## Drug and alcohol use



### Introduction

Drug and alcohol misuse. abuse or dependence are concerns for people with schizophrenia due to the association with poorer clinical and social outcomes, including high rates of suicide, HIV, homelessness, aggression, and incarceration. Moreover, comorbid substance use places additional burden on patients. families. psychiatric services, and government resources due to high rates of treatment non-adherence and relapse. This topic presents the effects of substance use on the course and outcome of the disorder. Please also see the drug and alcohol topic in the comorbid section of the library for the rates of substance use disorders.

### Method

We have included only systematic reviews (systematic literature search, detailed methodology with inclusion/exclusion criteria) published in full text, in English, from the year 2000 that report results separately for people with diagnosis schizophrenia, а of schizoaffective disorder, schizophreniform episode schizophrenia. disorder or first Reviews were identified by searching the databases MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL, Current Contents, PsycINFO and the Cochrane library. Hand searching reference lists of identified reviews was also conducted. When multiple copies of reviews were found, only the most recent version was included. Reviews with pooled data are prioritised for inclusion.

Review reporting assessment was guided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist that describes a preferred way to present a meta-analysis<sup>1</sup>. Reviews reporting less than 50% of items have been excluded from the library. The PRISMA flow diagram is a suggested way of providing information about studies included and excluded with reasons for exclusion. Where no flow diagram has been presented by individual reviews, but identified studies have been described in the text, reviews have been checked for this item. Note that early reviews may have been guided by less stringent reporting checklists than the PRISMA, and that some reviews may have been limited by journal guidelines.

Evidence was graded using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group approach where high quality evidence such as that gained from randomised controlled trials (RCTs) may be downgraded to moderate or low if review and study quality is limited, if there is inconsistency in results, indirect comparisons, imprecise or sparse data and high probability of reporting bias. It may also be downgraded if risks associated with the intervention or other matter under review are high. Conversely, low quality evidence such as that gained from observational studies may be upgraded if effect sizes are large or if there is a dose dependent response. We have also taken into account sample size and whether results are consistent, precise and direct with low associated risks (see end of table for an explanation of these terms)<sup>2</sup>. The resulting table represents an objective summary of the available evidence, although the conclusions are solely the opinion of staff of the NeuRA (Neuroscience Research Australia).

## Results

We found 21 systematic reviews that met our inclusion criteria<sup>3-23</sup>.

### Symptoms

 High quality evidence shows a small increase in positive symptoms in people with a current substance use disorder compared to people with a former substance use disorder. Conversely, there was a mediumsized reduction in negative symptoms in people with a current substance use

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disorder compared to people without any substance use disorder.

- High quality evidence suggests no differences in depressive symptoms between people with former or no former substance use disorder. Moderate to high quality evidence suggests a small increase in depressive symptoms in people with a current substance use disorder compared with people with former substance use, and in former substance users compared to nonusers.
- High quality evidence suggests a small to medium-sized effect of less severe negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia who recently abstained from cannabis use compared to people with schizophrenia with no cannabis use. Conversely, there was a small effect of more severe positive symptoms in people who continued cannabis use after first onset of psychosis compared to non-users of cannabis.
- High quality evidence finds increased levels of suspiciousness and unusual thought content in people at ultra-high risk for psychosis who use cannabis compared to those who do not use cannabis. There were no significant differences in positive or negative symptoms, disorganised speech, grandiosity, or perceptual abnormalities.
- Moderate to high quality evidence suggests patients with a current mixed psychoactive substance use disorder or a cocaine use disorder show increased extrapyramidal symptoms (particularly akathisia and tardive dyskinesia) compared to patients without a substance use disorder.

### Cognition

 High quality evidence shows a small effect of lower current IQ, and a medium-sized effect of lower premorbid IQ in people with psychosis and current cannabis use compared to people with psychosis without current cannabis use. Moderate quality evidence also finds poorer verbal working memory in those currently using cannabis.

- For people with schizophrenia specifically, moderate to high quality evidence finds a medium-sized effect of *better* global cognition, processing speed, planning, and visual and working memory in those with any history of cannabis use, but not current use. Similarly, high quality evidence shows a small to medium-sized *increase* in global cognition, processing speed, planning, visual and working memory, attention, and psychomotor skills in people with psychosis and a polysubstance or cannabis use disorder diagnosis compared to people with psychosis with no substance use disorder.
- Moderate quality evidence finds more impaired working memory in people with psychosis and an alcohol use disorder compared to people with psychosis and no substance use disorder.

### Course and outcomes

- Moderate to high quality evidence found a medium-sized effect of increased craving scores in people with schizophrenia and a substance use disorder compared to people without schizophrenia and a substance use disorder. Scores were greater for relief (desire for the reduction of negative effects of withdrawal) than reward (desire for the rewarding effects of drugs).
- Moderate to high quality evidence suggests a medium-sized effect of cannabis use being associated with an earlier age at onset of psychosis.
- Moderate to low quality evidence suggests an increased risk of treatment nonadherence, relapse, and re-hospitalisation in first-episode patients with a current substance use disorder, particularly if abusing cocaine, opiates, or ecstasy. Firstepisode patients with a current substance use disorder may reduce their substance use during early intervention programs.
- High quality evidence shows a small effect of longer hospital stays in people who continued cannabis use after onset of psychosis compared to non-users. Moderate

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quality evidence also suggests a small to medium-sized effect of higher rates of relapse in people who continued cannabis use.

- High quality evidence shows a small effect of higher rates of relapse in people who continued cannabis use compared to people who discontinue cannabis use after first onset of psychosis. There were no significant differences in people who discontinued cannabis use compared to non-users.
- High quality evidence shows a small effect of higher functioning in people who discontinued cannabis use compared to non-users.
- Moderate to high quality evidence suggests a small decrease in global functioning in people with a current substance use disorder compared with people with a former substance use disorder, and in people with former compared with no former substance use disorder.
- Moderate quality evidence suggests no differences in functioning in people who continued cannabis use after first onset of psychosis compared to people who discontinue cannabis use.

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Archie S, Gyomorey K

First episode psychosis, substance abuse and prognosis: A systematic review

### Current Psychiatry Reviews 2009; 5: 153-163

View review abstract online

Comparison	First-episode psychosis (FEP) patients with a substance use disorder (SUD) vs. FEP patients without an SUD.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to low quality evidence (medium-sized samples, unable to assess consistency or precision, direct) suggests an increased risk of relapse and re-hospitalisation for FEP with a SUD, particularly if abusing cocaine, opiates, or ecstasy, as well as significantly increased treatment non-compliance. There also may be increased severity of positive and decreased negative symptoms. FEP patients with a SUD may reduce their substance use during early intervention programs.

### Risk of relapse

2 out of 2 studies reported increased risk of relapse in FEP;

2 prospective cohort studies (N = 223),12 to 15 month follow up, authors report both studies showed increased frequency of relapse in FEP patients with an SUD, and relapse rates were increased with the degree of substance abuse.

### Risk of re-hospitalisation

2 out of 4 studies suggest the risk of re-hospitalisation was significantly higher for FEP patients with a SUD than for FEP patients without a SUD. This risk increased with the severity of substance abuse, and there was an association between re-hospitalisation of FEP and abuse of cocaine, opiates and ecstasy, but not alcohol;

1 prospective cohort study (N = 126),15 month follow up, reported a dropout rate of 18.3% to 26%

1 prospective cohort study (N = 65), 24 month follow up, reported a dropout rate of 11%.

### Positive symptoms

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5 of 7 studies reported an increase in positive symptoms in FEP patients with a SUD compared to FEP without a SUD;

5 studies (N = 915) including 1 RCT, 3 cohort and 1 case-control design (follow up 3 to 60 months), reported dropout rates from 18% to 32%. In two studies, this effect was specific to cannabis and absent for alcohol.

2 of 7 studies reported no differences in positive symptoms;

2 studies (N = 302) with cohort design (follow up 6 to 120 months), reported dropout rates from 10% to 31%.

### **Negative symptoms**

7 of 8 studies found a trend for lower negative symptom severity in FEP patients with a SUD than FEP patients without n SUD;

7 studies (N = 1,499) included 6 cohort and 1 case-control design, (follow up 3 to 120 months), reported dropout rates from 18% to 37%.

Only one study found worse negative symptoms in FEP with a SUD than in FEP without an SUD;

1 RCT, (N = 262), reported a 32% dropout rate.

### Medication compliance

5 studies, N = 731

3 out of 5 studies reported significantly lower treatment compliance for FEP patients with a SUD compared to FEP patients without a SUD;

1 case-control study, 2 RCTs (N = 432), with follow up 3 to 60 months, reported dropout rate of 27.6 to 32%. Studies reported that patients with a SUD achieved fewer days of medication compliance during the study. Greater cannabis use reportedly increased non-compliance.

### Employment, social and cognitive function

1 out of 8 studies reported poorer social function and quality of life in FEP patients with a SUD compared to patients without an SUD;

1 cohort study (15 months), N = 126, reported dropout rate if 18.3 to 26%, and an association between FEP patients with heavy SUD and poorer social functioning and quality of life.

### Early intervention programs

2 studies reported an association between participation in an early intervention programs and reduced substance use;

2 cohort studies (N = 403), with 12 to 36 month follow up, reported a dropout rate of 25% to 32%.

Consistency in results<sup>‡</sup>

Unable to assess; no measure of consistency is reported.

