

Epilessia e disturbi dello spettro autistico

La presa in carico farmacologica

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Epilessia e DSA: le problematiche del trattamento farmacologico

- **La scelta del farmaco antiepilettico nel bambino con DSA che sviluppa un'epilessia**
- **La scelta dello psicofarmaco nel bambino con DSA ed epilessia**
- **Le interazioni farmacocinetiche e farmacodinamiche tra FAE e farmaci psicotropi**
- **Il trattamento del bambino con epilessia che sviluppa un DSA (encefalopatia epilettica)**
- **La gestione del bambino con regressione autistica ed anomalie epilettiformi all'EEG**

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Non esistono trial randomizzati controllati o studi clinici ampi che abbiano testato gli effetti dei FAE in popolazioni ben definite di soggetti con epilessia e DSA

Efficacy spectrum of available AEDs

All seizures & syndromes

Valproic acid
Benzodiazepines
Lamotrigine**
Topiramate (?)
Felbamate (?)
Zonisamide (?)
Levetiracetam (?)

All seizures exc. absences

Phenobarbital
Primidone

Partial & tonic-clonic

Carbamazepine*
Phenytoin*
Oxcarbazepine*
Vigabatrin*
Gabapentin*
Tiagabine*
Pregabalin*
Lacosamide
Brivaracetam
Eslicarbazepine

Absences only

Ethosuximide

*may exacerbate myoclonic and absence seizures; Vigabatrin is also effective in infantile spasms;

** Lamotrigine may aggravate severe myoclonic epilepsy

Table 2. Antiepileptic Drugs (AEDs): Certain Pharmacologic Characteristics and Cognitive and Behavioral Adverse Effect Profile

| AED | GABA ^{a,b} | Glutamate ^{b,c} | CYP450 ^{d,e} | Metabolism and Elimination | Cognitive AE ^f | Behavioral AE ^f |
|-----------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| Benzodiazepines | + | | 2C19 sub;3A4 sub | Hepatic/renal | + | Sedation, decreased attention, hyperactivity, irritability and aggression |
| Carbamazepine | | + | + 3A4 | Hepatic | + | Affective disorder |
| Ethosuximide | | | 3A4 sub | Hepatic | | Psychosis (forced normalization) |
| Felbamate | + | + | 2E1, 3A4 sub, -2C19, +3A4 | Hepatic/renal | | Agitation, irritability |
| Gabapentin | | | NONE | Renal | | Somnolence, aggression, hyperactivity, oppositional |
| Lamotrigine | + | + | UK | Hepatic | | Irritability, anxiety, aggressiveness, hypomania |
| Levetiracetam | + | | NONE | Renal | | Somnolence, agitation, aggressive behavior, irritability |
| Oxcarbazepine | | + | +3A4/5, -2C19 | Hepatic | + | |
| Phenobarbital | + | | +3A4; Sub 2C9, 2C19, 2E1 | Hepatic/renal | + | Hyperactivity, lethargy, irritability, depression |
| Phenytoin | | | + 2B6, 2C9/19, 3A4; sub 2C9, 2C19 | Hepatic | + | Decreased motor speed, anxiety, aggression, depression |
| Tiagabine | + | | Sub 3A4 | Hepatic | | Aggression, irritability, lethargy, drowsiness |
| Topiramate | + | + | +3A4; -2C19 | Hepatic/renal | + | Depression, paranoia, acute confusional psychosis |
| Valproate | + | + | -2C9 | Hepatic | + | Encephalopathy, depression |
| Vigabatrin | + | | -2C9 | Renal | | Sedation, agitation, hyperkinesia, aggression, depression, psychotic symptoms |
| Zonisamide | | | Sub 3A4 | Hepatic/renal | + | Somnolence, confusion, nervousness, affective problems, psychosis |

Modified from Anderson [2004]; Kwan and Brodie [2001]; Mula and Monaco [2009]; Perruca [2005]; Perruca and Meador [2005]; Sankar and Holmes [2004]; and Schmitz [2006]

^aIncrease in GABA levels or potentiation of GABA activity.

^bPrimary or secondary action.

^cReduce glutamate mediated excitation.

^dCytochrome P450.

^e+: Inducer, -: inhibitor, ±: inducer and inhibitor, sub: substrate, uk: unknown.

^fAdverse effects.

Epilessia e DSA – Acido valproico

- Diversi report clinici segnalano miglioramenti in bambini che presentano DSA, con o senza crisi, ma con anomalie epilettiformi all'EEG, trattati con VPA (**Nass et al., 1990; Plioplys, 1994; Childs & Blair, 1997**)
- Un trial in aperto condotto su 14 soggetti trattati con VPA mostra miglioramento dei sintomi “core” dell'autismo, dell'instabilità affettiva, dell'impulsività e dell'aggressività solo nei bambini con autismo, EEG alterato o storia di crisi (**Hollander et al., 2001**)

Divalproex sodium vs. placebo in the treatment of repetitive behaviours in autism spectrum disorder

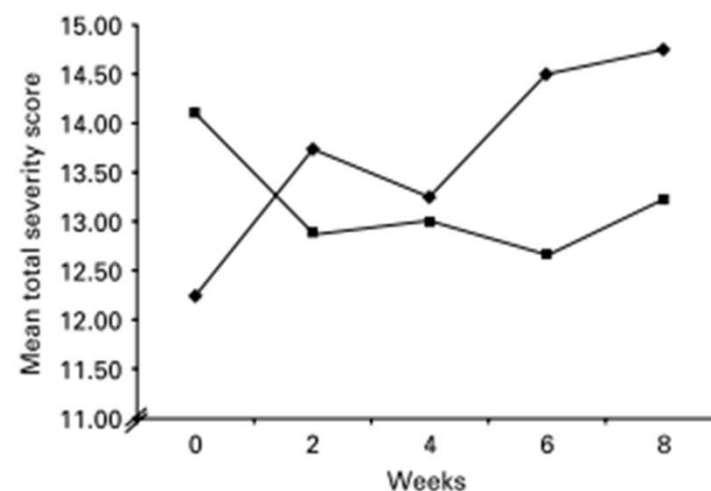
Eric Hollander¹, Latha Soorya¹, Stacey Wasserman¹, Katherine Esposito¹, William Chaplin² and Evdokia Anagnostou¹

¹ Department of Psychiatry, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

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Abstract

Autism is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by impairment in three core symptom domains: socialization, communication, and repetitive/stereotyped behaviours. Other associated symptom domains are also affected including impulsivity/aggression, self-injury, anxiety, and mood lability. Divalproex has been shown to have efficacy in treating epilepsy, bipolar disorder, mood lability, and impulsive aggression. The present study evaluated the use of divalproex in the treatment of repetitive, compulsive-like symptoms of autism spectrum disorder (ASD). Thirteen individuals with ASD participated in an 8-wk, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of divalproex sodium vs. placebo. There was a significant group difference on improvement in repetitive behaviours as measured by the Children's Yale–Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale (C-YBOCS) ($p=0.037$) and a large effect size ($d=1.616$). This study provides preliminary support for the use of divalproex in treating repetitive behaviours in ASD. Further research is needed to evaluate the specificity and mechanism of action of these findings.





