

Position Statement Medical cannabis for children: Evidence and recommendations

Lauren E. Kelly PhD, Michael J. Rieder MD, Yaron Finkelstein MD

Canadian Paediatric Society, Drug Therapy Committee, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

Correspondence: Canadian Paediatric Society, 100-2305 St. Laurent Blvd., Ottawa, Ontario, Canada K1G 4J8. www.cps.ca. All CPS documents are reviewed regularly and revised or retired as needed. Visit the website for the most current version.

ABSTRACT

Interest in using cannabis products for a medical purpose in children under the age of 18 years is increasing. There are many medical cannabis products available that can include cannabidiol (CBD) or delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), or both. Despite many therapeutic claims, there are few rigorous studies to inform the dosing, safety, and efficacy of medical cannabis in paediatric clinical practice. This statement reviews the current evidence and provides recommendations for using medical cannabis in children. Longer-term (2-year) reports support the sustained tolerability and efficacy of cannabidiol therapy for patients with Lennox-Gastaut and Dravet syndromes. CBD-enriched cannabis extracts containing small amounts of THC have been evaluated in a small number of paediatric patients, and further research is needed to inform clinical practice guidelines. Given the widespread use of medical cannabis in Canada, paediatricians should be prepared to engage in open, ongoing discussions with families about its potential benefits and risks, and develop individualized plans that monitor efficacy, reduce harms, and mitigate drug–drug interactions.

Keywords: Cannabinoids; CBD; Children; Delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol; Medical cannabis; Pharmacotherapy.

BACKGROUND AND SCOPE

Cannabis contains a complex mixture of hundreds of bioactive compounds (1). Of the more than 140 cannabinoids it contains, the two most abundant and well-studied are delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol (CBD), although other cannabinoids may have therapeutic potential (2). THC and a few other minor cannabinoids produce euphoric effects associated with cannabis use, while CBD elicits broad antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and neuroprotective effects (3,4). The endocannabinoid system includes CB1 and CB2 receptors. Both are G-protein-coupled receptors, which means they work as cellular surface trans-membrane proteins that convert extracellular signals, such as from drugs, hormones, and neurotransmitters, into intracellular responses. CB1 receptors are found primarily in the central and peripheral nervous system, though recently they have also been found outside the nervous system, while CB2 receptors are found throughout the human immune system (4). THC exerts its primary effects as a partial agonist of CB1 receptors, while CBD is a negative allosteric modulator of CB1 and acts via several other receptors, such as serotonergic and vanilloid receptors (3,4). Literature has suggested that minor cannabinoids and terpenoids may have synergistic effects, possibly through competition for drug metabolic enzymes (5,6) or direct receptor activation (7,8). The pharmacodynamics of cannabinoids are affected by their formulation, the route of administration, and gastric contents (9). The mechanisms of action for CBD are still under investigation.

The focus of this statement is on medical cannabis use in paediatric patients (<18 years). In Canada, the medical cannabis stream allows physicians and nurse practitioners to authorize cannabis use for young people (Figure 1) (10,11). A medical cannabis authorization provides paediatric patients with the legal ability to possess cannabis products used for a therapeutic indication. Cannabis products include many different combinations of cannabinoids (or isolates) in different formulations, such as dried flower, extracts (oils), edibles, topicals, suppositories, waxes or resins, and beverages. Many cannabis products accessible through the medical cannabis stream are also available in the recreational and illicit markets.

Received: March 30, 2022; Accepted: April 20, 2023

[©] Canadian Paediatric Society 2024. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Canadian Paediatric Society. All rights reserved. For permissions, please e-mail: journals.permissions@oup.com



Figure 1. Overview of different types of cannabis products available in Canada. *Regulated under the Cannabis Act, 2018. *CBD cannabidiol; DIN Drug identification number; GMP Good manufacturing practices; GPP Good production practices; THC delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol.* References (10,11)

At present only two cannabis-based pharmaceuticals with a drug identification number (DIN) are available in Canada: Sativex and Nabilone. Both have been prescribed off-label to children. Sativex (nabiximols) is a cannabis-based oromucosal spray that contains 27 mg/mL of THC and 25 mg/mL of CBD and is marketed for spasticity in adults with multiple sclerosis. Nabilone is an oral synthetic THC analogue, available in 1 mg, 0.5 mg, and 0.25 mg capsules, indicated for chemotherapyinduced nausea and vomiting in adults. In 2018, the US Food and Drug Administration approved Epidiolex, a cannabisderived, purified CBD preparation, for two drug-resistant epilepsy (DRE) syndromes in adults and children 2 years and older. Epidiolex was also approved by the European Medicines Agency in 2019, and by the Therapeutic Goods Administration (Australia) in 2020. Despite global authorizations for the management of DRE, Epidiolex (or any other purified CBD drug) is not yet marketed in Canada. However, Epidiolex was submitted to Health Canada for DIN review and approval in late 2022.

Medical cannabis is used for a variety of therapeutic indications, with each warranting an assessment of potential risks and benefits. The evidence and opinions contained in this statement are specific to the use of cannabis-based products for medical purposes, always acknowledging that the impacts of recreational cannabis use on the developing brain and rising rates of accidental cannabis poisonings in children (12) are public health concerns. The statement replaces a previous CPS statement on medical cannabis from 2016 (13), based on the evolving literature, new cannabis-based pharmaceuticals, and changes to medical cannabis access under the 2018 Cannabis Act.

Evidence on efficacy in paediatric patients

While claims regarding the potential effectiveness of medical cannabis in children are widespread, few placebo-controlled clinical trials beyond those focused on DRE have included children (14) or yielded results to support such claims. Indications, dosing, and adverse events from cannabis products that have been prospectively studied in children are summarized in the eTable 1 (CBD only) and eTable 2 (CBD with THC).

Epilepsy

Clinical trials in children with DRE exploring the use of purified CBD have consistently demonstrated efficacy, with mean reductions in seizure frequency ranging between 36% and 49%, as well as improved quality of life (15-22). Adverse events (10% or more and greater than placebo) for purified CBD include somnolence, decreased appetite, diarrhea, fatigue, malaise and asthenia, rash, sleep disorders, infections, and transaminase elevations. Open-label expanded access program data support sustained tolerability and long-term benefit with doses up to 25 mg/kg CBD per day (23–26). Aside from administration of anticonvulsants by mouth, 48 children who received CBD transdermally, twice daily for 6.5 months, reported a reduction in seizures and reduced disease burden (27). Experiences and reported benefits of CBD use in children with DRE have been reported in Argentina (28), Australia (29,30), Israel (31), Slovenia (32), Switzerland (33), the UK (34), and the USA (24).

