

Research Report

Cannabis in Parkinson's Disease: The Patients' View

Ferhat Yenilmez, Odette Fründt, Ute Hidding and Carsten Buhmann*

Department of Neurology, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany

Accepted 19 October 2020

Abstract.

Background: Little is known about the patients' view on treatment with medical cannabis (MC) for Parkinson's disease (PD).

Objective: To assess the PD community's perception of MC and patients' experience with MC.

Methods: Applying a questionnaire-based survey, we evaluated general knowledge and interest in MC as well as the frequency, modalities, efficacy, and tolerability of application. Questionnaires were distributed nationwide via the membership journal of the German Parkinson Association and locally in our clinic to control for report bias.

Results: Overall, 1.348 questionnaires (1.123 nationwide, 225 local) were analysed. 51% of participants were aware of the legality of MC application, 28% of various routes of administration (ROA) and 9% of the difference between delta9-tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ^9 -THC) and cannabidiol (CBD). PD-related cannabis use was reported by 8.4% of patients and associated with younger age, living in large cities and better knowledge about the legal and clinical aspects of MC. Reduction of pain and muscle cramps was reported by more than 40% of cannabis users. Stiffness/akinesia, freezing, tremor, depression, anxiety and restless legs syndrome subjectively improved for more than 20% and overall tolerability was good. Improvement of symptoms was reported by 54% of users applying oral CBD and 68% inhaling THC-containing cannabis. Compared to CBD intake, inhalation of THC was more frequently reported to reduce akinesia and stiffness (50.0% vs. 35.4%; $p < 0.05$). Interest in using MC was reported by 65% of non-users.

Conclusion: MC is considered as a therapeutic option by many PD patients. Nevertheless, efficacy and different ROA should further be investigated.

Keywords: Cannabis, THC, cannabidiol, Parkinson's disease, therapy, survey, patient

INTRODUCTION

Since 2017, medical cannabis (MC) is legally approved in Germany as a therapeutic option for patients with severe symptoms of Parkinson's disease (PD), when previous therapies were unsuccessful or not tolerated, and a positive effect of cannabis on disabling symptoms is imaginable. In these cases, MC can be

prescribed and is reimbursed by public and private health insurances.

The psychotropic delta9-tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ^9 -THC) and the non-psychotropic cannabidiol (CBD) are the commonest phytocannabinoids in Cannabis sativa (marijuana) [1] and play a crucial role for medical application. They act via the cannabinoid receptors 1 (CB-1R) and 2 (CB-2R) as most important receptors of the endocannabinoid system (ECS). However, while Δ^9 -THC activates both CB-1R and CB-2R, recent data suggest that CBD acts as functional antagonist by modulating

*Correspondence to: Prof. Dr. med. Carsten Buhmann, Department of Neurology, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Martinistraße 52, 20246 Hamburg, Germany. E-mail: buhmann@uke.de.

CB-R1 [2] and CB-R2 [3] function. This might explain the lack of detectable psychoactivity of CBD compared to Δ 9-THC. The influence of the ECS has been investigated intensively in parkinsonian models (for review, see [4]). Cannabinoids modulate basal ganglia function on two levels which are especially relevant for levodopa-induced dyskinesia (LID), i.e., the glutamatergic/dopaminergic synaptic neurotransmission and the cortico-striatal plasticity. Furthermore, activation of the ECS might induce neuroprotective effects related to direct receptor-independent mechanisms [5], activation of anti-inflammatory cascades in glial cells via CB-2R [6, 7], and anti-glutamatergic anti-excitotoxic properties [8]. These pathophysiological findings and a few uncontrolled and small controlled clinical studies as well as partly impressive single case reports (reviews [4, 9]) suggest that MC containing THC and/or CBD might have a potential clinical benefit for motor and non-motor symptoms in PD patients. Today, several different cannabis products and formulations are available for medicinal use but there is lack of controlled clinical studies addressing the differential effectiveness in PD (reviews [9, 10]). Cannabis is used by patients either as flowers with a very variable THC content or as extracts (oils or capsules), containing pure THC, pure CBD or both. While in Germany MC containing THC has to be prescribed by the physician, MC with pure CBD can be prescribed but also is freely available at the pharmacy or in internet stores or shops as a food supplement. MC products containing THC and/or CBD vary considerably regarding the percentage of the active ingredient and no standardised dosage is known. Today it is unclear, which type of PD patients and which symptoms might be best treated with MC, whether THC or CBD should be preferred and which route of administration (ROA) should preferentially be used. Furthermore, it is unknown to what extent PD patients are interested in MC at all, whether they are informed about the legal possibility of MC prescription or if they know the difference between cannabis applied as THC or CBD. It is not known, how many patients used already cannabis for PD symptoms relief and how they judged efficiency and tolerability.

This article aims to get some insights into the PD community perception of MC, to get an overview which role MC already plays as treatment in daily life, and to evaluate “the patient’s view” regarding the effect of cannabis application on individual motor- and non-motor symptoms.

METHODS

We performed a nationwide, cross-sectional, questionnaire-based survey among the members of the German Parkinson Association (Deutsche Parkinson Vereinigung e.V. [dPV]), which is the largest consortium of PD patients in German-speaking countries with 20,943 members in total (April 2020).

Patients were asked to complete a self-developed questionnaire (see below) which was embedded in the centre of issue no.148 (13th calendar week of 2019) of the dPV membership magazine with a circulation of 24,000 journals per edition. It was created as a separable survey sheet including general information on the study’s background and a prepaid reply envelope (costs were covered by the dPV). Subjects were asked to answer the questions autonomously and to return the survey anonymously by post until recruitment deadline on May 12, 2019.

Additionally, we consecutively recruited local PD patients who visited our movement disorder outpatient clinic within 6 weeks from March 4 to April 21 in 2019. Subjects were supplied with the same information sheet and asked to fill out the same questionnaire on-site and anonymously before putting it into a closed box. These local patients served as a control group to evaluate whether answers given in the nationwide survey are representative or biased, because PD patients with a special interest in treatment with cannabis products might primarily reply to the nationwide query.

Questionnaire

The self-developed German-speaking questionnaire contains 16 categories of questions composed of 25 single questions. 20 questions were constructed as single choice and five as multiple choice questions. The questionnaire was divided into four sections: 1) “Demographics” with patient and disease characteristics (age, gender, population of the patient’s place of residence, type of Parkinson syndrome, disease duration, currently present symptoms). 2) “Information” to evaluate patient’s knowledge about cannabis and its application in PD; 3) “Experience” to assess whether patients already used cannabis and which type and ROA were applied, and 4) “Efficacy” and “Tolerability” of cannabis application in users (efficacy in general, best type and ROA, efficacy in comparison to dopaminergics, most responsive symptoms, side effects, fear of addiction). Each section was headlined with a short explanation of the general content

of the questions. Questions and answers were also partially described in more detail using brief explanations or examples. For the English translation of the questionnaire, please see Supplementary Fig. 1

Statistics

The statistical evaluation was carried out with the program IBMTM SPSSTM (version 23). Tables and figures were created with SPSSTM and Excel 2003 (MicrosoftTM). The data were evaluated using descriptive statistics and frequency distributions. Pairwise deletion was applied for missing data.

