

SID



سرویس های ویژه



سرویس ترجمه تخصصی



کارگاه های آموزشی



بلاگ مرکز اطلاعات علمی



عضویت در خبرنامه



فیلم های آموزشی

کارگاه های آموزشی مرکز اطلاعات علمی جهاد دانشگاهی



مباحث پیشرفته یادگیری عمیق؛
شبکه های توجه گرافی
(Graph Attention Networks)



کارگاه آنلاین آموزش استفاده از
وب آو ساینس



کارگاه آنلاین مقاله روزمره انگلیسی

REVIEW ARTICLE

Nutritional Aspects of Treatment in Epileptic Patients

How to Cite This Article: Soltani D, Ghaffar pour M, Tafakhori A, Sarraf P, Bitarafan S. Nutritional Aspects of Treatment in Epileptic Patients. Iran J Child Neurol. Summer 2016; 10(3): 1-12.

Danesh SOLTANI MD¹,
Majid GHAFAR POUR MD¹,
Abbas TAFAKHORI MD¹,
Payam SARRAF MD¹,
Sama BITARAFAN MD&PhD¹

1. Iranian Center of Neurological Research, Imam Khomeini Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Corresponding Author:
Bitarafan S. MD & PhD
Iranian Centre of Neurological Research, Department of Neurology, Imam Khomeini Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Keshavarz Blvd, Tehran, Iran/ Postal code: 1419733141
Tel: +982166948899
Fax: +982166581558
Email: Bitarafan@sina.tums.ac.ir

Received: 21-June-2015
Last Revised: 2-Nov-2015
Accepted: 23-Nov-2015

Abstract

Epilepsy is a neurological disorder characterized by interruption of normal neuronal functions that is manifested by behavioral disorders, changing of awareness level, and presence of some sensory, autonomic and motor symptoms or signs. It is resulted from many different causes. Many antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) are considered to manage epileptic attacks. Some of them change metabolism and absorption of many nutrients. Therefore, epileptic patients may be in higher risk of nutrient deficiency and its unwelcome effects. In the present paper, we intend to review the relationship between nutrition and epilepsy in two aspects. In one aspect we discuss the nutritional status in epileptic patients, the causes of nutritional deficiencies and the way of compensation of the nutrient deficiencies. It will guide these patients to have a healthy life. In another aspect we explain the role of some nutrients and specific diets in management of epileptic attacks. It can help to better control of epileptic attacks in these patients.

Keywords: Epilepsy; Seizure; Nutritional status; Diet

Introduction

Epilepsy is a common and chronic neurological diseases (1), classified into several groups based on clinical characteristics (2-3). Etiology of epilepsy is not well known but genetic (4), physical and metabolic causes have been ascribed so far (5). Mutation in some genes encoded voltage-gated Na⁺ and k⁺ channel respectively plays an important role in molecular pathogenesis of some kinds of epilepsy (6-7). Physical causes such as trauma (8-9), stroke (10), infection (11-12) and tumors (9, 13) are also involved in the etiology of symptomatic epilepsy. Important metabolic causes result in reduction of oxygen supply in blood and (9) mitochondrial disorders which can leads to the lack of ATP needs for cellular metabolism (14-15). Aknown mechanism involved in pathogenesis of seizure related to nutritional status, is the imbalance between free radicals and antioxidant agents. In a study, level of zinc (Zn) decreased and level of copper (CU) increased in epileptic children before initiation of treatment with AEDs, however, serum level of iron was decreased in girls (16). Normal dietary intake of some minerals such as Zn, Cu and selenium (Se) needed in the normal function of antioxidative system, are essential for normal function of neurons and aid to treatment of seizure consecutively (17, 18).

Relationship between nutrition and epilepsy

1. Nutritional status in epileptic patients

Antiepileptic drugs

AEDs are classified in two categories. One is the liver “enzyme-inducing antiepileptic drugs” (EIAED) and another is the “non enzyme-inducing antiepileptic drugs” (NEIAED).

Some of AEDs including phenytoin, phenobarbital, and carbamazepine that are in EIAED category induce catabolism of some nutrients. Some of AEDs are in NEIAED category including levetiracetam, valproate sodium, topiramate, clobazam, clonazepam, ethosuximide, gabapentin, lacosamide, lamotrigine, pregabalin, tiagabine, vigabatrin and zonisamide have not serious effects on nutrients (19-22).

In this article we review studies regarding the effects of AEDs on nutrient metabolism in epileptic patients.

Antiepileptic drugs and nutrient deficiencies

Vitamin deficiency

Epileptic patients, treated with EIAEDs, are at risk for bone diseases like osteopenia, osteomalacia, rickets, and osteoporosis (23-27). The correlation between bone fractures and treatment with EIAEDs is reported (28-30). Bone fractures were correlated with the stored load of EIAEDs in these patients (31-32). The proposed mechanism is that EIAEDs may increase the function of the cytochrome p-450 enzymes which induce production of inactive form from the active form of vitamin D (vit D) (23, 33-35). In this way, absorption of the calcium (Ca) from gastrointestinal tract will be reduced. The reduction of the serum vit D and Ca absorption stimulate the release of parathyroid hormone (PTH) which results in higher uptake of Ca from bone (36-39). EIAEDs disturb Ca homeostasis and decrease serum level of Ca. This result is due to the effect of long-term therapy with anticonvulsant drugs on vitamin D metabolism (32, 36, 38, 40).

Therefore patients on long-term treatment with EIAEDs should be followed up for serum vit D level and bone mineral density (BMD) (41-43). Ca and vit D supplementation may prevent vit D and Ca deficiencies and improve BMD in these patients (22, 44-45).

Long term therapy with EIAEDs also decrease concentration of B vitamins including vitamin B1, B2,

B6, B8 and B9 in epileptic patients and increase the aminothiol redox and induce hyper homocysteinemia consequently (20, 46-54). EIAEDs reduce serum biotin or vit B8 level and increase urinary excretion of its metabolites due to rise in biotin catabolism (55-58). Deficiency of nicotinic acid or vit B3 is induced by valproate (59). Serum level of cobalamin or vit B12 was lower in patients treated with AEDs (52, 60-61).

EIAEDs disturb the normal function of folate conjugase in intestine. Mentioned enzyme has key role in conversion of dietary folate polyglutamates to folate monoglutamate for better absorption. As a result, EIAEDs reduce folate absorption from folate polyglutamates in foods (62). Among NEIAED, valproic acid inhibits glutamate formyltransferase enzyme and decrease the formation of active metabolite of folic acid that is named folinic acid (63). Epileptic women taken these drugs may be in high risk to give birth to the neural tube defect (NTD) infants because of low folate absorption (63).

