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1 **Driving performance and cannabis users' perception of safety:**
2 **A randomized clinical trial of smoked cannabis of different THC content**

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Key Points

Question: What factors affect the impact of smoked cannabis on driving and the users' perception of driving ability?

Findings: In this randomized trial of 191 regular cannabis users, simulator driving worsened in those smoking THC vs placebo, but this was not universal, and unrelated to THC content (5.9% v 13.4%), use history, or blood THC concentration. Performance recovery was complete at 4.5h, while perception of impairment lessened starting at 1h 30min.

Meaning: When users control their own intake, one cannot infer impairment based upon the product THC content, and the disconnect between performance and self-perceived impairment is important for public safety messaging.

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Abstract

Importance: Expanding cannabis medicalization and legalization increases the urgency to understand the factors associated with acute driving impairment.

Objective – To determine, in a large sample of regular cannabis users, the magnitude and time course of driving impairment produced by smoked cannabis of different THC content, the effects of use history, and concordance between perceived impairment and observed performance.

Design – Double-blind, placebo-controlled parallel randomized clinical trial (February 2017-June 2019)

Setting – Center for Medicinal Cannabis Research, University of California San Diego

Participants – Cannabis users (N=191)

Intervention – Placebo, 5.9% THC or 13.4% THC cannabis smoked *ad libitum*

Main Outcome and Measures: The primary endpoint was the Composite Drive Score (CDS), comprised of key driving simulator variables, assessed prior to smoking and at multiple timepoints post-smoking. Additional measures included self-perceptions of driving impairment and cannabis use history.

Results: Participants were 61.8% male, age 29.9 (8.3) y, with a mean of 16.7 (9.8) days of use in the past month. Compared to Placebo, the THC group significantly declined on CDS at 30min (Cohen's d=.59 [95% CI .28, .90]; p<0.001) and 1h 30min (Cohen's d=.55 [95% CI .24, .86];

80 p<.001), but not at 3h 30min or 4h 30min. The THC group performed worse than the placebo
81 group on average, yet a sizeable proportion exhibited performance similar to the placebo group.
82 CDS did not differ based on THC content ($p=.349$) or use intensity (quantity x frequency) in the
83 past 6 months ($p=.964$). However, post-smoking blood THC concentrations were higher in
84 individuals with the highest use intensity. Participants reported increased readiness to drive at
85 1h 30min despite performance being similar to that observed at 30min.

86

87 Conclusions and relevance: Smoking cannabis ad libitum by regular users resulted in simulated
88 driving decrements that fully resolved by 4h 30min, but not all drivers' performance declined.
89 Perceived impairment was generally consistent with actual driving performance at 30min.
90 However, increasing numbers of THC participants conveyed being ready to drive in the
91 subsequent hour, even though there was no substantive improvement in performance, possibly
92 indicating a false sense of driving safety. When users control their intake, driving impairment
93 cannot be inferred based on THC content, behavioral tolerance, or THC blood concentration.
94 Further research is needed on the impact of individual biologic differences, cannabis use
95 history, and administration methods on driving performance.

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98 Trial registration: [Clinicaltrials.gov: NCT02849587](https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/study/NCT02849587)

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100

101 **INTRODUCTION**

102
103 As jurisdictions legalize cannabis for medicinal and recreational use, there are growing
104 concerns regarding a potential increased prevalence of cannabis-impaired drivers^{1, 2}. Acute
105 consumption of Δ 9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) negatively affects cognitive functioning³ and
106 reduces driving performance, particularly in lane position control (standard deviation of lateral
107 position [SLDP])⁴⁻⁹, and ability to adjust to lead car speed changes (car following¹⁰). However,
108 epidemiological data regarding the impact of legalization on crash risk are not consistent¹¹⁻¹⁴.
109 The varied findings partially reflect challenges in accessing robust pre- and post-legalization
110 data and determining acute intoxication¹, but also show a disconnect between impairing effects
111 observed in controlled studies and expectations regarding crash rates.

