

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

**Objective:** To update the 1997 report of this Council on the diagnosis and treatment of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

**Methods:** To supplement the literature search from the 1997 Council report, English-language reports on studies using human subjects were selected from a MEDLINE search of the literature from 1997 to February 2006 using the term “attention deficit disorder,” or attention deficit disorder with hyperactivity\*” in combination with “diagnosis,” “epidemiology,” “drug therapy,” “genetics,” or “psychology.” In addition, the Cochrane Central Controlled Trials Register was searched using the terms “ADHD” or “attention deficit disorder” and a manual search of the index for the *Journal of Attention Disorders* was conducted from 1996 to 2007. Web sites of the American Academy of Pediatrics, National Institute of Mental Health, Food and Drug Administration (FDA), American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, and the American Psychiatric Association also were searched for documents relevant to ADHD. A total of 596 articles were retrieved for analysis. When high-quality systematic reviews and meta-analyses were identified, they formed the basis for evaluative statements about treatment safety and efficacy. Additional articles were identified by manual review of the references cited in these publications.

**Results:** Research increasingly points to ADHD as a developmental disorder of probable neurogenetic origin in which environmental factors also play a role, albeit more limited, in disease expression. ADHD remains the most common reason for referral of children for mental health services, but is increasingly recognized as a lifespan disorder. Diagnosis of ADHD in children is based on meeting the criteria of the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)-IV-TR*, but developmentally appropriate criteria for adults are lacking. Stimulants are the most effective treatment for reducing core ADHD symptoms. The addition of psychosocial interventions may be effective in reducing related behavioral and emotional difficulties, with less substantial effects on core ADHD symptoms, compared with stimulant medication. Recent concerns about the cardiovascular risks and potential psychiatric side effects of medications used to treat ADHD have resulted in modifications to the product labeling for medications approved to treat ADHD, and a requirement for the development of medication guides.

**Conclusion:** Diagnosis of ADHD in children is based on meeting the criteria of the DSM-IV-TR. Because the criteria are subjective and may be interpreted differently by different observers, their use and applicability to general practice settings may vary somewhat. Clinical samples have not been diverse, with an overrepresentation of Caucasian males. Further information is needed to inform treatment of minority populations and those from lower socioeconomic strata. With the recognition that a substantial percentage of children diagnosed with ADHD have symptoms that persist into adulthood, developmentally valid criteria for adults also need to be refined. The treatment of ADHD requires expertise in many different treatment modalities. Stimulant medication offers the most effective treatment for reducing core symptoms. Although the FDA has recently taken actions to strengthen warnings on the product labeling for medications approved to treat ADHD, some disagreement continues about the risks of these medications.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON SCIENCE AND PUBLIC HEALTH

CSAPH Report 10 -A-07

Subject: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

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Referred to: Reference Committee E  
(Paul C. Matson, MD, Chair)

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1 Background

2  
3 Resolution 410, introduced by the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry,  
4 American Academy of Pediatrics, American Psychiatric Association, and the American Academy  
5 of Psychiatry and the Law and adopted by the House of Delegates at the 2006 Annual Meeting,  
6 asked that this Council update its 1997 report on the diagnosis and treatment of attention deficit  
7 hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). The 1997 Council report addressed the epidemiology and  
8 diagnostic criteria for ADHD, the course of the illness, optimal treatments, and issues  
9 surrounding the increasing trends of stimulant use.<sup>1</sup> The steep increase in the utilization of  
10 stimulants among children aged 18 years and younger that occurred between 1987 and 1996  
11 attenuated in the following years, and has remained relatively stable among younger children  
12 since 2002.<sup>2</sup>

13  
14 Individuals with ADHD experience substantial impairment in peer, family, and academic  
15 functioning. Diagnosis of ADHD is associated with significant educational and social  
16 impairment, an increased risk of accident and injury, and increased utilization of healthcare  
17 resources.<sup>3</sup> Previous studies clearly showed that a diagnosis of ADHD in elementary school  
18 predicts continuing symptoms and impairment into adolescence, and in the last decade ADHD  
19 has been conceptualized as a lifespan disorder.<sup>4-6</sup> This realization, and recent Food and Drug  
20 Administration (FDA)-mandated changes to prescription drug labeling of stimulants highlighting  
21 their potential to cause rare but serious side effects, including sudden death, have focused  
22 renewed attention on the treatment of this condition.

23  
24 Methods

25  
26 To supplement the literature search from the 1997 Council report, English-language reports on  
27 studies using human subjects were selected from a MEDLINE search of the literature from 1997  
28 to February 2006 using the term “attention deficit disorder,” or “attention deficit disorder with  
29 hyperactivity\*” in combination with “diagnosis,” “epidemiology,” “drug therapy,” “genetics,” or  
30 “psychology.” In addition, the Cochrane Central Controlled Trials Register was searched using  
31 the terms “ADHD” or “attention deficit disorder” and a manual search of the index for the  
32 *Journal of Attention Disorders* was conducted from 1996 to 2007. Web sites of the American  
33 Academy of Pediatrics, National Institute of Mental Health, FDA, American Academy of Child  
34 and Adolescent Psychiatry, and the American Psychiatric Association also were searched for  
35 documents relevant to ADHD. A total of 596 articles were retrieved for analysis. When high-  
36 quality systematic reviews and meta-analyses were identified, they formed the basis for  
37 evaluative statements about treatment safety and efficacy. Additional articles were identified by  
38 manual review of the references cited in these publications.

## 1 Introduction

2  
3 Research increasingly points to ADHD as a developmental disorder of probable neurogenetic  
4 origin in which environmental factors also play a role, albeit more limited, in disease expression.  
5 Family, twin, and adoption studies provide compelling evidence that genes have a strong  
6 influence in mediating susceptibility to ADHD. Twin studies from several countries have  
7 estimated the heritability of ADHD to be between 0.6 and 0.9.<sup>7</sup> Molecular genetic studies suggest  
8 that the genetic architecture of ADHD is complex; studies have implicated several genes as  
9 potentially influencing susceptibility or treatment response, mostly involving the function of  
10 neurons using the neurotransmitters dopamine, norepinephrine, or serotonin.<sup>8</sup>

11  
12 Additionally, children and adolescents with ADHD (as a group) have smaller brain volumes on  
13 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scanning (~3%) in all regions compared with healthy  
14 controls, although considerable overlap occurs. The developmental trajectories for most  
15 structures remain roughly parallel for patients and controls during childhood and adolescence,  
16 suggesting that genetic and/or early environmental influences on brain development in ADHD are  
17 fixed, nonprogressive, and unrelated to stimulant treatment.<sup>9</sup> Functional brain imaging studies in  
18 affected children (and adults) show differential activation of frontal cortical and striatal areas  
19 during cognitive tasks. Although not specific to ADHD, on neuropsychological testing, some  
20 youth with ADHD show impaired performance on tasks requiring vigilance, orienting or  
21 attentional alerting, complex problem-solving, impulse control, verbal learning, and memory.