Antiepileptic Drugs: Affective Use in Autism Spectrum Disorders

Adriana Di Martino, MD* and Roberto F. Tuchman, MD†

Di Martino A, Tuchman RF. Antiepileptic drugs: Affective use in autism spectrum disorders. *Pediatr Neurol* 2001;25:199-207.

Table 1. Antiepileptics in patients with autism and related conditions

| Patient | Age | Diagnosis | Seizure | Abnormal EEG | AED | Epilepsy Control | Behavior Improvement | Reference Citation |
|---------|------------------|---------------------------------|---------|--------------|-----|------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| 3 | Child | Asperger ADHD (2) BPD (1) | - | - | VPA | / | + | [21] |
| 2 | Child | AUT | - | + | VPA | + | + | [20] |
| 3 | Child | AUT | - | + | VPA | ? | + | [18] |
| 1 | Child | PDD | - | + | VPA | + | + | [15] |
| 2 | Child | AUT | - | + | VPA | + | + | [12] |
| 2 | Adult | AUT BPD (1) RCD (1) | - | - | VPA | ± | + | [14] |
| 1 | Child | Asperger | + | + | CBZ | ± | - | [19] |
| 2 | Child | AUT TS | +(1) | + | CBZ | + | + | [16] |
| 2 | Adolescent | AUT BPD | 1+ | 1+ | CBZ | +(1) | + | [13] |
| 13 | Child/adolescent | AUT (12) Rett (1) | + | + | LMG | * | +(8) | [17] |

Epilessia e DSA – Lamotrigina

- In uno studio condotto in bambini con epilessie farmacoresistenti, un sottogruppo di 13 bambini con associato autismo mostra riduzione dei “sintomi autistici”, senza concomitante riduzione delle crisi (**Uvebrant e Bauziene, 1994**)
- Un successivo trial in DC vs placebo condotto in 28 bambini con autismo e senza crisi non evidenzia significativi miglioramenti degli indicatori comportamentali; i genitori, tuttavia, riferiscono un effetto benefico della lamotrigina (**Belsito et al., 2001**)

Epilessia e DSA – Levetiracetam

- In uno studio in aperto su 10 bambini con DSA senza epilessia, vengono riferiti effetti positivi su iperattività, impulsività, instabilità dell'umore ed aggressività **(Rugino e Samsock, 2002)**
- Un secondo studio in 20 bambini con DSA e senza crisi non mette in evidenza effetti positivi sul comportamento **(Wasserman et al., 2006)**



A Retrospective in Children with Pervasive

Antonio Y. Hardan, M.D., Ro

An open-label retrospective study was conducted of topiramate in children and adolescents with PDD. Topiramate is a novel antiepileptic drug. A retrospective chart review of 10 children with PDD who received topiramate. The study found that treatment response was maintained unchanged. Treatment response was measured using the Clinical Global Impressions scale and the Conners Parent Scale (CPS), as compared to baseline. The study included 10 patients (5 male, 3 female; age = 14.7 ± 3.3 years) with Asperger's disorder, and 2 patients with PDD, NOS. Eight patients (4 patients with autistic disorder) were judged to have a significant improvement in CGI-GI. Treatment duration was 25 weeks. There were no differences between baseline and the end of treatment on any of the subscales: conduct, hyperactivity, and somatic, learning, and anxiety subscales. Side effects were minimal, with 2 patients experiencing weight gain. Topiramate may be beneficial for treating PDD. Further controlled, double-blind, placebo-controlled studies are needed.

Topiramate in children

Dear Sir,

Recurrent aggression is a common reason for psychological treatment among children with Pervasive Developmental Disorders (ASD). In this study, topiramate (TPM) showed promising results. Drug-induced weight gain is a common side effect, but the fact that TPM causes weight gain makes it a potential concern when there is concern about weight gain.

In the April 2005 issue of the *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, Canitano reported on 10 children with PDD treated with TPM for 10 months with TPM to 3 mg/kg/day [3]. Four patients had a significant improvement while two children continued to have a positive effect at the end of the study.

We would like to discuss the results on five boys (aged 10–14 years) with a diagnosis of DSM-IV autistic disorder. The Autism Rating Scale and the Conners Parent Scale were used to assess verbal children, or two patients performed and three in the moderate range (mean ± SD IQ for the study was 70.0 ± 10.0). Two had received at least one episode of psychotic and had discontinued treatment due to side effects or development of a psychotic disorder.

TPM was started at 150 mg/day, followed by 150 mg 2-week intervals, up to 300 mg/day (mean TPM dose was 250 mg/day). Two patients received add-on SSRI for obsessive behavior. The study duration ranged from 10 to 33 weeks.

Also Topiramate might have some benefit in psychopharmacological treatment of autism

Sir,

Autism is a neurological disorder causing impairment with respect to communication and activities of daily life. Cholinergic drugs (mainly used for patients suffering from Alzheimer's disease), have been reported to have some benefit in treating patients suffering from autism. Chez et al. [1] published an open-label study demonstrating that Rivastigmine leads to gains in overall autistic behavior and expressive speech. Hertzmann [2] report improvements in verbal fluency, caused by another acetylcholinesterase inhibitor, Galantamine, but also mention verbal and behavioural regression when the patient was on Donepezil, another cholinergic drug. One of our recent observations [3] suggested, that also glutamate antagonists such as the N-methyl-D-aspartate glutamate receptor antagonist Memantine may slightly improve some cardinal symptoms in autistic patients, mainly those who are related to irritability and hyperactivity. Because of its adverse side effects (dizziness, somnolence, headache, hallucinations, hypertension) it should be used with caution. For that reason, it seems to be useful to look for substances with fewer side effects, acting similarly. Topiramate, an inhibitor of the excitotoxin kainite, mainly used for treating epilepsy, and administered at a dosage of not more

than 50 mg daily, has been reported to have similar side effects, but less marked. Mainly cardiovascular side effects such as hypertonia have not been described in patients medicated with Topiramate. We assume, that Topiramate may also be effective treating autism, but with less probable side effects. We recommend to investigate this substance for the indication "autism".

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Double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of risperidone plus topiramate in children with autistic disorder

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ABSTRACT

Background: Autism is a complex neurodevelopmental disorder that forms part of a spectrum of related disorders referred to as Autism Spectrum Disorders. The present study assessed the effects of topiramate plus risperidone in the treatment of autistic disorder.

