



Exploring the Role of Cannabinoids in Pain Management and Inflammation

Kalaichelvan. V.K

Kamarajar College Of Pharmacy Keerapalayam, Tamilnadu

ABSTRACT

Cannabinoids (CB), bioactive compounds derived from cannabis, have emerged as potential therapeutic agents for managing pain and inflammation. Their effects are mediated primarily through the endocannabinoid system (ECS), which comprises CB1 and CB2 receptors, endogenous cannabinoids, and associated metabolic enzymes. This review explores the multifaceted role of cannabinoids in modulating pain and inflammatory responses, focusing on their mechanisms of action, therapeutic applications, and current challenges. Cannabinoids influence pain signaling by interacting with peripheral and central nervous system pathways, modulating neurotransmitter release, and reducing neuroinflammation. Furthermore, they exhibit anti-inflammatory properties by suppressing pro-inflammatory cytokines and regulating immune cell activity. Key phytocannabinoids, such as tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD), have demonstrated efficacy in various conditions, including neuropathic pain, arthritis, and inflammatory bowel diseases, with CBD offering significant advantages due to its non-psychoactive nature. Preclinical and clinical studies highlight the promising potential of cannabinoids in pain and inflammation management. Still, their therapeutic use remains limited by challenges such as psychoactive side effects, legal restrictions, and variability in patient responses. Advances in synthetic cannabinoids and personalized medicine approaches hold promise for overcoming these barriers. This review critically examines the available evidence, identifies gaps in current research, and discusses the prospects of cannabinoid-based therapies. By addressing these aspects, this article aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the therapeutic potential and limitations of cannabinoids in pain and inflammation management, contributing to the growing discourse on cannabis in modern medicine.

Keywords: *Cannabinoids, Tetrahydrocannabinol, Pain management, Inflammation management, Modern medicine*

Corresponding Author-

Kalaichelvan. V.K

vkalaichelvan1963@gmail.com

Kamarajar College Of Pharmacy Keerapalayam, Tamilnadu

Volume 15, Issue 4, 2024, Received: 1 September 2024, Accepted: 27 September 2024, Published: 30 October 2024,

1. Introduction

Cannabinoids are complex chemical compounds that interact with the body's endocannabinoid system, primarily through cannabinoid receptors. They can be derived from the cannabis plant or synthesized artificially, and they play significant roles in various physiological processes. The term cannabinoid encompasses any chemical substance that binds to cannabinoid receptors in the body and brain, producing effects similar to those of compounds found in the cannabis plant, particularly *Cannabis sativa*.^{1,2}

1.1 Types of Cannabinoids

Cannabinoids can be classified into three main categories shown in Figure 1.

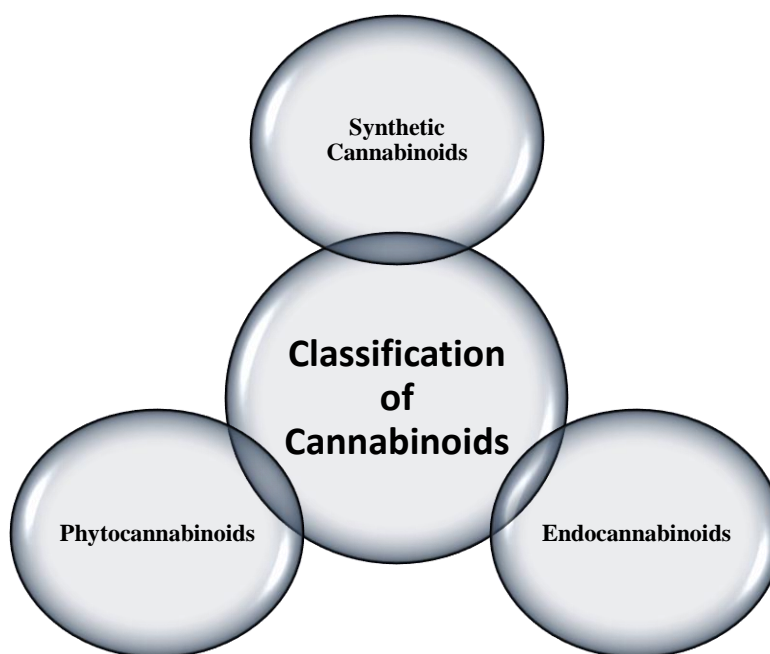


Figure 1: Classification of Cannabinoids

1.1.1 Phytocannabinoids: These are naturally occurring cannabinoids produced by the cannabis plant. There are over 100 identified phytocannabinoids, with the two most notable being:

1.1.1.1 Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC): The primary psychoactive component responsible for the "high" associated with cannabis.

1.1.1.2 Cannabidiol (CBD): Known for its therapeutic effects without psychoactivity.³

1.1.2 Endocannabinoids: These are cannabinoids produced naturally within the body. They include compounds like anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol, which help regulate various physiological functions such as mood, pain sensation, and appetite.

1.1.3 Synthetic Cannabinoids: These are artificially created compounds designed to mimic the effects of natural cannabinoids. They can have similar or even more potent effects than natural cannabinoids but may also carry different risks.^{4,5}

Table 1: Historical Perspective of Cannabinoids

Time Period	Milestone/Event	Significance
2900 BCE	First documented use in Chinese medicine	Cannabis was used as an herbal remedy for pain and other ailments in ancient China. ⁶
2000 BCE	Use in Ayurvedic medicine in India	Cannabis is included in traditional Indian medicine for treating inflammation and other conditions. ⁷
1000 BCE	Egyptian and Assyrian use	Cannabis used for spiritual and medicinal purposes, including treating pain and inflammation. ⁸
500 BCE	Ancient Greece and Rome	Cannabis mentioned in texts by Herodotus and Galen for pain relief and wound healing. ⁹

