

UCSF

UC San Francisco Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Title

Simultaneous measurement of phenobarbital, diphenylhydantoin, primidone, ethosuximide, and carbamazepine in serum by high pressure liquid chromatography

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/5s21z5jq>

Author

Stafford, Brian Edwin

Publication Date

1977

Peer reviewed|Thesis/dissertation

SIMULTANEOUS MEASUREMENT OF PHENOBARBITAL, DIPHENYLHYDANTOIN,
PRIMIDONE, ETHOSUXIMIDE, AND CARBAMAZEPINE IN SERUM BY HIGH
PRESSURE LIQUID CHROMATOGRAPHY

by
Brian Stafford
B.A. Chemistry Colorado College 1975

THESIS

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF CLINICAL LABORATORY SCIENCE

in

CLINICAL CHEMISTRY

in the

GRADUATE DIVISION

[San Francisco]

of the

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Date

Librarian

Degree Conferred: **JUN 26 1977**

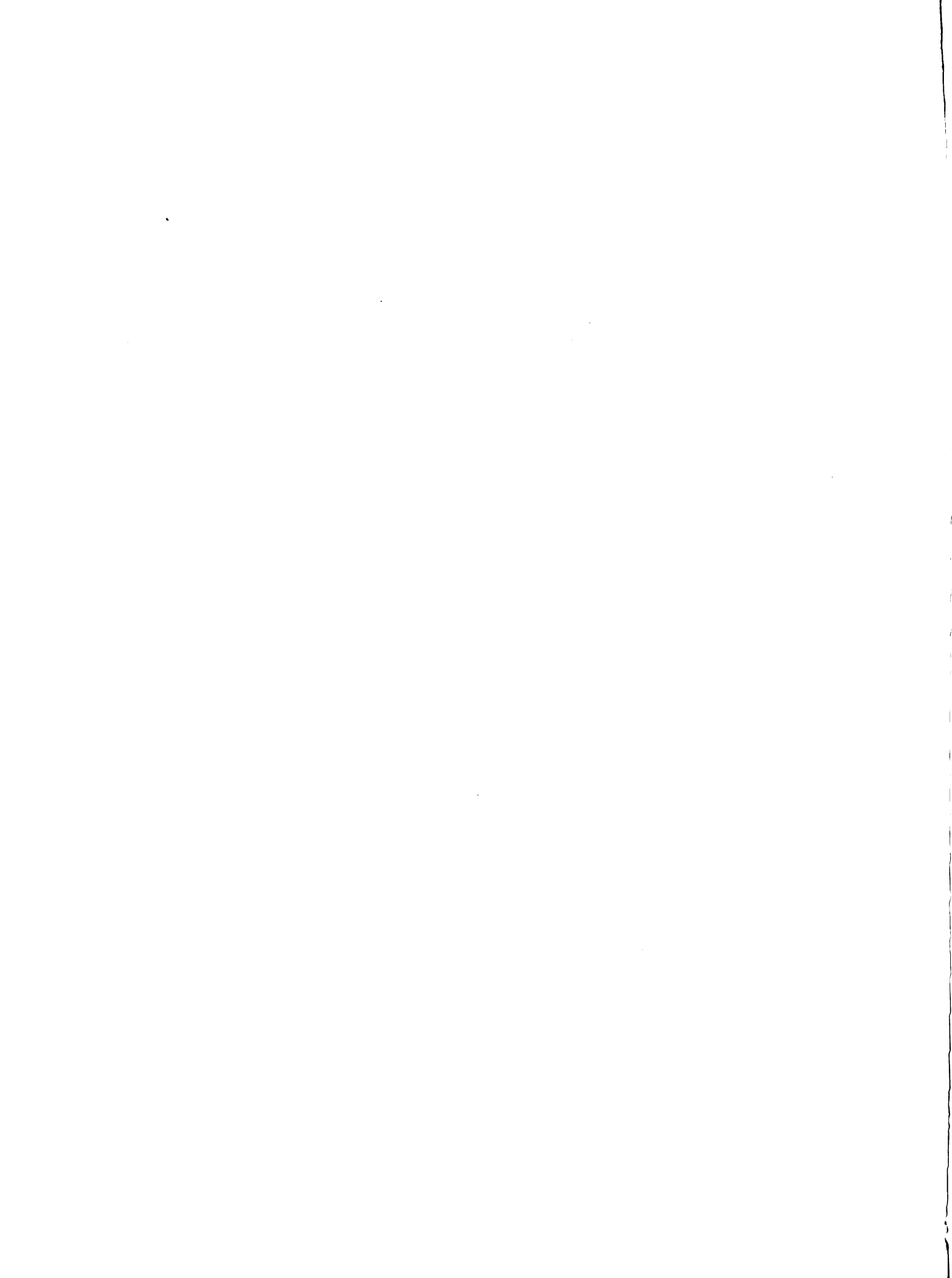


TABLE OF CONTENTS	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	1
INTRODUCTION	2
MATERIALS and METHODS	13
Apparatus	13
Reagents	13
Drug Standards	14
Internal Standard	14
Sensitivity and Wavelength Selection	15
Procedure	17
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	18
Linearity	18
Precision	21
Absolute Recovery	22
Correlation with GLC	24
Background	31
Interference	31
CONCLUSION	33
REFERENCES	34

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank Pokar M. Kabra, Ph.D., George Gotelli, M.S., and Laurence Marton, M.D. for their assistance and patience in the development of this procedure.

ABSTRACT

A method for simultaneously determining five anticonvulsant drugs (phenobarbital, diphenylhydantoin, primidone, ethosuximide and carbamazepine) in as little as 25 μ l of serum is presented. The procedure involves precipitation of proteins with an acetonitrile solution containing hexobarbital as an internal standard. The anticonvulsants are eluted from a reversed-phase column with a mobile phase consisting of an acetonitrile/phosphate buffer (19/81 by volume) at a flow rate of 3.0 ml/minute. The eluted drugs are detected by their absorption at 195 nm, and quantities estimated from their peak heights. Each analysis requires about 14 minutes, at an optimum column temperature of 50° C. The lower limit of detection for all of these drugs is less than 10 ng. Sensitivities, for serum samples, of 1.0 mg/liter are attained routinely. Recoveries for all of these drugs varied from 97% to 107% with good day-to-day precision with coefficients of variation between 3.9% and 5.9%. Over 30 drugs have been tested for possible interference. Out of these drugs only ethotoin interferes with the analysis of phenobarbital. The method is linear up to at least 100 mg/liter for all of these drugs. The method compared well with GLC with r values of 0.995, 0.980 and 0.990 for ethosuximide, primidone, phenobarbital and diphenylhydantoin respectively. Background values for twenty drug-free serum samples was less than 0.1 mg/liter for all of these drugs. The column utilized for the assay showed no appreciable deterioration in the resolution of these drugs after 2,000 analyses. The method is now used for clinical monitoring of anticonvulsant drug therapy in the Clinical Laboratories, University of California, San Francisco, California.

INTRODUCTION

The first use of phenobarbital as an anticonvulsant was reported by Hauptmann in 1912. He investigated the dose-response relationship of this drug in human subjects (1). In 1938 Merritt and Putman (2) reported the use of diphenylhydantoin in the treatment of convulsant disorders. The impetus generated by the discovery of diphenylhydantoin resulted in the laboratory screening of thousands of other compounds and the introduction of a host of new antiepileptic drugs. All of these drugs were either the result of a deliberate laboratory search for antiepileptic action or a spin-off from other therapeutic programs. The discovery of diphenylhydantoin, for example, resulted from a systematic laboratory search, whereas diazepam was originally employed clinically as a sedative and was subsequently shown to have antiepileptic action (2). Conversely, the therapeutic management of other diseases has benefited from research on drugs first used as antiepileptics, e.g., diphenylhydantoin in trigeminal neuralgia and cardiac arrhythmias, and carbamazepine in trigeminal neuralgia (3).

Primidone, a desoxybarbiturate, was synthesized by Bogue and Carrington in 1949 (4), however, its anticonvulsant activity was not reported until 1952 by Handley and Steward (5). Ethosuximide, although synthesized in 1951 in the Parke-Davis laboratories by Miller et al. (6-9), wasn't used as an anticonvulsant until Vossen (10) studied its efficacy in 1958. Carbamazepine was introduced in the early fifties when Domenjoz (11) examined the side effects of antihistaminic drugs derived from iminodibenzyl analogues. Carbamazepine, which possesses a urea moiety like many of the other anticonvulsants, demonstrated strong anticonvulsant activity.

Although the relationship between blood levels and clinical response is well studied for the anticonvulsants, there are several other parameters that the clinician should be familiar with. The expected blood level ranges in relation to the dose are given in Table 1.

Table 1.

Pharmacologic Properties of the Anticonvulsant Drugs

DRUG-	Diphenylhy-	Phenobarbital	Primidone	Ethosuximide	Carbamaze-
Therapeutic	dantoin				pine
Range					
(mg/liter)	10-20	10-40	2-10	10-40	2-10
Dosage to achieve therapeutic range (mg/d)	300	180	750	500	1,200
Days to achieve steady-state blood level	5-10	14-21	4-7	14-21	2-4
Serum half-life (hr.)	24 (\pm 12)	96 (\pm 12)	12 (\pm 6)	30 (\pm 6)	12 (\pm 3)
Toxic level (mg/liter)	>20	>40	>12	>100	>12

Whether an individual patient will achieve mid, high, or low values with a certain dose cannot be predicted with any degree of certainty, therefore, the actual blood level should be determined. With an increase in dosage, a linear elevation of blood level occurs with a slope characteristic to the individual. However, a saturation point may eventually be reached beyond which a further increase in dosage produces a disproportionately high elevation of blood level. This may occur with relatively low doses in some patients (12, 13).