22  
23 The research base to inform clinical decision-making and treatment is well-developed for  
24 children, and considerable attention has recently been devoted to problems suffered by adult  
25 ADHD patients. Studies involving strictly adolescents have not received as much attention. In  
26 general, the discussion that follows reviews the evidence pertaining to children, with relevant  
27 additional commentary for adolescent and adult populations.

28  
29 Current American Medical Association (AMA) Policy H-60.950 (AMA Policy Database)  
30 encourages physicians to utilize standardized diagnostic criteria in making the diagnosis of  
31 ADHD; the development of practice guidelines for ADHD by appropriate specialty societies;  
32 continuing medical education programs to increase physician knowledge about ADHD and its  
33 treatment; the use of individualized, multimodal therapeutic approaches for children diagnosed  
34 with ADHD; and efforts to improve teachers' abilities to recognize ADHD.

## 35 Epidemiology

36  
37  
38 ADHD is the most common reason for referral of children for mental health services. Over time,  
39 the point prevalence of ADHD internationally has ranged from ~2% to 18%. According to the  
40 *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)-IV-TR*, 3% to 5% of school-aged  
41 children have ADHD.<sup>10</sup> Estimates have varied according to the sample source (community,  
42 school, clinically referred) and because of changing diagnostic criteria.<sup>11,12</sup>

43  
44 Studies using DSM-III and -III-R criteria estimate a prevalence of 4% to 12% in the elementary  
45 school population.<sup>12</sup> Similar rates have been reported in pediatric primary care settings using  
46 DSM-IV criteria.<sup>13</sup> Another study using DSM-IV criteria found a prevalence of 6.8% in a school  
47 sample of kindergarten through fifth-graders.<sup>14</sup> The cumulative incidence of definite ADHD  
48 based on DSM-IV criteria was 7.4% by age 19 years in a population-based birth cohort study.<sup>15</sup>  
49 Another longitudinal study involving a community-based sample of children aged 9 to 13 years,  
50 found a cumulative prevalence of 4.1% for ADHD by age 16 years, with males outnumbering  
51 females ~6:1.<sup>16</sup>

1 Analysis of data (based on parent reports) from the 2003 National Survey of Children’s Health  
 2 indicated that in 2003 approximately 7.8% of US children (nearly 4.5 million) aged 4 to 17 years  
 3 had ever had ADHD diagnosed. A diagnosis of ADHD was reported 2.5 times more frequently  
 4 among males than females.<sup>17</sup> ADHD, regardless of subtype, occurs at higher rates in male  
 5 school-aged children, and is more prevalent in younger children.<sup>11</sup> Generally, the male to female  
 6 ratio is substantially higher in clinically referred samples, with less of a difference in community  
 7 samples, approaching unity among older adolescents and adults.<sup>18-21</sup> A family history, presence  
 8 of psychosocial adversity, and comorbid conduct, mood, or anxiety disorders (see below)  
 9 increases the presence and persistence of ADHD symptoms.

10  
 11 As many as 80% of children diagnosed with ADHD have symptoms that persist into adolescence,  
 12 and ADHD persists into adulthood in 36% to 70% of patients.<sup>18,22-25</sup> It is estimated that 4% to 5%  
 13 of US adults continue to suffer from symptoms referable to ADHD.<sup>26,27</sup> The diagnosis of ADHD  
 14 in adults nearly doubled from 1995 to 2002, with equal proportions of women and men seeking  
 15 treatment.<sup>28</sup>

### 16 17 Diagnosis and Treatment

18  
 19 Several informative clinical reviews and evidence-based guidelines on the diagnosis and  
 20 treatment of ADHD have been generated by government organizations, medical specialty  
 21 societies, and other healthcare entities since the previous Council report on ADHD.<sup>29-41</sup>

22  
 23 Diagnosis. Children may be initially referred for evaluation of learning problems, behavioral  
 24 problems, or specifically ADHD by teachers or other school personnel, parents, or healthcare  
 25 professionals. Most adolescent patients were initially diagnosed in childhood, and most  
 26 contemporary adult patients are self-referred.

27  
 28 Diagnosis of ADHD in children is based on meeting the criteria of the DSM-IV-TR.<sup>10</sup> Because  
 29 the criteria are subjective and may be interpreted differently by different observers, their use and  
 30 applicability to general practice settings may vary somewhat.

31  
 32 The DSM-IV-TR criteria require evidence of inattention, or hyperactivity and impulsivity, or both  
 33 (see Appendix 1).<sup>10</sup> These 2 dimensions of impairment comprise 9 symptoms each; at least some  
 34 of the symptoms must have been present before age 7. Additionally, the child’s behavior must be  
 35 inconsistent with his or her developmental level and intellectual ability, and symptoms must have  
 36 been present for at least 6 months. Functional impairment is evident in 2 or more settings, with  
 37 clinically significant impairment in social, academic, or occupational functioning. Three  
 38 subtypes are distinguished based on the presence or absence of 6 or more symptoms in each  
 39 dimension: predominately *inattentive*, predominantly *hyperactive-impulsive*, or *combined*; the  
 40 latter is most common. The number of children who meet the diagnostic criteria for ADHD  
 41 declines over time, and the subtype assigned to an individual also may change over time.<sup>42</sup>

42  
 43 Assessment typically involves a parent interview to establish the child’s developmental and  
 44 treatment history, the child’s current and previous symptoms and resulting impairments, the  
 45 family history of ADHD and other psychiatric disorders, and to assess the family environment,  
 46 caregiver-child interactions, family resources, psychosocial stressors, and the parents’ beliefs and  
 47 attributions concerning their child’s abilities.<sup>12,38</sup> Information from school personnel also is  
 48 essential to establishing the core symptoms of ADHD, their duration, and the degree of functional  
 49 impairment in the school setting. Many specific questionnaires and rating scales also have been  
 50 developed and validated to review and quantify the behavioral characteristics of ADHD in the  
 51 home and school setting, although discrepancies may exist between parent and teacher ratings.

1 In addition to history, physical, and mental status evaluation, clinicians need to assess the child  
2 for comorbidities, as well as academic skills/learning, speech, and language disabilities. The  
3 diagnosis of ADHD can be complicated by either the presence of another coexisting psychiatric  
4 condition or a condition with symptoms that overlap with those of ADHD. At least one-third of  
5 children with ADHD have one or more coexisting conditions. As many as two-thirds of children  
6 with ADHD referred to psychiatrists have comorbidity, most commonly learning disorders,  
7 oppositional defiant disorder, conduct disorder, anxiety disorders, mood disorders, tic disorder,  
8 and adjustment disorder.<sup>38</sup> Based on these results, referral for additional evaluation may be  
9 warranted.

10  
11 Adolescents. Core symptoms related to hyperactivity/impulsivity typically diminish in intensity  
12 with age, and teacher reports may be less useful in adolescents. Impairments commonly include  
13 inattention, poor impulse control and organizational skills, and difficulties in setting and  
14 maintaining priorities.<sup>30,38</sup> Combined with poor problem-solving skills, these traits result in  
15 diminished school performance, low self-esteem, and not surprisingly, poor peer relations.

