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Corresponding Author	Family Name	<b>Moreno</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Estefanía</b>
	Suffix	
	Division/Department	Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biomedicine, Faculty of Biology
	Organization/University	University of Barcelona, and Institute of Biomedicine of the University of Barcelona (IBUB)
	City	Barcelona
	Country	Spain
	Email	estefaniamoreno@ub.edu
Author	Family Name	<b>Cavic</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Milena</b>
	Suffix	
	Division/Department	Department of Experimental Oncology
	Organization/University	Institute for Oncology and Radiology of Serbia
	City	Belgrade
	Country	Serbia
	Email	milena.cavic@ncrc.ac.rs
Corresponding Author	Family Name	<b>Canela</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Enric I.</b>
	Suffix	
	Division/Department	Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biomedicine, Faculty of Biology
	Organization/University	University of Barcelona, and Institute of Biomedicine of the University of Barcelona (IBUB)
City	Barcelona	

AU1  
AU2

AU3

Country

Spain

Email

ecanela@ub.edu

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Abstract

The endocannabinoid system (ECS) represents a complex network of different molecules as cannabinoid receptors, endocannabinoid ligands, and the enzymatic machinery that drives their metabolism, as well as cells and pathways that use endocannabinoid signaling. It is important for the regulation of most vital biochemical processes contributing to an overall homeostasis state. As such, it is ambiguously implicated in both the development of cancer and its suppression, as well as its progression and interaction with current anti-cancer therapeutics. This work will review the main ECS components and their discovery, structure, pharmacological properties, and significance in various physiological and pathological states and focus on the current burden of evidence available from open-access databases, experimental data, and expert reviews which offer future directions for its use in the oncological setting. The vast potential of the translationally significant information of the so-called endocannabinoidome is currently being explored in many ongoing clinically oriented research studies as well as clinical trials. Previously acquired pharmacological data from its historical application in pain alleviation and as a general palliative agent in oncology will be useful for drug repurposing scenarios, aiming to speed up its possible clinical applications, after decades of carrying the stigma of an ethically and legally compromised target.

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Keywords  
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Anti-cancer treatment - Endocannabinoid system - Cannabinoid receptor - Receptor heteromer

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# 1 The Endocannabinoid System as a Target 2 in Cancer: Status and Future Perspectives

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3 Estefanía Moreno, Milena Cavic, and Eric I. Canela

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Estefanía Moreno and Milena Cavic contributed equally with all other contributors.

E. Moreno (✉) · E. I. Canela (✉)

Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biomedicine, Faculty of Biology, University of Barcelona, and Institute of Biomedicine of the University of Barcelona (IBUB), Barcelona, Spain  
e-mail: [estefaniamoreno@ub.edu](mailto:estefaniamoreno@ub.edu); [ecanela@ub.edu](mailto:ecanela@ub.edu)

M. Cavic

Department of Experimental Oncology, Institute for Oncology and Radiology of Serbia, Belgrade, Serbia  
e-mail: [milena.cavic@ncrc.ac.rs](mailto:milena.cavic@ncrc.ac.rs)

AU3

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## Abstract

The endocannabinoid system (ECS) represents a complex network of different molecules as cannabinoid receptors, endocannabinoid ligands, and the enzymatic machinery that drives their metabolism, as well as cells and pathways that use endocannabinoid signaling. It is important for the regulation of most vital biochemical processes contributing to and overall homeostasis state. As such, it is ambiguously implicated in both the development of cancer and its suppression, as well as its progression and interaction with current anti-cancer therapeutics. This work will review the main ECS components and their discovery, structure, pharmacological properties, and significance in various physiological and pathological states and focus on the current burden of evidence available from open-access databases, experimental data, and expert reviews which offer future directions for its use in the oncological setting. The vast potential of the translationally significant information of the so-called endocannabinoidome is currently being explored in many ongoing clinically oriented research studies as well as clinical trials. Previously acquired pharmacological data from its historical application in pain alleviation and as a general palliative agent in oncology will be useful for drug repurposing scenarios, aiming to speed up its possible clinical applications, after decades of carrying the stigma of an ethically and legally compromised target.

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## Keywords

Anti-cancer treatment · Endocannabinoid system · Cannabinoid receptor · Receptor heteromer

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## Introduction

The constituent parts of the endocannabinoid system (ECS) represent an important cellular homeostatic network involved in putative signaling pathways in many cell types and tissues. Its significance has been reported in various physiological and pathological processes, as lipid and carbohydrate metabolism, food intake regulation, inflammation and neurodegeneration, respiratory health and diseases, and cancer. ECS components as cannabinoid receptors, endocannabinoid ligands, plant-derived and synthetic cannabinoids, and the enzymatic machinery involved in the metabolism of endocannabinoids have been explored as potential anti-cancer targets, as well as factors involved in cancer initiation, progression, metastatic spread, and prognosis. The ability of cannabinoid receptors to form functional heteromers with different biochemical properties than the constituent monomers

63 adds to the pharmacological diversity of possible outcomes upon ECS stimulation.  
64 The involvement of non-canonical pathways, which employ axes of secondary  
65 messengers as the alteration in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels and activation of protein  
66 kinases, contributes to the plasticity of expected ECS-induced effects, making the  
67 ECS a pharmacological treasure isle both for cancer research and beyond. As the  
68 action of cannabinoids has been linked to cancer cell death, autophagy, alterations of  
69 cell cycle, regulation of angiogenesis, and metastatic spread, as well as interaction  
70 with the tumor microenvironment, the specific effect they might induce depends on  
71 the specific tumor subtype in question, tumor stage, and pre-treatment modalities.  
72 Understanding the key elements and mechanisms of ECS's involvement in these  
73 essential biochemical signaling axes and their interactions is of utmost importance  
74 for progressing from preclinical to clinical studies and beyond. The ECS pharma-  
75 cological potential is vast and attractive but must be accompanied by rigorous  
76 research and independent validation of obtained data. Researchers involved in  
77 deciphering these tasks carry an interesting yet responsible burden of weight toward  
78 unbiased planning and precise analysis of results, leading to a most useful output for  
79 the ECS – exploring its full milieu of anti-cancer activity while not embarking on  
80 psychotropic or other adverse events. For this to be achieved, the ECS components  
81 and their modalities of action must be thoroughly reviewed and reassessed in each  
82 setting.

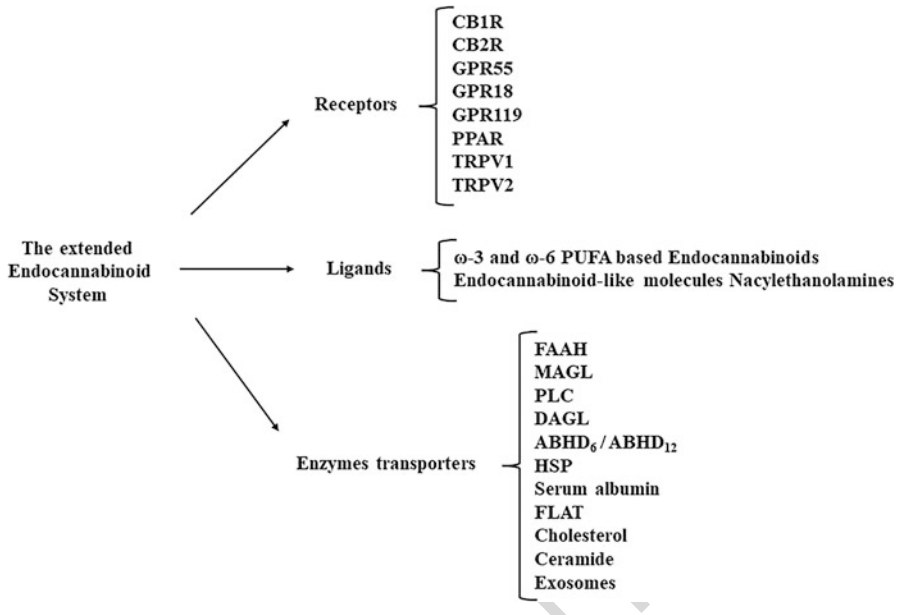
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## 83 **The Components of the Endocannabinoid System**

84 The extended ECS is a complex network of cannabinoid receptors, endocannabinoid  
85 ligands, and the enzymatic machinery that manages their biosynthesis, degradation,  
86 and transport, as well as all cells and neurological pathways that implicate endo-  
87 cannabinoid signaling (Fig. 1). It is involved in the control of the most important  
88 processes and creates homeostasis in the organism. This explains its ambiguous role  
89 in tumor development and tumor suppression. In the last decade, the ECS has been  
90 thrust into the forefront of anti-cancer research. As a result of the massive amount of  
91 data published on its dual roles in tumorigenesis as well as the suppression of tumor  
92 development and metastatic dissemination, it has emerged as a promising new target  
93 for the treatment of many different cancer subtypes. Although the search for cancer  
94 biomarkers typically favors single targets that allow for the exploit of a biochemical  
95 or genetic weakness, designating the vast ECS as a pharmacologically targetable  
96 entity has both benefits and drawbacks (Moreno et al. 2019).

