

Addiction Treatment in Context: Principles for a System of Just, Accessible, and Voluntary Care

Position Statement

Veuillez noter : la traduction française de cette déclaration est disponible ici.

Published December 30, 2025

Updated January 7, 2026

This statement outlines the Canadian Drug Policy Coalition's organizational perspective on addiction treatment: what it is, where it currently fails, and how it could meet the needs of people and communities. We affirm those who struggle with their relationship to substances. So too we affirm those who love and care for people who struggle. We believe that everyone should be able to access formal support if they desire to. Concurrently, we challenge the idea that addiction treatment *alone*—especially when it is inaccessible, of poor quality, culturally unresponsive, or coercive—can address either the social conditions that influence substance use, or the drug policies that drive substance-related harms.

Cultural attitudes exert considerable influence over public conversations about substance use. While there is growing [recognition](#) that substance use exists on a spectrum and is inseparable from social, economic and personal factors, “addiction” is still widely discussed as an individual phenomenon.ⁱ What is more, we observe with concern that our collective policy and attitudinal responses to deaths from the unregulated drug crisis increasingly focus narrowly on treatment—especially residential treatment—as the primary or only solution.

We can do better. More humane and effective responses are possible. Collectively, we can choose to shift our drug policies to focus on the best possible public health outcomes. Alongside this urgent and necessary upstream work, we can take immediate practical steps to improve substance use treatment and ensure all people can access high quality, responsive treatment services as part of universal healthcare.

This statement is intended to prompt decision-makers, advocates, and the public to critically reflect on Canada’s addiction treatment system. We hope it will guide readers to consider how governmental approaches to addiction could centre well-being, dignity, choice, and equity.

This statement can be attributed to the Canadian Drug Policy Coalition as an organization and does not necessarily represent the many organizations and individuals with whom we collaborate.

Context: What we mean when we talk about addiction

Despite its prevalence in public conversation, addiction is a complicated phenomenon with no agreed-upon scientific [definition](#).ⁱⁱ Popular understanding of it in Western thought has [evolved over time](#).^{iiiiiv} For instance, 16th century Evangelicals discouraged addiction to sinful traits such as pride but praised those who were addicted to serving [God](#).^{vi} Later, after addiction became associated with substance use, British cultural commentators [wrote of it](#) as being a “private vice” for the

wealthy but an act of “political mischief” by the labouring [poor](#).^{vii} This “moral model” of addiction evolved in the mid-19th century when the American Psychiatric Association classified alcoholism and drug addiction under “sociopathic personality disturbance” in the [first](#) version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. It was not until 1980, and the publication of the [third](#) version of the DSM, that the term “substance use disorder” (SUD) was introduced and called a mental disorder.^{viii}

More recently, some have framed addiction as a chronic, relapsing brain disease. The “brain disease model” [theorizes](#) that addiction is primarily [caused](#) by biological processes that originate in the endocrine, neurotransmitter, and nervous systems and cause structural changes in the brain.^{ix} While there is evidence that substance use can [lead](#) to these outcomes, claims that addiction is primarily [caused](#) by biology are controversial among many [researchers and clinicians](#).^{xi}

We offer this abridged history to highlight that addiction is not like other illnesses. Most physical diseases have biological markers and can be detected by medical imaging or analyses of blood and urine. Conversely, addiction or “substance use disorder” diagnoses are based on self-reported behaviour and clinical interviews. These methods can be unreliable if they are influenced by the biases of a given assessor. Given the role of subjective observation in diagnosis, the ways that we define and discuss addiction therefore may reflect prevailing cultural attitudes as much as they do [scientific advancements](#).^{xiiiiii} Socioeconomic factors, cultural context, and the legal status of a given substance exert significant influence over who gets diagnosed with a substance use disorder.

We acknowledge the many ways that drugs can impact the mind and body. Some people struggle enormously with their relationship to substances, and experience significant physical, psychological, and relational harm as a result. These lived realities emphasize the importance of ensuring evidence-based, high-quality support is accessible for those who seek it. However, it is important to remember that being diagnosed with a substance use disorder is not a neutral, objective process.

Additionally, we emphasize that the legal status of a given substance shapes dominant narratives about it. Much of the confusion surrounding the nature of addiction stems from some substances being illegal. This can make it difficult to separate the effects of problematic drug use from the effects of problematic drug [policy](#).^{xiv} Drug prohibition and criminalization contribute to an atmosphere of [pervasive distrust of people](#) who use illegal drugs (PWUD) while promoting the inaccurate misconception that [all](#) illegal drug use is a symptom of and/or results in addiction.^{xvviixviiixviii} We caution against this assumption: Research demonstrates that most PWUD do not meet the clinical criteria [for a SUD](#).^{xixxx} Of those who do, many develop a more moderate relationship with substances without ever engaging with addiction [treatment services](#).^{xxi xxii} Population-level public health data also suggest that rates of SUD diagnoses in Canada, though regionally disparate, have remained fairly stable over [a decade](#).^{xxixiiii} This contrasts with rates of fatal and non-fatal overdose over the same period, which increased significantly. There is broad [consensus](#) among experts that the key [driver](#) of overdose and overdose fatalities is the toxicity and unpredictability of the unregulated drug supply.^{xxiv xxv}

Given these facts, we maintain that: a) we must understand patterns of substance use as well as definitions of addiction within the context of the legal, economic, social, and cultural factors that influence both; b) individuals must be empowered to decide if their relationship with substance use is a concern and what to do about it, and; c) discussion and debate about addiction must encapsulate contextual factors - foremost among them, drug-related laws and policies.

Substance use in context: Supporting people by addressing social inequalities

Almost everywhere, rates of SUD diagnoses are [distributed](#) unevenly across different populations.^{xxvi} Some of the demographic characteristics associated with an increased likelihood of being diagnosed with a SUD include being [poor or homeless](#), having [Indigenous ancestry](#), belonging to a sexual or gender [minority group](#), and having a [disability](#).^{xxvii xxviii xxix xxxi} The reasons for this are complex: although it is not entirely clear that these populations always consume more substances than others, it is well documented that social inequalities contribute to living conditions that can make substance use functional or [desirable](#).^{xxxi} For example, some people experiencing homelessness report using stimulants to stay awake due to the fear of being assaulted and having their belongings [stolen](#).^{xxxi} Stigmatization at the intersections of drug use and various forms of oppression, particularly ongoing colonial oppression and structural racism, also drives [some drug use](#).^{xxxiv xxxv xxxvi} We therefore recognize that for some people, persistent substance use can be a rational, protective strategy for surviving oppression.

