

Traumatic brain injury: Choosing drugs to assist recovery

Some agents can worsen neurobehavioral symptoms

John P. Daniels, MD

Assistant professor of psychiatry University of Minnesota Staff psychiatrist Department of Veterans Affairs Medical Center Minneapolis, MN

hoosing medications for patients with traumatic brain injury (TBI) requires caution; some drugs slow their recovery, and no standard post-TBI treatment exists.

As consulting psychiatrist on a TBI rehabilitation team, I am asked to manage enduring cognitive and emotional problems—aggression, apathy, learning disabilities, dementia—in patients with moderate to severe head injuries. This article describes how we apply available evidence to treat neurobehavioral symptoms in these patients.

CASE: AN IRAQ WAR CASUALTY

The physical medicine and rehabilitation service asks for help in managing agitation, anxiety, and nightmares in Mr. N, age 20, a U.S. combat soldier. While on patrol 2 months ago in Iraq, he suffered a penetrating right frontoparietal brain injury from an improvised explosive device.



© 2006 c/o Veer

Table 1 Using Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) scores to evaluate brain injury severity

Component	Response	Score
Best eye response	No eye opening Eye opening to pain Eye opening to verbal command Eyes open spontaneously	1 2 3 4
Best verbal response	No verbal response Incomprehensible sounds Inappropriate words Confused Oriented	1 2 3 4 5
Best motor response	No motor response Extension to pain Flexion to pain Withdrawal from pain Localizing pain Obeys commands	1 2 3 4 5 6

GCS total score \geq 12 is mild injury, 9 to 11 is moderate, and \leq 8 is severe (90% of patients with scores \leq 8 are in a coma). Coma is defined as not opening eyes, not obeying commands, and not saying understandable words. Composite scores with eye, verbal, and motor responses (such as E3V3M5) are clinically more useful than totals.

Source: Reference 2.

Mr. N has undergone a right temporoparietal craniectomy with debridement, ventriculostomy placement, and scalp flap closure. He has had seizures and then pancreatitis—thought to be caused by divalproex prescribed to treat the seizures. Divalproex was replaced with phenytoin at our hospital, and the pancreatitis resolved.

HOW SERIOUS AN INJURY?

TBI ranges from self-limited concussion to devastating, permanent CNS impairment and life-long disability. Brain injuries from sudden impact—from assaults, falls, motor vehicle accidents, combat, or sports—can cause diffuse axonal injury and confusion or unconsciousness, even without radiographic evidence of cerebral bleeding, edema, or mass effect.

No hierarchy or nomenclature is universally accepted for TBI. The term "concussion" is generally used for milder injury and TBI for more-severe injuries. Concussion. The American Academy of Neurology defines concussion as a trauma-induced alteration in mental status that may or may not involve loss of consciousness. Confusion and amnesia-the hallmarks of concussion-may occur immediately after the head trauma or several minutes later.1 This definition recognizes three concussion grades:

• Grade 1: confusion lasts <15 minutes, with no loss of consciousness (LOC)

• Grade 2: confusion persists >15 minutes but without LOC

• Grade 3: concussion with LOC. The confusional state is marked by disorientation, delayed verbal and motor respons-

es, inattention, incoordination, emotional lability, and slurred or incoherent speech.

TBI. The severity of an injury with LOC is usually determined by four factors: the patient's initial Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) score in the emergency department (*Table 1*),² neuroimaging, duration of coma, and duration of posttraumatic amnesia (PTA).

- Mild TBI: GCS 13 to 15, LOC <20 to 30 minutes, PTA <24 hours, and normal neuroimaging studies.^{1,3}
- Moderate TBI: GCS 9 to 12, LOC 30 minutes to 7 days, and PTA 24 hours to 7 days.
- Severe TBI: GCS ≤8, LOC, and PTA >7 days,⁴ or any focal neuroimaging abnormalities.³



CASE CONTINUED: 'THEY'RE HURTING ME'

Mr. N meets criteria for severe TBI. He is periodically agitated and aggressive and refuses to return to physical therapy, complaining that rehabilitation nurses are intentionally hurting him. He occasionally hits the staff and throws things. His medications include:

- phenytoin, 100 mg every
 6 hours for seizure prophylaxis
- lamotrigine, 50 mg bid for seizure prophylaxis
- zolpidem, 5 mg as needed at bedtime for pain
- methadone, 10 mg/d for pain
- oxycodone, 5 mg every 4 hours as needed for breakthrough pain.