While randomized controlled trials (RCTs) have focused on purified CBD oils, CBD-enriched extracts (that contain small amounts of THC and other cannabinoids) may require lower doses of CBD to produce comparable or improved safety and efficacy outcomes (35,36). Two Canadian open-label doseescalation studies using CBD-enriched extracts in 50:1 and 20:1 ratios of CBD to THC reported seizure reduction (37-40). CBD-enriched extracts (25:1 CBD:THC) also demonstrated benefit in one small observational study of children with treatment-resistant West syndrome (41), while several observational studies highlighted the benefits of CBD-enriched cannabis extracts in DRE (31,34,42). Furthermore, when using a CBD-enriched cannabis extract (20:1 CBD:THC, up to 12 mg CBD per day), there were low plasma levels of THC reported (42,43). However, while longitudinal observational data from children with epilepsy who used a 20:1 CBD-enriched extract

have demonstrated seizure reduction, adverse events were also common (46%) (44,45).

Autism

A recent scoping review of medical cannabis in children with autism (46) identified eight retrospective studies (total: 346 children). Observational reports have suggested improvements in behavioural problems, anxiety, and communication, along with mild adverse events including somnolence, changes in appetite, gastrointestinal symptoms, restlessness, and sleep disturbances (46,47). CBD has been associated with reducing self-injury, rage attacks and hyperactivity, and with improving sleep (48). A randomized trial from Israel compared CBDenriched extract (20:1 CBD:THC) and purified cannabinoids in the same ratio to placebo in a three-arm crossover design in 150 patients with autism aged 5 to 21 years. The authors reported tolerability with improvements in disruptive behaviours and core autism symptoms (48). Benefits were more pronounced using the CBD-enriched extract (compared to a combination of isolates with the same ratio), supporting entourage effects and encouraging regulators to create pathways that incentivize research on cannabis extracts. Definitive placebocontrolled trials are needed to determine the potential therapeutic benefits and harms of medical cannabis in children with autism (48,49).

Other neurological conditions

A better understanding of CBD may lead to promising therapies for several neurodevelopmental disorders in children (50). While nabiximols is indicated for spasticity in adults with multiple sclerosis, a randomized, placebo-controlled trial of nabiximols (1:1 CBD:THC) in 72 children (aged 8 to 18 years) with spasticity due to cerebral palsy or traumatic non-progressive brain injury reported no improvement in this symptom over a 12-week period (when titrated up to a maximum dose of 32.4 mg THC and 30 mg CBD per day) (51). This trial, which was conducted in the Czech Republic, Israel, and the UK, reported that nabiximols was reasonably tolerated, although three patients experienced neuropsychiatric adverse events, specifically hallucinations, during the randomization and open-label study phases that included 72 participants (51). A small openlabel Israeli study showed that CBD-enriched cannabis extracts (CBD:THC ratios of 6:1 and 20:1) improved spasticity and dystonia in children (52).

A pilot RCT (53) in eight children comparing purified CBD oil (titrated up to 20 mg/kg CBD per day) with placebo in children with intellectual disabilities and severe behavioural problems found that CBD was well tolerated and reduced severe behavioural problems, warranting further investigation in a larger RCT (54). Also, case reports and two small studies have suggested benefits for patients with Tourette's syndrome (55,56), as did a small case series of patients with fragile X syndrome (57). A Phase II, industry-sponsored, randomized, placebo-controlled trial evaluated doses up to 250 mg of a transdermal CBD gel in children with fragile X. It was well tolerated, and preliminary findings in 20 children (aged 6 to 17 years) suggest reduced anxiety, improved social interactions, and less irritable behaviours (58,59).

Cancer and palliative care

In 2020, 92% of Canadian paediatric oncologists and palliative care physicians had provided care to at least one child who had used cannabis for medical purposes within the previous 6 months, with or without an authorization from a health care provider (60). Despite limited research on cannabis use in children with cancer, reported reasons for using cannabis products in this population vary widely, from managing cancer and cancer treatment-related symptoms to aiming for a cancer cure (61). Synthetic cannabinoids (nabilone in Canada) are used as third-line antiemetics in children, with demonstrated benefit in chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting (62), when compared with conventional agents (70% versus 30%, respectively) (63,64). There may be additional safety considerations around the use of cannabis products during therapy with immune checkpoint inhibitors. Observational data in adults (65) reported an increase in tumour progression and a decrease in overall survival, though neither finding was replicated in mouse models of non-small cell lung cancer (65). There is significant interest among families regarding the reputed antitumor properties of cannabis, based in part on in vitro and in vivo work, case reports, online anecdotes, and ongoing adult studies, but as yet there have been no clinical trials evaluating the antineoplastic effects of cannabis in children (63). Two clinical trials in Canada and Australia are planned or ongoing to investigate combinations of THC and CBD and evaluate use of cannabinoids to manage symptoms in children with cancer (66,67).

Prognosis remains a key consideration for Canadian physicians who authorize medical cannabis for a child (68). One observational report of 21 Canadian children (aged 3 months to 19 years) who were followed by a paediatric palliative care team found they all experienced symptoms improvement after receiving cannabis for pain or nausea and vomiting. The effects of medical cannabis on seizures was mixed, however (69). Adverse events were reported in 33% of children, and included somnolence, insomnia, and vomiting (69). In Italy, one study of six children who received palliative care with cannabis oils reported reduced pain and seizure frequency, with mild and transient side effects (70). Dronabinol has been used to successfully manage spasticity in children with neurological complexities and receiving palliative care (71). This evidence has informed international pharmacovigilance work (72) on the safety and efficacy of medical cannabis for children receiving palliative care.

Evidence gaps

Medical cannabis has demonstrated potential efficacy in several conditions in adults (73), such as anxiety and pain, for which there is, as yet, insufficient evidence in children (74–76). There are more than 32 clinical trials focused on cannabinoid use for chronic non-cancer pain in adults (77), but none studying either acute or chronic pain in children (74–76). Chronic pain is common in young people (78), and an upcoming clinical trial in Canada will be the first to evaluate a cannabis product in adolescents with chronic headaches (79). Consensus-based recommendations for slowly titrating cannabinoids in the context of opioids and chronic pain are available for adults (80).

Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and attention-deficit disorder are conditions for which there has been demonstrated benefit for cannabis use in adults (81–83). Large observational studies have reported that adults with ADHD believed cannabis had improved their medication-related side effects (82). A Canadian case series involving three young adults with ADHD reported improved depressive and anxious symptoms, and enhanced emotional regulation, when they consumed medical cannabis alongside their other medications (84). These studies did not specify recommended doses and included a range of cannabis products and formulations. Clinical trials are needed to evaluate the potential efficacy and safety of cannabis products for managing paediatric ADHD.

Safety considerations

Cannabis-related adverse events should be discussed with children and adolescents, as appropriate for age and stage, and with family whenever possible. Such conversations should differentiate clearly between what is known about individual product components (THC, CBD, terpenes, other cannabinoids) versus indications, product types, and dosing information that have (and have not) been studied in children and youth. To date, long-term safety data for this age group are restricted to purified CBD. In DRE, the incidence of adverse events related to CBD seems comparable to that of other anticonvulsant drugs, and CBD use does not appear to lead to further impairment (85-87). The most common shortterm adverse effects of CBD were drowsiness, fatigue, decreased appetite, diarrhea, and vomiting (78,88). Longer-term adverse events of CBD include changes in mood, weight gain or loss, and an increase in seizure frequency. Some adverse effects may be due to the interaction between cannabinoids and other drugs, such as the anticonvulsant clobazam (89,90). However, CBD clinical trials found no differences in plasma drug concentrations or seizure frequency between patients taking clobazam versus those who did not (91). Elevated transaminases and thrombocytopenia were observed in some patients, often during concurrent therapy with valproic acid (92). CBD adverse events were dose-related, with higher rates occurring when dose approached 20 mg/kg/day (87, 88).

Little is known about the short- or long-term safety of THC in medical cannabis formulations, due to a paucity of early phase studies and poorly characterized exposures. THC levels can vary based on interactions with other drugs, cannabinoids, and terpenes (e.g., limonene). Due to the lipophilic nature of THC, blood levels do not correlate well with clinical effects, intoxication, or central nervous system effects (93). Research suggests that THC may alter white and grey matter distribution in the developing brain, and may impair memory (55,63,73,94). It is not known to what extent safety risks apply to high-CBD (versus no or low-THC) products. THC can cause cardiovascular effects, including severe hypotension, in children (95,96). Adverse effects of THC include euphoria, reduced level of consciousness, nausea or cannabishyperemesis syndrome, dizziness, forgetfulness, and tiredness (97,98). Intoxication in young children may manifest with respiratory depression, including apnea, and coma (99). The potential for adverse neurodevelopmental effects must be considered in the context of each child's overall condition and prognosis and the risk to benefit ratios of alternative therapies (100).

Drug-drug interactions are a potential consideration for THC and CBD (101,102). THC and CBD are both metabolized by CYP enzymes and are known to interact with a number of them, including CYP3A4, CYP2C9, and CYP2C19 (103–105), and may thus variably inhibit the metabolism of other drugs (105,106). The pharmacokinetics of CBD and THC in children and youth have only been studied in a small number of patients and were found to vary widely among individuals (106,107).

Family and caregiver considerations

Parents who seek medical cannabis for their children report barriers to access and a need for unbiased information (61,108). They often report using cannabis as a last therapeutic resort. A lack of reputable resources may push them to seek information from social media, cannabis storefronts, or friends. The palatability of oil-based products and their impact on gastric tube degradation should be considered carefully when authorizing use for children, especially when large volumes should be consumed. Procedures for administering medicine at school, and travel considerations, should also be discussed with families. Cost is another important consideration. Purified CBD and CBDenriched oils are expensive, especially in the doses recommended for seizure control. Cost can be a significant burden to families already struggling with the expense of managing a child's chronic illness. Some insurance providers cover the cost of medical cannabis while restricting indications. Others specifically exclude such coverage for children and youth. Some licensed producers discount medical cannabis for use by paediatric patients, but such offerings are inconsistent.

Authorizing medical cannabis in children

As with any pharmacotherapy, the first step toward authorizing medical cannabis is determining its potential benefits and risks for each child or youth. Medical considerations should include the number and nature of other therapeutic attempts, prognosis, and symptom severity (68). In adults, dried cannabis flower is conventionally smoked or inhaled to activate cannabinoids by carboxylation and facilitate absorption (106). Smoking is not recommended in paediatric patients for several reasons, including unpredictable dosing and smoking-related respiratory hazards. Cannabinoid oils are mostly administered orally for this age group, and the literature on transdermal CBD administration is evolving. Cannabis carrier oils often have an unpleasant taste that is difficult to mask. They may also contain allergens or cause nausea and diarrhea, particularly at higher doses. A wide variety of cannabis "edibles", such as gummies or chocolates, is available for purchase in Canada. The composition of these products tends not to be clinically practical (e.g., no or insufficient CBD, too much THC, or both) and geared rather to recreational consumption. Also, cannabinoids may be inconsistently distributed throughout a given product. Use of edibles for paediatric medical purposes is not recommended.

The amount of dried cannabis that is considered equivalent to the oral cannabis extract a young patient may need or use will vary by manufacturer. In Canada, no purified CBD products with a DIN were available at time of writing. Even when there is strong evidence of benefit for a child or youth with DRE, the only way to access CBD legally is through a medical cannabis authorization. Yet the number of clinicians who are trained and comfortable with this process is small. Both the lack of strong data to support the use of medical cannabis in children—and the omnipresence of misinformation—make the need to establish evidence-based parameters for safe and beneficial use of medical cannabis in paediatrics all the more urgent. Several large initiatives, including the Canadian Consortium for Childhood Cannabinoid Therapeutics (C4T), an academic research team, are working to advance research and disseminate knowledge in this area, with support from the Canadian Institutes of Health Research.

There are indications for which risks may outweigh benefits, and part of a health care professional's duty of care is to have individualized, open discussions with families concerning the evidence for the benefit and risk of medical cannabis (68,109). As with other medications, being sure to set clear goals, dosing schedules, timelines (including when to assess dose and treatment success), and parameters for discontinuation in the case of adverse events, are all important for treatment planning. Pharmacists have a growing role to play in minimizing drug-drug interactions (110). Adverse events related to medical cannabis use should be reported to MedEffect Canada.

