

1 **Rewiring the endocannabinoid system pharmacology through the kinome.**

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10 **Abstract**

11 The endocannabinoid system (ECS) orchestrates neural, immune, and metabolic homeostasis;
12 however, its therapeutic translation has been persistently constrained by the psychoactive
13 burden and pharmacodynamic liabilities associated with CB₁ and CB₂ receptor activation.
14 Notably, endogenous cannabinoids fail to reproduce the psychotropic effects of
15 phytocannabinoids, underscoring a fundamental disconnect between physiological ECS
16 signaling and receptor-centric drug design. Beyond classical ligand–receptor paradigms, the
17 ECS operates within kinase-regulated signaling networks that control receptor trafficking,
18 intracellular signal integration, and endocannabinoid biosynthesis and degradation. This review
19 reframes ECS pharmacology through the lens of the kinome, identifying MAPK, AMPK, PKA,
20 PKC, and PI3K/Akt pathways as critical intracellular nodes amenable to therapeutic
21 intervention. We evaluate emerging strategies—including ATP-competitive inhibitors,
22 allosteric modulators, PROTACs, molecular glues, and dual-target hybrid compounds—that
23 enable receptor-independent modulation of ECS function. Proof-of-concept studies across
24 neuroinflammatory, metabolic, and tolerance-related models illustrate the translational
25 potential of this approach. By positioning the kinome as a druggable interface, this framework
26 advances ECS therapeutics beyond surface receptor engagement toward mechanism-informed,
27 scalable, and precision-oriented interventions.

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29 **Keywords:** Endocannabinoid system (ECS), Protein Kinase Signaling, Small-Molecule
30 Therapeutics, Kinase Inhibitors and Modulators, Targeted Drug Development

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32 **1. Introduction**

33 The endocannabinoid system (ECS) represents a fundamental homeostatic system that
34 integrates neuronal signaling with immune and metabolic processes [1]. Beyond cannabinoid
35 receptor 1 (CB1) and cannabinoid receptor 2 (CB2) receptor signaling, the ECS modulates
36 intracellular pathways through lipid mediators, kinase activity, and GPCR crosstalk [2]. It fine-
37 tunes neuronal excitability, immune cell dynamics, and energy homeostasis in response to
38 environmental and physiological cues [3]. Dysregulation of ECS signaling contributes to
39 neuroinflammation, metabolic disorders, and cancer, positioning the system as a critical
40 therapeutic target [4].

41 While the ECS has been extensively examined through cannabinoid receptor signaling and
42 endocannabinoid metabolism, its regulation by intracellular signaling cascades remains
43 underexplored and conceptually underdeveloped [5]. Protein kinases critically modulate ECS
44 activity by integrating extracellular cues into coordinated cellular responses that govern
45 receptor signaling, endocannabinoid turnover, and downstream functional outcomes [6].
46 Despite this, most therapeutic strategies targeting the ECS have relied on direct modulation of
47 cannabinoid receptors or metabolic enzymes [7-9], thereby overlooking the potential of kinase-
48 directed interventions to fine-tune ECS function with greater specificity.

49 Protein kinases, including mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), protein kinase A
50 (PKA), protein kinase C (PKC), and AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), act as central
51 modulators of ECS activity by controlling receptor phosphorylation, intracellular trafficking,
52 and signal propagation [10-13]. Their dysregulation has been implicated in a range of
53 pathological conditions [14], including neurodegenerative disorders, psychiatric diseases,
54 chronic inflammation, and cancer [15-18]. For example, MAPK pathways mediate
55 cannabinoid-induced neuroinflammatory responses [19, 20], while AMPK functions at the
56 interface of ECS and metabolic regulation, making kinase-targeting strategies a compelling yet

57 underutilized approach for ECS-based therapies. The therapeutic relevance of kinases in ECS
58 modulation raises critical questions about the feasibility of kinase inhibitors or activators as
59 indirect modulators of cannabinoid receptor function.

60 The emergence of small-molecule kinase inhibitors, marked by imatinib's landmark approval
61 in 2001, has profoundly reshaped targeted therapy, predominantly within oncology but also
62 expanding into inflammatory and autoimmune conditions [21]. Currently, 80 FDA-approved
63 kinase inhibitors target approximately two dozen kinases, highlighting the therapeutic
64 versatility of this drug class [22]. However, their application to modulate ECS(ECS)-related
65 pathways remains limited. Small molecules present significant therapeutic advantages,
66 including enhanced selectivity, structural tunability, and precise intracellular signaling
67 modulation without direct receptor activation [23], thereby reducing undesirable psychoactive
68 effects. Leveraging kinase inhibitors for ECS modulation thus offers a compelling and
69 underexplored therapeutic opportunity.