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Precision in results <sup>§</sup>	Unable to assess; no measure of precision is reported.
Directness of results	Direct

Bogaty SER, Lee RSC, Hickie IB, Hermens DF

Meta-analysis of neurocognition in young psychosis patients with current cannabis use

### Journal of Psychiatric Research 2018; 99: 22-32

View review abstract online

Comparison	Cognition in people with psychosis and current cannabis use vs. people with psychosis with no cannabis use.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large samples, consistent, precise, direct) shows a small effect of lower current IQ, and a medium- sized effect of lower premorbid IQ in people with psychosis and current cannabis use. Moderate quality evidence (inconsistent and imprecise) also finds poorer verbal working memory.

### Cognition

Significant, small effect of lower current IQ, a medium-sized effect of lower premorbid IQ, and a large effect of poorer working memory in people with psychosis and current cannabis use;

Premorbid IQ: 7 studies, N = 515, g = -0.40, 95%Cl -0.59 to -0.20, p < 0.001, l<sup>2</sup> = 0%

Current IQ: 6 studies, N = 747, g = -0.17, 95%CI -0.34 to -0.00, p < 0.05,  $I^2 = 11\%$ 

Verbal working memory: 6 studies, N = 927, g = -0.76, 95%CI -1.30 to -0.22, p < 0.01, I<sup>2</sup> = 92%

There were no significant differences in;

Processing speed: 10 studies, N = 1,823, g = 0.20, 95%CI -0.05 to 0.44, p > 0.05,  $I^2 = 79\%$ 

Verbal fluency: 6 studies, N = 736, g = -0.47, 95%CI -1.22 to 0.28, p > 0.05, I<sup>2</sup> = 94%

Cognitive flexibility: 8 studies, N = 1,015, g = 0.19, 95%Cl -0.15 to 0.54, p > 0.05,  $l^2 = 82\%$ 

Sustained attention: 9 studies, N = 771, g = 0.55, 95%CI -0.11 to 1.62, p > 0.05,  $I^2 = 94\%$ 

Verbal learning: 8 studies, N = 1,153, g = -0.39, 95%CI -0.80 to 0.04, p < 0.10 (trend), I<sup>2</sup> = 89%

Verbal memory: 8 studies, N = 1,153, g = -0.13, 95%CI -0.42 to 0.16, p > 0.05, I<sup>2</sup> = 75%

Conceptual set-shifting: 8 studies, N = 740, g = 0.32, 95%Cl -0.05 to 0.68, p > 0.10 (trend), l<sup>2</sup> = 79%

Motor inhibition: 8 studies, N = 781, g = -0.19, 95%CI -0.40 to 0.02, p > 0.10 (trend),  $l^2$  = 34%

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Consistency in results	Consistent for IQ only.	
Precision in results	Precise, apart from working memory, verbal fluency and sustained attention.	
Directness of results	Direct	

### Burns JK

# Cannabis use and duration of untreated psychosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis

### Current Pharmaceutical Design 2012; 18(32): 5093-5104

View review abstract online

Comparison	Cannabis and substance use/misuse vs. no cannabis or substance use in first-episode patients and the relationship of use/misuse with the duration of untreated psychosis.	
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large samples, consistent, precise, direct) shows no association between substance use or non-use and the duration of untreated psychosis in first-episode patients. The evidence for cannabis use also shows no association, however this evidence is of moderate quality (inconsistent).	
Duration of untreated psychosis		
No relationship between cannabis or substance use and duration of untreated psychosis in first- episode patients;		
Cannabis: 9 studies, N = 1,726, g = - 0.114, 95%CI -0.282 to 0.053, p = 0.181, I <sup>2</sup> = 59.28%, p = 0.012		
All substances: 9 studies, N = 2,461, $g$ = - 0.038, 95%CI -0.136 to 0.060, $p$ = 0.450, $l^2$ = 15.03%, $p$ = 0.312		
Consistency in results	Consistent for all substances, inconsistent for cannabis.	
Precision in results	Precise	
Directness of results	ness of results Direct	

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## Carney R, Cotter J, Firth J, Bradshaw T, Yung AR

Cannabis use and symptom severity in individuals at ultra high risk for psychosis: a meta-analysis

### Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica 2017; 136: 5-15

View review abstract online

Comparison	Symptom severity in people at ultra-high risk for psychosis and cannabis use vs. people at ultra-high risk for psychosis without cannabis use.
Summary of evidence High quality evidence (large samples, mostly consistent, precise, direct) suggests increased levels of suspiciousness and unusual thought content in people at ultra-high risk for psychosis who use cannabis compared to those who do not cannabis. There were no significant differences in positive or negative symptoms, disorganised speech, grandiosity, or perceptual abnormalities.	
Symptoms	
Suspiciousness and unusual thought content were significantly increased in cannabis users;	
Suspiciousness: 3 studies, N = 549, $g$ = 0.21, 95%Cl 0.02 to 0.39, $p$ = 0.03, l <sup>2</sup> = 0%	
Unusual thought content: 4 studies, N = 696, $g$ = 0.27, 95%Cl 0.07 to 0.48, $p$ = 0.01, l <sup>2</sup> = 30%	
There were no significant differences in;	
Positive symptoms: 8 studies, N = 918, $g$ = 0.16, 95%Cl -0.05 to 0.37, $p$ = 0.13, l <sup>2</sup> = 46%	
Negative symptoms: 7 studies, N = 816, $g$ = -0.03, 95%CI -0.29 to 0.23, $p$ = 0.82, I <sup>2</sup> = 60%	
Disorganised speech: 4 studies, N = 696, $g$ = 0.05, 95%CI -0.27 to 0.38, $p$ = 0.75, I <sup>2</sup> = 71%	
Grandiosity: 3 studies, N = 549, $g = 0.11$ , 95%CI -0.11 to 0.32, $p = 0.34$ , $I^2 = 20\%$	
Perceptual abnormalities: 4 studies, N = 696, $g$ = 0.05, 95%Cl -0.12 to 0.21, $p$ = 0.57, l <sup>2</sup> = 0%	
Consistency in results	Consistent, apart from negative symptoms and disorganised speech.
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

## Donde C, Achim AM, Brunelin J, Poulet E, Mondino M, Haesebaert F

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A meta-analysis of craving studies in schizophrenia spectrum disorders		
020; 222: 49-57		
Craving scores in people with schizophrenia and a substance use disorder vs. people without schizophrenia and a substance use disorder. Substances included tobacco, cannabis, or cocaine.		
Moderate to high quality evidence (large samples, inconsistent, precise, direct) found a medium-sized effect of increased craving scores in people with schizophrenia and a substance use disorder compared to people without schizophrenia and a substance use disorder. Scores were greater for relief (desire for the reduction of negative effects of withdrawal) than reward (desire for the rewarding effects of drugs).		
Craving		
A medium-sized effect showed increased craving scores in people with schizophrenia and a substance use disorder;		
16 studies, N = 1,219, r = 0.20, 95%Cl 0.15 to 0.26, p < 0.001, Qp = 0.006		
Subgroup analysis showed a significantly greater effect for relief (desire for the reduction of negative effects of withdrawal) than reward (desire for the rewarding effects of drugs).		
There were no moderating effects of substance type.		
Inconsistent		
Precise		
Direct		

Donoghue K, Doody GA

Effect of Illegal Substance Use on Cognitive Function in Individuals With a Psychotic Disorder, A Review and Meta-Analysis

Neuropsychology 2012; 26(6): 785-801

View review abstract online

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Comparison	Cognitive functioning in people with a psychotic disorder and a substance use disorder vs. people with a psychotic disorder without a substance use disorder.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (medium to large samples, consistent, precise, direct) suggests a small effect of better global cognitive functioning, verbal learning and memory, attention and psychomotor skills in people with a psychotic disorder and a substance use disorder than people with a psychotic disorder without a substance use disorder. People with comorbid cocaine use showed only better attention and psychomotor skills. No differences were found for visual memory, working memory or executive functioning.
Cognitive fu	nctioning in people with a polysubstance use disorder

A significant small effect suggests people with a psychotic disorder and a polysubstance use disorder showed better global cognitive functioning, verbal learning and memory, and attention and psychomotor skills than people with a psychotic disorder without a substance use disorder;

Global cognitive functioning: 9 studies, N = 627, g = 0.175, 95%Cl 0.008 to 0.343, p = 0.040, l<sup>2</sup> = 0%, p = 0.568

Verbal learning and memory: 5 studies, N = 296, g = 0.257, 95%Cl 0.011 to 0.503, p = 0.040, l<sup>2</sup> = 0%, p = 0.780

Attention and psychomotor: 8 studies, N = 513, g = 0.295, 95%Cl 0.110 to 0.479, p = 0.002, l<sup>2</sup> = 0%, p = 0.780

No differences for visual memory, working memory or executive functioning.

### Cognitive functioning in people with a cocaine use disorder

A significant small effect suggests people with a psychotic disorder and a cocaine use disorder showed better attention and psychomotor skills than people with a psychotic disorder without a substance use disorder;

Attention and psychomotor: 5 studies, N = 236, g = 0.326, 95%Cl 0.035 to 0.616, p = 0.028, l<sup>2</sup> = 15%, p = 0.316

No differences for global cognitive functioning, verbal learning and memory, visual memory, working memory or executive functioning.