SUMMARY

There is a growing body of research, of variable quality evidence, suggesting benefit of medical cannabis for some conditions in some children. Medical cannabis should only be authorized in cases where the benefits clearly outweigh the risks. The efficacy and safety of medical cannabis have been documented with varying degrees of strength for DRE, cancer-induced nausea and vomiting, and autism. In the available paediatric literature, purified CBD has been well tolerated but may interact negatively with other medications. There is less evidence to support THC-containing medical cannabis product use in children, and safety concerns have been raised. Many clinical trials are ongoing with focus on CBD-enriched extracts and purified CBD for paediatric indications such as chronic headaches, spasticity, symptom management in cancer, palliative care, and behavioural problems in children living with a cognitive impairment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- When appropriate, and particularly when requested by families, clinicians should be willing and able to engage in open discussions about the potential benefits and risks of medical cannabis. Counselling should:
 - be evidence-based and unbiased,
 - help parents make informed, shared decisions about their child's care,
 - alert parents to the risks and implications of accessing cannabis through recreational sources.
- Therapeutic considerations should focus on the child's or youth's specific condition and prognosis, potential benefits and risks based on the best available data, a clear treatment plan, and follow-up to evaluate efficacy, monitor safety, and avoid adverse events, including drug–drug interactions.

- For indications established by RCTs, the administration of medical cannabis products should involve slow titration and be tailored to the individual child and condition.
- Rigorous research is urgently needed to establish the role of medical cannabis in paediatric conditions for which there is biological plausibility or evidence of efficacy based on adult research. As the evidence-base for medical cannabis grows, clinicians should seek up-to-date evidence on potential safety risks, including drug–drug interactions.
- Given the already widespread use of medical cannabis, unbiased education for clinicians wanting to learn more about how THC, CBD, and other cannabinoids work, along with potential risks and benefits for children and youth, should be developed.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at *Paediatrics & Child Health* Online.

eTable 1. Overview of dosing and reported safety events from published clinical trials (interventional studies) enrolling children investigating cannabidiol (CBD)

eTable 2. Overview of dosing and reported safety events from published clinical trials (interventional studies) enrolling children investigating CBD and other cannabinoids, including THC

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to thank C4T members for their expert review and contributions to this statement: Drs. Lynda Balneaves (University of Manitoba), Bruce Crooks (IWK Health Centre), Richard Huntsman (University of Saskatchewan), Evan Lewis (Neurology Centre of Toronto), Taylor Lougheed (Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario/Northern Ontario School of Medicine), and Rod Rassekh (B.C. Children's Hospital). The authors are also grateful to CPS Task Force on Cannabis leads Drs. Richard Bélanger (Centre hospitalier de l'Université Laval) and Christina Grant (McMaster Children's Hospital) for their input.

FUNDING

No funding to report.

POTENTIAL CONFLICT OF INTEREST

All authors: No reported conflicts of interest. All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

REFERENCES

- Lucas CJ, Galettis P, Schneider J. The pharmacokinetics and the pharmacodynamics of cannabinoids. Br J Clin Pharmacol 2018;84(11):2477–82. doi:10.1111/bcp.13710
- Izzo AA, Borrelli F, Capasso R, Di Marzo V, Mechoulam R. Nonpsychotropic plant cannabinoids: New therapeutic opportunities from an ancient herb. Trends Pharmacol Sci 2009;30(10):515–27. doi:10.1016/j.tips.2009.07.006

- Friedman D, French JA, Maccarrone M. Safety, efficacy, and mechanisms of action of cannabinoids in neurological disorders. Lancet Neurol 2019;18(5):504–12. doi:10.1016/S1474-4422(19) 30032-8
- Mackie K, Stella N. Cannabinoid receptors and endocannabinoids: Evidence for new players. AAPS J 2006;8(2):E298–306. doi:10. 1007/BF02854900
- Anand U, Pacchetti B, Anand P, Sodergren MH. Cannabis-based medicines and pain: A review of potential synergistic and entourage effects. Pain Manag 2021;11(4):395–403. doi:10.2217/pmt-2020-0110
- Nowicki M, Bourgeois-Tardif S, Diaz PL, et al. Potential benefit of add-on Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol in pediatric drug-resistant epilepsy: A case series. Can J Neurol Sci 2022;49(4):595–7. doi:10.1017/cjn.2021.151
- Bilbrey JA, Ortiz YT, Felix JS, McMahon LR, Wilkerson JL. Evaluation of the terpenes β-caryophyllene, α-terpineol, and γ-terpinene in the mouse chronic constriction injury model of neuropathic pain: Possible cannabinoid receptor involvement. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2022;239(5):1475–86. doi:10.1007/ s00213-021-06031-2
- Blevins LK, Bach AP, Crawford RB, et al. Evaluation of the antiinflammatory effects of selected cannabinoids and terpenes from *Cannabis sativa* employing human primary leukocytes. Food Chem Toxicol 2022;170:113458. doi:10.1016/j.fct.2022.113458
- Bergeria CL, Spindle TR, Cone EJ, et al. Pharmacokinetic profile of Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol, cannabidiol and metabolites in blood following vaporization and oral ingestion of cannabidiol products. J Anal Toxicol 202;46(6):583–91. doi:10.1093/jat/ bkab124
- Cox C. The Canadian Cannabis Act legalizes and regulates recreational cannabis use in 2018. Health Policy 2018;122(3):205–9. doi:10.1016/j.healthpol.2018.01.009
- Ng JY, Homayouni P, Usman S, Gomes Z. The medical cannabis regulatory framework in Canada: A narrative review. Eur J Integr Med 2022;50:102104. doi:10.1016/j.eujim.2022.102104
- Myran DT, Cantor N, Finkelstein Y, et al. Unintentional pediatric cannabis exposures after legalization of recreational cannabis in Canada. JAMA Netw Open 2022;5(1):e2142521. doi:10.1001/ jamanetworkopen.2021.42521
- 13. Rieder MJ; Canadian Paediatric Society, Drug Therapy and Hazardous Substances Committee. Is the medical use of cannabis a therapeutic option for children? Paediatr Child Health 2016;21(1):31–4. doi:10.1093/pch/21.1.31
- Treves N, Mor N, Allegaert K, et al. Efficacy and safety of medical cannabinoids in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Sci Rep 2021;11(1):23462. doi:10.1038/s41598-021-02770-6
- Devinsky O, Marsh E, Friedman D, et al. Cannabidiol in patients with treatment-resistant epilepsy: An open-label interventional trial. Lancet Neurol 2016;15(3):270–8. doi:10.1016/S1474-4422 (15)00379-8
- Devinsky O, Patel AD, Thiele EA, et al.; GWPCARE1 Part A Study Group. Randomized, dose-ranging safety trial of cannabidiol in Dravet syndrome. Neurology 2018;90(14):e1204–11. doi:10.1212/ WNL.00000000005254
- Miller I, Scheffer IE, Gunning B, et al.; GWPCARE2 Study Group. Dose-ranging effect of adjunctive oral cannabidiol vs placebo on convulsive seizure frequency in Dravet syndrome: A randomized clinical trial. JAMA Neurol 2020;77(5):613–21. doi:10.1001/ jamaneurol.2020.0073
- Thiele EA, Marsh ED, French JA, et al.; GWPCARE4 Study Group. Cannabidiol in patients with seizures associated with Lennox-Gastaut syndrome (GWPCARE4): A randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase 3 trial. Lancet 2018;391(10125):1085– 96. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(18)30136-3
- Devinsky O, Cross JH, Laux L, et al.; Cannabidiol in Dravet Syndrome Study Group. Trial of cannabidiol for drug-resistant seizures in the Dravet syndrome. N Engl J Med 2017;376(21):2011–20. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1611618

