

Fenfluramine provides clinically meaningful reduction in frequency of drop seizures in patients with Lennox-Gastaut syndrome: Interim analysis of an open-label extension study



Discover this research article in full today.

View enhanced article features, including:

- full article audio recording
- video abstract
- author discussion
- infographic



Effect of Valproate on Cerebral Metabolism and Blood Flow: An ¹⁸F-2-Deoxyglusose and ¹⁵O Water Positron Emission Tomography Study

William D. Gaillard, *Thomas Zeffiro, Shahin Fazilat, Charles DeCarli, and William H. Theodore

Epilepsy Research Branch, National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke; and *Laboratory on Neuroscience, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, U.S.A.

Summary: We compared the effect of valproate (VPA) on cerebral metabolic rate for glucose (CMRGlc) and cerebral blood flow (CBF), measured with 18 F-2-deoxyglucose (18 FDG) and 15 O water positron emission tomography (PET), in 10 normal volunteers. Mean VPA dose was 17.7 mg/kg, and mean VPA level was 82.1 mg/L (\pm 16.5) for 4 weeks. VPA reduced global CMRGlc by 9.4% (9.60 \pm 0.76 vs. 8.59 \pm 1.02 mg Glc/min/100 g, p < 0.05) and regionally in all anatomic areas (p < 0.05 for 11 of 26 areas). VPA diminished global CBF by 14.9% (56.55 \pm 6.70 vs. 47.48 \pm 4.42 ml/min/100 g, p < 0.002) and region-

ally in all anatomic areas (p < 0.05 for 12 of 26 areas). No significant correlation was noted between VPA level and either global CMRGlc or CBF. The effect of VPA on global CMRGlc is similar to that of carbamazepine (CBZ) and phenytoin but less than that of phenobarbital, valium, or combination therapy with VPA and CBZ. VPA reduced regional CBF (rCBF) but not CMRGlc in the thalamus, an effect that may be associated with VPA's mechanism of action against generalized seizures. **Key Words:** Valproate—Positron emission tomography—Cerebral blood flow—Cerebral metabolism.

Antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) impair cognitive function and decrease cerebral metabolism to varying degrees (1–4). In a previous study, we noted that valproate (VPA) decreased cerebral metabolism by 22% in epilepsy patients treated concomitantly with carbamazepine (CBZ) (5). To measure the effect of VPA alone on cerebral function, we studied cerebral glucose metabolism (CMRGlc) and cerebral blood flow (CBF) in normal volunteers before and after administration of VPA using ¹⁸F-2-deoxyglucose positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) and ¹⁵O water PET ([¹⁵O]-PET).

METHODS

Ten normal volunteers (6 men and 4 women) with a mean age of 29.2 years (±8.6, range 20–43 years) were enrolled by the Clinical Epilepsy Section, Epi-

Received March 22, 1995; revision accepted January 4, 1996. Address and correspondence and reprint requests to Dr. W. D. Gaillard at his present address: Department of Neurology, Children's National Medical Center, The George Washington University, 111 Michigan Ave., N.W., Washington D.C., 20100, U.S.A.

lepsy Research Branch, National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke, National Institutes of Health (NINDS, NIH) after approval was granted by the NIH Institutional Review Board and the subjects had given informed consent. All subjects had normal neurologic examinations, complete blood count liver function tests, and 1.5-T magnetic resonance imaging (MRI General Electric Signa). They underwent FDG-PET and [15O]PET before and after administration of VPA (Depakote). Subjects were titrated to maintenance for 1 week, after which weekly trough levels were obtained for a minimum of 4 weeks. The mean dose of VPA was 17.7 mg/kg \pm 3.74 (range 13.2-24.9), which maintained mean trough levels at 82 mg/L \pm 16.5 (range 58.5–110.8). VPA was administered for a mean duration of 33 days (range 28-54 days, but only 1 subject received VPA > 35 days).