## 97 **The Discovery of Cannabinoid Receptors**

98 The first ECS components discovered were  $\Delta^9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) target  
99 areas in the brain. Cannabinoid receptors (CBR) were given the term for these  
100 receptors, but it was not until recently that it was discovered that they are among  
101 one of the most numerous neurotransmitter receptors in the entire organism.  $\text{CB}_1\text{R}$



**Fig. 1** Schematic representation of essential elements of the extended endocannabinoid system (ECS). *ABHD* alpha beta hydrolase domain proteins, *CBR* cannabinoid receptor, *DAGL* diacylglycerol lipase, *FAAH* fatty acid amide hydrolase, *FLAT* FAAH-like anandamide transporter, *GPR* G protein-coupled receptor, *HSP* heat shock proteins, *MAGL* monoacylglycerol lipase, *PLC* phospholipase C, *PPAR* peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptors, *PUFA* polyunsaturated fatty acid, *TRPV1* transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily V members 1, *TRPV2* transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily V members 2

102 was the first discovered and cloned receptor, and it was concluded that THC pro-  
 103 duces a presynaptic block of typical endogenous signaling of this receptor, resulting  
 104 in the known psychotropic effects in the central nervous system (CNS). The second  
 105 identified ECS receptor, designated CB<sub>2</sub>R, was discovered in non-CNS localiza-  
 106 tions, predominantly on immune system cells. This discovery was a promising  
 107 beginning for the investigation of the other elements involved in cannabinoids'  
 108 non-psychotropic effects, as it was discovered that CB<sub>2</sub>R ligands are responsible  
 109 for their identified immunomodulatory effects (Acharya et al. 2017). Both receptors  
 110 are members of a large family of class A rhodopsin-like G protein-coupled receptors  
 111 (GPCR), which play a crucial role in signal transduction process between a variety of  
 112 intracellular signaling molecules and external signals. They are excellent candidates  
 113 for drug development since they are involved in several physiological and patho-  
 114 logical processes. Both receptors are also expressed peripherally, where they regu-  
 115 late critical functions in the liver, lymph nodes, bones, skin, kidneys, reproductive  
 116 system, lungs, gastrointestinal, and other organs. On chromosome 6 (6q15), the  
 117 human central cannabinoid receptor gene 1 (CNR1) encodes three isoforms of the  
 118 60 kDa CB<sub>1</sub>R protein. It is expressed in areas of the CNS that regulate memory and  
 119 learning, emotions, sensory, motor behavior, and endocrine activities, as well as in

peripheral nerves and other non-neural sites (Atwood and MacKie 2010). The majority of CB<sub>1</sub>R are found presynaptically and are mostly coupled to inhibitory G<sub>i/o</sub> proteins, which, among other effects, inhibit adenylate cyclase and cause a reduction of intracellular cAMP levels. Endocannabinoids inhibit the release of excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmitters (GABA, glutamate, dopamine, acetylcholine, noradrenaline, D-aspartate, etc.) by activating CB<sub>1</sub>R at the membranes of glutamergic and GABAergic neuron. As a result, CB<sub>1</sub>R and its ligands contribute to neurotransmission plasticity and are desirable pharmacological targets. Multiple isoforms of a 40 kDa CB<sub>2</sub>R protein are encoded by the human central cannabinoid receptor gene 2 (CNR2), which is found on chromosome 1 (1p36.11). Additionally, CB<sub>2</sub>R are primarily found presynaptically and mainly coupled to inhibitory G<sub>i/o</sub> proteins, which means that 2-AG and other CB<sub>2</sub>R ligands play a variety of roles in the control of peripheral neurotransmission and immune responses. The CB<sub>2</sub>R was initially discovered in the immune system, but its expression was later discovered in other cell types. It is commonly known that CB<sub>2</sub>R is present in microglial cells during neuroinflammation, but it has also been found, in astrocytes and some subpopulations of neurons (Atwood and MacKie 2010). The selective targeting of CB<sub>2</sub>R in the CNS and the periphery may be a potential strategy for the treatment of many neurological disorders, because agonists that bind to CB<sub>2</sub>R typically lack the psychotropic effects seen with CB<sub>1</sub>R agonist-based therapy (Moreno et al. 2019). G protein-coupled receptors 18 (N-arachidonyl glycine receptor, GPR18), 55 (GPR55), and 119 (glucose-dependent insulinotropic receptor, GPR119) as well as the transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily V members 1 and 2 (TRPV1 and TRPV2) are additional receptors that respond to various cannabinoid ligands (Veilleux et al. 2019; Moreno et al. 2021).

The tumorigenic potential and signaling characteristics of the cell are altered by changes in CBR expression and activation, as well as by their capacity to form distinct functional heteromers with numerous other receptors, resulting in pharmacologically diverse responses to their stimulation. So, in various tumor subtypes, which are frequently pathologically driven by different biological causes, the same ECS component can have both protective and pathogenic effects (Moreno et al. 2020).

### 152 **Cannabinoid Receptor Heteromers**

153 The oligomerization concept is changing the classical views of GPCR physiology  
154 and pharmacology. Oligomerization implies that GPCRs can form macromolecular  
155 complexes constituted by the same (homomer) or different (heteromer) receptor  
156 protomers with functional properties clearly different from those of the individual  
157 components. The International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology has  
158 established three consensus criteria to identify real GPCR heteromers (Kenakin  
159 et al. 2010). According to the first criterion, the heteromer elements must  
160 co-localize to the same subcellular compartment and physically interact in native  
161 tissues (Gomes et al. 2016). The second consensus criterion stipulates those specific  
162 properties of the heteromers, like trafficking, ligand binding, and signaling, which  
163 must be different from those associated with the individual protomers (biochemical

164 fingerprint). Some of these specific properties are positive and negative cross talk  
165 (co-stimulation with agonists of both receptors produce an additive or synergic effect  
166 or a substrative or anergic effect, respectively) and cross-antagonism (antagonist's  
167 binding to one of the receptors blocks signaling of the interacting receptor). Finally,  
168 criterion 3 proposes that disruption of the heteromer results in a loss of interaction  
169 and, thus, to a loss of the heteromer's distinctive biochemical fingerprint (Gomes  
170 et al. 2016). Even though many GPCR heteromers have been discovered using  
171 heterologous cell lines, only very few of them fit all three criteria. This is primarily  
172 due to the problems in studying these structures in native tissues due to the lack of  
173 selective and sensitive enough tools capable of detecting evidence of these endog-  
174 enous heteromers in vivo and demonstrating that they are close enough to interact.  
175 As a result, for a GPCR heteromer to be accepted, at least two out of three criteria  
176 must be met.

177 Cannabinoid receptors have now been described as constituents of particular  
178 GPCR receptor heteromers, which is confirmed by various techniques (Casadó  
179 et al. 2010; Čavić et al. 2011). Details on currently known literature data on  
180 heteromers in various cell types have recently been extensively reviewed (Moreno  
181 et al. 2020). Previous research has shown that CB<sub>1</sub>Rs can interact with other GPCRs,  
182 including orexin OX<sub>1</sub> receptors (generating positive cross talk and cross-antagonism  
183 by orexin), opioid  $\mu$  and  $\delta$  receptors (producing negative cross talk between recep-  
184 tors), dopamine D<sub>2</sub> (generating a change in the coupling from G<sub>i</sub> to G<sub>s</sub>), adenosine  
185 A<sub>2A</sub> receptors, D<sub>2</sub> and A<sub>2A</sub> receptors at the same time (producing negative modula-  
186 tion of the function of D<sub>2</sub> receptor by CB<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2A</sub> agonists), angiotensin AT<sub>1</sub>  
187 receptors (with increased AT<sub>1</sub> receptor signaling) and CB<sub>2</sub>R (the coactivation of both  
188 receptors results in negative cross talk and bidirectional cross-antagonism in neuro-  
189 nal cells in vitro and in vivo), adrenergic  $\beta_2$  receptor (adrenergic agonists inducing  
190 CB<sub>1</sub>R internalization), and 5-HT<sub>2A</sub> serotonin receptor (Moreno et al. 2018, 2019,  
191 2020). CB<sub>1</sub>R can also form heteromers with the cannabinoid-related orphan receptor  
192 GPR55 in cells. In contrast to CB<sub>1</sub>R, little is known about the existence and  
193 functional significance of CB<sub>2</sub>R heteromers; nevertheless, there is proof of its  
194 interaction with GPR55 in transfected cells (Moreno et al. 2014) and breast cancer  
195 cells with specific pharmacological and signaling properties (its expression alters  
196 cannabinoid signaling in such a way that, when directly targeted with the right doses  
197 of THC, tumor development may be inhibited, both in vitro and in vivo) (Moreno  
198 et al. 2014). In the context of metastatic disease, CB<sub>2</sub>R modulates tumor cell  
199 migration and invasion via interacting with the chemokine receptor CXCR4 in  
200 human prostate and breast cancer cells with new pharmacologic properties (Scarlett  
201 et al. 2018). Additionally, HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R heteromers are a novel therapeutic target for  
202 HER2+ breast cancer because they interact with the tyrosine kinase receptor (TKR)  
203 human V-Erb-B2 Avian Erythroblastic Leukemia Viral Oncogene Homolog  
204 2 (HER2) in human breast. Therefore, the CXCR4-CB<sub>2</sub>R, GPR55-CB<sub>2</sub>R, and  
205 HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R protein complexes possess specific pharmacological and signaling  
206 properties, and their modulation could have an impact on the ECS's ability to inhibit  
207 tumor growth (Moreno et al. 2019).

