-36.
15. Shimizu E, Hashimoto K, Okamura N, Koike K, Komatsu N, Kumakiri C, et al. Alterations of serum levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) in depressed patients with or without antidepressants. *Biol Psychiatry* 2003;54:70-5.
16. Piccinni A, Del Debbio A, Medda P, Bianchi C, Roncaglia I, Veltri A, et al. Plasma Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor in treatment-resistant depressed patients receiving

- electroconvulsive therapy. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2009;19:349-55.
17. England MJ, Sim LJ. Depression in Parents, Parenting, and Children: Opportunities to Improve Identification, Treatment, and Prevention. Washington (DC): The NAP; 2009. p. 488.
 18. Saveanu RV, Nemeroff CB. Etiology of depression: Genetic and environmental factors. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 2012;35:51-71.
 19. Driessen E, Hollon SD. Cognitive behavioral therapy for mood disorders: Efficacy, moderators and mediators. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 2010;33:537-55.
 20. Andrade C. Stahl's essential psychopharmacology: Neuroscientific basis and practical applications. *Mens Sana Monogr* 2010;8:146-50.
 21. Duman RS, Voleti B. Signaling pathways underlying the pathophysiology and treatment of depression: Novel mechanisms for rapid-acting agents. *Trends Neurosci* 2012;35:47-56.
 22. Kolovos S, van Tulder MW, Cuijpers P, Prigent A, Chevreur K, Riper H, et al. The effect of treatment as usual on major depressive disorder: A meta-analysis. *J Affect Disord* 2017;210:72-81.
 23. Rush AJ, Trivedi MH, Wisniewski SR, Nierenberg AA, Stewart JW, Warden D, et al. Acute and longer-term outcomes in depressed outpatients requiring one or several treatment steps: A STAR*D report. *Am J Psychiatry* 2006;163:1905-17.
 24. Hibicke M, Landry AN, Kramer HM, Talman ZK, Nichols CD. Psychedelics, but not ketamine, produce persistent antidepressant-like effects in a rodent experimental system for the study of depression. *ACS Chem Neurosci* 2020;11:864-71.
 25. Galvão-Coelho NL, Marx W, Gonzalez M, Sinclair J, de Manincor M, Perkins D, et al. Classic serotonergic psychedelics for mood and depressive symptoms: A meta-analysis of mood disorder patients and healthy participants. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2021;238:341-54.
 26. Nichols DE. Psychedelics. *Pharmacol Rev* 2016;68:264-355.
 27. Brekxema JJ, Niemeijer AR, Krediet E, Vermetten E, Schoevers RA. Psychedelic treatments for psychiatric disorders: A systematic review and thematic synthesis of patient experiences in qualitative studies. *CNS Drugs* 2020;34:925-46.
 28. Krediet E, Bostoen T, Brekxema J, van Schagen A, Passie T, Vermetten E. Reviewing the potential of psychedelics for the treatment of PTSD. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2020;23:385-400.
 29. Wilcox JA. Psilocybin and obsessive compulsive disorder. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 2014;46:393-5.
 30. Winkelman M. Psychedelics as medicines for substance abuse rehabilitation: Evaluating treatments with LSD, Peyote, Ibogaine and Ayahuasca. *Curr Drug Abuse Rev* 2014;7:101-16.
 31. Ross S. Therapeutic use of classic psychedelics to treat cancer-related psychiatric distress. *Int Rev Psychiatry* 2018;30:317-30.
 32. Zeifman RJ, Wagner AC, Watts R, Kettner H, Mertens LJ, Carhart-Harris RL. Post-psychedelic reductions in experiential avoidance are associated with decreases in depression severity and suicidal ideation. *Front Psychiatry* 2020;11:782.
 33. Duman RS. Ketamine and rapid-acting antidepressants: A new era in the battle against depression and suicide. *F1000Res* 2018;7:F1000 Faculty Rev-659.
 34. Feder A, Parides MK, Murrrough JW, Perez AM, Morgan JE, Saxena S, et al. Efficacy of intravenous ketamine for treatment of chronic posttraumatic stress disorder: A randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2014;71:681-8.
 35. Krupitsky E, Burakov A, Romanova T, Dunaevsky I, Strassman R, Grinenko A. Ketamine psychotherapy for heroin addiction: Immediate effects and two-year follow-up. *J Subst Abuse Treat* 2002;23:273-83.
 36. Karacaer F. Ketamin: Yeni bir antidepresan? *Psikiyatride Güncel Yaklaşımlar-Current Approaches in Psychiatry* 2015;7:30-40.
 37. Reiff CM, Richman EE, Nemeroff CB, Carpenter LL, Widge AS, Rodriguez CI, et al. Psychedelics and psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy. *Am J Psychiatry* 2020;177:391-410.