Mr. N's recovery 2 months after injury is rated as Rancho level IV, indicating that he remains confused and agitated. He requires maximal assistance with bed mobility and transfers, upper and lower extremity dressing, and rolling his wheelchair with both feet. He is incontinent of bowel and bladder.

ASSESSING PROGRESS

For patients such as Mr. N, TBI recovery progress is measured with the Rancho Los Amigos Scale.

The original Rancho scale—developed in 1972 by staff at the Rancho Los Amigos rehabilitation hospital in Downey, CA—described eight levels of cognitive and adaptive functioning, from coma and total care through normal cognition and independence. A 1997 revised version separates the highest cognitive functioning level (VIII, purposeful, appropriate function) into three parts, expanding the scale to 10 levels (*Table 2*).⁵

Table 2) 10-level Rancho Los Amigos Scale for assessing TBI recovery

Level	Cognitive and adaptive function	Assistance required
I.	No response	Total assistance
Ш	Generalized response	Total assistance
III	Localized response	Total assistance
IV	Confused/agitated	Maximal assistance
V	Confused, inappropriate non-agitated	Maximal assistance
VI	Confused, appropriate	Moderate assistance
VII	Automatic, appropriate	Minimal assistance
VIII	Purposeful, appropriate	Stand-by assistance
IX	Purposeful, appropriate	Stand-by assistance on request
Х	Purposeful, appropriate	Modified independent
Source: Traumatic Brain Injury Resource Guide. www.neuroskills.com/tbi/rancho.html.		

Source: Traumatic Brain Injury Resource Guide. www.neuroskills.com/tbi/rancho.html.

Of course, not all TBI patients begin recovery at Rancho level I, and unfortunately not all achieve level X. Some experience dementia caused by head trauma, with persistent memory impairment and cognitive deficits in language, apraxia, agnosia, or executive function.⁶

Most patients recover as predicted by the initial injury's severity. Others experience diffuse cerebral swelling with sudden, rapid deterioration after what appeared to be a grade 1 or grade 2 concussion. Diffuse cerebral swelling is sometimes considered a "second-impact syndrome," but it can also occur after a single impact.⁷ A second TBI is not universally believed to cause the precipitous decline, but animal studies suggest an additive effect of rapid sequential TBI.⁸

Post-TBI syndromes. Concussion and TBI share diffuse axonal injury as a putative pathophysiologic mechanism. Post-concussion and post-TBI

—Table3 Medications with potential to impede TBI recovery*

Class	Medications	
Alpha-2 agonist	Clonidine	
Antidepressant	Trazodone	
Antiepileptic	Phenytoin, phenobarbital	
Benzodiazepine	Diazepam	
Neuroleptic	Haloperidol, thioridazine	
* Suggested by animal or clinical studies		

Source: References 11-20

syndromes are similar but vary in severity and duration. Signs and symptoms include headache, light-headedness or dizziness, poor attention and concentration, irritability with low frustration tolerance, anxiety or depression, sensitivity to bright light or loud noise, and sleep disturbance.¹

Recovery for a patient such as Mr. N with Rancho level IV to V TBI may be complicated by marked mood lability, spontaneous aggression, psychomotor agitation, extremely short attention with marked distractibility, little to no short-term memory, and noncooperation with treatment and care. Patients may also show disorders of diminished motivation, characterized by normal consciousness but decreased goal-directed behavior and affective flattening.⁹

CASE CONTINUED: CALLING IN REINFORCEMENTS

Besides combat nightmares, Mr. N is experiencing other signs of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD): intrusive memories of dead comrades, anhedonia, insomnia, irritability, and hypervigilance. We recommend a trial of citalopram, 10 mg/d, but within 1 week he becomes more irritable, agitated, and aggressive, with worsening sleep. We arrange a meeting to obtain collateral information from Mr. N's aunt, mother, and clinical psychologist. We learn that a first-degree relative had bipolar disorder, and Mr. N lived with various relatives during childhood.

As a child, Mr. N was easily angered, hyperactive, unpredictably aggressive with peers, and impulsive. He was diagnosed with "explosive disorder and attention disorder" at age 8. A psychiatrist prescribed methylphenidate (which helped) and paroxetine (which worsened his behavior and aggression). Based on this history, we make a presumptive diagnosis of comorbid bipolar disorder.

