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[Felipe Heemann](#) *

Posted Date: 12 August 2026

doi: 10.20944/preprints202608.0802.v1

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Review

Synthetic Cannabinoids and the Purinergic–Dopaminergic Axis: P2X7 as a Primary Sensor of Neuroinflammatory Injury and the Role of Adenosine Receptor Heteromers in Emerging NPS Toxicity

Felipe Heemann

Universidade de São Paulo (USP), Brazil; fear80x@alumni.usp.br

Abstract

Synthetic cannabinoids (SCs), marketed as Spice, K2, and dozens of successor compounds, constitute one of the most pharmacologically dangerous categories of new psychoactive substances (NPS) currently in circulation. Their extreme toxicity relative to Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) cannot be explained by CB₁ receptor pharmacokinetics alone. This review proposes that the purinergic signaling system, specifically the P2X₇ receptor and the adenosine receptor heteromers A_{2A}–D₂ and A₁–D₁, constitutes the central molecular amplifier of SC-induced neurotoxicity, operating downstream of CB₁ superagonism but upstream of the neurological phenotypes that define acute SC poisoning. Full CB₁ agonism collapses retrograde synaptic suppression, unleashing glutamatergic excitotoxicity and mitochondrial dysfunction that release massive quantities of extracellular ATP as a damage-associated molecular pattern (DAMP). P2X₇, acting as the primary cellular sensor of this ATP surge, initiates NLRP3 inflammasome assembly, caspase-1 activation, and IL-1 β secretion, establishing a self-sustaining neuroinflammatory cycle in the striatum and cortex. Simultaneously, the ectonucleotidase-mediated conversion of excess ATP to adenosine floods A_{2A} receptors on striatopallidal neurons, allosterically reducing D₂ receptor affinity for dopamine through the constitutive A_{2A}–D₂ heterodimer — directly suppressing dopaminergic motor tone and contributing to the psychomotor arrest clinically described as the zombie effect. The A₁–D₁ heteromer in the direct pathway adds a complementary layer of inhibition. Together, these purinergic–dopaminergic molecular interactions translate CB₁ superagonism into the distinctive and dangerous clinical phenomenology of SC intoxication in ways that classical cannabinoid pharmacology does not predict. Pharmacological implications include the potential repositioning of P2X₇ antagonists and A_{2A} receptor antagonists as interventions for acute SC poisoning, and the necessity of integrating purinergic endpoints into toxicological profiling of emerging NPS compounds.

Keywords: synthetic cannabinoids; new psychoactive substances; NPS toxicity; P2X₇ receptor; NLRP3 inflammasome; A_{2A}–D₂ heteromer; purinergic signaling; neuroinflammation; zombie syndrome; excitotoxicity; dopaminergic toxicity; CB₂ receptor

1. Introduction: The Pharmacological Gap Between Cannabis and Its Synthetic Echoes

Cannabis sativa has been used by human populations for millennia, and despite the cultural mythology surrounding its dangers, its toxicological profile is remarkably constrained. Δ^9 -THC, its primary psychoactive constituent, is a partial agonist at CB₁, reaching a ceiling of approximately 25–50% of maximal receptor activation. This built-in efficacy limit, combined with the modulatory presence of cannabidiol, terpenes, and flavonoids in whole-plant preparations (the entourage effect),

renders natural cannabis intoxication self-limiting: dysphoria, tachycardia, and anxiety are common at high doses, but respiratory depression is absent, fatal overdose is extraordinarily rare, and the clinical presentation, while occasionally distressing, is essentially predictable.

Synthetic cannabinoids shatter this predictability. Compounds such as JWH-018, JWH-073, CP-47,497, UR-144, ADB-FUBINACA, MAB-CHMINACA, AMB-FUBINACA, and 5F-ADB, successively synthesized across at least five chemically distinct generations to evade scheduling legislation, are full agonists or superagonists at CB1, driving receptor activation toward 100% efficacy. Their binding affinities are measured in sub-nanomolar K_i values, making them orders of magnitude more potent than THC; effective doses fall into the milligram or sub-milligram range, a lethal gamble when compounds are unevenly sprayed onto inert herbal substrate sold on the street. Unlike cannabis, there is no entourage architecture to buffer the pharmacology: what remains is naked CB1 superagonism, a screaming soloist with no orchestra and no restraint.