Method: Forty children between the ages of 4 and 12 years with a DSM IV clinical diagnosis of autism who were outpatients from a specialty clinic for children were recruited. The children presented with a chief complaint of severely disruptive symptoms related to autistic disorder. Patients were randomly allocated to topiramate + risperidone (Group A) or placebo + risperidone (Group B) for an 8-week, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. The dose of risperidone was titrated up to 2 mg/day for children between 10 and 40 kg and 3 mg/day for children weighting above 40 kg. The dose of topiramate was titrated up to 200 mg/day depending on weight (100 mg/day for <30 kg and 200 mg/day for >30 kg). Patients were assessed at baseline and after 2, 4, 6 and 8 weeks after starting medication. Measure of outcome was the Aberrant Behavior Checklist-Community (ABC-C) Rating Scale.

Results: Difference between the two protocols was significant as the group that received topiramate had a greater reduction in ABC-C subscale scores for irritability, stereotypic behavior and hyperactivity/noncompliance.

Conclusion: The results suggest that the combination of topiramate with risperidone may be superior to risperidone monotherapy for children with autistic disorder. However the results need to be further confirmed by a larger randomized controlled trial.

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Table 2

Mean \pm SD of the two protocols on the five subscales of Aberrant Behavior Checklist-Community (ABC-C) rating scale.

| Subscales | Week 0 | Week 2 | Week 4 | Week 6 | Week 8 | Drugs \times time interaction |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------------------|
| <i>Irritability</i> | | | | | | |
| Risperidone + Topiramate [mean (SD)] | 17.25 (3.12) | 16.40 (3.42) | 14.40 (2.89) | 12.25 (2.40) | 8.20 (2.44) | P = 0.04 |
| Risperidone + placebo [mean (SD)] | 16.80 (4.22) | 16.65 (4.40) | 16.35 (4.92) | 15.85 (4.97) | 15.30 (4.64) | |
| <i>Lethargy/social withdrawal</i> | | | | | | |
| Risperidone + Topiramate [mean (SD)] | 17.65 (6.02) | 16.80 (6.16) | 16.30 (6.30) | 15.25 (6.36) | 14.15 (6.67) | P = 0.70 |
| Risperidone + placebo [mean (SD)] | 17.55 (4.28) | 16.75 (4.11) | 16.60 (3.96) | 16.15 (4.42) | 15.60 (4.28) | |
| <i>Stereotypic behavior</i> | | | | | | |
| Risperidone + Topiramate [mean (SD)] | 8.83 (3.89) | 7.79 (3.26) | 6.90 (2.73) | 5.55 (1.82) | 3.40 (1.04) | P = 0.04 |
| Risperidone + placebo [mean \pm SD] | 8.71 (3.21) | 8.43 (3.15) | 8.07 (2.95) | 8.05 (2.94) | 8.09 (3.04) | |
| <i>Hyperactivity/noncompliance</i> | | | | | | |
| Risperidone + Topiramate [mean (SD)] | 22.75 (4.85) | 21.00 (4.7) | 17.05 (3.47) | 13.50 (3.25) | 7.60 (2.37) | P = 0.04 |
| Risperidone + placebo [mean (SD)] | 22.00 (9.17) | 21.20 (8.59) | 20.40 (8.35) | 19.70 (8.06) | 19.25 (8.30) | |
| <i>Inappropriate speech</i> | | | | | | |
| Risperidone + Topiramate [mean (SD)] | 5.25 (2.01) | 5.00 (1.93) | 4.82 (1.84) | 4.32 (1.93) | 3.93 (2.17) | P = 0.98 |
| Risperidone + placebo [mean (SD)] | 5.10 (1.80) | 4.86 (1.63) | 4.56 (1.34) | 4.49 (1.53) | 4.24 (1.59) | |

Oxcarbazepine in Youths With Autistic Disorder and Significant Disruptive Behaviors

TO THE EDITOR: Disruptive behaviors are a frequent reason for psychiatric visits among autistic individuals. The following case report describes beneficial effects in three consecutive oxcarbazepine-treated autistic youths with disruptive behaviors. All three patients had been conjointly engaged in behavioral therapies provided by local treatment facilities.

"A.B." is a 13-year-old Hispanic male with frequent aggression toward others and property, irregular sleep, and poor ability to follow instructions. Previous effective trials of risperidone and olanzapine were both discontinued because of elevated liver transaminases and excessive weight gain, respectively. Oxcarbazepine was titrated to 300 mg every morning and 600 mg every night over 7 days. Two weeks later, the patient's mother reported improved compliance at home, and school reports showed improved cooperation and attention span. The aggression was decreased in severity and frequency, and regular sleep was established. He has been stable on this regimen for 4 months.

"C.D." is a 19-year-old Caucasian female with dysfunctional compulsive routines, head banging, and frequent violent outbursts. Fluoxetine was titrated to 20 mg daily over 2 months. The compulsive symptoms improved dramatically, but she remained aggressive. Risperidone augmentation failed, so oxcarbazepine was titrated to 600 mg b.i.d. One month later, her tantrums were significantly reduced, and cooperativeness improved. The head banging was reduced from more than 10 spells per day to approximately once per week. The patient has been on this combination of fluoxetine and oxcarbazepine for 6 months.

"E.F." is a 4½-year-old Hispanic child whose symptoms included head banging, property destruction, hitting others, irregular sleep, and hyperactivity. Previous treatments with methylphenidate and amphetamine salts resulted in agitation; trials of guanfacine and risperidone failed. Oxcarbazepine was titrated to 150 mg every morning and 300 mg every night over 2½ months, resulting in normalized sleep schedule, improved cooperativeness, and lessened aggression. The patient has been maintaining these improvements for 3½ months.

Written informed consent was obtained from the legal guardians in all three cases. None of the patients have developed hyponatremia or other untoward outcomes.

To our knowledge, this is the first report of oxcarbazepine use in autism with disruptive behaviors. These symptoms are best managed by combining behavior modification and psychotropic agents (1). While haloperidol and risperidone have solid evidence base supporting their efficacy and effectiveness in this indication, their side-effect profiles (i.e., extrapyramidal symptoms and weight gain, respectively) are equally well documented (2). Controlled trials also support fluoxetine and fluvoxamine, but treatment-emergent behavioral activation (3) limits their clinical applicability. Oxcarbazepine has a more favorable side-effect profile, and it is available in liquid form, which is often more convenient for autistic patients. Hopefully, this report will inspire future research on the effects of oxcarbazepine in autistic individuals.

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Am J Psychiatry 164:5, May 2007

A Novel Hypothesized Clinical Implication of Zonisamide for Autism

Ahmad Ghanizadeh, MD

In an interesting recently published study, Asanuma et al reported that zonisamide, which is used as an antiepileptic medication and a novel antiparkinsonian drug, significantly increases glutathione levels in astroglial cells.¹ Zonisamide enhances cystine/glutamate exchange and increases influx of cystine. Cystine is an important substrate for glutathione synthesis, and glutathione is an antioxidant. Herein, I would like to discuss another possible clinical and research implication of their findings.