16  
17 Additional behavioral manifestations in adolescents with ADHD include restlessness, increased  
18 risk-taking behaviors, medication noncompliance or diversion, alcohol or drug abuse, increased  
19 motor vehicle accidents, loss of motivation and interest in school (including school drop-out),  
20 antisocial behavior, and suicidality. Vocational counseling or training is often needed.  
21 Additionally, safe driving evaluation assumes increased importance in adolescents with ADHD.

22  
23 A practice parameter for the assessment and treatment of children and adolescents with ADHD  
24 has recently been updated by the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry. See  
25 Appendix 2 for a list of recommendations.<sup>38</sup>

26  
27 Adults. ADHD may be unrecognized if the patient was not diagnosed in childhood, if he or she  
28 has developed sufficient compensatory skills (including avoidance of certain work environments),  
29 or significant comorbidity masks the ADHD.<sup>43</sup>

30  
31 Diagnosis in adults is hampered by the absence of developmentally appropriate criteria. An early  
32 attempt to provide clarity in this area was the so-called Utah criteria proposed by Wender.<sup>44</sup> The  
33 Utah criteria required: (1) a retrospective childhood diagnosis; (2) persistent symptoms of  
34 inattention and hyperactivity; and (3) the presence of at least 2 symptoms from a group of  
35 symptom clusters, some of which (eg, irritability and hot temper, mood lability) are now viewed  
36 as problematic. Currently, ADHD is usually diagnosed in adults who exhibit DSM-IV-TR  
37 symptoms, and who can provide, either via retrospective self-reports or family input, recollection  
38 of the onset of such symptoms in childhood, with onset of some before age 7 years. Evaluation of  
39 symptoms; a biopsychosocial assessment that considers work, family, and social stressors; and  
40 personal, as well as family psychiatric history, are informative. The shortcomings of many DSM-  
41 IV-TR symptoms (which were based on child behaviors) for adults with ADHD are readily  
42 apparent, and the basis for establishing 6 symptoms (Criterion A, see Appendix 1) as the  
43 appropriate threshold for adult diagnosis has never been validated.<sup>44</sup> The defining characteristic  
44 remains a history of ADHD symptoms.

45  
46 In contrast to pediatric populations, approximately equal numbers of men and women comprise  
47 the adults who seek treatment. Corroboration of self- and familial reports is accomplished with a  
48 clinical interview and the use of scales designed for ADHD diagnosis (and comorbidities) in  
49 adults. Studies of clinically referred adults show that about half have clinically important levels of  
50 hyperactivity and impulsivity, and most have persistent problems of inattention and deficits in  
51 executive function tasks.<sup>45,46</sup> Such individuals tend to have more problems functioning in the

1 workplace, impaired career development, lower socioeconomic status, relationship/marital  
2 failures, and reckless conduct (eg, driving), thus, there is an increasing need for psychosocial  
3 support.<sup>47,48</sup> Common comorbidities include higher rates of substance abuse and anxiety, mood,  
4 and antisocial/personality disorders.<sup>47,49</sup>

#### 6 Treatment Plan for Children and Adolescents With ADHD

8 It is generally agreed in the empirical literature that 3 treatments are effective on a *short-term*  
9 basis for ADHD: (1) psychosocial interventions, primarily behavior modification; (2) central  
10 nervous system (CNS) stimulants and certain other psychotropic medications; and (3)  
11 combination of these treatments.<sup>50</sup> Less information is available regarding their long-term  
12 effectiveness, although a few large trials have provided relevant insight. Pharmacologic  
13 treatments for ADHD are far more widely employed in the United States, are considerably less  
14 expensive, and exert more potent effects on core symptoms than do psychosocial interventions.

16 Although stimulants impart substantial beneficial effects on multiple key domains of functioning  
17 in children with ADHD, limitations remain<sup>32,50,51</sup>: (1) up to 30% of children do not show clear  
18 beneficial responses or cannot tolerate uninterrupted therapy due to side effects; (2) behavior is  
19 not completely normalized in most subjects; (3) many older children and adolescents fail to  
20 adhere to medication regimes or discontinue medication entirely; (4) evidence is lacking that  
21 academic achievement is improved; (5) students with ADHD still may have substantial problems  
22 fostering peer relationships; and (6) evidence is lacking that long-term prognosis is significantly  
23 improved. Thus, despite substantial evidence of efficacy in controlled studies, the evidence for  
24 long-term *effectiveness* in naturalistic settings is more limited, and other types of interventions are  
25 needed to foster more normal behavior. Recent actions taken by the FDA to require “black box”  
26 and other warnings for stimulants (see below) may further impact long-term use of  
27 pharmacotherapy.

29 Accordingly, most agree that physicians should establish a multimodal approach in treatment  
30 planning that recognizes ADHD as a chronic condition guided by measurable target  
31 outcomes.<sup>30,33,38,39</sup> ADHD differs from most other chronic conditions in that the educational  
32 system plays an indispensable role in implementing treatment and in monitoring its effectiveness.  
33 A multimodal approach involves education about ADHD; using medication to reduce the core  
34 symptoms of inattention, impulsivity, and hyperactivity; environmental modifications and/or  
35 psychosocial interventions to address other behavioral symptoms in the home and school;  
36 classroom placement and other educational strategies; and social support and social skills training  
37 to help establish the foundation for successful interpersonal relationships. Psychosocial  
38 interventions rely on parents and teachers as agents to deliver treatment directly to children. For  
39 adolescents, more attention is directed at transitioning to adult life.

41 Six primary areas of improvement may be targeted by treatment<sup>33</sup>: (1) improvement in  
42 relationships with parents, siblings, teachers, and peers; (2) decreased disruptive behaviors; (3)  
43 improved academic performance; (4) increased independence in self-care or homework; (5)  
44 improved self-esteem; and (6) enhanced safety in the community. A toolkit enabling multimodal  
45 treatment involving primary care physicians, school personnel, parents, and children is available  
46 from the American Academy of Pediatrics. Ongoing care in children and adolescents requires  
47 review and management of medical, psychosocial, educational, and psychological issues;  
48 provision of anticipatory guidance; and assistance with transitioning to adulthood.

## 1 Psychosocial Interventions

2  
3 A large evidence base exists for the short-term efficacy of certain psychosocial interventions,  
4 primarily parent training and classroom applications of contingency management techniques,  
5 which involve providing rewards for demonstrating the desired behavior or consequences for  
6 failure to meet behavioral goals. Such interventions may reduce some behavioral and emotional  
7 difficulties, with substantially less effect on core ADHD symptoms, compared with stimulant  
8 medication.<sup>30,33,49,50,51</sup> Psychosocial interventions can assist some students in improving social  
9 skills, as well as academic performance in specific settings. Cognitive behavioral treatment *per se*  
10 does not provide clinically important changes in the behavior and academic performance of  
11 children with ADHD.<sup>50</sup>

12  
13 Behavioral treatments (like medication) must be developmentally sensitive and implemented  
14 consistently over the long-term in each setting in which impairment is present.<sup>51</sup> Successful  
15 implementation requires sustained effort and energy, and improvements do not generalize to  
16 situations other than the ones in which training occurred.