70 Given the broad involvement of ECS dysregulation in multiple disease states, including
71 neurodegenerative, inflammatory, and metabolic disorders [3, 24, 25], kinase-based modulation
72 may provide versatile therapeutic strategies. For example, pharmacological targeting of MAPK
73 signaling pathways could mitigate ECS-driven pathology, such as neuroinflammation, without
74 directly engaging cannabinoid receptors (CB1 or CB2). Specific MAPK inhibitors, such as
75 SB203580 (p38 inhibitor) [26, 27] and SP600125 (JNK inhibitor) [28], effectively reduce
76 microglial activation and cytokine production, key processes in neuroinflammation.
77 Cannabinoid-associated metabolic disturbances are primarily mediated through CB1 receptor
78 activation, leading to impaired lipid metabolism [29] and reduced insulin sensitivity [30]. AMP-
79 activated protein kinase (AMPK) activators, such as metformin or AICAR, have been shown to
80 enhance insulin sensitivity and stimulate fatty acid oxidation [31, 32]. Thus, AMPK activators
81 may counter cannabinoid-induced metabolic dysfunction by influencing pathways downstream

82 or independent of CB1 receptor signaling. Together, these examples illustrate how kinase-
83 targeted interventions could offer precise, receptor-independent modulation of ECS signaling,
84 potentially restoring homeostasis across diverse pathological conditions.

85 Regardless of these promising avenues, significant challenges remain in the development of
86 kinase-targeting small-molecule therapies for ECS-related diseases. Selectivity remains a
87 primary concern, as many kinase inhibitors exhibit off-target effects that limit their therapeutic
88 utility [33, 34]. Additionally, the development of drug resistance, particularly in oncology [35]
89 and neurodegenerative diseases [36], necessitates novel strategies to enhance the durability of
90 kinase-targeting therapies. Furthermore, for ECS-related disorders affecting the central nervous
91 system, achieving effective drug concentrations through optimized blood-brain barrier
92 penetration represents another critical challenge. Addressing these issues is essential to fully
93 leverage the therapeutic promise of kinase modulation within the ECS.

94 This review explores the emerging intersection between kinase signaling pathways and the
95 ECS(ECS), highlighting the therapeutic potential of small-molecule kinase modulators. We
96 discuss critical kinase pathways implicated in ECS regulation, assess the current landscape of
97 kinase-targeting drug development, and outline the existing challenges alongside future
98 directions for clinical translation. By shifting focus from traditional receptor-centric approaches
99 toward precise, pathway-specific modulation, we propose a refined therapeutic framework for
100 ECS-related diseases. A deeper understanding of kinase-ECS crosstalk promises innovative
101 therapeutic strategies for disorders driven by ECS dysregulation.

102

103 **2. The ECS and its molecular landscape**

104 The ECS(ECS) is an intricate signaling network that extends far beyond its canonical
105 association with CB1 and CB2 receptors, functioning as a biochemical integrator that regulates

106 neuronal excitability, immune responses, and metabolic homeostasis [37-39]. While
107 traditionally viewed through the lens of ligand-receptor interactions, the ECS operates within a
108 broader molecular framework in which kinases ERK1/2, p38 MAPK, c-Jun N-terminal Kinase,
109 Protein Kinase A, Akt/PKB, AMPK, Cyclin-dependent kinase 5, Focal Adhesion Kinase, Src-
110 family Kinases play a decisive role in modulating receptor activity, intracellular signaling, and
111 enzymatic turnover [13, 40-47]. The ECS(ECS) is tightly regulated by kinase-driven
112 phosphorylation events that shape receptor signaling, endocannabinoid metabolism, and
113 cellular responses. Yet, the therapeutic potential of this kinase–ECS crosstalk remains
114 unexplored. As kinome-targeting strategies evolve beyond oncology [48-50], uncovering how
115 specific kinases modulate ECS dynamics could reveal novel, pathway-selective opportunities
116 for intervention—expanding cannabinoid pharmacology beyond receptor-centric approaches.

117 Central to the endocannabinoid system, CB1 and CB2 are its most extensively characterized
118 receptors—class A G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) that initiate intracellular signaling
119 through ligand-induced conformational changes and subsequent G protein coupling [51, 52].
120 CB1, widely distributed in the central nervous system, modulates synaptic transmission by
121 inhibiting adenylylase activity, reducing cAMP levels, and regulating ion channels [53,
122 54]. Its functional consequences range from neuroprotection and plasticity to behavioral
123 modulation [55-59], but chronic activation often leads to receptor desensitization, an adaptive
124 response driven by phosphorylation events mediated by protein kinase A (PKA), protein kinase
125 C (PKC), and G protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) [60]. From a kinome perspective,
126 CB1 integrates into complex intracellular networks, including ERK1/2 and Akt signaling
127 cascades, highlighting the broader relevance of kinase activity in shaping cannabinoid
128 responses.

129 Although structurally homologous to CB1, the CB2 receptor displays distinct physicochemical
130 and pharmacological features aligned with its peripheral specialization. It is predominantly

131 expressed in immune cells and peripheral tissues, where its activation orchestrates anti-
132 inflammatory responses by modulating cytokine release, immune cell trafficking, and
133 resolution of inflammation [61-63]. Unlike CB1, CB2 exhibits lower constitutive activity and
134 a more restricted expression profile than CB1, which contributes to its peripheral selectivity,
135 lack of psychotropic effects, and favorable safety margin [64, 65]. From a kinome perspective,
136 CB2 signaling engages mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades, including ERK1/2,
137 p38, and JNK, as well as PI3K/Akt and NF- κ B pathways—positioning it as a key node in the
138 regulation of immune and inflammatory responses [41, 66-69]. Phosphorylation by G protein-
139 coupled receptor kinases (GRKs) and other kinases also governs CB2 desensitization and
140 internalization, although with distinct kinetics and sensitivity compared to CB1 [63, 70]. These
141 properties position CB2 as a compelling target for kinase-informed therapies in
142 immunomodulation, neuroinflammation, and chronic pain, where peripheral selectivity and
143 minimal CNS side effects are clinically desirable.