Autism is neurodevelopmental disorder, the prevalence of which is rising. Its etiology is not exactly known, and there is no curative treatment. Methionine, cystine, and glutathione concentration in children with autism were found to be lower than in a control group,² whereas a higher concentration of oxidized glutathione was reported in children with autism.² This lower methionine concentration is due to reduction in methionine synthase activity.² A consequence of decreased methionine cycle turnover is decrease of cystine and glutathione synthesis.² Glutathione is made from cystine, glutamate, and glycine. Cystine has an important role in the synthesis of glutathione, because its concentration is lower than that of glycine and glutamate. Therefore, cystine has a limiting role for glutathione synthesis. One of the sources of cystine is direct import from plasma.³ Another source of cystine is via methionine cycle.³ Low cystine concentration decreases glutathione synthesis.⁴ The role of glutathione in antioxidant effect is clear in many disorders, such as parkinsonism and autism. Low glutathione increases vulnerability to oxidative stress. Increased oxidative stress and decreased methylation capacity and glutathione concentration contribute to autism clinical manifestation.² Demand for cystine, methionine, and glutathione is increased during chronic oxidative stress⁴ such as autism. Lower concentration of methionine, cystine, and glutathione is suggested as a metabolic biomarker of autism.² Therefore, there is a possibility that providing more cystine increases methionine cycle and glutathione. This can improve antioxidant activity.

Given that methionine, cystine, and glutathione concentration in children with autism is low, oxidative stress in autism is increased, and demand for cystine, methionine, and glutathione during chronic oxidative stress is high.

Regarding zonisamide, which is a safe medication in young children⁵ that increases glutathione by increasing the influx of cystine,¹ another implication of their findings¹ is the need to conduct studies for the assessment of the possible efficacy of zonisamide administration for the management of autism. In conclusion, even if zonisamide may impact on other neurotransmitters, and the mechanism by which it works is still not completely understood, the present hypothesis suggests that conducting clinical trials on this matter may be worthwhile.

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Neuroleptic drugs and seizure threshold



clorpromazina, olanzapina, clozapina

aloperidolo

fenotiazine, tioxanteni, risperidone, quietapina,
aripiprazolo, ziprasidone

The Use of Psychotropic Drugs in Epilepsy: What Every Neurologist Should Know

Andres M. Kanner, M.D.¹

SEMINARS IN NEUROLOGY/VOLUME 28, NUMBER 3 2008

DO ANTIDEPRESSANT DRUGS WORSEN SEIZURES?

Thus, what accounts for the perception that antidepressant drugs cause seizures? In fact, there are four antidepressant drugs—maprotiline, amoxepine, clomipramine, and bupropion (in its immediate-release formulation)—that are known to lower the seizure threshold at therapeutic doses, while antidepressants of the tricyclic, SSRI, and serotonin-norepinephrine-reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) families can cause seizures at toxic concentrations. Indeed, a review of the literature of seizures with TCAs in nonepileptic patients identified seizure occurrence in patients who had taken overdoses or who had high serum concentrations because of their propensity to be “slow metabolizers.”³³

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Ranking AEDs for PK Interaction Potential



carbamazepine, phenytoin, barbiturates

valproic acid

rufinamide, felbamate, oxcarbazepine, topiramate, lamotrigine, tiagabine, benzodiazepines, ethosuximide, zonisamide

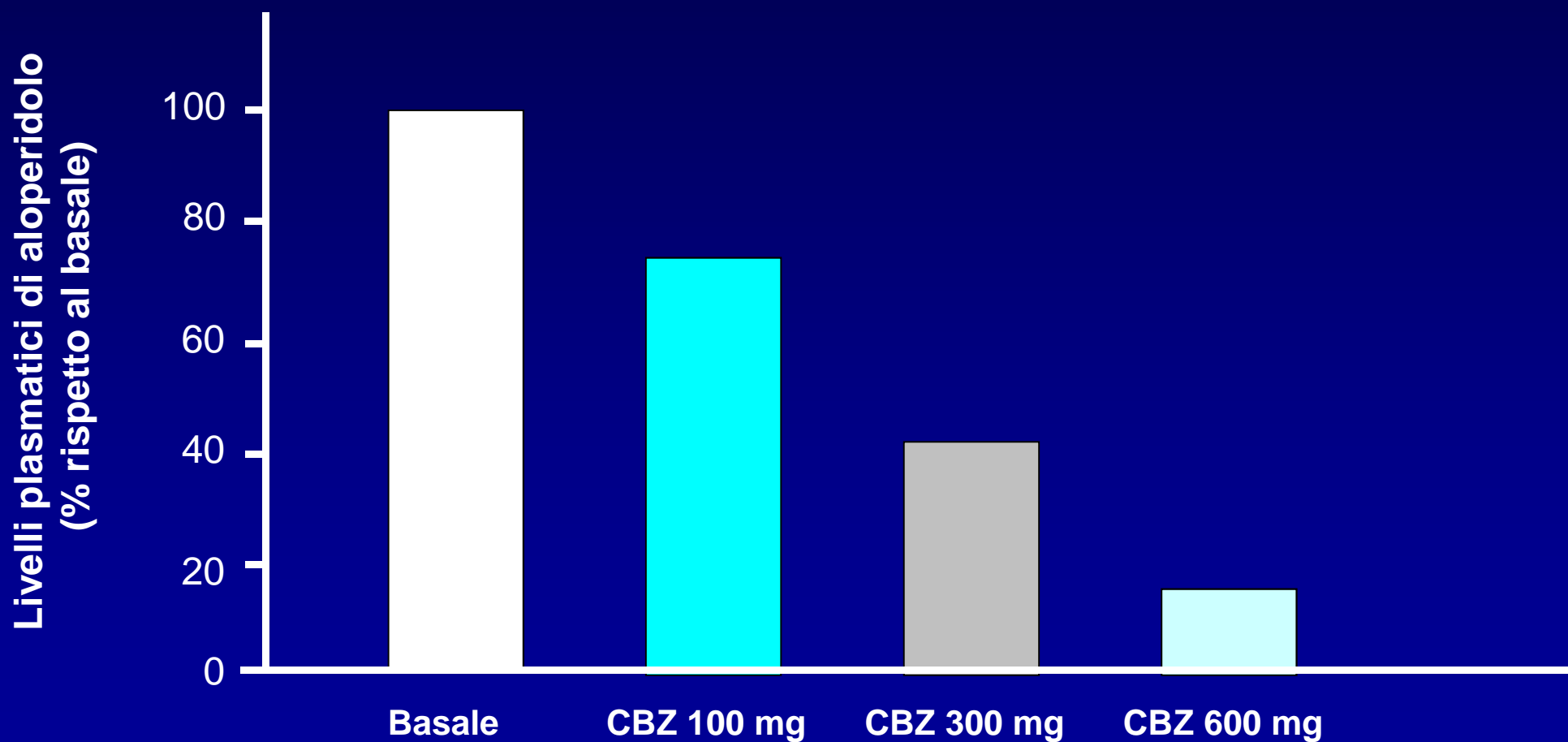
gabapentin, lacosamide, levetiracetam, pregabalin, vigabatrin

