

Beneficial Effects of Cannabis Sativa Extract on Oxidative Stress

Selim Soydan¹, Begüm Arda¹, İlknur Altuntaş¹, Oytun Erbaş¹

Cannabis has been widely used in some cultures and health for many years, particularly in India and China, and it plays an important role in spasticity and the treatment of most pains in modern medicine.^[1] Cannabidiol (CBD) and tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) are the two most commonly studied cannabinoid class substances in terms of structural form.^[2] Cannabinoid delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (Δ^9 -THC) has the most potent psychoactive effects. CBD, on the other hand, has no effect on the central nervous system (CNS), making it a non-psychoactive compound.^[3]

Cannabinoid receptors control ongoing physiological events like mood, memory, and appetite. They activate a group of cellular receptors known as type 1 (CB1) and type 2 (CB2) in the body via these receptors.^[4] Because of their chemical function, cannabinoid receptors form an endocannabinoid system (ECS) with endogenous cannabinoids. Endocannabinoids are neuromodulator system that is important in the development of the CNS, in response to environmental and endogenous types of attacks, and in synaptic plasticity.^[5] The ECS is a specific molecular system that regulates homeostasis stability. Furthermore, it has become a more

ABSTRACT

Cannabis sativa L. subspecies *sativa* is a subspecies of the genus *Cannabis* (Cannabaceae), also known as industrial hemp. It is a herbaceous and double-jawed plant. Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), a psychoactive compound found in cannabis plants, and the non-psychoactive cannabidiol (CBD) are essential compounds in industry and medicine. These compounds are very similar to endocannabinoids, which are found in the human body. As a result, both compounds have the potential to interact with the body's endocannabinoid system. They exhibit chemical activity in areas affected by oxidative stress, such as the cardiovascular system, muscle development, liver and lung function, reproductive function, metabolism, neurological activities, and cell aging. Since the human body's free radical and antioxidant levels are destabilized, antioxidants fail to neutralize free radicals, resulting in oxidative damage, i.e. a stress effect. This balance in the body can be influenced by compounds like THC and CBD acting on cellular receptors. Thus, the occurrence of various diseases is observed. This review examined the effect of the active substances in the cannabis plant on oxidative stress and the diseases that develop as a result of this stressful situation.

Keywords: Cannabinoid, endocannabinoid, hemp, oxidative stress, tetrahydrocannabinol

common pharmacotherapy target in recent years. Endocannabinoids, which are the amid, ether, and ester forms of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), can continue to function as the primary cannabinoid receptor ligands with these properties.^[6] Secondary metabolites and phytochemicals can interact with ECS. This condition has been discovered in a variety of plants. Cannabinoids are extremely important for both animals and plants. They are involved in the active regulation of pathological and physiological functions.^[7] Tetrahydrocannabinol is a partial agonist of the cannabinoid receptors CB1 and CB2. CB1 receptors are mostly found in the CNS, whereas CB2 receptors are more prevalent in the immune system. THC, which has an easy absorption feature, is easily absorbed, and due to its lipophilic structure,

¹ERBAS Institute of Experimental Medicine, Illinois, USA & Gebze, Turkey

Correspondence: Selim Soydan. Institute of Experimental Medicine, 41470 Gebze-Kocaeli, Türkiye.

E-mail: selotrak@gmail.com

Cite this article as: Soydan S, Arda B, Altuntaş I, Erbaş O. Beneficial Effects of Cannabis Sativa Extract on Oxidative Stress. JEB Med Sci 2021;2(3):336-342.

doi: 10.5606/jebms.2021.75675

Received : March 21, 2021

Accepted : May 1, 2021

Published online : March 8, 2022

©2021 Journal of Experimental and Basic Medical Sciences. All rights reserved.

can cross the blood-brain barrier.^[4] CB1 receptors have been shown to regulate ongoing conditions such as high glutamate production and subsequent oxidative stress, both of which can harm neurons and lead to neurodegeneration.^[8] Cannabinoids thus specifically interact with CB1 structures, protecting cortical neurons from ischemic damage.^[9] Tetrahydrocannabinol and its analogs have been shown to reduce glutamate toxicity by activating cannabinoid receptors and decreasing calcium flow through voltage-sensitive calcium channel cavities.^[10] However, while many cannabinoids have been shown to have neuroprotective effects in various models of neurotoxicity, the mechanisms are not fully understood. The most important thing that is currently being understood is how the positive feedback produced by the ECS via receptors in response to oxidative stress will produce results in various situations.^[11]