112 Questions remain regarding the magnitude and time course of the effects of cannabis on
113 those most likely to be on the road – regular users smoking to a desired level of intoxication - as
114 well as the impact of different product THC amounts. While seminal studies examined these
115 questions, most utilized small sample sizes (e.g., <25 participants), low THC content product
116 within a cross-over design, and structured dosing protocols, with some exceptions, for example
117 using an ad libitum approach⁵. Such studies provide critical data regarding THC dose effects,
118 but do not reflect real-world use. This is particularly important given concerns that the increasing
119 THC content of products may result in greater impairment. Small sample sizes may also limit
120 generalizability, while cross-over designs using psychoactive substances present blinding
121 challenges¹⁵.

122 The appropriate waiting period before driving after cannabis smoking is also a significant
123 public safety concern, with some suggesting 3-5h¹⁶⁻¹⁸, and others recommending longer¹⁹. Since
124 this decision may be self-determined based upon “feeling impaired”, it is important to
125 understand the accuracy of these self-evaluations. In addition, while frequency of cannabis use
126 is associated with increased behavioral tolerance²⁰, the relationship to driving remains poorly
127 understood, because individuals may counteract tolerance by consuming greater amounts to

128 achieve desired psychoactive effects. Recent systematic reviews concluded that major
129 limitations in cannabis-related driving research include a lack of studies examining regular users
130 over a 4-6 hour post-smoking timeframe²¹, as well as small sample sizes²².

131 Within a sample of nearly 200 regular cannabis users instructed to smoke cannabis as
132 they do at home to achieve a usual level of intoxication, the aims of this study were to
133 determine, with respect to driving outcomes, the 1) magnitude and time course of effects, 2)
134 impact of cannabis with different THC amounts, 3) possible tolerance effects, and 4) accuracy of
135 self-perception of impairment. The primary outcome was the Composite Drive Score (CDS), a
136 measure comprised of key driving simulator variables.

137

138 **METHODS**

139 The study was approved by the Human Research Protections Program at the University
140 of California, San Diego, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration, and the Research Advisory
141 Panel of California, and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

142

143 **Participants**

144 Participants were recruited in San Diego via fliers, community outreach, and
145 clinicaltrials.gov. Inclusion criteria were age 21-55 years, cannabis use ≥ 4 times in the past
146 month, holding a valid driver's license, driving at least 1,000 miles in the past year, and willing to
147 abstain from cannabis for 2 days prior to the training and experimental study days.

148 Exclusion criteria were history of traumatic brain injury, significant cardiovascular,
149 hepatic or renal disease, uncontrolled hypertension, chronic pulmonary disease, positive
150 pregnancy test, positive urine screen for cocaine, amphetamines, opiates, and phencyclidine,
151 current (past year) substance use disorder (no participant met criteria for cannabis use disorder)
152 history of schizophrenia, bipolar depression with mania and/or current suicidal ideation,

153 unwilling to refrain from driving after consuming study medication, and oral fluid THC > 5ng/mL
154 on the testing day. Participants provided written informed consent.

155
156 **Study Design**

157 This was a double-blind, placebo-controlled, parallel clinical trial in which participants
158 were randomized using permuted blocks stratified by prior cannabis exposure (using $\geq 4x$ per
159 week or $< 4x$ per week in the past month, based upon stratifications that previously differentiated
160 among users^{9, 23}) to smoke a cannabis cigarette with either 13.4%, 5.9%, or 0.02% THC
161 (placebo) content. Participants were instructed to abstain from cannabis for 48h prior to the
162 training and experimental days and underwent a 1h simulator training session prior to the
163 testing day. The training session exposed participants to all of the individual components of the
164 drive, culminating in a 25-minute drive similar to what they would encounter on the testing day.
165 On the experimental day, they completed a urine drug screen and breathalyzer for alcohol and
166 drugs, and oral fluid (OF) sample for THC presence (Draeger 5000, Houston, TX). If the OF was
167 positive ($> 5ng/mL$ THC), suggesting relatively recent use, the assessment was canceled. OF
168 samples were also quantified by liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)
169 as the final indicator of possible recent use, with participants OF $> 5ng/mL$ THC excluded from
170 analyses.