- Devinsky O, Patel AD, Cross JH, et al.; GWPCARE3 Study Group. Effect of cannabidiol on drop seizures in the Lennox-Gastaut syndrome. N Engl J Med 2018;378(20):1888–97. doi:10.1056/ NEJMoa1714631
- Devinsky O, Verducci C, Thiele EA, et al. Open-label use of highly purified CBD (Epidiolex®) in patients with CDKL5 deficiency disorder and Aicardi, Dup15q, and Doose syndromes. Epilepsy Behav 2018;86:131–7. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2018.05.013
- 22. Thiele EA, Bebin EM, Bhathal H, et al.; GWPCARE6 Study Group. Add-on cannabidiol treatment for drug-resistant seizures in tuberous sclerosis complex: A placebo-controlled randomized clinical trial. JAMA Neurol 2021;78(3):285–92. doi:10.1001/ jamaneurol.2020.4607
- Patel S, Grinspoon R, Fleming B, et al. The long-term efficacy of cannabidiol in the treatment of refractory epilepsy. Epilepsia 2021;62(7):1594–603. doi:10.1111/epi.16936
- 24. Devinsky O, Nabbout R, Miller I, et al. Long-term cannabidiol treatment in patients with Dravet syndrome: An open-label extension trial. Epilepsia 2019;60(2):294–302. doi:10.1111/epi.14628
- 25. Laux LC, Bebin EM, Checketts D, et al.; CBD EAP study group. Long-term safety and efficacy of cannabidiol in children and adults with treatment resistant Lennox-Gastaut syndrome or Dravet syndrome: Expanded access program results. Epilepsy Res 2019;154:13–20. doi:10.1016/j.eplepsyres.2019.03.015
- Anderson CL, Evans V, Gorham L, Liu Z, Johnson CR, Carney PR. Seizure frequency, quality of life, behavior, cognition, and sleep in pediatric patients enrolled in a prospective, open-label clinical study with cannabidiol. Epilepsy Behav 2021;124:108325. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2021.108325
- Scheffer IE, Hulihan J, Messenheimer J, et al. Safety and tolerability of transdermal cannabidiol gel in children with developmental and epileptic encephalopathies: A non-randomized controlled trial. JAMA Netw Open 2021;4(9):e2123930. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.23930
- Caraballo R, Reyes G, Demirdjian G, Huaman M, Gutierrez R. Long-term use of cannabidiol-enriched medical cannabis in a prospective cohort of children with drug-resistant developmental and epileptic encephalopathy. Seizure 2022;95:56–63. doi:10.1016/j. seizure.2022.01.001
- Chen KA, Farrar M, Cardamone M, et al. Cannabidiol for treating drug-resistant epilepsy in children: The New South Wales experience. Med J Aust 2018;209(5):217–21. doi:10.5694/mja18.00023
- Suraev AS, Todd L, Bowen MT, et al. An Australian nationwide survey on medicinal cannabis use for epilepsy: History of antiepileptic drug treatment predicts medicinal cannabis use. Epilepsy Behav 2017;70(Pt B):334–40. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2017. 02.005
- Tzadok M, Uliel-Siboni S, Linder I, et al. CBD-enriched medical cannabis for intractable pediatric epilepsy: The current Israeli experience. Seizure 2016;35:41–4. doi:10.1016/j.seizure.2016.01.004
- Neubauer D, Benedik MP, Osredkar D. Cannabidiol for treatment of refractory childhood epilepsies: Experience from a single tertiary epilepsy center in Slovenia. Epilepsy Behav 2018;81:79–85. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2018.02.009
- Zürcher K, Dupont C, Weber P, et al. Use and caregiver-reported efficacy of medical cannabis in children and adolescents in Switzerland. Eur J Pediatr 2022;181(1):335–47. doi:10.1007/s00431-021-04202-z
- Schlag AK, Zafar R, Nutt D. Medical cannabis and epilepsy in the UK—A qualitative analysis of the carers' perspective: "We're asking for quality of life for our children". Drug Sci Policy Law 2021;7:1–10. doi:10.1177/20503245211034930.
- 35. Strickland JC, Jackson H, Schlienz NJ, et al. Cross-sectional and longitudinal evaluation of cannabidiol (CBD) product use and health among people with epilepsy. Epilepsy Behav 2021;122:108205. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2021.108205
- Cáceres Guido P, Riva N, Caraballo R, et al. Pharmacokinetics of cannabidiol in children with refractory epileptic encephalopathy. Epilepsia 2021;62(1):e7–e12. doi:10.1111/epi.16781