144 Beyond CB1 and CB2, several non-canonical components of the ECS—including transient
145 receptor potential vanilloid 1 (TRPV1), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs),
146 and orphan G protein-coupled receptors such as GPR55 and GPR18—contribute to the
147 functional landscape of endocannabinoid signaling [71]. These receptors intersect with diverse
148 kinase pathways: TRPV1 activity is modulated by phosphorylation via PKC and MAPKs,
149 linking it to nociceptive and inflammatory signaling [72]; PPARs, as nuclear receptors, are
150 regulated by upstream kinases like AMPK and ERK, influencing lipid metabolism and
151 inflammation [73]; GPR55 engages with RhoA and ERK signaling, implicating it in processes
152 such as osteogenesis and cancer progression [74, 75]; and GPR18, though less characterized,
153 has been associated with immune modulation and may interact with intracellular kinase
154 cascades [76]. Understanding how these non-classical ECS components interface with the

155 kinome may uncover additional targets for selective modulation of ECS-related physiology and
156 pathology.

157 ECS activity is equally dependent on the dynamic balance between endocannabinoid
158 biosynthesis and degradation, a process controlled by enzymatic machinery subject to kinase
159 regulation [77]. The principal endocannabinoids, anandamide (AEA) and 2-
160 arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG), are synthesized on demand through lipid remodeling enzymes
161 such as N-acyl-phosphatidylethanolamine-specific phospholipase D (NAPE-PLD) and
162 diacylglycerol lipase (DAGL), respectively. Their degradation, primarily mediated by fatty acid
163 amide hydrolase (FAAH) and monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL), dictates local
164 endocannabinoid tone and signaling duration [78]. Importantly, these enzymatic pathways are
165 dynamically regulated by kinase-driven phosphorylation, which modulates their activity,
166 localization, and signaling interactions. For example, ERK1/2 activation can influence FAAH
167 expression, altering AEA degradation rates [79], while AMPK activation may influence
168 endocannabinoid signaling by modulating metabolic pathways that regulate CB1 receptor
169 activity rather than directly altering lipid precursor availability [80].

170 Beyond GPCR and metabolic roles, endocannabinoid signaling intersects with kinase-regulated
171 neurotransmitter systems, modulating serotonergic, dopaminergic, and purinergic pathways via
172 receptor crosstalk and signaling convergence [81, 82]. The interaction between CB1 and
173 serotonin 5-HT_{1A} receptors, for instance, modulates ERK and p38 MAPK activity, impacting
174 mood regulation and stress responses [83, 84]. Similarly, adenosine A_{2A} receptor signaling,
175 which intersects with CB1 at the striatal level, is governed by PKA and MAPK activity [85],
176 illustrating the broader kinase-dependent landscape in which cannabinoid pharmacology is
177 embedded. These interactions highlight that cannabinoid effects arise not in isolation, but
178 through kinase-driven signaling networks shaping their biological outcomes.

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180 **3. Kinome modulation of the endocannabinoid system**

181 Targeting the kinome offers a pathway-selective strategy to modulate the ECS without directly
182 engaging cannabinoid receptors—an approach that may overcome limitations such as
183 desensitization, psychoactivity, and receptor redundancy [86]. Several classes of small-
184 molecule therapeutics have emerged to selectively modulate kinase activity associated with
185 ECS signaling, each with distinct mechanistic and translational profiles [87]. To operationalize
186 kinase-directed modulation of the ECS, several mechanistically distinct therapeutic classes
187 have emerged. ATP-competitive inhibitors disrupt phosphorylation cascades relevant to ECS
188 signaling, including MAPK, AMPK, PKA, and PKC, without engaging cannabinoid receptors
189 directly [88]. Allosteric modulators act at non-catalytic sites to fine-tune kinase or receptor
190 function with enhanced selectivity [89]. Targeted protein degraders—including PROTACs and
191 molecular glues—enable catalytic elimination of kinases and non-enzymatic regulators
192 implicated in ECS dysregulation [90, 91]. Finally, hybrid dual-target compounds integrate
193 cannabinoid receptor ligands and kinase modulators within a single scaffold to synergize
194 membrane and intracellular modulation [92]. The following sections dissect each strategy's
195 mechanism of action, pharmacological scope, and translational relevance to ECS-related
196 disorders.

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198 **3.1 ATP-competitive kinase inhibitors**

199 ATP-competitive inhibitors are among the most clinically validated small molecules, targeting
200 the conserved ATP-binding cleft of kinases to block phosphorylation and downstream signaling
201 [93]. Beyond catalytic inhibition, their binding can induce conformational changes that
202 modulate kinase dynamics and regulatory interactions, conferring functional selectivity [94].
203 While most bind reversibly, covalent and irreversible variants have been designed to enhance

204 target engagement and prolong pharmacodynamic effects. In the ECS(ECS), key kinases such
205 as ERK1/2, p38, JNK, PKA, PKC, AMPK, and CDK5—implicated in receptor regulation,
206 immune modulation, metabolic control, and neuroplasticity—are susceptible to ATP-
207 competitive inhibition. By targeting these kinases, such inhibitors offer a precise, indirect means
208 of modulating ECS activity in disease contexts marked by its dysregulation [95].

