

A Journal of Reviews and Original Investigations in the Pharmacology of Central Nervous System Dysfunction

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Neuropharmacology

A Journal of Reviews and Original Investigations in the Pharmacology of Central Nervous System Dysfunction

Volume 26, Number 1, January - February 2003

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Clinical Neuropharmacology (ISSN: #0362-5664) is published bimonthly by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Inc., at 16522 Hunters Green Parkway, Hagerstown, MD 21740-2116. Business and production offices are located at 530 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, PA 19106-3621. Periodicals postage paid at Hagerstown, MD and at additional mailing offices. Copyright © 2003 by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Inc.

Postmaster: Send address changes to Clinical Neuropharmacology, P.O. Box 1550, Hagerstown, MD 21740.

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Address for subscription information, orders, or change of address (except Japan, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal and Pakistan): 16522 Hunters Green Parkway, Hagerstown, MD 21740-2116; phone 1-800-638-3030; fax 301-223-2400; in Maryland, call collect 301-223-2300. In Japan, contact LWW Igaku-Shoin Ltd., 3-23-14 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan; phone: 81-3-5689-5400; fax: 81-3-5689-5402. In India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal and Pakistan, contact Globe Publication Pvt. Ltd. B-13, 3rd FL, A Block, Shopping Complex, Naraina Vihar, Ring Road, New Delhi 110028, India; phone: 91-11-579-3211; fax: 91-11-579-8876.

Annual subscription rates worldwide: \$272.00 Individual Domestic, \$329.00 Individual International, \$519.00 Institutional Domestic, \$591.00 Institutional International. (The Canadian GST tax of 7% will be added to the subscription price of all orders shipped to Canada. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins' GST Identification Number is 895524239. Publications Mail Agreement #616346.) Subscriptions outside the United States must be prepaid. Subscriptions outside North America must add \$6.00 for airfreight delivery. Prices subject to change without notice. Copies will be replaced without charge if the publisher receives a request within 90 days of the mailing date, both in the U.S. and worldwide. Visit us on-line at www.lww.com.

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Clinical Pharmacology of Antiepileptic Drugs

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Antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) are the mainstay of treatment for the majority of patients with epilepsy. However, not all patients with seizures require treatment with AEDs, and many patients with some forms of epilepsy, especially children, need only 1 or 2 years of drug therapy (1). Thus, important questions for the treating physician to have in mind are "When to start AEDs?" and "When can AEDs be safely withdrawn?"

Nonetheless, it is safe to say that, as a group, patients with epilepsy typically receive one or more drugs, usually for many years. Therefore, it is essential that physicians have a good understanding of the clinical pharmacology of these agents, including their mechanisms of action, utilization patterns, and potential for interactions with other therapeutic agents.

SELECTION OF ANTIEPILEPTIC DRUGS

Table 1 lists the drugs currently used to manage different types of seizures. Table 2 gives the usual dosage, effective plasma concentration, half-life, and common side effects for the most commonly used of these agents (2).

Carbamazepine, phenytoin, primidone, and phenobarbital are equally effective for partial and secondarily generalized seizures, although one may be effective when another is not (3). Valproate is also as effective for secondarily generalized seizures but is somewhat less effective than carbamazepine (and, presumably, phenytoin) in managing simple or complex partial seizures (4). Despite relatively equal antiepileptic potency, however, these drugs differ substantially in terms of side effects, pharmacokinetic properties, and cost. Similar comparative data are generally lacking for

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AEDs introduced after 1994. Phenytoin, with its relatively long half-life, which usually allows the drug to be given once or twice daily after midadolescence, has traditionally been preferred to drugs with shorter halflives (5). However, concern about phenytoin's occasional undesirable cosmetic effects (gingival hypertrophy, hirsutism, and coarsening of facial features) and other adverse consequences associated with long-term therapy have led to the preferential use of carbamazepine or one of the newer drugs (e.g., lamotrigine, topiramate, zonisamide) as initial treatment in many patients today. Carbamazepine, despite its short half-life, can be given twice daily if an extended-release formulation (e.g., Tegretol-XR, Carbatrol) is used. Phenobarbital and primidone are rarely used now, except in special circumstances, because of the high incidence of sedation and cognitive side effects at therapeutic doses and plasma concentrations (3).

As a group, generalized-onset seizures respond best to valproate (6). Valproate can be used effectively as monotherapy in about 80% of patients, even when several types of generalized-onset seizure coexist. Lamotrigine and topiramate are appropriate alternatives when valproate fails (7). A growing number of neurologists prefer lamotrigine to valproate because of a more favorable adverse effect profile. Phenytoin and carbamazepine are also effective against generalized tonicclonic seizures, but the response is less reliable than with valproate (2). However, they are ineffective against absence or myoclonic seizures, which commonly coexist with generalized tonic-clonic seizures, which means another drug (e.g., ethosuximide, clonazepam) must be used. Furthermore, phenytoin, gabapentin, and especially carbamazepine can actually aggravate nonconvulsive generalized-onset seizures (7).

MONOTHERAPY OR POLYTHERAPY?

Medical treatment of epilepsy in adults is generally less satisfactory than in children, especially when confronted with partial and secondarily generalized seizures. Fewer than 50% of such patients with recurrent seizures remain seizure free for more than 12 consecu-

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Most of the material contained in this review was presented at the 54th Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Neurology and was included in a syllabus prepared for the Therapy in Neurology course given on April 15, 2002. It is reproduced here with the permission of the American Academy of Neurology.

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