To test whether the nationwide patient sample was representative, answers were compared with the patient data locally collected in our clinic (group comparison). In particular, two hypotheses were tested: that 1) general interest in cannabis use and/or 2) past or present usage of cannabis had led to increased participation in the nationwide study. In order to largely rule out that the local survey in our clinic was not subject to selection bias, a response rate of $>70\%$ of patients consecutively asked for participation was defined as prerequisite.

For group comparisons, the mean values of interval-scaled variables were tested for significance using the *t*-test. For nominally scaled variables, the frequencies were compared and tested for significance with the Pearson χ^2 test. The exact Fisher test was used for expected frequencies <5 .

To assess the influence of patient characteristics on cannabis aspects, binary logistic regression was applied.

For all analyses, levels of significance were set at 5% (p -value <0.05).

Ethics

The study was approved by the local ethics committee of the Medical Council Hamburg (reference number WF-008/19).

Data availability statement

Anonymized data will be shared by request from any qualified investigator.

RESULTS

Response rates

Until deadline, a total of 1,126 of the 24,000 questionnaires sent nationwide was returned. Three

questionnaires were excluded from analysis, one due to missing demographic data, one that reports as free text on an already deceased patient by his wife and one with strongly contradicting combinations of answers. Therefore 1,123 questionnaires (4.7%) were available for statistical analysis.

At our department, 225 of 250 PD patients who were consecutively asked to take part in the study returned the questionnaire (90.0%, i.e., predefined necessary return rate was given). Here, all questionnaires could be used for analysis.

Missing data for different variables of interest was mostly low ($<6\%$), except for questions 12b (10.5%), 13a (21.3%), and 15 (12.4%), but without significant differences ($<7\%$) between the nationwide and local cohort. We therefore assume that data was missing at random and used pairwise deletion for statistical analysis.

Demographics

In total, the data from 1,348 study participants (54.7% male, 45.2% female, 0.1% no answer) were evaluated, containing of 83.3% from the “nationwide” survey ($n = 1,123$) and 16.7% from the “local” survey in our movement disorder outpatient clinic ($n = 225$). Table 1 shows the detailed patient characteristics of both groups together and separately. Mean age was 71.6 (SD ± 8.9 ; range 33-92) years and mean disease duration was 11.6 (SD ± 7.2 ; range 1-42) years. Most of the study participants ($n = 540$) live in places with less than 20,000 inhabitants (40.7%). 879 (65.2%) of subjects reported to suffer from idiopathic Parkinson syndrome (PS). 77 subjects aligned themselves as atypical PS (5.7%), and the other patients did not to know the aetiology of their PS (22.0%), reported “other” aetiology (1.1%) or made no declaration (6.0%).

Demographics of the two study groups were significantly different in some aspects: In the local cohort, male patients predominated, they were younger with shorter disease duration and lived more frequently in places with more than 500,000 inhabitants ($p < 0.001$ for all aspects). Groups did not differ regarding the type of PS.

Clinical symptoms

Figure 1 gives an overview of the participants' PD symptoms. Akinesia, postural disturbance, tremor, muscle cramps and cognitive impairment were reported mostly and were present in $>50\%$

Table 1
Patient characteristics

	Total (n = 1,348)	Nationwide (n = 1,123)	Local clinic (n = 225)	p-value
Gender [% (N)]				
Male	54.7% (737)	51.3% (576)	71.6% (161)	<0.001
Female	45.2% (609)	48.5% (545)	28.4% (64)	
No answer	0.1% (2)	0.2% (2)	0.0% (0)	
Age [y (SD)]	71.6 (±8.9)	72.4 (±8.2)	67.5 (±10.8)	<0.001
Duration of disease [y (SD)]	11.6 (±7.2)	12.0 (±7.1)	9.8 (±7.7)	<0.001
Years since diagnosis [y (SD)]	10.3 (±7.8)	10.6 (±6.8)	8.9 (±6.6)	<0.001
Place of residence (population) [% (n)]				
<20,000	40.1% (540)	41.5% (466)	32.9% (74)	
20,000 – 100,000	26.1% (352)	27.4% (308)	19.6% (44)	<0.001
100,000 – 500,000	15.5% (209)	17.5% (196)	5.8% (13)	
>500,000	16.7% (225)	11.8% (133)	40.9% (92)	
No answer	1.6% (21)	1.7% (19)	0.9% (2)	
Type of Parkinson syndrome (PS) [% (n)]				0.240
Idiopathic PD	65.2% (879)	64.5% (724)	68.9% (155)	
Atypical PS	5.7% (77)	6.0% (67)	4.4% (10)	
“I don't know”	22.0% (296)	21.9% (246)	22.2% (50)	
Other (e.g., genetically)	1.1% (15)	1.3% (15)	0.0% (0)	
No answer	6.0% (81)	6.3% (71)	4.4% (10)	

Note: Data of years are given as mean values; SD, standard deviation.

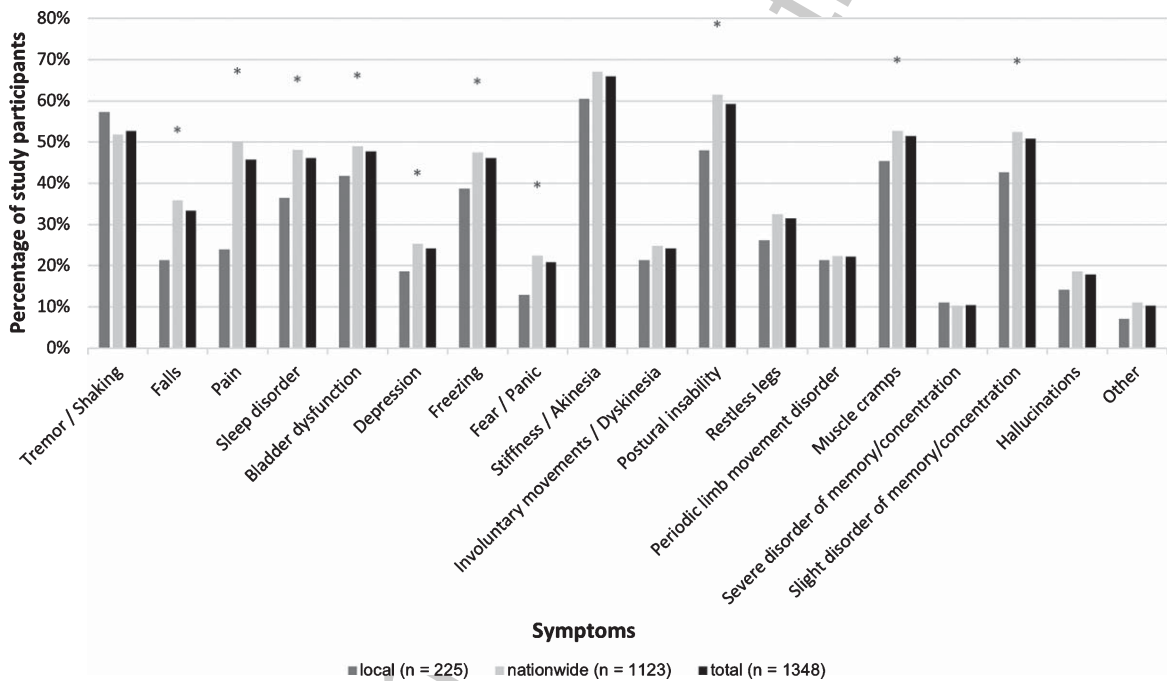


Fig. 1. Clinical symptoms. Self-reported symptoms of all study participants (Multiple answers possible). *significant ($p < 0.05$) for between group comparison (local vs. nationwide).