1830s CE	Introduction to Western medicine	Irish physician William O'Shaughnessy popularizes cannabis extracts in Europe for pain and spasticity. ¹⁰
1940	Isolation of CBD	Roger Adams isolates cannabidiol (CBD), marking the first identification of a cannabinoid. ¹¹
1964	Discovery of THC	Raphael Mechoulam identifies and synthesizes tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the primary psychoactive component. ¹²
1988	Discovery of cannabinoid receptors	Cannabinoid receptor CB1 identified, leading to greater understanding of the endocannabinoid system (ECS). ¹³
1990s	Discovery of endocannabinoids	Anandamide and 2-AG identified as naturally occurring cannabinoids in the human body. ¹⁴
1996	Legalization of medical cannabis	California becomes the first U.S. state to legalize cannabis for medical use. ¹⁵
2000s	Rise of synthetic cannabinoids	Development of synthetic cannabinoids like dronabinol and nabilone for therapeutic use. ¹⁶
2010s	FDA approval of cannabinoid drugs	Approval of Epidiolex (CBD) for epilepsy and synthetic

		cannabinoids for nausea in chemotherapy. ¹⁷
2020s	Expansion of research and acceptance	Increasing global legalization, more clinical trials, and research into therapeutic applications of cannabinoids. ¹⁸

1.2 Pain and Inflammatory Mechanisms

Pain and inflammation are essential biological responses that protect the body against injury, infection, or harmful stimuli. Pain arises from the activation of specialized sensory neurons called nociceptors, which detect thermal, mechanical, or chemical stimuli. These signals are transmitted via A δ fibers (responsible for sharp, acute pain) and C fibers (dull, chronic pain) to the spinal cord and brain, where they are processed, resulting in the perception of pain. Modulation of pain occurs through endogenous systems such as the endocannabinoid and opioid pathways, which regulate and dampen excessive signaling.¹⁹

Inflammation, on the other hand, is a protective immune response designed to eliminate harmful agents, repair damaged tissues, and restore homeostasis. Acute inflammation is initiated when immune cells like macrophages and mast cells recognize harmful stimuli through pattern-recognition receptors, triggering the release of pro-inflammatory mediators such as cytokines (IL-1 β , TNF- α , and IL-6) and chemokines. This leads to redness, swelling, heat, pain, and sometimes loss of function. When acute inflammation fails to resolve, it may progress to chronic inflammation, characterized by persistent immune activation, tissue damage, and fibrosis, as seen in conditions like rheumatoid arthritis and inflammatory bowel disease.²⁰

Pain and inflammation are closely interconnected, as inflammatory mediators sensitize nociceptors, amplifying pain signals in a process called peripheral sensitization. Prolonged inflammation can also lead to central sensitization, where the central nervous system becomes hyper-responsive, perpetuating pain even after the initial trigger resolves. Targeting inflammatory pathways, such as using NSAIDs to inhibit prostaglandins, and modulating the endocannabinoid system are promising therapeutic strategies to alleviate both pain and inflammation.²¹

1.3 Mechanism of Action

1.3.1. Endocannabinoid System (ECS)

The endocannabinoid system (ECS) is a complex biological network that plays a critical role in maintaining homeostasis by modulating various physiological processes, including pain and inflammation. The ECS comprises cannabinoid receptors, endogenous cannabinoids (endocannabinoids), and enzymes responsible for their synthesis and degradation. The two primary receptors, CB1 and CB2, are G-protein-coupled receptors that mediate the effects of cannabinoids. CB1 receptors are predominantly located in the central nervous system, particularly in regions associated with pain perception and modulation, such as the brain and spinal cord. Their activation reduces pain signaling by inhibiting neurotransmitter release. CB2 receptors, on the other hand, are primarily found in immune cells and peripheral tissues, where they regulate immune responses and reduce inflammation by suppressing the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines.^{22,23}

Endocannabinoids like anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG) are synthesized on demand from lipid precursors in response to physiological needs. Their actions are tightly regulated by metabolic enzymes such as fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL), which degrade AEA and 2-AG, respectively, terminating their effects. By interacting with CB1 and CB2 receptors, endocannabinoids modulate nociceptive and inflammatory pathways. CB1 activation inhibits nociceptive signal transmission, while CB2 activation mitigates inflammation by reducing immune cell recruitment and cytokine production. This dual regulatory function of the ECS makes it a promising target for therapeutic strategies aimed at managing pain and inflammation effectively.²⁴

1.3.2 Neurotransmitter Modulation

The modulation of neurotransmitters such as serotonin, dopamine, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) plays a pivotal role in the endocannabinoid system's (ECS) ability to regulate pain and inflammation. Through interactions with CB1 and CB2 receptors, cannabinoids influence these neurotransmitter systems, thereby impacting nociception, mood, and inflammatory responses.²⁵

1.3.2.1 Serotonin is a key neurotransmitter involved in mood regulation, pain perception, and inflammation. The ECS interacts with serotonin pathways by modulating its release and receptor activity. For example, cannabinoids can enhance serotonin-mediated analgesia by activating serotonin receptors, reducing pain and stress associated with chronic inflammatory conditions.²⁶

1.3.2.2 Dopamine, another critical neurotransmitter, regulates reward, motivation, and motor control, and it also plays a role in pain modulation. The ECS modulates dopaminergic signaling, potentially alleviating pain by reducing dopamine dysregulation in chronic pain conditions. CB1 receptor activation in dopaminergic pathways has been shown to influence pain perception and reward mechanisms, which may be relevant in managing pain-related anxiety and depression.²⁷

1.3.2.3 GABA, the brain's primary inhibitory neurotransmitter, is essential for maintaining neuronal excitability and reducing the sensation of pain. Cannabinoids modulate GABAergic signaling by affecting CB1 receptors located on GABAergic neurons. This interaction enhances inhibitory signaling, reducing the hyperexcitability often seen in chronic pain and inflammatory states.

