

Review Article

Journal of Clinical Review & Case Reports

Tardive Dyskinesia and Akathasia: A Dopamine System Theory Clinical Review

Dr. Tammi McGill-Carter

Neurodevelopmental Specialist

*Corresponding author

Dr. Tammi McGill-Carter, The Chicago School of Professional Psychology, USA, E-mail: Chirion_Lyons@hotmail.com

ISSN: 2573-9565

Submitted: 03 Jan 2019; Accepted: 08 Jan 2019; Published: 18 Jan 2019

Abstract

Long term use of first generation anti-psychotics (FGAs) have been theorized in the formation of motion disorders Tardive Dyskinesia and Akathasia and due to the breakdown in the extra pyramidal system (EPS) located in the Basal Ganglia [1]. The second generation anti-psychotics (SGAs) were sourced to be the "treatment" of TD by blocking dopamine receptors with dopamine agonists of the D2-D5 receptors while also being seen as the genesis of AK. However, the blocking of the receptors in both motion disorders is a theory known as the dopamine blockage theory, despite the intermingle of other neurotransmitters such as Serotonin and Norepinephrine [2].

Introduction

The EP system includes theorized Dopamine and Serotonin connections within the Basal Ganglia, the striatopallidongral system, and other structures of the central nervous system that contribute to the regulation of movement, including brainstem nuclei and the cerebellum [3]. One example of a classical disorder of the pyramidal system is a stroke, resulting in paralysis of an extremity. Cortiospinal lesions above the pyramidal decussation typically result in paralysis of volitional movements of the contralateral half of the body [4].

The pathophysiology of EPS disorders have been disputed because some EPS disorders may not involve lesions of the Basal ganglia. In addition, motions associated with said disorders may not be involuntary [3,4]. Because of the problems inherited in the concept of the EPS, caution must be exercised in the classification of the EPS due the countless symptoms that mimic other motion disorders as certain neurotransmitters can create the actions of another.

Pathophysiology of Tardive Dyskinesia

The central dopamine blockage theory states that the long term use of dopamine antagonists (FGAs) has been hypothesized to play a role in the pathogenesis of TD [1,5]. This disorder is described as Bucco-Masticatory and the rigid movements of the lips, tongue, face, trunk, and upper extremities. The theory has also hypothesized that the result of TD is due in part of the compensatory super sensitivity of dopamine receptors following a chronic blockade of the D antagonists [2].

Although the D2 receptor has traditionally been implicated in the pathogenesis of TD, mounting evidence indicates that, in some individuals, the dopamine D3, D4, and D5 receptors are involved [6]. TD has been associated with polymorphism of both the dopamine receptor D2 gene, Taql A and Taql B and the associated haplotypes, and of the dopamine receptor D3 gene [2].

Pathophysiology of Akathasia

While the dopamine hypothesis is the most documented theory of Akathisia to date much like TD, it is unlikely that a single neurotransmitter hypothesis can explain all the complexities of this disorder. In fact, the interaction of several NT's such as Norepinephrine are involved with the developmental of TD's sidekick, Akathasia. This specific disorder affects the lower extremities and is known as restless leg syndrome [7,8].

Another well hypothesized theory of the genesis of Akathisia is the long term use of Second Generation Antipsychotics (SGAs) that function on the serotonergic system. Such drugs include Haldol, SSRI's such as Fluoxetine and Paroxetine, and Ability also known as mood stablizers [4,9,10].

More serotonin effects include Opiad withdrawal, Cocaine withdrawal (mostly heavy and long term users), Cannabis, and Alcohol withdrawal [9]. Despite the serotonin system effects by SGA's, the dopamine hypothesis that applies to TD also applies to Akathisia as well, Dopamine receptor blockade, only the blockage with Akathisia is caused by SGA's is on the D2 receptor occupancy.

Selected Treatments

The only drug treatment listed for the treatment for TD to date is Clozapine (Clozaril). Clozapine was first developed by Sandoz Pharmaceuticals in 1961, but was discovered in Europe in 1975 [11]. Clozapine was normally prescribed to treat Schizophrenia, Bipolar disorder, but after several experimental trials, the scientific community discovered that Clozapine is also helpful with TD and Akathisia [11]. Clozapine works on the same dopamine receptors (D1-D5) with an affinity for the D4 receptor for TD and Akathisia patients.