Patterned disparities in SUD diagnoses also likely reveal the extent to which oppressed populations are [subjected](#) to [intense scrutiny](#) and [surveillance](#) from the police, government, medical system, social service industry, and [general public](#).^{xxxvii xxxviii xxxix xl xi} Their substance use may not be more frequent or intense than anyone else's, but it is certainly more surveilled and more [visible](#).^{xlii} This is evident in legislation and political rhetoric about outdoor substance use and public space. Unfortunately, rather than address the underlying societal causes of addiction and outdoor substance use, many elected officials blame [individuals](#).^{xliii} We have observed that addiction has become a convenient explanation from decision makers for the perception that outdoor drug use and social disorder [are increasing](#).^{xliv xlv xlvi} This is [done](#) without admitting that many people are experiencing material hardships, or that rates of poverty and homelessness have steadily risen across the [country](#).^{xlvii}

We are troubled by the fact that [promises](#) to [open new](#) residential addiction treatment facilities, and particularly involuntary treatment facilities, have usurped real commitments to solving the housing and affordability crises impacting almost every community across Canada.^{xlviii} In touting additional treatment beds and coercive treatment as solutions to public substance use, leaders and policymakers have chosen to [frame](#) the issue as one rooted in individual behaviour, best solved through individual-level interventions.^{xlix} This ignores the structural and systemic roots of these issues: the volatility and unpredictability of the unregulated drug supply alongside the housing and affordability crises. Through such framing and response, governments appear to absolve themselves of any meaningful action beyond announcing more treatment beds. While expanded access to treatment is a laudable goal, building more institutions is not a substitute for

investing in poverty reduction, affordable housing, low-barrier education, employment, and family reunification programs, or accessible, quality healthcare.

The addiction treatment system must work for people

Alongside the need to address the social, structural and policy drivers of harm, we urgently need significant improvements to the system of treatment services in Canada. For addiction treatment to be safe and effective, it should be accessible, high-quality, culturally responsive, upholding of [human rights](#), and voluntary.^l The current patchwork of systems that exists in Canada is [not meeting](#) these needs for far too many people who seek support.^{li}

Under the [Constitution Act, 1867](#), health care service design and delivery are provincial and territorial responsibilities. However, the federal government instrumentally shapes Canada's system of universal health care through national priority setting and resource allocation. Under the [Canada Health Act](#), the federal government provides funding to provinces and territories through the [Canada Health Transfer](#) for hospital services and some extended health care. It does so on the condition that services meet criteria under the Health Act of being publicly administered, comprehensive, universal, portable and accessible. We affirm that addiction treatment must meet these criteria, and detail below principles that could support a safe and effective treatment system.

Accessible

Though formal data is lacking, anecdotal evidence suggests that a significant portion of addiction treatment occurs outside of hospital and outside the care of physicians, through privately-operated service providers.^{lii} Such services are currently excluded from the guarantees of the Canada Health Act and thus fall far short of the Act's criteria. Consequently, both the federal and provincial/territorial levels of government have deferred their jurisdiction to create a robust addiction treatment system while permitting many of the services that do exist to be owned and operated for profit by the private sector. We are alarmed by the fact that addiction treatment services, often sought by people and families in times of significant distress and vulnerability, can be delivered by for-profit businesses. While some people find support through the current system, we maintain that addiction treatment services ought not be delivered in a private for-profit setting. Because governments do not consistently track or publish this information, it is unclear nationwide how many residential addiction treatment facilities are publicly funded, how many are privately run for-profit, and how many receive a combination of private and public funding.

The main consequence of privatizing addiction treatment is that it is not readily accessible to most people. Navigating the fragmented treatment landscape is [arduous](#), with [wait lists](#) for publicly funded withdrawal management services, outpatient services, and residential facilities often being several months [long](#).^{liii} ^{liv} ^{lv} This is particularly true for those living in remote and rural communities, including on First Nations, for whom accessing primary and tertiary medical care may require [extensive travel](#).^{lvii} ^{lvii} People who urgently need addiction related services therefore have the options of either paying for it themselves, the costs of which are prohibitive for many, or waiting

until a publicly funded spot becomes [available](#).^{lviii} Some [die](#) of unregulated drug toxicity before this happens.^{lix}

Enhancing the capacity of the public treatment system to meet demand should be an immediate priority for elected officials. All people should have access to regulated, high quality, evidence based voluntary addiction treatment as part of universal health care in Canada. We advocate for a decisive shift away from reliance on privately owned and operated services. Treatment must instead be aligned with the foundational principles of universal healthcare under the Canada Health Act. This will entail collaboration between all levels of government, health professionals, and professional regulatory bodies to accelerate intake and service delivery while reducing disparities between urban and rural regions. Services must also be integrated into the broader healthcare system and be available for as long as they are needed, not on a time limited or temporary basis.

High-Quality

Presently, the largely unregulated addiction treatment industry parallels the unregulated drug market and its attendant harms. Canada does not have national standards for addiction treatment. With the exception of [Québec](#), provincial accreditation systems for residential facilities, where they exist at all, do not meaningfully enforce expected standards of [care](#).^{lx} ^{lxii} Most jurisdictions have no training or certification requirements for those providing care through private addiction treatment programs.^{lxii} It is therefore unsurprising that a recent jurisdictional scan concluded that residential treatment facilities are largely permitted to operate without real quality control or [government oversight](#).^{lxiii}

Accountability mechanisms for treatment providers are limited in part because government representatives are not appointed to intervene when services employ poor clinical practices. Residential facilities are also not required to track service user outcomes or publicly share reports of abuse or deaths, meaning those who seek support lack reliable means by which to assess the track record and quality of the services being offered. This predominant context of low-to-no oversight and low-to-no regulatory accountability creates alarming opportunity for the [abuse](#) of [people](#) who are seeking [support](#).^{lxiv} Reports of abuse and harm in addictions treatment centres are widespread and damning, often reported only after former or current service users contact [the media](#).^{lxv} This would be considered unacceptable in other sectors and areas of the health care system.

Moreover, in a political context where treatment has become the de facto “solution” to the unregulated drug crisis, the addiction treatment industry wields enormous political power and influence. Alongside cultural framing of addiction treatment as morally unimpeachable, this political power has led to an environment wherein it is taboo to critique or question how treatment services are delivered, even in cases of demonstrable failures and scant evidentiary support. Specifically, residential addiction treatment facilities still overwhelmingly [mandate abstinence](#).^{lxvi} ^{lxvii} This approach puts service users at a greatly elevated risk of overdose if they return to the unpredictable, unregulated drug market with a reduced [drug](#) tolerance.^{lxviii} Relatedly, a substantial portion of addiction treatment is ideologically rooted in the twelve steps and traditions of [Alcoholics Anonymous \(AA\)](#).^{lxix} We affirm that some people benefit from the twelve steps, and

recognize their positive impacts and personal significance for those people. However, scientific evaluations of the efficacy of twelve-step programs are plagued by [methodological difficulties](#) and [inconclusive for people who use criminalized substances](#).^{lxx lxxi lxxii} Many report feeling constrained by their rigidity, dogmatism, and implicit or explicit [religiosity](#), as well as how [narrowly they define "success"](#) when [abstinence is compulsory](#).^{lxxiii lxxiv lxxv} It is thus highly concerning that the twelve steps remains the default addiction treatment modality. Yet these legitimate critiques are dismissed in ways that are difficult to imagine in other health care or service delivery settings.

