Care and Feeding of the Endocannabinoid System: A Systematic Review of Potential Clinical Interventions that Upregulate the Endocannabinoid System

John M. McPartland¹,²*, Geoffrey W. Guy¹, Vincenzo Di Marzo³

¹ GW Pharmaceuticals, Porton Down Science Park, Salisbury, Wiltshire, United Kingdom, ² Department of Family Medicine, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont, United States of America, ³ Endocannabinoid Research Group, Istituto di Chimica Biomolecolare, CNR, Via Campi Flegrei, Pozzuoli, Napoli, Italy

Abstract

Background: The “classic” endocannabinoid (eCB) system includes the cannabinoid receptors CB₁ and CB₂, the eCB ligands anandamide (AEA) and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG), and their metabolic enzymes. An emerging literature documents the “eCB deficiency syndrome” as an etiology in migraine, fibromyalgia, irritable bowel syndrome, psychological disorders, and other conditions. We performed a systematic review of clinical interventions that enhance the eCB system—ways to upregulate cannabinoid receptors, increase ligand synthesis, or inhibit ligand degradation.

Methodology/Principal Findings: We searched PubMed for clinical trials, observational studies, and preclinical research. Data synthesis was qualitative. Exclusion criteria limited the results to 184 in vitro studies, 102 in vivo animal studies, and 36 human studies. Evidence indicates that several classes of pharmaceuticals upregulate the eCB system, including analgesics (acetaminophen, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, opioids, glucocorticoids), antidepressants, antipsychotics, anxiolytics, and convulsants. Clinical interventions characterized as “complementary and alternative medicine” also upregulate the eCB system: massage and manipulation, acupuncture, dietary supplements, and herbal medicines. Lifestyle modification (diet, weight control, exercise, and the use of psychoactive substances—alcohol, tobacco, coffee, cannabis) also modulate the eCB system.

Conclusions/Significance: Few clinical trials have assessed interventions that upregulate the eCB system. Many preclinical studies point to other potential approaches; human trials are needed to explore these promising interventions.

Introduction

The endocannabinoid (eCB) system consists of receptors, endogenous ligands, and ligand metabolic enzymes. Metaphorically the eCB system represents a microcosm of psycheuromimology or mind-body medicine. Cannabinoid receptor 1 (CB₁) is the most abundant G protein-coupled receptor expressed in the brain, with particularly dense expression in (rank order): the substantia nigra, globus pallidus, hippocampus, cerebral cortex, brain, with particularly dense expression in (rank order): the substantia nigra, globus pallidus, hippocampus, cerebral cortex, putamen, caudate, cerebellum, and amygdala [1]. CB₁ is also expressed in non-neuronal cells, such as adipocytes and hepatocytes, and in musculoskeletal tissues. Cannabinoid receptor 2 (CB₂) is principally associated with cells governing immune function, although it may also be expressed in the central nervous system [2,3].

The quintessential eCB ligands are N-arachidonylethanolamine (anandamide, AEA) and ω-2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG). AEA and 2-AG are released upon demand from cell membrane-embedded phospholipid precursors. The primary biosynthetic enzyme of AEA is N-acethylphosphatidylethanolamine phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD). 2-AG is biosynthesized by two isoforms of diacylglycerol lipase, DAGLα and DAGLβ. AEA and 2-AG work in a homeostatic fashion, thus they are broken down after they activate CB₁ or CB₂. AEA is catabolized primarily by fatty acid amid hydrolase 1 (FAAH1), and 2-AG is catabolized by monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL), and, to a lesser extent, 2β-hydroxylase-6 (ABHD-6), cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2), and FAAH1.

This “classic eCB system” has expanded with the discovery of secondary receptors, ligands, and ligand metabolic enzymes [4]. For example, AEA, 2-AG, N-arachidonoyl glycine (NAGly) and the phytocannabinoids Δ₉-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD) may also serve, to different extents, as ligands at GPR55, GPR18, GPR119, and several transient receptor potential ion channels (e.g., TRPV1, TRPV2, TRPA1, TRPM8). The effects of AEA and 2-AG can be enhanced by “entourage compounds” that inhibit their hydrolysis via substrate competition,
and thereby prolong their action. Entourage compounds include N-palmitylethanolamide (PEA), N-oleylethanolamide (SEA), and cis-9-octadecenoamide (OEA, oleamide).

The eCB system’s salient homeostatic roles have been summarized as, “relax, eat, sleep, forget, and protect” [5]. It modulates embryological development, neural plasticity, immunity and inflammation, apoptosis and carcinogenesis, pain and emotional memory, and most importantly from the viewpoint of recent drug development: hunger, feeding, and metabolism. Obese individuals seem to display an increased eCB system deficiencies have been implicated in uncompensated schizophrenia [11], migraine [12], multiple sclerosis [13], Huntington’s [14,15], uncompensated Parkinson’s [16], irritable bowel syndrome [17], uncompensated anorexia [18], and chronic motion sickness [19].

Correcting CEDS may be accomplished via at least three molecular mechanisms: 1. augmenting eCB ligand biosynthesis; 2. decreasing eCB ligand degradation; 3. augmenting or decreasing receptor density or function. Clinical interventions for CEDS are largely unknown; this provided a rationale for reviewing potential clinical approaches. The paucity of human clinical trials led us to include preclinical studies in a systematic review. A systematic review uses an objective, transparent approach for research synthesis, with the aim of minimizing bias. Systematic reviews usually analyze human clinical trials, but the methodology can be applied to preclinical studies [20,21]. We previously conducted a systematic review of in vitro CB1 ligand binding affinity and receptor distribution [22]. The review has alerted others to interspecies differences in preclinical studies, and other methodological issues (e.g., [23]).

Potential clinical interventions (intervention groups) include pharmaceutical drugs, such as analgesics (acetaminophen, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, opiates, glucocorticoids), anti-depressants, antipsychotics, auxiolytic agents, and anticonvulsants. We also investigated therapeutic approaches classified as “complementary and alternative medicine” (CAM). The National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine (NCCAM) defines CAM as “a group of diverse medical and healthcare systems, practices, and products, that are not currently part of conventional medicine” (http://nccam.nih.gov/health/whatiscam/). The NCCAM categorizes CAM practices into three broad groups: “natural products” (dietary supplements and herbal remedies), “mind and body medicine” (meditation, yoga, and acupuncture), and “body-based practices” (massage, spinal manipulation). For the purposes of this review, we add “lifestyle modifications,” including diet, weight control, exercise, and commonly-used psychoactive substances—alcohol, tobacco, coffee, and cannabis.

Methods

Data Sources and Search Parameters

This review followed the guidelines proposed by PRISMA, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses [24], see Checklist S1. PubMed (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/) was searched through March 2013 using three MeSH keywords: endocannabinoids, cannabinoids, cannabinoid receptors. Each keyword was entered in a boolean combination with the intervention groups listed in the previous paragraph. Titles and abstracts of identified articles in all languages were screened for inclusion and exclusion criteria. We included randomized clinical trials, observational studies, and preclinical research on model organisms and in vitro studies. We excluded redundant articles that used identical methods and reported parallel results, or review articles that presented duplicate information.

Because this review focuses upon clinical interventions affecting the eCB system, we deemed as irrelevant (and excluded) articles that described the reverse scenario, such as eCB ligands modulating opioid receptors, THC enhancing tobacco or alcohol abuse, etc. Retrieved articles were scanned for supporting citations, and antecedent sources were retrieved and screened for inclusion and exclusion criteria. In addition, we checked reference lists of relevant narrative reviews.

Data Selection, Abstraction, and Synthesis

All three authors selected studies for inclusion and exclusion; the first author abstracted all data, the second and third authors arbitrated uncertainties and disagreements. We undertook a qualitative synthesis across studies because there was substantial heterogeneity with respect to research methodologies amongst the

Figure 1. Selection process for study inclusion. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.g001

Figure 2. Anandamide (top figure) is metabolized into arachidonic acid and ethanolamine (bottom figures). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.g002
identified articles—ranging from randomized clinical trials, observational studies, and preclinical research on model organisms and in vitro studies. The substantial heterogeneity amongst these methodologies precluded a single metric of quality assessment.

Many studies utilized in vitro measures of receptor density and signal transduction, as differences in means before- and after-interventions. Briefly: assays for CB1/CB2 receptor density include autoradiography with tritiated ligands (usually [3H]CP55,940 or [3H]SR141716). Western blot or immunostaining with antibodies to CB1/CB2 proteins, and Northern blot with radio-labeled or fluorescent riboprobes for CB1/CB2 mRNA. Signal transduction studies measure cannabinoid-stimulated inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, cannabinoid-stimulated [35S]GTP\(^*\)S binding, or electrophysiological assays of ex vivo brain slices. Electrophysiological studies include depolarization-induced suppression of excitation (DSE, via glutamatergic synapses), depolarization-induced suppression of inhibition (DSI, via GABAAergic synapses), long-term depression of excitatory synaptic transmission (LTDE, via glutamatergic synapses), or long-term depression of inhibitory synaptic transmission (LTDI, via GABAAergic synapses).

Publication bias was addressed by asking investigators to contribute unpublished studies. Clinical interventions (intervention groups) with five or more studies are provided with an interpretive summary at the end of the section (e.g., the sections on NSAIDs, glucocorticoids, opiates, etc.).

Results and Discussion

The search algorithm identified 6,553 potentially relevant articles. The majority of these were irrelevant. For example, combining the three MeSH keywords with “alcohol” generated 2450 hits, many of which concerned the relationship between alcohol and cannabis in motor vehicle accidents or suicides. Only 322 articles met the predefined selection criteria for relevance. See Figure 1 for a flowchart of articles included in this review. Few randomized clinical trials have been conducted on our topic; most of the articles concerned preclinical research. Fewer studies measured the effects of clinical interventions on CB1 expression in humans. This is because the measurement of CB1 expression requires positron emission tomography (PET) or brain biopsies. Although cannabinoid radioligands for PET scans are available, few PET studies on clinical interventions have been completed. Ethical issues circumscribe brain biopsies in living humans. A few studies measured postmortem CB1 expression.

The use of PubMed as a stand-alone search engine may have generated bias regarding CAM practices. McPartand and Pruitt [25] used PubMed to compile a review of clinical trials regarding the CAM herbal medicine Serenoa repens; PubMed yielded only 33% of articles that they subsequently obtained by screening retrieved articles for supporting citations. Expanding our search by screening retrieved articles for supporting citations improved the yield, as it did in the Serenoa review.

The quality of in vitro studies such as [3H]CP55,940 binding at CB1 was generally high, for example, PMSF was used when appropriate. Methods used in two electrophysiology studies were controversial, and the studies were removed after urging by our manuscript reviewers. The quality of some rodent models of behavior was also questionable. Rather than judge their translational validity—a contentious issue [26]—we have named the specific behavioral assays in each study, allowing the reader to pass judgment.

Pharmaceutical drugs

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents (NSAIDs). NSAIDs inhibit two cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes, COX1 and COX2, and thereby block the conversion of arachidonic acid (AA) into inflammatory prostaglandins. Ibuprofen, ketorolac, and flurbiprofen also block the hydrolysis of AEA into arachidonic acid and ethanolamine [27]. See Figure 2. A binding site for some NSAIDs on FAAH has also been identified [28]. NSAID inhibition of COX2 blocks the metabolism of AEA and 2-AG into prostaglandin ethanolomides (PG-EAs) and prostaglandin glycerol esters (PG-GEs), respectively [29]. PG-EAs and PG-GEs increase the frequency of miniature inhibitory post synaptic currents (mIPSCs) in primary cultured mouse hippocampal neurons, an effect opposite to that of their parent molecules [30].

Prostaglandin E\(_2\) glycerol ester (PG\(_E2\)-GE), a COX2 metabolite of 2-AG, induced mechanical allodynia and thermal hyperalgesia in rat paws [31]. PG\(_F2\alpha\)-EA, a COX2 metabolite of AEA, was found in the spinal cord of mice with carrageenan-induced knee inflammation. PG\(_F2\alpha\)-EA contributed to pain perception and dorsal horn nociceptive neuron hyperactivity, thus providing a rationale for the combined use of COX2 and FAAH inhibitors against inflammatory pain [32].

Electrophysiology studies of rat hippocampal cells showed that meloxicam and nimesulide prolonged and increased DSI; that is to say, the COX2 inhibitors potentiated synaptic 2-AG release and CB1 signaling [33]. Consistent with this, intrathecally applied indomethacin enhanced eCB-mediated antinociception in mice that was blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [34]. Intrathecally applied flurbiprofen produced a similar eCB-dependent antinociception in the rat formalin test [35].

Combining NSAIDs with cannabinoids (either eCBs or exogenous cannabinoids) produces additive or synergistic effects. A sub-effective dose of WIN55,212-2 became fully antinociceptive following administration of indomethacin in rats [36]. A local injection of ibuprofen plus AEA in the rat formalin test produced synergistic antinociceptive effects involving both CB1 and CB2 [37]. The FAAH inhibitor URB937, when coadministered to mice with indomethacin, produced a synergistic reduction in pain-related behaviors [38]. Furthermore, URB937 reduced the number and severity of gastric lesions produced by indomethacin. One contrary study showed that THC's decrease in intraocular pressure was partially blocked by indomethacin in rabbits [39].

In a small human study, the administration of indomethacin antagonized marijuana effects [40]. Yet a high dose of ibuprofen may cause sedation, possibly a cannabimimetic effect [41]. Clinical anecdotes of NSAIDs eliciting cannabimimetic effects have been reported; the individuals are usually familiar with the effects of cannabis, and usually females [42].

In summary, preclinical studies indicate that some NSAIDs inhibit FAAH and enhance the activity of eCBs, phytocannabinoids, and synthetic cannabinoids. Combinational effects may be particularly relevant at peripheral sites, such as the peripheral terminals of nociceptors.

Acetaminophen. Acetaminophen (paracetamol), following decarboxylation to its metabolite p-aminophenol, is conjugated with AA to form N-arachidonoylphenolamine (NAP, aka AM404). It is likely that decarboxylation takes place mainly in the liver, and conjugation occurs in the central nervous system. NAP blocks the breakdown of AEA by FAAH, inhibits COX1 and COX2, and acts as a TRPV1 agonist [43]. The analgesic activity of acetaminophen in rats is blocked by CB1 or CB2 antagonists [44,45]. Analgesic activity is also lost in CB1\(^{-/-}\) knockout mice [46]. A sub-effective dose of the synthetic cannabinoid WIN55,212-2 became effective following intracisternal adminis-
tration of acetaminophen in rats [36]. A sub-effective dose of AEA in mice became anxiolytic in the Vogel conflict test and the social interaction test when co-administered with acetaminophen; the effect was blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [47].

Small amounts of acetaminophen are also metabolized via the cytochrome P-450 pathway into N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone imine (NAPQI). Intrathecal administration of NAPQI activates TRPA1 system. Chronic corticosterone administration decreased CB1 receptor expression in dorsal root ganglia. Why acetaminophen fails to elicit cannabimimetic effects in humans is unknown. Acetaminophen-cannabinoid drug interactions may be species-specific; Gould et al. [49] demonstrated strain-specific differences in mice. They suggested that other indirect actions of acetaminophen, including 5-HT receptor agonist dexamethasone increased CB1 density after spinal nerve injury (sciatic nerve constriction with suture loops), the GR resistance, and acute psychoactive effects. In a rat model of spinal mediated anti-inflammatory activity, immune suppression, insulin resistance, and acute psychoactive effects. In a rat model of spinal nerve injury (sciatic nerve constriction with suture loops), the GR receptor agonist dexamethasone increased CB1 density after spinal nerve injury, which suggests that CB1 is a downstream target for GR actions [50]. Glucocorticoid administration also induced CB1 expression in bone in mice [51] and rats [52].