Oxidative stress is defined as an imbalance in the interaction between the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the antioxidant-mediated defense mechanism, which results in optimal cleaning of the biological system at the appropriate time. This process produces a large number of free radicals.^[12] Maintaining ROS within the appropriate amount of cells is important in maintaining the proliferation of signal and redox balance at the standard level in the context of some physiological conditions.^[13] Working with ECS receptors to treat cannabinoids' effects on oxidative stress and diseases directly linked to oxidative stress has increased its use as a causative agent in research.^[11] Cannabidiol's therapeutic potential in neurodegenerative diseases was investigated, with oxidative stress and associated inflammation coming in second. Since CBD is frequently studied, one of its applications in this field is for the therapeutic effect in the case of diabetes and its complications in human and animal studies.^[6] Oxidative stress is generally described as an imbalance between antioxidants and oxidants in which oxidant activity exceeds antioxidants' ability to neutralize oxidants, resulting in the activation of pathological pathways and cellular damage.^[14] This stress is caused by exposure to reactive oxygen intermediates, which can damage nucleic acids, cell membranes, and proteins.^[15]

Differentiation of antioxidant levels results in a change in compounds that can be corrected while the antioxidant's overall capacity is unaffected. Exogenous antioxidants can reduce the level or intake of endogenous antioxidants without affecting the cell's "total antioxidant potential".^[16]

When exposed to various harmful stimuli, the body's continuous production of large amounts of active molecules, such as reactive nitrogen species (RNS) and ROS, is referred to as oxidative stress.^[17] Oxidants, in general, are collectively referred to as ROS, molecules containing oxygen with more reactive properties than the oxygen molecules found in the air. This point is met by molecules with biological properties such as hydrogen peroxide, hydroxyl radicals, perhydroxyl radicals, and superoxide anion radicals. Furthermore, ROS include peroxyinitrite, nitrous anhydride, nitric oxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide, nitrosoperoxycarbonate, and nitroxyl anion. These structures, however, are more commonly referred to as RNS.^[18,19]

Reactive oxygen species are classified into two categories: aggressive and less reactive, based on the fact that the molecules mentioned are ROS and the properties they exhibit. Many species with low reactive properties are produced in small quantities by aerobic metabolism, which is normally functioning. Furthermore, the cell damage is repaired on a regular basis. However, even less reactive ones, such as superoxide structure, can be easily transformed into aggressive radical species that cause extensive cellular damage via oxido-reduction reactions with other redox cycle compounds or transition metals in certain cases.^[20,21]

The amount of ROS fluctuates within a range determined by the synchronized operation of elimination and production systems under normal conditions. The antioxidant system in living things is complex and multi-level, and it works effectively to destroy ROS or reduce its negative effects.^[22] This system performs the extinguishing process through a series of neutralization and cleaning stages without having a negative metabolic effect or causing any destruction.^[23] If the ROS is at a decisive level, it returns to the beginning of the stress induction in a short period of time, and if the metabolism has sufficient resources in the face of response, this is referred to as "acute oxidative stress". However, sometimes ROS levels do not return to the initial interval, but at a slightly higher point it is stable, or only if the stable state present under normal conditions expands the ROS line range and the stress event does not continue over a long period of time in the resulting situation, this stress can be called "chronic oxidative stress." As previously stated, live organisms in normal conditions maintain a specific range of ROS levels. The system, which provides various production-oriented activities of

ROS by the system, elimination, and prevention systems, provides homeostasis.^[24,25]