The clinical consequences are proportionally catastrophic. SC intoxication does not resemble cannabis intoxication; it resembles a medical emergency. Extreme agitation, paranoid psychosis, violent outbursts, and dissociation characterize the psychoactive profile. Cardiovascular toxicity, heart rate exceeding 150 bpm, hypertensive crisis, myocardial infarction in otherwise healthy young adults, appears with disturbing frequency. Neurological sequelae include status epilepticus, ischemic stroke, and acute kidney injury. Most distinctively, compounds of the FUBINACA generation produce what emergency clinicians have termed the “zombie effect” or “zombie syndrome”: a state of profound psychomotor retardation in which users freeze in place, maintain bizarre postures for extended periods, stare blankly, and are unresponsive to their environment. The 2016 mass intoxication event in Brooklyn’s Myrtle Avenue, linked to AMB-FUBINACA, in which dozens of individuals collapsed simultaneously in states of catatonic dissociation, represents the most publicized instance of a syndrome since documented across multiple countries and compound generations [1,2].

The question that classical cannabinoid pharmacology cannot adequately answer is: why? If the mechanism is CB1 agonism, and CB1 is the mechanism of THC, why does full CB1 agonism produce an entirely different order of pathology? The difference in receptor efficacy is real and pharmacologically significant, but it is not sufficient by itself to explain the qualitative divergence in clinical presentation, the excitotoxic cascade, the catatonic arrest, the cardiovascular collapse, that distinguishes SC toxicity from cannabis intoxication.

This review proposes that the answer lies not within the cannabinoid receptor system itself but downstream: in the purinergic signaling network that acts as the brain’s primary sensor of metabolic damage, cellular injury, and excitotoxic stress. Specifically, we argue that (1) the P2X7 receptor, activated by the massive ATP release that follows CB1 superagonism-induced excitotoxicity, functions as the primary amplifier of SC-induced neuroinflammation through NLRP3 inflammasome activation and IL-1 β secretion; and (2) the adenosine receptor heteromers A2A–D2 and A1–D1, constitutively expressed in striatopallidal and striatonigral neurons respectively, translate the purinergic disturbance into the dopaminergic suppression responsible for the psychomotor arrest that defines the zombie syndrome.

2. From CB1 Superagonism to Excitotoxic Cascade: The Mechanistic Sequence

Under physiological conditions, the endocannabinoid system functions as a retrograde feedback mechanism: strong postsynaptic depolarization triggers on-demand synthesis of 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) from membrane phospholipids via phospholipase C- β and diacylglycerol lipase- α , followed by retrograde diffusion across the synaptic cleft and CB1 activation on the presynaptic terminal. Presynaptic CB1 activation couples to Gi/o proteins, inhibiting adenylyl cyclase, activating GIRK channels, and suppressing N- and P/Q-type voltage-gated calcium channels, collectively reducing neurotransmitter release probability by 50–80% in the presence of saturating CB1 agonists. This retrograde suppression serves as a circuit-level brake: when a neuron fires

intensely enough to generate endocannabinoid synthesis, it simultaneously attenuates the excitatory inputs driving it, preventing runaway excitation.

Full CB1 agonism by synthetic cannabinoids fundamentally corrupts this homeostatic architecture. Because SCs occupy CB1 at near-saturation efficacy and with residence times far exceeding 2-AG, the receptor is effectively locked in a maximally activated state. The consequence is not merely enhanced endocannabinoid signaling; it is the collapse of the activity-dependent modulation that makes the system adaptive. When CB1 cannot be further activated by endogenous 2-AG because an exogenous full agonist already occupies it, the retrograde feedback loop is abolished: the circuit can no longer self-limit, and glutamatergic drive escalates without correction.

