

EDITORIAL

Time to evaluate long-acting neuroleptics?

'The use of routine maintenance therapy is widespread—estimates of its frequency being 70%–90% in State Hospitals' (Gunderson *et al.*, 1974). This comment on current practice in N. America can be matched by the chemotherapeutic treatment of schizophrenics in Great Britain and other European countries, where the majority of the patients have been receiving psychotropic drugs, mostly phenothiazines and butyrophenones, on a long-term basis for more than a decade. In the last five years the introduction of injected and oral long-acting drugs has given a marked impetus to this trend.

Unfortunately, the formation of a satisfactory judgement on long-acting preparations has been hampered by lack of information on a number of questions. Of these the most fundamental are concerned with the pharmacodynamic action of these compounds. While they are known to cause widespread interference with enzymes and transmitters of the autonomic and central nervous system, the connexion between these effects and the aetiology of schizophrenia remains tentative and the subject of much speculation (Hornykiewicz, 1966; Kety, 1967; Mattock, *et al.*, 1967; Vartanian, 1969; Laduron, 1971; Stein and Wise, 1971; Matthyse, 1973, 1974; Fyrö *et al.*, 1974; Miller and Hiley, 1974; Pope, 1974; Rackensperger *et al.*, 1974; Taylor, 1974; Trabucchi *et al.*, 1974; Vogt, 1974). It is also unclear whether the drugs or their metabolites are the active agents and whether their effect is specific or merely symptomatic.

Since the relationship of drug concentrations in plasma and cerebrospinal fluid to their effects has not been established, the therapeutic dosage remains inevitably empirical. In practice, there appear to be enormous variations, which, of course, have a profound bearing on the important question of side-effects. Disquiet on this score has been increased by the use of long-term medication and is reflected in the current cataract of publications (De Alarcón and Carney, 1969; Simpson, 1970; Orlov *et al.*, 1971; Allan and White, 1972; Grove and Crammer, 1972; Kazamatsuri *et al.*, 1972; Mindham *et al.*, 1972; Prien and Klett, 1972; Andrews, 1973; Ayd, 1973, 1974; Martin, 1973; Carney, 1974; Chien *et al.*, 1974; McClelland *et al.*, 1974). In addition to the startling disparity in the reported incidence of side-effects (Simpson, 1970), it is surprising to find from controlled trials of maintenance treatment for schizophrenia, oral or injected, that anti-Parkinsonian medication is prescribed or increased as much for the patients on placebo as for those on active medication (Leff and Wing, 1971; Hirsch *et al.*, 1973). This strongly suggests that something is lacking in the clinical identification and assessment of extrapyramidal symptoms, a conclusion reinforced by the findings of a blind trial of the efficacy of standard anti-Parkinsonian medication which failed to show a significant difference from a placebo in its effect on Parkinsonian symptoms (Mindham *et al.*, 1972). The authors suggest that this 'calls into question the widespread practice of prescribing anticholinergic drugs in drug-induced Parkinsonism'. Comparing their own study with several others, they note that 'the evidence for the efficacy of anticholinergic drugs in Parkinson's disease itself is very limited' and conclude that 'All in all, the efficacy of anticholinergic drugs in drug-induced Parkinsonism is not well founded'.

On the other hand, severe reactions were noted in some subjects on neuroleptics from whom anti-Parkinsonian medication was withdrawn, which were relieved by a resumption of the drug (Orlov *et al.*, 1971; Grove and Crammer, 1972), though other workers have withdrawn anti-Parkinsonian drugs from patients on neuroleptics and have not reported such reactions (Ekdawi and Fowke, 1966; McClelland *et al.*, 1974). Simpson (1970) has indicated a probable source of part of the difficulty in demonstrating that the elements of the drug-induced extrapyramidal syndrome vary in incidence, dose dependence, time of appearance, persistence, and response to specific medication.

while Ekdawi and Fowke (1966) have indicated the difficulty of rating tremor and rigidity, partly because of their variation with the emotional state of the patient. Kennedy and his colleagues (1971), who have carefully and systematically recorded and identified these extrapyramidal disorders, were unable to demonstrate any relationship between anti-Parkinsonian medication and the severity of Parkinsonism. They comment:

'The major problem . . . is that the investigator's preconceptions of what constitutes the syndromes will bias his clinical judgements, with the result that the factors extracted from his data on analysis will err towards being fulfilments of his prophecies. Conscious attempts on the part of the clinical investigators to avoid such bias cannot eliminate it . . .' (Kennedy *et al.*, 1971).

Of particular relevance to the administration of long-term neuroleptics is the vexed question of a progressive, irreversible 'tardive dyskinesia'. Estimates of the incidence of this distressing condition vary from 1% to 41% (Kazamatsuri *et al.*, 1972) and it has been found to continue on cessation of medication in 65% of one series of cases (Uhrbrand and Faurbye, 1960). The uncertain state of opinion concerning therapy may be judged by the variety of remedies recommended and their inadequate assessment (Kazamatsuri *et al.*, 1972). The facts that dyskinesia sometimes first appears on cessation of treatment and that a higher dosage of neuroleptics has been found to diminish it (Richmond, 1968; Polvan, 1970) support the suggestion of Degkwitz and his colleagues (1966) that the rigidity thus produced masks abnormal movements whose true incidence, together with the brain damage they betokened, remain concealed by the continuation of drug therapy.

On the basis of published evidence, the duration of treatment remains equally uncertain. The longer the drugs are administered, the greater appears to be the possibility of serious harmful effects (*British Medical Journal*, 1964, Hunter *et al.*, 1964). Termination of treatment carries a varying risk, averaging 40%, of relapse (Prien and Klett, 1972). A reduced or intermittent dosage diminishes—but by no means eliminates—the chance of relapse (Greenberg and Roth, 1966) and requires more supervision for these patients than is customarily feasible.

