**Asian Journal of Medicine and Health** 

**5(2): 1-10, 2017; Article no.AJMAH.34164** 



# **Cannabis Effects on the Visual Cortex Hisotarchitecture of Wistar Rats**

**A. B. O. Desalu<sup>1</sup> , J. O. Owolabi1\*, F. O. Adeyemo<sup>1</sup> , S. Y. Olatunji<sup>1</sup> , A. J. Olanrewaju<sup>1</sup>and A. T. Oluwatosin<sup>1</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Department of Anatomy, Ben Carson School of Medicine, Babcock University, Nigeria.

# **Authors' contributions**

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. Authors JOO and FOA designed the study. Authors ABOD and ATO supervised the research. All authors contributed to writing the protocol and the first draft of the manuscript. Authors SYO and AJO managed the analyses of the study. Authors JOO and FOA managed the literature searches. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

# **Article Information**

DOI: 10.9734/AJMAH/2017/34164 Editor(s): (1) Devinder Preet Singh, Department of Orthodontic, Dr. Harvansh Singh Judge Institute of Dental, Panjab University, India. Reviewers: (1) Elias Ernesto Aguirre Siancas, Universidad Católica los Ángeles de Chimbote, Perú. (2) Alicia García Falgueras, The Official College of Psychologists, Madrid, Spain. (3) Ivan Simic, University of Kragujevac, Serbia. Complete Peer review History: http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history/19601

**Original Research Article** 

**Received 16th May 2017 Accepted 11th June 2017 Published 17th June 2017**

# **ABSTRACT**

Cannabis is the most widely abused illegal substance in many countries of the world presently. It acts on the higher nerve centers and produces a feeling of intoxication with hallucination. Its main component, delta-tetrahydrocannabinol, produces the 'high' feeling that most users crave. Adolescence is the age of continued neuromaturation and most users experiment at the adolescent age. The aim of this research is to evaluate the histological effects of Cannabis sativa on the visual pathway of adolescent Wistar rats. A total of twenty-four (24) adolescent Wistar rats were recruited primarily for this study. They were randomly divided into four groups of six rats each labelled A, B, C, D which include the Control, Low Dose Group, Medium Dose Group and High Dose Group respectively. Administration lasted for 21 days with the Control group being administered pelletized rat chow and clean water ad libitum, the Low Dose group being administered 150 mg/kg body weight of the rat, the Medium Dose group being administered 250 mg/kg body weight of the rats and the High Dose group being administered 500 mg/kg body weight of the rats. At the end of the

\_

\*Corresponding author: E-mail: olaowolabi001@yahoo.com, owolabijo@babcock.edu.ng;

21-day administration, the animals were sacrificed and the brain tissue specimens were excised and processed. The general histological demonstration of the superior colliculus, lateral geniculate body and the visual cortex was done using the H & E and Luxol Fast Blue Staining Techniques. There were observable effects of Cannabis on the body weight after administration. There were no serious morphologic changes in the organ weight in Groups B and C, but there were indications of such in Group D. The observable histologic effects of cannabis on the visual cortex are specific on neuronal morphology, spatial distribution of neurons and glia and neurophil integrity and this is dose-dependent.

Keywords: Brain; visual pathway; cannabis; adolescence; effects.

# **1. INTRODUCTION**

In the human, the primary visual cortex is situated along the superior and inferior banks of the calcarine fissure, corresponding to area 17 of Brodmann. This area often is called the striate cortex because of a prominent white band of myelinated fibers known as the stria of Gennari, which forms horizontal connections within the cortex. In humans, the striate cortex envelops the posterior pole of the hemisphere, extending laterally about 1.5 cm. rostrally and medially, V1 extends anteriorly beyond the juncture of the parieto-occipital and calcarine fissures, especially ventrally [1,2]. The optic radiations from the dLGN provide the main afferent connections to area V1. The three main outflow pathways from the retina—parvocellular, magnocellular, and konio- cellular remain distinct at the dLGN, but there is some convergence of these outflow in area V1 [3,4]. There are also inputs to area V1 from the pulvinar and other cortical regions.