## 208 **The Discovery of Endocannabinoids**

209 Numerous cells in the human organism express endocannabinoids and endo-  
210 cannabinoid-like molecules (ECLs), and their levels reflect the metabolic adjust-  
211 ments required for the maintenance of homeostasis as well as the body's reaction to  
212 pathological stimuli. These molecule groups are highly diverse, in terms of their  
213 structure, the type of receptor they can excite, and the non-canonical biochemical  
214 processes they can influence. Anandamide (N-arachidonoyl ethanolamide, AEA)  
215 and 2-arachidonoyl glycerol (2-AG), which are both derived from  $\omega$ -6 arachidonic  
216 acid (ARA), an essential polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA), were the earliest and  
217 most prevalent conventional endocannabinoids. In addition to AEA and 2-AG, other  
218 unsaturated lipid-based molecules have been categorized as endocannabinoids  
219 because of their function and comparable high levels, the ECLs N-acylethano-  
220 lamines (NAES), like N-palmitoyl-, N-oleoyl, and N-linoleoyl-ethanolamine  
221 (PEA, OEA, and LEA); 2-acyl-glycerols (2-AcGs) like 2-oleoyl and 2-linoleoyl-  
222 glycerol (2-OG and 2-LG); prostaglandin ethanolamides; prostaglandin glycerol  
223 esters; and omega-3 endocannabinoids that originated from docosahexaenoic acid  
224 (DHA) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) (like docosahexaenoyl ethanolamide  
225 (DHA-EA), docosahexaenoyl-glycerol (DHG), eicosapentaenoyl ethanolamide  
226 (EPA-EA), and eicosapentaenoyl-glycerol (EPG)) (Watson et al. 2019). The impor-  
227 tance of these tiny molecules is demonstrated by the existence of their signaling  
228 pathways in even the most basic organisms, where they control a variety of essential  
229 functions. They are created and activated by the body when necessary, and they  
230 regulate adaptive cellular responses to a variety of endogenous and exogenous  
231 stimuli that threaten internal homeostasis (Moreno et al. 2019, 2021). The endo-  
232 cannabinoidome, also known as the enlarged ECS, constitutes a vast network made  
233 up of the endocannabinoids and ECLs as well as the related metabolic enzymes and  
234 molecular targets (Veilleux et al. 2019). The metabolic complexity of such a vast  
235 network of molecules in each environment must be carefully assessed in each  
236 context, which may be aided by the increasing capacity of "omics" approaches  
237 and contemporary sequencing technologies. Since endocannabinoid signaling  
238 effects are primarily limited to the local sites of its biosynthesis and release, the  
239 endocannabinoid signaling is not a typical example of neurotransmission. Their  
240 biosynthesis occurs before the stimuli, and they are kept in synaptic vesicles until  
241 required. They are carried back to the presynaptic neuron, after exerting their effect  
242 on the receptors of postsynaptic neurons, ending the brief reaction to a stimulus  
243 (Lu and MacKie 2016).

244 Because exogenous cannabinoids are frequently supplied in excess, they can  
245 assume the endocannabinoid transmission for longer periods of time and cause a  
246 variety of physiological consequences. Endocannabinoids have also been shown to  
247 have non-receptor regulatory effects, which add to the ECS's plasticity (Lu and  
248 MacKie 2016). Because CBRs' binding pocket is adaptable and can interact with  
249 ligands that do not precisely match the size and shape of the endocannabinoids they  
250 are designed to bind to, exogenous cannabinoids (both synthetic and plant-derived)  
251 bind to CBRs. Consequently, exogenous cannabinoids (allosteric, bitopic/dualsteric,

252 or bivalent ligands) can interfere with any of the endocannabinoid-regulated pro-  
253 cesses, and their effects have been thoroughly studied in a variety of contexts  
254 (including pregnancy/infertility, motor functions, CNS development, etc.). Some  
255 commonly used exogenous cannabinoids are THC and cannabidiol (CBD) (Moreno  
256 et al. 2019; Suryavanshi et al. 2021).

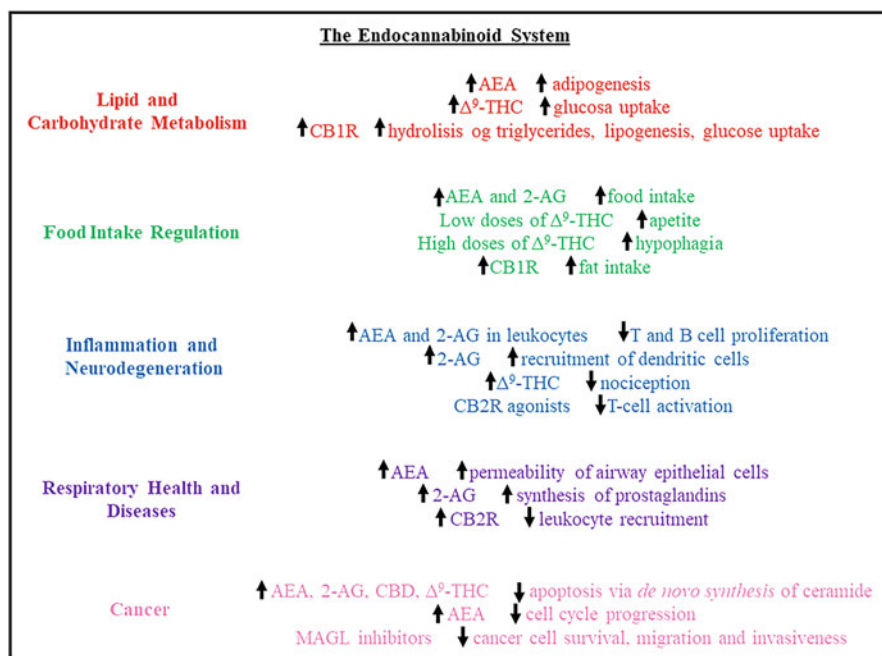
## 257 **The Discovery of the Endocannabinoid Enzymatic and Transport** 258 **Systems**

259 The enzymatic machinery responsible for the biosynthesis, degradation, and trans-  
260 port of endocannabinoids was the final element of the ECS that was characterized in  
261 more detail. Endocannabinoids are lipid neuromodulators that are produced  
262 on-demand, allowing the ECS to act quickly and adaptively. The biosynthesis and  
263 degradation pathways of anandamide and 2-AG are totally different, demonstrating  
264 their distinct physiological functions. They are both derivatives of arachidonic acid,  
265 an essential PUFA, but whereas anandamide is primarily produced from  
266 N-arachidonoyl phosphatidyl ethanol through a variety of pathways, 2-AG is pro-  
267 duced mostly from phosphatidyl inositol bis-phosphate via a calcium-dependent  
268 pathway affecting phospholipase C (PLC) and diacylglycerol lipase (DAGL)  
269 (Lu and MacKie 2016). Additionally, in the endoplasmic reticulum, fatty acid  
270 amide hydrolase (FAAH) primarily hydrolyses AEA, and monoacylglycerol lipase  
271 (MAGL) is the main hydrolytic degrader of 2-AG, with FAAH and also some serine  
272 hydrolases (ABHD6 and ABHD12) being proposed as secondary degraders  
273 (Savinainen et al. 2012). As endogenous cannabinoids are hydrophobic and cannot  
274 easily diffuse across the cytosol and cell membrane, their levels are also influenced  
275 by the efficiency of their uptake and effective transport within the cell. Depending on  
276 the type of cell, numerous transporters and molecules have been implicated in this  
277 process, including ceramides, cholesterol, serum albumin, heat shock proteins, and  
278 other fatty acid-binding proteins as FAAH-like anandamide transporter (FLAT).  
279 AEA is recycled back to the cytoplasm and is subjected to enzymatic hydrolysis  
280 once it has reached the target receptors on cells and begun to exercise its effects.  
281 CBD can interfere with AEA FAAH-mediated degradation, increasing available  
282 AEA levels and thus indirectly inducing a variety of non-psychoactive consequences  
283 (Moreno et al. 2019).