The most frequent cause of low blood levels of antiepileptic drugs

in relation to the dose is the failure of patients to take their medication as prescribed (12). There are many genetic factors that influence the rate of absorption, biotransformation, and elimination of drugs by man. Drug effect may further be influenced by exposure to other chemicals, normal and pathologic variations in the central nervous system, and psychologic factors affecting the patient. Different formulations of the marketed product may affect absorption by the gastrointestinal tract and is thus an important consideration facing the clinician (14). Waddel and Butler (15) showed that acid-base balance can have an influence on phenobarbital distribution. Phenobarbital has a pKa of about 7.2 thus making it possible to alter its degree of ionization. This may result in altered partition between the brain and plasma. Drug-drug interaction is another consideration. For example, Plaa et al. (16) demonstrated that the combined use of primidone and phenobarbital could result in toxicity due to the increased conversion of primidone to phenobarbital. Warfarin, methylphenidate, isoniazid, disulfiran and sulfaphenazole have all been shown to inhibit diphenylhydantoin metabolism (17).

Although phenobarbital and diphenylhydantoin remain the two most frequently prescribed anticonvulsant drugs, patients frequently receive other anticonvulsants. Thus, comprehensive therapeutic monitoring of anticonvulsant therapy demands the availability of suitable methods for separating and measuring various combinations of these drugs. The method should be reliable, precise, and accurate. Additionally it would seem valuable for it to be adaptable to pediatric sample sizes (50-200 μ l) and at the same time be rapid and simple.

The first method attempted for the analysis of diphenylhydantoin

was a colorimetric method by Kozelka and Hine (18) in 1941. They chlorinated diphenylhydantoin quantitatively on the hydantoin ring by treatment with sodium hypochlorite, removed excess reagent, added potassium iodide and then titrated iodine with thiosulfate. Although the method was adequate for pharmaceutical preparations, it lacked the sensitivity for analyzing sub-milligram quantities in biological fluids. In fact, it soon became apparent that all chemical methods for the anticonvulsants lacked sufficient sensitivity. Additional methods were devised based on the separation of diphenylhydantoin from phenobarbital by ion-exchange chromatography followed by nonaqueous titration or spectrophotometry (19, 20). However, all of these methods lacked the necessary sensitivity for therapeutic monitoring. Then in 1956 a major analytical breakthrough was reported simultaneously by Plaa and Hine (21) and Dill *et al.* (22). Hine used a mixture of cyclohexane and n-butanol (20:1) to extract plasma at a pH of 8.5. The extract was then washed with 1M HCl to eliminate phenobarbital interference. The diphenylhydantoin was extracted into a carbonate buffer (pH 11) and analyzed spectrophotometrically. It was determined later, however, that the separation of phenobarbital from diphenylhydantoin was incomplete (23). Dill (22) extracted plasma with chloroform at a pH of 6.8. The extract was then subjected to counter-current distribution, as described by Craig (24), which separates phenobarbital from diphenylhydantoin. The diphenylhydantoin was then transformed to a highly colored dye. The modified Dill Procedure (25) was highly specific for diphenylhydantoin but very time consuming. This method was used for many pharmacokinetic studies (14). Several modifications and/or combinations of these two methods have since been developed (26-28).

Then in 1965 Oleson described a thin-layer chromatographic method for the determination of diphenylhydantoin (29). Various other procedures included scraping the spots off the plate, derivitizing diphenylhydantoin and analyzing it either spectrophotometrically or colorimetrically. Simon et al. (30) developed probably the most sensitive and accurate thin-layer chromatographic analysis of diphenylhydantoin in 1971. The concentrated extract was subjected to thin-layer chromatography on silica gel plates. The diphenylhydantoin spot was then scraped off and analyzed by the colorimetric procedure of Dill (22). Reported recoveries were excellent and correlation with gas liquid chromatography (GLC) was 0.97.

Several other methods for the quantitation of diphenylhydantoin have been reported including the benzophenone-extraction method by Wallace et al. in 1965 (31). Dill and Glazko (32) improved Wallace's procedure in 1972 by using fluorometry instead of U.V. spectrophotometry, thus increasing sensitivity.

With the advent of GLC, analysis of drugs became quicker and more precise. Derivitization was employed in the first GLC methods for diphenylhydantoin. Sandberg et al. (33) prepared methylated derivatives with diazomethane and Chang and Glazko (34) prepared trimethylsilyl derivatives. Diazomethane was an explosion hazard while trimethylsilyl derivitization required anhydrous conditions. Kupferberg (35) used trimethylphenylammonium hydroxide (TMPAH) to form methyl derivatives. This agent was found to be stable and safe and did not require anhydrous conditions. Several methods without derivitization have been described, however, the underivitized GLC methods tend to produce asymmetric peaks which are difficult to quantitate by peak heights.

A relatively new method for anticonvulsant analysis, using GLC equipped with a nitrogen-specific detector, has recently been described by Brugmann et al. (36), Goudie and Burnett (37), Toseland et al. (38) and Lehane et al. (39). The nitrogen-specific detector, which can detect nitrogen-containing compounds in very low concentrations, is a modification of the standard flame-ionization detector.

Gas-chromatography coupled with mass-spectrometry has been demonstrated to be the most sensitive method available to monitor levels in the picogram range (40-43). However, the cost of such instrumentation seems to be prohibitive and unnecessary for routine determination. However, the value of determining metabolites on a research basis is recognized.

In 1975 Montgomery and co-workers (44-45), with the assistance from Syva Research Institute, applied electron-spin resonance (ESR) for the determination of diphenylhydantoin. They demonstrated that displacement of spin-labeled drugs from drug-specific antibodies in human serum can be measured by this method. The drugs are labeled with a stable nitroxide-free radical which is bound to the drug-specific antibody ("immobilized"). The nitroxide tumbles in solution at rates that are slow relative to their hyperfine frequencies (~ 40 MHz). The ESR spectrum then appears as a broad envelope of lines resulting from the summing of different signals from molecules in all possible orientations relative to the magnetic field. This broadened, weak ESR signal represents the background value for the assay. Antibody-bound, immobilized drug in the serum is competitively displaced from the free unlabeled drug. The displaced labeled drug now tumbles rapidly in solution causing averaging of the magnetic field positions, and yields three sharp, distinct peaks

in the ESR spectrum. The amplitude of these is directly proportional to the number of spin-labeled drug molecules displaced from the antibody. After the background ESR signal has been subtracted the original concentration of free unlabeled drug in the biological fluid can be estimated (46).

Homogeneous enzyme immunoassay uses antibodies that attach themselves to a specific drug molecule that has been covalently linked to an enzyme (47). The enzyme in the complex is thus deactivated until the antibody releases it upon coming into contact with the free drug molecules, allowing the enzyme to react with its substrate. The inhibition of enzyme activity by antibody is probably caused either by the conformational changes induced by antibody binding to an active group of the enzyme or by prevention of conformational changes necessary for catalytic activity (48). Because there is no need for a separation step, this type of assay is called homogeneous enzyme immunoassay or enzyme multiplied immunoassay (EMIT).

Booker and Darry (49) reported good correlation between EMIT and GLC for these drugs. This assay technique is now commercially available as a kit from Syva Corporation, Palo Alto, California. The technique has distinct advantages over radioimmunoassay (RIA) because, as previously mentioned, there is no need for separation of the free from bound drug. Additionally, no radioactive tracer material is required. The method has been adapted to measure phenobarbital, primidone, ethosuximide and carbamazepine using, of course, specific antibodies in each case.

RIA procedures are not that common for the anticonvulsants. Tigelaar and Kupferberg (50) described an RIA method for diphenylhydantoin in 1973. They prepared antisera by immunizing animals with a diphenylhydantoin-

chicken gamma globulin conjugate. The assay depends on the capacity of unlabeled diphenylhydantoin to compete with a known amount of ^{14}C -diphenylhydantoin for the antibody-binding sites. Correlation with GLC was good ($r = 1.07$) and few drugs interfere substantially. The aforementioned advantage of the EMIT system would seem to discourage further development of RIA methods for the determination of the anticonvulsants.

High-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC), also referred to as high-performance liquid chromatography, offers particular advantages for the analysis of the anticonvulsant drugs in that compounds may be analyzed without derivitization. The uniform and balanced packing of particulate material in the column results in high resolution, constant flow and low back-pressure. On line UV detectors monitor the elution of drugs and measures them nondestructively so that they can be collected for further investigation. The inherent problem in GLC of achieving volatility of the drug in the gas phase without decomposition is eliminated.

The use of high-pressure liquid chromatography has been reported for the analysis of anticonvulsant drugs in a number of publications. However, most of these methods require extensive sample preparation before chromatography and some of these methods apply only to the analysis of one or more specific anticonvulsant drugs.

Evans (51) utilized a silica-gel column for separation and analysis of diphenylhydantoin and phenobarbital. The mobile phase used for the elution of these compounds was methylene chloride/methanol/28% ammonium hydroxide (92:7:1, v/v/v). The method correlated well with GLC and precision was good (CV = 6%). Although the method could be adapted to pediatric samples (capillary tubes), it required extensive sample clean-up to remove basic and neutral compounds and no internal standard was used.

Analytical recoveries for these drugs were about 80%.

Eichelbaum and Bertilsson (52) described a method in which carbamazepine and its epoxide metabolite were analyzed by normal phase HPLC. The sample preparation involved several steps. Correlation with mass fragmentation was excellent. The precision of the method was adequate (standard deviation 0.22, n = 21, concentration range 1.2-16.5 µg/ml).

Atwell (53) determined phenobarbital and diphenylhydantoin simultaneously using normal-phase HPLC. They used a simple one-step solvent extraction of the serum. The recovery of diphenylhydantoin and phenobarbital was close to 100%. The method correlated well with GLC, however, no precision or interference data were reported.

Kabra et al. (54) reported a method for the simultaneous determination of phenobarbital, diphenylhydantoin and primidone by normal phase HPLC. Whole blood was extracted at acidic pH with chloroform after addition of an internal standard. Recovery was excellent (95-110%) and both within-day and day-to-day precision were good (CV's averaging from 5.7% to 7.4%). The method correlated well with GLC and few drugs were found to interfere. They also reported a method for the determination of carbamazepine by reversed-phase HPLC utilizing their previously described extraction procedure (55).

Kitazawa and Komuro (56) described the use of an anion-exchange HPLC method for the simultaneous determination of diphenylhydantoin, phenobarbital, and carbamazepine in plasma. Naphthol was used as an internal standard. Although analytical recovery was good (88% to 107%), the extraction procedure was lengthy and difficult and the reported precision was poor (CV% = 15%).