TREATING PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

Comorbidities. Adolescents and adults with preexisting attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder or bipolar disorder may be predisposed to carelessness or risk taking that lead to accidents and TBI. Likewise, alcoholism and substance use disorders are risk factors for head injuries. These pre-existing conditions will complicate the post-TBI course and must be treated concurrently.

Depression and PTSD may follow a head injury and complicate recovery. In fact, post-TBI symptoms—poor sleep, poor memory and concentration, and irritability—are common to both depression and PTSD.

A team approach. Regardless of its severity or recovery stage, TBI requires multidisciplinary treatment. Physical, occupational, and speech therapies are essential initially. As recovery progresses, vocational rehabilitation may need to be added. Throughout rehabilitation, supportive individual and family therapy can help patients reintegrate into the community. Psychologists, neuropsychologists, and clinical social workers are indispensable to the treatment team.

MEDICATION PRECAUTIONS

Using medications to manage post-TBI syndromes is difficult and controversial. No standard regimen exists, and few clinical trials guide treatment. Small, uncontrolled studies (human and animal)



continued from page 60

suggest commonly prescribed drugs may worsen outcomes (*Table 3, page 60*).^{10,11} For example:

• Cognitive function improved in three TBI patients after thioridazine was discontinued in two and haloperidol in one.¹²

• Haloperidol given to 11 patients with TBI made no difference in rehabilitation outcomes when compared with 15 patients who did not receive the antipsychotic. Those receiving haloperidol also had longer post-trauma amnesia (5 to 30 weeks), compared with the untreated group (1 to 18 weeks).¹³

• In animal studies of TBI, motor recovery was slowed with haloperidol but not olanzapine,^{14,15} and with clonidine,¹⁶ phenytoin,¹⁷ and trazodone.¹⁸ Phenobarbitol¹⁹ and diazepam²⁰ have been associated with delayed behavioral recovery and chronic behavior problems, respectively, in rats with TBI. How these agents might affect human patients is speculative.

Apathy and inattention. A review of 63 papers found no strong evidence that drugs are effective for TBI's neurobehavioral disorders, although weak evidence shows that some drug classes can reduce target symptoms—such as psychostimulants for apathy, inattention, and slowness (*Table 4, page 66*).²¹ Other reports suggest reasonable approaches:

- Psychostimulants have improved recovery of motor function in animal trials if given before physical therapy.¹⁴
- Stimulants and dopaminergic agonists such as bromocriptine and amantadine might help disorders of diminished motivation.²²
- Dextroamphetamine and methylphenidate have improved impulsivity, memory, and concentration in a patient with TBI.²³

Agitation and aggression in TBI are more difficult to treat than apathy or inattention. Some authors^{15,24} suggest that atypical antipsychotics are more effective than neuroleptics for these symptoms and less likely to cause adverse effects (*Table 5, page 67*).

