

# Personalized Medicine in Psychiatry

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(3-11-16)

Most sections of this lecture  
are based on an article:

“Focusing on Drug versus Disease Mechanisms and  
on Clinical Subgrouping to Advance Personalised  
Medicine in Psychiatry.

*Acta Neuropsychiatr* 2014;26:327-33”

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25455256>

Pre-published free version:

[http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry\\_facpub/29](http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry_facpub/29)

Other used articles are described  
in the corresponding section and the reference list.

# Learning Objectives

After completing this presentation, the participant should be able to:

- 1) Understand the difficulties of using disease biomarkers in psychiatry for implementing personalized medicine in psychiatry.
- 2) Appreciate the relevance of pharmacological mechanisms for the implementation of personalized medicine in psychiatry.
- 3) Remember that clinical subgrouping has been used for implementing personalized medicine in psychiatry.

# Abbreviations

- ADR: adverse drug reaction
- APA: American Psychiatric Association
- CSF: cerebrospinal fluid
- CYP: cytochrome P450
- DDI: drug-drug interaction
- DST: dexamethasone suppression test
- EBM: evidence-based medicine
- FDA: Food & Drug Administration
- NCI: National Cancer Institute: cancer research program  
funded by the US federal government
- NIMH: National Institute of Mental Health: psychiatric research  
program funded by the US federal government
- RCT: randomized clinical trial
- TCA: tricyclic antidepressant
- TDM: therapeutic drug monitoring
- UGT: uridine diphosphate glucuronosyltransferase
- UM: ultrarapid metabolizer

# Definitions

- Many articles consider Pharmacogenetic Testing to be the same as Pharmacogenomic Testing.
- Some articles distinguish:
  - Pharmacogenetic Testing: 1 gene
  - Pharmacogenomic Testing: multiple genes at the same time

# **0. Personalized Prescription**

## **1. Disease Mechanisms for Personalizing Prescription**

## **2. Drug Mechanisms for Personalizing Prescription**

## **3. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription**

## **4. Conclusions**

# 0. Personalized Prescription

0.1. At First Glance: An Easy Concept

0.2. Upon Further Review: A Complex Concept

# 1. Disease Mechanisms for Personalizing Prescription

1.1. Biological Tests in Psychiatry

1.2. Biomarkers

1.3. Concept of Disease in Psychiatry

# 2. Drug Mechanisms for Personalizing Prescription

2.1. Drug Mechanisms

2.2. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing For Drug Mechanisms

2.3. Present vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

# 3. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription

3.1. Base: Descriptive Psychopathology

3.2. An Example using Schizophrenia

3.3. Strengths and Weaknesses

# 4. Conclusions

# **0. Personalized Medicine**



# 0. Personalized Medicine

0.1. At First Glance: An Easy Concept

0.2. Upon Further Review: A Complex Concept

**0.1. Personalized Medicine.  
At First Glance: An Easy Concept**

## 0.1. Personalized Medicine: An Easy Concept

- At first glance, personalized medicine is a concept easy to understand:
  - All physicians have experienced that “Every patient is different.”
- If this is correct, there is need for **Personalized Medicine.**

## 0.1. Personalized Medicine: An Easy Concept

■ Personalized Medicine can be expressed as:

- Personalized Surgery
- Personalized Rehabilitation
- Personalized Nutrition
- Personalized Prescription =  
the application of the concept of  
personalized medicine to the  
prescription of drugs.

## 0.1. Personalized Medicine: An Easy Concept

- Pharmaceutical companies approve drugs for an average individual who should receive average doses.  
Not all individuals are average nor do they respond in an average way.
- For more details on statistical issues regarding the representativeness of means, see the presentation “Evidence-Based Medicine versus Personalized Medicine: Are They Enemies?”

## 0.1. Personalized Medicine: An Easy Concept

- Personalized Medicine can be expressed in psychiatry as:
  - Personalized Prescription  
(the focus of this lecture)
  - Personalized Electroconvulsive Therapy
  - Personalized Psychotherapy  
(easiest to personalize)

**0.2. Personalized Medicine.  
Upon Further Review: A Complex Concept**

## 0.2. Personalized Medicine: A Complex Concept

- In 2004 in the first issue of the newly created journal *Personalized Medicine*, Rúaño, the editor, reminded us that physicians have traditionally practiced personalized medicine in their attempts to decide the best treatment for each of their patients.

*“Medicine has always been personalized. The patient-doctor relationship, both extolled and beleaguered, has historical aspirations and cultural roots in healing each person.”*

[www.futuremedicine.com/doi/pdf/10.1517/17410541.1.1.1](http://www.futuremedicine.com/doi/pdf/10.1517/17410541.1.1.1)



## 0.2. Personalized Medicine: A Complex Concept

- The traditional approach:
  - Physicians were not using the term “personalized medicine”.
  - was probably based on subjective physician preferences and not on scientific knowledge.
- A key element in the definition of personalized medicine is which element you are using to define/separate individuals.

## 0.2. Personalized Medicine: A Complex Concept

- For example, in a 1952 book by Osborne:  
*Psychiatry and Medicine: An Introduction to Personalized Medicine*
  - the psychoanalytic tradition is followed.
  - individuals are differentiated by psychoanalytic-based psychological mechanisms.
- In the 1990s, the rise of personalized medicine was based on genetic mechanisms. Each individual has different genes.

## 0.2. Personalized Medicine: Concept Complexity

- The concept of personalized medicine or, more narrowly, personalized prescription, can be applied in psychiatry using 3 different approaches which have different traditions:
  - disease mechanisms: biomarkers
  - drug mechanisms: pharmacogenetics
  - clinical subgrouping
- The view of personalized medicine embraced by this presentation is much more complex than at first glance would suggest.

