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1 **Can cannabis kill? Characteristics of deaths following cannabis use in England (1998-2020)**

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11

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22 **Abstract**

23 **Background:** Cannabis is the most widely used illegal drug but is rarely considered a causal factor in
24 death.

25
26 **Aims:** This study aimed to understand trends in deaths in England where cannabinoids were detected
27 at post-mortem, and to evaluate the clinical utility of post-mortem cannabinoid concentrations in
28 coronial investigations.

29
30 **Methods:** Deaths with cannabinoid detections reported to the National Programme on Substance
31 Abuse Deaths (NPSAD) were extracted and analysed.

32
33 **Results:** From 1998-2011, on average 7% of all cases reported to NPSAD had a cannabinoid detected
34 ($n \approx 110$ deaths per year), rising to 18% in 2020 ($n=350$). Death following cannabis use alone was rare
35 (4% of cases, $n=136/3,455$). Traumatic injury was the prevalent underlying cause in these cases (62%,
36 $n=84/136$), with cannabis toxicity cited in a single case. Polydrug use was evident in most cases (96%,
37 $n=3,319/3,455$), with acute drug toxicity the prevalent underlying cause 74%, $n=2,458/3,319$). Cardiac
38 complications were the most cited physiological underlying cause of death (4%, $n=144/3,455$). The
39 median average THC post-mortem blood concentrations were several magnitudes lower than
40 previously reported median blood concentrations in living users (cannabis alone: $4.3 \mu\text{g/l}$; cannabis in
41 combination with other drugs: $3.5 \mu\text{g/l}$).

42 **Conclusions:** Risk of death due to cannabis toxicity is negligible. However, cannabis can prove fatal in
43 circumstances with risk of traumatic physical injury, or in individuals with cardiac pathophysiologies.
44 These indirect harms need careful consideration and further study to better elucidate the role
45 cannabis plays in drug-related mortality. Furthermore, the relevance of cannabinoid quantifications
46 in determining cause of death in coronial investigations is limited.

47

48 **Keywords:** Cannabis, cannabinoids, $\Delta 9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol, THC, toxicity, drug-related death

49 **Introduction**

50 The cannabis plant (*Cannabis Sativa L.*) contains more than sixty ligands which bind to the cannabinoid
51 receptors type 1 (CB1) and type 2 (CB2) (Dale and Haylett, 2009). The main intoxicating component of
52 cannabis, Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), is a partial agonist of the CB1 receptor and mediates most
53 of the central nervous system (CNS) effects observed following cannabis use (Kendall and Yudowski,
54 2016). Cannabis intoxication is dose-dependent and can affect memory, attention, and psychomotor
55 performance at low doses, whereas higher doses can trigger paranoid ideations, visual and auditory
56 hallucinations, and potential cardiovascular effects (increased heart rate and blood pressure,
57 arrhythmias) (Breijyeh et al., 2021).

58

59 According to the Office for National Statistics (ONS), cannabis is the most commonly used illegal drug
60 in England and Wales: in 2019/20, 29.6% of people aged 16-59 had used cannabis at least once during
61 their lifetime (ONS, 2020). Despite this use prevalence, cannabis is rarely considered a significant
62 contributory or causal factor in drug-related deaths unless in a trauma setting e.g. road traffic collision
63 (RTC) (Holland et al., 2011). Indeed, drug poisoning deaths in England and Wales involving cannabis
64 have remained low since records began in 1993, averaging 0.6 deaths per million people (ONS, 2020).
65 However, cannabis does negatively affect driving performance by impairing cognitive and motor
66 function with drivers exhibiting increased reaction time, greater lane position variability, and reduced
67 attention (Hartman and Huestis, 2013). The Driving Under the Influence of Drugs, Alcohol and
68 Medicines (DRUID) project in Europe identified cannabis as the second most common psychoactive
69 substance detected in RTC (succeeded only by alcohol) and its prevalence ranged from 0.5-2.2% in
70 serious non-fatal accidents to 0.0-1.8% in fatal accidents (EMCDDA, 2012).

71

72 In this study, deaths following cannabis use reported to the National Programme on Substance Abuse
73 Deaths (NPSAD) have been analysed to understand recent trends in deaths and decedent
74 demographics, and to evaluate the clinical utility of post-mortem cannabis concentrations in coronial
75 investigations.