The acute administration of glucocorticoids may shift AA metabolism toward eCB synthesis in parts of the brain. Electrophysiological studies of rat hypothalamic slices demonstrated that adding dexamethasone or corticosterone to slice baths caused a rapid suppression of synaptic activity, characterized as glucocorticoid-induced, eCB-mediated suppression of synaptic excitation (GSE). GSE was blocked by CB1 antagonists, indicating that eCB release mediated GSE [53]. A follow-up study demonstrated that GSE correlated with increased levels of AEA and 2-AG [54]. The same group found no changes in AEA and 2-AG after exposure of cerebellar slices to dexamethasone. In hypothalamic slices, GSE could be blocked by leptin, suggesting that GSE is a nutritional state-sensitive mechanism [55]. Dexamethasone enhanced eCB-mediated GSE by inhibiting COX2 in dorsal raphe serotonin neurons [56].

Corticosterone administration increased AEA levels in several rat limbic structures (amygdala, hippocampus, hypothalamus), but not the prefrontal cortex. 2-AG levels were only elevated in the hypothalamus [57]. The same group conducted an ex vivo study of the rat medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC). Bath application of corticosterone to mPFC slices suppressed GABA release onto principal neurons in the prelimbic region, which was prevented by application of the CB1 antagonist AM251 [58]. This indicates local recruitment of eCB signaling, probably through 2-AG. A previous study of rats receiving a single dose of corticosterone detected no change in 2-AG and a reduction of AEA in hippocampal homogenates [59]. Corticosterone increased hippocampal levels of 2-AG in rats; the impairment of contextual fear memory by corticosterone was blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [60].

Chronic exposure to glucocorticoids downregulates the eCB system. Chronic corticosterone administration decreased CB1 densities in rat hippocampus [59] and mouse hippocampus and amygdala [61]. Chronic corticosterone administration in male rats led to visceral hyperalgesia in response to colorectal distension, accompanied by increased AEA, decreased CB1 expression, and increased TRPV1 expression in dorsal root ganglia. Co-treatment with the corticoid receptor antagonist RU-486 prevented these changes [62].

In summary, preclinical rodent studies indicate that acute glucocorticoid administration enhances the activity of eCBs. The clinical phenomenon of acute “corticosteroid mania” may have a cannabimimetic component. Chronic exposure to glucocorticoids downregulates the eCB system, a scenario consistent with chronic stress, which we review below.

**Opiates.** Naloxone, a µ-opioid receptor antagonist, inhibited THC-induced Fos immunoreactivity in several regions of the rat central nervous system, including the ventral tegmental area, hypothalamus, caudate-putamen, and periaqueductal grey. Conversely, naloxone and THC had an additive effect on Fos immunoreactivity in the amygdala, stria terminalis, insular cortex, and paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus [63].

Short-term co-administration of morphine with THC caused an upregulation of CB1 protein in the spinal column of rats, far greater than THC or morphine given alone [64]. A rodent study of chronic but voluntary intake of opiates (rats self-administering heroin) enhanced [3H]CP55,940 binding in the amygdala and ventral tegmental area, plus a marked increase in cannabinoid-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding in the nucleus accumbens, caudate putamen, and amygdala [65]. Superfusion of ex vivo rat nucleus accumbens slices with 4-aminopyridine and NMDA released glutamate and GABA, respectively, and either morphine or the CB1 agonist HU210 predictably inhibited these responses. Combining HU210 and morphine caused a synergistic inhibition of GABA release, but a non-additive response in glutamate release [66].

Chronic morphine exposure in rats caused a reduction in hippocampal and cerebellar CB1 density measured with [3H]CP55,940, and a strong reduction in CP55,940-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding; 2-AG contents were also reduced [67]. Another rat study showed that chronic morphine exposure caused variable, regionally-specific modulations in [3H]CP55,940 binding and CB1 mRNA levels; CB1 upregulated in some regions and downregulated in other regions [68]. In human CB1-transfected HEK293 cells, morphine induced a desensitization of the µ-opioid receptor and heterologous desensitization of CB1, demonstrated by a reduction in WIN55212-2-induced [Ca2+]i release [69]. µ-opioid receptor knockout mice showed a dramatic reduction in WIN55212-2-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding [70]. In human SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells, sequential activation of CB1 and δ-opioid receptor produced synergistic elevations of intracellular Ca2+, a response that each receptor alone did not trigger in an efficacious way [71].

In behavioral studies, heroin reinstated “drug-seeking” behavior for WIN55,212-2 in rats [72]. Morphine did the same for THC in monkeys [73]. The rewarding effects of THC, measured by conditioned place-preference, were reversed by naloxone in rats [74]. In rats trained to discriminate THC, morphine administration markedly potentiated the THC discriminative stimulus [75]. Morphine or codeine potentiated THC-induced antinociception and analgesia in mice and rats [76–79]; inactive doses of the drugs in combination produce potent, synergistic analgesia [90]. Synergistic analgesia was confirmed in an isobolographic analysis [64]. Historically this is the first isobolographic analysis of a cannabinoid since the days Walter Siegfried Loewe, who invented the isobologram to test drug combinations for synergy [91]. Loewe demonstrated synergy generated by cannabis extracts combined
with other drugs [82,83], as well as synergy generated amongst the individual components within cannabis itself [84,85].

Normal men subjected to a thermal pain stimulus did not experience analgesia from a low dose of nabiximol (a synthetic THC analogue), or a low dose of morphine. But co-administration of the drugs produced an analgesic effect [86].

Endorphins (endogenous opioids) enhance the effects of cannabinoids: Administering a low dose of THC to rats produced an anxiolytic response in the light-dark box test, which was abolished by beta-fumidaxetraxine, a μ-opioid receptor antagonist [87]. In rats trained to discriminate THC, microinjection of β-endorphin into the ventral tegmental area potentiated the THC discriminative stimulus [75]. Enkephalins (endogenous opioids) also enhance the effects of THC: the inhibition of encephalin-degrading enzymes augmented THC-induced antinoiciception in mice, an effect blocked by either rimonabant or naxolone [88]. Naltrexone, a μ- and κ-opioid receptor antagonist, significantly increased many of the “positive” subjective effects of oral THC [89] and smoked cannabis [90] in marijuana smokers. These results suggest that endogenous opioids contribute to the effects of cannabis.

In summary, preclinical studies and clinical trials indicate that acute opiate administration enhances the activity of eCBs, phytocannabinoids, and synthetic cannabinoids. Acute opiates may also upregulate CB1 expression. Chronic opiate administration, however, may have a deleterious effect on the eCB system.

Antidepressant drugs. Serotonin selective uptake inhibitors (SSRIs), tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) are the most commonly prescribed antidepressant drugs. Treatment with fluoxetine, the archetypal SSRI, potentiated THC-induced hypothermia in rats [91], but did not change THC-induced behavioral effects—freezing behavior, social interaction or exploration, and preference for outer or inner zones [92]. Fluoxetine increased CB1 binding density in the prefrontal cortex, without altering AEA or 2-AG levels in rat brains [93]. Chronic fluoxetine also increased WIN55212-2-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding in the rat prefrontal cortex [94]. Conversely, treatment with citalopram reduced HU210-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding in the rat hypothalamus and hippocampus [95].

Treatment with fluoxetine prevented synaptic defects in mice induced by chronic unpredictable stress (the CUS protocol included inversion of day/night light cycle, 45° tilted cage, cage rotation, tube restraint, predator sounds, strobe lights, food and water deprivation, cold environment, and wet bedding), and CUS preserved eCB- and WIN55212-2-stimulated CB1 signaling [96]. In the hands of Mato et al. [97], fluoxetine in rats enhanced the inhibition of adenyl cyclase by WIN55212-2, but did not alter WIN55212-2-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding or CB1 density measured with [3H]BP55,940. They proposed that fluoxetine enhanced WIN55212-2 signaling through Gzα2 and Gzx3 subunits and not through Gzα2 subunits.

Treatment with the TCA desipramine increased CB1 binding density in the hippocampus and hypothalamus, without significantly altering AEA or 2-AG levels in rat brains [98]. The CUS protocol altered CB1 density in rat brains, and these changes were attenuated by concurrent treatment with imipramine [99]. Desipramine-induced weight gain was reduced by cotreatment with SR141716A, suggesting an eCB pathway [100].

Treatment with the MAOI tranylcypromine increased CB1 binding density in the prefrontal cortex and hippocampus, and increased 2-AG but decreased AEA levels in the prefrontal cortex [93]. Repeated electroconvulsive shock treatment (EST) for depression produced complex and regionally specific effects. Generally EST downregulated CB1 binding density and AEA levels in the cortex, but enhanced cannabinoid-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding in the amygdala [101].

In summary, the effects of antidepressant drugs or treatments upon the eCB system are not definitive, but likely result in CB1 upregulation, at least in some brain regions. Preclinical studies suggest agonist trafficking may be responsible for variable responses.

Antipsychotic drugs. First-generation antipsychotic drugs, such as haloperidol and chlorpromazine (thorazine), are dopamine D2 receptor inverse agonist. Second-generation “atypical” antipsychotics (e.g., risperidone, olanzapine, clozapine, and aripipra- zole) antagonize D2 and 5-HT2A, and also target other neuroreceptors. Acute administration of chlorpromazine enhanced the hypothermic response to THC [102]. Subchronic administration of haloperidol increased CB1 density in rat brains, indicated by

---

**Table 1. Effects of PUFA supplementation upon eCB levels.**

| Supplemented PUFA | assay; result compared to unsupplemented controls | reference |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| DHA+AA            | in vivo piglets, whole brain homogenates; \( \uparrow \) AEA, \( \downarrow \) 2-AG | [137]     |
| AA                | in vivo mice, whole brain homogenates; \( \uparrow \) AEA | [137]     |
| DHA               | in vivo mice, whole brain homogenates; \( \downarrow \) 2-AG | [325]     |
| AA                | in vivo mice, whole brain homogenates; \( \uparrow \) 2-AG | [325]     |
| DHA               | in vitro mouse 3T3-F442A adipocytes; \( \downarrow \) 2-AG, \( \downarrow \) AEA | [326]     |
| AA                | in vitro mouse 3T3-F442A adipocytes; \( \uparrow \) 2-AG | [326]     |
| DHA+EPA           | in vivo rats, whole brain homogenates; \( \downarrow \) AEA, \( \downarrow \) 2-AG | [327]     |
| or AA             | in vivo rats, jejunum homogenates; \( \uparrow \) AEA, \( \uparrow \) 2-AG | [142]     |
| DHA+EPA           | in vivo Zucker rats, visceral adipose tissue; \( \downarrow \) 2-AG, \( \downarrow \) AEA | [143]     |
| DHA+EPA           | in vivo rats; serum: \( \downarrow \), \( \downarrow \) AEA, \( \downarrow \) 2-AG; brain: \( \downarrow \) AEA, \( \downarrow \) 2-AG | [133]     |
| DHA+EPA           | in vivo obese humans; serum: \( \downarrow \) 2-AG, \( \downarrow \) AEA | [144]     |
| DHA+EPA           | in vivo mice; liver: \( \downarrow \) AEA, \( \downarrow \) 2-AG; brain: \( \downarrow \) AEA | [131]     |

\( \uparrow \), increase; \( \downarrow \), decrease; \( \rightarrow \), no change; 
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.t001
Table 2. Effects of short- and long-term caloric restriction upon the brain eCB system in animal studies.

| species, exercise                  | measure                                                                 | reference |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| rats administered leptin           | leptin (appetite-reducing hormone) decreases hypothalamic AEA and 2-AG levels | [6]       |
| rats fasted                        | fasting for 24 h increased AEA and 2-AG in limbic forebrain and 2-AG in hypothalamus | [328]     |
| mice fasted                        | time-dependent effects: short-term fasting (24 h) increased hypothalamic 2-AG; long-term fasting (12 d) decreased hypothalamic 2-AG | [329]     |
| goldfish fasted                    | food restriction decreased CB1 mRNA in the forebrain and increased AEA levels in the telencephalon, two effects reversed by refeeding | [330,331] |
| rats after gastric bypass          | weight loss after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery decreased AEA and with no change in 2-AG levels in skeletal muscle | [332]     |
| Zucker obese rats fasted           | fasting decreased CB1 mRNA in brainstem but not in hypothalamic nuclei | [333]     |

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.t002

increased binding of $[^{3}H]CP55,940$ in the substantia nigra>globus pallidus>striatum. Subchronic haloperidol also potentiated CP55,940-stimulated $[^{35}S]GTPgammaS$ binding in the substantia nigra [103]. Sundram et al. [104] confirmed haloperidol’s effects on $[^{3}H]CP55,940$ binding, and obtained similar results with chlorpromazine and olanzapine. In monkeys trained to discriminate THC, haloperidol sensitized the THC discriminative stimulus [105]. Risperidone increased $[^{3}H]CP55,940$ binding in rat brain without altering CB1 mRNA levels [106]. Four weeks of aripiprazole upregulated CB1 in rat frontal cortex [107]. Clozapine decreased $[^{3}H]CP55,940$ binding in rat brain [104], and attenuated THC-induced disruption of spatial working memory in the rat radial maze task [108].

Several researchers have proposed that CB1 upregulation during antipsychotic drug treatment may explain appetite enhancement, weight gain, and CB1 supersensitivity. D’Souza et al. [109] conducted a double-blind study on the effects of adding haloperidol to THC. Compared to THC alone, the combination of drugs significantly worsened verbal recall, distractibility, and vigilance scores. The drug combination did not affect other testing parameters, such as euphoric effects and motor outcomes. Another double-blind study showed that haloperidol reversed THC-induced increases in the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (used for measuring symptom severity in schizophrenia), but did not affect the THC-induced “high” in healthy male volunteers [110]. A double-blind study in healthy male volunteers showed that olanzapine reduced the effects of THC as measured on the positive and negative syndrome scale, and the visual analogue scale for psychedelic effects, but the reduction fell short of statistical significance, $p=0.67$ [111].

In summary, antipsychotic drugs likely upregulate CB1 expression in parts of the rodent brain. In human clinical studies, antipsychotic drugs do not affect THC-induced “high” or “euphoria,” but dampen dysphoria and worsen verbal recall and distractibility.

Anxiolytics, sedatives, and anesthetics. Diazepam is used for treating anxiety, insomnia, muscle spasms, and seizure disorders. Combining diazepam with WIN55212-2 produced a supra-additive anxiolytic effect in the rat elevated plus maze test; combining diazepam with the FAAH inhibitor URB597 also led to a supra-additive effect; coadministration of diazepam with the CB1 receptor antagonist AM251 attenuated the anxiolytic effect of diazepam [123]. Chronic administration of valproate in rats increased CB1 binding of the PET scan tracer $[^{18}F]$MK-9470; this was not seen with levetiracetam [124]. Tiagabine, an anticonvulsant GABA reuptake inhibitor, augmented THC-induced catalepsy [117] but not antinociception or hyperthermia [125]. In a human study, tiagabine augmented THC discrimination and enhanced THC effects in other outcomes [126].

Pregabalin is a $Ca^{2+}$ channel antagonist used for treating epilepsy and neuropathic pain. Isobolographic analysis demonstrated that combining WIN 55,212-2 with pregabalin exerted synergistic antinociceptive effects in the mouse hot-plate test [127]. Vagus nerve stimulation (VNS) is used as an add-on treatment to patients with drug-resistant epilepsy. Implantation of a vagus nerve stimulator in rats significantly decreased AEA and 2-AG in mesenteric adipose tissue, but increased PEA [128]. Chemical VNS by administration of the peptide hormone cholecystokinin 8
to fasted rats decreased expression of CB1 in vagal afferent neurons [129].

Complementary and alternative medicine

Dietary supplements: PUFAs. Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) play fundamental roles in many cellular and multicellular processes, including inflammation, immunity, and neurotransmission. They must be obtained through diet, and a proper balance between omega-6 (ω-6) PUFAs and ω-3 PUFAs is essential. The typical Western diet contains a surfeit of ω-6s and a deficiency of ω-3s [130].