PET studies were performed on the Scanditronix 2048-15B scanner with a full-width half-maximum axial and in-plane resolution of 5.5 mm. Subjects were scanned in the resting awake state with eyes patched, ears plugged, and heads immobilized by a thermoplastic mask. Scans were obtained oriented

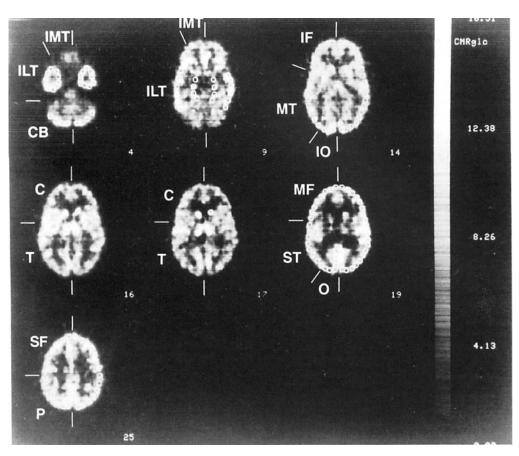


FIG. 1. Region of interest template placed on ¹⁸F-2-deoxyglucose positron emission tomography study. Areas: ILT, inferolateral temporal; IMT, inferomesial temporal; MT, midtemporal; ST, superotemporal; IF, inferofrontal; MF, midfrontal; SF, superofrontal; P, parietal; IO, inferior occipital; O, occipital; C, caudate; T, thalamus; CB, cerebellum.

along the canthomeatal plane. After a measured ⁶⁸Gallium attenuation scan was made, 30 mCi ¹⁵O-labeled water was injected by intravenous bolus and data were collected for 4 min. This procedure was repeated 12 min later with the head position advanced 3.3 mm. Immediately after data acquisition for the second ¹⁵O water scan, 5.0 mCi FDG was injected. After a 30-min uptake period, data were acquired for two 15-min intervals with head position matching that in water studies. Arterial sampling was performed to quantitate local CMRGlc (LCMRGlc) and regional CBF (rCBF) (6,7).

Data analysis

Data were analyzed with a standard template of 176 regions, each 48 mm², grouped into 13 paired anatomic areas. The template was superimposed and placed directly on seven PET slices from the FDG study (Fig. 1), and regions of interest (ROIs) were adjusted as necessary to fit each slice; the template

was then superimposed on the water images by an investigator blinded to scan conditions. Mean values of LCMRGlc (mg Glc/min/100 g) and rCBF (ml/min/100 g) were calculated for each anatomic area. Statistical analysis was performed with the Statview statistical package on a Macintosh IIX PC. Two-tailed Student's *t* tests and nonparametric tests (Wilcoxon ranked sum) were performed to determine significant differences between the two conditions for each area and for global measures. We hypothesized that there would be global changes in CMRGlc and CBF as a result of drug administration.

Drug-related regional CMRGlc and CBF effects were also studied with SPM (MRC Cyclotron Unit, London, U.K.) and MEDx (Sensor Systems, Sterling, VA, U.S.A.). The analysis procedure consisted of spatial normalization followed by statistical parametric map (SPM) generation, which allowed intersubject averaging and quantitative assessment of change significance (8–10). The scans were individually reoriented, rescaled and reformatted to generate a stereotaxically normalized image corresponding

