



# HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

*Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse*. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2016 April 15.

Published in final edited form as:

*Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse*. 2015 January ; 41(1): 7–15. doi:10.3109/00952990.2014.976708.

## Exercise-based treatments for substance use disorders: evidence, theory, and practicality

Sarah E. Linke, PhD, MPH<sup>1</sup> and Michael Ussher, PhD<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Family & Preventive Medicine, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA

<sup>2</sup>Division of Population Health Sciences and Education, St George's, University of London, London, UK

### Abstract

**Background**—Epidemiological studies reveal that individuals who report risky substance use are generally less likely to meet physical activity guidelines (with the exception of certain population segments, such as adolescents and athletes). A growing body of evidence suggests that individuals with substance use disorders (SUDs) are interested in exercising and that they may derive benefits from regular exercise, in terms of both general health/fitness and SUD recovery.

**Objectives**—The aims of this paper were to: (i) summarize the research examining the effects of exercise-based treatments for SUDs; (ii) discuss the theoretical mechanisms and practical reasons for investigating this topic; (iii) identify the outstanding relevant research questions that warrant further inquiry; and (iv) describe potential implications for practice.

**Methods**—The following databases were searched for peer-reviewed original and review papers on the topic of substance use and exercise: PubMed Central, MEDLINE, EMBASE, PsycINFO, and CINAHL Plus. Reference lists of these publications were subsequently searched for any missed but relevant manuscripts. Identified papers were reviewed and summarized by both authors.

**Results**—The limited research conducted suggests that exercise may be an effective adjunctive treatment for SUDs. In contrast to the scarce intervention trials to date, a relative abundance of literature on the theoretical and practical reasons supporting the investigation of this topic has been published.

**Conclusions**—Definitive conclusions are difficult to draw due to diverse study protocols and low adherence to exercise programs, among other problems. Despite the currently limited and inconsistent evidence, numerous theoretical and practical reasons support exercise-based treatments for SUDs, including psychological, behavioral, neurobiological, nearly universal safety profile, and overall positive health effects.

---

Address correspondence to Sarah E. Linke, PhD, MPH, Department of Family & Preventive Medicine, University of California, San Diego, 9500 Gilman Drive, Box 0628, La Jolla, CA 92093-0628, USA. Tel: +1 (858) 822 1082. slinke@ucsd.edu.

#### Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of this paper.

## Keywords

Exercise; review; substance use disorders; theoretical mechanisms

---

## Background

Substance use disorders (SUDs), including alcohol use disorder (AUD), are among the most prevalent mental health disorders. Worldwide, up to 15% of individuals are likely to experience a SUD in their lifetime (1). Approximately 250,000 global deaths per year are attributable to illicit drug use, and 2.25 million are attributable to alcohol use (2). Furthermore, individuals with SUDs face elevated risks of multiple comorbid mental and physical health problems (3-9).

Despite widely available treatment programs, typically incorporating elements such as psychoeducation, social support, medication, and/or a 12-Step program (e.g. Alcoholics Anonymous) (10,11), at least 60% of individuals with SUDs are likely to relapse within one year of treatment (11-13), suggesting a need for innovative approaches to treatment.

Insufficient physical inactivity is a growing global epidemic, with estimates ranging from 33% of adults worldwide who are physically inactive (14) to 82% of adults in the US who fail to meet physical activity guidelines (15). Globally, approximately 9% of premature mortality is attributable to insufficient physical activity (16). Epidemiological studies indicate that physical activity levels are generally inversely related to SUDs. However, epidemiological and prospective studies examining the relationship between physical activity and alcohol use are mixed: some studies have found that individuals who report hazardous levels of drinking also report less physical activity (17,18), but others have found the reverse (19-23) or no relationship between these two risk factors (24). One study showed that those engaging in physical activity or related behaviors (e.g. planning physical activity) during treatment for substance use report lower substance use than those not engaged in these activities (25).

The aims of this paper were to: (i) summarize the research examining the effects of exercise-based treatments for SUDs; (ii) discuss the theoretical mechanisms and practical reasons for investigating this topic; (iii) identify the outstanding relevant research questions that warrant further inquiry; and (iv) describe potential implications for practice. Although it draws upon the exercise and smoking cessation literature, including a recently updated Cochrane review that extensively discussed the mechanisms and theoretical reasons for examining exercise-based interventions for smoking cessation (26), this review focuses primarily on substances other than nicotine. Despite known differences between the effects (i.e. physiological, psychological, biological) of alcohol and the various classes of drugs, the remainder of this review focuses on the broader picture of all substances of misuse, which share much common ground at their core.

## Exercise as a treatment for SUDs

A small but growing body of research has examined the potential role of exercise in the treatment of SUDs. Exercise is advocated as an intrinsically rewarding, engaging, healthy, and safe alternative behavior. The acute and chronic effects of exercise have both garnered attention and supporting evidence (27-29); due to this paper's broad scope and the complexities of attempting to disentangle these two areas of research, they will be presented together as necessary. Exercise's broad positive health (30-33), mood-enhancing (34-39), and anxiolytic (40-42) effects; capacity to reduce the acute distress of withdrawal (43-47); and nearly universal safety profile when properly adapted for the individual (30,31) make it an appealing adjunctive intervention to help attain abstinence and prevent relapse among individuals with SUDs.

Evidence suggests that individuals with SUDs are interested in increasing their exercise levels (48) and that they may derive benefits from regular exercise in terms of both general health/fitness and SUD recovery (27,49). Treatment programs rarely incorporate dedicated time for exercise; however, researchers have evaluated exercise programs for those with SUDs.

A systematic review of studies (including eight alcohol and nine illicit drug studies) examining the effects of exercise-based interventions for SUDs on recovery trajectories, physical fitness, and psychosocial variables was recently published (27). This review (27) revealed that multiple studies using exercise-based treatments for SUDs were reported throughout the 1970s and 1980s; few studies were then reported until recent years. Most of the studies evaluated aerobic exercise or sports that primarily utilize the aerobic energy system, although a few examined strength training in lieu of or in addition to aerobic exercise. The majority of the reviewed studies were poor in quality for multiple reasons, including: small sample sizes, uncontrolled study designs (only one alcohol and no drug studies met randomized controlled trial [RCT] criteria), high attrition rates, low exercise adherence and/or lack of or inadequate exercise adherence measurement, insufficient exercise volume and/or intensity, and inadequate length of intervention and/or follow-up period. Exercise was incorporated as an adjunctive treatment in all of the studies; some studies compared exercise with a standard care control group (with or without an exercise treatment waitlist), whereas others only reported pre-post measurements of the exercise group.