The downstream consequence is excitotoxicity. Unconstrained glutamate release drives NMDA receptor activation beyond the coincidence-detection threshold, producing massive Ca^{2+} influx. At supraphysiological intracellular calcium concentrations, the calcium signal ceases to function as a second messenger and becomes an executioner: calpains and calcineurin dismantle the cytoskeletal architecture; mitochondrial permeability transition pores open, uncoupling respiration and triggering cytochrome c release; phospholipases drive lipid peroxidation; and nitric oxide produced by calcium-activated nNOS reacts with superoxide to form peroxynitrite, a species of devastating cytotoxicity that nitrates proteins, fragments DNA, and amplifies membrane damage.

Crucially, this mitochondrial failure and the resulting cellular injury produce a massive and rapid release of ATP into the extracellular space. Cellular stress triggers ATP release through multiple routes simultaneously: voltage-gated pannexin-1 hemichannels open in response to calcium influx; connexin-based gap junction hemichannels contribute; and frank membrane disruption in severely damaged cells releases cytosolic ATP stores directly into the interstitial space. The extracellular ATP concentration in zones of SC-induced excitotoxic injury can transiently reach concentrations orders of magnitude above basal levels, converting a signal molecule that normally functions in volume transmission into an acute DAMP of the highest pharmacological potency.

Third-, fourth-, and fifth-generation synthetic cannabinoids, including the indazole/indole-carboxamide derivatives AMB-FUBINACA, 5F-ADB, and their structural analogs, exhibit high affinity and efficacy not only at CB1 but also at CB2 receptors. CB2 is constitutively expressed at low levels in the healthy brain but is dramatically upregulated in activated microglia. Unlike CB1-mediated neuronal excitotoxicity, CB2 activation in microglia exerts a generally immunosuppressive effect, reducing pro-inflammatory cytokine release and shifting microglial phenotype toward the reparative M2 state. The pharmacological consequence is a genuinely biphasic and context-dependent CB2 contribution to SC-induced neuroinflammation: at early timepoints, concomitant CB2 agonism may partially counteract the pro-inflammatory cascade initiated by CB1 superagonism; at later timepoints, when neuronal damage and DAMP release have already established a self-sustaining P2X7-driven inflammatory cycle, CB2's modulatory influence becomes insufficient to reverse the trajectory. This CB2 pharmacology does not diminish the centrality of CB1 in initiating the excitotoxic cascade but introduces a temporal and cell-type-specific complexity that future mechanistic studies must address.

It is at this point that the story of SC toxicity diverges from classical cannabinoid pharmacology and enters the domain of the purinergic system.

3. P2X7 as the Primary Sensor of SC-Induced Neural Injury

Before detailing each mechanism, it is essential to establish that extracellular ATP generated by SC-induced excitotoxic injury engages the purinergic system through two anatomically and cellularly distinct but temporally parallel arms. The first is an inflammatory glial arm: ATP binds P2X7 receptors on microglia, activating the NLRP3 inflammasome and driving IL-1 β secretion, initiating and sustaining neuroinflammation. The second is a neuronal modulatory arm: ectonucleotidases, principally CD39/NTPDase1 on microglial and astrocytic membranes and CD73/ecto-5'-nucleotidase on neuronal and astrocytic surfaces, sequentially dephosphorylate extracellular ATP to adenosine, which then acts on postsynaptic A2A–D2 and A1–D1 heteromers on striatal medium spiny neurons

(MSNs), allosterically suppressing dopaminergic receptor responsiveness. These two arms are not sequential but concurrent: P2X7 and adenosine receptor signaling operate in the same tissue simultaneously, with the cellular locus of P2X7 action being glial and the cellular locus of adenosine heteromer action being neuronal. The distinction matters pharmacologically; a P2X7 antagonist would target microglial activation without directly addressing the neuronal heteromer-mediated dopaminergic suppression, whereas an A2A antagonist would restore neuronal D2 responsiveness without suppressing IL-1 β release. Combination strategies targeting both arms are therefore mechanistically motivated.