■ Perpetrator and target ■ Target only ■ Little or not involved

Substrati, inibitori ed induttori degli isoenzimi del citocromo P450

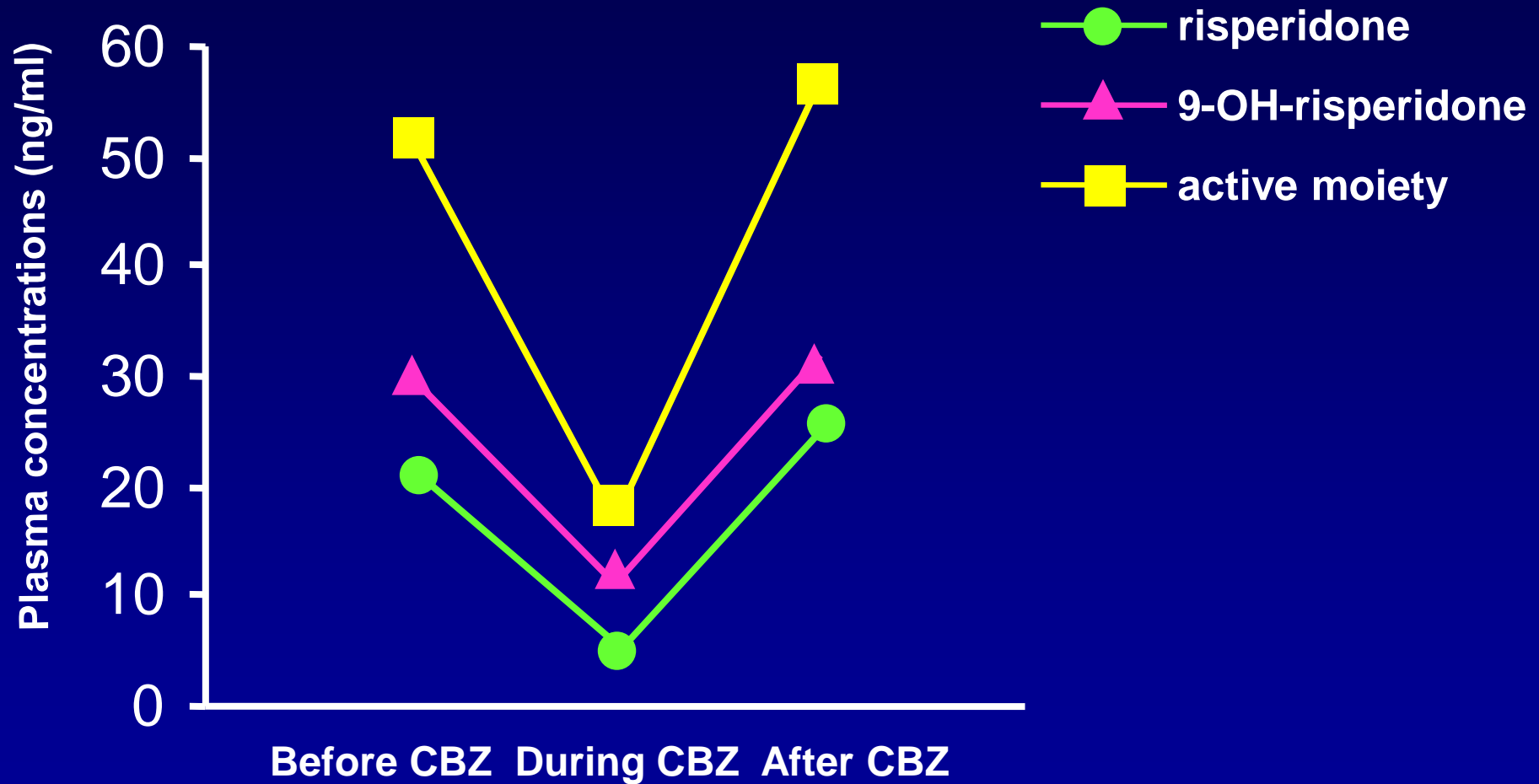
| | Farmaci metabolizzati | Inibitori | Induttori |
|----------------|---|---|---|
| CYP1A2 | Antidepressivi: triciclici (demetilazione), fluvoxamina Antipsicotici: clozapina, olanzapina Altri: teofillina, tacrina, propranololo | Fluvoxamina Ciprofloxacina Claritromicina | Carbamazepina Fenobarbitale Fenitoina Fumo |
| CYP2C9 | AEDs: fenitoina, fenobarbitale, acido valproico NSAID: diclofenac, ibuprofene, naprossene, celecoxib Altri: warfarina, tolbutamide, losartan | Amiodarone Fluconazolo Acido valproico Fluoxetina Fluvoxamina | Carbamazepina Fenobarbitale Fenitoina |
| CYP2C19 | AEDs: fenitoina, fenobarbitale Antidepressivi: triciclici (demetilazione), citalopram, moclobemide Altri: diazepam, omeprazolo, propranololo | Omeprazolo Ticlopidina Fluvoxamina | Carbamazepina Fenobarbitale Fenitoina |
| CYP2D6 | Antidepressivi: triciclici (idrossilazione), fluoxetina, paroxetina, venlafaxina Antipsicotici: tioridazina, risperidone, clozapina, olanzapina, aripiprazolo Beta-bloccanti: metoprololo, propranololo, timololo Antiarritmici: encainide, flecainide, propafenone Altri: donepezil, tramadolo | Chinidina Tioridazina Fluoxetina Paroxetina Duloxetina | |
| CYP3A4 | AEDs: carbamazepina, etosuccimide, felbamato, tiagabina, zonisamide Antidepressivi: triciclici (demetilazione), sertralina, reboxetina Antipsicotici: quetiapina, risperidone, aripiprazolo Calcio-antagonisti: diltiazem, felodipina, nifedipina, verapamil Altri: amiodarone, alprazolam, astemizolo, ciclosporina, eritromicina, metadone, etinilestradiolo, levonorgestrel, ritonavir, terfenadina, statine | Ketoconazolo Itraconazolo Eritromicina Troleandomicina Ritonavir Succo di pompelmo | Carbamazepina Fenobarbitale Fenitoina Rifampicina Iperico |

Livelli plasmatici di aloperidolo dopo somministrazione di dosi crescenti carbamazepina in 11 pazienti schizofrenici