Low folic acid and vitamin B12 level include megaloblastic anemia with high mean corpuscular volume (MCV) and high plasma total homocysteine (Hcy) in these patients (25, 52, 60-61, 64-65). Folate and vitamin B12 deficiency may reduce the chromosomal stability, synthesis of myelin and synthesis of catecholamine, correlated with cognitive deficits and congenital malformations in addition to anemia and hyperhomocysteinemia (52). Studies recommend monitoring serum level of vit B9, vit B12 and serum Hcy. Supplementation with these vitamins improves the mentioned problems. This also can prevent epileptic patients from cardiovascular disease (52, 64, 66-68).

EIAEDs increase catabolism of pyridoxine or vit B6 because of increasing activity of the oxidizing enzyme in the liver, inducing vit B6 deficiency and polyneuropathy consequently in patients with seizure. In addition, EIAEDs reduce the transsulfuration pathway which is effective in PLP synthesis (19-20). Deficiency of vit B6 decrease the seizure threshold (69-70) associated with higher Hcy concentrations (71). Pyridoxine supplementation may improve seizure threshold and hyperhomocysteinemia in these patients (20, 51). Supplementation with B-vitamins was recommended to patients on EIAEDs with

hyperhomocysteinemia and high aminothiols (72). One of the important antioxidant agents known as neuroprotective factors, is ascorbic acid or vit C. It collaborates with vitamin E for decrease oxidative stress, lipid peroxidation and strengthens of brain cell membranes (73). Furthermore, vit C is considered as an antiepileptic agent and a new treatment for seizure control due to induction of protective gene expression (74-75). Therefore, vit C supplementation may help to epileptic patients (76).

EIAEDs with ability of lowering liver retinol (vit A) resources may be teratogenic (77). Usage of EIAEDs in patients with epilepsy may reduce liver vit A storage because of the movement of vit A from liver to the tissues or the stimulation of cytochrome p-450, reticulum endoplasmic enzymes, and increasing of serum retinol-binding protein (78). Therefore, EIAEDs and valproate, induce the liver enzymes that metabolize retinoic acids (RA) and lower the RA level in serum (77). As a result sufficient dietary intake of vit A is recommended to these patients.

Neonates from pregnant epileptic mothers on anticonvulsant drugs are at higher risk of vitamin K deficiency however deficiency of vit K is not common in mothers (79). Vitamin K supplementation during pregnancy in epileptic mothers that are on EIAEDs will not lower the risk of vit K deficiency in neonates, but supplementation after birth in infants will be efficient (80).

Mineral deficiency

Reports on the impact of antiepileptic drugs on the homeostasis of minerals are little and controversial (81-82). EIAEDs effect on Zn and Cu metabolism and induce Zn deficiency (75, 83). But in controversy Zn serum levels in these patients and healthy people are not significantly different (84-87). It was supposed that distribution of intracellular Zn was affected by AEDs (88).

Cu serum levels increase in epileptic patients because of increasing the ceruloplasmin synthesis and Cu absorption (75, 83, 89). Patients with epilepsy are at risk of selenium (Se) and Zn deficiencies that have antioxidant function. Valproic acid, phenytoin, and carbamazepine produce higher reactive oxygen species (ROS) that use resources

of Zn and Se but new epileptic drugs (e.g., topiramate and zonisamide) have not this effect. Se storage depletion may induce hepatotoxicity because of its antioxidant effects (53, 81-82). Carbamazepine monotherapy may maintain trace element and antioxidants resources rather than phenytoin (86). Phenytoin did not alter iron, magnesium (Mg) and Zn serum levels (75).

However, high dietary intake of Zn or uncontrolled Zn supplementation can produce toxicity and induce some of central nervous system problem such as brain ischemia and epilepsy (90). Thus brain Zn homeostasis should be maintained for prevention and treatment of neurological disorders (91). Zn supplementation has no positive effects on BBB integrity and long term Zn supplementation has negative effect on Mg and Cu brain concentration in epileptic patients (16, 92). Generally, monitoring of dietary intake, serum level of nutrients and compensation of deficiencies is recommended in epileptic patients.

1. Recommended Diets in epileptic patients

Some patients are resistant to antiepileptic drugs, then ketogenic diet can help to control their attacks (93).

- Ketogenic diet

In patients with uncontrolled attacks, one of the most common and well-documented diets used as a treatment for drug-resistant epileptic patients is ketogenic diet (KD) (94-98). Ketogenic diet is consequential method to support of treatment in several types of epilepsy like atonic, mixed and myoclonic seizures (98-99). Ketogenic diet is supposed as a beneficial choice for treatment of patients with intractable seizures, instead of neurosurgery option, because of less adverse effects (95). Decrease in glucose level and ketosis are significant changes occurred during KD therapy. Lowering the serum level of glucose is more contributing to the control of seizures (100).

The main mechanism of action in KD is not well known, but the high fat, low carbohydrate and enough protein content of the diet, lead to rise in plasma ketone bodies which play a helpful role in lowering the excitability of neurons and modifying seizure threshold. Moreover, ketone bodies can alter the amount of fluid, electrolytes and lipids intake on the way to help control of seizure attacks (95-97, 101-103).

Ketogenic diet produces some mediators named acetoacetate and β -hydroxybutyrate (BHB), or both. These metabolites substitute for glucose as the substrate for energy producer, like the mechanism seen in long term hunger (104-106). Ketogenic diet is administered in two forms. One is the classic KD, includes long-chain triglycerides (LCT) and second is medium-chain triglyceride (MCT) KD that contains fatty acids with 6–12 carbons. MCTs are included more common fatty acids, caprylic acid (CA8: 50–75% content), capric acid (CA10: 23–45%), caproic acid (CA6: 1–3%) and lauric acid (CA12: 1–5%) (94, 107-110). Co-administration of CA8 and CA10, promote the anti-seizure effect of MCT ketogenic diet (111). Medium-chain triglycerides are more helpful in energy production because of faster production of ketone bodies and well-absorbed from GI in comparison to LCT in classic KD (99, 107-110, 112-116).

The classic KD, with 3/1 ratio of fat/carbohydrate and MCT ketogenic diet have identical effect on control of seizure, but those have different effects on plasma lipid levels. Plasma cholesterol level in MCT regimen remains normal against the rise of that in the classic KD. In addition the amounts of free fatty acids in plasma increase on the MCT regimen lesser than classic KD (104). Medium-chain triglycerides are more soluble in aqueous media in comparison with LCTs. They are in free form in circulation and have high affinity to carriers which facilitate the transport from blood–brain barrier (114, 117-122).