17  
18 Parent Training. The efficacy of parent training has been evaluated in more than 30 published  
19 studies.<sup>50,51</sup> Parent training in child-management skills can modify the child's disruptive behavior,  
20 improve parent ratings of problem behavior, and ease negative parent and child interactions.  
21 Parents are taught step-by-step approaches to identify and manipulate the antecedents and  
22 consequences of child behavior and the environmental conditions that elicit and maintain them,  
23 and how to give clear instructions.

24  
25 Major components include: (1) contingency management to positively reinforce good behavior  
26 (ie, contingent positive attention or praise; use of a home token economy or point system for a  
27 child's home responsibilities and privileges); (2) ignoring some behaviors (planned ignoring); and  
28 (3) using punishment effectively (ie, time-outs, removal of privileges) in order to gradually shape  
29 behavior change.<sup>32,49</sup>

30  
31 School-based Techniques and Management. Many of the difficulties that characterize ADHD  
32 interfere with children's classroom behavior and their ability to learn, resulting in lower academic  
33 achievement and impaired functioning in the school setting. Meta-analysis of the research  
34 literature on school interventions suggests that behavioral and academic interventions in the  
35 classroom can produce significant short-term improvement in behavioral problems and academic  
36 performance in children with ADHD.<sup>53</sup> As in the home environment, tangible (token-type)  
37 reinforcers are more effective than attention or social reinforcers in reducing disruptive behavior  
38 and increasing performance. As noted above, improvements from school-based interventions do  
39 not generalize to settings outside the school.<sup>52</sup>

40  
41 Behaviorally based *classroom interventions* typically target task engagement and disruptive  
42 behavior, and, similar to home-based programs, teachers are instructed on the use of specific  
43 behavioral techniques, including effective commands and class rules, attention to positive  
44 behavior, and use of token economies, as well as planned ignoring, time-outs, and response cost  
45 programs. The use of a daily report card that provides feedback to parents on the children's  
46 school performance, and for which parents provide consequences at home, can enhance the value  
47 of interventions.

48  
49 *Academic interventions* may involve specific task and instructional modifications such as  
50 reducing task length, dividing tasks into subunits and setting goals for the child to achieve in  
51 shorter time intervals, minimizing distractibility, and modifying the delivery of instruction. Other

1 academic interventions such as peer tutoring, computer-assisted instruction, and academic skills  
2 training can help individual subjects.

### 3 4 Pharmacotherapy

5  
6 Drug therapy represents the most effective intervention for core ADHD symptoms. Caucasian  
7 male children have been substantially overrepresented in controlled clinical trials for ADHD.  
8 FDA-approved drugs used to treat ADHD include stimulants (methylphenidate, amphetamine  
9 derivatives) and atomoxetine. The stimulant modafinil, the antidepressants bupropion and  
10 nortriptyline, and guanfacine or clonidine are most commonly used off-label. Modafinil was  
11 reviewed at the March 2006 meeting of the FDA's Psychopharmacologic Drugs Advisory  
12 Committee and the Committee refused to consider approval citing the need for further clinical  
13 trials to establish efficacy versus an active comparator, and to address certain safety concerns.  
14 Currently, methylphenidate and amphetamine/dextroamphetamine combinations are most  
15 commonly prescribed, followed by atomoxetine. In 2005, children and adolescents aged 10 to 19  
16 years accounted for nearly half of the prescriptions for these drugs, with adults aged 20 years and  
17 over accounting for nearly one-third.<sup>54</sup>

18  
19 Stimulants. Methylphenidate and amphetamine derivatives produce CNS stimulation and reduce  
20 core symptoms of ADHD by blocking the neuronal dopamine transporter, and to a lesser extent,  
21 norepinephrine. These pharmacological effects also can produce reinforcing effects in some  
22 individuals. Several systematic reviews and meta-analyses have examined placebo-controlled  
23 trials of stimulant medication for core ADHD symptoms in children.<sup>33,55-59</sup> Over the last 30 years,  
24 clinical studies have employed a large number of different instruments to measure key outcomes,  
25 core symptoms, and/or quality of life, making comparisons across different trials difficult. In  
26 general, however, results of these trials support the short-term efficacy of stimulant medications  
27 in reducing ADHD core symptoms (attention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity) in approximately  
28 70% of subjects, as well as some observable social and classroom behaviors. Improvement in  
29 inattentive symptoms may occur at lower doses.<sup>60</sup> Subjects who do not respond adequately to one  
30 stimulant, may respond adequately to another product. However, many children who respond to  
31 medication do not demonstrate fully normal behavior and continue to show deficits in certain  
32 areas.<sup>33</sup>

33  
34 Over the last decade, systematic reviews and large clinical trials have examined the overall safety  
35 and effectiveness of pharmacologic and nondrug interventions for ADHD, and attempted to  
36 determine whether combined interventions are more effective than individual interventions.<sup>61-65</sup>  
37 These include reports commissioned by the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality  
38 (AHRQ), the Canadian Coordinating Office for Health Technology Assessment, and the National  
39 Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. These reviews concluded that:

- 40  
41
- 42 • Stimulants reduce core symptoms as long as they are taken, but academic performance  
43 has not been demonstrated to be improved.
  - 44 • Studies comparing stimulants showed few, if any, differences between methylphenidate  
45 and dextroamphetamine.
  - 46 • Studies comparing drug with nondrug interventions consistently showed that stimulants  
47 (mostly methylphenidate) are more effective than nonpharmacological intervention on  
48 relieving core symptoms.
  - 49 • Combination therapies generally yielded no obvious additional benefit on relieving core  
50 symptoms.
  - Evidence of long-term safety and efficacy is lacking for both types of interventions.



1 Most of the studies reviewed in these assessments were conducted from 1975 to 2000, and  
2 examined the use of immediate-release (short-acting) dosage forms of stimulants. The  
3 subsequent development of long-acting stimulant formulations and the development of  
4 atomoxetine for ADHD have provided new treatment options.

5  
6 *Methylphenidate.* The majority of clinical trials involving stimulant treatment of ADHD have  
7 involved methylphenidate, and it is the most commonly prescribed stimulant. Immediate-release  
8 methylphenidate (IR-MPH) twice daily is effective in ameliorating core symptoms during the  
9 school day; thrice-daily administration (one dose after school) extends efficacy into the home  
10 environment, if needed.

11  
12 A twice-daily dosing regimen of IR-MPH for ADHD requires in-school dosing, leading to issues  
13 surrounding dispensing and storage of controlled substances by school personnel, privacy and  
14 confidentiality concerns, and potential embarrassment or peer ridicule associated with taking  
15 medications in public at school. Therefore, alternate dosage forms designed to provide for once-  
16 daily dosing have been developed. Thus, in addition to immediate-release formulations of  
17 racemic methylphenidate (Ritalin®; Methylin®), intermediate-acting (Ritalin SR®; Metadate  
18 ER; Methylin ER®) and long-acting (Ritalin LA®; Concerta®; Metadate CD®) formulations are  
19 available, as well as immediate- and extended-release formulations of the purified *d*-isomer  
20 (Focalin®; Focalin-XR®). The pure *d*-isomer is twice as potent as racemic methylphenidate, but  
21 otherwise provides about the same benefits and risks.<sup>66</sup> Additionally, a transdermal formulation  
22 (Daytrana™) was approved in 2006. Generic versions of immediate- and intermediate-release  
23 racemic methylphenidate are available.

