# Overview of schizophrenia disorder, management approaches

Abdullah A Baawadh, Faisal Thiab Odah Alenazi, Mohammed Mansour Al-hariri, Faisal Abdulrahman A Alotaibi, Ahmad Sa'ad Alwan Alharbi Almaliki, Yazeed Abdulrahman Mohammed Alotaibi, Abudalmohsen Saleh Alofi, Yasser Abdulrahman A Almailki, Meshari Maalla Alharbi, Tareg Shaig Alharthi, Turki Fahad Alharthi

# **Abstract:**

To get a more detailed and directed understanding of the impacts and advantages of recent approaches to treatments for schizophrenia, we performed a comparative review, summed up here, of the efficacy, safety, and tolerability of the present pharmacological and other medical treatments for these patients. This article also gives an overview of the approaches to treatments throughout different stages of schizophrenia. We conducted this overview to summarized the evidence based on surgical management of schizophrenia disorder, we performed an electronic search through specific databases such, PubMed (MEDLINE) and Ovid EMBASE, up to November 2017. The present models typically used for schizophrenia care consist of cognitive- behavioral therapy, psychoeducation, family intervention, social skills training, and cognitive remediation therapy. Antipsychotics (first- and/or second-generation antipsychotics) are revealed to be efficient in decreasing overall psychotic signs and symptoms and relapse in patients with schizophrenia. It is therefore recommended in most of the literature as first-line treatment for people with schizophrenia, a minimum of in the short-term or at the acute stage of disease. Nonetheless, the use of antipsychotics alone as the main therapy modality might be limited not just by their inability to deal with the often occurring negative symptoms and cognitive impairments but likewise by creating a wide range of negative effects in the internal body or organ functioning.

# **Introduction:**

Schizophrenia and its spectrum disorders (all falling under the term "schizophrenia" in this article) are chronic remitting and disruptive problems associated with considerable irregularities and the modern degeneration of a variety of cognitive, psychosocial, employment, and behavioral performance. The 4th version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV) defines schizophrenia as a syndrome defined by long duration, high regression rate (> 70%), bizarre delusions and habits, unfavorable symptoms, and sometimes a few mood issues [1]. The beginning of symptoms typically takes place in adolescence and young adulthood, with a worldwide estimate of its lifetime frequency and incidence of 1.4- 4.6 and 0.16- 0.42 each 1,000 persons every year, specifically [2] [3]. A recent systematic review indicated that patients detected with this disorder have a much shorter life-span compared to the average general populace and are especially in danger for self-destruction, enhanced physical threat (eg, restricted workout, poor diet, and obesity), and reduced access to medical treatment and healthcare solutions [4]. Furthermore, 5%- 8% of healthy individuals indicate an undermined form of schizoid individuality and schizophrenia-like signs and symptoms, such as paranoid delusional thinking and acoustic hallucination [5].

Because of the complex health problems and variety of abnormalities and impairments worrying schizophrenia, detailed and multimodal therapy approaches are considered and evaluated in different combinations, with the goal of reducing patients' illness episodes and signs, as well as enhancing their functioning and lifestyle in the longer term. Antipsychotic drugs have been

advised consistently and constantly as the mainstream and standard treatment for nearly all patients with schizophrenia, to provide them with a risk-free and therapeutic setting and efficient signs and symptom control considering that the introduction of chlorpromazine (the initial antipsychotic) in the 1960s. In the last 3 to four years, physical therapies such as electroconvulsive therapy (ECT; in the 1930s) and different methods to psychosocial interventions such as psychoanalysis (in the 1950s), family members treatment (in the 1960s), psychoeducation (in the 1980s), cognitive-behavioral therapy (in the 1990s), and cognitive remediation (in the 2000s) have been introduced together, [7] and their relative or combined efficacies for schizophrenia treatment have been progressively evaluated in numerous medical trials [8]. Current organized evaluations and practice standards have recommended that as a complement to psychopharmacological treatment, psychosocial treatments made to sustain both individuals with schizophrenia and their households must also be used to enhance their recovery, reintegration right into the area, and recuperation from the illness [6]. Different techniques and combinations of psychosocial programs are suggested to resolve the complicated personalized requirements of these patients for multimodal care, particularly concerning relapse avoidance, management of adverse signs and cognitive disorder, and drug adherence [9].