171 Participants completed driving simulations and blood collections prior to and following
172 cannabis smoking (detailed toxicology findings reported elsewhere^{24, 25}).

173
174 **Driving Simulations**

175 Driving simulations, approximately 25 minutes in length, were presented on a STISIM
176 M300WS-Console Driving Simulator System (Systems Technology, Inc; Hawthorne, CA)
177 consisting of 3-screen, wide field-of-view monitors, steering wheel, and accelerator and brake
178 pedals, and programmed using STISIM Drive v3.14²⁶. The simulations emulated city and

179 country driving, including common traffic challenges (e.g., freeway merging), as well as
180 scenarios providing outcomes similar to those widely used in drug-impaired driving studies^{5, 7, 8,}
181 ²⁷. At a specified distance, the mSuRT, modified from the Surrogate Reference Task²⁸, required
182 participants to maintain their lane position and speed in a straight roadway, while responding to
183 a divided attention task on an iPad to the side of the dashboard. Key variables included
184 standard deviation of lateral position (SDLP) or “swerving”, standard deviation (variability) of
185 speed, and number of correct divided attention stimuli identified while driving. At another
186 distance, Car Following required participants to adjust their speed to a lead car that speeds up
187 and slows down according to a sinusoidal wave. The key variable is coherence between the
188 participant and lead car (a correlation ranging from 0–1). A Composite Drive Score (CDS),
189 comprised of the key variables described above, normalized to a common metric (z scores
190 derived from the pre-smoking drive of all 191 participants), was calculated to globally represent
191 driving performance and, by not being dependent upon a single outcome variable, provide a
192 more stable indicator of driving performance (see **Supplemental Materials**). A higher score
193 indicated worse performance. Similar approaches have been used elsewhere^{29, 30}, and address
194 concerns regarding the use of multiple dependent outcomes in cannabis and driving research²².
195 Post-smoking driving simulations occurred approximately 30min, 1h 30min, 3h 30min, and 4h
196 30min after smoking.

197

198 **Study Drug and Administration**

199 Bulk cannabis plant material containing 5.9% THC, 13.4% THC, or placebo was
200 acquired from the NIDA Drug Supply Program and hand-rolled into 700 mg cigarettes. An *ad*
201 *libitum* regimen was utilized within a negative pressure room, with participants instructed to
202 “Smoke the cigarette the way you do at home to get high. You may take up to 10 minutes.” A
203 minimum of 4 puffs was required. Venous blood was collected from an indwelling intravenous
204 arm catheter (See **Supplemental Materials**).

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Perceptions of impairment

After smoking, but prior to each driving session, participants were asked “How high are you?”, “How impaired are you to drive?” (both ratings from 0 [not at all] to 100 [Extremely]), and “Would you drive in your current state?” (yes/no). After each post-smoking driving session participants were asked “How much did the study drug affect your driving?” (0 [not at all] to 100 [Extremely]), as well as “How well did you drive?” (0 [Not at all well] to 100 [Extremely well]).

Statistical analysis

Generalized least squares models were employed for numeric outcomes with covariance structure selected by minimum Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Poisson and logistic regression models with generalized estimating equation (GEE) method were used for discrete and binary outcomes, respectively. Time was treated as a factor to accommodate non-linear changes in the outcomes. Treatment was first considered as a three-level variable - Placebo, 5.9% THC, and 13.4% THC, and then as a two-level treatment variable (Placebo and THC) where the 5.9% and 13.4% groups were combined. For all models, three terms were included: treatment, time (5 time points), and treatment-time interaction. For effect sizes estimating differences at multiple time points, correction for multiple comparisons was applied using false discovery rate (FDR) method (subscore and secondary analyses only).

Cannabis use intensity, estimated as total THC exposure, was based upon self-reported frequency and quantity of use in the past 6 months using a timeline follow-back approach, and split into 3 groups (lowest quartile, two middle-quartiles combined, and highest quartile). See

Supplemental Materials.

