

Marijuana and Lung Disease

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As marijuana smoking prevalence increases in the United States, concern regarding its potential risks to lung health has also risen, given the general similarity in the smoke contents between marijuana and tobacco. Most studies have found a significant association between marijuana smoking and chronic bronchitis symptoms after adjustment for tobacco. Although reports are mixed regarding associations between marijuana smoking and lung function, none have shown a relationship to decrements in FEV₁ and few have found a relationship to a decreased ratio of FEV₁/FVC, possibly related to an association between marijuana and an increased FVC. A few studies have found a modest reduction in specific airway conductance in relation to marijuana, probably reflecting endoscopic evidence of bronchial mucosal edema among habitual marijuana smokers. Diffusing capacity in marijuana smokers has been normal, and two studies of thoracic high-resolution CT scan have not shown any association of marijuana smoking with emphysema. Although bronchial biopsies from habitual marijuana smokers have shown precancerous histopathologic changes, a large cohort study and a pooled analysis of six well-designed case-control studies have not found evidence of a link between marijuana smoking and lung cancer. The immunosuppressive effects of delta-9 tetrahydrocannabinol raise the possibility of an increased risk of pneumonia, but further studies are needed to evaluate this potential risk. Several cases series have demonstrated pneumothoraces/pneumomediastinum and bullous lung disease in marijuana smokers, but these associations require epidemiologic studies for firmer evidence of possible causality.

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Marijuana is the second most commonly smoked substance in our society after tobacco. According to US national surveys, after an initial decline in marijuana use from 1990 through 2005 among adults ≥ 18 years of age, its use prevalence increased markedly over the following 10 years.¹ This surge in use was most notable among those 40 to 59 years of age, and by 2014 to 2015, 12.9% of all adults reported using marijuana within the last year. More potentially concerning has been the increase in daily or near-daily

use from 5.1% to 7.6% over roughly the same time interval among individuals ≥ 12 years of age.² This rise in use prevalence has been accompanied by changing perceptions regarding the risks and benefits of marijuana use that are likely related to the legalization of marijuana for medicinal use by 29 states in the United States and for recreational use in seven states as of 2017.

The smoke of marijuana contains many of the same volatile and particulate

ABBREVIATIONS: AM = alveolar macrophage; ROS = reactive oxygen species; THC = delta-9 tetrahydrocannabinol

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111 components found in tobacco smoke, including a
 112 variety of chemicals (phenols, aldehydes, acrolein, etc)
 113 that are injurious to lung tissue, and carcinogens,
 114 including benzpyrene and benzanthracene.^{3,4} The
 115 major exceptions are nicotine, found only in tobacco,
 116 and delta-9 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the major
 117 psychoactive ingredient, and a number of THC-like
 118 compounds, namely cannabinoids, in marijuana. In
 119 view of the similarity in the smoke contents of
 120 marijuana and tobacco, the increasing use of
 121 marijuana in our society, particularly on a daily or
 122 near-daily basis, raises concern regarding a potential
 123 link between marijuana smoking and the well-known
 124 deleterious effects of regular tobacco smoking on the
 125 lung, particularly regarding increased risks for
 126 developing COPD and lung cancer. Complicating this
 127 public health issue is the observation that most
 128 marijuana smokers also smoke tobacco, requiring
 129 methods of analysis that control for concomitant
 130 tobacco use and examine possible interactive effects
 131 and/or restricting the analysis to a comparison of
 132 marijuana smokers alone vs nonsmokers of any
 133 substance. The aim of this article is to review the
 134 evidence mainly from the limited number of
 135 publications largely based on observational cohort
 136 studies that have systematically addressed these
 137 concerns. In addition, findings from case series and
 138 other observational studies pertaining to a possible link
 139 between marijuana and other forms of lung disease,
 140 including pneumothorax/pneumomediastinum,
 141 bullous lung disease, and pneumonia risk, will also be
 142 reviewed. Although increasing numbers of users of
 143 marijuana are adopting other modes of use than
 144 smoking (eg, vaping, ingestion of edibles), little
 145 information concerning the impact of these alternative
 146 modes of use on lung health is available. Therefore, the
 147 focus of this review will be confined to smoked
 148 marijuana.

153 Marijuana and Symptoms of Chronic 154 Bronchitis

155 Ten cross-sectional or prospective cohort studies have
 156 examined the association between marijuana use and
 157 chronic respiratory symptoms (mainly cough, sputum,
 158 wheeze, and/or dyspnea) after adjusting for tobacco or
 159 comparing the marijuana-only users with
 160 nonsmokers.⁵⁻¹⁴ The findings are shown in [Table 1](#).
 161 Despite the heterogeneity of the populations studied
 162 regarding age, amount of marijuana smoked, the
 163 presence of concomitant tobacco smoking (controlled

164 for in the analysis), and geographic location, the results
 165 reveal general, albeit incomplete, agreement regarding a
 166 significant association of marijuana use with symptoms
 167 of chronic bronchitis (cough, sputum, and wheeze). The
 168 notable exceptions were the studies of Tan et al¹¹ and
 169 Morris et al,¹⁴ which included older subjects who may
 170 not have smoked as much marijuana as their younger
 171 counterparts. In addition, Tan et al¹¹ appeared to find an
 172 interaction between marijuana and tobacco such that the
 173 smokers of both substances were more likely to have
 174 chronic respiratory symptoms than the smokers of
 175 either substance alone. On the other hand, a similar
 176 interaction was not reported by other investigators. In
 177 addition, one study showed an increased incidence of
 178 acute bronchitic episodes over the previous 3 years in
 179 habitual marijuana smokers compared with
 180 nonsmokers.⁶ Somewhat consistent with the latter
 181 findings, a large prospective cohort study in Northern
 182 California found that a subgroup of 452 frequent
 183 marijuana smokers who reported never smoking
 184 tobacco had a significantly increased risk of outpatient
 185 visits for respiratory illnesses than 450 nonsmoking
 186 control subjects.¹⁵ As part of another cohort study in
 187 upstate New York, investigators interviewed 749
 188 participants at 14, 16, 22, and 27 years of age and found
 189 a significant association of marijuana use with self-
 190 reported respiratory problems (not specifically defined)
 191 occurring by their late twenties. However, the analysis
 192 was not adjusted for concomitant tobacco use.¹⁶ Two
 193 longitudinal studies have shown at least partial
 194 resolution of chronic respiratory symptoms in
 195 marijuana smokers who quit smoking marijuana.^{13,17} In
 196 one of these studies, resolution of symptoms occurred
 197 only in those former marijuana smokers who did not
 198 also smoke tobacco.¹⁷

200 Bronchoscopic studies performed in habitual smokers of
 201 marijuana alone (n = 40), tobacco alone (n = 31),
 202 marijuana plus tobacco (n = 44), and never smokers
 203 (n = 53) provide a clue as to the possible underlying
 204 mechanism for the association of marijuana use with
 205 chronic bronchitic symptoms.¹⁸ Bronchial mucosal
 206 biopsies revealed widespread histopathologic changes in
 207 the bronchial mucosa in marijuana smokers alone that
 208 were comparable with those in the tobacco-only smokers,
 209 consisting of destruction of the ciliated columnar
 210 bronchial epithelial cells and their replacement by mucus-
 211 secreting surface epithelial (goblet) cells or reserve cells
 212 ([Fig 1](#)).¹⁸ An increase in mucus secretion in the face of an
 213 impairment in the mucociliary escalator could contribute
 214 to cough as an alternative mechanism to cleanse the

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