The P2X7 receptor is the purinergic system's designated high-threshold damage sensor. Unlike the A1 and A2A adenosine receptors, which respond to adenosine generated from ATP under normal metabolic conditions and function as modulatory brakes on excitability, P2X7 is an ATP-gated ionotropic receptor with low affinity for its ligand, physiological ATP concentrations are insufficient to activate it significantly. P2X7 only responds to the supraphysiological ATP concentrations that arise specifically when cellular damage disrupts the strict compartmentalization of this molecule between the intracellular energy pool and the extracellular space [5,12].

At the structural level, P2X7 assembles as a homotrimeric ionotropic channel of unusual mechanistic versatility. At moderate ATP concentrations, it opens as a Ca²⁺-permeable cation channel, mediating rapid depolarization. Under the sustained high-ATP conditions that prevail in zones of SC-induced injury, however, P2X7 undergoes a metamorphic transition: progressive pore dilation generates a non-selective macropore permeable to molecules up to approximately 900 Daltons. This macropore state is pharmacologically critical because it initiates the sequence of intracellular events that activates the NLRP3 inflammasome.

NLRP3 inflammasome assembly is triggered by P2X7-mediated ion flux disturbances: the efflux of intracellular K⁺ through the dilated pore is the primary signal, as potassium depletion below a critical cytosolic threshold is the key licensing step for NLRP3 oligomerization. Once assembled, the inflammasome recruits and activates caspase-1, which executes two critical proteolytic cleavages: pro-IL-1 β to IL-1 β , and pro-IL-18 to IL-18. The secretion of mature IL-1 β into the extracellular space constitutes one of the most potent pro-inflammatory signals in the CNS, initiating a self-amplifying inflammatory cascade: IL-1 β activates microglia into the M1 (pro-inflammatory) phenotype, upregulates NF- κ B signaling, induces further IL-1 β and TNF- α production, disrupts glutamate reuptake by astrocytes by suppressing EAAT expression, and increases blood-brain barrier permeability, each of these effects feeding back to amplify both the initial excitotoxic injury and the inflammatory response to it.

In the context of SC intoxication, this creates a vicious cycle of particular severity: CB1 superagonism to excitotoxicity to ATP release to P2X7 activation to NLRP3/IL-1 β to microglial M1 activation to further glutamate reuptake failure to amplified excitotoxicity to further ATP release. The system locks into a self-sustaining inflammatory state that persists well beyond the pharmacokinetic duration of the SC compound itself, explaining the observation, clinically documented with multiple FUBINACA-generation compounds, that neurological impairment and inflammatory markers remain elevated for days to weeks after apparent compound clearance.

4. The Adenosine Branch: From ATP Catabolism to Purinergic–Dopaminergic Crosstalk

The massive extracellular ATP released during SC-induced injury does not remain as ATP. Ectonucleotidases, specifically the NTPDases (CD39/NTPDase1 is the dominant microglial ectonucleotidase) and ecto-5'-nucleotidase (CD73), sequentially dephosphorylate extracellular ATP through ADP and AMP to adenosine. This enzymatic conversion operates on the timescale of seconds to minutes, meaning that the acute P2X7 activation by the initial ATP surge is temporally followed by a secondary wave of high extracellular adenosine, a purinergic one-two punch that superimposes inhibitory adenosine receptor signaling on top of the inflammatory P2X7 response.

This is where the heterodimerization of adenosine and dopamine receptors becomes mechanistically decisive. In striatopallidal neurons, the neurons of the indirect (no-go) pathway of basal ganglia motor control, the A2A receptor forms a constitutive heterodimer with the dopamine D2 receptor [6,8,10]. This is not a transient interaction but a stable, allosteric molecular complex: the two receptors are physically co-assembled in the plasma membrane, and ligand binding to one protomer propagates conformational changes through the shared transmembrane interface to alter the pharmacological state of the other. When adenosine binds to the A2A protomer, it induces a conformational change that significantly reduces the affinity of the D2 protomer for dopamine, effectively applying a molecular brake on dopaminergic signaling imposed not at the level of dopamine availability but at the level of receptor responsiveness.

