



ROYAUME DU MAROC
UNIVERSITE MOHAMMED V DE RABAT
FACULTE DE MEDECINE
ET DE PHARMACIE
RABAT



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CANNABIS USE IN SCHIZOPHRENIA A 1 YEAR FOLLOW-UP STUDY

THESIS

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BY

Mrs. Wissale AADIAFI

Born on February 27th, 1995 in Beni Mellal

From the Royal School of Military Health Service - Rabat

FOR THE DEGREE

Doctor of Medicine

Key Words : Schizophrenia ; Cannabis ; Comorbidity

Jury Members :

Mr. Jaïlal TOUFIQ

Professor of Psychiatry

Mrs. Maria SABIR

Professor of psychiatry

Mrs. Fatima ELOMARI

Professor of psychiatry

Mr. Mohamed KADIRI

Professor of psychiatry

President

Director

Member

Member



UNIVERSITE MOHAMMED V
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1962 - 1969: Professeur Abdelmalek FARAJ
1969 - 1974: Professeur Abdellatif BERBICH
1974 - 1981: Professeur Bachir IAZRAK
1981 - 1989: Professeur Taieb CHKIII
1989 - 1997: Professeur Nohaned Tahar AIAOUI
1997 - 2003: Professeur AbdeInajid BEINAH
2003 - 2013: Professeur Najia HAJJAJ - HASSOUNI

ADNINISTRATION :

<i>Doyen</i>	Professeur Nohaned ADNAOUI
<i>Vice-Doyen chargé des Affaires Académiques et Etudiantes</i>	Professeur Brahini IEKEHAI
<i>Vice-Doyen chargé de la Recherche et de la Coopération</i>	Professeur Toufiq DAKKA
<i>Vice-Doyen chargé des Affaires Spécifiques à la Pharmacie</i>	Professeur Younes RAHAI
<i>Secrétaire Général</i>	Nr. Nohaned KARRA

* Enseignants Militaires

1 - ENSEIGNANTS-CHERCHEURS NEDECINS ET PHARNACIENS

2. PROFESSEURS DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR :

Décembre 1984

Pr. NAAOUNI AbdeIaziz
Pr. NAAZOUZI Ahmed Wajdi
Pr. SETTAF AbdeIlatif

Nédecine Interne - *Clinique Royale*
Anesthésie -Réanimation
Pathologie Chirurgicale

Décembre 1989

Pr. ADNAOUI Nohaned
Pr. OUAZZANI Taïbi Nohaned Réda

Nédecine Interne - *Doyen de la FNPR*
Neurologie

Janvier et Novembre 1990

Pr. KHARBACH Aïcha
Pr. TAZI Saoud Anas

Gynécologie -Obstétrique
Anesthésie Réanimation

Février Avril Juillet et Décembre 1991

Pr. AZZOUZI Abderrahin
Pr. BAYAHIA Rabéa
Pr. BEIKOUCHI Abdelkader
Pr. BENCHEKROUN Belabbes AbdeIlatif
Pr. BENSOUDA Yahia
Pr. BERRAHO Anina
Pr. BEZAD Rachid

Anesthésie Réanimation- *Doyen de FNPO*
Néphrologie
Chirurgie Générale
Chirurgie Générale
Pharmacie galénique
Ophtalmologie
Gynécologie Obstétrique *Néd. Chef Naternité des*

Orangers

Pr. CHERRAH Yahia
Pr. CHOKAIRI Onar
Pr. KHATTAB Nohaned
Pr. SOUIAYNANI Rachida
Pr. TAOUFIK JanaI

Pharmacologie
Histologie Embryologie
Pédiatrie
Pharmacologie- *Dir. du Centre National PV Rabat*
Chimie thérapeutique

Décembre 1992

Pr. AHAIAT Nohaned
Pr. BENSOUDA Adil
Pr. CHAHED OUAZZANI Iaaziza
Pr. CHRAIBI Chafiq
Pr. EI OUAHABI Abdessanad
Pr. FEIAT Rokaya
Pr. JIDDANE Nohaned
Pr. TAGHY Ahmed
Pr. ZOUHDI Ninoun

Chirurgie Générale *Doyen de FNPT*
Anesthésie Réanimation
Gastro-Entérologie
Gynécologie Obstétrique
Neurochirurgie
Cardiologie
Anatomie
Chirurgie Générale
Microbiologie

Nars 1994

~~Enseignants Militaires~~
Pr. BENJAAFAR Noureddine
Pr. BEN RAIS Nozha

Radiothérapie
Biophysique

Pr. CAOUI Naïka
Pr. CHRAÏBI Abdelnadjid

FNPA

Pr. EI ANRANI Sabah
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Pr. ESSAKAÏ Naïka
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Nars 1994

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Pr. BENTAHIA Abdelali
Pr. BERRADA Nohaned Saleh
Pr. CHERKAÏ Naïka Ouafae
Pr. IAKHDAR Anina
Pr. NOUANE Nezha

Nars 1995

Pr. ABOUQUAI Redouane
Pr. ANRAÏBI Nohaned
Pr. BAÏDADA Abdelaziz
Pr. BARGACH Sanir
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Pr. ESSAKAÏ HOUSSEINI Leïla
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Pr. OUAZZANI CHAHDI Bahia
Pr. SEFIANI Abdelaziz
Pr. ZEGGWAGH Anine Ali

Décembre 1996

Pr. BEIKACEN Rachid
Pr. BOUÏANOUAR Abdelkrin
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Pr. GAÏOZI Ahmed
Pr. OUZEDDOUN Naina
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** Enseignants Militaires*
Novembre 1997

Pr. AÏANI Nohaned Hassan
Pr. BÏROUK Nazha
Pr. FEÏÏAT Nadia
Pr. KADDÏURI Noureddine
Pr. KÏUTANI Abdelatif

Biophysique
Endocrinologie et Maladies Métaboliques *Doyen de la*

Gynécologie Obstétrique
Chirurgie Générale - *Directeur du CHS*
Immunologie
Chirurgie Pédiatrique
Chirurgie Générale
Gynécologie - Obstétrique
Dermatologie

Urologie *Inspecteur du SSN*
Pédiatrie
Traumatologie - Orthopédie
Ophtalmologie
Gynécologie Obstétrique
Pédiatrie

Réanimation Médicale
Chirurgie Générale
Gynécologie Obstétrique
Gynécologie Obstétrique
Chirurgie Générale
Oto-Rhino-Laryngologie
Urologie
Ophtalmologie
Génétique
Réanimation Médicale

Chirurgie Pédiatrie
Ophtalmologie
Chirurgie Générale
Pédiatrie
Néphrologie
Cardiologie *Directeur HNI Nohanned V*

Gynécologie-Obstétrique
Neurologie
Cardiologie
Chirurgie Pédiatrique
Urologie

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Chirurgie Générale
Pédiatrie
Psychiatrie *Directeur Hôp. Ar-razi Salé*
Gynécologie Obstétrique

Novembre 1998

Pr. BENONAR AII
Pr. BOUGTAB
Pr. ER RIHANI Hassan
Pr. BENKIRANE Najid*

Neurologie *Doyen de la FNP Abulcassis*
Abdesslan Chirurgie Générale
Oncologie Médicale
Hématologie

Janvier 2000

Pr. ABID Ahned*
Pr. AIT OUANAR Hassan
Pr. BENJEIIOUN Dakhana Badr.Sououd
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Pneumo-phtisiologie
Pédiatrie
Pédiatrie
Pneumo-phtisiologie *Directeur Hôp. Ny Youssef*
Chirurgie Générale
Chirurgie Générale
Pneumo-phtisiologie
Neurochirurgie
Anesthésie-Réanimation
Médecine Interne

Novembre 2000

Pr. AIDI Saadia
Pr. AJANA Fatima Zohra
Pr. BENANR Said
Pr. CHERTI Nohanned
Pr. ECH-CHERIF EI KETTANI Selma
Pr. EI HASSANI Anine
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Neurologie
Gastro-Entérologie
Chirurgie Générale
Cardiologie
Anesthésie-Réanimation
Pédiatrie - *Directeur Hôp. Cheikh Zaid*
Urologie
Endocrinologie et Maladies Métaboliques
Pédiatrie

Décembre 2001

Pr. BAIKHI Hichan*
Pr. BENABDEIJIII Naria
Pr. BENANAR Ioubna
Pr. BENANOR Jouda
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Anesthésie-Réanimation
Neurologie
Néphrologie
Pneumo-phtisiologie
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Cardiologie
Pédiatrie
Rhumatologie
Anatomie
Radiologie
Radiologie

Pr. DAAII Nustapha*
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Décembre 2002

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Janvier 2004

Chirurgie Générale
 Anesthésie-Réanimation
 Neuro-Chirurgie
 Chirurgie-Pédiatrique
 Chirurgie Générale
 Pédiatrie - Directeur Hôp. Univ. Cheikh Khalifa
 Neuro-Chirurgie
 Chirurgie Générale Directeur Hôpital Ibn Sina
 Chirurgie Thoracique
 Traumatologie Orthopédie
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Chirurgie Générale
 Hématologie Clinique
 Chirurgie Générale
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 Chirurgie Générale
 Chirurgie Vasculaire Périphérique
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Anatomie Pathologique
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 Cardiologie
 Gastro-Entérologie Dir.-Adj. HNI Nohanned V
 Biochimie-Chimie
 Endocrinologie et Maladies Métaboliques
 Dermatologie
 Gastro-Entérologie
 Anatomie Pathologique
 Chirurgie Générale
 Pédiatrie
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 Ophtalmologie
 Traumatologie Orthopédie
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 Gynécologie Obstétrique
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 Chirurgie Générale
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 Pédiatrie
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Janvier 2005

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AVRIL 2006

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Sina Narr.
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 Anatomie Pathologique
 Oto-Rhino-Laryngologie
 Gastro-Entérologie
 Stomatologie et Chirurgie Maxillo-faciale
 Neurologie
 Traumatologie Orthopédie
 Anatomie Pathologique
 Radiologie
 Gynécologie Obstétrique
 Pédiatrie
 Chirurgie Générale
 Pédiatrie
 Traumatologie Orthopédie
 Chirurgie Cardio-Vasculaire
 Ophtalnologie
 Pharmacie Clinique
 Chirurgie Générale
 Cardiologie

Chirurgie Réparatrice et Plastique
 Rhumatologie
 Ophtalnologie
 Rhumatologie Directeur Hôp. Al Ayachi Salé
 Pédiatrie
 Cardiologie
 Biophysique
 Cardiologie (mise en disponibilité)
 Pédiatrie
 Radiologie
 Chirurgie Cardio-vasculaire
 Parasitologie
 Histo-Embryologie Cytogénétique
 Gynécologie Obstétrique

Rhumatologie
 Hématologie
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 Chirurgie Cardio - Vasculaire. Directeur Hôpital Ibn
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 Anesthésie Réanimation
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 Microbiologie
 Radiologie
 Urologie
 Pédiatrie
 Psychiatrie
 Chirurgie – Pédiatrique
 Pharmacie Galénique
 Parasitologie
 Radiothérapie
 Psychiatrie
 Endocrinologie
 Pneumo – Phtisiologie
 Biochimie
 Pneumo – Phtisiologie

Octobre 2007

Pr. ABIDI Khalid
 Pr. ACHACHI Ieila
 Pr. ACHOUR Abdessad*
 Pr. AIT HOUSSA Nahdi *
 Pr. ANHAJJI Iarbi *
 Pr. AOUI Sarra
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Réanimation médicale
 Pneumo phtisiologie
 Chirurgie générale
 Chirurgie cardio vasculaire
 Traumatologie orthopédie
 Parasitologie
 Anesthésie réanimation
 Biochimie-chimie
 Pharmacie clinique
 Ophtalmologie
 Pharmacie galénique
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 Chirurgie cardio-vasculaire
 Chirurgie générale
 Anesthésie réanimation
 Psychiatrie
 Chirurgie plastique et réparatrice
 Radiothérapie
 Oncologie médicale
 Dermatologie
 Radiothérapie
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 Réanimation médicale
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 Virologie

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Biochimie-chinie
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 Microbiologie
 Microbiologie
 Radiothérapie
 Chirurgie vasculaire périphérique
 Ophtalmologie
 Chirurgie générale
 Traumatologie-orthopédie
 Parasitologie
 Cardiologie

Nars 2009

Pr. ABOUZAHIR Ali *
 Pr. AGADR Aonar *
 Pr. AIT AII Abdelnounain *
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 Pr. AIIAII Nazik
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Nédecine interne
 Pédiatrie
 Chirurgie Générale
 Neuro-chirurgie
 Radiologie
 Rhumatologie
 Neuro-chirurgie *Directeur Hôp.des Spécialités*
 Anesthésie Réanimation
 Anatomie
 Biochimie-chinie
 Dermatologie
 Chirurgie Générale
 Traumatologie-orthopédie
 Chirurgie Vasculaire Périphérique
 Hématologie clinique
 Chirurgie Générale
 Microbiologie
 Nédecine interne
 Gynécologie obstétrique
 Rhumatologie
 Gastro-entérologie
 Pédiatrie
 Pédiatrie
 Chimie Thérapeutique
 Chirurgie Cardio-vasculaire
 Pédiatrie
 Hématologie biologique
 Chirurgie Générale
 Radiologie
 Cardiologie
 Pneumo-Phtisiologie

Octobre 2010

Pr. AIIIOU Nustapha
Pr. ANEZIANE Taoufiq*
Pr. BEIAGUID Abdelaziz
Pr. CHADII Nariana*
Pr. CHENSI Nohaned*
Pr. DANI Abdellah*
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Pr. EI SAYEGH Hachen
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Pr. IANAINI Najat
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Anesthésie réanimation
Nédecine Interne *Directeur ERSSN*
Physiologie
Microbiologie
Nédecine Aéronautique
Biochimie- Chinie
Radiologie
Chirurgie Pédiatrique
Pédiatrie
RadioLogie
Chirurgie Plastique et Réparatrice
Urologie
Gastro-Entérologie
Anatomie Pathologique
Anesthésie Réanimation
Chirurgie Générale
Hématologie
Anatomie Pathologique

Décembre 2010

Pr. ZNATI Kaoutar

Anatomie Pathologique

Nai 2012

Enseignants Militaires
Pr. ANRANI Abdelouahed
Pr. ABOUEIAIAA Khalil *
Pr. BENCHEBBA Driss *
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Chirurgie pédiatrique
Anesthésie Réanimation
Traumatologie-orthopédie
Anesthésie Réanimation
Chirurgie Générale
Pneumopathologie
Chirurgie Pédiatrique
Anatomie Pathologique
Cardiologie

Février 2013

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Pharmacologie
Toxicologie
Gastro-Entérologie
Anesthésie Réanimation
Anesthésie Réanimation
Réanimation Médicale
Anesthésie Réanimation
Biochimie-Chinie
Hématologie
Informatique Pharmaceutique
Anesthésie Réanimation

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Pr. FIKRI Neryen	Radiologie
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Pr. KABBAJ Hakina	Microbiologie
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Pr. IATIB Rachida	Radiologie
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Pr. NEIHAOUI Adyl	Neuro-chirurgie
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Pr. NEJJARI Rachid	Pharmacognosie
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Pr. OUKABII Nohaned *	Anatomie Pathologique
Pr. RAHAII Younes	Pharmacie Galénique <i>Vice-Doyen à la Pharmacie</i>
Pr. RATBI Ilhan	Génétique
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Pr. REDA Karin *	Ophthalmologie
Pr. REGRAGUI Wafa	Neurologie
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Pr. SAIHOUN Nouna	Gastro-Entérologie
Pr. SAYAH Rochde	Chirurgie Cardio-Vasculaire
Pr. SEDDIK Hassan *	Gastro-Entérologie
Pr. ZERHOUNI Hichan	Chirurgie Pédiatrique

Pr. ZINE Ali *

Traumatologie Orthopédie

AVRIL 2013

Pr. EL KHATIB NOHANED KARIN *

Stomatologie et Chirurgie Maxillo-faciale

MARS 2014

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KHAIED Abdellah

*Chef du Service des Ressources Humaines
FNPR*

** Enseignants Militaires*



Dedications





À

FEU SA MAJESTÉ LE ROI HASSAN II



Que Dieu ait son âme en sa Sainte Miséricorde.





À
SA MAJESTÉ
LE ROI NOHANED VI
Chef Suprême et Chef d'Etat-Major Général des Forces Armées
Royaumes
Roi du NAROC et garant de son intégrité territoriale



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Inspecteur du Service de Santé militaire

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EI Nehdi ZBIR

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Rabat*

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Directeur de l'Ecole Royale du Service de Santé Militaire

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BOUIAHYA Abdelatif

Directeur de l'Hôpital Militaire Avicenne – Naraketch

*En témoignant de notre grand respect et notre profonde
considération*



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Nédecin Chef du 3ème Hôpital de Iaayoune

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Abbreviations



Abbreviations:

PAS	: Psychoactive drug
DSN	: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders
PANSS	: Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale
THC	: Tetrahydrocannabinol
CBD	: Cannabidiol
WHO	: World Health Organization
GABA	: Gamma-aminobutyric acid
CBT	: Cognitive and Behavioral Therapies
CHU	: University Hospital Center



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Introduction



The prevalence of comorbidity of schizophrenia and cannabis use nearly 50% according to epidemiological studies carried out since the early 1990s [1]. This co-occurrence is now the subject of a broad consensus. This interest stems from the various problems posed by this comorbidity, the most frequent of which include:

- More frequent and longer hospitalizations.
- Poor therapeutic adherence and poor compliance.
- An increase in suicidal behaviour.
- An increase in medico-legal acts and aggressive behaviour.
- Social isolation and serious interpersonal problems. [2, 3, 4, 5]

Nationally, mental health and cannabis abuse constitute a real public health problem. More than 200,000 people aged 15 years and over suffer from schizophrenia, and 2.8% suffer from substance dependence, or 2% of the general population. However, studies on associations between cannabis addiction and mental illnesses are very rare, according to a survey carried out in 2005 among 93 patients hospitalized at Arrazi Hospital in Salé, and which revealed that cannabis is the first drug consumed in 41.3% of the mentally ill. [6, 7]

The pathophysiological processes of both schizophrenia and cannabis addiction comorbidity are poorly understood.

The pathophysiological processes of schizophrenia and drug addiction comorbidity are poorly understood. Current research is directed towards the study of the brain mechanisms and structures that are common to these two conditions, in particular those involving the endo-cannabinoid system. In the literature, three main models have been proposed to account for the frequency of this comorbidity:

1. The self-medication model, which suggests that the schizophrenic may resort to PAS to relieve certain key symptoms, such as negative symptoms

2. The vulnerability model, according to which drug addiction is a triggering factor for latent psychoses and an aggravating factor for manifest psychoses..

3. The common factors model, according to which factors common to psychosis and drug addiction (examples: personality, environment, genes, neurotransmitters, etc.) are at the origin of psychosis and drug addiction [8; 9; 10; 11; 12]

Given the availability of psychoactive substances in our country and the importance of their consumption in schizophrenic patients, especially cannabis, we previously conducted this study, the objectives of which are as follows:

Determine the prevalence of this comorbidity

Understand this comorbidity and determine its risk factors

Assess the consequences of this comorbidity on the progressive course of schizophrenia

Propose recommendations for the prevention and treatment of drug addiction behaviour in schizophrenic patients.



NateriaI and Nethods



I. Type of study:

Our cross-sectional study about 160 cases, carried out at the psychiatric hospital Arrazi in Sale, CHU ibn Sina of Rabat, over a period of 12 months, from October 2019 to October 2020. It is for descriptive and analytical purposes.

II. Population:

This is a sample of 160 patients in whom the diagnosis of schizophrenia is retained according to DSN IV criteria.

1. Sample size:

To calculate the sample, it was necessary to take into account the prevalence of schizophrenia. The size is obtained by the following formula:

$$N = P (1-P) (Z_x / D)$$

- N: sample size
- P: Prevalence of schizophrenia according to the literature
- Z_x: Degree of confidence
- D: range of inprecision in the literature (1%) and the desired precision (5%).

2. Inclusion criteria:

Schizophrenic patients diagnosed according to DSN IV.

Patients stabilized in preparation for discharge

3. Exclusion criteria:

Lack of consent.

Severely disorganized or deficient and unstable patients.

III. Data intake form:

The Data intake form made it possible to collect characteristic information of each patient. It is made up of 2 sections:

❖ **The first section consists of five parts:** (Annex 1)

- The first part provides information on the socio-demographic characteristics of the patient.
- The second part provides information the patient's personal and family history.
- The third part provides information about the disease (schizophrenia).
- The fourth part provides information on the patient's substance use.
- The fifth part constitutes an evaluation of the repercussions of the use of cannabis on the patient user.