System: dizziness, somnolence, insomnia, dry mouth, nervousness, abnormal dreams, tremo, depression, hypertonia, paresthesia, libido decreased, agitation, anxiety, twichnigh, <u>Respiratory System</u>: pharyngitis, yawn, sinusitis. <u>Skin</u>: sweating. <u>Special Senses</u>: abnormal vision. <u>Urogenital System</u>: abnormal ejaculation, impotence, orgasmic dysfunction (including anorgasmia) in fermales. <u>Wital Sign Changes</u>: Effexor XR was associated with a mean increase in pulse rate of about 2 beats/min in depression and GAD trials and a mean increase in pulse rate of 4 beats/min in SAD trials. (See WARNINGS-Sustained Hypertension). *Laboratory* **Changes**: Clinically relevant increases in serum cholesterol were noted in Effexor XR clinical trials. Increases *Observed During the Premarketing Evaluation of Effexor AM* <u>Effexor XR</u> <u>--</u>Ne-6,670. "Frequent" events *Observed During the Premarketing Evaluation of Effexor AM* <u>--</u>Ne-6,670. "Frequent" events occurring in at least 1/100 patients; "infrequent" =1/100 to 1/1000 patients; "rare" =fewer than 1/1000 patients. <u>Body as a whole</u> - Frequent: chest pain substemal, chills, fever, neck pain; Infrequent: face edemu-intentional injury, malaise, moniliaisis, heck rigidity, pelvic pain, photosensitivity reaction, suicide attempt, withdrawal syndrome; Rare: appendicitis, bacteremia, carcinoma, cellulitis. <u>Cardiovascular system</u> - Frequent: ingraine, postural hypotension, tachycardia; Infrequent: angina pectoris, arrhythmia, extrasystoles, hypotension, peripheral vascular disorder (mainly cold feet and/or cold hands), syncope, thrombophlebitis; Pare: aortic aneurysm, artertiis, first-degree atrioventricular block, bigeminy, bundle branch block, capillary fragility, cerebral ischemia, coronary artery disease, congestive heart failure, lerife quent: bruxism, colitis, dysphagia, tongue edema, esophagitis, gastrointeritis, gastrointestinal ulcer, gingivitis, glossitis, gastroesophageal reflux disease, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, gundereitis, leitis, jaundice, intestin enlargement, increased salivation, soft stools, tongue discoloration. Endocrine system - Rare: galactorrhoea, goiter, hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism, thyroidi nodule, thyroidits. Hemic and Lymphatic system - Frequent: ecchymosis; infrequent: anemia, leukocytosis, leukopenia, lymphadenopathy, thrombocythemia; Rare: basophila, bleeding time increased, cyanosis, eosinophila, lymphacytosis, multiple myeloma, purpura, thrombocytopenia. <u>Metaholic and nutritional</u> - Frequent: edma, weight gain; Infrequent: alkaline phosphatase increased, dehydration, hypercholesteremia, hyperlycemia, hyperlipemia, BUN increased, creatinine increased, diabetes mellitus, glycosuria, gout, healing abnormal, hemochromatosis, hypercalcinuria, hyperkalemia, hyperphosphatemia, hyperuricemia, hypocholesteremia, hyponatremia, BUN increased, creatinine increased, diabetes mellitus, glycosuria, gout, healing abnormal, hemochromatosis, hypercalcinuria, hyperkalemia, hyperphosphatemia, hyperuricemia, hypocholesteremia, hyponatremia, BUN increased, creatinine increased, diabetes mellitus, glycosuria, gout, healing abnormal, hemochromatosis, hypercalcinuria, hypostheinemia, uremia. <u>Musculoskeletal system</u> - Frequent: arthraligi, infrequent: arthris, arthrosis, bone spurs, bursitis, leg cramps, myasthenia, tenosynovitis, Rare: bone pain, pathological fracture, muscle cramp, hypesthesia, thinking abnormal, trismus, vertigo; Infrequent: athritisia, apathy, ataxia, circumoral paresthesia, incoordination, manic reaction, myocionus, neuralgia, neuropathy, psychosis, seizure, abnormal speech, supor, suicidai ideation; Area: abnormal/changed behavior, adjustment disorder, akinesia, alcohol abuse, aphasia, bradykinesia, buccoglossal syndrome, cerebrovascular accident, feeling drunk, loss of consciousnes, delusion, hyperchlorhydria, hypokinesia, hysteria, impulse control difficulties, libido increased, motion sickness, neuritis, nystagmus, paranoid reaction, paresis, psychotic derression, reflexes infrequent: asthma, chest congestion, epistaxis, hyperventi uerinatus, incliencio derinatus, nari oscolutationi, sun oscolorationi, uniticuolisis, insulusisin, teukoderinta, miliaria, petechial rash, puritic rash, pustular rash, vesiculobullous rash, seborrhea, skin atrophy, skin hypertrophy, skin striae, sweating decreased. <u>Special senses</u> - Frequent: abnormality of accommodation, mydriasis, taste perversion; infrequent: conjunctivitis, diplopia, dry eyes, eye pain, hyperacusis, otitis media, parosmia, photophobia, taste loss, visual field defect; Rare: blepharitis, cataract, chromatopsia, conjunctivita edema, corneal lesion, deafness, exophthalmos, eye hemorrhage, glaucoma, retinal hemorrhage, succonjunctival hemorrhage, keratitis, labyrinthitis, miosis, papilledema, decreased pupillary reflex, otitis veterna, scientis, uveitis. <u>Urogenital