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## 284 **The Significance of the ECS in Physiological and Pathological** 285 **Processes**

286 The ECS is crucial for the maintenance and regulatory processes of several putative  
287 biochemical pathways. Regulation of homeostasis by fine-tuning of essential meta-  
288 bolic axes is characteristics for the ECS. As it is involved in many physiological and  
289 pathological processes, it has emerged as a useful pharmacological target, but its  
290 potential is still not fully explored. ECS ligands are useful for pain alleviation, which



**Fig. 2** A schematic representation of various roles of the endocannabinoid system in selected physiological and pathological pathways and processes

291 enables faster drug repurposing in other settings. Exogenous ECS ligands with  
 292 psychotropic side effects are only a minor part of known potential ECS drugs, and  
 293 this effect should be regarded as an obstacle in new studies (Martínez et al. 2020). In  
 294 addition, various studies are exploring ECS-related drugs that are not able to cross  
 295 the blood-brain barrier, thus controlling the possible side effects. Allosteric modu-  
 296 lators and lower doses of known drugs are also being explored. The enzymatic  
 297 machinery used by other biologically potent ligands might also lead to inaccurate  
 298 interpretation of results of metabolic regulation and homeostasis and needs to be  
 299 taken into account while exploring ECS ligands' broader application (Fig. 2)  
 300 (Stasiulewicz et al. 2020; Moreno et al. 2021).

### 301 Lipid and Carbohydrate Metabolism

302 A positive correlation of soluble ECS components with metabolic disorder/obesity  
 303 biomarkers was also reported (Simon and Cota 2017), contributing to the idea that  
 304 ECS might be involved in the regulation of metabolic homeostasis (Moreno et al.  
 305 2021). As the ECS is localized both centrally and at the peripheral level, it is  
 306 important for integrating commands coming from various brain regions, regulating  
 307 the brain-periphery communication, and adjusting components involved in the

308 metabolism of glucose and lipids. When activated, it contributes to energy intake and  
309 storage, but once high-caloric food sources are present, anabolic activation of ECS  
310 uprise may lead to obesity and related complications. The appearance of hyperten-  
311 sion, hypertriglyceridemia, and sometimes even insulin resistance ultimately might  
312 bring on metabolic syndrome and/or type 2 diabetes (Simon and Cota 2017).

### 313 **Food Intake Regulation**

314 Eating disorders and behavior related to ECS have been recently explored in several  
315 human studies. As ECS ligands are present in detectable amounts in blood, their  
316 assessment might be performed using a minimally invasive strategy. It is known that  
317 ECS is important for developing a preference to certain food types, as it modulates  
318 responses to taste and olfactory sensations, thus producing metabolic changes related  
319 to food consumption. Vice versa, the specific diet type in turn affects the levels of  
320 ECS components in the circulation and hence their mode of action and strength of  
321 effect. When fat is present in the oral cavity, it leads to the production of jejunal ECS  
322 components, increasing fat appetite. Reports of gastric CB<sub>1</sub>R activation have been  
323 linked to ghrelin secretion, inducing the perception of fat taste which augments fat  
324 intake (Simon and Cota 2017). Close interactions were also detected between ECS  
325 ligands and hormones involved in the regulation of energy balance, as glucocorti-  
326 coids, ghrelin, and leptin. WAT ECS ligand levels were found to be negatively  
327 affected by insulin and leptin, an effect that might be missing during insulin or  
328 leptin resistance, when ECS overactivity and fat access can be observed. Studies  
329 have also pointed to a strong association between the ECS and the gut microbiome,  
330 when exploring sets of genes, proteins, and metabolites derived from the action of  
331 intestinal microflora. Moderate and prominent lifestyle modifications might provide  
332 an explanation for the development of metabolic syndrome through activation of  
333 cross-talk mechanisms between the gut microbiome and ECS components  
334 (Di Marzo and Silvestri 2019; Moreno et al. 2021).

### 335 **Inflammation**

336 While various attempts to elucidate the role of ECS in inflammasome modulation  
337 leading to chronic inflammatory diseases have been made, no results have yet been  
338 confirmed in prospective studies. Although it is known that cannabinoids (especially  
339 THC and CBD and synthetic cannabinoids) have anti-inflammatory properties, exact  
340 mechanisms of these interactions remain to be explored in detail (Jakowiecki et al.  
341 2021). Changes in ECS component levels and their modifications have been detected  
342 in a number of chronic inflammatory diseases and associated states as cancer,  
343 autoimmune diseases, diabetes mellitus, etc. (Leuti et al. 2020). Endocannabinoids  
344 are generally considered as potent immunosuppressors in chronic conditions,  
345 through activation of ECS-related signaling, regulation of inflammatory cytokine  
346 levels, and chemotaxis and proliferation of immune cell populations, among others  
347 (Chiurciu et al. 2015).

348 ECS is also considered as one the most important immunomodulators in the  
349 brain. The observed neuroprotective effects of ECS-based drugs are achieved  
350 through inducing a decrease of the level of neuroinflammation. It leads to a stabili-  
351 zation of main processes that deregulate neuronal homeostasis, as oxidative stress  
352 and apoptosis. As CB<sub>2</sub>R is found both on microglia and brain-infiltrating cells of the  
353 immune system, most immunoregulatory roles have been attributed to its activation.  
354 However, there have been reports on the involvement of CB<sub>1</sub>R, while modelling  
355 situations as traumatic brain injury, Alzheimer's disease (AD), and multiple sclerosis  
356 models (Leuti et al. 2020). Increased brain levels of AEA and 2-AG achieved through  
357 the inhibition of their main catabolic enzymes as fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH)  
358 and monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL) might provide an efficient approach to regulate  
359 the immune response in some conditions (Chiurchiù et al. 2018; Leuti et al. 2020;  
360 Moreno et al. 2021). CBD has also been reported as a strong antioxidant and  
361 neuroprotectant in some neurological diseases as AD and Parkinson's disease (PD).

## 362 **Respiratory Health and Diseases**

363 Respiratory epithelial cells distributed along airway paths constitute the basis of  
364 respiratory health acting both as a physical and biological border that pathogens need  
365 to pass. The lack of proper function of ECS components in these cells is considered  
366 as a prominent metabolic issue contributing to destabilization of healthy lung  
367 function and physiological processes activated upon the presence of malicious  
368 stimuli (Fantauzzi et al. 2020). It has been reported that AEA can lead to a higher  
369 permeability of the airway epithelium though the formation of arachidonic metab-  
370 olites with biological activity within the cells, avoiding the classical canonical axis  
371 (Shang et al. 2016). 2-AG might also yield prostaglandins in the airway epithelium  
372 which neutrophils and eosinophils can convert into leukotrienes B<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>, thus  
373 establishing an interconnection between ECS and prostaglandin pathways (Turcotte  
374 et al. 2016). CB<sub>2</sub>R has been reported to interact with viral pathogens in the lungs  
375 leading to overactivation of the respiratory ECS enhancing the response to respira-  
376 tory infections. Introducing exogenous cannabinoids through inhalation pathways  
377 might lead to respiratory metabolic symptoms characteristic for asthma and pulmo-  
378 nary fibrosis, among others. As the interplay of ECS and other regulatory mecha-  
379 nisms in these diseases is rather complex and not fully understood, a disbalance of  
380 joint metabolites that bind to receptors of respiratory system cells can ultimately  
381 induce a range of symptoms depending on the levels of activated physiological  
382 responses on one side and inflammation on the other (Moreno et al. 2021).

## 383 **Cancer**

384 The ECS has primarily been linked with palliative application in the oncological  
385 setting, although its components and the corresponding biochemical network are  
386 considered as prognostic and predictive factors of various tumor-related states and

387 anti-cancer treatments. It comes as no surprise that the ECS network is considered as  
388 a prominent pharmacological target, with a growing potential that has not yet been  
389 fully explored. The ECS is involved in the regulation of putative biochemical  
390 pathways important for breast, gastrointestinal, and CNS tumors among others, as  
391 well as in proliferation and apoptosis, immune response, and angiogenesis (Moreno  
392 et al. 2020). Several studies using in vitro and in vivo models, as well as clinical  
393 studies, have explored its potential in anti-cancer approaches. However, the exact  
394 effect it induces and clinical utility depend greatly on the tumor subtype and  
395 interactions with metabolic pathways highlighted in that specific setting. A complex,  
396 multilateral metabolic exchange occurs in a pro-tumorigenic cell, rendering the  
397 ECS's involvement in the development and progression of a cancerous state in  
398 need of careful evaluation in each cancer cell type in question (Moreno et al. 2021).