Arachidonic acid (AA) is the arachytopical ω-6, with 20 carbons and four double bonds (20:4n-6). Some of its metabolites cause chronic diseases seen in Western populations: prostaglandins cause pain and swelling, and leukotrienes cause bronchoconstriction and asthma. The inflammatory metabolites of AA are countered by dietary ω-3s. The two best-known ω-3s are docosapentaenoic acid (DPA, 20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n-3).

cCBs are derived from AA (see Figure 2). Several preclinical studies showed that dietary supplementation with AA increased serum levels of AEA and 2-AG, summarized in Table 1. Although we clearly need AA to biosynthesize cCBs, excessive levels of AA administered chronically, may lead to excessive levels of cCBs. This in turn may lead to desensitized and downregulated CB1 and CB2 receptors. Linoleic acid, an 18:2n-6 PUFA, is converted into AA, and it elevated 2-AG and AEA levels and induces obesity in mice [131].

Dietary supplementation with ω-3s predictably increased the concentration of EPA and/or DHA in tissues, cells, and plasma, and decreased the relative concentration of AA in tissues, cells, and plasma [132,133]. ω-3 supplementation also decreased AEA and 2-AG in tissues, cells, and plasma (Table 1). However, the effects of ω-3 supplementation are nuanced and complex:

- Piscecelli et al. [134] fed mice a high-fat diet (cholesterol and saturated fatty acids) with little AA. This diet caused a decrease in AEA and 2-AG in the liver. Supplementing that diet with DHA and EPA increased AEA and 2-AG in the liver. In contrast, the high-fat diet increased AEA and 2-AG in muscle tissue, and supplementation with krill oil decreased AEA and 2-AG. Similar trends were seen in heart, kidneys and white adipose tissue.

- Adequate levels of dietary ω-3s are required for proper cCB signaling. Mice supplemented with ω-3s, compared to mice on a control diet, expressed greater levels of CB1 and CB2 mRNA. Mice supplemented with ω-3s also expressed greater levels of cCB synthetic enzymes—NAPE-PLD, DAGLα, and DAGβ [132]. Supplementation with ω-3s also modulated the concentrations of “entourage compounds” such as PEA and OEA [133,134].

- In apparent contrast with the above findings, Laforoude et al. [135] showed that ω-3 deficiency abolished cCB-mediated neuronal functions. They reasoned that lifelong ω-3 deficiency causes chronically elevated cCB levels within brain synapses, which leads to CB1 desensitization. They tested a rodent model of depression-like behavior (the forced-swim test), and ω-3-deficient mice performed like CB1−/− knockout mice. The administration of WIN55212-2 did not change their behavior, whereas in ω-3-rich mice, WIN55212-2 imparted typical cannabinimetic effects. Larrieu et al. [136] demonstrated depressive-like symptoms in ω-3-deficient mice compared to mice fed an ω-3 enriched diet. They used the forced-swim test as well as the more valid open-field and social-investigation tests. Mice deficient in ω-3 showed impairment in the CB1 signaling pathway—ERK1/2 phosphorylation in the hippocampus was reduced after treatment with WIN55212-2, and the anxiolytic effects of WIN55212-2 were absent in ω-3-deficient mice. ω-3 PUFAs may impact the cCB system via a second mechanism: cCB biosynthetic enzymes readily accept ω-3s as substrates. An ω-3-rich diet markedly elevated the N-acyl-ethanolamide metabolite of DHA, called DHEA, the N-acyl-ethanolamide metabolite of EPA, called EPA, and the ω-3-glycerol-ester metabolite of AA, called 2-AG. FAAH catalyzed DHEA [130,139]. DHEA and EPA act as cCBs: DHEA and EPA showed high binding affinity for CB2 (Kᵢ = 124 and 55 nM respectively) and acted as partial agonists [139]. Their affinity nearly equals that of AEA—a meta-analysis of affinity studies using the same binding assay (mouse brain, [3H]CP55940 displacement, presence of PMSF) produced a modal Ki value of 61 nM for AEA [22]. DHEA, aka synaptamide, stimulates neurite growth and synaptogenesis in developing hippocampal neurons [140].

In natural fish oil, DHA and EPA are esterified in triglycerides (TAG), whereas in many fish oil capsules, DHA and EPA are esterified in EE (ethyl-ester) or TAG (ωTAG). Krill oil contains DHA and EPA esterified in phospholipids, primarily phosphatidylcholines, which may improve their bioavailability; furthermore krill oil contains less AA than fish oil [141]. Batetta et al. [142] supplemented the diet of obese Zucker rats with fish oil or krill oil, which contained nearly identical amounts of EPA and DHA. The visceral adipose tissue of krill oil-supplemented rats contained less AEA and 2-AG than fish oil-supplemented rats. In the liver only AEA levels were significantly less. The effects of these dietary sources of DHA and EPA on brain cCB levels were much less pronounced, with krill oil producing only a small decrease of 2-AG levels [143]. The same research group reported similar results in an obese cohort mostly composed by women: krill oil but not fish oil significantly decreased serum 2-AG levels; no significant changes were seen in normo-weight subjects [144]. In a yet unpublished study, one of us observed that in obese men, dietary krill oil reduced plasma AEA levels and concomitantly counteracted hypertriglyceridemia (Di Marzo, unpublished data).

In summary, dietary ω-3s seem to act as homeostatic regulators of the cCB system. In obese rodents fed a high-AA diet, ω-3s significantly decrease cCBs, especially 2-AG, particularly in tissues that become dysregulated, such as adipose and liver tissues. Plasma cCB levels are reduced by krill oil also in obese humans. Little change in cCB levels are seen in normo-weight individuals not fed a high ω-6 diet, and dietary ω-3s are required for proper cCB signaling.

Dietary supplements: Probiotics. “Probiotics” are endogenous microorganisms that confer a health benefit upon their human hosts. Probiotics occur in fermented foods, such as yogurt and kimchi. The best known organisms are Lactobacillus acidophilus and Bifidobacterium species. “Prebiotics” such as oligofructose are carbohydrates that serve as substrates for probiotic organisms. Human intestinal epithelial cells incubated with L. acidophilus produced more CB2 mRNA [145]. Feeding L. acidophilus to mice and rats increased the expression of CB2 mRNA in colonic epithelial cells. Lastly, mice fed L. acidophilus showed less pain behavior following colonic distension with butyrate than control mice, an effect reversed by the CB2 antagonist AM630 [145].

Probiotics and prebiotics also modulate CB1 expression. Acute probiotic treatment with Enterococcus faecium upregulated CB1 mRNA in Soles solea [146]. Pathologically obese ob/ob mice expressed elevated levels of colon CB1 mRNA [147]. When fed prebiotics such as oligofructose, they expressed less CB1 mRNA, produced less AEA (due to increased FAAH mRNA expression in adipose tissue), and gained less fat mass.

Other dietary considerations. A natural phosphate derivative of vitamin E, α-tocopheryl phosphate (α-TP), is a common
constituent in plant and animal tissues. Although α-TP does not bind to CB1, it modulates synaptic transmission in rodent hippocampus slices, an effect blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [148].

Human breast milk contains small amounts of AEA and high levels of 2-AG, but the biological significance of this is not known [149]. The oral administration of AEA (300 mg/kg), OEA (200 mg/kg) and especially 2-AG (400 mg/kg) in rats produces calming properties [150]. Mouse breast milk also contains eCBs, and when newborn mice are fed the CB1 agonist SR141716A, they stop suckling and die [151].

Pesticides such as chlorpyrifos and diazinon alter normal eCB system function [152,153]. We hypothesize that eating organic foods lacking pesticide residues may promote eCB homeostasis. Piperonyl butoxide, which is a synergist added to insecticides such as pyrethrum, is an efficacious but low-potency agonist of CB1 [154]. Phthalates are plasticizers added to water bottles, tin cans, food packaging, and even the enteric coating of pharmaceutical pills. Phthalates may act as endocrine disruptors and carcinogens. They also block CB1, as allosteric antagonists [155].

Herbal remedies. Some plants besides Cannabis produce vaguely cannabimimetic effects. Copal incense, extracted from *Prolinum* species (same plant family as *Boswellia*) contains a pentacyclic triterpene with high affinity for CB1 and CB2 [156]. Absinthium contains thujone, a constituent of wormwood, *Artemisia absinthium*. Thujone has weak affinity for CB1 [157]. Pristimerin, an alkaloid found in khat, *Catha edulis*, acts as a potent inhibitor of MAGL (IC_{50} = 93 nM) and causes an elevation of 2-AG levels in rat cortical neurons [158]. Salvinorin A in *Salvia divinorum* produces CB1-mediated effects in the gastrointestinal tract of rodents. Salvinorin A primarily acts as a kappa-opioid receptor agonist and is inactive as a ligand for CB1 and CB2 [159]; it may interact with a putative CB1-kappa-opioid receptor heterodimer [160].

Flavonoids such as biochanin A (from red clover, *Trifolium pratense*), genistein (from soybean, *Glycine max*), and kaempferol (from tea, *Camelia sinensis*, and many other plants) exert modest inhibition of FAAH in the low micromolar range [161]. Cyanidin and delphinidin, two anthocyanidins found in a wide range of plants, have micromolar affinities for CB1 [162]. Epigallocatechin-3-O-gallate, the most abundant catechin in tea, also has micromolar affinities for CB1 [163].

Yangonin, a kavalactone extracted from kava, *Piper methysticum*, exhibits affinity for CB1 with a K_i = 0.72 μM [164]. Curcumin, extracted from curry powders, elevates eCB levels and brain nerve growth factor (NGF) in a brain region-specific fashion, and pretreatment with CB1 antagonist AM4113 blocks this effect [165]. A study suggested that curcumin and resveratrol could bind to CB1, but the study was retracted [166].

Compounds with phytocannabinoid-like moieties have been extracted from legumes [167,168], *Helichrysum* [169], *Rhododendron* sp. [170], liverworts [171,172], and fungi [173–175]. Falcarinol is a skin irritant found in several plants that causes contact dermatitis. It covalently binds with the CB1 receptor, causing potent inverse agonistic and pro-inflammatory effects in human skin [176].

Higher plants (angiosperms and gymnosperms) produce PUFAs with acyl tails limited to 18 carbons in length [177]. Hence reports of PUFAs in plants with longer acyl tails, such as AA, AEA, and 2-AG are controversial. Di Tomaso et al. [178] detected AEA in chocolate and cocoa powder derived from *Theobroma cacao*. A subsequent study showed very little, if any, AEA in cocoa powder [149]. Nakane et al.[179] reportedly extracted sciodonic acid (20:3ω-6) from seeds of a pine tree, *Sciadopitys verticillata*. This analog of 2-AG exhibited cannabimimetic activity in NG108-15 cells expressing CB1.

Unlike higher plants, non-vascular plants such as club mosses, mosses, and algae express Δ_7-elongase enzymes, so they are capable of producing PUFAs with longer acyl tails [177]. Semiplenamide A, an AEA-like PUFAs isolated from a blue-green alga, *Lyngbya semiplena*, has micromolar affinity for CB1 and also blocks the AEA transporter, thereby inhibiting AEA breakdown [180]. Grenadamide, a PUFAs in *Lyngbya majuscula*, has micromolar affinities for CB1 [181]. Soderstrom et al. [182] extracted but did not identify an eCB-like compound from *L. majuscula*. Soderstrom also extracted a dozen eCB-like PUFAs from unidentified green algae (Chlorophyta), the brown alga *Laminaria angustata*, and the sponge *Mycale microcanthoxea*.

Some plant ligands bind to CB2 and modulate the immune system, but have no affinity for CB1, and do not elicit psychoactivity. Alkaloids from *Echinacea* species bind to CB2 with nanomolar affinity, and act as CB2 agonists with immunomodulatory effects [183]. Several constituents from *E. purpurea* root and herb produce synergistic, pleiotropic effects—they bind to CB2 as well as inhibit AEA uptake [184]. Other constituents from *Echinacea purpurea* act as weak CB1 antagonists [185].

The principal terpenoid in black pepper, (E)-β-caryophyllene (BCP), binds to CB2 with nanomolar affinity and acts as an agonist. Its anti-inflammatory effects are reduced in CB2 knockout

| species, exercise | measure | reference |
|-------------------|---------|-----------|
| rats, forced swimming for 1 h/d×6 months | decreased CB1 antibody expression in adipocytes | [334] |
| rats, voluntary wheelrunning, 24 h | running reversed chronic stress-induced deficits in GABAergic synapses to CB1 stimulation by eCBs and HU210 | [208] |
| mice, voluntary wheel running, 42 d | running rescued the sensitivity of striatal GABA synapses to CB1 stimulation downregulated by EAE induction | [335] |
| mice, voluntary wheel running for 15 d | sensitivity of striatal GABA synapses to CB1 stimulation increased | [336] |
| rats, forced treadmill running for 40 d | reduced CB1 expression in the striatum and hippocampus | [337] |
| rats, voluntary wheel running for 8 d | increased CB1 expression in the hippocampus, increased CB1-mediated GTP·S binding, and increased AEA content in hippocampus | [338] |
| mice, voluntary wheel running for 10 d | increased CB1 expression in the hippocampus | [321] |
| rats, forced treadmill running for 40 d | no change in gene expression of CB1, CB2, or FAAH in liver | [339] |

DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.t003
mice [186]. The protective effects of BCP on colitis in mice are reversed by the CB2 antagonist AM630 [187]. The protective effects of BCP on cisplatin-induced nephrotoxicity in mice are absent in CB2 knockout mice [188]. Lastly, the antinociceptive effect of BCP in mice is prevented by pretreatment with AM630 [189].

Rutamarin in *Ruta graveolens* has micromolar affinity for CB2 [190]. An unidentified constituent in noni fruit, *Maurina citrifolia*, shows weak affinity for CB2 [191]. The aromatic resin extracted from mastic, *Pistacia lentiscus*, contains an essential oil (EO) rich with monoterpoids and sesquiterpenoids. Rats fed mastic EO showed higher plasma levels of DHA, EPA, PEA, and OEA than control rats, with no change in AEA or 2-AG [192].

Shellfish are not herbal remedies, but they have been used medicinally. AEA and/or 2-AG have been isolated from the mussel *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, the clam *Tapes dicuicatus*, the oyster *Crassostrea sp.* [193], the sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus* [194], and the sea squirt *Ciona intestinalis* [195].

**Mind and body medicine: chronic stress.** Chronic or repeated stress results in a chronic elevation of endogenous corticosterone via the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical (HPA) axis. Chronic stress (repeated restraint) reduced AEA levels throughout the corticolimbic stress circuit in rodents [99,196,197]. In contrast, 2-AG levels decrease or increase, depending upon the nature of the stressor: Hill et al. [198] found reduced 2-AG content within rat hippocampus following the CUS protocol. But in the hypothalamus and midbrain, 2-AG increased in the same testing paradigm [99]. Elevations in 2-AG appear after chronic restraint stress within the amygdala [196,199], hypothalamus [200], and medial prefrontal cortex [58].

CB1 expression decreased in rat hippocampus following the CUS protocol [198], whereas CB1 expression increased in the prefrontal cortex in the same testing paradigm [99]. The same paradigm decreased hippocampal CB1 expression in male rats, but increased CB1 expression in female rats [201]. Social isolation stress decreased CB1 density in the supraoptic nucleus of rats [202]. Immobilization/acoustic stress increased CB1 mRNA and protein expression in the prefrontal cortex of mice [203]. A chronic mild stress protocol (subjecting rats to cage soiling with water, group housing in a confined space, water and/or food deprivation, intermittent lighting, reversal of light/dark cycle, cage tilting to 45°, exposure to loud white noise and strobe lights) increased CB1 mRNA in the prefrontal cortex and decreased CB1 in the midbrain [204].

Adult rats exposed to chronic restraint stress increased CB1 binding of [3H]CP55,940 in the prefrontal cortex (PFC) with a decrease in the hippocampus. A 40-day recovery period resulted in normalization of CB1 in the PFC, and a pronounced upregulation of CB1 density in the hippocampus, possibly indicative of a rebound effect. Adolescent rats did not show any change in hippocampal CB1 density, but exhibited an upregulation in both the PFC and amygdala. They also exhibited a rebound in the hippocampus after 40 days [205].

