

Central Nerve System Symptom of Tri-Cyclic Acids Antidepressants

Paria Habibollahi¹, Samad Shams Vahdati^{2*} and Pegah Sepehri Majd²

¹Toxicology and Pharmacology Department, Tabriz University of Medical Science, Iran

²Emergency Medicine Research Team, Tabriz University of Medical Science, Iran

*Corresponding author: Samad Shams Vahdati, Emergency Medicine Research Team, Tabriz University of Medical Science, Iran, Tel: +989141156941; E-mail: sshamsv@yahoo.com

Received date: October 26, 2016; Accepted date: November 06, 2016; Published date: November 14, 2016

Copyright: © 2016 Habibollahi P, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License; which permits unrestricted use; distribution; and reproduction in any medium; provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

CNS is the main site of therapeutic action of TCAs and these have direct effects on the CNS. The TCAs antidepressant effect is recognized to be the blockade of monoamine reuptake, at both noradrenergic and serotonergic nerve endings. Tricyclic compounds have anticholinergic effects and predominantly action on myocardium sodium channels then this group has a various symptoms; Since TCA has various presentation; we must ready to find different signs and symptoms of that. We must know all of sign and symptoms to be ready for manage it or them because cannot predict what patients will manifest.

Introduction

Cyclic antidepressants contain pertinent compounds. The older agents include of three-ring tertiary and secondary amines and the newer agents one-, three-, and four-ring structures. Several antidepressant agents such as trazodone and fluoxetine simulate those previously mentioned in structure [1,2]. CAs are absorbed orally and quickly distributed, this are very lipophilic and bind strongly to tissue and plasma proteins and with relatively large volume distributed (10 to 50 L/kg). Metabolism begins oxidation of Hepatic microsomal enzymes by combined with glucuronic acid.

There is significant first-pass metabolism, enterohepatic recycling, and modest excretion into urine and gastric fluid. In overdose combined effects of slow dissolution, poor absorption when ionized by gastric acid, peak plasma concentrations can achieve up to 12 hours [3,4], elimination half-life ranges from 1 to 3 days via inhibition of gastric emptying by anticholinergic actions [5].

Two years after the identification of clinical efficacy of tricyclic the side effects of overdose were reported [6]. Now tricyclics are most frequently ingested substances in self-poisoning along with paracetamol, benzodiazepines, and alcohol [7]. They are commonest in the fatal drug overdose and second only to analgesics [8,9].

Pharmacology

CNS is the main site of therapeutic action of TCAs and these have direct effects on the CNS. The TCAs antidepressant effect is recognized to be the blockade of monoamine reuptake, at both noradrenergic and serotonergic nerve endings. Tricyclic compounds have anticholinergic effects and predominantly action on myocardium sodium channels. These may all be relevant to their CNS effects in overdose [10].

The clinical effects of TCAs succedent overdose case series published from the 1960s and in the 1970s [11,12] effects of TCAs overdose were similar to clinical features associated with the antimuscarinic compounds.

Antimuscarinic effect

Early common effects were myoclonic and chores-athetoid movements (up to 43%) and other effects included dilated pupils, drowsiness and tachycardia [11]. One potentially important interferer is the change in the availability of other drugs to co-ingest, in particular, benzodiazepines [12].

Seizure

Grand mal convulsions are the most important CNS effect. Convulsions were an early complication, and occur 12 hours after overdose ingestion [12]. Seizures are usually self-limiting but benzodiazepines are the choice of treatment [13]. Efficacy of phenytoin has never been proven but some introduced the use of it [14]. And the use of phenytoin in a rat model was found to be of no benefit [15]. In the loss of consciousness and respiratory depression in seizure, intubation is required.

Coma

Duration of coma in TCA poisoning tended to be relatively short-lived, noted in 1976 [16].

In this series, one-third of patients presenting in the coma were awake in 2 hours, and two-thirds in 24 hours. Some texts have referred to the ability of TCAs to depress brain-stem reflexes in overdose. So, White reported on three cases, two of which included a tricyclic compound, which had absent brain-stem reflexes [17]. Yang and Dantzer reported a loss of brain-stem reflexes in amitriptyline overdose of 9 g in a 46-year-old patient [18]. More recently, a case was reported of 5 days of coma following ingestion of a combined overdose, which included amitriptyline and venlafaxine associated with loss of brain stem reflexes but no features of cardiovascular toxicity [19].