Adams et al. (57) described the use of reversed-phase HPLC for the analysis of primidone, diphenylhydantoin, carbamazepine, ethosuximide,

methsuximide and some less common anticonvulsant drugs. Reproducibility was adequate (CV's between 4.2 and 6.6%) and sensitivity was good enough to quantitate 0.5 mg/l of these drugs. Correlation with GLC was good (r values from 0.92 - 0.96). Few drugs were found to interfere in the analysis of these drugs. The compounds were adsorbed from the serum to charcoal which was subsequently washed with a mixed solvent (dichloromethane, isopropanol, diethyl ether, (6/10/25, v/v/v). The charcoal adsorption technique may have been responsible for their poor recovery (41 - 73%).

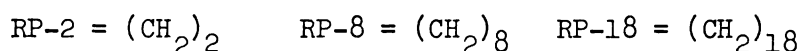
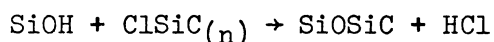
While our studies were in progress, Soldin and Hill (58) described the use of reversed-phase HPLC for the analysis of five anticonvulsant drugs from 25 μ l serum samples. He used a C_{18} μ Bondapak (Waters Associates) column and eluted the drugs with an equivolume mixture of potassium phosphate buffer (10 mmoles/liter, pH 8.0) and acetonitrile at a flow rate of 0.8 ml/minute. He detected the drugs by their absorbance at 200 nm and quantitated by measuring peak areas with an electronic integrator. An acetonitrile solution containing cyheptamide (as an internal standard) was utilized to precipitate proteins before chromatography. With the exception of primidone, precision and correlation with GLC were adequate for clinical monitoring of these drugs (CV's from 2.8 to 12.8%). Analytical recovery ranged from 80 to 94%. However, their chromatograms did not show baseline resolution for most of these drugs. It may not be possible to detect low therapeutic levels of these drugs at 200 nm. They did not report the lower limit of sensitivity for these drugs. No comprehensive interference study was undertaken. Recently they reported that they could not separate phenylethylmalonamide (PEMA, a major metabolite of primidone) from primidone (59). These two compounds coelute under their chromatographic conditions. Since PEMA is consistently present along with primidone in clinical samples, primidone values were falsely elevated by their method. Although PEMA is known

to have anticonvulsant activity (60), the pharmacokinetic properties of PEMA have not been studied. The ratio of these two compounds cannot be predicted in a given serum sample. Because of this limitation their method will not give true primidone values in clinical samples. In addition, the use of any buffer over a pH of 7.5 can result in serious deterioration of packing material.

In contrast, the HPLC method we describe can also be used for as little as 25 μ l of plasma or serum, requires minimal sample preparation and provides almost complete analytical recovery for all of these anticonvulsants. The method provides adequate sensitivity to analyze 1.0 mg/liter concentrations of these drugs. We use phosphate buffer (pH 4.4) to elute these drugs which prolongs column life. We have injected over 2,000 samples on the column without appreciable loss in the resolution of these drugs. Additionally, we can separate and quantitate PEMA and primidone simultaneously by our method. Of the 35 drugs tested so far, only ethotoin interfered with the analysis of phenobarbital.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Apparatus: We used a Model 601 (Perkin-Elmer Corp., Norwalk, Conn. 06856) high-pressure liquid chromatograph equipped with a variable wavelength detector (Perkin-Elmer LC55) and a temperature controlled oven. The recorder was a Honeywell Electronic Model 194 (Honeywell, Inc., Fort Washington, PA 19036). Samples were injected into a Rheodyne 7105 valve (Rheodyne, Berkeley, CA 94710) mounted on the chromatograph. We used a C₁₈ μBondapack (Waters Associates, Milford, MA 01757) reverse phase column. Reverse phase columns are generally preferred over normal phase columns in biomedical application because polar compounds elute first. This allows relatively non-polar compounds (i.e. drugs) to be separated from most of the biological matrix. Packing materials for reverse phase columns are prepared by reacting the appropriate organosilane with silica as shown (61):



where the number following RP (reverse phase) indicates the length of the carbon chain. The choice of the RP sorbent can influence the retention time and phase ratio for specific separations. Because of the SiOSiC bonding, these RP sorbents possess superior hydrolytic and thermal stability as compared to esterified supports with SiOC bonding. They are stable over a pH range of 1-7.5 without appreciable deterioration or change in selectivity. The C₁₈ μBondapack column has an average particle size of 10 microns. The smaller the particle size the more the theoretical plates in the column. However, the denser the column packing the more pressure required for elution.

Reagents: All reagents were reagent grade with the exception of the acetonitrile (ultraviolet grade), which was distilled in glass by Burdick and Jackson Laboratories, Inc., Muskegan, MI 49442.

Drug Standards: We obtained 5,5-diphenylhydantoin from Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, NY 14650. Phenobarbital was obtained from the hospital pharmacy. Primidone was supplied as a gift from Ayerst Laboratories Inc., New York, NY 10017. Ethosuximide was obtained from Parke, Davis & Co., Detroit, MI 48232. Carbamazepine was supplied by Ciba-Geigy Corp., Summit, NJ 07901. Hexobarbital was purchased from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO 63178. A chromatography mixture for standardization was prepared as follows: 25 mg each of primidone, ethosuximide, carbamazepine, diphenylhydantoin, phenobarbital and 50 mg of hexobarbital were dissolved in 100 ml of methanol. The solution is stable at 4° C for at least three months. Drug free serum spiked with known amounts of these drugs was used as a control.

Internal Standard: The internal standard was made up by dissolving 5 mg of hexobarbital in 100 ml of acetonitrile. Because of the wide fluctuation in the pH of the distilled water in our laboratory, we elected to buffer the mobile phase to maintain a constant pH.

The following chromatographic conditions were tried initially: 1) mobile phase- 67% acetic acid-water (100 µl of acetic acid in 500 ml of distilled water) pH-3.3; 33% acetonitrile. 2) Ambient temperature. 3) Flow-rate- 1.5 ml/minute. This system was selected based on a previous study by Kabra et al. (55). With this system we could not separate diphenylhydantoin and carbamazepine (retention times of 8.0 and 8.2 minutes respectively) nor could we separate primidone and ethosuximide (retention times of both were 3.0 minutes). The internal standard (5-(p-methylphenyl)-5-phenylhydantoin had a retention time of 11.7 minutes. Phenobarbital was well separated with a retention time of 5.0 minutes. When the acetonitrile concentration was reduced to 30% we began to see resolution between carbamazepine and diphenylhydantoin but primidone and

ethosuximide still coeluted. Subsequently, the acetonitrile concentration was reduced to 25%. At this concentration of acetonitrile primidone and ethosuximide began to resolve from each other, however, the retention times of diphenylhydantoin and carbamazepine increased substantially. Also the internal standard was retained on the column for a long period of time (retention time >16 minutes). Still we didn't see complete separation of diphenylhydantoin and carbamazepine. Reducing the acetonitrile concentration would not separate these two drugs but it could separate primidone and ethosuximide. We found that by increasing the oven temperature we could separate diphenylhydantoin and carbamazepine. We also discovered that hexobarbital (a rarely prescribed drug) could be used as an appropriate internal standard. It eluted between phenobarbital and diphenylhydantoin with good resolution. By reducing the acetonitrile concentration and increasing the temperature we arrive at the following optimum parameters for analysis: 1) mobile phase- 81% acetic acid buffer, 19% acetonitrile; 2) oven temperature- 50° C; 3) flow-rate- 3 ml/minute.

With these parameters we were able to separate the drugs under study with a total chromatographic time of less than 14 minutes. The oven temperature of 50° C eliminated day-to-day ambient temperature variations. At higher temperatures greater column efficiency was achieved resulting in better resolution and shorter retention times. Higher temperatures also substantially reduced the viscosity of the mobile phase resulting in a pressure of only 1,600 psi at a flow rate of 3.0 ml/minute.

Sensitivity and Wavelength Selection: In order to achieve adequate sensitivity we required a minimum detection limit of 10 nanograms for phenobarbital, ethosuximide, diphenylhydantoin, carbamazepine and primidone. This was based on the therapeutic ranges of these drugs (see Table 1) and

assuming that we could inject 10 μ l of pure serum (or 20 μ l of diluted specimen containing an internal standard).

It is well known that many chemical compounds having little or no ultraviolet absorption in the near U.V. region may have fairly strong absorption in the region below 200 nm (63). This phenomenon is commonly referred to as "end absorption" and is due to $n-\sigma^*$ and $\pi-\pi^*$ electronic energy transitions (63). Thus, compounds containing an isolated carbon-carbon double bond as a chromophore group are strongly detected in the region near 200 nm, but are transparent to radiation of higher wavelengths. In addition, the presence of auxochromes such as $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{S}$, or halogens in a molecule may lead to $n-\sigma^*$ transitions that permit detection in the region at or below 200 nm (62). Most aromatic compounds are detectable at 254 nm with a fixed wavelength detector. However, the sensitivity is greatly enhanced when the detector wavelength is set at 220 nm or lower.

It was found that all of these compounds exhibited stronger absorbance at the lower wavelengths. Even carbamazepine, which exhibited marked absorbance at 254 nm, was shown to have much higher absorbance at the lower wavelengths. Primidone, which has almost no absorbance at 254 nm in acidic media, exhibits great absorbance at 200 nm or lower.

During our investigation we found that acetic acid has a substantial absorbance at around 200 nm. This resulted in greater chromatographic noise. Therefore, we decided to substitute acetic acid with phosphoric acid (100 μ l in 500 ml of H_2O , pH-3.2) due to its U.V. cutoff at 190 nm. This substitution did not effect the separation of the drugs while at the same time we eliminated the baseline noise caused by acetic acid. We selected 195 nm as our U.V. wavelength to give us adequate sensitivity for these drugs. This wavelength is above the U.V. cutoff of our mobile

phase and gives us a sensitivity of less than 10 ng for each drug.

During the course of our interference study we discovered that salicylate coeluted with phenobarbital and caffeine interfered with ethosuximide analysis. Because these two drugs are commonly encountered in serum we elected to modify our mobile phase slightly to eliminate these interferences. Salicylate is a stronger acid and caffeine is a stronger base than any of these anticonvulsant drugs. Therefore, it was possible to adjust the retention times of these drugs at will without changing the retention times of the anticonvulsant drugs appreciably by changing the pH of the mobile phase. We changed the buffer pH to 4.4 where salicylates and caffeine did not interfere with the anticonvulsant drugs.

