TECHNICAL COMMENTARY

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SCHIZOPHRENIA LIBRARY

Smoking

Introduction

Tobacco smoking is very common among people with schizophrenia, who often show particularly heavy use. This poses considerable health risks, potential interference with the metabolism of antipsychotic medications, as well as financial burden for the individuals.

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 a diagnosis of schizophrenia, schizoaffective disorder, schizophreniform disorder or first episode schizophrenia. 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[1]. 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).[2] The resulting table represents an objective summary of the available evidence, although the conclusions are solely the opinion of staff of NeuRA (Neuroscience Research Australia).

Results

We found four systematic reviews that met inclusion criteria[3-6].

- Moderate quality evidence finds medium-sized effects of more smoking cessation with bupropion or varenicline than with placebo, at 3 month follow-up.
- Moderate quality evidence finds varenicline reduced the number of cigarettes smoked per day and resulted in more abstaining smoking behaviour.

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Ahmed S, Virani S, Kotapati VP, Bachu R, Adnan M, Khan AM, Zubair A, Begum, G. Kumar J, Qureshi M, Ahmed R

Efficacy and safety of varenicline for smoking cessation in schizophrenia: A meta-analysis

Frontiers in Psychiatry 2018; 19(9): 428

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Comparison	**Varenicline vs. placebo.**
Summary of evidence	**Moderate quality evidence (small samples, consistent, some imprecision, direct) finds varenicline reduced the number of cigarettes smoked per day and resulted in more abstaining smoking behaviour.**
Smoking behaviour	
A large, significant effect of reduced number of cigarettes smoked per day with varenicline; 3 RCTs, N = 228, SMD = 0.89, 95%CI 0.57 to 1.22, $p < 0.05$ *A small, significant effect of more abstaining smoking behavior with varenicline;* 2 RCTs, N = 134, OR = 1.81, 95%CI 0.41 to 3.20, $p < 0.05$ *A medium-sized, significant effect of less expired carbon monoxide levels with varenicline;* 2 RCTs, N = 100, SMD = 0.50, 95%CI 0.06 to 0.94, $p < 0.05$	
Risks	The side effects reported were gastrointestinal and psychiatric symptoms, headache and fatigue.
Consistency in results‡	Authors report the results are consistent.
Precision in results§	Precise for SMDs, imprecise for OR.
Directness of results‖	Direct

Kishi T, Iwata N

Varenicline for smoking cessation in people with schizophrenia: systematic review and meta-analysis

European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience 2015; 265: 259-68

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Comparison	**Varenicline vs. placebo.** **The mean study duration was 16 weeks (range 8 to 52 weeks).**
Summary of evidence	**Moderate quality evidence (medium-sized sample, inconsistent, precise, direct) finds no differences in rates of smoking cessation between varenicline and placebo.**
Smoking cessation	
There were no significant differences in rates of smoking cessation; 5 RCTs, N = 322, RR = 0.79, 95 % CI 0.58 to 1.08, $p = 0.14$, $I^2 = 94\%$, $p < 0.00001$	
Risks	Varenicline caused less abnormal dreams/nightmares than placebo, however it caused more nausea. There were no significant differences in rates of all-cause discontinuation.
Consistency in results	Inconsistent
Precision in results	Precise
Directness of results	Direct

Pearsall R, Smith DJ, Geddes JR

Pharmacological and behavioural interventions to promote smoking cessation in adults with schizophrenia and bipolar disorders: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised trials

BMJ Open 2019; 9: e027389

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Comparison	**Bupropion or varenicline vs. placebo.**
Summary of evidence	**Moderate quality evidence (medium-sized samples, consistent, imprecise, direct) finds a medium-sized effect of more smoking cessation with bupropion than placebo, which was maintained at 6 months follow-up.**

Smoking cessation	
Medium-sized, significant effects of more smoking cessation with bupropion and varenicline at 3 months follow-up; Bupropion: 5 RCTs, N = 230, RR = 3.95, 95%CI 1.81 to 8.62, p = 0.0006, I^2 = 0%, p = 0.91 Varenicline: 3 RCTs, N = 228, RR = 3.06, 95%CI 1.32 to 7.10, p = 0.009, I^2 = 0%, p = 0.57	
Risks	There were no significant differences in adverse effects, apart from more nausea with varenicline than with placebo.
Consistency in results	Consistent
Precision in results	Imprecise
Directness of results	Direct

Tsoi DT, Porwal M, Webster AC

Interventions for smoking cessation and reduction in individuals with schizophrenia

Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2013; 2: Art. No.: CD007253

View review abstract online

Comparison	**Bupropion with or without NRT vs. placebo with or without NRT.**
Summary of evidence	**Moderate quality evidence (medium-sized samples, consistent, imprecise, direct) finds a medium-sized effect of more smoking cessation with bupropion than placebo, which was maintained at 6 months follow-up.**
Smoking cessation	
A medium-sized, significant effect of more smoking cessation with bupropion; End of treatment: 7 RCTs, N = 340, RR = 3.03, 95%CI 1.69 to 5.42, p = 0.0002, I^2 = 0%, p = 0.71 6 months follow-up: 5 RCTs, N = 214, RR = 2.78, 95%CI 1.02 to 7.58, p = 0.045, I^2 = 0%, p = 0.90	
Risks	There were no reports of major adverse events such as seizures with bupropion.

Smoking

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

Explanation of acronyms

CI = confidence interval, I^2 = the percentage of the variability in effect estimates that is due to heterogeneity rather than sampling error (chance), N = number of participants, NRT = nicotine replacement therapy, OR = odds ratio, *p* = statistical probability of obtaining that result ($p < 0.05$ generally regarded as significant), RCT = randomised controlled trial, RR = relative risk, SMD = standardised mean difference, vs. = versus

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[7].

† 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).

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) that 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[7].

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[8]. lnOR stands for logarithmic OR where a lnOR of 0 shows no difference between groups. Hazard ratios

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measure the effect of an explanatory variable on the hazard or risk of an event.

Correlation coefficients (eg, r) indicate the strength 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 represents a strong association. Unstandardised (*b*) regression coefficients indicate the average change in the dependent variable associated with a 1 unit change in the independent variable, statistically controlling for the other independent variables. Standardised regression coefficients represent the change being in units of standard deviations to allow comparison across different scales.

‡ Inconsistency refers to differing estimates of effect across studies (i.e. heterogeneity or variability in results) that is not explained by subgroup analyses and therefore reduces confidence in the effect estimate. I^2 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.

§ Imprecision refers to wide confidence intervals indicating a lack of confidence in the effect estimate. Based on GRADE 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[9].

‖ 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 versus B. Indirectness 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-to-head comparisons of A and B.

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