Four of the six alcohol studies that reported substance-related outcomes (50-55) found significantly greater improvements in the exercise group (51-54), whereas two studies did not find any group differences (50,55). Secondary psychological outcomes (e.g. depression, anxiety, stress) improved in four (50,56-58) of the six alcohol studies that examined them, whereas the other two studies did not find group differences (53,55). Eight alcohol studies reported significant fitness improvements (50-57), and another study (58) did not find significant changes in fitness. All six of the drug studies that reported substance-related outcomes (47,59-63) found significant improvements. Likewise, secondary psychological and social outcomes (e.g. depression, anxiety, tension, self-concept) improved in all five of the drug studies that reported them (59-62,64). Three drug studies reported fitness

improvements (59,62,63), four did not report fitness outcomes (47,60,61,65), and one did not find significant changes in fitness (64).

Overall, the results suggested that exercise is a potentially promising adjunctive treatment for SUDs for populations with a wide range of characteristics (e.g. ages, SUD severity, inpatient and outpatient treatment). However, a relative dearth of research, particularly quality studies with well-controlled procedures, has been conducted in this area, making definitive conclusions difficult to draw at this point. The numerous carefully controlled exercise-based treatment studies that have recently been conducted (e.g. 47,54,62,63,66) or are currently underway (e.g. 67,68) will help to improve our understanding of the role exercise may play in recovery from SUDs.

Although well-controlled clinical trials in this area are scarce, several preclinical studies have been conducted. These studies provide evidence supporting the role of exercise for the prevention and treatment of SUDs, particularly regarding the mechanisms through which exercise might exert positive effects on SUDs (49). Multiple mechanisms, including physiological, neurobiological, behavioral, psychological, and possibly even epigenetic pathways, have been identified (49,69). Research has shown that exercise evokes reward pathways and neurochemicals in the brain that are similar to those induced by addictive substances, suggesting that exercise treatment effects may be due to a combination of behavioral and biological/physiological processes (69,70). These mechanisms are currently under further investigation in preclinical trials as well as clinical trials utilizing techniques such as fMRI and PET scans to examine the effects of exercise on changes in brain structure and function in the presence of SUDs (69,71).

## Theoretical mechanisms

The primary mechanisms, including psychological, behavioral, and neurobiological pathways, through which exercise may exert positive effects on SUD recovery and relapse prevention have been and continue to be extensively investigated in preclinical (49) and clinical trials (27). These mechanisms, discussed in detail below, are currently under further investigation in trials examining the preconditions and effects of exercise on SUDs.

## Psychological

Cravings often contribute to relapse among individuals with SUDs (72,73); alleviating these cravings with exercise may decrease relapse rates. Thus, exercise is hypothesized to help individuals with SUDs both acutely (i.e. immediately after exercise) and in the long term. A large body of research demonstrates that exercise reduces withdrawal symptoms and negative affect among smokers attempting to quit (29,44,74). One study examined the acute effects of a brief bout of exercise on cravings and urges to drink among recently abstinent individuals with AUDs enrolled in an inpatient treatment program (46). Results indicated that, relative to a 10-minute bout of light intensity exercise, a 10-minute bout of moderate intensity exercise reduced alcohol urges during exercise, although this benefit was not evident immediately after exercise or at 5 or 10 minutes post-exercise. However, because urges decreased within both groups, the sample size was small, and a pure control condition

was not tested, the possibility that any exercise, regardless of intensity, reduces alcohol urges to a similar extent cannot be dismissed.

For example, a control group with no measurable decrease in urges may make the apparent differences between the moderate and light intensity exercise statistically similar. This hypothesis needs to be explored more before any conclusions can be drawn about the acute effects of exercise on urges to drink among individuals with AUDs. Also, if exercise is to have clinical implications for managing urges for alcohol it will need to show benefits not only during exercise but also during the period after exercise.

In the general population, evidence is also strong for both the acute and chronic effects of exercise on positive emotional well-being (38-40,75-79). Research suggests that exercise may reduce the likelihood of relapse among individuals with SUDs by decreasing negative mood/affect and/or increasing positive mood/affect (28,80-83), two related but independent constructs influencing drug and alcohol use (84). Furthermore, engaging in exercise increases exercise self-efficacy, which encourages continued exercise (85), and it may increase self-efficacy for attaining and maintaining abstinence from substance use (86).

The literature also supports an inverse relationship between regular engagement in exercise and mental health problems (87-90), particularly depression and negative mood/ affect (38,39,76,77,89), anxiety (40,76,89,91), and comorbid mental health disorders or symptoms that directly or indirectly influence SUD outcomes and are common among those with SUDs (8,92,93). RCTs have demonstrated significant effects of exercise on reductions in symptoms of depression (39,77) and anxiety (40), although a causal relationship has been questioned (94), and many of the RCTs using exercise as an adjunctive treatment for SUDs have reported improvements in psychological variables (27). The optimal dose (e.g. type, duration, intensity) of exercise required to maximize its acute effects on mood/affect is the topic of ongoing research (79). Studies thus far suggest that the most advantageous dose varies substantially across individuals, depending on personal preferences as well as baseline physical fitness levels (78). Results of these studies will inform interventions for SUD populations.

## Behavioral

Numerous environmental cues, psychological responses, and real or anticipated rewards trigger and reinforce substance use. Although treatments for SUDs address overarching behavioral patterns, the individual in recovery must avoid the automatic behavior (i.e. drinking or using the drug of choice) each time a craving or desire to use arises. The myriad places, activities, times of day, etc., associated with misused substances become environmental cues to use and thus increase the risk of relapse (95,96). Therefore, engaging in a safe, immediately rewarding, easily accessible, and sustainable behavior, such as physical activity, in lieu of drinking or using drugs in the moment when urges arise, may help reduce relapse among individuals with SUDs.

In a broader behavioral sense, exercise tends to be one component of a generally healthy lifestyle that is largely incompatible with substance misuse. Indeed, regular exercise often

goes hand-in-hand with other positive health behaviors such as a healthy diet, good sleep hygiene, as well as with moderate alcohol use and absence of problematic use of illicit and prescription drugs (18,97). Although some individuals with SUDs may lead otherwise healthy lifestyles, substance misuse is strongly associated with other unhealthy lifestyle behaviors (98). For example, individuals with SUDs often report poor dietary habits, such as frequent consumption of unhealthy foods or inadequate intake of food related to appetite loss and/or disinterest in eating (99-101). In contrast, engaging in regular exercise often leads to feelings of enhanced well-being, vitality, energy, and motivation to adopt an overall healthier lifestyle (102).

However, a causal behavioral pathway connecting exercise with decreased substance use has not been drawn. Furthermore, exercise has also been positively associated with alcohol consumption, and some reports have suggested that individuals who engage in competitive sports and other intense exercise behaviors may drink as much or more alcohol than other populations (23,97,103). Thus, a closer look into this potential mechanistic pathway is necessary before any conclusions can be drawn.