236 of participants. Overall, 10 out of 17 default clin-
 237 ical symptoms were reported significantly more
 238 frequently in the nationwide group, i.e., postural
 239 instability, falls, pain, sleep disturbance, fear/panic
 240 (all $p \leq 0.001$) and bladder dysfunction, depression,

241 freezing, muscle cramps and slight disorder of mem-
 242 ory (all $p < 0.05$). 140 subjects added symptoms in
 243 the field “other”, with bladder dysfunction ($n = 21$),
 244 nightmares ($n = 21$) and speech disorders ($n = 16$)
 being most frequently reported.

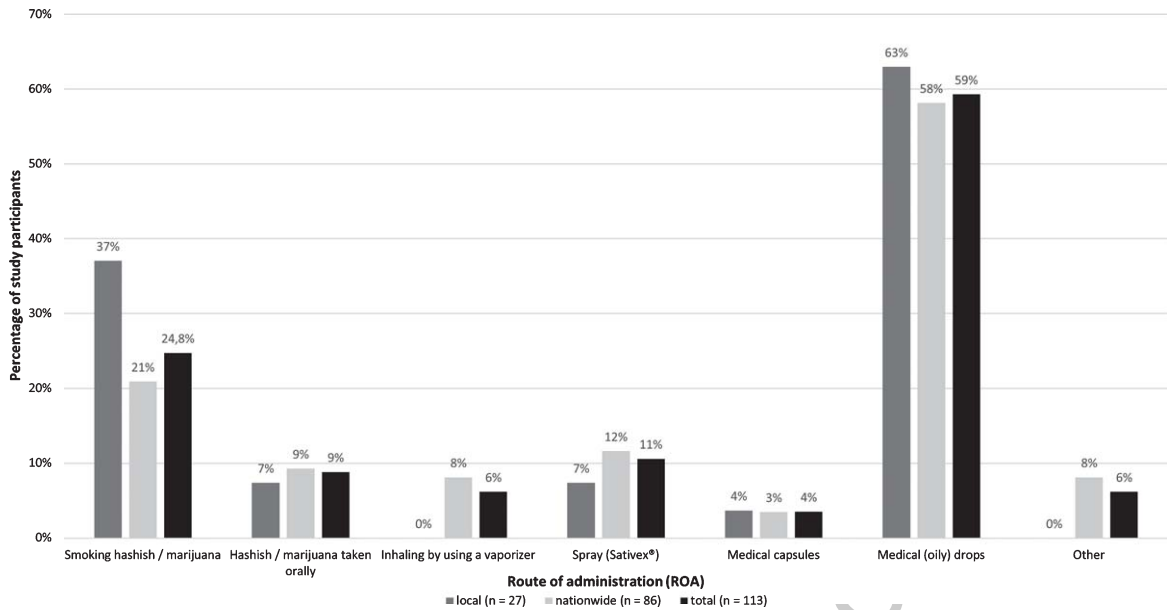


Fig. 2. Route of administration (ROA). ROA reported by all participants who used cannabis because of their PD (multiple answers possible).

Information about cannabis treatment in PD

Overall, 689 (51.1%) participants felt to be informed about the possibility of legal applicability and medical prescription of cannabis for PD in Germany. 381 (28.3%) subjects reported knowledge about various ROA of cannabis. Only 118 (8.8%) patients knew the difference between THC and CBD.

In the local group, significantly more participants were informed that there are various medical ROA of cannabis ($p = 0.05$). The nationwide and local group did not differ regarding relatively good knowledge of approval of MC and lack of knowledge regarding the difference between THC and CBD.

Experience with cannabis

Overall, 202 patients (15.0%) had tried cannabis in their life with 28 regular users (13.9%), 65 occasional applicers (32.2%) and 86 patients (42.6%) who tried it only once (no answers $n = 23$ [11.4%]).

113 patients (8.4%) had applied cannabis due to PD without gender difference (50.4% male). Here, mean age of users was 66.4 (± 10.7) years and mean disease duration 11.6 (± 6.5) years. Younger age was associated positively with the prevalence of cannabis consumption ($r = -0.60$, $p < 0.001$). Cannabis users were on average 5.6 years younger than non-users (mean 66.4 vs. 72.0 years, $p < 0.001$). Every year of age lowers the likelihood to be a user by about 5.9%.

91% of users were aware of the legal status of medical cannabis and knowledge of legal situation, the various ROA and the difference between THC and CBD were significantly positively related to the frequency of cannabis use (all $p < 0.001$). Experience with cannabis was higher in patients living in large cities with more than 500,000 inhabitants compared to patients living in small places with less than 20,000 inhabitants (15.0% vs. 6.4%; $r = -0.87$, $p = 0.001$) and the odds-ratio for cannabis consume in these patients was 2.4-fold higher.

Study participants in the local cohort had tried cannabis significantly more often in general ($p < 0.001$) as well as due to their PD ($p = 0.041$) than nationwide participants but without significant differences regarding used active substance (e.g., THC, CBD, or both), ROA, and frequency of daily application (Fig. 2).

Among the 113 PD-related cannabis users, 11 (9.7%) reported application of THC only, 45 (39.8%) of CBD only and 23 (20.4%) of both THC and CBD. 20 (17.7%) users did not know which type of cannabis they had taken and 14 (12.4%) gave no information on the active ingredient used. In summary, 79 (69.9%) users could specify the type of cannabis they applied but only 56/113 (49.6%) users reported to know the difference between THC and CBD.