In humans, oxidative stress interacts with diseases in a variety of ways. Stress can occur as a secondary reaction to a pre-existing disease condition, or it can be the primary cause of the disease on its own.^[26] Although not all neurodegenerative disorders have all of the same traits, there is one crucial condition that runs along the disease's spectrum and plays a critical function. There is a growing knowledge that there is an increase in the interaction between a neuro-inflammatory component and oxidative stress in the long run. Increased research on nitrite oxide, a second common messenger in the inflammatory signaling system, has recently had a significant impact on the meaning of neurodegeneration.^[27] It is well recognized that there are convincing processes involving anomalies in the mitochondrial region, metabolic incompatibility, and the function of oxidative stress that occurs, particularly in Alzheimer's disease (AD).^[28] The fact that both diseases have hereditary traits makes it easier to do research on oxidative stress expansions of ancestral origin.^[29-31] Evidence for oxidative stress in AD is consistent with the condition's abnormally high levels of redox-capable active metals, particularly iron, in the affected parts of the brain. In this regard, it is thought that an excess of redox-active metal compounds is at least largely responsible for the oxidative damage seen in polyunsaturated lipids, DNA/RNA, and proteins in AD.^[32-34]

Furthermore, oxidative stress, which is on the rise with obesity and diabetes, plays a major role in hepatocarcinogenesis. Since oxidative stress causes genetic instability and genomic damage that leads to mutations, these mutations frequently play essential roles in carcinogenesis.^[35,36] All of this evidence implies that ROS's cumulative damage contributes to a wide range of disorders.^[37] Because of the wide range of disorders associated with oxidative stress, several treatments were investigated, particularly in neurodegenerative diseases. Cannabinoids, which are present in the Cannabis sativa plant and are the subject of this article, are chemicals that have essential receptors for controlling oxidative stress changes. Since cannabinoids have therapeutic efficacy in many neuronal and inflammatory diseases, it is known that cannabinoids can affect the signaling mechanism of oxidative stress, which is a feature of peripheral immune and inflammatory responses.^[38]

EFFECT OF CANNABINOIDS ON ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

Alzheimer's disease is the most common kind of dementia in the world and is caused by a neurodegenerative disorder. This disease causes cognitive impairment and memory loss in patients.^[39,40]

The presence of senile plaques in the pathogenic way of β -amyloid (A β), a peptide of approximately 1-42 amino acids derived from abnormal processing of the transmembrane structure of amyloid precursor protein, characterizes AD brain. This disease causes cognitive impairment and memory loss in patients.^[34,41] Furthermore, among the degenerative features of AD, neurofibrillary balls, the hippocampus, and cerebral cortical circumference all play crucial roles.^[42,43] In the event of sporadic AD, the creation and advancement of senile plaques do not correspond to the growth of tau pathology.^[44] Tau and A β incorrectly folded proteins impair brain activity by increasing their hazardous function or causing the normal function to be lost. As a result, it influences the loss of neuronal organization induced by synaptic dysfunction and neuronal death.^[45]

Exacerbation of the AD process is also linked to neuroinflammatory processes and oxidative stress, both of which are well-known.^[46] The oxidative stress that occurs in the condition is a significant element in the pathophysiology of AD.^[47] There is a growing body of data indicating oxidative stress and AD are associated with progressive cerebrovascular abnormalities. Cerebrovascular dysfunction and neurodegeneration are not mutually exclusive. However, both of the current situations can have an impact on cognition at distinct levels. Furthermore, therapies including antioxidants have a wide range of therapeutic effects under these settings. Cerebrovascular integrity is crucial to the proper conditional metabolism and perfusion of the brain in AD, and stress, which plays an active role, is often characterized by vascular dysfunction. However, mitochondrial dysfunction can coexist with a variety of other alterations in the pathophysiology of AD, such as synaptic protein degradation and increased production of ROS.^[48]

It may take years to progress from the early stages of the neurodegenerative process to more advanced symptomatic stages. Unfortunately, once dementia symptoms appear, the disease's course accelerates and has unfavorable consequences.^[49] As a result, multiple data indicate that targeting the endocannabinoid system and stimulating the ECS contributes to the

parallel control of certain early pathogenic processes. These data show that they have received a lot of attention in recent years.^[50] Since CB1 receptors that play an active role in the ECS are primarily expressed in the nervous system (cerebellum, basal ganglia, hypothalamus, hippocampus, and dorsal horn), CB1 receptors are thought to regulate processes such as oxidative stress, which can produce a large amount of glutamate and then damage neurons, resulting in neurodegeneration.^[51-54]