Through the modulation of serotonin, dopamine, and GABA, cannabinoids exert a multifaceted influence on pain and inflammation, offering a therapeutic advantage in managing complex pain syndromes and associated comorbidities.^{28,29}

1.4 Immune System Interaction

The interaction of cannabinoids with the immune system is a crucial aspect of their therapeutic potential in managing inflammation and pain. This involves mechanisms such as cytokine suppression and regulation of T-cell activity, which help modulate immune responses and reduce pathological inflammation.³⁰

1.4.1 Cytokine Suppression: Cytokines are signaling proteins released by immune cells to coordinate inflammatory responses. Pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 play a central role in chronic inflammation and immune-mediated diseases. Cannabinoids, particularly through the activation of CB2 receptors expressed on immune cells, suppress the production and release of these cytokines. This reduces inflammation by limiting the recruitment and activation of immune cells at the site of injury or infection. Additionally, cannabinoids can promote the release of anti-inflammatory cytokines like IL-10, further balancing the immune response.³¹

1.4.2 Regulation of T-cell Activity: T-cells are a vital component of the adaptive immune system and are heavily involved in inflammation and immune surveillance. Cannabinoids modulate T-cell activity by influencing their proliferation, differentiation, and cytokine secretion profiles. CB2 receptor activation on T-cells inhibits their activation and reduces the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, while also inducing apoptosis in hyperactive T-cells. This immunosuppressive effect is particularly beneficial in autoimmune and chronic inflammatory diseases, where overactive T-cell responses contribute to tissue damage.³²

1.5 Therapeutic Applications

The unique properties of cannabinoids make them a valuable tool for managing various pain and inflammatory conditions. By targeting the endocannabinoid system (ECS), cannabinoids offer a

multi-dimensional approach to treatment, addressing pain modulation, inflammation, and overall patient well-being.³³

1.5.1 Chronic Pain Conditions

1.5.1.1 Neuropathic Pain: Neuropathic pain, often caused by nerve damage or dysfunction, is challenging to treat with conventional analgesics. Cannabinoids, particularly THC and CBD, modulate pain signaling by interacting with CB1 receptors in the central nervous system and CB2 receptors in peripheral tissues. This dual action reduces hyperalgesia and allodynia, providing relief to patients with conditions like diabetic neuropathy and post-herpetic neuralgia.³⁴

1.5.1.2 Fibromyalgia: This complex disorder is characterized by widespread musculoskeletal pain, fatigue, and sleep disturbances. Cannabinoids help alleviate symptoms by regulating neurotransmitter imbalances and reducing central sensitization, a hallmark of fibromyalgia. Studies have shown improvements in pain scores and quality of life with cannabinoid-based therapies.³⁵

1.5.1.3 Cancer-related Pain: Pain in cancer patients may result from tumor invasion, treatment side effects, or systemic inflammation. Cannabinoids mitigate this pain by desensitizing nociceptors and modulating inflammatory pathways. Additionally, they provide ancillary benefits such as reducing nausea, improving appetite, and enhancing mood.³⁶

1.5.2 Inflammatory Diseases

1.5.2.1 Rheumatoid Arthritis: Cannabinoids reduce joint inflammation and pain by suppressing pro-inflammatory cytokines and modulating T-cell activity. Topical or oral cannabinoid formulations have shown efficacy in reducing morning stiffness and enhancing mobility.³⁷

1.5.2.2 Crohn's Disease: By targeting CB2 receptors in the gastrointestinal tract, cannabinoids reduce inflammation, alleviate abdominal pain, and improve symptoms of Crohn's disease and other inflammatory bowel diseases.

1.5.2.3 Psoriasis: This autoimmune skin condition involves excessive inflammation and keratinocyte proliferation. Cannabinoids regulate immune responses and reduce skin cell turnover, making them a potential topical treatment for managing psoriatic plaques.³⁸

1.5.3 Post-Surgical Pain Management

Post-operative pain, often severe and short-term, can be effectively managed with cannabinoids as an adjunct to standard analgesics. Cannabinoids reduce the reliance on opioids, lowering the risk

of opioid-related side effects and dependence. By modulating pain signaling and inflammation at the surgical site, they accelerate recovery and improve patient comfort.³⁹

1.6 Cannabinoid Compounds

Cannabinoids interact with the endocannabinoid system (ECS) to modulate pain, inflammation, and other physiological functions. These compounds can be categorized into THC, CBD, other phytocannabinoids, and synthetic cannabinoids, each with unique therapeutic properties (Figure 2).⁴⁰