Visual cortical neurons are divided into two main morphologies (pyramidal and non-pyramidal), which forms the basis for the histologic segregation of the visual cortex into six laminae [5]. Layer 1, the most superficial layer, contains few neurons and is composed mostly of fibrillary astrocytes with some microglia and oligodendrocytes. Layer 2 contains small pyramidal cells, many with short axons or axons that ascend and split within layer 1 [6]. Layer 3 is traditionally defined as containing mostly medium-sized and small pyramidal cells, with granule cells more deeply. A more recent interpretation further divides layer 3 into four subregions: 3A, 3Bα, 3Bβ and 3C [7,8]. Large pyramidal cells of 3A project to V2 in the monkey[6]. Cells in 3Bβ project to area V2, while those in 3C project both to V2 and MT. In the macaque, layer 3 receives input from the intercalated layers of the dLGN [9].

Layer 4 is a relatively large lamina that is the primary recipient area of the geniculate calcarine projection, which mostly synapses on stellate cells that have a uniform, radial topography. A recent revision of visual cortical architecture divides layer 4 into three zones: 4α, 4ctr and 4β [7,8]. The traditionally described layer 4A, which contains large stellate cells with axons that descend to deeper laminae or enter the subcortical white matter, expresses in humans monoclonal staining patterns not found in nonhuman primates, which suggests evolution of an enhanced interneuronal population [10]. The traditional layer 4B, recently considered to be 3C, contains mostly granule cells and has the stria of Gennari. The neurons of layer 4B, which predominantly receive input from the ''M'' pathway via layer (new classification), are mostly tuned for orientation, although a smaller population of cells are direction-selective [11-19]. These cells project mostly to area MT. Pyramidal cells in layer 3C receive M- and P-cell input and project mainly to area V2 [20-22].

Layer 5 contains pyramidal cells of various sizes, including the giant pyramidal cells of Meynert. Layer 5 (in the monkey) projects to the Superior Colliculus and pulvinar nucleus [20]. .Layer 6 contains medium-sized neurons [23], most of which project as a feedback pathway to the dLGN [20,24]. Layer 6 of macaque consists of three sub layers, only two of which project to the dLGN. The upper tier projects exclusively to parvocellular layers, while the lower tier projects to parvocellular and magnocellular layers of the dLGN [25]. The majority of striate cortical cells receive their (supra- threshold) excitatory input from either the ''P'' or ''M'' pathway via the dLGN. This description of parallel inputs, however, too greatly simplifies the reality. In macaquemonkeys, a substantial proportion (at least 25%) of area V1 neurons receive convergent input from two dLGN outflow pathways, usually the ''M'' and "P" pathways, and possibly from the koniocellular projections as well [21].

Cannabis is the most widely used illicit drug in the world [26]. Cannabis use was suggested to cause less efficient visual-motor function or visuospatial skills [27-30] and decreased visual processing speed [31]. These evidences points to the fact that cannabis use has effects on brain functions and performances, especially vision related activities. Also, the brain pattern of development may be altered by prolonged cannabis use [32]. A number of reports have stated cannabis effects to include reduction and increase in grey and white matter respectively in heavy cannabis users [33]; Others reported reduced whole brain volumes in individuals who started cannabis use in early teenage relative to those who started cannabis use above age 17 [34]. Interestingly other reports countered these claims and reported no significant variations in cerebral [35,36] and hippocampus volumes [36]. What is noteworthy here is that these results were imaging based with efforts concentrated on brain volume and atrophic changes rather than specific cellular morphological changes. The fact that human subjects were used also limited the extents of morphological analyses outside the bodily milieu. In few existing instances, cannabis extracts was reportedly toxic to cortical tissues at relatively high dose [37,38]. The current investigation however employed the use of histomorphological techniques to analyse observable changes in the visual cortex histoarchitecture and individual cells morphologies after exposure to various does of cannabis over a period of 21 days.

# **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

The animals were kept in cages with constant supply of standard rat chow and water ad libitum. They were maintained at constant room temperature and 12 hours light/dark cycle. The animals were first allowed to acclimatize in a well aerated room with temperatures in the range of 20-25℃ and humidity of 40-45% for 7 days prior to the commencement of the experiment. A total of 24 adolescent wistar albino rats of both sexes were used for the experiment. They were purchased from the laboratory animal house of Babcock University, Nigeria. Average weight of rats at purchase is 86.27 g. Group A (n=6) Animals were given standard rat chow and clean water; Group B (n=6) Animals were given 150 mg/kg body weight of cannabis sativa.; Group C (n=6) Animals were given 250 mg/kg body weight of Cannabis sativa Group D (n=6) Animals were given 500 mg/kg body weight of Cannabis sativa. Animals were housed, handled

and treated with adherehce to ethical and intitutional standatrd practices [39]; Ethical approval for research was granted by the Departmental Research and Ethical Comitteee [ANABU16/AD005].