## Psychobiological

Although theories positing the brain's role in addictive behaviors have existed for centuries, only relatively recently has technology enabled neuroscientists to actually examine the neurotransmitters, neurocircuitry, and basic structure and function of the various parts of the human brain implicated in addiction research (104-107). For example, neuroimaging techniques such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and positron emission tomography (PET) have been used to examine the brain reward pathways activated upon administration of psychoactive substances (108-112). These techniques have also been utilized to examine the brain's response to exercise behavior (113-116). A relatively small but growing body of literature reporting results from human studies (71,117-119) thus far supports the extensive body of psychobiological research on laboratory animals (49,120-122) demonstrating that exercise and commonly abused substances (e.g. drugs, alcohol) activate similar reward pathways in the brain (43,49,69,122). Collectively, these studies have provided objective data supporting the proposed similarities between psychobiological responses to substance use and exercise behavior, suggesting that these otherwise disparate behaviors may illicit similar responses that make certain individuals prone to abusing or becoming dependent upon them (49,69,95,122-124).

Exercise increases the concentration of certain neurotransmitters, including beta-endorphins, epinephrine, norepinephrine, serotonin, and dopamine (70,119,125,126), which contribute to the experience of exercise-induced reward. The influence of exercise on the serotonergic system may at least partially explain the positive effects exercise has on stress-related psychiatric disorders such as depression and anxiety (127). In addition, exercise evokes hippocampal neurogenesis, a process that also reduces the impact of stress and related psychiatric disorders (118). Drugs and alcohol also activate these and other neurotransmitters (106,107,109,110,128), lending more support to the psychobiological mechanism by which exercise may serve as a replacement for substance use.



Preclinical and clinical research examining the neurobiological mechanisms underlying the proposed relationship between exercise and SUD recovery has acquired the most recent interest among all of the proposed mechanisms (49,69). Due to advances in knowledge, technology, equipment, and other available resources, the currently available and continuously increasing knowledge about the neurobiological mechanisms supports and guides the relatively nascent field of adjunctive, exercise-based interventions for SUDs (27,49,69).

## Outstanding research questions

Based on the evidence reviewed so far, as well as practical considerations, this section discusses the research needs in the area.

### Which types, frequencies and intensities of exercise are best?

Which intensities and types of exercise are best for individuals with SUDs is not clear. Individuals with SUDs are often extremely sedentary; therefore, an initial program of light to moderate intensity activity is likely to be preferable to more vigorous activity, and adherence may be greater for moderate exercise (45,48,129), but this has yet to be established. Comorbidities and stage of recovery from their SUD also needs to be considered. Individuals who abuse amphetamines or cocaine are often undernourished, and those who misuse alcohol often have weak muscles. With such persons, studies may need to consider integrating nutritional advice (130,131). Some of the studies reviewed found benefits with more vigorous exercise (e.g. 127, 49) and a progression to vigorous exercise is often recommended in exercise programs.

However, how easily individuals with SUDs can progress to more vigorous exercise has yet to be determined, and studies that compare the effect of interventions with different exercise intensities and among different SUD populations are needed. Studies also need to examine preferences for exercise, the effect of tailoring the program to these preferences, and the comparative benefits of different modes of exercise. For example, most previous studies have focused on cardiovascular-type exercise, but resistance (i.e. weight) training, yoga, and isometric exercise have all been successfully piloted as aids to smoking cessation and need to be tested in larger trials and with SUDs (26).

As regards the frequency and volume of exercise, research has yet to address the optimum dose of exercise for assisting rehabilitation (27). Substantial evidence supports the acute effects of brief exercise bouts, of as little as 5 minutes duration, on reduced urges to smoke (29,44,74), and research is needed to establish the effects of various durations of exercise for other SUD populations and to determine how regular brief bouts of exercise (e.g. on an “as needed” basis) might be combined with longer, scheduled exercise sessions.

### Is supervised exercise necessary?

The majority of intervention studies have entailed group-based supervised exercise (27), and all the interventions showing a significant impact on long-term abstinence from alcohol or smoking have entailed supervised exercise (27). Among novice exercisers an element of supervised exercise may be useful to ensure initial adoption of regular exercise and to

provide information about safe exercise (e.g. warm-up) and exercise intensities (e.g. using heart-rate monitors). Counseling towards pursuing home-based exercise is also likely to be important for encouraging patients to maintain exercise levels after the initial exercise program ends. Furthermore, integrating exercise into psychoeducational groups or psychotherapy might enhance positive treatment outcomes. For example, therapists could help their patients improve their self-awareness and body perception, exercise safely to cope with negative emotions and cravings, and overcome psychological barriers/resistance.

Individuals with SUDs are likely to have specific barriers to exercise, and these need to be addressed (48,86). In the general population cognitive behavioral techniques are effective for overcoming barriers and for increasing exercise adherence (140). Few SUD studies have entailed cognitive behavioral counseling (60). Techniques such as self-monitoring (e.g. diaries), goal-setting, contingency management, and relapse prevention planning are common strategies (25,141,142). Pedometers and other wearable devices that track physical activity are now commonly used as a motivational tool; these and other motivational aids (e.g. financial incentives), need to be tested with exercise interventions for SUD populations (143,144).

Research studies examining interventions that integrate supervised exercise with physical activity consultations are needed.

### **Do interventions need to be tailored to different stages of SUD treatment?**

Early recovery from drug and alcohol dependence is a major transition, impacting upon close relationships and employment and involving numerous treatment sessions. An exercise program should ideally complement these changes.

Most exercise interventions to date have required patients to alter their substance/alcohol misuse behavior and exercise simultaneously, yet whether or not this strategy is optimal is unclear (132,133). For some individuals the challenge of changing two health behaviors simultaneously may be too demanding, whereas others may prefer to make multiple health behavior changes at once (134,135). Whether involvement in physical activity increases motivation toward managing substance intake or vice versa is also currently unclear.

Among smokers, exercise has often been introduced several weeks before a quit attempt, thereby allowing people to adjust to the demands of increased exercise before starting to quit smoking (26). This timing also allows exercise to play a role in managing cravings during the crucial early days of abstinence, when relapse rates are highest (136,137). Empirical work is required to determine the relative benefits of initiating exercise at different points in the SUD treatment process. For example, those with a severe SUD may not feel able to exercise until they reduce or cease their substance use.

### **How can exercise be integrated with standard SUD treatments?**

Studies assessing whether greater integration between SUD and exercise programs enhances abstinence rates are needed (68). For instance, rather than just proposing exercise as a means for getting fitter and managing weight, exercise could be presented more as a self-control strategy for managing withdrawal symptoms, as well as a way of addressing psychological



and physical harms caused by the SUD (67,138). Exercise may also be used in combination with pharmaceutical interventions, and where these interventions focus on reducing withdrawal symptoms or managing mood, whether exercise further enhances the management of these symptoms needs to be determined (37,139). Integrating exercise into inpatient and outpatient treatment programs as an additional component of standard treatment would enable exercise to be supervised in a well-controlled setting, increasing researchers' ability to examine its efficacy and effectiveness.