Chronic water avoidance stress in male rats increased serum corticosterone levels and visceral hyperalgesia in response to colorectal distension, accompanied by increased AEA, decreased CB1 expression, and increased TRPV1 expression in the dorsal root ganglia [62]. Co-treatment with the corticoid receptor antagonist RU-486 prevented these changes [206]. Seven daily sessions of social defeat stress in mice decreased AEA levels in the hypothalamus and hippocampus, but not in the striatum or the frontal cortex; 2-AG levels increased after the last, but not the first, session in the hypothalamus, hippocampus, and frontal cortex [207]. Fear expression after the sessions was prolonged in mice receiving rimonabant and in CB1+/− knockouts. Conditional knockouts lacking CB1 in two defined neuronal subpopulations—glutamatergic neurons and GABAAergic neurons—inhibited the fear response.

Electrophysiological studies confirm the effects of chronic stress upon the eCB system: Chronic social defeat stress in mice (exposure to aggression) impaired GABAergic synapse sensitivity to eCBs (probably 2-AG) mobilized by group 1 metabotropic glutamate receptor stimulation [208]. The CUS protocol attenuated eCB-mediated DSE, LTD, and depression of field excitatory postsynaptic potentials [96]. Chronic restraint stress attenuated eCB-mediated DSI in rat hippocampus [209]. These chronic stressors also desensitized CB1 to exogenous cannabinoids: they reduced electrophysiological responses to HU210 in mouse striatum [208], and to WIN55,212-2 in mouse striatum [96]. Chronic immobilization stress in rats impaired retrograde eCB signaling at GABAergic synapses, and a functional downregulation of CB1 in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus [210].

**Acute restraint challenge in rats induces corticosterone release in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN).** This is inhibited by dexamethasone, a response blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251—suggesting that fast feedback requires local release of eCBs. Indeed, PVN content of 2-AG is elevated by the restraint challenge [200].

Acute footshock stress increased 2-AG and AEA levels in the periaqueductal gray and contributed to stress-induced analgesia (SIA) in male rats. SIA enhancement by a MAGL inhibitor and not by a FAAH inhibitor indicated that 2-AG was the primary eCB responsible for SIA [211]. SIA was modulated via CB1 receptors in the basolateral nucleus of the amygdala (BLA); microinjection of SR141716A into the BLA suppressed SIA [212]. Glucocorticoid enhancement of memory consolidation in the acute footshock stress is dependent upon CB1 activation in male rats; WIN55,212-2 infused into the amygdala enhances memory in an inhibitory avoidance apparatus, and AM251 impairs the

| species, assay | result compared to controls | reference |
|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------|
| human neuroblastoma cell line | ↑ [3H]AEA | [340] |
| rat cerebellar granule neurons | ↑ [3H]2-AG | [341] |
| rat, oral administration | ↑ AEA limbic forebrain, ↓ AEA+2-AG midbrain | [258] |
| rat cerebellar granule neurons | ↑ [3H]AEA via ↓ AEA transport and →FAAH | [342] |
| mouse, ethanol vapor inhalation | ↑ AEA cortex via ↓ FAAH | [252] |

1 ↑, increase; ↓, decrease; =, no change; assay; result compared to unsupplemented controls.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0089566.t004
response [213]. Acute handling stress in male newts increased serum cortisol levels and induced behavioral changes (less sexual behavior); the latter was blocked by a cannabinoid antagonist, AM281, indicating dependence upon CB1 activation [214].

Acute restraint stress in male rats increases hippocampal content of 2-AG and enhanced eCB-dependent modulation of GABA release measured by whole-cell voltage clamp of inhibitory post-synaptic currents (IPSCs) in hippocampal CA1 cells [215]. Responses in female rats are much more complex, because eCB levels fluctuate across the estrous cycle [216]. The eCB system has been implicated in cycle-dependent changes in pressure pain thresholds in human females [217].

In summary, chronic stress impairs the eCB system, via decreased levels of AEA and 2-AG. Changes in CB1 expression are more labile. Stress management may reverse the effects of chronic stress on eCB signaling, although few studies exploring this possibility have been performed to date. Clinical anecdotes suggests that stress-reduction techniques, such as meditation, yoga, and deep breathing exercises impart mild cannabimimetic effects [218].

Rossi et al. [208] found that mice given access to a running wheel recovered their chronic stress-induced synaptic defects. Accordingly, social play in rats increased CB1 phosphorylation (a marker of CB1 activation) in the amygdala and enhanced AEA levels in the amygdala and nucleus accumbens [219]. The effects of exercise on the eCB system are elaborated below. Grooming behavior, which is a stress-reduction behavior in rodents, increased in response to SR141716A administration [220].

Mind and body medicine: acupuncture. Acupuncture reduced stress-related behavior (from maternal separation in rats) and normalized HPA-induced corticosterone release [221]. Electroacupuncture (EA) reduced thermal hyperalgesia and mechanical allodynia induced by an injection of complete Freund's adjuvant into rat paws. EA increased AEA levels in skin tissue. The antinociceptive effects of EA were attenuated by the CB2 antagonist AM630, but not by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [222]. Moreover, EA upregulated the expression of CB2 receptors in skin tissues [223]. It appears likely that CB2 activation in the skin stimulates the release of β-endorphin, which then acts on peripheral μ-opioid receptors to inhibit nociception [224].

However, CB2 may play a role in the central effects of EA: rats treated with EA showed reduced GABA levels in the ventrolateral periaqueductal gray, an effect reversed by CB1 blockade with AM251 [225]. Enhanced activation of epsilon protein kinase C in rat brain by EA was reversed by CB1 blockade with AM251 and not by CB2 blockade with AM630 [226].

Mind and body medicine: body-based practices. Massage and osteopathic manipulation of asymptomatic participants increased serum AEA 168% over pretreatment levels; mean OEA levels decreased 27%, and no changes occurred in 2-AG. Participants receiving sham manipulation showed no changes [218]. Osteopathic manipulation of participants with low back pain increased serum PEA 1.6-fold over pretreatment levels, with no change in AEA. Participants receiving sham manipulation showed no changes [227].

Lifestyle modifications

Diet and weight change. Dozens of animal studies and human cohort studies have shown that diets rich in fats and sugars alter levels of AEA, 2-AG, their metabolic enzymes, and CB1. The reverse causality is also true—many studies show that CB1 agonists stimulate the consumption of fat and sugar. The rewarding properties of palatable foods are attenuated by CB1 blockade and in CB1−/− knockouts. Stimulation of feeding behavior by CB1 agonists occurs across the phylogenetic scale, from humans to Hydra, although there is no molecular evidence for CB1 orthologs in invertebrates other than the boneless chordates Ciona intestinalis and Branchiostoma floridae. Reviews on this topic are available [7,220,229], which we do not intend to duplicate here.

Upregulation of the eCB system in obese humans seems to be driven by excessive production of eCBs in several peripheral tissues such as visceral adipose tissue, liver, pancreas, and skeletal muscle. Differences arise between central (intra-abdominal) adipocytes versus peripheral (subcutaneous) adipocytes, with additional variations due to gender, age, and genetic polymorphisms in metabolic enzymes. Visceral adiposity particularly correlates with elevated levels of 2-AG in blood plasma [230]. Increases in circulating eCBs likely reflect spillover from adipose tissues and liver parenchyma, where CB1 activation promotes de novo lipogenesis and reduces insulin sensitivity, respectively. In mice with diet-induced obesity, CB1 mRNA and protein levels increased in the hippocampus, compared to lean controls [231]. Furthermore, hippocampal slices from obese mice showed increased CB1 activity, with no sign of CB1 desensitization. We find it surprising that sustained elevations of eCB ligands do not result in CB1 downregulation. This may be due to the fact that such elevations are not as dramatic as those caused, for example, by chronic MAGL inhibition. The lack of downregulation may contribute to the hedonic aspects of overeating, and influence cognitive processes.

Weight loss by caloric restriction or fasting predictably modulates the eCB system. Animal studies have demonstrated the complexities arising in adipose tissue versus the central nervous system (Table 2). In human studies, weight loss from caloric restriction has produced conflicting results. Engeli et al. [232] measured CB1 and FAAH gene expression, and serum AEA and 2-AG, in obese postmenopausal women. They reported no changes after 5% weight loss from caloric restriction. Bernetzen et al. [233] analyzed a younger population of obese men and women; a 10–12% weight loss resulted in elevated 2-AG levels in gluteal adipose tissues, with no change in AEA levels. Weight loss increased CB1 mRNA in abdominal adipose tissues but decreased CB1 mRNA in gluteal adipose tissues.

In centrally obese men, decreased plasma AEA and 2-AG levels accompanied a weight loss intervention consisting of both caloric restriction and exercise. Only 2-AG levels correlated with decreased visceral adipose tissue, plasma triglycerides and insulin resistance, and improved HDL-cholesterol levels [234]. However, the influence of caloric restriction and exercise separately was not analyzed in this study. You et al. [235] measured CB1 and FAAH mRNA in subcutaneous abdominal and gluteal adipose tissue in overweight or obese postmenopausal women. Caloric restriction resulted in 11% weight loss, which led to a reduction in gluteal CB1 and FAAH gene expression but no significant changes in abdominal adipose tissue. You and associates also tested the effects of exercise, see below. A 12-week hospital-based weight loss program (moderate caloric restriction along with counseling by dieticians and physical activity teachers) resulted in a mean weight loss of 9.5% and a significant reduction in salivary AEA levels, while salivary 2-AG, OEA and PEA did not significantly change [236].

In summary, increased food intake, adiposity, and elevated levels of AEA and 2-AG apparently spiral in a feed-forward mechanism. Weight loss from caloric restriction breaks the cycle, possibly by reducing CB1 expression and reducing eCB levels.

Exercise. Rodent studies have shown that exercise modulates the eCB system (Table 3). The results of these studies show a critical difference between short-term, voluntary exercises (e.g.,
wheel running) and long-term, coerced exercise (forced swimming, treadmills). Although both types of exercise regimens increased eCB ligand concentrations, only long-term, forced exercise led to sustained elevations of eCBs, and predictable CB1 downregulation.

In humans, serum AEA levels doubled over baseline in male subjects after ≥30 min running, and increased significantly in male subjects after biking. Serum 2-AG levels did not significantly increase [237]. Heyman et al. [238] reported similar findings in male cyclists—serum AEA levels increased significantly during exercise, whereas 2-AG concentrations remained stable. AEA male cyclists—serum AEA levels increased significantly during male subjects after biking. Serum 2-AG levels did not significantly increase following low-intensity walking, nor did it increase in the non-cursorial ferrets following exercise at any intensity. The same research group showed that serum AEA levels increased after high-intensity endurance running, whereas eCB signaling, via increased serum AEA levels (but not 2-AG), and possibly increased CB1 expression. “Runner’s high” may be an eCB-induced reward for exercise.

**Alcohol.** Acute administration of a high dose of ethanol in rats decreased AEA levels in brain, serum, and adipose tissue; PEA also decreased in the brain. AEA decrease was associated with inhibition of AEA release and no change in NAPE-PLD or FAAH hydrolysis [242]. However, exposing *ex vivo* murine hippocampal neuron cultures to lower doses of ethanol increased AEA and 2-AG release [243]. This increase led to reduced presynaptic glutamate release in neuron cultures, which was blocked by SR141716A. There was no change in CB1 density.

Electrophysiological studies of anesthetized rats showed that alcohol enhanced eCB signaling in mesolimbic circuits [244]. This effect was blocked by SR141716A, and increased by the FAAH inhibitor URB597—indicating AEA involvement. Another study by the same group showed parallel responses in rat amygdala. The downregulation of amygdala CB1 with chronic WIN55212-2 blunted the response to alcohol [245].

*Ex vivo* exposure of rat striatal slices showed ethanol shifts synaptic plasticity from LTP to eCB-mediated LTDI. Ethanol-enhanced LTDI was blocked by the CB1 antagonist AM251 [246]. The same group showed that ethanol modulated eCB-mediated striatal plasticity in a synapse-specific manner. Ethanol prevented CB1-dependent long-lasting disinhibition (DLL) in the dorsolateral striatum [247]. Furthermore, the study showed that LTDI by an exogenous cannabinoid, WIN55212-2, was actually prevented by ethanol.

**Chronic ethanol treatment** decreased CB1 density and decreased cannabinoid-stimulated [35S]GTPγS activation in various animal models [248–251]. One study of chronic ethanol did not alter CB1 binding of [3H]CP55,940 or CB1 mRNA levels in rat brain homogenates [68]. Short-term chronic exposure (72 hours) of ethanol vapor in mice increased CB1 density in the cortex, hippocampus, striatum and cerebellum, with downregulation of CB1-receptor-stimulated [35S]GTPγS binding [252]. The effects of chronic ethanol treatment upon eCB levels in various *in vitro* and animal models are shown in Table 4.

Vinod et al. [251] compared alcohol-preferring (aP) and alcohol-non preferring (NaP) rats, a pair of rat lines selectively bred for opposite alcohol preference. CB1 receptor density, CB1 receptor-stimulated [35S]GTPγS coupling, and levels of AEA and 2-AG were higher in the brains of alcohol-naive aP compared to NaP.
rats. Ethanol consumption in aP rats decreased CB1 receptor-stimulated \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding after 10 days, and more so after 60 days. 2-AG levels elevated after 10 days, and both 2-AG and AEA levels increased after 60 days; FAAH levels decreased with no change in MAGL. Ethanol withdrawal upregulated \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding.

A rat model of binge drinking—serial cycles of ethanol intoxication and withdrawal—increased CB1 mRNA in the prefrontal cortex [253]. Another study of serial cycles in rats showed a transient decrease in hippocampal CB1 mRNA and protein levels (two days after cessation of cycles), followed by a long term up-regulation in CB1 mRNA and protein, 40 days after cessation of cycles. Serial cycles increased 2-AG in the hippocampus, two days and 40 days after cessation of cycles; AEA increased only at 40 days [254].

An electrophysiological study of intermittent ethanol consumption in rats showed depression of CB1-dependent long-lasting disinhibition (DL) in excised slices of the dorsolateral striatum [253]. Furthermore, the study showed that LTDI by an exogenous cannabinoid, WIN55,212-2, was prevented by intermittent ethanol consumption.

A human clinical trial assigned 55 adults to one of three groups—drinking either 250 ml of red wine, grape juice, or plain water. Within 10 minutes, the consumption of a moderate amount of alcohol reduces plasma AEA and 2-AG concentrations, whereas an equal volume of grape juice did not affect plasma eCBs. Interestingly, plain water reduced 2-AG concentrations without affecting AEA [256].

Alcoholics who died of natural causes or motor vehicle accidents expressed decreased CB1 densities in the ventral striatum, decreased CP55,940-stimulated \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding, and decreased FAAH activity, compared to controls [257]. Alcoholics who died of suicide in the same study had increased CB1 densities, increased CB1 receptor-stimulated G(i/o) protein activation, and decreased FAAH activity, compared to controls. Lehtonen et al. [2010] measured eCB levels in post-mortem brains of Cloninger type 1 and type 2 alcoholics. Type 1 alcoholics had lower levels of AEA than controls in the nucleus accumbens (NAcc), anterior cingulate cortex, and frontal cortex. PEA, OEA, and 2-AG were unchanged. They also showed dopaminergic deficiencies in the NAcc, suggesting a compensatory mechanism one direction or the other. Type 2 alcoholics produced slightly higher eCB levels than controls, but not significantly.

In summary, acute ethanol may enhance endogenous eCB release and eCB signaling, although it varies by brain area and synapse, and this complexity requires further testing. Two studies suggest ethanol dampens the effects of the eCB system. Chronic ethanol consumption and binge drinking likely desensitize or downregulate CB1 and impair eCB signaling, except perhaps in areas involved in reward and motivation to self-administer this substance of abuse [258].

