



 Seizure: the clinical manifestation of an abnormal, excessive excitation and synchronization of a population of cortical neurons

 Epilepsy: two or more recurrent seizures unprovoked by systemic or acute neurologic insults

Epidemiology of Seizures and Epilepsy

Seizures

- Incidence: 80/100,000 per year
- Lifetime incidence: 9% (1/3 febrile convulsions)

Epilepsy

- Incidence: 45/100,000 per year
- Point prevalence: 0.5-1%
- Cumulative lifetime incidence: 3%

Etiology of Seizures and Epilepsy

Infancy and childhood

- Prenatal or birth injury
- Inborn error of metabolism
- Congenital malformation
- Childhood and adolescence
 - Idiopathic/genetic syndrome
 - CNS infection
 - Trauma

Etiology of Seizures and Epilepsy

Adolescence and young adult

- Head trauma
- Drug intoxication and withdrawal*
- Older adult
 - Stroke
 - Brain tumor
 - Acute metabolic disturbances*
 - Neurodegenerative

*causes of acute symptomatic seizures, not epilepsy

Pathophysiology

- neurons undergo prolonged depolarizations associated with the rapid firing of repeated action potentials.
- Seizures may then spread to involve adjacent areas of the brain or through established anatomic pathways to other distant areas.







Complex Partial Seizures

- Impaired consciousness
- Clinical manifestations vary with site of origin and degree of spread
 - Presence and nature of aura
 - Automatisms
 - Other motor activity
- Duration typically < 2 minutes



Secondarily Generalized Seizures

- Begins focally, with or without focal neurological symptoms
- Variable symmetry, intensity, and duration of tonic (stiffening) and clonic (jerking) phases
- Typical duration 1-3 minutes
- Postictal confusion, somnolence, with or without transient focal deficit





Typical Absence Seizures

- Brief staring spells ("petit mal") with impairment of awareness
 - 3-20 seconds
 - Sudden onset and sudden resolution
 - Often provoked by hyperventilation
 - Onset typically between 4 and 14 years of age
 - Often resolve by 18 years of age
- Normal development and intelligence
- EEG: Generalized 3 Hz spikewave discharges



Atypical Absence Seizures

- Brief staring spells with variably reduced responsiveness
 - 5-30 seconds
 - Gradual (seconds) onset and resolution
 - Generally not provoked by hyperventilation
 - Onset typically after 6 years of age
- Often in children with global cognitive impairment
- EEG: Generalized slow spike-wave complexes (<2.5 Hz)
- Patients often also have Atonic and Tonic seizures

Myoclonic Seizures

- Brief, shock-like jerk of a muscle or group of muscles
- Epileptic myoclonus
 - Typically bilaterally synchronous
 - Impairment of consciousness difficult to assess (seizures <1 second)
 - Clonic seizure repeated myoclonic seizures (may have impaired awareness)
- Differentiate from benign, nonepileptic myoclonus (e.g., while falling asleep)
- EEG: Generalized 4-6 Hz polyspike-wave discharges



Tonic and Atonic Seizures

Tonic seizures

- Symmetric, tonic muscle contraction of extremities with tonic flexion of waist and neck
- Duration 2-20 seconds.
- EEG Sudden attenuation with generalized, lowvoltage fast activity (most common) or generalized polyspike-wave.

Atonic seizures

- Sudden loss of postural tone
 - When severe often results in falls
 - When milder produces head nods or jaw drops.
- Consciousness usually impaired
- Duration usually seconds, rarely more than 1 minute
- EEG sudden diffuse attenuation or generalized polyspike-wave



Generalized Tonic-Clonic Seizures

- Associated with loss of consciousness and post-ictal confusion/lethargy
- Duration 30-120 seconds
- Tonic phase
 - Stiffening and fall
 - Often associated with ictal cry
- Clonic Phase
 - Rhythmic extremity jerking
- EEG generalized polyspikes



Epilepsy Syndromes

Epilepsy Syndrome Grouping of patients that share similar:

- Seizure type(s)
- Age of onset
- Natural history/Prognosis
- EEG patterns
- Genetics
- Response to treatment

Epilepsy Syndromes





THERAPEUTIC CONSIDERATIONS

- Goal no seizures, but ↓ drug side effects (60-80% patients obtain good seizure control)
- Diagnosis drug selection (for seizure type)
- Clinical evaluation drug trial period
- Plasma drug levels narrow therapeutic range monitor
- Compliance difficult chronic disorder
 Withdrawing medication weeks → months

Seizure Precipitants

- Metabolic and Electrolyte Imbalance
- Stimulant/other proconvulsant intoxication
- Sedative or ethanol withdrawal
- Sleep deprivation
- Antiepileptic medication reduction or inadequate AED treatment
- Hormonal variations
- Stress
- Fever or systemic infection
- Concussion and/or closed head injury

Seizure Precipitants (cont.)