CA10 is agonist of PPARs which leads to rise of the metabolic enzymes in mitochondria of the neuronal cell (123). CA8 and CA10 increase the phosphorylation of p38 mitogen-activated kinase (MAPK) and extracellular signal regulated kinase (ERK) that act as anti-convulsant by altering the seizure inducer molecules (124-126). Another compound like branched medium chain fatty acids are new options to control epilepsy in some cases whom medium-chain triglyceride KD (MCTKD) is not sustainable (112). Octanoic acid or caprylic acid is one of the branched medium chain fatty acids achieved from the hydrolyses of coconut oil (110).

Dravet syndrome (DS) is an infantile onset epileptic encephalopathy which is resistant to some antiepileptic drugs (127-128). One study compared KD with some

AEDs used for DS patients. The efficacy of them was the same but the KD has lesser side effects (129). Fatty acids in KDs are saturated or monounsaturated so may have some complications (130). Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) introduced as another option for aid to treat epilepsy. They includes omega-3 with the combination of docosahexanoic acid (DHA) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) that are in seals and marine fishes, alpha-linoleic acid (ALA) and in flaxseed, almonds, walnuts, as well as omega-6 which composed of linoleic acid (LA) and arachidonic acid (AA). Daily intake of 1 capsule includes of 1080 mg eicosapentaenoic acid and docosahexanoic acid (low dose fish oil) is more effective to improve seizures than high dose (131-133). Classic KD is based on butter, cream, and olive oil (130). KD increase energy and GABA production due to changing in tricarboxylic acid cycle. It also decreases production of ROS in brain. Ketogenic diet increases the expression of neuronal uncoupling proteins (UCPs) and some energy metabolism genes in mitochondria (134-135).

Ketogenic diet may produce diet limitations and deficiencies of some vitamins and minerals corrected with administration of vitamin and mineral supplements. Supplementation with vit B, vit D, Ca, Sel, Mg, Zn and phosphorus has been recommended in KD. In this way, one new carbohydrate-free multivitamin and mineral named NanoVM (Solace Nutrition, Rockville, MD, U.S.A.) have been designed for the KD in child. However, the appropriate multivitamin and mineral for epileptic patients on KD have already not been studied and designed (136-138).

Some adverse effects of KD are growth (139), metabolic, gastrointestinal and urinary problems including hypercholesterolemia, hypocalcemia, hyperlipidemia (140-141), Secondary hypocarnitinemia (142), hypomagnesemia, lowered amino acid levels, acidosis (143-145), vomiting, constipation, diarrhea, and abdominal pain (145), kidney stone (136). Thus epileptic patients on KD should be observed by neurologist and dietitian for control of complications and nutritional deficiencies (136, 146).

Few studies have been done on anticonvulsant complications of KD. In one study with a large population, half of patients improved over the 2 yr therapy, although

the observations have some differences with those in children. Some complications of KD were the changes of serum level HDL, triglyceride and carnitine in children so carnitine supplementation was needed. Supplementation with carnitine induce transportation of raised free fatty acids into mitochondria and decrease serum triglyceride (147). Ketosis alters the electrolyte, fluid and lipid concentration balance (95).

Modified Atkins Diet and Low Glycemic Index Diet

Because of KD complications mentioned above, other types of diets were recommended in management of adolescents, adults (138, 153) and epileptic children along with AED (154). These diets were named Modified Atkins Diet (MAD) (103, 152) and Low Glycemic Index Treatment (LGIT).

MAD is a modification of KD which includes PUFA (n-3 and n-6) groups that their protective role against seizure without any significant side effects has been demonstrated. This diet has been prepared of canola oil and diverse menu items such as fish and nuts (103, 130, 147). The mechanism of action in PUFAs-enriched diets is upregulation of some genes involved in mitochondrial metabolisms and stabilizing of neuron synapses which result in seizure hold up (103). PUFAs-enriched diet induces the production of mitochondrial uncoupling proteins (148). The agonistic function of ALA on PPARs is another mechanism which prevents seizure attacks by increasing the seizure thresholds (149). MAD is similar to classic KD. In MAD 10 g/d carbohydrate at the start of diet is raised to 20 g/d within 3 months although total daily intake of proteins, calories, and fluids were not decreased (155).

Within LGIT, 40–60 g/d carbohydrate has been recommended. Carbohydrates with low glycemic indices are ones that increase blood glucose very low. Thus, blood glucose in patients on this diet is stable (152). Low Glycemic Index Treatment and Modified Atkins diet have well-controlled complications and lesser dietary restrictions in adult and children than KD (156-159).

In conclusion, some AEDs can induce nutritional deficiencies. Then both nutritional status and serum levels of nutrients should be monitored in epileptic patients periodically deficiencies must be compensated with

precise supplements. We recommend to supplementation with appropriate amounts of vitamins and minerals compound (multivitamin & mineral) included of vitamin A, D, E, C, B complex, Ca, Sel and Zn.

Three alternatives of diets are considered for management of attacks in epileptic patients. These diets are KD, MAD and LGIT. We assessed these diets and recommended KD only in patients with no response to AEDs. But MAD and LGIT are appropriate in other patients on AEDs because of lower side effects and aid to treatment.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Tehran University of Medical sciences and Iranian Center of Neurological Research specially Mrs. Bahareh Pourghaz for her kind collaborations without our study.

Author Contribution

Danesh Soltani MD: Substantial contributions to the conception of the work; Drafting the work

Majid Ghaffar Pour MD: Substantial contributions to the conception of the work, revising the work; interpretation of data for the work

Abbas Tafakhori MD: revising the work critically

Payam Sarraf MD: revising the work critically

Sama Bitarafan MD & PhD: Substantial contributions to the conception and design of the work, interpretation of data for the work, Final approval of the version to be published; Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity

Conflict of interest

There is no Conflict of interest.