TABLE 1. Effect of VPA on LCMRGlc

Region	Without VPA	With VPA	t Test	Wilcoxon ranked-sum test
				Tankou sum tos
Inferolateroltemporal	9.70 + 0.76	7 (2 + 1 00	0.01	0.02
L R	8.70 ± 0.76	7.63 ± 1.00	0.01	0.02
	8.38 ± 0.59	7.77 ± 0.93	0.18	0.17
Inferomesiotemporal	((7) 0 (0	6.06 + 0.70		
L	6.67 ± 0.68	6.26 ± 0.78	0.29	0.26
R	6.76 ± 0.75	6.30 ± 0.74	0.32	0.37
Cerebellum				
L	8.24 ± 0.61	7.52 ± 1.08	0.12	0.11
R	8.35 ± 0.90	7.55 ± 1.11	0.12	0.14
Inferofrontal				
L	10.51 ± 1.19	9.03 ± 1.27	0.02	0.05
R	10.24 ± 0.92	9.05 ± 1.35	0.07	0.09
Midtemporal				
L	9.95 ± 0.86	8.88 ± 1.03	0.03	0.04
R	9.42 ± 0.63	8.86 ± 1.09	0.23	0.21
Inferior occipital				
L	8.97 ± 0.96	8.29 ± 0.81	0.19	0.21
R	8.95 ± 0.70	8.40 ± 1.17	0.32	0.26
Thalamus			5.52	0.20
L	10.97 ± 0.88	9.72 ± 1.65	0.09	0.11
R	10.56 ± 1.09	9.73 ± 1.65	0.30	0.31
Caudate	10.00 = 1107	71.75 = 11.05	0.50	0.51
L	10.44 ± 1.13	9.79 ± 1.45	0.45	0.44
R	10.45 ± 1.20	9.61 ± 1.46	0.31	0.17
Midfrontal	10.43 = 1.20	7.01 ± 1.40	0.51	0.17
L	10.71 ± 0.83	9.20 ± 1.05	0.01	0.02
R	10.71 ± 0.03 10.26 ± 0.95	8.93 ± 0.98	0.01	0.02
Superotemporal	10.20 ± 0.93	0.93 ± 0.96	0.02	0.04
L	10.03 ± 0.75	8.83 ± 1.04	0.02	0.14
R				
	9.68 ± 0.94	8.65 ± 1.07	0.06	0.02
Occipital	10.24 + 1.02	0.11 . 1.01	0.00	2.24
L	10.34 ± 1.03	9.11 ± 1.21	0.02	0.04
R	10.13 ± 1.29	9.20 ± 0.91	0.04	0.04
Superofrontal				
L	10.76 ± 1.10	9.22 ± 1.47	0.02	0.04
R	10.46 ± 1.03	9.31 ± 1.25	0.06	0.05
Parietal				
L	10.03 ± 1.13	8.74 ± 1.23	0.03	0.04
R	9.79 ± 0.76	8.59 ± 1.02	0.05	0.05
Global				
	9.60 ± 0.76	8.59 ± 1.02	0.05	0.05

VPA, valproate; LCMRGlc, cerebral metabolic rate of glucose metabolism (mg/min/100 g). Values are mean \pm SD.

to the stereotaxtic atlas of Talairach and Tournoux (9,11). Analysis of change significance was performed with a pixel-by-pixel analysis of covariance to remove the confounding effect of intersubject variation in CMRGlc or CBF, followed by planned linear comparisons of the adjusted mean images (12). This procedure removed global effects of drug administration from the analysis. Comparison (with drug minus without drug) eliminated activity common to both conditions, the remaining areas of difference reflecting local drug effect (13). The value of t for each pixel in each comparison was calculated and then transformed to a normal standard distribution (Z-values). The significance level for detecting effect of drug and areas of decreased or increased CBF and CMRGlc was set up at p < 0.01 (13).

RESULTS

VPA reduced global CMRGlc by 9.4% (± 7.5 , p < 0.05). Decreases in CMRGlc were evident in all areas examined and were significant (p < 0.05) in 11 of 26 areas (Table 1). Subcortical areas, cerebellum, and inferior temporal areas showed no consistent significant changes. VPA diminished global CBF by 14.9% (± 10.4 , p < 0.002). Reductions in CBF were noted in all areas examined and were significant (p < 0.05) in 12 of 26. Alterations in CBF generally paralleled that for FDG except for thalamus and cerebellum, which had significantly decreased rCBF (Table 2). Nonparametric tests (Wilcoxon ranked sum) showed significant changes in CMRGlc and CBF, which confirmed the t tests and