Metabolic and Electrolyte Imbalance

- Low blood glucose
 - (or high glucose, esp. w/ hyperosmolar state)
- Low sodium
- Low calcium
- Low magnesium

Seizure Precipitants (cont.)

Stimulants/Other Pro-convulsant Intoxication

- IV drug use
- Cocaine
- Ephedrine
- Other herbal remedies
- Medication reduction

- Seizure type
- Epilepsy syndrome
- Pharmacokinetic profile
- Interactions/other medical conditions
- Efficacy
- Expected adverse effects
- Cost

- Limited placebo-controlled trials available, particularly of newer AEDs
- In practice, several drugs are commonly used for indications other than those for which they are officially approved/recommended
- Choice of AED for partial epilepsy depends largely on drug side-effect profile and patient's preference/concerns
- Choice of AED for primary generalized epilepsy depends on predominant seizure type(s) as well as drug side-effect profile and patient's preference/concerns

Broad-Spectrum Agents

Valproate Felbamate Lamotrigine Topiramate Zonisamide Levetiracetam Rufinamide* Narrow-Spectrum Agents

Partial onset seizures Phenytoin Carbamazepine Oxcarbazepine Gabapentin Pregabalin Tiagabine Lacosamide*

Absence Ethosuximide

* New AEDs (approved 2008) categorization may change

Antiepileptic Drug

A drug which decreases the frequency and/or severity of seizures in people with epilepsy

Treats the symptom of seizures, not the underlying epileptic condition

 Goal—maximize quality of life by minimizing seizures and adverse drug effects

 Currently no "anti-epileptogenic" drugs available

Current Pharmacotherapy

Just under 60% of all people with epilepsy can become seizure free with drug therapy

In another 20% the seizures can be drastically reduced

~ 20% epileptic patients, seizures are refractory to currently available AEDs

- Seizure type
- Epilepsy syndrome
- Pharmacokinetic profile
- Interactions/other medical conditions
- Efficacy
- Expected adverse effects
- Cost

General Facts About AEDs

- Good oral absorption and bioavailability
- Most metabolized in liver but some excreted unchanged in kidneys
- Classic AEDs generally have more severe CNS sedation than newer drugs (except ethosuximide)

Because of overlapping mechanisms of action, best drug can be chosen based on minimizing side effects in addition to efficacy

Add-on therapy is used when a single drug does not completely control seizures

Classification of AEDs

Classical

- Phenytoin
- **Phenobarbital**
- n **Primidone**
 - Carbamazepine
 - Ethosuximide
 - Valproate (valproic acid)
 - Trimethadione (not currently in use)

Newer

- Lamotrigine
- Felbamate
- Topiramate
- Gabapentin
- Tiagabine
- Vigabatrin
- Oxycarbazepine
- Levetiracetam
- Fosphenytoin

In *general*, the newer AEDs have less CNS sedating effects than the classical AEDs

History of Antiepileptic Drug Therapy in the U.S.

- 1857 Bromides
- 1912 Phenobarbital
- 1937 Phenytoin
- 1954 Primidone
- 1960 Ethosuximide

History of Antiepileptic Drug Therapy in the U.S.