76 **Methods**

77 National Programme on Substance Abuse Deaths (NPSAD)

78 NPSAD regularly receives reports from 88.0% of English coroners on deaths related to psychoactive
79 drugs, as previously described (Oyekan et al., 2021). A death is referred to a coroner if it has an
80 unknown cause, is violent or unnatural, sudden, and unexplained, occurred during an operation or
81 before the person came out of an anaesthetic, or potentially caused by an industrial disease or
82 poisoning (www.gov.uk, 2020). Toxicology tests are requested dependent upon individual case
83 circumstances at the discretion of the coroner and consulting pathologist.

84 The King's College London Biomedical & Health Sciences, Dentistry, Medicine and Natural &
85 Mathematical Sciences Research Ethics Subcommittee confirmed (November 2020) that NPSAD does
86 not require research ethics committee review as all subjects are deceased.

87 Case Identification

88 A retrospective study design identified all cases with THC and/or its metabolites (THC-COOH and THC-
89 OH) detected that were reported from England by searching the entire NPSAD database (records
90 received 1997 – 22nd April 2021) in the post-mortem drug fields for the numerical code assigned to
91 cannabis.

92 Data Analysis

93 *Software:* Data analysis and statistics (Spearman's rank, Student's t-test; Chi squared) were performed
94 using IBM® SPSS™ Statistics for Windows version 27 and Microsoft Excel 365.

95 *2020 Projection:* The average time between death and coronial inquest conclusion where cannabis is
96 present is 7-10 months. Further deaths occurring in 2020 are therefore anticipated to be reported to
97 NPSAD. Based on jurisdiction reporting trends the number of deaths with cannabinoid detections
98 expected to be received by NPSAD has been projected.

99 *Cause of death:* Circumstances that lead to death are categorised on the death certificate issued by
100 the coroner, as follows:

101 Cause 1a: The immediate cause of death (and underlying if no 1b or 1c cited)

102 Cause 1b: Any disease/circumstances underlying Cause 1a

103 Cause 1c: Any disease/circumstance underlying Cause 1b

104 Cause 2: Any disease/circumstance that did not cause the death but contributed in some way

105 It is not a requirement for a Cause 1b, 1c or 2 to be cited for all deaths (www.gov.uk, 2020). Immediate
106 and underlying cause of death were identified using these criteria.

107 *Deprivation scores:* The English Indices of Deprivation 2019 was used to obtain deprivation data
108 (Ministry of Housing, 2019).

109 **Results**

110 3,455 people died in England and were reported to NPSAD by 22nd April 2021 where cannabinoids
111 were detected in post-mortem tissue(s). An average of 110 deaths per year were reported from 1998-
112 2011, but this has since risen with a total of over 350 deaths projected to be reported from 2020
113 (**Figure 1A**). This increase in prevalence is reflected when considering the percentage of all cases
114 reported to NPSAD: in 1998-2011, an average of 7% of all NPSAD cases had evidence of recent
115 cannabis use, which rose to 18% for those reported from 2020 (**Figure 1B**). Concurrently, the
116 implication of cannabis as a cause of death sharply declined in the last 5 years of the study from an
117 average 14% implication rate 1998-2016 to 3% in 2020 (Spearman's rank 2016-2020 $r = -0.99$; **Figure**
118 **2**).

119 Cause and Manner of Death

120 Death following use of cannabis alone was rare (4% of cases, $n=136/3,455$). In these cases, traumatic
121 injury was the most common underlying cause of death (62% of cases, $n=84/136$); the majority of
122 which were due to self-inflicted injuries (e.g., hanging, traumatic injury following intentional fall from
123 a height) (55% of cases, $n=47/84$) or RTCs (41% of cases, $n=35/84$). In the remaining two cases the
124 intent of the injury could not be determined, with the coroner returning an open verdict. Cannabis
125 use itself was deemed the underlying cause of death in only 14 cases: in 13 of these cases cannabis
126 use preceded immediate cause of death by cardiac failure ($n=9$), aspiration ($n=1$), cerebral
127 haemorrhage ($n=1$) or traumatic injury ($n=1$). Cannabis toxicity was attributed as the sole underlying
128 and immediate cause of death in one case. Here, the consulting pathologist noted a level of THC
129 between 100-150ug/l detected in the blood, with no medical illness or trauma evident upon post-
130 mortem examination, although the decedent was reportedly a heavy cannabis user.

131 Cannabis use in combination with other drugs was evident in most cases (96%; $n=3,319/3,455$; **Figure**
132 **3**). Death due to acute drug toxicity was the most common underlying cause of death (74% of cases,
133 $n=2,458/3,319$), however cannabis itself was rarely co-implicated in causing death with the other co-
134 detected drugs (7% of cases, $n=228/3,319$). Traumatic injury featured as the underlying cause of death
135 in 10% of these cases ($n=328/3,319$), with proportions of death due to self-inflicted injury (59%;
136 $n=194/328$) and road traffic collisions (30%, $n=99/328$) comparable to those where cannabis was
137 detected alone.