RESULTS

230 A total of 261 individuals were screened for eligibility, with 199 randomized to one of
231 three arms - placebo, 5.9% THC, or 13.4% THC (**Figure 1**). Seven were subsequently excluded
232 due to pre-smoking elevated oral fluid THC levels and 1 withdrew immediately post-smoking.
233 The final sample was 191 participants (61.8% male, mean age of 29.9 (8.3) y) who used
234 cannabis a mean of 16.7 (9.8) days in the past 30, approximately 1 cigarette (.5 gms) when
235 using, with 51.3% using <4 times per week. There were no significant group differences on key
236 background variables (**Table 1**).

237 Smoking topography and blinding. There were no significant group differences in grams
238 of cannabis/placebo material used during the session (estimated from the weight returned) –
239 Placebo: 0.47 (.17), 5.9% THC: 0.44 (.17), and 13.4% THC: 0.43 (.15); $p=.422$. At ~15min after
240 smoking initiation there was a significant difference ($p<.001$) in blood THC concentrations
241 between all three groups (Placebo: 1.3 (1.9) ng/mL; 5.9 THC%: 50.6 (40.8) ng/mL; 13.4% THC:
242 32.7 (29.3) ng/mL), with the 5.9% THC group reaching the highest concentration³¹. Ninety-two
243 percent of the THC group correctly guessed their treatment assignment (no difference ($p=.613$)
244 between the 5.9% THC and 13.4% THC groups); 48.3% of the Placebo group believed they
245 received active THC.

246

247 **Primary Outcomes**

248 Crashes. There were no significant differences between the 3 groups on the number of
249 crashes at any timepoint (all $p>.750$).

250 Composite Drive Score (CDS). Compared to Placebo, the THC groups had a significant
251 decline in CDS performance; there were no differences between the two THC groups in change
252 over time ($p>.77$; **Figure 2a**). The two groups were thus combined for subsequent analyses
253 (**eFigure 1**).

254 **Table 2** summarizes the CDS results, with change from pre-smoking score as the
255 primary outcome. Compared to changes in the Placebo group, the THC group (column 2c) had

256 significantly greater declines at 30min and 1h 30min. The differences were no longer statistically
257 significant at 3h 30min ($p=.067$) or 4h 30min ($p=.869$). The CDS did not differ by sex ($p=.114$)
258 and controlling for sex (since THC/Placebo groups differed: 67.2% vs 50.8% male, respectively;
259 $p = .039$) did not change results. There were no significant practice effects in the Placebo group
260 (column 2a).

261 While the THC group performed significantly worse than the Placebo group at 30min,
262 many participants performed similarly to those in the Placebo group (**Figure 2b; eFigure 2**).
263 Based upon a 15%ile cutpoint in the distribution of CDS change scores from the Placebo group,
264 45.6% of the THC group would be classified as “impaired” at 30min (see **Supplemental**
265 **Materials**).

266 The effect sizes, an indicator of the potential clinical significance of the differences, are
267 shown in **Table 2**, column 2c. When comparing changes in performance, Cohen's d was .59 at
268 30m, .55 at 1h 30m, dropping to .29 at 3h 30m and -.03 at 4h 30m.

269 Drive Subscores. The changes in performance for the individual driving variables
270 comprising the CDS (collected at the specified distances) were generally consistent with the
271 CDS, showing significant changes at 30min and 1h 30min (**eTable 1**). Differences in changes
272 on the divided attention task were only seen at 30min. In addition, time driving out of lane during
273 the mSuRT was significantly different at 1h 30min.

274

275 **Perception of effects and performance**

276 After smoking, but prior to driving, the THC group reported being significantly more
277 impaired to drive at all timepoints, with the rating dropping at each timepoint (**eTable 2a**). At
278 30min, 47.5% of the THC group would drive in their current state; this number increased to
279 68.6% at 1h 30min, and above 90% at the last two timepoints (**eTable 2b; Figure 2c**).

280 After driving, the THC group rated cannabis as affecting their performance more than the
281 Placebo group at all timepoints. Their rating of how well they drove, however, was worse than
282 the Placebo group only at 30min (**eTables 3a and 3b**).

283

284 **Driving performance and THC blood concentrations**

285 Within the THC group, there was no relationship between blood THC concentrations at
286 30min and the CDS ($r=.025$, $p=.780$; **Figure 3a**) or any of the subsequent timepoints (**eTable**
287 **4**).