To get a more detailed and directed understanding of the impacts and advantages of recent approaches to treatments for schizophrenia, we performed a comparative review, summed up here, of the efficacy, safety, and tolerability of the present pharmacological and other medical treatments for these patients. This article also gives an overview of the approaches to treatments throughout different stages of schizophrenia.

# **Methodology:**

We conducted this overview to summarized the evidence based on surgical management of schizophrenia disorder, we performed an electronic search through specific databases such, PubMed (MEDLINE) and Ovid EMBASE, up to November 2017, we limited our search on English language published studies, and all studies discussing management approaches towards schizophrenia disorder Also references concerning the same topic was extracted from chosen studies for further board search to collect as strong evidence as we can.

# **Discussion:**

#### Pathophysiology

Abnormalities in neurotransmission have offered the basis for theories on the pathophysiology of schizophrenia. Most of these concepts center on either an excess or a deficiency of neurotransmitters, consisting of dopamine, serotonin, and glutamate. Other theories link aspartate, glycine, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) as part of the neurochemical imbalance of schizophrenia [10].

Irregular activity at dopamine receptor sites (particularly D2) is believed to be related to a number of the signs of schizophrenia. 4 dopaminergic pathways have been implicated (Figure 1) [11], [12]. The nigrostriatal pathway comes from the substantia nigra and finishes in the caudate nucleus. Reduced dopamine degrees within this path are believed to impact the extrapyramidal

system, leading to motor symptoms [10]. The mesolimbic pathway, extending from the ventral tegmental area (VTA) to limbic locations, might contribute in the favorable signs and symptoms of schizophrenia in the presence of excess dopamine [10]. The mesocortical path expands from the VTA to the cortex. Negative signs and cognitive deficiencies in schizophrenia are believed to be triggered by reduced mesocortical dopamine levels. The tuberoinfundibular pathway projects from the hypothalamus to the pituitary gland. A decline or blockade of tuberoinfundibular dopamine results in elevated prolactin levels and, as a result, galactorrhea, ammenorrhea, and reduced libido.

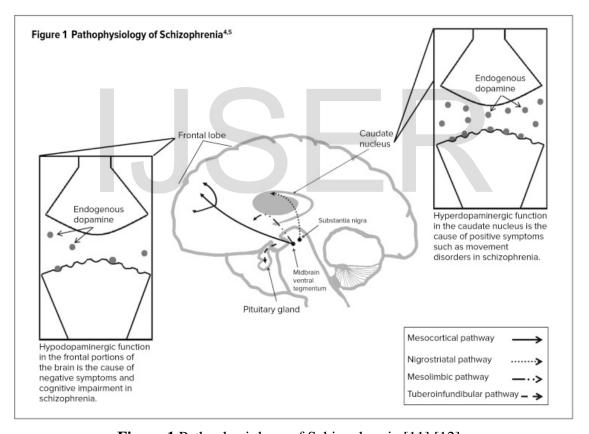


Figure 1. Pathophysiology of Schizophrenia [11],[12].

The serotonin hypothesis for the advancement of schizophrenia became an outcome of the discovery that lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) enhanced the impacts of serotonin in the brain [10]. Subsequent research resulted in the development of medication compounds that obstructed

both dopamine and serotonin receptors, in contrast to older medications, which impacted only dopamine receptors. The more recent substances were located to be effective in relieving both the positive and unfavorable signs of schizophrenia [10].

One more concept for the signs and symptoms of schizophrenia includes the task of glutamate, the significant excitatory neurotransmitter in the mind. This theory occurred in action to the finding that phenylciclidine and ketamine, 2 noncompetitive NMDA/glutamate antagonists, induce schizophrenia-like symptoms [13]. This, then, suggested that NMDA receptors are inactive in the normal regulation of mesocortical dopamine nerve cells, and pointed to a possible explanation for why patients with schizophrenia show negative, affective, and cognitive signs and symptoms [14].

The mind tissue itself shows up to go through observable physical changes in patients with schizophrenia. As an example, in addition to a rise in the dimension of the 3rd and side ventricles, individuals at high risk of a schizophrenic episode have a smaller median temporal wattle.

#### Etiology

Despite greater than a century of research study, the accurate source of schizophrenia continues to avoid investigators. It is extensively accepted, nonetheless, that the various phenotypes of the disease occur from multiple elements, including genetic susceptibility and ecological influences [15].