- 1974 Carbamazepine
- 1975 Clonazepam (benzodiazapine)
- 1978 Valproate
- 1993 Felbamate, Gabapentin
- 1995 Lamotrigine
- 1997 Topiramate, Tiagabine
- 1999 Levetiracetam
- 2000 Oxcarbazepine, Zonisamide
 - Vigabatrin—not approved in US

Cellular Mechanisms of Seizure Generation

Excitation (too much)

- Ionic—inward Na+, Ca++ currents
- Neurotransmitter—glutamate, aspartate

 Inhibition (too little)
 Ionic—inward CI⁻, outward K⁺ currents

Basic Mechanisms Underlying Seizures and Epilepsy



 Feedback and feed-forward inhibition, illustrated via cartoon and schematic of simplified hippocampal circuit

Babb TL, Brown WJ. Pathological Findings in Epilepsy. In: Engel J. Jr. Ed. Surgical Treatment of the Epilepsies. New York: Raven Press 1987: 511-540. Neuronal (Intrinsic) Factors Modifying Neuronal Excitability

 Ion channel type, number, and distribution

- Biochemical modification of receptors
- Activation of second-messenger systems
- Modulation of gene expression (e.g., for receptor proteins)
Extra-Neuronal (Extrinsic) Factors Modifying Neuronal Excitability

 Changes in extracellular ion concentration

 Remodeling of synapse location or configuration by afferent input

 Modulation of transmitter metabolism or uptake by glial cells Mechanisms of Generating Hyperexcitable Networks

- Excitatory axonal "sprouting"
- Loss of inhibitory neurons
- Loss of excitatory neurons "driving" inhibitory neurons

Hippocampal Circuitry and Seizures



Targets for AEDs

- Increase inhibitory neurotransmitter system—GABA
- Decrease excitatory neurotransmitter system—glutamate
- Block voltage-gated inward positive currents—Na+ or Ca++
- Increase outward positive current—K+
- Many AEDs pleiotropic—act via multiple mechanisms

Epilepsy—Glutamate



Two groups of glutamate receptors

- Ionotropic—fast synaptic transmission
 - NMDA, AMPA, kainate
 - Gated Ca⁺⁺ and Gated Na+ channels
- Metabotropic—slow synaptic transmission
 - Quisqualate
 - Regulation of second messengers (cAMP and Inositol)
 - Modulation of synaptic activity

Modulation of glutamate receptors

Epilepsy—Glutamate



Diagram of the various glutamate receptor subtypes and locations

From Takumi et al, 1998

Glutamate Receptors as AED Targets

• NMDA receptor sites as targets

 Ketamine, phencyclidine, dizocilpine block channel and have anticonvulsant properties but also dissociative and/or hallucinogenic properties; open channel blockers.

 Felbamate antagonizes strychnineinsensitive glycine site on NMDA complex

AMPA receptor sites as targets

Topiramate antagonizes AMPA site



Major inhibitory neurotransmitter in the CNS

Two types of receptors

 GABA_A—post-synaptic, specific recognition sites, linked to CI⁻ channel

 GABA_B — presynaptic autoreceptors, mediated by K⁺ currents

GABAA Receptor

Schematic Illustration of a GABA_A Receptor, with Its Binding Sites



AEDs That Act Primarily on GABA

Benzodiazepines (diazapam, clonazapam)

 Increase frequency of GABA-mediated chloride channel openings

Barbiturates (phenobarbital, primidone)

- Prolong GABA-mediated chloride channel openings
- Some blockade of voltage-dependent sodium channels

AEDs That Act Primarily on GABA

Gabapentin

- May modulate amino acid transport into brain
- May interfere with GABA re-uptake

Tiagabine

Interferes with GABA re-uptake

Vigabatrin (not currently available in US)

 elevates GABA levels by irreversibly inhibiting its main catabolic enzyme, GABAtransaminase

Na+ Channels as AED Targets

- Neurons fire at high frequencies during seizures
- Action potential generation is dependent on Na+ channels

Use-dependent or time-dependent Na+ channel blockers reduce high frequency firing without affecting physiological firing

AEDs That Act Primarily on Na+ Channels

Phenytoin, Carbamazepine

 Block voltage-dependent sodium channels at high firing frequencies—use dependent

Oxcarbazepine

- Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels at high firing frequencies
- Also effects K+ channels

Zonisamide

 Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels and T-type calcium channels

Ca²⁺ Channels as Targets

Absence seizures are caused by oscillations between thalamus and cortex that are generated in thalamus by T-type (transient) Ca²⁺ currents
 Ethosuximide is a specific blocker of T-type currents and is highly effective in treating absence seizures

What about K+ channels?