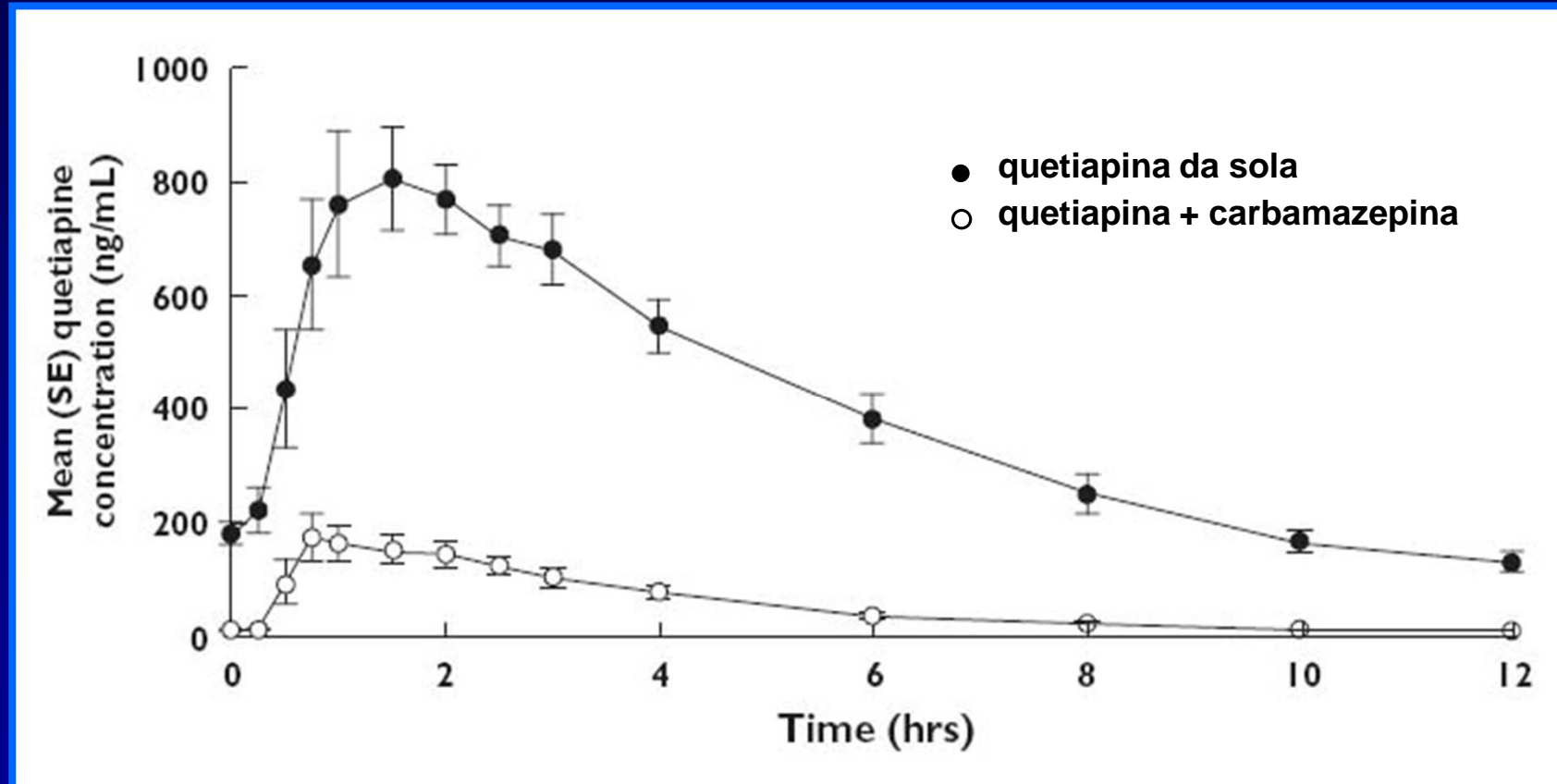
(Yasui-Furukori et al, J Clin Psychopharmacol 2003; 23: 435-440)

Interazione tra carbamazepina e risperidone



(Spina et al., J Clin Psychopharmacol 2001; 21: 108-109)

Interazione tra carbamazepina e quetiapina



(Grimm et al., Br J Clin Pharmacol 2006; 61: 58-69)

Table 3.

Effect of various anti-epileptics on plasma concentrations of novel antipsychotics (only controlled studies are described).

| Antiepileptic | Antipsychotic | Effect on plasma concentrations | Proposed mechanism | References | Number of participants, design |
|---------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Carbamazepine | Clozapine | Decrease (50%) | Induction of CYP1A2, CYP3A4 and UGT | Jerling et al., 1994 [79] | 17, parallel, and 8, sequential |
| | Risperidone | Decrease (50–70%) | | Induction of CYP3A4 | Tiihonen et al., 1995 [111] |
| | Olanzapine | Decrease (30–70%) | Induction of CYP1A2 and UGT | Spina et al., 2000 [113] | 11, parallel, and 5, sequential |
| | Quetiapine | Decrease (80%) | Induction of CYP3A4 | Ono et al., 2002 [114] | 11, sequential |
| | Ziprasidone | Decrease (20–40%) | Induction of CYP3A4 | Olesen & Linnet 1999 [117] | 5, parallel |
| Valproic acid | Clozapine | No change or minimal increase | Enzyme inhibition? | Linnet & Olesen 2002 [119] | 16, parallel |
| | | | | Skogh et al., 2002 [120] | 10, parallel |
| | | | | Grimm et al., 2005 [121] | 18, sequential |
| | Risperidone | No change | Enzyme inhibition? | Miceli et al., 2000 [123] | 9, sequential |
| | Olanzapine | No change | | Centorrino et al., 1994 [62] | 11, parallel |
| Quetiapine | Increase (70–80%) | Protein displacement? | Finley & Warner 1994 [124] | 4, sequential | |
| Aripiprazole | Decrease (20–30%) | | Longo & Salzman 1995 [126] | 7, sequential | |
| Phenobarbital | Clozapine | Decrease (30–40%) | Induction of CYP1A2, CYP3A4 and UGT | Facciolà et al., 1999 [127] | 15, parallel, and 6, sequential |
| Phenytoin | Quetiapine | Decrease (80%) | Induction of CYP3A4 | Spina et al., 2000 [113] | 10, parallel |
| Lamotrigine | Clozapine | No change | Competitive inhibition of UGT1A4 | Gex-Fabry et al., 2003 [128] | 32, parallel |
| | | | | Wong et al., 2001 [134] | 10, sequential |
| | Risperidone | No change | Competitive inhibition of UGT1A4 | Aichorn et al., 2006 [129] | 9, parallel |
| | Olanzapine | No change or minimal increase | | Citrome et al., 2005 [130] | 10, sequential |
| Oxcarbazepine | Risperidone | No change | Induction of CYP1A2, CYP3A4 and UGT | Facciolà et al., 1998 [131] | 7, parallel |
| | Olanzapine | No change | | Wong et al., 2001 [134] | 10, sequential |
| Topiramate | Clozapine | No change | Competitive inhibition of UGT1A4 | Tiihonen et al., 2003 [140] | 34, sequential |
| | | | | Spina et al., 2006 [141] | 11, sequential |
| | Risperidone | No change | Spina et al., 2006 [141] | 10, sequential | |
| | Quetiapine | No change | Sidhu et al., 2006 [136] | 16, sequential | |
| Oxcarbazepine | Risperidone | No change | Induction of CYP1A2, CYP3A4 and UGT | Jann et al., 2006 [142] | 14, sequential |
| | Olanzapine | No change | | Spina et al., 2006 [141] | 14, sequential |
| Topiramate | Clozapine | No change | Induction of CYP1A2, CYP3A4 and UGT | Muscatello et al., 2005 [143] | 12, sequential |
| | Olanzapine | No change | | Muscatello et al., 2005 [143] | 13, sequential |
| Topiramate | Clozapine | No change | Competitive inhibition of UGT1A4 | Tiihonen et al., 2005 [144] | 12, sequential |
| | | | | Migliardi et al., (in press) [145] | 10, sequential |
| | Risperidone | No change | Tiihonen et al., 2005 [144] | 5, sequential | |
| | Quetiapine | No change | Migliardi et al., (in press) [145] | 12, sequential | |
| Topiramate | Risperidone | No change | Competitive inhibition of UGT1A4 | Migliardi et al., (in press) [145] | 9, sequential |
| | Quetiapine | No change | | Migliardi et al., (in press) [145] | 7, sequential |