### Cognitive functioning in people with a cannabis use disorder

A significant small effect suggests people with a psychotic disorder and a cannabis use disorder showed better global cognitive functioning, verbal learning and memory and attention and psychomotor skills than people with a psychotic disorder without a substance use disorder;

Global cognitive functioning: 3 studies, N = 551, g = 0.237, 95%CI 0.083 to 0.390, p = 0.003, I<sup>2</sup> =

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0%, <i>p</i> = 0.838		
Verbal learning and memory: 3 studies, N = 551, $g$ = 0.351, 95%Cl 0.179 to 0.523, $p$ < 0.001, l <sup>2</sup> = 0%, $p$ = 0.910		
Attention and psychomotor: 3 studies, N = 551, $g$ = 0.316, 95%CI 0.144 to 0.488, $p$ < 0.001, I <sup>2</sup> = 0%, $p$ = 0.968		
No differences for visual memory, working memory or executive functioning.		
Consistency in results	Consistent	
Precision in results	Precise	
Directness of results	Direct	

Gupta P, Mullin K, Nielssen O, Harris A, Large M

Do former substance users with psychosis differ in their symptoms or function from non-substance users? A systematic meta-analysis

### Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry 2013; 47(6): 524-537

View review abstract online

Comparison	Symptoms and functioning in people with schizophrenia or first- episode psychosis with former substance use vs. people with schizophrenia or first-episode psychosis without former substance use.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large samples, consistent, precise, direct) suggests no differences in depressive symptoms between patients with former or no former substance use. However, subgroup analysis of patients with established disorders suggests former substance users may experience more depressive symptoms than non-users, and first-episode patients with former substance use may experience less severe depressive symptoms than first-episode patients without former substance use.
	Moderate quality evidence (inconsistent) suggests no differences in positive or negative symptoms or global functioning between patients with former or no former substance use. Subgroup analysis of high-quality studies suggests former substance users had significantly fewer positive and negative symptoms which was not reported in lower quality studies.

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### Symptoms

There were no significant differences between former substances users and non-users;		
Positive symptoms: 15 studies, N = 2,221, SMD -0.21, 95%CI -0.55 to 0.14, $p = 0.24$ , I <sup>2</sup> = 93.3%, $p < 0.001$		
Negative symptoms: 10 studies, N = 1,232, SMD -0.27, 95%CI -0.68 to 0.14, $p = 0.20$ , $I^2 = 91.8\%$ , $r = 0.001$		
Depressive symptoms: 9 studies, N = 1,223, SMD 0.08, 95%CI -0.35 to 0.52, $p = 0.71$ , $I^2 = 40.4\%$ , $p = 0.10$		
Forn	ner substance users were significantly younger;	
9 studies, N = 944, S	MD -0.52, 95%Cl -0.95 to -0.08, <i>p</i> = 0.02, l <sup>2</sup> = 83.4%, <i>p</i> < 0.001	
	They were more likely to be male;	
10 studies, N = 1,19	15, OR 2.58, 95%CI 1.18 to 5.63, $p = 0.02$ , $I^2 = 16.7\%$ , $p = 0.29$	
They were more likely to	o have had a history of criminal convictions or a history of violence;	
5 studies, N = 991,	OR 3.51, 95%CI 1.15 to 10.64, <i>p</i> = 0.03, I <sup>2</sup> = 35.1%, <i>p</i> = 0.19	
Subgroup analysis of patients with an established disorder revealed that those who were former substance users had significantly more depressive symptoms than those who were not former users (small effect, $p = 0.05$ ). In contrast, first-episode patients who were former substance users had fewer depressive symptoms than those who were not former users (trend small effect, $p = 0.09$ ). The difference in effect size between these subgroups was significant (Q <sub>B</sub> 6.70, $p = 0.01$ ).		
Subgroup analysis of high-quality studies revealed former substance users had significantly fewer positive symptoms than non-substance users (small effect, $p = 0.04$ ), with no differences reported in lower quality studies ( $p = 0.63$ ). There was a trend for between subgroup differences ( $Q_B$ 3.50, $p = 0.06$ ). There was also a trend towards having less severe negative symptoms in the high quality studies (small trend effect, $p = 0.09$ ), with no differences in the lower quality studies ( $p = 0.93$ ), and no significant between subgroup differences ( $p = 0.18$ ).		
years of education, number of hospital admissions, or in the frequency of self-harm.		
Functioning		
There were no significant differences between former substances users and non-users;		
Global functioning: 9 studies, N = 894, SMD 0.22, 95%CI -0.22 to 0.66, <i>p</i> = 0.32, I <sup>2</sup> = 93.7%, <i>p</i> < 0.001		
Consistency in results	Consistent for depressive symptoms, gender and history of criminal convictions. Inconsistent for positive and negative symptoms, global functioning, and age.	
Precision in results	Precise	

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Directness	of results
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Direct

## Large M, Mullin K, Gupta P, Harris A, Nielssen O

## Systematic meta-analysis of outcomes associated with psychosis and comorbid substance use

### Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry 2014; 48(5): 418-432

View review abstract online

Comparison	People with psychosis with current substance use vs. without substance use.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (unclear sample sizes, some imprecision and inconsistency, direct) suggests people with psychosis and current substance use have higher ratings of positive symptoms, they were more likely to have a history of violence, were younger, and were more likely to be male than non-substance users.

### Symptoms

Current substance users had small effect of higher ratings of positive symptoms, and no differences for negative symptoms, depressive symptoms or schizophrenia spectrum diagnosis;

Positive symptoms: 17 studies, SMD = 0.29, 95%CI 0.07 to 0.50, p = 0.01,  $I^2 = 73\%$ , p = 0.00

Negative symptoms: 11 studies, SMD = 0.03, 95%CI -0.24 to 0.29, p = 0.84,  $I^2 = 45\%$  p = 0.05

Depressive symptoms: 10 studies, SMD = 0.12, 95%CI -0.16 to 0.40, p = 0.41,  $I^2 = 79\%$ , p = 0.00

Schizophrenia spectrum disorder: 5 studies, OR = 1.86, 95%CI 0.84 to 4.09, p = 0.12,  $I^2 = 85\%$ , p = 0.00

Authors report that older studies found a stronger association between current substance use and positive symptoms than more recently published studies. When outlying studies were removed from the positive symptoms analysis, the SMD was reduced to 0.23, but it remained significant (*p* < 0.05). There were no significant differences between study results according to any substance use vs. cannabis use only, first-episode vs. non-first episode patients, or higher vs. lower quality studies.

### **Social functioning**

Current substance users did not differ from non-users on measurements of social function;

Social function: 10 studies, SMD = -0.25, 95%Cl -0.53 to 0.04, p = 0.09,  $l^2 = 49\%$ , p = 0.04

Authors report no significant differences between study results according to any substance use vs.

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cannabis use only, first-episode vs. non-first episode patients, or higher vs. lower quality studies.		
Violence, self-harm and hospital admissions		
Current substance users were more likely to have a history of violence, but there were no differences on measures of self-harm or for the number of hospitalisations;		
Forensic history or violence: 5 studies, OR = 3.16, 95%Cl 1.44 to 6.91, $p < 0.001$ , $l^2 = 80\%$ , $p = 0.00$		
Self-harm: 5 studies, OR = 1.89, 95%CI 0.88 to 4.03, $p = 0.10$ , $l^2 = 43\%$ , $p = 0.14$		
More hospitalisations: 8 studies, SMD = 0.22, 95%Cl -0.12 to 0.55, $p = 0.21$ , $l^2 = 22\%$ , $p = 0.25$		
Demographics		
Current substance-using patients were significantly younger than non-substance-using patients and were more likely to be male, but did not differ in age at onset of psychosis or in their level of education;		
Age: 10 studies, SMD = -0.72, 95%CI -1.01 to -0.44, <i>p</i> < 0.001, I <sup>2</sup> = 86%, <i>p</i> = 0.00		
Male: 10 studies, OR = 4.05, 95%Cl 2.30 to 7.12, <i>p</i> < 0.001, l <sup>2</sup> = 38%, <i>p</i> = 0.11		
Age at onset: 5 studies, SMD = -0.18, 95%Cl -0.57 to 0.21, $p = 0.37$ , $l^2 = 0\%$ , $p = 0.47$		
More education: 7 studies, SMD = -0.09, 95%CI -0.43 to 0.26, $p = 0.61$ , $I^2 = 0\%$ , $p = 0.60$		
Consistency in results	Inconsistent for all symptoms ratings, social functioning, violence and age	
Precision in results	Precise for SMDs, imprecise for ORs	
Directness of results	Direct	

Mullin K, Gupta P, Compton MT, Nielssen O, Harris A, Large M		
Does giving up substance use work for patients with psychosis? A systematic meta-analysis		
Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry 2012; 46(9): 826-839 View review abstract online		
Comparison	Symptoms and outcomes in people with schizophrenia with a current SUD vs. people with schizophrenia with a former SUD.	
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large sample, consistent, precise, direct) suggests a small effect of increased positive symptoms in	