Procedure: To an aliquot of serum ($\pm 25 \mu\text{l}$) in a 12x75 mm glass test tube add an equal amount of acetonitrile containing 50 mg/liter of hexobarbital (as an internal standard). Vortex-mix the mixture for 10 seconds, then centrifuge for 2 minutes. Inject about 20 μl of the supernate into the chromatograph and elute with the mobile phase at a flow rate of 3.0 ml/minute.

Detector sensitivity was set at 0.04 Abs. full scale. The $\mu\text{Bondapak}$ column was washed with acetonitrile and dimethylsulfoxide weekly to remove proteins and lipids from the column.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We injected 750 ng of each drug and 1.5 μ g of hexobarbital (internal standard) to ascertain the adequacy of the chromatographic conditions. The peak height measurement was sufficient for quantitation because the peaks were symmetrical and sharp. This chromatogram (Figure 1A) was used to calculate relative retention times (RRT) and response factors (RF) as follows:

$$\text{RRT of the drug} = \frac{\text{Retention time of the drug from the point of injection}}{\text{Retention time of the I.S. from the point of injection}}$$

$$\text{RF} = \frac{\text{Peak height of Internal Standard}}{\text{Peak height of drug (2)}}$$

The unknown drugs were identified by their RRT's. The RF's were used to calculate the concentration of the drug in the unknown serum by:

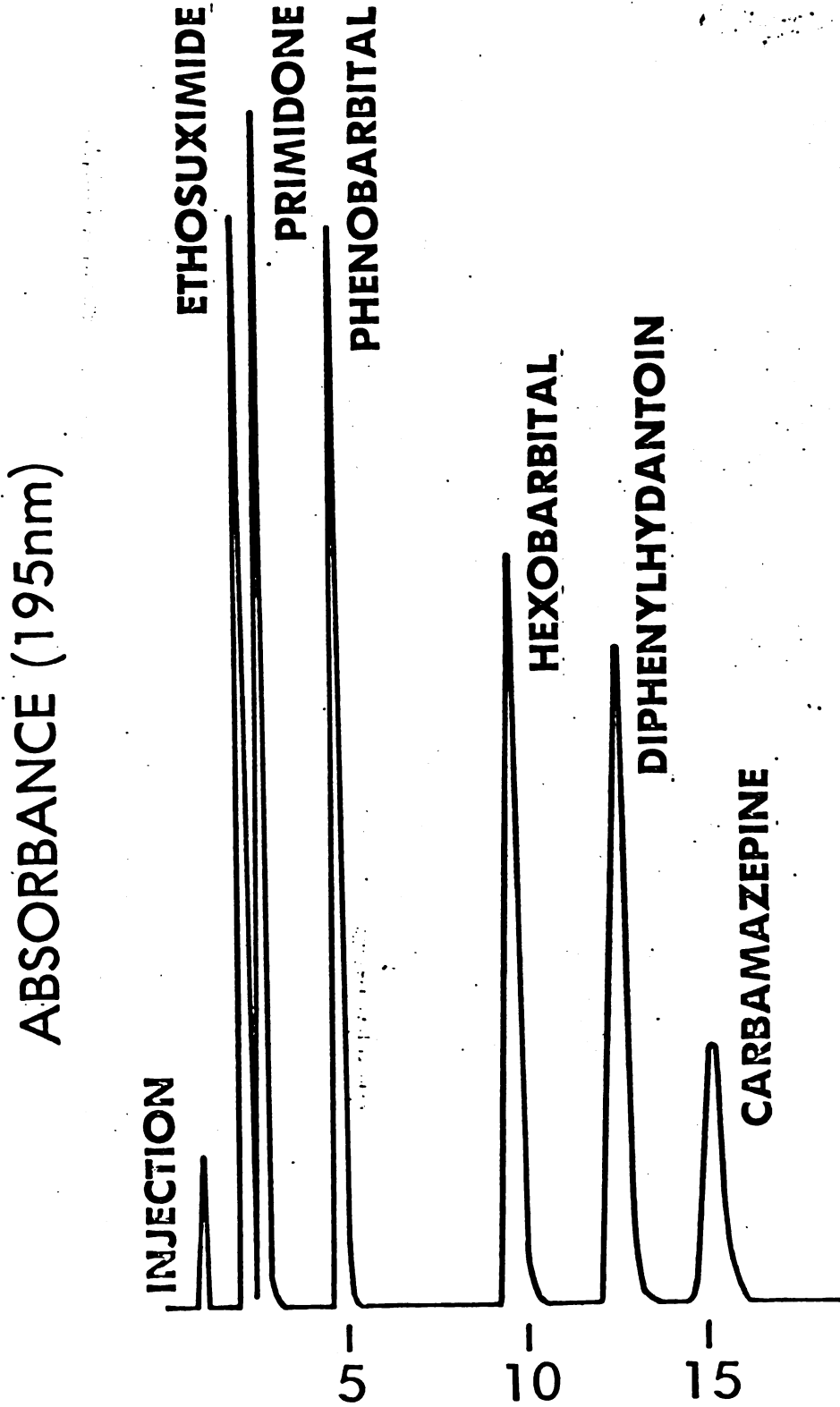
$$\text{mg/liter of anticonvulsant in unknown serum sample} = \frac{\text{Peak height of drug X RF X Conc. of I.S.}}{\text{Peak height of I.S.}}$$

A mixture of drug-free serum containing known quantities of ethosuximide, primidone, phenobarbital, diphenylhydantoin, and carbamazepine, each at a concentration of 20 mg/liter, was taken through the procedure. Figure 1B shows the resulting chromatogram.

Linearity: To assess the linearity of the chromatographic system, we injected various concentrations of the drugs containing a constant amount of internal standard. The peak height ratios of the anticonvulsant drugs and the internal standard were calculated. The peak height ratios and concentrations were linearly related from 2 to 100 mg/liter (Figure 2).

FIGURE 1A

A



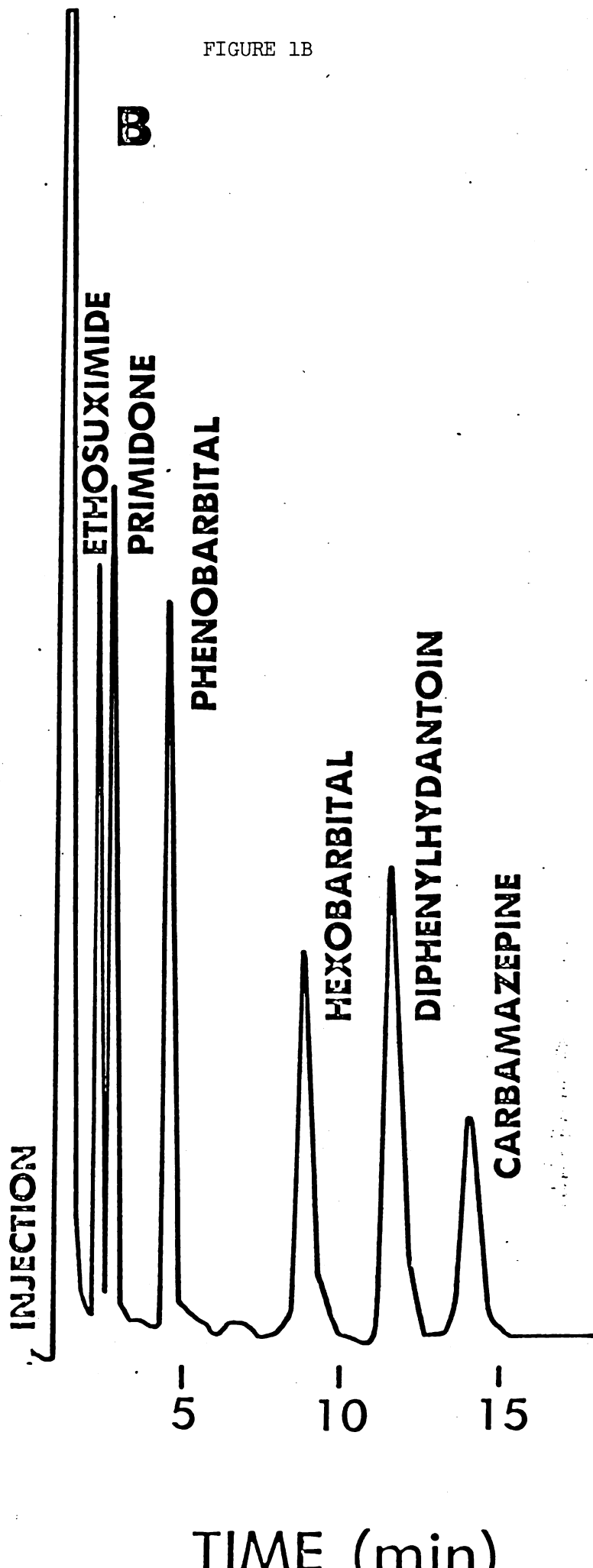
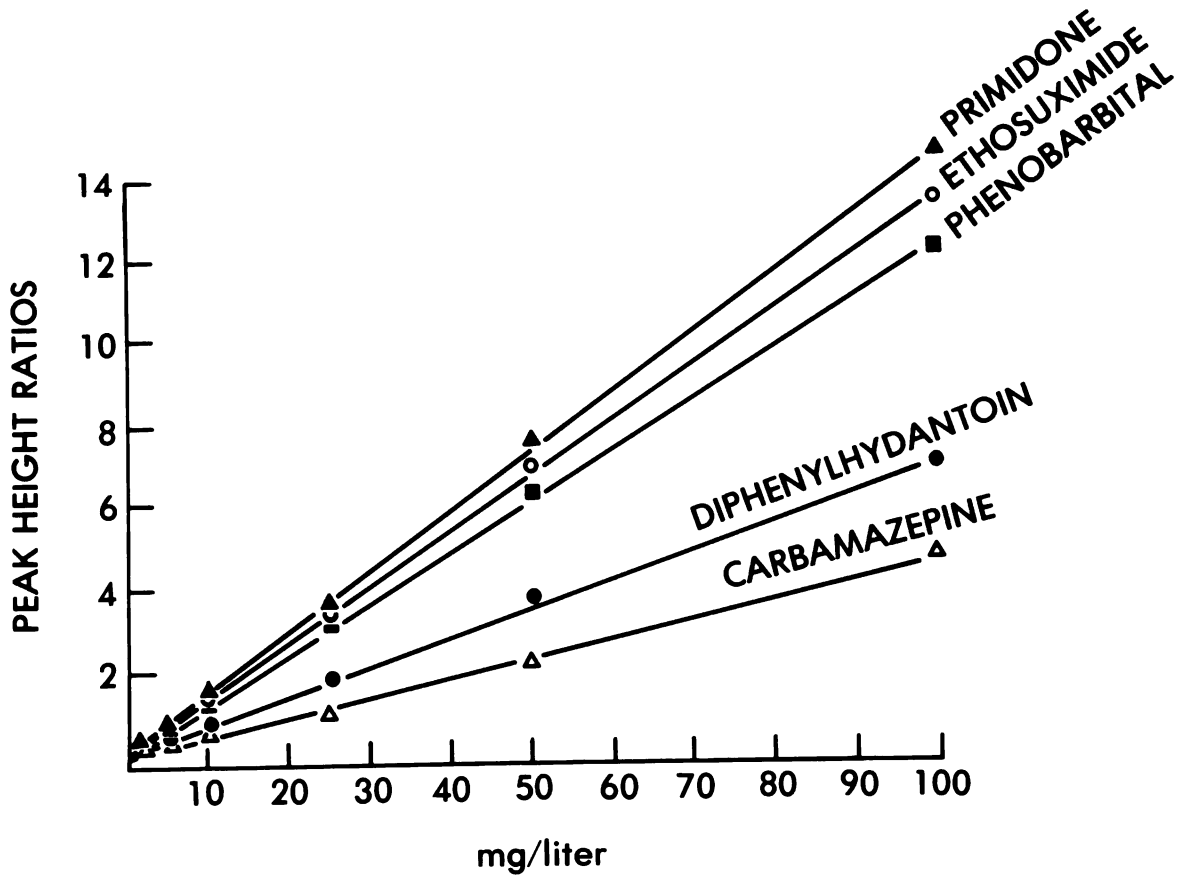