❖ **The second section consists of two scales:**

- **Positive and Negative Symptom Scale (PANSS) :** (Annex 2)

It is a scale for evaluating the intensity of positive and negative syndromes. It was developed from two existing scales: the Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS) and the Psychopathology Rating Scale (PRS). It has been the subject of numerous validation studies. Kay et al., In 1987, confirmed excellent inter-rater reliability and good internal consistency as well as satisfactory test-retest reliability. [13]

It is made up of 30 items each with a specific definition as well as detailed criteria corresponding to 7 psychopathological levels of increasing severity. These 30 items are divided into three subscales:

- **Positive scale:**

Containing 7 items corresponding to a positive syndrome (such as delirium, hallucinations, conceptual disorganization, excitement ...)

- **Negative scale:**

Also comprising 7 items corresponding to a negative syndrome (such as social withdrawal, emotional dullness, stereotypical thinking ...)

- **General psychopathological scale:**

Containing 16 items, which cannot be linked specifically to one of the two syndromes above (such as anxiety, depression, attention and focus disturbances...).

The rating of each item goes from 1 to 7 depending on its intensity:

- We score (1) if the symptom is absent.
- We score (2) if the symptom is minimal.
- We score (3) if the symptom is mild.
- We score (4) if the symptom has a moderate intensity.
- We score (5) if the symptom is moderately severe.
- We score (6) if the symptom is severe.
- We score (7) if the symptom has an extreme intensity.

The total PANSS score corresponds to the sum of the scores on the various previous subscales: Positive score + Negative score + General psychopathological score.

A high total score suggests a great severity of the disease and therefore a more important productive and deficient symptomatology. [13]

- **Cannabis Abuse Screening Test (CAST): (Annex 3)**

The Cannabis Abuse Screening Test (CAST) is a tool that for spotting cannabis misuse developed since 2002 by the European monitoring center for drugs and drug addiction (EMCDDA). Designed from the main criteria of determining abuse and harmful use from DSM - IV and ICD 10 diagnoses, it aims to provide a description and an estimation of the problematic uses in epidemiological investigations in the general population. [14]

The CAST is a 6-item scale, each of which describes the use behaviors or the problems encountered in the context of cannabis use. The test has undergone several changes and its current version was not final until 2006.

In this final version, the test has five questions that focus on:

- Use in the morning or alone, that is to say assumed outside a festive context
- Possible memory problems
- Being encouraged to reduce or stop using it
- Failures in attempts to stop
- Problems such as fights, accidents ... following cannabis use.
- Interpretation of the CAST test: [14]
- Score <3 : User without risk
- score [3-7] : User at low risk
- score ≥ 7 : User at high risk

IV. Data to be collected:

Information was collected at the end of the interview with patients, by resident physicians in psychiatry.

V. Ethical considerations:

The ethical consideration was respected, namely the anonymity and confidentiality of the information noted in the patient files.

VI. Statistical methods:

The software used in the study is SPSS 26.0. The statistical analysis was based on two methods:

- **A descriptive analysis with two variables: qualitative and quantitative.**

For the qualitative variables, we used percentages.

For the quantitative variables, we used average and standard deviations.

- **A bivariate analysis: the performance of this analysis called for statistic tests in particular:**

The student test to compare two means.

One-way analysis of variance for comparing multiple means..

The chi-square test for comparing percentages. When the conditions for applying the chi-square test were absent, we used Fisher's exact test.



Results



I. Descriptive analysis:

1. Sociodenographic characteristics of patients:

1.1. Age

The mean age of our patients is 28 years (± 9.4 years), with a predominance of the age group between 16 and 25 years old. (Figure 1)

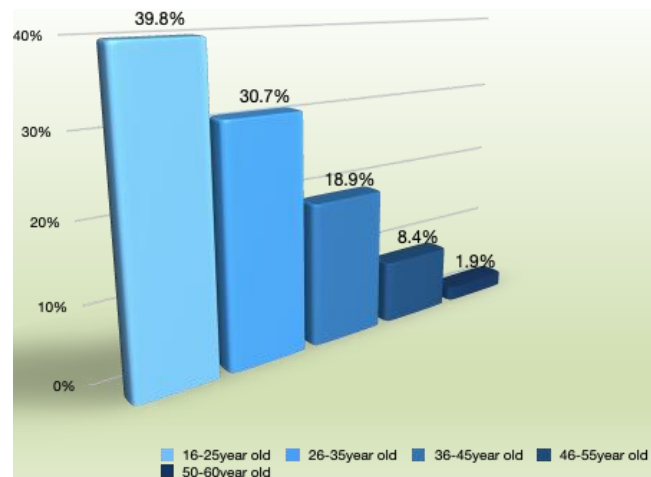


Figure 1: Distribution of patients by age

1.2. Gender:

79.7% (n = 127) of patients were male with sex ratio 4N / 1W. (Figure 2)

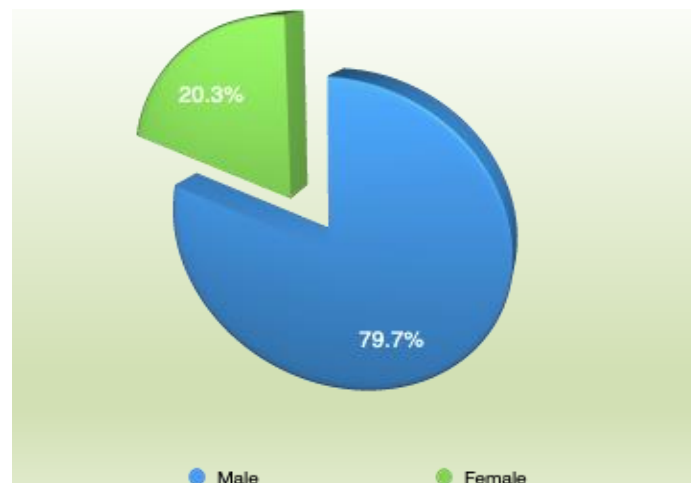


Figure 2: Distribution of patients by sex

1.3. Marital status:

60.7% (n = 97) of patients are single. (Figure 3)

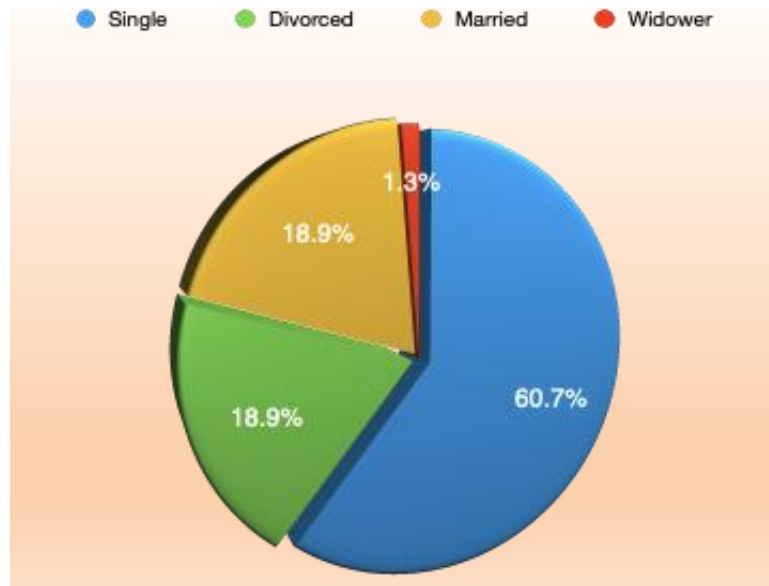


Figure 3: Distribution of patients by marital status

1.4. Professional status:

56.8% of patients (n = 91) were manual workers. (Figure 4)

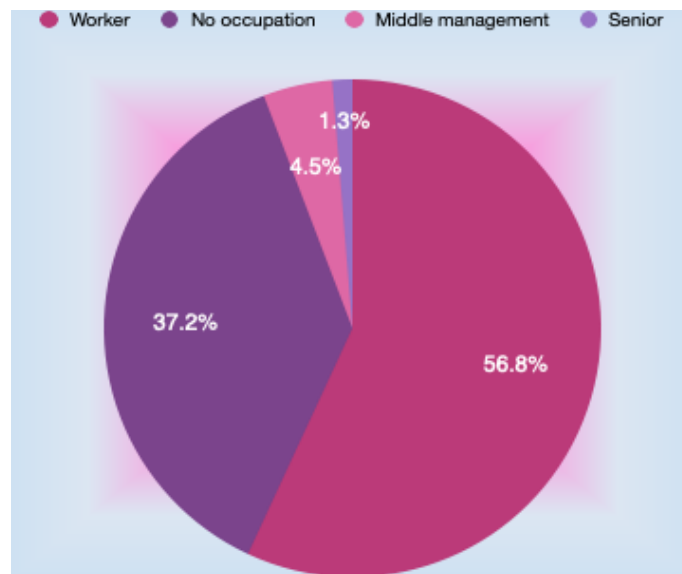


Figure 4: Distribution of patients by professional status

1.5. Economic level:

2/3 of patients (n = 109, or 67.9%) had a low monthly income, not exceeding 2000DH. (Figure 5)

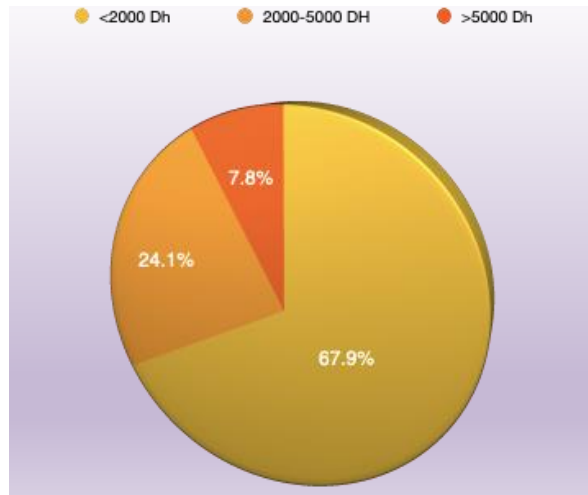


Figure 5: Distribution of patients by economic level

1.6. Educational level:

The education level of 2/3 of the patients (n = 114 or 71.2%) did not exceed the primary level. (Figure 6)

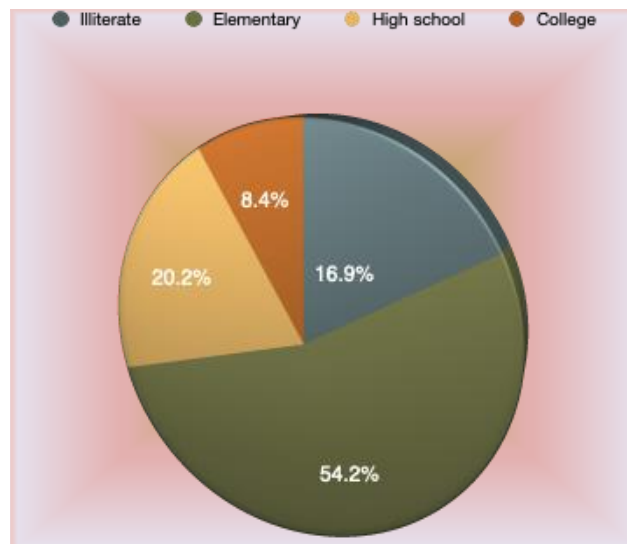


Figure 6: Distribution of patients by level of education

1.7. Geographic origin:

2/3 of the patients (n=110) were of rural origin. (Figure 7)

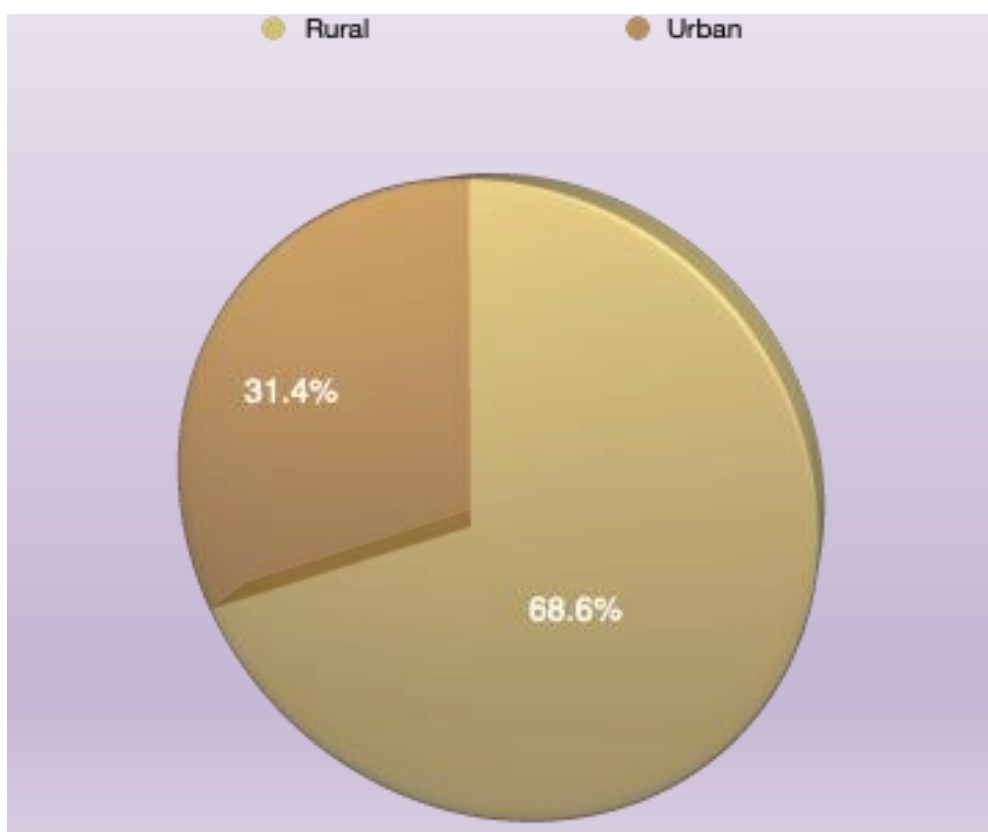


Figure 7: Distribution of patients by geographic origin

Table I : Studied population's sociodemographic characteristic

Characteristics	Numbers	Percentage
Age:		
16-25 years	64	39.8%
26-35 years	49	30.7%
36-45 years	30	18.9%
46-55 years	14	8.4%
56-60 years	3	1.9%
Gender:		
male	127	79.7%
-Feminine	33	20.3%
Marital status:		
Single	97	60.7%
married	30	18.9%
Divorced	30	18.9%
Widower	3	1.3%
Professional status:		
Worker	91	56.8%
No occupation	60	37.2%
Intermediate management	7	4.5%
Senior	2	1.3%
Socio-economic level:		
<2000 Dh	109	67.9%
2000 - 5000 Dh	39	24.1%
> 5000 Dh	12	7.8%
Education level:		
Illiterate	27	16.9%
Primary	87	54.2%
Secondary	33	20.2%
Superior	13	8.4%
Geographic origin:		
Rural	110	68.6%
Urban	50	31.4%

2. Personal and family history:

2.1. Personal past history:

a. Distribution of personal past history

Personal medical history was the most represented in our study:

in 22.8% (n = 36), with type 2 diabetes in 17 cases and high blood pressure in 14 cases. (Figure 8)

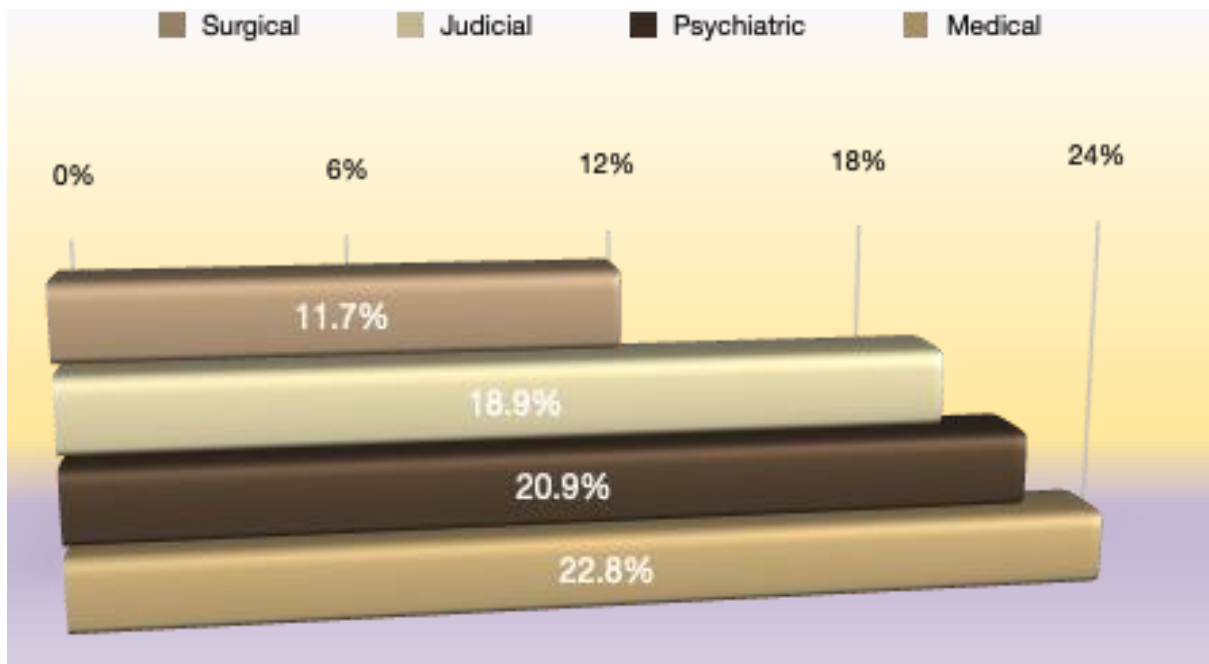


Figure 8: Distribution of patients by personal history

b. Psychiatric history:

13.7% of cases (n = 22) have at least a history of attempted suicide (Figure 9).

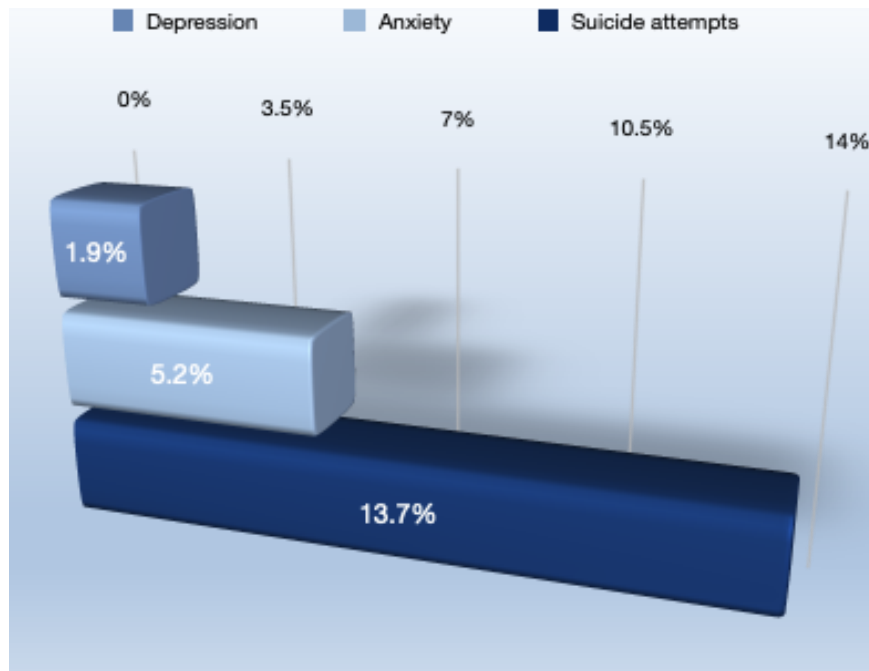


Figure 9: The psychiatric past history of patients

Drug's auto intoxication was the most common nodality in 11.1% (n=17) (Figure 10).

