



PRODUCT NAME	: LAMOTRIGINE tablets USP	COUNTRY	: US	LOCATION	: - Dabhu/OWP	Supersedes A/W No.:	
ITEM / PACK	: Outset	NO. OF COLORS	: 1	REMARK:			V. No.: 01
DESIGN STYLE	: Back Side	PANTONE SHADE NOS.:		SUBSTRATE	: 40 µm <sup>2</sup> Bible Paper		
CODE	: 8091730 OWOLAMP0223			Activities	Department	Name	Signature
DIMENSIONS (MM)	: 640 x 510			Prepared By	Pkg Dev		Date
ART WORK SIZE	: S/S	Black		Reviewed By	Pkg Dev		
DATE	: 08-02-2023	Font Size 6 pt		Approved By	Quality		

**Note: Pharma code/Bar code and adjacent text must be visible on folded leaflet. These details can be moved by printed to arrange pharma code/ Bar code and adjacent text visible on folded leaflet.**



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from a population of uncertain size. It is not always possible to reliably estimate their frequency or establish a causal relationship to drug exposure.

**Blood and Lymphatic:**  
Agranulocytosis, hemolytic anemia, lymphadenopathy not associated with hypersensitivity disorder.

**Gastrointestinal:**  
Esophagitis.  
**Hepatobiliary Tract and Pancreas:**  
Pancreatitis.

**Integumentary:**  
Hypocellulohelminia, lipo-like reaction, vasculitis.  
**Lower Respiratory:**  
Aplasia.

**Musculoskeletal:**  
Rhabdomyolysis has been observed in patients experiencing hypersensitivity reactions.

**Nervous System:**  
Aggravation, exacerbation of Parkinsonian symptoms in patients with pre-existing Parkinson's disease. **Sex-Related:**  
Non-specific Spermicide.

**Progressive immunosuppression.**  
Fatal and life-threatening opportunistic infections have been reported alone and in association with (weils).

**7 DRUG INTERACTIONS**  
Significant drug interactions with lamotrigine are summarized in this section.

Under the following conditions, lamotrigine may be affected by the enzymes responsible for metabolism of lamotrigine. Drugs that induce or inhibit glucuronidation may, therefore, affect the apparent clearance of lamotrigine. Strong or moderate inducers of the cytochrome P450 3A4 (CYP3A4) enzyme, which are also known to induce UGT, may also enhance the metabolism of lamotrigine.

Additional details of these drug interaction studies are provided in the Clinical Pharmacology section (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)).

**12.1. Established and Other Potentially Significant Drug Interactions**

Concomitant Drug	Effect on Concentration of Lamotrigine or Concomitant Drug	Clinical Comment
Estrogen-containing oral contraceptive (30 µg ethinylloestradiol and 150 mcg levonorgestrel)	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine concentrations approximately 50%.
Carbamazepine and carbamazepine epoxide	↓ lamotrigine	Decrease in lamotrigine concentration approximately 40%.
Lopinavir/ritonavir	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine concentration approximately 50%.
Azathioprine/ritonavir	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine AUC approximately 32%.
Phenobarbital/primidone	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine concentration approximately 40%.
Phenytoin	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine concentration approximately 40%.
Rifampin	↓ lamotrigine	Decreased lamotrigine AUC approximately 40%.
Valproate	↑ lamotrigine	Increased lamotrigine concentrations slightly more than 2-fold.
	↑ valproate	There are conflicting study results regarding effect of lamotrigine on valproate concentrations. In one study, lamotrigine had no effect on valproate concentrations in healthy volunteers. In another study, lamotrigine increased valproate concentrations in patients with epilepsy.

↓ Decreased (induces lamotrigine glucuronidation).  
↑ Increased (inhibits lamotrigine glucuronidation).  
↔ Conflicting data.

**Effect of Lamotrigine on Organic Cationic Transporter 2 Substrates**  
Lamotrigine is an inhibitor of renal tubular secretion via organic cationic transporter 2 (OCT2) proteins (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)).

It may result in increased plasma levels of certain drugs that are substantially excreted via this route. Coadministration of lamotrigine with OCT2 substrates with a narrow therapeutic index (e.g., dofetilide) is not recommended.