References

1. Gagnani A, Müller BR, Oliveira AF, Ferreira LM. Burns and epilepsy—review and case report. *Burns* 2014; 41:e15–e18.
2. Carlson C, Dugan P, Kirsch HE, Friedman D, Investigators E. Sex differences in seizure types and symptoms. *Epilepsy Behav* 2014; 41:103-8.
3. Speed D, O'Brien TJ, Palotie A, Shkura K, Marson AG,

- Balding DJ, et al. Describing the genetic architecture of epilepsy through heritability analysis. *Brain* 2014; 137:2680-9.
4. Poduri A, Sheidley BR, Shostak S, Ottman R. Genetic testing in the epilepsies developments and dilemmas. *Nat Rev Neurol* 2014; 10:293-9.
 5. Malkan A, Beran RG. An appraisal of the new operational definition of epilepsy-Then and now. *Epilepsy Behav* 2014; 41:217-20.
 6. Wong VC, Fung C, Kwong AK. SCN2A mutation in a Chinese boy with infantile spasm-response to Modified Atkins Diet. *Brain Dev* 2014; 37:729-732.
 7. Rogawski MA. KCNQ2/KCNQ3 K. channels and the molecular pathogenesis of epilepsy: implications for therapy. *Trends Neurosci* 2000; 23:393-8.
 8. Annegers JF, Hauser WA, Coan SP, Rocca WA. A population-based study of seizures after traumatic brain injuries. *N Engl J Med* 1998; 338:20-24.
 9. Falconer Ma, Serafetinides Ea, Corsellis Jn. Etiology and pathogenesis of temporal lobe epilepsy. *Arch Neurol* 1964; 10:233-48.
 10. Menon B, Shorvon SD. Ischaemic stroke in adults and epilepsy. *Epilepsy Res* 2009; 87:1-11.
 11. Annegers J, Hauser W, Beghi E, Nicolosi A, Kurland L. The risk of unprovoked seizures after encephalitis and meningitis. *Neurology* 1988; 38:1407-10.
 12. Matera G, Labate A, Quirino A, Lamberti AG, Borzi G, Barreca GS, et al. Chronic neuroborreliosis by *B. garinii*: an unusual case presenting with epilepsy and multifocal brain MRI lesions. *New Microbiol* 2014; 37:393-97.
 13. Rajneesh KF, Binder DK. Tumor-associated epilepsy. *Neurosurg Focus* 2009; 27:E4.
 14. Kovac S, Abramov AY, Walker MC. Energy depletion in seizures: Anaplerosis as a strategy for future therapies. *Neuropharmacology* 2013; 69:96-104.
 15. Prasad C, Rupa T, Prasad AN. Pyruvate dehydrogenase deficiency and epilepsy. *Brain Dev* 2011; 33:856-65.
 16. Seven M, Basaran SY, Cengiz M, Unal S, Yuksel A. Deficiency of selenium and zinc as a causative factor for idiopathic intractable epilepsy. *Epilepsy Res* 2013; 104:35-39.
 17. Xiang J, Jiang Y. Regulation of Cu-Zn superoxide dismutase on SCN2A in SH-SY5Y cells as a potential therapy for temporal lobe epilepsy. *Mol Med Rep* 2014; 9:16-22.
 18. Mintzer S, Skidmore CT, Sperling MR. B-Vitamin deficiency in patients treated with antiepileptic drugs. *Epilepsy Behav* 2012; 24:341-4.
 19. Apeland T, Mansoor MA, Pentieva K, McNulty H, Strandjord RE. Fasting and post-methionine loading concentrations of homocysteine, vitamin B2, and vitamin B6 in patients on antiepileptic drugs. *Clin Chem* 2003; 49:1005-8.
 20. Brodie MJ, Mintzer S, Pack AM, Gidal BE, Vecht CJ, Schmidt D. Enzyme induction with antiepileptic drugs: cause for concern? *Epilepsia* 2013; 54:11-27.
 21. Miziak B, Blaszczyk B, Chroscinska-Krawczyk M, Danilkiewicz G, Jagiello-Wójtowicz E, Czuczwar SJ. The problem of osteoporosis in epileptic patients taking antiepileptic drugs. *Expert Opin Drug Saf* 2014; 13:1-12.
 22. Gough H, Goggin T, Bissessar A, Baker M, Crowley M, Callaghan N. A comparative study of the relative influence of different anticonvulsant drugs, UV exposure and diet on vitamin D and calcium metabolism in outpatients with epilepsy. *QJM* 1986; 59:569-77.
 23. Hahn TJ. Drug-induced disorders of vitamin D and mineral metabolism. *Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1980; 9:107-29.
 24. Roe DA. Diet and Drug Interactions. In: Monika Grejniec, editor. *Drug-induced nutritional deficiencies*. 1st ed. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold; 1989:83-103.
 25. Beerhorst K, Tan I, Krom M, Verschuure P, Aldenkamp A. Antiepileptic drugs and high prevalence of low bone mineral density in a group of inpatients with chronic epilepsy. *Acta Neurol Scand* 2013; 128:273-80.
 26. Shen C, Chen F, Zhang Y, Guo Y, Ding M. Association between use of antiepileptic drugs and fracture risk: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Bone* 2014; 64:246-53.
 27. Perreault S, Dragomir A, Blais L, Moride Y, Rossignol M, Ste-Marie LG, et al. Population-based study of the effectiveness of bone-specific drugs in reducing the risk of osteoporotic fracture. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2008; 17:248-59.
 28. Ahmad BS, Hill KD, O'Brien TJ, Gorelik A, Habib N, Wark JD. Falls and fractures in patients chronically