AU5

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## 399 The Role of ECS in Cancer Development

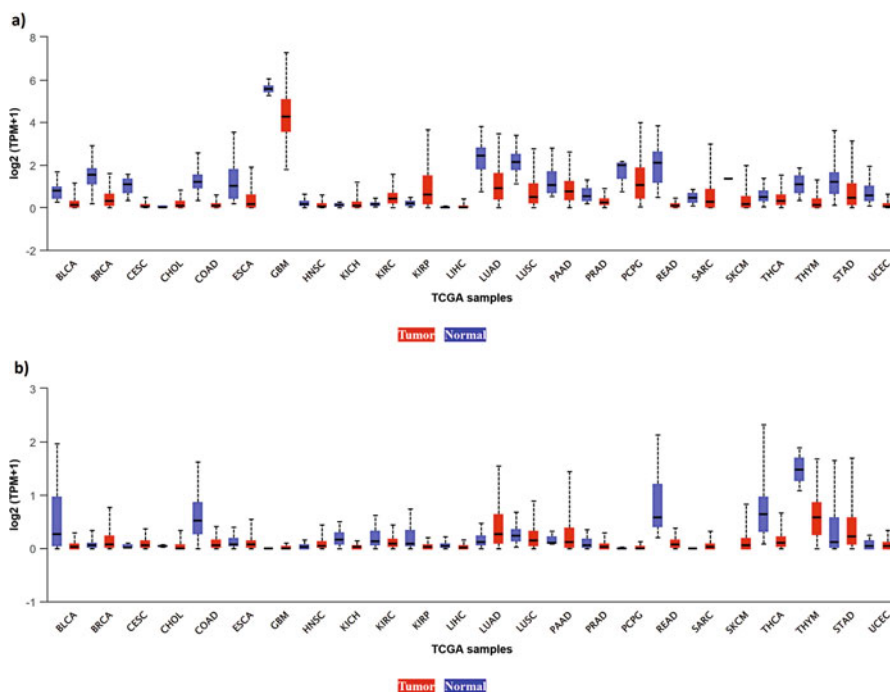
400 ECS regulatory mechanisms are in connection with almost all prominent cancer  
401 pathways. As various ECS components can act as regulators of proliferation,  
402 apoptosis, angiogenesis, and inflammation depending on cancer subtype, the  
403 changes in their levels in tumors are in close connection to aggressiveness of the  
404 tumor. Overexpression and overactivation of ECS components can be a tumorigenic  
405 factor, but the regulatory system is as complex that the overall effects depend on a  
406 variety of factors. It has been reported that cannabinoid receptors, some cannabinoid  
407 ligands, and ECS enzymatic components have altered expression levels in tumors  
408 which contribute to their aggressiveness depending on the tumor type (Moreno et al.  
409 2020).

## 410 Cannabinoid Receptors in Cancer

411 The expression of most frequently analyzed cannabinoid receptors CB<sub>1</sub>R and CB<sub>2</sub>R  
412 in tumor and normal samples analyzed using UALCAN, a comprehensive, interactive  
413 web resource for the analysis publicly available in the Cancer Genome Atlas  
414 (TCGA) data, is presented in Fig. 3 (Chandrashekar et al. 2017; UALCAN 2021).

415 As presented in Fig. 3, cannabinoid receptors 1 and 2 are expressed on the plasma  
416 membrane of a wide range of normal and cancer cells. Detailed in silico data mining  
417 analyses presented in Table 1 confirmed that cannabinoid receptors are significantly  
418 enriched in some cancers, while they are downregulated in others, which contributes  
419 to the hypothesis that their protective/cancer-promoting role depends on the tumor  
420 subtype in question.

421 Once CBRs are activated, it can induce a significant downregulation of cancer  
422 growth which suggests that ECS might have prominent tumor-suppressive charac-  
423 teristics. These data are strengthened by in vivo studies reporting that the absence of  
424 CB<sub>1</sub>R on cells contributes to cancer growth and that higher ECS ligand levels reduce  
425 the size and spread of precancerous conditions (Velasco et al. 2015). Activation of



**Fig. 3** The expression of CB<sub>1</sub>R (a) and CB<sub>2</sub>R (b) across TCGA cancers (tumor and normal samples) according to the UALCAN database. *BLCA* bladder urothelial carcinoma, *BRCA* breast invasive carcinoma, *CESC* cervical squamous cell carcinoma, *CHOL* cholangiocarcinoma, *COAD* colon adenocarcinoma, *ESCA* esophageal carcinoma, *GBM* glioblastoma multiforme, *HNSC* head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, *KICH* kidney chromophobe, *KIRC* kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, *KIRP* kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma, *LIHC* liver hepatocellular carcinoma, *LUAD* lung adenocarcinoma, *LUSC* lung squamous cell carcinoma, *PAAD* pancreatic adenocarcinoma, *PRAD* prostate adenocarcinoma, *PCPG* pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma, *READ* rectum adenocarcinoma, *SARC* sarcoma, *SKCM* skin cutaneous melanoma, *THCA* thyroid carcinoma, *THYM* thymoma, *STAD* stomach adenocarcinoma, *UCEC* uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma

426 CBRs might initiate apoptosis of cancer cells by regulating RAS/MAPK and PI3K-  
 427 AKT axes, as well as TNF $\alpha$ -dependent ceramide synthesis, COX-2-related cell  
 428 death, and other reported scenarios (Moreno et al. 2019).

429 CBR heteromers are attractive pharmacological targets as they might contribute  
 430 to the pathophysiology of cancer-related disorders but also be used as prognostic and  
 431 predictive biomarkers (Laezza et al. 2020; Moreno et al. 2020). The modulation of  
 432 heteromers like CXCR4-CB<sub>2</sub>R, GPR55-CB<sub>2</sub>R, and HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R has been reported  
 433 to exert anti-cancer activity in breast and prostate cancer, specifically. For example,  
 434 once CXCL12 ligand binds to its receptor CXCR4, a CXCR4-induced cell migration  
 435 followed by adhesion occurs. When both CXCR4 and CB<sub>2</sub>R agonists are applied  
 436 concomitantly, this leads to the inhibition of the observed CXCR4 agonist effect, as  
 437 the signaling molecule taking over the cascade is the functional CB<sub>2</sub>R-CXCR4

t.1 **Table 1** Expression of cannabinoid receptors CB<sub>1</sub>R and CB<sub>2</sub>R in cancer subtypes comparing normal vs primary tissue according to the UALCAN database

	Receptor	Upregulated*	<i>p</i> value	Downregulated*	<i>p</i> value
t.2	CB <sub>1</sub> R	Cholangiocarcinoma	0.0316	Breast invasive carcinoma	<0.0001
t.3		Kidney chromophobe	0.0163	Colon adenocarcinoma	<0.0001
t.4		Kidney renal clear cell carcinoma	<0.0001	Lung adenocarcinoma	<0.0001
t.5		Kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma	<0.0001	Lung squamous cell carcinoma	<0.0001
t.6		Liver hepatocellular carcinoma	<0.0001	Prostate adenocarcinoma	<0.0001
t.7				Rectum adenocarcinoma	0.0098
t.8				Stomach adenocarcinoma	0.0372
t.9				Thyroid carcinoma	0.0305
t.10				Uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma	0.0154
t.11	CB <sub>2</sub> R	Breast invasive carcinoma	0.01554	Colon adenocarcinoma	0.0007
t.12		Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma	<0.0001	Kidney chromophobe	0.0437
t.13				Kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma	0.0218
t.14				Rectum adenocarcinoma	0.0283
t.15				Thyroid carcinoma	<0.0001

t.16 \*Only data significant at  $p < 0.05$  are presented

438 heteromers. This ultimately leads to inhibition of prostate cancer cell migration and  
 439 adhesion. Dose-dependent effects have also been reported. When THC acts through  
 440 the CB<sub>2</sub>R-GPR55 heteromer in low levels, it induces a CB<sub>2</sub>R signaling enhance-  
 441 ment. At higher levels, THC targets the GPR55 and exerts an antagonist role through  
 442 cross-antagonism, effectively inhibiting CB<sub>2</sub>R which leads to a downregulation of  
 443 tumor growth, in vitro and in vivo. THC can also act through the HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R  
 444 heteromer inactivating HER2 and leading to a prominent anti-cancer effect. All these  
 445 reports increase the burden of scientific evidence that ECS heteromers might be the  
 446 real targets in future clinical studies in the oncological setting.