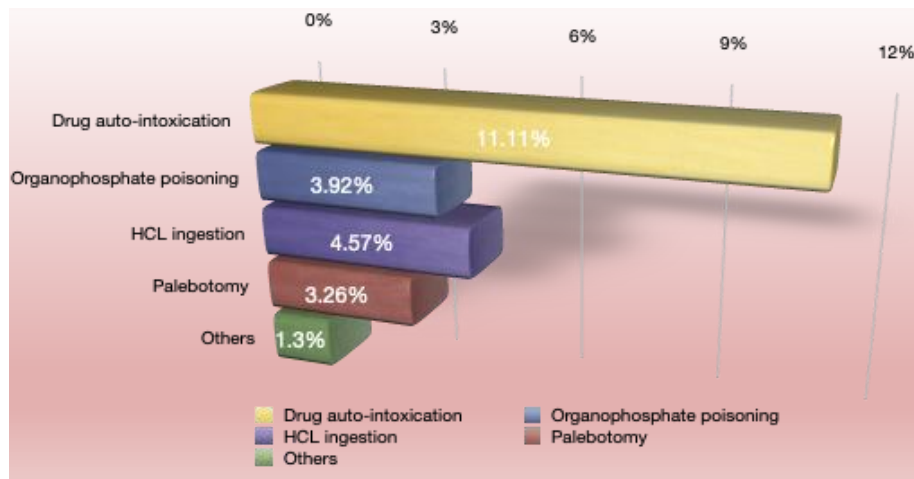


Figure 10: The nodalities of suicide attempts

c. Criminal record:

18.9% (n=30) of patients have at least one criminal history, the most common cause of incarceration in our study was hetero-aggression in 11.76% (n=18) (Figure 11).

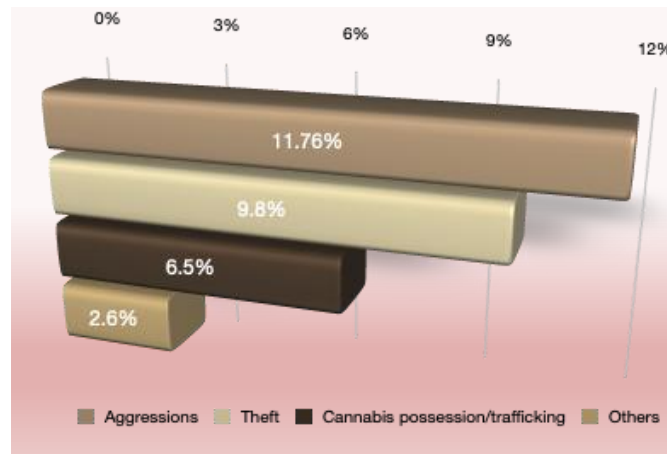


Figure 11: Distribution according to the causes of imprisonment

d. The number of hospitalizations

23.5% (n = 37) have less than 3 hospitalizations, and 15% (n = 24) have more than 9 hospitalizations (Figure 12).

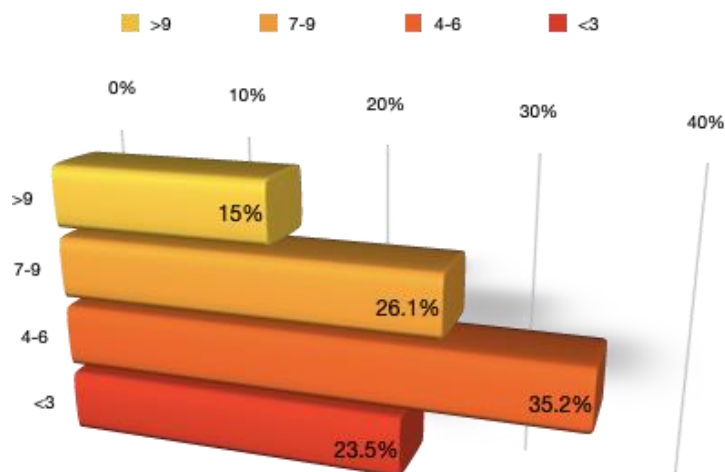


Figure 12: Past history of hospitalizations

e. The average duration of hospitalizations:

Half of the patients had an average hospital stay of more than 15 days (50.3%, n =81) (Figure13).

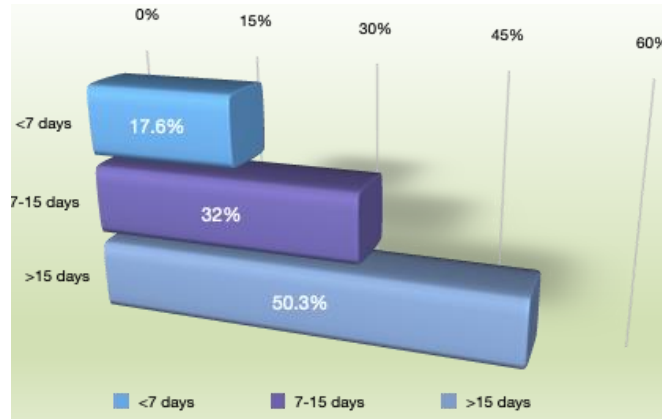


Figure 13: Distribution of patients according to the average length of hospitalization

2.2. Family history:

a. Psychiatric history:

One third of the patients had a psychiatric family history (n =48 or 30%), schizophrenia was the most common one in 8.49% (n = 13) (Figure 14)

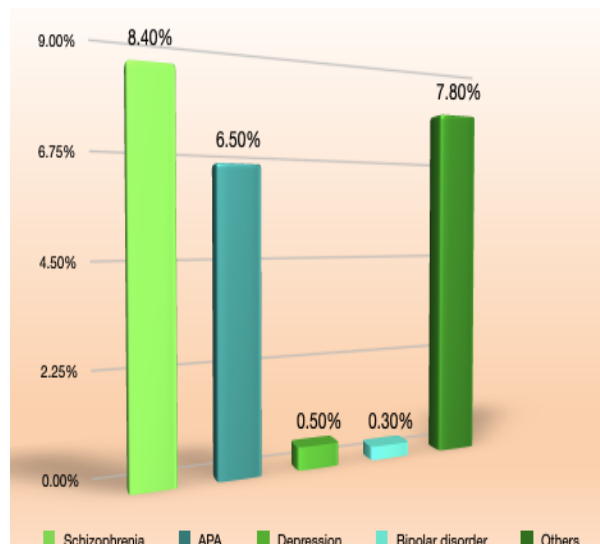


Figure 14: Distribution of patients according to the psychiatric history of their families.

b. History of drug abuse in the family

75.8% (n = 121) have a history of drug abuse in the family, with a predominance of tobacco consumption in 73.2% followed by cannabis in 34.6% (Figure 15).

In 65.9% the consumption of drugs was in front of the patient.

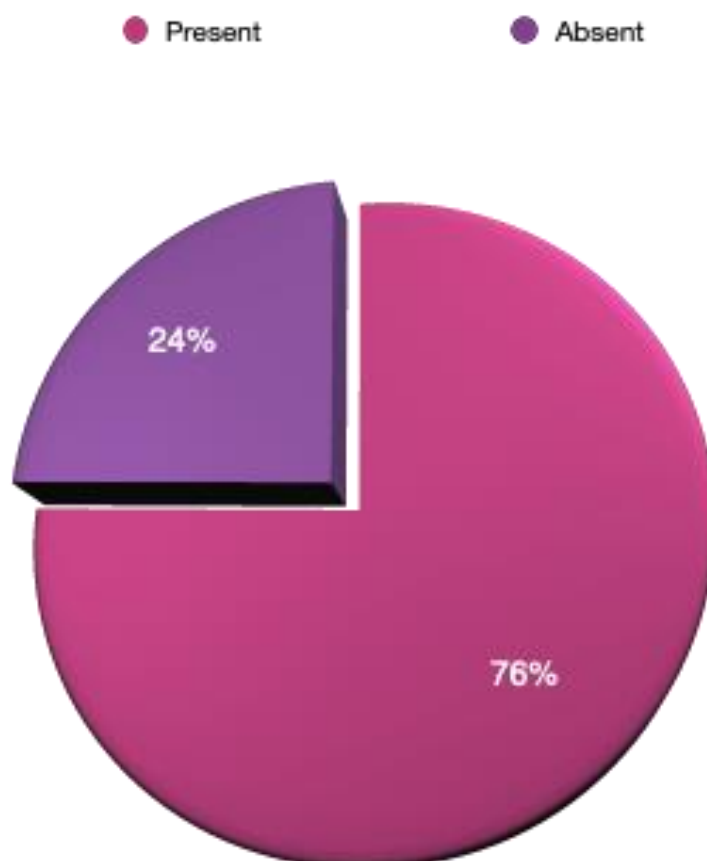


Figure 15: Distribution of patients by family history of drug addiction

Table II : Personal and Family History of Patients

Characteristics	Numbers	Percentage
Personal history:		
Medical	36	22.8%
Surgical	19	11.7%
Psychiatric	33	20.9%
Judicial	30	18.9%
Psychiatric history:		
Anxiety disorders	8	5.2
Depression	3	1.9
Suicide attempts	22	13.7
History of hospitalization:		
<3	37	23.5%
4-6	56	35.2%
7-9	41	26.1%
> 9	24	15%
Average length of hospitalizations:		
<7 days	28	17.6%
[7-15 days]	51	32%
> 15 days	81	50.3%
Psychiatric history family:		
Schizophrenia		
APA	13	8.49%
Depression	10	6.5%
Bipolar disorder	8	5.2%
Imprecise	5	3.2%
	12	7.8%
The family history of drug addiction:		
Present	121	75.8%
Absent	39	24.2%

3. The clinical and therapeutic characteristics of schizophrenia in the study population:

3.1. The age of onset:

The average age of onset of schizophrenia in our study is 22.8 years (± 3.4 years) (Figure 16).

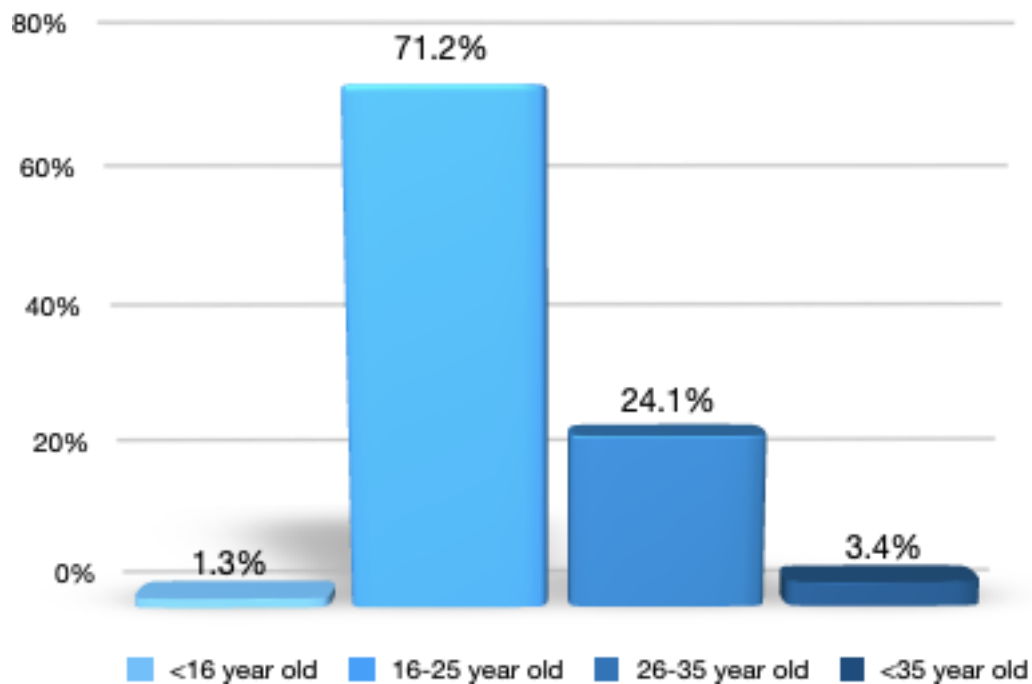


Figure 16: Distribution of patients by age of onset of Schizophrenia

3.2. The start node:

The node of onset was progressive in 71.2% of patients (n=114) (Figure17).

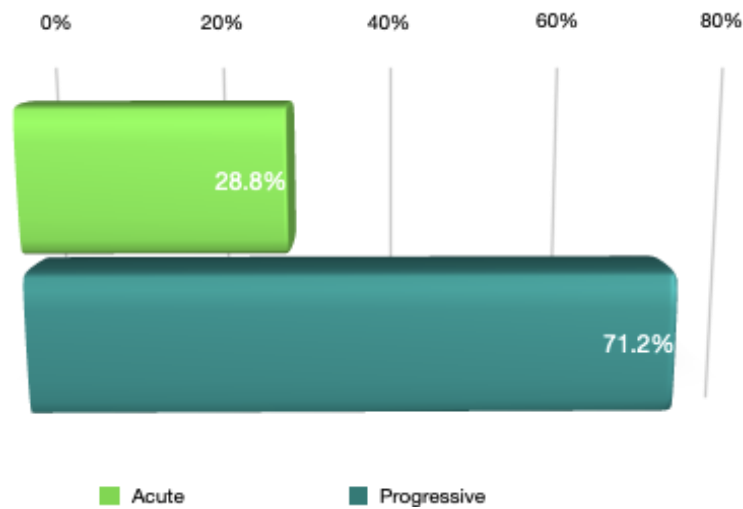


Figure 17: Distribution of patients according to the node of onset of schizophrenia

3.3. Clinical forms:

Paranoid schizophrenia is the most common clinical form in our patients in 73.8% (n=118). (Figure 18)

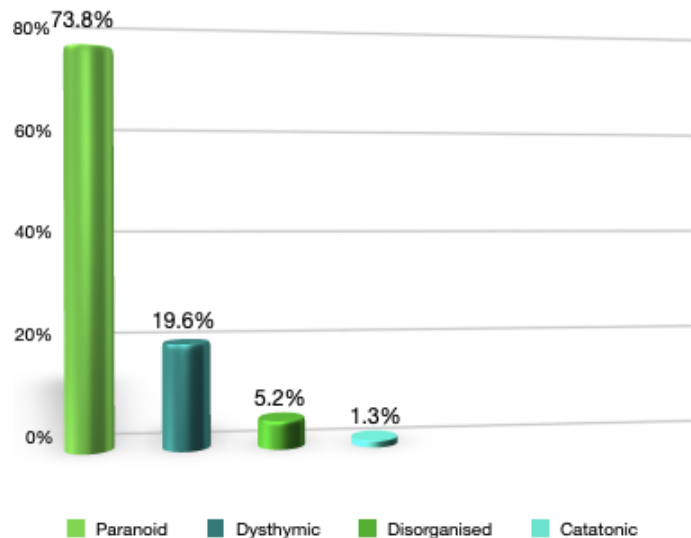


Figure 18: Distribution of patients by type of schizophrenia

3.4. Positive symptoms:

24.8% (n=40) of patients had severe positive psychotic symptoms (Figure19).

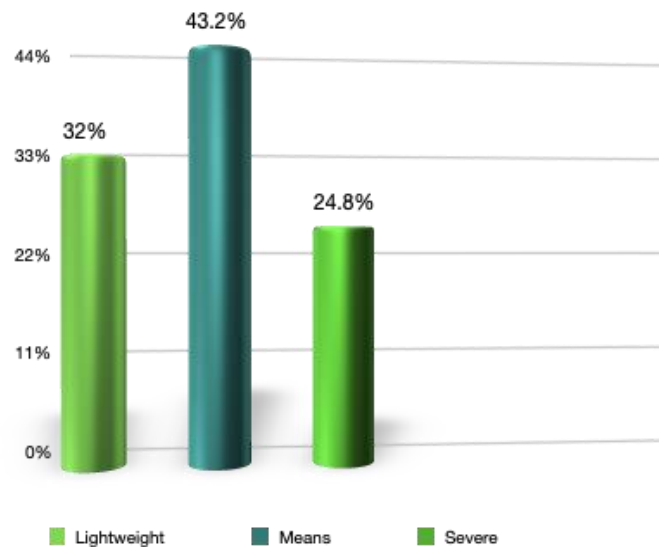


Figure 19: Distribution of patients according to positive symptoms

3.5. Negative symptoms:

43.8% (n = 70) of patients had mild negative psychotic symptoms (Figure 20).

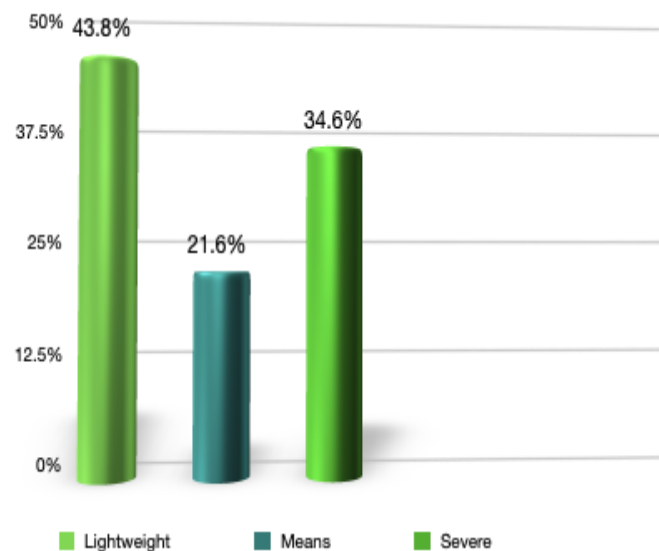


Figure 20: Distribution of patients according to negative symptoms

3.6. Therapeutic care:

66.7% (n = 107) of the patients were on conventional neuroleptics (Figure 21).

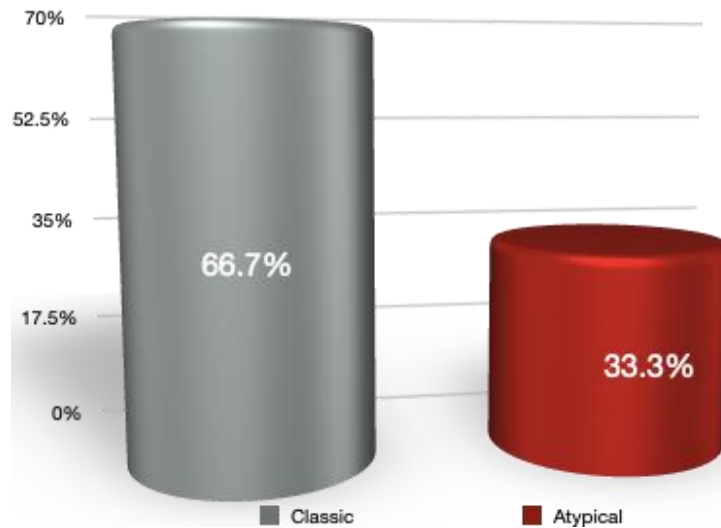


Figure 21: Distribution of patients according to type of neuroleptics

Anxiolytics were the most used in combination with neuroleptics in our study population (n = 95 or 59.4%) (Figure 22).

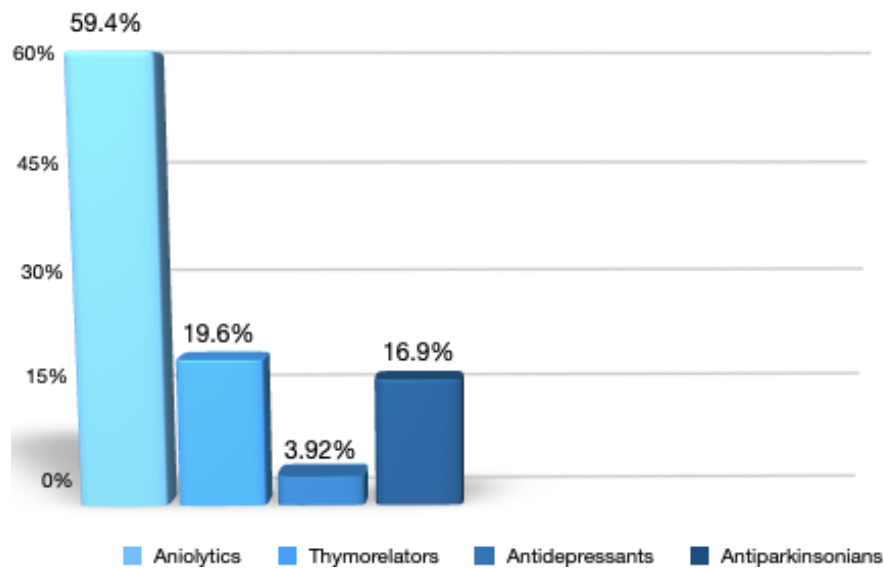


Figure 22: Distribution of patients according to treatments associated with neuroleptics

3.7. Therapeutic compliance:

63.7% (n = 101) of patients had a bad treatment adherence (Figure 23).