One explanation for the advancement of schizophrenia is that the problem begins in utero [13]. Obstetric problems, including bleeding while pregnant, gestational diabetes, emergency cesarean section, asphyxia, and reduced birth weight, have been associated with schizophrenia

later in life [16].Fetal disturbances during the second trimester-- an essential stage in fetal neurodevelopment- have been of specific interest to researchers [17].Infections and excess stress levels throughout this duration have been linked to a doubling of the danger of spawn establishing schizophrenia [17].

Scientific evidence supports the idea that hereditary elements play an essential duty in the causation of schizophrenia [16]; researches have revealed that the threat of ailment is roughly 10% for a first-degree loved one and 3% for a second-degree loved one [18]. When it comes to monozygotic twins, the threat of one twin having schizophrenia is 48% if the other has the condition, whereas the danger is 12% to 14% in dizygotic twins [18]. If both parents have schizophrenia, the danger that they will generate a kid with schizophrenia is approximately 40% [18].

Studies of adopted youngsters have been conducted to identify whether the danger of schizophrenia comes from the biological parents or from the atmosphere in which the youngster is raised. These investigations have tended to reveal that changes in the environment do not affect the threat of developing schizophrenia in youngsters born to biological parents with the illness [17]. A genetic basis for schizophrenia is more supported by searchings for that siblings with schizophrenia frequently experience onset of the problem at the very same age [16].

Environmental and social aspects may also contribute in the development of schizophrenia, particularly in individuals that are at risk to the disorder [10]. Environmental stress factors linked to schizophrenia consist of childhood trauma, minority ethnicity, home in an urban area, and social isolation [10]. Furthermore, social stressors, such as discrimination or economic difficulty, could incline individuals toward delusional or paranoid reasoning [10].

#### • Pharmacological intervention

## First- and second-generation antipsychotics

More than 70 antipsychotics have been introduced. They are generally classified into first- and second-generation agents and share a similar pharmacological mechanism in blocking the dopamine D-2 receptors [19]. Their blocking devices or actions are linked to their efficacy versus favorable and poor organization symptoms of schizophrenia.

The first-generation antipsychotics (FGAs), or typical antipsychotics (eg, chlorpromazine, fluphenazine, and haloperidol, consisted of on the planet Health Organization's checklist of Essential Medications in 2009), [20] were first introduced for the therapy of schizophrenia in the 1950s. The second-generation (atypical) antipsychotics (eg, clozapine, olanzapine, and risperidone) introduced in the last three years were thought to be more effective and tolerable than the FGAs, and a few have gradually changed the older FGAs to become the first-line prescription or the requirement of care. To capture the study proof or drug tests on antipsychotics, full-text write-ups released in English in between 1966 and 2010 were searched for in CINAHL, MEDLINE, EMBASE, The Cochrane Library, Cochrane Schizophrenia Group's Register, Biological Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Sociofile, and PsycLIT. Individuals included people with schizophrenia, schizophrenia-like psychoses such as schizophreniform and schizoaffective conditions, and psychotic problems such as delusional problem, nonaffective psychosis, or dual diagnosis. The primary outcomes determined from the reviewed articles generally involved mental state, global performance, and damaging events.

The first FGA invented- chlorpromazine, has become the well-established and benchmark therapy for individuals with schizophrenia to promote their deinstitutionalization and has been

made use of for greater than 40 years. Nevertheless, the reviewed literature revealed that the occurrence and typical dose of chlorpromazine prescribed to people with schizophrenia has been reducing [21] Various other generally used FGAs such as trifluoperazine, thioridazine, sulpiride, pimozide, perphenazine, and fluphenazine were checked and confirmed to have comparable and satisfactory efficiency in symptom decrease- mostly for positive signs (eg, deceptions and hallucinations) [22]. Nevertheless, there was minimal proof to support their efficiency at reduced dosages or in temporary therapy [23]. Significant adverse occasions caused by FGAs typically consist of sedation, activity disorders, endocrine disturbance, and metabolic and electrocardiogram modifications [23].