Interazioni farmacodinamiche tra FAE e nuovi antipsicotici

Possibili conseguenze

Carbamazepina + Clozapina

Da evitare per il possibile potenziamento degli effetti ematologici
Segnalati casi di sindrome maligna

Valproato + Clozapina

Possibili effetti indesiderati di tipo additivo (aumento di peso, sedazione)
Segnalati casi di neurotossicità

Valproato + Olanzapina

Possibili effetti indesiderati di tipo additivo (aumento di peso, sedazione)

Interazioni tra litio e FAE

Possibili conseguenze

Litio + Carbamazepina

Segnalati casi di neurotossicità, soprattutto in pazienti con pre-esistenti patologie del SNC

Litio + Valproato

Possibili effetti indesiderati di tipo additivo (aumento di peso, sedazione, tremore, turbe gastrointestinali)


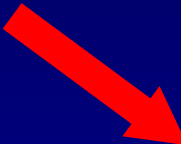
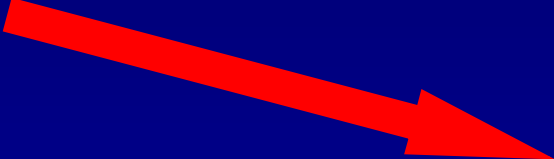
Litio + Nuovi AEDs

Non segnalati eventi indesiderati

Epilessia e DSA: le problematiche del trattamento farmacologico

- **La scelta del farmaco antiepilettico nel bambino con DSA che sviluppa un'epilessia**
- **La scelta dello psicofarmaco nel bambino con DSA ed epilessia**
- **Le interazioni farmacocinetiche e farmacodinamiche tra FAE e farmaci psicotropi**
- **Il trattamento del bambino con epilessia che sviluppa un DSA (encefalopatia epilettica)**
- **La gestione del bambino con regressione autistica ed anomalie epilettiformi all'EEG**

Encefalopatie epilettiche con rischio di DSA - Trattamento

- **Sindrome di West** 
- **Sindrome di Landau-Kleffner** 
- **ESES** 
- corticosteroidi (efficacia 70% dei casi), GVG (40-90%), TPM (45%), BZs (20-50%), etc.
- corticosteroidi, GVG, STM, CLB, LEV, DZP, Igs, DK, etc.
- corticosteroidi (effetto sull'EEG nel 65% dei casi), altre terapie (eff. in < 50% dei casi)

Epilessia e DSA: le problematiche del trattamento farmacologico

- **La scelta del farmaco antiepilettico nel bambino con DSA che sviluppa un'epilessia**
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- **Le interazioni farmacocinetiche e farmacodinamiche tra FAE e farmaci psicotropi**
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- **La gestione del bambino con regressione autistica ed anomalie epilettiformi all'EEG**

La regressione autistica è dovuta all'attività EEG epilettiforme, in assenza di crisi cliniche?

No!