24  
25 Single morning doses of extended-release formulations provide benefits similar to IR-MPH  
26 administered 3 times daily (every 4 hours) for the treatment of core symptoms at a similar total  
27 dosage.<sup>67,68</sup> Symptoms in children with the combined subtype respond to increasing dosages,  
28 whereas children without hyperactivity (inattentive subtype) often respond at lower dosages.<sup>69</sup>  
29 Based on parent ratings, extended-release formulations (compared with usual care with IR-MPH)  
30 provide more profound remission of core symptoms.<sup>70</sup> In one randomized, controlled, multicenter  
31 trial, extended-release methylphenidate provided greater ADHD symptom improvement than  
32 atomoxetine.<sup>71</sup>

33  
34 *Amphetamine Salts.* These include short (Dexedrine®) and long-acting (Dexedrine Spansules®)  
35 formulations of *d*-amphetamine, racemic formulations of mixed amphetamine salts (Adderall®;  
36 Adderall XR®), and a recently-approved lysine-based prodrug formulation of *d*-amphetamine  
37 (Vyvanse™).

38  
39 Dextroamphetamine is as effective as methylphenidate in decreasing core symptoms in children  
40 with ADHD. Some children who are unresponsive to methylphenidate may respond to  
41 dextroamphetamine, and vice versa.<sup>59,61,64</sup> Adderall® is a mixture of neutral sulfate salts of *d*-  
42 amphetamine, amphetamine sulfate, *d*-amphetamine saccharate, and *d,l*-amphetamine aspartate.  
43 The combination of salts and isomers results in a 3:1 ratio of *d* to *l*-amphetamine. Comparative  
44 trials indicate Adderall® is at least as efficacious as standard IR-MPH dosing.<sup>72-75</sup> A single  
45 morning dose of Adderall® is comparable to the behavioral effects of standard twice-daily IR-  
46 MPH dosing.<sup>72-74,76</sup> In one small study, splitting the recommended 20-mg dose into a twice daily  
47 regimen improved afternoon control of attention and behavior.<sup>77</sup> Overall response rates (at  
48 weight-based dosing) were smaller in adolescents.<sup>78</sup> Adderall XR® is a formulation containing a  
49 50:50 mix of immediate- and controlled-release portions. A single morning dose of Adderall  
50 XR® provides significant improvement through the late afternoon in both naturalistic and

1 laboratory settings.<sup>79,80</sup> Significant improvements have been noted with long-term (2 years)  
2 treatment at ~20 mg/daily.

3  
4 Lisdexamphetamine (Vyvanse™) is a prodrug in which lysine is conjugated to *d*-amphetamine.  
5 During first-pass metabolism through the liver, the lysine is removed and *d*-amphetamine is  
6 generated. Theoretically, this product may have a reduced potential for parenteral abuse because  
7 of the need for metabolic activation.

8  
9 Atomoxetine. Atomoxetine (Strattera™) is a selective norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor  
10 approved for the treatment of ADHD. It is not a CNS stimulant or controlled substance, and has a  
11 different pattern of adverse effects. Atomoxetine once or twice daily improves core symptoms of  
12 ADHD in children, adolescents, and adults.<sup>81-87</sup> Randomized, controlled trials comparing  
13 atomoxetine with stimulants are not available. The most common adverse effects include  
14 sedation, appetite suppression, nausea, vomiting, and headaches. In children and adolescents after  
15 ≥2 years of treatment, weight and height were close to predicted values based on baseline  
16 measurements, with no decrement detected in those subjects in the lowest quartile.<sup>88</sup> Long-term  
17 use in adults is associated with increases in heart rate and blood pressure, and a slight decrease in  
18 weight.<sup>89</sup>

19  
20 Atomoxetine is characterized by 3 other differences.<sup>90</sup> It is primarily metabolized by CYP2D6, a  
21 cytochrome P450 isoform that is lacking in 5% to 10% of Caucasians; thus, elimination kinetics  
22 and risk of toxicity may be substantially higher in such individuals, or in those receiving a drug  
23 that inhibits CYP2D6. Additionally, the product labeling for this drug contains warnings about  
24 the potential for 2 specific adverse reactions—increased suicidal ideation and severe liver toxicity.

25  
26 Other Medications. Medications from virtually every psychotropic class have been investigated  
27 for efficacy in ADHD over the past 35 years.<sup>91</sup> The antidepressants bupropion, nortriptyline, and  
28 desipramine/imipramine, and to a lesser extent, the adrenergic  $\alpha_2$  receptor agonists, clonidine and  
29 guanfacine, reduce core symptoms in patients with ADHD, and have been used off-label in  
30 patients who do not respond adequately or cannot tolerate stimulants.<sup>38</sup> Approved for the  
31 treatment of narcolepsy, modafinil (Provigil®) also has been used off-label for ADHD.<sup>92-96</sup>  
32 However, in not considering modafinil for approval for use in children, the FDA's  
33 Psychopharmacologic Drugs Advisory Committee expressed concerns about its safety.<sup>97</sup>

34  
35 Bupropion is significantly more effective than placebo in reducing ADHD symptoms in children,  
36 but in comparison trials versus methylphenidate it was less effective in reducing core symptoms  
37 than methylphenidate, and caused more side effects.<sup>98,99</sup>

38  
39 Several tricyclic antidepressants, primarily imipramine, desipramine, and nortriptyline, have been  
40 studied in ADHD beginning in the 1970s.<sup>91</sup> Desipramine or nortriptyline are generally regarded  
41 as providing the best balance between efficacy and tolerability. However, desipramine was  
42 associated with reports of sudden death in 4 children in the 1990s, and thus is viewed as an  
43 alternative to other tricyclics, which are viewed as third-line agents.<sup>100</sup> The American Heart  
44 Association recommends specific pretreatment parameters for resting heart rate, PR interval, and  
45 ventricular repolarization, and monitoring for cardiac symptoms such as palpitations, syncope, or  
46 near syncope in pediatric patients with ADHD who may be candidates for receiving tricyclics.<sup>101</sup>  
47 Desipramine has demonstrated efficacy in both children and adolescents, and has been used as an  
48 alternative in patients with Tourette's syndrome or tic disorder, and in patients with comorbid  
49 anxiety or depression.<sup>91,102</sup> Clonidine also has been used in children with tics, but its efficacy for  
50 reducing ADHD symptoms is less substantial than other medications; sedation, dry mouth,  
51 depression, confusion, and cardiovascular side effects also limits its usefulness.<sup>103</sup>