**8 USE IN SPECIFIC POPULATIONS**

**8.1 Pregnancy**  
Pregnancy Exposure Registry  
There is a pregnancy exposure registry that monitors pregnancy outcomes in women exposed to AEDs, including lamotrigine, during pregnancy. Encourage women who are taking lamotrigine during pregnancy to enroll in the North American Pregnancy Registry (NAEPD) Pregnancy Registry by calling 1-888-233-2334 or visiting <http://www.aedpregnancyregistry.org/>.

**Risk Summary**  
Data from several prospective pregnancy exposure registries and epidemiological studies of pregnant women have not detected an increased frequency of major congenital malformations or a consistent pattern of malformations among women exposed to lamotrigine compared with the general population (see Data). The majority of lamotrigine pregnancy exposure data are from women with epilepsy. In animal studies, administration of lamotrigine during pregnancy resulted in developmental toxicity (increased mortality, decreased body weight, increased placental weight, increased pre- and postnatal mortality) in rats. However, a case-control study based on 121 congenitally malformed fetuses exposed to lamotrigine during pregnancy did not detect an increased frequency of major birth defects and miscarriage for the associated population at unknown. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2% to 4% and 15% to 20%, respectively.

**Clinical Considerations**  
As with other AEDs, physiological changes during pregnancy may affect lamotrigine concentrations and/or therapeutic effect. There have been reports of decreased lamotrigine concentrations during pregnancy and restoration of pre-pregnancy concentrations after delivery. Dose adjustments may be necessary to maintain clinical efficacy.

**Data**  
Data from several international pregnancy registries have not shown an increased risk for malformations overall. The International Lamotrigine Pregnancy Registry reported major congenital malformations in 2.2% (95% CI: 1.6%, 3.1%) of 1,558 infants exposed to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester of pregnancy. The NAEPD Pregnancy Registry reported major congenital malformations among 2.0% of 1,462 infants exposed to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester. EURAP, a large international pregnancy registry located outside of North America, reported major birth defects in 2.9% (95% CI: 2.3%, 3.7%) of 2,514 exposures to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester. The frequency of major congenital malformations was similar to that observed in the general population. The NAEPD Pregnancy Registry observed an increased risk of isolated oral clefts among 2,200 fetuses exposed to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester. The risk of oral clefts was 3.2 per 1,000 (95% CI: 1.4, 6.3), a 3-fold increased risk over unexposed healthy controls. This finding has not been observed in other international pregnancy registries. Furthermore, a case-control study based on 121 congenitally malformed fetuses exposed to lamotrigine during pregnancy covering over 10 million births in Europe reported an adjusted odds ratio for isolated oral clefts with lamotrigine exposure of 1.45 (95% CI: 0.8, 2.65).

Several meta-analyses have not reported an increased risk of major congenital malformations following lamotrigine exposure in pregnancy compared with healthy and disease-matched controls. No patterns of specific malformation types were observed.

The same meta-analysis evaluated the risk of additional major and infant outcomes including fetal death, stillbirth, preterm birth, small for gestational age, and neurodevelopmental delay. Although there are no data suggesting an increased risk of these outcomes with lamotrigine monotherapy exposure, differences in outcome definition, ascertainment methods, and comparator groups limit the conclusions that can be drawn.

**Animal Data**  
When lamotrigine was administered to pregnant mice, rats, or rabbits during the period of organogenesis (oral doses of up to 125, 25, and 30 mg/kg, respectively), reduced fetal body weight and increased incidences of skeletal variations were seen in mice and rats at doses that were also maternally toxic. The no-effect dose for embryofetal developmental toxicity in mice, and rats, was 6.25, 6.25, and 30 mg/kg, respectively (are similar in mice and rabbits) or less than (rats) the human dose of 400 mg/day on a body surface area (mg/m<sup>2</sup>) basis.

In studies in pregnant rats were administered lamotrigine (oral doses of 0, 5, 15, or 25 mg/kg) during the period of organogenesis and offspring were evaluated postnatally, neurobehavioral abnormalities were observed in offspring at both doses. The lowest effect dose for developmental neurobehavioral effects in rats is less than the human dose of 400 mg/day on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis. Maternal toxicity was observed at the higher dose tested.

