



Neuropsychiatric Sequelae of Epilepsy: Beyond Seizures

Kwame Appiah*

Department of Clinical Psychology, University of Ghana, Ghana

*Corresponding author: Kwame Appiah, Department of Clinical Psychology, University of Ghana, Ghana, E-mail: kwame.appiah@email.com

Citation: Appiah K (2024) Neuropsychiatric Sequelae of Epilepsy: Beyond Seizures. J Trauma Stress Disor Treat 13(6):431

Received: 30-Nov-2024, Manuscript No. JTSDDT-24-153747; Editor assigned: 02-Dec-2024, PreQC No. JTSDDT-24-153747 (PQ); Reviewed: 13-Dec-2024, QC No. JTSDDT-24-153747; Revised: 16-Dec-2024, Manuscript No. JTSDDT-24-153747(R); Published: 22-Dec-2024, DOI:10.4172/2324-8947.100431

Copyright: © 2024 Appiah K. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Introduction

Epilepsy is a chronic neurological disorder characterized by recurrent seizures, affecting approximately 50 million people worldwide. While seizures are the hallmark of epilepsy, the disorder's impact extends far beyond these episodic events. Neuropsychiatric sequelae, including mood disorders, cognitive impairment, psychosis, and anxiety, are common in epilepsy patients and often contribute more to their reduced quality of life than seizures themselves. Understanding these neuropsychiatric comorbidities is crucial for comprehensive care, as their proper diagnosis and treatment can significantly improve patients' overall well-being [1].

This article explores the range of neuropsychiatric conditions associated with epilepsy, focusing on their prevalence, underlying mechanisms, and treatment options. Depression is one of the most prevalent neuropsychiatric disorders in epilepsy, affecting up to 30-50% of patients. Depression in epilepsy is often underdiagnosed and undertreated due to the overlapping symptoms of fatigue, poor concentration, and sleep disturbances, which may be attributed to either the seizures or the antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) [2].

The exact mechanisms underlying depression in epilepsy are complex and multifactorial. They involve the interplay between biological, psychosocial, and iatrogenic factors. Neurological changes in brain regions involved in mood regulation, particularly the limbic system (e.g., the hippocampus and amygdala), are believed to play a significant role in the development of depression. Seizure activity, especially in temporal lobe epilepsy, can further exacerbate mood disturbances by disrupting normal emotional processing [3].

Additionally, AEDs can contribute to depressive symptoms. For instance, drugs such as phenobarbital and topiramate are associated with an increased risk of mood disorders, though newer AEDs, such as lamotrigine, may have mood-stabilizing properties.

Treating depression in epilepsy requires a careful balance, as many antidepressant medications can lower the seizure threshold. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), particularly sertraline and citalopram, are generally considered safe and effective in epilepsy patients [4].

Anxiety disorders, including generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), panic disorder, and social anxiety, are common in epilepsy patients, with a prevalence of 20-40%. Anxiety can be exacerbated by the unpredictability of seizures, fear of social stigmatization, and the cognitive effects of AEDs. The neurobiological mechanisms of anxiety in epilepsy may involve disruptions in the same neural circuits that mediate seizure activity. The amygdala, which is a critical region for fear and anxiety, is frequently implicated in temporal lobe epilepsy [5].

SSRIs and serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) are often used to manage anxiety in epilepsy, though clinicians must be mindful of their potential impact on seizure control. Benzodiazepines may be used for short-term relief of acute anxiety, but long-term use is generally discouraged due to the risk of tolerance and dependency. Psychotherapy, particularly exposure-based therapies, can help patients reduce avoidance behaviors and manage anxiety more effectively. Cognitive deficits are common in epilepsy, particularly in patients with frequent or poorly controlled seizures. Cognitive domains affected include memory, attention, processing speed, and executive function [6].