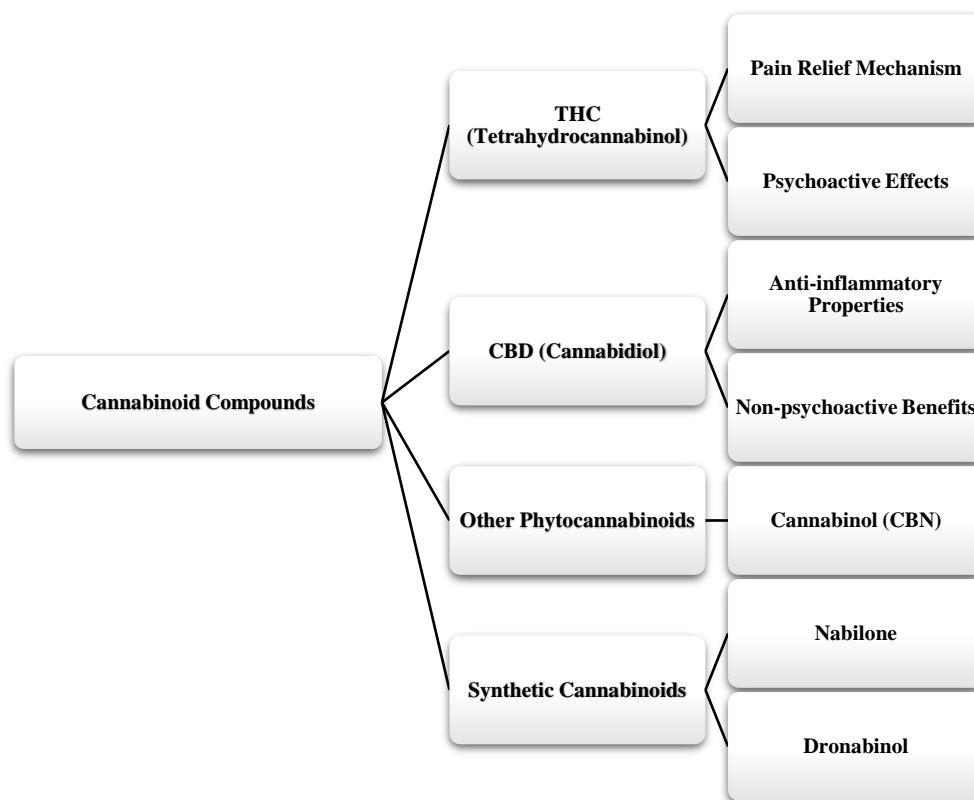


Figure 2: Illustration of Cannabinoid Compounds

1.6.1 THC (Tetrahydrocannabinol)

1.6.1.1 Pain Relief Mechanism: THC is the primary psychoactive compound in cannabis and is known for its ability to alleviate pain. It binds to CB1 receptors in the brain and spinal cord, where it inhibits the release of neurotransmitters that transmit pain signals. THC also affects the central nervous system by modulating pain pathways, reducing pain perception, and providing relief in

conditions such as neuropathic pain and cancer-related pain. Additionally, THC enhances the pain-relieving effects of other analgesics, making it a useful adjunct in managing chronic pain.⁴¹

1.6.1.2 Psychoactive Effects: THC is most notable for its psychoactive effects, including altered perception, euphoria, and relaxation. While these effects may contribute to its pain-relieving properties by inducing relaxation and mood elevation, they can also limit its use in certain patient populations. The psychoactive nature of THC can lead to cognitive impairments, anxiety, and paranoia in some individuals, which is why careful dosing and medical supervision are necessary for therapeutic use.⁴²

1.6.2 CBD (Cannabidiol)

1.6.2.1 Anti-inflammatory Properties: CBD, a non-psychoactive cannabinoid, has gained significant attention for its potent anti-inflammatory effects. It interacts primarily with CB2 receptors in immune cells, modulating immune response and reducing the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-6. CBD is particularly effective in conditions characterized by chronic inflammation, such as rheumatoid arthritis and Crohn's disease, where it helps reduce swelling, pain, and tissue damage. It also inhibits the activation of immune cells, preventing the amplification of inflammatory responses.⁴³

1.6.2.2 Non-psychoactive Benefits: Unlike THC, CBD does not produce the "high" commonly associated with cannabis. This makes it an appealing option for patients seeking therapeutic benefits without the psychoactive side effects. In addition to its anti-inflammatory properties, CBD has been shown to have neuroprotective, anxiolytic, and antiepileptic effects. It can alleviate anxiety, improve sleep, and reduce stress, providing a holistic approach to managing chronic pain and related conditions.⁴⁴

1.6.3 Other Phytocannabinoids

Cannabigerol (CBG): CBG is a non-psychoactive cannabinoid that is often referred to as the "mother of all cannabinoids" because it is the precursor to other cannabinoids like THC and CBD. Research suggests that CBG has potential therapeutic effects, including anti-inflammatory, analgesic, and neuroprotective properties. It has been studied for its potential to treat conditions such as glaucoma, inflammatory bowel disease, and neurodegenerative diseases like Huntington's disease. CBG is also being explored for its ability to support the growth of new brain cells, making it a promising compound for neurogenesis.⁴⁵

1.6.3.1 Cannabinol (CBN): CBN is a mildly psychoactive cannabinoid that is produced as THC ages and oxidizes. While it does not produce the strong euphoric effects of THC, it has

demonstrated sedative and anti-inflammatory properties, making it potentially useful for treating insomnia and pain. CBN has also been researched for its antibacterial, neuroprotective, and anticonvulsant effects. It may be particularly beneficial for patients suffering from chronic pain conditions who also experience sleep disturbances.⁴⁶

1.6.4 Synthetic Cannabinoids

1.6.4.1 Nabilone: Nabilone is a synthetic cannabinoid that mimics the effects of THC and is used primarily for managing nausea and vomiting associated with chemotherapy. It is a CB1 receptor agonist, which helps reduce nausea and improve appetite in patients undergoing cancer treatment. Nabilone has also been explored for its potential in managing pain, particularly in conditions like neuropathic pain and fibromyalgia, where its analgesic effects can help improve quality of life.⁴⁷

1.6.4.2 Dronabinol: Dronabinol is another synthetic cannabinoid derived from THC, often prescribed for its antiemetic and appetite-stimulating properties. It is used to treat chemotherapy-induced nausea, as well as to stimulate appetite in patients with HIV/AIDS or other conditions causing weight loss. Like THC, dronabinol interacts with CB1 receptors to reduce nausea and promote food intake. It has also shown promise in the management of chronic pain and neuropathic conditions, although its psychoactive effects limit its use in certain populations.⁴⁸

1.7 Preclinical and Clinical Evidence

Preclinical and clinical studies are crucial for understanding the therapeutic potential of cannabinoids in pain and inflammation management. Animal models and human clinical trials provide insight into the effectiveness and safety of cannabinoid-based therapies, while meta-analyses and systematic reviews synthesize data to offer a comprehensive view of the current evidence.⁴⁹

1.7.1 Animal Models of Pain and Inflammation

Animal models are foundational in evaluating the efficacy and safety of cannabinoid-based treatments for pain and inflammation. These models allow researchers to simulate human conditions and observe the physiological responses to cannabinoid therapies in a controlled environment.⁵⁰

1.7.1.1 Pain Models: Various animal models are used to study nociception and pain modulation. Common models include the formalin test, which assesses acute inflammatory pain, and the spinal nerve ligation model for neuropathic pain. In these models, cannabinoids such as THC and CBD are administered to evaluate their pain-relieving effects. Studies have shown that cannabinoids

reduce pain-related behaviors, such as licking or guarding the affected area, demonstrating their analgesic properties.⁵¹

1.7.1.2 Inflammation Models: Animal models of inflammatory diseases, like arthritis and colitis, are used to study how cannabinoids influence immune responses and inflammatory pathways. For instance, in the complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA) model of arthritis, cannabinoids have been shown to reduce paw swelling, cytokine production, and joint damage. Similarly, in models of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), cannabinoids like CBD have been demonstrated to reduce inflammation in the gut by modulating immune cell activity and cytokine release.