TABLE 2. Effect of VPA on rCBF

Region	Without VPA	With VPA	t Test	Wilcoxon ranked-sum test
Inferolateroltemporal L	49.77 ± 12.45	43.30 ± 5.84	0.09	0.09
R	49.77 ± 12.43 48.38 ± 11.09	43.30 ± 3.64 42.74 ± 6.27	0.09	0.09
Inferomesiotemporal	40.30 ± 11.09	42.74 ± 6.27	0.00	0.09
L	47.72 ± 11.61	43.28 ± 7.31	0.18	0.17
R	46.33 ± 9.28	43.28 ± 7.31 43.14 ± 9.03	0.18	0.14
Cerebellum	40.33 ± 9.26	43.14 ± 3.03	0.29	0.14
L	56.55 ± 8.65	47.44 ± 5.55	0.03	0.04
R	56.08 ± 11.35	46.42 ± 5.22	0.03	0.06
Inferofrontal	30.06 ± 11.33	40.42 ± 3.22	0.03	0.00
L	53.31 ± 7.20	48.93 ± 6.12	0.14	0.19
R	53.31 ± 7.20 54.04 ± 7.06	48.56 ± 6.08	0.14	0.19
Midtemporal	34.04 ± 7.00	48.50 ± 0.08	0.12	0.11
	53.70 ± 7.41	50.20 ± 5.17	0.21	0.14
L R	51.37 ± 7.81	49.90 ± 5.89	0.61	0.14
	31.37 ± 7.81	49.90 = 3.69	0.01	0.60
Inferior occipital	50.37 ± 12.23	48.97 ± 7.64	0.70	0.96
L R	50.37 ± 12.23 50.90 ± 7.89	48.97 ± 7.64 49.93 ± 5.06	0.64	0.65
	30.90 ± 7.89	49.93 ± 3.00	0.04	0.63
Thalamus	68.19 ± 11.39	53.48 ± 5.98	0.01	0.01
L R	66.00 ± 8.42		0.01	0.01
	66.00 ± 8.42	54.18 ± 7.87	0.01	0.03
Caudate	56.16 ± 12.76	46.22 ± 7.77	0.11	0.07
L R	57.88 ± 7.93	48.64 ± 7.59	0.11	0.07
Midfrontal	37.88 ± 7.93	48.04 ± 7.39	0.03	0.04
	61.27 ± 7.68	49.93 ± 5.83	0.01	0.01
L R	58.40 ± 8.02	49.93 ± 3.83 50.76 ± 5.49	0.07	0.01
	36.40 ± 6.02	30.76 ± 3.49	0.07	0.09
Superotemporal	58.42 ± 7.79	49.62 ± 6.21	0.03	0.04
L		49.62 ± 6.21 47.66 ± 5.74		0.04
R	55.19 ± 6.34	47.00 ± 3.74	0.02	0.03
Occipital	(0.77 ± 0.02	52 (2 + 7 (1	0.05	0.05
L	60.77 ± 8.93	52.63 ± 7.66	0.05	0.05
R	58.21 ± 9.42	52.66 ± 8.96	0.23	0.33
Superofrontal	50.52 + 12.29	40.02 5.00	0.04	0.05
L	59.52 ± 13.38	48.83 ± 5.90	0.04	0.05
R Parietal	59.68 ± 11.99	47.87 ± 5.65	0.03	0.03
Parietal	57.66 + 14.06	45 50 + 5 ((0.05	0.06
L	57.66 ± 14.96	45.58 ± 5.66	0.05	
R	57.06 ± 11.44	46.56 ± 7.38	0.06	0.06
Global	56.55 + 6.70	47.49 + 4.42	0.002	0.01
	56.55 ± 6.70	47.48 ± 4.42	0.002	0.01

VPA, valproate; rCBF, regional cerebral blood flow (ml/min/100 g). Values are mean ± SD.

support a broad and modest drug effect. SPM analysis, controlling for global effects, identified region-specific decreased CBF in the thalamic regions and, to a lesser extent, in some prefrontal cortical areas (Fig. 2). SPM analysis of CMRGlc data did not show changes at the p < 0.01 level. No areas of increased CBF or metabolism were noted. No significant correlation was noted between VPA serum concentration and global CMRGlc or CBF (r = 0.091, p = 0.238).

In a previous study, 7 patients with complex partial seizures of temporal lobe origin had two FDG scans without a drug change (5). Global mean CMRGlc did not change (7.52 \pm 2.06 vs. 7.68 \pm 2.54, F = 0.312). Mean global variance for the scanscan difference was 1.12; no individual variance was >2.5. We also examined the regional variances for

both scans in the 7 patients. Across-patient comparisons are much less valuable than within-patient comparisons due to the marked differences between individuals in resting CMRGlc. Nevertheless, variance was >4.32 in only 7 of 26 regions and was <4.32 in all regions if one outlying subject was not included.