## 447 Cannabinoid Ligands in Cancer

448 The use of ECS components as anti-cancer drugs depends on the effect they produce  
 449 in a specific cancer cell, as both protective and damaging outcomes to cellular  
 450 homeostasis might occur. Cannabinoid ligands have the ability to act as regulatory  
 451 molecules in lipid metabolism unrelated to cancer, leading to a conditionally acci-  
 452 dental contribution to cancer development and progression (Zhang et al. 2016). It has  
 453 been reported that ECS ligands interact with chemo- and targeted therapeutics,  
 454 which needs to be taken into consideration for concurrent drug application.

455 Cell line and animal experimental models of cancer have shown that cannabinoids  
456 exert anti-cancer effects. Synthetic cannabinoid ligands show a levelled affinity for  
457 CBRs as natural ECS ligands and even higher selective affinities one receptor or the  
458 other, as methanandamide for CB<sub>1</sub>R or JWH-133 for CB<sub>2</sub>R. All these data brought  
459 on a load of preclinical evidence that one stimulated CBRs might exert a general  
460 anti-cancer effect. Initiation of apoptosis, inhibition of uncontrolled cell growth is  
461 the usual mode of cannabinoid effect, in a variety of cancer cell types tested in  
462 in vitro settings. In vivo studies further confirmed these observations and addition-  
463 ally shed light on the role of ECS in inhibition of angiogenesis and metastasis.  
464 Reports of tumor-promoting properties of ECS components in vitro have been linked  
465 with interactions with the immune system leading to its inhibition as a tumor-  
466 suppressor agent (McKallip et al. 2005).

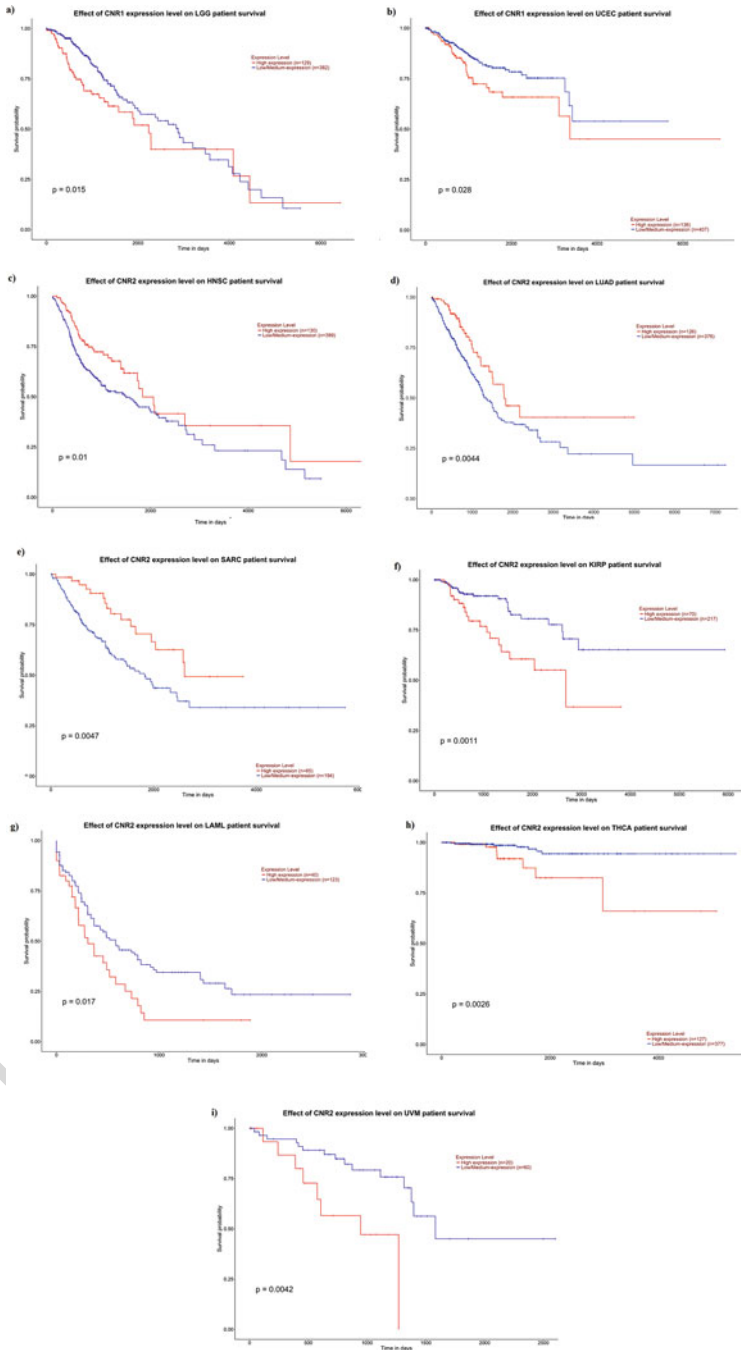
### 467 **Cannabinoid Enzymes and Transporters in Cancer**

468 ECS enzymes and transporter molecules have been evaluated as therapeutics, but the  
469 changes they can induce on ECS component metabolism and transport might be  
470 unpredictable. Thus, limited success of these studies has been reported. Alterations  
471 of ECS metabolic networks through changes in enzyme/transporter activity and  
472 expression affect the levels of ECS ligands. This might exert a general protective  
473 outcome in scenarios of deregulated enzyme levels as is the case of tumorigenesis.  
474 This effect has been reported to MAGL in colorectal cancer (Pagano et al. 2017). The  
475 significance of this approach is highlighted by the fact that various inhibitors of  
476 FAAH, MAGL, and ECS transporters are in testing phases of experimental and  
477 clinical studies, both as single agents and in combination (Chicca et al. 2017;  
478 Granchi et al. 2017). The development of more pharmacological options of this  
479 type needs to include a strict evaluation of the CNS and systemic adverse effects to  
480 avoid learning and memory alterations upon treatment (Panlilio et al. 2016; Moreno  
481 et al. 2019).

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### 482 **The Role of ECS in Cancer Progression and Prognosis**

483 The effect of cannabinoid receptors on the prognosis of cancer patients was evalu-  
484 ated by analysis of TCGA data on patient survival (Fig. 4). Upregulated CNR1  
485 expression coincided with shorter patient survival in brain lower-grade glioma ( $p =$   
486  $0.015$ ) and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma ( $p = 0.028$ ). Upregulated CNR2  
487 expression coincided with longer patient survival in head and neck squamous cell  
488 carcinoma ( $p = 0.010$ ), lung adenocarcinoma ( $p = 0.004$ ), and sarcoma ( $p = 0.005$ )  
489 and with shorter survival in kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma ( $p = 0.001$ ), acute  
490 myeloid leukemia ( $p = 0.017$ ), thyroid carcinoma ( $p = 0.003$ ), and uveal melanoma  
491 ( $p = 0.004$ ). Thus, the survival of patients with different cancer subtypes does not  
492 seem to be influenced directly by the expression of cannabinoid receptors, but rather



**AU7** **Fig. 4** Survival curves of cancer patients according to TCGA data on expression of CNR1 and CNR2 available through the UALCAN database (Chandrashekar et al. 2017; UALCAN 2021). (a) LGG, brain lower-grade glioma; (b) UCEC, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma; (c) HNSC,

493 by a complex interaction of their expression levels and activation/regulation via  
494 ligands and possibly heteromerization.

495 Mechanisms of action of ECS components that affect cancer progression include  
496 the regulation of the cell cycle, apoptosis, autophagy, epithelial to mesenchymal  
497 transition, adhesion, invasion, metastasis, and angiogenesis (Pagano et al. 2021).

## 498 **The Role of CBRs in Cancer Progression and Prognosis**

499 Reports documenting positive effects of downregulation of CBRs exist, as described  
500 for genetic ablation of CB<sub>1</sub>R and CB<sub>2</sub>R to lower the effect of UV light in the  
501 initiation of skin cancer or loss of expression of CBRs which might induce faster  
502 tumor growth. However, more literature data supports the view that various ECS  
503 components have anti-cancer properties, as over-expression or activation of CBRs  
504 and higher cannabinoid levels have been reported to slow down tumor growth. All  
505 these effects have been reviewed in detail in Moreno et al. presenting supporting  
506 literature data (Moreno et al. 2019).