288

289 **Cannabis use history (intensity) and driving performance**

290 Within the THC group, after smoking there were no differences between the groups with
291 the highest, middle, or lowest intensity of use (in the past 6 months) in how high they felt
292 ($p=.178$), nor the CDS changes at 30min ($p=.243$; **Figure 3b**) or across all time periods
293 ($p=.380$). However, post-smoking blood THC concentrations significantly differed across all 3
294 groups ($p<.001$), with the lowest intensity group having the lowest concentrations ($p=.003$ vs
295 Middle, $p<.001$ vs High) and the highest intensity group having the highest concentrations
296 ($p=.079$ vs Middle) (**Figure 3c**).

297

298

299 **DISCUSSION**

300

301 In this study of 191 regular cannabis users randomized to smoke THC or Placebo
302 cigarettes *ad libitum*, we found worse performance in the THC group on a measure of overall
303 driving simulator performance, as well as specific driving challenges, including a divided
304 attention task, adding to a growing literature that THC negatively impacts driving ability^{5, 32, 33}.
305 The magnitude of the effect was in the medium range (Cohen's $d \sim 0.5$ ³⁴), suggesting a non-
306 trivial difference.

307 The THC participants performed worse than the placebo group on average, yet a
308 sizeable proportion exhibited performance similar to the Placebo group, indicating that a subset
309 in the active drug arm did not experience a significant drop in performance. Based upon the
310 distribution of the Placebo group, approximately one-half of the THC group would be called
311 “impaired”, suggesting that accurately identifying those at greatest risk for impairment is not as
312 straightforward as detecting recent use, and remains an important public safety challenge. It is
313 worth noting that alcohol exhibits a more consistent linear effect between blood (alcohol) levels
314 and driving impairment, although even in that case there is significant variability between
315 studies (and individuals) in the relationship between levels of ingestion and reductions in driving
316 ³⁵.

317 The THC group generally showed good agreement between subjective driving
318 impairment and actual performance at 30min. However, at 1h 30min participants increasingly
319 rated themselves as safe to drive, whereas simulator data indicated on-going reduced driving
320 performance (**Figure 2c**), including being more likely to leave their lane. These first few hours
321 may constitute a period of greatest risk, since users who are self-evaluating whether it is safe to
322 drive may be less likely to refrain from driving or to attempt to compensate for reduced
323 functioning. This is an important topic for public safety messaging, since a goal is to keep
324 impaired drivers off of the road prior to becoming a danger.

325 In this study of 128 user receiving active drug, THC-associated driving reductions were
326 not fully resolved until 4.5h. At 3.5 hours THC group’s driving improved to a point of being
327 statistically indistinguishable from controls, although there remained a small effect (Cohen’s $d =$ -
328 0.29) suggesting lingering impairment in some participants. This is generally consistent with the
329 timeframe noted in studies using lower THC content materials^{5-7, 36-38}. It is possible that
330 impairments in other, unmeasured abilities may persist³⁹, or become apparent over longer
331 drives, although a recent 60min on-road study concluded that no negative THC effects were
332 seen 4-5h after use⁶.

333 There was no correlation between blood THC concentrations collected 15min after
334 smoking and simulator performance at 30min, or any other timepoint, even under our highly
335 controlled conditions. In the real world, the time from consumption to a law enforcement stop
336 and subsequent blood collections is highly variable, and the current results reinforce that *per se*
337 laws based upon blood THC concentrations are not supported^{33, 40}.

338 When instructed to “*smoke as you would at home to get high*” we found no significant
339 differences in driving performance, nor THC blood concentrations³¹, based upon the THC
340 content of the cannabis, supporting the importance of smoking topography (deepness of
341 inhalation, period of holding, etc.)^{5, 41-43}. There is concern that the increasing THC content in
342 products will result in significantly greater road safety risks. However, the current study suggests
343 that some users may smoke such products in a manner that results in no greater impairment
344 than lower THC products. These findings do not necessarily translate to other methods of
345 administration, such as dabbing, vaping, and oral consumption where self-titration is more
346 difficult, although a recent study suggests concentrate users may self-titrate⁴⁴.