Under the extraordinary adenosine concentrations generated by ectonucleotidase-mediated processing of SC-induced ATP release, A2A occupancy on the heterodimer approaches saturation, maximally suppressing D2 responsiveness on striatopallidal neurons. Since D2 activation on these neurons normally inhibits the indirect pathway, the no-go circuit that suppresses movement, A2A-mediated suppression of D2 signaling has the net effect of hyperactivating the indirect pathway, inhibiting dopamine-driven motor facilitation and potentiating the motor suppression that the indirect pathway encodes. The clinical correlate of maximal indirect pathway activation is precisely the profound psychomotor retardation and postural arrest that constitutes the zombie syndrome.

In the complementary direct pathway, the go circuit, striatonigral neurons express D1 receptors in constitutive heteromers with A1 adenosine receptors [7,9,11]. The A1–D1 heterodimer operates by an analogous allosteric mechanism: adenosine binding to the A1 protomer suppresses D1 responsiveness, reducing the drive that D1 activation provides to the direct pathway. Under conditions of massively elevated extracellular adenosine, both heteromers are simultaneously driven toward their maximally inhibitory conformational states, abolishing dopaminergic motor tone in both the direct and indirect pathways simultaneously. The result is a pharmacological suppression of basal ganglia output that no amount of endogenous dopamine can overcome, because the receptor-level affinity for dopamine has been allosterically collapsed by adenosine.

This mechanism offers the first coherent molecular explanation for the zombie syndrome as a direct pharmacological consequence of SC-induced excitotoxicity mediated through the purinergic system, not as an idiosyncratic or unpredictable adverse effect but as the mechanistically predictable outcome of CB1 superagonism driving an excitotoxic cascade that ultimately converges on the A2A–D2 and A1–D1 heterodimer system in the striatum.

5. The Inflammatory Feedback Loop: IL-1 β , the Nigrostriatal Axis, and Sustained Toxicity

The IL-1 β released through the P2X7–NLRP3 axis does not merely amplify neuroinflammation; it exerts direct effects on dopaminergic neurotransmission that complement and reinforce the purinergic-receptor-level suppression described above. IL-1 β receptors are expressed on dopaminergic terminals in the striatum, and IL-1 β signaling at these terminals suppresses dopamine synthesis and release through at least two mechanisms: direct inhibition of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), the rate-limiting enzyme in dopamine biosynthesis, and induction of reactive oxygen species that oxidize dopamine precursors, reducing the availability of active transmitter for vesicular loading. The result is a reduction in the dopamine signal available to compete with adenosine-mediated D2 suppression, a neurochemical double-bind in which dopamine availability falls precisely when receptor-level responsiveness to dopamine is also being allosterically suppressed.

Furthermore, IL-1 β -driven microglial activation in the striatum perpetuates the excitotoxic state by suppressing astrocytic glutamate reuptake. Astrocytes express the excitatory amino acid transporters EAAT1 and EAAT2, which normally maintain synaptic glutamate below excitotoxic concentrations. IL-1 β signaling downregulates EAAT expression at the transcriptional level and suppresses transporter trafficking to the membrane at the post-translational level, reducing the glutamate clearance capacity of the perisynaptic astrocyte precisely when glutamate concentrations

are pathologically elevated. This sustains the excitotoxic drive, maintains high intracellular calcium in affected neurons, and perpetuates the mitochondrial damage and ATP release that feeds the P2X7 cycle, a self-sustaining inflammatory-excitotoxic loop that operates independently of the SC compound once initiated.