K+ channels have important inhibitory control over neuronal firing in CNS—repolarize membrane to end action potentials K+ channel agonists would decrease hyperexcitability in brain So far, the only AED with known actions on K+ channels is valproate Retiagabine is a novel AED in clinical trials that acts on a specific type of voltagedependent K+ channel

Pleiotropic AEDs

Felbamate

- Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels at high firing frequencies
- May modulate NMDA receptor via strychnine-insensitive glycine receptor

Lamotrigine

- Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels at high firing frequencies
- May interfere with pathologic glutamate release
- Inhibit Ca++ channels?

Pleiotropic AEDs

Topiramate

- Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels at high firing frequencies
- Increases frequency at which GABA opens CI- channels (different site than benzodiazepines)
- Antagonizes glutamate action at AMPA/kainate receptor subtype?

Valproate

- May enhance GABA transmission in specific circuits
- Blocks voltage-dependent sodium channels
- May also augment K+ channels

T-type Ca2+ currents?

The Cytochrome P-450 Isozyme System

- The enzymes most involved with drug metabolism
 - Enzymes have broad substrate specificity, and individual drugs may be substrates for several enzymes
 - The principle enzymes involved with AED metabolism include CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP3A

Enzyme Inducers/Inhibitors: General Considerations

Inducers: Increase clearance and decrease steady-state concentrations of other drugs

Inhibitors: Decrease clearance and increase steady-state concentrations of other drugs The Cytochrome P-450 Enzyme System

Inducers Inhibitors phenobarbital valproate topiramate (CYP2C19) primidone phenytoin oxcarbazepine **(CYP2C19)** carbamazepine felbamate (CYP2C19) felbamate (CYP3A) (increase phenytoin, piramate (CYP3A) *phenobarbital*)

AEDs and Drug Interactions

Although many AEDs can cause pharmacokinetic interactions, several newer agents appear to be less problematic.

AEDs that do not appear to be either inducers or inhibitors of the CYP system include: Gabapentin Lamotrigine Tiagabine Levetiracetam Zonisamide



Phenytoin

- First line drug for partial seizures
- Inhibits Na+ channels—use dependent
- Prodrug fosphenytoin for IM or IV administration. Highly bound to plasma proteins.
- Half-life: 22-36 hours
- Adverse effects: CNS sedation (drowsiness, ataxia, confusion, insomnia, nystagmus, etc.), gum hyperplasia, hirsutism
- Interactions: carbamazapine, phenobarbital will decrease plasma levels; alcohol, diazapam, methylphenidate will increase. Valproate can displace from plasma proteins. Stimulates cytochrome P-450, so can increase metabolism of some drugs.

Carbamazapine

- First line drug for partial seizures
 Inhibits Na+ channels—use dependent
 Half-life: 6-12 hours
- Adverse effects: CNS sedation. Agranulocytosis and aplastic anemia in elderly patients, rare but very serious adverse. A mild, transient leukopenia (decrease in white cell count) occurs in about 10% of patients, but usually disappears in first 4 months of treatment. Can exacerbate some generalized seizures.
- Drug interactions: Stimulates the metabolism of other drugs by inducing microsomal enzymes, stimulates its own metabolism. This may require an increase in dose of this and other drugs patient is taking.

Phenobarbital

- Partial seizures, effective in neonates
- ⁿ Second-line drug in adults due to more severe CNS sedation
- Allosteric modulator of GABA_A receptor (increase open time)
- Absorption: rapid
- Half-life: 53-118 hours (long)

Adverse effects: CNS sedation but may produce excitement in some patients. Skin rashes if allergic. Tolerance and physical dependence possible. Interactions: severe CNS depression when combined

with alcohol or benzodiazanines. Stimulates

Primidone

Partial seizures

- Mechanims—same as phenobarbital
- Absorption: Individual variability in rates. Not highly bound to plasma proteins.
- Metabolism: Converted to phenobarbital and phenylethyl malonamide, 40% excreted unchanged.
 Half-life: variable, 5-15 hours. PB ~100, PEMA 16 hours
- Adverse effects: CNS sedative
- Drug interactions: enhances CNS depressants, drug metabolism, phenytoin increases conversion to PB

Benzodiazapines (Diazapam and clonazapam)

- **Status epilepticus (IV)**
- Allosteric modulator of GABA_A receptors—increases frequency
- Absorption: Rapid onset. Diazapam—rectal formulation for treatment of SE
 - Half-life: 20-40 hours (long)
 - Adverse effects: CNS sedative, tolerance, dependence. Paradoxical hyperexcitability in children
 - Drug interactions: can enhance the action of other CNS depressants

