



REVIEWS

Cannabinoids to Improve Health-Related Quality of Life in Patients with Neurological or Oncological Disease: A Meta-Analysis

Vera Belgers,^{1,2,*} Jantine G. Röttgering,²⁻⁴ Linda Douw,^{2,4} Martin Klein,^{2,3} Johannes C.F. Ket,⁵ Peter M. van de Ven,⁶ Thomas Würdinger,^{2,7} Myra E. van Linde,^{2,8} Johanna M. Niers,^{1,2} Markus Weber,⁹ Marcel G. Olde Rikkert,¹⁰ Jose Lopez-Sendon,¹¹ Oscar Arrieta,¹² Kristina B. Svendsen,¹³ Marcos H.N. Chagas,¹⁴ Carlos M.O. de Almeida,^{15,16} Mathilde C.M. Kouwenhoven,^{1,2,†} and Philip C. de Witt Hamer^{2,7,†}

Abstract

Background: Cannabinoids have been suggested to alleviate frequently experienced symptoms of reduced mental well-being such as anxiety and depression. Mental well-being is an important subdomain of health-related quality of life (HRQoL). Reducing symptoms and maintaining HRQoL are particularly important in malignant primary brain tumor patients, as treatment options are often noncurative and prognosis remains poor. These patients frequently report unprescribed cannabinoid use, presumably for symptom relieve. As studies on brain tumor patients specifically are lacking, we performed a meta-analysis of the current evidence on cannabinoid efficacy on HRQoL and mental well-being in oncological and neurological patients.

Methods: We performed a systematic PubMed, PsychINFO, Embase, and Web of Science search according to PRISMA guidelines on August 2 and 3, 2021. We included randomized controlled trials (RCTs) that assessed the effects of tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) or cannabidiol (CBD) on general HRQoL and mental well-being. Pooled effect sizes were calculated using Hedges *g*. Risk of bias of included studies was assessed using Cochrane's Risk of Bias tool.

Results: We included 17 studies: 4 in oncology and 13 in central nervous system (CNS) disease. Meta-analysis showed no effect of cannabinoids on general HRQoL ($g = -0.02$ confidence interval [95% CI -0.11 to 0.06]; $p = 0.57$) or mental well-being ($g = -0.02$ [95% CI -0.16 to 0.13]; $p = 0.81$).

Conclusions: RCTs in patients with cancer or CNS disease showed no effect of cannabinoids on HRQoL or mental well-being. However, studies were clinically heterogeneous and since many glioma patients currently frequently use cannabinoids, future studies are necessary to evaluate its value in this specific population.

Keywords: brain tumors; anxiety; depression; $\Delta 9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol; cannabidiol; glioma

¹Department of Neurology, Amsterdam UMC location Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

²Cancer Center Amsterdam, Brain Tumor Center Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

Departments of ³Medical Psychology and ⁴Anatomy and Neurosciences, Amsterdam UMC location Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

⁵Department of Medical Library, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

Departments of ⁶Epidemiology and Data Science, ⁷Neurosurgery, and ⁸Medical Oncology, Amsterdam UMC location Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

⁹Neuromuscular Diseases Unit/ALS Clinic, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland.

¹⁰Departments of Geriatric Medicine/Radboudumc Alzheimer Center, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, The Netherlands.

¹¹Department of Neurology, Hospital Ramón y Cajal (IRYCIS), Madrid, Spain.

¹²Thoracic Oncology Unit and Experimental Oncology Laboratory, Instituto Nacional de Cancerología de México (INCan), Tlalpan, México.

¹³Department of Clinical Medicine, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.

¹⁴Department of Gerontology, Universidade Federal de São Carlos, São Carlos, Brazil.

¹⁵Bairral Institute of Psychiatry, Itapira, Brazil (M.H.N.C.).

¹⁶School of Health Sciences, State University of Amazonas, Manaus, Amazon, Brazil.

†Joint senior authorship.

*Address correspondence to: Vera Belgers, MSc, MD, Department of Neurology, Amsterdam UMC location Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, De Boelelaan 1117, Amsterdam 1081HV, The Netherlands, E-mail: v.belgers@amsterdamumc.nl

Introduction

Cannabinoids have been reported to reduce anxiety and depressive symptoms in various populations.¹ Anxiety and depression are symptoms that patients with a primary brain tumor often experience. Malignant brain tumors limit life expectancy and health-related quality of life (HRQoL). They are mostly incurable; therefore, a main focus of treatment is to preserve HRQoL. HRQoL is a patient-reported outcome (PRO) reflecting the well-being of a patient and the extent of disease interference in daily activities.²⁻⁴ It consists of multiple dimensions, of which an important one is mental well-being. Mental well-being can be referred to as both emotional and psychological functioning and the absence of mental health complaints such as depression and anxiety.^{5,6}

After their diagnosis, malignant primary brain tumor patients report that they value quality of life over a prolonged survival.⁷ Nonetheless, quality of life, and specifically mental well-being, is often compromised by frequently experienced symptoms such as anxiety (>50%) or depression (>40%).^{8,9} A small survey study in Florida showed that a third of these patients use cannabinoids to relieve their symptoms, a finding corroborated by an informal assessment at our hospital.¹⁰ Consequently, many brain tumor patients have questions about the possible benefits of cannabinoids. Unfortunately, clinicians cannot address these questions or prescribe cannabinoids without evidence. Therefore, a complete overview of the possible beneficial effects of cannabinoids on HRQoL in brain tumor patients is needed.

The cannabis plant contains many cannabinoids, Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD) being the most prevalent.¹¹ THC has psychoactive effects, whereas CBD is associated with anxiolytic and anticonvulsant properties.¹² Both THC and CBD interact with the cannabinoid CB1 and CB2 receptors.¹³ CBD is not only an antagonist of the CB1 receptor but also inhibits endocannabinoid degradation, thereby increasing its availability to the CB1 receptor.¹² *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies have shown that CBD also interacts with the serotonin-1A receptor, a key target involved in treatment of anxiety and depression.^{12,14}

Moreover, cannabinoids could reduce pain.¹⁵ For medical use, both plant-derived and synthetic forms of cannabinoids are available, containing various CBD:THC ratios. Availability and legal permissions for use are rising, but differ per country, with medical marijuana currently permitted in >30 countries for a vari-

ety of indications, ranging from refractory epilepsy to spasticity.¹⁶ In the Netherlands, CBD is freely available, whereas THC use is permitted in small amounts. Medical cannabinoids can be prescribed for specified indications, although this is not common practice yet.

Only two studies have investigated the effects of cannabinoids on HRQoL in brain tumor patients: an open-label study investigated effect of THC on chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting in 32 primary brain tumor patients. HRQoL was a secondary outcome measure and did not improve.¹⁷ Another study investigated the tolerability of two different ratios of CBD:THC (1:1 and 1:4) and its effects on HRQoL in 88 patients with high-grade gliomas (primary malignant brain tumors). They found that the functional and physical domain improved more in the 1:1 group than with the CBD:THC 1:4 ratio. Total HRQoL did not differ between different CBD:THC ratios.¹⁸ In addition, a survey study among glioma patients showed that a third of patients used cannabinoids, and symptom relief was reported in 83%.¹⁰ However, these study designs are unsuitable for drawing any firm conclusion on efficacy.

Randomized controlled trials (RCTs) into the effects of cannabinoids on HRQoL in brain tumor patients are lacking. As a derivate, we performed a meta-analysis in two populations that share characteristics with brain tumor patients: patients with chronic central nervous system (CNS) disease and oncological patients. We assessed both general HRQoL and its subdomain mental well-being as reduced mental well-being could greatly affect HRQoL.¹⁹ Moreover, pre-clinical and clinical studies show cannabinoids could possibly improve symptoms associated with reduced mental well-being.^{1,14}

Methods

This meta-analysis follows a pre-specified, but unregistered protocol and was performed according to the PRISMA guidelines.²⁰

Search strategy

The search was carried out on August 2 and 3, 2021 using PubMed, Embase.com, PsychINFO, and Clarivate Analytics/Web of Science Core Collection as sources. Search terms were designed by an experienced librarian and included “cannabinoids,” “cancer,” or “CNS diseases” such as “multiple sclerosis (MS).” Broad search terms were included for mental well-being, focusing on both positive and negative psychological and emotional

symptoms and items. See Supplementary Appendix SA1 for the complete search strategy. There were no restrictions applied on publication date or language.

Study inclusions

Studies were eligible for inclusion if patients had any oncological disease or any chronic CNS disease (such as MS or Parkinson's disease [PD]), or a history of an acute event such as stroke or traumatic brain injury with symptoms lasting > 3 months. Patients had to be 18 years of age or older. Only prospective RCTs were considered. Both parallel and crossover study designs were allowed. For crossover trials, washout periods had to be at least 1 week. Treatment consisted of cannabinoids in any form (synthetic or plant based), route of administration or dose, given for at least a week to establish a steady-state concentration of active substances. The active component could be THC, CBD, or a combination of both in any composition.

The control group could consist of a placebo or an active control. As this was an exploratory meta-analysis of the efficacy of cannabinoids, we did not assess adverse effects.