FIGURE 2

Linearity of Methanol Standards



Precision: We assessed the precision of the method by repeated analysis of serum specimens containing known amounts of the drugs being investigated. The standard deviation, S.D., was calculated by the following equation:

$$\text{S.D.} = \left[\frac{\sum x^2}{N} - \left(\frac{\sum x}{N} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Where } x = \text{values in mg/liter} \\ N = \# \text{ of specimens} \end{array}$$

Comparisons of different methods cannot be made by directly comparing their means and standard deviations, because the magnitude of the statistics and units in which the results are expressed may vary from one to another. Such comparisons can be made if the standard deviation is expressed as a percentage of the mean. The coefficient of variation provides a measure of relative variability and is calculated as:

$$CV\% = \frac{S.D.}{\bar{X}} \quad \text{Where } \bar{X} = \text{mean}$$

As shown in Table 2, within day precision varied between 4.2% and 5.5% and day-to-day precision varied between 3.9% and 5.9% for all of these drugs.

TABLE 2

Precision Assays for Anticonvulsants in Serum

<u>Within Day</u>			
<u>n</u>	<u>Drug</u>	<u>Range mg/liter (\pmSD)</u>	<u>CV%</u>
13	Ethosuximide	10.3 \pm 0.50	4.9
17	Primidone	11.4 \pm 0.63	5.5
17	Phenobarbital	10.5 \pm 0.47	4.5
14	Diphenylhydantoin	10.2 \pm 0.52	5.1
13	Carbamazepine	11.0 \pm 0.46	4.2
<u>Day-to-Day</u>			
10	Ethosuximide	19.1 \pm 0.75	3.9
13	Primidone	19.9 \pm 1.07	5.8
13	Phenobarbital	19.9 \pm 1.04	5.2
13	Diphenylhydantoin	20.1 \pm 1.18	5.9
10	Carbamazepine	20.1 \pm 0.93	4.6

Absolute Recovery: The absolute recovery of these drugs and internal standard was measured in the following way: The drugs and internal standard were added to drug-free serum to give concentrations ranging from sub-therapeutic to toxic levels as shown in Table 3. This serum was then analyzed by our method, except that the acetonitrile used to precipitate proteins did not contain any internal standard. Carefully measured

aliquots of the supernates were then injected and their peak heights measured. Absolute recovery was calculated by comparing these peak heights obtained by the direct injection of pure drug standards. As shown in Table 3, absolute recoveries of the drugs ranged from 95% to 106%.

TABLE 3

Absolute Recovery of Drugs Added to Serum

<u>Drug</u>	<u>Conc, mg/liter</u>	<u>Recovery, %</u>
Ethosuximide	50	99
	25	103
	10	106
	5	95
Primidone	25	100
	10	101
	5	104
Phenobarbital	50	97
	25	107
	10	101
	5	101
Diphenylhydantoin	50	105
	25	102
	10	106
	5	106
Carbamazepine	25	101
	10	95
	5	105
Hexobarbital	50	102

The relative recovery of these drugs were also calculated. In this study, serum pools containing different concentrations of these anticonvulsant drugs were prepared. To each sample a constant amount of internal standard was added and the sample was processed as above. The concentration of each drug was calculated by internal standardization. The relative recovery of these drugs are included in Table 4.

TABLE 4

Relative Recovery of Anticonvulsants from Serum (N=5)

Drug	Drug Added mg/liter	Drug Recovered mg/liter	Recovery %
Ethosuximide	100	99.5	100
	40	39.2	98
	20	20.1	100
	10	10.1	101
	5	99.0	99
	2	2.0	100
Primidone	40	39.8	99
	20	19.9	100
	10	9.8	98
	5	5.1	102
	2	1.9	93
Phenobarbital	100	92.0	92
	40	39.3	98
	20	19.2	96
	10	10.0	100
	5	5.1	101
	2	2.0	100
Diphenylhydantoin	60	61.8	103
	40	39.4	99
	20	19.4	97
	10	9.9	99
	5	5.0	100
	2	2.0	100

Correlation with GLC: The method was further evaluated by comparing our method with gas-liquid chromatography for ethosuximide, primidone, phenobarbital and diphenylhydantoin. The GLC procedure was developed in our laboratory by Gotelli and Stanfill (46). The gas chromatograph was a Varian Aerograph Model 1200 (Varian Aerograph, Walnut Creek, CA 94598) equipped with a flame ionization detector and a 6 foot, 2 mm I.D. glass coil packed with 1.5% OV-17 on chromosorb W H/P. The following GLC conditions were used: Hydrogen flow rate: 20 ml/minute; Air flow rate: 360 ml/minute; Nitrogen flow rate: 20 ml/minute; Injector and detector temperature: 290° C. We used temperature programming from 200 to 260° C

at 6°/minute to minimize peak tailing. Sensitivity setting was 10-11 A.F.S., 32X. The samples for GLC analysis were prepared as follows:

Plasma or Serum (2 ml) plus:
 † 2 ml of 25 mg/liter internal standard
 † plus 75 µl of glacial acetic acid

Vortex-Mix 10 seconds
 † 1) extract with 10 ml of CHCl₃
 † 2) centrifuge 5 minutes

Evaporate CHCl₃
 1) reconstitute with 50 µl of CH₃OH
 2) inject 2 µl onto GLC column

If ethosuximide was to be analyzed, the extract was injected isothermally at 130° C.

Additional aliquots of the same sera were analyzed by the proposed HPLC method. To investigate the degree of association between the two sets of data, scatter plots were constructed with values for GLC on the x-axis and HPLC values on the y-axis. The regression coefficient (r) was then calculated by the equation:

$$r = \frac{N(\Sigma xy) - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[N\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2] [N\Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2]}}$$

Where:

x is the independent variable (GLC)
 and y is the dependent variable (HPLC).

Next, a value for the slope (a) was calculated using the formula:

$$a = \frac{N\Sigma xy - \Sigma x\Sigma y}{N\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2}$$

the intercept (b) was calculated by the equation:

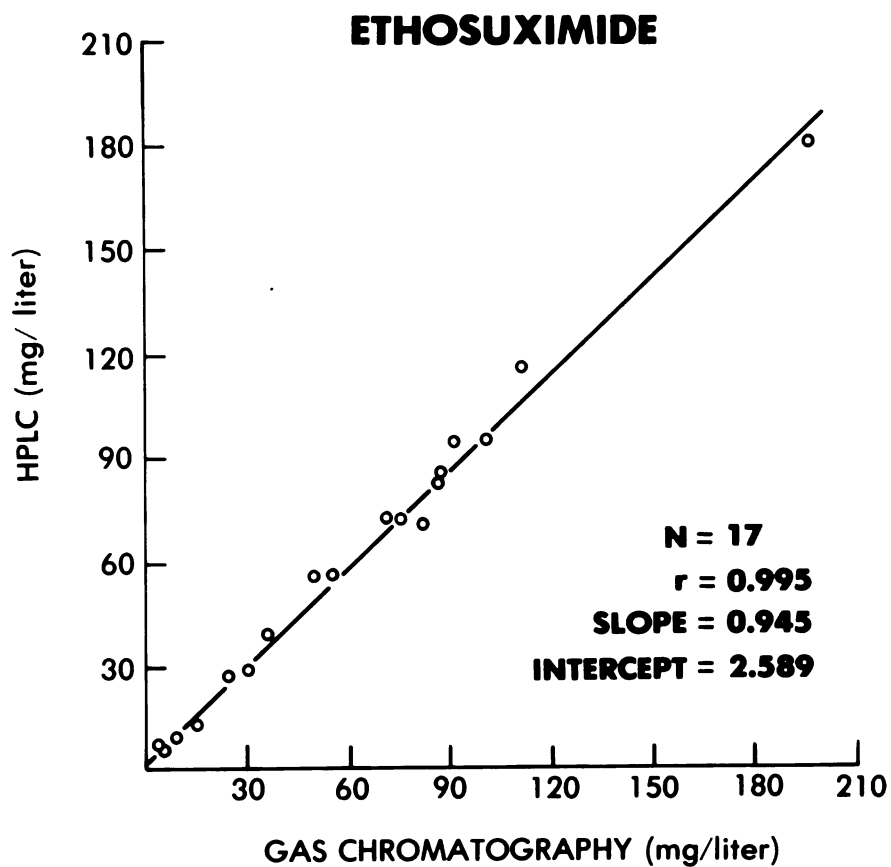
$$b = \frac{\Sigma y\Sigma x^2 - \Sigma x\Sigma xy}{N\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2}$$