These models provide evidence that cannabinoids can effectively reduce both pain and inflammation, suggesting their potential for treating chronic conditions like neuropathic pain, rheumatoid arthritis, and IBD.⁵²

1.7.2 Human Clinical Trials

Human clinical trials are the gold standard for assessing the safety and efficacy of cannabinoid-based treatments. These trials are designed to evaluate the effects of cannabinoids on pain and inflammation in humans, and they offer valuable data on therapeutic outcomes, dosage, and adverse effects.⁵³

1.7.2.1 Outcomes: Clinical trials investigating cannabinoids have shown promising results for various pain conditions. For example, studies on neuropathic pain have found that THC and THC-CBD combinations reduce pain intensity and improve sleep quality. In cancer-related pain, cannabinoids have demonstrated effectiveness in alleviating pain, reducing nausea, and stimulating appetite. Clinical trials for fibromyalgia have also reported significant improvements in pain scores, with participants experiencing reduced muscle tenderness and better overall well-being.⁵⁴

1.7.2.2 Limitations: Despite promising outcomes, clinical trials involving cannabinoids face several limitations. One major challenge is the variability in study designs, including differences in cannabinoid formulations (THC vs. CBD vs. combinations), dosages, and methods of administration (oral, topical, inhalation). Furthermore, the psychoactive effects of THC can complicate interpretation, particularly in studies involving non-medical cannabis use. Additionally, the long-term safety and potential for addiction remain concerns, especially with higher doses or prolonged use. Variability in individual responses due to genetic factors and the lack of standardization in clinical protocols also limit the ability to draw definitive conclusions.⁵⁵

1.7.3 Meta-analyses and Systematic Reviews

Meta-analyses and systematic reviews are essential tools in synthesizing data from multiple clinical studies to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the efficacy and safety of cannabinoids in pain and inflammation management. These reviews aggregate findings from various trials, helping to identify overall trends, treatment efficacy, and areas needing further research.⁵⁶

1.7.3.1 Meta-analyses: A meta-analysis statistically combines data from multiple studies to assess the overall effect of cannabinoids. Several meta-analyses have examined the use of cannabinoids in chronic pain, neuropathic pain, and inflammatory conditions. For example, a meta-analysis of trials involving cannabis-based medicines (CBM) found moderate evidence supporting their use for chronic pain management, particularly in cases of neuropathic pain and cancer pain. Another meta-analysis concluded that cannabinoids effectively reduced pain intensity and improved sleep in patients with fibromyalgia.⁵⁷

1.7.3.2 Systematic Reviews: Systematic reviews comprehensively evaluate all available literature on a given topic, to minimize bias in the selection and analysis of studies. For cannabinoids, systematic reviews have focused on their safety profile and therapeutic potential in various conditions. These reviews typically highlight the potential benefits of cannabinoids in reducing pain and inflammation, but they also emphasize the need for well-designed, large-scale studies to confirm long-term safety and efficacy. Moreover, systematic reviews often discuss the challenges of inconsistent dosing regimens, side effects, and the influence of psychoactive properties. While these reviews and meta-analyses provide valuable insights, the heterogeneity of cannabinoid formulations, dosing regimens, and study designs in the available literature means that conclusions must be interpreted with caution. Further large-scale, randomized controlled trials (RCTs) are necessary to fully understand the clinical applications of cannabinoids.⁵⁸

1.8 Challenges and Limitations

Despite the promising potential of cannabinoids in pain and inflammation management, several challenges and limitations hinder their widespread clinical application. Side effects and safety concerns remain significant, particularly with THC, which can cause cognitive impairment, anxiety, dizziness, and paranoia, making it unsuitable for certain patient populations. Additionally, prolonged use of cannabinoids may lead to dependence or tolerance, raising concerns about their long-term safety. Legal and regulatory issues are also problematic, as cannabis remains classified as a controlled substance in many countries, limiting research, access, and clinical use. This legal uncertainty complicates the development of standardized treatment protocols and hinders the integration of cannabinoid-based therapies into mainstream medical practices. The distinction

between psychoactive and non-psychoactive cannabinoids adds another layer of complexity; while CBD is non-psychoactive and generally well-tolerated, THC, with its psychoactive effects, can be undesirable in many clinical settings, especially for patients requiring clear cognition or operating machinery. Moreover, the variability in dosage and formulation further complicates the clinical use of cannabinoids. Different formulations—such as oils, tinctures, edibles, or topicals—vary in their bioavailability and therapeutic outcomes. Additionally, there is no universally accepted dosing regimen, as the ideal dose depends on factors such as the patient's condition, response to treatment, and cannabinoid composition. This lack of standardization makes it difficult to establish effective and consistent cannabinoid therapies, and increases the risk of adverse effects due to improper dosing. As a result, these challenges necessitate further research, regulatory reforms, and clinical trials to optimize cannabinoid treatments for pain and inflammation management while ensuring patient safety.^{59,60}

1.9 Future Perspectives

The future of cannabinoid-based therapies in pain and inflammation management holds great promise, driven by advances in research, personalized medicine, and the development of novel therapeutic agents. Advances in cannabinoid research are uncovering new molecular mechanisms and pathways through which cannabinoids exert their effects, facilitating the identification of new targets for therapeutic intervention. Ongoing studies focus on enhancing our understanding of the endocannabinoid system (ECS) and how cannabinoids interact with it, potentially leading to the discovery of more selective and potent cannabinoid compounds that minimize side effects and enhance efficacy. Personalized medicine approaches are likely to become a key aspect of cannabinoid therapies. By tailoring treatments based on individual genetic profiles, disease conditions, and response to cannabinoids, clinicians can optimize therapeutic outcomes. This precision medicine model will allow for more effective dosing, formulation, and choice of cannabinoid types (such as THC or CBD) based on each patient's specific needs. Biomarkers for predicting response to cannabinoid treatments could further enhance this approach, ensuring safer and more effective therapies for pain and inflammation.^{61,62}