347 Greater intensity of cannabis use in the past 6 months was associated with reaching
348 higher blood THC concentrations following smoking, but not self-reported greater levels of
349 highness nor worse driving performance, than lower intensity groups, consistent with
350 development of behavioral tolerance²⁰. However, the current findings also suggest that when
351 instructed to achieve a self-determined level of highness, users with a history of greater use
352 intensity adapted to tolerance by increasing THC exposure, resulting in performance
353 decrements similar to users with lower intensity use, and that they may not be less of a driving
354 risk. Behavioral tolerance benefits may be more apparent in medicinal users who target specific
355 symptoms (e.g., pain), and maintain a consistent dosing level.

356

357 **Limitations**

358 This study has a number of limitations. With the aim of maximizing ecological validity, we
359 had individuals smoke to the level of highness they desire, and thus did not address participants
360 reaching particularly elevated highness levels, nor the effects of controlled dosing. It should be
361 noted, though, that studies using “controlled” smoking methods also find substantial variability in
362 blood THC concentrations, suggesting an influence of smoking topography⁴⁵. The study is not
363 generalizable to infrequent or naïve users, vulnerable populations (e.g., older persons,
364 individuals with medical conditions), or other methods of administration for which self-titration is
365 difficult (e.g., edibles). Since the study did not include a non-user control group, the study only
366 addresses how regular users exposed to THC perform on the CDS relative to regular users
367 receiving placebo. There is evidence that acute cannabis use can impair visual function (and
368 driving); we cannot determine the specific correlates of reduced driving (cognitive, visual) since
369 these were not comprehensively assessed²⁹. Classification of individuals as “impaired” on
370 experimental driving simulator scenarios is dependent upon the size/composition of the
371 reference group and may differ with other samples. Since no measurements were made
372 between 1h 30min and 3h 30min, we cannot comment on the recovery trajectory during his
373 period. The potential cumulative effects of serial smoking were not addressed. Lastly, while the
374 simulations captured a reasonable sampling of driving behavior, we were unable to address
375 whether performance over longer driving periods might show impairment.

376

377 **Conclusions**

378 In a placebo-controlled parallel study of regular cannabis users smoking cannabis with
379 different THC content *ad libitum*, there was significant worsening on driving simulator
380 performance at a group level, although in about half of the cases performance was similar to
381 those receiving placebo. Of note, a lack of insight regarding driving impairments, particularly at
382 90 minutes, is of concern, given that users will likely self-evaluate when they feel safe to drive.

383 The THC content of the cannabis and prior history of cannabis use were not associated with
384 driving outcomes. Performance was improving at 3.5h, though recovery was not fully seen until
385 4.5h post-smoking. The lack of relationship between blood THC concentration and driving
386 performance raises questions about the validity of per se laws.

387 When users control their own intake, one cannot infer level of impairment based upon
388 the THC content of the product, the level of behavioral tolerance in the individual, nor the blood
389 THC concentration. Future research should address factors such as individual biologic
390 differences, personal experience with cannabis, and cannabis administration methods in relation
391 to driving impairment.

392
393

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395

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398

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536 **Figure 1.** CONSORT diagram showing participant inclusion/exclusion from initial screening
537 to final sample

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540 **Figure 2A.** Change in Composite Drive Score from baseline: all 3 treatment groups. Values
541 are means \pm 95% CI. ***p<.001, **p<0.01

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544 **Figure 2B.** Distribution of Changes in the Composite Drive Score from pre-smoking to 30
545 minutes post-smoking; shapes represent individual values, the box shows 25th, 50th (median),
546 and 75th percentiles.

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549 **Figure 2C.** Relationship between participant median self-report of driving impairment (green
550 line), willingness to refrain from driving (columns showing percent of participants who would
551 not drive), and Composite Drive Score (dashed line). THC participants only.

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554 **Figure 3A.** Relationship between whole blood THC concentrations and driving performance
555 at 30m post-smoking (THC group only)

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558 **Figure 3B.** Change in Composite Drive Score by based on use history in the past 6 mos.–
559 30m timepoint. THC Group only.

