

## The history, mechanism of action and social impacts of cannabis

### *History*

Cannabis, a class B drug, acts as a relaxant, enhances perception, and delivers a euphoric effect to its user. The drug is extracted from the plant *Cannabis sativa* L which originates from Central Asia (Andre et al., 2016); this plant has 400 chemical entities, 60 of which are cannabinoid compounds (Atakan, 2012). Colloquially, known as weed, grass, and marijuana, Cannabis dates back to 2700 BCE, written in the Shennong Ben Cao Jing. The Shennong Ben Cao Jing is a Chinese book on agriculture and medicinal plants, where Shennong wrote about the hallucinatory effects, appetite stimulation, tonic, and anti-senility effects of Cannabis (Russo, 2014). The first compound to be extracted from the plant was cannabiniol, which was thought to have a psychoactive effect. However, it was later discovered that this was incorrect. Then in 1963, Mechoulam and Shvo extracted a second compound from it called cannabidiol, also known as CBD. This discovery led to the isolation of delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (d-9-THC) the following year by Gaoni and Mechoulam, the primary psychoactive compound (Atakan, 2012) [Index figure 1].

In 1968 clinical investigation started to recognise the clinical applications of Cannabis. Between then and 1985, the discovery of its various properties, such as; using it as an anticonvulsant and antiemetic to decrease anxiety and intraocular pressure. However, the mechanism by which this drug acted was still unclear until 1988, when the cannabinoid receptor CB<sub>1</sub> was discovered. A year later, it was understood that this receptor was a G-protein coupled receptor, and following this, in 1993, the CB<sub>2</sub> receptor was identified (Russo, 2014).

Throughout the discovery of Cannabis, the understanding of its effects, and the innovation in medical uses, it underwent some legal scrutiny. In the UK, in 1928, the use of Cannabis was prohibited under the 1925 Opium Convention, classifying Cannabis under the Dangerous Drugs Act 1920 (Manning, 2013) (Porter, 2016). Around this time, many other countries also made the use of Cannabis illegal and criminalised it. Regardless, some countries still allow medicinal and personal use of it. It was not until 1996 in the USA, California, that the jurisdiction changed, and Cannabis was legalised for medicinal use (Bartos et al., 2019). Promptly, in 2004 the UK decided to strip Cannabis of its class B title and move it down to class C, as its class was disproportionate to its inherent toxicity and other substance within its class (Home Office, 2002). However, this quickly pivoted in 2009 when Cannabis was given its class B classification based on concern surrounding a link between high-strength Cannabis and schizophrenia (Hamilton et al., 2014). Since then, it has stayed as a class B drug in the UK, landing individuals 5 years in prison for possession and up to 14 years for supply or production.

### *Mechanism of Action*

Cannabis contains multiple compounds, thereby triggering a bodily response by multiple mechanisms of action. The 2 main compounds within Cannabis are CBD and THC, more formally known as cannabidiol and delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol, respectively. Endogenous cannabinoids, such as Cannabis, are taken for relaxation, enhancement of perception, and euphoria. THC is a low-efficacy, partial cannabinoid agonist that acts on G protein-coupled CB<sub>1</sub> and CB<sub>2</sub> receptors (Paronis et al., 2012). CB<sub>1</sub> receptors are found in neurons, and CB<sub>2</sub> receptors are found in the periphery. CB<sub>1</sub> interactions cause CNS effects via coupling to G<sub>i</sub>, subsequently inhibiting adenylate cyclase, activating ion channels, such as K<sup>+</sup>, and inhibiting Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels (Page & Pitchford, 2020). THC has a similar structure to anandamide, an endogenous cannabinoid that functions as a neurotransmitter [Index figure 2]. They both contain a fatty acid chain making them lipophilic molecules, allowing them to pass the blood-brain barrier, causing CNS effects. Anandamide is derived from phosphatidylethanolamine. The precursor to anandamide is NAPE which is hydrolysed by multiple enzymes to convert to anandamide [Index figure 3]. Anandamide modulates the brain's reward system by indirectly interacting with the dopamine system. This is why THC exerts a euphoric effect when smoked or consumed, it causes an increased extracellular level of dopamine. This effect is via the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor, as CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist Rimonabant blocks this effect indicating a link between extracellular levels of dopamine and CB<sub>1</sub> (Scherma et al., 2018). THC also exerts other effects, such as; increased appetite, inhibition of nausea and

vomiting, and modulation of muscle contraction. CB<sub>1</sub> receptors are highly concentrated in the hippocampus, cerebellum, and hypothalamus. Therefore, Cannabis user experience memory loss effects, loss of coordination, and change in appetite and body temperature control, as these portions of the brain are responsible for these functions (Rang et al., 2012).