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	patients with current SUD compared to patients with former SUD, with no differences in negative symptoms.	
	Moderate to high quality evidence (imprecise or inconsistent) suggests a small effect of increased depressive symptoms, decreased global functioning (particularly in first-episode schizophrenia), being younger, and a trend towards more hospitalisation and being male in patients with current SUD compared to patients with former SUD. There were no significant differences in self harm, violence, age of onset, marital status, or education between patients with current SUD compared to patients with former SUD. No differences in symptoms or functioning are reported in subgroup analyses of first episode vs. chronic schizophrenia or any substance use vs. cannabis use.	
	Symptoms	
	23 studies, N = 1,565	
A significant small effect suggests people with schizophrenia with current SUD showed more severe total symptoms, positive symptoms and depressive symptoms, but not negative symptoms;		
Total symptoms: 7 studies, $d = 0.38$ , 95%CI -0.13 to 0.88, $p = 0.007$ , $I^2 = 48.9\%$ , p not reported		
Positive symptoms: 17 studies, $d = 0.29$ , 95%CI 0.11 to 0.47, $p = 0.001$ , $l^2 = 34.9\%$ , p not reported		
No differences between first episode vs. chronic schizophrenia ( $Q_B = 0.85$ , p = 0.36)		
No differences between any substance vs. cannabis use ( $Q_B = 0.04$ , $p = 0.84$ )		
Depressive symptoms: 10 studies, $d = 0.28$ , 95%Cl 0.12 to 4.39, $p = 0.001$ , $l^2 = 0.0\%$ , $p$ not reported		
No differences between first episode vs. chronic schizophrenia ( $Q_B = 1.0$ , $p = 0.31$ )		
No differences between any substance vs. cannabis use ( $Q_B = 0.36$ , $p = 0.84$ )		
Negative symptoms: 12 studies, $d = 0.17$ , 95%CI -0.03 to 0.38, $p = 0.10$ , $I^2 = 40.0\%$ , p not reported		
No differences between first episode vs. chronic schizophrenia ( $Q_B = 0.83$ , $p = 0.36$ )		
No differences between any substance vs. cannabis use ( $Q_B = 0.25$ , $p = 0.61$ )		
A small trend effect suggests people with schizophrenia with current SUD showed more general psychopathology;		
General psychopathology: 5 studies, $d = 0.29$ , 95%CI -0.02 to 0.60, $p = 0.07$ , $l^2 = 14.5\%$ , p not reported		
Functioning		
A significant small effect s	suggests people with schizophrenia with current SUD showed poorer	

global functioning;

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Global functioning: 9 studie	Global functioning: 9 studies, $d = -0.26$ , 95%Cl -0.51 to -0.02, $p = 0.03$ , $l^2 = 43.4\%$ , p not reported	
A trend effect of worse global functioning in first-episode schizophrenia ( $Q_B = 3.62$ , $p = 0.06$ )		
No differences between any substance vs. cannabis use ( $Q_B = 0.17$ , $p = 0.89$ )		
A medium trend effect s	uggests people with schizophrenia with current SUD showed more hospitalisation;	
10 studies, $d = 0.1$	56, 95%CI -0.09 to 1.21, <i>p</i> = 0.09, I <sup>2</sup> = 21.6%, <i>p</i> not reported	
No significa	ant differences were reported for self-harm or violence;	
Self-harm: 5 studies, c	$d = 0.25, 95\%$ Cl -0.34 to 0.85, $p = 0.40, l^2 = 37.7\%, p$ not reported	
Forensic history/violence:	5 studies, <i>d</i> = 0.06, 95%Cl -0.52 to 0.63, <i>p</i> = 0.85, l <sup>2</sup> = 62.6%, <i>p</i> not reported	
	Demographics	
A significant small effect su	ggests that people with schizophrenia with current SUD were younger (mean 2.2 years);	
11 studies, <i>d</i> = -0.38, 95%CI -0.76 to -0.01, <i>p</i> = 0.05, I <sup>2</sup> = 68.8, <i>p</i> not reported		
A small trend effect suggests that people with schizophrenia with current SUD were more likely to be male;		
11 studies, OR = 1.43, 95%CI 0.96 to 2.11, <i>p</i> = 0.08, I <sup>2</sup> = 11.6%, <i>p</i> not reported		
No significant differences were reported for age of onset, marital status or education;		
Age at onset: 5 studies, $d = -0.04$ , 95%CI -0.60 to 0.51, $p = 0.88$ , $I^2 = 12.6\%$ , p not reported		
Single: 5 studies, OR = 1.43, 95%Cl 0.82 to 2.52, $p = 0.21$ , $l^2 = 26.6\%$ , p not reported		
More education: 8 studies, $d = -0.21$ , 95%Cl -0.66 to 0.23, $p = 0.35$ , $l^2 = 0.0\%$ , p not reported		
Consistency in results	Authors report high inconsistency for forensic history and age ( $p$ values not reported, $l^2 > 50\%$ ).	
Precision in results	Imprecise for all except positive, negative, global symptoms, age and education.	
Directness of results	Direct	

Myles N, Newall H, Nielssen O, Large M

The association between cannabis use and earlier age at onset of schizophrenia and other psychoses: meta-analysis of possible confounding factors

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Drug and alcohol use

# Drug and alcohol use



Current Pharmaceutical De	Current Pharmaceutical Design 2012; 18: 5055-69	
View review abstract online		
Comparison	The impact of cannabis or tobacco use on age at onset.	
Summary of evidence	Moderate to high quality evidence (large sample, inconsistent, precise, direct) suggests a medium-sized effect of cannabis use being associated with an earlier age at onset of psychosis, with no effect of tobacco use.	
Age at onset		
Clinically significant cannabis use		
A medium-sized effect shows patients with cannabis use had a significantly younger age at onset (equivalent to 32 months);		
46 samples, N = 8,914, SMD = -0.399, 95% CI -0.493 to -0.306, <i>p</i> < 0.001, I <sup>2</sup> = 73%		
	Daily tobacco smoking	
No significant differences between groups;		
47 samples, N = 9,664, SMD = 0.002, 95%Cl -0.094 to 0.097, $p = 0.974$ , $l^2 = 67\%$		
The effect sizes increased when the analysis contained only people with a diagnosis of a schizophrenia-spectrum disorder (+25%), people of the same sex (+12%), and studies using initiation of symptoms (not initiation of treatment) as the marker of age at onset (+12%).		
The effect sizes decreased when the analysis contained only studies of consecutively recruited patients (-31%), studies using systematic methods to assess substance use (-10%) or psychiatric diagnosis (-9%), higher quality studies (-9%), and results adjusted for publication bias (-19%).		
Consistency in results	Inconsistent	
Precision in results	Precise	
Directness of results	Direct	
47 samples, N = 9,664, SMD = 0.002, 95%CI -0.094 to 0.097, p = 0.974, l² = 67%The effect sizes increased when the analysis contained only people with a diagnosis of a schizophrenia-spectrum disorder (+25%), people of the same sex (+12%), and studies using initiation of symptoms (not initiation of treatment) as the marker of age at onset (+12%).The effect sizes decreased when the analysis contained only studies of consecutively recruited patients (-31%), studies using systematic methods to assess substance use (-10%) or psychiatric diagnosis (-9%), higher quality studies (-9%), and results adjusted for publication bias (-19%).Consistency in resultsInconsistentPrecision in resultsPreciseDirectness of resultsDirect		

## Potvin S, Sepehry AA, Stip E

## A meta-analysis of negative symptoms in dual diagnosis schizophrenia

### Psychological Medicine 2006; 36: 431-440

View review abstract online

Comparison Negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia with an SUD

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	vs. people with schizophrenia without an SUD.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large sample, consistent, precise, direct) suggests a medium-sized effect of less negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia with an SUD than in people with schizophrenia without an SUD.
	Moderate quality evidence (medium-sized sample, unable to assess consistency) suggests this result is similar for subgroup analyses of: SANS subscales (alogia, anhedonia, attention, avolition, flat affect), for inpatients, males, patients with past or present SUD, and cannabis or cocaine users.
	Negative symptoms
A significant medium-siz negative sy	ed effect suggests people with schizophrenia with a SUD show less mptoms than people with schizophrenia without a SUD;
SANS negative: 11 studies, N	= 1,135, <i>g</i> = -0.470, 95%Cl -0.59 to -0.34, <i>p</i> = 0.00001, Q = 3.912, <i>p</i> = 0.951
SANS alogia: 7 studies, N = 543, g = -0.46, 95%CI -0.64 to -0.29, p = 0.00001, Q, p not reported	
SANS anhedonia: 7 stuc	lies, N = 543, g = -0.52, 95%Cl -0.69 to -0.34, p = 0.00001, Q, p not reported
SANS attention: 7 studies,	N = 543, g = -0.25, 95%CI -0.43 to -0.08, p = 0.0049, Q, p not reported
SANS avolition: 7 studies, N = 543, $g = -0.41$ , 95%CI -0.59 to -0.24, $p = 0.00001$ , Q, p not reported	
SANS flat affect: 7 studies, N = 543, g = -0.36, 95%CI -0.53 to -0.18, p = 0.0001, Q, p not reported	
Subgroup analyses suggests similar results for;	
Inpatients only: 9 studies, N = 687, $g$ = -0.52, 95%CI -0.68 to -0.36, $p$ = 0.00001, Q, $p$ not reported	
Males only: 4 studies, N = 252, g = -0.56, 95%CI -0.82 to -0.31, p = 0.00001, Q, p not reported	
Patients with past SUD: 9 studies, N = 596, $g = -0.50$ , 95%CI -0.68 to -0.33, $p = 0.00001$ , Q, $p$ not reported	
Patients with current SUD: 8 studies, N = 252, $g$ = -0.44, 95%CI -0.58 to -0.31, $p$ = 0.00001, Q, $p$ not reported	
Cannabis users: 3 studies, N = 270, $g$ = -0.51, 95%CI -0.76 to -0.25, $p$ = 0.0001, Q, $p$ not reported	
Cocaine users: 2 studies, N = 123, g = -0.67, 95%CI -1.05 to -0.29, p = 0.0006, Q, p not reported	
Alcohol users: 2 studies,	N = 396, g = -0.38, 95%Cl -0.82 to 0.06, p = 0.09, Q, p not reported
	Other symptoms
No differences were reports symptoms (6 studi	rted for BPRS general symptoms (7 studies, N = 828), SAPS positive es, N = 437) or PANSS general symptoms (1 study, N = 125).