**Nicotine.** In a human randomized controlled trial, nicotine augmented THC-induced “high” and heart rate [259]. In rodent behavioral studies, acute nicotine augmented THC discrimination and THC-induced hypothermia, antinociception, locomotor inactivity, anxiolysis, and place aversion [260–264]. Nicotine-potentiated THC discrimination was blocked by rimonabant and URB-597 (a FAAH inhibitor), suggesting nicotine potentiation is mediated by the release of AEA acting at CB1 [263]. CB2 is also involved—the CB2-selective agonist JWH133 induced antinociception in the mouse formalin test, and this effect was potentiated by nicotine [265]. Acute nicotine elicited marked increases in AEA in the amygdala, hypothalamus, and prefrontal cortex but decreased levels in the hippocampus; variations in 2-AG were less pronounced [266].

In a contrary study, intracelebellar microinfusion of nicotine attenuated THC-induced ataxia in mice. Microinfusion of synthetic subtype agonists indicated the involvement of \( \alpha_1 \beta_2 \) but not \( \alpha_2 \) nicotinic receptor subtypes [267]. Buczenski et al. [268] compared volitional self-administration (SA) versus forced nicotine exposure (FA) in the ventral tegmental area using in vivo microdialysis. SA but not FA increased AEA; both SA and FA increased 2-AG; these subtle changes were not seen in corresponding bulk brain tissue analysis of eCBs. Acute nicotine enhanced THC-induced c-Fos expression in various brain regions [264].

**Chronic nicotine increased AEA levels in the limbic forebrain and increased AEA and 2-AG contents in rat brainstem, but decreased AEA and/or 2-AG contents in the hippocampus, the striatum and the cerebral cortex [258]. Chronic nicotine increased CB1 density in the prelimbic prefrontal cortex, ventral tegmental area, and the hippocampus [269].** Seven days of nicotine exposure increased brain CB1 densities in adolescent male rats and sensitized them to the locomotor-decreasing effects of THC and CP55,940 [270]. These changes were not seen in adult male rats. Chronic nicotine inhibited the development of tolerance to antinociceptive and hypothermic effects of THC [264].

Other plant products that exert cholinergic effects, such as calamus, *Acorus calamus*, have been adjoined with cannabis to decrease cannabis-induced memory deficits, and “calm and center the effects of marijuana” [42]. Consistent with this, the synthetic cholinergic agent rivastigmine reversed memory deficits in rats induced by the synthetic cannabinoid WIN55,212-2 [271].

**Caffeine.** Co-administering caffeine and cannabis has a long history. Bell [272] claimed that oral administration of hashish with coffee increased the effects of cannabis, and at the same time diminished its duration. He proposed a pharmacokinetic mechanism—coffee promoted more rapid absorption of hashish.

Caffeine and theophylline are antagonists of adenosine receptors. Adenosine receptors are tonically activated by adenosine, their endogenous ligand. Rodent studies indicate that \( \alpha_1 \)-subtype adenosine receptors tonically inhibit CB1 activity [273]. Thus the antagonism of \( \alpha_1 \) receptors by caffeine and theophylline enhances eCB system function (e.g., activation of CB1 by 2-AG). Caffeine potentiated CB1-mediated activity stimulated by THC and WIN55,212 in hippocampus slices [273]. Consistent with this, the simultaneous application of WIN55,212 plus an \( \alpha_1 \) agonist produced less than additive stimulation of \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding in mouse cerebellar membranes [274].

In whole animals, however, caffeine’s effects are biphasic and vary by dosage and acute versus chronic administration. In humans, the acute administration of caffeine decreases headache pain, but exposure to chronic doses, \( \geq 300 \) mg/day, may exacerbate chronic pain [275]. In rabbits, an acute dose of caffeine antagonized THC-induced changes in cortico-hippocampal electroencephalogram recordings [276]. In mice, chronic caffeine at high doses potentiated CB1-dependent stimulation by eCBs and HU210 at striatal GABAergic, but not glutamatergic, synapses [277]. A single dose or a subacute dose (one day of caffeine in water) rescued the sensitivity of GABAergic synapses to HU210 in mice exposed to chronic stress.

Chronic caffeine at moderate doses increased THC’s effects on short-term memory in mice [278]. Surprisingly, CB1 density decreased in the caffineated mice, measured by \([^{1}H]\text{SR141716A} \) binding. Cortical and hippocampal tissues also showed a decrease in WIN55,212-2-stimulated \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding, but this attenuation was not seen in THC-stimulated \([^{35}\text{S}]\text{GTP} \gamma \text{S} \) binding. This
Cannabis. Cannabis and cannabis products are complex polypharmacological compounds, consisting of THC, cannabidiol (CBD), dozens of minor cannabinoids, as well as terpenoids, flavonoids, and other compounds. Fundamentally, THC mimics AEA and 2-AG by acting as an agonist at CB₁ and CB₂ [279]. But rather than simply substituting for AEA and 2-AG, McPartland and Guy [280] proposed that Cannabis and its many constituents work, in part, by “kick-starting” the eCB system. The acute administration of THC increased CB₁ density in rodent brains [281,282]. Acute upregulation of CB₁ mRNA continued for up to 14 days in some rat brain regions [283]. Acute THC also increased the sensitivity of CB₁ to cannabinoids, measured by WIN-55,212-2-stimulated [³⁵S]GTP[S] binding in rat brains [284]. Lastly, acute THC stimulated AEA biosynthesis [285].

Chronic, high dosing of THC causes a predictable desensitization and downregulation of CB₁ and CB₂, accompanied by drug tolerance. Chronic THC decreased CB₁ density in rodent brains, and dampened cannabinoid-stimulated [³⁵S]GTP[S] binding in rodent brains [284]. Acute THC also increased the sensitivity of CB₁ to cannabinoids, measured by WIN-55,212-2-stimulated [³⁵S]GTP[S] binding in rat brains [284]. Lastly, acute THC stimulated AEA biosynthesis [285].

Chronic, high dosing of THC causes a predictable desensitization and downregulation of CB₁ and CB₂, accompanied by drug tolerance. Chronic THC decreased CB₁ density in rodent brains, and dampened cannabinoid-stimulated [³⁵S]GTP[S] binding in rodent brains [284,286,287]. CB₁ in different regions of the brain down-regulate and desensitize at unequal rates and magnitudes, with greatest decreases in the hippocampus and little or no change in the nucleus accumbens and basolateral amygdala. Chronic THC elicited few changes in AEA or 2-AG levels in rat brains, except for a significant augmentation of AEA levels in the limbic forebrain [288].

Similar results have been reported in two human studies. Villares [289] collected postmortem brain tissues from known cannabis smokers; [³⁵S]SR141716A binding and CB₁ mRNA was downregulated in several brain regions, compared to non-smoking control autopsies. Hirvonen et al. [290] employed PET scan imaging in living subjects. The degree of CB₁ downregulation correlated with years of chronic cannabis smoking. CB₁ densities returned to normal after four weeks of abstinence. Variable downregulation in different brain regions may explain why frequent users of cannabis develop tolerance to some effects of THC, such as anxiogenesis and cognitive impairment, but not to its euphoric effects [291]. Downregulation is partially epigenetic— the CB₁ promoter region in chronic marijuana smokers is hypermethylated, reducing CB₁ mRNA expression levels [292].

THC acts as a partial agonist of CB₁, compared to synthetic cannabinoids which act as full agonists (Table 5). Partial agonism likely explains why exposure to THC caused half as much CB₁ desensitization as the full agonist WIN55,212-2 in rat hippocampal neurons [293]. In a study of rat CB₁ transfected into AtT20 cells, THC caused less downregulation and internalization than WIN55,212-2 or CP-55,940 [294]. In agreement, drug tolerance studies utilizing the behavioral “tetrad” test show that chronic THC caused less tolerance than the full agonist CP-55,940 in mice [295]. In a study of human CB₁ transfected into Xenopus oocytes, the desensitization rate of THC was half that of WIN55,212-2 [296]. However, one [³⁵S]GTP[S] autoradiography study of rat brains suggested that chronic THC and WIN55,212-2 caused equal desensitization [297]. Another study indicated that THC acts as a full agonist at mouse GABAergic synapses, with efficacy equal to WIN55,212-2, albeit at fairly high concentrations [298].

If THC is a partial agonist, then THC might functionally antagonize the effects of a full agonist when the two drugs are added together. THC antagonized the effects of WIN55,212-2 in rat brain sections [284,299], and mouse autaptic hippocampal neurons [300].

The capacity of THC to antagonize a full agonist depends, in part, upon ligand affinity—its ability to occupy and hold the CB₁ binding site. A meta-analysis of affinity studies calculated a mean $K_i = 42.6 \text{ nM}$ for THC in rat membranes—much less affinity than that of WIN-55,940, with a $K_i = 2.4 \text{ nM}$ [22]. This indicates that high concentrations of THC relative to WIN-55,940 are required to antagonize the full agonist. There are species differences—in human membranes, CB₁ affinity of THC ($K_i = 25.1 \text{ nM}$) is much closer to that of WIN-55,940 ($K_i = 16.7$).

2-AG acts as a full agonist at rodent and human CB₁ and CB₂ [296,301–303]. The emetogenic effects of exogenously-administered 2-AG were blocked by THC [304]. THC dampened or occluded eCB-mediated retrograde signaling of CB₁, presumably mediated by 2-AG [300,303,306]. Roloff and Thayer [307] demonstrated another complexity in the relationship between THC and 2-AG: neuron firing rate in response to stimuli in rat hippocampal neurons. At low firing rates, THC mimicked 2-AG and behaved like an agonist; at high firing rates, THC antagonized endogenous 2-AG signaling.

AEA is a partial agonist like THC, with an efficacy somewhat greater than THC in mouse brain [308] and transfected human CB₁ [296]. Consistent with partial agonism, exogenously-administered AEA caused little tolerance in rodents [309,310]. Agonist trafficking adds further complexity—THC and AEA preferentially activate different G-protein subtypes [311]. At transfected human CB₁, AEA acted as a full agonist via Gαᵣ subunits, and a partial agonist via Gαο subunits, with agonist efficacy much greater than THC at Gαᵣ, and slightly greater than THC at Gαο [312].

AEA and THC can antagonize each other; this in part is due to cross-tolerance [313,314]. Falenski et al. [287] demonstrated that subchronic administration of THC in FAAH−/− knockout mice caused greater tolerance to THC than did subchronic administration of THC in wildtype mice. Thus elevated levels of AEA in FAAH−/− knockout produced additive effects with THC. Vann et al. [315] trained rats to discriminate THC; trained rats injected with PMSF, which inhibits FAAH, showed 2.7-fold greater discrimination than rats injected with vehicle. In other words, inhibiting AEA degradation led to an increase in the potency of THC. Further, THC was more potent at producing antinociception, decreasing spontaneous activity, and increasing ring immobility when co-administered with PMSF as compared to vehicle.

In summary, the effects of THC upon the eCB system oscillate between potentiation and suppression, depending on acute versus chronic dosage. The dividing line between “acute” and “chronic” is a gray zone, and likely differs amongst individuals. Suphita et al. [316] summarized the situation: they studied “stress antinociception,” where rodents become less responsive to painful stimuli following exposure to an environmental stressor. Stress antinociception is mediated, in part, by the coordinated release of 2-AG and AEA. Acute administration of THC potentiated eCB-mediated stress antinociception. The converse was also true: animals exposed acutely to foot shock, which elicits eCB-mediated stress antinociception, became sensitized to the effects of THC. Chronic administration of THC predictably dampened stress antinociception. The converse was not true: chronic exposure to foot shock (3 min/day for 15 days) failed to dampen antinociception induced by either WIN-55,212-2 or by further footshocks.

The potential synergy between THC and the eCB system is analogous to the potential synergy between AEA and 2-AG: Rodent studies that combined FAAH and MAGL inhibitors indicated that AEA and 2-AG may activate CB₁ receptors in different parts of the central nervous system. Each causes unique
behavioral effects, and when both are enhanced, new effects emerge. Long and colleagues [317] showed that AEA and 2-AG independently dampen pain sensation, but together their effects are dramatically enhanced.

Cannabis is more than THC [318,319]. Adding CBD to THC in mice enhanced CB2 expression in hippocampus and hypothalamus [320]. CBD increased hippocampal cell survival and neurogenesis, whereas THC had the opposite effect; the CBD response was absent in CB1 −/− knockout mice [321]. CBD inhibited the cellular uptake of AEA and its breakdown by FAAH [322,323]. A separate systematic review regarding the effects of CBD on THC is currently underway (McPartland, unpublished). Several other non-THC cannabinoids interact with enzymes of the eCB system. For example, cannabidivarin and cannabidiolic acid are moderately potent inhibitors of anandamide cellular uptake [323]. Interestingly, cannabis extracts (“botanical drug substances,” BDS) enriched in cannabinoids, such as THC-acid BDS and CBD-BDS, were more potent than the corresponding pure compounds at inhibiting MAGL and AEA cellular uptake [323].

Conclusions

Many randomized controlled trials identified in this systematic review have been conducted on lifestyle modifications (e.g., exercise, maintenance of ideal body weight) and CAM interventions (e.g., dietary supplements, stress modification, acupuncture, massage and manipulation). In our opinion these are sensible methods of enhancing the eCB system.

Preclinical studies identified useful prescription drugs, such as SSRIs, anxiolytics, antipsychotics, and anticonvulsants. However, these drugs are generally administered in a chronic fashion, and this comes with a caveat: generating chronic elevations in AEA and 2-AG may be counterproductive. Faced with constant activation by agonists, CB1 and CB2 desensitize and downregulate. A desensitized receptor drives less receptor-mediated signal transduction, and develops cross-tolerance to all agonists—eCBs and phytocannabinoids alike. A downregulated receptor is not functional—either it does not bind ligand or has internalized away from the cell membrane.

The difference between acute and chronic augmentation has been demonstrated in rodent studies: acute blockade of MAGL with JZL184 elevated 2-AG levels and provided analgesia [324]. In the face of chronic blockade with JZL184 this analgesia was lost, because sustained elevation of 2-AG caused CB2 desensitization. This led to a loss in eCB-dependent synaptic plasticity, cross-tolerance to other cannabinoids, and physical dependence.

Other drugs identified in preclinical studies have side effect profiles too severe to warrant their use for upregulating the eCB system (e.g., corticosteroids, opioids, nicotine). Preclinical studies suggest a number of over-the-counter medications, such as analgesics, seem to be acting through eCB-mediated mechanisms. Clinical trials are warranted, although over-the-counter medications lack patent protection, so expensive clinical trials seem unlikely.

Supporting Information

Checklist S1 Online supporting material. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: JM GW GD. Performed the experiments: JM GW GD. Analyzed the data: JM GW GD. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: JM GWG VD. Wrote the paper: JM GW GD.