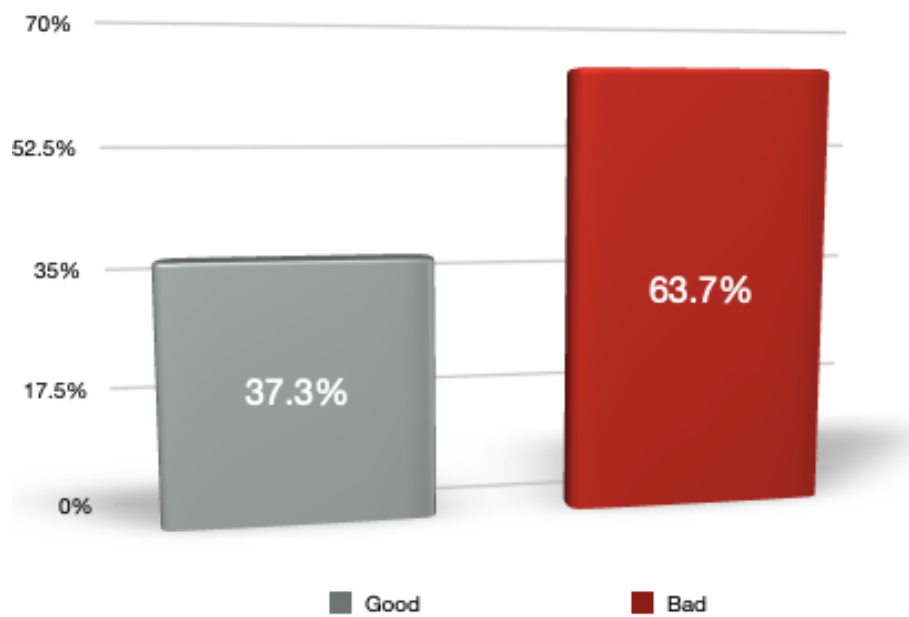


Figure 23: Distribution of patients according to the therapeutic compliance

Table III : Clinical and therapeutic characteristics of schizophrenia:

Characteristics	Number	Percentage
Age of onset:		
<16 years	2	1.3%
[16-25]	114	71.2%
[26-35]	39	24.1%
> 35	5	3.4%
Start node:		
Acute	46	28.8%
Progressive	114	71.2%
Clinical form:		
Paranoid	118	73.8%
Dysthynic	32	19.6%
Disorganized	8	5.2%
Catatonic	2	1.3%
Positive symptoms:		
lightweight	51	32%
Neans	69	43.2%
Severe	40	24.8%
Negative symptoms:		
light	70	43.8%
Neans	35	21.6%
Severe	55	34.6%
Neuroleptics used:		
Classic	107	66.7%
Atypical	53	33.3%
Therapeutic observance:		
Good	59	37.3%
Bad	101	63.7%

4. Characteristics of the use of psychoactive drugs in the study population:

4.1. Prevalence of cannabis's use:

64.7% (n = 103) of patients are users of cannabis in our study population (Figure24).

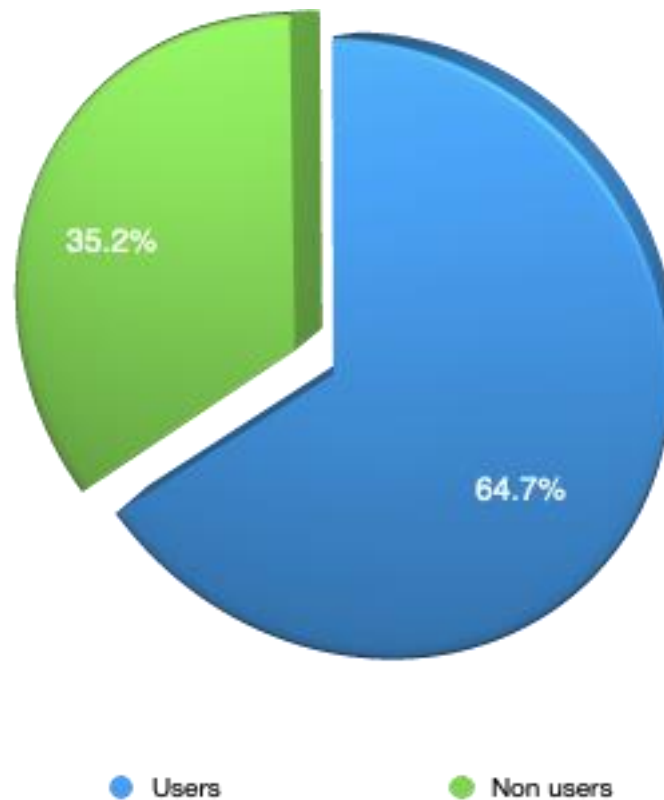


Figure 24: Distribution of patients according to the use of cannabis

4.2. Age of onset:

The mean age of onset of cannabis use was 18.2 years $\pm$ 6.3 years, the peak age of onset is between 16 and 25 years (Figure 25).

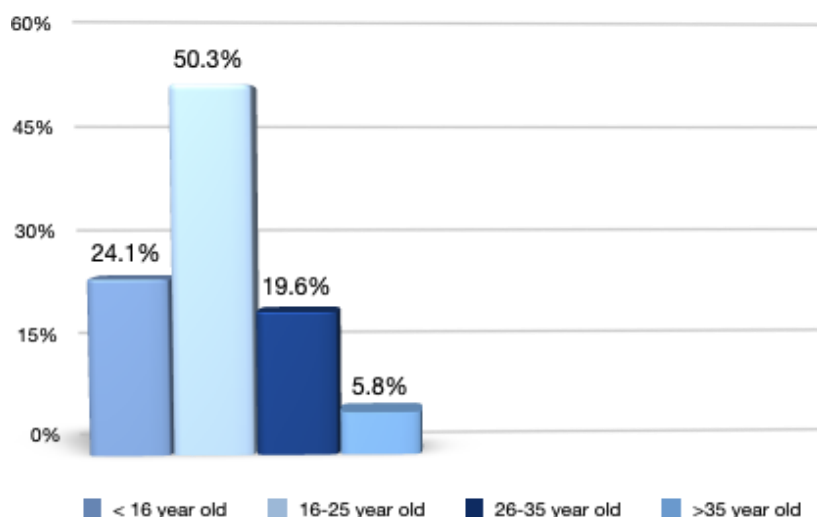


Figure 25: Distribution of patients by age of onset of cannabis use.

4.3. The other consumed substances:

Tobacco (64.7%) is the most consumed PSA by our patients (Figure 26).

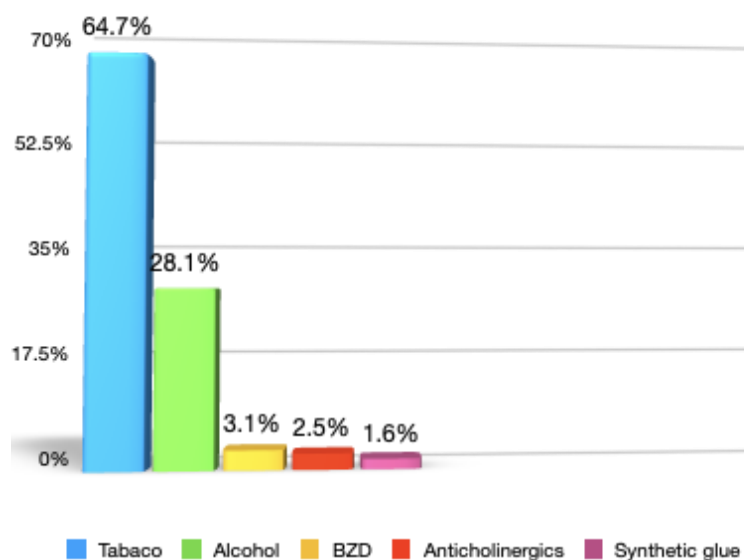


Figure 26: Distribution of patients according to consumption of other PAS

4.4. Dependency scores: Cannabis: CAST Test

27.4% (n = 43) of patients had high risk of cannabis dependence, according to the CAST test (Figure 27).

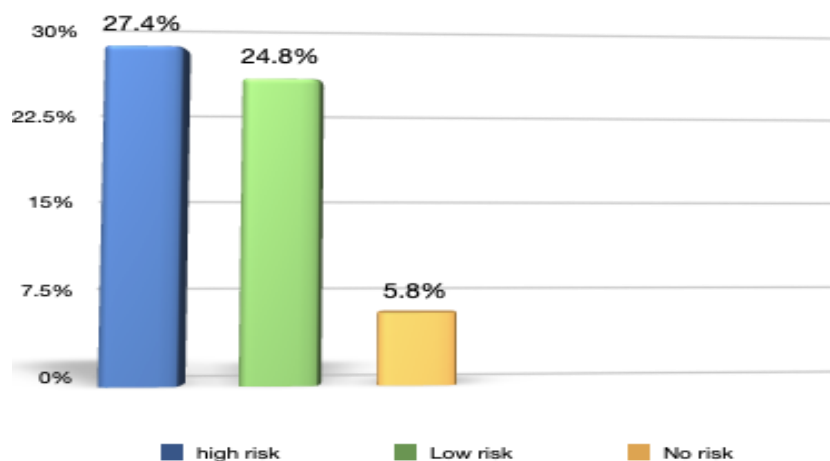


Figure 27: Distribution of patients according to the risk of cannabis dependence

4.5. Onset of cannabis use vs onset of the disease:

The use of cannabis preceded the onset of schizophrenia in 60.5% (n = 97) ((Figure31).

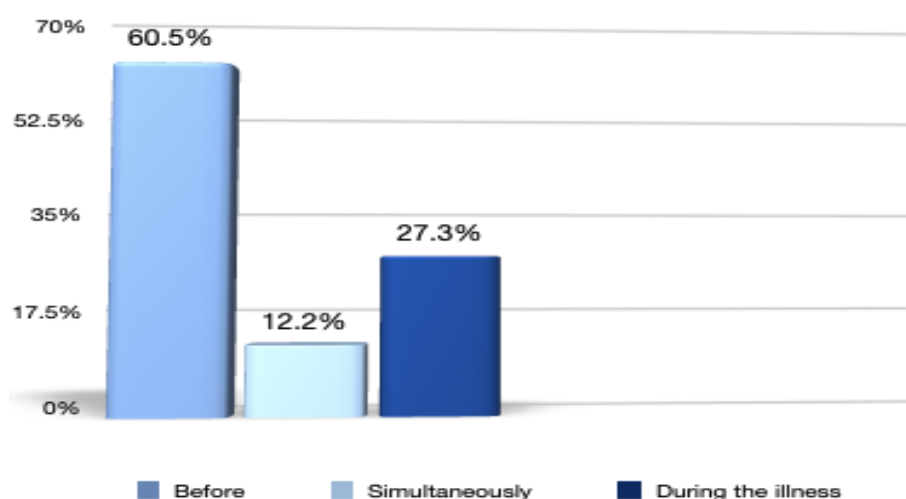


Figure 28: Distribution of patients according to onset of cannabis use vs the onset of schizophrenia

4.6. Neans of obtaining cannabis:

The source of money for the purchase of cannabis is work for 38.56% of patients (n=61) (Figure 29).

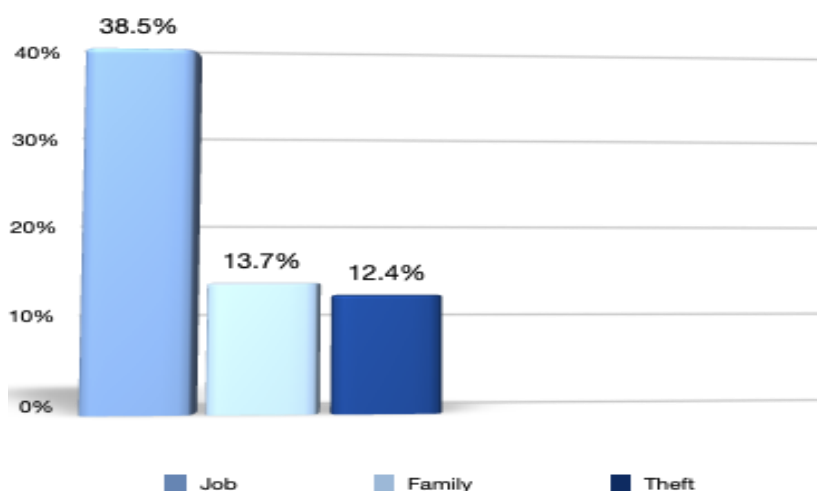


Figure 29: Distribution of patients by means of getting cannabis

4.7. The effects sought by the consumption of cannabis:

Euphoria is the most desired effect by the consumption of cannabis in 28.1% of cases (n=45) (Figure33).

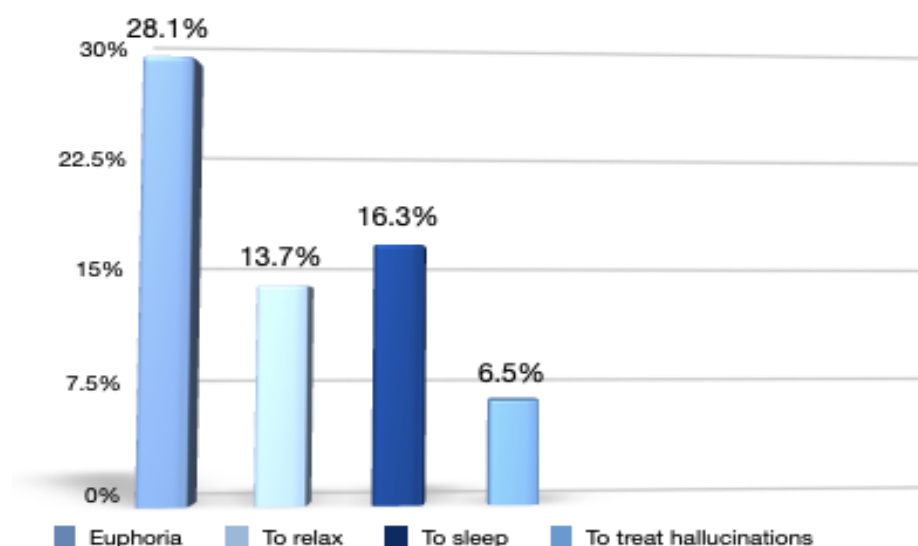


Figure 30: Distribution of patients according to the effects sought by cannabis

Table IV : Characteristics of drug use in the population studied

Characteristics	Nunbers	Percentage
Prevalence:		
Users	103	64.7%
Non users	57	35.2%
Age of onset:		
<16 years	39	24.1%
[16-25 years old]	81	50.3%
[26-35 years]	31	19.6%
> 35 years old	9	5.8%
Other used Drugs:		
Tobacco	104	64.7%
Alcohol	44	28.1%
BZD	5	3.1%
Anticholinergics	4	2.5%
Synthetic glue	3	1.6%
Anteriority of the use compared to the sickness:		
Before	97	60.5%
Simultaneously	20	12.2%
During illness	43	27.3%
Source of the money for the purchase of cannabis:		
Job	61	38.5%
Family	22	13.7%
Theft	20	12.4%
Others	57	35.4%
The desired effects:		
Euphoria	45	28.1%
Relax, unwind	22	13.7%
To sleep	26	16.3%
Treat hallucinations	10	6.5%
Others	57	35.4%

II. Bivariate analysis:

1. Correlation between the use of SPA and socio-demographic characteristics of the study population:

1.1. The link between the use of cannabis and gender:

The rate of cannabis consumption was very high in male patients ($p = 0.002$) (Figure 31)

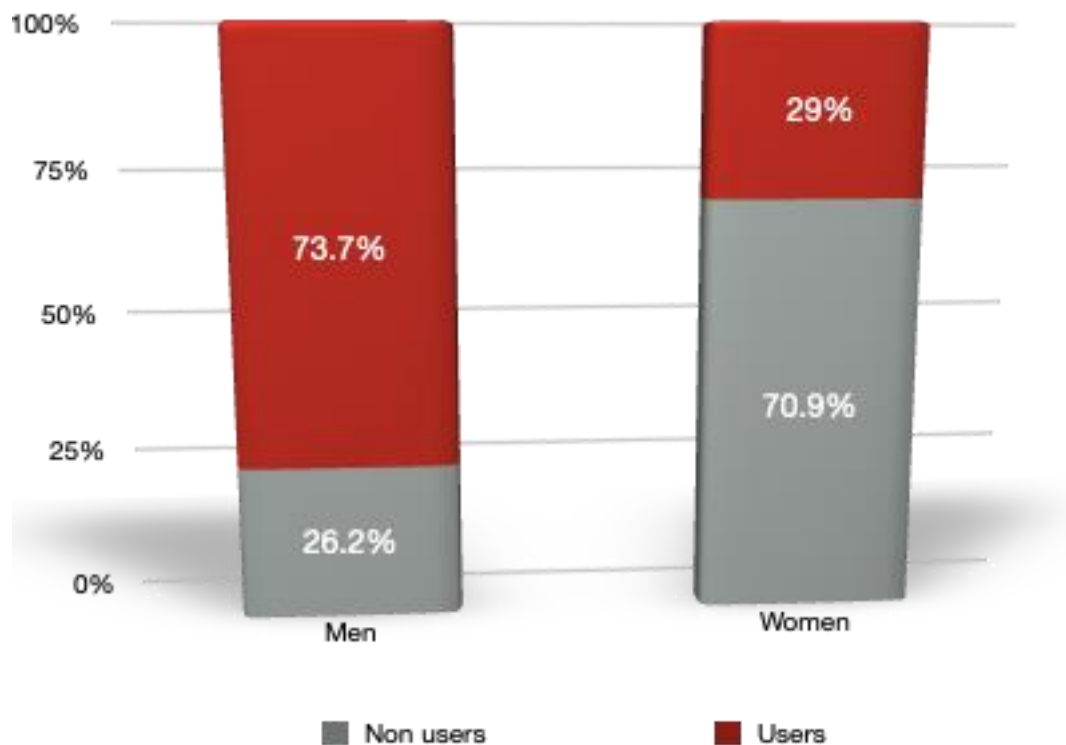


Figure 31: Cannabis use consumption and gender

1.2. Correlation between cannabis use and marital status:

79.3% of divorced patients and 69.8% of single patients are cannabis users (Figure32).

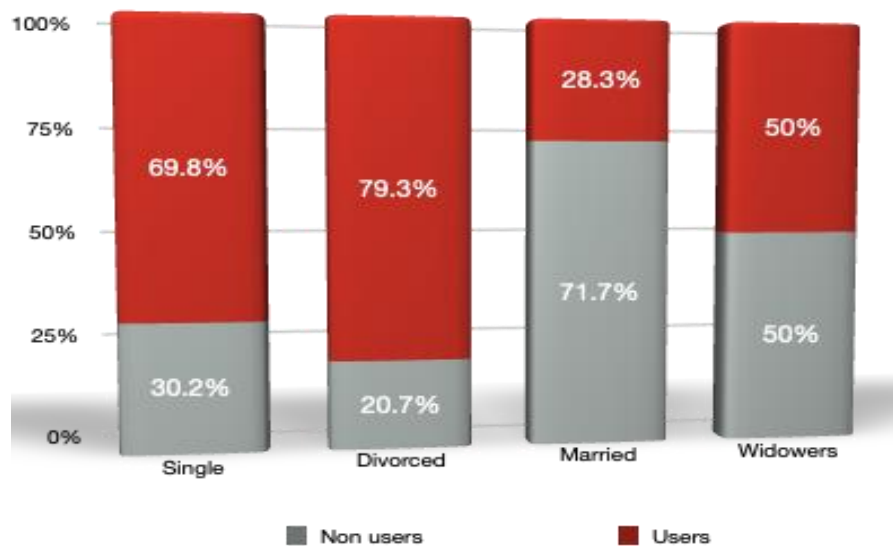


Figure 32: Cannabis use and marital status.

1.3. The link between the use of cannabis and geographic origin:

The rate of cannabis consumption was very high in patients of rural origins ($p=0.109$) (Figure36).

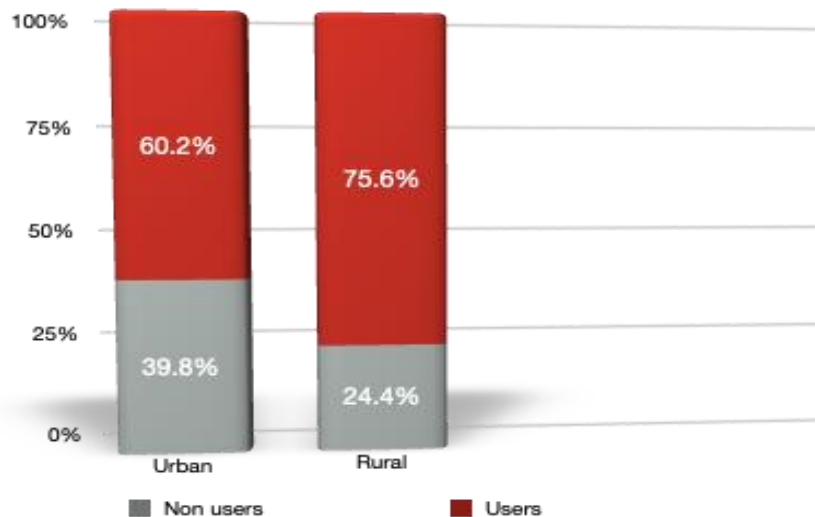


Figure 33: Cannabis use and the geographic origin.