CB<sub>2</sub> receptors are located in the periphery, and when activated, have inhibitor effects on immune cells such as macrophages and T cells. When CB<sub>2</sub> receptors are activated alone, they do not have psychotropic effects (Dhopeshwarkar & Mackie, 2014). CB<sub>2</sub> has a lot of downstream effects, which can result in the gene expression of various genes that inhibit inflammatory and pain responses [Index figure 4]. Alongside this, it is recognised that CB<sub>2</sub> stimulation can have a protective effect over an anti-tumoral signature in B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia, helping to reduce the development and maintenance of these tumours (Punzo et al., 2022).

The other primary compound in Cannabis is CBD; however, CBD has a low affinity for CB<sub>1</sub> and CB<sub>2</sub> receptors, thus not causing a euphoric effect. CBD interacts with the multiple receptors in the body, but mainly the 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptor delivering an anti-anxiety effect [Index figure 5]. Cannabis displays a full agonist effect on the 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> serotonin receptor, with which serotonin endogenously interacts (MOHAMMAD-ZADEH et al., 2008). Serotonin is a neurotransmitter that has a variety of mechanisms within the body and is known for its role in mood and gastrointestinal motility. It interacts with the family of receptors known as the 5-HTP. The 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptors are predominately located in the CNS, regulating sleep, feeding, thermoregulation, and anxiety. This receptor is a GPCR (G<sub>i</sub>/G<sub>o</sub>), which reduces intracellular cAMP and may also modulate Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels. CBD can interact with this receptor, causing these effects, but also other agonists such as; Buspirone, 5-CT, and 8-OH-DPAT can modulate these effects too (Rang et al., 2012).

### *Social Impacts*

Alongside the variety of effects Cannabis has on the body, it profoundly affected society, even dating back to 2700 BCE when it was used for Chinese medicine (Russo, 2014). Politically, there have been many stances on the substance with its changing class due to its apparent relation to Cannabis causing schizophrenia. Reviews covering Cannabis use and the development of schizophrenia highlight that Cannabis use roughly doubles the risk of becoming schizophrenic (Smit et al., 2004). Research has mainly looked into the development of schizophrenia in adolescence that use it frequently. This raises the question of whether it could be legalised with an age restriction, like, alcohol and cigarettes that causes other diseases such as alcoholic hepatitis, lung cancer, and fibrosis. Adding an age restriction would allow the consumer to understand the adverse effects and make more informed decisions when using it. Furthermore, this would allow for education around the subject in school curriculums and in house holds, as it would be more socially acceptable. This could influence people to use Cannabis in moderation and a more sensible manor. Potentially, this could also reduce the development of schizophrenia; however, there is insufficient knowledge on Cannabis' effects on large-scale populations and if it plays a role in psychosis development in larger populations like this. There are states in the US that have now legalised the use of Cannabis, and research could be done on populations like this to give us a broader understanding of how the population could be affected (Hamilton & Monaghan, 2019). The illegal drug market for Cannabis is large, and a significant problem we would have if we made Cannabis legal is drug dealers selling to the younger population. This would be due to adults no longer being targeted by drug dealer, as they would be able to buy Cannabis legally. Consequently, this could potentially increase the prevalence of schizophrenia in the long term due to more adolescents buying and consuming Cannabis. Also, current research in 2021 has looked into Cannabis causing psychosis in genetically predisposed people. It was discovered that people who carry the specific variant of the AKT1 gene, coding for an enzyme that affects dopamine signalling in the striatum, are more at risk. It was revealed that people that smoked weed daily with this variant were seven times more likely to develop psychosis (Is there a link between marijuana use and psychiatric disorders? 2021) [Index figure 6].