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210 **MAPK Pathways and ECS Crosstalk**

211 Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs)—including ERK1/2, JNK, and p38—are key
212 effectors of endocannabinoid receptor signaling, linking CB1 and CB2 activation to
213 transcriptional regulation, cytokine production, and cell fate decisions [11, 96]. CB1
214 engagement promotes ERK1/2 phosphorylation via G_{i/o}-dependent transactivation of receptor
215 tyrosine kinases, supporting neuronal differentiation and neurite outgrowth [97]. In contrast,
216 CB2 preferentially activates p38 and JNK, driving proinflammatory cytokine release and
217 chemotaxis in immune cells [98]. This signaling convergence has therapeutic implications:
218 MAPK inhibitors such as selumetinib (MEK1/2), SB203580 (p38), and SP600125 (JNK)
219 attenuate ECS-associated inflammatory responses in astrocytes and microglia [99, 100]. These
220 findings highlight MAPK pathways as critical nodes for pharmacological modulation of ECS
221 activity in neuroinflammatory and immune-related disorders.

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227 **PKA and PKC in receptor desensitization and synaptic modulation**

228 Protein kinase A (PKA) and protein kinase C (PKC) are central to cannabinoid receptor
229 regulation, mediating desensitization and synaptic adaptation [101, 102]. While CB1 activation
230 acutely suppresses adenylyl cyclase and reduces cAMP, sustained stimulation induces receptor
231 phosphorylation via PKA and PKC, leading to desensitization, internalization, and tolerance
232 [43]. Pharmacological inhibition of these kinases with H89 (PKA) and Gö6983 (PKC) prevents
233 CB1 desensitization in neuronal systems, enhancing G-protein coupling and preserving receptor
234 responsiveness [44]. These findings support PKA/PKC inhibition as a viable approach to
235 sustain ECS signaling under conditions of chronic receptor activation, with implications for
236 pain, addiction, and neurodegenerative disorders.

237

238 **AMPK and Metabolic Modulation**

239 AMP-activated protein kinase serves as a key metabolic sensor and modulator of ECS-driven
240 energy balance. Central CB₁ receptor activation inhibits hypothalamic AMPK, promoting
241 hyperphagia and lipid accumulation, while peripheral CB₁ signaling suppresses hepatic AMPK,
242 contributing to insulin resistance and steatosis[103-106]. Pharmacological AMPK activation
243 with agents such as AICAR or metformin analogs reverses these effects, restoring metabolic
244 homeostasis and improving insulin sensitivity in ECS-dysregulated models [107-109].
245 Although not ATP-competitive, these activators act through allosteric or AMP-mimetic
246 mechanisms, enabling ECS modulation independently of direct cannabinoid receptor targeting
247 [110].

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250 **CDK5 and ECS plasticity**

251 Cyclin-dependent kinase 5 (CDK5), though structurally divergent from other CDKs, is essential
252 for neural development and synaptic remodeling [111]. CB1 receptor signaling has been shown
253 to modulate CDK5 activity through p25 generation, leading to phosphorylation events that
254 regulate receptor internalization and desensitization, particularly in the context of long-term
255 synaptic depression and addiction-related neuroplasticity. [112]. Palbociclib, a selective
256 CDK4/6 inhibitor with minimal activity against other CDKs, has recently been shown to bind
257 and inhibit the non-kinase protein STING with high affinity, suggesting potential
258 immunomodulatory properties beyond its canonical cell cycle effects; such off-target activity
259 may intersect with ECS-regulated synaptic functions, though this remains to be fully elucidated.
260 [113].

261

262 **Advantages and Limitations**

263 ATP-competitive kinase inhibitors are supported by extensive pharmacological validation, with
264 well-defined scaffolds, favorable pharmacokinetics, and established clinical use—particularly
265 in oncology and inflammatory disorders [114]. Several compounds are FDA-approved,
266 facilitating repurposing opportunities for ECS-related conditions [115]. However, their utility
267 is constrained by limited selectivity due to the conserved nature of the ATP-binding cleft across
268 the kinome, increasing the risk of off-target effects and systemic toxicity [116]. Chronic
269 inhibition of key signaling nodes may also trigger adaptive responses, including pathway
270 rewiring and compensatory signaling, reducing long-term efficacy [117]. Within the ECS, these
271 challenges are compounded by the absence of inhibitors specifically optimized for its signaling
272 architecture, highlighting the need for rational design strategies that account for isoform
273 specificity, spatial dynamics, and network topology in ECS-active tissues.