Thus, expanded access to addiction treatment must be met with equally seismic improvements in treatment quality. Addiction treatment service delivery must adhere to the norms and best practices established through rigorous empirical evaluation. The modalities available to people should be grounded in contemporary evidence demonstrating that treatment is most helpful when it is flexible, guided by the [individual \("patient centered"\)](#), and accompanied by primary care access and material supports such as [stable housing](#).^{lxxvi lxxvii lxxviii} In this context, twelve step programming could be offered as one optional component of a holistic and evidence-based treatment regime. We also recommend public funding for treatment being contingent upon regular demonstration through independent assessment that regulations, standards of care, and patients' rights are being upheld. Finally, we recommend the creation of centralized provincial [databases](#) of all treatment services and the introduction of standardized and transparent mechanisms to track service user [outcomes](#).^{lxxix}

Culturally responsive

Despite our calls for evidence-based addiction treatment, we are careful to not be deterministic about what constitutes "evidence." Too often, scientific and medical experts overprescribe solutions to addiction that do not account for the unique features of diverse communities and individual needs. For instance, we take seriously the claims of Indigenous peoples that mainstream approaches to treatment can reproduce patterns of colonial violence by imposing western norms and values onto [them](#).^{lxxx} We also acknowledge that mainstream approaches may not resonate with immigrant, refugee, and diaspora communities who arrive in Canada with culturally [specific beliefs](#).^{lxxxi lxxxi} In addition to drug-related stigma and discrimination, PWUD from these groups must contend with systematic dispossession, displacement, and social dislocation that erect profound barriers to achieving [social and economic health](#).^{lxxxiii lxxxiv lxxxv} To be effective, addiction treatment options must be responsive to the cultural context, realities and needs of a greater diversity of people who use drugs, including Indigenous peoples, people from varied cultural, ethnic and geographic backgrounds, and sexual and gender [minorities](#).^{lxxxvi}

In the context of addiction treatment, cultural responsiveness implies supporting community-led responses and incorporating relevant cultural factors, cultural humility and safety into the planning, implementation, and evaluation of [services](#) more broadly.^{lxxxvii} It means moving away from individualistic western models that primarily frame health as the absence of [disease](#).^{lxxxviii} In their place, it may place emphasis on the wisdom and worldviews traditionally found in a particular community. For example, many Indigenous communities tend to adopt a more expansive definition of health than is found within the mainstream treatment [system](#), including focus on relationality and the interconnectedness of individuals, families, other kinship structures, and the natural

world.^{lxxxix}^{xc} Increasingly, elements of western and traditional treatment are also being viewed as complementary.^{xcii}^{xcii} While it is not our place to describe in detail what culturally responsive services should include, as this will vary greatly, we endorse diverse communities being equipped and resourced to lead all stages of service delivery. They are best placed to know what works for them. Further, and relatedly, culturally responsive treatment should address structural risk factors such as poverty, housing deprivation, and inequitable access to services, as well as historic and current experiences of racial and ethnic trauma that negatively impact health outcomes.^{xciii}

Voluntary

The topic of involuntary treatment for addiction is a growing policy debate, and politicians increasingly tout its expansion as a solution to various social challenges. Involuntary treatment, or forced abstinence, can refer to instances of a person being held without their consent in a secure facility. They are sometimes apprehended by law enforcement before a medical professional, justice, or other decision-maker decides that they pose a risk of harm to themselves or others. They are released from custody only after they are deemed to no longer be a risk. This form of involuntary treatment can thus be relatively brief (e.g., overnight or 72 hours) or last for months, depending on an individual's circumstances and the capacity of the healthcare system. More broadly, involuntary treatment may also refer to restrictions or demands being placed on behaviours while living in community, such as requirements to consume certain medications. Involuntary treatment is already [in effect](#) in every provincial jurisdiction for people who have been diagnosed with mental [illnesses](#).^{xciv xcv} Much of the growing policy debate surrounds the push to expand the use of involuntary treatment to include those whose only diagnosis is a [substance use disorder](#).^{xcvi xcvii} Often, though, PWUD are already captured under provincial Mental Health Acts because the Acts do not include clear conceptual or behavioural distinctions between mental illness and substance use.

We join a growing chorus of voices expressing serious concern about involuntary treatment for addiction and justifications to expand it.^{xcviii} We do not take lightly that some people report having benefited from involuntary treatment. We further acknowledge the many individuals, families and communities who fear for their loved ones' safety and are desperate for solutions as they navigate the inadequate options currently available to them. However, we reject the claim that widespread use of forced treatment is an appropriate response to the realities before us.

The narrow circumstances in which limited involuntary treatment may be appropriate do not justify its widespread use. There is limited evidence to suggest that involuntary substance use treatment is [safe or effective](#).^{xcix c} Some studies demonstrate that coercion may contribute to people staying in treatment longer, but evidence has failed to demonstrate that they will exit treatment healthier, happier, more stable, or with [reduced substance use](#).^{ci cii ciii} Conversely, data link involuntary treatment to risk of non-fatal and fatal overdose after [being discharged](#).^{civ cv} Many people who have been treated involuntarily also associate it with persistent [trauma](#) and severe violations of their health and safety, largely because there are even fewer safeguards in place to prevent abuse for involuntary patients than there are for voluntary [patients](#).^{cvi cvii} Research indicates that people who have been subjected to involuntary treatment may be less willing to engage with voluntary health services in the future, thereby worsening their health and social outcomes, as well as the health and social outcomes of communities [overall](#).^{cvi}

Policymakers have failed to invest in voluntary, evidence-based, regulated treatment, while concurrently neglecting their obligations to address structural determinants of health, such as housing and poverty. In the context resulting from these policy choices, governments have granted themselves the latitude to frame involuntary treatment as the only viable solution for anyone who struggles with their relationship to substances, and particularly anyone who does so while experiencing visible poverty. Those in power have situated structural issues as individual problems

and are deploying forced treatment to clear [homeless encampments](#) and displace people deprived of housing out of public view.^{cix} Given the dearth of options available for those seeking help, it is unsurprising that many people now see the expansion of forced treatment as necessary or positive despite a lack of evidence to support such programs. We again affirm those who seek support for themselves or their loved ones and emphasize the responsibility of governments to ensure such support is available. However, absent meaningful, significant public investment in both voluntary, regulated, evidence-based treatment as well as the means to improve structural and material determinants of health, it is deeply unjust to advocate the broad expansion of involuntary treatment.

Conclusion

High quality, voluntary addiction treatment has an important role to play in supporting people who struggle with their relationship to substances. However, it cannot and should not be the primary policy response to social problems created by poverty, housing insecurity, criminalization, and systemic discrimination or to deaths from the unregulated drug crisis. A treatment system that is inaccessible, of poor quality, culturally unresponsive, and coercive fails to meet the needs of the people it is meant to serve.

We call on all levels of government to reimagine addiction treatment as one component of a broader, integrated approach to health and social equity. Whereas the current system asks individuals to change without changing the conditions around them, a better path forward means accurately identifying the roots of societal challenges, and broadening focus from individual blame to collective responsibility. This includes expanding access to accessible, high-quality, culturally responsive, and voluntary services that are aligned with the principles of universal healthcare. It also requires transforming the policies and laws that drive many substance-related harms. Only then can we imagine responses to addiction that are compassionate, just, and truly effective.