Furthermore, *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies demonstrate that cannabis chemicals derived from Cannabis sativa enhance neuroprocessing against A β . Some endocannabinoids are administered directly to cell cultures, while others are made more available through reuptake inhibitors in the ECS. As a result, it boosts the viability of neurons following exposure to various types of toxic A β and can help to minimize A β -induced memory impairment.^[55-58] Cannabinoids, on the other hand, demonstrate their mechanisms by interacting with other cannabinoid receptors in the brain, such as G protein-coupled receptor 55 (GPR55) and transient receptor potential vanilloid-1 (TRPV1) channels, alpha and gamma receptors that can be activated by the peroxisome proliferator, and non-cannabinoid receptors. As a result, a partial mechanism of action against problems that may cause oxidative stress has been discovered.^[59]

EFFECT OF CANNABINOIDS ON DIABETES MELLITUS

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a metabolic condition characterized by hyperglycemia and inadequate endogenous insulin secretion or action. This chronic disease has a deleterious impact on numerous metabolic networks. Uncontrolled DM conditions can cause macrovascular and microvascular complications affecting functional and even structural changes in tissues, as well as unfortunately even organ failure.^[60,61]

Pathogenesis, on the other hand, mostly includes decreased insulin content or sensitivity, beta-cell malfunction or oxidative stress, mitochondrial dysfunction, inflammation, and apoptosis in general.^[62-64] Although various research has been conducted to shed light on the basic molecular pathways behind the formation and development of all of these problems, their etiology remains unknown.^[65] Increased oxidative stress, on the other hand, is widely regarded as a contributor to the development and progression of diabetes and its

consequences. Diabetes can be associated with an increased free radical generation or decreased antioxidant defenses in a variety of ways.^[60,66]

In type 1 diabetes, experimental evidence points to the effect of ROS on the function of damaged beta cells produced by cytokines, autoimmune responses, and inflammatory proteins.^[67,68] Experiment investigations that enhance stress through *de novo* free radical formation and suppression of antioxidant defense systems, on the other hand, indicate the resultant hyperglycemia.^[69,70]

During the progression of type 2 diabetes, levels of the lipid complex decline, making body cells more susceptible to lipid peroxidation.^[71,72] Polyunsaturated fatty acids are classified as extra susceptible to free radicals due to the presence of multi-structured linkages in the cell membrane.^[73] Lipid hydroperoxides (LHP) are the lipids listed. These are toxic-properties lipid radicals that take on the manufacturing of fatty acids by stimulating the production of oxidative stress.^[74] Since CB1 and CB2 receptors are specified in endocrine cells, numerous research have focused on the role of these cannabinoid receptors in regulating glucose homeostasis and insulin production. The ECS established by these receptors is known to regulate energy balance and nutrition intake. The CB1 receptor stimulates hepatic lipogenesis considerably. It also increases skeletal muscle breakdown, which activates defective oxidative metabolism at the mitochondrial level via oxidative phosphorylation.^[75-77] As a result, ECS is defined as "part of a specialized phenotype selected to make the most of periods of excess and to manage with food scarcity".^[78] According to research, the CB2 receptor is found in cells of the human pancreas. Calcium enters β -cells more easily when CB2 is activated with an agonist. It also results in the previously described insulin release. This is one of the most essential variables in the creation of anti-diabetic medications.^[79]

Furthermore, Δ 9-THC, another cannabinoid receptor agonist, is employed in a variety of additional applications, including antiemetic, antipyretic drugs, hunger stimulants, analgesics, and many others. THC, on the other hand, is thought to protect against oxidative damage by preventing the generation of ROS.^[80]

In conclusion, the effects of cannabinoids on oxidative stress in cannabis plants, which are widely used in the world, are neurodegenerative and metabolic. It has been discovered that receptor interactions can influence a variety of pathways in this

setting. It is said that cannabinoids work in tandem with the human body's ECS, serving as specialized stress inhibitors at degenerative or complex stages. Although it is not a cure, mechanisms of action may play an important role in the prevention of AD and DM in the future. Cannabinoid receptors can trigger β -amyloid-induced senile plaques, which, along with the system of ROS, are the outcome of this tremendous effect of oxidative stress destructiveness caused by aberrant peptide structures in AD. CB1 receptors, in particular, have been identified to limit excessive glutamate synthesis and provide neuroprotection through collaborating with the ECS. The receptor connections of distinct cannabinoid receptors for oxidative stress were examined in DM evaluations. Increasing CB1 receptor lipogenesis, facilitating calcium entrance into CB2 receptor cells, and reducing ROS of THC can lead to oxidative stress therapy techniques.

Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declared no conflicts of interest with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research and/or authorship of this article.

REFERENCES

- Curran HV, Freeman TP, Mokrysz C, Lewis DA, Morgan CJA, Parsons LH. Keep off the grass? Cannabis, cognition and addiction. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2016 May;17:293-306.
- Dinu AR, Rogobete AF, Bratu T, Popovici SE, Bedreag OH, Papurica M, et al. Cannabis Sativa Revisited-Crosstalk between microRNA Expression, Inflammation, Oxidative Stress, and Endocannabinoid Response System in Critically Ill Patients with Sepsis. *Cells*. 2020 Jan 28;9:307.
- Bonini SA, Premoli M, Tambaro S, Kumar A, Maccarinelli G, Memo M, et al. Cannabis sativa: A comprehensive ethnopharmacological review of a medicinal plant with a long history. *J Ethnopharmacol*. 2018 Dec 5;227:300-15.
- Raja A, Ahmadi S, de Costa F, Li N, Kerman K. Attenuation of Oxidative Stress by Cannabinoids and Cannabis Extracts in Differentiated Neuronal Cells. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel)*. 2020 Oct 22;13:328.
- Lu H-C, Mackie K. An Introduction to the Endogenous Cannabinoid System. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2016 Apr 1;79:516-25.
- Atalay S, Jarocka-Karpowicz I, Skrzydlewska E. Antioxidative and Anti-Inflammatory Properties of Cannabidiol. *Antioxidants (Basel)*. 2019 Dec 25;9:21.
- Kumar A, Premoli M, Aria F, Bonini SA, Maccarinelli G, Gianoncelli A, et al. Cannabimimetic plants: are they new cannabinoidergic modulators? *Planta*. 2019 Jun;249:1681-94.
- Krishnan S, Cairns R, Howard R. Cannabinoids for the treatment of dementia. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009 Apr 15:CD007204.
- Jin KL, Mao XO, Goldsmith PC, Greenberg DA. CB1 cannabinoid receptor induction in experimental stroke. *Ann Neurol*. 2000 Aug;48:257-61.
- Hampson AJ, Grimaldi M, Lolic M, Wink D, Rosenthal R, Axelrod J. Neuroprotective antioxidants from marijuana. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2000;899:274-82.
- Marsicano G, Moosmann B, Hermann H, Lutz B, Behl C. Neuroprotective properties of cannabinoids against oxidative stress: role of the cannabinoid receptor CB1. *J Neurochem*. 2002 Feb;80:448-56.
- Alonso-Alconada D, Álvarez FJ, Goñi-de-Cerio F, Hilario E, Álvarez A. Cannabinoid-mediated Modulation of Oxidative Stress and Early Inflammatory Response after Hypoxia-Ischemia. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020 Feb 14;21:1283.
- Massi P, Valenti M, Solinas M, Parolaro D. Molecular mechanisms involved in the antitumor activity of cannabinoids on gliomas: role for oxidative stress. *Cancers*. 2010 May 26;2:1013-26.
- Soffler C. Oxidative stress. *Vet Clin North Am Equine Pract*. 2007 May;23:135-57.
- Aruoma OI. Free radicals, oxidative stress, and antioxidants in human health and disease. *J Am Oil Chem Soc*. 1998;75:199-212.
- Poljsak B. Strategies for reducing or preventing the generation of oxidative stress. *Oxid Med Cell Longev*. 2011;2011:194586.
- Huang YJ, Nan GX. Oxidative stress-induced angiogenesis. *J Clin Neurosci*. 2019 May;63:13-16.
- Cuzzocrea S, Riley DP, Caputi AP, Salvemini D. Antioxidant therapy: a new pharmacological approach in shock, inflammation, and ischemia/reperfusion injury. *Pharmacol Rev*. 2001 Mar;53:135-59.
- Olmos A, Giner RM, Mániz S. Drugs modulating the biological effects of peroxynitrite and related nitrogen species. *Med Res Rev*. 2007 Jan;27:1-64.
- Beal MF. Mitochondria take center stage in aging and neurodegeneration. *Ann Neurol*. 2005 Oct;58:495-505.
- Hancock JT, Desikan R, Neill SJ. Role of reactive oxygen species in cell signalling pathways. *Biochem Soc Trans*. 2001 May 1;29:345-9.
- Lushchak VI. Free radicals, reactive oxygen species, oxidative stress and its classification. *Chem Biol Interact*. 2014 Dec 5;224:164-75.
- Yu BP. Cellular defenses against damage from reactive oxygen species. *Physiol Rev*. 1994 Jan;74:139-62.
- Lushchak VI. Environmentally induced oxidative stress in aquatic animals. *Aquat Toxicol*. 2011 Jan 17;101:13-30.
- Lushchak VI. Classification of oxidative stress based on its intensity. *EXCLI J*. 2014 Aug 26;13:922-37.
- Shukla V, Mishra SK, Pant HC. Oxidative stress in neurodegeneration. *Adv Pharmacol Sci*. 2011 Sep 21;2011:572634.
- Alvarez B, Radi R. Peroxynitrite reactivity with amino acids and proteins. *Amino Acids*. 2003 Dec;25:295-311.
- Ozkan K, Erbas O. The importance of runny nose tests in