- Pamplona FA, da Silva LR, Coan AC. Potential clinical benefits of CBD-rich cannabis extracts over purified CBD in treatmentresistant epilepsy: Observational data meta-analysis. Front Neurol 2018;9:759. doi:10.3389/fneur.2018.00759
- Reithmeier D, Tang-Wai R, Seifert B, et al. The protocol for the cannabidiol in children with refractory epileptic encephalopathy (CARE-E) study: A phase 1 dosage escalation study. BMC Pediatr 2018;18(1):221. doi:10.1186/s12887-018-1191-y
- McCoy B, Wang L, Zak M, et al. A prospective open-label trial of a CBD/THC cannabis oil in Dravet syndrome. Ann Clin Transl Neurol 2018;5(9):1077–88. doi:10.1002/acn3.621
- Snead III OC, McCoy B, Maria Zak N, Wang L, Alhadid K, Oil T-T. Clinical Research Protocol: Cannabinoid Therapy in Medically Refractory Pediatric Epilepsy—Phase 1: Dosing and Tolerability Study of a Cannabidiol-Rich Whole Cannabis Plant Extract. Toronto, Ontario: Hospital for Sick Children, 2018: https://clinicaltrials.gov/ProvidedDocs/95/NCT02983695/Prot_ SAP_000.pdf (Accessed April 25, 2023).
- 41. Caraballo R, Valenzuela GR. Cannabidiol-enriched medical cannabis as add-on therapy in children with treatment-resistant West syndrome: A study of eight patients. Seizure 2021;92:238–43. doi:10.1016/j.seizure.2021.10.002
- 42. Press CA, Knupp KG, Chapman KE. Parental reporting of response to oral cannabis extracts for treatment of refractory epilepsy. Epilepsy Behav 2015;45:49–52. doi:10.1016/j.yebeh.2015.02.043
- 43. Huntsman RJ, Tang-Wai R, Alcorn J, et al. Dosage related efficacy and tolerability of cannabidiol in children with treatment-resistant epileptic encephalopathy: Preliminary results of the CARE-E study. Front Neurol 2019;10:716. doi:10.3389/fneur.2019.00716
- 44. Hausman-Kedem M, Menascu S, Kramer U. Efficacy of CBDenriched medical cannabis for treatment of refractory epilepsy in children and adolescents—An observational, longitudinal study. Brain Dev 2018;40(7):544–51. doi:10.1016/j.braindev. 2018.03.013
- 45. Patel AD, Mazurkiewicz-Bełdzińska M, Chin RF, et al. Long-term safety and efficacy of add-on cannabidiol in patients with Lennox– Gastaut syndrome: Results of a long-term open-label extension trial. Epilepsia 2021;62(9):2228–39. doi:10.1111/epi.17000
- 46. Fletcher S, Pawliuk C, Ip A, et al. Medicinal cannabis in children and adolescents with autism spectrum disorder: A scoping review. Child Care Health Dev 2022;48(1):33–44. doi:10.1111/ cch.12909
- Barchel D, Stolar O, De-Haan T, et al. Oral cannabidiol use in children with autism spectrum disorder to treat related symptoms and co-morbidities. Front Pharmacol 2019;9:1521. doi:10.3389/ fphar.2018.01521
- Aran A, Harel M, Cassuto H, et al. Cannabinoid treatment for autism: A proof-of-concept randomized trial. Mol Autism 2021;12(1):6. doi:10.1186/s13229-021-00420-2
- Poleg S, Golubchik P, Offen D, Weizman A. Cannabidiol as a suggested candidate for treatment of autism spectrum disorder. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry 2019;89:90–6. doi:10.1016/j.pnpbp.2018.08.030
- Kwan Cheung KA, Mitchell MD, Heussler HS. Cannabidiol and neurodevelopmental disorders in children. Front Psychiatry 2021;12:643442. doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2021.643442
- 51. Fairhurst C, Kumar R, Checketts D, Tayo B, Turner S. Efficacy and safety of nabiximols cannabinoid medicine for paediatric spasticity in cerebral palsy or traumatic brain injury: A randomized controlled trial. Dev Med Child Neurol 2020;62(9):1031–9. doi:10.1111/dmcn.14548
- Libzon S, Schleider LB-L, Saban N, et al. Medical cannabis for pediatric moderate to severe complex motor disorders. J Child Neurol 2018;33(9):565–71. doi:10.1177/0883073818773028
- Efron D, Taylor K, Payne JM, et al. Does cannabidiol reduce severe behavioural problems in children with intellectual disability? Study protocol for a pilot single-site phase I/II randomised placebo-controlled trial. BMJ Open 2020;10(3):e034362. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2019-034362