274

275 **Table 1.** Clinically approved ATP-competitive kinase inhibitors with potential implications for
276 ECS-related pathophysiology

Inhibitor Name	Primary Kinase Targets	Mechanism of Action	FDA-Approved Indications	Potential ECS Relevance
Osimertinib	EGFR (mutant forms)	Irreversible inhibition of mutant EGFR via ATP-binding site	NSCLC with EGFR mutations	EGFR-ERK cross-talk may affect ECS tone in glioma
Dasatinib	SRC, BCR-ABL, others	Broad tyrosine kinase inhibitor	CML, ALL	SRC is implicated in CB1 receptor trafficking
Ruxolitinib	JAK1/2	JAK-STAT pathway inhibition via ATP-competitive binding	Myelofibrosis, polycythemia vera	JAK-STAT links to ECS cytokine regulation
Ibrutinib	BTK, EGFR (weak)	BTK inhibition in B-cell signaling	B-cell malignancies	BTK activity can influence ECS in immune cells
Palbociclib	CDK4/6	Inhibits CDK-mediated cell cycle progression	ER+ breast cancer	Off-target CDK5 inhibition affects CB1 synaptic regulation
Sunitinib	VEGFR, PDGFR, KIT, FLT3	Multi-kinase inhibition	Renal cell carcinoma, GIST	Angiogenesis and ECS both regulate tumor microenvironment
Lorlatinib	ALK, ROS1	Inhibits fusion kinases in NSCLC	ALK+ NSCLC	ALK signaling may intersect with CB2 in brain tumor models

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279 3.2 PROTACs (Proteolysis-Targeting Chimeras)

280 PROTACs are heterobifunctional molecules that induce targeted protein degradation by
281 harnessing the ubiquitin–proteasome system. Each PROTAC contains a ligand for the protein
282 of interest (POI), an E3 ligase recruiter, and a linker. Upon entering the cell, they promote
283 ternary complex formation between the POI and E3 ligase, resulting in polyubiquitination—
284 primarily via K48 chains—and subsequent proteasomal degradation.

285 PROTACs are heterobifunctional molecules that induce selective protein degradation by co-
286 opting the ubiquitin–proteasome system. They consist of a ligand for the protein of interest
287 (POI), an E3 ligase recruiter, and a linker. Upon cellular entry, PROTACs facilitate ternary

288 complex formation between the POI and E3 ligase, leading to K48-linked polyubiquitination
289 and subsequent proteasomal degradation [118]. Unlike conventional inhibitors that transiently
290 block activity, PROTACs catalytically eliminate the entire protein, enabling sustained depletion
291 and targeting of non-enzymatic or scaffolding proteins previously considered undruggable
292 [119]. This strategy offers several advantages: irreversible target removal, substoichiometric
293 efficacy, and the ability to bypass active-site dependency—broadening therapeutic scope to
294 include regulatory proteins implicated in ECS signaling [120, 121].

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296 **Kinase-Directed PROTACs as Emerging Tools for ECS Regulation**

297 Originally designed to degrade oncogenic kinases, PROTACs are now being explored to target
298 kinases that modulate ECS signaling, including ERK1/2, CDK5, AMPK, and FAK. These
299 kinases regulate ECS-linked processes such as neuroinflammation, synaptic plasticity, and
300 metabolic control, making them suitable for proteasomal degradation via proximity-induced
301 mechanisms [45]. ERK1/2, activated downstream of CB1 and CB2 receptors, modulates glial
302 reactivity and cytokine release; selective degradation may attenuate neuroinflammation while
303 sparing basal MAPK activity—an advantage over ATP-competitive inhibitors [66, 122]. CDK5,
304 implicated in CB1 receptor desensitization and synaptic remodeling, has been effectively
305 targeted by PROTACs to modulate cannabinoid tolerance [45]. By promoting catalytic
306 degradation, PROTACs enable intermittent dosing with sustained effects, reducing off-target
307 toxicity. Their ability to bind non-catalytic sites overcomes resistance from ATP-binding
308 mutations, a common limitation of classical kinase inhibitors[123]. In ECS-enriched
309 malignancies, PROTACs may suppress oncogenic signaling via downstream kinase
310 degradation, without activating cannabinoid receptors—offering a receptor-independent,
311 precision-based therapeutic strategy for neurological, metabolic, and neoplastic disorders [124-
312 126].

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Challenges and limitations

Despite their therapeutic promise, PROTACs face key limitations. Their high molecular weight (700–1,100 Da) restricts membrane permeability, limits oral bioavailability, and impairs blood–brain barrier penetration—hindering CNS-targeted ECS applications. Although advances in linker chemistry and polarity optimization have improved drug-like properties, most PROTACs remain confined to peripheral or oncologic contexts [127]. Tissue-selective degradation is further constrained by reliance on endogenous E3 ligase expression [128]. Clinically used ligases, such as cereblon (CRBN) and von Hippel–Lindau (VHL), display heterogeneous expression across ECS-relevant cell types, including astrocytes, microglia, and peripheral immune cells [129]. Recruitment of alternative ligases—such as DCAF15, RNF114, or KEAP1—may improve cellular specificity and expand applicability. Finally, unintended proteome remodeling remains a concern [130]. Off-target ubiquitination, particularly at high concentrations or with sustained exposure, underscores the need for systematic proteomic and transcriptomic profiling to ensure selectivity and safety in clinical translation [131].

335 **Table 2.** Selected PROTACs targeting kinases and epigenetic regulators with potential
 336 relevance to ECSmodulation.