ⁱ “Framework for a Public Health Approach to Substance Use” Canadian Public Health Association, 2024

<https://www.cpha.ca/framework-public-health-approach-substance-use#:~:text=Substance%20use%20can%20be%20viewed,'drugs'%20are%20used%20synonymously>

ⁱⁱ Fraser, S. (2016). Articulating addiction in alcohol and other drug policy: A multiverse of habits. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 31, 6–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2015.10.014>

ⁱⁱⁱ Campbell, N. D. (2007). *Discovering Addiction: The Science and Politics of Substance Abuse Research*. University of Michigan Press. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctvnjbdtz>

^{iv} White, W. L. (1998). *Slaying the dragon: The history of addiction treatment and recovery in America*. Chestnut Health Systems/Lighthouse Institute.

^v Across cultures and geographies, there is a diversity of thought on concepts of addiction and substance use. For an example that looks beyond popular Western concepts, explore Thunderbird Partnerships Foundation resources on Indigenous concepts of wellness: <https://thunderbirdpf.org/?resources=indigenous-wellness-framework-reference-guide>

-
- ^{vi} Cree, J. M. (2017). Protestant Evangelicals and addiction in early modern English. *Renaissance Studies*, 32(3), 446–462. <https://doi.org/10.1111/rest.12328>
- ^{vii} Rabin, D. (2005). Drunkenness and responsibility for crime in the Eighteenth Century. *Journal of British Studies*, 44(3), 457–477. <https://doi.org/10.1086/429705>
- ^{viii} Robinson, S., & Adinoff, B. (2016). The classification of Substance Use Disorders: Historical, contextual, and conceptual considerations. *Behavioral Sciences*, 6(3), 18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/bs6030018>
- ^{ix} Campbell, N. (2010). Toward a critical neuroscience of ‘addiction’. *BioSocieties* 5, 89–104. <https://doi.org/10.1057/biosoc.2009.2>
- ^x Blithikoti, Chrysanthi et al. (2025). Reevaluating the brain disease model of addiction. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, Volume 12, Issue 6, 469 – 474. [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanpsy/article/PIIS2215-0366\(25\)00060-4/abstract](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanpsy/article/PIIS2215-0366(25)00060-4/abstract)
- ^{xi} Ochterbeck D, Frense J, Forberger S. (2023). A survey of international addiction researchers’ views on implications of brain-based explanations of addiction and the responsibility of affected persons. *Nordic Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*. 41(1), 39-56. doi:[10.1177/14550725231188802](https://doi.org/10.1177/14550725231188802)
- ^{xii} Conrad, P. & Mackie, T. (2011). Opiate Addiction: A Revival of Medical Involvement. In G. Hunt, M. Milhet & H. Bergeron (Eds.), *Drugs and Culture: Knowledge, Consumption and Policy* (pp. 71–83). Ashgate.
- ^{xiii} Boness, C. L., Votaw, V., Francis, M. W., Watts, A. L., Sperry, S. H., Kleva, C. S., Nellis, L., McDowell, Y. E., Douaihy, A., Sher, K. J., & Witkiewitz, K. (2021). *Alcohol Use Disorder Conceptualizations and Diagnoses Reflect Their Sociopolitical Context*. <https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/rw9k2>
- ^{xiv} Csete, J., Kamarulzaman, A., Kazatchkine, M., Altice, F., Balicki, M., Buxton, J., Cepeda, J., Comfort, M., Goosby, E., Goulão, J., Hart, C., Kerr, T., Lajous, A. M., Lewis, S., Martin, N., Mejía, D., Camacho, A., Mathieson, D., Obot, I., Ogunrombi, A., ... Beyer, C. (2016). Public health and international drug policy. *Lancet (London, England)*, 387(10026), 1427–1480. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)00619-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)00619-X)
- ^{xv} Livingston, J. D. (2020). Structural stigma in health-care contexts for people with mental health and substance use issues: A literature review. Ottawa: Mental Health Commission of Canada. https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/wp-content/uploads/drupal/2020-07/structural_stigma_in_healthcare_eng.pdf
- ^{xvi} Muncan, B., Walters, S.M., Ezell, J. et al. (2020). “They look at us like junkies”: influences of drug use stigma on the healthcare engagement of people who inject drugs in New York City. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 17, 53. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12954-020-00399-8>
- ^{xvii} Nicholson, T., Duncan, D. F., & White, J. B. (2002). Is recreational drug use normal? *Journal of Substance Use*, 7(3), 116–123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14659890209169340>
- ^{xviii} Harris, M and Luongo, N. (2021) “Nothing about us, without us”: Negotiating the personal and professional as activists and academics who use drugs, *International Journal of Drug Policy*, Volume 98, 103533. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2021.103533>.
- ^{xix} Schlag, A. K. (2020). Percentages of problem drug use and their implications for policy making: A review of the literature. *Drug Science, Policy and Law*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2050324520904540>
- ^{xx} Nicholson, T., Duncan, D. F., & White, J. B. (2002). Is Recreational Drug Use Normal? *Journal of Substance Use*, 7(3), 116–123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14659890209169340>

^{xxi} Grella, C. E., & Stein, J. A. (2013). Remission from substance dependence: Differences between individuals in a general population longitudinal survey who do and do not seek help. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 133(1), 146–153. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2013.05.019>

^{xxii} De Meyer, F., Zerrouk, A., De Ruyscher, C., & Vanderplasschen, W. (2024). Exploring indicators of natural recovery from alcohol and drug use problems: Findings from the life in recovery survey in Flanders. *Substance Abuse Treatment, Prevention, and Policy*, 19(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13011-024-00604-y>

^{xxiii} Stephenson, E. 2023. “Mental disorders and access to mental health care”. *Insights on Canadian Society*. September. Statistics Canada Catalogue no. 75-006-X. <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/75-006-x/2023001/article/00011-eng.htm>

^{xxiv} Health Canada Expert Task Force on Substance Use. (2021). *Report 2: Recommendations on the federal government's drug policy as articulated in a draft Canadian Drugs and Substances Strategy (CDSS)*. Retrieved from Health Canada <https://www.canada.ca/en/health-canada/corporate/about-health-canada/public-engagement/external-advisory-bodies/expert-task-force-substance-use/reports/report-2-2021.html>

^{xxv} Gonzalez-Nieto, P., Wallace, B., Kielty, C., Gruntman, K., Robinson, D., Substance Staff, Arredondo Sanchez Lira, J., Gill, C., & Hore, D. (2025). *Not just fentanyl: Understanding the complexities of the unregulated opioid supply through results from a drug checking service in British Columbia, Canada*. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 138, Article 104751. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2025.104751>

^{xxvi} Graham H. (2004). Social determinants and their unequal distribution: clarifying policy understandings. *The Milbank quarterly*, 82(1), 101–124. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0887-378x.2004.00303.x>

^{xxvii} Chu, K., Carrière, G., Garner, R., Bosa, K., Hennessy, D., & Sanmartin, C. (2023). Exploring the intersectionality of characteristics among those who experienced opioid overdoses: A cluster analysis. *Health reports*, 34(3), 3–14. <https://doi.org/10.25318/82-003-x202300300001-eng>