1.4. Link between cannabis use and the level of education:

We were unable to study the relationship between the cannabis use and the level of education because the minimum number of required in the attributes to perform the analyses was not reached (Table I)

Table V : Relationship between the cannabis use and the school level:

Education level	Cannabis use	Numbers	percentage
Illiterate	Yes	19	69.3%
	No	8	30.7%
Primary	Yes	55	63.8%
	No	30	36.2%
Secondary	Yes	13	38.7%
	No	21	61.3%
Superior	Yes	4	38.5%
	No	7	61.5%

1.5. Correlation between the cannabis use and professional status:

The majority of patients using cannabis are jobless compared to the non-users ($p = 0.107$) (Figure 34)

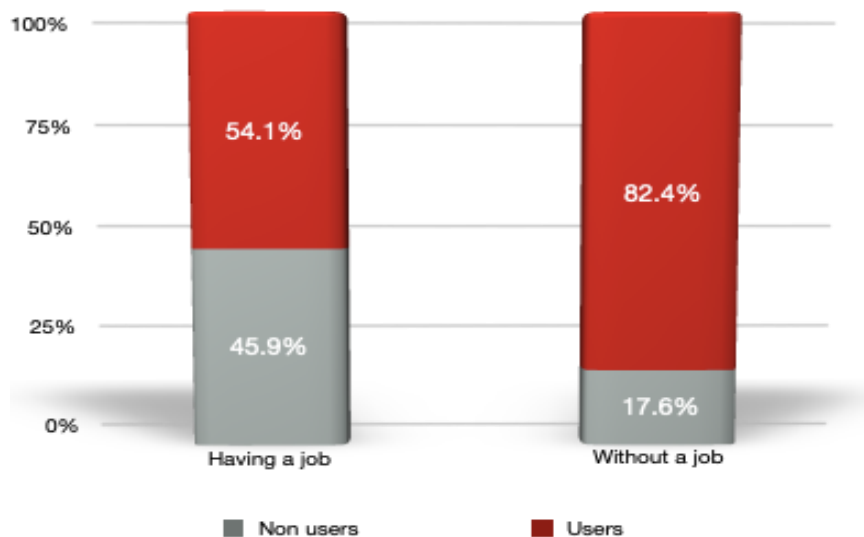


Figure 34: Cannabis use and professional status

2. Correlation between the cannabis use and the personal history of the patients:

2.1. Correlation between the cannabis use and the criminal record:

Patients using cannabis had a greater criminal history than clean patients ($p = 0.005$) (Figure 35).

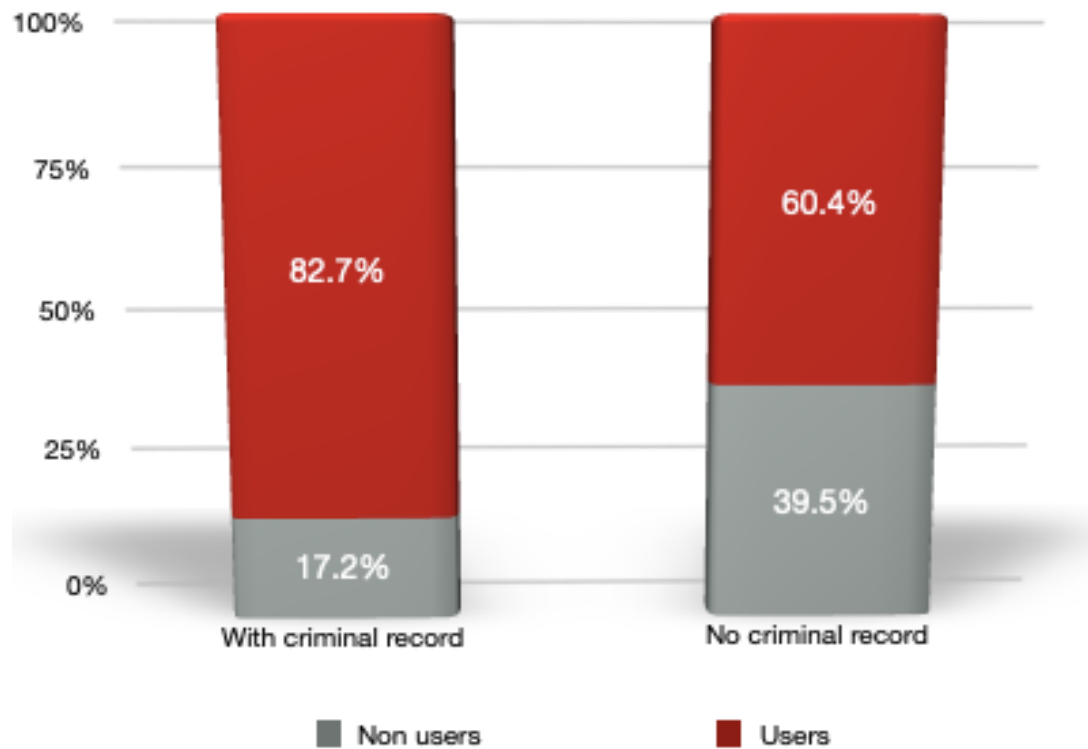


Figure 35: cannabis use and criminal record

2.2. Correlation between the cannabis use and the history of suicide attempts:

Patients using cannabis had a greater history of suicide attempts than non-users ($p = 0.009$) (Figure 36)

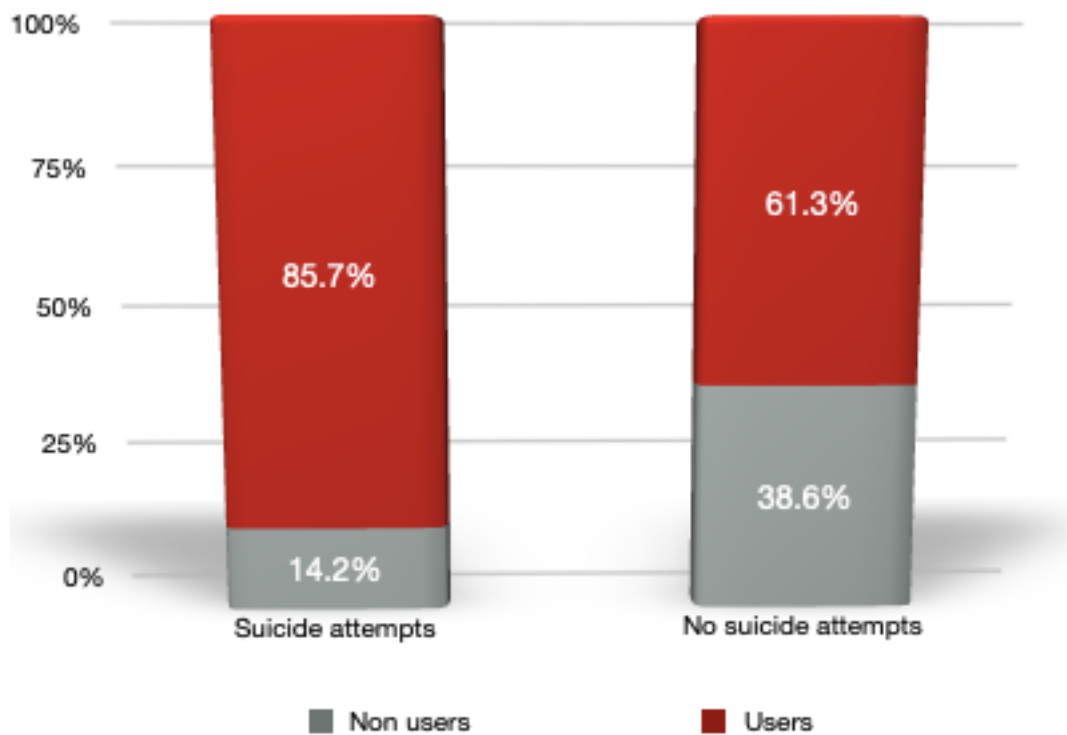


Figure 36: Cannabis use and suicide attempts history.

2.3. Correlation between the cannabis use and number of hospitalizations:

Patients using cannabis had been hospitalized more often than non-user patients ($p=0.011$) (Figure 37)

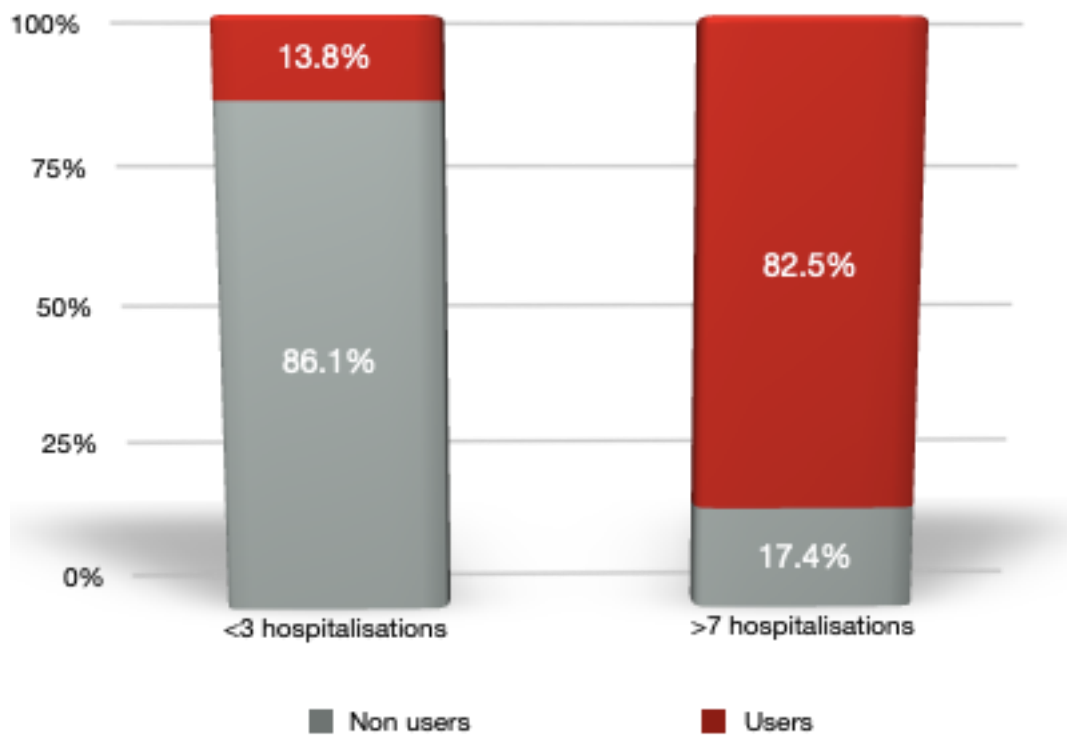


Figure 37: Cannabis use and number of hospitalizations

2.4. Correlation between the cannabis use and the duration of hospitalizations:

Patients using cannabis had longer hospitalizations than non-user patients ($p=0.013$) (Figure38).

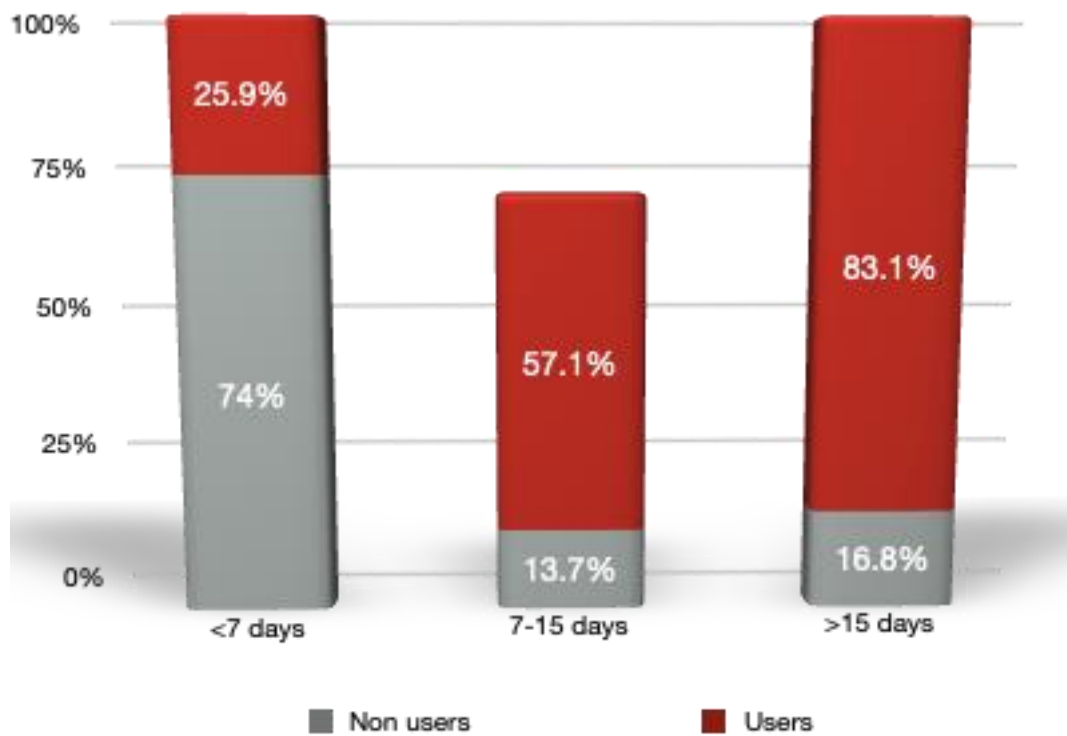


Figure 38: Cannabis use and duration of hospitalizations.

2.5. Correlation between the cannabis use and the clinical and therapeutic characteristics of schizophrenia in the study population:

2.5.1. Correlation between cannabis use and age of onset of schizophrenia:

Patients using cannabis had an early age of onset of schizophrenia compared to non-user patients (Table II).

Table VI : Relationship between the cannabis use and the onset age of schizophrenia:

	Cannabis users	Clean patients
Schizophrenia's average onset age	21.4 years	23.4 years

2.5.2. Correlation between cannabis use and node of onset of schizophrenia:

Patients using cannabis had an acute onset of schizophrenia compared to non-users ($p = 0.302$) (Figure 39).

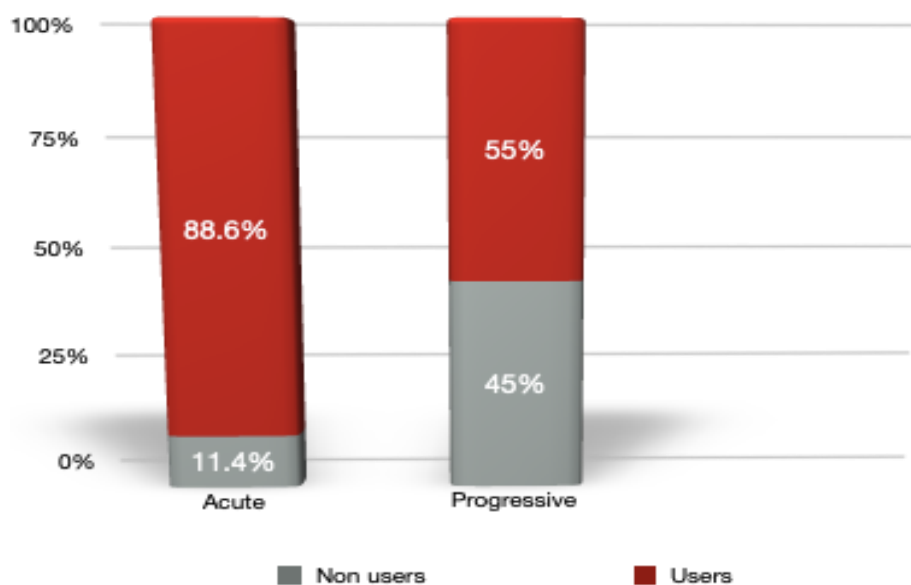


Figure 39: Cannabis use and node of onset of schizophrenia.

2.5.3. Correlation between the cannabis use and the clinical form of schizophrenia:

A significant relationship was not found between the cannabis use and the clinical form of schizophrenia (Figure 40).

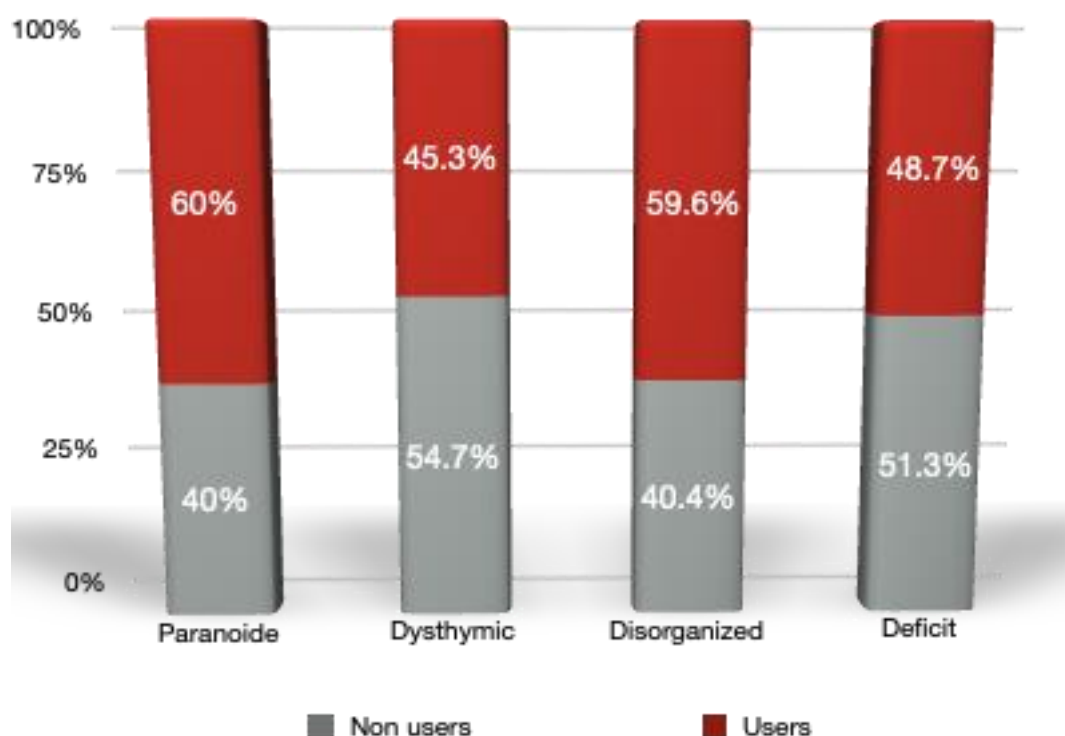


Figure 40: Cannabis use and clinical forms of schizophrenia

2.5.4. Correlation between cannabis use and positive psychotic symptoms:

Patients using cannabis had more severe positive psychotic symptoms than non-user patients ($p = 0.142$) (Figure 41).

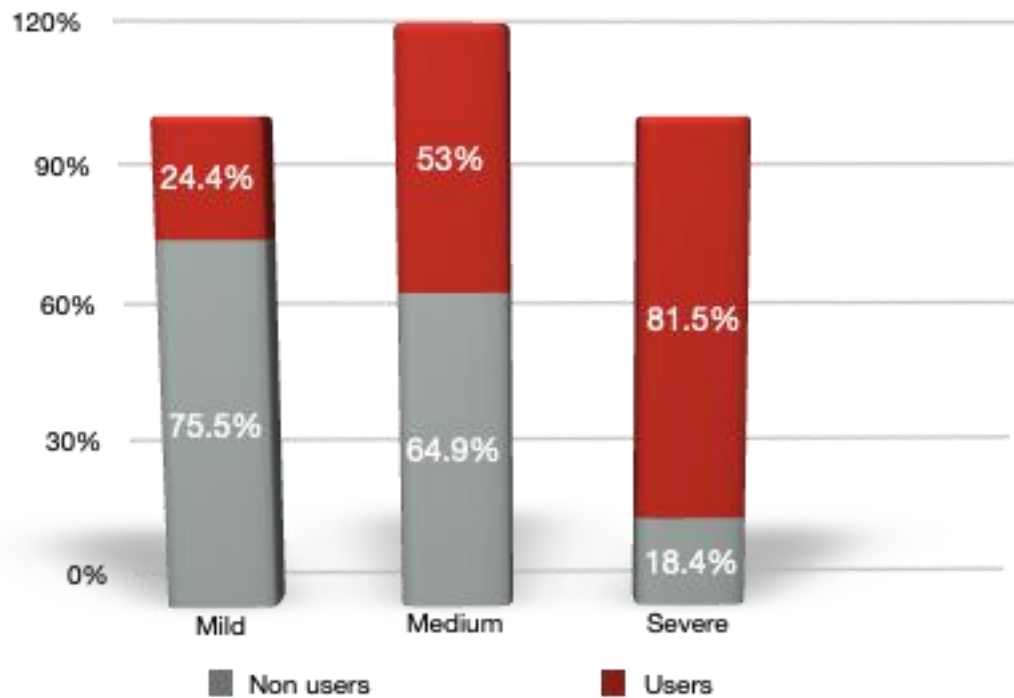


Figure 41: Cannabis use and positive psychotic symptoms

2.5.5. Correlation between the cannabis use and negative psychotic symptoms:

There was no significant relationship found between the cannabis use and negative psychotic symptoms (Figure 42).