- Efron D, Freeman JL, Cranswick N, et al. A pilot randomised placebo-controlled trial of cannabidiol to reduce severe behavioural problems in children and adolescents with intellectual disability. Br J Clin Pharmacol 2021;87(2):436–46. doi:10.1111/ bcp.14399
- 55. Abi-Jaoude E, Chen L, Cheung P, Bhikram T, Sandor P. Preliminary evidence on cannabis effectiveness and tolerability for adults with Tourette syndrome. J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci 2017;29(4):391–400. doi:10.1176/appi.neuropsych.16110310
- 56. Thaler A, Arad S, Schleider LB-L, et al. Single center experience with medical cannabis in Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. Parkinsonism Relat Disord 2019;61:211–3. doi:10.1016/j. parkreldis.2018.10.004
- Tartaglia N, Bonn-Miller M, Hagerman R. Treatment of fragile X syndrome with cannabidiol: A case series study and brief review of the literature. Cannabis Cannabinoid Res 2019;4(1):3–9. doi:10.1089/can.2018.0053
- Berry-Kravis E, Hagerman R, Budimirovic D, et al. A pivotal study of ZYN002 cannabidiol (CBD) transdermal gel in children and adolescents with Fragile X syndrome [CONNECT-FX (ZYN2-CL-016)]. Biol Psychiatry 2021;89(9):S226–7. doi:10.1016/ j.biopsych.2021.02.571
- Heussler H, Cohen J, Silove N, et al. A phase 1/2, open-label assessment of the safety, tolerability, and efficacy of transdermal cannabidiol (ZYN002) for the treatment of pediatric fragile X syndrome. J Neurodev Disord 2019;11(1):16. doi:10.1186/s11689 -019-9277-x
- Oberoi S, Protudjer JLP, Rapoport A, et al. Perspectives of pediatric oncologists and palliative care physicians on the therapeutic use of cannabis in children with cancer. Cancer Rep (Hoboken) 2022;5(9):e1551. doi:10.1002/cnr2.1551
- Chapman S, Protudjer J, Bourne C, Kelly LE, Oberoi S, Vanan MI. Medical cannabis in pediatric oncology: A survey of patients and caregivers. Support Care Cancer 2021;29(11):6589–94. doi:10.1007/s00520-021-06202-z
- Chan HS, Correia JA, MacLeod SM. Nabilone versus prochlorperazine for control of cancer chemotherapy-induced emesis in children: A double-blind, crossover trial. Pediatrics 1987;79(6):946–52.
- Orr C, Spechler P, Cao Z, et al. Grey matter volume differences associated with extremely low levels of cannabis use in adolescence. J Neurosci 2019;39(10):1817–27. doi:10.1523/JNEUR OSCI.3375-17.2018
- 64. Polito S, MacDonald T, Romanick M, et al. Safety and efficacy of nabilone for acute chemotherapy-induced vomiting prophylaxis in pediatric patients: A multicenter, retrospective review. Pediatr Blood Cancer 2018;65(12):e27374. doi:10.1002/pbc.27374
- 65. Bar-Sela G, Cohen I, Campisi-Pinto S, et al. Cannabis consumption used by cancer patients during immunotherapy correlates with poor clinical outcome. Cancers (Basel) 2020;12(9):2447. doi:10.3390/cancers12092447
- 66. Kelly LE. A randomized, double-blind tolerability trial of cannabinoids for symptom management in children with cancer: The CAN-PONC Trial. Clinical trial registration, NCT05754840. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT05754840 (Accessed May 8, 2022).
- Herbert A. Medicinal cannabis for symptom burden in children with advanced cancer, Clinical trial registration, ACTRN12622000037707. https://www.anzctr.org.au/Trial/Registration/TrialReview.aspx?id=382024&isReview=true (Accessed May 8, 2022).
- Gunning M, Rotenberg AD, Kelly LE, et al. Clinician views on and ethics priorities for authorizing medical cannabis in the care of children and youth in Canada: A qualitative study. CMAJ Open 2022;10(1):E196–202. doi:10.9778/cmajo.20210239
- Doherty M, Power L, Attala M, Vadeboncoeur C. Use of oral cannabis extracts in the pediatric palliative care setting: A retrospective chart review. Palliat Med 2020;34(3):435–7. doi:10.1177/0269216320904315

- 70. Divisic A, Avagnina I, De Tommasi V, et al. The use of medical cannabis in pediatric palliative care: A case series. Ital J Pediatr 2021;47(1):229. doi:10.1186/s13052-021-01179-1
- 71. Kuhlen M, Hoell JI, Gagnon G, et al. Effective treatment of spasticity using dronabinol in pediatric palliative care. Eur J Paediatr Neurol 2016;20(6):898–903. doi:10.1016/j.ejpn.2016.07.021
- 72. Benini F, Papadatou D, Bernadá M, et al. International standards for pediatric palliative care: From IMPaCCT to GO-PPaCS. J Pain Symptom Manag 2022;63(5):e529–43. doi:10.1016/j.jpainsy mman.2021.12.031
- 73. Hoch E, Niemann D, von Keller R, et al. How effective and safe is medical cannabis as a treatment of mental disorders? A systematic review. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 2019;269(1):87–105. doi:10.1007/s00406-019-00984-4
- Hosking RD, Zajicek JP. Therapeutic potential of cannabis in pain medicine. Br J Anaesth 2008;101(1):59–68. doi:10.1093/bja/ aen119
- 75. Premoli M, Aria F, Bonini SA, et al. Cannabidiol: Recent advances and new insights for neuropsychiatric disorders treatment. Life Sci 2019;224:120–7. doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2019.03.053
- 76. Splinter W. Novel approaches for treating pain in children. Curr Oncol Rep 2019;21(2):11. doi:10.1007/s11912-019-0766-6
- Wang L, Hong PJ, May C, et al. Medical cannabis or cannabinoids for chronic non-cancer and cancer related pain: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised clinical trials. BMJ 2021;374:n1034. doi:10.1136/bmj.n1034
- King S, Chambers CT, Huguet A, et al. The epidemiology of chronic pain in children and adolescents revisited: A systematic review. Pain 2011;152(12):2729–38. doi:10.1016/j.pain.2011.07.016
- Kelly LE. A multi-centre, tolerability study of a cannabidiolenriched cannabis herbal extract for chronic headaches in adolescents: The CAN-CHA Trial. Clinical trial registration. https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT05337033 (Accessed May 5, 2023).
- Sihota A, Smith BK, Ahmed SA, et al. Consensus-based recommendations for titrating cannabinoids and tapering opioids for chronic pain control. Int J Clin Pract 2021;75(8):e13871. doi:10.1111/ijcp.13871
- Mansell H, Quinn D, Kelly LE, Szafron M, Alcorn J. Pharmacokinetics and perceptions of children and young adults using cannabis for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and oppositional defiant disorder: Protocol for a mixed methods proof-of-concept study. JMIR Res Protoc 2021;10(10):e31281. doi:10.2196/31281
- Stueber A, Cuttler C. Self-reported effects of cannabis on ADHD symptoms, ADHD medication side effects, and ADHD-related executive dysfunction. J Atten Disord 2022;26(6):942–55. doi:10.1177/10870547211050949
- Cooper RE, Williams E, Seegobin S, Tye C, Kuntsi J, Asherson P. Cannabinoids in attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: A randomised-controlled trial. Eur Neuropsychopharmacol 2017; 27(8):795–808. doi:10.1016/j.euroneuro.2017.05.005
- Mansell H, Quinn D, Kelly LE, Alcorn J. Cannabis for the treatment of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: A report of 3 cases. Med Cannabis Cannabinoids 2022;5(1):1–6. doi:10.1159/000521370
- Sholler DJ, Schoene L, Spindle TR. Therapeutic efficacy of cannabidiol (CBD): A review of the evidence from clinical trials and human laboratory studies. Curr Addict Rep 2020;7(3):405– 12. doi:10.1007/s40429-020-00326-8
- Spindle TR, Cone EJ, Goffi E, et al. Pharmacodynamic effects of vaporized and oral cannabidiol (CBD) and vaporized CBDdominant cannabis in infrequent cannabis users. Drug Alcohol Depend 2020;211:107937. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2020.107937
- Ali S, Scheffer IE, Sadleir LG. Efficacy of cannabinoids in paediatric epilepsy. Dev Med Child Neurol 2019;61(1):13–8. doi:10.1111/ dmcn.14087
- Samanta D. Cannabidiol: A review of clinical efficacy and safety in epilepsy. Pediatr Neurol 2019;96:24–9. doi:10.1016/j. pediatrneurol.2019.03.014