Aqueous extract of Cannabis sativa leaves was prepared [40] and admisntred top the animal groups based on the designed regimen, daily though the orgastric route. Treatment asted 21 days and the animsl were sacrified by cervcial dislocation 24 hours after the last adminstration of the extract. Each rat was dissected and the brain tissue was surgically excised. Tissue preparation and analysises procedures included fixation, dehydration; with alcohol; Clearing; with xylene; embedding; with wax; blocking; sectioning; with a microtome; mounting; on the slide; dewaxing; with xylene; rehydration; with alcohol; staining; with haematoxylin and eosin [41] or and the Luxol Fast Blue staining technique [42]; cover slipping; photomicrography<br>and photo micrographic analysis [43]. and photo micrographic analysis [43]. Represnetative photomicrographs of the visual cortex tissues were presented in the results sections as Figures.

# **3. RESULTS**

Results of the experiment demonstrated using the H & E staining technique were obtained using the photomicrographic set. Representative photomicrographs were obtained to present and demonstrate the observable effects.Cannabis administration did not cause observable extensive cortical tissue distruption. Morphological abberations were however observed among the cortical neurons when animals were administered the highest dose of caffeine. Such effects could be attributed to the effects of cannabis on the cortical tissue. To this end, the observable effects on the cortex due to cannabis was neuoral morphological heterogeneity at high dose.

# **4. DISCUSSION**

# **4.1 Histoarchitecture and Cellular Integrity**

The photomicrographs in Figs. 1- 4 present the histological demonstration of the visual cortex of the experimental animals in groups A-D respectively (H & E). In Fig. 1 the general histoarhitecture of the visual cortex is normally demonstrated in the cross-section and the cortical layer is defined. At the higher

magnification, neurons and glia are normally demonstrated. The superficial layers (Fig. 1B) present few neurons in molecular layer and the granular cells with normal morphologies and spatial distribution, this is also true of the cells in the deeper cortical layers (Fig. 1C). These observations show that the Visual Cortex in these group of animals is normal and is suitable for a standard reference. Low dose of cannabis was administered to the animals in Group B; the visual cortex in this group is normally demonstrated in its cross-section (Fig. 2A). Superficial cells especially the granular neurons are prominently demonstrated and normal in morphology. The deeper cortical neurons especially the pyramidal cells (Figs. 2B and C) are also normally demonstrated. Generally, the pattern of spatial distribution of the cells as well as the glia is relatively normal in this group. The

neuropil is also relatively intact. These observations altogether suggest that the administration of low dose of cannabis did not produce any observable deleterious effect either on general histoarchitecture, cell spatial distribution or morphologies in this group. There are therefore no deleterious effects. Thus, low dose cannabis use [≈150 mg/kg body weight] might not cause extensive structural damage or alteration to the visual cortex.

Relative to the Control Group A, the crosssection of the visual cortex in Group C is largely preserved in terms of the characteristic histoarchitecture (Fig. 3A). At the higher magnification, the cells of the superficial cortical layers are also largely unaffected in terms of their morphologies and spatial distribution (Fig. 3B).



**Fig. 1. Photomicrographs of the visual cortex of the control group demonstrating the cortical cross-section [A] and the superficial and deeper cortical cells respectively [B and C] [H&E]. Cortical histoarchitecture appears normal and suitable to serve as standard reference for the treated groups of animals** 

[N= Neuron; G= Glia- astrocyte; Go= Glia- oligodendrocyte; Gm= Glia- microglia]

However, certain neurons in the deeper cortical layers stain with varying intensity and some appear relatively heterogeneous Some other cells in this group also stain as dark or pyknotic neurons. This is characteristic of neurons that have been chemically assaulted or by other forms of trauma and it typically marks the beginning of the cascade of pathological response to assault by neurons [43]. Consequently, the administration of medium dose of cannabis to the animals in this group produce observably mild negative effects in these few neurons and this might compromise their neurologic integrity. Realtively higher caffeine dose would therefore cause structural changes to the visual cortex; and similar effects have been reprted [44-46].