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Demographics	
No differences were reported for age or gender (10 studies, $N = 1,052$ ).	
Consistency in results	Overall analysis is consistent, unable to assess subgroup analyses.
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

## Potvin S, Sepehry AA, Stip E

## Meta-analysis of depressive symptoms in dual-diagnosis schizophrenia

### Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry 2007; 41: 792-799

View review abstract online

Comparison	Depressive symptoms in people with schizophrenia with a SUD vs. people with schizophrenia without a SUD.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to high quality evidence (large sample, precise, unable to assess consistency, direct) suggests a small effect that people with schizophrenia with a substance use disorder show more depressive symptoms than people with schizophrenia without a SUD. This finding is more likely in males and is only relevant to studies using the HDRS measure of depression.

### Depressive symptoms

Overall, a significant small effect suggests that people with schizophrenia with a SUD showed more depressive symptoms compared to people with schizophrenia without a SUD;

20 studies, N = 3,283, g = 0.262, 95%CI 0.097 to 0.487, p = 0.003

Subgroup analysis of substance type shows more severe depressive symptoms in patients with mixed psychoactive substance use, but not alcohol, cannabis or cocaine use alone;

Mixed psychoactive substance use: 12 studies, g = 0.293, 95%CI 0.072 to 0.515, p = 0.009

Alcohol: 4 studies, g = 0.521, 95%CI -0.213 to 1.255, p = 0.164

Cannabis: 2 studies, g = 0.003, 95%CI -0.361 to 0.366, p = 0.989

Cocaine: 2 studies, *g* = 0.546, 95%CI -0.397 to 1.490, *p* = 0.256

Subgroup analysis shows more severe depressive symptoms in patients with a SUD when assessed using the depression measure, HDRS, and no differences when depression is assessed

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### using the CDSS or MADRS;

HDRS: 10 studies, g = 0.447, 95%Cl 0.049 to 0.845, p = 0.028CDSS: 5 studies, g = 0.125, 95%Cl -0.136 to 0.387, p = 0.347

MADRS: 2 studies, g = 0.091, 95%Cl -0.212 to 0.393, p = 0.557

# Other symptoms

No differences were reported between people with schizophrenia with and without a SUD in PANSS-positive symptoms (12 studies, p = 0.197), PANSS-negative symptoms (12 studies, p = 0.461) or age (13 studies, p = 0.380).

Demographics	
People with schizophrenia with a SUD were significantly more likely to be male (83.9% vs. 71.5%, $p = 0.0001$ ).	
Consistency in results	Unable to assess; no measure of consistency is reported.
Precision in results	Precise for all measures except alcohol and cocaine subgroup analyses.
Directness of results	Direct

## Potvin S, Joyal CC, Pelletier J, Stip E

# Contradictory cognitive capacities among substance-abusing patients with schizophrenia: a meta-analysis

### Schizophrenia Research 2008; 100: 242-251

View review abstract online

Comparison	Cognitive functioning in people with schizophrenia with a SUD vs. people with schizophrenia without an SUD.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (medium-sized samples, precise, unable to assess consistency, direct) suggests people with schizophrenia with comorbid cannabis (medium effect) or mixed psychoactive substance (small effect) use had better global cognition than people with schizophrenia without any SUD. Better speed of processing was reported in people with schizophrenia with any SUD, better visual memory, problem solving and reasoning ability was reported in people with

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# Drug and alcohol use



	schizophrenia with cannabis SUD, and more impaired working memory was reported in people with schizophrenia with alcohol SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD.
Cognition	
	Global cognition
A significant effect suggests or mixed psychoactive sub schizophrenia without a SUL	that people with schizophrenia with comorbid cannabis (medium effect) ostance use (small effect) had better global cognition than people with D. No differences were reported for all SUDs combined, or for alcohol or cocaine SUD;
Mixed psychoactive substances: 6 studies, N = 668, $g = 0.177$ , 95%CI -0.008 to 0.345, $p = 0.040$	
Cannabis: 3 studies, N = 169, <i>g</i> = 0.571, 95%Cl 0.249 to 0.893, <i>p</i> = 0.001	
All SUDs: 21 studies, N = 1,832, g = 0.060, 95%Cl -0.079 to 0.199, p = 0.294	
Alcohol: 7 studies, N = 608, g = -0.042, 95%CI -0.325 to 0.240, p = 0.769	
Cocaine: 7 studies, N = 355, $g$ = -0.069, 95%CI -0.294 to 0.156, $p$ = 0.547	
	Speed of processing
A significant small effect suggests better speed of processing in people with schizophrenia with any SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD;	
Any SUD: 16 studies, N = 1,245, g = 0.211, 95%CI 0.013 to 0.409, p = 0.037	
Problem solving and reasoning	
A significant large effect suggests better problem solving and reasoning in people with schizophrenia with cannabis SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD;	
Cannabis SUD: 2 studies, N = 99, g = 0.789, 95%CI 0.366 to 1.212, p = 0.0001	
Visual memory	
A significant medium effect suggests better visual memory in people with schizophrenia with cannabis SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD;	
Cannabis SUD: 2	studies, N = 145, <i>g</i> = 0.446, 95%CI 0.100 to 0.791, <i>p</i> = 0.011
	Working memory
A significant small to schizophrenia with alco	medium effect suggests impaired working memory in people with hol SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD;
Alcohol SUD: 3 stu	udies, N = 324, g = -0.415, 95%CI -0.799 to -0.031, p = 0.034

No differences were reported for other cognitive composites or for other SUDs (data not reported).

### Symptoms

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No significant differences were reported between people with schizophrenia and any SUD compared to people with schizophrenia without any SUD;
PANSS Positive: 7 studies, N = 577, SUD mean = 18.8 ( $\pm$ 3.0), no SUD = 17.8 ( $\pm$ 4.4), $p$ = 0.636
PANSS Negative: 7 studies, N = 357, SUD mean = 18.6 (±4.0), no SUD = 19.8 (±5.6), $p = 0.632$
SADS: 2 studies, N = 181, SUD mean = 2.1 (±0.8), no SUD = 2.1 (±0.9), $p = 0.963$
SANS: 2 studies, N = 270, SUD mean = 1.4 ( $\pm$ 1.4), no SUD = 1.5 ( $\pm$ 1.6), p = 0.936

### Demographics

People with schizophrenia with any SUD were more likely to be male;

19 studies, N = 1,527, 84.1% vs. 75.6%, *p* = 0.0001

No difference was reported for age;

20 studies, N = 1,544, t = -0.083, p = 0.935

Note: older age was significantly associated with poorer global cognition (21 studies, p = 0.040), speed of processing (15 studies, p = 0.001) and working memory (10 studies, p = 0.0001).

Consistency in results	Unable to assess; no measure of consistency is reported.
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

Potvin S, Blanchet P, Stip E

Substance abuse is associated with increased extrapyramidal symptoms in schizophrenia: A meta-analysis

### Schizophrenia Research 2009; 113: 181-188

View review abstract online

Comparison	Extrapyramidal symptoms in people with schizophrenia with an SUD vs. people with schizophrenia without an SUD.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to high quality evidence (mostly large samples, mostly inconsistent, mostly precise, direct) suggests people with schizophrenia with any SUD (small effect), mixed psychoactive SUD (small effect) or cocaine SUD (large effect) show increased extrapyramidal symptoms (particularly akathisia and tardive dyskinesia) compared to people with schizophrenia without an SUD. No differences were reported for alcohol.