## 1 Combination of Psychotherapy and Pharmacotherapy

2  
3 Because virtually all studies conducted on the efficacy of pharmacotherapy and behavior therapy  
4 up to the 1990s were short-term, the National Institutes of Mental Health and the Department of  
5 Education cosponsored a 14-month clinical trial (the MTA Study) involving children aged 7 to  
6 9.9 years with the combined subtype of ADHD (and a wide range of comorbid conditions)  
7 randomized to 4 treatment groups: (1) carefully crafted medication management, mostly using  
8 thrice-daily methylphenidate with a half-dose in the afternoon; (2) intensive behavioral  
9 treatment, including parent training, summertime child-focused treatment, and school-based  
10 interventions; (3) combined pharmaco- and behavioral therapy; or (4) standard community care.  
11 This trial examined the effects of treatment on a wide variety of dependent measures of daily life  
12 functioning, as well as ADHD symptoms.<sup>62</sup>

13  
14 In this trial, medication management and combination treatment were substantially superior to  
15 behavioral and community care interventions for ADHD core symptoms; more than 85% of  
16 subjects receiving medication management, either singly or in combination treatment, no longer  
17 met full criteria for ADHD at study endpoint. High-quality medication treatment characterized by  
18 careful yet adequate dosing with methylphenidate, monthly follow-up visits, and communication  
19 with schools conveyed substantial benefits to those children who received it. Other randomized  
20 and open-label follow-up studies have confirmed the benefit of long-term stimulant use in  
21 relieving core symptoms.<sup>104,105</sup> Somewhat surprisingly, combined treatment did not differ  
22 significantly from medication management for core ADHD symptoms, although lower doses of  
23 medication were able to be used in conjunction with behavior management. Combined treatment  
24 was superior to behavioral management on some and to community care on all non-ADHD  
25 domains of functioning (parent-reported oppositional/aggressive behaviors, internalizing  
26 symptoms, teacher-reported social skills, parent-child relations, and reading achievement scores),  
27 with slight advantages over medication management alone. Benefits of combined treatment were  
28 most evident in patients with comorbid anxiety or learning disorders, and in families of lower  
29 socioeconomic strata.

30  
31 Another 2-year study that examined the relative value of multimodal psychosocial treatment  
32 (parent training family therapy; academic skills training and assistance; social skills training, and  
33 individual psychotherapy) in methylphenidate-responsive children aged 7 to 9.9 years also found  
34 no significant additional benefits of multimodal psychosocial treatment added to medication.<sup>106</sup>

35  
36 Taken together, these two long-term trials failed to find obvious additional benefits from  
37 multimodal treatment over medication alone in reducing ADHD symptoms. Nevertheless, the  
38 behavioral treatment arm of the MTA study demonstrated significant improvements, and children  
39 afflicted with the inattentive subtype were excluded from the MTA trial. Additionally, combined  
40 treatment was more acceptable to parents, allowed lower doses of medication, and typically fared  
41 better than medication alone with regard to many areas of functional improvement. Although  
42 combined treatment was rated as more acceptable by the parents, families were likely attracted to  
43 the MTA study by the possibility of receiving free and intensive behavioral therapy, including a  
44 therapeutic summer day camp of 8 weeks' duration. Consequently, these findings cannot be  
45 generalized from the MTA sample to the population at large.

46  
47 Secondary analyses also supported the conclusion that combined treatment was somewhat more  
48 effective than medication management alone in normalizing behavior.<sup>107</sup> The question is how  
49 multimodal treatment can be effectively applied across populations in the community, and  
50 whether the incremental value derived from such treatment is justified on a broad scale, given the  
51 cost and labor intensive techniques that are required.

## 1 Safety of Pharmacotherapy

2  
3 Common Side Effects of Stimulants. The report commissioned by AHRQ evaluated 29 studies  
4 containing data on the adverse effects of drug therapy.<sup>61</sup> Most side effects were relatively mild  
5 and of short duration, including nervousness, headache, gastrointestinal distress, appetite  
6 suppression, weight loss, and sleep disturbances. These are all expected extensions of the  
7 pharmacology of CNS stimulants. However, in one study, severe appetite suppression and sleep  
8 disturbances were reported by more than 25% of subjects receiving the largest daily doses of  
9 extended-release methylphenidate.<sup>108</sup>

10  
11 Weight and Growth. The use of stimulants in children causes acute weight loss and/or  
12 attenuation of weight gain on continued administration. This has generally been viewed as not  
13 clinically significant, as weight gain eventually is accomplished. A more controversial aspect is  
14 the effect of stimulant medication on skeletal growth and height. A recent systematic review of  
15 22 studies involving children found disparate results.<sup>109</sup> Higher quality studies, particularly those  
16 using a longitudinal design and companion control group, estimated that a height deficit  
17 amounting to ~1 cm/yr manifested during the first few years of treatment. Another long-term  
18 study of stimulants found that the losses in expected weight and body mass index (BMI) were  
19 greatest for the heaviest children, and the losses in expected height were greatest for the tallest  
20 children.<sup>110</sup> For weight, height, and BMI, nearly all of the growth deficits occurred in the first  
21 year. The loss in expected growth was not significant in the second year of treatment, but the  
22 reductions in expected height and weight were not fully rectified over the course of treatment.  
23 Similar results were found in the MTA study.<sup>62</sup>

24  
25 Tics. A significant fraction of children with Tourette's syndrome have comorbid ADHD.  
26 Reports surfaced in the early 1980s that stimulants such as methylphenidate exacerbated tics in  
27 these subjects.<sup>111</sup> This conclusion has been questioned, and others concluded that stimulants are  
28 effective in treating ADHD in patients with tics, and that the benefits outweigh the risks.<sup>112,113</sup>  
29 One controlled trial and long-term open study found that methylphenidate is effective in treating  
30 ADHD symptoms in children with Tourette's syndrome or tics, and that tic frequency is not  
31 increased, and in fact, may be decreased in some patients. Another controlled trial concluded that  
32 a substantial minority of comorbid subjects had consistent worsening of tics on stimulants,  
33 although the majority experienced improvement in ADHD symptoms with "acceptable" effects  
34 on tics.<sup>114-116</sup> Clonidine (or desipramine) is an alternative in patients with ADHD whose tics are  
35 markedly worsened by stimulants.<sup>102</sup>

36  
37 Substance Abuse. CNS stimulants, such as methylphenidate and amphetamine derivatives, are  
38 controlled substances with reinforcing properties. Because children and adolescents with ADHD  
39 are at increased risk for various psychiatric disorders, including conduct disorder and substance  
40 abuse, a concern has existed about the potential for abuse and addiction with these drugs.  
41 Virtually all studies have found no evidence that stimulant treatment of children with ADHD  
42 leads to an increased risk of substance use, dependence, or abuse by adulthood. A 13-year  
43 longitudinal study of a clinically referred sample of children with ADHD confirmed this  
44 viewpoint.<sup>117</sup> Meta-analysis of studies that examined childhood exposure to stimulants with  
45 follow-up into adolescence or adulthood actually found a reduction in the risk for subsequent  
46 drug and alcohol use disorders.<sup>118</sup>

47  
48 Cardiovascular Effects. Case reports of sudden death in children receiving desipramine or  
49 stimulants +/- clonidine have been noted periodically over the last 25 years. Safety concerns  
50 about stimulants in ADHD are based on their effects to increase blood pressure and heart rate,  
51 and longstanding precautions against their use in patients with known cardiovascular risk factors