### **Are different interventions needed for different sub-groups?**

Exercise interventions need to be tested among SUD populations who might especially benefit from such an intervention. Given the high prevalence of SUDs among people with mental illness, and the established benefits of regular physical activity for mental health, research is needed to examine the role that physical activity may play with this population (140).

Exercise interventions might be particularly appealing to adolescents (141), and controlled trials are needed with young people. Individuals with SUDs who are overweight may have a need for weight control interventions such as exercise, and we have yet to see a trial focusing on this population. Lastly, gender needs to be considered, as men and women may have different preferences for types and intensities of activity (142).

### **Is “exercise addiction” a significant concern for SUD populations?**

Excessive levels of exercise, which has been termed exercise “addiction”, may be detrimental to other aspects of life (e.g. career, social relationships) (123,124). Psychobiological mechanisms underlie the rewarding properties of both SUDs and exercise engagement (123,124,143), and studies examining the extent and nature of exercise addiction among those with SUDs who undergo exercise treatment regimens are needed.

### **Is exercise adherence a problem?**

Despite the known effects of exercise on reward systems in the brain that typically facilitate repeated behavior, maintaining a regular exercise schedule is challenging for the majority of the population, including those with SUDs, suggesting that the interactions among individual psychobiological reactions to exercise, genetics and traits, and social and environmental variables, among others, interact to determine each individual's unique level of motivation to exercise regularly (144-146). In effect, responsiveness to an exercise program examined as a treatment for SUDs would therefore be expected to vary significantly across individuals. Adherence to exercise, then, is the major issue necessary to address in future research with SUD populations, as with most others.

## **Conclusions**

Collectively, the existing body of literature, theoretical support, and practical reasoning suggest that exercise is a potentially promising adjunctive behavioral treatment for SUDs. Alternative and adjunctive treatments for SUDs are particularly warranted since traditional treatment approaches do not always resonate with individuals seeking help and relapse rates

are high (10). Because exercise is a healthy lifestyle behavior that prevents, reduces, and/or treats a wide variety of mental and physical health problems with few negative side-effects, prescribing exercise as a treatment for SUDs is low-risk and potentially helpful for a variety of problems commonly associated with SUDs (30,32,33). However, based on the studies included in a recently published review (27), relatively minimal evidence from well-controlled trials for exercise being effective as an adjunctive treatment for SUDs exists so far. Studies with larger sample sizes, novel techniques to improve exercise adherence, and improved strategies for measuring outcomes are needed to support the relatively strong theoretical and practical reasons to promote the use of adjunctive exercise-based treatments for SUDs.

## References

1. Kessler RC, Angermeyer M, Anthony JC, De Graaf R, Demyttenaere K, Gasquet I, De Girolamo G, et al. Lifetime prevalence and age-of-onset distributions of mental disorders in the World Health Organization's World Mental Health Survey Initiative. *World Psychiatry*. 2007; 6:168–176. [PubMed: 18188442]
2. Degenhardt L, Hall W. Extent of illicit drug use and dependence, and their contribution to the global burden of disease. *The Lancet*. 2012; 379:55–70.
3. Hasin DS, Stinson FS, Ogburn E, Grant BF. Prevalence, correlates, disability, and comorbidity of DSM-IV alcohol abuse and dependence in the United States: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2007; 64:830–842. [PubMed: 17606817]
4. Compton WM, Thomas YF, Stinson FS, Grant BF. Prevalence, correlates, disability, and comorbidity of DSM-IV drug abuse and dependence in the United States: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2007; 64:566–576. [PubMed: 17485608]
5. Kessler RC, Berglund P, Demler O, Jin R, Merikangas KR, Walters EE. Lifetime prevalence and age-of-onset distributions of DSM-IV disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2005; 62:593–602. [PubMed: 15939837]
6. Kessler RC, Chiu WT, Demler O, Walters EE. Prevalence, severity, and comorbidity of 12-month DSM-IV disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2005; 62:617–627. [PubMed: 15939839]
7. Kessler RC, Wang PS. The descriptive epidemiology of commonly occurring mental disorders in the United States. *Annual Review of Public Health*. Palo Alto: Annual Reviews. 2008:115–129.
8. Schuckit MA. Comorbidity between substance use disorders and psychiatric conditions. *Addiction*. 2006; 101:76–88. [PubMed: 16930163]
9. Adrian M, Barry SJ. Physical and mental health problems associated with the use of alcohol and drugs. *Subst Use Misuse*. 2003; 38:1575–1614. [PubMed: 14582571]
10. Schuckit MA. Alcohol use disorders. *The Lancet*. 2009; 373:492–501.
11. McLellan AT, Lewis DC, O'Brien CP, Kleber HD. Drug dependence, a chronic medical illness. *JAMA*. 2000; 284:1689–1695. [PubMed: 11015800]
12. Ramo DE, Brown SA. Classes of substance abuse relapse situations: a comparison of adolescents and adults. *Psychol Addictive Behav*. 2008; 22:372–379.
13. Connors GJ, Maisto SA, Donovan DM. Conceptualizations of relapse: a summary of psychological and psychobiological models. *Addiction*. 1996; 91:S5–S13. [PubMed: 8997777]
14. Hallal PC, Andersen LB, Bull FC, Guthold R, Haskell W, Ekelund U. Global physical activity levels: surveillance progress, pitfalls, and prospects. *Lancet*. 2012; 380:247–257. [PubMed: 22818937]
15. Carlson SA, Fulton JE, Schoenborn CA, Loustalot F. Trend and prevalence estimates based on the 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans. *Am J Prevent Med*. 2010; 39:305–313.