 38. Martin DA, Nichols CD. The effects of hallucinogens on gene expression. *Curr Top Behav Neurosci* 2018;36:137-58.
 39. López-Giménez JF, González-Maeso J. Hallucinogens and serotonin 5-HT_{2A} receptor-mediated signaling pathways. *Curr Top Behav Neurosci* 2018;36:45-73.
 40. Kurrasch-Orbaugh DM, Parrish JC, Watts VJ, Nichols DE. A complex signaling cascade links the serotonin 2A receptor to phospholipase A2 activation: The involvement of MAP kinases. *J Neurochem* 2003;86:980-91.
 41. Available at: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK1853/>
 42. Rickli A, Moning OD, Hoener MC, Liechti ME. Receptor interaction profiles of novel psychoactive tryptamines compared with classic hallucinogens. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2016;26:1327-37.
 43. Vollenweider FX, Kometer M. The neurobiology of psychedelic drugs: Implications for the treatment of mood disorders. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2010;11:642-51.
 44. Pei Y, Asif-Malik A, Canales JJ. Trace amines and the trace amine-associated receptor 1: Pharmacology, neurochemistry, and clinical implications. *Front Neurosci* 2016;10:148.
 45. Berry MD, Gainetdinov RR, Hoener MC, Shahid M. Pharmacology of human trace amine-associated receptors: Therapeutic opportunities and challenges. *Pharmacol Ther* 2017;180:161-80.
 46. Su TP, Hayashi T, Vaupel DB. When the endogenous hallucinogenic trace amine N,N-dimethyltryptamine meets the sigma-1 receptor. *Sci Signal* 2009;2:pe12.
 47. Ly C, Greb AC, Cameron LP, Wong JM, Barragan EV, Wilson PC, et al. Psychedelics promote structural and functional neural plasticity. *Cell Rep* 2018;23:3170-82.
 48. Yu B, Becnel J, Zerfaoui M, Rohatgi R, Boulares AH, Nichols CD. Serotonin 5-hydroxytryptamine(2A) receptor

- activation suppresses tumor necrosis factor-alpha-induced inflammation with extraordinary potency. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2008;327:316-23.
49. Szabo A. Psychedelics and immunomodulation: Novel approaches and therapeutic opportunities. *Front Immunol* 2015;6:358.
 50. Schindler EAD, Wallace RM, Slosower JA, D'Souza DC. Neuroendocrine associations underlying the persistent therapeutic effects of classic serotonergic psychedelics. *Front Pharmacol* 2018;9:177.
 51. De Gregorio D, Enns JP, Nuñez NA, Posa L, Gobbi G. d-Lysergic acid diethylamide, psilocybin, and other classic hallucinogens: Mechanism of action and potential therapeutic applications in mood disorders. *Prog Brain Res* 2018;242:69-96.
 52. Fuentes JJ, Fonseca F, Elices M, Farré M, Torrens M. Therapeutic use of LSD in psychiatry: A systematic review of randomized-controlled clinical trials. *Front Psychiatry* 2020;10:943.
 53. Carhart-Harris RL, Bolstridge M, Day CMJ, Rucker J, Watts R, Erritzoe DE, et al. Psilocybin with psychological support for treatment-resistant depression: Six-month follow-up. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2018;235:399-408.
 54. Palhano-Fontes F, Barreto D, Onias H, Andrade KC, Novaes MM, Pessoa JA, et al. Rapid antidepressant effects of the psychedelic ayahuasca in treatment-resistant depression: A randomized placebo-controlled trial. *Psychol Med* 2019;49:655-63.
 55. Jiménez-Garrido DF, Gómez-Sousa M, Ona G, Dos Santos RG, Hallak JEC, Alcázar-Córcoles MÁ, et al. Effects of ayahuasca on mental health and quality of life in naïve users: A longitudinal and cross-sectional study combination. *Sci Rep* 2020;10:4075.
 56. Komater M, Schmidt A, Bachmann R, Studerus E, Seifritz E, Vollenweider FX. Psilocybin biases facial recognition, goal-directed behavior, and mood state toward positive relative to negative emotions through different serotonergic subreceptors. *Biol Psychiatry* 2012;72:898-906.
 57. Liechti ME. Modern clinical research on LSD. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2017;42:2114-27.
 58. Wacker D, Wang S, McCorvy JD, Betz RM, Venkatakrishnan AJ, Levit A, et al. Crystal structure of an LSD-bound human serotonin receptor. *Cell* 2017;168:377-89.e12.
 59. Liester MB. A review of lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) in the treatment of addictions: Historical perspectives and future prospects. *Curr Drug Abuse Rev* 2014;7:146-56.