When pregnant rats were administered lamotrigine (oral doses of 0, 5, 10, or 20 mg/kg) during the latter part of gestation and throughout lactation, increased offspring mortality (including stillbirths) was seen at all doses. The lowest effect dose for pre- and post-natal developmental toxicity in rats is less than the human dose of 400 mg/day on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis. Maternal toxicity was observed at the 2 highest doses tested.

When administered to pregnant rats, lamotrigine decreased fetal folate concentrations at doses greater than or equal to 5 mg/kg/day, which is less than the human dose of 400 mg/day on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis.

**8.2 Lactation**  
**Risk Summary**  
Lamotrigine is present in milk from lactating women taking lamotrigine tablets (see Data). Neonates and young infants are at risk for high serum levels because maternal serum and milk levels can rise to high levels postpartum if lamotrigine dosage has been increased during pregnancy but is not reduced after delivery to the pre-pregnancy dosage. Glucuronidation is required for lamotrigine clearance. Glucuronidation capacity is immature in the infant and this may also contribute to the level of lamotrigine exposure. Events including rash, anemia, drowsiness, poor sucking, and poor weight gain (requiring hospitalization in some cases) have been reported in infants who have been human milk-fed by mothers using lamotrigine, whether or not these events were caused by lamotrigine is unknown. Data are available on the effects of the drug on milk production.

The developmental and health benefits of breastfeeding should be considered along with the mother's clinical need for lamotrigine and any potential adverse effects on the breastfed infant from lamotrigine or from the underlying maternal condition.

**Clinical Considerations**  
Human milk-fed infants should be closely monitored for adverse events resulting from lamotrigine. Measurement of infant serum levels should be performed to rule out toxicity if concerns arise. Human milk-feeding should be discontinued in infants with lamotrigine toxicity.

**Data**  
Data from multiple small studies indicate that lamotrigine plasma levels in nursing infants have been reported to be as high as 50% of maternal plasma concentrations.

**8.4 Pediatric Use**  
Lamotrigine is indicated as adjunctive therapy in patients aged 2 years and older for partial-onset seizures, the generalized seizures of Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, and PGTCS seizures.

Safety and efficacy of lamotrigine used as adjunctive therapy for partial-onset seizures were not demonstrated in a small, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled withdrawal trial in very young pediatric patients (aged 1 to 24 months). Lamotrigine was associated with an increased risk for infectious adverse reactions (Lamotrigine 37%, Placebo 5%), and respiratory adverse reactions (Lamotrigine 26%, Placebo 5%). Infectious adverse reactions included bronchitis, bronchiolitis, ear infection, eye infection, otitis externa, pharyngitis, urinary tract infection, and viral infection. Respiratory adverse reactions included nasal congestion, cough, and apnea.

**Bipolar Disorder**  
Safety and efficacy of lamotrigine for the maintenance treatment of bipolar disorder was established in a double-blind, randomized, withdrawal, placebo-controlled trial that evaluated 301 pediatric patients aged 10 to 17 years with a current manic/hypomanic, depressed, or mixed mood episode as defined by DSM-IV-TR. In the randomized phase of the trial, adverse reactions that occurred in at least 5% of patients taking lamotrigine (n = 87) and were twice as common compared with patients taking placebo (n = 86) were influenza (Lamotrigine 8%, Placebo 2%), oropharyngeal pain (Lamotrigine 8%, placebo 2%), vomiting (Lamotrigine 6%, placebo 2%), contact dermatitis (Lamotrigine 5%, placebo 2%), upper abdominal pain (Lamotrigine 5%, placebo 1%), and suicidal ideation (Lamotrigine 5%, placebo 0%).

**Juvenile Animal Data**  
In a juvenile animal study in which lamotrigine (oral doses of 0, 5, 15, or 30 mg/kg) was administered to young rats from postnatal day 7 to D28, decreased viability and growth were seen at the highest dose tested and long-term neurobehavioral abnormalities (decreased locomotor activity, increased reactivity, and learning deficits) were observed at the 2 highest doses. The no-effect dose for the no-effect dose for adverse effects developmental effects in juvenile animals was less than the human dose of 400 mg/day on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis.