system</u> - Frequent: prostatic disorder (prostatitis, enlarged prostate, and prostate irritability), urination impaired; Infrequent: albuminuria, amenorrhea, breast pain, cystitis, dysuria, hematuria, kidney calculus, kidney pain, leukorrhea, menorrhagia, metrorrhagia, nocturia, polyuria, pyuria, urinary incontinence, urinary retention, urinary urgency, vaginal hemorrhage, vaginitis; Rare: abortion, anuria, balanitis, bladder pain, breast discharge, breast engorgement, breast enlargement, endometriosis, female lactation, fibrocystic breast, calcium crystalluria, cervicitis, orchitis, ovarian cyst, prolonged erection, lactation, inbrocystic breast, calcium crystaliuria, cervicitis, orchitis, ovarian cyst, protoinege erection, gynecomastia (male), hypomenorrhea, kidney function abnormal, mastitis, menoguause, pyelonephritis, oliguria, aglangitis, urolithiasis, uterine hemorrhage, uterine spasm, vaginal dryness. Postmarketing Reports: agranulocytosis, anaphylaxis, aplastic anemia, catatonia, congenital anomalies, CPK increased, deep vein thrombophlebitis, delirium, EKG abnormalities such as QT prolongation; cardiac arrhythmias including atrial fibrillation, supraventricular tachycardia, ventricular extrasystoles, and rare reports of ventricular fibrillation and ventricular tachycardia, including torsades de pointes; epidermal necrosis/Stevens-Johnson syndrome, endeman antificrame artemyramide identical educura. and ventricular tachycardia, including torsades de pointes; epidemal necrosis/Stevens-Johnson syndrome, erythema multiforme, extrapyramidal symptoms (including viskinesia and tardive dyskinesia, angle-closure glaucoma, hemorrhage (including eye and gastrointestinal bleeding), hepatic events (including GGT elevation; abnormalities of unspecified liver function tests; liver damage, necrosis, or falure; and fatty liver), involuntary movements, LDH increased, neuroleptic malignant syndrome-like events (including a case of a 10-year-old who may have been taking methylphenidate, was treated and recovered), neutropenia, night sweats, pancreatitis, pancytopenia, panic, prolactin increased, pulmonary eosinophilia, renal failure; nhabdomyolysis, serotonin syndrome, shock-like electrical sensations or tinnitus (in some cases, subsequent to the discontinuation of venlafaxine or tapering of dose), and SIADH (usually in the elderly). Elevated clozapine levels that were temporally associated with adverse events, including seizures, have been reported following the addition of venlafaxine. Increases in prothrombin time, partial thromboplastin time, or INR have been reported when venlafaxine was given to patients carefully for history of drug abuse and observe such patients closely for signs of misuse or abuse. **OVERDOSAGE**: Electrocardiogram changes (e.g., prolongation of 0T interval, bundle branch block, ORS prolongation), sinus and ventricular tachycardia, hydotension, altered level of consciousness (ranging from somnolence to coma), rhabdomyolysis, seizures, avetigo, liver necrosis, and death have been reported. Treatment should consist of those general measures employed in the management of overdosage with any antidepressant. Ensure an adequate airway, oxygenation and ventricular The closes, and dearn have been reported. Treamlers should only a subject on the sentillation. Monitor cardiac rhythm and vital signs. General supportive and symptomatic measures are also recommended. Induction of emesis is not recommended. Gastric lavage with a large bore orogastric tube with a particular diverse and a supportive and symptomatic measures are also recommended. Induction of emesis is not recommended. Gastric lavage with a large bore orogastric tube with a parporate airway protection, if needed, may be indicated if performed soon after ingestion or in symptomatic patients. Activated charcoal should be administered. Due to the large volume of distribution of this drug, forced diuresis, dialysis, hemoperfusion, and exchange transfusion are unlikely to be of benefit. No specific antidotes for venlafaxine are known. In managing overdosage, consider the possibility of multiple drug involvement. Consider contacting a poison control center for additional information on the treatment of overdose. Telephone numbers for certified poison control centers are listed in the Physicians' Desk Reference" (PDR). DDSAGE AND MANDER TO CERTIFIE DISORT CONTROL CENTERS are inseed in the Physician's Desk Reference "(PD), DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION: Consult full prescribing information for dosing instructions. Switching Patients to or From an MAQI—At least 1 days should elapse between discontinuation of an MAQI and initiation of therapy with Effexor XR. At least 7 days should be allowed after stopping Effexor XR before starting an MAQI (see CONTRAINDICATIONS and WARNINGS). This brief summary is based on Effexor XR Prescribing Information W10404C019, revised November 2005.