# **1. Disease Mechanisms**

# 1. Disease Mechanisms

1.1. Biological Tests in Psychiatry

1.2. Biomarkers

1.3. The Concept of Disease in Psychiatry

# 1.1. Biological Tests in Psychiatry

This section is taken from a 2012 article

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22367661>

**Pre-published Version:** [http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry\\_facpub/41/](http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry_facpub/41/)

# 1.1. Biological Tests in Psychiatry

- Before the current interest in biomarkers in psychiatry, biological psychiatric researchers tried to explore heterogeneity in drug response using biological tests in psychiatry.
- The biological tests targeted disease mechanisms.
- The 2 best examples:
  - serotonergic versus noradrenergic types of depression
  - the DST

# 1.1. Biological Tests in Psychiatry

1.1.1. Serotonergic vs. Noradrenergic Depression

1.1.2. The DST



## **1.1.1. Serotonergic vs. Noradrenergic Depression**

## 1.1.1. Serotonergic vs. Noradrenergic Depression

- The monoamine hypothesis of depression was first formulated in the 1960s.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10775017>

- Some evidence, particularly CSF studies, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4420178> suggested that different first-generation antidepressants had differential effects on serotonin and noradrenalin metabolites.

- This led to efforts to classify depressed patients according to pharmacological mechanisms explaining their depression.

# 1.1.1. Serotonergic vs. Noradrenergic Depression

- In 1975, Maas hypothesized two groups of depressed patients:
  - **A** (with disorders of the norepinephrine systems)
  - **B** (with disorders of the serotonin systems).

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1200759>

# 1.1.1. Serotonergic vs. Noradrenergic Depression

- This model was supported by one of the first pharmacological guidelines in psychiatry:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7369397>

- came along in 1980, before the EBM movement
- was developed by 3 experts
- used a comprehensive approach including
  - mechanistic approaches,
  - RCTs
- tried to balance all kinds of data:
  - biological and
  - clinical

## **1.1.2. The DST**

## 1.1.2. The DST

- The DST (dexamethasone suppression test) has been:
  - the most important biomarker
  - used as a potential index of heterogeneity of treatment response in depression.

# 1.1.2. The DST

- 1976 DST research studies in depression led to enthusiasm.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/962488> <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/962489>

- 1987 APA guideline: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3310667>

- a lack of definitive data of the DST's clinical usefulness in selecting treatment

- Nierenberg & Feinstein <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3278149>

- used the history of the DST,
  - a diagnostic test initially widely accepted
  - and later rejected,

as a cautionary example for diagnostic tests.

# **1.2. Biomarkers**



# 1.2. Biomarkers

## ■ From 2010-2015, psychiatric journals:

- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21646577>

- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22050858>

- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23968984>

- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23680237>

- <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24562493>

- started discussing personalizing treatments
- by focusing on disease mechanisms.

## ■ This:

- may be new in psychiatry,
- but follows the tradition of “biomarkers”.

# 1.2. Biomarkers

1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept

1.2.2. Biomarkers in Oncology: Reality

1.2.3. Biomarkers in Psychiatry: Marketing

# **1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept**

# 1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept

- Technological advances:
  - started with microarrays including DNA,
  - extended to all biological molecules:
    - RNA,
    - proteins,
    - lipid metabolites...
- Leading to diagnostic branches:
  - pharmacogenomics,
  - transcriptomics,
  - proteonomics,
  - metabolonomics...

# 1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept

- All of these are called biomarkers and can be used for drug development.
- Biomarkers are defined by Wagner:  
“a characteristic that is:
  - objectively measured and
  - evaluated as an indicator of
    - normal biological processes,
    - pathogenic processes, or
    - pharmacological response(s) to a therapeutic intervention.”

# 1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept

- Following Wagner's definition, they can be classified as:
  - biomarkers of normal biological processes, (not further discussed in this presentation)
  - disease biomarkers which reflect disease mechanisms
  - pharmacological biomarkers which reflect pharmacological mechanisms (see section 2 on drug mechanisms)

# 1.2.1. Biomarkers: Concept

- Provide millions of pieces of data leading to:
  - a new scientific approach: “Complexity”
  - the introduction of bioinformatics and new types of analyses: “network medicine”

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21164525>

These concepts are further discussed in the presentation “Evidence-Based Medicine versus Personalized Medicine”.

- Personalized medicine using disease biomarkers has become a “fad” in medicine.

## **1.2.2. Biomarkers in Oncology: Reality**



# 1.2.2. Biomarkers in Oncology

- Personalized medicine using disease biomarkers in oncology is not a “fad”; it is a reality.
  - Success in oncology is explained by 2 facts:
    - cancerous tissue is available to:
      - validate the diagnosis and
      - study the disease mechanisms, and
    - knowledge of disease mechanisms at the molecular biology level helps to select individualized treatments.
- These facts are absent in psychiatry.

# **1.2.3. Biomarkers in Psychiatry: Marketing**

# 1.2.3. Biomarkers in Psychiatry

- If you are the director of the NIMH and are competing with NCI for funding, it is not surprising that you would use marketing:
  - in 2006: you propose to “cure” mental illness  
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16355250>
  - in 2012: you propose that personalized treatment using disease mechanisms is the way to do it.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22869033>

# 1.2.3. Biomarkers in Psychiatry

- If you are Dr. de Leon, who hates marketing and considers it one of the worst traits of US society, you acknowledge that:
  - psychiatry is the specialty in medicine that lags behind in the definition of diseases (*only* 150 years) <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15914753> and
  - even focusing on “psychiatric diseases”, such as Alzheimer disease, is not good news; the complexity of brain mechanisms currently appears insurmountable.

## **1.3. The Concept of Disease in Psychiatry**

# 1.3. The Concept of Disease in Psychiatry

1.3.1. Jaspers' Classification

1.3.2. Brain Complexity: Alzheimer Disease

## **1.3.1. The Concept of Disease in Psychiatry: Jaspers' Classification**

## 1.3.1. Jaspers' Concept of Psychiatric Diseases

- Dr. de Leon follows Jaspers' ideas about psychiatric nosology: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25849592>
- He believes that:
  - schizophrenia,
  - bipolar disorder,
  - severe major depression, and
  - catatoniaare syndromes.  
They are not “medical diseases”.