DISCUSSION

Our results show a modest effect of VPA in reducing global CMRGlc and CBF. The 9.4% reduction in global CMRGlc in the present study was similar to that noted with CBZ (9.6%) and phenytoin (PHT, 11.5%) but less than that noted with phenobarbital (PB, 27.0%) or valium (20%) (1-4). In a previous study, using VPA, we noted a decrease in global CMRGlc of 22% (5). However, that study was per-

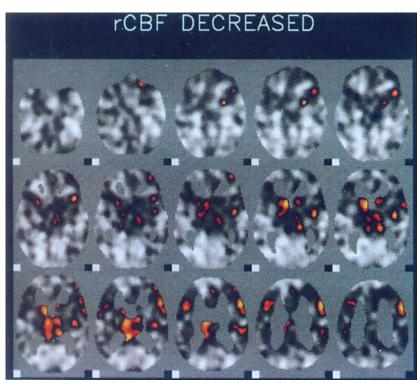


FIG. 2. Statistical parametric map analysis of valproate drug effect. Colored regions represent regions of decreased regional blood flow during drug treatment as compared with no drug (p < 0.01).

formed in epilepsy patients who were concurrently treated with CBZ. CBZ in conjunction with VPA may have had a synergistic effect, resulting in greater decrease in CMRGlc than would have been caused by either drug alone. CBZ levels were unchanged, but CBZ metabolites were not measured. Valproate reduces the clearance rate of CBZ and its epoxide metabolites, and CBZ epoxide levels may have increased (14,15). In addition, although levels of VPA were lower (52 vs. 82 mg/L), duration of VPA administration was longer (75 vs. 33 days) in the first study (5). Some evidence indicates a cumulative CNS effect of VPA since seizure reduction may lag behind initiation of VPA administration (16).

The effect of AEDs on global CNS metabolism parallels their effect on cognitive performance and may be associated with their mechanism of action (17). PB, in therapeutic concentrations, impairs attention, concentration, and memory (18–21). PHT, CBZ and VPA produce subtle cognitive effects that are less pronounced than those produced by PB but that may be more readily apparent at higher drug concentrations (21–25).

Polytherapy results in greater cognitive impairment than any single AED along (25,26). This observation is of note in light of our finding that VPA decreased CMRGIc to a greater degree in patients receiving CBZ than in normal volunteers. AEDs that act at the γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor may

decrease cerebral metabolism more than AEDs that alter sodium ion membrane conductance (17). PHT and CBZ inhibit voltage- and frequency-dependent sodium channels; PB and benzodiazepines potentiate GABAergic-mediated activation of inhibitory chloride channels (4,17–30).

The mechanism of action of VPA is unknown. Brain and cerebrospinal fluid GABA is increased after VPA administration, which may block the degradative enzymes GABA transaminase and succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase or the citric acid cycle α -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex (31– 35). However, increased GABA levels may not imply increased release or interaction with postsynaptic receptors. Moreover, results in animal models may not always be applicable to, or occur at, clinically relevant drug concentrations (27,35,36). Evidence that VPA enhances the effect of GABAmediated alterations in chloride conductance is conflicting (27,30,36,37). An alternative hypothesis suggests that VPA alters voltage-dependent sodium conductance, decreasing sustained repetition (27, 36,38-40).

Our results may have been influenced by our scan sequence and differences in ligand half-life. We obtained all baseline scans before administering VPA. However, our previous study showed no scan order effect in assessing LCMRGlc in subjects with serial FDG-PET (3). In the absence of a sham scan, a scan

effect between first and second ¹⁵O water injections might have influenced our template-based results (41). However, using the second scan images for the SPM analysis controls for this possible effect. Minor regional differences may be attributed to the larger area of cortex encompassed in template regions and to mild head movement effect on template analysis, which is reduced by the head fitting algorithm of SPM. Because CMRGlc and CBF do not vary independently in each brain region, it is difficult to choose the proper correction for multiple comparisons. Our results are strengthened by converging analysis for CMRGlc and for CBF, as well as by the low variance for scan–scan difference in a patient group.