- treated with antiepileptic drugs. *Neurology* 2012; 79:145-51.
29. Nicholas JM, Ridsdale L, Richardson MP, Grieve AP, Gulliford MC. Fracture risk with use of liver enzyme inducing antiepileptic drugs in people with active epilepsy: cohort study using the general practice research database. *Seizure* 2013; 22:37-42.
 30. Beerhorst K, Schouwenaars F, Tan I, Aldenkamp A. Epilepsy: fractures and the role of cumulative antiepileptic drug load. *Acta Neurolo Scand* 2012; 125:54-9.
 31. Weinstein RS, Bryce GF, Sappington LJ, King DW, Gallagher BB. Decreased Serum Ionized Calcium and Normal Vitamin D Metabolite Levels with Anticonvulsant Drug Treatment. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1984; 58:1003-9.
 32. Fitzpatrick LA. Pathophysiology of bone loss in patients receiving anticonvulsant therapy. *Epilepsy Behav* 2004; 5:3-15.
 33. Pack AM, Olarte LS, Morrell MJ, Flaster E, Resor SR, Shane E. Bone mineral density in an outpatient population receiving enzyme-inducing antiepileptic drugs. *Epilepsy Behav* 2003; 4:169-74.
 34. Phabphal K, Geater A, Limapichat K, Sathirapanya P, Setthawatcharawanich S, Leelawattana R. Effect of switching hepatic enzyme- inducer antiepileptic drug to levetiracetam on bone mineral density, 25 hydroxyvitamin D, and parathyroid hormone in young adult patients with epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2013; 54:e94-e8.
 35. Richens A, Rowe D. Disturbance of calcium metabolism by anticonvulsant drugs. *BMJ* 1970; 4:73-76.
 36. Hahn TJ, Hendin BA, Scharp CR, Haddad Jr JG. Effect of chronic anticonvulsant therapy on serum 25-hydroxycalciferol levels in adults. *N Engl J Med* 1972; 287:900-4.
 37. Bouillon R, Reynaert J, Claes JH, Lissens W, De Moor P. The effect of anticonvulsant therapy on serum levels of 25-hydroxy-vitamin D, calcium, and parathyroid hormone. *Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1975; 41:1130-5
 38. Lifshitz F, Maclaren NK. Vitamin D-dependent rickets in institutionalized, mentally retarded children receiving long-term anticonvulsant therapy .I.A survey of 288 patients. *J Pediatr* 1973; 83:612-20.
 39. Deb S, Cowie VA, Tsanaclis LM, Richens A. Calcium homeostasis in mentally handicapped epileptic patients. *J Intellectual Disabil Res* 1985; 29:403-10.
 40. Teagarden DL, Meador KJ, Loring DW. Low vitamin D levels are common in patients with epilepsy. *Epilepsy Res* 2014; 108:1352-6.
 41. Petty SJ, O'Brien T, Wark J. Anti-epileptic medication and bone health. *Osteoporosis Int* 2007; 18:129-42.
 42. Wu FJ, Sheu SY, Lin HC. Osteoporosis is associated with antiepileptic drugs: a population- based study. *Epileptic Disord* 2014; 16:333-42.
 43. Lazzari AA, Dussault PM, Thakore- James M, Gagnon D, Baker E, Davis SA, et al. Prevention of bone loss and vertebral fractures in patients with chronic epilepsy- Antiepileptic drug and osteoporosis prevention trial. *Epilepsia* 2013; 54:1997-2004.
 44. Christiansen C, Rødbro P, Lund M. Incidence of anticonvulsant osteomalacia and effect of vitamin D: controlled therapeutic trial. *BMJ* 1973; 4:695-701.
 45. Krause K, Bonjour J, Berlit P, Kynast G, Schmidt-Gayk H, Schellenberg B. Effect of long-term treatment with antiepileptic drugs on the vitamin status. *Drug Nutr Interact* 1987; 5:317-43.
 46. Schwaninger M, Ringleb P, Winter R, Kohl B, Fiehn W, Rieser PA, et al. Elevated plasma concentrations of homocysteine in antiepileptic drug treatment. *Epilepsia* 1999; 40:345-50.
 47. Apeland T, Mansoor MA, Strandjord RE, Kristensen O. Homocysteine concentrations and methionine loading in patients on antiepileptic drugs. *Acta Neurol Scand* 2000; 101:217-23.
 48. Apeland T, Mansoor MA, Strandjord RE, Vefring H, Kristensen O. Folate, homocysteine and methionine loading inpatients on carbamazepine. *Acta neurol scand* 2001; 103:294-9.
 49. Apeland T, Mansoor MA, Strandjord RE. Antiepileptic drugs as independent predictors of plasma total homocysteine levels. *Epilepsy Res* 2001; 47:27-35.
 50. Apeland T, Mansoor MA, Pentieva K, McNulty H, Seljeflot I, Strandjord RE. The effect of B-vitamins on hyperhomocysteinemia in patients on antiepileptic drugs. *Epilepsy Res* 2002; 51:237-47.
 51. Linnebank M, Moskau S, Semmler A, Widman G, Stoffel- Wagner B, Weller M, et al. Antiepileptic drugs

- interact with folate and vitamin B12 serum levels. *Ann Neurol* 2011; 69:352-9.
52. Scheinfeld N. Phenytoin in cutaneous medicine: Its uses and side effects. *Dermatol Online J* 2003; 9:6-22.
 53. Reynolds E, Chanarin I, Milner G, Matthews D. Anticonvulsant therapy, folic acid and vitamin B12 metabolism and mental symptoms. *Epilepsia* 1966; 7:261-70.
 54. Krause K-H, Kochen W, Berlit P, Bonjour J-P. Excretion of organic acids associated with biotin deficiency in chronic anticonvulsant therapy. *Int J Vitam Nutr Res* 1984; 54:217-22.
 55. Mock DM, Mock NI, Nelson RP, Lombard KA. Disturbances in biotin metabolism in children undergoing long-term anticonvulsant therapy. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 1998; 26:245-50.
 56. Krause KH, Berlit P, Bonjour JP. Impaired biotin status in anticonvulsant therapy. *Ann Neurol* 1982; 12:485-6.
 57. Mock DM, Dyken ME. Biotin catabolism is accelerated in adults receiving long-term therapy with anticonvulsants. *Neurology* 1997; 49:1444-7.
 58. Gillman MA, Sandyk R. Nicotinic acid deficiency induced by sodium valproate. *S Afr Med J* 1984; 65:986.
 59. Semmler A, Moskau-Hartmann S, Stoffel-Wagner B, Elger C, Linnebank M. Homocysteine plasma levels in patients treated with antiepileptic drugs depend on folate and vitamin B12 serum levels, but not on genetic variants of homocysteine metabolism. *Clin Chem Lab Med* 2013; 51:665-9.
 60. Ray K. Epilepsy: Antiepileptic drugs reduce vitamin B12 and folate levels. *Nature Rev Neurol* 2011; 7:125.
 61. Hoffbrand A, Necheles T. Mechanism of folate deficiency in patients receiving phenytoin. *The Lancet* 1968; 292:528-30.
 62. Zahn C. Neurologic care of pregnant women with epilepsy. *Epilepsia*. 1998;39:S26-S31.
 63. Belcastro V, Striano P. Antiepileptic drugs, hyperhomocysteinemia and B-vitamins supplementation in patients with epilepsy. *Epilepsy res* 2012; 102:1-7.
 64. Bochyńska A, Lipczyńska-Łojkowska W, Gugala-Iwaniuk M, Lechowicz W, Restel M, Graban A, et al. The effect of vitamin B supplementation on homocysteine metabolism and clinical state of patients with chronic epilepsy treated with carbamazepine and valproic acid. *Seizure* 2012; 21:276-81.
 65. Bailey LB. Folate in health and disease: in: Taylor and Francis group, editor. *folate and neurological disease*. 2nd ed. CRC Press; 2009; 325-355.
 66. Paknahad Z, Chitsaz A, Zadeh AH, Sheklabadi E. Effects of common anti-epileptic drugs on the serum levels of homocysteine and folic acid. *Int J Prev Med* 2012; 3:S186-S190.
 67. Jeeja MC, Jayakrishnan T, Narayanan PV, Kumar MSV, Thejus T, Anilakumari VP. Folic acid supplementation on homocysteine levels in children taking antiepileptic drugs: A randomized controlled trial. *J PharmacolPharmacother* 2014; 5:93-99.
 68. Coburn SP. Location and turnover of vitamin B6 pools and vitamin B6 requirements of Humana. *Ann N Y AcadSci* 1990; 585:76-85.
 69. Kretsch MJ, Sauberlich HE, Newbrun E. Electroencephalographic changes and periodontal status during short-term vitamin B-6 depletion of young, nonpregnant women. *Am J ClinNutr* 1991; 53:1266-74.
 70. Attilakos A, Papakonstantinou E, Schulpis K, Voudris K, Katsarou E, Mastroianni S, et al. Early effect of sodium valproate and carbamazepine monotherapy on homocysteine metabolism in children with epilepsy. *Epilepsy Res* 2006; 71:229-32.
 71. Apeland T, Froyland ES, Kristensen O, Strandjord RE, Mansoor MA. Drug-induced perturbation of the aminothiol redox-status in patients with epilepsy: improvement by B-vitamins. *Epilepsy Res* 2008; 82:1-6
 72. Sawicka-Glazer E, Czuczwar SJ. Vitamin C: A new auxiliary treatment of epilepsy? *Pharmacol Rep* 2014; 66: 529-533.
 73. Ullah I, Badshah H, Naseer MI, Lee HY, Kim MO. Thymoquinone and Vitamin C Attenuates Pentylentetrazole-Induced Seizures Via Activation of GABAB1 Receptor in Adult Rats Cortex and Hippocampus. *Neuromolecular Med* 2014; 17:1-12.
 74. Dubick MA, Keen CL. Alterations in tissue trace element and ascorbic acid metabolism in phenytoin-fed rats and mice. *J Nutr* 1985; 115:1481-7.
 75. Wilcox RE, Riffie WH, Goldman C-PL, Young RK. Effects of ascorbate on a dopaminergic response:

- Apomorphine-induced modification of pentylenetetrazol-induced seizures in mice. *Psychopharmacology* 1984; 83:48-50.
76. Fex G, Larsson K, Andersson A, Berggren-Söderlund M. Low serum concentration of all-trans and 13-cis retinoic acids in patients treated with phenytoin, carbamazepine and valproate. *Arch Toxicol* 1995; 69:572-4.
 77. Leo MA, Lowe N, Lieber CS. Decreased hepatic vitamin A after drug administration in men and in rats. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1984; 40:1131-6.
 78. Cornelissen M, Steegers-Theunissen R, Kollée L, Eskes T, Vogels-Mentink G, Motohara K, et al. Increased incidence of neonatal vitamin K deficiency resulting from maternal anticonvulsant therapy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1993; 168:923-8.
 79. Cornelissen M, Steegers-Theunissen R, Kollée L, Eskes T, Motohara K, Monnens L. Supplementation of vitamin K in pregnant women receiving anticonvulsant therapy prevents neonatal vitamin K deficiency. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1993; 168:884-8.
 80. Nazıroğlu M, Yürekli VA. Effects of antiepileptic drugs on antioxidant and oxidant molecular pathways: focus on trace elements. *Cell Mol Neurobiol* 2013; 33:589-99.
 81. Hurd R, Van Rinsvelt H, Wilder B, Karas B, Maenhaut W, De Reu L. Selenium, zinc, and copper changes with valproic acid. Possible relation to drug side effects. *Neurology* 1984; 34:1393-95.
 82. Palm R, Hallmans G. Zinc and copper metabolism in phenytoin therapy. *Epilepsia* 1982; 23:453-61.
 83. Lewis-Jones M, Evans S, Culshaw M. Cutaneous manifestations of zinc deficiency during treatment with anticonvulsants. *BMJ (Clinical research ed)* 1985; 290:603-604.
 84. Kuzuya T, Hasegawa T, Shimizu K, Nabeshima T. Effect of anti-epileptic drugs on serum zinc and copper concentrations in epileptic patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther Toxicol* 1993; 31:61-5.
 85. Liu C-S, Wu H-M, Kao S-H, Wei Y-H. Serum trace elements, glutathione, copper/zinc superoxide dismutase, and lipid peroxidation in epileptic patients with phenytoin or carbamazepine monotherapy. *Clin Neuropharmacol* 1998; 21:62-4.
 86. Castro-Gago M, Pérez-Gay L, Gómez-Lado C, Castiñeiras-Ramos DE, Otero-Martínez S, Rodríguez-Segade S. The influence of valproic acid and carbamazepine treatment on serum biotin and zinc levels and on biotinidase activity. *J Child Neurol* 2011; 26:1522-4.
 87. Yuen W, Whiteoak R, Thompson R. Zinc concentrations in leucocytes of patients receiving antiepileptic drugs. *J Clin Pathol* 1988; 41:553-5.
 88. Ghose K, Taylor A. Hypercupraemia induced by antiepileptic drugs. *Hum Exp Toxicol* 1983; 2:519-29.
 89. Morris DR, Levenson CW. Ion channels and zinc: mechanisms of neurotoxicity and neurodegeneration. *J Toxicol* 2012; 201:1-6.
 90. Gower- Winter SD, Levenson CW. Zinc in the central nervous system: from molecules to behavior. *Biofactors* 2012; 38:186-93.
 91. Yorulmaz H, Şeker FB, Demir G, Yalçın İE, Öztaş B. The Effects of Zinc Treatment on the Blood-Brain Barrier Permeability and Brain Element Levels During Convulsions. *Biol Trace Elem Res* 2013; 151:256-62.
 92. Wojciak RW, Mojs E, Stanislawska-Kubiak M, Samborski W. The serum zinc, copper, iron, and chromium concentrations in epileptic children. *Epilepsy Res* 2013; 104:40-4.
 93. Kessler SK, Gallagher PR, Shellhaas RA, Clancy RR, Bergqvist A. Early EEG improvement after ketogenic diet initiation. *Epilepsy Res* 2011; 94:94-101.
 94. Wilder R, editor. The effects of ketonemia on the course of epilepsy. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1921; 2: 307-308.
 95. Lefevre F, Aronson N. Ketogenic diet for the treatment of refractory epilepsy in children: a systematic review of efficacy. *Pediatrics* 2000; 105:46-53.
 96. Freeman JM, Kossoff EH, Hartman AL. The ketogenic diet: one decade later. *Pediatrics* 2007; 119:535-43.
 97. Danial NN, Hartman AL, Stafstrom CE, Thio LL. How does the ketogenic diet work? Four potential mechanisms. *J Child Neurol* 2013; 28:1027-33.
 98. Klepper J. GLUT1 deficiency syndrome in clinical practice. *Epilepsy res* 2012; 100:272-7.
 99. Neal EG, Chaffe H, Schwartz RH, Lawson MS, Edwards N, Fitzsimmons G, et al. The ketogenic diet for the treatment of childhood epilepsy: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol* 2008; 7:500-6.
 100. Lutas A, Yellen G. The ketogenic diet: metabolic