While Clozapine has been discovered to help TD and Akathisia patients, Mirtazapine, next to Clozapine, has been prescribed to



treat the symptoms of Akathisia. The route for both drugs is oral administration. The bioavailibity for Mirtazapine is 50% and is metabolized in the liver by the CYP2D6 and CYP3A4 enzymes. Clozapine is never truly complete due to its bioavailability being 60-70% at first pass metabolism of the liver. Clozapine is extensively metabolized in the liver, via the cytochrome P450 system, to polar metabolites suitable for elimination through either the feces or urination.

Mechanisms of Action of Clozapine and Mirtazapine

Clozapine is more active in the limbic system rather than at the striatal dopamine receptors and may explain the relative freedom of Clozapine from extrapyramidal side effects with strong anticholinergic activity [8]. Clozapine is also a partial agonist at the 5-HT1a receptor, putatively improving depression, anxiety, and negative cognitive symptoms. Clozapine has the profile of binding to Serotonergic and Dopaminergic receptors [9]. Tetracyclic antidepressants that such as Mirtazapine, acts by increasing the central noradrenergic serontonic neurotransmission [11]. Mirtazapine appears to act primarily on the postsynaptic 5-HT2 and 5-HT3 and central a1 (adrenergic) receptors. With long term use of Clozapine, the dissolution or death of white blood cells, known as Agranulocytosis [8].

Angranulocytosis

The development of agranulocytosis is a medical emergency. Agranulocytosis is defined as a granulocyte count of < 50O/mm3 and leukopenia is defined as a white blood cell (WBC) count of < 3,500/mm3. The risk of agranulocytosis is highest in the first 3 months of clozapine treatment, and 95 percent of the cases occur within the first 6 months [12]. Patients treated with Clozapine in the UK and United States for a psychiatric or motion disorder must register themselves with the Clozapine Patient Monitoring Services (CPMS) to ensure that no patient can receive the drug without a recent satisfactory hematological result [4]. Blood serum must be

within normal range (RBC 45%, Plasma 55% and Buffy coat 1%) [9]. If a patient experiences a sharp decline in their white blood cell count, they are to immediately discontinue the drug and a hematologist should be consulted immediately [12].

References

- Lehne R (2013) Antipsychotics agents and their use in schizophrenia. In pharmacology for nursing care 8th Ed. St Louis, MO: Elsevier/Saunders.
- Lieberman JA, Stroup TS, McEvoy JP, Swartz MS, Rosenheck RA, et al. (2005) Effectiveness of antipsychotic drugs in patients with chronic shrizophrenia. New England Journal of Medicine 353: 1209-1223.
- 3. Jibson DM, Marder S, Hermman R (2018) First-generation antipsychotic medications: Pharmacology, administration, and comparative side effects.
- Patterson JAA, McCahill ME, Edwards TM (2010) the therapists guide to psychopharmacology: Working with patients, families, and physicians to optimize care. London, UK: Guilford Press.
- Guzman F, Farinde A (2016) Psychopharmacology: An introduction. https://psychopharmacologyinstitute.com/antipsychotics/first-generation-antipsychotics/#Antipsychotic_potency_chlorpromazine equivalent doses
- 6. James RB, Benbadis RS (2010) Tardive Dyskinesia. Medscape References of Drugs, Conditions, and Procedures 2.
- Kumar R, Perminder SS (2009) Akathisia: The anatomy of a disorder. Academic unit of Psychological Medicine and Neuropsychiatric Institute 22: 293-299.
- 8. Kolb B, Whishaw QI (2009) Fundamentals of neuropsychology. New York, NY: Worth Publishers.
- 9. Pies RW (2005) Handbook of essential psychopharmacology (2nd Ed) Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.
- 10. Preston J, Johnson J (2012) Clinical psychopharmacology made ridiculously easy (7th Ed) Miami, FL: Medmaster.
- 11. Stenberg JH, Terevnikov V, Joffe M, Tiihonen Tchoukhine E, Burkin M, et al. (2010) Effects of add-on mirtazapine on neurocognition in schizophrenia: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study. International Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology 13: 433-441.
- 12. Ojoung M, Allen NS (2013) Management and prevention of agranulocytosis in patients receiving clozapine. Mental Health Clinician 3: 139-143.

Copyright: ©2019 Dr. Tammi McGill-Carter. 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.

J Clin Rev Case Rep, 2019 www.opastonline.com Volume 4 | Issue 1 | 2 of 2