FDG-PET studies with PHT, CBZ, PB, and VPA showed no region-specific cortical effects, which may reflect an effect on a ubiquitous ion channel (e.g., sodium) or neurotransmitter system (e.g., GABA). Some of the variability between our metabolism and CBF data may reflect differences in the higher energy of the ¹⁵O to ¹⁸F positron and the longer half-life and uptake period of FDG as compared with that of ¹⁵O water.

The effect of VPA in moderately reducing LCMRGlc and CBF was similar in all cortical regions and suggests that VPA may not have a significant GA-BAergic effect at therapeutic levels. However, VPA did appear to have a greater effect on subcortical thalamic CBF. This may be related to the drug's greater efficacy against generalized rather than partial epilepsies (42–44). Further studies are warranted to ascertain whether the effects observed in normal volunteers are applicable to a population with generalized epilepsy. In recent studies, SPM analysis demonstrated greater increases in thalamic CBF than in global CBF during absence seizures (45).

The thalamus is essential in facilitating and maintaining cortically initiated paroxysmal activity and in the oscillating electrical activity associated with spike and wave discharges in the generalized epilepsies (46–48). Ethosuximide (ESM), an effective and specific antiabsence anticonvulsant, reduces the low-threshold voltage-dependent Ca2+ current of thalamic neurons, which mediates the phasic firing associated with absence discharges and spindle generation (30,48-51). VPA may have a similar regionspecific activity underlying its efficacy in treatment of generalized epilepsies. Both VPA and ESM reduce corticothalamic-mediated evoked responses (52-54), and VPA reduces cortical excitability in subjects with generalized epilepsy (54). Although no action similar to that of ESM has been observed with VPA in disassociated thalamic neuron studies. VPA inhibits the T-type calcium current in rat nodose neurons (49,55). VPA's accentuated thalamic decrease of rCBF may help explain its mechanism of action. If our observations regarding VPA are valid, ESM may show similar metabolic and CBF patterns, and VPA may have a more robust thalamic effect in patients with newly diagnosed primary generalized epilepsy.

REFERENCES

- Theodore WH, DiChiro G, Margolin R, et al. Barbiturates reduce human cerebral glucose metabolism. *Neurology* 1986:36:60-4.
- Theodore WH, Bairmian D, Newmark ME, et al. The effect of phenytoin on human cerebral glucose metabolism. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1986;6:315-20.
- Theodore WH, Bromfield E, Onorati L. The effect of carbamazepine on cerebral glucose metabolism. Ann Neurol 1989;25:516-20.
- Foster NL, Nan Derpeck AFL, Aldrich MS, et al. The effect of diazepam sedation on cerebral glucose metabolism in Alzheimer's disease as measured using positron emission tomography. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1987;7:415-20.
- 5. Leiderman DB, Balish M, Bromfield E, Theodore WH. The effect of valproic acid on human cerebral glucose metabolism. *Epilepsy Res* 1991;32:417–22.
- 6. Brooks RA. Alternate formula for glucose utilization using labelled deoxyglucose. *J Nucl Med* 1982;23:538–9.
- Koeppe RA, Holden JE, Ip WR. Performance comparison of parameter estimation techniques for the quantitation of local cerebral blood flow by dynamic positron computed tomography. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1985;5:224-34.
- Friston K, Passinggham R, Nutt J, et al. Localization in PET images: direct fitting of the inter-commisural (AC-PC) line.
 J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1989:9:690-5.
- Friston K, Firth C, Liddle P, Frackowiak R. Plastic transformation of PET images. J Comput Assist Tomogr 1991;15: 634-9
- Friston K, Firth C, Liddle P, Frackowiak R. Comparing functional (PET) images: the assessment of significant change. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1991;11:690-9.
- Talairach J, Tournoux P. Co-planar stereotaxic atlas of the human brain. New York: Thieme Medical Publishers, 1988.
- Friston K, Firth C, Liddle P, et al. The relationship between local and global changes in PET scans. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1990;10:458-66.
- 13. Friston K, Firth C, Grasby P, et al. Measuring the neuromodulatory effects of drugs in man with positron emission tomography. *Neuroscience Lett* 1992;141:106–10.
- 14. Sunaoshi W, Miura H, Takanashi S, et al. Influence of concurrent administration of sodium valproate on the plasma concentrations of carbamazepine and its epoxide and diol metabolites. *Jpn J Psychiatry Neurol* 1991;45:474-7.
- Pisani F, Caputo M, Fazio A, et al. Interaction of carbamazepine-10,11-epoxide, an active metabolite of carbamazepine, with valproate: a pharmacokinetic study. *Epilepsia* 1990; 31:339-42.
- Fariello R, Smith MC. Valproate: mechanisms of action. In: Levy R, Mattson R, Maldrum B, Penry JK, Dreifuss FE, eds. Antiepileptic drugs. 3rd ed. New York: Raven Press, 1989:567-75.
- 17. Theodore WH. Antiepileptic drugs and cerebrał glucose metabolism. *Epilepsia* 1988;29(suppl 2):S48-55.
- 18. Vining EP, Mellits ED, Dorsen MM, et al. Psychologic and behavioral effects of antiepileptic drugs on children: a double-blind comparison between phenobarbital and valproic acid. *Pediatrics* 1987;80:165–74.
- Macleod C, Dekaban A, Hunt E. Memory impairment in epileptic patients: selective effect of phenobarbital concentration. Science 1978;202:1102-4.