**8.5 Geriatric Use**  
Clinical trials of lamotrigine for epilepsy and bipolar disorder did not include sufficient numbers of patients aged 65 years and older to determine whether they respond differently from younger patients or exhibit a different safety profile than that of younger patients. In general, dose selection for an elderly patient should be cautious, usually starting at the low end of the dosing range, reflecting the greater frequency of decreased hepatic, renal, or cardiac function and of concomitant drug or other therapy.

**8.6 Hepatic Impairment**  
Experience in patients with hepatic impairment is limited. Based on a clinical pharmacology study in 24 subjects with mild, moderate, and severe liver impairment (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)), the following general recommendations can be made. No dose adjustments are needed in patients with mild liver impairment. Initial, escalation, and maintenance doses should generally be reduced by approximately 25% in patients with moderate and severe liver impairment without ascites and 50% in patients with severe liver impairment with ascites. Escalation and maintenance doses may be adjusted according to clinical response (see Dosage and Administration (2.1)).

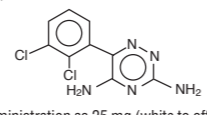
**8.7 Renal Impairment**  
Lamotrigine is metabolized mainly by glucuronic acid conjugation, with the majority of the metabolites being recovered in the urine. In a small study comparing a single dose of lamotrigine in subjects with varying degrees of renal impairment with renal treatment with the same half-life of lamotrigine was approximately twice as long in the subjects with chronic renal failure (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)). Initial doses of lamotrigine should be based on patients' AED regimens; reduced maintenance doses may be effective for patients with significant renal impairment. Few patients with severe renal impairment have been evaluated during chronic treatment with lamotrigine. Because there is inadequate experience in this population, lamotrigine should be used with caution in these patients (see Dosage and Administration (2.1)).

**10 OVERDOSE**  
**10.1 Human Overdose Experience**  
Overdoses involving quantities up to 15g have been reported for lamotrigine, some of which have been fatal. Overdose has resulted in ataxia, mydriasis, asthenia (including tonic-clonic seizures), decreased level of consciousness, coma, and arrhythmic cardiac rhythm.

**10.2 Management of Overdose**  
There are no specific antidotes for lamotrigine. Following a suspected overdose, hospitalization of the patient is advised. General supportive care is indicated, including frequent monitoring of vital signs and close observation of the patient. If indicated, the patient should be induced with activated charcoal to be taken to protect the airway. It should be kept in mind that immediate-release lamotrigine is rapidly absorbed (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)). It is uncertain whether hemodialysis is an effective means of removing lamotrigine from the blood. In a formal dialysis study, about 20% of the amount of lamotrigine in the body was removed by hemodialysis during a 4-hour session. A Personal Contact Center should be contacted for information on the management of overdose of lamotrigine.

**11 DESCRIPTION**  
Lamotrigine USP is an AED of the phenylcarbazone class. It is chemically unrelated to existing AEDs. Lamotrigine's chemical name is

3,5-diamino-6-(2-(4-chlorophenyl)ethyl)-s-triazine. Its molecular formula is C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>10</sub>ClN<sub>6</sub> and its molecular weight is 255.08. Lamotrigine USP is a white to pale cream-colored powder and has a pKa of 5.7. Lamotrigine USP is very slightly soluble in water (0.17 mg/mL at 25°C) and slightly soluble in 0.1 M HCl (4.1 mg/mL at 25°C). The structural formula is:



Lamotrigine tablets USP are supplied for oral administration as 25 mg (white to off white) and 100 mg (white to off white) tablets. Each tablet contains the labeled amount of lamotrigine. USP and the following inactive ingredients: lactose monohydrate, magnesium stearate, microcrystalline cellulose, polyvidone, and sodium starch glycolate.

**Meets USP Dissolution Test 3**  
**12. CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY**  
**12.1. Mechanism of Action**  
The precise mechanism(s) by which lamotrigine exerts its anticonvulsant action are unknown. In animal models designed to detect anticonvulsant activity, lamotrigine was effective in preventing seizure spread in the maximum electroshock (MES) and pentylentetrazol (scMET) tests, and prevented seizures in the visually and electrically evoked after-discharge (EAD) tests for antiepileptic activity. Lamotrigine displayed inhibitory properties in the kindling model in rats both during kindling and during kindling maintenance. The relevance of these models to human epilepsy, however, is not known.