Above all, FGAs are a reasonably affordable treatment and commonly used medication; nonetheless, there is little evidence to sustain their effectiveness in lowering adverse symptoms (eg, anhedonia, loss of choice, and social withdrawal) and cognitive functioning, which could contribute much to the functional impairment of individuals with schizophrenia. It is generally wrapped up that there is similar satisfying professional efficacy in regards to psychological state and worldwide functioning throughout the FGAs and second-generation antipsychotics [25]. Nevertheless, a couple of tests show the superiority of specific second-generation representatives over the FGAs in certain illness condition or patient outcomes [24]. In 2 meta-analyses of placebo-controlled trials, [26] haloperidol was reported to be less efficient in minimizing signs and symptoms and/or regression compared to certain second-generation representatives (eg, clozapine and olanzapine).

Second-generation (or irregular) antipsychotics were thought to have good antipsychotic homes and marginal unfavorable results compared to those noted with the use of FGAs. Some of them have been revealed to be extra effective and less bothersome in regards to sedative and

neurological results compared to FGAs [27]. Using the very same data sources and a similar procedure as the literature search on FGAs offered earlier, 12 systematic evaluations (between 1966 and 2010) have been performed to compare the effects amongst second-generation antipsychotics and the results in between these second-generation agents and FGAs or a placebo. In enhancement to the primary patient outcomes made use of (ie, psychological state, global performance, and regression), a number of other psychosocial outcomes were typically compared across studies, consisting of degree of anxiety, acceptability of therapy (eg, failure rate and patient discontentment), failure to function, family worry, and social and cognitive functioning. Therefore, there are a broader variety of result measurements than utilized in previous researches, such as depression (eg, the Calgary Depression Scale, the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression, or the Montgomery Asberg Depression Rating Scale), quality of life (eg, the Quality of Life Scale, the Schizophrenia Quality of Life Scale, the Subjective Well-being on Neuroleptics [Antipsychotics] Range, or the Personal and Social Performance Scale), and patient fulfillment (eg, the Nurses Observational Scale Inpatients Evaluation) measures. Similar to those receiving FGAs, most of the scientific trials assessed the temporary effects (approximately 12 weeks) of the second-generation antipsychotics, although a couple of long-lasting analyses show up promising [26].

A few organized reviews also showed that the regulated trials of second-generation antipsychotics have primarily examined just a few kinds, consisting of risperidone, olanzapine, quetiapine, loxapine, sertindole, aripiprazole, and amisulpride, and mainly compared them with placebo controls. The reviews ended that second-generation antipsychotics had comparable effects to FGAs in terms of decrease of positive signs. The treatment efficacy of both FGAs and second-generation antipsychotics differs in terms of phases of the illness, with first-episode

schizophrenia reacting faster and better compared to at later illness stages. Nonetheless, the majority of the second-generation antipsychotics had comparatively less and lower degrees of negative results such as motion disorders and cardiac and sedative issues than FGAs. Clozapine, the very first second-generation antipsychotic, has been discovered to be especially efficient in dealing with refractory patients and decreasing suicidality. A current meta-analysis comparing 9 second-generation antipsychotics with the FGAs (eg, chlorpromazine, fluphenazine and haloperidol) for total efficacy ended that 4 second-generation antipsychotics (namely, amisulpride, clozapine, olanzapine, and risperidone) were far better than the FGAs, with tiny to medium impact sizes (ie, 0.13- 0.520) [25]. The four second-generation antipsychotics have been shown to generate less extrapyramidal unfavorable impacts compared to the low-potency FGAs. Although olanzapine can cause more weight gain and manufacturing of prolactin, it is shown to put in a persistent therapy impact over other second-generation antipsychotics in chronic schizophrenia [25].

#### Pharmacological treatment used in different developmental stages of life

During the last decade, there have been an increasing variety of randomized regulated tests of the effectiveness and security of the FGAs and secondary-generation antipsychotics in kids and adolescents with schizophrenia, entailing double-blind, placebo-controlled, or open-labeled layout and short- to medium-term follow-up (ie, 4- 8 weeks [28]. Those aged 12- 17 years were generally consisted of in the controlled tests, and a wide array of second-generation antipsychotics such as quetapine, risperidone, paliperidone, and olanzapine [29] were checked. A few major patient outcomes were frequently used, including worldwide performance, symptom severity, and quality-of-life evaluation; nevertheless, few of the research studies included any kind of long-lasting follow-up (ie, > 8 weeks). Additionally, a few kinds of treatment-emergent