vasodilatation, thinking abnormal, decreased libido, and sweating. Commonly Observed Adverse Events in Controlled Clinical Trials for MDD, GAD, SAD, and PD—Body as a Whole: asthenia, headache, flu syndrome, accidental injury, abdominal pain. Cardiovascular: vasodilatation, hypertension, palpitation. Diguestive: nausea, constipation, anorexia, vomiting, flatulence, diarrhea, eructation. Metabolic/Nutritional: weight loss. Nervous System: dizziness, somnolence, insomnia, dry mouth, nervousness, abnormal dreams, tremor, depression, hypertonia, paresthesia, libido decreased, agitation, anxiety, twitching. <u>Respiratory System:</u> pharyngitis, yawn, ciucitie, Stein, euceding. Social Socies: abnormal viejon. <u>Itropolici Devenici</u>, abnormal evicultion, acueditaria, euceding.

Table 4 Drugs considered safe and effective for TBI neurobehavioral symptoms

Target symptom(s)	Drug	Usual daily dosage*
Apathy	Amantadine Bromocriptine	100 to 400 mg 1.25 to 100 mg
Cognition	Donepezil	
Inattention	Dextroamphetamine Methylphenidate	5 to 60 mg 10 to 60 mg
Depression, PTSD symptoms	Fluoxetine	20 to 80 mg
Agitation, mood stabilization	Anticonvulsants Lamotrigine Divalproex sodium Carbamazepine Atypical antipsychotics Olanzapine Quetiapine Risperidone Ziprasidone Beta blocker Propranolol	25 to 200 mg 10 to 15 mg/kg/day [†] 400 to 1,600 mg [‡] 2.5 to 20 mg 50 to 800 mg 0.5 to 6 mg 20 to 160 mg 20 to 480 mg
PTSD: posttraumatic stress disorder * Dosage may be divided; see full prescribing information.		

[†] Adjust dosage to achieve serum level of 50 to 100 mcg/mL.

[‡] Adjust dosage to achieve serum level of 4 to 12 mcg/mL.

Small studies of anticonvulsants for post-TBI agitation report:

- valproic acid might improve behavioral control and decrease aggression, and it did not worsen performance on neuropsychological testing
- carbamazepine reduced agitation in seven TBI patients and reduced anger outbursts in 8 of 10 others
- gabapentin caused paradoxical effects in two TBI patients²⁵
- lamotrigine improved agitation in one TBI patient.²⁶

Five studies show preliminary evidence that beta blockers (usually propranolol) can reduce assaultive behavior and temper outbursts in TBI patients. Relatively high dosages are usually needed, such as:

- propranolol, 420 to 520 mg/d
- pindolol, 60 mg/d
- metoprolol, 200 mg/d.²¹

Psychiatric comorbidity. In TBI patients with comorbid bipolar disorder, mood stabilization with an atypical antipsychotic, anticonvulsant (divalproex sodium, carbamazepine), or a combination of the two is first-line therapy. No evidence suggests that using lithium in the absence of mania improves aggression, agitation, or other neurobehavioral symptoms in TBI patients.²¹

Depression and PTSD in TBI patients are considered indications for selective

serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). Animal data suggest that fluoxetine is safe for patients with TBI,²⁷ though no human data have been published.

For PTSD with bipolar depression, we usually prescribe lamotrigine or combine an atypical antipsychotic with an SSRI. Lithium would be second-line therapy. PTSD with bipolar mania is more difficult to treat because little evidence guides medication choices. As with depression and PTSD, we usually combine an atypical antipsychotic with an SSRI. We try to control manic and psychotic symptoms first, then add the



SSRI for anxiety after the mood becomes more stable.