- Hutt S, Jackson P, Belsham A, Higgins G. Perceptual motor behavior in relation to blood phenobarbital in a preliminary report. Dev Med Child Neurol 1968;1025:626-32.
- 21. Meador K, Loring P, Huh K, et al. Comparative effects of anticonvulsants. *Neurology* 1990;40:391-4.
- 22. Dodrill C. Diphenylhydantoin serum levels, toxicity, and neuropsychological performance on patients with epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 1975;16:593-600.
- Dodrill C, Toupin A. Psychotropic effects of carbamazepine in epilepsy: a double blind comparison with phenytoin. *Neurology* 1977;27:1023–8.
- Thompson PJ, Trimble MR. Sodium valproate and cognitive function in normal volunteers. Br J Clin Pharmacol 1981; 12:819-24.
- 25. Vining E. Cognitive dysfunction associated with antiepileptic drug therapy. *Epilepsia* 1987;28(suppl 2):S18-22.
- Meador K. Loring D. Cognitive effects of antiepileptic drugs.
 In: Devinsky O, Theodore W, eds. Epilepsy and behavior.
 New York: Wiley-Liss, 1991:151-70.
- 27. Macdonald RL. Anticonvulsant drug actions on neurons in cell culture. *J Neural Transm* 1988;72:173-83.
- Macdonald RL. Carbamazepine: mechanisms of action. In: Levy R, Mattson R, Meldrum B, Penry JK, Dreifuss FE, eds. Antiepileptic drugs, 3rd ed. New York: Raven Press, 1989:447-56.
- 29. Johnson D. Valproic acid: update on its mechanism of action. *Epilepsia* 1984;25(suppl 1):S1-4.
- Rogawski M, Porter R. Antiepileptic drugs: pharmacological mechanisms and clinical efficacy with consideration of promising developmental stage compounds. *Pharmacol Rev* 1990; 42:223–86.
- 31. Godin Y, Heiner L, Mark J, Mandel P. Effects of di-*n*-propylacetate, an anticonvulsant compound, on GABA metabolism. *J Neurochem* 1969;16:869–73.
- Löscher W. GABA in plasma and cerebral spinal fluid of different species: effects of gamma-acetylenic GABA, gamma-vinyl GABA, and sodium valproate. J Neurochem 1981;32:1587-91.
- 33. Löscher W. Effect on inhibitors of GABA aminotransferase on the metabolism of GABA in brain tissue and synaptasomal fractions. *J Neurochem* 1981;36:1521–7.
- Luder AS, Parks JK, Frerman F, Parker WD. Inactivation of beef brain alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase complex by valproic acid and valproic acid metabolites. Possible mechanism of anticonvulsant and toxic actions. *J Clin Invest* 1990;86:1574-81.
- 35. Cotariu D, Zaidman JL, Evans S. Neurophysiological and biochemical changes evoked by valproic acid in the central nervous system. *Prog Neurobiology* 1990;34:343–54.
- 36. Buchhalter JR, Dichter MA. Effects of valproic acid in cultured mammalian neurons. *Neurology* 1986;36:259-62.
- Macdonald RL, Bergey GK. Valproic acid augments GABAmediated postsynaptic inhibition in cultured mammalian neurons. *Brain Res* 1979;170:558-62.
- Slater GE, Johnston D. Sodium valproate increases potassium conduction in *Aplysia* neurons. *Epilepsia* 1978;19: 379-84
- 39. Van Donegan AMJ, Van Erp MG, Voskuyl RA. Valproate reduces excitability by blockage of sodium and potassium conductance. *Epilepsia* 1986;27:177-82.

- Fohlmeister JF, Adelman WJ, Brennan JJ. Excitable channel currents and gating time in the presence of anticonvulsants ethosuximide and valproate. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 1984; 230:75-81.
- 41. Matthew E, Andreason P, Carson RE, et al. Reproducibility of resting cerebral blood flow measurements with H2O(15) positron emission tomography in humans. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1993;13:748-54.
- 42. Sato S, White B, Penry J, et al. Double blind crossover study of sodiulm valproate acid and ethosuximide in the treatment of absence seizures. *Neurology* 1982;32:157-63.
- 43. Collaborative Study Group. Monotherapy with valproate in primary generalized epilepsies. *Epilepsia* 1987;28(suppl 2): S8–11.
- 44. Mattson R, Cramenr J, Collins J, et al. A comparison of valproate with carbamazepine for the treatment of complex partial seizures and secondarily generalized tonic-clonic seizures in adults. N Engl J Med 1992;327:765-77.
- Prevett MC, Duncan DM, Jones T, Fish DR, Brooks DJ. Demonstration of thalamic activation during typical absence seizures using ¹⁵O water and PET. Neurology 1995;45: 1396-402.
- 46. Gloor P, Avoli M, Kostopoulos G. Thalamocortical relationships in generalized epilepsy with bilaterally syncronous spike-and-wave discharge. In: Avoli M, Gloor P, Kostopoulos G, Naquet R, eds. Generalized epilepsies: neurobiological approaches. Boston: Birkauser, 1990:190–212.
- 47. Steriade M, Llinas R. The functional role of the thalamus and the associated interneuronal interplay. *Physiol Rev* 1988;68:649-742.
- 48. Pellegrini A, Dossi R, Dal Pos F, et al. Ethosuximide alters intrathalamic and thalamocortical synchronizing mechanism: a possible explanation of its antiabsence effect. *Brain Res* 1989;497:344-60.
- Coulter D, Huguenard J, Prince D. Characterization of ethosuximide reduction of low-threshold calcium current in thalamic neurons. *Ann Neurol* 1989;25:582–93.
- Coulter D, Huguenard J, Prince D. Differential effects of petit mal anticonvulsants and convulsants on thalamic neurones: calcium current reduction. Br J Pharmacol 1990; 100:800-6.
- Coulter D, Huguenard J, Prince D. Differential effects of petit mal anticonvulsants and convulsants on thalamic neurones: GABA current blockade. Br J Pharmacol 1990; 100:807-13.
- 52. Nowak WJ, Johnson RJ, Englander RN, Hanna GR. Effects of valproate and ethosuximide on thalamocortical excitability. *Neurology* 1979;29:96–9.
- Mares P, Pohl M, Koryntova H. Influence of phenytoin and valproate on thalamocortical evoked potentials and their paired-pulse potentiation. *Physiol Res* 1992;41: 475-8
- Reutens DC, Berkovic SF, Macdonell RAL, Bladin PF. Magnetic Stimulation of the brain in generalized epilepsy: reversal of cortical hyperexcitability by anticonvulsants. *Ann Neurol* 1993;34:351-5.
- 55. Kelly K, Gross R, Macdonald R. Valproic acid selectively reduces the low-threshold (*T*) calcium current in rat nodose neurons. *Neurosc Lett* 1990;14:233–8.