The development of novel cannabinoid-based drugs is a crucial area of focus. Researchers are working on creating cannabinoid formulations that provide targeted relief without causing psychoactive effects or dependence. This includes the development of synthetic cannabinoids and novel cannabinoid analogs that have improved potency, bioavailability, and safety profiles. Additionally, cannabinoid receptor modulators could be developed to specifically activate or block certain ECS pathways, offering more precise therapeutic interventions for conditions like neuropathic pain, inflammatory diseases, and cancer-related pain. Finally, there is growing interest in the potential synergistic effects with conventional therapies. Combining cannabinoids with

traditional pain relievers, such as opioids or NSAIDs, may enhance pain relief while reducing reliance on high-dose medications and minimizing adverse side effects. For example, combining CBD with opioids could reduce opioid tolerance and dependence, improving overall pain management strategies. This integrative approach could offer patients more comprehensive and effective treatment options, enhancing the quality of life for those suffering from chronic pain and inflammation. As research progresses, these innovations in cannabinoid therapies hold great potential to revolutionize pain and inflammation management, offering safer, more effective, and personalized treatment options for patients worldwide.^{63,64}

1.10 Conclusion

This review highlights the growing body of evidence supporting the therapeutic potential of cannabinoids in managing pain and inflammation. Cannabinoids, particularly THC and CBD, interact with the endocannabinoid system (ECS) to modulate pain perception, inflammation, and immune responses, offering significant relief in conditions such as neuropathic pain, arthritis, and fibromyalgia. Preclinical studies using animal models have demonstrated the effectiveness of cannabinoids in reducing pain and inflammation, while clinical trials have shown promising results, especially in cancer-related pain, chronic pain conditions, and inflammatory diseases. The development of synthetic cannabinoids and novel formulations further enhances the therapeutic landscape by offering alternatives to traditional pain management strategies. However, challenges such as psychoactive side effects, legal and regulatory hurdles, and variability in dosing remain significant barriers to their widespread clinical adoption.

The implications for future research are vast. There is a need for large-scale, well-designed clinical trials to establish standardized dosing regimens and further explore the long-term safety and efficacy of cannabinoids. Research should also focus on personalized medicine approaches, tailoring cannabinoid treatments to individual genetic profiles and specific pain or inflammatory conditions. Additionally, novel cannabinoid-based drugs that minimize psychoactive effects and optimize therapeutic outcomes are critical for advancing cannabinoid therapies in mainstream medical practice. Furthermore, the synergistic effects of cannabinoids with conventional therapies, such as opioids or NSAIDs, should be explored to enhance pain management while reducing reliance on traditional pain medications. From a policy perspective, regulatory frameworks must evolve to facilitate clinical research and patient access to cannabinoid-based treatments. Governments should prioritize the legalization and standardization of cannabinoid medicines to ensure consistent quality and safety. Clinically, healthcare providers should be equipped with the knowledge to appropriately prescribe cannabinoids, balancing therapeutic benefits with potential risks. The future of cannabinoid-based therapies in pain and inflammation management holds great

promise, but continued research, policy reform, and clinical innovation are essential to fully realize their potential.

1. Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest.

2. Acknowledgement

Authors are highly thankful to their Universities/Colleges for providing library facilities for the literature survey.

3. References

1. Schurman LD, Lu D, Kendall DA, Howlett AC, Lichtman AH. Molecular mechanism and cannabinoid pharmacology. In: Substance Use Disorders: From Etiology to Treatment. 2020:323-353.
2. Grinspoon P. The endocannabinoid system: Essential and mysterious. Harvard Health. Published February 15, 2023. Accessed August 11, 2021.
3. Shevyrin VA, Morzherin YY. Cannabinoids: structures, effects, and classification. Russian Chemical Bulletin. 2015;64(6):1249-1266.
4. Duczmal D, Bazan-Wozniak A, Niedzielska K, Pietrzak R. Cannabinoids—Multifunctional compounds, applications, and challenges: Mini review. Molecules. 2024;29(20):4923. Published 2024 Oct 17.
5. Manzanares J, Corchero J, Romero J, Fernández-Ruiz JJ, Ramos JA, Fuentes JA. Pharmacological and biochemical interactions between opioids and cannabinoids. Trends in Pharmacological Sciences. 1999;20(7):287-294.
6. Makowiecka J, Wielgus K. Therapeutic potential of cannabinoids—Retrospective and historical developments. Journal of Natural Fibers. 2014;11(3):185-198. Published 2014 Jul 3.
7. Appendino G. The early history of cannabinoid research. Rendiconti Lincei. Scienze Fisiche e Naturali. 2020;31(4):919-929. Published 2020 Dec.

8. Crocq MA. History of cannabis and the endocannabinoid system. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience*. 2020;22(3):223-228. Published 2020 Sep 30.
9. Sumler A. *Cannabis in the Ancient Greek and Roman World*. Lexington Books; 2018 Oct 31.
10. Zuardi AW. History of cannabis as a medicine: a review. *Brazilian Journal of Psychiatry*. 2006;28:153-157.
11. Pertwee RG. Cannabinoid pharmacology: the first 66 years. *British Journal of Pharmacology*. 2006;147(S1):S163-S171.
12. Taylor S. Medicalizing cannabis—Science, medicine and policy, 1950–2004: An overview of a work in progress. *Drugs: Education, Prevention and Policy*. 2008;15(5):462-474. Published 2008 Jan 1.
13. Bashir M, Naqshbandi MM, Farooq R. Business model innovation: a systematic review and future research directions. *International Journal of Innovation Science*. 2020;12(4):457-476. Published 2020 Dec 4.
14. Malabadi RB, Kolkar KP, Chalannavar RK, Lavanya L, Abdi G. Medical Cannabis sativa (Marijuana or drug type): Psychoactive molecule, Δ^9 -Tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ^9 -THC). *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Applied Science*. 2023;8(4):236-249.
15. Nagy I, White JP, Paule CC, Köfalvi A. An historical introduction to the endocannabinoid and endovanilloid systems. In: *Cannabinoids and the Brain*. Boston, MA: Springer US; 2008. p. 3-13.
16. PeaceHealth M, Bill P. Cannabis and Cannabinoids (PDQ®): Integrative, alternative, and complementary therapies—Health Professional Information. National Cancer Institute (NCI). Available from: <https://www.cancer.gov/about-cancer/treatment/drugs/cannabis>.
17. Hall W, Lynskey M. Assessing the public health impacts of legalizing recreational cannabis use: the US experience. *World Psychiatry*. 2020;19(2):179-186. Published 2020 Jun.
18. Ayakannu T. Investigation of endocannabinoid system signalling pathways and their regulations in endometrial carcinoma. [dissertation]. University of Leicester; 2020.