- influences on brain excitability and epilepsy. *Trends Neurosci* 2013; 36:32-40.
101. Hartman AL, Gasior M, Vining EP, Rogawski MA. The neuropharmacology of the ketogenic diet. *Pediatr Neurol* 2007; 36:281-92.
 102. Stafstrom CE, Rho JM. The ketogenic diet as a treatment paradigm for diverse neurological disorders. *Front Pharmacol* 2012; 3:1-8.
 103. Yoon J-R, Lee EJ, Kim HD, Lee JH, Kang H-C. Polyunsaturated fatty acid-enriched diet therapy for a child with epilepsy. *Brain Dev* 2014; 36:163-6.
 104. Huttenlocher PR. Ketonemia and seizures: metabolic and anticonvulsant effects of two ketogenic diets in childhood epilepsy. *Pediatr Res* 1976; 10:536-40.
 105. Owen O, Morgan A, Kemp H, Sullivan J, Herrera M, Cahill Jr G. Brain metabolism during fasting. *J Clin Invest* 1967; 46:1589-95.
 106. Smith AL, Satterthwaite HS, Sokoloff L. Induction of Brain D (m)- β -Hydroxybutyrate Dehydrogenase Activity by Fasting. *Science* 1969; 163:79-81.
 107. Vining EP. Clinical efficacy of the ketogenic diet. *Epilepsy Res* 1999; 37:181-90.
 108. YmC L, Wang H. Medium-chain triglyceride ketogenic diet, an effective treatment for drug-resistant epilepsy and a comparison with other ketogenic diets. *Biomed J* 2013; 36:9-15.
 109. Huttenlocher P, Wilbourn A, Signore J. Medium-chain triglycerides as a therapy for intractable childhood epilepsy. *Neurology* 1971; 21:1526-632.
 110. Bach AC, Babayan VK. Medium-chain triglycerides: an update. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1982; 36:950-62.
 111. Właż P, Socala K, Nieoczym D, Żarnowski T, Żarnowska I, Czuczwar SJ, et al. Acute anticonvulsant effects of capric acid in seizure tests in mice. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 2015; 57:110-6.
 112. Chang P, Zuckermann AM, Williams S, Close AJ, Cano-Jaimez M, McEvoy JP, et al. Seizure control by derivatives of medium chain fatty acids associated with the ketogenic diet show novel branching-point structure for enhanced potency. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2015; 352:43-52.
 113. Henderson ST. Ketone bodies as a therapeutic for Alzheimer's disease. *Neurotherapeutics* 2008; 5:470-80.
 114. Johnson RC, Young SK, Cotter R, Lin L, Rowe W. Medium-chain-triglyceride lipid emulsion: metabolism and tissue distribution. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1990; 52:502-8.
 115. McGarry JD, Foster DW. The Regulation of Ketogenesis from Octanoic Acid The Role Of The Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle And Fatty Acid Synthesis. *J Biol Chem* 1971; 246:1149-59.
 116. Papamandjaris AA, MacDougall DE, Jones PJ. Medium chain fatty acid metabolism and energy expenditure: obesity treatment implications. *Life Sci* 1998; 62:1203-15.
 117. Samson Jr FE, Dahl N, Dahl DR. A study on the narcotic action of the short chain fatty acids. *J Clin Invest* 1956; 35:1291-8.
 118. Ebert D, Haller RG, Walton ME. Energy contribution of octanoate to intact rat brain metabolism measured by ^{13}C nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *J Neurosci* 2003; 23:5928-35.
 119. Edmond J, Higa TA, Korsak RA, Bergner E, Lee WNP. Fatty acid transport and utilization for the developing brain. *J Neurochem* 1998; 70:1227-34.
 120. Rapoport SI. In vivo fatty acid incorporation into brain phospholipids in relation to plasma availability, signal transduction and membrane remodeling. *J Mol Neurosci* 2001; 16:243-61.
 121. Spector R. Fatty Acid Transport Through the Blood-Brain Barrier. *J Neurochem* 1988; 50:639-43.
 122. Walker C, McCandless D, McGarry J, Schenker S. Cerebral energy metabolism in short-chain fatty acid-induced coma. *J Lab Clin Med* 1970; 76:569-83.
 123. Hughes SD, Kanabus M, Anderson G, Hargreaves IP, Rutherford T, Donnell MO, et al. The ketogenic diet component decanoic acid increases mitochondrial citrate synthase and complex I activity in neuronal cells. *J Neurochem* 2014; 129:426-33.
 124. Kamata Y, Shiraga H, Tai A, Kawamoto Y, Gohda E. Induction of neurite outgrowth in PC12 cells by the medium-chain fatty acid octanoic acid. *Neuroscience* 2007; 146:1073-81.
 125. Jiang W, Van Cleemput J, Sheerin AH, Ji SP, Zhang Y, Saucier DM, et al. Involvement of extracellular regulated kinase and p38 kinase in hippocampal seizure tolerance. *J Neurosci Res* 2005; 81:581-8.
 126. Jung S, Bullis JB, Lau IH, Jones TD, Warner LN, Poolos