^{xxviii} Hatt, L. (2022). *The opioid crisis in Canada*. (Report No. 2021-23-E). Parliamentary Information, Education and Research Services. Retrieved from the Library of Parliament website: https://lop.parl.ca/sites/PublicWebsite/default/en_CA/ResearchPublications/202123E#a4.3

^{xxix} Slement, A., Richardson, C., Goodyear, T., Salway, T., Gadermann, A., Oliffe, J. L., Knight, R., Dhari, S., & Jenkins, E. K. (2022). Widening mental health and substance use inequities among sexual and gender minority populations: Findings from a repeated cross-sectional monitoring survey during the COVID-19 pandemic in Canada. *Psychiatry research*, 307, 114327. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2021.114327>

^{xxx} Varatharajan, T., Patte, K. A., de Groh, M., Jiang, Y., & Leatherdale, S. T. (2024). *Exploring differences in substance use behaviours among gender minority and non-gender minority youth: A cross-sectional analysis of the COMPASS study*. *Health Promotion and Chronic Disease Prevention in Canada*, 44(4), 179–190. <https://doi.org/10.24095/hpcdp.44.4.04>

^{xxxi} Reif, S., Lee, M., & Ledingham, E. (2023, January 31). The Intersection of Disability With Substance Use and Addiction. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Global Public Health*. Retrieved 15 May. 2025, from <https://oxfordre.com/publichealth/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190632366.001.0001/acrefore-9780190632366-e-491>

^{xxxii} Park, J. N., Rouhani, S., Beletsky, L., Vincent, L., Saloner, B., & Sherman, S. G. (2020). Situating the Continuum of Overdose Risk in the Social Determinants of Health: A New Conceptual Framework. *The Milbank Quarterly*, 98(3), 700–746. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0009.12470>

^{xxxiii} Riley, E. D., Shumway, M., Knight, K. R., Guzman, D., Cohen, J., & Weiser, S. D. (2015). Risk factors for stimulant use among homeless and unstably housed adult women. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 153, 173–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.05.023>

^{xxxiv} Da Silveira, P. S., De Tostes, J. G. A., Wan, H. T., Ronzani, T. M., & Corrigan, P. W. (2018). The stigmatization of drug use as mechanism of legitimization of exclusion. In *Springer eBooks* (pp. 15–25). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72446-1_2

^{xxxv} Drazdowski, T. K., Perrin, P. B., Trujillo, M., Sutter, M., Benotsch, E. G., & Snipes, D. J. (2016). Structural equation modeling of the effects of racism, LGBTQ discrimination, and internalized oppression on illicit drug use in LGBTQ people of color. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 159, 255–262. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2015.12.029>

^{xxxvi} Friedman, S. R., Williams, L. D., Jordan, A. E., Walters, S., Perlman, D. C., Mateu-Gelabert, P., Nikolopoulos, G. K., Khan, M. R., Peprah, E., & Ezell, J. (2022). Toward a Theory of the Underpinnings and Vulnerabilities of Structural Racism: Looking Upstream from Disease Inequities among People Who Use Drugs. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(12), 7453. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19127453>

^{xxxvii} Maynard, R. (2017). *Policing Black lives: State violence in Canada from slavery to the present*. Fernwood Publishing. ISBN 978155266979 <https://fernwoodpublishing.ca/book/policing-black-lives>

^{xxxviii} Michaud, L., van der Meulen, E., & Guta, A. (2023). Between Care and Control: Examining Surveillance Practices in Harm Reduction. *Contemporary drug problems*, 50(1), 3–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00914509221128598>

^{xxxix} Guta, A., Strike, C. J., & Gagnon, M. (2017). Changing the Conversation: A Critical Bioethics Response to the Opioid Crisis. *The American Journal of Bioethics*, 17(12), 53–54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15265161.2017.1388868>

^{xl} Bardwell, G., Mansoor, M., Van Zwietering, A., Cleveland, E., Snell, D., & Kerr, T. (2022). The “goldfish bowl”: a qualitative study of the effects of heightened surveillance on people who use drugs in a rural and coastal Canadian setting. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 19(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12954-022-00725-2>

^{xli} Scher, B. (2020). Biopower, Disciplinary Power and Surveillance: An Ethnographic Analysis of the Lived Experience of People Who Use Drugs in Vancouver’s Downtown Eastside. *Contemporary Drug Problems*, 47(4), 286–301. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091450920955247>

^{xlii} Michaud, L., van der Meulen, E., & Guta, A. (2022). Between Care and Control: Examining Surveillance Practices in Harm Reduction. *Contemporary Drug Problems*, 50(1), 3–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00914509221128598>

^{xliii} Ali, F., Russell, C., Torres-Salbach, S., Lo, M., Bonn, M., Bardwell, G., Budau, J., Hyshka, E., & Rehm, J. (2025). Experiences of stigmatization among people who use drugs in the initial year of British Columbia’s drug decriminalization policy: A qualitative study. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 139, 104791. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2025.104791>

^{xliv} Speed, K.A., Gallant, K., Fleury, M. et al. Decriminalization undone: Assessing the amendment to British Columbia’s decriminalization of personal drug possession framework. *Can J Public Health* (2025). <https://doi.org/10.17269/s41997-025-01012-w>

^{xlv} Challand, A. (2025). From Harm Reduction to Forced Treatment: Neoliberal Governmental Discourse and the Decline of Alberta’s Supervised Consumption Sites. *Canadian Journal for the Academic Mind*, 2(2), 3–38. <https://doi.org/10.25071/2817-5344/94>

^{xvi} **See for example:** B.C. Ministry of Public Safety and Solicitor General. (2024, December 19). *Minister’s statement on public drug use legislation* [press release]. <https://news.gov.bc.ca/releases/2024PSSG0093-001673>. The British Columbia government’s decriminalization policy was amended without acknowledging that rates of homelessness were increasing significantly across the province. For example, in 2023, the province’s homelessness count determined that 4,821 in the Greater Vancouver region identified as experiencing homelessness – a 32% increase since 2020. See: The Homelessness Services Association of BC; Caspersen, J., D’Souza, S., & Lupick, D. (2024). 2023 Report on Homeless Counts in B.C. Prepared for BC Housing. Burnaby, BC. <https://www.bchousing.org/research-centre/housing-data/homeless-counts>

^{xlvii} BC Housing. (n.d.). *Homeless counts*. BC Housing. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://www.bchousing.org/research-centre/housing-data/homeless-counts>

^{xlviii} **See for example:** Province of British Columbia. (2025, November 24). *Province taking action to strengthen involuntary care, better support patients*. Government of British Columbia News. <https://news.gov.bc.ca/releases/2025HLTH0055-001158>; Government of Alberta. (2025, May 16). *Providing life-saving treatment for substance abuse and addiction*. Alberta.ca. <https://www.alberta.ca/providing-life-saving-treatment-for-substance-abuse-and-addiction>; Province of Manitoba. (2025). *Manitoba government passes legislation to respond to meth crisis* [News release]. Government of Manitoba News. <https://news.gov.mb.ca/news/index.html?item=71417>

^{xlix} Bacchi, C. (2012). Introducing the 'What's the Problem Represented to be?' approach. In A. Bletsas & C. Beasley (Eds.), *Engaging with Carol Bacchi: Strategic Interventions and Exchanges* (pp. 21–24). chapter, The University of Adelaide Press. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/UPO9780987171856.003>