Mean disease duration of cannabis users was 11.6 years and was comparable to that of non-users. Tremor, but not other motor- or non-motor symptoms,

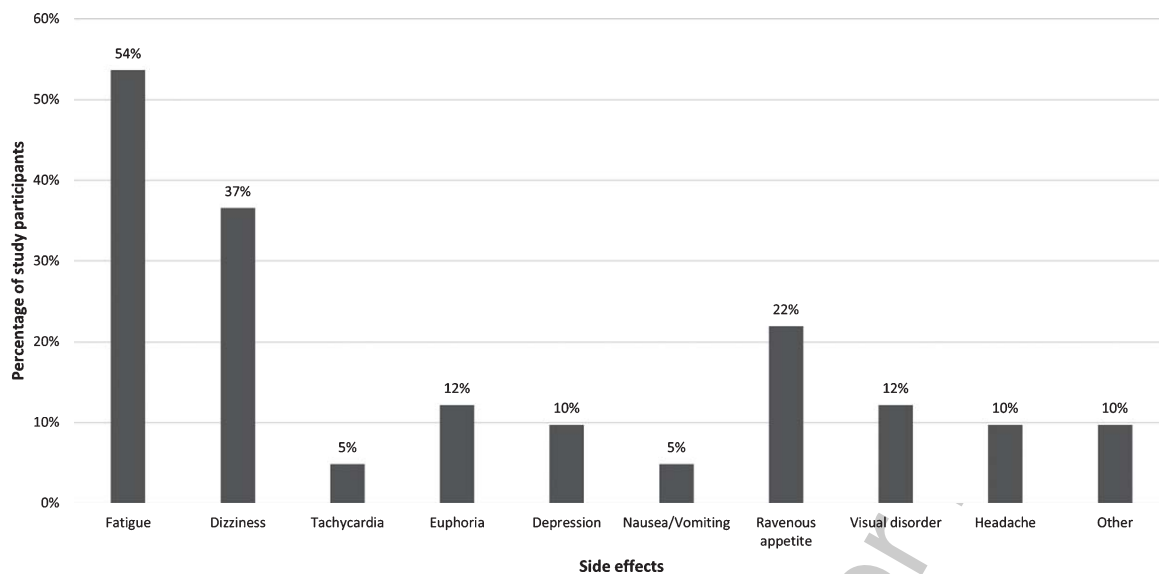


Fig. 3. Side effects of cannabis use. Side effects reported by participants who used cannabis to relieve PD symptoms. Variables are reported as percentage of the total of $n = 41$ cases in both the local and nationwide group who reported side effects (multiple answers possible).

was reported significantly more often by cannabis users compared to non-users (61.9% vs. 52.0%, $p = 0.043$). On the other hand, non-users reported more frequently slight problems with memory and concentration (51.8% vs. 41.6%, $p = 0.039$) and hallucinations (18.5% vs. 10.6%, $p = 0.036$).

Cannabis was most frequently applied exclusively as medical liquids/drops ($n = 54/113$; 47.8%) or in combination with hashish/marijuana (67/113; 59.3%). The latter was applied by 28 PD patients (28/113; 24.8%).

Interest in applying MC was reported by 808/1235 (65.4%) of subjects who had not used cannabis due to PD symptoms yet. They would prefer medical capsules (44%) or liquids/drops (31%) rather than a spray (24%) or leaves via a vaporizer (11%); multiple answers possible.

Fear of physical and/or psychological addiction was affirmed by 6.7% of cannabis users. Although not intended in the query, 90 of the non-users also replied to this question and 41 of them (45.6%) stated fear of addiction.

Efficacy and tolerability

General aspects

Overall, more than half of users ($n = 61/113$ [54.0%]) reported a clinical benefit due to cannabis use (these patients are classified as “therapy responders” in the following paragraphs). The success rate

correlated significantly positively with the frequency of use ($\chi^2 = 16.3$, $p < 0.001$). Users with frequent application reported more frequently (79%) efficacy compared to users with occasional (67%) or single (25%) use. In successful applications, the effect was rated by half of the patients ($n = 31/61$; 50.8%) to be better than that of levodopa/dopamine agonists and an equal effect was reported by 14/61 of patients (23.0%). Three of four MC users with atypical PS reported general improvement of symptoms (75%). Cannabis use was generally tolerated in 96/113 users (85%) with side effects reported in 41 (36.3%) of subjects. The most common side effects included fatigue (54%), dizziness (37%) and ravenous appetite (22%) (Fig. 3). Hallucinations were mentioned as free text by four patients. Nine patients discontinued using cannabis due to side effects (fatigue $n = 2$, dizziness $n = 2$, nausea $n = 1$, not specified $n = 4$).

The local and the nationwide study cohorts did not differ significantly in any of the aspects regarding efficacy and tolerability.

Efficacy of cannabis on PD symptoms

Table 2 provides an overview of how typical PD symptoms responded to cannabis. The symptoms “pain” and “muscle cramps” were most often reported to be improved (43.9% and 41.4%, respectively). Overall, nine different motor and non-motor symptoms were referred to be relieved in at least 20% of patients applying cannabis.

Table 2
Efficacy of cannabinoid therapy on different PD symptoms

[-6pt] Symptoms:	Total	Participants with overall improvement due to cannabis use		No answers	Participants with no benefit at all due to cannabis use
		Improvement	No improvement		
[1] Pain	57	25 (43.9%)	7	3	22
[2] Muscle Cramps	58	24 (41.4%)	9	4	21
[3] Depression	32	9 (28.1%)	12	1	10
[4] Stiffness/Immobility/Akinesia	77	21 (27.3%)	22	2	32
[5] Sleep Disorder	59	16 (27.1%)	14	3	26
[6] Freezing	52	13 (25.0%)	16	2	21
[7] Tremor/Shaking	70	17 (24.3%)	20	5	28
[8] Fear/Panic	25	6 (24.0%)	13	1	5
[9] Restless Legs	28	6 (21.4%)	6	3	13
[10] Slight Disorder of Memory, Concentration, Planning, Organizing	47	5 (10.6%)	19	2	21
[11] Balance Disorder/Postural Instability	58	6 (10.3%)	24	3	25
[12] Hallucinations	12	1 (8.3%)	3	1	7
[13] Involuntary Movements/Dyskinesia	29	2 (6.9%)	14	2	11
[14] Bladder Dysfunction	52	2 (3.8%)	23	3	24
[15] Falls	41	1 (2.4%)	16	2	22
[16] Involuntary Movements at night/Periodic Limb Movement Disorder	20	0 (0.0%)	9	1	10
[17] Severe Disorder of Memory, Concentration, Planning, Organizing	9	0 (0.0%)	8	0	1
[18] Other	16	0 (0.0%)	7	2	7

Note: The percentages given refer to the total number of participants who used cannabis to relief the given symptom. Accordingly, the number differs from the total number of cannabis users due to PD (n = 113).

Comparison of THC and CBD on efficacy and tolerability

To approximately assess whether general efficacy and tolerability are more related to THC or CBD, we compared the effects of the two most frequently applied therapies of inhaled THC as content in “hashish” (as gum extract) or “marijuana” (as leaves) with the oral administration of pure CBD. Using exclusively THC, ROA mainly was inhalation via a “joint” (n = 18) and less frequently via a vaporizer (n = 2) or applied as a combination (“joint” and vaporizer; n = 2). Pure CBD was applied mainly as oily liquid/drops (n = 34/54; 63.0%) and less frequently as capsules (n = 3/3).