Although marijuana socially can lead to many legal implications, the medicinal use of Cannabis is an ongoing blossoming field. Cannabis is legally allowed in medicine now in the UK and the US for a specific diagnosis criterion; multiple sclerosis, adults with nausea and vomiting during chemotherapy, Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, and glaucoma. During chemotherapy, many patients

experience nausea due to chemotherapy being a toxin that is entering the body. Thus natural selection causes the body to have a vomit response to extract the toxin from the body. Alongside this, in the brain is the chemoreceptor trigger zone which senses damage or toxicity from the blood. During chemotherapy, serotonin is released in the gut and goes to the CTZ, binds the 5HT<sub>3</sub> receptor in the vomiting centre, causing patients to feel nauseous and vomit. Cannabis compound CBD has inhibitory effects on the 5HT<sub>3</sub> causing suppression and alleviating these symptoms during treatment. Furthermore, cannabinoids can inhibit norepinephrine release via activation of the CB<sub>1</sub> receptor; this indirectly inhibits the release of aqueous humour, thus making Cannabis an excellent method to combat glaucoma symptoms.

To conclude, Cannabis has been around for an extended period, and over this time, the negatives have been brought to light, but also the benefits in which it can advance medicine. Greater research into its mechanism in disease treatment and its interaction with specific genetic factors needs to be broadened. Alongside this, understanding its effects on large-scale populations needs to be studied to utilise it to its full potential. However, this natural plant that propagates in sunny climates may have more potential uses in therapeutics, like aiding anxiety disorders and sleep disorders, but also as an antiemetic or analgesia.

# Index

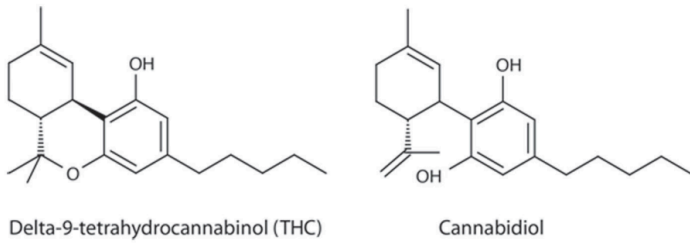


Figure 1. Chemical structure of THC and CBD (Russo & Guy, 2006)

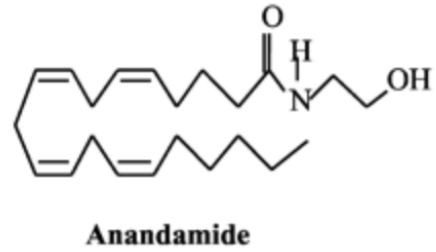


Figure 2. Anandamide structures (Baskfield et al., 2004)

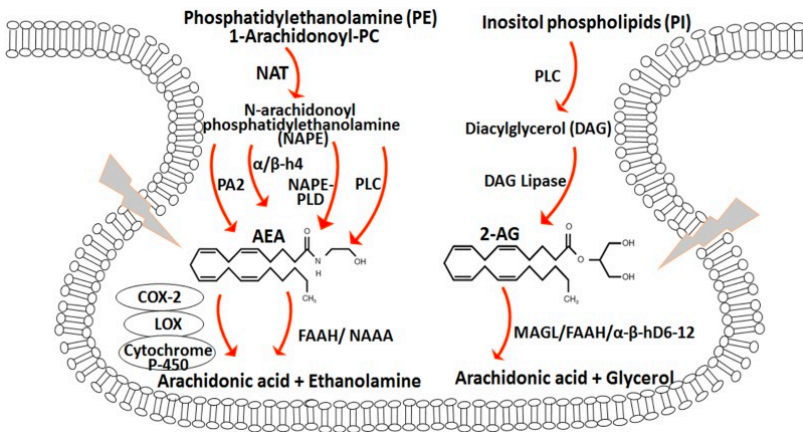


Figure 3. The biosynthesis and degradation of anandamide (Scherma et al., 2018)