19. Woller SA, Eddinger KA, Corr M, Yaksh TL. An overview of pathways encoding nociception. *Clinical and Experimental Rheumatology*. 2017;35(Suppl 107):40. Published 2017 Sep.
20. Nemenov MI, Singleton JR, Premkumar LS. Role of mechanosensitive nociceptors in painful diabetic peripheral neuropathy. *Current Diabetes Reviews*. 2022;18(5):97-112. Published 2022 Jun 1.
21. Takeda M, Sashide Y, Toyota R, Ito H. The phytochemical, quercetin, attenuates nociceptive and pathological pain: Neurophysiological mechanisms and therapeutic potential. *Molecules*. 2024;29(16). Published 2024 Aug.
22. Preteroti M. Investigating receptor-mediated effects of select cannabinoids on the innate inflammatory response. [dissertation]. McGill University; 2022.
23. Capodice JL, Kaplan SA. The endocannabinoid system, cannabis, and cannabidiol: Implications in urology and men's health. *Current Urology*. 2021;15(2):95-100. Published 2021 Jun 1.
24. Behl T, Makkar R, Sehgal A, Singh S, Makeen HA, Albratty M, Alhazmi HA, Meraya AM, Bungau S. Exploration of multiverse activities of endocannabinoids in biological systems. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*. 2022;23(10):5734. Published 2022 May 20.
25. Strandwitz P. Neurotransmitter modulation by the gut microbiota. *Brain Research*. 2018;1693:128-133. Published 2018 Aug 15.
26. Ciranna Á. Serotonin as a modulator of glutamate- and GABA-mediated neurotransmission: Implications in physiological functions and in pathology. *Current Neuropharmacology*. 2006;4(2):101-114. Published 2006 Apr 1.
27. Narvaes R, Martins de Almeida RM. Aggressive behavior and three neurotransmitters: dopamine, GABA, and serotonin—A review of the last 10 years. *Psychology & Neuroscience*. 2014;7(4):601. Published 2014 Jun.
28. Celada P, Puig MV, Artigas F. Serotonin modulation of cortical neurons and networks. *Frontiers in Integrative Neuroscience*. 2013;7:25. Published 2013 Apr 19.

29. De Almeida RM, Ferrari PF, Parmigiani S, Miczek KA. Escalated aggressive behavior: dopamine, serotonin and GABA. *European Journal of Pharmacology*. 2005;526(1-3):51-64. Published 2005 Dec 5.
30. Kenney MJ, Ganta CK. Autonomic nervous system and immune system interactions. *Comprehensive Physiology*. 2014;4(3):1177. Published 2014 Jul.
31. Kany S, Vollrath JT, Relja B. Cytokines in inflammatory disease. *International journal of molecular sciences*. 2019 Nov 28;20(23):6008.
32. Okeke EB, Uzonna JE. The pivotal role of regulatory T cells in regulating innate immune cells. *Frontiers in Immunology*. 2019;10:435248. Published 2019 Apr 9.
33. Leinen ZJ, Mohan R, Premadasa LS, Acharya A, Mohan M, Byrareddy SN. Therapeutic potential of cannabis: a comprehensive review of current and future applications. *Biomedicines*. 2023;11(10):2630. Published 2023 Sep 25.
34. Campos RM, Aguiar AF, Paes-Colli Y, Trindade PM, Ferreira BK, de Melo Reis RA, Sampaio LS. Cannabinoid therapeutics in chronic neuropathic pain: from animal research to human treatment. *Frontiers in Physiology*. 2021;12:785176. Published 2021 Nov 30.
35. Vučković S, Srebro D, Vujović KS, Vučetić Č, Prostran M. Cannabinoids and pain: new insights from old molecules. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*. 2018;9:416167. Published 2018 Nov 13.
36. Shehata I, Hashim A, Elsaedy A, Nair A, Urits I, Viswanath O, Kaye AD, Habib M. Cannabinoids and their role in chronic pain treatment: Current concepts and a comprehensive review. *Health Psychology Research*. 2022;10(4):35848. Published 2022 Oct 4.
37. Lowin T, Schneider M, Pongratz G. Joints for joints: cannabinoids in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. *Current opinion in rheumatology*. 2019 May 1;31(3):271-8.
38. Fukuda S, Kohsaka H, Takayasu A, Yokoyama W, Miyabe C, Miyabe Y, Harigai M, Miyasaka N, Nanki T. Cannabinoid receptor 2 as a potential therapeutic target in rheumatoid arthritis. *BMC musculoskeletal disorders*. 2014 Dec;15:1-0.
39. Khatib S, Razvi SS, Shaikh MM, Khan MM. Acute post-operative pain management. *Updates in Anesthesia-The Operating Room and Beyond*. 2023 Jan 29.