Table 3 shows the efficacy and tolerability of treatment with THC (n = 22) compared to CBD (n = 37). A beneficial clinical effect was reported by 68.2% of subjects in the THC and 54.1% of subjects in the CBD group (between group difference n.s.). Among therapy responders in both cohorts, subjects in the THC group rated the efficacy by trend more frequently better compared to levodopa/dopamine agonists (12/15 [80.0%] vs. 7/20 [35.0%], $p = 0.06$) Efficacy on stiffness/immobility/akinesia was more frequently reported in the THC group (8/16 [50%] vs. 4/26 [15.4%], $p = 0.03$). Rate of improvement of other PD symptoms was not different between groups. Note-

worthy, freezing improved in 4/5 (80.0%) of patients inhaling THC-containing cannabis using joint but not when applying a vaporizer (0/2, 0%) and only in 5/21 (23.8%) of subjects taking CBD orally.

Smoking/inhaling THC was by trend less frequently tolerated than orally taken CBD (81.8% vs. 91.9%, $p = 0.07$) and provoked significantly more often side effects (54.5% vs. 18.9%, $p = 0.01$). Mainly, fatigue was reported in 27% and 16% and dizziness in 18% and 8% of THC and CBD users, respectively. Ravenous appetite occurred in 18% of THC but only 3% of CBD users. Among patients with side effects, 33% in the THC and 29% in the CBD group stopped cannabis application.

DISCUSSION

This work presents a large questionnaire-based survey about the “real-life” situation regarding the therapy with medical cannabis (MC) in PD patients in Germany. We assessed patients’ general knowledge and interest in this treatment as well as the frequency, modalities, and subjective efficacy and tolerability of application. We found that half of study participants are well-informed about the option of a legal prescription of MC but less than one-third about its different ROA, and even less than 10% know the difference

Table 3
Comparison of THC and CBD on efficacy and tolerability

		THC-containing Hashish/Marijuana n = 22	Pure CBD-liquid/ drops/capsules n = 37	p-value
Clinical benefit	[% (n)]			0.405
Yes		68.2% (15)	54.1% (20)	
No		31.8% (7)	40.5% (15)	
No answer		0.0% (0)	5.4% (2)	
Overall tolerated	[% (n)]			0.067
Yes		81.8% (18)	91.9% (34)	
No		18.2% (4)	2.7% (1)	
No answer		0.0% (0)	5.4% (2)	
Occurrence of side effects	[% (n)]			0.011
Yes		54.5% (12)	18.9% (7)	
No		40.9% (9)	64.9% (24)	
No answer		4.5% (1)	16.2% (6)	
Efficacy compared to dopaminergic drugs (L-Dopa/Dopamine agonists)	[% (n)]			0.063
Better		80.0% (12)	35.0% (7)	
Equal		13.3% (2)	30.0% (6)	
Worse		0.0% (0)	10.0% (2)	
No answer		6.7% (1)	35.0% (7)	
Efficacy on stiffness/akinesia	[% (n)]			0.034
Yes		50.0% (8)	15.4% (4)	
No		50.0% (8)	80.1% (21)	
No answer		0.0% (0)	3.4% (1)	

410 between THC and CBD. Only a minority of 8.4%
411 of participants had used cannabis due to PD, almost
412 two-thirds orally as oily liquid (CBD) and one quar-
413 ter inhaled as hashish/marijuana (THC). Remarkably,
414 half of the cannabis users reported clinical benefit
415 with mainly pain and muscle cramp relieve in 40% of
416 users and motor (stiffness/akinesia, freezing, tremor,
417 restless legs syndrome) as well as non-motor symp-
418 tom reduction (depression, anxiety) in about 20% of
419 users. Overall tolerability was reported to be good, but
420 slightly better for pure oral CBD compared to inhala-
421 tive THC-containing cannabis. However, the latter
422 was reported more frequently to improve akinesia.
423 Noteworthy, two-thirds of non-users are interested in
424 applying MC.

425 *Representativeness of the nationwide survey*

426 With a total of 1,348 participants, this is, to
427 our knowledge, the largest study investigating the
428 patients' view on cannabis therapy in PD. Inter-
429 estingly, 22% of respondents reported not to know
430 which type of Parkinson syndrome they have and 6%
431 made no declaration. We interpret that more likely
432 as lack of knowledge of the asked medical terms
433 "idiopathic" or "atypical" than of incomprehension of
434 the personal PS type. Because the nationwide survey
435 was addressed to members of the German Parkinson
436 Association, we assume that the majority of these
437 28% of patients suffer from idiopathic PS (PD).

438 Although 1,123 patients responded to the nation-
439 wide survey, this was only a return rate of 4.7% with
440 respect to the vast circulation number of the member-
441 ship journal. In contrast to surveys that were directly
442 addressed to patients and which showed average
443 response rates of $45 \pm 20\%$ [10–89%] for paper sur-
444 veys and $34 \pm 22\%$ [range 7–88%] for web-surveys
445 [11], our embedded questionnaire in the journal likely
446 has been missed by many patients.

447 Because the study design of the nationwide survey
448 includes a risk of a "report bias", we added a con-
449 secutively recruited local PD patient cohort with a
450 response rate of 90% as control. The high response
451 rate confirms that personally addressed surveys result
452 in higher response rates than unselected, non-directly
453 addressed surveys. Furthermore, the high local par-
454 ticipation rate and epidemiological data suggest that
455 our local cohort reflects an average outpatient urban
456 PD population with a wide range of age and dis-
457 ease severity. Compared to the nationwide group,
458 patients in the local group were about 20% more
459 male, in average 5 years younger, had a disease dura-
460 tion which was 2.2 years shorter, reported less often
461 problems regarding typical PD symptoms and had
462 higher experience with cannabis (26.7% vs. 12.6%).
463 The slightly younger age in our local cohort can
464 possibly be explained by the fact that only outpa-
465 tient patients—often with better mobility compared
466 to older patients—took part in our survey whereas
467 the questionnaire which was embedded in the nation-

wide journal might have also reached the elderly, less mobile clientele. Furthermore, our clinic is located in a large city and federal state with 1.8 million inhabitants and has the lowest proportion of the age group “65 years and older” compared to all other 15 federal states in Germany (Statista Research Department, 06.02.2020).

As crucial result, answers of the local and the nationwide cohort did not differ significantly in any item regarding interest in cannabis therapy in non-users, route and frequency of administration or efficacy and tolerability of cannabis application. We therefore assume that our results are representative for the average outpatient PD patient collective in Germany. To increase the study power, we finally analysed both cohorts combined together as one sample.

Interest in cannabis and experience with cannabis application

Half of participants were informed that cannabis can be used legally when medically prescribed. Knowledge about various ROA or the difference between THC and CBD was slim among all study participants. This lack of knowledge and a possibly associated fear of these substances could discourage patients from considering cannabis as therapeutic option. Accordingly, despite two-thirds of non-users are interested in applying MC, almost half of 90 non-users were concerned about addiction in case of using MC.

Fifteen percent of all subjects had experience with cannabis and more than half of them (8.4%) tried cannabis to diminish PD symptoms. Knowledge about the difference between THC and CBD was much higher in PD-related cannabis users compared to all study participants (49.6% vs. 9.1%). However, even more cannabis users could specify the type of cannabinoid they used (69.9%). This suggests that knowledge about which substance has been applied (THC or CBD) does not automatically mean that users know about the different clinical effects of both cannabinoids. This seems not exceptional because, e.g., many patients can name their specific dopamine agonist but do not know the differences between dopamine agonists in general. However, it is remarkable especially with view to differences regarding the psychoactive effects of THC but not of CBD.