In view of these several doubts, it may therefore justifiably be asked why long-term neuroleptics have become so widely used. One powerful argument put forward is the certainty of ingestion after parenteral administration, which overcomes the indifference or antagonism to treatment so prevalent among schizophrenics, and thus reduces defaulting (Blackwell, 1973). Some benefit may also arise from administering long-term medication because of the contact and supervision by psychiatric agents afforded through special clinics for injection or prescription of the drug. It is noticeable, for instance, that patients on a placebo were hospitalized notably less frequently than those having no medication and, in fact, after a year of trial, the admission rate for patients on placebo was no greater than for those on drugs (Engelhardt and Freedman, 1969). It seems likely that this advantage is partly due to the skilled oversight incidental to distribution of the medicament.

For these reasons, it is claimed, the number of patients who can be 'maintained' out of hospital has been markedly increased (Mason *et al.*, 1963; Crumpton, 1967, 1968; Blake, 1969; Freeman, 1969, 1973; Lowther, 1969; Itil and Keskiner, 1970; Gottfries, 1971; Davis *et al.*, 1972; Chien, 1973; Crawford and Forrest, 1974). However, while controlled clinical trials of maintenance therapy in schizophrenia show that, initially at any rate, it reduces the considerable hospital readmission rate (Engelhardt *et al.*, 1960; Pasamanick *et al.*, 1967; Leff and Wing, 1971; Hirsch *et al.*, 1973), this effect diminishes with time (Engelhardt *et al.*, 1963; Engelhardt and Freedman, 1969; Davis *et al.*, 1972), possibly because benefit from this mode of treatment is limited to patients whose prospects are best regardless of treatment (Shepherd and Watt, 1975).

What seems to be more certain is the establishment of modified systems of long-term supervision in which there is a considerable saving of doctors' time, with much of the responsibility passed to community nurses. This pattern has become an adjuvant to the current policy of early discharge and extramural care. Indeed, it has been argued that the principal justification for the use of long-acting neuroleptics is that they make easier the extramural care of schizophrenics (Crumpton, 1968; Platt, 1968; Carney and Sheffield, 1973; Chien, 1973; Cole *et al.*, 1973; Freeman, 1973; Stevens, 1973).

But who does the caring? This question has been firmly raised by the National Schizophrenia Fellowship (1973), on behalf of relatives of schizophrenics, who comment that, 'more and more mental health patients have been forced out into the community at large'. The Fellowship (1974) also points out and illustrates the 'tremendous burden on the families of schizophrenics' (only partially relieved by neuroleptics (Stevens, 1973)) and recommends more explicit recognition that relatives constitute the real 'primary care' agents. It is becoming increasingly apparent that a trend which is widely regarded as constituting a self-evident benefit as well as an economy in resources must be appraised in the light of the facts revealed by studies of schizophrenics and their relatives under the impact of its operation. Thus, a British study carried out at the instance of the Department of Health and Social Security revealed that, among schizophrenics receiving intensive social work at home, at least one-third showed acute problems centring around marital conflicts, housing difficulties, and work problems. The author comments, 'burdens which husbands of chronic schizophrenic wives carry stand out starkly and so do physical and emotional deprivations suffered by many children in these households' (Goldberg, 1971).

This picture has been filled out in detail by a psychiatrically orientated sociological investigation which, while demonstrating the easing of the patients' behavioural difficulties by drugs, concluded that lack of drive and poor prospects of marriage force these patients into an unstimulating dependence on elderly relatives who carry the burden in terms of mental health, means, and leisure (Stevens, 1972, 1973). In another study of 160 patients treated with injected long-acting neuroleptics, 80% were characterized by an 'amotivational syndrome' consisting of lack of motivation and interest, drowsiness, restlessness, unadaptive and, in some, manipulative behaviour aimed at stopping injections or readmission to hospital by physical complaints, misdemeanours, and suicidal gestures (Andrews, 1973). That behaviour in hospital does not always correspond with that displayed at home was shown in a study in a large town, where the authors commented that the greatest difference in behaviour between day-centre and home was observed in respect of aggression (Byrne *et al.*, 1974). The painfully inadequate social support provided for such disabled people is dramatically illustrated by case reports compiled from relatives by the National Schizophrenia Fellowship (1973) and identified systematically in an extensive North American project (Davies *et al.*, 1972). Here a follow-up of two and a half years showed that a substantially higher proportion of schizophrenic patients having home care on maintenance drugs remained out of hospital compared with those treated in hospital or treated at home on a placebo. It is notable, however, that a third of those on placebo remained out of hospital for the period of follow-up. On five year follow-up there was no difference in the proportions of the three groups who had been hospitalized, and only a quarter of each was employed. The authors identified a number of social factors associated with hospital re-admission centring around poor family support and disinclination to persist in cooperation with therapeutic agencies. They conclude that,

'Taking the programme to the family was necessary to stabilise the multiproblem families in which these schizophrenics were frequently a serious disorganising factor. . . . Without aggressive home care . . . the evidence is that routine community or hospital psychiatric care will not prevent or significantly retard deterioration . . . on domestic, vocational, social and marital variables' (Davies *et al.*, 1972).

In conclusion, long-acting neuroleptics look like becoming too uncritically accepted as the standard treatment for schizophrenia, thus taking a place comparable with that recently held by insulin coma therapy. If history is not to be repeated, it is clear that social as well as pharmacological and clinical measures must be brought to bear on the problem of their evaluation.

DAVID C. WATT

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