16. Lee IM, Shiroma EJ, Lobelo F, Puska P, Blair SN, Katzmarzyk PT. Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases worldwide: an analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy. *Lancet*. 2012; 380:219–229. [PubMed: 22818936]
17. Liangpunsakul S, Crabb DW, Qi R. Relationship among alcohol intake, body fat, and physical activity: a population-based study. *Ann Epidemiol*. 2010; 20:670–675. [PubMed: 20696406]
18. Berrigan D, Dodd K, Troiano RP, Krebs-Smith SM, Barbash RB. Patterns of health behavior in U.S. adults. *Prevent Med*. 2003; 36:615–623.
19. French MT, Popovici I, Maclean JC. Do alcohol consumers exercise more? Findings from a national survey. *Am J Health Promot*. 2009; 24:2–10. [PubMed: 19750956]
20. Smothers B, Bertolucci D. Alcohol consumption and health-promoting behavior in a U.S. household sample: leisure-time physical activity. *J Stud Alcohol*. 2001; 62:467–476. [PubMed: 11513224]
21. Vickers KS, Patten CA, Lewis BA, Clark MM, Ussher M, Ebbert JO, Croghan IT, et al. Binge drinking in female college students: the association of physical activity, weight concern, and depressive symptoms. *J Am Coll Health*. 2004; 53:133–140. [PubMed: 15571116]
22. Lisha NE, Sussman S, Fapa F, Leventhal AM. Physical activity and alcohol use disorders. *Am J Drug Alcohol Abuse*. 2013; 39:115–120. [PubMed: 22992050]
23. Kwan M, Bobko S, Faulkner G, Donnelly P, Cairney J. Sport participation and alcohol and illicit drug use in adolescents and young adults: a systematic review of longitudinal studies. *Addict Behav*. 2014; 39:497–506. [PubMed: 24290876]
24. Schuit AJ, van Loon AJM, Tijhuis M, Ocké MC. Clustering of lifestyle risk factors in a general adult population. *Prevent Med*. 2002; 35:219–224.
25. Weinstock J, Barry D, Petry N. Exercise-related activities are associated with positive outcome in contingency management treatment for substance use disorders. *Addict Behav*. 2008; 3:1072–1075. [PubMed: 18486352]
26. Ussher, MH.; Taylor, AH.; Faulkner, GEJ. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd; 2014. Exercise interventions for smoking cessation.
27. Zschucke E, Heinz A, Strohle A. Exercise and physical activity in the therapy of substance use disorders. *Scientific World J*. 2012
28. Hoffman MD, Hoffman DR. Exercisers achieve greater acute exercise-induced mood enhancement than nonexercisers. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil*. 2008; 89:358–363.
29. Roberts V, Maddison R, Simpson C, Bullen C, Prapavessis H. The acute effects of exercise on cigarette cravings, withdrawal symptoms, affect, and smoking behaviour: systematic review update and meta-analysis. *Psychopharmacology*. 2012; 222:1–15. [PubMed: 22585034]
30. Haskell WL, Lee IM, Pate RR, Powell KE, Blair SN, Franklin BA, Macera CA, et al. Physical activity and public health: updated recommendation for adults from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. *Med Sci Sports Exercise*. 2007; 39:1423–1434.
31. Nelson M, Rejeski W, Blair S, Duncan P, Judge J, King A, Macera CA, Castaneda-Sceppa C. Physical activity and public health in older adults: recommendation from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. *Med Sci Sports Exercise*. 2007; 39:1435–1445.
32. Martin C, Church T, Thompson A, Earnest C, Blair S. Exercise dose and quality of life. *Arch Internal Med*. 2009; 169:269–278. [PubMed: 19204218]
33. Hillman C, Erickson K, Kramer A. Be smart, exercise your heart: exercise effects on brain and cognition. *Nature Rev Neurosci*. 2008; 9:58–65. [PubMed: 18094706]
34. Sparling P, Giuffrida A, Pilmelli D, Rosskopf L, Dietrich A. Exercise activates the endocannabinoid system. *NeuroReport*. 2003; 14:2209–2211. [PubMed: 14625449]
35. Dunn AL, Trivedi MH, Kampert JB, Clark CG, Chambliss HO. Exercise treatment for depression: efficacy and dose response. *Am J Prevent Med*. 2005; 28:1–8.
36. Blumenthal JA, Babyak MA, Doraiswamy PM, Watkins L, Hoffman BM, Barbour KA, Herman S, et al. Exercise and pharmacotherapy in the treatment of major depressive disorder. *Psychosomatic Med*. 2007; 69:587–596.

37. Trivedi M, Greer T, Grannemann B, Chambliss H, Jordan A. Exercise as an augmentation strategy for treatment of major depression. *J Psychiatric Practice*. 2006; 12:205–213. [PubMed: 16883145]
38. Daley AJ. Exercise and depression: a review of reviews. *J Clin Psychol Medical Settings*. 2008; 15:140–147.
39. Rethorst CD, Wipfli BM, Landers DM. The antidepressive effects of exercise: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Sports Med*. 2009; 39:491–511. [PubMed: 19453207]
40. Wipfli BM, Rethorst CD, Landers DM. The anxiolytic effects of exercise: a meta-analysis of randomized trials and dose-response analysis. *J Sport Exercise Psychol*. 2008; 30:392–410.
41. Breus M, O'Connor P. Exercise induced anxiolysis: a test of the “time out” hypothesis in high-anxious females. *Med Sci Sports Exercise*. 1998; 30:1107–1112.
42. Abrantes AM, Strong DR, Cohn A, Cameron AY, Greenberg BD, Mancebo MC, Brown RA. Acute changes in obsessions and compulsions following moderate-intensity aerobic exercise among patients with obsessive-compulsive disorder. *J Anxiety Disorders*. 2009; 23:923–927.
43. Smith MA, Schmidt KT, Iordanou JC, Mustroph ML. Aerobic exercise decreases the positive-reinforcing effects of cocaine. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2008; 98:129–135. [PubMed: 18585870]
44. Taylor AH, Ussher MH, Faulkner G. The acute effects of exercise on cigarette cravings, withdrawal symptoms, affect and smoking behaviour: a systematic review. *Addiction*. 2007; 102:534–543. [PubMed: 17286639]
45. Williams DM, Dunsiger S, Whiteley JA, Ussher MH, Ciccolo JT, Jennings EG. Acute effects of moderate intensity aerobic exercise on affective withdrawal symptoms and cravings among women smokers. *Addict Behav*. 2011; 36:894–897. [PubMed: 21543158]
46. Ussher M, Sampuran A, Doshi R, West R, Drummond D. Acute effect of a brief bout of exercise on alcohol urges. *Addiction*. 2004; 99:1542–1547. [PubMed: 15585045]
47. Buchowski MS, Meade NN, Charboneau E, Park S, Dietrich MS, Cowan RL, Martin PR. Aerobic exercise training reduces cannabis craving and use in non-treatment seeking cannabis-dependent adults. *Public Library of Science ONE*. 2011; 6:e17465. [PubMed: 21408154]
48. Abrantes AM, Battle CL, Strong DR, Ing E, Dubreuil ME, Gordon A, Brown RA. Exercise preferences of patients in substance abuse treatment. *Mental Health Phys Activity*. 2011; 4:79–87.
49. Smith MA, Lynch WJ. Exercise as a potential treatment for drug abuse: evidence from preclinical studies. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*. 2012; 2:1–10.
50. Gary V, Guthrie D. The effect of jogging on physical fitness and self-concept in hospitalized alcoholics. *Quart J Stud Alcohol*. 1972; 33:1073–1078. [PubMed: 4648626]
51. Sinyor D, Brown T, Rostant L, Seraganian P. The role of a physical fitness program in the treatment of alcoholism. *J Stud Alcohol*. 1982; 43:380–386. [PubMed: 7121004]
52. Murphy TJ, Pagano RR, Marlatt AG. Lifestyle modification with heavy alcohol drinkers: effects of aerobic exercise and meditation. *Addict Behav*. 1986; 11:175–186. [PubMed: 3526824]
53. Ermalinski R, Hanson PG, Lubin B, Thornby JI, Nahormek PA. Impact of a body-mind treatment component on alcoholic inpatients. *J Psychosoc Nursing Mental Health Services*. 1997; 35:39–45.
54. Brown RA, Abrantes AM, Read JP, Marcus BH, Jakicic J, Strong DR, Oakley JR, et al. Aerobic exercise for alcohol recovery. *Behav Modification*. 2009; 33:220–249.
55. Donaghy, ME. The investigation of exercise as an adjunct to the treatment and rehabilitation of the problem drinker. Glasgow, UK: University of Glasgow; 1977.
56. Frankel A, Murphy J. Physical fitness and personality in alcoholism: canonical analysis of measures before and after treatment. *Quart J Stud Alcohol*. 1974; 35:1272–1278. [PubMed: 4155516]
57. Weber A. Running as treatment for hospitalized alcoholics: an experimental approach. *Suchtgefahren*. 1984; 30:160–167.
58. Palmer J, Vacc N, Epstein J. Adult inpatient alcoholics: physical exercise as a treatment intervention. *J Stud Alcohol*. 1988; 49:418–421. [PubMed: 3216644]
59. Collingwood T, Reynolds R, Kohl H, Smith W, Sloan S. Physical fitness effects on substance abuse risk factors and use patterns. *J Drug Educat*. 1991; 21:73–84.