Almost two-thirds of cannabis users (59.3%) applied medical liquids or drops and one quarter

(24.8%) hashish or marijuana without gender difference. Subjects taking exclusively medical liquids/drops ($n = 54/113$; 47.8%) applied mainly pure CBD ($n = 34/54$; 63.0%). CBD therefore seems to be the mostly applied cannabinoid.

The quite long and comparable mean disease duration of more than 11 years in cannabis users and non-users contradicts the assumption that cannabis use might be related to the youth or a potential “life style” aspect. Since the symptom “tremor” was found significantly more often among users, this symptom seems to be a reason for PD patients to try cannabis, while disorders of memory/concentration and hallucinations might discourage PD patients from trying cannabis. The overall burden of other symptoms does not seem to play a significant role in the decision to take cannabis.

Interestingly, only 10% applied cannabis as spray which, in Germany, contains identical portions of THC and CBD (each 50%) and has already been approved for years against spasticity in patients with multiple sclerosis.

Efficacy

More than half of users (54.0%) reported a beneficial clinical effect due to cannabis application. This is less than reported in a previous structured observational telephone survey in 47 PD patients with an overall improvement in 82.2% of users [12]. The authors assessed similar aspects of cannabis application as in our study, but patients there were more frequently men (85%) and cannabis was consumed in most patients as THC containing “joint” (81.0%).

Half of users in our study who reported relief of symptoms rated the efficiency of cannabis better than that of levodopa or dopamine agonists and 23.0% as at least comparable. However, cannabis intake might be related to a relevant placebo effect because of high patient expectations and conditioning but even than it can be considered as therapeutic effect [13].

In our study, improvement of the motor symptoms akinesia, freezing and tremor and the non-motor symptoms sleep disturbance, depression, anxiety and restless legs syndrome was reported by more than 20% of participants applying cannabis. Pain and muscle cramp relief was reported by even more than 40% of subjects. Currently, only limited and inconclusive data are available regarding the efficacy of cannabis products on single motor- and non-motor symptoms in PD (for review see [4]). Three out of six studies found a positive [12, 14, 15], and three a

568 negative [16–18] effect of cannabis on rigor, tremor
569 and bradykinesia.

570 Assessing motor-symptoms, improvement of
571 dyskinesia was reported only in 2/29 of our patients
572 with dyskinesia (6.9%). This is noteworthy because
573 the worldwide mostly spread video (“Ride with
574 Larry” with 3.7. million views on YouTube) shows
575 a tremendous effect of cannabis oil on dyskinesia.
576 Again, available data assessing levodopa-induced
577 dyskinesia (LID) are inconclusive with two positive
578 (one randomized controlled trial, RCT) [15, 19] and 3
579 negative (all RCT) [17, 18, 20] studies. Interestingly,
580 13/52 of our patients (25.0%) reported improvement
581 of freezing of gait (FOG). This is of special interest
582 because there is no proven medication against
583 FOG which frequently occurs in advanced disease
584 stages despite optimized medication and increases
585 the risks for falls. Noteworthy, Balash et al. found
586 that mainly smoked MC reduced significantly complaints
587 of falling from 22/47 (46.8%) to 6/18 (33.3%)
588 of patients.

589 Regarding non-motor symptoms in PD, pain relief
590 was found in two open observational studies after
591 mainly smoking cannabis [12, 14] but not in one
592 RCT after oral intake of combined THC/CBD [17].
593 However, two recent large meta-analyses suggest
594 that cannabinoid-based pharmacotherapy may serve
595 as effective replacement/adjunctive option against
596 pain in general [21] and in multiple sclerosis in
597 which combined THC/CBD improved pain [22]
598 and is approved for the treatment of moderate to
599 severe (painful) spasticity [23, 24]. In line with our
600 results, others also found improvement of sleep due
601 use of MC. REM-sleep behaviour disturbance was
602 improved in 4/4 PD patients (100%) taking CBD [25]
603 and improvement of sleep quality was found in 12 out
604 22 PD patients (54.5%) [14] and 33 out 46 (71.7%)
605 [12] exclusively or mainly smoking cannabis, respectively.
606 However, the cross-over RCT in 19 patients
607 by Carroll et al. [17] did not confirm a positive effect
608 of orally administrated THC/CBD on sleep. In our
609 study, 9 of 32 patients (28.1%) reported improvement
610 of depression, which is less than reported before
611 with improvement of mood in 35/46 (76.1%) patients
612 [12].

613 Symptoms relief were described mainly in studies
614 with long-term cannabis application for at least eight
615 [14], twelve [12] or six [18] weeks. In line with that,
616 success rate in our study correlated significantly with
617 the frequency of cannabis use. However, it is unclear
618 whether frequent application is the reason or the result
of reported symptom relief.

Tolerability

619
620 In the majority of patients (85%) cannabis was
621 well tolerated, but one-third reported unwanted or
622 side effects, mainly fatigue, dizziness and ravenous
623 appetite. These are well known adverse effects of
624 THC [4]. Nevertheless, only 9/113 patients (8.0%)
625 discontinued therapy because of intolerance which
626 is in accordance to other studies describing discontinuation
627 of medical cannabis due to side effects in
628 5/47 patients (10.6%) [12] or generally as rare [26,
629 27]. In our study hallucinations were mentioned as
630 free text by only four patients but we did not ask for
631 hallucinations as preselected question. Rate of hallucinations
632 might have been higher as has been reported
633 before with 17% [12]. However, hallucinations likely
634 are related to THC because clinical studies did not
635 reveal psychotic side effects for CBD [18], whereas
636 vice versa CBD might even have some anti-psychotic
637 effects in PD patients [28].

Comparing the efficacy of smoked THC and orally administered CBD

640 MC can be applied as pure THC, CBD or mixed
641 forms with different ratios of both ingredients. To
642 make it even more complex, it has to be considered
643 that inhaled cannabis types contain different phyto-
644 cannabinoids with a THC content between 4% and
645 28% in hashish and 3% and 22% in marijuana [29] or
646 that Cannabis *sativa* used as leaves or hashish contains
647 more than 100 other phytocannabinoids with
648 unknown influence on PD symptoms. The ROA vary
649 tremendously. Leaves can be smoked with and without
650 tobacco, inhaled via bong or vaporizer as well as
651 boiled with water and applied as tea. Furthermore,
652 illegal and medical leaves contain different ratios of
653 THC/CBD. Oral administration of cannabis is possible
654 as capsules, liquid oils, leaves, hashish or spray,
655 again with different ratios and concentrations of CBD
656 and/or THC. This makes it difficult to compare studies.
657 Overall, the available clinical data on the effects of
658 THC and CBD in the literature are very limited.