Although linear regression and correlation are not true measures of accuracy when comparing two methods, it is necessary to evaluate the new

method with an already accepted method. We analyzed 17 samples containing ethosuximide by the two methods (HPLC and GLC), and calculated a correlation coefficient (r) of 0.995; slope, 0.945 and an intercept of 2.589 (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3

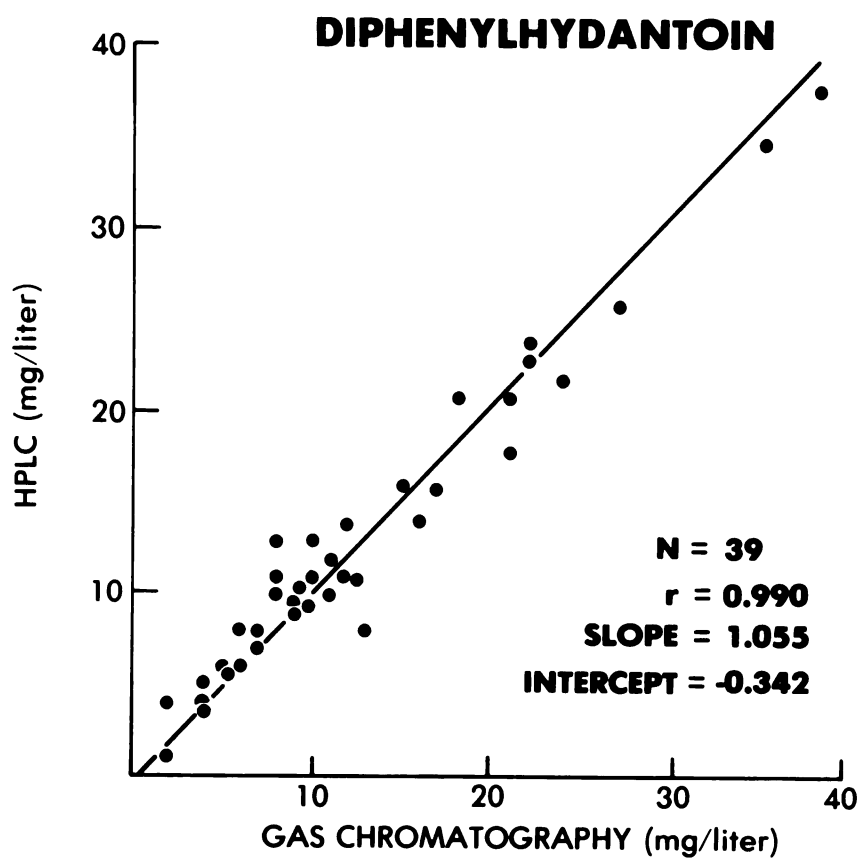
Ethosuximide Analysis, GLC vs. HPLC



Of 39 specimens containing diphenylhydantoin we calculated the r of 0.990, the slope of 1.055 and the intercept of 0.342 (Figure 4).

FIGURE 4

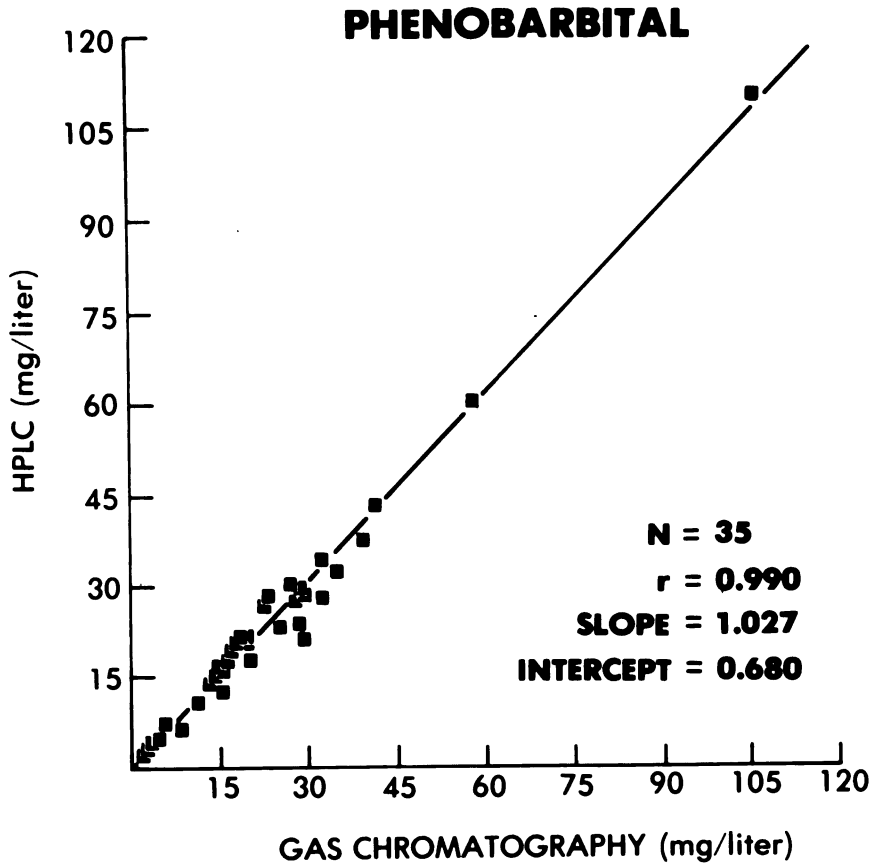
Diphenylhydantoin Analysis, GLC vs. HPLC



Phenobarbital (n=35) had an r value of 0.990, slope of 1.027 and an intercept of 0.680 (Figure 5).

FIGURE 5

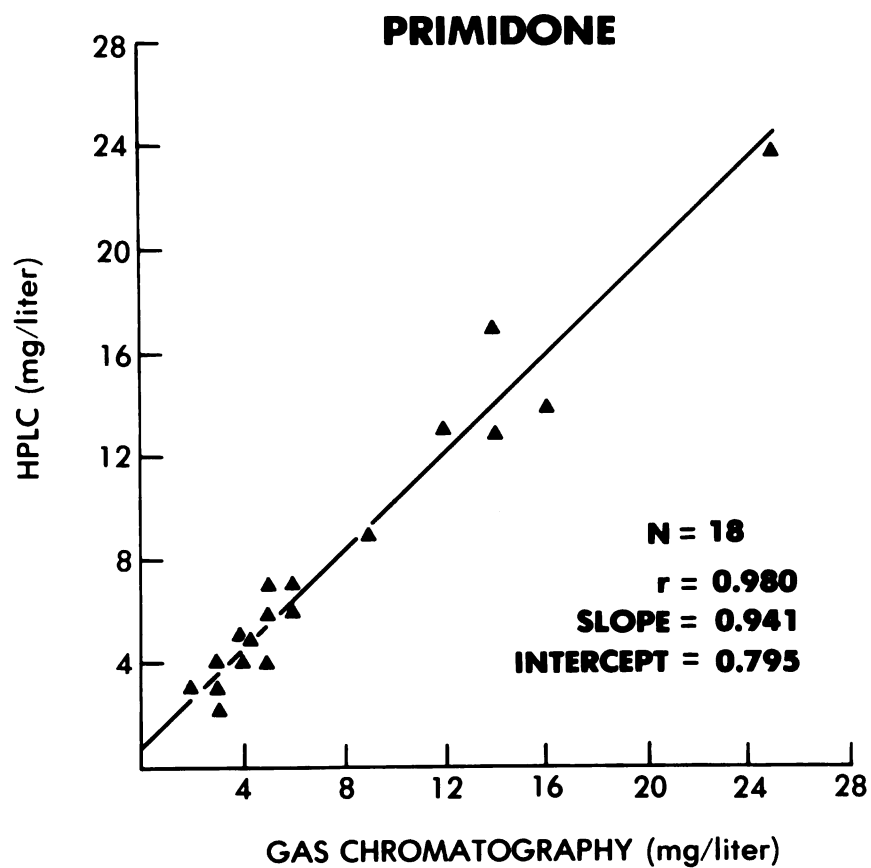
Phenobarbital Analysis, GLC vs. HPLC



Of 18 specimens containing primidone we calculated an $r = 0.980$, slope of 0.941, and an intercept of 0.795 (Figure 6).

FIGURE 6

Primidone Analysis, GLC vs. HPLC

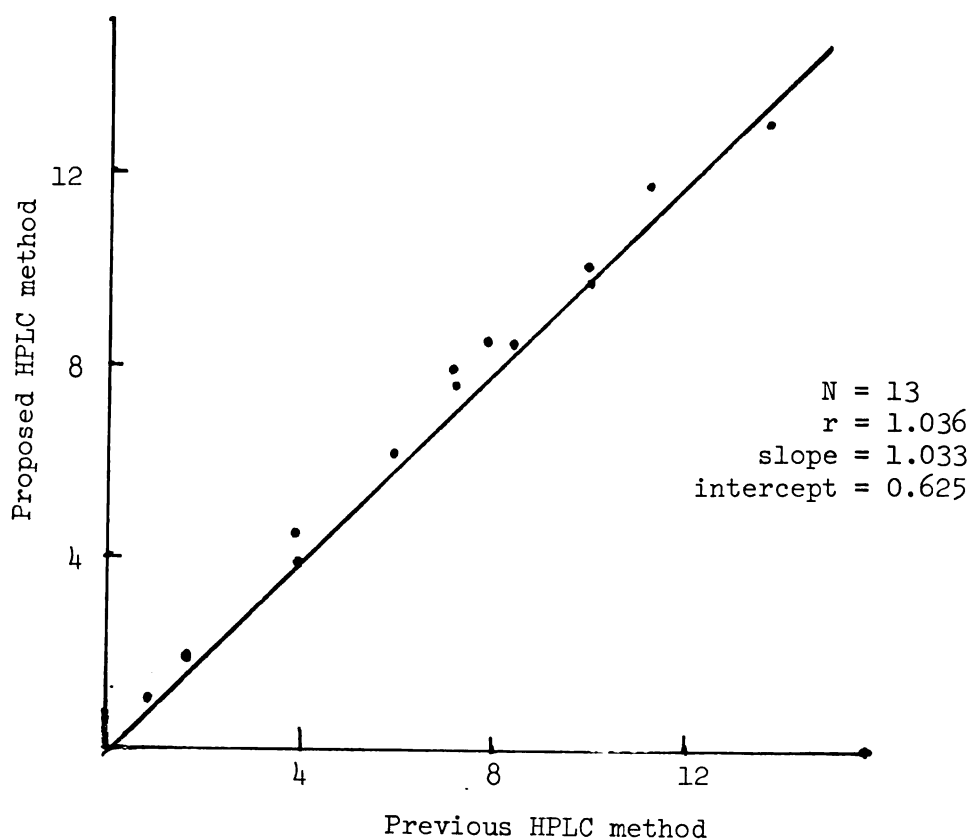


Our method shows better correlation for primidone in contrast to poor correlation reported by Soldin et al.(63). Strangely, Soldin shows low HPLC primidone concentrations compared to GLC even though he is measuring both primidone and PEMA in his primidone analysis.