^lTo explore a human rights-based analysis of addiction treatment, see: "Dependent on Rights: Assessing Treatment of Drug Dependence from a Human Rights Perspective", HIV Legal Network, 2007. <https://www.hivlegalnetwork.ca/site/dependent-on-rights-assessing-treatment-of-drug-dependence-from-a-human-rights-perspective/?lang=en>

^{li} Craig, M., & Notarandrea, R. (2023). *Accountability for safe, quality care in bed-based addiction treatment* (Report). Canadian Centre on Substance Use and Addiction. <https://www.ccsa.ca/sites/default/files/2023-05/Accountability-in-Bed-Based-Addiction-Treatment.pdf>

^{lii} Craig, M., & Notarandrea, R. (2023). Accountability for safe, quality care in bed-based addiction treatment (Report). Canadian Centre on Substance Use and Addiction. <https://www.ccsa.ca/sites/default/files/2023-05/Accountability-in-Bed-Based-Addiction-Treatment.pdf>

^{liii} Chan, S., Markoulakis, R., & Levitt, A. (2023). Predictors of barriers to accessing youth mental health and/or addiction care. *Journal of the Canadian Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry = Journal de l'Academie canadienne de psychiatrie de l'enfant et de l'adolescent*, 32(1), 27–37. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/36776928/>

^{liv} Ganesan, K., Matte, A.-R., Williams, A. R., Wilkie, J., Chan, C., & O'Connor, K. (2025). *Unlocking solutions: Understanding and addressing Ontario's mental health and addictions supportive housing needs* (Report). Addictions and Mental Health Ontario. https://amho.ca/wp-content/uploads/2025/03/Unlocking-Solutions_Understanding-and-Addressing-Ontarios-Mental-Health-and-Addictions-Supportive-Housing-Needs-AMHO2025.pdf

^{lv} Ali, F., Law, J., Russell, C., Bozinoff, N., & Rush, B. (2023). An environmental scan of residential treatment service provision in Ontario. *Substance abuse treatment, prevention, and policy*, 18(1), 73. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13011-023-00586-3>

^{lvi} Pijl, E.M., Alraja, A., Duff, E. et al. (2022). Barriers and facilitators to opioid agonist therapy in rural and remote communities in Canada: an integrative review. *Subst Abuse Treat Prev Policy* 17, 62. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13011-022-00463-5>

^{lvii} Viste, D., Rioux, W., Medwid, M., Williams, K., Tailfeathers, E., Lee, A., Jafri, F., Zobell, S., & Ghosh, S. M. (2024). Perceptions of overdose response hotlines and applications among rural and remote individuals who use drugs in Canada: a qualitative study. *Perception des services d'intervention par téléphone et par application en cas de surdose chez les personnes consommatrices de drogues qui vivent dans des régions rurales et éloignées du Canada : étude qualitative*. *Health promotion and chronic disease prevention in Canada : research, policy and practice*, 44(11-12), 471–481. <https://doi.org/10.24095/hpcdp.44.11/12.03>

^{lviii} Palad, V., & Snyder, J. (2019). "We don't want him worrying about how he will pay to save his life": Using medical crowdfunding to explore lived experiences with addiction services in Canada. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 65, 73–77. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2018.12.016>

^{lx} Hamilton, C. (2017, November 13). *Wait times for addictions treatment can mean 'life and death,' conference hears.* CBC News. <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/saskatoon/wait-times-for-addictions-treatment-can-mean-life-and-death-1.4400572>

^{lx} Government of Québec. (2025). *Regulation respecting the certification of community or private resources offering addiction lodging* (R.L.R.Q., c. S4.2, r. 0.1). Éditeur officiel du Québec. <https://www.legisquebec.gouv.qc.ca/fr/document/rc/S-4.2,%20r.%200.1?&langCont=en>

^{lxii} Richards, T. D., Kirkham, J., Lorenzetti, D., Anderson, J., Bahji, A., Allami, Y., Crockford, D., Dyson, M. P., Ghosh, S. M., Hodgins, D., Messier, G., Vik, S., & Seitz, D. P. (2025). Quality indicators for substance use disorder care: a scoping review protocol. *BMJ open*, 15(3), e085216. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2024-085216>

^{lxiii} D'Souza, S., Ellenwood, L., & MathieuLéger, L. (2025, October 24). 'No one was getting any better': When private addiction treatment centres put patients in danger. CBC News. <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/private-addiction-treatment-centres-unregulated-danger-9.6948952>

^{lxiv} Livingston, J. D. (2021). A framework for assessing structural stigma in health-care contexts for people with mental health and substance use issues. Ottawa, Canada: Mental Health Commission of Canada. https://www.mentalhealthcommission.ca/wp-content/uploads/drupal/2021-05/Structural_Stigma_Assessment_Report_eng.pdf

^{lxv} **See media reports:** Little, S., & Ke, G. (2025, March 25). *Operators of shuttered B.C. drug treatment facility speak out.* Global News. <https://globalnews.ca/news/11097945/volken-academy-responds-allegations-treatment/>; D'Souza, S., & MacLeod, M. (2025, November 13). *Former recovery home employee convicted of sexual assault in B.C.* CBC News. <https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/british-columbia/former-recovery-home-employee-convicted-sexual-assault1.7470473>; Donovan, K. (2024, December 20). *Fake nurses, no doctor on site, staff who like to party: The inside story of this 'luxury' Muskoka addiction rehab.* Toronto Star. https://www.thestar.com/news/investigations/fake-nurses-no-doctor-on-site-staff-who-like-to-party-the-inside-story-of/article_0935dfbe-a5c3-11ef-8f1b-6b076957f907.html

^{lxvi} Wood, G. (2025, February 15). B.C. drug rehab facility faces closure over abuse, safety violation allegations. *Business in Vancouver.* <https://www.biv.com/news/economy-law-politics/bc-drug-rehab-facility-faces-closure-over-abuse-safety-violation-allegations-10237731>

^{lxvii} Bartram M. (2021). 'It's Really About Wellbeing': a Canadian Investigation of Harm Reduction as a Bridge Between Mental Health and Addiction Recovery. *International journal of mental health and addiction*, 19(5), 1497–1510. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11469-020-00239-7>

^{lxviii} Brown, C., & Stewart, S. H. (2020). Harm reduction for women in treatment for alcohol use problems: Exploring the impact of dominant addiction discourse. *Qualitative Health Research*, 31(1), 54–69. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732320954396>

^{lxix} Ledberg, A., & Reitan, T. (2022). Increased risk of death immediately after discharge from compulsory care for substance abuse. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 236, Article 109492. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2022.109492>

^{lxix} Fraser, S. (2016). Articulating addiction in alcohol and other drug policy: A multiverse of habits. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 31, 6–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2015.10.014>

^{lxix} Kelly, J. F., Urbanoski, K. A., Hoeppner, B. B., & Slaymaker, V. (2011). Facilitating comprehensive assessment of 12-step experiences: A Multidimensional Measure of Mutual-Help Activity. *Alcoholism treatment quarterly*, 29(3), 181–203. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07347324.2011.586280>