Cognitive impairment in epilepsy may result from several factors, including the underlying cause of epilepsy (e.g., traumatic brain injury or stroke), the frequency and severity of seizures, and the long-term use of AEDs. Temporal lobe epilepsy, in particular, is associated with memory impairments due to the involvement of the hippocampus in both seizure generation and memory processing. AEDs can also contribute to cognitive slowing, particularly older medications such as phenobarbital and valproate. However, newer AEDs, such as levetiracetam and lamotrigine, are generally considered to have fewer cognitive side effects [7].

The treatment of cognitive impairment in epilepsy involves optimizing seizure control while minimizing the cognitive side effects of AEDs. Cognitive rehabilitation, including memory training and attention exercises, may also help patients compensate for their deficits. In some cases, the use of neurostimulants, such as methylphenidate, has been explored, though their safety and efficacy in epilepsy patients remain under investigation. Psychosis is a relatively rare but serious neuropsychiatric complication of epilepsy. It is estimated to affect about 2-7% of patients, particularly those with temporal lobe epilepsy [8].

The exact pathophysiology of psychosis in epilepsy is not well understood, but it likely involves abnormal neural activity in the temporal and frontal lobes, regions responsible for reality testing and emotional regulation. Chronic exposure to seizures may lead to structural and functional brain changes that predispose individuals to psychosis. Furthermore, AEDs, particularly levetiracetam and topiramate, have been associated with psychotic symptoms in some cases. The treatment of psychosis in epilepsy involves the use of antipsychotic medications, particularly atypical antipsychotics such

as quetiapine and olanzapine, which have a lower risk of exacerbating seizures [9].

Individuals with epilepsy are at an increased risk of suicidal ideation and behavior, with suicide rates estimated to be 5-10 times higher than in the general population. The relationship between epilepsy and suicidality is complex and may involve a combination of neurobiological, psychological, and social factors. Several factors contribute to the increased risk of suicidality in epilepsy. These include the neurochemical changes associated with epilepsy, the social isolation and stigma that often accompany the disorder, and the emotional burden of living with a chronic, unpredictable condition [10].

Conclusion

Epilepsy is far more than just a disorder of recurrent seizures; it encompasses a wide range of neuropsychiatric sequelae that can profoundly impact a patient's quality of life. Depression, anxiety, cognitive impairment, psychosis, suicidality, and sleep disorders are all common comorbidities that require comprehensive and individualized treatment. Understanding the interplay between seizures, brain function, and psychiatric health is essential for providing holistic care to individuals with epilepsy. By addressing both seizure control and neuropsychiatric symptoms, healthcare

providers can significantly improve the overall well-being of epilepsy patients.

References

1. Kanner AM (2006) Depression and epilepsy: a new perspective on two closely related disorders. *Epilepsy Curr.* 6(5):141-6.
2. Mula M, Schmitz B (2009) Depression in epilepsy: mechanisms and therapeutic approach. *Ther Adv Neurol Disord.* 2(5):337-44.
3. Gilliam F, Carter J, Vahle V (2004) Tolerability of antiseizure medications: implications for health outcomes. *Neurology.* 63(10_suppl_4):S9-12.
4. deVeber GA, MacGregor D, Curtis R, Mayank S (2000) Developmental disorders. *System.* 19(653a656):50.
5. Mula M (2019) *The comorbidities of epilepsy.* Academic Press.
6. Guekht A (2017) Epilepsy, comorbidities and treatments. *Curr Pharm Des.* 23(37):5702-26.
7. Harden CL, Goldstein MA (2002) Mood disorders in patients with epilepsy: epidemiology and management. *CNS Drug.* 16:291-302.
8. Guekht A (2017) Epilepsy, comorbidities and treatments. *Curr Pharm Des.* 23(37):5702-26.
9. Tallavajhula SS, Slater JD (2012) Sleep and epilepsy. *Sleep Med Clin.* 7(4):619-30.
10. Halász P, Szűcs A (2020) Sleep and epilepsy link by plasticity. *Front Neurol.* 11:911.