## 1.3.1. Jaspers' Concept of Psychiatric Diseases

### ■ Colon cancer:

- is being divided into different diseases based on pathogenic mechanisms using molecular biology.

### ■ Psychiatry has no way of:

- validating diagnoses and establishing borders (e.g., we can not separate: ● schizophrenia and ● bipolar disorder using genetics and/or statistical clinical models)
- associating
  - findings at the molecular biology level with
  - an specific valid diagnosis.

## **1.3.2. Brain Complexity: Alzheimer Disease**

## 1.3.2. Brain Complexity: Alzheimer Disease

- 1907: Alzheimer, a psychiatrist, described the neuropathology of a presenile dementia.
- 1910: Kraepelin, a psychiatrist, baptized this as a new illness: Alzheimer disease.
- During the 20<sup>th</sup> century: the same neuropathology was found in senile dementia.

Alzheimer disease became very important.

- 1990: molecular biology provided clues about mechanisms:
  - genetics of familial presenile forms
  - common late-onset Alzheimer disease:
    - association of ● apolipoprotein E-4 with
    - age of onset

## 1.3.2. Brain Complexity: Alzheimer Disease

- Currently Alzheimer disease is considered neurological.
  - Most articles about it are published in neurological journals by neurologists.
- Let's stretch reality and consider Alzheimer disease a psychiatric disease:
  - with known neuropathology and
  - clearly established boundaries, and
  - a good example of a psychiatric disease that follows the medical model, which Kraepelin proposed for psychiatric diseases.
- Research based on disease mechanisms in Alzheimer disease has been disappointing.

## 1.3.2. Brain Complexity: Alzheimer Disease

	Alzheimer	Schizophrenia
<u>Neuropathology</u>	Known for 100 years	Has failed
<u>Borders</u>	By neuropathology	Unknown
<u>Validation</u>	Neuropathology	How?
<u>Treatment</u>	Limited	Serendipity for 60 years, not specific
<u>Research on molecular biology</u>	Disappointing for last 25 years	No way of validating
<u>Leading to personalizing</u>	Currently impossible	Unclear when?

# **2. Drug Mechanisms For Personalizing Prescription**

## 2. Drug Mechanisms for Personalizing Prescription

2.1. Drug Mechanisms

2.2. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing  
For Drug Mechanisms

2.3. Present vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

# **2.1. Drug Mechanisms**

(see the longer version of this section in  
the presentation

“Introduction to Clinical Pharmacology”)



## **2.1. Drug Mechanisms**

2.1.1. Personal, Environmental and Genetic Factors

2.1.2. Pharmacodynamics and Pharmacokinetics

2.1.3. Efficacy and Safety

2.1.4. Interactions between 2.1.1, 2.1.2 and 2.1.3

## **2.1. Personal, Environmental and Genetic Factors**

## 2.1.1. Personal, Environmental and Genetic Factors

- Classification according to three types of factors is somewhat arbitrary, but serves mnemonic purposes.
- This classification is not found in any pharmacology textbook.
- This terminology is used by Dr. de Leon in his articles.

First article using it: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18687938>

Article explaining it: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18996200> with a pdf available [http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry\\_facpub/43/](http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry_facpub/43/)

## 2.1.1. Personal, Genetic and Environmental Factors

- Personal (obtained from personal history):
  - Gender and age
  - Race (can reflect genetic variations)
  - Medical illnesses or pregnancy
- Environmental (potentially removable):
  - Smoking
  - Co-medication
  - Herbal supplements
  - Food and beverages
- Genetics: (assessed by genetic tests):
  - Genetic variations
  - Epigenetic variations (do not influence DNA sequence): They are poorly understood but may explain how environmental factors influence genetics.

# **2.1.2. Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics**

## 2.1.2. Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics

### ■ Pharmacokinetics:

- Drug concentration (usually in blood)
- Body to drug

### ■ Pharmacodynamics:

- Site of action  
(mainly brain receptors in psychiatry)
- Drug to body

## **2.1.2. Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics**

2.1.2.1. Pharmacokinetics

2.1.2.2. Pharmacodynamics

## **2.1.2.1. Pharmacokinetics**



## 2.1.2.1. Pharmacokinetics

### ■ Metabolic enzymes:

- Functionalizing enzymes:
  - Used to be called Phase I
  - oxidation,
  - reduction or
  - hydrolysis

Most important: CYPs

- Conjugation enzymes
  - Used to be called Phase II
  - Most important: UGTs

### ■ Transporters:

P-glycoprotein

## **2.1.2.2. Pharmacodynamics**

## 2.1.2.2. Pharmacodynamics

- Psychiatric drugs produce reactions at:
  - The brain:
    - receptors
    - transporters
  - The periphery:
    - brain effects
    - receptors in the periphery
    - transporters in the periphery
    - other (lipid metabolism?)

## **2.1.3. Efficacy and Safety**

## 2.1.3. Efficacy and Safety: Definition

- Efficacy is how well the desired effect is obtained in the patient.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15554250>

- Safety's goal is to avoid adverse drug reactions (ADRs).

Psychiatric textbooks use the old terminology “side effects” instead of ADRs.

## **2.1.4. Interactions**

## 2.1.4. Interactions

- Dr. de Leon refers to interactions among:
  - Personal, Environmental and Genetic Factors
  - Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics
  - Efficacy and Safety
- These interactions are not discussed in textbooks.