60. Burling TA, Seidner AL, Robbins-Sisco D, Krinsky A, Hanser SB. Batter up! Relapse prevention for homeless veteran substance abusers via softball team participation. *J Subst Abuse*. 1992; 4:407–413. [PubMed: 1338187]
61. Li M, Chen K, Mo Z. Use of qigong therapy in the detoxification of heroin addicts. *Alternative Therapies Health Med*. 2002; 8:50–59.
62. Roessler KK. Exercise treatment for drug abuse – a Danish pilot study. *Scan J Public Health*. 2010; 38:664–669.
63. Brown RA, Abrantes AM, Read JP, Marcus BH, Jakicic J, Strong DR, Oakley JR, et al. A pilot study of aerobic exercise as an adjunctive treatment for drug dependence. *Mental Health Phys Activity*. 2010; 3:27–34.
64. Palmer JA, Palmer LK, Michiels K, Thigpen B. Effects of type of exercise on depression in recovering substance abusers. *Perceptual Motor Skills*. 1995; 80:523–530. [PubMed: 7675585]
65. Williams DJ. Exercise and substance abuse treatment: predicting program completion. *Corrections Compendium*. 2000; 25:4–7.
66. Brown RA, Abrantes AM, Minami H, Read JP, Marcus BH, Jakicic JM, Strong DR, et al. A preliminary, randomized trial of aerobic exercise for alcohol dependence. *J Subst Abuse Treat*. 2014; 47:1–9. [PubMed: 24666811]
67. Dolezal BA, Chudzynski J, Storer TW, Abrazado M, Penate J, Mooney L, Dickerson D, et al. Eight weeks of exercise training improves fitness measures in methamphetamine-dependent individuals in residential treatment. *J Addict Med*. 2013; 7:122–128. [PubMed: 23552821]
68. Trivedi M, Greer T, Grannemann B, Church T, Somoza E, Blair S, Szapocznik J, et al. Stimulant Reduction Intervention using Dosed Exercise (STRIDE) – CTN 0037: study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials*. 2011; 12:206. [PubMed: 21929768]
69. Lynch WJ, Peterson AB, Sanchez V, Abel J, Smith MA. Exercise as a novel treatment for drug addiction: a neurobiological and stage-dependent hypothesis. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 2013; 37:1622–1644. [PubMed: 23806439]
70. Boecker H, Sprenger T, Spilker ME, Henriksen G, Koppenhoefer M, Wagner KJ, Valet M, et al. The runner’s high: opioidergic mechanisms in the human brain. *Cerebral Cortex*. 2008; 18:2523–2531. [PubMed: 18296435]
71. Janse Van Rensburg K, Taylor A, Hodgson T, Benattayallah A. Acute exercise modulates cigarette cravings and brain activation in response to smoking-related images: an fMRI study. *Psychopharmacology*. 2009; 203:589–598. [PubMed: 19015835]
72. Baker TB, Japuntich SJ, Hogle JM, McCarthy DE, Curtin JJ. Pharmacologic and behavioral withdrawal from addictive drugs. *Curr Directions Psychological Sci*. 2006; 15:232–236.
73. Heilig M, Egli M, Crabbe JC, Becker HC. Acute withdrawal, protracted abstinence and negative affect in alcoholism: are they linked? *Addiction Biol*. 2010; 15:169–184.
74. Haasova M, Warren FC, Ussher M, Janse Van Rensburg K, Faulkner G, Cropley M, Byron-Daniel J, et al. The acute effects of physical activity on cigarette cravings: systematic review and meta-analysis with individual participant data. *Addiction*. 2013; 108:26–37. [PubMed: 22861822]
75. Milani RV, Lavie CJ. Reducing psychosocial stress: a novel mechanism of improving survival from exercise training. *Am J Med*. 2009; 122:931–938. [PubMed: 19682669]
76. Carek P, Laibstain S, Carek S. Exercise for the treatment of depression and anxiety. *Int J Psychiatry Med*. 2011; 41:15–28. [PubMed: 21495519]
77. Rimer J, Dwan K, Lawlor DA, Greig CA, McMurdo M, Morley W, Mead GE. Exercise for depression. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Rev*. 2012; 7 CD004366.
78. Ekkekakis P, Petruzzello SJ. Acute aerobic exercise and affect: current status, problems and prospects regarding dose-response. *Sports Med*. 1999; 28:337–374. [PubMed: 10593646]
79. Williams DM. Exercise, affect, and adherence: an integrated model and a case for self-paced exercise. *J Sport Exercise Psychol*. 2008; 30:471–496.
80. Dua J, Hargreaves L. Effect of aerobic exercise on negative affect, positive affect, stress, and depression. *Perceptual Motor Skills*. 1992; 75:355–361. [PubMed: 1408588]
81. Yeung RR. The acute effects of exercise on mood state. *J Psychosomatic Res*. 1996; 40:123–141.