Two reviewers (V.B. and J.R.) independently evaluated whether publications were suitable for inclusion. Inconsistencies between reviewers were discussed until consensus was achieved. Titles and abstracts of all entries were screened and articles not describing CNS disease or oncological patients were excluded, as were studies not investigating effects of cannabinoids. Full-text articles were retrieved and assessed. In case of multiple publications from the same study population, the study with the largest sample size was chosen. If sample sizes were similar, the most recent study was included.

Outcome measures and definitions

The outcome measures of this meta-analysis were HRQoL and mental well-being. We have chosen both general HRQoL and its subdomain mental well-being to avoid more general outcomes, as well as more disease-specific health complaints. HRQoL instruments could be used if they assessed HRQoL as a whole, such as the SF-36, or assessed global or general health as part of HRQoL. For mental well-being, all instruments or subscales could be included, which assessed psychological functioning, emotional functioning, mood, anxiety, depression, or mental health. The same study population could be included in both analyses if multiple questionnaires were available.

There were no restrictions on whether HRQoL was a primary or secondary outcome measure in the included studies. Only PROs were included, none completed by a proxy. Baseline and post-intervention assessments had to be available: one-time questionnaires (such as subject global impression of change) were not included. Generic as well as disease-specific HRQoL questionnaires were permitted. For mental well-being, subscales of general HRQoL such as emotional well-being were included, as were anxiety and depression questionnaires as they are inversely correlated with (HR)QoL.²¹ If a study included multiple questionnaires to assess the same outcome measure, we included the generic rather than the disease-specific questionnaire. If still multiple questionnaires could be included, we selected the questionnaire with the highest validity.

Data extraction

Characteristics extracted from the studies included the following: publication year; study design (parallel vs. crossover); number of participants; diagnosis of included patients; intervention type, dose, and administration route; duration of the intervention; primary outcome measure and outcome measure of interest; instruments used; and outcome data.

Data from the start and end of each intervention period were extracted. All extracted data were verified by a second reviewer (J.R.). We contacted all corresponding authors by email to request the individual patient data of each study. If applicable, we contacted the sponsor as well. If authors and sponsors were not able or willing to share the individual patient data, we requested the mean change from baseline and its standard deviation (SD).

If we did not receive the requested data, we extracted mean changes from baseline and the corresponding SDs from articles when possible. We also searched trial registration websites for additional public data. If only post-intervention means and SDs were reported, we did not include this study in the meta-analysis as we could not establish the SDs of change. If a median was reported instead of a mean, we excluded this study unless it was explicitly stated that the data were not skewed, in which case, we calculated the mean and SD from the available information. We calculated SDs using confidence intervals (95% CIs) and group size if necessary. If we could not obtain data from the authors or the publication, we excluded the study.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed with Rstudio (version 4.0.2). We used the packages “dmetar,” “effsize,” “meta,” “tidyverse,” “dplyr,” and “esc.”^{22–27} Risk of bias was visualized with the “robvis” package.²⁸ In studies with multiple intervention groups, such as multiple doses or different forms of cannabinoids, data of intervention groups were pooled and new mean changes and SDs were calculated.²⁹ We quantified the treatment effect by Hedges’ g and its accompanying standard error.³⁰ For crossover studies, we calculated the Hedges’ g using the formula for paired data. Hedges’ g corrects for small sample sizes and is calculated by dividing the differences in mean change from baseline by the pooled and weighted SD. A $g < 0.2$ represents a small effect, $0.5 < g < 0.8$ a moderate effect, and $g \geq 0.8$ a large effect.^{29–31}

We used a random-effects model to account for heterogeneity between studies due to differences in disease, intervention, and study duration.³² We visualized the effect sizes with forest plots. Two-sided p -values < 0.05 were considered significant. We tested heterogeneity of study outcomes with I^2 ; $< 25\%$ was considered negligible and $> 75\%$ undeniable heterogeneity.²⁹ We tested for publication bias by using Egger’s formula, which tests the degree of funnel plot asymmetry.³³

Subgroup analysis. Subgroups were analyzed and compared using a mixed-effects model. Subgroups were defined based on the included population (CNS disease vs. oncological) and the intervention studies (CBD, THC, or combination of both). Heterogeneity between subgroups was assessed using Cochran’s Q test.³⁴

Assessment of bias

Two reviewers (V.B. and J.R.) independently evaluated the risk of bias of the included articles, using the Cochrane Risk of Bias Tool 2.0.³⁵ Five domains of bias were judged: (1) arising from the randomization process; (2) due to deviations from intended interventions; (3) due to missing outcome data; (4) in measurement of the outcome; and (5) in selection of the reported result. Studies were considered low risk of bias if all domains were judged to be of low risk; if some domains raised some concerns, the study was judged to be of some concern; and when at least one domain was high risk, the study was believed to have a high risk of bias.³⁵ Inconsistencies between reviewers were discussed with each other until consensus was achieved.²⁹

Results

Search/inclusions

The literature search yielded 3825 studies; after removing duplicates, 2356 remained. Titles and abstracts were screened (Fig. 1). We excluded 2144 records that did not satisfy pre-defined criteria for study design (such as reviews and protocol articles) or intervention. We read 212 full-text articles and excluded an additional 180 articles based on study population, outcome measurement, study design (such as open-label studies), study duration (mostly single-dose administrations), intervention (no form of THC or CBD), or overlap in study population. Thirty-two records were eligible for inclusion; both assessors (V.B. and J.R.) fully agreed on these inclusions. Fifteen of these studies were excluded due to reporting and provision of data being insufficient for inclusion in the meta-analysis.

These studies were mostly on MS (47%) and cancer (40%), only one of these had HRQoL as a primary outcome.^{36–50} Seventeen studies were included: 9 studies could be included in both the analyses for HRQoL and mental well-being, 4 could only be included in the general HRQoL analysis, and the remaining 4 only in the analysis for mental well-being. A variety of instruments was used (Table 1).

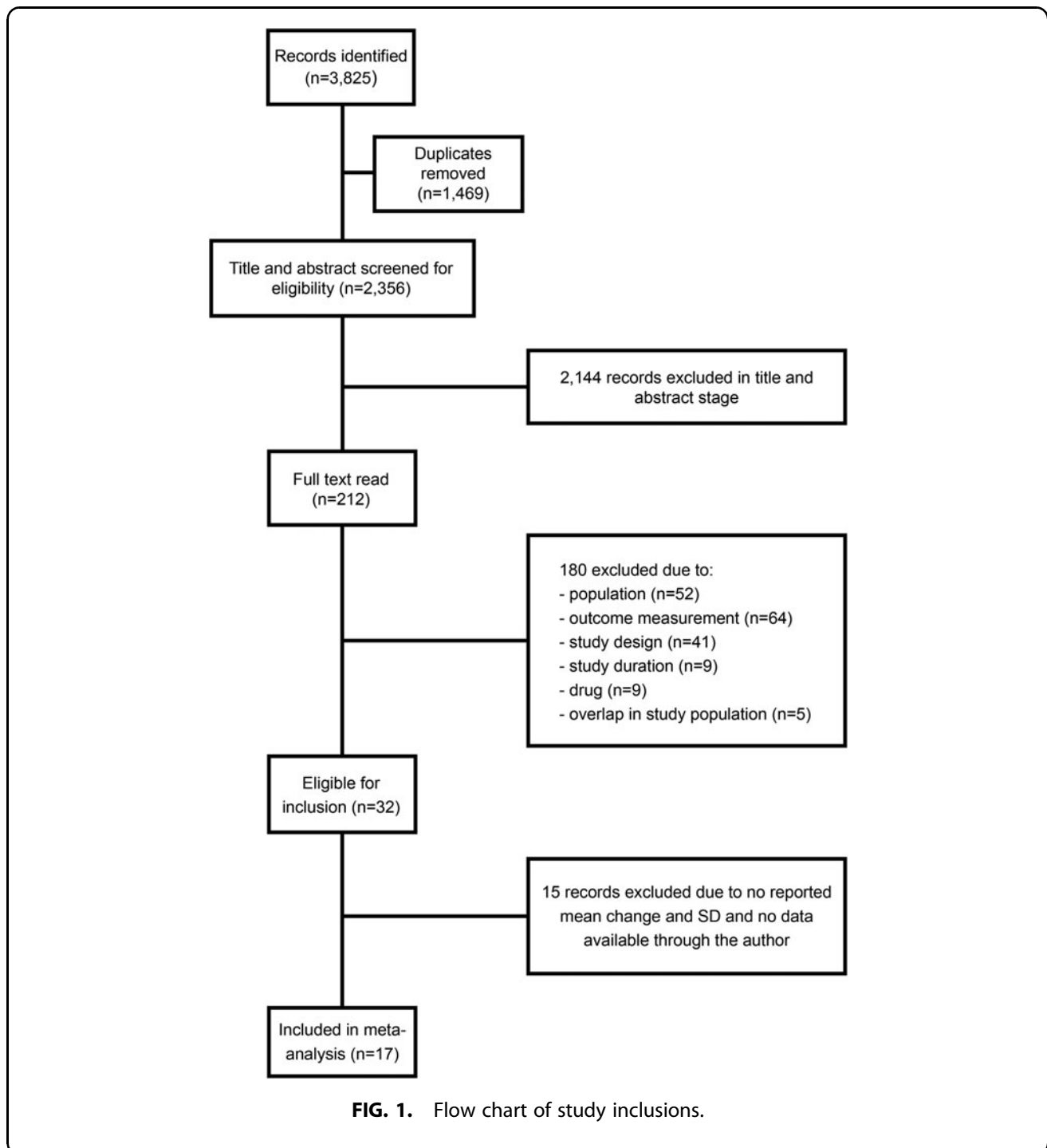
Most studies included in the meta-analysis investigated MS (41%) or cancer (24%). General HRQoL or mental well-being was the primary end-point in two studies (12%). Pharmaceutical companies were involved in 11 (65%) of the studies: in 5 studies, the drug was provided (29%), and in an additional 6 studies (35%), the pharmaceutical company was the study sponsor.