The nigrostriatal axis introduces an additional dimension of vulnerability. Dopaminergic terminals from the substantia nigra pars compacta that innervate the putamen are extraordinarily sensitive to oxidative stress, due to the inherent pro-oxidant chemistry of dopamine metabolism (auto-oxidation to quinones, MAO-B-mediated hydrogen peroxide generation) and the high metabolic rate of these axon terminals. SC-induced oxidative stress, arising from peroxynitrite formation, glutathione depletion, and mitochondrial ROS overproduction during excitotoxicity, selectively targets the nigrostriatal terminal field, transiently suppressing dopamine release and potentially causing lasting terminal damage in cases of severe or repeated SC exposure.

6. Other NPS Classes and the Purinergic Axis: P2X7 as a Common Downstream Endpoint

The mechanistic framework developed above, P2X7 as the primary sensor of excitotoxic injury and A2A–D2 heteromer as the molecular transducer of ATP-to-adenosine conversion into dopaminergic motor suppression, is not exclusive to synthetic cannabinoids. It constitutes a general principle of NPS neurotoxicity applicable wherever high-intensity monoaminergic or glutamatergic stimulation produces cellular injury sufficient to generate pathological extracellular ATP concentrations.

Synthetic cathinones (“bath salts”; mephedrone, MDPV, α -PVP, α -PHP) are potent inhibitors of the dopamine, norepinephrine, and serotonin transporters, producing monoamine flooding of a magnitude that exceeds even methamphetamine in some compounds. The sustained dopaminergic and glutamatergic hyper-stimulation they induce generates excitotoxic mitochondrial stress in striatal and cortical neurons. The downstream cellular consequences, mitochondrial Ca^{2+} overload, ROS generation, ATP release, converge on the same P2X7 activation pathway. Clinical reports of synthetic cathinone intoxication include, in severe cases, neurological features, catatonia and prolonged altered consciousness, that suggest purinergic-dopaminergic disruption beyond what monoamine transporter blockade alone would predict.

Phenethylamines of the NBOMe series, 25I-NBOMe, 25C-NBOMe, 25B-NBOMe, produce profound 5-HT2A agonism combined with potent sympathomimetic effects, generating the seizures, hyperthermia, and cardiovascular collapse that distinguish them from classical psychedelics. The seizure activity characteristic of severe NBOMe intoxication is itself a powerful driver of neuronal ATP release through the pannexin-1 hemichannel mechanism, connecting the 5-HT2A/sympathomimetic toxicity to P2X7 activation through the shared final pathway of pathological extracellular ATP.

This convergence suggests that P2X7 activation and the downstream A2A–D2 heteromer disruption may represent a common neurotoxicological endpoint for a broad category of NPS compounds. Toxicological profiling of NPS compounds should therefore include purinergic endpoints, specifically P2X7 activation potential and ectonucleotidase-mediated ATP clearance kinetics, alongside the classical assessment of receptor binding profiles.

7. Pharmacological Implications: From Mechanism to Intervention

The mechanistic framework developed here has practical implications for the acute management of SC intoxication and, more broadly, for the pharmacological approach to NPS-induced neurotoxicity.

P2X7 antagonism emerges as the most direct pharmacological target for interrupting the inflammatory amplification cascade initiated by SC-induced ATP release. Selective P2X7 antagonists, including JNJ-47965567 and AZ11645373, have demonstrated efficacy in reducing NLRP3

inflammasome activation and IL-1 β secretion in rodent models of excitotoxicity, traumatic brain injury, and neuroinflammatory disease. No P2X7 antagonist is currently approved for clinical use, but the pharmacological validation of this target in preclinical SC toxicity models is a tractable and urgent research priority. An alternative approach, targeting NLRP3 directly with the selective inhibitor MCC950, has also demonstrated anti-neuroinflammatory efficacy across multiple injury models and may offer a complementary intervention strategy.

A2A receptor modulation presents a pharmacological paradox in this context. Under normal conditions, A2A antagonism, as achieved by caffeine, releases the brake on dopaminergic motor tone by preventing adenosine-mediated reduction of D2 affinity at the A2A–D2 heterodimer, the therapeutic rationale for A2A antagonists in Parkinson's disease (istradefylline/KW-6002 is approved in Japan and the United States for this indication). In the acute SC intoxication scenario, A2A is being hyperactivated by the adenosine surge generated from excitotoxic ATP release, and A2A antagonism would restore D2 responsiveness and, potentially, motor function. The potential utility of A2A antagonism, or even caffeine administration, as an adjunctive intervention in SC-induced zombie syndrome requires formal investigation, but the mechanistic rationale is coherent and the safety profile of available A2A antagonists is established.