138 Cardiac complications were the most cited physiological underlying cause of death (4% of cases,
139 $n=144/3,455$). Cardiac disease (e.g., ischaemic heart disease, atherosclerosis/atheroma, myocarditis)
140 was cited in 61% of these cases ($n=88/144$), with morphological alterations of the cardiac structure
141 (e.g. hypertrophy, fibrosis, myopathy) cited in 22% of these cases ($n=32/144$).

142 Whilst the majority of cases were deemed accidental in manner, when delineating by polydrug use
143 significant proportions of decedents who had used cannabis alone were deemed to have died by
144 suicide or where intent was undeterminable in comparison to total cases reported to NPSAD (**Table 1**,
145 both $p < 0.001$).

146 Levels of Cannabinoids

147 In cases where cannabinoid levels in post-mortem blood were quantified (THC n=782; THC-COOH
148 n=758; and THC-OH n=117), the median concentrations detected were comparable whether cannabis
149 had been used alone or in combination with other drugs, or when delineating by manner of death
150 (**Table 2**). However, higher concentrations of all three cannabinoids were detected in accidental road
151 traffic collision cases in comparison to accidental overdoses due to drug toxicity. When considering
152 levels of THC detected over time, in the latter 10 years of the study, where quantification of
153 cannabinoids was more routinely carried out (EMCDDA, 2021), there is evidence of small year-on-year
154 increases (**Figure 4**).

155 Co-detected Drugs

156 Throughout the course of the study the extent of polydrug use increased with an average of 3 or 4
157 drugs detected at post-mortem in deaths that occurred 1998-2013, which increased to 6 or 7 drugs in
158 deaths that occurred 2018-2020 (**Figure 3**). During the rising phase of overall number of cannabis
159 deaths and polydrug use (2013-2020), concomitant increases in co-detections of CNS depressants
160 (opiates, benzodiazepines/Z-drugs, anti-depressants, antihistamines) and cocaine were evident
161 (**Figure 5**). Alcohol was co-detected in 39% of cases (n=1358/3455; cases where alcohol was attributed
162 to likely post-mortem production by the toxicologist [usually $\leq 10\text{mg/dl}$] (O'Neal and Poklis, 1996) were
163 excluded) and did not increase in prevalence over the course of the study (Spearman's rank $r = -0.07$,
164 **Figure 5**). Synthetic cannabinoids were co-detected in a small number of cases (n=39).

165 Demographics

166 The majority of decedents were male (85%) and had a known history of substance use disorder (69%).
167 Age of decedents increased over time (**Figure 6A**), as did the proportion of decedents living in the
168 most deprived areas of England (**Figure 6B**; deprivation decile 1 – most deprived, 10 – least deprived).

169 **Discussion**

170 Deaths with cannabinoid detections have increased in England, with the number of reported deaths
171 in 2020 more than twice as high as those reported ten years earlier. As testing for cannabinoids at
172 post-mortem has been routine practice in the UK since the 1990s (EMCDDA, 2021), and the relative
173 proportion of deaths with cannabinoid detections reported to NPSAD increased, it is unlikely an
174 artefact due to increased testing or reporting. However, as overall use prevalence in the UK has not
175 increased at the same rate (UK Government, 2021), this likely reflects increased use prevalence
176 specifically in people who also use other substances with fatal consequences. Given the ongoing global
177 debate regarding cannabis and its associated harms (Hussain et al., 2021), it is important to examine
178 trends in these deaths to understand and interpret their impact.

179 Risk of traumatic injury outweighs that of toxicity

180 Cannabis was the sole drug detected at post-mortem in only 4% of deaths. Traumatic injury was the
181 prevalent underlying cause in these cases, with the citation of pathophysiological underlying causes
182 comparatively rare and toxicity evident in only a single case.

