

Table 1. Classification of severity of traumatic brain injury.

Severity	Description
Mild TBI	No skull fracture found, and ≤ 30 min post-traumatic amnesia or LOC
Moderate TBI	Skull fracture or other injuries, post-traumatic amnesia or LOC lasting between 30 min and 24 h, and not meeting criteria for severe TBI
Severe TBI	Documented brain contusion, intracerebral hematoma, or >24 h post-traumatic amnesia or LOC

LOC: Loss of consciousness; TBI: Traumatic brain injury.
Data taken from [13].

studies and review articles have attempted to identify risk factors for PTE (TABLE 2). Upon reviewing the literature, Ferguson *et al.* [10] determined that there is an overall agreement that increased severity of TBI appears to lead to an increased risk of PTE [9,14–18]. The most consistent risk factor for PTS is the presence of intracerebral blood, which can result in up to a 30% increase in the risk of PTS [3,19]. The most consistently significant risk factor for PTE is the occurrence of early PTS (i.e., within 1 week after head injury) [3,20,21]. The presence of subdural hematoma, brain contusion and multiple risk factors of severe TBI also increased the overall rate of PTE [21]. Increasing severity of PTE also correlated with higher seizure frequency, as well as epilepsy that is refractory to antiepileptic drug (AED) therapy [20]. Recently published data from the Vietnam Head Injury Study 35-year follow-up report suggested that patients with penetrating head injuries carry a high risk of developing PTE decades after their injury [22]. The same report also concluded lesion location, lesion size and lesion type were predictors of PTE.

Although not identified as an independent risk factor, depression is recognized as a common comorbidity with epilepsy [10,23–26]. One case series documented that individuals identified as having depression at hospital discharge were almost twice as likely to develop PTE [10]. In addition, the presence of comorbid conditions, especially three or more, was linked with increased likelihood of developing PTE [10].

Diagnosis & evaluation of PTS & PTE

There has been significant focus on computed tomography, EEG and MRI after TBI to evaluate risk of PTE. Angeleri *et al.* performed a 12-month prospective study evaluating clinical progress, EEG and computed tomography at four scheduled intervals [27]. Some patients in this study also underwent MRI. Results showed correlation of PTE with early seizures, frontal or temporal lesions on acute computed tomography, development of an EEG focus 1 month after TBI, and cortical MRI hyperintense areas, including hemosiderin [27]. In subsequent work, serial MRI studies of TBI patients enrolled in the Angeleri *et al.* study were evaluated from 1994 to 2000 [28]. Increased risk for PTE was found after surgical treatment for subdural hematomas or contusions, as well as for a subgroup with hemorrhagic contusions on acute imaging and resulting hemosiderin dregs incompletely surrounded by gliosis on follow-up MRI [28]. In addition to identifying risk factors for PTE, several studies have demonstrated that the risk for PTE after TBI is initially high and decreases over time [15,21,29].

It is recommended to obtain neuroimaging and an EEG after PTS [30]. In some studies, the presence of interictal abnormalities or hematomas increase the likelihood of PTE; however, no definite predictors have been clearly identified. In 1975, Jennett did not find EEGs to be significantly useful in predicting development of PTE after TBI [31]. The 2003 American Academy of Neurology practice parameter for the use of

Table 2. Independent risk factors for post-traumatic seizures and post-traumatic epilepsy.

Risk factors for PTS	Risk factors for PTE
Acute intracerebral hematoma	PTS
Acute subdural hematoma	Acute intracerebral hematoma
Younger age	Acute subdural hematoma
Increased injury severity	Brain contusion
Chronic alcoholism	Increased injury severity
	Age older than 65 years at time of injury

PTE: Post-traumatic epilepsy; PTS: Post-traumatic seizures.
Modified with permission from [3].

AED prophylaxis in severe TBI also references the need for further research into the utility of EEG in differentiating which patients are at increased risk of developing PTE [32].