- Alzheimer's disease. Demiroğlu Bilim University Florence Nightingale Journal of Medicine. 2019;5:105-9.
29. Andersen JK. Oxidative stress in neurodegeneration: cause or consequence? *Nat Med.* 2004 Jul;10 Suppl:S18-25.
 30. Sayre LM, Smith MA, Perry G. Chemistry and biochemistry of oxidative stress in neurodegenerative disease. *Curr Med Chem.* 2001 Jun;8:721-38.
 31. Halliwell B. Oxidative stress and neurodegeneration: where are we now? *J Neurochem.* 2006 Jun;97:1634-58.
 32. Nunomura A, Perry G, Pappolla MA, Wade R, Hirai K, Chiba S, et al. RNA oxidation is a prominent feature of vulnerable neurons in Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurosci.* 1999 Mar 15;19:1959-64.
 33. Nunomura A, Perry G, Aliev G, Hirai K, Takeda A, Balraj EK, et al. Oxidative damage is the earliest event in Alzheimer disease. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol.* 2001 Aug;60:759-67.
 34. Cevik B, Solmaz V, Yigitturk G, Cavusoğlu T, Peker G, Erbas O. Neuroprotective effects of erythropoietin on Alzheimer's dementia model in rats. *Adv Clin Exp Med.* 2017 Jan;26:23-9.
 35. Fu Y, Chung FL. Oxidative stress and hepatocarcinogenesis. *Hepatology Res.* 2018;4:39.
 36. Solmaz V, Atasoy O, Erbas O. Atorvastatin has therapeutic potential for the fatty liver-induced memory dysfunction in rats, likely via its antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties. *Neurol Res.* 2020 Jun;42:497-503.
 37. Storz G, Imlay JA. Oxidative stress. *Curr Opin Microbiol.* 1999 Apr;2:188-94.
 38. Pereira SR, Hackett B, O'Driscoll DN, Sun MC, Downer EJ. Cannabidiol modulation of oxidative stress and signalling. *Neuronal Signal.* 2021 Aug 24;5:NS20200080.
 39. Elmazoglu Z, Rangel-López E, Medina-Campos ON, Pedraza-Chaverri J, Túnez I, Aschner M, Santamaría A, et al. Cannabinoid-profiled agents improve cell survival via reduction of oxidative stress and inflammation, and Nrf2 activation in a toxic model combining hyperglycemia+Aβ1-42 peptide in rat hippocampal neurons. *Neurochem Int.* 2020 Nov;140:104817.
 40. İpek Konaklı M, Erbas O. Alzheimer's disease and animal models. *JEB Med Sci.* 2021 Feb 1;1:107-12.
 41. Walsh DM, Selkoe DJ. A beta oligomers - a decade of discovery. *J Neurochem.* 2007 Jun;101:1172-84.
 42. Bayer TA, Buslei R, Havas L, Falkai P. Evidence for activation of microglia in patients with psychiatric illnesses. *Neurosci Lett.* 1999 Aug 20;271:126-8.
 43. Gowran A, Noonan J, Campbell VA. The multiplicity of action of cannabinoids: implications for treating neurodegeneration. *CNS Neurosci Ther.* 2011 Dec;17:637-44.
 44. Thal DR, Rüb U, Orantes M, Braak H. Phases of Aβ-deposition in the human brain and its relevance for the development of AD. *Neurology.* 2002 Jun 25;58:1791-800.
 45. Aso E, Ferrer I. CB2 Cannabinoid Receptor As Potential Target against Alzheimer's Disease. *Front Neurosci.* 2016 May 31;10:243.