## 2.4.1. Interaction of Personal, Environmental and Genetic Factors with Other Dimensions

- Personal factors can influence:
  - Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics
  - Efficacy and safety
- Environmental factors can influence:
  - Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics
  - Efficacy and safety
- Genetic factors can influence:
  - Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics
  - Efficacy and safety



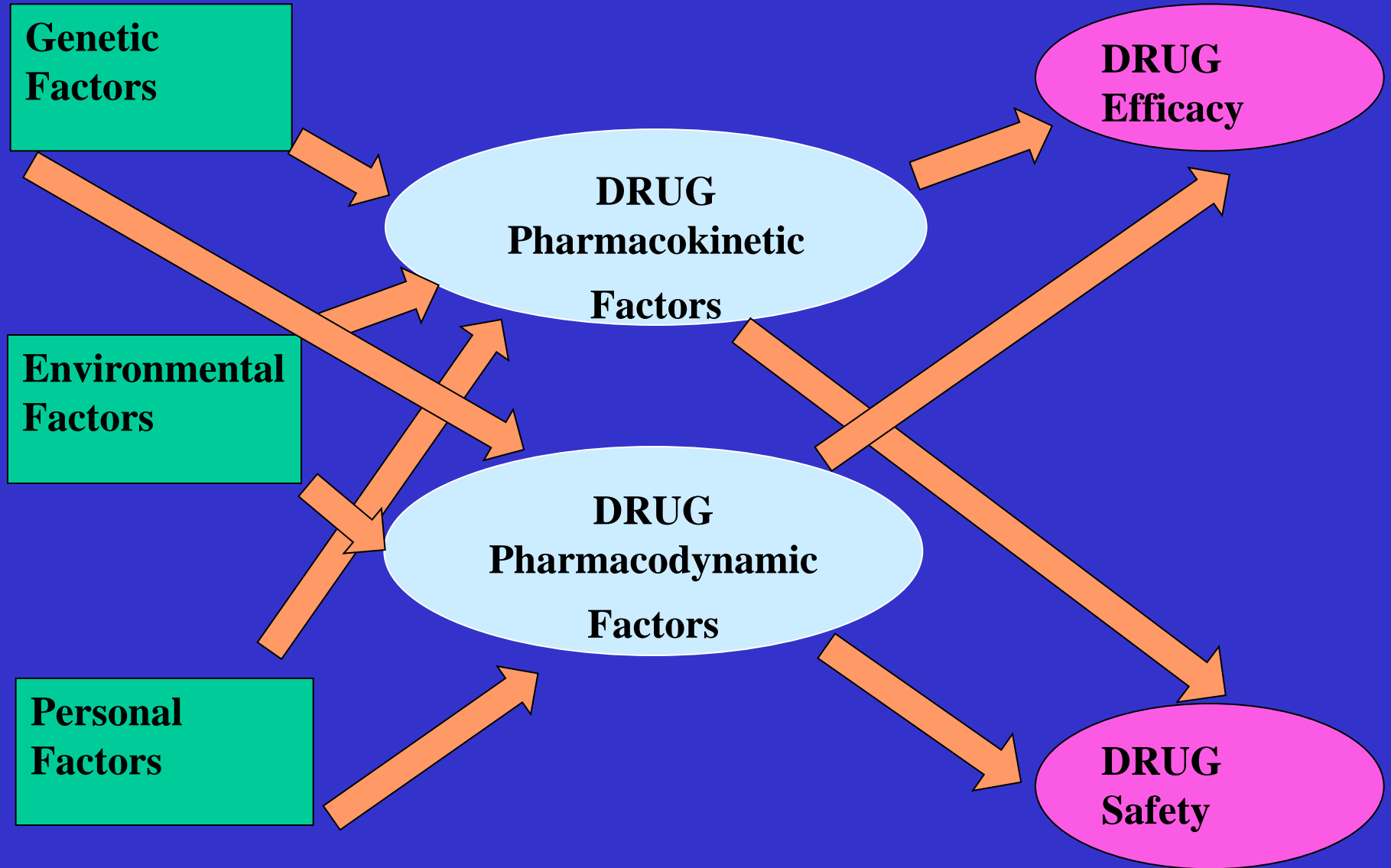
## 2.4.2. Interaction of Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics with Other Dimensions

- Pharmacokinetics can be influenced by:
  - Personal, environmental and genetic factorsAnd influence both:
  - Efficacy and safety
  
- Pharmacodynamics can be influenced by:
  - Personal, environmental and genetic factorsAnd influence both:
  - Efficacy and safety