Individual patient data

Authors from 7 publications (of the 32 eligible studies) shared their raw data upon our request.^{51–57} These studies concerned MS, PD (twice), Huntington’s Disease, lung cancer, Alzheimer’s Disease, and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. One of these studies (14%) received financial support by a pharmaceutical company, compared to 6 (out of 10; 60%) of the studies from which we did not receive individual data. Raw data of only seven studies were considered too few to perform an individual patient data meta-analysis, also because these studies differed in terms of outcome measures and study design.

Interventions

Various drugs were used as interventions (Table 1). Dronabinol was most frequently used (6/17 studies;



35%). This is a synthetic THC analog and administered as a capsule containing 2.5, 5, or 10 mg.⁵⁸ Sativex[®] was used in 5 out of 17 studies (29%). It combines CBD and THC in an oromucosal spray containing 2.5 mg CBD and 2.7 mg THC per spray.⁵⁹ Nabilone, a synthetic THC packed in capsules of 1 mg, was used in two of the

included studies.⁶⁰ Cannabis extract retrieved from the *C. sativa* plant was applied as well. Two studies investigated monotherapy CBD. Control groups consisted of a placebo in all, but one study, which used megestrol acetate.⁶¹ This is a synthetically derived progesterone that is used to increase appetite in cancer patients.

Table 1. Study Characteristics

Author (year) ^{ref.}	n	Design	Pharmaceutical involvement	Patient population	Primary outcome	Intervention type	Administration rout	Dose/day	Intervention duration	QoL type	Instrument	Favors	Hedges' g (95% CI)
Ball (2015) ⁹⁶	412	Parallel	No	MS	Progression	Dronabinol	Oral	Max 28 mg	36 months	Mental	MSS-29, psychological impact	Placebo	-0.12 (-0.32 to 0.08)
Chagas (2014) ⁵¹	20	Parallel	No	PD	Motor and general symptoms	CBD	Oral	75 or 300 mg	6 weeks	Both	PDQ-39, emotional and total well-being	Intervention; intervention	0.68 (-0.30 to 1.66); 0.76 (-0.23 to 1.74)
De Almeida (2011) ⁵⁷	33	Parallel	No	PD	Rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder	CBD	Oral	Max 300 mg	12 weeks	Both	BAI;PDQ-39 total well-being	Placebo; placebo	-0.47 (-1.25 to 0.31); -0.16 (-0.87 to 0.55)
van den Elsen (2015) ⁵⁹	42	Parallel	Drug provided	AD	Neuropsychiatric symptoms	Dronabinol	Oral	4.5 mg	3 weeks	General	QoL-AD	Placebo	-0.04 (-0.65 to 0.56)
Jatoi (2002) ⁶¹	311	Parallel	Drug provided	Cancer	Anorexia	Dronabinol	Oral	5 mg	57-80 days	General	QOL-uniscale	Megestrol acetate(active control)	-0.20 (-0.43 to 0.02)
López-Sendón (2016) ⁵⁷	26	Crossover	Funded (partial)	HD	Safety	Sativex	Oromucosal	30 mg	12 weeks	Mental	HADS-D	Placebo	-0.11 (-0.43 to 0.21)
Novotna (2011) ⁷³	241	Parallel	Sponsored	MS	Spasticity	Sativex	Oromucosal	Max 30 mg	12 weeks	Both	BDI;EQ-5D index	Placebo; intervention	-0.02 (-0.28 to 0.24); 0.08 (-0.17 to 0.33)
Peball (2020) ⁷⁴	38	Parallel	Drug provided	PD	Nonmotor symptoms	Nabilone	Oral	2 mg	4 weeks	Both	HADS-A;PDQ-39	Placebo; intervention	-0.08 (-0.72 to 0.56); 0.00 (-0.63 to 0.64)
Portenoy (2012) ⁹⁸	282	Parallel	Funded	Advanced cancer	Pain	Sativex	Oromucosal	Max 40 mg	7 weeks	Both	MADRS;PAC-QOL	Placebo; intervention	-0.25 (-0.52 to 0.03); 0.11 (-0.15 to 0.38)
Rog (2005) ⁹⁹	65	Parallel	Sponsored, contributed to study design, provided medication, and collected data	MS	Pain	Sativex	Oromucosal	Max 120 mg	5 weeks	Mental	HADS-A	Intervention	0.22 (-0.27 to 0.70)
Strasser (2006) ¹⁰⁰	134	Parallel	No	Cancer	Anorexia-cachexia syndrome	Cannabis extract (CBD;THC and THC)	Oral	2.5 mg	6 weeks	General	EORTC-QLQ-C30, global health	Intervention	-0.00 (-0.42 to 0.41)
Svendsen (2004) ⁵⁶	24	Crossover	Drug provided	MS	Pain	Dronabinol	Oral	Max 10 mg	3 weeks	Both	SF-36, mental health and general health	Intervention*; placebo	0.50 (0.08 to 0.92); -0.03 (-0.31 to 0.26)

(continued)

Table 1. Continued

Author (year) ^{Ref.}	n	Design	Pharmaceutical involvement	Patient population	Primary outcome	Intervention type	Administration rout	Dose/day	Intervention duration	QoL type	Instrument	Favors	Hedges' g (95% CI)
Turcott (2018) ⁵³	20	Parallel	Drug provided	Lung cancer	Appetite, nutritional status, and QoL	Nabilone	Oral	1 mg	8 weeks	Both	EORTC-QLQ-C30, emotional well-being and global health	Placebo; placebo	-0.07 (-0.96 to 0.81); -0.25 (-1.13 to 0.64)
Wade (2004) ¹⁰¹	155	Parallel	Funded	MS	MS symptoms	Sativex	Oromucosal	Max 75 mg	6 weeks	Both	BDI;GHQ-30	Placebo; placebo	-0.12 (-0.44 to 0.19); -0.12 (-0.44 to 0.20)
Weber (2010) ⁵⁵	27	Crossover	No	ALS	Cramps	Dronabinol	Oral	10 mg	2 weeks	Both	HADS;ALSAQ-40	Placebo; placebo	-0.15 (-0.66 to 0.36); -0.09 (-0.41 to 0.23)
Zajicek (2003) ¹⁰²	446	Parallel	No	MS	Spasticity	Cannabis abstract (CBD:THC) and Dronabinol	Oral	Max 25 mg	14 weeks	General	GHQ-30	Intervention	0.02 (-0.16 to 0.20)
Zajicek (2012) ¹⁰³	277	Parallel	Funded	MS	Muscle stiffness	THC	Oral	Max 75 mg	12 weeks	Mental	MSIS-29, psychological impact	Intervention	0.11 (-0.13 to 0.34)

*p < 0.05.

AD, Alzheimer's disease; ALS, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis; ALSAQ-40, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Assessment Questionnaire; BAL, Beck Anxiety Inventory; BDI, Beck Depression Inventory; CBD, cannabidiol; CI, confidence interval; EORTC-QLQ-C30, EORTC Cancer Quality-of-Life Questionnaire Core 30; EQ-5D, EuroQol Five Dimensions Health Questionnaire; GHQ-30, General Health Questionnaire; HADS, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale; HADS-A, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale-Anxiety Subscale; HADS-D, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale-Depression Subscale; HD, Huntington disease; MADRS, Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale; MS, multiple sclerosis; MSIS, Multiple Sclerosis Impact Scale; n, number of patients; PAC-QOL, Patient Assessment of Constipation-Quality of Life; PD, Parkinson's Disease; PDQ, Parkinson's Disease Questionnaire-39; QOL-AD, Quality of Life in Alzheimer's Disease; SF-36, 36-Item Short Form Survey; THC, tetrahydrocannabinol.

Meta-analysis

General HRQoL. There was no significant difference between intervention and control groups in general HRQoL based on 12 studies with a total of 1771 patients ($g = -0.02$ [95% CI -0.11 to 0.06]; $p = 0.57$; Fig. 2). Heterogeneity was negligible ($I^2 = 0.0\%$). Egger's test did not indicate the presence of publication bias ($p = 0.74$).

Mental well-being. Cannabinoids did not significantly affect mental well-being based on 12 studies with a total of 1613 patients ($g = -0.02$ [95% CI -0.16 to 0.13]; $p = 0.81$; Fig. 3). Heterogeneity was negligible ($I^2 = 23.7\%$). One small study did report a beneficiary effect of THC on mental well-being.⁵⁶ Egger's test did not indicate the presence of publication bias ($p = 0.20$).