Cognitive impairment. A dozen published studies and case reports indicate that donepezil improves cognition in subacute and chronic TBI. For example:

• An open-label trial showed subjective improvement in cognitive functions in 8 of 10 patients given donepezil.²⁸

• In a double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover trial, short-term memory and attention improved with donepezil in 18 patients with post-acute TBI, as shown by neuropsychological test scores.²⁹

• A retrospective case-control study showed no significant difference in cognitive outcome between controls and 18 patients prescribed donepezil but did suggest that cognition improved more rapidly when patients started donepezil earlier in recovery.³⁰

CASE CONTINUED: BACK TO REHAB

We replace Mr. N's phenytoin with carbamazepine, 700 mg/d (serum level about 12 mcg/mL), discontinue citalopram, and start him on quetiapine as a mood stabilizer, titrating the dosage to 600 mg/d over 3 weeks. We select quetiapine based on experience using it as a mood stabilizer and carbamazepine for additional mood stabilization and seizure prophylaxis.

We continue methadone and oxycodone at the same dosages for pain management, with good results. We eventually switch him from zolpidem to trazodone, 50 mg as needed at bedtime. We discontinue lamotrigine because he is no longer having seizures.

Mr. N tolerates quetiapine and carbamazepine well. The nursing staff reports he is much less irritable and aggressive and his sleep has improved, but he is not oversedated. He returns to and participates in physical, occupational, and speech therapies.

Dosing atypical antipsychotics for agitation and aggression in TBI

Table 5

Drug	Initial daily dosage*	Maximum daily dosage*		
Aripiprazole	2.5 to 5 mg	30 mg		
Olanzapine	2.5 mg	20 mg		
Quetiapine	12.5 to 50 mg	800 mg		
Risperidone	0.25 mg	8 mg		
Ziprasidone	20 mg	160 mg		
*Daily dosages may be divided				

TIPS FOR USING MEDICATIONS

Many TBI patients are unusually sensitive to or intolerant of medication side effects. Because no randomized, controlled clinical trials support using any medication in these patients, be cautious. The following recommendations can help:

- Use psychotropics with a low risk of complications.
- Start with low dosages and increase gradually to assess side effects and efficacy of medication trials.
- **Give full trials** and adequate dosing before you decide a medication has not improved symptoms sufficiently.

No psychotropics are approved to treat enduring cognitive and emotional symptoms of traumatic brain injury (TBI). Some common medications may impair patients' recovery. When trying medications reported as potentially useful for target TBI symptoms, start low and go slow to assess side effects and effectiveness.



continued



- Monitor closely for side effects.
 Seek information from family members to
- evaluate a medication's effectiveness, as patients' cognitive deficits may limit their ability to reliably report symptoms.

References

- American Academy of Neurology. Practice parameter: The management of concussion in sports. *Neurology* 1997;48:581-5.
- Teasdale G, Jennett B. Assessment of coma and impaired consciousness. A practical scale. *Lancet* 1974;2(7872):81-4.
- Alexander MP. Mild traumatic brain injury: Pathophysiology, natural history, and clinical management. *Neurology* 1995;45:1253-60.
- Arlinghaus KA, Shoaib AM, Price TRP. Neuropsychiatric assessment. In: Silver JM, McAllister TW, Yudofsky SC (eds). *Textbook of traumatic brain injury*. Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Press; 2005:59-78.
- Hagen C, Malkmus D, Durham P. Communication Disorders Service, Rancho Los Amigos Rehabilitation Hospital, Downey, CA, 1972 (rev. 1997).
- Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (4th ed, text rev). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association; 2000.
- 7. McCrory P. Does second impact syndrome exist? *Clin J Sport Med* 2001;11:144-9.
- Vagnozzi R, Signoretti S, Tavazzi B, et al. Hypothesis of the postconcussive vulnerable brain: experimental evidence of its metabolic occurrence. *Neurosurgery* 2005;57:164-71.
- Marin RS, Chakravorty S. Disorders of diminished motivation. In: Silver JM, McAllister TW, Yudofsky SC (eds). *Textbook of traumatic brain injury*. Arlington, VA; American Psychiatric Press; 2005:337-52.
- Goldstein LB. Prescribing of potentially harmful drugs to patients admitted to hospital after head injury. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1995;58:753-5.
- Phillips JP, Devier D J, Feeney DM. Rehabilitation pharmacology bridging laboratory work to clinical application. *J Head Trauma Rehabil* 2003;18:342-56.
- 12. Stanislaw SL. Cognitive effects of antipsychotic agents in persons with traumatic brain injury. *Brain Injury* 1997;11:335-41.
- Rao N, Jellinek HM, Woolston DC. Agitation in closed head injury: haloperidol effects on rehabilitation outcome. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 1985;66:30-4.
- Feeney DM, Gonzalez A, Law WA. Amphetamine, haloperidol, and experience interact to affect rate of recovery after motor cortex injury. *Science* 1982;217:855-7.
- Wilson MS, Gibson CL, Hamm RJ. Haloperidol, but not olanzapine, impairs cognitive performance after traumatic brain injury in rats. Am J Phys Med Rehabil 2003;82:871-9.
- Goldstein LB, Davis JN. Clonidine impairs recovery of beamwalking after a sensorimotor cortex lesion in the rat. *Brain Research* 1990;508:305-9.
- Brailowsky S, Knight RT, Efron R. Phenytoin increases the severity of cortical hemiplegia in rats. *Brain Research* 1986;376:71-7.
- Boyeson MG, Harmon RL. Effects of trazodone and desipramine on motor recovery in brain-injured rats. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 1993;72:286-93.
- Hernandez TD, Holling LC. Disruption of behavioral recovery by the anticonvulsant phenobarbital. *Brain Research* 1994;635:300-6.