Treatment of PTS & PTE

Randomized clinical studies of PTS and PTE are limited despite the fact that the onset of PTE is delayed and most survivors of cases of severe TBI accessed the healthcare system early after their TBI. The discrete nature of TBI allows for an opportunity for preventive intervention for PTE. However, only a few randomized studies examining the prevention of PTE (class I or II studies) have been published [33,34]. There are trends in these and other studies suggesting that several AEDs, such as phenytoin, phenobarbital, carbamazepine and valproic acid, are effective for the prevention of early PTS, but not late PTS or PTE. A meta-analysis review, using Cochrane-pooled data methodology from several randomized controlled clinical trials, confirmed that prophylactic treatment with phenytoin or carbamazepine were effective in reducing the risk of early, but not late, PTS [33,34]. These studies have led to the recommendation of prophylactic AED therapy during the first week after TBI, but not continuing AED therapy beyond then unless late PTS develop [30]. Formisano *et al.* evaluated patients with severe TBI. In their study, patients who did not receive prophylactic therapy did not develop PTE in the 2-year follow-up period [35]. In another clinical trial, 5 days of continuous infusion of magnesium – a glutamate antagonist – at the NMDA receptor, given within 8 h after moderate or severe TBI, was demonstrated not to be neuroprotective and might, in fact, have a negative effect in the treatment of significant head injury [36].

No randomized controlled studies of AEDs have compared the different AEDs for the symptomatic treatment of seizures in PTE. The presence of other comorbidities, including psychiatric symptoms such as depression, might often dictate the selection of AED treatment, such as long-term therapy using lamotrigine [25,37]. In clinical practice, patients with intractable PTE are treated with a variety of anticonvulsants, devices such as vagus-nerve stimulation and resective surgery of limited lesions. Patients who received anticonvulsants as prophylactic treatment or who only had early PTS undergo downward titration of anticonvulsants over a few weeks. No randomized studies are available owing to different timing or rates of anticonvulsant discontinuation for this particular group.

Conclusion

Post-traumatic epilepsy is a common etiological factor among the epilepsies. Severity of TBI and presence of intracranial bleeding are predictors for PTS. Seizures within the first week after TBI appear to be a provoked reaction to the head injury. Preventing these early seizures with AED therapy is possible, but it does not alter the susceptibility to late seizures or the development of PTE. Further research is needed to better understand the neurobiology underlying this complex medical condition.

Future perspective

In 2007, the NIH held a conference on curing epilepsy. One of the workshops identified several potential areas for the discovery of mechanisms and novel targets to prevent epileptogenesis in several situations, including TBI. The areas targeted as promising biomarkers were [38–40]:

- Genomic
- Biochemical
- Electrophysiological
- Neurobehavioral
- Imaging

Using these biomarkers, it might be possible to conduct more targeted clinical trials, focused on TBI patients who have the highest probability to develop PTE. The other important advance has been the development of several animal models that more accurately represent the spectrum of neurobiological responses after TBI, opening the possibility for new experimental targets of truly antiepileptogenic therapies [41,42].

There are multiple medical and social issues related to epilepsy that have been well documented. As summarized in a review article by Bushnik *et al.*, these issues include anxiety, depression, poor self-esteem, cognitive impairment, social isolation, decreased employment and driving ramifications [43]. Further research is underway to assess these issues in patients with TBI and those with PTE.

Financial & competing interests disclosure

The authors have no relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript. This includes employment, consultancies, honoraria, stock ownership or options, expert testimony, grants or patents received or pending, or royalties.

No writing assistance was utilized in the production of this manuscript.

Executive summary

Definitions & classification

- Post-traumatic epilepsy (PTE) refers to recurrent and unprovoked post-traumatic seizures (PTS) that occur at least 1 week after traumatic brain injury (TBI).
- Seizures during the first week after TBI are considered to be provoked by the head injury and known as early PTS.
- Seizures occurring 1 week after TBI are considered as a manifestation of PTE and are called late PTS.

Predictors of PTE

- Predictors for PTE include TBI severity, presence of intracranial bleeding and early PTS.