^{lxxi} Witbrodt, J., Mertens, J., Kaskutas, L. A., Bond, J., Chi, F., & Weisner, C. (2012). Do 12-step meeting attendance trajectories over 9 years predict abstinence?. *Journal of substance abuse treatment*, 43(1), 30–43.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsat.2011.10.004>

^{lxxii} Kelly, J. F. (2003). Selfhelp for substanceuse disorders: History, effectiveness, knowledge gaps, and research opportunities. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 23(5), 639–663. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358\(03\)00053-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0272-7358(03)00053-9)

^{lxxiii} Ross, C. A., Jakubec, S. L., Berry, N. S., & Smye, V. (2020). The business of managing nurses' substanceuse problems. *Nursing Inquiry*, 27, Article e12324. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nin.12324>

^{lxxiv} Mendola, A., & Gibson, R. L. (2016). *Addiction, 12step programs, and evidentiary standards for ethically and clinically sound treatment recommendations: What should clinicians do?* *AMA Journal of Ethics*, 18(6), 646–655.
<https://doi.org/10.1001/journalofethics.2016.18.6.sect1-1606>

^{lxxv} O'Leary, C., Ralphs, R., Stevenson, J., Smith, A., Harrison, J., Kiss, Z., & Armitage, H. (2024). The effectiveness of abstinence-based and harm reduction-based interventions in reducing problematic substance use in adults who are experiencing homelessness in high income countries: A systematic review and meta-analysis: A systematic review. *Campbell systematic reviews*, 20(2), e1396. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cl2.1396>

^{lxxvi} Olding, M., Hayashi, K., Pearce, L., Bingham, B., Buchholz, M., Gregg, D., Hamm, D., Shaver, L., McKendry, R., Barrios, R., & Nosyk, B. (2018). Developing a patient-reported experience questionnaire with and for people who use drugs: A community engagement process in Vancouver's Downtown Eastside. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 59, 16–23.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2018.06.003>

^{lxxvii} Lachapelle, É., Archambault, L., Blouin, C., & Perreault, M. (2020). Perspectives of people with opioid use disorder on improving addiction treatments and services. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy*, 28(4), 316–327.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09687637.2020.1833837>

^{lxxviii} Ali, F., Law, J., Russell, C., Bozinooff, N., & Rush, B. (2023). An environmental scan of residential treatment service provision in Ontario. *Substance abuse treatment, prevention, and policy*, 18(1), 73. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13011-023-00586-3>

^{lxxix} To explore related recommendations developed by a provincial working group of civil society organizations and people who use drugs, see Canadian Drug Policy Coalition. (2024). *To end a crisis: Vision for BC drug policy* [Policy document]. Canadian Drug Policy Coalition. <https://drugpolicy.ca/our-work/visionforbcdrugpolicy>

^{lxxx} Lavallee, J., Kastor, S., Tourangeau, M., Goodman, A., & Kerr, T. (2020). You just have to have other models, our DNA is different: the experiences of indigenous people who use illicit drugs and/or alcohol accessing substance use treatment. *Harm Reduction Journal*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12954-020-00366-3>

^{lxxxi} Banks, D.E., Brown, K. & Saraiya, T.C. "Culturally Responsive" Substance Use Treatment: Contemporary Definitions and Approaches for Minoritized Racial/Ethnic Groups. *Curr Addict Rep* 10, 422–431 (2023).
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s40429-023-00489-0>

^{lxxxii} Douglass, C. H., Win, T. M., Goutzamanis, S., et al. (2023). Stigma associated with alcohol and other drug use among people from migrant and ethnic minority groups: Results from a systematic review of qualitative studies. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, 25(6), 1402–1425. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-023-01468-3>

^{lxxxiii} Halseth, R., & Murdock, L. (2020). Supporting Indigenous selfdetermination in health: Lessons learned from a review of best practices in health governance in Canada and internationally. National Collaborating Centre for Indigenous Health. <https://www.nccih.ca/Publications/Lists/Publications/Attachments/317/Ind-Self-Determine-Halseth-Murdoch-LC-2023-06-08-VS-EN-003-WEB.pdf>

-
- ^{lxxxiv} Josewski, V. (2023). Improving access to mental health and addictions services and supports for older Indigenous adults, using a cultural safety and equity lens. National Collaborating Centre for Indigenous Health. <https://www.nccih.ca/Publications/Lists/Publications/Attachments/10405/Improving-access-mental-health-addictions-services-EN-web.pdf>
- ^{lxxxv} Lavalley, J., Steinhauer, L., Bundy, D. B., Kerr, T., & McNeil, R. (2024). "They talk about it like it's an overdose crisis when in fact it's basically genocide": The experiences of Indigenous peoples who use illicit drugs in Vancouver's Downtown Eastside neighbourhood. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 134, 104631. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2024.104631>
- ^{lxxxvi} Elliott, R. (2023). *Connection, care, community: Strengthening harm reduction for GBT2Q people who use drugs in Canada – Summary report*. HIV Legal Network. <https://www.hivlegalnetwork.ca/site/connection-care-community/?lang=en>
- ^{lxxxvii} Richer, A., & Roddy, A. L. (2022). Opioid use in indigenous populations: indigenous perspectives and directions in culturally responsive care. *Journal of Social Work Practice in the Addictions*, 22(3), 255–263. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1533256x.2022.2049161>
- ^{lxxxviii} LaVallie, C., & Sasakamoose, J. (2021). Promoting indigenous cultural responsivity in addiction treatment work: the call for neurodecolonization policy and practice. *Journal of Ethnicity in Substance Abuse*, 22(3), 477–499. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15332640.2021.1956392>
- ^{lxxxix} Assembly of First Nations (AFN), & Health Canada. (2015). First Nations mental wellness continuum framework. https://thunderbirdpf.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/24-14-1273-FN-Mental-Wellness-Framework-EN05_low.pdf
- ^{xc} Landry, V., Asselin, H., & Lévesque, C. (2019). Link to the Land and *Mino-Pimatisiwin* (Comprehensive Health) of Indigenous People Living in Urban Areas in Eastern Canada. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(23), 4782. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16234782>
- ^{xcii} Hall, L. (2015). Two-Eyed seeing in Indigenous Addiction Research and Treatment. In *Routledge eBooks* (pp. 91–98). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315738086-12>
- ^{xcii} Wu, J., Smye, V., Hill, B., Antone, J., & MacDougall, A. (2023). Exploration of existing integrated mental health and addictions care services for Indigenous peoples in Canada. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 20(11), 5946. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20115946>
- ^{xciii} Gone, J. P., Hartmann, W. E., Pomerville, A., Wendt, D. C., Klem, S. H., & Burrage, R. L. (2019). The impact of historical trauma on health outcomes for indigenous populations in the USA and Canada: A systematic review. *The American psychologist*, 74(1), 20–35. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000338>
- ^{xciv} O'Reilly, R. L., & Gray, J. E. (2014). Canada's mental health legislation. *International psychiatry : bulletin of the Board of International Affairs of the Royal College of Psychiatrists*, 11(3), 65–67. <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC6735142/>
- ^{xcv} Fischer B, Hall W, Jutras-Aswad D, Le Foll B. Involuntary Treatment for Severe Substance Use Disorders – Issues, Evidence and Considerations for its Use. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*. 2025;0(0). <https://doi.org/10.1177/07067437251338553>
- ^{xcvi} Loyal, J. P., Lavergne, M. R., Shirmaleki, M., et al. (2022). Trends in involuntary psychiatric hospitalization in British Columbia: Descriptive analysis of population-based linked administrative data from 2008 to 2018. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 68(4), 257–268. <https://doi.org/10.1177/07067437221128477>