 60. Carbonaro TM, Bradstreet MP, Barrett FS, MacLean KA, Jesse R, Johnson MW, et al. Survey study of challenging experiences after ingesting psilocybin mushrooms: Acute and enduring positive and negative consequences. *J Psychopharmacol* 2016;30:1268-78.
 61. Grinspoon L, Bakalar JB. Can drugs be used to enhance the psychotherapeutic process? *Am J Psychother* 1986;40:393-404.
 62. Savage C. Lysergic acid diethylamide; A clinical-psychological study. *Am J Psychiatry* 1952;108:896-900.
 63. Grof S, Goodman LE, Richards WA, Kurland AA. LSD-assisted psychotherapy in patients with terminal cancer. *Int Pharmacopsychiatry* 1973;8:129-44.
 64. Kuypers KPC. The therapeutic potential of microdosing psychedelics in depression. *Ther Adv Psychopharmacol* 2020;10:2045125320950567.
 65. van Amsterdam J, Opperhuizen A, van den Brink W. Harm potential of magic mushroom use: A review. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 2011;59:423-9.
 66. Tylš F, Páleníček T, Horáček J. Psilocybin--summary of knowledge and new perspectives. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2014;24:342-56.
 67. Bernasconi F, Schmidt A, Pokorny T, Komater M, Seifritz E, Vollenweider FX. Spatiotemporal brain dynamics of emotional face processing modulations induced by the serotonin 1A/2A receptor agonist psilocybin. *Cereb Cortex* 2014;24:3221-31.
 68. Carhart-Harris RL, Bolstridge M, Day CMJ, Rucker J, Watts R, Erritzoe DE, et al. Psilocybin with psychological support for treatment-resistant depression: Six-month follow-up. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2018;235:399-408.
 69. Estrella-Parra EA, Almanza-Pérez JC, Alarcón-Aguilar FJ. Ayahuasca: Uses, phytochemical and biological activities. *Nat Prod Bioprospect* 2019;9:251-65.
 70. Fortunato JJ, Réus GZ, Kirsch TR, Stringari RB, Fries GR, Kapczinski F, et al. Effects of beta-carboline harmine on behavioral and physiological parameters observed in the chronic mild stress model: Further evidence of antidepressant properties. *Brain Res Bull* 2010;81:491-6.
 71. Flávia de Lima Osório, Lígia Ribeiro Horta de Macedo, João Paulo Machado de Sousa, Joel Porfírio Pinto, João Quevedo, José Alexandre de Souza Crippa, et al. The therapeutic potential of harmine and ayahuasca in depression: Evidence from exploratory animal and human studies. *The Ethnopharmacology of Ayahuasca* 2011:75-85.
 72. Réus GZ, Stringari RB, de Souza B, Petronillo F, Dal-Pizzol F, Hallak JE, et al. Harmine and imipramine promote antioxidant activities in prefrontal cortex and hippocampus. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* 2010;3:325-31.
 73. Hamill J, Hallak J, Dursun SM, Baker G. Ayahuasca: Psychological and physiologic effects, pharmacology and potential uses in addiction and mental illness. *Curr Neuropharmacol* 2019;17:108-28.
 74. Schenberg EE. Psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy: A paradigm shift in psychiatric research and development. *Front Pharmacol* 2018;9:733.
 75. Bogenschutz MP, Ross S. Therapeutic applications of classic hallucinogens. *Curr Top Behav Neurosci* 2018;36:361-91.
 76. Gasser P, Kirchner K, Passie T. LSD-assisted psychotherapy for anxiety associated with a life-threatening disease: a qualitative study of acute and sustained subjective effects. *J Psychopharmacol* 2015;29:57-68.
 77. Garcia-Romeu A, Richards WA. Current perspectives on psychedelic therapy: Use of serotonergic

- hallucinogens in clinical interventions. *Int Rev Psychiatry* 2018;30:291-316.
78. Nielson EM, Guss J. The influence of therapists' first-hand experience with psychedelics on psychedelic-assisted psychotherapy research and therapist training. *Journal of Psychedelic Studies* 2018;2:64-73.
 79. Richards WA. Psychedelic psychotherapy: Insights from 25 years of research. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology* 2017;57:323-37.
 80. Feduccia AA, Mithoefer MC. MDMA-assisted psychotherapy for PTSD: Are memory reconsolidation and fear extinction underlying mechanisms? *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 2018;84:221-8.
 81. Ross S, Bossis A, Guss J, Agin-Liebes G, Malone T, Cohen B, et al. Rapid and sustained symptom reduction following psilocybin treatment for anxiety and depression in patients with life-threatening cancer: A randomized controlled trial. *J Psychopharmacol* 2016;30:1165-80.