1 (coronary artery disease, structural cardiac abnormalities). Additionally, other sympathomimetic  
2 drugs (eg, phenylpropanolamine, ephedrine) are known to increase the risk of heart attack and  
3 stroke. Renewed safety concerns about stimulants have emerged in part because drug treatment  
4 of ADHD has increased in all age groups, treatment potentially may be life-long, and elevated  
5 blood pressure is strongly and directly correlated with vascular and overall mortality in adults.  
6 For example, statistically significant increases in heart rate and blood pressure occur in adults  
7 treated with methylphenidate on a short-term basis for ADHD.<sup>119</sup> Long-term treatment of  
8 otherwise healthy adults with amphetamine mixed salts found increases in blood pressure, heart  
9 rate, and QT<sub>c</sub>; 3% of subjects discontinued treatment due to hypertension or tachycardia.<sup>120</sup>  
10 Likewise, stimulants increase blood pressure and heart rate in children, but few long-term studies  
11 have been conducted. Clinical trials involving atomoxetine also detected modest increases in  
12 heart rate and blood pressure compared with placebo. Signals generated from the FDA’s Adverse  
13 Events Reporting System suggest the potential for rare fatal and nonfatal cardiovascular events  
14 associated with stimulant treatment of ADHD; however, the calculated reporting rates of sudden  
15 death do not exceed estimated background rates.

16  
17 In February 2006, the FDA’s Drug Safety and Risk Management Advisory Committee voted 8 to  
18 7 to recommend adding a black box warning to the labeling of stimulants used to treat ADHD to  
19 alert prescribers about cardiovascular risks associated with the use of these drugs.<sup>121</sup> This  
20 recommendation was surprising since the agenda for the meeting was not devoted to this  
21 question. This action was based on the known relationship between elevated blood pressure and  
22 cardiovascular risk in adults, and the fact that prescribing of stimulants for ADHD has increased  
23 significantly over the last 15 years, and is now being extended into the adult population.

24  
25 In March 2006, the FDA’s Pediatric Advisory Committee met to consider information on the  
26 potential psychiatric and cardiovascular adverse events associated with drugs to treat ADHD in  
27 children. This committee, in recognizing that the evidence for the efficacy of these medications in  
28 pediatric patients is quite strong, was not impressed with the level of cardiovascular risk to  
29 children and opposed requiring a black box warning to the labeling of stimulants. The committee  
30 instead recommended that the FDA use changes in other sections of the product labeling to  
31 accomplish the intended purpose. The FDA agreed and chose this course.

32  
33 Thus, additional language in the “Warnings” section of product labeling for stimulants used for  
34 ADHD now caution on: (1) use in patients with structural cardiac abnormalities or other serious  
35 heart problems; (2) the potential for increasing blood pressure and exacerbating pre-existing  
36 conditions such as hypertension, heart failure, recent myocardial infarction, or ventricular  
37 arrhythmia; (3) the need to conduct a careful history (including assessment for a family history of  
38 sudden death or ventricular arrhythmia); (4) a physical examination to assess for the presence of  
39 cardiac disease, and further cardiac evaluation if warranted; (5) the potential for causing or  
40 exacerbating psychotic, manic, or “aggressive” symptoms or seizures; (6) the potential for growth  
41 suppression in continuously medicated youth; and (7) the potential for visual disturbances.

42  
43 On February 21, 2007, the FDA also directed the manufacturers of all drug products approved for  
44 the treatment of ADHD to develop Patient Medication Guides to alert patients to possible  
45 cardiovascular risks, and risks of adverse psychiatric symptoms associated with these medicines,  
46 and to advise them of precautions that can be taken.

#### 47 48 Treatment of Adolescents—Additional Comments

49  
50 Although the findings from the treatment of children with ADHD are commonly applied to  
51 adolescents, numerous developmental and environmental changes characterizing the transition

1 from childhood to adolescence may impact treatment and outcomes. Adolescents must actively  
2 participate in treatment, and there is a greater need for vocational evaluation, counseling or  
3 training, and evaluation of safe driving practices. Problems in school tend to be the most  
4 common complaint by parents. Relatively less research has been conducted on psychosocial  
5 interventions for adolescents with ADHD.

6  
7 Nevertheless, the beneficial and adverse effects of stimulants and atomoxetine appear to be  
8 comparable in children and adolescents. However, adolescents frequently discontinue  
9 psychotropic medication for ADHD or have poor treatment adherence.<sup>30,38,122-124</sup> Additionally,  
10 some adolescents participate in the diversion of immediate-release stimulants.

11  
12 Although tricyclic antidepressants such as desipramine and nortriptyline reduce core symptoms of  
13 ADHD in adolescents, they are not as effective as stimulants, and are viewed as second-line  
14 agents because of toxicity concerns.<sup>125,126</sup> Bupropion and clonidine also have been studied in a  
15 limited fashion, the latter in adolescents with ADHD and prominent hyperactivity or  
16 aggressiveness.<sup>127-29</sup>

#### 17 18 Treatment of Adults—Additional Comments

19  
20 Atomoxetine is FDA-approved for treating adult ADHD. Although atomoxetine is significantly  
21 more effective than placebo in adults, effects on core symptoms are relatively modest and some  
22 adults do not tolerate the drug well.<sup>130</sup>

23  
24 Until recently, relatively little high-quality research had been conducted on the use of stimulants  
25 for the treatment of adult ADHD. Initial reviews found conflicting evidence for the efficacy of  
26 methylphenidate in adults, and response rates were substantially less than the 70% typically  
27 observed in pediatric clinical trials.<sup>61</sup> However, many early trials in adults lacked adequate  
28 dosing (compared with pediatric trials) and did not use validated rating scales for diagnosis and  
29 symptom improvement.<sup>131</sup> More recent clinical trials using larger doses in adults have found  
30 significant improvement on stimulants that are more comparable to the effect sizes and response  
31 rates observed in younger patients.<sup>132-136</sup>

32  
33 In two studies, bupropion was significantly more effective than placebo in adults with ADHD, but  
34 overall response rates are relatively modest compared with stimulants.<sup>137,138</sup> Similarly, there is  
35 some evidence that tricyclic antidepressants are effective.<sup>61</sup>

#### 36 37 Summary/Conclusion

38  
39 ADHD is now believed to represent a disease of neurogenetic origin, whose expression is  
40 modified by environmental influences. As such, it is a disorder encompassing the lifespan of  
41 many individuals who are at risk. Diagnosis of ADHD in children is based on meeting the  
42 criteria of the DSM-IV-TR. Because the criteria are subjective and may be interpreted differently  
43 by different observers, their use and applicability to general practice settings may vary somewhat.  
44 Clinical samples have not been diverse, with an overrepresentation of Caucasian males. Further  
45 information is needed to inform treatment of minority populations and those from lower  
46 socioeconomic strata. With the recognition that a substantial percentage of children diagnosed  
47 with ADHD have symptoms that persist into adulthood, developmentally valid criteria for adults  
48 also need to be refined.

49  
50 The treatment of ADHD requires expertise in many different treatment modalities, no single one  
51 of which can address all of the difficulties likely to be experienced by these individuals.