^{xcvii} Chau, L. W., Erickson, M., Vigo, D., Lou, H., Pakhomova, T., Winston, M. L., MacPherson, D., Thomson, E., & Small, W. (2021). The perspectives of people who use drugs regarding short term involuntary substance use care for severe substance use disorders. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 97, 103208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2021.103208>

^{xcviii} **See for example:**

Canadian Centre on Substance Use and Addiction. (2025). *Involuntary treatment for severe substance use disorders: Evidence brief* [PDF]. <https://www.ccsa.ca/sites/default/files/2025-02/Involuntary-Treatment-Evidence-Brief-en.pdf>; Canadian Public Health Association. (2025). *Public health approaches to the toxic drug crisis: Position statement* [PDF]. Canadian Public Health Association. <https://www.cpha.ca/sites/default/files/uploads/policy/toxic-drug-crisis/2025-toxic-drug-supply-ps-e.pdf>; Union of BC Indian Chiefs. (2021, January 19). *Treatment over detention: Immediate changes required regarding the use of involuntary detentions for youth under the Mental Health Act* [News release]. https://www.ubcic.bc.ca/treatment_over_detention_immediate_changes_required_regarding_the_use_of_involuntary_detentions_for_youth_under_the_mental_health_act; Centre for Addiction and Mental Health. (2025, September 16). *Involuntary treatment for substance use disorders in the provincial corrections system: Policy brief* [Policy brief]. <https://www.camh.ca/-/media/driving-change-files/public-policy/involuntary-treatment-for-sud—policy-brief—sept-2025-pdf.pdf>; Canadian Mental Health Association Ontario. (2025). *Involuntary treatment*. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://ontario.cmha.ca/involuntary-treatment/>; Health Justice. (2025, May 21). *Choice over coercion: A call for voluntary care*. CATIE Blog. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://blogue.catie.ca/2025/05/21/choice-over-coercion-a-call-for-voluntary-care/>; Mannoe, M. (2023, March 23). *Involuntary treatment: Criminalization by another name* [Position paper]. Pivot Legal Society. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from https://www.pivotlegal.org/involuntary_treatment_criminalization_by_another_name; Canadian Mental Health Association British Columbia Division. (2024, September 18). *Involuntary care already exists in BC, but is it working?* Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://bc.cmha.ca/news/involuntary-care-in-bc/>; BC Poverty Reduction Coalition, BC Health Coalition, West Coast LEAF, Prisoner Legal Services, Homelessness Services Association of BC, Disability Alliance BC, BC Association of Social Workers, CUPE 5536 Harm Reduction Workers, Pacific AIDS Network, New Westminster and District Labour Council, & Together Against Poverty Society. (2024, December 9). *Open letter: On involuntary treatment and recrim*. BC Poverty Reduction Coalition. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://www.bcpovertyreduction.ca/advocacy-and-impact/open-letter-on-involuntary-treatment-and-reccrim>; Harm Reduction Nurses Association & Doctors for Safer Drug Policy. (2025, December 11). *“We refuse”: Health workers against involuntary care* [Joint statement]. International Drug Policy Consortium. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://idpc.net/news/2025/12/we-refuse-health-workers-against-involuntary-care>

^{xcix} Cooley, E., Bahji, A., & Crockford, D. Involuntary Treatment for Adult Nonoffenders With Substance Use Disorders?. *The Canadian Journal of Addiction* 14(2):p 25-31, June 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1097/CXA.0000000000000172>

^c Bahji, A.m, Leger, P., Nidumolu, A., Watts, B., Dama, S., Hamilton, A., & Tanguay, R. (2023). Effectiveness of Involuntary Treatment for Individuals With Substance Use Disorders: A Systematic Review. *The Canadian Journal of Addiction* 14(4):p 6-18. DOI: [10.1097/CXA.0000000000000188](https://doi.org/10.1097/CXA.0000000000000188)

^{ci} Werb. D., Kamarulzaman, A., Meacham, M.C. et al. (2016). The effectiveness of compulsory drug treatment: A systematic review. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 28: 1-9. DOI: [10.1016/j.drugpo.2015.12.005](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2015.12.005)

^{cii} Wegman, M. P., Altice, F. L., Kaur, S., Rajandaran, V., Osornprasop, S., Wilson, D., Wilson, D. P., & Kamarulzaman, A. (2016). Relapse to opioid use in opioid-dependent individuals released from compulsory drug detention centres compared with those from voluntary methadone treatment centres in Malaysia: a two-arm, prospective observational study. *The Lancet Global Health*, 5(2), e198–e207. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s2214-109x\(16\)30303-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/s2214-109x(16)30303-5)

^{ciii} Pilarinos, A., Barker, B., Nosova, E., Milloy, M., Hayashi, K., Wood, E., Kerr, T., & DeBeck, K. (2019). Coercion into addiction treatment and subsequent substance use patterns among people who use illicit drugs in Vancouver, Canada. *Addiction*, 115(1), 97–106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/add.14769>

^{civ} Byrne, C.J., Sani, F., Thain, D. et al. (2024). Psychosocial factors associated with overdose subsequent to Illicit Drug use: a systematic review and narrative synthesis. *Harm Reduct J* 21, 81. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12954-024-00999-8>

^{c_v} Singha, M.S., Messinger, J.C., & Beletsky, L. (2020). Neither Ethical Nor Effective: The False Promise of Involuntary Commitment to Address the Overdose Crisis. *Journal of Law, Medicine, 48*(4), <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073110520979384>

^{c_{vi}} Udwadia, F. R., & Illes, J. (2020). An Ethicolegal analysis of involuntary treatment for opioid use disorders. *The Journal of Law Medicine & Ethics, 48*(4), 735–740. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073110520979383>

^{c_{vii}} The Office of the Ombudsperson. (2019). *Committed to change: Protecting the rights of involuntary patients under the Mental Health Act* (Special Report No. 42). <https://bcombdsperson.ca/assets/media/OMB-Committed-to-Change-FINAL-web.pdf>

^{c_{viii}} Chase, J. The Ethics of Compulsory Treatment of Addictions Under Canadian Legislation: Restricting Freedom to Promote Long-Term Autonomy?. *The Canadian Journal of Addiction* 11(1):p 6-13, March 2020. | DOI: 10.1097/CXA.0000000000000074

^{c_{ix}} Hale, A. (2024, October 3). *Growing encampments prompt Ontario mayors to call for forced treatment*. *The Trillium*. Retrieved December 24, 2025, from <https://www.thetrillium.ca/news/health/growing-encampments-prompt-ontario-mayors-to-call-for-forced-treatment-9604774>