Carbamazepine results were compared with a previously reported HPLC method (59). In 13 analyses we calculated a correlation coefficient of 1.036, slope of 1.033 and an intercept of 0.625 (Figure 7).

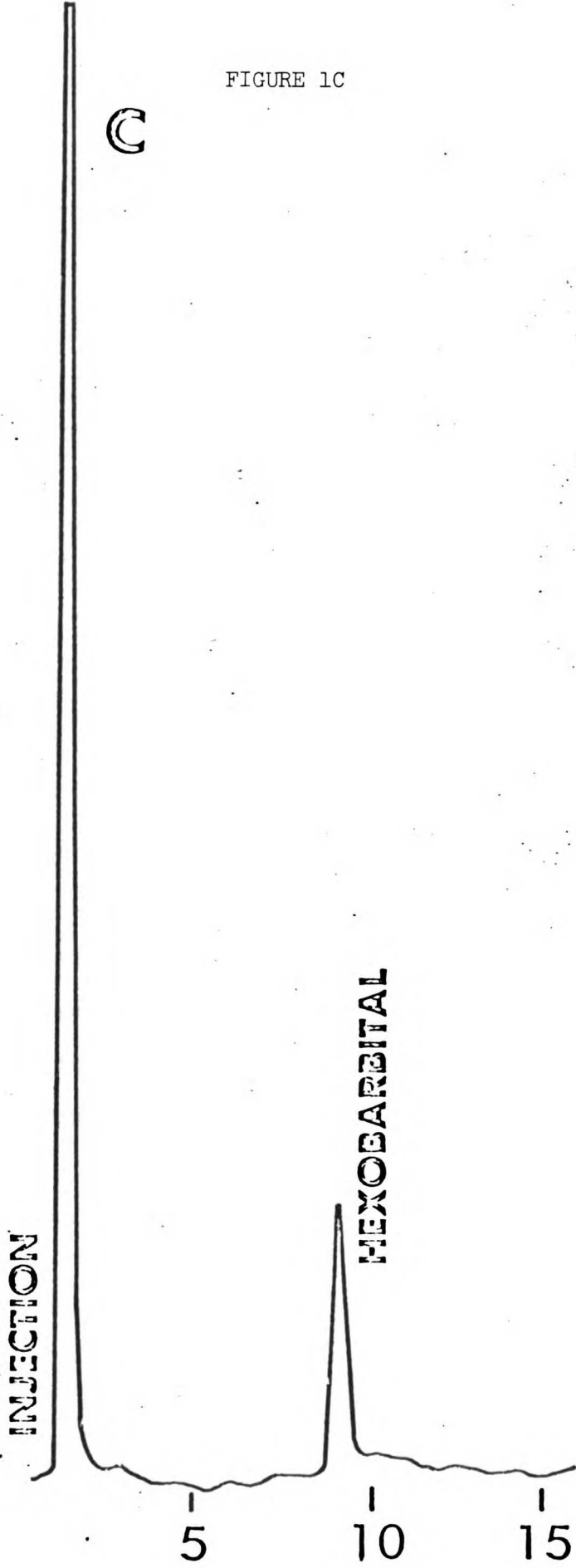
FIGURE 7

Carbamazepine Analysis, HPLC vs. Previous HPLC



Background: We processed twenty drug-free serum and plasma samples to determine the background interference. The serum or plasma samples were processed as above. We did not see any normal plasma or serum constituents eluting in the vicinity of the anticonvulsant drugs or internal standard. The backgrounds calculated from these samples ranged from 0 to 0.1 mg/liter (Figure 1C).

Interference: To determine the potential usefulness of the proposed HPLC methods, we undertook a systematic study to investigate the possible interference by other drugs. We injected pure drug standards of other less commonly used anticonvulsants in toxic concentrations to determine their potential interference in our method. Of the various other anticonvulsant drugs and barbiturates tested for interference, only ethotoin coeluted with phenobarbital. If ethotoin is present in the sample to be analyzed, a falsely high phenobarbital result will be calculated. Ethotoin is a rarely used anticonvulsant. Most of the benzodiazepines did not elute under our chromatographic conditions. Commonly used analgesics like salicylates, acetaminophen, phenacetin, etc. did not interfere with any of the anticonvulsants. Caffeine, theophylline and other neutral and basic drugs listed in Table 5 did not interfere with the analysis. We have performed analysis on over 2,000 clinical samples without any noticeable interference by endogenous or exogenous substances. In addition, the method can be used for grossly hemolyzed samples without appreciable interference.



CONCLUSION

Routine monitoring of anticonvulsant therapy requires specificity, speed and accuracy. Our method meets these requirements. None of the commonly used drugs tested interfered with the method. The method requires approximately ten minutes for sample preparation and approximately thirty minutes until the completion of the assay. Because the method can assay any combination of these drugs, serum from patients on multiple drug therapy must be analyzed only once. All of these time-saving factors reduce technologist costs.

The method can be adapted for pediatric samples (samples as little as 25 μ l). Both day-to-day and within-day precision show that the method is suitable to be used routinely in a clinical laboratory.

The method has the potential for use in monitoring other anticonvulsant drugs in serum. Drugs such as mesantoin, phensuximide, methsuximide, and mephobarbital all separate from the five drugs studied in this paper. The same chromatographic conditions have been used to separate and quantitate acetaminophen and phenacetin in our laboratory (65). Many of the common barbiturates also separate which suggests that these conditions could be used for their analysis.

REFERENCES

1. Hauptmann, A., Luminal bei Epilepsie, Muenchener Medizinische Wochenschrift, July-Sept 1912 vol 59:3 pl907
2. Merritt, H., and Putman, T., Sodium Diphenyl Hydantoinate in the Treatment of Convulsive Disorders, J.A.M.A., Sept 17, 1938, vol 111:2 pl068
3. Zimmerman, F.T., and Burgemeister, B., A New Drug for Petit mal Epilepsie, Neurology (Minneap.), 1958 vol 8 pp769-775
4. Bogue, J.Y., and Carrington, H.C., The Evaluation of Mysoline - A New Anticonvulsant Drug, British Journal of Pharmacology, 1953 vol 8 pp 230-235
5. Handley, R., and Steward, A., Mysoline, A New Drug in the Treatment of Epilepsie, Lancet, 1952 vol 262 pp742-744
6. Miller, C.A., and Long, L.M., Anticonvulsants I, An Investigation of N-R- α -R, α Phensuccimides, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 1951 vol 73 pp4895-4898
7. Miller, C.A., and Scholl, H.I., and Long, L.M., Anticonvulsants II, A Study of N-R- α , β -Substituted Succimides, Journal of the American Chemical Society 1951, vol 73 pp5608-5610
8. Miller, C.A., and Long, L.M., Anticonvulsants III, A Study of N, α , β -alkylsuccimides, Journal of the American Chemical Society 1953, vol 75 pp373-375
9. Miller, C.A., and Long, L.M., Anticonvulsants IV, An Investigation of α substituted phenyl succimides, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 1953, vol 75 pp6256-6258
10. Vassen, R., On the Anticonvulsant Effect of Succimides, Dtsch. Med. Wochenschrift, 1958 vol 83 ppl227-1230
11. Domenjoz, R.I., Nebenwirkungen der Antihistamine, International Congress for Allergy - 1st, Zurich 1951, Comptes Rendus Proceedings Kongressbericht, Basal: Karger, 1952, pp494-510
12. Livingston, S., Berman, W., and Pauli, L.L., Anticonvulsant Drug Blood Levels, J.A.M.A., April 7, 1975, vol 232:1
13. Kutt, H., and Penry, J.K., Usefulness of Blood Levels of Anticonvulsant Drugs, Arch. Neurol., Nov-1974 vol 31
14. Mannering, G.J., In Antiepileptic Drugs, Edited by D.W. Woodbury, J.K. Penry, and R.P. Schmidt, Raven Press Publishers, New York, 1972
15. Waddel, W.J., and Butler, T.C., The Distribution and Excretion of Phenobarbital, Journal of Clinical Investigation, 1957, vol 36 ppl217-1226