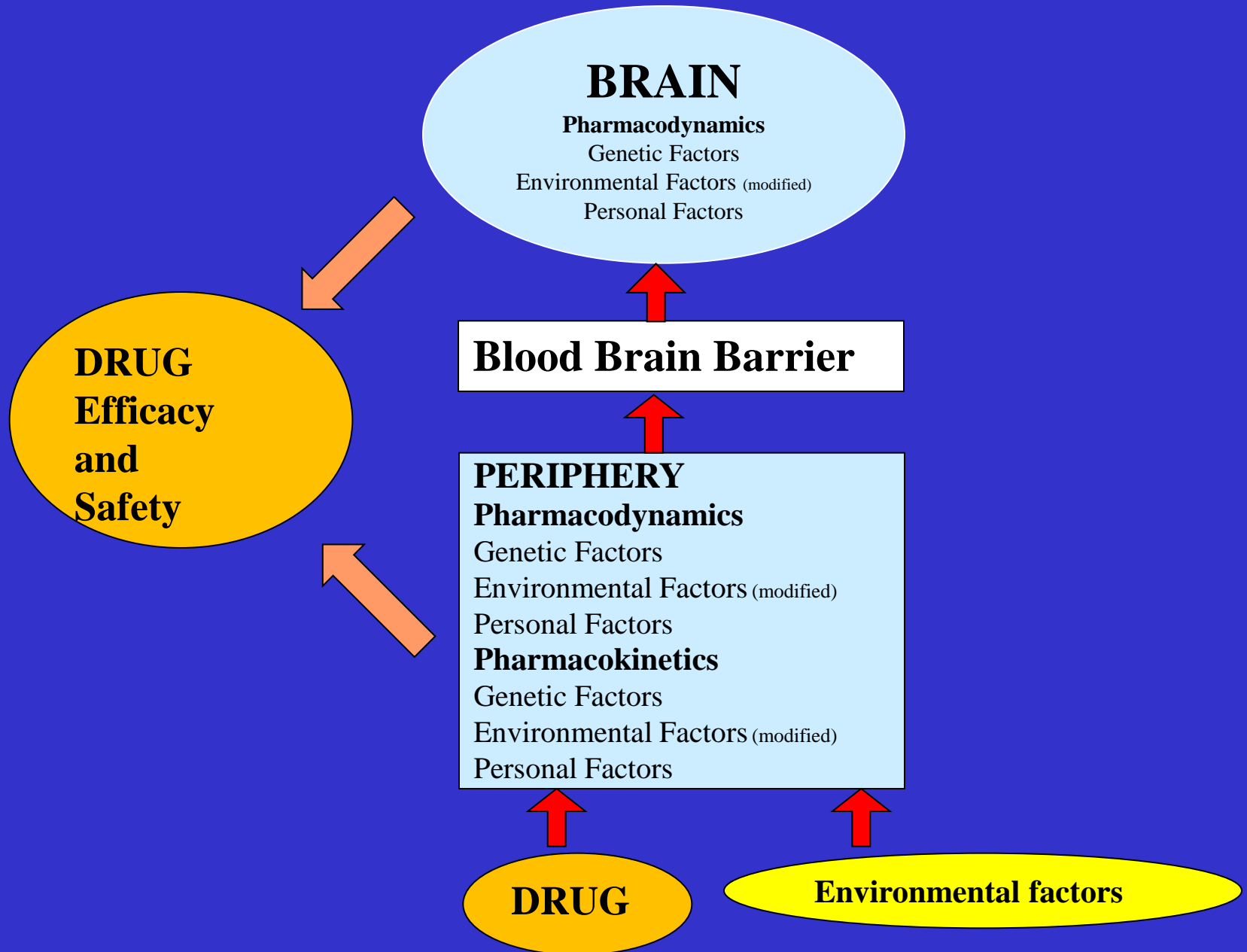
## 2.4.3. Interaction of Efficacy and Safety with Other Dimensions

- Efficacy can be influenced by:
  - Personal, environmental and genetic factors
  - Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics
  
- Safety can be influenced by:
  - Personal, environmental and genetic factors
  - Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics

## 2.4. Interactions: Figure for Remembering Concepts



## 2.4. Interactions: Figure for Representing Concepts



## 2.4. Interaction of Efficacy and Safety with Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics

- Pharmacokinetics facilitates pharmacodynamics:
  - Sufficient drug concentration for efficacy.
  - Drug concentrations that are too high may contribute to poor safety in general.
- Pharmacodynamics determines:
  - Efficacy, when adequate drug concentration is present.
  - Safety, when concentration is sufficient for “toxicity”. Specific ADRs in a patient are determined by pharmacodynamic factors.

## **2.2. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing for Drug Mechanisms**

(see the longer version of this section in  
the presentation

“Pharmacogenetic Testing in Psychiatry”)

## 2.2. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing: Drug Mechanisms

- Pharmacological mechanisms:
  - Pharmacokinetic mechanisms:
    - The most important CYPs, and ready for clinical practice for some drugs:  
CYP2D6 & CYP2C19
    - Other: P-glycoprotein is not ready for clinical practice. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26111722>
  - Pharmacodynamic mechanisms:
    - HLA: Carbamazepine & HLA-B\*15:02 in East Asians
    - Other: Receptors/transporters are involved in neurotransmission, but not ready for clinical practice (see next slide).

## 2.2. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing: Drug Mechanisms

- Pharmacogenetic tests for receptors/transporters involved in neurotransmission:
  - are marketed in the USA and Europe
  - no guidelines recommend them
  - scientific information is limited:
    - no understanding of genotype/phenotype relationships
    - no understanding of how environmental and personal factors influence phenotype
    - frequently based on non-replicated studies



## **2.3. Current vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing**

## **2.3. Current vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing**

2.3.1. Current vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

2.3.2. Current Prescription vs. Future Integrated  
Personalized Prescription

## 2.3.1. Current vs.

# Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

This section is taken from a 2014 article

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24196844>

**Pre-published Version:** [http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry\\_facpub/19/](http://uknowledge.uky.edu/psychiatry_facpub/19/)

## **2.3.1. Current vs. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing**

2.3.1.1. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing

2.3.1.2. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

## **2.3.1.1. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing**

## 2.3.1.1. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing

- The ideal is large RCTs seeking to establish
  - classic proof of concept in the clinical environment, and/or
  - cost-benefit studies,
    - which will not be conducted due to:
      - high costs, and
      - lack of funding mechanisms.
- Progressively ↓ genotyping costs.
- Solution: genotyping studies using comparisons with historical data.

## 2.3.1.1. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing

■ Two ways to implement pharmacogenetic testing:

□ drug selection

□ drug dosing:

- physician select the drug

- the test personalizes the dose

■ Personalizing drug selection is much more complex than personalizing drug dosing.

## **2.3.1.1. Current Pharmacogenetic Testing**

2.3.1.1.1. Personalizing Drug Selection

2.3.1.1.2. Personalizing Drug Dosing



## **2.3.1.1.1. Personalizing Drug Selection**

## 2.3.1.1.1. Personalizing Drug Selection

- Personalizing drug selection:
  - Selecting the “ideal drug” is very distant in psychiatry.
  - Eliminating some drugs from consideration for some patients is currently happening:
    - pharmacogenetic gene:
      - CYP2D6 UM: do not administer a TCA
    - pharmacodynamic gene:
      - HLA-B\*15:02: do not administer carbamazepine

## **2.3.1.1.2. Personalizing Drug Dosing**

## 2.3.1.1.2. Personalizing Drug Dosing

- Personalizing drug dosing is:
  - easier when
    - the drug follows linear kinetics and
    - has a narrow therapeutic window.
  - not practical for:
    - wide-therapeutic-window drugs, because physicians may be arbitrary in dosing.