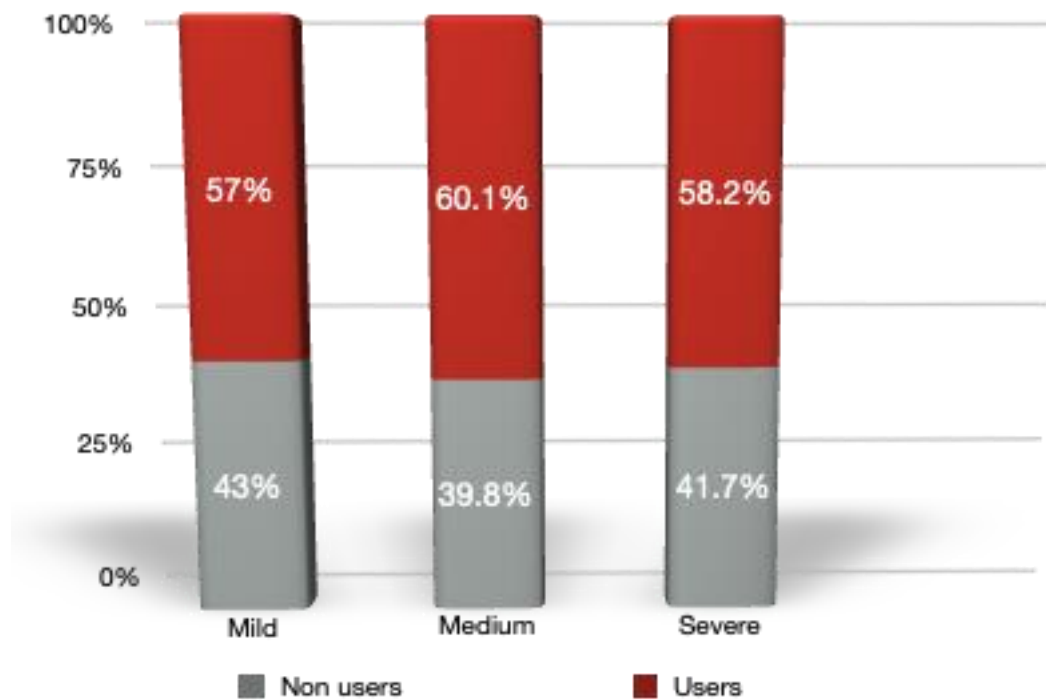


Figure 42: Cannabis use and negative psychotic symptoms

2.5.6. Correlation between the cannabis use and therapeutic compliance:

Patients using cannabis had a poor treatment adherence compared to non-users ($p = 0.005$) (Figure 43).

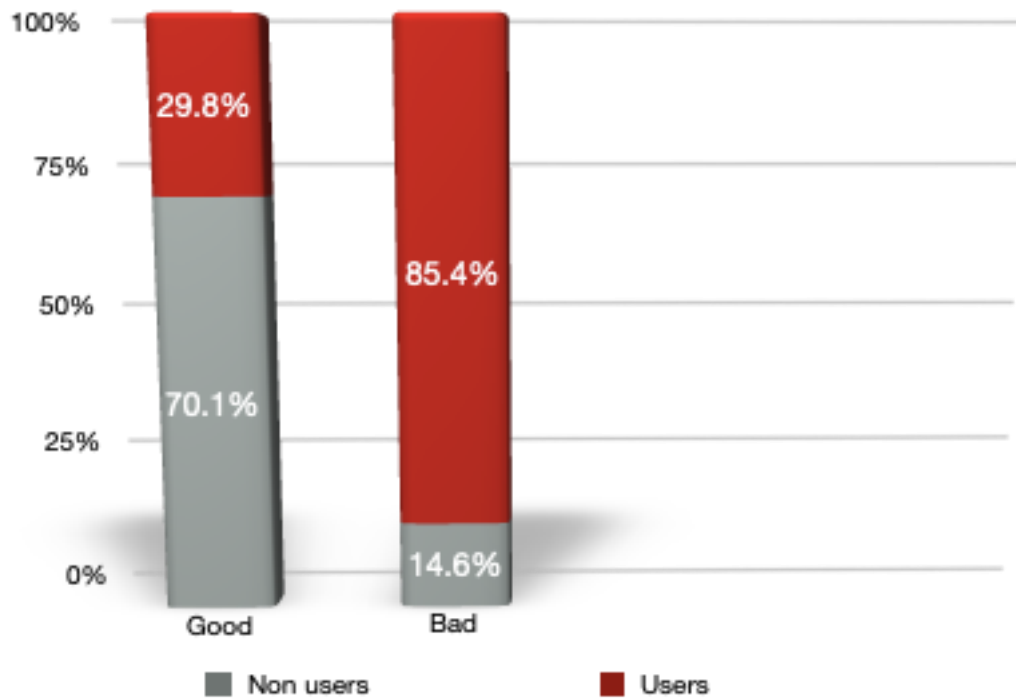


Figure 43: cannabis use and therapeutic compliance.



Discussion



I. General information on drug addiction:

1. Definition:

In 1950, the WHO's first expert committee proposed a definition of drug addiction: this is “a state of periodic or chronic intoxication caused by repeated use of a drug (natural or synthetic)”. Its characteristics are essentially:

An invincible desire or need (obligation) to continue consuming the drug and to obtain then by all means

A tendency to increase doses

A psychic and generally physical dependence on drug effects

Harmful effects on the individual and on society. [15]

A drug is an addictive drug providing users with sensations similar to those of pleasure. Therefore, fun becomes a need. Increasing consumption, in dose and / or frequency, aims mostly to prevent discomfort, including the pangs that follow the state of being deprived of drugs. These disorders are essentially psychological, but sometimes physical disorders can be associated [16, 17, 18]

2. The scale of the problem:

2.1. Globally:

It is estimated, according to the World Drug Report (published by the United Nations in 2015) that a total of 246 million people, or one in 20 people aged 15 and 64, used illicit drugs in 2013. [19] The magnitude of the world drug problem becomes more evident when we take into account the fact that more than one in 10 drug users are problematic medical cases, suffering from disorders related to drug use or addiction. In other words, about 27 million people, equivalent to the entire

population of a country the size of Malaysia, are problematic drug users. Almost half of them (12.19 million) inject drugs, and an estimated 1.65 million of injected drugs users were living with HIV in 2013. [19]

2.2. Nationally:

Drug use in Morocco has followed the global trend. Following cannabis, increasingly consumed more and more in the 1960s, heroin appeared in the 1970s, then cocaine and crack in the 1980s and finally amphetamines and ecstasy in the 1990s which together now form most of the products ingested". [20]

Cannabis has been illegal since Independence in 1956[21] which was reaffirmed by a total ban on drugs in 1974. Morocco is still among the world's largest producers of cannabis[22] Its cultivation occupies about 20,000 km² of the Moroccan land, which is about 2.7% of the country's cultivable land.[23]

In northern Morocco, especially Ketana and Chefchaouen's region, cannabis production makes the living of about 14,000 people.[24] According to the Government of Morocco, nearly 760,000 Moroccans living in about 60% villages in this region are involved in the cultivation of cannabis.[25]

Consumption of narcotic products has evolved over the past 20 years in Morocco. Indeed, from the smoked kif with sebsi, users have now new ways of consuming cannabis, cannabis resin and psychotropic drugs: "using drugs affects an increasingly younger segment of the population, shift from the classic consumption (mainly cannabis and psychotropic drugs), towards the abuse of alcohol and injectable hard drugs, chief among them heroin and cocaine, especially in large cities..."[26]

According to Professor Jalil Taoufik, the few studies carried out in Morocco reveal that 7,000 Moroccans consume cocaine (0.03% of the global population). Figure in constant increase due to the fall in the price of a gram of cocaine today (from 1200 to 700 or even 500 dirhams) [27].

The main indicator of this increase is the high number of people arriving at the detoxification center [28]. Until 2003, drug use was restricted to a social group from wealthy circles because of the high price per gram, and traffic was confined to the region of Marrakech. [29]

The source of supply has also changed: first, the north (Tangier, Tetouan, Nefiia and Nador) due to the proximity to Spain where the traffic took place as part of the ordinary sale: drugs for cash. [29]

Today, cannabis is available at lower prices, and affects more Moroccans [30]. Target consumers are mainly adolescents (girls and boys) passing from the situation of users to the state of consumer-resellers due to dependence. In some cities of Morocco, the traffic takes place in nightclubs, hotels, snacks and taxis. [31]

The factors encouraging consumption are more and more numerous: The increasing use of cell phones, the importance of the supply due to others cutting off cocaine by hazardous products. [32]

In a very interesting file devoted to drug poisoning in our country [33], the Anti-Poison Center of Morocco (CAPN) reveals that the mixture called "Nâajoune" is, however, the most consumed drug (62.6%). Cannabis comes in 2nd position. Products derived from the plant are widely available in both quantity and quality. The forms of cannabis used, mainly herb (or Marijuana in the form of joints)

or resin (also called Hashish, more concentrated in active principle), are increasingly rich in tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) [34]. Alcohol comes in 3rd position. The particularity for Morocco in relation to poisoning is that the products consumed are most often products made in an artisanal way (Nahia), products whose use has been diverted (alcohol fuel) or adulterated products [35]. Inhalants, solvents and medications are also new drugs consumed by minors, especially those from unstructured environments and poor families. Last come the benzodiazepines (2.3%) and tobacco (1.4%). [36]

- Nâajoune: is a Moroccan confection which can resemble a pastry ball or jam. Ingredients can include honey, nuts, and the treat is commonly made as a cannabis edible.[36]
- Nahia: is a Moroccan Jewish alcoholic beverage distilled from dates or figs. [36]

The oral route was the most frequent route of intoxication (89.4%) followed by the inhaled one (smoke) (10.1%). These intoxications mainly occur at home in 62.2% of cases than in public place in 35.5% of cases.[37]

3. Diagnostic criteria for drug use disorders: DSN V.

According to the DSN V, the diagnoses of ABUSE and DEPENDENCE are abolished, and replaced by a single entity: “Drug X use disorder” [38]

The threshold for the diagnosis of DSN-5 drug use disorder is set at two or more criteria (compared to one or more criteria for drug abuse and three or more for DSN-IV dependency). The diagnostic criteria for drug use disorders according to DSN 5:

3.1. Reduction of control over consumption: (criteria 1-4)

- 1) Using larger quantities or for a longer period than expected.
- 2) Express a persistent desire to decrease or control drug use and multiple unsuccessful efforts may be made to decrease or stop use.
- 3) The individual may spend a significant amount of time obtaining, using or recovering from the effects
- 4) Craving: a strong desire or urgent need to consume the drug which can occur at any time, especially in an environment where the substance has been obtained or used previously.

3.2. Alteration of social functioning: (criteria 5-7)

- 5) Inability to fulfill major obligations, at work, at school, or at home.
- 6) Continuing to use the drug despite persistent or recurring interpersonal or social problems caused or exacerbated by the effects of the substance.
- 7) Social, work or leisure activities may be abandoned or reduced because of the use of the substance.

3.3. Risky consumption: (Criteria 8-9)

- 8) Recurrent use of the drug in situations where it is physically dangerous.
- 9) The subject can keep on using the drug even though he knows that it has a persistent or recurring psychological or physical problem that may have been caused or exacerbated by the drug.

3.4. Pharmacological criteria: (Criteria 10-11)

10) Tolerance is defined as the need to significantly increase the amount of the drug to produce the desired effect or a marked decrease in the effect when using the same amount of the drug.

11) Withdrawal, is a syndrome that occurs when the drug concentrations in blood or tissues is decreased as a result of massive and prolonged consumption.

4. The main drug addiction products: [39; 40]

Psychoactive products giving rise to pathological uses were, quite early, the subject of a classification according to clinical effects. The first dates from 1924. It is the work of I. Lewin who distinguished five groups of drugs: Euphorica, Phantastica, Inebriantia, Hypnotica and Excitantia. This classification approach was taken up and improved by J. Delay and P. Deniker in the 1950s. It then contains the three categories which are still used today to distinguish the major classes of drugs:

1. Sedative or psycholeptic drugs
2. Exciting or psychoanaleptic drugs
3. Stimulating or psychodysleptic drugs

4.1. Sedative drugs (psycholeptics)

4.1.1. Cannabis:

Cannabis is derived from a plant, hemp (*cannabis sativa* L) (Image 1). Under this natural form, it has many names: ganja (India), marijuana (America), etc.

It is the most widely used of the illicit drugs. Cannabis can be in the form of pistils from female plants, as a resin (hashish, usually obtained by sieving dried

plants, then pressing them), or as an oil (obtained from using solvents). These different forms are most often intended to be inhaled after combustion (Image 2).



[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY](#)

Image 1: hemp



[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed

[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](#)



Image 2: Cannabis oil (left) and Hashish resin (right)

4.1.2. Others:

Barbiturates are also psycholeptic. They share a common malonylurea chemical nucleus.

Gamma-hydroxybutyrate (or GHB, γ -OH), is used as a fast acting anesthetic. Its additional use has mainly developed in the United States, during the 90s. Administered to a third party without its knowledge, it is at the origin of misdeeds and criminal practices which give it its reputation as a “date rape drug”.

The opiate's family includes many molecules, of natural or synthetic origin, including, for the most part:

- Endorphins, produced by the body
- Opium
- Morphine, an alkaloid made from opium
- Heroin, a synthetic derivative of morphine
- Codeine, another alkaloid derived from opium, used medically for its cough suppressant and analgesic properties
- Naloxone, which is a synthetic opioid used in the substitution treatment
- Naloxyl acetate (or NALAN), a derivative of naloxone
- Buprenorphine which, initially used as an analgesic (Temgesic)

4.2. Stimulating drugs (psychoanalectics):

Cocaine and crack (Image 3) are nowadays the most widely used psychostimulants in the world. Cocaine (salts) generally contains between 3 and 35% of pure product. It is cut with sometimes toxic products (anesthetics, sugar, bicarbonate, starch, talc, plaster, strychnine — even other narcotics: amphetamines or heroin). The “crystalline” (mixture of cocaine and various psychotropic drugs, especially atropine) has recently appeared on the market (Image 4).



[This Photo](#) by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](#)

Image 3: Crack



This Photo by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-SA](#)

Image 4: Crystal cocaine

The amphetamine group concerns several molecules, heirs to ephedrine. They have similar effects to those of cocaine. Methamphetamine, easily synthesized, is the most powerful molecule but we often find, on the underground market, less powerful sympathomimetic molecules (ephedrine, decongestants, etc.). Many specialties were sold in the 70s: ortédrine, naxiton, benzedrine. Central appetite suppressants are direct derivatives of amphetamine. Their use presents significant risks (behavioral disorders, dependence, addiction). Their prescription is strictly regulated.

Ecstasy (methylene-dioxy-3,4-methamphetamine, abbreviated MDMA) is a phenylethylamine. It is also called “gasoline”, “E”, “XTC”, MDN, etc. It was at first used as an adjunctive to psychotherapies by American psychiatrists, it has been used as a recreational drug since the 1970s. Its consumption continues to grow, by young populations — especially during “rave” evenings — associated with “techno” music, because it promotes states of trance.

The Khât (Image 5), is a shrub cultivated in East Africa and in the south of Arabian Peninsula (mainly in Yemen). The leaves have an astringent taste and an aromatic odor. Chewing the leaves colors the teeth brown and the tongue green. Khat leaves contain three active ingredients, the most powerful of which is cathinone. The chemical structure of cathinone closely resembles that of amphetamines.



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Image 5: The khat

4.3. Hallucinogenic drugs (psychodelics):

Hallucinogenic drugs are able to induce visual, auditory, even tactile hallucinations. The most important are:

LS (Lysergic Acid Diethylamide), a powerful alkaloid produced naturally by a parasitic fungus, rye ergot, was discovered in 1938. Chemically synthesized, it was popularized by the psychedelic movement, in the sixties, then by that of hippies. Accompanying radical abuses (political, media, drug addicts), LS was banned worldwide in 1966

The phencyclidine (PCP for Peace Pill, or angel dust, ice, crystal, cyclone, etc.) was, in the fifties, a general anesthetic and analgesic. Too often accompanied by severe reactions (dissociative type), sometimes lasting, its use was banned in 1965. Its use as a drug began in the USA in the 70s.

Ketamine is a veterinary and human anesthetic. In its recreational use, it is known under the names of “K”, “special K”, “vitamin K” or “Kit Kat”. Like GHB, ketamine has a “chemical submission” effect that further aggravates its dangerousness.

The peyote is a small Mexican cactus, used, historically, in Indian ritual ceremonies. Its original context of use and the particularity of its hallucinatory effects have made it a popular drug among artists and intellectuals.

The datura gather herbaceous or shrub plants. There are several species — in Europe the most common is jimsonweed. Its medicinal properties and hallucinogens have been identified since Antiquity (it was suspected that it was involved in witchcraft practices, hence its old name of witch weed).

II. General information on schizophrenia:

1. Epidemiology:

The lifetime probability of having schizophrenia is about 0.6 to 1% (Epidemiology of schizophrenia Wulf Rössler). Its prevalence is estimated, according to the Finnish study of Jouna Perälä, with the DSM-IV criteria to be 0.87% for schizophrenia, and 0.32% for schizoaffective disorders (The epidemiology of schizophrenia: replacing dogma with knowledge. Sinona A).

The incidence is usually calculated from hospital admissions, which does not allow the evaluation of insidious forms nor patients treated on an outpatient basis. The analysis of nearly 900 studies carried out between 1965 and 2001 from 33 countries has allowed to conclude that the median of the annual incidence is 0.152 per thousand, with higher figures in developed countries [41]. Thus, according to cohorts who have been followed since birth, the incidence of schizophrenia is higher in urban areas compared to rural ones, and this incidence is gradually decreasing in the cohorts born recently [42]. These geographic variations could be explained by different diagnostic habits, problems with access to health care and a different social approach to mental illness.

Variations in incidence rates have also been observed between the genders; however, if schizophrenia has usually an earlier age of onset and less severe symptoms in women, the cumulative incidence rates seen identical throughout life. [43, 44, 45]

2. Diagnostic criteria: DSN V [38]

- **Criterion A:**

Two (or more) of the following symptoms, each of which must be present for a significant proportion of time in a one-month period (or less if treated effectively). At least one of the symptoms (1), (2) or (3) must be present:

1. Crazy ideas.
2. Hallucinations.
3. Disorganized speech.
4. Grossly disorganized or catatonic behavior.
5. Negative symptoms (i.e., reduced emotional expressions, abulia).

- **Criteria B:**

For a significant portion of time since the onset of the disorder, one or several major areas of functioning such as work, interpersonal relationships or self-care is significantly below the level reached before the occurrence of the disturbance occurred (or, in case of onset in childhood or adolescence, inability to extinguish the level of interpersonal achievement, school, or in other activities one might have expected).

- **Criteria C:**

Permanent signs of the disturbance persist for at least 6 months. This 6-month period should include at least 1 month of symptoms (or less when they respond favorably to treatment) that meet criterion A (i.e. active phase symptoms), and may include periods of prodromal or residual symptoms. During these prodromal and residual periods, signs of the disturbance may manifest only as negative symptoms

or as two or more symptoms included in Criterion A present in attenuated forms (bizarre beliefs, unusual perceptions).

- **Criterion D:**

Schizoaffective disorder and depressive/bipolar disorder with psychotic features were ruled out either because:

No major depressive nor manic episode was present simultaneously with the symptoms of the active phase.

If manic episodes were present during the symptoms of the active phase, they were only present for a small proportion of the duration of the active and residual periods.