One proposed mechanism of action of lamotrigine, the relevance of which remains to be established in humans, involves an effect on sodium channels. In vitro pharmacological studies suggest that lamotrigine inhibits voltage-sensitive sodium channels, thereby stabilizing neuronal membranes and consequently modulating presynaptic transmission by release of excitatory amino acids (e.g., glutamate and aspartate).

Effect of Lamotrigine on N-Methyl-D-Aspartate Receptor-Mediated Activity  
Lamotrigine did not inhibit N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)-induced depolarizations in rat cortical slices or NMDA-induced cyclic GMP formation in immature rat cerebellum, nor did lamotrigine displace compounds that are either competitive or noncompetitive ligands at this glutamate receptor complex (NMDA, DGS, DHP). The IC<sub>50</sub> for lamotrigine effects on NMDA-induced currents in the presence of 5 µM of glycine) in cultured hippocampal neurons exceeded 100 µM.

The mechanism by which lamotrigine exerts its therapeutic action in bipolar disorder has not been established.

**12.2 Pharmacokinetics**  
**Folate Metabolism**  
In vitro, lamotrigine inhibited dihydrofolate reductase, the enzyme that catalyzes the reduction of dihydrofolate to tetrahydrofolate. Inhibition of this enzyme may interfere with the biosynthesis of nucleic acid precursors. When oral daily doses of lamotrigine were given to pregnant rats during organogenesis, fetal placental, and maternal folate concentrations were reduced. Significantly reduced concentrations of folate are associated with teratogenicity (see Data in Specific Populations (8.1)). Folate concentrations were also reduced in rats given repeated oral doses of lamotrigine. Reduced concentrations were partially returned to normal when supplemented with folic acid.

**Cardiac Electrophysiology**  
Effect of Lamotrigine In vitro studies show that lamotrigine exhibits Class IB antiarrhythmic activity at therapeutically relevant concentrations. It inhibits human cardiac sodium channels with rapid and slow voltage dependence, consistent with other Class IB antiarrhythmic agents. At therapeutic doses, lamotrigine did not show ventricular conduction (widened QRS) in healthy individuals in a thorough QT study; however, in patients with clinically important structural or functional cardiac disease (i.e., patients with heart failure, bundle branch block, congenital heart disease, conduction system disease, ventricular arrhythmias, cardiac channelopathies [e.g., Brugada syndrome], clinically important ischemic heart disease, or multiple risk factors for coronary artery disease), lamotrigine could slow the PR interval and prolong the QTc interval, which may lead to sudden death. Elevated heart rates could also increase the risk of ventricular conduction slowing with lamotrigine.

**Effect of Lamotrigine Metabolite**  
In dogs, lamotrigine is extensively metabolized to a 2-N-methyl metabolite. This metabolite causes dose-dependent prolongation of the PR interval, widening of the QRS complex, and at higher doses, complete AV conduction block. Similar cardiovascular effects of this metabolite are not anticipated in humans because only trace amounts of the 2-N-methyl metabolite (<0.8% of lamotrigine dose) have been found in human urine (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)). However, it is conceivable that plasma concentrations of this metabolite could be increased in patients with a reduced capacity to glucuronidate lamotrigine (e.g., in patients with liver disease, patients taking concomitant medications that inhibit glucuronidation).

**Accumulation in Kidneys**  
Lamotrigine accumulated in the kidney of the male rat, causing chronic progressive nephrosis, necrosis, and mineralization. These findings are attributed to an α2 microglobulin, a species- and sex-specific protein that has not been detected in humans or other animal species.

**Melanin Binding**  
Lamotrigine binds to melanin-containing tissues, e.g., in the eye and pigmented skin. It has been found in the uveal tract up to 52 weeks after a single dose in rodents.

**Cardiovascular**  
In dogs, lamotrigine is extensively metabolized to a 2-N-methyl metabolite. This metabolite causes dose-dependent prolongations of the PR interval, widening of the QRS complex, and at higher doses, complete AV conduction block. Similar cardiovascular effects of this metabolite are not anticipated in humans because only trace amounts of the 2-N-methyl metabolite (0.8% of lamotrigine dose) have been found in human urine (see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)). However, it is conceivable that plasma concentrations of this metabolite could be increased in patients with a reduced capacity to glucuronidate lamotrigine (e.g., in patients with liver disease, patients taking concomitant medications that inhibit glucuronidation).