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## Drug and alcohol use



	The overall effect remained significant when antipsychotic dose and other confounders (age, sex, symptoms) were controlled.		
	Extrapyramidal symptoms		
A significant effect suggests that people with schizophrenia with any SUD (small effect), mixed psychoactive SUD (small effect) or cocaine SUD (large effect) showed increased extrapyramidal symptoms compared to people with schizophrenia without a SUD. No differences were reported for alcohol;			
Any SUD: 16 studies, N =	3,479, <i>g</i> = 0.260, 95%Cl 0.0116 to 0.405, <i>p</i> = 0.0001, Q = 45.95, <i>p</i> = 0.0001		
Mixed psychoactive subs	tances: 12 studies, N = 3,068, <i>g</i> = 0.297, 95%CI 0.157 to 0.437, <i>p</i> = 0.0001, Q = 27.58, <i>p</i> = 0.004		
Cocaine: 3 studies, N = 1	59, <i>g</i> = 0.773, 95%Cl 0.200 to 1.345, <i>p</i> = 0.008, Q = 4.1, <i>p</i> = 0.0122		
Alcohol: 6 studies, N = 832	2, <i>g</i> = 0.104, 95%CI -0.105 to 0.358, <i>p</i> = 0.421, Q = 13.65, <i>p</i> = 0.018		
The effect for any SUD rem	ained significant in studies where antipsychotic dose was controlled or not controlled;		
Controlled studies: 7 studies,	N = 1,962, g = 0.248, 95%CI 0.064 to 0.431, p = 0.008, Q = 12.64, p = 0.049		
Uncontrolled studies: 10 stuc	lies, N = 1,623, $g$ = 0.304, 95%Cl 0.077 to 0.531, $p$ = 0.009, Q = 35.59, p = 0.0001		
The effect for any SUD rem se	ained significant in studies controlling for other confounders (e.g. age, x, symptoms), but not in uncontrolled studies;		
Controlled studies: 11 studie	es, N = 2,470, $g$ = 0.401, 95%Cl 0.235 to 0.566, $p$ = 0.0001, Q = 23.65, p = 0.009		
Uncontrolled studies: 6	studies, N = 1,115, g = 0.073 95%Cl −0.124 to 0.270, p = 0.468,		
	Q = 11.23, <i>p</i> = 0.047		
A significant small effect su akathisia and tardive dyski effect	uggests that people with schizophrenia with a SUD showed increased inesia compared to people with schizophrenia without an SUD. Trend is were observed for parkinsonism and dystonia;		
Akathisia: 5 studies, N = 3	80, <i>g</i> = 0.297, 95%Cl 0.081 to 0.513, <i>p</i> = 0.007, Q = 4.43, <i>p</i> = 0.350		
Tardive dyskinesia: 13 studie	es, N = 3,334, g = 0.259, 95%CI 0.103 to 0.404, p = 0.001, Q = 41.98, p = 0.0001		
Parkinsonism: 5 studies, N	N = 380, g = 0.370, 95%CI -0.051 to 0.791, p = 0.085, Q = 16.01, p = 0.003		
Dystonia: 3 studies, N = 17	76, $g = 0.543$ , 95%Cl -0.019 to 1.105, $p = 0.058$ , Q = 5.396, $p = 0.067$		
	Demographics		

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Drug and alcohol use

# Drug and alcohol use



A significant, medium effect suggests people with schizophrenia with a SUD were significantly more likely to be male compared to people with schizophrenia without a SUD;	
8 studies, N not reported, g = 0.429, 95%Cl 0.284 to 0.574, p = 0.0001, Q, p not reported	
No difference was reported in age;	
9 studies, N not reported, $g = 0.158$ , 95%Cl -0.071 to 0.388, $p = 0.176$ , Q, p not reported	

Consistency in results	Inconsistent for all except akathisia.
Precision in results	Precise for all measures except subgroup analyses of cocaine, uncontrolled confounders and dystonia.
Directness of results	Direct

## Rabin RA, Zakzanis KK, George TP

### The effects of cannabis use on neurocognition in schizophrenia: a metaanalysis

### Schizophrenia Research 2011; 128: 111-116

View review abstract online

Comparison	Relationship between current cannabis use and cognitive ability in people with schizophrenia.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (large samples, unable to assess consistency or precision, direct) suggests patients using cannabis have a small increased effect of higher IQ, attention and visuo-spatial ability compared to patients who do not use cannabis.
Cognitive ability	
Small effect of higher IQ, attention and visuo-spatial ability in patients who use cannabis compared to patients who do not use cannabis;	
8 studies, N = 942	
General intelligence: 4 studies, $d = 0.48$ , SD = 0.51	
Attention: 6 studies, $d = 0.35$ , SD = 0.23	
Visuo-spatial: 3 studies, $d = 0.33$ , SD = 0.27	
Executive function: 7 studies, $d = 0.14$ SD = 0.49	

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Working memory: 5 studies, $d = 0.07$ , SD = 0.40		
Retrieval: 6 studies, $d = 0.12$ , SD = 0.50		
	Language: 4 studies, $d = 0.06$ , SD = 0.30	
Consistency in results	Unable to assess; no measure of consistency is reported.	
Precision in results	Unable to assess; no measure of precision is reported.	
Directness of results	Direct	

## Sabe M, Zhao N, Kaiser S

Cannabis, nicotine and the negative symptoms of schizophrenia: Systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies

### Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews 2020; 116: 415-25

View review abstract online

Comparison 1	Symptom severity in people with schizophrenia with current cannabis use vs. people with schizophrenia with no cannabis
	use.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large samples, consistent, precise, direct) suggests a small effect of increased positive symptoms in people with schizophrenia and current cannabis use, with no moderating effects of nicotine use. There were no differences in negative symptoms.

### Current cannabis use

A small effect showed increased positive symptoms in people with cannabis use;

12 studies, N = 1,932, SMD = 0.11, 95%CI -0.00 to 0.23, p = 0.05,  $I^2 = 10\%$ 

No significant differences in negative symptoms;

13 studies, N = 1,851, SMD = 0.01, 95%CI -0.11 to 0.13, p = 0.83,  $I^2 = 8\%$ 

There were no moderating effects of comorbid nicotine use.

Consistency in results	Consistent
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

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# Drug and alcohol use



Comparison 2	Symptom severity in people with schizophrenia with recent abstinence of cannabis use vs. people with schizophrenia with no cannabis use.	
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large sample, consistent, imprecise, direct) suggests a small to medium-sized effect of less severe negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia who recently abstained from cannabis use. Moderate to high quality evidence (inconsistent) found no differences in positive symptoms.	
Recent abstinence of cannabis use		
A small to medium-sized effect showed less severe negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia who recently abstained from cannabis use;		
7 studies, N = 760, SMD = -0.35, 95%CI -0.58 to -0.12, $p = 0.003$ , $I^2 = 40\%$		
Excluding one study decreased the heterogeneity to 8% and increased the effect size to -0.46.		
No significant differences in positive symptoms;		
7 studies, N = 760, SMD = 0.17, 95%Cl -0.11 to 0.45, <i>p</i> = 0.24, l <sup>2</sup> = 58%		
Excluding one study decreased the heterogeneity to 0% and decreased the effect size to 0.08.		
Consistency in results	Consistent for negative symptoms, inconsistent for positive symptoms	
Precision in results	Precise	
Directness of results	Direct	

Sanchez-Gutierrez T, Fernandez-Castilla B, Barbeito S, Gonzalez-Pinto A, Becerra-Garcia JA, Calvo A

Cannabis use and nonuse in patients with first-episode psychosis: A systematic review and meta-analysis of studies comparing neurocognitive functioning

European psychiatry: the journal of the Association of European Psychiatrists 2020; 63(1): e6

View review abstract online

Comparison	Cognition in people with first-episode psychosis and cannabis use vs. people with first-episode psychosis and no cannabis use.

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# Drug and alcohol use



Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large sample, consistent, precise, direct) found no differences between groups.
Cognition	
No significant differences between groups;	
7 studies, N = 673, g = -0.05, 95%CI -0.39 to 0.37, p = 0.96, Qp = 0.13	
There were no moderating effects of cognitive type (attention, executive functioning, premorbid IQ, processing speed, verbal memory and learning, visual memory, and working memory).	
Consistency in results	Consistent
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

Schoeler T, Monk A, Sami MB, Klamerus E, Foglia E, Brown R, Camuri G, Altamura AC, Murray R, Bhattacharyya S

# Continued versus discontinued cannabis use in patients with psychosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis

Lancet Psychiatry 2016a; 3(3): 215-225

View review abstract online

Comparison 1	People who continued cannabis use after onset of psychosis (measured at various follow-up periods) vs. non-users.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (large samples, consistent, precise, direct) shows a small effect of more severe positive symptoms, and longer hospital stays, in people who continued cannabis use compared to non-users, with no significant differences in functioning. Moderate quality evidence (inconsistent) also suggests a small to medium-sized effect of higher rates of relapse in people who continued use compared to non-users, with no significant differences in negative symptom severity.

### Relapse

A small to medium-sized effect of higher rates of relapse in people who continued use compared with non-users;

24 studies, N = 16,157, *d* = 0.36, 95%Cl 0.22 to 0.50, *p* < 0.0001, l<sup>2</sup> = 84%, *p* < 0.0001

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7 studies, N = 2,298, OR = 1.97, 95%CI 1.46 to 2.65, p < 0.0001

Authors report that the difference in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users (comparison 1; d = 0.36), and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; d = 0.02), was significant (p = 0.04).

Sensitivity analyses investigating significant heterogeneity revealed no significant differences in effect sizes according to; illness stage (early vs. chronic;  $Q_B p = 0.68$ ); diagnosis (affective vs. non-affective psychosis;  $Q_B p = 0.89$ ); study quality (high vs. other;  $Q_B p = 0.08$ , trend effect); similar follow-up period (yes vs. no;  $Q_B p = 0.07$ , trend effect); relapse definition (hospital admission vs. other;  $Q_B p = 0.97$ ); % of males in the study (meta-regression; p = 0.87); or age at follow-up (meta-regression; p = 0.38). Note that all subgroup analyses were inconsistent ( $I^2 = 50\%$  to 91%), apart from early stage of illness ( $I^2 = 38\%$ ).

Authors report no evidence of publication bias.