183 Self-inflicted injuries comprised the greatest proportion of trauma-related deaths. There is clear
184 evidence for a link between depression severity and suicidal ideation (Herrman et al., 2022), and there
185 is growing evidence linking cannabis use and depression: chronic cannabis users have a higher
186 incidence of depression diagnoses (Lev-Ran et al., 2014), with those who started using cannabis during
187 adolescence at greatest risk (Gobbi et al., 2019). Over one-third of people with depression report using
188 cannabis medicinally to manage their depressive symptoms (Kosiba et al., 2019), despite evidence that
189 cannabis use is associated with poorer outcomes in recovery (Bahorik et al., 2017). However, a causal
190 relationship between cannabis use and depression may be confounded by social and environmental
191 risk factors for both substance use and mental disorders (Degenhardt et al., 2003) – risk factors likely
192 significant for the decedents in this study as evidenced by their high rate of residence in
193 socioeconomically deprived areas. Additionally, there are emerging links between cannabis use
194 disorder and other mental disorders such as dissociation, a feature of psychosis (Ricci et al., 2021).
195 Dissociation is associated with higher rates of self-harm and suicide attempts (Calati et al., 2017),
196 which may explain in part the greater proportion of self-inflicted injuries.

197 Fatal injury following RTC accounted for almost all the remainder of trauma-related deaths. Cognitive
198 impairments (e.g. reduced vigilance and control, extended reaction times (Hartley et al., 2019,
199 Desrosiers et al., 2015)) can be observed at THC blood levels as low as 2-5µg/L (Ramaekers et al.,
200 2006), with risk of RTC following cannabis use estimated at an odds ratio of 1.28 (95% confidence
201 interval 1.16-1.40) (Rogeberg, 2019). The median THC blood level in RTC fatalities in this study was

202 9ug/L, which indicates probable cognitive impairment at the time of the incidents, when accounting
203 for THC metabolism rates (Desrosiers et al., 2014, Hunault et al., 2010) and post-mortem
204 redistribution (PMR) (Yarema and Becker, 2005, Holland et al., 2011, Brunet et al., 2010). Cannabis is
205 thought to be highly susceptible to PMR due to its lipophilic nature and high volume of distribution (4-
206 14L/kg) (Yarema and Becker, 2005). In addition to the evident risk of fatal injury that this poses to the
207 driver, potential for harm extends to passengers and others in the local vicinity (Li et al., 2012, Martin
208 et al., 2017, Chihuri and Li, 2020). Guidance regarding the timeframe at which it can be deemed 'safe'
209 to drive following cannabis use is, however, difficult to define due to variations in dose, dosage form,
210 route of administration, interindividual metabolism and excretion (McCartney et al., 2021). Recent
211 studies suggest that cannabis may affect driving performance up to 4-5 hours following use (Marcotte
212 et al., 2022, Arkell et al., 2020).

213 Cardiac failure was the most cited immediate cause of death following cannabis use in cannabis-only
214 deaths, and the most commonly cited underlying physiological cause of death in polypharmacy cases.
215 Cannabis has been found to have an impact on cardiovascular functioning, mainly in raising heart rate
216 and blood pressure (Chetty et al., 2021, Jouanjus et al., 2017). Within the first hour after cannabis
217 consumption there is an elevated risk of cannabis-associated myocardial infarction and an overall
218 greater risk of mortality from myocardial infarction that increases with frequency of use (Desbois and
219 Cacoub, 2013). Fatal cardiac events have been previously associated with cannabis use (Desai et al.,
220 2018, Jouanjus et al., 2011), including in a recent study which adjusted for variables that are
221 independent predictors of heart failure (e.g., age, sex, diabetes mellitus, tobacco and alcohol use)
222 (Kalla et al., 2018). Whilst the exact mechanism by which cannabis affects cardiac function is not fully
223 understood, activation of CB1 receptors in cardiac smooth muscle can decrease contractility (Bonz et
224 al., 2003), and there is evidence suggesting that regular cannabis use can induce structural and
225 functional changes to cardiac chambers (Khanji et al., 2020).

226 Cannabis toxicity was cited as the sole (1a) cause of death (and therefore the immediate and
227 underlying cause) in one case. The level of THC detected in post-mortem blood in this case (estimated
228 100-150 µg/l) far exceeds the median post-mortem THC blood concentration detected in this and a
229 previously published study (Lemos and Ingle, 2011), and the median peak THC blood concentration
230 detected in living users (Desrosiers et al., 2014). THC has been reported to persist at levels >5µg/l in
231 frequent users for over 30 hours (Desrosiers et al., 2014), and this decedent was described as a very
232 heavy cannabis user smoking multiple 'joints' a day. Such an elevated baseline THC blood level when
233 coupled with extensive THC PMR may account for the high post-mortem blood level of THC detected
234 in this case. However, it remains unclear as to the mechanism by which such a high THC concentration
235 could cause fatal toxicity.