Subgroup analyses. No significant difference in outcome was observed between cancer ($n = 4$; 747 patients) and CNS disease ($n = 8$; 1024 patients) populations ($Q = 0.32$; $p = 0.57$; Fig. 4A) in the general HRQoL analysis. In mental well-being, there were too few studies investigating cancer ($n = 2$) to perform subgroup analyses.

We also analyzed subgroups based on intervention method. There were only two small studies that investigated CBD separately, so these study were not included in the intervention subgroup analysis in both general HRQoL and mental well-being. The effect of THC combined with CBD ($n = 5$; 1258 patients;

$g = 0.03$) significantly differed from the effect of THC alone ($n = 6$; 462 patients; $g = -0.12$; Fig. 4B; $Q = 7.92$; $p = 0.0049$) in general HRQoL. However, neither intervention significantly affected HRQoL. There was no significant difference between the effect of CBD:THC ($n = 5$; 769 patients) and THC ($n = 6$; 798 patients) on mental well-being ($Q = 1.25$; $p = 0.26$; Fig. 4C).

Risk of bias. Differences between reviewers were few and mostly arose from one of the reviewers overlooking information such as differences in baseline characteristics. All inconsistencies were easily resolved by mutual agreement. Five studies had a low risk of bias, 2 studies raised some concerns, and 10 studies had a high risk of bias (Fig. 5). This high risk of bias was mainly in the domain of outcome measurement: PROs can be easily influenced by adverse events, especially when adverse events are psychoactive, as is the case with THC. The studies that investigated CBD without THC had indeed a low risk of bias in this domain.

Discussion

In this meta-analysis, we aimed to assess the effects of cannabinoids on HRQoL in oncological patients and patients with CNS disease. These studies did not show an effect of cannabinoids on HRQoL. Only one small crossover study in MS patients observed an improvement of THC on mental well-being.⁵⁶ The

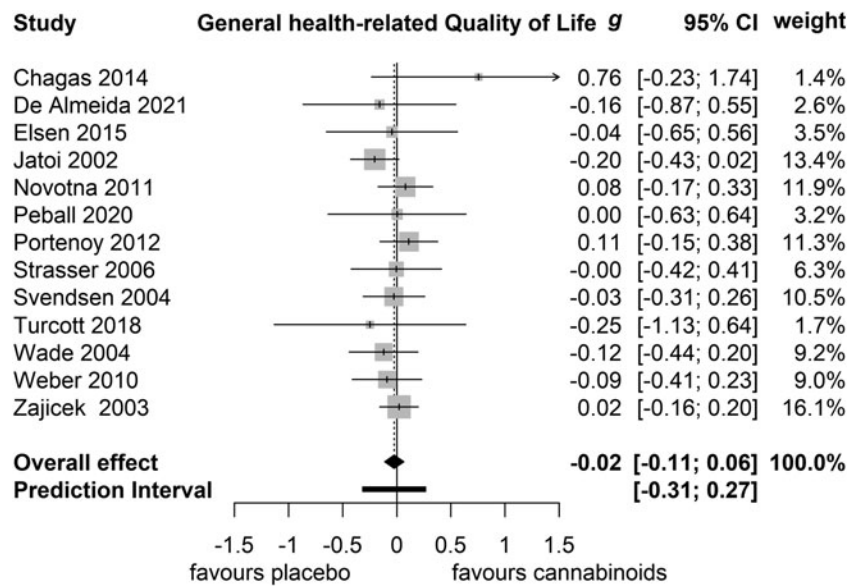


FIG. 2. General HRQoL. *g*, Hedges'g. HRQoL, health-related quality of life.

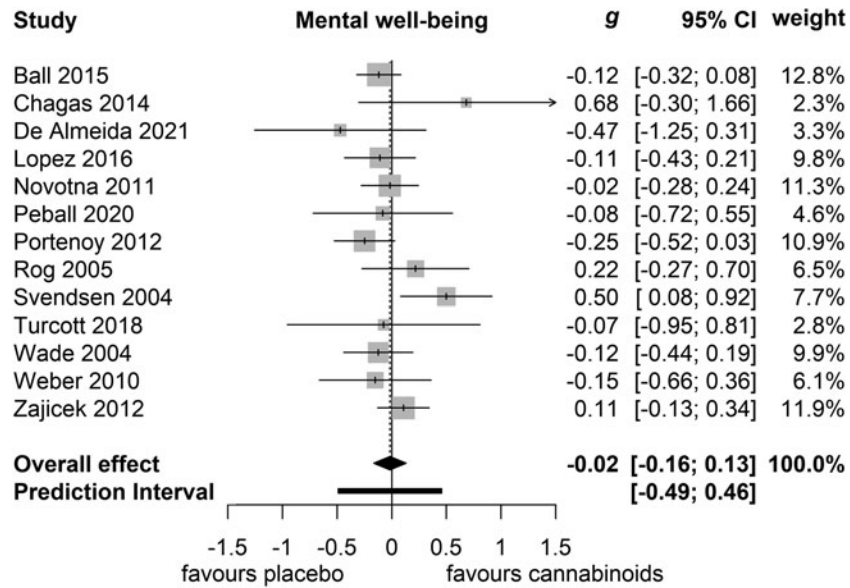


FIG. 3. Mental well-being, *g*, Hedges' *g*.

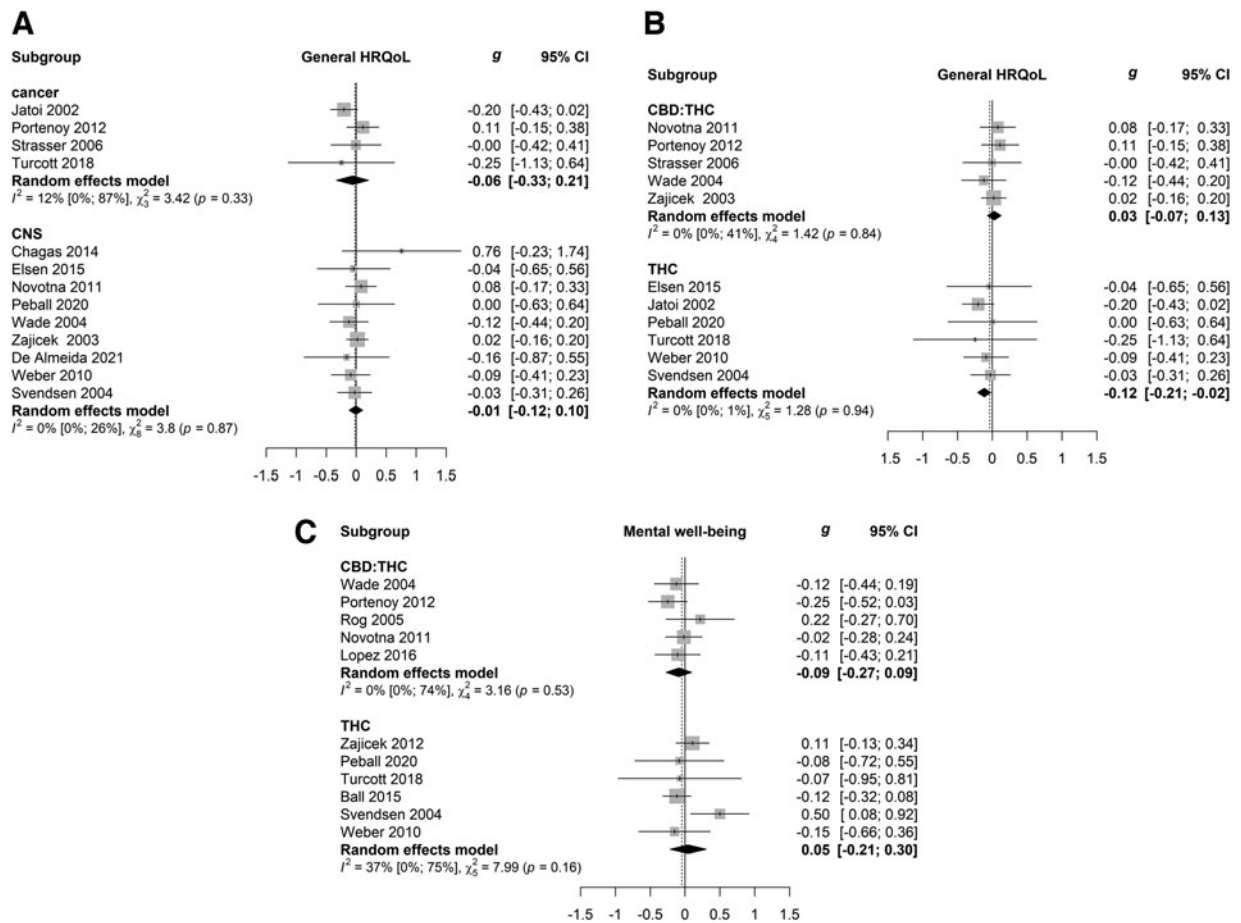


FIG. 4. Subgroup analyses. **(A)** General HRQoL, subgroups cancer and CNS; **(B)** general HRQoL, subgroups CBD:THC and THC; **(C)** mental well-being subgroups CBD:THC and THC. CBD, cannabidiol; CNS, central nervous system disease; THC, tetrahydrocannabinol.