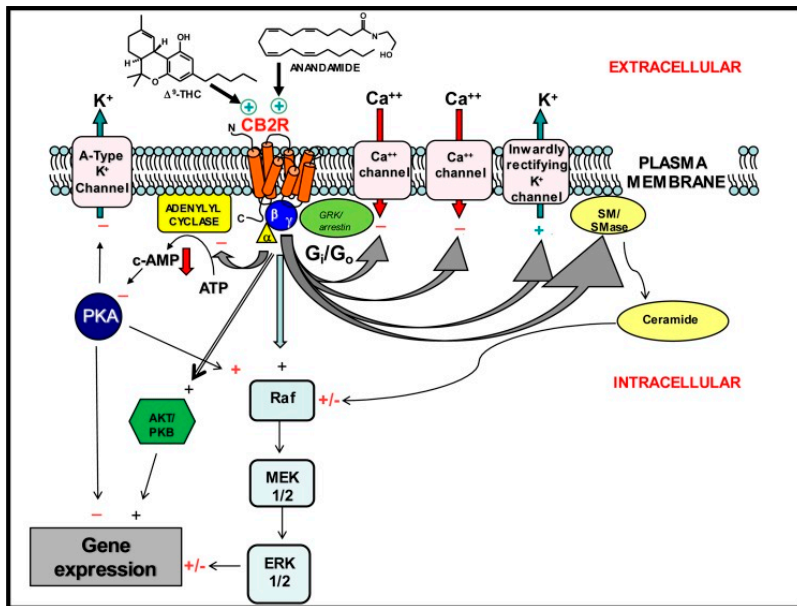


Figure 4. Downstream cascade due to activation of the CB<sub>2</sub> receptor (Dhopeswarkar & Mackie, 2014).

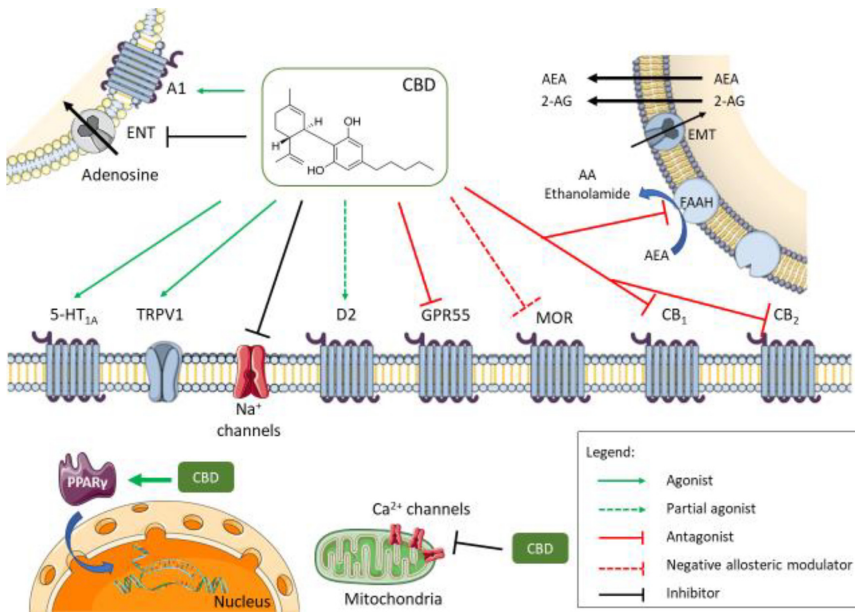


Figure 5. CBD receptor interactions within the body (Almeida & Devi, 2020)

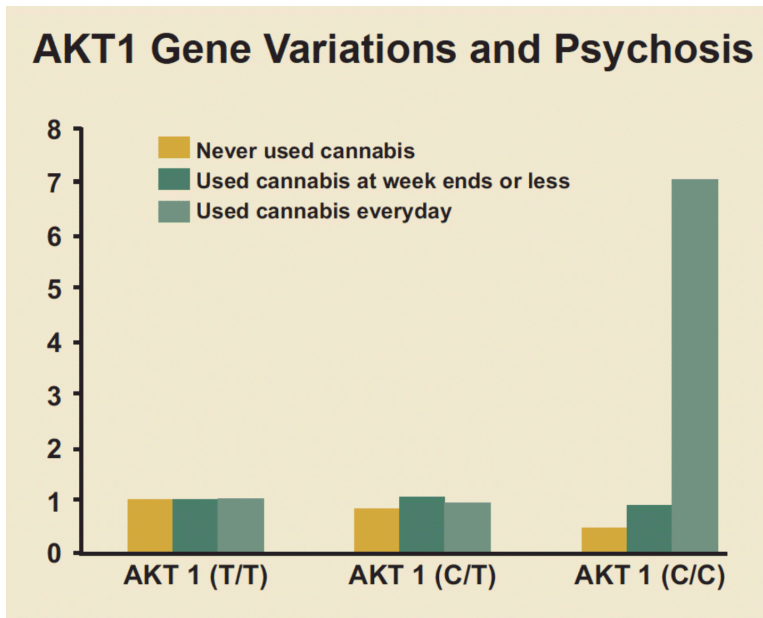


Figure 6. Development of psychosis when smoking Cannabis in the population with AKT1 genes (Is there a link between marijuana use and psychiatric disorders? 2021)