Tuchman & Rapin, 1997

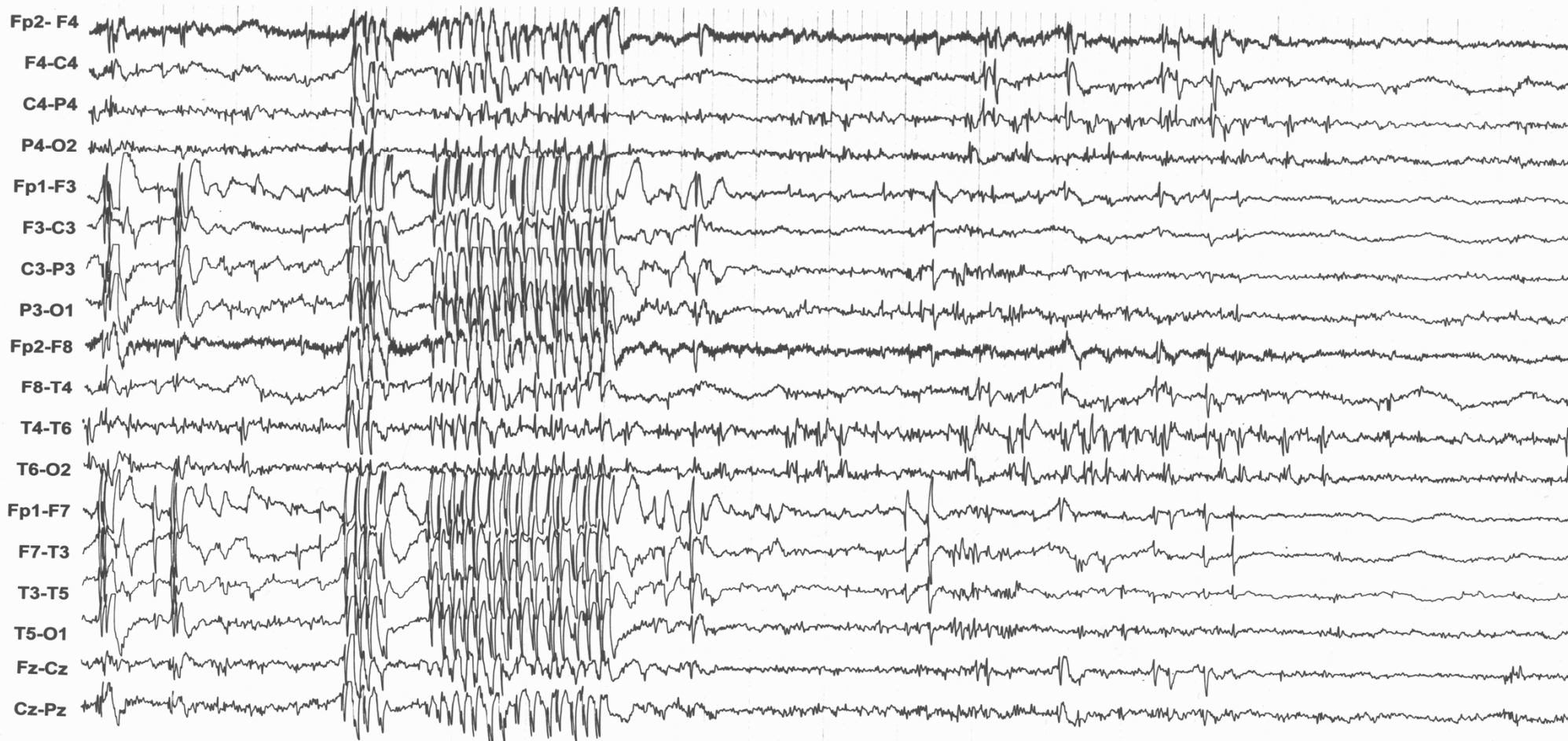
Hrdlicka et al., 2004

Canitano et al., 2005

Chez et al., 2006

Baird et al., 2006

WAKEFULNESS



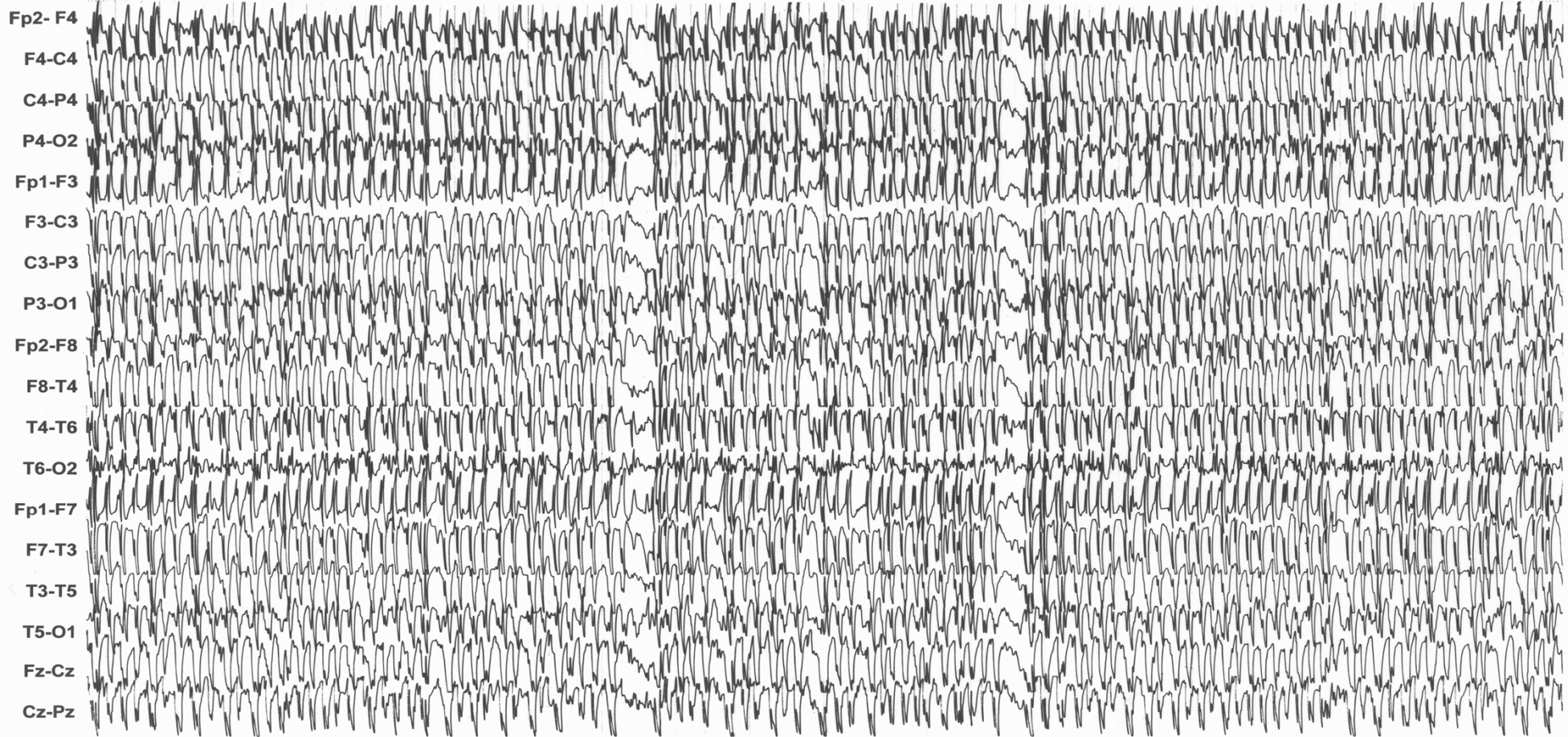
TROV. A.

8 yrs 10 mths

7640/96

100 μ V
1 sec

SLOW SLEEP



TROV. A.

8 yrs 10 mths

7640/96

150 μ V
1 sec

Currently, there is no evidence in studies of autism of an epileptic encephalopathy analogous to LKS

So, there is insufficient evidence to prescribe AEDs for subclinical discharges in autism (but see Chez et al., 2006: 80/176 pts, 63.6%, with EA improved or normalized)

Randomized control trials are needed to monitor both behavioural outcome and EEG picture



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**BRAIN &
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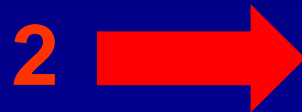
Official Journal of
the Japanese Society
of Child Neurology

www.elsevier.com/locate/braindev

Review article

Autism spectrum disorders and epilepsy: Moving towards a comprehensive approach to treatment

Roberto Tuchman^{a,b,*}, Michael Alessandri^c, Michael Cuccaro^d



If epileptiform activity is found in a child with ASD without seizures, interpretation of these findings and any intervention or action needs to be done within the clinical context of the individual child's symptoms and developmental trajectory. If the EEG shows epileptiform activity that can be correlated directly to either regression of a particular skill especially if the EEG is markedly increased in sleep then the intervention strategies used for epileptic encephalopathies should be considered. Re-assessment of treatment response and monitoring for side effects of the medications used needs to be done on an ongoing regular basis.

The other scenario is the child with ASD and an epileptiform EEG in which the EEG shows only occasional spikes. The paradigm for treatment in this scenario is that of transient cognitive impairment [177]. Treatment for this group is very controversial and requires careful documentation that these spikes are directly linked to the language, cognitive or behavioral dysfunction. If treatment is pursued, careful re-assessment at 3 month intervals with clinical, neuropsychological assessments, and serial EEGs should be carried out.

Take home messages

- **L'associazione DSA-epilessia complica certamente la presa in carico farmacologica del bambino/adolescente (interazioni farmacologiche, effetti avversi “incrociati”, ecc.)**
- **Necessità di “individualizzare” e di monitorare bene nel tempo la terapia**
- **Possibilità, almeno in alcuni casi, di curare epilessia e disturbi comportamentali con lo stesso farmaco**
- **Sostanziale consenso sulla necessità di essere “interventisti” in caso di encefalopatia epilettica (ad es., SLK o ESES), ma non sul trattamento dell'EEG in presenza di regressione autistica senza epilessia**