236 Cannabis and fatal polydrug use

237 Whilst few cannabis users (<10%) report using other drugs simultaneously, cannabis is the most
238 commonly co-administered drug in polydrug use scenarios (Home Office, 2015) – a trend reflected in
239 this study as most deaths had at least one other psychoactive drug co-detected. The rise in polydrug
240 use demonstrated in this study is a recognised growing problem both in the UK (Home Office, 2015),
241 and abroad and may reflect the increased availability of drugs or an attempt of users to manage the
242 undesirable effects of other drugs taken (Boileau-Falardeau et al., 2022, Kandel et al., 2017, Golladay
243 et al., 2020, Akhgari et al., 2021, Connor et al., 2013, Lynskey et al., 2006). Fatal drug toxicity is a clear
244 risk of polydrug use (Gudin et al., 2013), and is associated with other risky behaviours, such as
245 intravenous drug use, which have clear links with increased mortality rate (Lorvick et al., 2018).

246 Opioids were co-detected in the largest proportion of cases in this study. Single substance non-fatal
247 overdoses most frequently include opioids (both heroin and non-heroin opioids) (Liu and Vivolo-
248 Kantor, 2020), and among polydrug non-fatal overdoses alcohol, opioids, cannabis and cocaine feature
249 in a large proportion of cases (Liu and Vivolo-Kantor, 2020, Lynskey et al., 2006, Smith et al., 2011,
250 Connor et al., 2013). In this study cocaine co-detections had the largest increase of any co-detected
251 substance, with 34% more cases reported in 2020 than 2013. The purity of both powder and crack
252 cocaine has concurrently risen in the UK (PHE, 2021), and a positive correlation between cocaine purity
253 and emergency department visits has been observed (Zhu et al., 2014), which may explain in-part the
254 rise in fatalities with cocaine co-detections.

255 Although the prevalence of alcohol and cannabis co-detections remained relatively constant over
256 time, the concomitant use of both alcohol and cannabis is harmful as these drugs act synergistically
257 to heighten intoxication and behavioural impairment (Yurasek et al., 2017). Co-use of alcohol and
258 cannabis is also associated with riskier driving behaviours than either drug alone (Ronen et al., 2010),
259 and increases the risk of fatal RTC (Chihuri et al., 2017).

260 Cannabis potency has risen

261 The potency of both herbal cannabis and resin in the UK increased between 2009-2019 (EMCDDA,
262 2021, Potter et al., 2008, Potter et al., 2018), and correlates with the median increase over time in
263 detected THC levels in this study. Strong evidence for a relationship between amount and frequency
264 of THC use with onset and severity of psychosis has been reported (Moore et al., 2007, Murray et al.,
265 2016, Di Forti et al., 2019). The most seized cannabis form in the UK, sinsemilla (a dried plant material
266 with typically higher potency than herbal cannabis), has a median THC content of 14.2% and virtually
267 no cannabidiol (CBD) (<1%) (Potter et al., 2018). As CBD is reported to reduce psychotic effects induced
268 by THC (Englund et al., 2013) sinsemilla lacks protection from this THC adverse effect. Cannabis users

269 should reduce their intake to counteract the rising potency, avoid using with tobacco and other drugs,
270 and potentially use preparations with higher CBD:THC ratios to reduce the risk of harm (Kimbrel et al.,
271 2018, Bourget, 2013, Trott, 1992, Englund et al., 2017).

272 Post-mortem cannabinoid quantifications have limited use in coronial investigations

273 THC concentrations following cannabis use are significantly higher in living users compared to those
274 detected at post-mortem (Huestis et al., 1992, Holland et al., 2011, Toennes et al., 2008, Desrosiers et
275 al., 2014). In addition, interindividual variability in administration technique (e.g. inhalation volume
276 and frequency) and metabolism (Huestis et al., 1992, Holland et al., 2011, Toennes et al., 2008,
277 Karschner et al., 2009, Bergamaschi et al., 2013) adds further complexity to the interpretation of
278 cannabinoid levels and their relevance to cognitive impairment, impact on cardiac physiology, or
279 induction of psychosis. The presence or absence of cannabinoids in post-mortem toxicology testing
280 may suffice in determining the cause and manner of death, and only have relevance in determining
281 criminality with regards to drug-driving limits.

282 Limitations

283 As NPSAD is reported to voluntarily, and post-mortem investigations with toxicology tests are not
284 carried out for all deaths, the figures presented here likely under-represent the true number of deaths
285 which have occurred in England where cannabinoids were present at post-mortem.