82. Daniel M, Martin AD, Carter J. Opiate receptor blockade by naltrexone and mood state after acute physical activity. *Br J Sports Med.* 1992; 26:111–115. [PubMed: 1320440]
83. Thirlaway K, Benton D. Participation in physical activity and cardiovascular fitness have different effects on mental health and mood. *J Psychosom Res.* 1992; 36:657–665. [PubMed: 1404000]
84. Cheetham A, Allen NB, Yücel M, Lubman DI. The role of affective dysregulation in drug addiction. *Clin Psychol Rev.* 2010; 30:621–634. [PubMed: 20546986]
85. Marcus BH, Owen N. Motivational readiness, self-efficacy, and decision making for exercise. *J Applied Soc Psychol.* 1992; 22:3–16.
86. Read JP, Brown RA, Marcus BH, Kahler CW, Ramsey SE, Dubreuil ME, Jakicic JM, Francione C. Exercise attitudes and behaviors among persons in treatment for alcohol use disorders. *J Subst Abuse Treat.* 2001; 21:199–206. [PubMed: 11777669]
87. Lavie CJ, Milani RV, O’Keefe JH, Lavie TJ. Impact of exercise training on psychological risk factors. *Progress Cardiovasc Dis.* 2011; 53:464–470.
88. Salmon P. Effects of physical exercise on anxiety, depression, and sensitivity to stress: a unifying theory. *Clin Psychol Rev.* 2001; 21:33–61. [PubMed: 11148895]
89. Ströhle A. Physical activity, exercise, depression and anxiety disorders. *J Neural Transmission.* 2009; 116:777–784.
90. Paluska SA, Schwenk TL. Physical activity and mental health: current concepts. *Sports Med.* 2000; 29:167–180. [PubMed: 10739267]
91. Smits, JAJ.; Berry, AC.; Powers, MB.; Greer, TL.; Otto, MW. The promise of exercise interventions for the anxiety disorders. In: Zvolensky, MJ.; Smits, JAJ., editors. *Anxiety in health behaviors and physical illness.* New York: Springer; 2008. p. 81-104.
92. Grant BF, Stinson FS, Dawson DA, Chou SP, Dufour MC, Compton W, Pickering RP, Kaplan K. Prevalence and co-occurrence of substance use disorders and independent mood and anxiety disorders: results from the National Epidemiologic Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2004; 61:807–816. [PubMed: 15289279]
93. Weinberger AH, Desai RA, McKee SA. Nicotine withdrawal in U.S. smokers with current mood, anxiety, alcohol use, and substance use disorders. *Drug Alcohol Depend.* 2010; 108:7–12. [PubMed: 20006451]
94. De Moor MM, Boomsma DI, Stubbe JH, Willemsen G, de Geus EC. Testing causality in the association between regular exercise and symptoms of anxiety and depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2008; 65:897–905. [PubMed: 18678794]
95. Sinha R, Li CS. Imaging stress- and cue-induced drug and alcohol craving: association with relapse and clinical implications. *Drug Alcohol Rev.* 2007; 26:25–31. [PubMed: 17364833]
96. Fuchs RA, Lasseter HC, Ramirez DR, Xie X. Relapse to drug seeking following prolonged abstinence: the role of environmental stimuli. *Drug Discov Today Dis Models.* 2008; 5:251–258. [PubMed: 20016771]
97. Terry-McElrath YM, O’Malley PM. Substance use and exercise participation among young adults: parallel trajectories in a national cohort-sequential study. *Addiction.* 2011; 106:1855–1865. discussion 1866–1867. [PubMed: 21561496]
98. Kvaavik E, Batty GD, Ursin G, Huxley R, Gale CR. Influence of individual and combined health behaviors on total and cause-specific mortality in men and women: the United Kingdom health and lifestyle survey. *Arc Internal Med.* 2010; 170:711–718.
99. Valencia-Martín JL, Galán I, Rodríguez-Artalejo F. The association between alcohol consumption patterns and adherence to food consumption guidelines. *Alcoholism. Clin Experim Res.* 2011; 35:2075–2081.
100. Harrop EN, Marlatt GA. The comorbidity of substance use disorders and eating disorders in women: prevalence, etiology, and treatment. *Addict Behav.* 2010; 35:392–398. [PubMed: 20074863]
101. Best D, Lehmann P, Gossop M, Harris J, Noble A, Strang J. Eating too little, smoking and drinking too much: wider lifestyle problems among methadone maintenance patients. *Addict Res Theory.* 1998; 6:489–498.
102. Puetz TW, O’Connor PJ, Dishman RK. Effects of chronic exercise on feelings of energy and fatigue: a quantitative synthesis. *Psycholog Bull.* 2006; 132:866–876.



103. Moore MJ, Werch CE. Sport and physical activity participation and substance use among adolescents. *J Adolesc Health*. 2005; 36:486–493. [PubMed: 15901513]
104. Buckland HT, Cunningham SL. Addiction and the brain. *Am Biol Teacher*. 2013; 75:136–137.
105. Volkow ND, Li TK. Drug addiction: the neurobiology of behaviour gone awry. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2004; 5:963–970. [PubMed: 15550951]
106. Volkow ND, Wang G-J, Fowler JS, Tomasi D, Telang F, Baler R. Addiction: decreased reward sensitivity and increased expectation sensitivity conspire to overwhelm the brain's control circuit. *BioEssays*. 2010; 32:748–755. [PubMed: 20730946]
107. Gardner EL. Addiction and brain reward and antireward pathways. *Adv Psychosom Med*. 2011; 30:22–60. [PubMed: 21508625]
108. Adinoff B. Neurobiologic processes in drug reward and addiction. *Harvard Rev Psychiatry*. 2004; 12:305–320.
109. Volkow ND, Wang G-J, Fowler JS, Tomasi D, Telang F. Addiction: beyond dopamine reward circuitry. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2011; 108:15037–15042. [PubMed: 21402948]
110. Volkow ND, Fowler JS, Wang G-J, Goldstein RZ. Role of dopamine, the frontal cortex and memory circuits in drug addiction: insight from imaging studies. *Neurobiol Learning Memory*. 2002; 78:610–624.
111. Volkow ND, Fowler JS, Wang G, Swanson JM, Telang F. Dopamine in drug abuse and addiction: results of imaging studies and treatment implications. *Arch Neurol*. 2007; 64:1575–1579. [PubMed: 17998440]
112. Volkow ND, Fowler JS, Wang GJ, Baler R, Telang F. Imaging dopamine's role in drug abuse and addiction. *Neuropharmacology*. 2009; 56(Suppl 1):3–8. [PubMed: 18617195]
113. Brené S, Bjørnebekk A, Åberg E, Mathé AA, Olson L, Werme M. Running is rewarding and antidepressive. *Physiol Behav*. 2007; 92:136–140. [PubMed: 17561174]
114. Bothe N, Zschucke E, Dimeo F, Heinz A, Wustenberg T, Strohle A. Acute exercise influences reward processing in highly trained and untrained men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc*. 2013; 45:583–591. [PubMed: 23059859]
115. Evero N, Hackett LC, Clark RD, Phelan S, Hagobian TA. Aerobic exercise reduces neuronal responses in food reward brain regions. *J Appl Physiol*. 1985; 112:1612–1619. [PubMed: 22383502]
116. Herrmann SD, Martin LE, Breslin FJ, Honas JJ, Willis EA, Lepping RJ, Gibson CA, et al. Neuroimaging studies of factors related to exercise: rationale and design of a 9 month trial. *Contemp Clin Trials*. 2014; 37:58–68. [PubMed: 24291150]
117. Weicker H, Struder H. Influence of exercise on serotonergic neuromodulation in the brain. *J Amino Acids*. 2001; 20:35–47.
118. Yau S-Y, Lau BW-M, So K-F. Adult hippocampal neurogenesis: a possible way how physical exercise counteracts stress. *Cell Transplantat*. 2011; 20:99–111.
119. Heitkamp HC, Schmid K, Scheib K. Beta-endorphin and adrenocorticotrophic hormone production during marathon and incremental exercise. *Eur J Appl Physiol Occupat Physiol*. 1993; 66:269–274.
120. Heyes MP, Garnett ES, Coates G. Nigrostriatal dopaminergic activity is increased during exhaustive exercise stress in rats. *Life Sci*. 1988; 42:1537–1542. [PubMed: 3352465]
121. Di Chiara G, Imperato A. Drugs abused by humans preferentially increase synaptic dopamine concentrations in the mesolimbic system of freely moving rats. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1988; 85:5274–5278. [PubMed: 2899326]
122. Lynch WJ, Piehl KB, Acosta G, Peterson AB, Hemby SE. Aerobic exercise attenuates reinstatement of cocaine-seeking behavior and associated neuroadaptations in the prefrontal cortex. *Biolog Psychiatry*. 2010; 68:774–777.
123. Adams J, Kirkby RJ. Excessive exercise as an addiction: a review. *Addict Res Theory*. 2002; 10:415–437.
124. Adams J. Understanding exercise dependence. *J Contemporary Psychother*. 2009; 39:231–240.