Valproate (Valproic Acid)

- Partial seizures, first-line drug for generalized seizures.
- Enhances GABA transmission, blocks Na+ channels, activates K+ channels
- Absorption: 90% bound to plasma proteins
 Half-life: 6-16 hours
 - Adverse effects: CNS depressant (esp. w/ phenobarbital), anorexia, nausea, vomiting, hair loss, weight gain, elevation of liver enzymes. Hepatoxicity is rare but severe, greatest risk <2 Yrs. May cause birth defects.
 - Drug interactions: May potentiate CNS depressants, displaces phenytoin from plasma proteins, inhibits metabolism of phenobarbital, phenytoin, carbamazepine P450 inhibitor).

Ethosuximide

- **Absence seizures**
- Blocks T-type Ca++ currents in thalamus Half-life: long—40 hours
- Adverse effects: gastric distress—pain, nausea, vomiting. Less CNS effects that other AEDs, transient fatigue, dizziness, headache
- Drug interactions: administration with valproate results in inhibition of its
 metabolism



Oxcarbazepine

Approved for add-on therapy, monotherapy in partial seizures that are refractory to other AEDs Activity-dependent blockade of Na+ channels, may also augment K+ channels Half-life: 1-2 hours, but converted to 10hydroxycarbazepine 8-12 hours **n** Adverse effects: similar to carbamazepine (CNS sedative) but may be less toxic. **Drug interactions: less induction of liver** enzymes, but can stimulate CYP3A and inhibit **CYP2C19**

Gabapentin

- Add-on therapy for partial seizures, evidence that it is also effective as monotherapy in newly diagnosed epilepsies (partial)
- May interfere with GABA uptake
- Absorption: Non-linear. Saturable (amino acid transport system), no protein binding.
- Metabolism: none, eliminated by renal excretion
- Half-life: 5-9 hours, administered 2-3 times daily
- Adverse effects: less CNS sedative effects than classic AEDs

Lamotrigine

n

- Add-on therapy, monotherapy for refractory partial seizures. Also effective in Lennox Gastaut Syndrome and newly diagnosed epilepsy. Effective against generalized seizures.
- Use-dependent inhibition of Na+ channels, glutamate release, may inhibit Ca++ channels
- Half-life—24 hours
- Adverse effects: less CNS sedative effects than classic AEDs, dermatitis potentially life-threatening in 1-2% of pediatric patients.
- Drug interactions: levels increased by valproate, decreased by carbamazepine. PB. phenytoin

Felbamate

Third-line drug for refractory partial seizures

- Frequency-dependent inhibition of Na+ channels, modulation of NMDA receptor
- Adverse effects: aplastic anemia and severe hepatitis restricts its use (black box)
- Drug interactions: increases plasma phenytoin and valproate, decreases carbamazapine. Stimulates CYP3A and inhibits CYP2C19

Levetiracetam

- **n** Add-on therapy for partial seizures
 - Binds to synaptic vesicle protein SV2A, may regulate neurotransmitter release
 Half-life: 6-8 hours (short)
 Adverse effects: CNS depression
 Drug interactions: minimal

Tiagabine

Add-on therapy for partial seizures
 Interferes with GABA reuptake
 Half-life: 5-8 hours (short)
 Adverse effects: CNS sedative
 Drug interactions: minimal
Zonisamide

Add-on therapy for partial and generalized seizures

- Blocks Na+ channels and T-type Ca++ channels
- Half-life: 1-3 days (long)
- Adverse effects: CNS sedative
- Drug interactions: minimal

Topimerate

- Add-on for refractory partial or generalized seizures. Effective as monotherapy for partial or generalized seizures, Lennox-Gastaut syndrome.
- ⁿ Use-dependent blockade of Na+ channels, increases frequency of GABA_A channel openings, may interfere with glutamate binding to AMPA/KA receptor
 - Half-life: 20-30 hours (long)
- Adverse effects: CNS sedative
- Drug interactions: Stimulates CYP3A and inhibits CYP2C19, can lessen effectiveness of birth control bills

Vigabatrin

- Add-on therapy for partial seizures, monotherapy for infantile spasms. (Not available in US).
 - Blocks GABA metabolism through actions on GABAtransaminase
 - Half-life: 6-8 hours, but pharmacodynamic activity is prolonged and not well-coordinated with plasma half-life.
 - Adverse effects: CNS sedative, ophthalmologic abnormalities
 - Drug interactions: minimal

Treatment of Epilepsy

- First consideration is efficacy in stopping seizures
- Because many AEDs have overlapping, deiotropic actions, the most appropriate drug can often be chosen to reduce side effects. Newer drugs tend to have less CNS depressant effects.