286 Conclusion

287 The risk of death due to direct cannabis toxicity is negligible. However, there are clear harms
288 associated with cannabis use that can prove fatal, including traumatic physical injury to self and
289 others, and risk of cardiac complications. These indirect harms need careful consideration and further
290 study to better elucidate the role cannabis plays in drug related mortality. Furthermore, the relevance
291 of cannabinoid quantifications in determining cause of death in coronial investigations is limited.

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514 **Figures & Tables**

515

516 **Table 1:** Manner of death of decedents who had used cannabis delineated by polydrug use.

Manner	Total Cannabis Cases		Cannabis only		Cannabis & Other Drugs		Total NPSAD
	Cases (n)	%	Cases (n)	%	Cases (n)	%	%
Natural	101	3%	19	14%	82	3%	2%
Accidental	2783	81%	57	42%	2726	82%	72%
Suicidal	277	8%	36	27%	241	7%	15%
Homicidal	13	<1%	0	-	13	<1%	<1%
Undetermined	281	8%	24	18%	257	8%	11%

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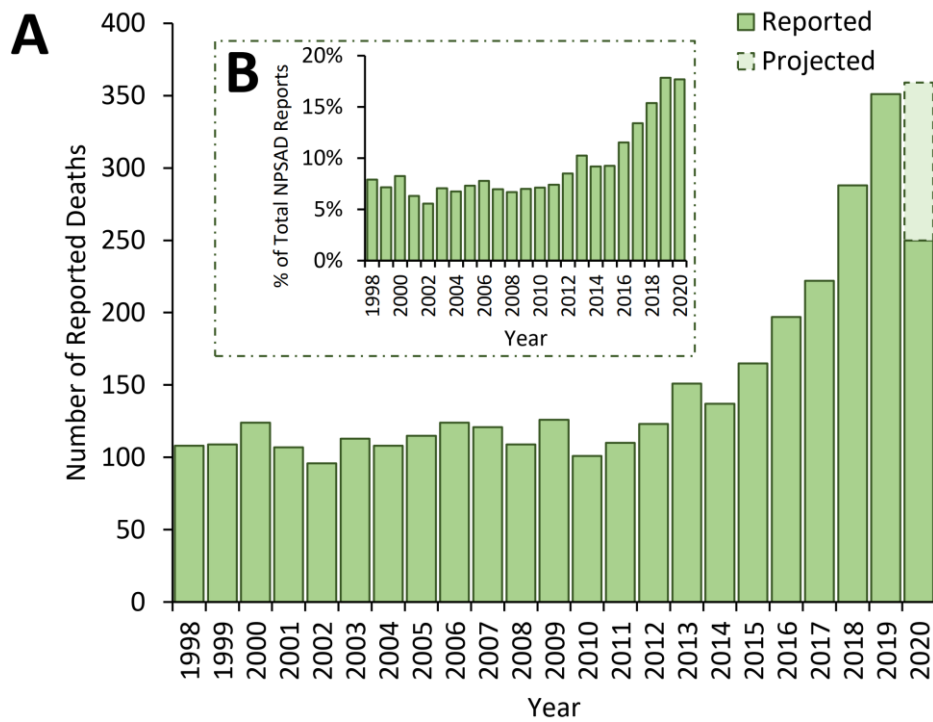
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522 **Table 2:** Median levels (µg/L) of cannabinoids detected in post-mortem blood samples by type of
523 cannabis, manner of death, and type of accidental death.

	Median Blood Level (µg/L)		
	THC	THC-COOH	THC-OH
Type of Cannabis Use			
Cannabis Alone	4.3	16.4	1.8
Cannabis & Other Drugs	3.5	10.0	1.5
Manner of Death			
Accidental	3.5	10.0	1.6
Drug Toxicity	3.4	10.0	1.5
Road Traffic Collision	9.0	38.0	10.0
Suicidal	4.9	8.8	0.9
Undetermined	2.2	14	1.4