**12.3 Pharmacokinetics**  
The pharmacokinetics of lamotrigine have been studied in subjects with epilepsy, healthy young and elderly volunteers, and volunteers with chronic renal failure. Lamotrigine pharmacokinetic parameters for adult and pediatric subjects and healthy normal volunteers are summarized in Tables 14 and 16.

**Table 14. Mean Pharmacokinetic Parameters in Healthy Volunteers and Adult Subjects with Epilepsy**

Adult Study Population	Number of Subjects	Max:Time to Max:Plasma Concentration (h)	t <sub>1/2</sub> (h)	CL/F: Apparent Plasma Clearance (mL/min/kg)
<b>Healthy volunteers taking no other medications:</b>				
Single-dose Lamotrigine	179	2.2	32.8	0.44
		(0.25 to 2.0)	(14.0 to 100.0)	(0.12 to 1.0)
Multiple-dose Lamotrigine	36	2.0	30.4	0.5
		(0.5 to 4.0)	(11.6 to 61.8)	(0.24 to 1.15)
<b>Healthy volunteers taking valproate:</b>				
Single-dose Lamotrigine	6	1.8	48.3	0.30
		(1.0 to 4.0)	(13.0 to 86.0)	(0.14 to 0.42)
Multiple-dose Lamotrigine	18	1.9	70.3	0.18
		(0.5 to 3.5)	(41.9 to 113.5)	(0.12 to 0.33)
<b>Subjects with epilepsy taking carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or primidone:</b>				
Single-dose Lamotrigine	4	4.8	38.8	0.28
		(1.8 to 8.4)	(30.5 to 68.8)	(0.16 to 0.40)
<b>Subjects with epilepsy taking carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or primidone:</b>				
Single-dose Lamotrigine	25	3.8	27.2	0.53
		(1.0 to 10.0)	(11.2 to 51.6)	(0.22 to 1.04)
<b>Subjects with epilepsy taking carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or primidone:</b>				
Single-dose Lamotrigine	24	2.3	14.4	0.7
		(0.5 to 5.0)	(6.4 to 30.4)	(0.51 to 1.22)
Multiple-dose Lamotrigine	17	2.0	12.8	1.21
		(0.75 to 9.33)	(7.5 to 23.1)	(0.68 to 1.82)

\* The majority of parameter means determined in each study had coefficients of variation between 20% and 40% for half-life and CL/F and between 30% and 70% for t<sub>1/2</sub>. The overall mean values were calculated from individual study means that were weighted based on the number of volunteers/subjects in each study. The numbers in parentheses below each parameter mean represent the range of individual volunteer/subjects across studies.

† Carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, and primidone have been shown to increase the apparent clearance of lamotrigine. Estrogen-containing oral contraceptives and other drugs, such as rifampin and protease inhibitors lopinavir/ritonavir and atazanavir/ritonavir, that reduce lamotrigine glucuronidation have also been shown to increase the apparent clearance of lamotrigine (see Drug Interactions (7)).

**Absorption**  
Lamotrigine is rapidly and completely absorbed after oral administration with negligible first-pass metabolism (absolute bioavailability is 88%). The bioavailability is not affected by food. Peak plasma concentrations occur anywhere from 1 to 4.8 hours following drug administration.

**Dose Proportionality**  
Healthy volunteers did not receive any other medications and given single doses, the plasma concentrations of lamotrigine increased in direct proportion to the dose administered over the range of 50 to 400 mg. In small studies (n = 7 and 8) in patients with epilepsy who were maintained on other AEDs, there also was a linear relationship between dose and lamotrigine plasma concentrations at steady state following doses of 50 to 350 mg twice daily.

**Distribution**  
Estimates of the mean apparent volume of distribution (V<sub>d</sub>) of lamotrigine following oral administration ranged from 0.9 to 1.1 L/kg. V<sub>d</sub> is independent of dose and is similar following single and multiple doses in both patients with epilepsy and in healthy volunteers.