The high dose of cannabis administered to the Group D animals also produced observable effects on the visual cortex in this group, though, the histoarchitecture is still largely preserved in its cross-section (Fig. 4A). Howver, the superficial granular cells are poorly demonstrated (Fig. 4B). In the deeper cortical layers, cells appear relatively heterogenous with a few having large peri-cellular spaces. These observations collectively suggest that the administered substance caused distortions of cell morphology and the surrounding neurophil in this group. Such effects are relatively more severe than those observed in the preceding Group C and this shows that the effects of the administered substance is dose-dependent. The inference from this obervation is that cannabis ingestion at



**Fig. 2. Photomicrographs of the visual cortex of the low dose group demonstrating the cortical cross-section [A] and the cortical cells [B and C] [H & E]. Cortical histoarchitecture appears relatively normal and devoid of extensive disruptions or individual morphological aberrations**  N= Neuron; G= Glia- astrocyte; Go= Glia- oligodendrocyte; Gm= Glia- microglia]

relativly hight dosage would cause detelrtous changes to the cerenbral cortex nurons, changing their mophologies grossly. This agrees with a number of reports on the potential toxic effects of cannabis to cotical tissue [47,48]; however, at relativly high doses. It also shows that cannabis effects on the brain cortex is dose depenedent and severity may incraese with dosage.Though many reports and review exist on the functional consequences of effects of cannabis on the brain [49-53]; Reports on brain and cortical structural changes are relatively inadequate presently and this reaffirms the relvenace of this article.

### **4.2 Neurophil and Myelination Integrity**

The Luxol Fast Blue Staining Technique was used to demonstrate the myelination and neurophil integrity across the animal groups. The neurophil and pattern of myelination appear normal in the Control Group (Fig. 5A). The observation in Group B (Fig. 5B) is also similar to that of the control, showing that the neuropil is still largely preserved when the medium dose of cannabis was administered. Myelin was demonstrated in the Group C cortex, though there are still signs of mild localized disruptions (Fig. 5C). This might be due to the pyknotic condition of certain cells previously observed. High Dose of cannabis was administered to the Group D animals and the Luxol Fast Blue staining technique shows that relative to the neurophil, cells are less prominently demonstrated in the group. This, again, is attributable to the disrupted cortical tissue previously reported. Again this obervations support the accompanying cortical fibre poor myelination changes that reporteldy accompany cannabis use, especially during adolescence [48].





**Fig. 3. Photomicrographs of the visual cortex of the medium dose group demonstrating the cortical cross-section [A] and the superficial and deeper cortical cells respectively [B and C] [H&E]. Cortical histoarchitecture appears normal. Neurons stain with varying intensity and some appear relatively heterogeneous** 

[N= Neuron; G= Glia- astrocyte; Go= Glia- oligodendrocytes; Gm= Glia- microglia]



**Fig. 4. Photomicrographs of the visual cortex of the high dose group demonstrating the cortical cross-section [A] and the superficial and deeper cortical cells respectively [B and C] [H & E]. Cortical histoarchitecture appears relatively normal; but neurons are heterogeneous in morphologies relative to one another** 

[N= Neuron; G= Glia- astrocyte; Go= Glia- oligodendrocyte; Gm= Glia- microglia]



**Fig. 5. Photomicrographs of the visual cortex of the control group [Luxol Fast Blue]**  There are no substantial signs of extensive disruption to the visual cortex myelin integrity

# **5. CONCLUSION**

Results from the histological osbervations of the visual cortex of the experimental animals showed that cannabis extract ingestion had mild effects on the ccortex. These effects were observed at the reltively high dose of cannabis; and these effects specifcally included morphological heterogeneity of certain neurons.

# **CONSENT**

It is not applicable.

# **ETHICAL APPROVAL**

As per international standard or university standard written ethical approval has been collected and preserved by the authors.

### **COMPETING INTERESTS**

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

# **REFERENCES**

- 1. Putnam T. Studies on the central visual connections II. A comparative study of the form of the geniculo-striate visual system of mammals. Arch Neurol Psychiatr. 1926;17:285–300.
- 2. Stensaas SS, Eddington DK, Dobelle WH. The topography and variability of the primary visual cortex in man. J Neurosurg. 1974;40:747–755.
- 3. Vidyasagar TR, et al. Convergence of parvocellular and magnocellular information channels in the primary visual cortex of the macaque. Eur J Neurosci. 2002;16:945–956.
- 4. Callaway EM. Local circuits in primary visual cortex of the macaque monkey. Annu Rev Neurosci. 1998;21:47–74.
- 5. Levitt JB, Yoshioka T, Lund JS. Intrinsic cortical connections in macaque visual area V2: Evidence for interaction between different functional streams. J Comp Neurol. 1994;342:551–570.
- 6. Braak H. On the striate area of the human isocortex. A Golgi and pigment architectonic study. J Comp Neurol. 1976;166:341–364.
- 7. Boyd JD, Mavity-Hudson JA, Casagrande VA. The connections of layer 4 subdivisions in the primary visual cortex

(V1) of the owl monkey. Cereb Cortex. 2000;10:644–662.