	Risk of bias domains					
	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	Overall
Ball 2015	+	+	X	X	+	X
Chagas 2014	-	+	+	+	+	-
De Almeida 2021	+	+	-	+	+	-
Jatoi 2002	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lopez-Sendon 2016	+	+	+	X	+	X
Novotna 2011	+	+	+	X	+	X
Peball 2020	+	+	+	+	+	+
Portenoy 2012	+	+	-	X	+	X
Rog 2005	+	+	+	X	+	X
Strasser 2006	+	+	+	+	+	+
Svensen 2004	+	+	+	X	+	X
Turcott 2018	-	+	+	X	+	X
van den Elsen 2015	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wade 2004	+	+	+	X	+	X
Weber 2010	+	+	+	+	+	+
Zajicek 2003	+	+	-	X	+	X
Zajicek 2012	+	+	+	X	+	X

Study

Domains:
D1: Bias arising from the randomization process.
D2: Bias due to deviations from intended intervention.
D3: Bias due to missing outcome data.
D4: Bias in measurement of the outcome.
D5: Bias in selection of the reported result.

Judgement
X High
- Some concerns
+ Low

FIG. 5. Risk of bias.

primary outcome measure in this study was pain, which did improve with THC. Possibly, the improved mental well-being was secondary to pain reduction.

Our inability to find an association between cannabinoids and HRQoL improvement in patients with

cancer or CNS disease could have several explanations. First, a true effect may not exist—the previously reported subjective reduction of symptoms being entirely due to placebo effects. Moreover, the self-retrieved cannabinoids that patients use and consider beneficial

might be different from that in clinical or research setting.⁶² Second, a true effect may be present, but not revealed due to suboptimal dosage, route of administration, or composition of cannabinoids. A biphasic effect for THC has been established in both pre-clinical and clinical studies: depending on the dose, THC seems to increase as well as decrease psychological complaints such as anxiety.^{63–66}

In this meta-analysis, doses ranging from 1 mg to max 120 mg were investigated. Contrary to THC, CBD attenuates anxiety in both pre-clinical and clinical studies.^{67–69} The addition of CBD to THC might even prevent serious adverse effects from THC, such as paranoid psychosis.^{70,71} An optimal dose of THC or CBD has not been established. Third, a true effect may have been present, but measured with metrics insensitive to changes brought about by cannabinoids. Specific symptom measurements could possibly be more sensitive to cannabinoid effects than general HRQoL assessments. In the studies we retrieved, various general instruments were used, typically covering multiple domains.

The effects of cannabinoids would have to be large and affect multiple domains to show an improvement on these scales. Symptom-specific questionnaires such as the State and Trait anxiety Inventory (STAI) or the BDI are more sensitive to small changes in these subdomains and may better capture relevant changes. In addition, the majority of these studies did not assess HRQoL as a primary end-point; hence, many studies were not powered to detect HRQoL changes. Fourth, a true effect may have been present, but only in a small subgroup of responders, whereas many patients were nonresponders. For example, ~50% of patients with spasticity have been shown to be a nonresponder to cannabinoids.⁷² The wide CIs observed in some of the studies could support such an explanation.

However, two studies included in this meta-analysis did try to separate responders from nonresponders before the start of the main trial. The double-blind, placebo-controlled phase of these studies was preceded by a single-blind phase and an open-label phase, after which the patients who did not show enough improvement on the primary outcome measure were excluded from the second phase.^{73,74} Even though only the cannabinoid responders were included in the main phase of both studies, no significant effect was found on either general HRQoL or mental well-being. The primary objectives, spasticity and nonmotor symptoms in PD, respectively, did improve.

Our results are corroborated by other RCTs in these populations: of an additional 15 studies that could not

be included in the meta-analysis due to insufficient data reporting, only 1 study found cannabinoids improved mental well-being significantly.⁴³ However, the authors comment that this change was offset by the worsening of another outcome to measure HRQoL, that is, the patient's global impression of change. No other study showed a (trend toward) significant effect on general HRQoL or mental well-being.^{36–42,44–50} However, a previously published extensive systematic review and meta-analysis on the effects of cannabinoids on mental disorders presented very low-grade evidence that THC:CBD reduces anxiety.⁷⁵

Of note, the authors could not include three RCTs due to insufficient data reporting, and hypothesize that including these studies would have resulted in a nonsignificant pooled effect. THC did improve anxiety symptoms in one included open-label study with five patients^{75,76}; monotherapy CBD did not improve anxiety based on two RCTs.⁷⁵ In addition, cannabinoids did not improve depressive symptoms.

Cannabinoids are frequently used, presumably to reduce symptoms and consequently potentially improve HRQoL. For example, in Seattle, where cannabis is legal, almost a quarter of cancer patients use cannabis.⁷⁷ Cannabinoids are also frequently used by MS patients: a nationwide survey in the United States of >1000 respondents showed that 42% of MS patients recently used cannabis. Of this group, >90% reported the use of cannabis for medical reasons, such as pain or anxiety relief.⁷⁸ In three observational studies, some beneficial effects of cannabinoids were reported: a prospective study of 1144 cancer patients showed that after 6 months of medical cannabis use, the percentage of patients with a good HRQoL had increased from <20% to ~70%.⁷⁹

The second study was a survey study in which patients reported an anxiolytic effect of medical cannabis.⁸⁰ The third study of >250 patients showed that HRQoL, anxiety, and depression improved after 3 weeks of CBD use. However, these observational studies lack a comparison to control for placebo effects, which are likely to occur. Moreover, a population bias could complicate these results even further as these patients themselves initiated cannabinoid use.

Considerably, heterogeneous patient populations, interventions, and outcome measures were included in this meta-analysis. The subgroup analyses, however, did not indicate differences between active intervention and control group in mental well-being or general HRQoL, except for a difference between the effects of THC and CBD:THC on general HRQoL, but not on

mental well-being. CBD:THC did not decrease or increase HRQoL, and THC had only a small, possibly futile negative effect on general HRQoL.

In our efforts to obtain data from individual patients, we had to exclude almost half of the eligible studies due to limited reports and an inability to obtain these data through the authors. Poor reporting on outcome is a well-described phenomenon and might be even more frequent with HRQoL outcomes, corroborating our findings.^{81–84} Response rates of authors in our study were similar to rates reported by others.^{85,86} We have the impression that corresponding authors of investigator-initiated studies were more inclined to share their data than authors of industry-sponsored studies, possibly reinforced by the absence of effects on HRQoL or mental well-being. Alternative explanations may be that industry regulations prohibit sharing of these data, or that resources are limited to retrieve and provide such data.

Strengths of this meta-analysis include the application of a rigorous search strategy and study selection without restrictions for publication date, language, or publication type. To limit assumptions and thereby risk of bias, only RCTs were included, and data were not imputed. To further improve the study selection, two raters assessed the suitability of studies for inclusion and determined their risk of bias. All extracted data were verified by a second assessor. Limitations consist of inclusion of studies for analysis, which did not have HRQoL as a primary end-point by design. Also, various metrics were analyzed, which we conceptually compared by analyzing the standardized mean differences. Nevertheless, these metrics may not have been sensitive enough to detect small changes.

Furthermore, we combined intervention groups, which may have resulted in neglecting differences between THC and CBD:THC, or between different dosages of certain interventions. We favored to include all potentially useful information over restriction to a very specific administration and dosage of interventions.

Also, many included studies showed a high risk of bias. The main problem is the frequent occurrence of psychoactive (adverse) effects from THC, but not from the placebo, which may result in unblinding. Especially, in the context of PROs, patient knowledge on active and placebo treatment holds a high risk of bias. One strategy to overcome this problem is the use of CBD instead of THC, as psychoactive effects are lacking.

We did not assess adverse effects as they have been extensively investigated in earlier studies.^{63,87–89} The reported adverse effects in the included studies were generally mild.

However, the literature reports that especially THC can have infrequent, but serious adverse effects, including paranoid psychosis and anxiety, which could affect HRQoL.⁹⁰ Adverse effects of high doses of CBD are generally mild and include elevated liver enzymes and sedation.⁹¹

Clinical implications for brain tumor patients

Although patients with a primary brain tumor share some characteristics with patients with cancer or CNS disease, our findings are only indicative: there are of course dissimilarities between these populations. For example, anxiety is more frequently reported by patients with primary malignant brain tumor than in those with other cancer types or MS.^{9,92–94} This may be related to malignant primary brain tumor prognosis. Moreover, many metrics in this meta-analysis were disease specific, thereby taking into account factors possibly less relevant for glioma, such as rigidity or bladder control. Therefore, the effect of cannabinoids, in particular CBD, on well-being in patients with a primary brain tumor remains elusive. Our findings emphasize the need for well-designed studies to investigate these effects, preferably including disease-specific questionnaires such as the EORTC QLQ-BN20 (quality of life brain tumor module).⁹⁵

Conclusion

This meta-analysis of RCTs showed no effect of cannabinoids on HRQoL and mental well-being in patients with cancer or CNS disease based on 17 randomized controlled studies in 1771 and 1613 patients, respectively. However, studies were clinically heterogeneous and only two small studies investigated monotherapy CBD with undecided results. As many primary brain tumor patients currently use cannabinoids, and monotherapy CBD has not been sufficiently investigated, future studies are necessary to evaluate the efficacy of cannabinoids in HRQoL in this specific population.