Glutamatergic stabilization at the upstream level of the cascade, preventing the initial excitotoxic glutamate release that drives ATP liberation, represents a complementary strategy. NMDA receptor antagonism (memantine, ketamine at sub-anesthetic doses) could interrupt the excitotoxic sequence before it reaches the purinergic amplification stage.

8. Regulatory and Public Health Dimensions

The pharmacological danger of synthetic cannabinoids is compounded by a regulatory paradox. The structural plasticity of clandestine organic chemistry allows new compound generations to be synthesized faster than scheduling legislation can respond. Compounds scheduled in one jurisdiction are rapidly replaced by analogs that preserve full CB1 agonist efficacy while introducing molecular modifications that restore legal status in the same market. Each generation brings not only a new compound but a new toxicological unknown: the metabolic stability, the active metabolite profile, the specific CB1 binding kinetics, and the P2X7-activation potential of each new compound are undetermined at the moment of street distribution.

The social consequences of this regulatory failure have reached the point where criminal distribution networks, most notably the PCC (Primeiro Comando da Capital) in Brazil and local distributors in New York City, have independently banned synthetic cannabinoid sales from their portfolios, not for public health reasons but because the compounds' toxicity was "bad for business", creating public health catastrophes that attracted intense law enforcement, destabilizing customer populations, and disrupting established drug markets. When the regulatory vacuum is so complete that informal governance by criminal organizations constitutes the operational harm-reduction mechanism, the failure of institutional response is categorical.

The mechanistic framework proposed here, P2X7 as the primary sensor of SC-induced neuroinflammatory injury and A2A–D2 heteromers as the molecular basis of the zombie syndrome, offers a scientific foundation for moving beyond compound-by-compound scheduling toward mechanism-based regulatory criteria. If the capacity to drive excitotoxic ATP release and P2X7 activation is the key determinant of SC neurotoxicity, this capacity can in principle be measured in cell-based assays and incorporated into pre-screening protocols for NPS compounds, providing a mechanistic toxicology framework that anticipates danger rather than merely responding to it.

9. Conclusions

Synthetic cannabinoids represent a category of new psychoactive substances whose toxicity is defined not by their primary pharmacological target, CB1, but by the cascade of secondary molecular events that full CB1 agonism initiates in the context of cellular injury and metabolic stress. The

purinergic signaling system, specifically through P2X7 receptor activation and the constitutive A2A–D2 and A1–D1 heterodimer architecture of striatal neurons, functions as the central amplifier and transducer of this cascade: converting cellular damage into neuroinflammation through the P2X7–NLRP3–IL-1 β axis, and converting the ATP-to-adenosine signal into dopaminergic motor suppression through allosteric heterodimer pharmacology.

This mechanistic model is not merely descriptive but predictive: it identifies specific molecular nodes at which pharmacological intervention could interrupt the toxic cascade, prioritizes P2X7 antagonism and A2A modulation as the most mechanistically direct intervention targets for acute SC poisoning, and proposes that purinergic toxicological endpoints should be incorporated into the profiling of all NPS compounds capable of inducing cellular injury of sufficient magnitude to generate pathological extracellular ATP concentrations.

The zombie syndrome of AMB-FUBINACA is not a pharmacological mystery. It is the predictable consequence of CB1 superagonism filtered through the molecular architecture of the striatal purinergic–dopaminergic interface, an architecture that evolution designed to link metabolic state to motor control, and that synthetic cannabinoids catastrophically subvert.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, F.H.; writing — original draft preparation, F.H.; writing — review and editing, F.H. The author has read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: No new data were created or analyzed in this study. Data sharing is not applicable to this article.

Conflicts of Interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

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