**Protein Binding**  
Data from in vitro studies indicate that lamotrigine is approximately 55% bound to human plasma proteins at plasma lamotrigine concentrations from 1 to 10 mcg/mL (10 mcg/mL is 4 to 6 times the trough plasma concentration observed in the controlled efficacy trials). Because lamotrigine is not highly bound to plasma proteins, clinically significant interactions with other drugs, through competition for protein binding sites, are unlikely. The binding of lamotrigine to plasma proteins did not change in the presence of therapeutic concentrations of phenytoin, phenobarbital, or valproate. Lamotrigine did not displace other AEDs (carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or valproate). Lamotrigine did not displace other AEDs (carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or valproate).

**Metabolism**  
Lamotrigine is metabolized predominantly by glucuronic acid conjugation; the major metabolite is an inactive 2-N-glucuronide conjugate. After oral administration of 50 mg of [<sup>14</sup>C]-lamotrigine (15 µCi) to 8 healthy volunteers, 84% was recovered in the urine and 2% was recovered in the feces. The radioactivity in the urine consisted of unchanged lamotrigine (10%), the 2-N-glucuronide (70%), 5-N-glucuronide (10%), 2-N-methyl metabolite (0.1%), and other unidentified minor metabolites (4%).

**Enzyme Induction**  
The effects of lamotrigine on the induction of specific families of mixed-function oxidase isomerase have not been systematically evaluated. Following multiple administrations (150 mg twice daily) to normal volunteers taking no other medications, lamotrigine induced its own metabolism, resulting in a 25% decrease in t<sub>1/2</sub> and a 37% increase in CL/F at steady state compared with values obtained in the same volunteers following a single dose. Evidence gathered from other sources suggests that self-induction by lamotrigine may not occur when lamotrigine is given as adjunctive therapy in patients receiving enzyme-inducing drugs such as carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, or primidone, or other drugs such as rifampin and the protease inhibitors lopinavir/ritonavir and atazanavir/ritonavir that reduce lamotrigine glucuronidation (see Drug Interactions (7)).

**Elimination**  
The elimination half-life and apparent clearance of lamotrigine following oral administration of lamotrigine to adult subjects with epilepsy and healthy volunteers is summarized in Table 14. Half-life and apparent oral clearance vary depending on concomitant drug therapy.

**Drug Interactions**  
The apparent clearance of lamotrigine is affected by the coadministration of certain medications (see Warnings and Precautions (5.8, 5.13), Drug Interactions (7)).

The net effects of drug interactions with lamotrigine are summarized in Tables 13 and 15, followed by details of the drug interaction studies below.

**Table 15. Summary of Drug Interactions with Lamotrigine**

Drug	Drug Plasma Concentration with Adjunctive Lamotrigine*	Lamotrigine Plasma Concentration with Adjunctive Drugs*
Oral contraceptives (e.g., ethinylloestradiol/levonorgestrel)†	Not assessed	↓
Azathioprine/ritonavir	Not assessed	↓
Rifampin	Not assessed	↓
Carbamazepine	Not assessed	↓
Gabapentin	Not assessed	↔
Ethanol	Not assessed	↔
Levetiracetam	Not assessed	↔
Lopinavir/ritonavir	Not assessed	↓
Olanzapine	Not assessed	↓
Oxcarbazepine	Not assessed	↔
2-N-Methylolamotrigine	Not assessed	↔
Phenobarbital/primidone	Not assessed	↓
Rifampin	Not assessed	↓
Risperidone	Not assessed	↔
9-Hydroxyretigabine	Not assessed	↔
Tosilamide	Not assessed	↔
Valproate	Not assessed	↑
Zonisamide	Not assessed	↔
Carbamazepine	Not assessed	↔
Zonisamide	Not assessed	↔

\* From adjunctive clinical trials in volunteer trials.  
† Net effects were estimated by comparing the mean clearance values obtained in adjunctive clinical trials and volunteer trials.  
‡ The effect of other hormonal contraceptive preparations or hormone replacement therapy on the pharmacokinetics of lamotrigine has not been systematically evaluated in clinical trials, although the effect may be similar to that seen with the ethinylloestradiol/levonorgestrel combination.

§ Slight decrease in lamotrigine concentration is