659 Noteworthy, studies or observations reporting
660 responsiveness of PD symptoms to cannabis often
661 assessed patients who smoked cannabis containing
662 THC [12, 14] while negative reports were often
663 obtained in studies investigating oral ROA [17, 18].
664 To evaluate whether the efficacy of THC compared
665 to CBD or the application of inhalation compared to
666 oral administration might have substantially different
667 effects, we compared these two main groups of

668 users. Despite a comparable response rate to THC and
669 CBD regarding general improvement of PD symp-
670 toms, level of efficacy seems to be higher when
671 inhaling THC compared to applying CBD orally,
672 because patients in the THC group reported more fre-
673 quently improvement of akinesia and higher efficacy
674 compared to dopaminergics. Noteworthy, freezing
675 improved in 4/5 (80%) of patients inhaling cannabis
676 as joint but only in 5/21 (23.8%) of subjects taking
677 CBD orally. Because freezing often is not adequately
678 controlled with usual medication, smoking cannabis
679 leaves might be a therapeutic option. Only 3 partici-
680 pants reported to take pure THC orally as Dronabinol
681 drops, so that a comparison of orally applied THC and
682 CBD was not meaningful.

683 *Limitations of the study*

684 The study has some limitations. The response rate
685 of the nationwide survey likely could have been
686 increased by addressing all patients personally via
687 mail and drawing more attention to the study. How-
688 ever, relevant additional mailing costs did not allow
689 this procedure.

690 We applied a German-speaking self-developed
691 questionnaire which has not been validated before.
692 However, so far there is no validated questionnaire
693 addressing the subjective patient evaluation of preva-
694 lence, efficacy or tolerability of cannabis application
695 in PD. The high rates of completed returned ques-
696 tionnaires indicate a good understandability of the
697 questions. However, it was intended that the last ques-
698 tion (#16) on fear to get physically and/or psycho-
699 logically addicted to cannabis was only answered by
700 patients who already used cannabis due to PD. Nev-
701 ertheless, 90 subjects without cannabis experience
702 also answered this question. A second version of the
703 questionnaire should state this intention more clearly.
704 Because it is not uninteresting whether also non-users
705 might be afraid of addiction, we included the answers
706 of these patients into our analysis. Furthermore, we
707 had to translate the questionnaire into English for this
708 publication without language validation of the trans-
709 lation. Future studies should focus on more objective
710 ways to examine the therapeutic effect of MC.

711 We did not evaluate whether the individual sym-
712 ptom-related burden of disease of cannabis users and
713 non-users differed or if a certain bothersome symp-
714 tom led to the use of cannabis. Also we did not ask
715 how many years after the onset of the disease the par-
716 ticipants first used cannabis and whether patients felt
717 a vanishing effect of standard dopaminergic drugs.

718 These aspects can affect cannabis usage and more
719 studies addressing these points are needed.

720 We intended to evaluate the patient's view and
721 knowledge and to assess patients' very subjective
722 opinion about effects of cannabis on their PD symp-
723 toms. It was not intended and due to the study
724 design and the highly variable modalities of cannabis
725 application not possible to objectively differentiate
726 between the treatment effects of different cannabis
727 products or degree and duration of subjective treat-
728 ment effects. Accordingly, we did not ask for doses
729 used or duration of treatment.

730 However, the study faces general limitations that
731 come along with a subjective self-report. Especially
732 participants with a positive effect on their PD symp-
733 toms may tend to exaggerate the overall positive
734 effects. This includes a possible pronounced placebo
735 effect due to high expectations of patients on the
736 efficiency of cannabis.

737 Furthermore, the low response rate may bias the
738 findings toward those who had a positive treatment
739 effect. However, our consecutively recruited and
740 highly responsive control group, which was set up
741 to be devoid of that bias, showed highly comparable
742 results which makes a relevant selection bias unlikely.

743 The study design did not allow distinguishing
744 patients with and without medical prescription of
745 THC-containing leaves or CBD extracts. We assume,
746 that both cannabis formulations were mainly applied
747 without prescription, because doctors are reluctant to
748 prescribe THC as leaves and CBD extracts are freely
749 available and only in a few states reimbursed by health
750 insurers.

751 *Conclusion*

752 Our study offers insights into the PD community
753 perception of MC and shows that cannabis is applied
754 in almost 10% of patients against motor- and non-
755 motor symptoms. Results suggest that MC might
756 be helpful for selected PD patients with insufficient
757 symptom relief despite their usual anti-parkinsonian
758 medication. Controlled clinical studies investigating
759 the efficiency, tolerability and best ROA of MC ther-
760 apy in PD are desirable.

761 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

762 We thank the National German Parkinson Associ-
763 ation (Deutsche Parkinson Vereinigung e.V. [dPV]),
764 especially its chairman Dr. Friedrich Wilhelm Meh-
765 hoff, for the support of this study.

We also thank Eik Vettorazzi (Institute of Medical Biometry and Epidemiology, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Martinistraße 52, 20246 Hamburg, Germany) for statistical support.

Statistical analysis: Ferhat Yenilmez, Carsten Buhmann, with support of Eik Vettorazzi (Institute of Medical Biometry and Epidemiology, University Medical Center Hamburg-Eppendorf, Martinistraße 52, 20246 Hamburg, Germany)

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Ferhat Yenilmez reports no disclosures.

Dr. Odette Fründt, MD: Congress attendance fees: AbbVie, Abbott/St. Jude, Lecture fee: Daiichi-Sankyo

Dr. Ute Hidding reports no disclosures

Prof. Carsten Buhmann: Fees for advisory board participation: UCB Pharma, Zambon. Lecture fees: AbbVie Pharma, BIAL Pharma, Desitin, GE Healthcare, Grünenthal Pharma, Licher GmbH, Medtronic, Novartis, TAD Pharma, UCB Pharma, Zambon Pharma

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The supplementary material is available in the electronic version of this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3233/JPD-202260>.