507 From the described heteromers, the GPR55-CB<sub>2</sub>R overexpression and hetero-  
508 merization have been reported in in vitro studies using human breast cancer cells and  
509 others. By applying the cannabinoid ligand THC, downsizing of tumor mass has  
510 been reported in vitro and in vivo. The GXCR<sub>4</sub>-CB<sub>2</sub>R heteromer has also been  
511 reported as significant in human breast and prostate cancer cells (Scarlett et al. 2018).  
512 The CXCR4 receptor is known to enhance cellular mechanism important for prolif-  
513 eration and migration, and its activation is prominent in cells exhibiting the potential  
514 for local and distant metastatic spread. However, if agonist of both CXCR4 and  
515 CB<sub>2</sub>R are applied together in vitro, a prominent downregulation of ERK1/2-  
516 dependent cellular migration induced by CXCR4 is reported, highlighting the  
517 functional cross talk between the two receptors in the heteromer (Coke et al.  
518 2016). Thus, an inhibition of the effect of CXCR4 ligands is observed by applying  
519 different cannabinoids that activate CB<sub>2</sub>R and might be used to regulate the meta-  
520 static potential of cancer cells. Prominent pathways associated with this effect in  
521 prostate cancer cells employ the Gα<sub>13</sub>/RhoA and integrin α5 signaling axes, which in  
522 turn regulate the cytoskeletal components involved in cell migratory properties and  
523 adherence to the extracellular surrounding environment, respectively. In breast  
524 cancer, the existence of the HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R heteromers has been documented. Up to  
525 30% of primary breast cancer cells have either overexpressed HER2 or exhibit its  
526 amplification at the genetic level, which predicts shorter survival and poor response  
527 to anti-cancer therapy. CB<sub>2</sub>R is also overexpressed in breast cancer and connected to  
528 more aggressive cancer forms, sometime through interaction with HER2. In the



**Fig. 4** (continued) head and neck squamous cell carcinoma; **(d)** LUAD, lung adenocarcinoma; **(e)** SARC, sarcoma; **(f)** KIRP, kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma; **(g)** LAML, acute myeloid leukemia; **(h)** THCA, thyroid carcinoma; **(i)** UVM, uveal melanoma

529 absence of ligands, CB<sub>2</sub>R assumes the role of the main receptor in the heteromer, by  
530 regulating HER2 signaling (Pérez-Gómez et al. 2015). In the presence of CB<sub>2</sub>R  
531 ligand THC, the HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R complex is disrupted by binding to CB<sub>2</sub>R with high  
532 selectivity, which induces the inactivation of HER2 (by disrupting HER2-HER2  
533 dimers) and its degradation, ultimately activating anti-cancer signaling pathways.  
534 Strategies involving double stimulation of both receptors concurrently might induce  
535 synergistic anti-cancer effects, which will be further explored in section “[The Role of  
536 ECS in Response to Standard Anti-Cancer Treatment](#)”.

537 Thus, the protein complexes that are formed between various CBRs and other  
538 membrane receptors contribute to the value of ECS components as prognostic  
539 markers, as well as promising new, and still under explored, targets for anti-cancer  
540 treatment.

## 541 **The Role of Cannabinoid Ligands in Cancer Progression** 542 **and Prognosis**

543 Concerning cannabinoid ligands, *in vitro* and *in vivo* evidence supports their  
544 involvement in the regulation of signaling pathways essential for cell survival,  
545 growth, and spread, as well as proliferation, angiogenesis, and cell cycle (Nigro  
546 et al. 2021). As endocannabinoids are crucial for the regulation of lipid metabolism  
547 and other prominent signaling pathways important in cancer, altered levels in some  
548 subtypes and disease stages have been reported (Zhang et al. 2016). The extent of  
549 their contribution to disease progression and metastatic spread is not easily deter-  
550 mined but has been explored in various studies starting from the 1980s/1990s. The  
551 general mode of action is cancer cell death by apoptosis, as well as inhibition of  
552 cellular proliferation, thus contributing to an overall beneficial effect against cancer  
553 progression and a more favorable prognosis. However, there are studies that have  
554 documented that cannabinoid ligands might exert tumor-promoting activity *in vitro*,  
555 both directly acting through CBRs and indirectly negatively affecting the immuno-  
556 logical surrounding that should contribute to an overall tumor-suppressor state  
557 (Braile et al. 2021). The literature data is still conflicting, as there have been reports  
558 that cannabinoids have the ability to enhance the tumor surveillance in specific  
559 cancer subtypes *in vitro* (Simmerman et al. 2019).

560 When the induction of autophagy is concerned, it usually involves the action of  
561 p8. However, upregulation of AMPK and downregulation of the AKT-mTORC1  
562 axis induced by TRIB3 have also been reported in some cancers as hepatocellular,  
563 and downregulation of the AKT signaling in melanoma and breast cancer (Moreno  
564 et al. 2020). The activation of CBRs in melanoma, gliomas, and thyroid carcinomas  
565 has been negatively linked with VEGF-induced angiogenesis and positively corre-  
566 lated with the inhibition of cancer cell adhesion and invasion in breast, lung, and  
567 cervical cancer (Pagano et al. 2021). The endocannabinoid anandamide has been  
568 shown to bind to CB<sub>1</sub>R and block the cell cycle progression, inhibiting the activity of  
569 adenylyl cyclase which enhances the Raf-1/ERK/MAPK signaling axis without  
570 inducing cancer cell death.

## 571 **The Role of Other ECS Components in Cancer Progression** 572 **and Prognosis**

573 The enzymatic machinery involved in various ECS-related pathways has also been  
574 reported to affect tumor development and growth. As ECS enzymes affect the  
575 endocannabinoid biosynthesis, catalytic, and transport processes, the range of out-  
576 comes they can exert depends in great level on the cancer type in question and the  
577 surrounding microenvironment (Vuletić et al. 2021). Increased availability of can-  
578 nabinoid ligands by changes in the activity of ECS enzymes might lead to protective  
579 effects, which is even more pronounced in cases where ECS components have been  
580 deregulated by cancerogenesis. For colorectal cancer, overexpression of MAGL has  
581 been reported which was correlated with poor patient prognosis (Pagano et al. 2017).  
582 In brain tumors as glioma and endometrial cancer, FAAH and MAGL are down-  
583 regulated which affect the production of endocannabinoids as AEA and 2-AG. In  
584 prostate cancer, high expression of FAAH was noted. A similar situation was  
585 reported for pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma, where high levels of FAAH and  
586 MAGL correlated with prolonged patient survival (Pagano et al. 2021).

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## 587 **ECS as a Novel Target in Cancer: Status and Future Perspectives**

588 The vast biochemical milieu of effects the ECS components can exert and regulate  
589 contributes to its role in pivotal processes important both for cancer progression and  
590 thus prognosis of cancer patients. Besides the reported direct and indirect effects on  
591 proliferation, apoptosis, and angiogenesis and metastatic potential of cancer cells, their  
592 involvement in the regulation of inflammatory pathway might be crucial depending on  
593 the specific tumor subtype in question (Braile et al. 2021). Thus, their significance as  
594 novel targets in cancer, as monomers and heteromers, must be evaluated in detail  
595 depending on the cancer subtype, taking into account biased agonism which might  
596 change the overall effect of potential treatment (Laprairie et al. 2017).

597 Some tumor cells are rich cannabinoid receptors and are attractive anti-cancer  
598 targets, although their level of expression is not always in direct correlation with  
599 tumorigenicity (Soderstrom et al. 2017). Various biochemical pathways might be  
600 affected while targeting CBRs producing several outputs important for controlling  
601 the growth and spread of cancer cells. They include but are not limited to the  
602 deregulation of endoplasmic reticulum stress-inducing factors, TNF $\alpha$ -linked synthesis  
603 of the sphingolipid ceramide, cell death dependent on regulation of COX-2, inhibition  
604 of angiogenesis, deregulation of RAS/MAPK and PI3K-AKT axes (Pagano and  
605 Borrelli 2017), etc. However, the transfer of information when targeting CBRs  
606 needs to be rigorously inspected, as they foster a number of allosteric connections in  
607 the plasma membrane and tend to form heteromers specific for the cancer subtype in  
608 question (Moreno et al. 2020). It is currently widely accepted that in most biochemical  
609 scenarios, the effective true cannabinoid receptor targets are not monomeric structures,  
610 but heteromeric complexes comprised of two or more same and different receptor  
611 monomers in the plasma membrane (Sánchez-Soto et al. 2018). The biochemical

612 plasticity that the heteromers induce is even more pronounced when considering the  
613 existence of allosteric cannabinoid ligands binding to conserved orthosteric sites  
614 present on different GPCRs or by the existence of biased cannabinoid ligands.  
615 Strategies targeting two receptors in a heteromer have also been explored. When  
616 considering the mentioned HER2-CB<sub>2</sub>R heteromer, it was reported that inactivation  
617 and disruption of HER2 can be initiated by THC binding to the CB<sub>2</sub>R component of  
618 the heteromer (Blasco-Benito et al. 2019). Thus, a control of the oncogenic properties  
619 of one receptor, as HER2 in breast cancer, might be achieved through targeting the  
620 corresponding monomer pair in the heteromer entity, unraveling new and specific anti-  
621 cancer mechanism. Cannabinoids can also act through non-receptor-based mecha-  
622 nisms and induce significant anti-cancer effects contributing to control of cancer  
623 invasiveness and metastatic spread. For CBD it has been shown to activate autophagy  
624 through ERK1/2 activation and AKT downregulation, using the autophagy initiator  
625 ULK1 and without the involvement of mTORC1, pointing to a non-canonical pathway  
626 of action in neuroblastoma (Vrechi et al. 2021).