### Length of hospital admission after onset of psychosis

A small to medium-sized effect of longer hospitalisations in people who continued use (measured at follow-up) compared with non-users;

5 studies, N = 803, d = 0.36, 95%Cl 0.13 to 0.58, p = 0.02, l<sup>2</sup> = 38%, p = 0.14

### **Positive symptoms**

A small effect of increased positive symptom severity was found in people who continued use compared with non-users;

10 studies, N = 1,224, d = 0.15, 95%Cl 0.01 to 0.29, p = 0.04,  $l^2$  = 16%, p = 0.21

Authors report that the difference in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users (comparison 1; d = 0.15), and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; d = -0.30), was significant (p = 0.05).

### Negative symptoms

No significant difference was found between people who continued use and non-users;

10 studies, N = 1,202, d = -0.09, 95%Cl -0.30 to 0.11, p = 0.37, l<sup>2</sup> = 56%, p = 0.02

Authors report that the difference in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users (comparison 1; d = -0.09), and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; d = -0.31), was not significant (p = 0.41).

### Functioning

No significant difference was found between people who continued use and non-users;

9 studies, N = 1,198, d = 0.04, 95%CI -0.14 to 0.21, p = 0.68, I<sup>2</sup> = 41%, p = 0.09

Authors report that the difference in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users (comparison 1; d = 0.04), and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; d = -

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	0.49), was significant ( $p = 0.0075$ ).
Consistency in results	Consistent for length of hospitalisation, positive symptoms, and functioning, inconsistent for relapse and negative symptoms.
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct
Comparison 2	People who continued cannabis use after onset of psychosis vs. people who discontinued cannabis use after onset of psychosis.
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (mostly large samples, consistent, precise, direct) shows a small effect of higher rates of relapse in people who continued use compared to people who discontinue use, with no significant differences in positive or negative symptom severity. Moderate quality evidence (inconsistent) also suggests no differences in functioning.
	Relapse
A small effect also showed	l of higher rates of relapse in people who continued use compared with people who discontinued use;
6 studies, $N = 67$	6, $d = 0.28$ , 95%Cl 0.12 to 0.44, $p = 0.0005$ , $l^2 = 0$ %, $p = 0.52$
	Positive symptoms
No significant differen	ce was found between people who continued use and people who discontinued use;
2 studies, N = 8	3, $d = 0.26$ , 95%Cl not reported, $p = 0.24$ , $l^2 = 0$ %, $p = 0.76$
	Negative symptoms
No significant differen	ce was found between people who continued use and people who discontinued use;
2 studies, N = 8	3, $d = 0.41$ , 95%Cl not reported, $p = 0.07$ , $l^2 = 0$ %, $p = 0.37$
	Functioning
No significant differen	ce was found between people who continued use and people who discontinued use;
3 studies, N = 14	9, $d = 0.47$ , 95%Cl not reported, $p = 0.23$ , $l^2 = 84\%$ , $p = 0.002$
Consistency in results	Consistent for relapse rates, positive symptoms and negative symptoms, inconsistent for functioning.

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Precision in results	Precise	
Directness of results	Direct	
Comparison 3	People who discontinued cannabis use after onset of psychosis vs. non-users.	
Summary of evidence	High quality evidence (mostly large samples, consistent, precise, direct) shows a small effect of higher functioning in people who discontinued cannabis use compared to non-users, with no significant differences in relapse rates or negative symptom severity. Moderate quality evidence (imprecise) also suggests no differences in positive symptom severity.	
	Relapse	
No significant difference	s were found between people who discontinued use and non-users;	
6 studies, $N = 90$	04, $d = 0.02$ , 95%Cl -0.12 to 0.15, $p = 0.82$ , $l^2 = 0$ %, $p = 0.76$	
Authors report that the differ (comparison 1; $d = 0.36$ ), and	rence in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; $d = 0.02$ ), was significant ( $p = 0.04$ ).	
	Positive symptoms	
No significant differenc	e was found between people who discontinued use and non-users;	
2 studies, N = 152	2, $d = -0.30$ , 95%Cl -0.99 to 0.38, $p = 0.39$ , $l^2 = 71$ %, $p = 0.06$	
Authors report that the difference in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users (comparison 1; $d = 0.15$ ), and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; $d = -0.30$ ), was significant ( $p = 0.05$ ).		
	Negative symptoms	
No significant differenc	e was found between people who discontinued use and non-users;	
2 studies, $N = 15$	2, $d = -0.31$ , 95%Cl -0.67 to 0.05, $p = 0.10$ , $l^2 = 0$ %, $p = 0.65$	
Authors report that the difference (comparison 1; $d = -0.09$ ),	rence in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; $d = -$ 0.31), was not significant ( $p = 0.41$ ).	
	Functioning	
A small effect was fou	nd for higher levels of functioning in people who discontinued use;	
3 studies, N = 220,	, $d = -0.49$ , 95%Cl -0.81 to -0.17, $p = 0.002$ , $l^2 = 14\%$ , $p = 0.33$	
Authors report that the difference (comparison 1; $d = 0.04$ ),	rence in effect sizes between continuous cannabis users and non-users and discontinued cannabis users and non-users (comparison 3; $d = -$	

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0.49), was significant ( $p = 0.0075$ ).	
Consistency in results	Consistent
Precision in results	Precise apart from positive symptoms
Directness of results	Direct

Schoeler T, Kambeitz J, Behlke I, Murray R, Bhattacharyya S

The effects of cannabis on memory function in users with and without a psychotic disorder: findings from a combined meta-analysis

Psychological Medicine 2016b; 46: 177-188

View review abstract online

Comparison	People with psychosis who are cannabis users vs. people with psychosis who are non-users.
	People without psychosis who are cannabis users vs. healthy non-users.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to high quality evidence (large samples, inconsistent, precise, direct) suggests small to medium-sized effects of better global memory, working memory, visual immediate recall, and visual and verbal recognition in people with psychosis who use cannabis compared with people with psychosis who don't use cannabis. Conversely, in people without psychosis, there is poorer global memory, prospective memory, working memory, verbal immediate recall, verbal learning, verbal delayed recall and verbal recognition in cannabis users compared with non-users.

### Memory

In the analysis comparing people with psychosis who use cannabis to people with psychosis who don't use cannabis, cannabis use was associated with small to medium-sized effects of better;

Global memory: 63 samples, N = 4,428, d = -0.11, 95%CI -0.22 to 0.003, p = 0.05, I<sup>2</sup> = 76%

Working memory: N = 2,468, d = -0.20, 95%CI -0.34 to -0.05, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported

Visual immediate recall: N = 89, d = -0.73, 95%CI, -1,17 to -0.30, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported

Visual recognition: N = 119, *d* = -0.42, 95%CI -0.80 to -0.05, *p* < 0.05, Q,p not reported

Verbal recognition: N = 283, d = -0.34, 95%CI -0.71 to 0.00, p = 0.05, Q,p not reported

No differences were found for visual working memory, verbal immediate recall, verbal learning, visual learning, or verbal delayed recall.

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In the analysis comparing healthy cannabis users to healthy non-users, cannabis use was associated with small to medium-sized effects of poorer;
Global memory: 240 samples, N = 20,586, $d$ = 0.27, 95%Cl 0.22 to 0.32, $p$ < 0.0001, l <sup>2</sup> = 61%
Prospective memory: N = 294, d = 0.61, 95%CI 0.38 to 0.85, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
Working memory: N = 4,277, d = 0.11, 95%CI 0.04 to 0.17, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
Verbal immediate recall: N = 3,168, d = 0.40, 95%CI 0.27 to 0.53, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
Verbal learning: N = 2,710, d = 0.36, 95%CI, 0.24 to 0.48, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
Verbal delayed recall: N = 3,365, d = 0.36, 95%Cl, 0.22 to 0.49, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
Visual recognition: N = 483, d = 0.41, 95%Cl, 0.10 to 0.72, p < 0.05, Q,p not reported
No differences were found for visual working memory, visual immediate recall, visual learning, or visual delayed recall.
Authors report that in cannabis-using patients, better global memory was associated with younger age. In healthy cannabis-users, poorer global memory was associated with increased cannabis use, higher depression scores, lower functioning, lower IQ and studies published after vs. before the year 2000. Longer duration of abstinence from cannabis reduced its effects on memory in both

healthy and patient users. Publication bias was present in the healthy sample but not in the patient sample for global memory.