125. Bortz WM, Angwin P, Mefford IN, Border MR, Noyce N, Barchas JD. Catecholamines, dopamine, and endorphin levels during extreme exercise. *New Eng J Med.* 1981; 305:466–467. [PubMed: 7254293]
126. Mathes WF, Nehrenberg DL, Gordon R, Hua K, Garland T Jr, Pomp D. Dopaminergic dysregulation in mice selectively bred for excessive exercise or obesity. *Behav Brain Res.* 2010; 210:155–163. [PubMed: 20156488]
127. Greenwood BN, Fleshner M. Exercise, stress resistance, and central serotonergic systems. *Exercise Sport Sci Rev.* 2011; 39:140–149.
128. Ikemoto S. Dopamine reward circuitry: two projection systems from the ventral midbrain to the nucleus accumbens-olfactory tubercle complex. *Brain Res Rev.* 2007; 56:27–78. [PubMed: 17574681]
129. Williams DM, Whiteley JA, Dunsiger S, Jennings EG, Albrecht AE, Ussher MH, Ciccolo JT, et al. Moderate intensity exercise as an adjunct to standard smoking cessation treatment for women: a pilot study. *Psychol Addict Behav.* 2010; 24:349–354. [PubMed: 20565161]
130. Wiss, D.; Waterhous, T. Nutrition therapy for eating disorders, substance use disorders, and addictions. In: Brewerton, TD.; Baker Dennis, A., editors. *Eating disorders, addictions and substance use disorders.* Berlin: Springer Heidelberg; 2014. p. 509-532.
131. Addolorato, G.; Leggio, L.; D'Angelo, C.; Ferrulli, A.; Mirijello, A.; Cardone, S.; Leso, V., et al. Physical considerations for treatment complications of alcohol and drug use and misuse. In: Johnson, BA., editor. *Addiction Medicine.* New York: Springer; 2011. p. 1115-1145.
132. Everson-Hock ES, Taylor AH, Ussher M, Faulkner G. A qualitative perspective on multiple health behaviour change: views of smoking cessation advisors who promote physical activity. *J Smoking Cessation.* 2010; 5:7–14.
133. Prochaska JJ, Spring B, Nigg CR. Multiple health behavior change research: an introduction and overview. *Prevent Med.* 2008; 46:181–188.
134. Vandelanotte C, Reeves MM, Brug J, De Bourdeaudhuij I. A randomized trial of sequential and simultaneous multiple behavior change interventions for physical activity and fat intake. *Prev Med.* 2008; 46:232–237. [PubMed: 17707079]
135. King A, Castro C, Buman M, Hekler E, Urizar G Jr, Ahn D. Behavioral impacts of sequentially versus simultaneously delivered dietary plus physical activity interventions: the CALM trial. *Annals Behav Med.* 2013; 46:157–168.
136. Zvolensky MJ, Stewart SH, Vujanovic AA, Gavric D, Steeves D. Anxiety sensitivity and anxiety and depressive symptoms in the prediction of early smoking lapse and relapse during smoking cessation treatment. *Nicotine Tobacco Res.* 2009; 11:323–331.
137. Zhou X, Nonnemaker J, Sherrill B, Gilseman AW, Coste F, West R. Attempts to quit smoking and relapse: factors associated with success or failure from the ATTEMPT cohort study. *Addict Behav.* 2009; 34:365–373. [PubMed: 19097706]
138. Dolezal BA, Chudzynski J, Dickerson D, Mooney L, Rawson RA, Garfinkel A, Cooper CB. Exercise training improves heart rate variability after methamphetamine dependency. *Med Sci Sports Exerc.* 2014; 46:1057–1066. [PubMed: 24162556]
139. Rawson RA, Chudzynski J, Gonzales R, Mooney L, Dickerson D, Ang A, Dolezal B, Cooper CB. Impact of exercise on mood symptoms among abstinent methamphetamine-dependent individuals. in review.
140. Arbour-Nicitopoulos KP, Faulkner GE, Hsin A, Selby P. A pilot study examining the acute effects of exercise on cigarette cravings and affect among individuals with serious mental illness. *Mental Health Phys Activity.* 2011; 4:89–94.
141. Field T, Diego M, Sanders CE. Exercise is positively related to adolescents' relationships and academics. *Adolescence.* 2001; 36:105–110. [PubMed: 11407627]
142. Burton NW, Khan A, Brown WJ. How, where and with whom? Physical activity context preferences of three adult groups at risk of inactivity. *Br J Sports Med.* 2012; 46:1125–1131. [PubMed: 22267568]
143. Hausenblas HA, Symons Downs D. Exercise dependence: a systematic review. *Psychol Sport Exercise.* 2002; 3:89–123.

144. Wankel LM. The importance of enjoyment to adherence and psychological benefits from physical activity. *Int J Sport Psychol.* 1993; 24:151–169.
145. Ryan R, Frederick C, Lepes D, Rubio N, Sheldon K. Intrinsic motivation and exercise adherence. *Int J Sport Psychol.* 1997; 28:335–354.
146. Oman RF, King AC. The effect of life events and exercise program format on the adoption and maintenance of exercise behavior. *Health Psychol.* 2000; 19:605–612. [PubMed: 11129364]

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript