

Follow up Study on Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder Patients with and Without Comorbid Mood Disorders Receiving Non Stimulant Medication

Thesis

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List of Contents

| Title Pag | ge No. |
|--|--------|
| List of Tables | 5 |
| List of Figures | 7 |
| List of Abbreviations | 9 |
| Introduction | 1 - |
| Rationale of the Work | 14 |
| Hypothesis | 15 |
| Aim of the Work | 16 |
| Review of Literature | |
| ■ Comorbidity between ADHD and Mood Disorders | 17 |
| ■ Pathophysiology of ADHD and Mood Disorders | 27 |
| ■ Effect of Non Stimulant Medication on both of ADHD mood symptoms | |
| Patients and Methods | |
| Results | 71 |
| Discussion | |
| Strength | 122 |
| Limitations | 123 |
| Conclusion | 124 |
| Recommendations | 125 |
| Summary | 127 |
| References | |
| Appendix | 183 |
| Arabic Summary | |

List of Tables

| Table No. | Title | Page No. |
|--------------------|---|----------|
| | Tables of Review | |
| Table (1): | ATX suggested mechanisms of acti | on52 |
| Table (2): | Potential advantages and disadva | _ |
| | Tables or Results | |
| Table (1): | Age, Gender and IQ of both groups | 71 |
| Table (2): | Clinical criteria of both groups | 73 |
| Table (3): | The change of the oppositional synamong the 2 groups using Conners | _ |
| Table (4): | The change of the symptoms of coproblem among the 2 groups Conners' scale | using |
| Table (5): | The change of hyperactivity amon groups using Conners' scale | _ |
| Table (6): | The change of inattention among groups using Conners' scale | |
| Table (7): | The change of impulsivity among groups using Conners' scale | - |
| Table (8): | The change of emotional lability the 2 groups using Conners' scale | • |
| Table (9): | The change of the depressive synamong the 2 groups using CDI | - |
| Table (10): | The change of the atypical synamong the 2 groups using the PBR | - |
| Table (11): | The change of irritability among groups using the PBR scale | |

Tist of Tables cont..

| Table No. | Title | Page No. |
|--------------------|---|----------|
| Table (12): | The change of grandiosity using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Table (13): | The change of hyperactivity usin PBR scale among the 2 groups | · · |
| Table (14): | The change of aggression using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Table (15): | The change of inattention using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Table (16): | The change of affect symptoms usin PBR scale among the 2 groups | • |
| Table (17): | The change of social interactions using the PBR scale at the 2 groups. | among |
| Table (18): | The change of the total bipolar score using the PBR scale among groups | the 2 |
| Table (19): | Correlation between the total A index, CDI score and Total Bipolar throughout the follow up | Index |

List of Figures

| Fig. No. | Title | Page No. |
|---------------------|---|----------|
| Figure (1): | Clinical criteria of both groups | 73 |
| Figure (2): | The change of the oppositional symamong the 2 groups using Conners' sca | - |
| Figure (3): | The change of the symptoms of cog problem among the 2 groups Conners' scale | using |
| Figure (4): | Changes in hyperactivity among groups using Conners' scale | |
| Figure (5): | Changes of inattention among to groups using Conners' scale | |
| Figure (6): | Changes in impulsivity among groups using Conners' scale | |
| Figure (7): | Changes in emotional liability amount 2 groups using Conners' scale | • |
| Figure (8): | Changes in depressive symptoms at the 2 groups using CDI | • |
| Figure (9): | Changes in atypical symptoms using scale among the 2 groups | |
| Figure (10): | Changes in irritability using PBR among the 2 groups | |
| Figure (11): | Changes of grandiosity using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Figure (12): | Changes of hyperactivity using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Figure (13): | Changes of aggression using the scale among the 2 groups | |

Tist of Figures cont..

| Fig. No. | Title | Page No. |
|---------------------|--|----------|
| Figure (14): | Changes of inattention using the scale among the 2 groups | |
| Figure (15): | Changes of affect symptoms using PBR scale among the 2 groups | • |
| Figure (16): | Changes of social interactions symusing the PBR scale among the 2 gr | - |
| Figure (17): | Changes of the total bipolar index using the PBR scale among the 2 gr | |
| Figure (18): | Correlation between the total n index and the CDI score in the 2^{nd} v | |
| Figure (19): | Correlation between the total and index and Total Bipolar Index in the and 3rd visit | ne 2nd |

Tist of Abbreviations

| Abb. | Full term |
|-----------------|--|
| <i>AAP</i> | . American Academy of Pediatrics. |
| <i>ADHD</i> | . Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. |
| <i>ADHD-C</i> | . Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder - |
| | Combined type. |
| ADHD-I | . Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder - |
| | Inattentive type. |
| ADHD-RSIV | . Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder |
| | Rating Scale-IV. |
| <i>ASD</i> | . Autistic spectrum disorder. |
| <i>ATX</i> | . Atomoxetine. |
| <i>BD</i> | . Bipolar disorder. |
| <i>BPD</i> | - |
| CADDRA | . Canadian Attention Deficit Hyperactivity |
| | $Disorder\ Resource\ Alliance.$ |
| <i>CBT</i> | . Cognitive behavioral therapy. |
| <i>CC</i> | . Corpus callosum. |
| <i>CD</i> | . Conduct disorder. |
| <i>CDI</i> | . Children Depression Inventory. |
| <i>CDRS-R</i> | . Children's Depression Rating Scale- |
| | Revised. |
| <i>CNS</i> | . Central nervous system. |
| <i>CPRS-R:L</i> | . Conners' Parent Rating Scale-Revised: |
| | Long Version. |
| <i>CSF</i> | . Cereprospinal fluid. |
| <i>DA</i> | - |
| <i>DD</i> | . Developmental disorder. |
| <i>DMDD</i> | . Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder. |
| <i>DSM-5</i> | . Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of |
| | Mental Disorders, fifth edition. |
| <i>DTI</i> | . Diffusion tensor imaging. |
| <i>EMs</i> | . Extensive metabolizers. |
| <i>FDA</i> | . United States Food and drug |
| | administration. |

Tist of Abbreviations cont...

| Abb. | Full term |
|-------------|--|
| GIRK | . G-protein-coupled inwardly rectifying |
| G11011 | potassium channels. |
| <i>IQ</i> | . Intelligence Quotient. |
| = | The Kiddie Schedule for Affective Disorder |
| | and Schizophrenia for School Age Children. |
| <i>MDD</i> | . Major depressive disorder. |
| | . Magnetic resonance imaging. |
| | . Multimodal Treatment Study of Children |
| | with ADHD. |
| <i>NE</i> | . Nor-epinephrine. |
| <i>NMDA</i> | . N-Methyl-D-aspartic acid |
| <i>NNTH</i> | Number needed to harm |
| <i>NNTB</i> | Number needed to treat inorder to benifit |
| <i>ODD</i> | Oppositional Defiant Disorder. |
| <i>PBR</i> | . Pediatric behavior rating scale. |
| <i>PFC</i> | . Prefrontal cortex. |
| <i>QoL</i> | . Quality of life. |
| <i>SD</i> | . Standard deviation. |
| <i>SMs</i> | . Slow metabolizers. |
| <i>SPSS</i> | . Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. |
| SSRI | . Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors. |
| <i>TADS</i> | . Treatment of Adolescent Depression Study. |
| <i>TMAP</i> | . Texas Medication Algorithm Project. |
| <i>TMS</i> | . Transcranial magnetic stimulation. |
| <i>WM</i> | . White matter. |

Introduction

DHD is a rather common condition that affects about 5 % of the children and adolescents and 2.5% of the adults (*Polanczyk et al., 2014*). ADHD frequently co-occurs with other psychiatric disorders (*Skirbekk et al., 2011*). It is characterized by cross-situational impairments in attention, activity and impulse control which in 60% of the childhood cases persists to adulthood (*Sibley et al., 2017*).

Young people with ADHD and depression are more impaired than those with ADHD or depression alone. Therefore, identifying young people with ADHD who are at risk of depression and other comorbid mood symptoms or disorders is important, in terms of facilitating early intervention or prevention (*Blackman et al.*, 2005).

Mood symptoms such as irritability and its features are common in ADHD, even though it is not a defining diagnostic feature, it can be described as a propensity to react with anger, grouchiness, or tantrums disproportionate to the situation (*Stringaris et al., 2010*) and when included in the broader definition of emotional dysregulation, it is present in around 25-45% of children with ADHD (*Shaw et al., 2013*).

In recent years an "irritable" dimension of Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) has been identified (*Stringaris et al.*, 2010). This includes the items "often loses temper", "is often

angry and resentful", and "is often touchy or easily annoyed by others", all of which are common in ADHD and all of them are considered mood symptoms (Vidal-Ribas et al., 2016).

More recently, severely impairing childhood chronic irritability has been conceptualized as a new diagnostic category in the mood disorders section of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fifth edition (DSM-5) (American **Psychiatric** Association. *2013*). This diagnostic category, known as Disruptive Mood Dysregulation Disorder (DMDD), is characterized by severe temper outbursts that are grossly out of proportion in intensity or duration to the situation. Alongside these temper outbursts the experiences a persistently irritable or angry mood most of the day, nearly every day (Copeland et al., 2013).

Early research into DMDD in the general population, where existing data have been used to derive diagnoses retrospectively, suggests that the prevalence ranges from 0.8% to 3.3% (Copeland et al., 2013). Children with DMDD have been found to be very impaired, with high rates of comorbidity including depression (Dougherty et al., 2014). DMDD in the context of ADHD has not been studied widely. Results from community samples suggest that 4.3-23.5% of those with ADHD meet DMDD diagnostic criteria (Copeland et al., 2013; Mulraney et al., 2016). Therefore, the findings to date suggest that DMDD is more common in those with ADHD than in the general population (Mulraney et al., 2016).

The comparative efficacy and safety of pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatments are largely unknown, mainly because of the paucity of head-to-head trials. A wide variety of interventions have been used for the treatment of ADHD. including pharmacological and psychological interventions, herbal and homeopathic remedies, and dietary management (CatalaÂ-LoÂpez et al., 2017).

Stimulant medications (e.g., amphetamine, and methylphenidate) and non-stimulant medications (e.g., atomoxetine, guanfacine and clonidine) are the two categories of medications approved for treating ADHD. Among these, long term treatment with atomoxetine and methylphenidate is not only proven to be clinically efficacious, but also improves a wide range of executive functions and focused attention among children with ADHD (Gau and Shang, 2010).

Atomoxetine as a non-stimulant treatment, approved in the United States for the treatment of ADHD in November 2002, it is a non-stimulant that is thought to act presynaptically via the inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake. Atomoxetine has limited effect on the serotonin or dopamine transporters and has affinity dopaminergic, muscarinic-cholinergic, histaminic, serotonergic and a1- or a2-adrenergic receptors (Spencer et al., 2002).

RATIONALE OF THE WORK

DHD is a chronic disorder that may affect all aspects of a child's life including academic difficulties and social skills problems. It also causes a burden on families and society, which makes it a major public health problem. ADHD is very often associated with other comorbidities, particularly mood and anxiety disorders. Comorbid disorders, recognized or unrecognized, may also complicate the treatment process. However, there are a relatively few studies were conducted to assess the effect of ADHD associated comorbidities on the treatment process. In this study, Non-stimulant treatment (Atomoxetine) was chosen because of its availability and continuity at Ain Shams university child psychiatry clinics.

HYPOTHESIS

n this study it was expected that the presence of comorbid mood disorder with ADHD will affect or decrease the response of ADHD symptoms to non-stimulant treatment.