Gaze

During the course of coma in TCA poisoning external ophthalmoplegia, manifesting clinically as divergent squint. Puls and

Lom-broso were reported one such case associated with seizures and respiratory arrest [20]. Larger case series do not provide sufficient data to assess an occurrence. Gaze paralysis and Internuclear ophthalmoplegia are other CNS features [21,22].

Hyperpyrexia

Reduced ability to sweat may result of Anti-muscarinic features of TCA poisoning. Disturb thermoregulation by central cholinergic muscarinic antagonism and thus chip into hyperpyrexia [23]. Temperature disturbance may have more than one cause in TCA poisoning because TCA poisoning has been associated with the development of a serotonergic syndrome [24]. Baca and Martinelli reported the therapeutic use of desipramine in a 50-year-old woman who developed features of hyperpyrexia and elevated creatine kinase activity [25].

Delirium

Prolonged delirium in the recovery phase of TCA poisoning. The typical clinical pattern of incoherent mumbling and plucking at the bed clothes in patients who had serious intoxication in our experience accompanied is a relatively common feature. The cause of delirium is unclear, and it does not respond to treatment with physostigmine [26]. Therapeutic use of antidepressants created a less severe pattern of behaviour [27,28]. These observations suggest that the excess central monoamine activity, rather than the anti-muscarinic effects cause of delirium.

Neuropathy

Therapeutic use of amitriptyline causes Peripheral neuropathy [29,30], also a small number of cases in association with coma and skin blistering [31]. Blistering is a feature seen in many types of the coma but Peripheral neuropathy not seen (It is unclear). The specific effect of amitriptyline on the neuronal microvasculature as a cause of neuropathy is recommended by the reporter [20].

Hyponatremia

Hence serotonin control of antidiuretic hormone (ADH) secretion, hyponatremia relating to an unsuitable ADH release is a theoretical risk [32].

Ataxia

Beginning of a serotonin syndrome in patient who developed progressive cerebellar atrophy and cerebellar ataxia reported by Fujino et al. [33].

Dystonia

Dystonic reactions and the serotonergic syndrome are CNS effects that have been reported [24].

Conclusion

Most of poisoned patients are young female in developing countries and must focus to prevent in receiving such a drug and educate community [34,35]. Since TCA has various presentations; we must ready to find different signs and symptoms of that. We must know all of sign and symptoms to be ready for manage it or them because cannot predict what patients will manifest.