Authors' Contributions

All authors read and approved the article. Literature search and selection: V.B., J.C.F.K., and J.G.R. Quality appraisal: V.B. and J.G.R. Data analysis: V.B., P.M.v.d.V., and J.G.R. Article draft and revisions: V.B., J.G.R., L.D., M.K., M.C.M.K., P.C.d.W.H., T.W., M.E.v.L., J.M.N., J.L.-S., K.B.S., M.G.O.R., M.W., C.M.O.d.A., and O.A. Data provision: J.L.-S., K.B.S., M.G.O.R., M.W., C.M.O.d.A., and O.A.

Acknowledgment

We would like to thank Yessica Denisse for her critical feedback.

Author Disclosure Statement

Arrieta reports personal fees from Pfizer, grants and personal fees from AstraZeneca, grants and personal fees from Boehringer Ingelheim, personal fees from Lilly, personal fees from Merck, personal fees from Bristol Myers Squibb, and grants and personal fees from Roche, outside the submitted work. The other authors declare no conflict of interests.

Funding Information

This meta-analysis has been funded by the Anita Veldman Foundation (CCA2018-2-17).

Supplementary Material

Supplementary Appendix SA1

References

- Kosiba JD, Maisto SA, Ditre JW. Patient-reported use of medical cannabis for pain, anxiety, and depression symptoms: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Soc Sci Med* 2019;233:181–192; doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.06.005.
- Hornquist JO. Quality of life: Concept and assessment. *Scand J Soc Med* 1989;18(1):69–79; doi: 10.1177/140349489001800111.
- Karimi M, Brazier J. Health, health-related quality of life, and quality of life: What is the difference? *Pharmacoeconomics* 2016;34(7):645–649; doi: 10.1007/s40273-016-0389-9.
- Hays RD, Reeve BB. Measurement and modeling of health-related quality of life. In: *International Encyclopedia of Public Health*. Elsevier Inc.; 2008; pp. 241–252; doi: 10.1016/B978-012373960-5.00336-1.
- Keyes CLM, Myers JM, Kendler KS. The structure of the genetic and environmental influences on mental well-being. *Am J Public Health* 2010;100(12):2379–2384; doi: 10.2105/AJPH.2010.193615.
- Tennant R, Hiller L, Fishwick R, et al. The Warwick-Dinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (WEMWBS): Development and UK Validation. *Health Qual Life Outcomes* 2007;5(63); doi: 10.1186/1477-7525-5-63.
- Gabel N, Altshuler DB, Brezzell A, et al. Health related quality of life in adult low and high-grade glioma patients Using the National Institutes of Health Patient Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System (PROMIS) and Neuro-QOL assessments. *Front Neurol* 2019;10(212):1–8; doi: 10.3389/fneur.2019.00212.
- Bunevicius A, Deltuva VP, Tamasauskas A. Association of pre-operative depressive and anxiety symptoms with five-year survival of glioma and meningioma patients: A prospective cohort study. *Oncotarget* 2017;8(34):57543–57551.
- D'Angelo C, Mirijello A, Leggio L, et al. State and trait anxiety and depression in patients with primary brain tumors before and after surgery: 1-year longitudinal study. *J Neurosurg* 2008;108(2):281–286; doi: 10.3171/JNS/2008/108/2/0281.
- Reblin M, Sahebjam S, Peeri NC, et al. Medical cannabis use in glioma patients treated at a comprehensive cancer center in Florida. *J Palliat Med* 2019;22(10):1202–1207; doi: 10.1089/jpm.2018.0528.
- Bhattacharyya S, Morrison PD, Fusar-Poli P, et al. Opposite effects of δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol and cannabidiol on human brain function and psychopathology. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2010;35(3):764–774; doi: 10.1038/npp.2009.184.
- de Almeida DL, Devi LA. Diversity of molecular targets and signaling pathways for CBD. *Pharmacol Res Perspect* 2020;8(6):e00682; doi: 10.1002/prp2.682.
- Pertwee R. The diverse CB 1 and CB 2 receptor pharmacology of three plant cannabinoids: Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol, cannabidiol and Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol. *Br J Pharmacol* 2008;153(2):199–215; doi: 10.1038/sj.bjpp.0707442.
- Lisboa SF, Gomes FV, Terzian ALB, et al. The endocannabinoid system and anxiety. In: *Vitamins and Hormones*. Academic Press Inc.; 2017; pp. 193–279; doi: 10.1016/bs.vh.2016.09.006.
- Hill KP, Palastro MD, Johnson B, et al. Cannabis and pain: A clinical review. *Cannabis Cannabinoid Res* 2017;2(1):96–104; doi: 10.1089/can.2017.0017.
- World Health Organization. WHO Expert Committee on Drug Dependence Pre-Review: Extracts and Tinctures of Cannabis. Section 4: Therapeutic Use. 2018. Available from: <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/279948/9789241210225-eng.pdf>. [Last accessed: July 13, 2021].
- Allen D. Dronabinol therapy: Central nervous system adverse events in adults with primary brain tumors. *Clin J Oncol Nurs* 2019;23(1):23–26; doi: 10.1188/19.CJON.23-26.
- Schloss J, Lacey J, Sinclair J, et al. A phase 2 randomised clinical trial assessing the tolerability of two different ratios of medicinal cannabis in patients with high grade gliomas. *Front Oncol* 2021;11; doi: 10.3389/fonc.2021.649555.
- Estancial Fernandes CS, Lima MG and Barros MB de A. Emotional problems and health-related quality of life: Population-based study. *Qual Life Res* 2019;28(11):3037–3046; doi: 10.1007/s11136-019-02230-9.
- Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, et al. The PRISMA Statement for Reporting Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: Explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med* 2009;6(7); doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000100.
- Bunevicius A, Tamasauskas S, Deltuva V, et al. Predictors of health-related quality of life in neurosurgical brain tumor patients: Focus on patient-centered perspective. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 2014;156(2):367–374; doi: 10.1007/s00701-013-1930-7.
- Harrer M, Cuijpers P, Furukawa TA, et al. *Doing Meta-Analysis in R: A Hands-on Guide*. 2019. Available from: https://bookdown.org/MathiasHarrer/Doing_Meta_Analysis_in_R [Last accessed: September 1, 2020].
- Torchiano M. Effsize: Efficient Effect Size Computation. 2020. Available from: <https://cran.r-project.org/package=effsize> [Last accessed: January 1, 2021].
- Balduzzi S, Rucker G, Schwarzer G. How to perform a meta-analysis with {R}: A practical tutorial. *Evid Based Ment Health* 2019;22(4):153–160; doi: 10.1136/ebmental-2019-300117.
- Wickham H, Averick M, Bryan J, et al. Welcome to the {tidyverse}. *J Open Source Softw* 2019;4(43):1686; doi: 10.21105/joss.01686.
- Wickham H, François R, Henry L, et al. *Dplyr: A Grammar of Data Manipulation*. 2022. Available from: <https://dplyr.tidyverse.org>, <https://github.com/tidyverse/dplyr>. [Last accessed: January 18, 2021].
- Lüdecke D. Package “Esc.” 2019. Available from: <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/esc/esc.pdf> [Last accessed: November 1, 2020].
- McGuinness L, Higgins J. Risk-of-Bias Visualization (Robvis): An R package and Shiny web app for visualizing risk-of-bias assessments. *Res Synth Methods* 2020;12(1):55–61; doi: 10.1002/jrsm.1411.
- Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, et al. *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 6.1 (Updated September 2020)*. Cochrane; 2020. Available from: www.training.cochrane.org/handbook. [Last accessed: October 12, 2020].
- Hedges LV, Olkin I. *Statistical Methods for Meta-Analysis*. Academic Press: Orlando, Florida; 1985.
- Elbourne DR, Altman DG, Higgins PT, et al. Meta-analyses involving cross-over trials: Methodological issues. *Int J Epidemiol* 2002;31(1):140–149.
- Borenstein M, Hedges L, Rothstein H. *Introduction to Meta-Analysis*. 2007. Available from: <https://www.meta-analysis.com/downloads/Meta%20Analysis%20Fixed%20vs%20Random%20effects.pdf>. [Last accessed: March 30, 2021].
- Egger M, Smith GD, Schneider M, et al. Bias in meta-analysis detected by a simple, graphical test. *Br Med J* 1997;315(7109):629–634; doi: 10.1136/bmj.315.7109.629.
- Patil KD. Cochran's Q test: Exact distribution. *J Am Stat Assoc* 1975;70(349):186–189; doi: 10.1080/01621459.1975.10480285.
- Higgins JPT, Savović J, Page MJ, et al. Revised Cochrane Risk-of-Bias Tool for Randomized Trials (RoB 2). 2019. Available from: <https://methods.cochrane.org/risk-bias-2>. [Last accessed: December 7, 2020].
- Aragona M, Onesti E, Tomassini V, et al. Psychopathological and cognitive effects of therapeutic cannabinoids in multiple sclerosis: A double-blind, placebo controlled, crossover study. *Clin Neuropharmacol* 2009;32(1):41–47; doi: 10.1097/WNF.0b013e3181633497.
- Brisbois TD, de Kock IH, Watanabe SM, et al. Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol may palliate altered chemosensory perception in cancer patients: Results of a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled pilot trial. *Ann Oncol* 2011;22(9):2086–2093; doi: 10.1093/annonc/mdq727.
- Collin C, Ehler E, Waberzinek G, et al. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel-group study of Sativex, in subjects with symptoms of spasticity due to multiple sclerosis. *Neurol Res* 2010;32(5):451–459; doi: 10.1179/016164109X12590518685660.