- 8. Kaas JH, Collins CE. The organization of sensory cortex. Curr Opin Neurobiol Sci 2001;11:498–504.
- 9. Hendry SH, Yoshioka T. A neurochemically distinct third channel in the macaque dorsal lateral geniculate nucleus. Science 1994;264:575–577.
- 10. Preuss TM, Coleman GQ. Human-specific organization of primary visual cortex: Alternating compartments of dense Cat-301 and calbindin immunoreactivity in layer 4A. Cereb Cortex. 2002;12:671–691.
- 11. Hubel DH, Freeman DC. Projection into the visual field of ocular dominance columns in macaque monkey. Brain Res. 1977;122:336–343.
- 12. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN, Stryker MP. Orientation columns in macaque monkey visual cortex demonstrated by the 2 deoxyglucose autoradiographic technique. Nature. 1977;269:328–33.
- 13. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN. Anatomical demonstration of columns in the monkey striate cortex. Nature. 1969;221:747–750.
- 14. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN. Receptive fields and functional architecture of monkey striate cortex. J Phys Sci. 1968;195:215–243.
- 15. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN. Receptive fields of single neurons in the cat's striate cortex. J Phys Sci. 1959;148:574–591.
- 16. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN. Sequence regularity and geometry of orientation columns in the monkey striate cortex. J Comp Neurol. 1974;158:267–293.
- 17. Hubel DH, Wiesel TN. Uniformity of monkey striate cortex: A parallel relationship between field size, scatter, and magnification factor. J Comp Neurol. 1974;158:295–305.
- 18. Lund JS, Boothe R. Interlaminar connections and pyramidal neuron organization in the visual cortex, area 17 of the macaque monkey. J Comp Neurol. 1975;159:305–334.
- 19. Boothe R, et al. A quantitative investigation of spine and dendrite development of neurons in visual cortex (area 17) of Macaca nemestrina monkeys. J Comp Neurol. 1979;186:473–490.
- 20. Lund JS, et al. The origin of efferent pathways from the primary visual cortex, area 17, of the macaque monkey as shown by retrograde transport of horseradish peroxidase. J Comp Neurol. 1976164:287– 304.
- 21. Maunsell J, Van Essen D. The connections of the middle temporal visual are in the macaque and its relationship to a hierarchy of cortical visual areas. J Neurosci. 1983; 3:2563–2586.
- 22. Sawatari A., Callaway EM. Convergence of magno- and parvocellular pathways in layer 4B of macaque primary visual cortex. Nature 1996;380:442–446.
- 23. Bolton J. The brain in health and disease. London, Edward Arnold Publishers, Ltd; 1914.
- 24. Garey LJ, Powell TP. An experimental study of the termination of the lateral geniculo-cortical pathway in the cat and monkey. Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 1971;179:41–63.
- 25. Fitzpatrick D, Lund JS, Blasdel GG. Intrinsic connections of macaque striate cortex: Afferent and efferent connections of lamina 4C. J Neurosci 1985;5:3329–3349.
- 26. King GR, Ernst T, Deng W, Stenger A, Gonzales RM, Nakama H, Chang L. Effects of Chronic Active Cannabis Use on Visuomotor Integration, in Relation to Brain Activation and Cortisol Levels. J Neurosci. 2011;31(49):17923–17931.
- 27. Fattore L, Fratta W. How important are sex differences in cannabinoid action? Br J Pharmacol. 2010;160(3):544-548.
- 28. Lundqvist T. Imaging cognitive deficits in drug abuse. Curr Top Behav Neurosci. 2010;3:247-75.
- 29. Martín-Santos R, Fagundo AB, Crippa JA, Atakan Z, Bhattacharyya S, Allen P, Fusar-Poli P, Borgwardt S, Seal M, Busatto GF, McGuire P. Neuroimaging in cannabis use: A systematic review of the literature. Psychol Med. 2010;40(3):383-98.
- 30. Fried PA, Watkinson B, Gray R. Neurocognitive consequences of marihuana--a comparison with pre-drug performance. Neurotoxicol Teratol. 2005; 27(2):231-9.