Potential of long-term side effects, pharmokinetics, and cost are other considerations

Partial Onset Seizures

With secondary generalization

- First-line drugs are carbamazepine and phenytoin (equally effective)
- Valproate, phenobarbital, and primidone are also usually effective

Without generalization

- Phenytoin and carbamazepine may be slightly more effective
- Phenytoin and carbamazepine can be

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Partial Onset Seizures—New Drugs

Adjunctive (add-on) therapy where monotherapy does not completely stop seizures—newer drugs felbamate, gabapentin, lamotrigine, levetiracetam, oxcarbazepine, tiagabine, topiramate, and zonisamide

Lamotrigine, oxcarbazepine, felbamate approved for monotherapy where phenytoin and carbamazepine have failed.

Topirimate can effective against

Generalized Onset Seizures

- Tonic-clonic, myoclonic, and absence seizures—first line drug is usually valproate
- Phenytoin and carbamazepine are effective on tonic-clonic seizures but not other types of generalized seizures

 Valproate and ethoxysuximide are equally effective in children with absence seizures, but only valproate protects against the tonic-clonic seizures that sometimes develop. Rare

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Generalized Onset Seizures

Clonazepam, phenobarbital, or primidone can be useful against generalized seizures, but may have greater sedative effects than other AEDs

- Tolerance develops to clonazepam, so that it may lose its effectiveness after ~6 months
- Carbamazepine may exacerbate absence and myoclonic, underscoring the importance of appropriate seizure classification

Lamotrigine, topiramate, and zonisamide are offective against tonic-clonic, absence, and

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Status Epilepticus

More than 30 minutes of continuous seizure activity

ⁿ Wo or more sequential seizures spanning this period without full recovery between seizures

Medical emergency

Status Epilepticus

Treatment

Diazepam, lorazapam IV (fast, short acting)

 Followed by phenytoin, fosphenytoin, or phenobarbital (longer acting) when control is established

Alternative Uses for AEDs

Gabapentin, carbamazepine—
 neuropathic pain

Lamotrogine, carbamazepine—bipolar

disorder

Leviteracitam, valproate, topirimate,

Drugs Used According to Type of Seizure and Epileptic Syndrome						
Type of Seizure and Epileptic Syndrome	First Line Drug (Generally, the first drug tried)	Second Line or Add-on Drug (Those tried when first-line drugs fail) Note: some of these agents are used as second-line agents but have not yet been FDA approved.				
Primary Generalized Seizures						
Absence (petit mal) seizures	Ethosuximide in children and adults, valproic acid (divalproex sodium may be better tolerated). Note: Carbamazepine and phenytoin are contradicted. Others under investigation include levetiracetam.	Valproic acid (or divalproex sodium), Others under investigation include clonazepam and lamotrigine.				
Myoclonic seizures	 Valproic acid (or divalproex sodium) Note: Carbamazepine and phenytoin can actually aggravate these seizures. Others under investigation include levetiracetam. 	Acetazolamide, clonazepam, Others under investigation include zonisamide, lamotrigine, topiramate, primidone (for juvenile myoclonic epilepsies).				
Tonic-clonic (grand mal) seizures	Valproic acid (or divalproex sodium), carbamazepine, phenytoin.	Phenobarbital, primidone Topiramate (including in children two and over) Other under investigation include lamotrigine				
Infantile spasms (West's syndrome)	Corticotropin, vigabatrin. Zonisamide and tiagabine under investigation.	Clonazepam, valproic acid (or divalproex sodium),				
Lennox-Gastaut	Valproic acid (or divalproex sodium).	Carbamazepine, clonazepam (absence				