REFERENCES

- [1] ElSohly M, Gul W (2014) Constituents of Cannabis sativa. In *Handbook of Cannabis*, Pertwee RG, ed. Oxford University Press. New York, p. 1093.
- [2] Laprairie RB, Bagher AM, Kelly ME, Denovan-Wright EM (2015) Cannabidiol is a negative allosteric modulator of the cannabinoid CB1 receptor. *Br J Pharmacol* **172**, 4790-4805.
- [3] Martínez-Pinilla E, Varani K, Reyes-Resina I, Angelats E, Vincenzi F, Ferreiro-Vera C, Oyarzabal J, Canela EI, Lanchiego JL, Nadal X, Navarro G, Borea PA, Franco R (2017) Binding and signaling studies disclose a potential allosteric site for cannabidiol in cannabinoid CB2 receptors. *Front Pharmacol* **8**, 744.
- [4] Buhmann C, Mainka T, Ebersbach G, Gandor F (2019) Evidence for the use of cannabinoids in Parkinson's disease. *J Neural Transm (Vienna)* **126**, 913-924.
- [5] Carroll CB, Zeissler ML, Hanemann CO, Zajicek JP (2012) Delta(9)-tetrahydrocannabinol (Delta(9)-THC) exerts a direct neuroprotective effect in a human cell culture model of Parkinson's disease. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* **38**, 535-547.
- [6] Klein TW (2005) Cannabinoid-based drugs as anti-inflammatory therapeutics. *Nat Rev Immunol* **5**, 400-411.
- [7] Lastres-Becker I, Molina-Holgado F, Ramos JA, Mechoulam R, Fernandez-Ruiz J (2005) Cannabinoids provide neuroprotection against 6-hydroxydopamine toxicity *in vivo* and *in vitro*: Relevance to Parkinson's disease. *Neurobiol Dis* **19**, 96-107.
- [8] Fernandez-Ruiz J, Garcia C, Sagredo O, Gomez-Ruiz M, de Lago E (2010) The endocannabinoid system as a target for the treatment of neuronal damage. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* **14**, 387-404.
- [9] Mainka T, Stork J, Hidding U, Buhmann C (2018) Cannabis bei Parkinson – Hype oder Heilmittel? [Cannabis in Parkinson's Disease: Hype or help?]. *Fortschr Neurol Psychiatr* **86**, 106-116.
- [10] Gandor F, Ebersbach G (2017) Cannabinoids in the treatment of Parkinson's disease. *Neurol Int Open* **1**, 307-311.
- [11] Shih T, Fan X (2009) Comparing response rates in e-mail and paper surveys: A meta-analysis. *Educ Res Rev* **4**, 26-40.
- [12] Balash Y, Bar-Lev Schleider L, Korczyn AD, Shabtai H, Knaani J, Rosenberg A, Baruch Y, Djaldetti R, Giladi N, Gurevich T (2017) Medical cannabis in Parkinson disease: Real-life patients' experience. *Clin Neuropharmacol* **40**, 268-272.
- [13] Enck P, Bingel U, Schedlowski M, Rief W (2013) The placebo response in medicine: Minimize, maximize or personalize? *Nat Rev Drug Discov* **12**, 191-204.
- [14] Lotan I, Treves TA, Roditi Y, Djaldetti R (2014) Cannabis (medical marijuana) treatment for motor and non-motor symptoms of Parkinson disease: An open-label observational study. *Clin Neuropharmacol* **37**, 41-44.
- [15] Venderova K, Ruzicka E, Vorisek V, Visnovsky P (2004) Survey on cannabis use in Parkinson's disease: Subjective improvement of motor symptoms. *Mov Disord* **19**, 1102-1106.
- [16] Fränkel JP, Hughes A, Lees AJ, Stern GM (1990) Marijuana for parkinsonian tremor. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* **53**, 436.
- [17] Carroll CB, Bain PG, Teare L, Liu X, Joint C, Wroath C, Parkin SG, Fox P, Wright D, Hobart J, Zajicek JP (2004) Cannabis for dyskinesia in Parkinson disease: A randomized double-blind crossover study. *Neurology* **63**, 1245-1250.
- [18] Chagas MH, Zuardi AW, Tumas V, Pena-Pereira MA, Sobreira ET, Bergamaschi MM, dos Santos AC, Teixeira AL, Hallak JE, Crippa JA (2014) Effects of cannabidiol in the treatment of patients with Parkinson's disease: An exploratory double-blind trial. *J Psychopharmacol* **28**, 1088-1098.
- [19] Sieradzan KA, Fox SH, Hill M, Dick JP, Crossman AR, Brotchie JM (2001) Cannabinoids reduce levodopa-induced dyskinesia in Parkinson's disease: A pilot study. *Neurology* **57**, 2108-2111.
- [20] Mesnage V, Houeto JL, Bonnet AM, Clavier I, Arnulf I, Cattelin F, Le Fur G, Damier P, Welter ML, Agid Y (2004) Neurokinin B, neurotensin, and cannabinoid receptor antagonists and Parkinson disease. *Clin Neuropharmacol* **27**, 108-110.
- [21] Yanes JA, McKinnell ZE, Reid MA, Busler JN, Michel JS, Pangelinan MM, Sutherland MT, Younger JW, Gonzalez R, Robinson JL (2019) Effects of cannabinoid administration for pain: A meta-analysis and meta-regression. *Exp Clin Psychopharmacol* **27**, 370-382.
- [22] Russo M, Naro A, Leo A, Sessa E, D'Aleo G, Bramanti P, Calabro RS (2016) Evaluating Sativex(R) in neuropathic pain management: A clinical and neurophysiological assessment in multiple sclerosis. *Pain Med* **17**, 1145-1154.
- [23] Markova J, Essner U, Akmaz B, Marinelli M, Trompke C, Lentschat A, Vila C (2019) Sativex(R) as add-on therapy vs. further optimized first-line ANTispastics (SAVANT)

- 881 in resistant multiple sclerosis spasticity: A double-blind,
882 placebo-controlled randomised clinical trial. *Int J Neurosci*
883 **129**, 119-128.
- 884 [24] Wade DT, Collin C, Stott C, Duncombe P (2010) Meta-
885 analysis of the efficacy and safety of Sativex (nabiximols),
886 on spasticity in people with multiple sclerosis. *Mult Scler*
887 **16**, 707-714.
- 888 [25] Chagas MH, Eckeli AL, Zuardi AW, Pena-Pereira MA,
889 Sobreira-Neto MA, Sobreira ET, Camilo MR, Bergamaschi
890 MM, Schenck CH, Hallak JE, Tumas V, Crippa JA (2014)
891 Cannabidiol can improve complex sleep-related behaviours
892 associated with rapid eye movement sleep behaviour dis-
893 order in Parkinson's disease patients: A case series. *J Clin*
894 *Pharm Ther* **39**, 564-566.
- 895 [26] Grotenhermen F, Muller-Vahl K (2012) The therapeutic
896 potential of cannabis and cannabinoids. *Dtsch Arztebl Int*
897 **109**, 495-501.
- [27] Whiting PF, Wolff RF, Deshpande S, Di Nisio M, Duffy 898
S, Hernandez AV, Keurentjes JC, Lang S, Misso K, 899
Ryder S, Schmidkofer S, Westwood M, Kleijnen J (2015) 900
Cannabinoids for medical use: A systematic review and 901
meta-analysis. *JAMA* **313**, 2456-2473. 902
- [28] Zuardi AW, Crippa JA, Hallak JE, Pinto JP, Chagas MH, 903
Rodrigues GG et al. (2009) Cannabidiol for the treatment 904
of psychosis in Parkinson's disease. *J Psychopharmacol* **23**, 905
979-983. 906
- [29] Europäischer Drogenbericht, [https://www.dbdd.de/fileadm](https://www.dbdd.de/fileadmin/user_upload_dbdd/05_Publikationen/PDFs/EDR-2017_DE.pdf) 907
[in/user_upload_dbdd/05_Publikationen/PDFs/EDR-2017_](https://www.dbdd.de/fileadmin/user_upload_dbdd/05_Publikationen/PDFs/EDR-2017_DE.pdf) 908
[DE.pdf](https://www.dbdd.de/fileadmin/user_upload_dbdd/05_Publikationen/PDFs/EDR-2017_DE.pdf), Last updated November 11, 2017, Accessed on 909
October 20, 2020. 910