PROTAC Name	Target Protein	Recruiting E3 Ligase	Mechanism of Action	Potential Relevance	ECS	Development Stage
ARV-771	BRD4 (bromodomain-containing)	VHL	Degrades BRD4; suppresses oncogenic transcriptional programs	BRD4 may modulate neuroinflammation downstream of ECS		Preclinical; oncology
dCDK5-1	CDK5	CRBN	Induces degradation of CDK5; disrupts phosphorylation-linked plasticity	CDK5 involved in CB1 desensitization and addiction		Preclinical; ECS-relevant in vitro
MS147	EZH2/EED (PRC2 complex)	VHL	Targeted degradation of PRC2 components; epigenetic reprogramming	PRC2 regulates ECS-linked epigenetic plasticity in neurons		Preclinical; CNS studies
ARV-110	Androgen Receptor (AR)	CRBN	Degrades AR; inhibits AR signaling in prostate cancer	Hormonal-ECS crosstalk in metabolic and prostate disorders		Phase I/II clinical trials
dERK1/2 PROTACs	ERK1/2 (MAPK pathway)	VHL or CRBN	Degrades ERK1/2 to attenuate MAPK signaling in inflammation and cancer	ERK1/2 is a key effector of CB1/CB2 signaling		Experimental; proof-of-concept

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340 3.3 Allosteric Strategies for ECS Modulation

341 Allosteric modulators regulate protein function by binding to non-catalytic sites, inducing
 342 conformational changes that enhance (PAMs) or inhibit (NAMs) activity. Unlike ATP-
 343 competitive inhibitors, they offer greater selectivity, reduced off-target effects, and partial
 344 modulation of signaling intensity [132]. While predominantly studied at cannabinoid
 345 receptors—particularly CB1—emerging data support the allosteric targeting of intracellular
 346 effectors within ECS pathways [133]. Regulatory kinases such as ERK1/2, PKA, and AMPK
 347 possess defined allosteric pockets, providing opportunities for fine-tuned modulation of ECS-
 348 linked signaling without disrupting basal activity [134-136]. CB1 allosteric ligands like
 349 Org27569, PSNCBAM-1, and GAT211 further validate this approach, altering receptor
 350 conformation, ligand affinity, and downstream signaling dynamics [137-139]. Notably,

351 Org27569 enhances orthosteric ligand binding yet attenuates ERK1/2 activation, exemplifying
352 the potential for pathway-selective ECS modulation via allosteric control of key signaling nodes
353 [140].

354 Multiple kinases involved in ECS signaling possess allosteric sites that enable selective
355 pathway modulation. ERK1/2 activity can be attenuated via inhibitors targeting docking
356 domains such as the D-recruitment site (DRS), disrupting ECS-related MAPK signaling with
357 improved specificity and reduced cytotoxicity [141], as demonstrated by compounds like
358 SCH772984 and Ulixertinib. PKA, critical for CB1 desensitization and metabolic regulation,
359 can be modulated allosterically through disruption of regulatory subunit interactions or AKAP
360 binding [142, 143], allowing localized inhibition without compromising global cAMP
361 signaling—a strategy particularly relevant to synaptic and mitochondrial ECS regulation [144].
362 AMPK, a metabolic integrator under ECS control, is activated allosterically by ligands such as
363 PF-06409577 and compound 991, which enhance Thr172 phosphorylation while avoiding off-
364 target effects seen with AMP mimetics [145].

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366 **Advantages of allosteric modulation in ECS pharmacology**

367 Allosteric modulation confers key advantages in ECS-targeted therapy by engaging non-
368 conserved sites, improving isoform selectivity, and minimizing off-target effects [94, 146].
369 Unlike orthosteric or ATP-competitive inhibitors, allosteric agents enable graded regulation
370 while preserving basal signaling—critical in homeostatic systems where both excess and
371 deficiency are deleterious [147, 148]. Their pharmacodynamic profile allows flexible dosing,
372 sustained engagement, and reduced risk of receptor or kinase downregulation [133]. In
373 disorders characterized by subtle ECS imbalance, such precision may offer an improved
374 therapeutic window.

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Limitations and translational barriers

Despite their promise, allosteric modulators face significant development challenges. The structural variability and low conservation of allosteric sites complicate ligand design and require high-resolution structural data for selectivity [149]. Limited availability of scalable screening platforms further constrains discovery and validation. Functional efficacy is also context-dependent, influenced by receptor conformation, endogenous ligand occupancy, cell-type specificity, and post-translational modifications [150]. In the ECS, a major barrier is the paucity of validated allosteric sites on key kinases [151, 152]. While MAPK and AMPK pathways offer *proof-of-concept*, modulation of kinases such as CDK5, GSK3 β , and PI3K remains poorly characterized, underscoring the need for targeted structural and pharmacological exploration.

396 **Table 3.** Selected allosteric modulators of kinase signaling with potential relevance to
 397 ECSregulation

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Modulator Name	Target Protein	Allosteric Mechanism	Potential ECS Relevance	Development Stage
MK-2206	AKT (Protein Kinase B)	Binds pleckstrin homology (PH) domain to inhibit membrane localization	AKT involved in CB1/CB2 survival signaling and synaptic plasticity	Phase I/II clinical trials (oncology)
GDC-0068 (Ipatasertib)	AKT1/2/3	Allosteric inhibition of AKT activation via PH domain engagement	Inhibits pro-survival pathways downstream of ECS activation in cancer	Phase II trials (prostate, breast cancer)
STO-609	CaMKK β (Calmodulin-dependent Kinase Kinase β)	Inhibits upstream kinase required for AMPK activation	Disrupts AMPK-CaMKK β link; affects metabolic ECS regulation	Preclinical tool compound
CCG-203971	RhoA/MRTF/SRF Pathway (via ROCK kinase)	Allosteric modulation of Rho/MRTF signaling; reduces inflammatory gene expression	Modulates pro-inflammatory ECS signaling in glial cells	Preclinical; fibrosis and inflammation models
PF-4708671	S6K1 (Ribosomal Protein S6 Kinase)	Inhibits autoinhibitory region of S6K1 to reduce mTOR signaling	Downstream target of CB1-mTOR axis in neurodevelopment and plasticity	Experimental; neuroscience models