39. Côté M, Trudel M, Wang C, et al. Improving quality of life with Nabilone during radiotherapy treatments for head and neck cancers: A randomized double-blind placebo-controlled trial. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol* 2016;125(4):317–324; doi: 10.1177/0003489415612801.
40. Kavia R, De Ridder D, Constantinescu C, et al. Randomized controlled trial of Sativex to treat detrusor overactivity in multiple sclerosis. *Mult Scler J* 2010;16(11):1349–1359; doi: 10.1177/1352458510378020.
41. Langford RM, Mares J, Novotna A, et al. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel-group study of THC/CBD oromucosal spray in combination with the existing treatment regimen, in the relief of central neuropathic pain in patients with multiple sclerosis. *J Neurol* 2013;260(4):984–997; doi: 10.1007/s00415-012-6739-4.
42. Lynch ME, Cesar-Rittenberg P, Hohmann AG. A double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover pilot trial with extension using an oral mucosal cannabinoid extract for treatment of chemotherapy-induced neuropathic pain. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2014;47(1):166–173; doi: 10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2013.02.018.
43. Killestein J, Hoogervorst ELJ, Reif M, et al. Brief communications: safety, tolerability, and efficacy of orally administered cannabinoids in MS. *Neurology* 2002;58(9):1404–1406; doi: 10.1212/wnl.58.9.1404.
44. Carroll C, Bain P, Teare L, et al. Cannabis for dyskinesia in Parkinson disease: A randomized double-blind crossover study. *Neurology* 2004; 63(7):1245–1250; doi: 10.1212/01.wnl.0000140288.48796.8e.
45. Schimrigk S, Marziniak M, Neubauer C, et al. Dronabinol is a safe long-term treatment option for neuropathic pain patients. *Eur Neurol* 2017; 78(5–6):320–329; doi: 10.1159/000481089.
46. Hagenbach U, Luz S, Ghafoor N, et al. The treatment of spasticity with Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol in persons with spinal cord injury. *Spinal Cord* 2007;45(8):551–562; doi: 10.1038/sj.sc.3101982.
47. Davies BH, Weatherstone RM, Graham JDP, et al. A pilot study of orally administered Δ 1-trans-tetrahydrocannabinol in the management of patients undergoing radiotherapy for carcinoma of the bronchus. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1974;1(4):301–306; doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2125.1974.tb00257.x.
48. Johnson JR, Burnell-Nugent M, Lossignol D, et al. Multicenter, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel-group study of the efficacy, safety, and tolerability of THC:CBD extract and THC extract in patients with intractable cancer-related pain. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2010;39(2):167–179; doi: 10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2009.06.008.
49. Thiele EA, Bebin EM, Bhathal H, et al. Add-on cannabidiol treatment for drug-resistant seizures in tuberous sclerosis complex: A placebo-controlled randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Neurol* 2021;78(3):285–292; doi: 10.1001/jamaneurol.2020.4607.
50. Marková J, Essner U, Akmaz B, et al. Sativex[®] as add-on therapy vs. further optimized first-line ANTispastics (SAVANT) in resistant multiple sclerosis spasticity: A double-blind, placebo-controlled randomised clinical trial. *Int J Neurosci* 2019;129(2):119–128; doi: 10.1080/00207454.2018.1481066.
51. Chagas MHN, Zuardi AW, Tumas V, et al. Effects of cannabidiol in the treatment of patients with Parkinson's disease: An exploratory double-blind trial. *J Psychopharmacol* 2014;28(11):1088–1098; doi: 10.1177/0269881114550355.
52. López-Sendón Moreno JL, García Caldentey J, Trigo Cubillo P, et al. A double-blind, randomized, cross-over, placebo-controlled, pilot trial with Sativex in Huntington's disease. *J Neurol* 2016;263(7):1390–1400; doi: 10.1007/s00415-016-8145-9.
53. Turcott JG, Rocio M, Núñez G, et al. The effect of Nabilone on appetite, nutritional status, and quality of life in lung cancer patients: A randomized, double-blind clinical trial. *Support Care Cancer* 2018;26(9): 3029–3038; doi: 10.1007/s00520-018-4154-9.
54. van den Elsen GA, Ahmed AI, Verkes R-J, et al. Tetrahydrocannabinol for neuropsychiatric symptoms in dementia: A randomized controlled trial. *Neurology* 2015;84(23):2338–2346; doi: 10.1212/WNL.0000000000001675.
55. Weber M, Goldman B, Truniger S. Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) for cramps in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: A randomised, double-blind crossover trial. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2010;81(10):1135–1140; doi: 10.1136/jnnp.2009.200642.
56. Svendsen KB, Jensen TS, Bach FW. Does the cannabinoid dronabinol reduce central pain in multiple sclerosis? Randomised double blind placebo controlled crossover trial. *Br Med J* 2004;329(7460):1–8; doi: 10.1136/bmj.38149.566979.AE.
57. de Almeida CMO, Brito MMC, Bosaipo NB, et al. Cannabidiol for rapid eye movement sleep behavior disorder. *Mov Disord* 2021;23:1711–1715; doi: 10.1002/mds.28577.
58. Solvay Pharmaceuticals. MARINOL[®] (Dronabinol). 2004. Available from: https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2005/018651s0211bl.pdf [Last accessed: December 1, 2020].
59. GW Pharma Ltd. Sativex Oromucosal Spray—Summary of Product Characteristics (SmPC). 2020. Available from: <https://www.medicines.org.uk/emc/product/602/smpc/print> [Last accessed: December 1, 2020].
60. Valeant Pharmaceuticals International. CESAMET[™] (Nabilone) Capsules. 2006. Available from: https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2006/018677s0111bl.pdf [Last accessed: December 1, 2020].
61. Jatoi A, Windschitl HE, Loprinzi CL, et al. Dronabinol versus megestrol acetate versus combination therapy for cancer-associated anorexia: A North Central Cancer Treatment Group Study. *J Clin Oncol* 2002;20(2): 567–573; doi: 10.1200/JCO.2002.20.2.567.
62. Schrot RJ, Hubbard JR. Cannabinoids: Medical implications. *Ann Med* 2016;48(3):128–141; doi: 10.3109/07853890.2016.1145794.
63. Andrade C. Cannabis and neuropsychiatry, 1: Benefits and risks. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2016;77(5):e551–e554; doi: 10.4088/JCP.16f10841.
64. Martin-Santos R, Crippa JA, Batalla A, et al. Acute effects of a single, oral dose of D9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD) administration in healthy volunteers. *Curr Pharm Des* 2012;18(32): 4966–4979.
65. Harte-Hargrove LC, Dow-Edwards DL. Withdrawal from THC during adolescence: Sex differences in locomotor activity and anxiety. *Behav Brain Res* 2012;231(1):48–59; doi: 10.1016/j.bbr.2012.02.048.
66. Rubino T, Realini N, Castiglioni C, et al. Role in anxiety behavior of the endocannabinoid system in the prefrontal cortex. *Cereb Cortex* 2008; 18(6):1292–1301; doi: 10.1093/cercor/bhm161.
67. Blessing EM, Steenkamp MM, Manzanera J, et al. Cannabidiol as a potential treatment for anxiety disorders. *Neurotherapeutics* 2015;12(4): 825–836; doi: 10.1007/s13311-015-0387-1.
68. Bergamaschi MM, Queiroz RHC, Chagas MHN, et al. Cannabidiol reduces the anxiety induced by simulated public speaking in treatment-naïve social phobia patients. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2011;36(6):1219–1226; doi: 10.1038/npp.2011.6.
69. Crippa JAS, Nogueira Derenusso G, Borduqui Ferrari T, et al. Neural basis of anxiolytic effects of cannabidiol (CBD) in generalized social anxiety disorder: A preliminary report. *J Psychopharmacol* 2011;25(1): 121–130; doi: 10.1177/0269881110379283.
70. Niesink RJM, van Laar MW. Does cannabidiol protect against adverse psychological effects of THC? *Front Psychiatry* 2013;4:1–8; doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2013.00130.
71. Hudson R, Renard J, Norris C, et al. Cannabidiol counteracts the psychotropic side-effects of Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol in the ventral hippocampus through bidirectional control of ERK1-2 phosphorylation. *J Neurosci* 2019;39(44):8762–8777; doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0708-19.2019.
72. Saccà F, Pane C, Carotenuto A, et al. The use of medical-grade cannabis in patients non-responders to Nabiximols. *J Neurol Sci* 2016;368:349–351; doi: 10.1016/j.jns.2016.07.059.
73. Novotna A, Mares J, Ratcliffe S, et al. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, parallel-group, enriched-design study of Nabiximols[®] (Sativex[®]), as add-on therapy, in subjects with refractory spasticity caused by multiple sclerosis. *Eur J Neurol* 2011;18(9):1122–1131; doi: 10.1111/j.1468-1331.2010.03328.x.
74. Peball M, Krismer F, Knaus H, et al. Non-motor symptoms in Parkinson's disease are reduced by Nabilone. *Ann Neurol* 2020;88(4):712–722; doi: 10.1002/ana.25864.
75. Black N, Stockings E, Campbell G, et al. Cannabinoids for the treatment of mental disorders and symptoms of mental disorders: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2019;6(12):995–1010; doi: 10.1016/S2215-0366(19)30401-8.
76. Fabre LF, McLendon D. The efficacy and safety of Nabilone (a synthetic cannabinoid) in the treatment of anxiety. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1981;21(S1): 377S–382S; doi: 10.1002/j.1552-4604.1981.tb02617.x.
77. Pergam SA, Woodfield MC, Lee CM, et al. Cannabis use among patients at a comprehensive cancer center in a state with legalized medicinal and recreational use. *Cancer* 2017;123(22):4488–4497; doi: 10.1002/ncr.30879.
78. Braley TJ, Whibley D, Alschuler KN, et al. Cannabinoid use among Americans with MS: Current trends and gaps in knowledge. *Mult Scler J Exp Transl Clin* 2020;6(3):205521732095981; doi: 10.1177/2055217320959816.
79. Bar-Lev Schleider L, Mechoulam R, Lederman V, et al. Prospective analysis of safety and efficacy of medical cannabis in large unselected