.

## **2.3.1.2. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing**

## 2.3.1.2. Future Pharmacogenetic Testing

- Pharmacogenomics, even if it includes epigenetic factors, should be considered a piece of a complex puzzle including:
  - environmental/personal factors
  - pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics
  - efficacy/safety (dose-related versus idiosyncratic ADRs), and
  - therapeutic window.

**= Integrated Personalized Prescription**

## **2.3.2. Current Prescription vs. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription**

## **2.3.2. Current Prescription versus Future Integrated Personalized Prescription**

2.3.2.1. Current Prescription

2.3.2.2. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription

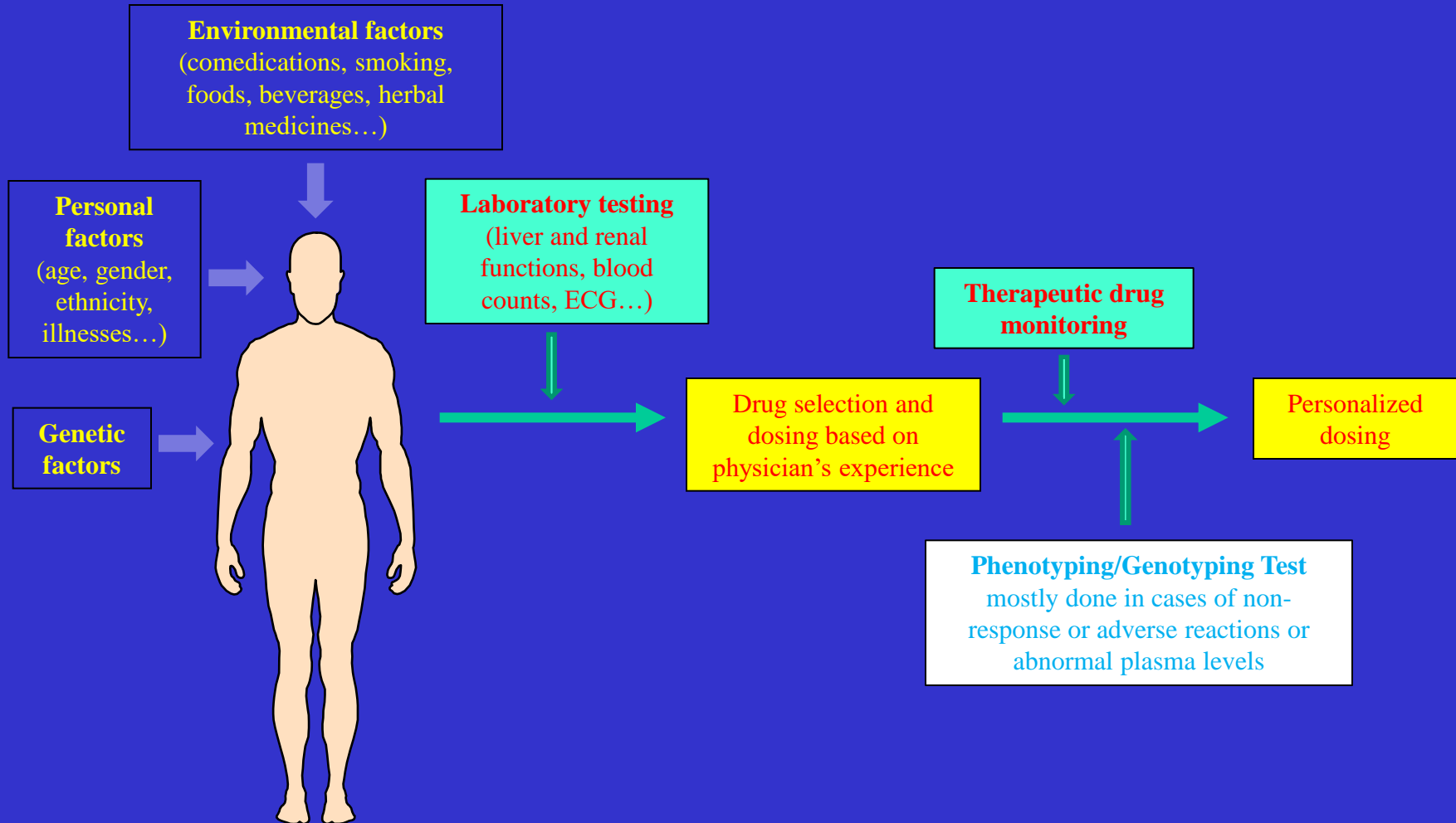


## **2.3.2.1. Current Prescription**

## 2.3.2.1. Current Prescription

- Current drug selection and dosing:
  - Drug selection is based on the physician's experience.
  - Dosing is based on the physician's experience, or it can be personalized using TDM and/or genotyping tests.
- Current genotyping:
  - non-response,
  - ADR, or
  - abnormal TDM.