Consistency in results	Inconsistent
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

Talamo A, Centorrino F, Tondo L, Dimitri A, Hennen J, Baldessarini RJ

Comorbid substance-use in schizophrenia: Relation to positive and negative symptoms

### Schziophrenia Research 2006; 86: 251-255

View review abstract online

Comparison	Positive and negative symptoms in people with schizophrenia with an SUD vs. people with schizophrenia without an SUD.
Summary of evidence	Moderate quality evidence (large sample, unable to assess consistency or precision, direct) suggests people with schizophrenia with an SUD showed worse positive symptoms and better negative symptoms. The evidence also suggests people with schizophrenia with an SUD were more likely to be

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	male or older.	
Symptoms		
A significant effect suggests people with schizophrenia with an SUD showed worse positive symptoms, and better negative symptoms compared to people with schizophrenia without an SUD;		
PANSS positive: 8 studies, N = 725, WMD = 2.01, 95%CI 1.19 to 2.84, p < 0.0001		
PANSS negative: 8 studies, N = 725, WMD = -1.86, 95%CI -2.72 to -1.00, p < 0.0001		
Note: The authors reported that the SUD sample consisted of alcohol (36%), cannabis (26%) and cocaine (18%).		
Demographics		
People with schizophrenia with an SUD were significantly more likely to be male (85.9% vs. 76.8%, $\chi^2 = 9.75$ , $p = 0.002$ ) and older (positive PANSS $p = 0.039$ , negative PANSS $p = 0.013$ ) compared to people with schizophrenia without an SUD. No difference was reported in age (34.9 ± 6.9 vs. $35.9 \pm 6.4$ , $p = 0.75$ ).		
<b>Consistency in results</b> Unable to assess; no measure of consistency is reported.		
Precision in results	Unable to assess; no measure of precision is reported.	
Directness of results	Direct	

Yücel M, Bora E, Lubman DI, Solowij N, Brewer WJ, Cotton SM, Conus P, Takagi MJ, Fornito A, Wood SJ, McGorry PD, Pantelis C

The impact of cannabis use on cognitive functioning in patients with schizophrenia: a meta-analysis of existing findings and new data in first-episode sample

### Schizophrenia Bulletin 2012; 38(2):316-330

View review abstract online

Comparison	Cognition in people with schizophrenia with comorbid cannabis use vs. people with schizophrenia without cannabis use.
Summary of evidence	Moderate to high quality evidence (small to medium samples, consistent, precise, direct) suggests a medium effect that people with schizophrenia with lifetime comorbid cannabis use show better global cognition, particularly processing speed, planning and visual and working memory, than people with

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schizophrenia without a history of cannabis use. No differences
are reported between current users and non-users. People with
schizophrenia with comorbid cannabis use were less educated,
younger, showed more severe positive symptoms and an earlier
illness onset.

### Cognition

A significant medium-sized effect suggests people with schizophrenia with lifetime cannabis use, but not current use, show better global cognition compared to people with schizophrenia without a history of comorbid cannabis use;

Lifetime: 6 studies, N = 259, d = 0.55, 95%Cl 0.30 to 0.80, p = 0.001, Q = 3.95, p > 0.05

Current/recent: 4 studies, N = 313, d = 0.03, 95%Cl -0.30 to 0.37, p = 0.84, Q = 4.59, p > 0.05

People with schizophrenia with lifetime cannabis use showed better processing speed, visual memory, planning and working memory;

Processing speed: 5 studies, N = 227, d = 0.65, 95%CI 0.38 to 0.92, p = 0.001, Q = 1.72, p > 0.05

Visual memory: 3 studies, N = 178, d = 0.45, 95%CI 0.13 to 0.77, p = 0.006, Q = 2.24, p > 0.05

Planning: 3 studies, N = 132, d = 0.67, 95%CI 0.31 to 1.03, p = 0.001, Q = 1.20, p > 0.05

Working memory: 2 studies, N = 96, *d* = 0.64, 95%CI 0.22 to 1.05, *p* = 0.003, Q = 0.16, *p* > 0.05

### Demographics and symptoms

People with schizophrenia with comorbid cannabis use were less educated, younger, showed more severe positive symptoms and an earlier illness onset compared to people with schizophrenia without comorbid cannabis use;

Education: *d* = 0.40, 95%CI 0.21 to 0.60, *p* < 0.001

Age: *d* = 0.57, 95%CI 0.36 to 0.79, *p* < 0.001

Positive symptoms: *d* = 0.65, 95%CI 0.41 to 0.90, *p* < 0.001

Illness onset: *d* = 0.42, 95%CI 0.19 to 0.65, *p* = 0.003

No differences were reported for gender, duration of illness, negative symptoms or premorbid IQ.

Consistency in results	Consistent
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

## Explanation of acronyms

BPRS = Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale, CDSS = Calgary Depression Scale for Schizophrenia, CI =

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confidence interval, COWAT = Controlled Oral Word Association Test, FEP = first-episode psychosis, Hedges' g = standardised mean differences, HDRS = Hamilton Depression Rating Scale, I<sup>2</sup> = the percentage of the variability in effect estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than sampling error (chance), IQ = intelligence quotient, N = number of participants, MATRICS = Measurement and Treatment Research to Improve Cognition in Schizophrenia, p = statistical probability of obtaining that result (p < 0.05 generally regarded as significant), PANSS = Positive and Negative Symptom Scale, Q or Q<sub>W</sub> = Q statistic for the test of heterogeneity within groups of studies, Q<sub>B</sub> = Q statistic for the test of heterogeneity between groups of studies, r = correlation coefficient, RCT = randomised controlled trial, SADS = Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia, SANS = Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms, SAPS = Scale for the Assessment of Positive Symptoms, SUD = Substance Use Disorder, vs. = versus, WMD = weighted mean difference

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## Explanation of technical terms

Bias has the potential to affect reviews of both RCT and observational studies. Forms of bias include; reporting bias - selective reporting of results; publication bias - trials that are not formally published tend to show less effect than published trials, further if there are statistically significant differences between groups in a trial, these trial results tend to get published before those of trials without significant differences: language bias - only including English language reports; funding bias - source of funding for the primary research with selective reporting of results within primary studies; outcome variable selection bias; database bias including reports from some databases and not others; citation bias - preferential citation of authors. Trials can also be subject to bias when evaluators are not blind to treatment condition and selection bias of participants if trial samples are small<sup>24</sup>.

† Different effect measures are reported by different reviews.

Prevalence refers to how many existing cases there are at a particular point in time. Incidence refers to how many new cases there are per population in a specified time period. Incidence is usually reported as the number of new cases per 100,000 people per year. Alternatively some studies present the number of new cases that have accumulated over several years against a person-years denominator. This denominator is the sum of individual units of time that the persons in the population are at risk of becoming a case. It takes into account the size of the underlying population sample and its age structure over the duration of observation.

Reliability and validity refers to how accurate the instrument is. Sensitivity is the proportion

of actual positives that are correctly identified (100% sensitivity = correct identification of all actual positives) and specificity is the proportion of negatives that are correctly identified (100% specificity = not identifying anyone as positive if they are truly not).

Weighted mean difference scores refer to mean differences between treatment and comparison groups after treatment (or occasionally pre to post treatment) and in a randomised trial there is an assumption that both groups are comparable on this measure prior to treatment. Standardised mean differences are divided by the pooled standard deviation (or the standard deviation of one group when groups are homogenous) which allows results from different scales to be combined and compared. Each study's mean difference is then given a weighting depending on the size of the sample and the variability in the data. Less than 0.4 represents a small effect, around 0.5 a medium effect, and over 0.8 represents a large effect<sup>24</sup>.

Odds ratio (OR) or relative risk (RR) refers to the probability of a reduction (< 1) or an increase (> 1) in a particular outcome in a treatment group, or a group exposed to a risk factor, relative to the comparison group. For example, a RR of 0.75 translates to a reduction in risk of an outcome of 25% relative to those not receiving the treatment or not exposed to the risk factor. Conversely, a RR of 1.25 translates to an increased risk of 25% relative to those not receiving treatment or not having been exposed to a risk factor. A RR or OR of 1.00 means there is no difference between groups. A medium effect is considered if RR > 2 or < 0.5 and a large effect if RR > 5 or <  $0.2^{25}$ . InOR stands for logarithmic OR where a InOR of 0 shows no difference between groups. Hazard ratios measure the effect of an explanatory variable on the hazard or risk of an event.

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Correlation coefficients (eq, r) indicate the strenath of association or relationship between variables. They can provide an indirect indication of prediction, but do not confirm causality due to possible and often unforseen confounding variables. An r of 0.10 represents a weak association, 0.25 a medium association and 0.40 and over strong represents а association. Unstandardised (b) regression coefficients indicate the average change in the dependent variable associated with a 1 unit change in independent variable. statistically the other independent controlling for the variables. Standardised regression coefficients represent the change being in of standard deviations units to allow comparison across different scales.

‡ Inconsistency refers to differing estimates of effect across studies (i.e. heterogeneity or that variability in results) is not explained by subgroup analyses and therefore reduces confidence in the effect estimate. I<sup>2</sup> is the percentage of the variability in effect estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than sampling error (chance) - 0% to 40%: heterogeneity might not be important, 30% to 60%: may represent moderate heterogeneity, 50% to 90%: may represent considerable heterogeneity and over this is considerable heterogeneity. l² can be calculated from Q (chi-square) for the test of heterogeneity with the following formula<sup>24</sup>;

$$|^2 = \left(\frac{Q - df}{Q}\right) \times 100\%$$

recommendations, a result for continuous data (standardised mean differences, not weighted mean differences) is considered imprecise if the upper or lower confidence limit crosses an effect size of 0.5 in either direction, and for binary and correlation data, an effect size of 0.25. GRADE also recommends downgrading the evidence when sample size is smaller than 300 (for binary data) and 400 (for continuous data), although for some topics, these criteria should be relaxed<sup>26</sup>.

Indirectness of comparison occurs when a comparison of intervention A versus B is not available but A was compared with C and B was compared with C that allows indirect comparisons of the magnitude of effect of A Indirectness versus B. of population. comparator and/or outcome can also occur when the available evidence regarding a particular population, intervention, comparator, or outcome is not available and is therefore inferred from available evidence. These inferred treatment effect sizes are of lower quality than those gained from head-tohead comparisons of A and B.

§ Imprecision refers to wide confidence intervals indicating a lack of confidence in the effect estimate. Based on GRADE

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