- population of patients with cancer. *Eur J Intern Med* 2018;49:37–43; doi: 10.1016/j.ejim.2018.01.023.
80. Kamal BS, Kamal F, Lantela DE. Cannabis and the anxiety of fragmentation—A systems approach for finding an anxiolytic cannabis chemotype. *Front Neurosci* 2018;12(October); doi: 10.3389/fnins.2018.00730.
 81. Dwan K, Gamble C, Williamson PR, et al. Systematic review of the empirical evidence of study publication bias and outcome reporting bias—An updated review. *PLoS One* 2013;8(7); doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0066844.
 82. Kirkham JJ, Dwan KM, Altman DG, et al. The impact of outcome reporting bias in randomised controlled trials on a cohort of systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2010;340(7747):637–640; doi: 10.1136/bmj.c365.
 83. Chan A-W, Altman DG. Identifying outcome reporting bias in randomised trials on PubMed: Review of publications and survey of authors. *BMJ* 2005;330(7494):753; doi: 10.1136/bmj.38356.424606.8f.
 84. Schandelmaier S, Conen K, von Elm E, et al. Planning and reporting of quality-of-life outcomes in cancer trials. *Ann Oncol* 2015;26(9):1966–1973; doi: 10.1093/annonc/mdv283.
 85. Wicherts JM, Borsboom D, Kats J, et al. The poor availability of psychological research data for reanalysis. *Am Psychol* 2006;61(7):726–728; doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.61.7.726.
 86. Selph SS, Ginsburg AD, Chou R. Impact of contacting study authors to obtain additional data for systematic reviews: Diagnostic accuracy studies for hepatic fibrosis. *Syst Rev* 2014;3(1); doi: 10.1186/2046-4053-3-107.
 87. Chesney E, Oliver D, Green A, et al. Adverse effects of cannabidiol: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2020;45(11):1799–1806; doi: 10.1038/s41386-020-0667-2.
 88. Huestis MA, Solimini R, Pichini S, et al. Cannabidiol adverse effects and toxicity. *Curr Neuropharmacol* 2019;17(10):974–989; doi: 10.2174/1570159x17666190603171901.
 89. Kowal M, Hazekamp A, Grotenhermen F. Review on clinical studies with cannabis and cannabinoids 2010–2014. *Cannabinoids* 2016;11(special issue):1–18. (https://www.researchgate.net/publication/295401042_Review_on_clinical_studies_with_cannabis_and_cannabinoids_2010-2014)
 90. Hindley G, Beck K, Borgan F, et al. Psychiatric symptoms caused by cannabis constituents: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2020;7(4):344–353; doi: 10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30074-2.
 91. GW Pharmaceuticals. Epidyolex Summary of Product Characteristics. n.d. Available from: https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/product-information/epidyolex-epar-product-information_en.pdf [last accessed: February 10, 2021].
 92. Noll KR, Bradshaw ME, Weinberg JS, et al. Relationships between neurocognitive functioning, mood, and quality of life in patients with temporal lobe glioma. *Psychooncology* 2017;26(5):617–624; doi: 10.1002/pon.4046.
 93. Linden W, Vodermaier A, Mackenzie R, et al. Anxiety and depression after cancer diagnosis: Prevalence rates by cancer type, gender, and age. *J Affect Disord* 2020;141(2–3):343–351; doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2012.03.025.
 94. Boeschoten RE, Braamse AMJ, Beekman ATF, et al. Prevalence of depression and anxiety in multiple sclerosis: A systematic review and metaanalysis. *J Neurol Sci* 2017;372:331–341; doi: 10.1016/j.jns.2016.11.067.
 95. Bitterlich C, Vordermark D. Analysis of health-related quality of life in patients with brain tumors prior and subsequent to radiotherapy. *Oncol Lett* 2017;14(2):1841–1846; doi: 10.3892/ol.2017.6310.
 96. Ball S, Vickery J, Hobart J, et al. The cannabinoid use in progressive inflammatory brain disease (CUPIID) trial: A randomised double-blind placebo-controlled parallel-group multicentre trial and economic evaluation of cannabinoids to slow progression in multiple sclerosis. *Health Technol Assess (Rockv)* 2015;19(12):1–187; doi: 10.3310/hta19120.
 97. López-Sendón Moreno JL, García Caldentey J, Trigo Cubillo P, et al. A double-blind, randomized, cross-over, placebo-controlled, pilot trial with sativex in huntington's disease. *J Neurol* 2016;263(7):1390–1400; doi: 10.1007/s00415-016-8145-9.
 98. Portenoy RK, Ganae-Motan ED, Allende S, et al. Nabiximols for opioid-treated cancer patients with poorly-controlled chronic pain: A randomized, placebo-controlled, graded-dose trial. *J Pain* 2012;13(5):438–449; doi: 10.1016/j.jpain.2012.01.003.
 99. Rog DJ, Nurmikko TJ, Friede T, et al. Randomized, controlled trial of cannabis-based medicine in central pain in multiple sclerosis. *Neurology* 2005;65(6):812–819; doi: 10.1212/01.wnl.0000176753.45410.8b.
 100. Strasser F, Luftner D, Possinger K, et al. Comparison of orally administered cannabis extract and delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol in treating patients with cancer-related anorexia-cachexia syndrome: A multicenter, phase III, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial from the cannabi. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24(21):3394–3400; doi: 10.1200/JCO.2005.05.1847.
 101. Wade DT, Makela P, Robson P, et al. Do cannabis-based medicinal extracts have general or specific effects on symptoms in multiple sclerosis? A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study on 160 patients. *Mult Scler J* 2004;10(4):434–441; doi: 10.1191/1352458504ms1082oa.
 102. Zajicek J, Fox P, Sanders H, et al. Cannabinoids for treatment of spasticity and other symptoms related to multiple sclerosis (CAMS Study): Multicentre randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* 2003;362(9395):1517–1526; doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(03)14738-1.
 103. Zajicek JP, Hobart JC, Slade A, et al. Multiple sclerosis and extract of cannabis: Results of the MUSEC trial. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2012;83(11):1125–1132; doi: 10.1136/jnnp-2012-302468.

Cite this article as: Belgers V, Röttgering JG, Douw L, Klein M, Ket JCF, van de Ven PM, Würdinger T, van Linde ME, Niers JM, Weber M, Olde Rikkert MG, Lopez-Sendon J, Arrieta O, Svendsen KB, Chagas MHN, de Almeida CMO, Kouwenhoven MCM, de Witt Hamer PC (2023) Cannabinoids to improve health-related quality of life in patients with neurological or oncological disease: a meta-analysis, *Cannabis and Cannabinoid Research* 8:1, 41–55, DOI: 10.1089/can.2021.0187.

Abbreviations Used

AD	= Alzheimer's disease
ALS	= Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis
ALSAQ-40	= Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Assessment Questionnaire
BAI	= Beck Anxiety Inventory
BDI	= Beck Depression Inventory
CBD	= cannabidiol
CI	= confidence interval
CNS	= central nervous system
EORTC-QLQ-C30	= EORTC Cancer Quality of Life Questionnaire-Core 30
EQ-5D	= EuroQol Five Dimensions Health Questionnaire
GHQ-30	= General Health Questionnaire
HD	= Huntington disease
HADS	= Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale
HADS-A	= Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale-Anxiety Subscale
HADS-D	= Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale-Depression Subscale
HRQoL	= health-related quality of life
MADRS	= Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale
MS	= multiple sclerosis
MSIS	= Multiple Sclerosis Impact Scale
PAC-QOL	= Patient Assessment of Constipation-Quality of Life
PD	= Parkinson's Disease
PDQ	= Parkinson's Disease Questionnaire-39
PRO	= patient-reported outcome
QOL-AD	= Quality of Life in Alzheimer's Disease
RCTs	= randomized controlled trials
SD	= standard deviation
SF-36	= 36-Item Short Form Survey
STAI	= State and Trait anxiety Inventory
THC	= tetrahydrocannabinol