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562 **Figure 3C.** Whole Blood THC concentrations immediately post-smoking, based on use
563 history in the past 6 mos. THC Group only.

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Table 1. Demographics characteristics of study participants by treatment group

	Placebo (N=63) Mean (SD) <u>or N (%)</u>	5.9% THC (N=66) Mean (SD) <u>or N (%)</u>	13.4% THC (n=62) Mean (SD) <u>or N (%)</u>	<u>P-value</u>
Age (years)	28.1 (7.3)	30.7 (8.8)	30.9 (8.6)	.112
Male	32 (50.8%)	47 (71.2%)	39 (62.9%)	.057
Female	31 (49.2%)	19 (28.8%)	23 (37.1%)	
Education (years)	15.0 (1.9)	14.9 (2.0)	15.3 (2.0)	.437
Race/Ethnicity				.624
African American	8 (12.7%)	6 (9.1%)	4 (6.5%)	
Asian	5 (7.9%)	8 (12.1%)	4 (6.5%)	
Hispanic	15 (23.8%)	19 (28.8%)	22 (35.5%)	
Indigenous	5 (7.9%)	2 (3.0%)	1 (1.6%)	
Multiracial	2 (3.2%)	3 (4.5%)	2 (3.2%)	
Non-Hispanic White	28 (44.4%)	28 (42.4%)	27 (43.5%)	
Unknown	0	0	2 (3.2%)	
Miles driven past year*	8,730 [5,420, 12,825]	9,300 [5,298, 12,665]	8,280 [5,040, 13,320]	.973
Cannabis				
Current Cannabis Use<4 times/week	34 (54.0%)	33 (50.0%)	31 (50.0%)	.875
Days used (last 30 days)	16.9 (9.7)	16.0 (9.6)	17.3 (10.2)	.769
Grams/day when using (last 30 days)*	.55 [.25, 1]	.55 [.3, 1]	.50 [.25, 1]	.620

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577 *Median [interquartile range]

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Table 2. Composite Drive Score for the Placebo and THC groups at each timepoint.

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	1. Composite Drive Score		2. Change in Mean Composite Drive Score from Time 1					
	a. Mean (SD)		a. Placebo		b. THC		c. Difference (THC vs Placebo)	
	Placebo	THC	Cohen's d (95% CI)	P-value	Cohen's d (95% CI)	P-value	Cohen's d (95% CI)	P-value
Time 1 (pre-smoke)	-0.09 (0.64)	0.06 (0.55)	---	---	---	---	---	---
Time 2 (30min)	-0.17 (0.61)	0.34 (0.61)	-0.14 (-0.39, 0.11)	.273	0.45 (0.28, 0.63)	<.001	0.59 (0.28, 0.90)	<.001
Time 3 (1h 30min)	-0.13 (0.61)	0.36 (0.62)	-0.06 (-0.31, 0.19)	.638	0.49 (0.31, 0.67)	<.001	0.55 (0.24, 0.86)	<.001
Time 4 (3h 30min)	-0.23 (0.59)	0.10 (0.61)	-0.24 (-0.49, 0.02)	.067	0.05 (-0.13, 0.23)	.562	0.29 (-0.02, 0.60)	.067
Time 5 (4h 30min)	-0.07 (0.66)	0.07 (0.57)	0.04 (-0.21, 0.29)	.756	0.01 (-0.16, 0.19)	.877	-0.03 (-0.33, 0.28)	.869

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584 SD = standard deviation, CI = confidence interval, h = hour, m = minutes. Bold font indicates results with $p < 0.05$.
 585 Note: The test for the overall significance in differences of changes between the THC and the Placebo was statistically significant
 586 ($P < 0.001$).
 587 Column Descriptions: 1a. Mean (sd) for each treatment group at each timepoint; 2a. Effect size and p -value for each Placebo
 588 timepoint score compared to the Placebo pre-smoking score; 2b. Effect size and p -value for each THC timepoint score compared to
 589 the THC pre-smoking score; 2c. Effect size and p -value comparing the change from baseline between the Placebo and THC groups.

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