40. Khan MI, Sobocińska A, Czarnecka AM, Król M, Botta B, Szczylik C. The therapeutic aspects of the endocannabinoid system (ECS) for cancer and their development: From nature to laboratory. *Current Pharmaceutical Design*. 2016;22(12):1756-1766. Published 2016 Apr 1.
41. Bloomfield MA, Ashok AH, Volkow ND, Howes OD. The effects of Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol on the dopamine system. *Nature*. 2016;539(7629):369-377. Published 2016 Nov 17.
42. Bloemendal VR, van Hest JC, Rutjes FP. Synthetic pathways to tetrahydrocannabinol (THC): an overview. *Organic & Biomolecular Chemistry*. 2020;18(17):3203-15.
43. Atalay S, Jarocka-Karpowicz I, Skrzydlewska E. Antioxidative and anti-inflammatory properties of cannabidiol. *Antioxidants*. 2019;9(1):21. Published 2019 Dec 25.
44. Peltner LK, Gluthmann L, Börner F, Pace S, Hoffstetter RK, Kretzer C, Bilancia R, Pollastro F, Koeberle A, Appendino G, Rossi A. Cannabidiol acts as molecular switch in innate immune cells to promote the biosynthesis of inflammation-resolving lipid mediators. *Cell Chemical Biology*. 2023;30(12):1508-1524. Published 2023 Dec 21.
45. Russo EB, Cuttler C, Cooper ZD, Stueber A, Whiteley VL, Sexton M. Survey of patients employing cannabigerol-predominant cannabis preparations: perceived medical effects, adverse events, and withdrawal symptoms. *Cannabis and Cannabinoid Research*. 2022;7(5):706-716. Published 2022 Oct 1.
46. Cuttler C, Stueber A, Cooper ZD, Russo E. Acute effects of cannabigerol on anxiety, stress, and mood: a double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover, field trial. *Scientific Reports*. 2024;14(1):16163. Published 2024 Jul 13.
47. Tsang CC, Giudice MG. Nabilone for the management of pain. *Pharmacotherapy: The Journal of Human Pharmacology and Drug Therapy*. 2016;36(3):273-286. Published 2016 Mar.
48. Bajtel Á, Kiss T, Tóth B, Kiss S, Hegyi P, Vörhendi N, Csupor-Löffler B, Gede N, Hohmann J, Csupor D. The safety of dronabinol and nabilone: a systematic review and meta-analysis of clinical trials. *Pharmaceuticals*. 2022;15(1):100. Published 2022 Jan 14.
49. Soliman N, Haroutounian S, Hohmann AG, Krane E, Liao J, Macleod M, Segelcke D, Sena C, Thomas J, Vollert J, Wever K. Systematic review and meta-analysis of cannabinoids, cannabis-based medicines, and endocannabinoid system modulators tested for antinociceptive effects in

animal models of injury-related or pathological persistent pain. *Pain*. 2021;162:S26-S44. Published 2021 Jul 1.

50. Chesney E, Oliver D, Green A, Sovi S, Wilson J, Englund A, Freeman TP, McGuire P. Adverse effects of cannabidiol: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2020;45(11):1799-1806. Published 2020 Oct.

51. Cristino L, Bisogno T, Di Marzo V. Cannabinoids and the expanded endocannabinoid system in neurological disorders. *Nature Reviews Neurology*. 2020 Jan;16(1):9-29.

52. Finn DP, Haroutounian S, Hohmann AG, Krane E, Soliman N, Rice AS. Cannabinoids, the endocannabinoid system, and pain: a review of preclinical studies. *Pain*. 2021;162:S5-S25. Published 2021 Jul 1.

53. Treves N, Mor N, Allegaert K, Bassalov H, Berkovitch M, Stolar OE, Matok I. Efficacy and safety of medical cannabinoids in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Scientific Reports*. 2021;11(1):23462. Published 2021 Dec 6.

54. Schlag AK, O'Sullivan SE, Zafar RR, Nutt DJ. Current controversies in medical cannabis: Recent developments in human clinical applications and potential therapeutics. *Neuropharmacology*. 2021;191:108586. Published 2021 Jun 15.

55. Levinsohn EA, Hill KP. Clinical uses of cannabis and cannabinoids in the United States. *Journal of the Neurological Sciences*. 2020;411:116717. Published 2020 Apr 15.

56. Spanagel R, Bilbao A. Approved cannabinoids for medical purposes—comparative systematic review and meta-analysis for sleep and appetite. *Neuropharmacology*. 2021;196:108680. Published 2021 Sep 15.

57. Pagano C, Navarra G, Coppola L, Avilia G, Bifulco M, Laezza C. Cannabinoids: therapeutic use in clinical practice. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2022;23(6):3344. Published 2022 Mar 19.

58. AminiLari M, Wang L, Neumark S, Adli T, Couban RJ, Giangregorio A, Carney CE, Busse JW. Medical cannabis and cannabinoids for impaired sleep: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Sleep*. 2022 Feb 1;45(2):zsab234.

59. Bellman V, Kiolbasa M, Vasquez Franjul M, Namdev V, Choi S, Isola S. Medical cannabis in palliative psychiatry: clinical aspects of affective regulation and legal challenges. *Int J Innov Res Med Sci (IJIRMS)*. 2021;6(09).

60. Leinen ZJ, Mohan R, Premadasa LS, Acharya A, Mohan M, Byrareddy SN. Therapeutic potential of cannabis: a comprehensive review of current and future applications. *Biomedicines*. 2023 Sep 25;11(10):2630.
61. Hesami M, Pepe M, Baiton A, Salami SA, Jones AM. New insight into ornamental applications of cannabis: Perspectives and challenges. *Plants*. 2022 Sep 13;11(18):2383.
62. Vaou N, Stavropoulou E, Voidarou C, Tsigalou C, Bezirtzoglou E. Towards advances in medicinal plant antimicrobial activity: A review study on challenges and future perspectives. *Microorganisms*. 2021 Sep 27;9(10):2041.
63. Pagano C, Navarra G, Coppola L, Avilia G, Bifulco M, Laezza C. Cannabinoids: therapeutic use in clinical practice. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*. 2022 Mar 19;23(6):3344.
64. Tijani AO, Thakur D, Mishra D, Frempong D, Chukwunyere UI, Puri A. Delivering therapeutic cannabinoids via skin: Current state and future perspectives. *Journal of Controlled Release*. 2021 Jun 10;334:427-51.