Related resources

- Silver JM, McAllister TW, Yudofsky SC (eds). Textbook of traumatic brain injury. Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Press, 2005.
- Traumatic Brain Injury Resource Guide. www.neuroskills.com

DRUG BRAND NAMES

Amantadine • Symmetrel Bromocriptine • Parlodel Carbamazepine • Tegretol Citalopram • Celexa Clonidine • Catapres Dextroamphetamine • Dexedrine Diazepam • Valium Divalproex sodium • Depakote Donepezil • Aricept Fluoxetine • Prozac Gabapentin • Neurontin Haloperidol • Haldol Lamotrigine • Lamictal Methadone • Dolophine Methylphenidate • Ritalin Metoprolol • Lopressor Olanzapine • Zyprexa Oxycodone • Oxycontin Paroxetine • Paxil Phenobarbital • Luminal Phenytoin • Dilantin Pindolol • Visken Propranolol • Inderal Quetiapine • Seroquel Risperidone • Risperdal Thioridazine • Mellaril Trazodone • Desyrel Ziprasidone • Geodon Zolpidem • Ambien

DISCLOSURE

The author reports no financial relationship with any company whose products are mentioned in this article or with manufacturers of competing products.

- Schallert T, Hernandez TD, Barth TM. Recovery of function after brain damage: severe and chronic disruption by diazepam. *Brain Research* 1986;379:104-11.
- Deb S, Crownshaw T. The role of pharmacotherapy in the management of behavior disorders in traumatic brain injury patients. *Brain Injury* 2004;18:1-31.
- Campbell JJ, Duffy JD. Treatment strategies in amotivated patients. *Psychiatric Annals* 1997;27(1):44-9.
- Evans RW, Gualtieri CT, Patterson D. Treatment of chronic closed head injury with psychostimulant drugs: a controlled case study and an appropriate evaluation procedure. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 1987; 175:106-10.
- 24. Elovic EP, Lansang R, Li Y, Ricker JH. The use of atypical antipsychotics in traumatic brain injury. *J Head Trauma Rehabil* 2003; 18:177-95.
- Lombard LA, Zafonte RD. Agitation after traumatic brain injury: considerations and treatment options. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 2005;84:797-812.
- Pachet A, Friesen S, Winkelaar D, Gray S. Beneficial behavioural effects of lamotrigine in traumatic brain injury. *Brain Injury* 2003;17:715-22.
- Boyeson MG, Harmon RL, Jones JL. Comparative effects of fluoxetine, amitriptyline, and serotonin on functional motor recovery after sensorimotor cortex injury. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil* 1994;73:76-83.
- Khateb A, Ammann J, Annoni JM, Diserens K. Cognitionenhancing effects of donepezil in traumatic brain injury (abstract). *Eur Neurol* 2005;54:39-45).
- Zhang L, Plotkin RC, Wang G, et al. Cholinergic augmentation with donepezil enhances recovery in short-term memory and sustained attention after traumatic brain injury. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 2004;85:1005-55.
- Walker W, Seel R, Gibellato M, et al. The effects of donepezil on traumatic brain injury acute rehabilitation outcomes. *Brain Inj* 2004;18:739-50.