References

1. Glass M, Dragunow M, Faull RL (1997) Cannabinoid receptors in the human brain: a detailed anatomical and quantitative autoradiographic study in the fetal, neonatal and adult human brain. Neuroscience 77: 299–318.
2. Onaivi ES (2011) Commentary: functional neuronal CB2 cannabinoid receptors in the CNS. Current Neuropharmacology 9: 205–208.
3. Ansoon BK, Mackie K (2010) CB2: a cannabinoid receptor with an identity crisis. British Journal of Pharmacology 160: 467–479.
4. De Petrocellis L, Di Marzo V (2010) Non-CB1, non-CB2 receptors for endocannabinoids, plant cannabinoids, and synthetic cannabinoids: focus on G-protein-coupled receptors and transient receptor potential channels. Journal of Neuroimmune Pharmacology 5: 105–121.
5. Di Marzo V (1998) ’Endocannabinoids’ and other fatty acid derivatives with cannabinoids in the CNS. Current Neuropharmacology 9: 205–208.
6. Di Marzo V, Piscitelli F, Mechoulam R (2011) Cannabinoids and endocannabinoids in metabolic disorders with focus on diabetes. Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology: 75–104.
7. Bermúdez-Silva FJ, Viveros MP, McPartland JM, de Fonseca FR (2010) The endocannabinoid system, eating behavior and energy homeostasis: the end or a new beginning? Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior 95: 370–382.
8. Russo EB (2004) Clinical endocannabinoid deficiency (CECD): can this concept explain therapeutic benefits of cannabis in migraine, thombo dysplasia, irritable bowel syndrome and other treatment-resistant conditions? Neuro Endocrinol Lett 25: 31–39.
9. Frider E (2004) The endocannabinoid-CB receptor system: Importance for development and in pediatric disease. Neuropediatrics Letters 25: 24–30.
10. Hill MN, Gorzalka BB (2005) Is there a role for the endocannabinoid system in the etiology and treatment of melancholic depression? British Journal of Pharmacology 143: 353–352.
11. Gualdrada A, Leweke FM, Gether GW, Schreiber D, Koethe D, et al. (2004) Cerebrospinal anandamide levels are elevated in acute schizophrenia and are inversely correlated with psychiatric symptoms. Neuropsychopharmacology 29: 2101–2114.
12. Sarchielli P, Pini LA, Coppola F, Rossi G, Baldi A, et al. (2007) Endocannabinoids in chronic migraine: CSF findings suggest a system failure. Neuropsychopharmacology 32: 1384–1390.
13. Di Filippo M, Pini LA, Pellicioi GP, Calabresi P, Sarchielli P (2008) Abnormalities in the cerebrospinal fluid levels of endocannabinoids in multiple sclerosis. Journal of Neurology Neurosurgery and Psychiatry 79: 1224–1229.
14. Allen KL, Waldvogel HJ, Glass M, Faull RLM (2009) Cannabinoid (CB1), GABAA, and GABAB receptor subunit changes in the globus pallidus in Huntington’s disease. Journal of Chemical Neuroanatomy 37: 266–271.
15. Van Laere K, Casteels C, Dhoelander I, Goffin K, Graches I, et al. (2010) Widespread decrease of type 1 cannabinoid receptor availability in Huntington disease in vivo. Journal of Nuclear Medicine 51: 1413–1417.
16. Piani V, Meschella V, Bari M, Fezza F, Galati S, et al. (2010) Dynamic changes of anandamide in the cerebrospinal fluid of Parkinson’s disease patients. Movement Disorders 25: 920–924.
17. Wong BS, Camilleri M, Eckert D, Carlson P, Ryks M, et al. (2012) Randomized pharmacodynamic and pharmacogenetic trial of dronabinol effects on colon transit in irritable bowel syndrome-diarrhea. Neurogastroenterology and Motility 24: 1392: 153–175.
18. Gerard N, Pieters G, Goffin K, Bormans G, Van Laere K (2011) Brain type 1 cannabinoid receptor availability in patients with anorexia and bulimia nervosa. Biological Psychiatry 70: 777–784.
19. Chouker A, Kaufman I, Kreib S, Hafer D, Feuerrecker M, et al. (2010) Motion sickness, stress and the endocannabinoid system. PLoS ONE 5:23. van der Worp HB, Macleod MR (2011) Preclinical studies of human disease: a systematic review of animal experiments. British Journal of Pharmacology 152: 583–589. 20. Sandercock P, Roberts I (2002) Systematic reviews of animal experiments. Lancet 360: 386.
21. Macleod MR, O’Collins T, Howell DW, Donnan GA (2004) Pooling of animal experimental data reveals influence of study design and publication bias. Stroke 35: 1203–1208.
22. McPartland JM, Glass M, Pertwee RG (2007) Meta-analysis of cannabinoid ligand binding affinity and cannabinoid receptor distribution: interspecies differences. British Journal of Pharmacology 152: 383–389.
23. van der Wort HB, Macleod MR (2011) Preclinical studies of human disease: time to take methodological quality seriously. Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology 51: 449–450.
49. Gould GG, Seillier A, Weiss G, Giuffrida A, Burke TF, et al. (2012) Metabolism of the endocannabinoids, 2-arachidonoylglycerol and anandamide, into prostaglandin, thromboxane, and prostacyclin glycerol esters and ethanolamines. J Biol Chem 277: 48477–48485.

40. Perez Reyes M, Burstein SH, White WR, McDonald SA, Hicks RE (1991) Synthesis of cannabinoids in the human brain. Nature 353: 584–586.

39. Green K, Kearse EC, McIntyre OL (2001) Interaction between Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol and cannabinoid receptor 1 regulates ERK and GSK-3 beta-dependent glucocorticoid inhibition of osteoblast differentiation in murine MC3T3-E1 cells. Bone 49: 1253–1263.

38. Sasso O, Bertorelli R, Bandiera T, Scarpelli R, Colombano G, et al. (2012) Chronic, noninvasive glucocorticoid administration suppresses limbic endocannabinoid signaling in mice. Neuroscience 204: 189–199.

37. Dahan A, Spano MS, Fattore L, Cossu G, Deiana S, Fadda P, et al. (2004) CB1 receptor antagonist rimonabant. Neuropsychopharmacology 33: 2870–2877.

36. Ahn DK, Choi HS, Yeo SP, Woo YW, Lee MK, et al. (2007) Blockade of cannabinoid receptor 1 mediates glutamate induced bone loss in rats by perturbing bone mineral acquisition and marrow adipogenesis. Arthritis and Rheumatism 64: 1204–1214.

35. Wu RW, Lin TP, Ko KY, Yeh DW, Chen MW, et al. (2011) Cannabinoid receptor 1 regulates ERK and GSK-3 beta-dependent glucocorticoid inhibition of osteoblast differentiation in murine MC3T3-E1 cells. Bone 49: 1253–1263.

34. Guhring H, Hamza M, Sergejeva M, Ates M, Kotalla CE, et al. (2002) A role for cannabinoid receptors in rat hippocampal long-term potentiation. J Neurosci 22: 9498–9507.

33. Fowler CJ, Janson U, Johnson RM, Wahlstrom G, Stenstrom A, et al. (1999) Chronic, noninvasive glucocorticoid administration suppresses limbic endocannabinoid signaling in mice. Neuroscience 204: 189–199.

32. Kozak KR, Crews BC, Morrow JD, Wang LH, Ma YH, et al. (2002) Changes in endocannabinoid levels in a rat model of behavioural sensitization to cannabinoids. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99: 13666–13671.

31. Hu SSJ, Bradshaw HB, Chen JSC, Tan B, Walker JM (2008) Prostaglandin E-2 and the endocannabinoid system. Prostaglandins Med 96: 73–79.

30. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, Mulrow C, Gotzsche PC, et al. (2009) The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. PLoS Med 6: e1000100.

29. Kozak KR, Crews BC, Morrow JD, Wang LH, Ma YH, et al. (2002) Blockade of cannabinoid receptor 1 mediates glutamate induced bone loss in rats by perturbing bone mineral acquisition and marrow adipogenesis. Arthritis and Rheumatism 64: 1204–1214.

28. Di S, Malcher-Lopes R, Marcheselli VL, Bazan NG, Tasker JG (2003) Nongenomic glucocorticoid inhibition of cannabinoid receptor mediated analgesia in the hypothalamus: a fast feedback mechanism. Journal of Neuroscience 23: 4856–4867.

27. Fowler CJ, Janson U, Johnson RM, Wahlstrom G, Stenstrom A, et al. (1999) Chronic, noninvasive glucocorticoid administration suppresses limbic endocannabinoid signaling in mice. Neuroscience 204: 189–199.

26. Hornberg JR (2015) Measuring behaviour in rodents towards translational neuropsychiatric research. Behavioural Brain Research 293: 295–306.

25. McPartland JM, Pruitt PL (2000) Benign prostatic hyperplasia treated with saw palmetto: a literature search and an experimental case study. J Am Osteopath Assoc 100: 89–96.

24. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, Mulrow C, Gotzsche PC, et al. (2009) The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. PLoS Med 6: e1000100.

23. Sasso O, Bertorelli R, Bandiera T, Scarpelli R, Colombano G, et al. (2012) Chronic, noninvasive glucocorticoid administration suppresses limbic endocannabinoid signaling in mice. Neuroscience 204: 189–199.

22. Sasso O, Bertorelli R, Bandiera T, Scarpelli R, Colombano G, et al. (2012) Periphera FAAH inhibition causes profound antinociception and protects against endothelin-induced gastric lesions. Pharmacological Research 65: 533–535.

21. Green K, Kearse EC, McIntyre OL (2001) Interaction between Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol and indomethacin. Ophthalmic Research 33: 217–220.

20. Perez Reyes M, Burstein SH, White WR, Mcdonald SA, Hicks RE (1991) Antagonism of marinhuana effects by indomethacin in humans. Life Sciences 48: 507–515.

19. Esley RB, Alterwein WA Srd (2000) Central nervous system manifestations of an ibuprofen overdose reversed by naloxone. Pediatr Emerg Care 16: 39–41.

18. McPartland JM, Halmos J, D’Souza DC, Mostofsky DS (2008) Cannabinoid effects modulated by choline-containing compounds. Addiction Biology 13: 411–415.

17. Hou Y, Li J, Kong J, Zhan Y, Zhang Y, et al. (2007) Long-term exposure to low dose of THC enhances the cannabinoid-induced antinociception via FAAH-dependent endocannabinoid degradation in the spinal cord. Neurosci Lett 424: 306–311.

16. Bowles NP, Hill MN, Bhatag SM, Karatsoreos IN, Hillard CJ, et al. (2012) Chronic, noninvasive glucocorticoid administration suppresses limbic endocannabinoid signaling in mice. Neuroscience 204: 189–199.

15. Tzschbeckmeier ANM, Boguch chief, F Wardhe G, De Vries TJ (2006) Interactions between CB1 cannabinoid and mu opioid receptors modulating cannabinoid-induced analgesia in rat nucleus accumbens core. Neuropharmacology 51: 773–781.

14. de Vries TJ (2006) Interactions between CB1 cannabinoid and mu opioid receptors modulating cannabinoid-induced analgesia in rat nucleus accumbens core. Neuropharmacology 51: 773–781.

13. Huang S, Fau J, Kemmerer ES, Evans S, Li Y, et al. (2009) Reciprocal changes in vanilloid (TRPV1) and endocannabinoid (CB1) receptors contribute to visceral hyperalgesia in the water avoidance stressed rat. Gut 58: 202–210.

12. Allen KV, Mcgregor IS, Hunt GE, Singh ME, Mallei FE (2003) Regional differences in nalafoxine modulation of Aβ-TTH induced Fox expression in rat brain. Neuropeptides 37: 264–274.

11. Cichewicz DL, Haller VL, Welch SP (2001) Changes in opioid and cannabinoid receptor protein following short-term combination treatment with Aβ- tetrahydrocannabinol and Aβopioid. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics 297: 121–127.

10. Fattore L, Viganò D, Fadda P, Ruhino T, Fratta W, et al. (2007) Bidirectional regulation of mu-opioid and CB1-cannabinoid receptor in rats self-administering heroin or WIN 55,212-2. European Journal of Neuroscience 25: 2191–2200.

9. Schoffelmeer ANM, Gothobogob F, Wardhe G, De Vries TJ (2006) Interactions between CB1 cannabinoid and mu opioid receptors mediating inhibition of neurotransmitter release in rat nucleus accumbens core. Neuropharmacology 51: 773–781.

8. de Vries TJ (2006) Interactions between CB1 cannabinoid and mu opioid receptors modulating cannabinoid-induced analgesia in rat nucleus accumbens core. Neuropharmacology 51: 773–781.

7. Zhu J, Zheng H, Zheng YH, Lui HH, Lai PW (2010) Agonist-dependent mu-opioid receptor signaling can lead to heterologous desensitization. Cellular Signalling 22: 694–699.

6. Berendes F, Mendizabal V, Marzut P, Kieffer BL, Maldonado R (2003) CB1 receptor antagonist rimonabant. Neuropsychopharmacology 33: 2870–2877.

5. Melvin LS, Burton KA, Mace NA, Pfeiffer M, Maldonado R, et al. (2003) Cannabinoid receptor 1 regulates ERK and GSK-3 beta-dependent glucocorticoid inhibition of osteoblast differentiation in murine MC3T3-E1 cells. Bone 49: 1253–1263.

4. Ko KY, Wu KW, Kuo SJ, Chen MW, Yeh DW, et al. (2012) Cannabinoid receptor 1 mediates glutamate-induced bone loss in rats by perturbing bone mineral acquisition and marrow adipogenesis. Arthritis and Rheumatism 64: 1204–1214.

3. Di S, Malcher-Lopes R, Marcheselli VL, Bazan NG, Tasker JG (2003) Rapid glucocorticoid-mediated endocannabinoid release and opposing regulation of glutaminase and gamma-aminobutyric acid inputs to hypothalamic magnocellular neurons. Endocrinology 146: 1492–1496.

2. Balicevic R, Di S, Marcheselli VL, Vernejoul MF, Cappaletti GM, et al. (2006) Opposing crosstalk between leptin and cannabionoids rapidly modulates synaptic excitation via endocannabinoid release. Journal of Neuroscience 26: 6550–6560.

1. Wang J, Shen RY, Haji-Dalmame S (2012) Endocannabinoids mediate the cannabinoid-induced inhibition of excitatory synaptic transmission to dorsal root serotonin neurons. Journal of Physiology-London 590: 5795–5806.

Systematic Review of eCB Modulation
100. Gobshtis N, Ben-Shabat S, Fride E (2007) Antidepressant-induced undesirable
87. Berrendero F, Maldonado R (2002) Involvement of the opioid system in the
86. Roberts JD, Gennings C, Shih M (2006) Synergistic affective analgesic
83. Loewe WS (1944) Studies on the pharmacology of marihuana. In: Committee
82. Loewe WS (1940) Synergism of cannabis and butyl-bromathyl-barbituric acid.
81. Loewe WS (1928) Die quantitative Problem der Pharmakologie. Ergebnisse der
77. Pugh G, Smith PB, Dombrowski DS, Welch SP (1996) The role of endogenous
76. Welch SP, Stevens DL (1992) Antinociceptive activity of intrathecally
75. Solinas M, Zangen A, Thiriet N, Goldberg SR (2004) beta-Endorphin
74. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
73. Solinas M, Zangen A, Goldberg SR, Thiriet N, Cambray-Gautier S, et al. (2003) The
72. Schmiedeberg Arch Physiol 27: 126–163.
71. Solinas M, Zangen A, Goldberg SR, Thiriet N, Cambray-Gautier S, et al. (2003) The
70. Schmiedeberg Arch Physiol 27: 126–163.
69. Haney M, Bisaga A, Foltin RW (2003) Interaction between naltrexone and oral
68. Roberts JD, Gennings C, Shih M (2006) Synergistic affective analgesic
67. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
66. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
65. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
64. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
63. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
62. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
61. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
60. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
59. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
58. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
57. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
56. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
55. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
54. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
53. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
52. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
51. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
50. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
49. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
48. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
47. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
46. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
45. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
44. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
43. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
42. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
41. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
40. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
39. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
38. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
37. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
36. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
35. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
34. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
33. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
32. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
31. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
30. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
29. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
28. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
27. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
26. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
25. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
24. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
23. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
22. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
21. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
20. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
19. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
18. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
17. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
16. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
15. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
14. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
13. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
12. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
11. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
10. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
9. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
8. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
7. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
6. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
5. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
4. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
3. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
2. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
1. Loewe WS (1927) The Methods of Pharmacological Quantitative Research. J.
127. Lucczcki JJ, Florek-Luczcki M (2012) Synergistic interaction of pregabaline with the synthetic cannabinoid WIN 55,212-2 mesylate in the hot-plate test in mice: an isobolographic analysis. Pharmacological Reports 64: 723–732.

128. Banni S, Carta G, Murru E, Cordeddu I, Giordano E, et al. (2012) Vagus nerve stimulation reduces body weight and fat mass in rats. PloS One 7.

129. Burdyga G, Varro A, Dainalone R, Thompson DG, Dockrey GJ (2010) Expression of cannabinoid CB1 receptors by vagal afferent neurons: kinetics and role in influencing neurochemical phenotype. American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology 299: G659–G669.

130. Riediger ND, Otthman RA, Suh M, Moghadam MH (2009) A systemic review of the roles of n-3 fatty acids in health and disease. Journal of the American Dietetic Association 109: 668–679.