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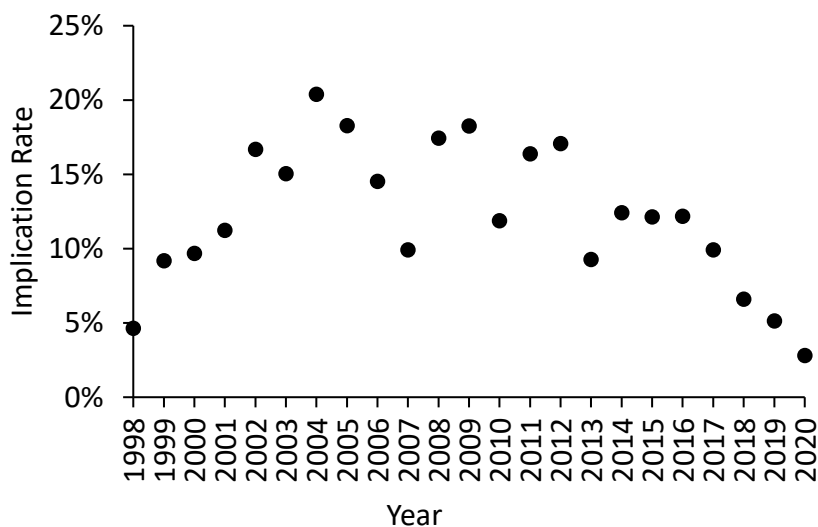
525 **Figure 1A. Number of deaths reported to NPSAD from England (1998-2020) with cannabis detections**
 526 **at post-mortem.** As the average period between death and conclusion of coronial inquests for drug-
 527 related deaths is 7-10 months, further deaths from 2020 are anticipated to be reported. The number
 528 of deaths projected to still be received (light green) has been calculated based upon these previous
 529 jurisdiction reporting trends. **B. Proportion of deaths with cannabis detections at post-mortem**
 530 **reported to NPSAD from England (1998-2020).** When normalised against total NPSAD reporting in
 531 England over the same time period, the increase in deaths with cannabis detections remains,
 532 demonstrating that there has been a proportional rise in their occurrence.



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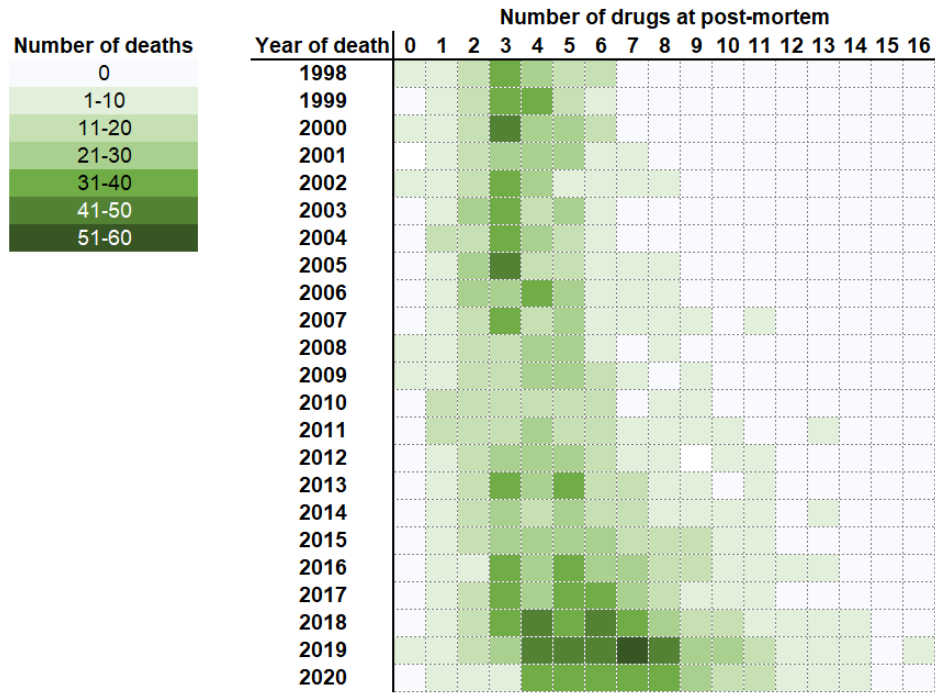
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535 **Figure 2. Implication rate of cannabis in deaths reported to NPSAD from England (1998-2020).** Note
 536 that whilst the 2020 implication rate has been calculated, this is subject to change pending receiving
 537 additional reports.



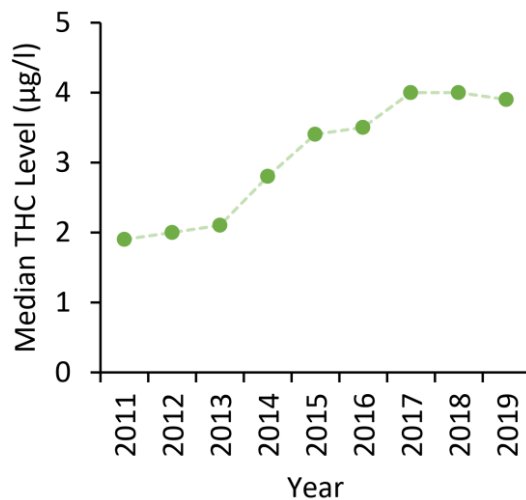
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539 **Figure 3. Number of drugs co-detected in cannabis cases by year.** Note that whilst the 2020 data has
 540 been included, this is subject to change pending receiving additional reports.