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402 3.4 Molecular glues and targeted degraders

403 Molecular glues represent a distinct class of small-molecule degraders that induce proteasomal
 404 degradation through monovalent binding. Unlike PROTACs, they stabilize transient
 405 interactions between target proteins and E3 ligases [153], enabling ubiquitination without the
 406 need for bifunctional architecture [154]. Initially identified via phenotypic screens, molecular
 407 glues have demonstrated clinical efficacy in hematologic malignancies [155]—most notably
 408 the immunomodulatory imides (IMiDs) lenalidomide and thalidomide, which promote
 409 degradation of Ikaros and Aiolos via CRBN recruitment[156]. Recent developments have
 410 expanded their applicability to kinases, transcriptional regulators, and scaffolding proteins,
 411 several of which intersect with signaling pathways modulated by the ECS[157].

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413 **Potential applications of molecular glues in ECS-modulated signaling**

414 While no ECS-specific molecular glues are clinically available, their mechanistic rationale is
415 strong. Kinases such as ERK1/2, CDK5, GSK3 β , and PI3K-related scaffolds—key regulators
416 of cannabinoid signaling—represent promising targets for neosubstrate-directed degradation.
417 CDK5, in particular, implicated in CB₁ desensitization and addiction-related plasticity, has
418 shown vulnerability to cereblon-based glue-induced degradation, enabling sustained pathway
419 suppression without continuous inhibition [158]. Neuroinflammation, a key ECS-regulated
420 process, offers further therapeutic opportunities. In glial cells, ECS signaling modulates
421 transcriptional programs via kinase-controlled hubs such as NF- κ B, STAT3, and AP-1, which
422 are also influenced by phytocannabinoids through Nrf2 and MAPK pathways [159]. Molecular
423 glues targeting upstream kinases or transcriptional co-regulators may modulate ECS tone and
424 exert sustained anti-inflammatory effects without receptor engagement.

425

426 **Limitations and Developmental Gaps**

427 Despite their conceptual appeal, molecular glues remain in early stages of development, and
428 several challenges must be addressed before they can be applied to ECS pharmacology [160].
429 The identification of suitable neosubstrate–E3 ligase pairs is currently empirical and not easily
430 predicted by structure alone. Moreover, glue activity is highly context-dependent, influenced
431 by local protein concentrations, post-translational modifications, and cellular proteostasis
432 capacity. A key limitation is the paucity of validated E3 ligases in ECS-relevant cell types. Most
433 molecular glue strategies depend on CRBN or DCAF15, whose expression across glia, neurons,
434 and immune subsets remains heterogeneous and poorly defined. Advancing ECS-targeted
435 applications will require the development of cell type–specific degradation platforms,

436 potentially guided by single-cell proteomics and E3 ligase profiling. Safety considerations also
437 remain paramount, including off-target proteome remodeling and unanticipated transcriptional
438 reprogramming. Given that glues induce novel protein–protein interactions, comprehensive
439 interactome mapping will be critical to mitigate adverse effects, particularly within the CNS.

440 **Limitations and future directions for molecular glues in ECS pharmacology**

441 Despite their mechanistic appeal, molecular glues remain in early development, with several
442 translational barriers. Identification of compatible neosubstrate–E3 ligase pairs is largely
443 empirical and poorly predicted by structural features. Glue activity is highly context-dependent,
444 shaped by local protein abundance, post-translational modifications, and proteostasis dynamics
445 [161]. A key limitation is the absence of validated E3 ligases in ECS-relevant cell types, with
446 current approaches dependent on CRBN or DCAF15, whose expression is variable and poorly
447 defined. Advancing ECS-targeted degradation requires cell type–specific platforms guided by
448 single-cell proteomics. Safety concerns remain, as molecular glues may trigger off-target
449 degradation and transcriptional reprogramming through neomorphic interactions. [162].
450 Interactome mapping will be key to minimizing off-target effects, particularly in the CNS.
451 Molecular glues enable selective degradation of ECS-regulatory proteins beyond the scope of
452 traditional inhibitors and hold promise for future application in neuroinflammation, psychiatry,
453 and metabolic disease.

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459 **Table 4.** Representative molecular glues with potential relevance to ECSregulation.