627 Using cannabinoids as oncological therapeutics is a promising area of research.  
628 They have been shown to exhibit protective effects against cancer cell growth and  
629 spread, contributing to an overall state of homeostasis. Most available literature data  
630 from clinical trials using cannabinoid ligands presented in reviews explored the roles  
631 of cannabis, cannabinoids, marijuana, THC, CBD, dronabinol, marinol, nabilone,  
632 and nabiximols. The reviews describe data on the main cannabinoid applications in  
633 alleviating neuropathic or chronic pain, as well as its well documented uses in  
634 controlling nausea, vomiting, appetite, intestinal dysfunction, glaucoma, and similar  
635 conditions. Cancer studies are also covered, although none of the clinical trials have  
636 yet to lead to a globally accepted use of any ECS component in anti-cancer  
637 treatment. Most clinical studies were conducted on terminal patients who consented  
638 to trials after exhausting all other possible treatments, and the main use of cannabi-  
639 noids was in control of cancer-related pain. However, these studies showed that  
640 cannabinoids can also participate in the control of tumor growth, acting both alone  
641 and in combination with other cytotoxic drugs (Mangal et al. 2021). The potential of  
642 many plants and endogenous and synthetic cannabinoids have been explored using  
643 *in vitro* and *in vivo* cancer models. Although glioma cells have been most used as a  
644 model for evaluating the anti-cancer pathways that cannabinoids modulate, many  
645 other cancer subtypes have been used as well, such as lung cancer, thyroid epithe-  
646 lioma, lymphoma, and melanoma. Literature data supports the anti-cancer potential  
647 of cannabinoids, through the induction of apoptosis, activation of CBR-dependent  
648 *de novo* synthesis of pro-apoptotic sphingolipid ceramide, autophagy (Lee et al.  
649 2021), regulation of cancer angiogenesis (Ladin et al. 2016), inhibition of cell  
650 proliferation and epithelial-mesenchymal transition (Milian et al. 2020), and inter-  
651 action with the tumor immune microenvironment (Braile et al. 2021). The outcome  
652 of applying cannabinoids varies on the type of ligand, its concentration, affinity for  
653 the receptors expressed in that specific cancer subtype, the presence of heteromers,  
654 tumor stage, and the general immune state of the tumor surroundings.

655 Using ECS enzymes and transporters as targets has also been explored as anti-cancer  
656 strategy, but with limited success. As they might have a vast range of CNS-related and  
657 systemic adverse effects, their use has so far been experimental. Many modulators of

658 FAAH enzymes have been investigated as anti-cancer therapeutics (Lodola et al. 2015).  
659 However, after poor outcomes of important clinical studies on healthy human volun-  
660 teers, the trials have had very stringent conditions, limiting further advances in the field.  
661 MAGL has also been explored as an option, as it is over-expressed in some cancer types  
662 as breast, ovarian, and melanoma. It was considered that its inhibition might contribute  
663 to lower cancer cell migration and aggressiveness (Granchi et al. 2017). MAGL is  
664 crucial for lipid metabolism and might as such also be useful as a target for activation of  
665 lipid signaling pathways important for cancer cell spread, survival, and growth. It is an  
666 ECS enzyme with the highest number of patented uses for many therapeutic uses,  
667 including anti-cancer treatment.

## 668 **The Role of ECS in Response to Standard Anti-Cancer Treatment**

669 During many experimental assessments of the effect of various ECS components on  
670 cancer growth, spread, and signaling, it has been reported that they tend to interact  
671 with standard anti-cancer therapies. This effect needs to be considered in each setting  
672 when a concurrent treatment is ongoing, as there might be a change in the cytotoxic  
673 mechanisms that was expected to occur.

674 A clinical study exploring the potential beneficial effect of adding cannabinoids  
675 to standard anti-cancer treatment for recurrent glioblastoma multiforme recently  
676 showed some promising results (Twelves et al. 2021). The authors evaluated the  
677 safety profile and effectiveness of nabiximols oromucosal spray given concurrently  
678 with dose-intense temozolomide (DIT) after first recurrence of GBM. At 1 year of  
679 treatment, survival rate was 83% for nabiximols-treated and 44% for placebo-treated  
680 patients, and nabiximols showed acceptable safety and tolerability. No apparent  
681 disruptive effect of nabiximols was detected on temozolomide pharmacokinetics.  
682 This positive result of a phase 1b study supports further efforts to design an  
683 adequately powered randomized controlled trial and evaluate survival rates of this  
684 new potential treatment combination. For some cannabinoids as THC and CBD, it  
685 has been show that they promote the cytotoxic activity of chemotherapeutics as  
686 vinblastine, cytarabine, mitoxantrone, doxorubicin, vincristine, mitoxantrone,  
687 carmustine, carfilzomib, temozolomide, bortezomib, carfilzomib, and cisplatin  
688 (Ramer and Hinz 2017). In early 2022, a first large-scale phase II trial in the UK  
689 will assess the potential of combining Sativex (an oral spray of THC and CBD) to  
690 standard chemotherapeutic regimen temozolomide to has benefit in patients with  
691 recurrent glioblastoma (ARISTOCRAT study). The trail aims to assess whether  
692 concurrent treatment with Sativex and chemotherapy will prolong the overall sur-  
693 vival or delay disease progression, i.e., prolong the progression-free survival and/or  
694 improve patients' overall quality of life.

695 Future areas of research focusing on ECS-related anti-cancer therapeutics will  
696 most probably be exploring their usability in joint scenarios with chemo-, targeted,  
697 and immunotherapy drugs, considering all the specificities of the cancer subtype in  
698 question. Many standard anti-cancer protocols, although effective in combating  
699 cancer, have significant adverse effects, thus lowering the patients' quality of life.

700 Many plant derivatives and components, as well as cannabinoids, have been pro-  
701 posed as beneficial in this setting, as supplementary or alternative drugs, aiding  
702 patients to achieve a maximum anti-cancer response while protecting their perfor-  
703 mance status (Srdic-Rajic et al. 2016, 2017; Fraguas-Sánchez and Torres-Suárez  
704 2018). In the case of lung cancer, which is a model subtype for the rising success of  
705 targeted therapies worldwide (Cavic et al. 2016; Jankovic et al. 2019), there is also a  
706 problem of acquired resistance that involves the epithelial to mesenchymal transition  
707 (Milian et al. 2020). Complementary drugs based on ECS components might also  
708 prove useful for restoring the epithelial phenotype contributing to prolonged lung  
709 cancer patient survival. The options for their administration and routes of absorption  
710 will also need to be further evaluated in detail before their use in cancer therapy. As  
711 their application for other human disorders and palliative medicine is already well  
712 described, drug repurposing protocols might be employed to speed up the necessary  
713 clinical processes of evaluation, as has been proposed for other therapeutics  
714 (Grahovac et al. 2019). The era of avoiding ECS components in anti-cancer treat-  
715 ment due to ethical and legal stigmas that accompanied the abuse of exogenous  
716 cannabinoids seems to slowly be coming to an end. The risk-to-benefit ration of their  
717 use in any clinical trial will need to be carefully evaluated, as is the case with any  
718 new drug family that is introduced in pharmacological testing on larger patient  
719 populations.

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## 720 Conclusions

721 Although many aspects of the role of the ECS in the oncological setting have been  
722 rigorously evaluated in preclinical studies, its clinical utility remains the topic of  
723 vivid scientific debate. The ECS is vital for the maintenance of physiological  
724 homeostasis, and its deregulation has great significance for the occurrence of cancer,  
725 its progression, prognosis, interaction with standard anti-cancer therapeutics, and  
726 anti-cancer treatment. Basic research has yielded scientific evidence that contributed  
727 to the initiation of clinically oriented studies involving repurposing of ECS-based  
728 drugs from their primary use in pain alleviation. However, legal and ethical issues  
729 that accompany the use of cannabinoids in anti-cancer treatment seem to still precede  
730 its value. The scientific community is therefore posed before a difficult task to  
731 address all the potential non-scientific pitfalls while providing specific grades of  
732 recommendation and levels of evidence for future ECS-based anti-cancer  
733 therapeutics.

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738 preparation, writing – review and editing. EIC: conceptualization, writing – review and editing,  
739 supervision, project administration. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the  
740 manuscript.

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Uncorrected Proof

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