1 Stimulant medication offers the most effective treatment for reducing core ADHD symptoms.  
2 Psychosocial interventions may be effective in reducing defiance, as well as other related  
3 behavioral and emotional difficulties, with less substantial effects on core ADHD symptoms,  
4 compared with stimulant medication.

5  
6 Although the FDA has recently taken actions to strengthen warnings on the product labeling for  
7 medications approved to treat ADHD some disagreement continues about the risks of medications  
8 used to treat this disorder. With the additional requirement for Patient Medication Guides, it will  
9 be important to monitor the impact of such changes on access to treatment, as well as prescribing  
10 habits.

11  
12 RECOMMENDATION

13  
14 The Council on Science and Public Health recommends that the following statement be adopted  
15 and the remainder of the report be filed:

16  
17 That Policy H-60.950—Diagnosis and Treatment of Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder  
18 in School-Age Children, be amended by insertion and deletion to read as follows:

19  
20 The AMA: (1) encourages physicians to utilize standardized diagnostic criteria in making the  
21 diagnosis of ADHD, such as the American Psychiatric Association's DSM-IV, as part of a  
22 comprehensive evaluation of children and adolescents presenting with attentional or  
23 hyperactivity complaints; (2) urges that attention be directed toward establishing  
24 developmentally appropriate criteria for the diagnosis and treatment of ADHD in adults; ~~(23)~~  
25 encourages the creation and dissemination of practice guidelines for ADHD by appropriate  
26 specialty societies and their use by practicing physicians and assist in making physicians  
27 aware of their availability; ~~(34)~~ encourages efforts by medical schools, residency programs,  
28 medical societies, and continuing medical education programs to increase physician  
29 knowledge about ADHD and its treatment; ~~(45)~~ encourages the use of individualized  
30 therapeutic approaches for ~~children~~ patients diagnosed with ADHD, which may include  
31 pharmacotherapy, psycho-education, behavioral therapy, school-based and other  
32 environmental interventions, and psychotherapy as indicated by clinical circumstances and  
33 family preferences; ~~(56)~~ encourages physicians and medical groups to work with schools to  
34 improve teachers' abilities to recognize ADHD and appropriately recommend that parents  
35 seek medical evaluation of potentially affected children; and (7) encourages further research  
36 on the relative risks and benefits of medication used to treat ADHD, including evaluation of  
37 the impact of labeling changes on access to treatment and physician prescribing. (Modify  
38 HOD Policy)

Fiscal Note: Staff costs estimated at less than \$500 to implement.

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APPENDIX 1.

DSM-IV-TR Criteria for Diagnosis of ADHD in Children

Criterion A

***Inattention***

A1) Six (or more) of the following symptoms of **inattention** have persisted for at least 6 months to a degree that is maladaptive and inconsistent with developmental level

- a) Often fails to give close attention to details or makes careless mistakes in schoolwork, work, or other activities
- b) Often has difficulty sustaining attention in tasks or play activities
- c) Often does not seem to listen when spoken to directly
- d) Often does not follow through on instructions and fails to finish schoolwork, chores, or duties in the workplace (not due to oppositional behavior or failure to understand instructions)
- e) Often has difficulty organizing tasks and activities
- f) Often avoids, dislikes, or is reluctant to engage in tasks that require sustained mental effort (such as schoolwork or homework)
- g) Often loses things necessary for tasks or activities (eg, toys, school assignments, pencils, books, or tools)
- h) Is often easily distracted by extraneous stimuli
- i) Is often forgetful in daily activities

***Hyperactivity and Impulsivity***

A2) Six (or more) of the following symptoms of **hyperactivity-impulsivity** have persisted for at least 6 months to a degree that is maladaptive and inconsistent with developmental level:

***Hyperactivity***

- a) Often fidgets with hands or feet or squirms in seat
- b) Often leaves seat in classroom or in other situations in which remaining seated is expected
- c) Often runs about or climbs excessively in situations in which it is inappropriate (in adolescents or adults, may be limited to subjective feelings of restlessness)
- d) Often has difficulty playing or engaging in leisure activities quietly
- e) Is often “on the go” or often acts as if “driven by a motor”
- f) Often talks excessively

***Impulsivity***

- g) Often blurts out answers before questions have been completed
- h) Often has difficulty awaiting turn
- i) Often interrupts or intrudes on others (eg, butts into conversations or games)

Criterion B. Some hyperactive-impulsive or inattentive symptoms that caused impairment were present before 7 years of age.

Criterion C. Some impairment from the symptoms is present in 2 or more settings (eg, at school [or work] or at home).

Criterion D. There must be clear evidence of clinically significant impairment in social, academic, or occupational functioning.

Criterion E. The symptoms do not occur exclusively during the course of a pervasive developmental disorder, schizophrenia, or other psychotic disorder and are not better accounted for by another mental disorder (eg, mood disorder, anxiety disorder, dissociative disorder, or personality disorder).

**314.01 Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, Combined Type:** if both criteria A1 and A2 are met for the past 6 months

**314.00 Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, Predominantly Inattentive Type:** if criterion A1 is met but criterion A2 is not met for the past 6 months

**314.01 Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, Predominantly Hyperactive, Impulsive Type:** if criterion A2 is met but criterion A1 is not met for the past 6 months

**314.9 Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder Not Otherwise Specified**

APPENDIX 2.

**Recommendations from the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry<sup>38</sup>**

1. Screening for ADHD should be part of every patient's mental health assessment
2. Evaluation of the preschooler, child, or adolescent for ADHD should consist of clinical interviews with the parent and patient, obtaining information about the patient's school or day-care functioning, evaluation for comorbid psychiatric disorders, and review of the patient's medical, social, and family history
3. If the patient's medical history is unremarkable, laboratory or neurological testing is not indicated
4. Psychological and neuropsychological tests are not mandatory for the diagnosis for ADHD, but should be performed if the patient's history suggests low general cognitive ability or low achievement in language or mathematics relative to the patient's intellectual ability
5. The clinician must evaluate the patient with ADHD for the presence of comorbid psychiatric disorders
6. A well thought-out and comprehensive treatment plan should be developed for the patient with ADHD
7. The initial psychopharmacological treatment of ADHD should be a trial with an agent approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the treatment of ADHD
8. If none of the above agents results in satisfactory treatment of the patient with ADHD, the clinician should undertake a careful review of the diagnosis and then consider behavior therapy and/or the use of medications not approved by the FDA for the treatment of ADHD
9. During a psychopharmacological intervention for ADHD, the patient should be monitored for treatment-emergent side effects
10. If a patient with ADHD has a robust response to psychopharmacological treatment and subsequently shows normative functioning in academic, family, and social functioning, then psychopharmacological treatment of the ADHD alone is satisfactory
11. If a patient with ADHD has a less than optimal response to medication, has a comorbid disorder, or experiences stressors in family life, then psychosocial treatment in conjunction with medication treatment is often beneficial
12. Patients should be assessed periodically to determine if there is continued need for treatment or if symptoms have remitted. Treatment of ADHD should continue as long as symptoms remain present and cause impairment
13. Patients treated with medication for ADHD should have their height and weight monitored throughout treatment