## Reference

- Almeida, D.L. and Devi, L.A. (2020) "Diversity of molecular targets and signaling pathways for CBD," *Pharmacology Research & Perspectives*, 8(6). Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1002/prp2.682>.
- Andre, C.M., Hausman, J.-F. and Guerriero, G. (2016) "Cannabis sativa: The plant of the thousand and one molecules," *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 7. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2016.00019>.
- Atakan, Z. (2012) "Cannabis, a complex plant: Different compounds and different effects on individuals," *Therapeutic Advances in Psychopharmacology*, 2(6), pp. 241–254. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/2045125312457586>.
- Bartos, B.J. *et al.* (2019) "Medical marijuana laws and suicide," *Archives of Suicide Research*, 24(2), pp. 204–217. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13811118.2019.1612803>.
- Baskfield, C.Y., Martin, B.R. and Wiley, J.L. (2004) "Differential effects of  $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol and methanandamide in CB1 knockout and wild-type mice," *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 309(1), pp. 86–91. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1124/jpet.103.055376>.
- Dhopeswarkar, A. and Mackie, K. (2014) "CB2cannabinoid receptors as a therapeutic target—what does the future hold?," *Molecular Pharmacology*, 86(4), pp. 430–437. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1124/mol.114.094649>.
- Hamilton, I. and Monaghan, M. (2019) "Cannabis and psychosis: Are we any closer to understanding the relationship?," *Current Psychiatry Reports*, 21(7). Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-019-1044-x>.
- Hamilton, I. *et al.* (2014) "Effect of reclassification of cannabis on hospital admissions for cannabis psychosis: A time series analysis," *International Journal of Drug Policy*, 25(1), pp. 151–156. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugpo.2013.05.016>.
- Home Office (2002) *Statutory framework for the Early Years foundation stage - gov.uk*, [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/119126/cannabis-class-misuse-drugs-act.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/119126/cannabis-class-misuse-drugs-act.pdf). Home Office. Available at: [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/974907/EYFS\\_framework\\_-\\_March\\_2021.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/974907/EYFS_framework_-_March_2021.pdf) (Accessed: February 24, 2023).
- Is there a link between marijuana use and psychiatric disorders?* (2021) National Institutes of Health. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Available at: <https://nida.nih.gov/publications/research-reports/marijuana/there-link-between-marijuana-use-psychiatric-disorders> (Accessed: March 28, 2023).
- Manning, P.A. (2013) *Drugs and popular culture: Drugs, media and identity in Contemporary Society*. London: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- MOHAMMAD-ZADEH, L.F., MOSES, L. and GWALTNEY-BRANT, S.M. (2008) "Serotonin: A Review," *Journal of Veterinary Pharmacology and Therapeutics*, 31(3), pp. 187–199. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2885.2008.00944.x>.
- Page, C. and Pitchford, S. (2020) *Dale's pharmacology condensed*. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier.
- Paronis, C.A. *et al.* (2012) " $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol acts as a partial agonist/antagonist in mice," *Behavioural Pharmacology*, 23(8), pp. 802–805. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1097/fbp.0b013e32835a7c4d>.
- Porter, B. (2016) *Empire ways: Aspects of British imperialism*. London: I. B. Tauris.

Punzo, F. *et al.* (2022) "Effect of CB2 stimulation on gene expression in pediatric B-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia: New possible targets," *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 23(15), p. 8651. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23158651>.

Rang, H.P. *et al.* (2012) *Rang and Dale's Pharmacology*. Edinburgh: Elsevier.

Russo, E. and Guy, G.W. (2006) "A tale of two cannabinoids: The therapeutic rationale for combining tetrahydrocannabinol and Cannabidiol," *Medical Hypotheses*, 66(2), pp. 234–246. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2005.08.026>.

Russo, E.B. (2014) "The pharmacological history of cannabis," *Handbook of Cannabis*, pp. 23–43. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199662685.003.0002>.

Scherma, M. *et al.* (2018) "Brain activity of anandamide: A rewarding bliss?," *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica*, 40(3), pp. 309–323. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41401-018-0075-x>.

Smit, F., Bolier, L. and Cuijpers, P. (2004) "Cannabis use and the risk of later schizophrenia: A Review," *Addiction*, 99(4), pp. 425–430. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1360-0443.2004.00683.x>.