References

1. Callaham M, Kassel D (1985) Epidemiology of fatal tricyclic antidepressant ingestion: implications for management. *Ann Emerg Med* 14: 1-9.
2. Perel J, Shostak M, Ganor E (1978) Pharmacodynamics of imipramine and clinical outcome in depressed patients. In: Gottschalk L, Merlis S (eds.). *Pharmacokinetics of psychoactive drugs*. New York: Spectrum Publications.
3. Hanzlick RL (1984) Postmortem blood concentrations of parent tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) drugs in 11 cases of suicide. *Am J Forensic Med Pathol* 5: 11-13.
4. Gaultier M, Pebay-Peyroula P (1971) Acute intoxication by tricyclic antidepressants. *Rev Prat* 21: 2259-2288.
5. Spiker DG, Weiss AN, Chang SS, Ruwitch JF, Biggs JT (1975) Tricyclic antidepressant overdose: Clinical presentation and plasma levels. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 18: 539- 546.
6. Lancaster NP, Foster AR (1959) Suicidal attempt by imipramine overdosage. *Br Med J* 2: 1458.
7. Buckley NA, Whyte IM, Dawson AH, McManus PR, Ferguson NW (1995) Self-poisoning in Newcastle, 1987-1992. *Med J Aust* 162: 190-193.
8. Obafunwa JO, Busuttill A (1994) Deaths from substance overdose in the Lothian and Borders region of Scotland (1983-1991). *Hum Exp Toxicol* 13: 401-406.
9. Coleridge J, Cameron PA, Drummer OH, McNeil JJ (1992) Survey of drug-related deaths in Victoria. *Med J Aust* 157: 459-462.
10. Callaham M (1979) Tricyclic antidepressant overdose. *JACEP* 8: 413-425.
11. Noble J, Matthew H (1969) Acute poisoning by tricyclic antidepressants: clinical features and management of 100 patients. *J Toxicol Clin Toxicol* 2: 403-421.
12. Starkey IR, Lawson AAH (1980) Poisoning with tricyclic and related antidepressants: a ten-year review. *Q J Med* 49: 33-49.
13. Crome P (1986) Poisoning due to tricyclic antidepressant overdosage. Clinical presentation and treatment. *Med Toxicol* 1: 261-285.
14. Mayron R, Ruiz E (1986) Phenytoin: does it reverse tricyclic antidepressant induced cardiac conduction abnormalities? *Ann Emerg Med* 15: 876-880.
15. Beaubien AR, Carpenter DC, Mathieu LF, MacConaill M, Hrdina PD (1976) Antagonism of imipramine poisoning by anticonvulsants in the rat. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 38: 1-6.
16. Thorstrand C (1976) Clinical features in poisonings by tricyclic antidepressants with special reference to the ECG. *Acta Med Scand* 199: 337-344.
17. White A (1988) Overdose of tricyclic antidepressants associated with absent brain-stem reflexes. *CMAJ* 139: 133-134.
18. Yang KL, Dantzker DR (1991) Reversible brain death. A manifestation of amitriptyline overdose. *Chest* 99: 1037-1038.
19. Roberge RJ, Krenzelo EP (2001) Prolonged coma and loss of brainstem reflexes following amitriptyline overdose. *Vet Hum Toxicol* 43: 42-44.
20. Pulst SM, Lombroso CT (1983) External ophthalmoplegia, alpha and spindle coma in imipramine overdose: case report and review of the literature. *Ann Neurol* 14: 587-590.
21. Miadinich EK, Carlow TJ (1977) Total gaze paresis in amitriptyline overdose. *Neurology* 27: 695.
22. Hotson JR, Sachdev HS (1982) Amitriptyline: another cause of internuclear ophthalmoplegia with coma. *Ann Neurol* 12: 62.
23. Hantson P, Benaissa M, Clemessy JL, Baud FJ (1996) Hyperthermia complicating tricyclic antidepressant overdose. *Intensive Care Med* 22: 453-455.
24. Radomski JW (1998) Serotonin syndrome in a teenager following overdose of dothiepine hydrochloride. *J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol* 8: 201-204.
25. Baca L, Martinelli L (1990) Neuroleptic malignant syndrome: a unique association with a tricyclic antidepressant. *Neurology* 40: 1797-1798.

26. Gomolin IH, Melmed CA (1983) Prolonged delirium without anticholinergic signs following amitriptyline overdose. *Can Med Assoc J* 129: 1203-1204.
27. Livingston RL, Zucker DK, Isenberg K, Wetzel RD (1983) Tricyclic antidepressants and delirium. *J Clin Psychiatry* 44: 173-176.
28. Preskorn SH, Jerkovich GS (1990) Central nervous system toxicity of tricyclic antidepressants: phenomenology, course, risk factors, and role of therapeutic drug monitoring. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 10: 88-95.
29. Isaacs AD, Carlsh S (1963) Peripheral neuropathy after amitriptyline [letter]. *Br Med J* 1: 1739.
30. Casarino JP (1977) Neuropathy associated with amitriptyline. Bilateral footdrop. *N Y State J Med* 77: 2124-2126.
31. Maguiness S, Guenther L, Shum D (2002) Coma blisters, peripheral neuropathy, and amitriptyline overdose: a brief report. *J Cutan Med Surg* 6: 438-441.
32. Settle EC (1998) Antidepressant drugs: disturbing and potentially dangerous adverse effects. *J Clin Psychiatry* 59: 25-30.
33. Fujino Y, Tsuboi Y, Shimoji E, Takahashi M, Yamada T (2000) Progressive cerebellar atrophy following acute antidepressant intoxication [in Japanese]. *Rinsho Shinkeigaku* 40: 1033-1037.
34. Shams Vahdati S, Moradi N, Ghadim JA, Tajoddini S (2015) Evaluation of suicide attempts with drug poisoning in North-West of Iran. *Journal of Emergency Practice and Trauma* 1: 1-2.
35. Ala A, Vahdati SS, Moosavi L, Sadeghi H (2011) Studying the Relationship Between Age, Gender and Other Demographic Factors with the Type of Agent Used for Self-Poisoning at a Poisoning Referral Center in North West Iran. *Journal of Academic Emergency Medicine* 10: 100.