## 2.3.2.1. Current Prescription



## **2.3.2.2. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription**

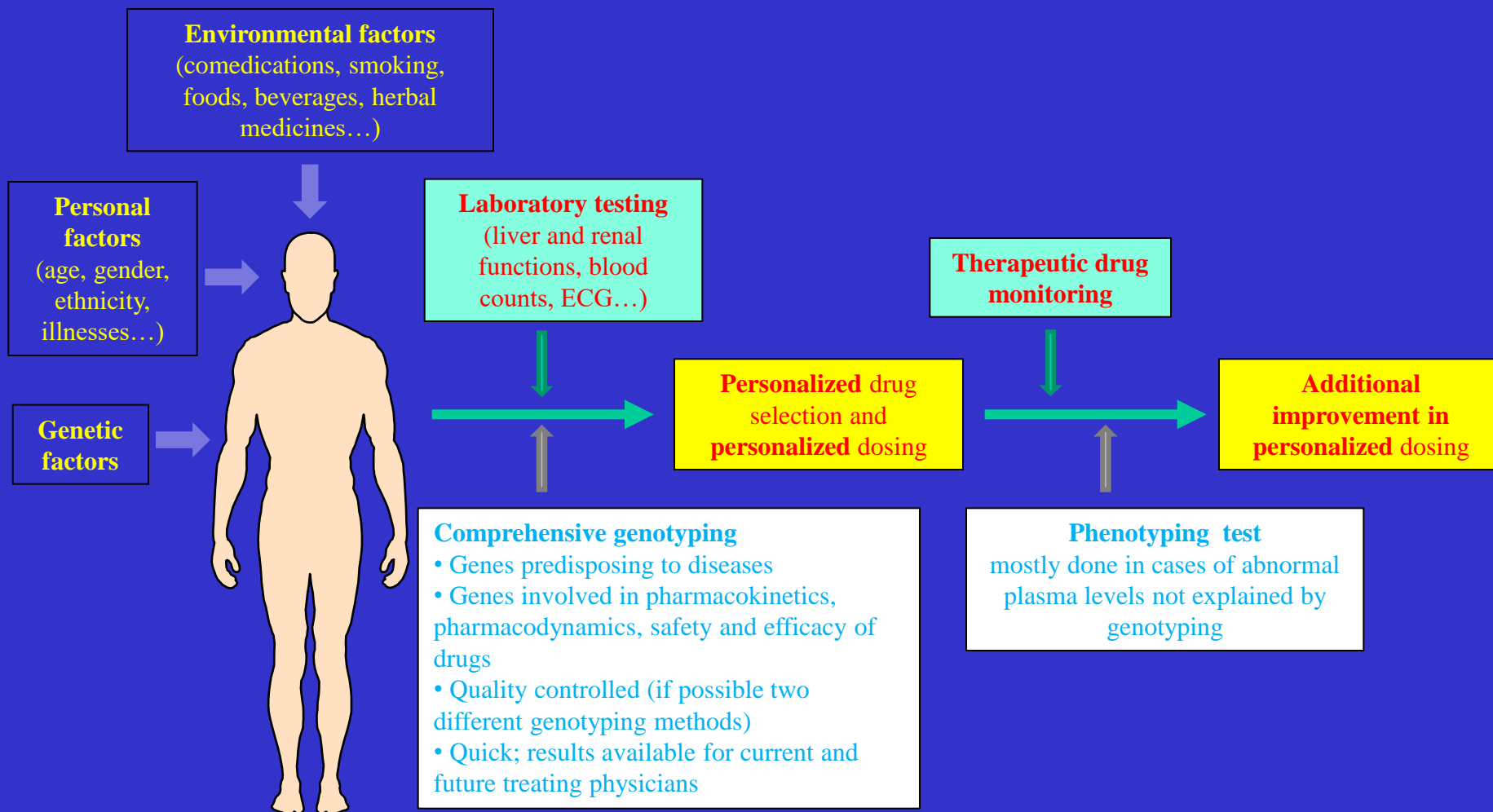
## 2.3.2.2. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription

- Comprehensive genotyping will assist:
  - Personalized drug selection and personalized dosing
  - TDM (a phenotyping test) will lead to additional improvement in personalized dosing.

## 2.3.2.2. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription

- Comprehensive genotyping:
  - drug response: pharmacokinetic genes  
pharmacodynamic genes
  - disease genes (biomarkers)  
(unlikely in the short term for psychiatry)
- Genotyping techniques will be:
  - quality-controlled
  - able to provide quick results
  - available to current and future physicians.

## 2.3.2.2. Future Integrated Personalized Prescription



# **3. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription**



## **3. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription**

- 3.1. Basis: Descriptive Psychopathology
- 3.2. An Example using Schizophrenia
- 3.3. Strengths and Weaknesses

**3.1. Clinical Subgrouping:  
Based on  
Descriptive Psychopathology**

### 3.1. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription: Basis

- Past attempts to personalize psychiatric treatments based on the clinical profile of the patient remain ignored.
- They are based on what is called “descriptive psychopathology”
  - definition (Berrios) <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/6739628>
  - “forgotten language of psychiatry” (Ban)

<http://inhn.org/e-books/thomas-a-ban-neuropsychopharmacology-and-the-forgotten-language-of-psychiatry.html>

- the language for psychiatric science:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25849592>

### 3.1. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription: Basis

- The idea behind these ignored approaches is that diseases, such as:
  - schizophrenia and
  - depression,are not diseases but syndromes
  - that can be carved out by sophisticated use of clinical symptoms into more specific diseases, better related to treatment response.

### 3.1. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription: Basis

■ Ban: a traditional psychopharmacologist who defended the concept that a disease's clinical profile can be used to group patients according to response.

He has focused on:  depression and  
 schizophrenia (next slides)

PubMed articles: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2892227>

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17970531>

Ban's archives: <http://inhn.org/archives/ban-collection.html>

Ban's e-books: <http://inhn.org/e-books.html>

## **3.2. Clinical Subgrouping: An Example using Schizophrenia**

## 3.2. Clinical Subgrouping for Schizophrenia

- Ban's schizophrenia approach: based on Leonhard, who is ignored by most US textbooks.
- Sometimes these are called the "Berlin School";
  - Wernicke: Kraepelin's competitor
  - Kleist: ● Wernicke's disciple
    - Leonhard's mentor
  - Leonhard: 3 types of psychoses
    - schizophrenia
    - cycloid psychoses
    - phasic psychoses: melancholia  
manic-depressive

2016 familial study supports validity.