16. Plaa, G.L., Fujimoto, J.M., and Hine, L.A., Intoxication from Primidone due to its Biotransformation to Phenobarbital, *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1958, vol 68 pp1769-1770
17. Azainoff, D.L., and Huswitz, A., Drug Interactions, *Pharmacology and Physicians*, 1970 vol 4 pp1-7
18. Kozelka, F.L., and Hine, C.H., A Method for Determination of 5,5-diphenylhydantoin in Biological Material, *J. Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 1941, vol 72 pp276-279
19. Agarwal, S.P., and Blake, J., Analysis of Sodium Diphenylhydantoin and Phenobarbital Combinations by Nonaqueous Titration, *J. Assoc. Agric. Chem.*, 1968, vol 51 pp1013-1016
20. Connors, K.A., Pharmaceutical Analysis, Higuchi, T., and Brochmann-Hanssen, E. (Eds.) New York: Interscience Publishers, 1961, pp207-208
21. Plaa, G.L., and Hine, C.H., A Method for the Simultaneous Determination of Phenobarbital and Diphenylhydantoin in Blood, *J. Lab. Clin. Med.*, 1956, vol 47 pp649-657
22. Dill, W.A., Kazenko, A., Wolf, L.M., and Glazko, A.J., Studies on 5,5,-diphenylhydantoin (Dilantin) in Animals and Man, *J. Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 1956, vol 118 pp270-279
23. Svensmark, O., Schiller, P.J., and Buchthal, F., 5,5,diphenylhydantoin (Dilantin) Blood Levels after Oral or Intravenous Dosage in Man, *Acta Pharmacol. Toxicol. (Kbh.)*, 1960, vol 16 pp331-346
24. Craig, L.C., Identification of Small Amounts of Organic Compounds by Distribution Studies II., Separation by Counter-current Distribution, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1944, vol 155 pp519-534
25. Dill, W.A., Baukema, J., Chang, T., and Glazko, A.J., Colorimetric Assay of 5,5,-diphenylhydantoin (Dilantin) and 5-(p-hydroxyphenyl)-5-phenylhydantoin, *Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med.*, 1971 vol 137 pp674-679
26. Schiller, P.J., and Buchthal, F., Diphenylhydantoin and Phenobarbital in Patients with Epilepsy, *Danish Medical Bulletin*, 1958, vol 5 pp161-163
27. Svensmark, O., and Kristensen, P., Determination of Diphenylhydantoin and Phenobarbital in Small Amounts of Serum, *J. Lab. Clin. Med.*, 1963, vol 61 pp501-507
28. Olesen, O.V., Determination of Phenobarbital and Phenytoin in Serum by U.V. Spectrophotometry, *Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest.*, 1967, vol 20 pp63-69
29. Olesen, O.V., Determination by Thin-Layer Chromatography of Phenytoin in Serum in the Presence of Barbiturates and Other Antiepileptic and Various Drugs, *Acta Pharmacol. Toxicol. (Kbh)*, 1965, vol 23 pp41-48


30. Simon, G.E., Jatlow, P.J., Seligson, H.T., and Seligsen, D., Measurement of 5,5-diphenylhydantoin in Blood using Thin-Layer Chromatography, *Am. J. Clin. Pathol.* 1971, vol 55 pp145-151
31. Wallace, J., Briggs, J., and Dahl, E.V., Determination of Diphenylhydantoin by Ultraviolet Spectrophotometry, *Anal. Chem.* 1965, vol 37 pp410-413
32. Dill, W.A., and Glazko, A.J., Fluorometric Assay of Diphenylhydantoin in Plasma or Whole Blood, *Clinical Chemistry*, July 1972, vol 18:7 pp675-676
33. Sandberg, D.H., Resnick, G.L., and Bacallao, C.Z., Measurement of Serum Diphenylhydantoin by Gas-Liquid Chromatography, *Anal. Chem.*, 1968, vol 40 pp736-738
34. Chang, T., and Glazko, A.J., Quantitative Assay of 5,5-diphenylhydantoin (HPPH) in Plasma and Urine of Human Subjects, *Clin. Res.*, 1968, vol 16 p339
35. Kupferberg, H.J., Quantitative Estimation of Diphenylhydantoin, Primidone, and Phenobarbital in Plasma by Gas-Liquid Chromatography, *Clin. Chim. Acta*, 1970, vol 29 pp283-288
36. Brugmann, G., Jaros, P., and Nolte, R., Determination of Diphenylhydantoin in Serum by Gas-Liquid-Chromatography Using a Nitrogen-Specific Detector, *Klin. Wochenschr*, Aug. 1973, vol 51:15 pp768-769
37. Goudie, J.H., and Burnett, D., A Gas-Chromatographic Method for the Simultaneous Determination of Phenobarbitone, Primidone, and Phenytain in Serum using a Nitrogen Detector, *Clin. Chim. Acta*, Jan 1973, vol 43:3 pp231-41
38. Toseland, P.A., Albani, M., and Gauchel, F.D., Organic Nitrogen-Selective Detector used in Gas Chromatographic Determination of some Anticonvulsant and Barbiturate Drugs in Plasma and Tissues, *Clinical Chemistry*, Jan 1975, vol 21:1 pp98-103
39. Lehane, D.P., Menyharth, P., Lum, G., and Levy, A.L., Therapeutic Drug Monitoring, Measurements of Antiepileptic and Barbiturate Drug Levels in Blood by Gas Chromatography with Nitrogen-Selective Detector, *Ann. Clin. Lab. Sci.*, Sept-Oct 1976, vol 6:5 pp404-410
40. Lehser, M., and Karmen, A., Quantitative Analysis of Diphenylhydantoin in Serum by Gas-Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry, *Biochemical Medicine*, 1975, vol 14 pp230-237
41. Stillwell, W.G., and Hill, R.M., Use of Stable Isotopes in Measuring Low Concentrations of Drugs and Drug Metabolites by G-C-MS-Com Procedures, *Clinical Chemistry*, Aug 1973, vol 19:8 pp845-852
42. Sabih, K., Combined GLC and High-Resolution Mass Spectroscopic Analysis of Diphenylhydantoin, *J. Pharmaceutical Science*, August 1971, vol 60:8 pp 1216-1220

43. Palm, E.R., and Bertilssen, L., Quantitative Determination of Carbamazepine in Plasma by Mass Fragmentography, *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*, October 1973, vol 14:5 pp827-832
44. Montgomery, M.R., and Holtzman, J.L., Determination of Diphenylhydantoin in Human Serum by Spin Immunoassay, *Clinical Chemistry*, 1975, vol 21:2 pp221-226
45. Montgomery, M.R., and Holtzman, J.L., Application of Electron Spin Resonance to Determination of Serum Drug Concentrations, *Clinical Chemistry*, 1975, vol 21:9 pp1323-1328
46. Montgomery, M.R., and Holtzman, J.L., Determination of Serum Morphine by the Spin-Labeled Antibody Technique, *Drug Metab. Dispos.*, 1974, vol 2 p391
47. Rubenstein, K., Schneider, R., and Ullman, E., "Homogeneous" Enzyme Immunoassay, A New Immunochemical Technique, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 1972, vol 47 p846
48. Rowley, G., Rubenstein, K., Huisjen, J., and Ullman, E., Mechanism by which antibodies Inhibit Hapten-Malate Dehydrogenase Conjugates, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1975, vol 250 p3759
49. Booker, H.E., and Darrey, B.A., Enzymatic Immunoassay vs. Gas-Liquid Chromatography for Determination of Phenobarbital and Diphenylhydantoin in Serum, *Clinical Chemistry*, 1975, vol 21:12 pp1766-1768
50. Tigelaar, R.E., and Kupferberg, J.A., Radioimmunoassay for Diphenylhydantoin, *Clin. Chem. Acta*, 1973, vol 43 pp231-241
51. Evans, J.E., Simultaneous Measurement of Diphenylhydantoin and Phenobarbital in Serum by High-Performance Liquid Chromatography, *Anal. Chem. Dec.* 1973, vol 45:14 pp2428-2429
52. Eichebaum, M., and Bertilsson, L., Determination of Carbamazepine and its Epoxide Metabolite in Plasma by High-Speed Liquid Chromatography, *J. Chromatography*, Jan 1975, vol 103:1 pp135-140
53. Atwell, S.H., and Green, V.A., Development and Evaluation of a Method for the Simultaneous Determination of Phenobarbital and Diphenylhydantoin in Plasma by High-Pressure Liquid Chromatography, *J. Pharm. Sci.*, May 1975, vol 64:5 pp806-809
54. Kabra, P.M., Gotelli, G., Stanfill, R., and Martin, L.J., Simultaneous Measurement of Phenobarbital, Diphenylhydantoin and Primidone in Blood by High-Pressure Liquid Chromatography, *Clinical Chemistry*, June 1976, vol 22:6 pp824-827
55. Kabra, P.M. and Martin, L.J., Determination of Carbamazepine in Blood or Plasma by High-Pressure Liquid Chromatography, *Clinical Chemistry*, July 1976, vol 22:7 pp1070-1072
56. Kitazawa, S., and Komuro, T., High Speed Liquid Chromatographic Determination of Antiepileptic Drugs in Human Plasma, *Clin. Chem. Acta*, 1976, vol 73 pp31-38

57. Adams, R.F., and Schmidt, G., Determination of Less Common Anticonvulsants in Serum Using Reversed-Phase High-Pressure Liquid Chromatography, *Chromatography Newsletter*, Perkin Elmer Corp, June 1976, vol 4:1 pp8-9
58. Soldin, S.J., and Hill, G.J., Rapid Micromethod for Measuring Anti-convulsant Drugs in Serum by High Performance Liquid Chromatography, *Clinical Chemistry*, 1976, vol 22:6 pp856-859
59. Soldin, S.J., and Hill, J.G., Interference with Column-Chromatographic Measurement of Primidone, *Clinical Chemistry*, April 1977, vol 23:4 p782
60. Baumel, I.P., Gallagher, B.B., and Mattson, R.H., Phenylethylmalonamide (PEMA), *Arch Neurol.*, 1972, vol 27 p34
61. Gerkin, M., Reversed-Phase Chromatography: Sorbents and Approaches, *American Laboratory*, January 1977, pp29-33
62. Rodgers, D.H., Variable Wavelength U.V. Photometer - A General Detector for Liquid Chromatography, *American Laboratory*, February 1977, pp133-138
63. Rao, C.N.R., *Ultraviolet and Visible Spectroscopy of Organic Compounds* (Prentice-Hall Inc.) Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1968.
64. Personal Collaboration with Gotelli, G., and Stanfill, R.
65. Gotelli, G.R., Kabra, P.M., Marton, L.J., Determination of Acetaminophen and Phenacetin in Plasma by High-Pressure Liquid Chromatography, *Clin. Chem.*, 1977, vol 23:6 pp957-959

FOR REFERENCE

NOT TO BE TAKEN FROM THE ROOM

 CAT. NO. 23 012

PRINTED
IN
U.S.A.