460

Compound Name	Primary Target(s)	Mechanism of Action	Potential Relevance ECS	Development Stage
Thalidomide	IKZF1/3 (via CRBN)	Promotes CRBN-mediated degradation of transcription factors	IKZF1/3 regulate neuroimmune responses relevant to ECS tone	FDA-approved (leprosy, multiple myeloma)
Lenalidomide	IKZF1/3 (via CRBN)	Enhances CRBN–IKZF complexation and proteasomal degradation	Modulates inflammation pathways indirectly influencing ECS signaling	FDA-approved (hematologic malignancies)
CC-885	GSPT1 (via CRBN)	Induces GSPT1 degradation through E3 ligase recruitment	Regulates translation termination factors with possible ECS impact in cancer	Preclinical; tool compound
Indisulam	RBM39 (via DCAF15)	Facilitates RBM39 ubiquitination via DCAF15 complex formation	Splicing factor control may affect ECS gene expression in glial cells	Phase I/II clinical evaluation
BI-3802	BCL6 (transcriptional repressor)	Self-assembles BCL6 dimers into a degradable polymer	BCL6 involved in immune memory; may shape ECS-immune interactions	Preclinical; proof-of-concept degrader

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463 3.5 Hybrid dual-target molecules: convergent modulation of kinases and the ECS

464 Hybrid dual-target molecules represent an advanced strategy in rational drug design, wherein a
 465 single chemical entity is engineered to simultaneously modulate cannabinoid receptors and
 466 intracellular kinases. This approach capitalizes on the systems-level organization of the
 467 ECS(ECS), which coordinates membrane receptor activation with dynamic intracellular
 468 signaling to regulate homeostasis across neural, immune, and metabolic networks [163, 164].
 469 The rationale for dual-targeting arises from bidirectional crosstalk between CB₁/CB₂ receptors
 470 and kinase pathways (e.g., MAPK, PI3K/Akt, AMPK, GSK3β), where cannabinoid receptors
 471 modulate kinase activity and, conversely, kinases regulate receptor signaling via
 472 phosphorylation-dependent trafficking and desensitization. These interactions are highly
 473 context-dependent, influenced by receptor localization, ligand bias, and cell type [165]. Hybrid

474 compounds that co-modulate cannabinoid receptors and kinases hold promise in conditions
475 involving concurrent ECS and kinase dysregulation. CB₂-GSK3 β and CB₁-AMPK hybrids
476 show potential in neurodegeneration and metabolic disease, respectively, offering synergistic
477 effects and reduced liabilities compared to monotherapies. Key challenges include achieving
478 balanced target affinity, CNS penetration, and oral bioavailability, while avoiding
479 pharmacodynamic interference. Tissue-specific variability in ECS and kinase signaling further
480 complicates optimization, underscoring the need for context-driven design.

481
482
483 **Table 5:** Representative Hybrid Dual-Target Compounds Modulating ECS and Kinase
484 Pathways.

Hybrid Compound Example	Primary Targets	Mechanism of Action	Therapeutic Rationale	Development Status
CB1 antagonist-PI3K inhibitor (e.g., SR141716A-PI3K hybrid)	CB1 receptor + PI3K-Akt pathway	Blocks CB1 signaling and oncogenic PI3K survival pathways simultaneously	Target ECS-PI3K axis in cancers such as glioma and colorectal cancer	Preclinical; rationally designed hybrid analogs
CB2 agonist-FAK inhibitor	CB2 receptor + focal adhesion kinase (FAK)	Activates anti-inflammatory CB2 signaling while inhibiting FAK-driven metastasis	Suppress tumor-associated inflammation and migration in cancer models	Experimental; early in vitro and in vivo validation

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492 **4. Future directions and therapeutic outlook**

493 ECS signaling is shaped by kinase activity within membrane microdomains that coordinate
494 receptor localization, ligand availability, and intracellular transduction[166]. Context-
495 dependent kinase inhibitors (CKIs) exploit these spatial features to modulate ECS pathways
496 with high precision, limiting off-target effects. Emerging degraders such as PROTACs and
497 molecular glues offer selective, irreversible targeting of ECS-linked kinases—enabling
498 sustained pathway suppression without direct receptor engagement. Dual-target ligands co-
499 activating or inhibiting cannabinoid receptors and kinases (e.g., CB₂–PI3K or CB₁–MAPK)
500 may deliver synergistic effects with improved pharmacodynamic control. AI-driven drug
501 discovery and structural modeling accelerate identification of ECS-relevant kinase inhibitors
502 with brain-penetrant profiles [167]. Concurrently, advanced delivery systems—lipid
503 nanoparticles and BBB-activated prodrugs—enhance tissue specificity and therapeutic index
504 [168, 169]. As ECS–kinase interactions vary by genetic, metabolic, and environmental context,
505 kinase-targeted modulation offers a precision-based path forward. Tailoring interventions to
506 patient-specific ECS–kinase profiles may redefine cannabinoid pharmacology through
507 intracellular, mechanism-informed control [170].

508

509 **5. Conclusion**

510 Kinome-targeted strategies offer a mechanistically grounded alternative to conventional ECS
511 pharmacology, shifting the focus from receptor activation to intracellular signaling control.
512 Unlike direct cannabinoid receptor ligands, which are limited by psychoactivity and
513 desensitization, kinase modulation enables selective ECS pathway regulation without engaging
514 psychotropic mechanisms. Importantly, the psychotropic effects of CB₁ activation remain
515 incompletely understood, and endogenous cannabinoids have not demonstrated the same

516 activity as phytocannabinoids—undermining the rationale for targeting these receptors
517 therapeutically. In this context, the kinome provides a more rational entry point. *Proof-of-*
518 *concept* studies using ATP-competitive inhibitors, allosteric modulators, PROTACs, and hybrid
519 ligands show potential for ECS-related applications, leveraging clinically validated kinase
520 platforms. As these strategies evolve, they may redefine cannabinoid-based therapy through
521 enhanced precision, reduced liability, and broader translational feasibility.

522

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