 46. Rich JB, Rasmusson DX, Folstein MF, Carson KA, Kawas C, Brandt J. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology.* 1995 Jan;45:51-5.
 47. Booz GW. Cannabidiol as an emergent therapeutic strategy for lessening the impact of inflammation on oxidative stress. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2011 Sep 1;51:1054-61.
 48. Marlatt MW, Lucassen PJ, Perry G, Smith MA, Zhu X. Alzheimer's disease: cerebrovascular dysfunction, oxidative stress, and advanced clinical therapies. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2008 Oct;15:199-210.
 49. Sayre LM, Perry G, Smith MA. Oxidative stress and neurotoxicity. *Chem Res Toxicol.* 2008 Jan;21:172-88.
 50. Aymerich MS, Aso E, Abellanas MA, Tolon RM, Ramos JA, Ferrer I, et al. Cannabinoid pharmacology/therapeutics in chronic degenerative disorders affecting the central nervous system. *Biochem Pharmacol.* 2018 Nov;157:67-84.
 51. Devane WA, Dysarz FA 3rd, Johnson MR, Melvin LS, Howlett AC. Determination and characterization of a cannabinoid receptor in rat brain. *Mol Pharmacol.* 1988 Nov;34:605-13.
 52. Matsuda LA, Lolait SJ, Brownstein MJ, Young AC, Bonner TI. Structure of a cannabinoid receptor and functional expression of the cloned cDNA. *Nature.* 1990 Aug 9;346:561-4.
 53. Munro S, Thomas KL, Abu-Shaar M. Molecular characterization of a peripheral receptor for cannabinoids. *Nature.* 1993 Sep 2;365:61-5.
 54. Grundy RI. The therapeutic potential of the cannabinoids in neuroprotection. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs.* 2002 Oct;11:1365-74.
 55. Milton NGN. Anandamide and noladin ether prevent neurotoxicity of the human amyloid-beta peptide. *Neurosci Lett.* 2002 Oct 31;332:127-30.
 56. Chen X, Zhang J, Chen C. Endocannabinoid 2-arachidonoylglycerol protects neurons against β-amyloid insults. *Neuroscience.* 2011 Mar 31;178:159-68.
 57. Harvey BS, Ohlsson KS, Määg JLV, Musgrave IF, Smid SD. Contrasting protective effects of cannabinoids against oxidative stress and amyloid-β evoked neurotoxicity in vitro. *Neurotoxicology.* 2012 Jan;33:138-46.
 58. Janefjord E, Määg JLV, Harvey BS, Smid SD. Cannabinoid effects on β amyloid fibril and aggregate formation, neuronal and microglial-activated neurotoxicity in vitro. *Cell Mol Neurobiol.* 2014 Jan;34:31-42.
 59. Pertwee RG, Howlett AC, Abood ME, Alexander SP, Di Marzo V, Elphick MR, et al. International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIX. Cannabinoid receptors and their ligands: beyond CB₁ and CB₂. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2010 Dec;62:588-631.
 60. Maritim AC, Sanders RA, Watkins JB 3rd. Diabetes, oxidative stress, and antioxidants: a review. *J Biochem Mol Toxicol.* 2003;17:24-38.
 61. Dos Santos JM, Tewari S, Mendes RH. The Role of Oxidative Stress in the Development of Diabetes Mellitus and Its Complications. *J Diabetes Res.* 2019 May 5;2019:4189813.
 62. Zaccardi F, Webb DR, Yates T, Davies MJ. Pathophysiology