- **Criteria E:**

The disturbance is not due to the direct physiological effects of a drug (which means a drug of abuse, a medication) or a medical condition.

- **Criteria F:**

If there is a history of autism spectrum disorder or a communication disorder beginning in childhood, the additional diagnosis of schizophrenia is only made if the delusions or hallucinations are pronounced and are present with the symptoms. Other symptoms required for diagnosis for at least 1 month (or less when they respond favourably to treatment).

3. Etiopathogenesis of schizophrenia:

3.1. Genetic factors:

Since the beginning of the 20th century, studies of family aggregations and studies of adoption of twins have argued in favor of the existence of a family concentration of schizophrenia as well as the importance of genetic factors in schizophrenia. In fact, first-degree relatives of schizophrenic subjects have a risk of developing the disease approximately ten times higher than the general population. In addition, the concordance rate for schizophrenia is 48% in monozygotic twins compared to only 17% for dizygotic twins. [46-47]

Several models of genetic transmission have been proposed. The one who seems the more likely is a threshold multifactorial polygenic model in which one or more genes confer a predisposition to the disease, this predisposition is itself influenced by environmental factors [47]

3.2. Neurobiological hypotheses:

Schizophrenic disorders are frequently related to dysfunction of the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway. This theory, known as the dopaminergic schizophrenia hypothesis, is based on the fact that most substances with antipsychotic properties have an action on the dopamine system. [48, 49, 50]

Interest has also focused on another neurotransmitter, glutamate, and on the impaired function of a particular type of glutamate receptor, the NMDA receptor. This theory stems from the observation of abnormally low levels of NMDA-like receptors in the brains of schizophrenic patients examined post-mortem, and the discovery that substances blocking this receptor, such as phencyclidine or

ketamine, can mimic in the patient. healthy subject with symptoms and cognitive impairment associated with the disease [48]

3.3. Environmental factors: [53,54]

Environmental factors play an important role in the etiology of schizophrenia (20% of the explanatory variance). These are external events, not linked to the individual's genome.

Most of these occur during pregnancy, in pre- or perinatal periods, such as premature rupture of membranes, a gestational age of less than 37 weeks, the need for resuscitation or the obligatory passage in an incubator are factors clearly cited as promoting the onset of schizophrenia as well as pre-eclampsia and viral infections. But these environmental factors can take place later in evolution, such as early dysfunction in the home environment, drug addiction, and stressful life events.

3.4. Neurodevelopmental hypothesis: [53; 54; 55]

The neurodevelopmental theory is based on observations obtained by new medical imaging techniques (NRI, PET-scan, ...), histological and biochemical. She postulates that schizophrenia is due to one or more defects in the development and / or maturation of the architectural structure of the brain, both at the macroscopic and microscopic level.

The most frequent brain abnormalities are: enlargement of the cerebral ventricles, a decrease in total brain volume (3-5%), a decrease in the total volume of gray matter, and frequent involvement of the left hippocampus and its appendages.

However, some studies give results that do not point in the same direction. According to some authors, these structural changes are already presented in childhood. In addition, there is an association in schizophrenics between obstetric complications (which reduce oxygenation of the brain) and enlargements of the lateral ventricles. The hippocampus, a structure involved in schizophrenia, is very sensitive to hypoxia or ischemia. Currently, it is believed that the decrease in size of the latter is secondary to ischemia or pre- or perinatal hypoxia rather than a genetic predisposition alone. Infections with viruses with neurological tropism, during pregnancy or later, can affect brain development. Microscopic analyses of brain sections reveal different types of alteration in the structure of neuronal architecture. The prefrontal cortices and other areas of the cortex show increased neuronal density, manifested as a decrease in the size of neurons, but in unchanged number, as well as abnormalities in the cell layers of these same regions (neuronal migration defect).

The age of onset of symptoms (late adolescence, early adulthood) supports this neurodevelopmental hypothesis. The end of adolescence corresponds to an important period of brain maturation. The brain gradually loses 60% of its synaptic connections (pruning) through apoptosis (programmed cell death), from birth through mid-adolescence. The last areas of the brain to undergo this pruning are the prefrontal and associative areas (areas involved in schizophrenia). This pruning is a few years later in women, thanks to the protective role of estrogens. The schizophrenic would therefore present an excessive pruning or would initially have a neuronal capital lower than normal.

Finally, the absence of gliosis reactive to cell death (fibrosis resulting from the reaction of astrocytes and other glial cells) typical of neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, etc., is in favor of neurodevelopmental theory.

3.5. Viral hypothesis

Several studies have shown a higher incidence of schizophrenia in people born in late winter or early spring. This observation can be linked to influenza epidemics occurring in the fall. If the mother contracts the flu during the second trimester of her pregnancy, a period of neuronal migration in the cortex, the flu virus (influenza) could affect fetal brain development. On the other hand, women with severe nutritional deficiency during the first trimester of pregnancy double their risk of giving birth to a child who will later develop schizophrenia. These brain changes could also explain the discreet neurological symptoms noted during childhood as precursor signs of schizophrenia. [54]

III. Hypotheses of the causal links between schizophrenia and drug addiction:

1. Drug addiction secondary to schizophrenia:

1.1. Self-medication:

Systematized by Khantzian during the 1980s and 1990s, the self-medication hypothesis is based on two axioms: drug abuse relieves symptoms of psychological suffering; each psychoactive drug is sought after for these psychopharmacological specificities. From the different experiences of self-medication, the patient will adopt the drug which best relieves him of his suffering. [56; 57]

In this hypothesis, Khantzian finds that psychoactive substances can worsen or precipitate the positive symptoms (delirium, hallucination) of a majority of schizophrenics, on the other hand, it seems possible that they alleviate the negative symptoms of these patients, in particular their anhedonia, their social inhibitions, and even their cognitive failures. [56] Likewise, the results of the work of Jean-Yves Roy's team strongly suggest that patients suffering from both schizophrenia and drug addiction have fewer negative symptoms and cognitive deficits and less anhedonia than non-drug addicted patients. However, they have more extrapyramidal symptoms [58]

Qualitative studies were carried out by Dixon et al. (1991), Warner et al. (1994), Bagnat et al. (1995) and Addington et al. (1997) with individuals suffering from schizophrenia in order to know the reasons which push them to consume AS. Despite the methodological differences present in these studies, three main and similar motivations have been highlighted: to feel better, to cope with negative emotions, to decrease depression, and to relax. [59]

1.2. The social-environmental hypothesis:

Environmental factors seem to play a preponderant role in the use of substances, whether it be gender, education, culture, availability of drugs or even the group in which they frequent. In addition, these influencing factors appear to be the same as those that can lead to addiction in any other individual [54].

According to this hypothesis, patients with schizophrenia are more likely to consume excessively addictive substances when they live in an environment that facilitates the taking of the drug. In order to strengthen this hypothesis, Nueser et al. in 1992 noted changes in substance use in a sample of 263 hospitalized patients. Indeed, over a period of eight consecutive years, they found changes in the consumption of the type of substances used that reflected changes in the use of addictive substances in the community the patients frequented. Along with this discovery, Kavanagh et al. (2002) found that schizophrenic patients used more heroin in Europe than in North America, and more cocaine in urban areas than in rural areas [54].

Moreover, the prevalence of substance dependence depends on other contextual factors. Indeed, for some authors (Negrete et al., 2003; Dixon, 1999), gender and level of education may or may not favor the use of alcohol, drugs or nicotine. Thus, young people and men are more likely to use drugs or alcohol than older people and women. In addition, in 1990, Nueser found a low level of education among people with substance use disorder and mental illness. [54]

2. Schizophrenia secondary to drug addiction:

According to this model, drug addiction would be a triggering factor for latent psychosis and an aggravating factor for manifest psychoses. [60]

The large prospective study by Anderson et al. (1987) looked at 45,570 Swedish army conscripts from 1969 and 1970, of which 9.4% of the conscripts had used cannabis, 1.7% of them more than 50 times. By consulting the medical records of these conscripts 15 years later, the results of this cohort show an increased relative risk of developing schizophrenia in subjects, without known psychiatric pathology, who use cannabis. Thus, in subjects who have consumed cannabis more than 10 times, the relative risk is 2.3 compared to non-users, and in those who had a significant exposure (more than 50 doses), the relative risk of seeing develop schizophrenia increases to 6. [60]

Zannit et al. (2002) revisited this study, extending the follow-up of this cohort by several years, freeing itself from the biases that had been suggested. They came to similar conclusions: 'a society without cannabis would decrease the number of its schizophrenics by 13%'. Thus, according to a New Zealand study, 10% of cannabis users followed for 11 years developed schizophrenic disorders against 3% of non-users. [61]

Differential diagnosis between induced psychosis and schizophrenia:

Induced psychosis has great clinical similarity with schizophrenia. There occurs distinction between two types of psychotic disorders induced by cannabis:

Functional psychosis:

Lasting up to two weeks, is characterized by frank delusions, depersonalization, elements of hypomania, slight disorganization of thought, slight dulling of affect and lineal symptoms of Schneider (intrusion and diffusion of thought). This functional psychosis is sometimes accompanied by hallucinations, just as visual than auditory.

Toxic psychosis:

Generally lasting a few days, presents with elements of organicity, that is to say confusion and disorientation. [1]

It seems that cannabis can induce toxic psychoses, at very high doses, in inexperienced users without psychotic vulnerability, while functional psychosis seems to manifest itself mainly in users presenting previously schizotypal traits. [62]

There is debate over the diagnostic status of cannabis-induced psychotic disorder. It was initiated by Ghodse (1986), who was the first to propose that this disorder might constitute a diagnostic entity distinct from endogenous psychoses, including schizophrenia. Even today, this debate remains open. However, it will have had the advantage of leading to rigorous clinical research, where we compared the respective phenomenologies of psychotic disorder induced by cannabis and schizophrenia using instruments for evaluating symptoms of schizophrenia. (e.g. PANSS) (Nuñez and Gurpegui, 2002; Basu et al., 1999). Since then, these comparative studies have revealed important similarities, but also significant differences between the "cannabis psychosis" and schizophrenic symptomatology (Table III) [1].

Table VII : Comparative profile of schizophrenia and cannabis psychosis

Schizophrenia	Common Symptoms	Cannabis psychosis
Nore hallucinations Nore auditory hallucinations Nore conceptual disorganization Nore emotional blunting	Delusions (Paranoia and grandiose) Depersonalization Lineage of Schneider (dissemination and intrusion of thought)	Nore visual hallucinations Elements of hypomania Panic attacks

3. Factors common to schizophrenia and drug addiction:

A growing number of clinicians and researchers prefer to think of schizophrenia-addiction comorbidity through the lens of factors common to psychosis and substance abuse, such as personality traits, social environment, and more specifically, specific system disruptions. neurotransmission. [63; 64]

4. Effects of cannabinoids on the endocannabinoid system:

Endocannabinoids (lipid compounds) are endogenous molecules with the ability to bind to cannabinoid receptors (CB1 and CB2). In the brain, they play a neuromodulatory role because they will be released by neurons and act on other neurons in order to regulate them [65]

Their binding to the CB1 receptors causes the activation of molecular cascades which will have the effect of inhibiting the transmission of information between 2 neurons, by inhibiting the release of other neurotransmitters such as

glutamate (excitatory neurotransmitter: activation postsynaptic neurons) or GABA (inhibitory neurotransmitter: inhibition of postsynaptic neurons). In the first case, the activation by the endocannabinoids of the CB1 present in the neurons releasing glutamate will decrease their release. The decrease in the excitatory neurotransmitter leads to a decrease in the activity of the postsynaptic neuron. In the second case, the activation by the endocannabinoids of the CB1 present on the neurons releasing GABA will decrease their release. We reduce the inhibitory messenger, the inhibition will be lifted and the postsynaptic neuron will be more active (Figure 44) [66; 67].

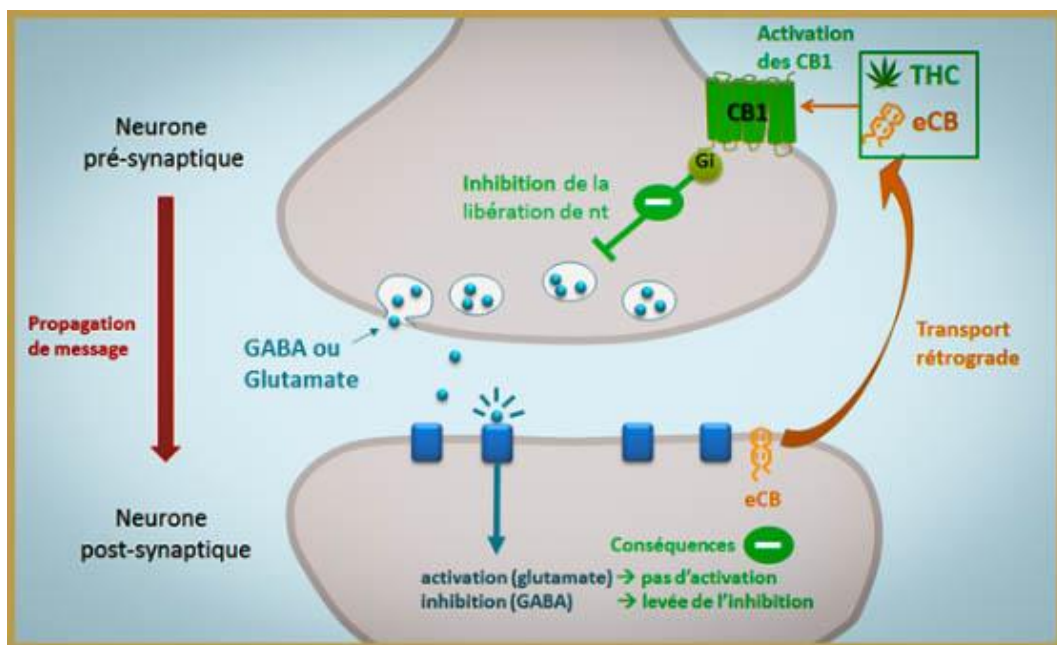


Figure 44: Transduction mechanisms stimulated by the CB1 receptor in the presynaptic terminal [65]

Cannabis contains over 60 cannabinoid substances, including delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the main active ingredient in cannabis (partial agonist of cannabinoid CB1 receptors), and cannabidiol (CBD) which is a partial antagonist of CB1 receptors.

The mechanisms by which cannabis use induces psychotic symptoms could include the interaction of CB1 receptors with several neurotransmitter systems, particularly the dopaminergic, GABAergic and glutamatergic systems. [65]

The psychotomimetic effects induced by the consumption of cannabis and which disappear after its elimination, are characterized by delusional ideas of persecution, delusional ideas of influence or reference, hallucinations, in particular acoustico-verbal, sensations of derealization. and depersonalization, ideas of grandeur and disorganization of thought.. [65]

IV. Discussion of our results.

1. The prevalence of PAS use in schizophrenic patients:

Our results indicate that in schizophrenic patients hospitalized in the psychiatric hospital Arrazi of Sale, 64.7% of them are consumers of psychoactive drugs (cannabis) which are close to those of Harrison et al. in 2008 who found a comorbidity prevalence of 56% in a population of 152 patients [68], F. Elghazouani et al. in Fez in 2015 (60.2%) [69], and the Verdoux H. et al. performed on 92 patients, half of whom had this comorbidity (50%) [70] (Table IV).

Table VIII : Prevalence of the use of PAS in schizophrenic patients:

Author	Country	Staff	Comorbidity's Percentage
Verdoux H. and al	France	92	50%
F. Elghazouani and al	Norocco (Fez)	108	60.2%
Harrison and al	England	152	56%
Our study	Norocco (Rabat)	160	64.7%

2. Priority of the use of PAS compared to the disease:

In the majority of studies, drug addiction precedes schizophrenia in two thirds of cases, our study obtained the same result, 62.6% of schizophrenic patients who use cannabis started drug addiction before schizophrenia.

3. The used drugs:

Cannabis is the most consumed drug in our study with a percentage of 68%, half of them (27.4%) presented with an addiction to cannabis are addicts. Likewise, cannabis is the first drug used in the study by F. Elghazouani et al. [69], Verdoux et al. [70], Nauri et al. (49%) [71], and Vaz Carneiro et al. [72]. While it is the second used drug by other authors: David et al. 2003 (26.5%) [73], Dervaux et al. 2003 (10.4%) [62] (Table V).

Table IX : Used by schizophrenic drug users

Author	Consumed Drugs
F. Elghazouani (Annales Médico-Psychologiques Paris 2015)	Cannabis> Alcohol> Inhalant
Vaz Carneiro S.(Acta Medica Portuguesa 2007)	Cannabis> alcohol
Nauri N.C (CDENH 2006)	Cannabis> heroin> cocaine
Saladini O. et al.(Annales Médico-Psychologiques 2005)	Cannabis = alcohol
Rodriguez. JR (Invest Clin 2008)	Alcohol> Cannabis> Cocaine
David J. et al. (Schizophrenia Research 2003)	Alcohol> cannabis
Batki S. (schizophrenia research 2008)	Alcohol> Cannabis> Cocaine
Dervaux. A et al.(the Encephalon 2003)	Alcohol> cannabis> opiates and amphetamines
Our study	Cannabis> Alcohol> Benzodiazepines

4. Relationship between the use of cannabis and sociodemographic characteristics:

4.1. Gender:

In our study there is a clear predominance of male subjects among cannabis addicted schizophrenic patients (90.9%). These characteristics are similar to those found in previous studies, 71% in the study by Leo J. et al [75], and 67.8% in the study by David J. et al [73].

4.2. Marital status:

In our study (79.3% of divorced patients and 69.8% of single patients are cannabis users), as well as in Dervaux et al. and F. Elghazouani et al. studies. The comorbidity only increases the risk of living alone. [69;74; 76] (Table VI).

Table X : Percentage of single schizophrenic patients according to the use of cannabis

Authors	Presence of cannabis use	Absence of cannabis use
Dervaux et al. 2003	90%	68.2%
F. Elghazouani et al. 2015	83.1%	61.1%
Our study	69.8%	30.2%

4.3. Professional status:

In most studies there are no significant differences between schizophrenic users and non-users of cannabis in terms of professional status (active / inactive) [69-73-74-77-78-79].

In our study, schizophrenic patients using cannabis are generally jobless compared to non-users (Table VII).

Table XI : The percentage of working schizophrenic patients according to the use of cannabis

Authors	Presence of cannabis use	Lack of cannabis use
Dervaux A. et al (2003)	29.9%	37.9%
F. Elghazouani et al (2015)	50.1%	50%
Our study	82.4%	17.6%

5. Correlation between cannabis use and the patient's past history:

5.1. Correlation between cannabis use and criminal record:

In our study, as in most studies, patients with schizophrenia and who are also cannabis users are distinguished from clean patients by having a more extensive criminal history [69-76] (Table VIII).

Table XII : Cannabis use and criminal record

Authors	Presence of cannabis use	Absence of cannabis use
F. Elghazouani et al. (2015)	36.9%	20.9%
Liraud F. et al (2000)	37.9%	7.2%
Our study	72.7%	17.3%

5.2. Relationship between cannabis use and a history of suicide attempts:

In our study as well as in several studies: Dervaux et al. [82], Verdoux et al. [88], Soyka et al. [89], Hanbrecht et al. [90], and Hawton et al. [91], an association between cannabis abuse and suicidal behavior in schizophrenia has been found. (Figure 39)

However, the study of F. Elghazouani et al. [69] as well as the one of Liraud et al. [76] show the reverse.

It is difficult to conclude that cannabis increases the suicidal risk. This latter can also be linked to a disinhibition due to the consumption or an associated depressive disorder, especially the fact that the two disorders, suicide and cannabis abuse, are probably associated with a common personality characteristic, impulsiveness [76] (Table IX).