negative occasions specifically for the second-generation antipsychotic made use of were observed (eg, metabolic and endocrine problems for olanzapine and somnolence, anxiety and electrocardiogram (ECG) and ocular abnormalities for quetiapine). Much like various other age, the majority of the antipsychotics have had favorable advantages for teens on reducing psychotic symptoms and international performance, and the therapy was well-tolerated with acceptable degrees of adverse occasions in low and moderate dosages. None of the FGAs or second-generation antipsychotics has revealed its prevalence over the others, and the advantages of polypharmacy to any type of psychotic signs and symptoms and comorbidities such as state of mind problems for teens are likewise inconclusive [30]. Nevertheless, it is recommended that antipsychotics are generally much better endured and extra efficient in very early psychosis.

## **4** Conclusion:

Many of patients with schizophrenia frequently have unresolved life occasions and mental distress, as well as illness-related or drug-induced problems, which considerably affect their normalcy of daily life. In the last few decades, different models of psychosocial intervention have been developed and applied as an adjunct to the pharmacological or other clinical therapies at various stages of schizophrenia. The main purpose of these approaches to treatment is to provide these patients (and their family members) with adequate knowledge of and skills in this disease and its treatment and care, emotional support, problem-solving and coping skills, and/or improving cognitive and functional recovery. The present models typically used for schizophrenia care consist of cognitive- behavioral therapy, psychoeducation, family intervention, social skills training, and cognitive remediation therapy. Antipsychotics (first-and/or second-generation antipsychotics) are revealed to be efficient in decreasing overall psychotic signs and symptoms and relapse in patients with schizophrenia. It is therefore

recommended in most of the literature as first-line treatment for people with schizophrenia, a minimum of in the short-term or at the acute stage of disease. Nonetheless, the use of antipsychotics alone as the main therapy modality might be limited not just by their inability to deal with the often occurring negative symptoms and cognitive impairments but likewise by creating a wide range of negative effects in the internal body or organ functioning. The FGAs and second-generation antipsychotics are two distinct classes of antipsychotics with quite various effectiveness and adverse effects, but these two classes do not have any definitive categorization between them in terms of efficacy, safety, and tolerability or in their clinical outcomes. However, as a result of the varied pharmacokinetics and patients' therapy responsiveness across different agents, the medicine regimen should be determined on an individual basis to guarantee optimal effect in their long-term usage. Various other medical and mental treatments should be taken into consideration as an adjunct to antipsychotic agents. Nevertheless, many of these alternate therapies are not strongly evidenced or conclusive in producing specific therapeutic effects in treating schizophrenia. More controlled trials are recommended to enhance understanding about their efficacy as a monotherapy or in combined usage with antipsychotics, various other medication, and/or psychosocial interventions.

#### **Reference:**

- 1. American Psychiatric Association . Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. 4th ed. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association; 1994.
- 2. Dominguez Mde G, Viechtbauer W, Simons CJ, van Os J, Krabbendam L. Are psychotic psychopathology and neurocognition orthogonal? A systematic review of their associations. Psychol Bull. 2009;135(1):157–171.
- 3. Jablensky A. Prevalence and incidence of schizophrenia spectrum disorders: implications for prevention. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2000;34(Suppl):S26–S34. discussion S35–S38.