- Geffrey AL, Pollack SF, Bruno PL, Thiele EA. Drug-drug interaction between clobazam and cannabidiol in children with refractory epilepsy. Epilepsia 2015;56(8):1246–51. doi:10.1111/ epi.13060
- Pawliuk C, Chau B, Rassekh SR, McKellar T, Siden HH. Efficacy and safety of paediatric medicinal cannabis use: A scoping review. Paediatr Child Health 2020;26(4):228–33. doi:10.1093/ pch/pxaa031
- 91. Savage TE, Sourbron J, Bruno PL, et al. Efficacy of cannabidiol in subjects with refractory epilepsy relative to concomitant use of clobazam. Epilepsy Res 2020;160:106263. doi:10.1016/j. eplepsyres.2019.106263
- McNamara NA, Dang LT, Sturza J, et al. Thrombocytopenia in pediatric patients on concurrent cannabidiol and valproic acid. Epilepsia 2020;61(8):e85–9. doi:10.1111/epi.16596
- 93. Spindle TR, Martin EL, Grabenauer M, Woodward T, Milburn MA, Vandrey R. Assessment of cognitive and psychomotor impairment, subjective effects, and blood THC concentrations following acute administration of oral and vaporized cannabis. J Psychopharmacol 2021;35(7):786–803. doi:10.1177/02698811211021583
- 94. Di Forti M, Quattrone D, Freeman TP, et al.; EU-GEI WP2 Group. The contribution of cannabis use to variation in the incidence of psychotic disorder across Europe (EU-GEI): A multicentre casecontrol study. Lancet Psychiatry 2019;6(5):427–36. doi:10.1016/ S2215-0366(19)30048-3
- Li AM, Rassekh SR. Hypotension associated with ingestion of cannabinoids in two children with cancer. CMAJ 2016;188(8):596–7. doi:10.1503/cmaj.150847
- Spadari M, Glaizal M, Tichadou L, et al. Accidental cannabis poisoning in children: Experience of the Marseille poison center. Presse Med 2009;38(11):1563–7. doi:10.1016/j.lpm.2009.03.020
- Macnab A, Anderson E, Susak L. Ingestion of cannabis: A cause of coma in children. Pediatr Emerg Care 1989;5(4):238–9. doi:10.1097/00006565-198912000-00010
- Treat L, Chapman KE, Colborn KL, Knupp KG. Duration of use of oral cannabis extract in a cohort of pediatric epilepsy patients. Epilepsia 2017;58(1):123–7. doi:10.1111/epi.13617
- Cohen N, Galvis Blanco L, Davis A, et al. Pediatric cannabis intoxication trends in the pre- and post-legalization era. Clin Toxicol (Phila) 2022;60(1):53–8. doi:10.1080/15563650.2021.1939881
- 100. Chesney E, Oliver D, Green A, et al. Adverse effects of cannabidiol: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. Neuropsychopharmacol 2020;45(11):1799–806. doi:10.1038/s41386-020-0667-2
- 101. Graham M, Martin JH, Lucas CJ, Murnion B, Schneider J. Cannabidiol drug interaction considerations for prescribers and pharmacists. Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol 2022;15(12):1383–97. doi:10.1080/17512433.2022.2142114
- 102. Brown JD, Winterstein AG. Potential adverse drug events and drug-drug interactions with medical and consumer cannabidiol (CBD) use. J Clin Med 2019;8(7):989. doi:10.3390/jcm8070989
- Brown JD. Potential adverse drug events with tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) due to drug-drug interactions. J Clin Med 2020;9(4):919. doi:10.3390/jcm9040919
- 104. Cox EJ, Maharao N, Patilea-Vrana G, et al. A marijuana–drug interaction primer: Precipitants, pharmacology, and pharmacokinetics. Pharmacol Ther 2019;201:25–38. doi:10.1016/j. pharmthera.2019.05.001
- 105. Silva DA, Pate DW, Clark RD, Davies NM, El-Kadi AO, Löbenberg R. Phytocannabinoid drug–drug interactions and their clinical implications. Pharmacol Ther 2020;215:107621. doi:10.1016/j. pharmthera.2020.107621
- 106. Wang GS, Bourne DWA, Klawitter J, et al. Disposition of oral delta-9 tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) in children receiving cannabis extracts for epilepsy. Clin Toxicol (Phila) 2020;58(2):124–8. doi:10.1080/15563650.2019.1616093
- 107. Wheless JW, Dlugos D, Miller I, et al. Pharmacokinetics and tolerability of multiple doses of pharmaceutical-grade synthetic cannabidiol

in pediatric patients with treatment-resistant epilepsy. CNS Drugs 2019;33(6):593–604. doi:10.1007/s40263-019-00624-4

- 108. Gibbard M, Mount D, Rassekh SR, Siden HH. Family attitudes about and experiences with medical cannabis in children with cancer or epilepsy: An exploratory qualitative study. CMAJ Open 2021;9(2):E563–9. doi:10.9778/cmajo.20200212
- 109. Gunning M, Rotenberg A, Anderson J, et al. Neither the "devil's lettuce" nor a "miracle cure": The use of medical cannabis in

the care of children and youth. Neuroethics 2022;15(3):1-8. doi:10.1007/s12152-022-09478-y

110. Huntsman RJ, Kelly LE, Alcorn J, et al.; Cannabinoid Research Initiative of Saskatchewan and the Canadian Childhood Cannabinoid Clinical Trial (C4T) Consortium. Improving the regulation of medical cannabis in Canada to better serve pediatric patients. CMAJ 2021;193(41):E1596–9. doi:10.1503/ cmaj.202169

CANADIAN PAEDIATRIC SOCIETY DRUG THERAPY COMMITTEE (JULY 2022)

Members: Geert 't Jong MD, PHD (Chair), Shinya Ito MD, Yaron Finkelstein MD, Tom McLaughlin MD, Charlotte Moore Hepburn FRCPC, MD (Board representative)

Liaisons: Michael Rieder MD (Canadian Society of Pharmacology and Therapeutics)

Principal authors: Lauren E. Kelly PhD, Michael J. Rieder MD, Yaron Finkelstein MD