Table XIII : Relationship between the cannabis use and the history of attempted suicide:

Authors	Presence of cannabis use	Absence of cannabis use
Iraud F. et al (2000)	44.8%	57.3%
F. Elghazouani et al. (2015)	14.5%	22.5%
Dervaux A. et al (2003)	60%	24.2%
Our study	85.7%	14.2%

4. Correlation between cannabis use and characteristics of schizophrenia:

4.1. Cannabis use and age of onset of schizophrenia:

In our study, as in the majority of studies, schizophrenia appears earlier when it comes to cannabis users than non-users [69; 92; 82; 84] (Table X)

Table X: Cannabis use and age of onset of schizophrenia:

Authors	Cannabis users	Non users
F. Elghazouani	23.2 +/- 5.8	22.6 +/- 5.4
Iraud et al	20 +/- 5.3 years	24.1 +/- 7.5 years
Dervaux et al	21.1 +/- 3.6 years	25.2 +/- 8.3 years
Our study	21.4 +/- 2.4 years	23.4 +/- 4.8 years

4.2. Cannabis use and positive psychotic symptoms:

The positive symptoms reflect the excess or distortion of normal functions. They include distortions or exaggeration of deductive thinking (delusions), perception (hallucinations), language and communication (disorganized speech), and behavioral control (grossly disorganized or catatonic behavior). [93]

In our study, and in some studies, it was found that schizophrenic patients using cannabis had more severe positive psychotic symptoms than in non-user patients. [94-95]

4.3. Cannabis use and negative psychotic symptoms:

Negative symptoms reflect the decrease or loss of normal functions, they include restrictions in the range of intensity of emotional expression (emotional bluntness), in the fluency and productivity of thought and speech (alogia), and in the initiation of goal-directed behaviour (loss of will). [93]

In most case-control studies and longitudinal studies, as well as in our study, there was no correlation found between the cannabis use and a severe score of negative psychotic symptoms [96-97].

On the other hand, some case-control studies (Conpton et al. 2004; Baeza et al. 2009) found the negative symptoms to be milder in cannabis users during the first psychotic episode [98-99]

4.4. Cannabis use and number of hospitalizations:

Patients using cannabis are distinguished from non-users by a higher number of hospitalizations in psychiatric hospitals [58-90], the average of hospitalization in psychiatric hospitals in our series is 4.56 for non-users and 6.2 for users.

At more or less, the same Figures are found by Dervaux et al. [94] and F. Elghazouani et al. [89]:

4.5 +/- 4.4 for non-users and 5.8 +/- 11 for users.

Thus, consumers of cannabis in our study and the study of Dervaux et al. have a longer hospital stay; longer than abstinent subjects; which may be due to the aggravation of social disinsertion because of the consumption of toxicants [94].

4.5. Cannabis use and therapeutic compliance:

Dervaux et al. [62], Iinszen et al. Nartinez et al showed an increase in the number of relapses in cannabis users, in these studies the number of relapses was correlated with the lack of compliance with treatments. As Liraud et al. [64] noted that 66.6% of psychotic substance users had poor adherence to treatment and 44% of non-substance users had poor adherence. Thus, the use of psychoactive substances in our population of schizophrenic patients is associated with poor adherence to treatment.

V. The limits of our study:

We have tried, through this work, to study the epidemiological characteristics, the risk factors and the consequences of the comorbidity of schizophrenia and drug addiction's, since addiction products are numerous, we have limited ourselves to cannabis.

The lack of statistics and researches on this subject in our country makes it difficult to compare our situation with data from international literature.

Our study is transversal, however, on the information collection during a psychiatric interview according to a questionnaire already established, It includes tickets in information gathering matters.

The limits of this work also lie in the reduced number of patients included, the predominance of the male sex and the absence of additional examinations, especially biological, which can confirm the use of drugs.



Future considerations and recommendations



A comparative analysis of our results with data from the literature shows that:

- The prevalence of both schizophrenia and drug addiction comorbidity is high.
- Cannabis is the most widely used drug, as in several studies.
- Cannabis addiction precedes schizophrenia as in the majority of studies.
- The comorbidity of schizophrenia and drug addiction worsens the course of the disease: more frequent and longer relapses and hospitalization, poor treatment compliance, professional instability, acceleration of social disinsertion, frequent medico-legal acts.
- The frequency of the start of the use of SPA at the age of adolescence shows the importance of prevention work in this age group.

At the end of this work, some recommendations can be made:

A. Preventive aspect:

Promote adolescent mental health through interventions to raise awareness of the adverse effects of APS (such as awareness programs in schools):

- Integrate these interventions into a global health project
- Develop an intervention adapted to the context and needs of young people
- Integrate into the territory, with the participation of several types of stakeholders: community approaches
- Do not limit yourself to transmitting information but work on psychosocial skills
- Build the intervention in collaboration / partnership with young people, and promote interactive methods.
- Intervene at an early age
- Provide support and assistance for young victims

B. Therapeutic component:

Management of schizophrenia: short- and long-term goals should be defined for better stabilization.

Reduce or eliminate symptoms.

Prevent relapses.

Eliminate or reduce the number of hospitalizations.

Avoid and minimize the possible unwanted side effects of some medicines.

Obtain and maintain relief symptoms to prevent having a detrimental effect on the patient's life.

Start or resume normal daily activities (work, studies, autonomy, social relations, etc.)

Interest of psychosocial rehabilitation and psychoeducation.

Treatment of addiction:

Improving the supply of care: the quality and quantity of consultations for the care of drug users.

Rehabilitation provided by structures specialized in addictology including ambulatory and residential structures.

Benefit of psychotherapy sessions (motivational therapy, cognitive therapy, talk group, body and body therapies relaxation, relapse prevention and management techniques, etc.)

occupational therapy and social integration sessions (video projections, sports, educational activities, music, writing and writing workshops drawing...)

C. Role of the family:

Offer psychoeducation, mutual aid and support programs to families of patients suffering from schizophrenia and related disorders.

D. Role of the society:

Fight against drug trafficking

Promote associations that help patients with social and professional reintegration.

Help patients obtain atypical neuroleptics that have been shown to be effective in co-morbidity.

Fight against the stigmatization of the mentally ill

Fight against the stigmatization of drug users.

E. Training component:

Integrate the concept of comorbidity into the various medical science courses, and more particularly in psychiatry.

Train healthcare teams in dual interventions: Psychiatrists, nurses and occupational therapists must be competent to manage both clinical situations

Provide psychotherapy training for psychiatrists (cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT), family psychotherapy).

Train general practitioners in the prevention and management of drug addiction.



Conclution



The epidemiological argument establishes the existence of a high proportion of cannabis users among schizophrenic patients, and conversely, of schizophrenics among cannabis users. The association of schizophrenia and cannabis use is particularly common. If the hypothesis of self-medication of schizophrenic disorder retains some relevance for some patients, in fact, all studies show that cannabis worsens schizophrenic disorders in the long term: it accelerates their evolutionary course, with more brutal decompensations, earlier, more relapses, less compliance with care and pejorative prognosis.

Nowadays, the comorbidity between schizophrenia and cannabis addiction constitutes a real public health problem, which constantly challenges psychiatrists, on the links uniting this co-morbidity and how to take care of such patients.

Current research is directed towards the study of the brain mechanisms and structures that are common to these two conditions, in particular those involving the endo-cannabinoid system.

Faced with the methodological limits of our work, it would be interesting to improve the scope of our results, using a more specific study (longitudinal and prospective), on a larger sample, taking into account more specific variables (particular profile of schizophrenics, duration of drug intake, personality) and using scales of greater specificity, for the dual diagnosis patient.



Abstract



Abstract:

Title: Cannabis use in schizophrenia, a 1 year study and follow-up

Author: Wissale Aadlafi

Keywords: Schizophrenia, Cannabis, Comorbidity

The objective of this work is to study the frequency of cannabis use comorbidity in schizophrenic patients, the consequences of this comorbidity and also to determine its risk factors. This is a cross-sectional study of 160 schizophrenic cases hospitalized in the university psychiatric hospital Arrazi in Sale, CHU Ibn Sina of Rabat, from October 2019 to October 2020, and reports the following results:

The mean age is 28 ± 9.3 years, with a male predominance of 79.57%

The paranoid form was the most common with a percentage of 74.1%

The frequency of schizophrenia and drug addiction comorbidity is 65.2%, with a predominance of cannabis use (58%)

Cannabis addiction preceded schizophrenia in 40.53%.

Cannabis users are distinguished from non-users by an over-representation of men, and an earlier age of onset of schizophrenia.

Socially, there were no significant differences between the two groups

Clinically, cannabis users have more severe positive psychotic symptoms, a more important history of legal problems, and suicide attempts.

The acute onset of the disease is more common in cannabis users as well as the paranoid form of schizophrenia.

Patients who use cannabis have poor compliance with treatment, more hospitalizations and discontinuation of treatment.

Résumé:

Titre: L'usage du cannabis chez les schizophrènes, étude et suivi sur 1an

Auteur: Wissale Aadlafi

Mots-clés: Schizophrénie, Cannabis, Comorbidité

Notre étude a pour but de déterminer la prévalence de l'usage du cannabis chez les schizophrènes, la nature de cet usage, ainsi que la relation temporelle entre les deux. Il s'agit d'une étude transversale de 160 cas de schizophrènes hospitalisés à l'hôpital psychiatrique universitaire Arrazi à Sale, CHU Ibn Sina Rabat, et rapporte les résultats suivants :

L'âge moyen est de $28 \pm 9,4$ ans, avec une prééminence masculine de 79,7%

La forme paranoïaque est la plus fréquente (73,8%)

La fréquence de la comorbidité entre schizophrénie et toxicomanie est de 64,7% dont la consommation du cannabis est la plus courante (58,1%)

Dans 40,5% des cas, l'usage du cannabis précède l'apparition de la schizophrénie

La schizophrénie apparaît plus précocement chez les consommateurs du cannabis par rapport aux non consommateurs.

Socialement, il n'y avait pas de différences notables entre les deux groupes

Cliniquement, on constate que les symptômes psychotiques positifs sont plus graves chez les utilisateurs du cannabis. Ces derniers se distinguent également par des antécédents judiciaires et tentatives de suicide plus nombreux et importants.

Le début brutal de la maladie est plus fréquent chez les utilisateurs du cannabis

Les schizophrènes utilisateurs du cannabis ont plus de nombre d'hospitalisations ainsi qu'une mauvaise observance aux traitements.

ملخص:

العنوان : تعاطي القنب الهندي لدى مرضى الفصام، دراسة ومتابعة لمدة سنة

الكاتب : وصال عدلافي

الكلمات الأساسية: القنب الهندي، مرض الفصام، الاعتلال المشترك

الهدف من هذه الدراسة يتمثل في تحديد معدل تعاطي القنب الهندي لدى مرضى الفصام، وكذا العلاقة الزمنية بينهما وطبيعة هذه العلاقة. ويتعلق الأمر هنا بدراسة شملت ١٦٠ مريضاً بالفصام، بالمركز الاستشفائي الجامعي الرازي بسلا، وتمتد هاته الدراسة على مدى عام من أكتوبر ٢٠١٩ إلى أكتوبر ٢٠٢٠

و اسفرت عن النتائج الآتية:

١. معدل السن للمرضى هو $28 \pm 9,4$ سنة، مع ارتفاع نسبة الذكور ٧٩,٩%
٢. تعتبر حالة الاضطهاد لمرض انفصام الشخصية الحالة المرضية الأكثر تمثيلاً ب ٧٣,٨%
٣. نسبة حالات انفصام الشخصية التي تتعاطى المخدرات هي ٦٤,٧% ويعتبر القنب الهندي الأكثر انتشاراً بنسبة ٥٨,٧%
٤. بداية تعاطي المخدرات تسبق الإصابة بمرض انفصام الشخصية في ٤٠,٥%.
٥. يظهر مرض انفصام الشخصية في وقت مبكر عند متعاطي القنب مقارنة بالمرضى غير المتعاطين.
٦. من الناحية الاجتماعية، لم يكن هنالك اختلاف كبير بين المتعاطين وغير المتعاطين للمخدرات.
٧. حسب المعطيات السريرية، نجد أن متعاطي المخدرات لديهم عدد أكبر من السوابق الإجرامية ومحاولات الانتحار.
٨. غالباً ما تكون بداية مرض الفصام حادة عند الفئة المتعاطية للقنب، مع أعراض أكثر شدة للمرض.
٩. المرضى الذين يتعاطون أو يدمنون القنب يتميزون أيضاً بارتفاع نسب الاستشفاء وعدم الالتزام ببرنامج العلاج، مع إيقاف متكرر لهذا الأخير.



Appendices



Annex 1: DATA INTAKE FORM:

I. Anamnestic data:

1. Name and last name:
2. Age:
3. Address:
4. Phone number:
5. Living environment: a) Rural b) Urban
6. Marital status:
 - a) Single b) Married c) Divorced d) Widower
7. Number of children:
8. School level:
 - a) No schooling
 - b) Elementary
 - c) Secondary
 - d) Baccalaureate
 - e) University: Bac+.....
 - f) Others:
9. Vocational training:
 - a) None
 - b) Manual worker
 - c) Civil servant
 - d) Senior manager
 - e) Liberal profession
 - f) Others:
10. Professional activity (1 year):
 - a) Regular
 - b) Irregular
 - c) Absent
11. Socio-economic level (monthly income): Dh/month
 - a) <2000
 - b) [2000-5000]
 - c) >10.000
12. Number of siblings: Order of siblings:
13. Parents situation:
 - _ Father: - alive - dead: when:
-Profession
 - _ Mother: - alive - dead: when:
-Profession

14. living:
- a) Alone
 - b) Nother
 - c) Father
 - d) Both parents
 - e) Institution
 - f) Honeless
 - g) Other:

II. Antecedents:

A. Personal:

1. Medical history
2. Surgical history
3. Criminal record : cause and the imprisonment duration
4. Psychiatric:
 - a) Patient with a known mental illness since
 - b) Total number of hospitalizations
 - c) Number of hospitalizations over the past year:.....
 - d) Average length of hospitalizations: Days
 - e) Cumulative duration of hospitalizations: Days
 - f) Follow-up in consultations: . Yes
 . No
5. Suicidal attempts:
 - a) Yes
 - b) Number
 - c) Modality
 - d) Date of the last one
6. Context of the suicide attempts:
 - a) Hallucinations
 - b) Delirium
 - c) Sadness
 - d) Anguish
 - e) Impulses

B. Familial:

1. Psychiatric:
 - Who
 - Nature of the mental illness
2. History of the familial hospitalizations
3. Drug addiction history in the family

4. Was the drug consumption in front of the patient: -yes -no

III. Information on Schizophrenia:

1. Onset node: - Acute -Progressive
2. Clinical form: -Paranoid schizophrenia -Dysthynic schizophrenia
-Disorganized schizophrenia -Deficit schizophrenia
3. Used drugs in the last 12 months:
 - Neuroleptics
 - Monotherapy
 - Dual therapy
 - Classic neuroleptics
 - Atypical neuroleptics
 - NAP
 - Anxiolytics
 - Antidepressants
 - Antiparkinsonians
 - Thymoregulators
4. PANSS SCORE:
 - Positive scale:
 - Negative scale:
 - General Psychopathological Scale:

IV. Cannabis use:

1. Starting age:
2. Context of the 1st consumption:
 - Alone
 - With friends
 - With classmates
 - In the hospital
 - Others:
3. Other associated drug addictions:
 - None
 - Tobacco
 - Alcohol
 - Benzodiazepine
 - Hypnotics
 - Anticholinergics
 - Others

4. The link between the cannabis use and schizophrenia:
 - Consumption before illness
 - At the same time
 - After illness
5. The most wanted drug:
 - Smoked
 - Swallowed
 - Inhaled
 - Injected
 - Snorted
 - Otherwise:
6. How did the patient get this product?
 - Purchase
 - Gift
 - Exchange
 - Self-cultivation
 - Other:
7. Expenditure per month: Dhs
8. Source of money:
9. Weaning trial:
 - Yes
 - No
10. Number of weaning attempts:
11. Use of institutions for this problem:
 - No, why?
 - Psychiatric hospital
 - General hospital
 - Health center
 - Private practice
 - Addictology centers
 - Others:

12. The most desired effects:

Desired effects			Were these effects obtained?		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Not sure
To relax, to unwind					
Be with friends					
To party, be euphoric					
To forget about a difficult situation					
To reduce anxiety					
To communicate better, to disinhibit					
To sleep					
To get high					
To treat himself (hallucinations ...)					
To help manage the effect of other products					
Others					

V. The impact of this comorbidity:

1. On socio-professional reintegration:
 - Conflict, with:, how many times:
 - Divorce
 - Hetero aggressivity, towards:, how many times:
 - Self-aggression, nodality:
2. On work:
 - Decline in professional performance
 - Quitting work
 - Absenteeism
 - Instability (changing work regularly)

- Others:
3. On the treatment compliance:
- Stopping the treatment, why? How often?
 - Increasing the treatment's dose
 - Concomitant intake

Annex 2: Positive and negative syndrome scale (PANSS)

1: Absent; 2: Minimal; 3: Mild; 4: Moderate; 5: Moderately severe; 6: Severe; 7: Extreme

Positive Subscale	Negative Subscale
P1 Delusions P2 Conceptual disorganization P3 Hallucinatory behavior P4 Excitement P5 Grandiosity P6 Suspiciousness/Persecution P7 Hostility	N1 Blunted affect N2 Emotional withdrawal N3 Poor rapport N4 Passive/Apathic social withdrawal N5 Difficulty in abstract thinking N6 Lack of spontaneity and flow of conversation N7 Stereotyped thinking
General Psychopathology	
G1 Somatic concern G2 Anxiety G3 Guilt feelings G4 Tension G5 Mannerisms and posturing G6 Depression G7 Motor retardation G8 Uncooperativeness	G9 Unusual thought content G10 Disorientation G11 Poor attention G12 Lack of judgment and insight G13 Disturbance of volition G14 Poor impulse control G15 Preoccupation G16 Active social avoidance

Annex 3: Cannabis Abuse Screening Test (CAST):

Have you ever smoked cannabis before nidday?

Have you ever smoked cannabis when you were aIone?

Have you ever had nenory problens when you smoked cannabis?

Have friends or nenbers of your faniIy ever toId you that you ought to reduce your cannabis use?

Have you ever tried to reduce or stop your cannabis use without succeeding?

Have you ever had problens because of your use of cannabis (argunents, fights, accident, bad grades at school...)?

Score <3: no risk

Score [3-7]: Iow risk

Score >7: high risk



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Serment d'Hippocrate

Au moment d'être admis à devenir membre de la profession médicale, je m'engage solennellement à consacrer ma vie au service de l'humanité.

- *Je traiterai mes malades avec le respect et la reconnaissance qui leur sont dus.*
- *Je pratiquerai ma profession avec conscience et dignité. La santé de mes malades sera mon premier but.*
- *Je ne trahirai pas les secrets qui me seront confiés.*
- *Je maintiendrai par tous les moyens en mon pouvoir l'honneur et les nobles traditions de la profession médicale.*
- *Les médecins seront mes frères.*
- *Aucune considération de religion, de nationalité, de race, aucune considération politique et sociale ne s'interposera entre mon devoir et mon patient.*
- *Je maintiendrai le respect de la vie humaine dès la conception.*
- *Néanmoins sous la menace, je n'userai pas de mes connaissances médicales d'une façon contraire aux lois de l'humanité.*
- *Je n'y engage librement et sur mon honneur.*

قسم أبقر اط

بسم الله الرحمان الرحيم
أقسم بالله العظيم

في هذه اللحظة التي يتم فيها قبولي عضوا في المهنة الطبية أتعهد علانية:

- أكرس حياتي لخدمة الإنسانية.
- وأن أحترم أساتذتي وأعترف لهم بالجميل الذي يستحقونه.
- وأن أمارس مهنتي بوازع من ضميري وشرفي جاعلا صحة مريض هدي الأول.
- وأن لا أفشي الأسرار المعهودة إلي.
- وأن أحافظ بكل ما لدي من وسائل على الشرف والتقاليد النبيلة لمهنة الطب.
- وأن أعتبر سائر الأطباء إخوة لي.
- وأن أقوم بواجبي نحو مرضاي بدون أي اعتبار ديني أو وطني أو عرقي أو سياسي أو اجتماعي.
- وأن أحافظ بكل حزم على احترام الحياة الإنسانية منذ نشأتها.
- وأن لا أستعمل معلوماتي الطبية بطريق يضر بحقوق الإنسان مهما لاقيت من تهديد.
- بكل هذا أتعهد عن كامل اختيار ومقسما بشرفي.
- والله على ما أقول شهيد.



المملكة المغربية
جامعة محمد الخامس بالرباط
كلية الطب والصيدلة
الرباط



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تعاطي القنب الهندي لدى مرضى الفصام دراسة و متابعة لمدة عام

أطروحة

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من طرفه

السيدة وصال عدلافي

المزودة في ٢٧ دجنبر ١٩٩٥ بني ملال

من المدرسة الملكية لمصلحة الصحة العسكرية - الرباط

لنيل شهادة

دكتور في الطب

الكلمات الأساسية : مرض الفصام، القنب الهندي، الاعتلال المشترك

أعضاء لجنة التحكيم:

رئيس
مشرف
عضو
عضو

السيد جلال توفيق
أستاذ في الطب النفسي
السيدة ماريان صابر
أستاذة في الطب النفسي
السيدة فاطمة العمري
أستاذة في الطب النفسي
السيد محمد قادي
أستاذ في الطب النفسي