131. Alsheim AR, Malde MK, Oei-Hyysmaan D, Lin YH, Pasdolsky RJ, et al. (2012) Dietary linoleic acid elevates endocannabinoid 2-AG and anandamide and induces obesity. Obes Res 20: 1984–1994.

132. Hutchins-Wiese HL, Li Y, Hannon K, Watkins BA (2012) Hind limb suspension and long-chain omega-3 PUFA increase mRNA endocannabinoid stress levels in skeletal muscle. Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry 23: 986–993.

133. Wood JT, Williams JS, Pandarinathan L, Janero DR, Lammi-Keefe CJ, et al. (2011) alpha-tocopherol and alpha-tocopheryl phosphate interact with the endocannabinoid system. Biochemistry 6: 537–545.

134. Muccioli GG, Naslain D, Backhed F, Reigstad CS, Lambert DM, et al. (2010) Dietary prebiotics modulate intestinal pain and induce opioid and cannabinoid receptors. Nutritional Neuroscience 6: 283–293.

135. Banni S, Carta G, Bisogno T, Murru E, Cordeddu L, et al. (2011) Dietary docosahexaenoic acid supplementation alters select physiological endocannabinoid-system metabolites in brain and plasma. Journal of Lipid Research 51: 1416–1423.

136. Piscitelli F, Carta G, Bisogno T, Murrù E, Cordeddu L, et al. (2011) Effect of dietary krill oil supplementation on the endocannabinoidome of metabolically relevant tissues from high-fat-fed mice. Food Nutrition & Metabolism 10: 179–189.

137. Lofasoarce M, Larriue T, Mato S, Dufauld A, Sepe N, et al. (2011) Nutritional omega-3 deficiency abolishes endocannabinoid-mediated neuronal functions. Nature Neuroscience 14: 345–350.

138. Lucire M, Madsen J, Joffe C, Lov S (2011) Nutritional n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids deficiencies alter cannabinoid receptor signaling in the brain and associated anxiety-like behavior in mice. Journal of Physiology and Biochemistry 68: 671–681.

139. Palermo FA, Mosconi G, Avella MA, Carnevali O, Verdenelli MC, et al. (2011) Krill oil supplementation on the endocannabinoidome of metabolically relevant tissues from high-fat-fed mice. Food Nutrition & Metabolism 10: 179–189.

140. Banni S, Carta G, Bisogno T, Cavalliere P, Immi S, et al. (2001) Anandamide and d/t: Inclusion of dietary arachidonate and docosahexaenoate leads to increased brain levels of the corresponding N-acylethanolamines in piglets (vol 98, pg 6402, 2001). Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 98: 7647–7654.

141. Bisset KM, Dhopeshwarkar AS, Liao CY, Ghose SK, Bisset KM, et al. (2011) The actions of benzo[a]pyrene derivatives, piperoxan benzoxide and Syringomorphone at the G protein-coupled cannabinoid CB1 receptor in vitro. European Journal of Pharmacology 654: 26–32.

142. Bisset KM, Dhosphewar A, Liao CY, Nicholson RA (2011) The G protein-coupled cannabinoid-1 (CB1) receptor of mammalian brain: inhibition by cannabinoid-ergic agents in vitro. Psychopharmacology 213: 69–81.

143. Simao da Silva KB, Pavazac AF, Passos GF, Silva ES, Bento AF, et al. (2011) Activation of cannabinoid receptors by the pentacyclic triterpene alpha, beta-amyrin inhibits inflammatory and neuroprotective persistent pain in mice. Pain 152: 215–226.

144. Meschler JP, Howlett AC (1999) Thujone exhibits low affinity for cannabinoid receptors but fails to evoke cannabimimetic responses. Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior 62: 473–480.

145. King AR, Doney EY, Lodaa L, Jung KM, Ghomian A, et al. (2009) Discovery of potent and reversible monoacylglycerol lipase inhibitors. Chem Biol 16: 1045–1052.

146. Capasso R, Borrelli F, Ciacco MG, Aviello G, Huben K, et al. (2008) Inhibitory effect of salvinorin A, from Salvia divinorum, on ileitis-induced hypermotility: cross-talk between kappa-opioid and cannabinoid CB1 receptors. British Journal of Pharmacology 153: 681–689.

147. Fichna J, Dicy R, Meldew K, Jancea A, Zajwonski JK, et al. (2012) Synthetic cannabinoids: G protein-coupled receptors and their role: Cannabinoid receptors. Neuropharmacology 66: 163–169.

148. Hassanzadeh P, Hazansadeh A (2012) The CB1 receptor-mediated endocannabinoid signaling and NGB: the novel targets of curcumin. Neurochemical Research 37: 1112–1120.

149. Banni S, Carta G, Bisogno T, Cavalliere P, Immi S, et al. (2001) Anandamide and d/t: Inclusion of dietary arachidonate and docosahexaenoate leads to increased brain levels of the corresponding N-acylethanolamines in piglets (vol 98, pg 6402, 2001). Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 98: 7647–7654.

150. Bisset KM, Dhosphewar A, Liao CY, Nicholson RA (2011) The G protein-coupled cannabinoid-1 (CB1) receptor of mammalian brain: inhibition by cannabinoid-ergic agents in vitro. Psychopharmacology 213: 69–81.
176. Leonti M, Casu L, Raduner S, Cortiglia F, Floris C, et al. (2010) Falcarienin is a covalent cannabinoid CB1 receptor antagonist and induces pro-inflammatory effects in skin. Biochemical Pharmacology 79: 1815–1826.

177. Zanik TK, Zahringer U, Lerdell J, Heinz E. (2000) Cloning and functional expression of the first plant fatty acid amide hydrolase: specific for Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol. Biochemical Society Transactions 28: 654–658.

178. di Tomaso E, Beltramo M, Ponomelli D (1996) Brain cannabinoids in chocolate. Nature 382: 677–678.

179. Nakane S, Tanaka T, Satochi K, Kobayashi Y, Waku K, et al. (2000) Occurrence of a novel cannabinomimetic molecule 2-sclareolidglycerol (2-cis-octa-1,11’,14'-tri-enoylglycerol) in the umbrella pine Sciadopitys verticillata seeds. Biological & Pharmaceutical Bulletin 23: 736–761.

180. Gutierrez M, Perea AR, Deboni HM, Lagrini A, Di Marco V, et al. (2011) Cannabinomimetic lipid from a marine cyanobacterium. Journal of Natural Products 74: 2313–2317.

181. Saitachitta N, Gerwick WH (1998) Grenadadiene and grenadamide, cyclopropane-containing fatty acid metabolites from the marine cyanobacterium Lyngbya majuscula. J Nat Prod 61: 681–684.

182. Soderstrom K, Murray TF, Yoo HD, Ketchum S, Milligan K, et al. (1997) Discovery of novel cannabinoid receptor ligands from diverse marine organisms. Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology 433: 73–77.

183. Raduner S, Majewska A, Chen JZ, Xie QX, Hamon J, et al. (2006) Alkamides from Echinacea are a new class of cannabinomimetics - cannabinoid type 2 receptor-dependent and-independent immunomodulatory effects. Journal of Biological Chemistry 281: 14129–14136.

184. Chirica A, Raduner S, Pellarit F, Stroppen T, Allmann KH, et al. (2009) Synergistic immunomodulatory effects of N-alkylamides in Echinacea purpurea herbal extracts. International Immunopharmacology 9: 1550–1556.

185. Hormann J, Redei D, Forgo P, Szabo P, Freund TF, et al. (2011) Alkamides and a neolignan from Echinacea purpurea roots and the interaction of alkamides with G-protein-coupled cannabinoid receptors. Phytochemistry 72: 1048–1053.

186. Gertsch J, Leonti M, Raduner S, Racz I, Pillolla G, et al. (2012) Effect of acute restraint stress on hippocampal endocannabinoid function. Free Radical Biology and Medicine 52: 1325–1333.

187. Katsumaya S, Mizoguchi H, Kuwahata H, Komatsu T, Nagaoka K, et al. (2011) Involvement of peripheral cannabinoid and opiate receptors in fear extinction. European Journal of Pharmacology 67: 1–11.

188. Bertoletto M, Mangieri RA, Fu J, Kim JH, Arguillo O, et al. (2007) Antidepressant-like activity of the fatty acid amide hydrolase inhibitor URB597 in a rat model of chronic mild stress. Biological Psychiatry 62: 1103–1110.

189. Leventis HT, Hill MN (2013) Pain exposure modulates the immediate and sustained effects of repeated stress on corticobasal cannabinoid CB1 receptor binding in male rats. Neuroscience 249: 106–114.

190. Hong SS, Zheng G, Wu XY, Snider NT, Ouyang C, et al. (2011) Corticotropin mediates reciprocal changes in CB 1 and TRPV1 receptors in the sensory memory neurons in the chronically stressed rat. Gastroenterology 140: 627-A373.

191. Dubrovetsch E, Matias I, Cardinal P, Haring M, Lutz B, et al. (2012) Genetic distinction of the role of cannabinoid type-1 receptors in the emotional components of repeated social stress in mice. Neuropsychopharmacology 37: 1893–1900.

192. Rossi S, De Chiara V, Musella A, Kussayanagi H, Mataluni G, et al. (2008) Chronic psychomotoric stress impairs cannabinoid-receptor-mediated control of GABA transmission in the striatum. Journal of Neuroscience 28: 7294–7299.

193. Horwath B, Mukhopadhyay P, Kechrid M, Patel V, Tanchian G, et al. (2012) Psychomotoric stress impairs endocannabinoid-mediated suppression of the hippocampus in female rats. Brain Research 1451: 47–59.

194. Wamsteker JJ, Kuzmiski BJ, Jans JS (2010) Repeated stress impairs endocannabinoid signaling in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus. Journal of Neuroscience 30: 11188–11196.

195. Hormann JG, Suprica RL, Bhose BM, Neely MH, Fogley D, et al. (2005) An endocannabinoid mechanism for stress-induced analgesia. Nature 435: 1108–1112.

196. Connell K, Bolton N, Oren D, Ponomelli D, Hormann AG (2006) Role of the basolateral nucleus of the amygdala in endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. Neuroscience Letters 397: 180–184.

197. Campolongo P, Rouwendael B, Trezza V, Hauer D, Schelling G, et al. (2009) Endocannabinoids in the rat basolateral amygdala enhance memory consolidation and enable glucocorticoid modulation of memory. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106: 4088–4093.

198. Coddington E, Lewis C, Moore FL (2007) Endocannabinoids mediate the effects of acute stress and corticosterone on sex behavior. Endocrinology 148: 493–500.

199. Wang MN, Hill MN, Zhang LH, Gorzalka BB, Hillard CJ, et al. (2012) Acute restraint stress enhances hippocampal cannabinoid function via glucocorticoid receptor activation. Journal of Psychopharmacology 26: 56–70.

200. Bradshaw HB, Rümmelin S, Neckelmann D, Walker JM, et al. (2006) Behavioural and hormonal cycle differences in rat brain levels of pain-related cannabinomimetic lipid mediators. American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory Integrative and Comparative Physiology 291: R349–R358.

201. Dowsett AJ, Roy D, Storrington C, McPartland JM (2007) The Plateau of fibrolygia in women may be influenced by menstrual cycle phase. Journal of Bodywork and Movement Therapies 11: 99–105.

202. McPartland JM, Giuffrida A, King J, Skinner E, Scotter J, et al. (2005) Cannabinomimetic effects of osteopathic manipulative treatment. Journal of the American Osteopathic Association 105: 283–291.

203. Trezza V, Damssteeg R, Manducha A, Petrovskis S, Van Kerkhof LWM, et al. (2012) Endocannabinoids in amygdala and nucleus accumbens mediate social play reward in adolescent rats. Journal of Neuroscience 32: 14999–15008.

204. Navarro M, Hernández E, Mutiño RM, del Arco I, Villanúa MA, et al. (1997) Acute administration of the cannabinoid receptor antagonist SR141716A induces anxiety-like responses in the rat. Neuroreport 8: 491–496.

205. Park HJ, Park HJ, Chae Y, Kim JW, Lee H, et al. (2011) Effect of acupuncture on hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal system in maternal separation rats. Cell Mol Neurobiol 31: 1123–1127.

206. Chen L, Zang J, Li F, Qiu Y, Wang L, et al. (2009) Endogenous anandamide and cannabinoid receptor-2 contribute to electroacupuncture analgesia in rats. Journal of Pain 10: 792–798.

207. Zhang J, Chen L, Su TF, Cao FY, Meng XF, et al. (2010) Electroacupuncture increases CB2 receptor expression on keratinocytes and inhibiting inflammatory cells in inflamed skin tissues of rats. Journal of Pain 11: 1250–1258.

208. Su TF, Zhang LH, Peng M, Wu CH, Pan XY, et al. (2013) Cannabinoid CB2 receptors contribute to upregulation of beta-endorphin in inflamed skin tissues by electroacupuncture. Molecular Pain 7.

209. Fu LW, Longhurst JC (2009) Electroacupuncture modulates vPGP expression of GABAergic neurons in the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus. Neuropharmacology 56: 2699–2709.

210. Eason NK, Tasker JG, Hill MN, Hillard CJ, Herman JP (2010) Fast feedback inhibition of the HPA axis by glucocorticoids is mediated by endocannabinoid signaling. Endocrinology 151: 4811–4819.

211. Reich SG, Taylor ME, McCarthey MM (2009) Differential effects of chronic unpredictable stress on hippocampal CB1 receptors in male and female rats. Behavioural Brain Research 203: 264–269.

212. Sciolino NR, Bertoletto M, Eisenstat SA, Fu J, Oveis F, et al. (2010) Social isolation and chronic handling alter endocannabinoid signaling and behavioral reactivity to context in adult rats. Neuroscience 168: 371–386.

213. Zoppo S, Nievas BGP, Madrigal JLM, Manzanares J, Lez JC, et al. (2011) Regulatory role of cannabinoid receptor 1 in stress-induced excitotoxicity and synaptic dysfunction. Neuropeptides 45: 805–818.

214. Wang QA, Li XY, Chen YK, Wang F, Yang QZ, et al. (2011) Activation of epsilon protein kinase C-mediated anti-apoptosis is involved in rapid tolerance of...
induced by electrophysiological pretreatment through cannabinoid receptor type 1. Stroke 42: 309–396.

227. Darmann NA, Izzo AA, Depenegrab B, Valenti M, Scaglione G, et al. (2005) Involvement of the cannabinominergic compound, N-palmitoylithanolamine, in inflammation and reorganization of neuropathic conditions. Review of the available pre-clinical data, and first human studies. Neuropharmacology 48: 1154–1163.

228. Di Marzo V (2011) Endocannabinoids: an appetite for fat. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 108: 12567–12568.

229. Di Marzo V, Matais I (2005) Endocannabinoid control of food intake and energy balance. Nature Neuroscience 8: 585–589.

230. Cote M, Matais I, Lemieux I, Petrosino S, Almeras N, et al. (2007) Circulating endocannabinoid levels, abdominal adiposity and related cardiometabolic risk factors in obese men. International Journal of Obesity 31: 692–699.

231. Massa F, Mannucci G, Schmidt H, Steindel F, Mackie K, et al. (2010) Alterations in the hippocampal endocannabinoid system in diet-Induced obese mice. Journal of Neuroscience 30: 6273–6281.

232. Engel S, Bohnke J, Feldpausch M, Golzelnika K, Janke J, et al. (2005) Activation of the peripheral endocannabinoid system in human obesity. Diabetes 54: 2983–2991.

233. Bennetzen MF, Wellner N, Ahmed SS, Ahmed SM, Diep TA, et al. (2011) Investigations of the human endocannabinoid system in two subcutaneous adipose tissue deposits in lean subjects and in obese subjects before and after weight loss. International Journal of Obesity, 35: 1377–1384.

234. Yin HH, Park BS, Adermark L, Lovinger DM (2007) Ethanol reverses the direction of long-term synaptic plasticity in the dorsomedial striatum. European Journal of Neuroscience 25: 3226–3232.