- NP. Downregulation of dendritic HCN channel gating in epilepsy is mediated by altered phosphorylation signaling. *J Neurosci* 2010; 30:6678-88.
127. Scheffer IE. Genetics of the epilepsies: channelopathies and beyond. *Epilepsia*. 2011; 52:192-3.
128. Genton P. When antiepileptic drugs aggravate epilepsy. *Brain Dev* 2000; 22:75-80.
129. Dressler A, Trimmel-Schwahofer P, Reithofer E, Mühlebner A, Gröppel G, Reiter-Fink E, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of the ketogenic diet in Dravet syndrome- Comparison with various standard antiepileptic drug regimens. *Epilepsy Res* 2015; 109:81-9.
130. Dahlin M, Hjelte L, Nilsson S, Åmark P. Plasma phospholipid fatty acids are influenced by a ketogenic diet enriched with n-3 fatty acids in children with epilepsy. *Epilepsy Res* 2007; 73:199-207.
131. DeGiorgio CM, Miller PR, Harper R, Gornbein J, Schrader L, Soss J, et al. Fish oil (n-3 fatty acids) in drug resistant epilepsy: a randomised placebo-controlled crossover study. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2015; 86:670-5.
132. Taha AY, Burnham WM, Auvin S. Polyunsaturated fatty acids and epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2010; 51:1348-58.
133. Taha A, Ryan MAA, Cunnane SC. Despite transient ketosis, the classic high-fat ketogenic diet induces marked changes in fatty acid metabolism in rats. *Metabolism* 2005; 54:1127-32.
134. Bough KJ, Rho JM. Anticonvulsant mechanisms of the ketogenic diet. *Epilepsia* 2007; 48:43-58.
135. Bough KJ, Wetherington J, Hassel B, Pare JF, Gawryluk JW, Greene JG, et al. Mitochondrial biogenesis in the anticonvulsant mechanism of the ketogenic diet. *Ann Neurol* 2006; 60:223-35.
136. Kossoff EH, Zupec-Kania BA, Amark PE, Ballaban-Gil KR, Christina Bergqvist A, Blackford R, et al. Optimal clinical management of children receiving the ketogenic diet: recommendations of the International Ketogenic Diet Study Group. *Epilepsia* 2009; 50:304-17.
137. Bergqvist A, Schall JI, Stallings VA. Vitamin D status in children with intractable epilepsy, and impact of the ketogenic diet. *Epilepsia* 2007; 48:66-71.
138. Sharma S, Jain P. The ketogenic diet and other dietary treatments for refractory epilepsy in children. *Ann Indian Acad Neurol* 2014; 17:253-8.
139. Kim JT, Kang H-C, Song J-E, Lee MJ, Lee YJ, Lee EJ, et al. Catch-up growth after long-term implementation and weaning from ketogenic diet in pediatric epileptic patients. *Clin Nutr* 2013; 32:98-103.
140. Mosek A, Natour H, Neufeld MY, Shiff Y, Vaisman N. Ketogenic diet treatment in adults with refractory epilepsy: a prospective pilot study. *Seizure* 2009; 18:30-3.
141. Klein P, Janousek J, Barber A, Weissberger R. Ketogenic diet treatment in adults with refractory epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav* 2010; 19:575-9.
142. Berry-Kravis E, Booth G, Sanchez AC, Woodbury-Kolb J. Carnitine levels and the ketogenic diet. *Epilepsia* 2001; 42:1445-51.
143. Schwartz RH, Eaton J, Bower B, Aynsley-Green A. Ketogenic Diets In The Treatment Of Epilepsy: Short-Term Clinical Effects. *Dev Med Child Neurol* 1989; 31:145-51.
144. Chesney D, Brouhard BH, Wyllie E, Powaski K. Biochemical abnormalities of the ketogenic diet in children. *Clin Pediatr* 1999; 38:107-9.
145. Kang HC, Chung DE, Kim DW, Kim HD. Early- and late-onset complications of the ketogenic diet for intractable epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2004; 45:1116-23.
146. Wheless JW. The ketogenic diet: an effective medical therapy with side effects. *J Child Neurol* 2001; 16:633-5.
147. Fraser D, Whiting S, Andrew R, Macdonald E, Musa-Veloso K, Cunnane S. Elevated polyunsaturated fatty acids in blood serum obtained from children on the ketogenic diet. *Neurology* 2003; 60:1026-9.
148. Freeman J, Veggiotti P, Lanzi G, Tagliabue A, Perucca E. The ketogenic diet: from molecular mechanisms to clinical effects. *Epilepsy Res* 2006; 68:145-80.
149. Lin Q, Ruuska SE, Shaw NS, Dong D, Noy N. Ligand selectivity of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α . *Biochemistry* 1999; 38:185-90.
150. Nei M, Ngo L, Sirven JI, Sperling MR. Ketogenic diet in adolescents and adults with epilepsy. *Seizure* 2014; 23:439-442.
151. Schoeler NE, Wood S, Aldridge V, Sander JW, Cross JH, Sisodiya SM. Ketogenic dietary therapies for adults with epilepsy: Feasibility and classification of response. *Epilepsy Behav* 2014; 37:77-81.
152. Kossoff EH, McGrogan JR, Bluml RM, Pillas DJ,

- Rubenstein JE, Vining EP. A modified Atkins diet is effective for the treatment of intractable pediatric epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2006; 47:421-4.
153. Pfeifer HH, Thiele EA. Low-glycemic-index treatment: a liberalized ketogenic diet for treatment of intractable epilepsy. *Neurology* 2005; 65:1810-2.
154. Coppola G, D'Aniello A, Messana T, Di Pasquale F, della Corte R, Pascotto A, et al. Low glycemic index diet in children and young adults with refractory epilepsy: first Italian experience. *Seizure* 2011; 20:526-8.
155. Kossoff EH, Turner Z, Bluml RM, Pyzik PL, Vining EP. A randomized, crossover comparison of daily carbohydrate limits using the modified Atkins diet. *Epilepsy Behav* 2007; 10:432-6.
156. Kossoff EH, Dorward JL. The modified Atkins diet. *Epilepsia* 2008; 49:37-41.
157. Sharma S, Sankhyan N, Gulati S, Agarwala A. Use of the modified Atkins diet in infantile spasms refractory to first-line treatment. *Seizure* 2012; 21:45-8.
158. Sharma S, Sankhyan N, Gulati S, Agarwala A. Use of the modified Atkins diet for treatment of refractory childhood epilepsy: a randomized controlled trial. *Epilepsia* 2013; 54:481-6.
159. Karimzadeh P, Sedighi M, Beheshti M, Azargashb E, Ghofrani M, Abdollahe-Gorgi F. Low Glycemic Index Treatment in pediatric refractory epilepsy: The first Middle East report. *Seizure* 2014; 23:570-2.

Archive of SID

SID



سرویس های
ویژه



سرویس ترجمه
تخصصی



کارگاه های
آموزشی



بلاگ
مرکز اطلاعات علمی



عضویت در
خبرنامه



فیلم های
آموزشی

کارگاه های آموزشی مرکز اطلاعات علمی جهاد دانشگاهی



مباحث پیشرفته یادگیری عمیق؛
شبکه های توجه گرافی
(Graph Attention Networks)



کارگاه آنلاین آموزش استفاده از
وب آوساینس



کارگاه آنلاین مقاله روزمره انگلیسی