- of type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus: a 90-year perspective. *Postgrad Med J*. 2016 Feb;92:63-9.
63. Yaribeygi H, Mohammadi MT, Rezaee R, Sahebkar A. Crocin improves renal function by declining Nox-4, IL-18, and p53 expression levels in an experimental model of diabetic nephropathy. *J Cell Biochem*. 2018 Jul;119:6080-93.
64. Kahn SE, Cooper ME, Del Prato S. Pathophysiology and treatment of type 2 diabetes: perspectives on the past, present, and future. *Lancet*. 2014 Mar 22;383:1068-83.
65. Yaribeygi H, Sathyapalan T, Atkin SL, Sahebkar A. Molecular Mechanisms Linking Oxidative Stress and Diabetes Mellitus. *Oxid Med Cell Longev*. 2020 Mar 9;2020:8609213.
66. Erbas O, Pala HG, Pala EE, Oltulu F, Aktug H, Yavasoglu A, et al. Ovarian failure in diabetic rat model: nuclear factor-kappaB, oxidative stress, and pentraxin-3. *Taiwan J Obstet Gynecol*. 2014 Dec;53:498-503.
67. Short-term sustained hyperglycaemia fosters an archetypal senescence-associated secretory phenotype in endothelial cells and macrophages. *Redox Biology*. 2018 May 1;15:170-81.
68. Elmas O, Erbas O, Yigitturk G. The efficacy of *Aesculus hippocastanum* seeds on diabetic nephropathy in a streptozotocin-induced diabetic rat model. *Biomed Pharmacother*. 2016 Oct;83:392-396.
69. Giacco F, Brownlee M. Oxidative stress and diabetic complications. *Circ Res*. 2010 Oct 29;107:1058-70.
70. Yilmaz M, Aktug H, Oltulu F, Erbas O. Neuroprotective effects of folic acid on experimental diabetic peripheral neuropathy. *Toxicol Ind Health*. 2016 May;32:832-40.
71. Pérez-Matute P, Zulet MA, Martínez JA. Reactive species and diabetes: counteracting oxidative stress to improve health. *Curr Opin Pharmacol*. 2009 Dec;9:771-9.
72. Erbas O, Oltulu F, Yilmaz M, Yavasoglu A, Taskiran D. Neuroprotective effects of chronic administration of levetiracetam in a rat model of diabetic neuropathy. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2016 Apr;114:106-16.
73. Butterfield DA, Koppal T, Howard B, Subramaniam R, Hall N, Hensley K, et al. Structural and functional changes in proteins induced by free radical-mediated oxidative stress and protective action of the antioxidants N-tert-butyl-alpha-phenylnitron and vitamin E. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 1998 Nov 20;854:448-62.
74. Matough FA, Budin SB, Hamid ZA, Alwahaibi N, Mohamed J. The role of oxidative stress and antioxidants in diabetic complications. *Sultan Qaboos Univ Med J*. 2012 Feb;12:5-18.
75. Kunos G, Tam J. The case for peripheral CB₁ receptor blockade in the treatment of visceral obesity and its cardiometabolic complications. *Br J Pharmacol*. 2011 Aug;163:1423-31.
76. Silvestri C, Di Marzo V. The endocannabinoid system in energy homeostasis and the etiopathology of metabolic disorders. *Cell Metab*. 2013 Apr 2;17:475-90.
77. Boon MR, Kooijman S, van Dam AD, Pelgrom LR, Berbée JFP, Visseren CAR, et al. Peripheral cannabinoid 1 receptor blockade activates brown adipose tissue and diminishes dyslipidemia and obesity. *FASEB J*. 2014 Dec;28:5361-75.
78. Di Marzo V. "De-liver-ance" from CB1: A way to counteract insulin resistance? *Gastroenterology*. 2012 May;142:1063-6.
79. Kumawat VS, Kaur G. Therapeutic potential of cannabinoid receptor 2 in the treatment of diabetes mellitus and its complications. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2019 Nov 5;862:172628.
80. Coskun ZM, Bolkent S. Oxidative stress and cannabinoid receptor expression in type-2 diabetic rat pancreas following treatment with Δ^9 -THC. *Cell Biochem Funct*. 2014 Oct;32:612-9.