235. Adermark L, Jonsson S, Ericson M, Soderpalm B (2011) Intermittent ethanol consumption regulates cannabinoid CB1 receptor expression in the dorsolateral striatum of the adult rat. Neuropharmacology 61: 1160–1165.

236. Heyman E, Gamelin FX, Goekint M, Piscitelli F, Roelands B, et al. (2012) Selective alterations of the cannabinoid CB1 receptor with changes in metabolic risk factors. Diabetologia 55: 213–221.

237. Di Marzo V, Cote M, Matais I, Lemieux I, Arsenault B, et al. (2009) Changes in plasma endocannabinoid levels in vascinally obese men following a 1 year lifestyle modification programme and waist circumference reduction: association with change in metabolic risk factors. Diabetologia 52: 213–217.

238. Massa I, Gatta-Cherifi B, Tabasar, Clark S, Leste-Lasserre T, et al. (2012) Endocannabinoids measurement in human saliva as potential biomarker of obesity. Plos One 7.

239. Sparling PB, Giuffrida A, Piomelli D, Rossolopf I, Dietrich A (2003) Exercise activates the endocannabinoid system. Neuroscience 129: 2209–2211.

240. Heyman E, Galarza VN, Goekint M, Piomelli D, Roeber B, et al. (2012) Intense exercise increases circulating endocannabinoid and BDNF levels in humans - possible implications for reward and depression. Psychoneuroendocrinology 37: 844–851.

241. Feuerecker M, Hauer D, Toth R, Demetz F, Holzl J, et al. (2012) Effects of exercise stress on the endocannabinoid system in humans under field conditions. European Journal of Applied Physiology 112: 2777–2781.

242. Buczynski MW, Polis IY, Parsons LH (2013) The volitional nature of nicotine self-administration and the endocannabinoid system. The Journal of Neuroscience 30: 6273–6281.

243. Basavarajappa BS, Ninan I, Arancio O (2008) Acute ethanol suppresses cannabinoid CB1 receptor function on glutamate axon terminals by electrical disinhibition of striatal output. Neuropsychopharmacology 33: 1055–1063.

244. Marco EM, Llorente R, Moreno E, Biscaia JM, Guaza C, et al. (2006) Influence of nicotinic receptor modulators on CB2 cannabinoid receptor agonist (JWH133)-induced antiinociception in mice. Behav Pharmacol 17: 195–199.

245. Cippitelli A, Astarita G, Duranti A, Caprioli G, Ubaldi M, et al. (2011) Regulation of brain cannabinoid CB1 receptors by chronic ethanol treatment prevents cannabinoid CB1 receptor down-regulation. Neuropeptides 45: 310–315.

246. Yin HH, Park BS, Adermark L, Lovinger DM (2007) Ethanol reverses the direction of long-term synaptic plasticity in the dorsomedial striatum. European Journal of Neuroscience 25: 3226–3232.

247. Marco EM, Llorente R, Moreno E, Biscaia JM, Guaza C, et al. (2006) Influence of nicotinic receptor modulators on CB2 cannabinoid receptor agonist (JWH133)-induced antiinociception in mice. Behav Pharmacol 17: 195–199.

248. Pryor GT, Larsen FF, Husain S, Braude MC (1973) Interactions of delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol with antihypertensives, cocaine, and nicotine in rats. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 8: 293–318.

249. Basavarajappa BS, Hungund BL, Cooper TR, Adermark L, McNamara MP, et al. (2010) Selective alterations of the cannabinoid CB1 receptor with changes in metabolic risk factors. Diabetologia 53: 213–221.

250. Le Foll B, Beggins M, Harper MR, DiPaoli A, Brown PG (2006) Reduced endocannabinoid levels in humans following a 1 year lifestyle modification programme and waist circumference reduction: association with change in metabolic risk factors. Diabetologia 52: 213–217.

251. Vinod KY, Vimal P, Garcia-Gutierrez MS, Fonseca T, Xie S, et al. (2012) Locomotor effects in the endocannabinoid signaling and its modulation by alcohol consumption in alcohol-prefering P rats. Addiction Biology 17: 62–75.
302. Savinainen JR, Jarvinen T, Laine K, Latinen JT (2001) Despite substantial degradation, 2-arachidonoylglycerol is a potent full efficacy agonist mediating CB1 receptor-dependent G-protein activation in rat cerebellar membranes. British Journal of Pharmacology 134: 664–672.

303. Stella N, Schweitzer P, Piomelli D (1997) A second endogenous cannabinoid that modulates long-term potentiation. Nature 383: 773–778.

304. Darmani NA (2002) The potent emetogenic effects of the endocannabinoid, 2-AG (2-arachidonoylglycerol) are blocked by 2-ethylhexanoic acid and other cannabinoids. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics 303: 34–42.

305. Mato S, Chevalley V, Robbe D, Pazoos A, Castillo PE, et al. (2004) A single in-vivo exposure to delta 9-THC blocks endocannabinoid-mediated synaptic plasticity. Nat Neurosci 7: 505–506.

306. Kelley BG, Thayer SA (2004) Delta-Tetrahydrocannabinol antagonizes endo-
cannabinoid modulation of synaptic transmission between hippocampal

307. Roloff AM, Thayer SA (2009) Modulation of excitatory synaptic transmission by Delta-tetrahydrocannabinol switches from agonist to antagonist depending on firing rate. Molecular Pharmacology 75: 892–900.

308. Burke TH, Queck RM, Fonrose F, Ehrett FJ, Hosohata Y, et al. (1997) Relative efficacies of cannabinoid CB1 receptor agonists in the mouse brain. Eur J Pharmacol 336: 295–298.

309. Aceto MD, Scafe SM, Razdan RK, Martin BR (1998) Anandamide, an endogenous cannabinoid, has a very low physiological dependence potential. J Experimental Therapeutics 205: 598–603.

310. Fride E (1995) Anandamides: tolerance and cross-tolerance to delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol. Brain Research 697: 83–90.

311. Bonhaus DW, Chang LG, Kwan J, Martin GR (1998) Dual activation and

312. Glass M, Northup JK (1999) Agonist selective regulation of G proteins by endogenous cannabinoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

313. Fride E, Barg J, Levy R, Saya D, Heldman E, et al. (1995) Low doses of anandamides inhibit pharmacological effects of delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol. Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics 272: 699–707.

314. Pertwee RG, Stevenson LA, Griffin G (1993) Cross-tolerance between delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol and the cannabinomimetic agents, CP 55,940, WIN 55,212-2 and anandamide. British Journal of Pharmacology 110: 207–213.

315. Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Burston JJ, Toebry KM, Gamage TF, et al. (2012) Enlargement of the brain effects of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists by phenethylmethyl salicylate. Neuropharmacology 62: 1019–1027.

316. Suplita RL, Eisenstien SA, Neely MH, Moise AM, Holmman AG (2008) Cross-
sensitization and cross-tolerance between exogenous cannabinoids antecito-
ception and endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. Neurophar-
macology 54: 161–171.

317. Long JZ, Nomura DK, Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Booker L, et al. (2009) Dual blockade of FAAH and MAGL identifies behavioral processes regulated by endocannabinoid crosstalk in vivo. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106: 20270–20275.

318. McPartland JM, Pruitt PL (1999) Side effects of pharmaceuticals not elicited by cannabimimoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

319. Pertwee RG, Stevenson LA, Griffin G (1993) Cross-tolerance between delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol and the cannabinomimetic agents, CP 55,940, WIN 55,212-2 and anandamide. British Journal of Pharmacology 110: 207–213.

320. Roloff AM, Thayer SA (2009) Modulation of excitatory synaptic transmission by Delta-tetrahydrocannabinol switches from agonist to antagonist depending on firing rate. Molecular Pharmacology 75: 892–900.

321. Burke TH, Queck RM, Fonrose F, Ehrett FJ, Hosohata Y, et al. (1997) Relative efficacies of cannabinoid CB1 receptor agonists in the mouse brain. Eur J Pharmacol 336: 295–298.

322. Aceto MD, Scafe SM, Razdan RK, Martin BR (1998) Anandamide, an endogenous cannabinoid, has a very low physiological dependence potential. J Experimental Therapeutics 205: 598–603.

323. Fride E (1995) Anandamides: tolerance and cross-tolerance to delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol. Brain Research 697: 83–90.

324. Glass M, Northup JK (1999) Agonist selective regulation of G proteins by endogenous cannabinoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

325. Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Burston JJ, Toebry KM, Gamage TF, et al. (2012) Enlargement of the brain effects of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists by phenethylmethyl salicylate. Neuropharmacology 62: 1019–1027.

326. Suplita RL, Eisenstien SA, Neely MH, Moise AM, Holmman AG (2008) Cross-
sensitization and cross-tolerance between exogenous cannabinoids antecito-
ception and endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. Neurophar-
macology 54: 161–171.

327. Long JZ, Nomura DK, Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Booker L, et al. (2009) Dual blockade of FAAH and MAGL identifies behavioral processes regulated by endocannabinoid crosstalk in vivo. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106: 20270–20275.

328. McPartland JM, Pruitt PL (1999) Side effects of pharmaceuticals not elicited by cannabimimoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

329. Pertwee RG, Stevenson LA, Griffin G (1993) Cross-tolerance between delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol and the cannabinomimetic agents, CP 55,940, WIN 55,212-2 and anandamide. British Journal of Pharmacology 110: 207–213.

330. Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Burston JJ, Toebry KM, Gamage TF, et al. (2012) Enlargement of the brain effects of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists by phenethylmethyl salicylate. Neuropharmacology 62: 1019–1027.

331. Suplita RL, Eisenstien SA, Neely MH, Moise AM, Holmman AG (2008) Cross-
sensitization and cross-tolerance between exogenous cannabinoids antecito-
ception and endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. Neurophar-
macology 54: 161–171.

332. Long JZ, Nomura DK, Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Booker L, et al. (2009) Dual blockade of FAAH and MAGL identifies behavioral processes regulated by endocannabinoid crosstalk in vivo. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106: 20270–20275.

333. McPartland JM, Pruitt PL (1999) Side effects of pharmaceuticals not elicited by cannabimimoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

334. Pertwee RG, Stevenson LA, Griffin G (1993) Cross-tolerance between delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol and the cannabinomimetic agents, CP 55,940, WIN 55,212-2 and anandamide. British Journal of Pharmacology 110: 207–213.

335. Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Burston JJ, Toebry KM, Gamage TF, et al. (2012) Enlargement of the brain effects of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists by phenethylmethyl salicylate. Neuropharmacology 62: 1019–1027.

336. Suplita RL, Eisenstien SA, Neely MH, Moise AM, Holmman AG (2008) Cross-
sensitization and cross-tolerance between exogenous cannabinoids antecito-
ception and endocannabinoid-mediated stress-induced analgesia. Neurophar-
macology 54: 161–171.

337. Long JZ, Nomura DK, Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Booker L, et al. (2009) Dual blockade of FAAH and MAGL identifies behavioral processes regulated by endocannabinoid crosstalk in vivo. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106: 20270–20275.

338. McPartland JM, Pruitt PL (1999) Side effects of pharmaceuticals not elicited by cannabimimoid CB1 and G protein coupled receptors. Mem Ophthalmo 56: 1302–1309.

339. Pertwee RG, Stevenson LA, Griffin G (1993) Cross-tolerance between delta-9-
tetrahydrocannabinol and the cannabinomimetic agents, CP 55,940, WIN 55,212-2 and anandamide. British Journal of Pharmacology 110: 207–213.

340. Vann RE, Waleninty DM, Burston JJ, Toebry KM, Gamage TF, et al. (2012) Enlargement of the brain effects of endogenous and exogenous cannabinoid agonists by phenethylmethyl salicylate. Neuropharmacology 62: 1019–1027.
levels in rat brain, liver and small intestine. Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta-Molecular and Cell Biology of Lipids 1781: 200–212.

328. Kirkham TC, Williams CM, Fezza F, Di Marzo V (2002) Endocannabinoid levels in rat limbic forebrain and hypothalamus in relation to fasting, feeding and satiation: stimulation of eating by 2-arachidonoyl glycerol. British Journal of Pharmacology 136: 550–557.

329. Hanus L, Avraham Y, Ben-Shashan D, Zolotarev O, Berry EM, et al. (2003) Short-term fasting and prolonged semistarvation have opposite effects on 2-AG levels in mouse brain. Brain Research 983: 144–151.

330. Cottone E, Guastalla A, Pontatto V, Campanito E, Di Marzo V, et al. (2009) Goldfish CB1 mRNA expression is affected by fasting and anandamide administration. Neuroreport 20: 595–599.

331. Valenti M, Cottone E, Martinez R, De Pedro N, Rubio M, et al. (2005) The endocannabinoid system in the brain of Carassius auratus and its possible role in the control of food intake. Journal of Neurochemistry 95: 662–672.

332. Gujjarro A, Osei-Hyiaman D, Harvey-White J, Kamos G, Suzuki S, et al. (2008) Sustained weight loss after roux-en-y gastric bypass is characterized by down regulation of endocannabinoids and mitochondrial function. Annals of Surgery 247: 779–790.

333. Jelsing J, Larsen PJ, Vrang N (2009) The effect of leptin receptor deficiency and fasting on cannabinoid receptor 1 mRNA expression in the rat hypothalamus, brainstem and nodose ganglion. Neuroscience Letters 463: 125–129.

334. Yan Z, Liu DY, Zhang L, Shen CY, Ma QL, et al. (2007) Exercise reduces adipose tissue via cannabinoid receptor type 1 which is regulated by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-delta. Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications 354: 427–433.

335. Rossi S, Furlan R, De Chiara V, Musella A, Lo Giudice T, et al. (2009) Exercise attenuates the clinical, synaptic and dendritic abnormalities of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. Neurobiology of Disease 36: 51–59.

336. De Chiara V, Errico F, Musella A, Rossi S, Mataluoi G, et al. (2010) Voluntary exercise and sucrose consumption enhance cannabinoid CB1 receptor sensitivity in the striatum. Neuropsychopharmacology 35: 374–387.

337. da Silva SG, Araujo BHS, Gossa AG, Scorza FA, Cavalheiro EA, et al. (2010) Physical exercise in adolescence changes CB1 cannabinoid receptor expression in the rat brain. Neurochemistry International 57: 492–496.

338. Hill MN, Titterness AK, Morris AC, Carrier EJ, Lee TTY, et al. (2010) Endogenous cannabinoid signaling is required for voluntary exercise-induced enhancement of progenitor cell proliferation in the hippocampus. Hippocampus 20: 513–523.

339. Yasari S, Prad'homme D, Tesson F, Jankowski M, Gutowska J, et al. (2012) Effects of exercise training on molecular markers of lipogenesis and lipid partitioning in fructose-induced liver fat accumulation. J Nutr Metab 2012: 101687.

340. Basavarajappa BS, Hungund BL (1999) Chronic ethanol increases the cannabinoid receptor agonist anandamide and its precursor N-arachidonoyl-phosphatidylethanolamine in SK-N-SH cells. Journal of Neurochemistry 72: 522–528.

341. Basavarajappa BS, Saito M, Cooper TB, Hungund BL (2000) Stimulation of cannabinoid receptor agonist 2-arachidonoylglycerol by chronic ethanol and its modulation by specific neuromodulators in cerebellar granule neurons. Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta-Molecular Basis of Disease 1535: 78–86.

342. Basavarajappa BS, Saito M, Cooper TB, Hungund BL (2003) Chronic ethanol inhibits the anandamide transport and increases extracellular anandamide levels in cerebellar granule neurons. European Journal of Pharmacology 466: 73–83.

343. Buckley TH, Quesck RM, Conrowe P, Roese WR, Yamamura HI (1997) delta 9-Tetrahydrocannabinol is a partial agonist of cannabinoid receptors in mouse brain. Eur J Pharmacol 323: R3–4.

344. Petitier F, Jeantaud B, Rebhoud M, Imperato A, Dubreucq M-C (1998) Complex pharmacology of natural cannabinoids: evidence for partial agonist activity of Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol and antagonist activity of cannabidiol on rat brain cannabinoid receptors. Life Sciences 63: PL1–6.