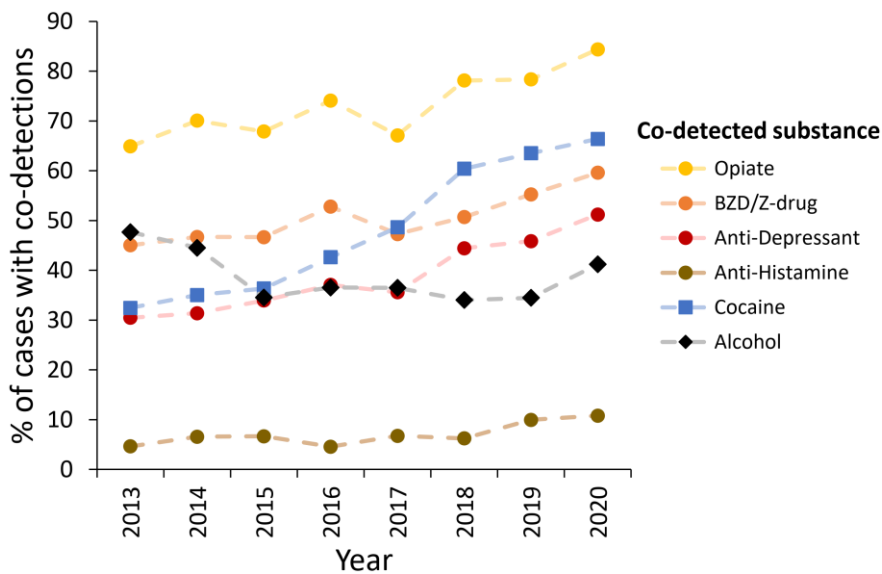
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545 **Figure 4. Median detected post-mortem levels of THC in cases where quantifications were**
 546 **performed.** 2020 data has been excluded due to the low number of cases with THC quantifications
 547 provided at time of writing.



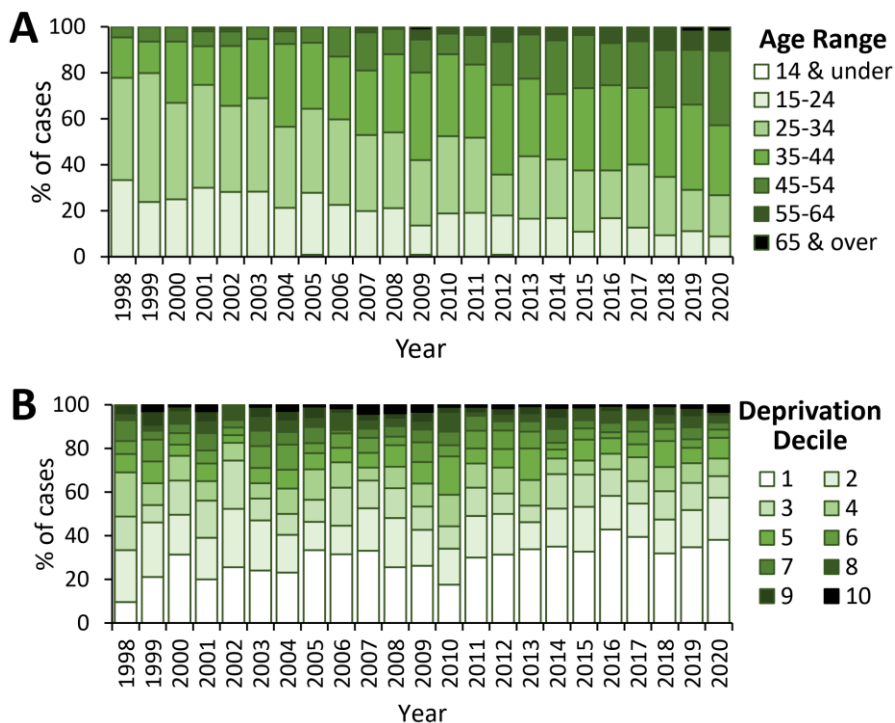
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552 **Figure 5. Proportion of cannabis cases with co-detected substances over time.** Note that whilst the
 553 2020 data has been included, this is subject to change pending receiving additional reports.



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557 **Figure 6. Age at death and decile of deprivation of decedents with cannabinoids detected at post-**
 558 **mortem.** Note that whilst the 2020 data has been included, this is subject to change pending
 559 receiving additional reports.



560