Drugs Used According to Type of Seizure and Epileptic Syndrome						
Type of Seizure and Epileptic Syndrome	First Line Drug (Generally, the first drug tried)	Second Line or Add-on Drug (Those tried when first-line drugs fail) Note: some of these agents are used as second-line agents but have not yet been FDA approved.				
Partial Seizures						
Partial seizures, secondarily generalized tonic- clonic seizures, and partial epileptic syndromes	Carbamazepine in children and adults, phenytoin. A 2002 analysis of evidence comparing carbamazepine and phenytoin found no significant differences between the two. Newer drugs, including gabapentin and lamotrigine, are showing promise as first line agents but not yet approved for this.	 Add-on drugs approved for adults include gabapentin, lamotrigine, zonisamide, tiagabine, topiramate levetiracetam, and oxcarbazepine Felbamate is approved only as monotherapy in adults. They appear to be similar in effectiveness, and to date none has shown clear superiority over others. Some, such as lamotrigine, may have fewer adverse effects than others. Topiramate is approved for children over two and oxcarbazepine for those over four. Gabapentin and tiagabine approved for children over 12 and are being studied for younger children. (A French study found no additional benefits for gabapentin in this younger group.) Other add-ons are also being studied for children. Older add-on agents sometimes used include valproate, phenobarbital, primidone. 				

Original data from a table in Patients with Refractory Seizures, *The New England Journal of Medicine*, Vol. 340, No. 20, May 20, 1999. By permission of the author Orrin Devinsky, MD. Updated data from American Epilepsy Society and various studies.

Drugs of Choice for Specific Seizure Types

Seizure Type	First-Line Drugs	Second-Line Drugs	Others Alternatives
Simple or Complex Partial	Carbamazepine	Gabapentin	Phenobarbital
	Phenytoin	Valproic Acid	Primidone
		Lamotrigine	Tiagabine
			Topiramate
			Clonazepam
			Felbamate
Primary or Secondarily Generalized Tonic-Clonic	Carbamazepine	Gabapentin ⁺	Topiramate ⁺
	Valproic Acid	Lamotrigine ⁺	Tiagabine ⁺
	Phenytoin	Phenobarbital	Clonazepam
		Primidone	Felbamate ⁺
Absence	Ethosuximide	Lamotrigine*	
	Valproic Acid	Clonazepam	
Atypical Absence, Atonic, Myoclonic	Valproic Acid	Lamotrigine*	Felbamate*
		Clonazepam	Ethosuximide
			Ketogenic Diet

Charesteristics of Antiepileptic Drug

Drug	Mechanism of Action	Dose	Pharmacokinetic Parameters	Usual Serum Concentration Range	Dose-Related Adverse Effects
Carbamazepine	Modulate sodium channels	Loading dose: Not recommended due to excessive dose- related toxicity <i>Maintenance dose:</i> Titrate dosage to target over 3–4 weeks Adults: 10–20 mg/kg per day as a divided dose Children: 20–30 mg/kg per day as a divided dose	Half-life: 10–25 hours with chronic dosing Apparent volume of distribution: 0.8–1.9 L/kg Protein binding: 67–81% Primary elimination route: Hepatic	4–12 mcg/mL (17–51 μmol/L)	Diplopia, drowsiness, nausea, sedation
Clonazepam	Enhance GABA activity	Loading dose: Not recommended due to increased adverse effects Maintenance dose: Initiate at 0.5 mg one to three times daily, titrate dose to effectiveness usually 3–5 mg daily in 2 to 3 divided doses	Half-life: 30–40 hours Apparent volume of distribution: 3.2 L/kg Protein binding: 47–80% Primary elimination route: Hepatic	Not established	Ataxia, memory impairment, sedation, slowed thinking
Ethosuximide	Modulate calcium channels	Loading dose: Not recommended due to increased adverse effects Maintenance dose: Initiate at 250 mg twice daily and titrate to 500–1000 mg twice daily	Half-life: 60 hours 60 hours Apparent volume of distribution: 0.6–0.7 L/kg Protein binding: None Primary elimination route: Hepatic	40–100 mcg/mL (283–708 μmol/L)	Ataxia, sedation
Felbamate	Inhibit glutamate activity	Loading dose: Not recommended due to increased adverse effects Maintenance dose: 1200–3600 mg/day in 3–4 divided doses	Half-life: Monotherapy: 20 hours Concurrent enzyme inducers: 11–16 hours Apparent volume of distribution:	Not established	Anxiety, insomnia, nausea