- 31. Bolla KI, Brown K, Eldreth D, Tate K, Cadet JL. Dose-related neurocognitive effects of marijuana use. Neurology. 2002; 59(9):1337-1343.
- 32. L. Chang, Yakupov R, Cloak C, Ernst T. Marijuana use is associated with a reorganized visual-attention network and cerebellar hypoactivation. Brain. 2006; 129:1096–1112.
- 33. Matochik J, Eldreth D, Cadet J, Bolla K. Altered brain tissue composition in heavy marijuana users. Drug Alcohol Depend 2005;77:23–30.
- 34. Wilson W, Mathew R, Turkington T, Hawk T, Coleman R, Provenzale J. Brain morphological changes and early marijuana use: A magnetic resonance and positron emission tomography study. J Addict Dis 2000;19:1–22.
- 35. Block RI, O'Leary DS, Ehrhardt JC, Augustinack JC, Ghoneim MM, Arndt S, et al. Effects of frequent marijuana use on brain tissue volume and composition. Neuroreport. 2000a;11:491–6.
- 36. Tzilos G, Cintron C, Wood J, Simpson N, Young A, Pope H Jr, et al. Lack of hippocampal volume change in long-term heavy cannabis users. Am J Addict. 2005;14:64–72.
- 37. Amaza DS, Maidugu FA, Zirahei JV, Numan AI, Hyelnada Mari. The effect of Cannabis sativa leaves aqueous extract on cerebral cortex in Albino Rats. Journal of Dental and Medical Sciences. 2013;6(2): 53-58.
- 38. Odokuma EI, Ogbor-Omorie E. Histomorphologic effects of Cannabis sativa on the brains of adult Wistar rats. Ann Bioanthropol. 2015;3:29-32.
- 39. Fawcett A. Guidelines for the housing of mice in scientific institutions, animal research review panel, NSW department of primary industries, Animal Welfare Unit, West Pennant Hills. Recommendations. 2012;32.
- 40. Das K, Tiwari RKS, Shrivastava DK. Techniques for evaluation of medicinal plant products as antimicrobial agent: Current methods and future trends. Journal of Medicinal Plants Research. 2010;4(2): 104-111.
- 41. Robert D Cardiff, Claramae H Miller, Robert KJ. Cold sprng protocol herbs; 2014. DOI: 10, 1101
- 42. Sheehan D, Hrapchak B. Theory and practice of histotechnology, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, Battelle Press, Ohio. 1980;262-264.
- 43. Garman RH. Histology of the central nervous system. Toxicol Pathol. 2011;39(1)22-35.
- 44. Tijani AA, Adekomi AD, Oyesomi TO, Fawole OB. Histoarchitectural organization of the visual system of male rats following oral administration of crude aqueous leaf extract of Cannabis sativa. African Journal of Cellular Pathology. 2014;13.
- 45. Tijani AA, Adekomi DA. Neurotoxic effects of aqueous leaf extract of Cannabis sativa on the visual cortex of adult Wistar rats.

Journal of Health Sciences. 2011;18(2): 44-49.

- 46. Churchwell JC, Lopez-Larson M, Yurgelun-Todd DA. Altered frontal cortical volume and decision making in adolescent cannabis users. Front Psychol. 2010; 1:225.
- 47. Stiglick A, Llewellyn ME, Kalant H. Residual effects of prolonged cannabis treatment on shuttle-box avoidance in the rat. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 1984; 84(4):476-9.
- 48. Schweinsburg AD, Brown SA, Tapert SF. The influence of marijuana use on neurocognitive functioning in Adolescents. Curr Drug Abuse Rev. 2008;1(1):99–111.
- 49. Jones RT. Drug of abuse pro®le: cannabis. [Review]. Clin Chem. 1987;33 (11 Suppl):72B-81B.
- 50. Solowij N. Cannabis and cognitive<br>functioning. [Review]. Cambridge: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 1998.
- 51. Earleywine M. Understanding marijuana. [Review]. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2002.
- 52. Iversen L. Cannabis and the brain. Brain 2003;126:1252-1270.
- 53. Hall W, Solowij N, Lemon J. The health and social consequences of Cannabis use. National drug strategy monograph series No. 25. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service; 1994.

\_ © 2017 Desalu et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

> Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/19601