- 4. Saha S, Chant D, McGrath J. A systematic review of mortality in schizophrenia: is the differential mortality gap worsening over time? Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2007;64(10):1123–1131.
- 5. van Os J, Linscott RJ, Myin-Germeys I, Delespaul P, Krabbendam L. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the psychosis continuum: evidence for a psychosis proneness-persistence-impairment model of psychotic disorder. Psychol Med. 2009;39(2):179–195.
- National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence . Schizophrenia. Core Interventions in the Treatment and Management of Schizophrenia in Primary and Secondary Care. London: National Institute for Clinical Excellence; 2009. National Clinical Practice Guideline 82.
- 7. Bilder RM. Neurocognitive impairment in schizophrenia and how it affects treatment options. Can J Psychiatry. 1997;42(3):255–264.
- 8. Bustillo J, Lauriello J, Horan W, Keith S. The psychosocial treatment of schizophrenia: an update. Am J Psychiatry. 2001;158(2):163–175.
- 9. Tandon R, Targum SD, Nasrallah HA, Ross R, Treatment Effectiveness in Schizophrenia Consortium Strategies for maximizing clinical effectiveness in the treatment of schizophrenia. J Psychiatr Pract. 2006;12(6):348–363.
- 10. Lavretsky H. History of Schizophrenia as a Psychiatric Disorder. In: Mueser KT, Jeste DV, editors. Clinical Handbook of Schizophrenia. New York, New York: Guilford Press; 2008. pp. 3–12.
- 11. Schwartz JH, Javitch JA. Neurotransmitters. In: Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessell TM, et al., editors. Principles of Neural Science. 5th ed. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill; 2013. pp. 289–305.
- 12. Stahl SM. Psychosis and Schizophrenia. In: Stahl SM, editor. Essential Psychopharmacology: Neuroscientific Basis and Practical Applications. 2nd ed. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press; 2000. pp. 365–399.
- 13. Jentsch JD, Roth RH. The neuropsychopharmacology of phencyclidine: from NMDA receptor hypofunction to the dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. Neuropsychopharmacology. 1999;20(3):201–225.
- 14. Stahl SM, Morrissette DA, Citrome L, et al. "Meta-guidelines" for the management of patients with schizophrenia. CNS Spectr. 2013;18(3):150–162.
- 15. Crismon L, Argo TR, Buckley PF. Schizophrenia. In: DiPiro JT, Talbert RL, Yee GC, et al., editors. 1Pharmacotherapy: A Pathophysiologic Approach. 9th ed. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill; 2014. pp. 1019–1046.
- 16. Crismon L, Argo TR, Buckley PF. Schizophrenia. In: DiPiro JT, Talbert RL, Yee GC, et al., editors. 1Pharmacotherapy: A Pathophysiologic Approach. 9th ed. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill; 2014. pp. 1019–1046.
- 17. Beck AT, Rector NA, Stolar N, Grant P. Schizophrenia: Cognitive Theory, Research, and Therapy. New York, New York: Guilford Press; 2009. Biological Contributions; pp. 30–61.

- 18. McDonald C, Murphy KC. The new genetics of schizophrenia. Psychiatr Clin North Am. 2003;26(1):41–63.
- 19. Kapur S, Remington G. Dopamine D(2) receptors and their role in atypical antipsychotic action: still necessary and may even be sufficient. Biol Psychiatry 1. 2001;50(11):873–883.
- 20. 20. World Health Organization WHO Model List of Essential Medicines 17th edAvailable
  - from: <a href="http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/en/index.html">http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/en/index.html</a>Acces sed June 18, 2013
- 21. Liu X, De Haan S. Chlorpromazine dose for people with schizophrenia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2009;(2):CD007778.
- 22. Marques LDO, Soares B, Silva de Lima M. Trifluoperazine for schizophrenia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2004;(1):CD003545.
- 23. Leucht S, Hartung B. Perazine for schizophrenia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2006;(2):CD002832.
- 24. Soares BGO, Fenton M, Chue P. Sulpiride for schizophrenia. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 1999;(1):CD001162.
- 25. Leucht S, Corves C, Arbter D, Engel RR, Li C, Davis JM. Second-generation versus first-generation antipsychotic drugs for schizophrenia: a meta-analysis. Lancet 3. 2009;373(9657):31–41.
- 26. Davis JM, Chen N, Glick ID. A meta-analysis of the efficacy of second-generation antipsychotics. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2003;60(6):553–564.
- 27. Kerwin RW. The new atypical antipsychotics. A lack of extrapyramidal side-effects and new routes in schizophrenia research. Br J Psychiatry. 1994;164(2):141–148.
- 28. Shaw JA, Lewis JE, Pascal S, et al. A study of quetiapine: efficacy and tolerability in psychotic adolescents. J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol. 2001;11(4):415–424.1
- 29. Kryzhanovskaya L, Schulz SC, McDougle C, et al. Olanzapine versus placebo in adolescents with schizophrenia: a 6-week, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2009;48(1):60–70.
- 30. Sikich L, Frazier JA, McClellan J, et al. Double-blind comparison of first- and second-generation antipsychotics in early-onset schizophrenia and schizo-affective disorder: findings from the treatment of early-onset schizophrenia spectrum disorders (TEOSS) study. Am J Psychiatry. 2008;165(11):1420–1431.