## 3.2. Clinical Subgrouping for Schizophrenia

- For Leonhard, schizophrenia is a syndrome.
  - Systematic schizophrenias are non-genetic:
    - including ● paraphrenias
    - hebephrenias
    - catatonias
  - Unsystematic schizophrenias are genetic:
    - including ● cataphasia
    - affect-laden paraphrenia
    - periodic catatonia



## 3.2. Clinical Subgrouping for Schizophrenia

- Leonhard's schizophrenia & response:
  - 474 Norwegian patients: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14163581>
    - <1/4 of systematic schizophrenia
    - >4/5 of unsystematic schizophreniaresponded to antipsychotics (first generation)
- International survey of 768 patients:  
Tardive dyskinesia: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2866562>
  - 13.3% of systematic schizophrenia
  - 4.3% of unsystematic schizophrenia
- 50 German patients: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1361971>
  - antipsychotics did not change the prognosis
  - when compared with Leonhard's observations.

## **3.3. Clinical Subgrouping: Strengths and Weaknesses**

### 3.3. Clinical Subgrouping: Strengths and Weaknesses

- Conclusion of these long-term outcome studies: systematic schizophrenias do not respond well, at least to first-generation antipsychotics.
- Weaknesses: did not use  blinding or  placebo
- Strengths:
  - sophisticated clinicians
  - no reason to think that these clinical researchers were biased toward finding greater response to antipsychotics in unsystematic schizophrenia, as Leonhard developed his classification in the pre-neuroleptic era.

### 3.3. Clinical Subgrouping: Strengths and Weaknesses

- Due to these methodological weaknesses:
    - these studies
    - and other long-term outcome studies using sophisticated clinical subgrouping remain forgotten
- by current psychopharmacologists who only value RCTs, which are usually short-term studies.

### 3.3. Clinical Subgrouping: Strengths and Weaknesses

- RCTs have made limited contributions in psychiatry.
  - Psychopharmacological drugs were discovered by sophisticated clinicians without using well-controlled designs.
  - RCTs brought to psychiatry:
    - no revolutionary drugs
    - some second-generations drugs with possibly some better ADR profiles but of doubtful greater efficacy
    - accusations of corruption by pharmaceutical companies.

### 3. Clinical Subgrouping for Personalized Prescription

■ Dr. de Leon thinks that

□ it would be interesting to incorporate some of these attempts to subdivide:

- schizophrenia and
- major depression

in future well-controlled pragmatic trials of psychotropic drugs.

□ it is not easy, requiring intensive clinical training of psychiatrists involved in the diagnosis and assessment of patients.

# 4. Conclusions

## 4. Conclusions

- Personalized medicine has finally (2010-5) been discussed in psychiatric journals, but focused on the promise of using disease mechanisms to personalize treatment.
- Psychiatric disorders such as:
  - schizophrenia and
  - depressionare not diseases, in the medical sense, and are probably more like syndromes.



## 4. Conclusions

- If one focuses on Alzheimer disease, which is closer to the concept of brain disease,
  - mechanistic approaches are disappointing, and
  - personalized prescription: not in 10-20 years.
- Instead of spending much time and effort focusing on the mechanisms of diseases, psychiatrists should:
  - learn more about personalizing prescription using the drug mechanisms that are common among syndromes, and
  - reassess sophisticated clinical subgrouping.

## 4. Conclusions

- Pharmacogenetic tests may bring definitive but modest improvements using:
  - pharmacokinetic mechanisms to personalize drug treatment with a few psychiatric drugs, or
  - pharmacodynamic mechanisms for personalizing drug selection (ruling out) for even fewer psychiatric drugs.

## 4. Conclusions

- Even if one focuses only on using drug mechanisms to personalize prescription in psychiatry, Dr. de Leon thinks it is a very complex process, based on:
    - the individuality of each patient, differences in:
      - genetics
      - environmental
      - personal factors
    - the individuality of each drug, differences in:
      - pharmacokinetic mechanisms
      - pharmacodynamic mechanisms
- explained by the arbitrariness of evolution.

## 4. Conclusions

Recipe for using drug mechanisms to personalize prescription:

- 1) a drug's pharmacokinetic & pharmacodynamic mechanisms are behind its efficacy and safety;
- 2) genetic, environmental and personal variables influence drug pharmacokinetic & pharmacodynamic mechanisms and through them its efficacy and safety;
- 3) personalizing drug selection is much more complex than personalizing drug dosing;
- 4) in the process of personalizing drug selection, eliminating a drug is easier than choosing a drug;
- 5) personalizing dosing is easier when the drug follows linear kinetics and has a narrow therapeutic window; and
- 6) personalizing dosing in wide-therapeutic-window drugs is not practical; physicians may be very arbitrary in dosing.

# References

- 1) 2015 article <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25455256> describes personalized medicine according to pharmacological mechanisms, disease mechanisms and clinical subgrouping.
- 2) 2015 article <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25200585> describes the use of CYP genotyping in psychiatry.
- 3) 2014 article <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24196844> describes current and future pharmacogenomics in psychiatry.
- 4) 2012 article <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22367661> compares personalized medicine with EBM.
- 5) 2009 article <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18996200> describes personalized prescription in psychiatry according to pharmacological mechanisms.

Free versions at Research Gate <https://www.researchgate.net/home> or [http://uknowledge.uky.edu/do/search/?q=author\\_lname%3A%22de%20Leon%22%20AND%20author\\_fname%3A%22Jose%22&start=0&context=1674591&sort=date\\_desc](http://uknowledge.uky.edu/do/search/?q=author_lname%3A%22de%20Leon%22%20AND%20author_fname%3A%22Jose%22&start=0&context=1674591&sort=date_desc)

# Questions

- Please review the 10 questions in the pdf titled “Questions on the Presentation Personalized Medicine in Psychiatry”.
- You will find the answers on the last slide after the “Thank you” slide. No peeking until you have answered all the questions.
- If you do not answer all the questions correctly, please review the Power Point presentation once again to reinforce the pharmacological concepts.

*Thank you*

for surviving the complexity of Dr. de Leon's ideas  
in personalized medicine.

# Answers

1. D

2. D

3. A

4. D

5. B

6. A

7. D

8. A

9. A

10. A