Diagnosis & evaluation of PTS & PTE

- It is recommended to obtain neuroimaging and EEG after PTS.

Treatment of PTS & PTE

- Several clinical trials have demonstrated that antiepileptic drugs are effective in reducing the frequency of acute PTS, but do not appear to alter the natural history of PTE.

Bibliography

Papers of special note have been highlighted as:

- of interest
- of considerable interest

- 1 Fisher RS, van Emde BW, Blume W *et al.*: Epileptic seizures and epilepsy: definitions proposed by the International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE) and the International Bureau for Epilepsy (IBE). *Epilepsia* 46, 470–472 (2005).
- 2 Hauser WA, Annegers JF, Kurland LT: Prevalence of epilepsy in Rochester, Minnesota: 1940–1980. *Epilepsia* 32, 429–445 (1991).
- 3 Frey LC: Epidemiology of posttraumatic epilepsy: a critical review. *Epilepsia* 44(Suppl. 10), 11–17 (2003).
- **Thorough epidemiological review of post-traumatic epilepsy (PTE) that provides important information on incidence and risk factors for developing PTE in both civilian and military populations, as well as the working definitions involved in PTE.**
- 4 Jennett B: Early traumatic epilepsy. Incidence and significance after nonmissile head injuries. *Arch. Neurol.* 30(5), 394–398 (1974).
- 5 Asikainen I, Kaste M, Sarna S: Early and late posttraumatic seizures in traumatic brain injury rehabilitation patients: brain injury factors causing late seizures and influence of seizures on long-term outcome. *Epilepsia* 40, 584–589 (1998).
- 6 Bruns J, Hauser WA: The epidemiology of traumatic brain injury: a review. *Epilepsia* 44(Suppl. 10), 2–10 (2003).
- 7 Rutland-Brown W, Langlois JA, Thomas KE *et al.*: Incidence of traumatic brain injury in the United States. *J. Head Trauma Rehabil.* 21, 544–548 (2006).
- 8 Agrawal A, Timothy J, Pandit L, Manju M: Post-traumatic epilepsy: an overview. *Clin. Neurol. Neurosurg.* 108, 433–439 (2006).
- 9 Haltiner AM, Temkin NR, Dikmen SS: Risk of seizure recurrence after the first late posttraumatic seizure. *Arch. Phys. Med. Rehabil.* 78, 835–840 (1997).
- 10 Ferguson PL, Smith GM, Wannamaker BB, Thurman DJ, Pickelsimer EE, Selassie AW: A population-based study of risk of epilepsy after hospitalization for traumatic brain injury. *Epilepsia* 51, 891–898 (2010).
- **Reviews the incidence of PTE in a population, as well as modifiable and nonmodifiable risk factors for developing PTE.**
- 11 Salazar AM, Jabbari B, Vance SC, Grafman J, Amin D, Dillon JD: Epilepsy after penetrating head injury. I. Clinical correlates: a report of the Vietnam Head Injury Study. *Neurology* 35(10), 1406–1414 (1985).
- 12 Weiss GH, Salazar AM, Vance SC, Grafman JH, Jabbari B: Predicting posttraumatic epilepsy in penetrating head injury. *Arch. Neurol.* 43(8), 771–773 (1986).
- 13 Annegers JF, Grabow JD, Groover RV, Laws ER Jr, Elveback LR, Kurland LT: Seizures after head trauma: a population study. *Neurology* 30, 683–689 (1980).
- 14 Hillbom E: Delayed effect of traumatic brain injuries. Neurological remarks. *Acta Psychiatr. Neurol. Scand.* 34, 7–42 (1959).
- 15 Weiss GH, Feeney DM, Caveness WF *et al.*: Prognostic factors for the occurrence of post-traumatic epilepsy. *Arch. Neurol.* 40, 7–10 (1983).
- 16 Schutze M, Dauch WA, Guttinger M, Hampel-Christiansen M, Firsching R: Risk factors for posttraumatic fits and epilepsy. *Zentralbl. Neurochir.* 60, 163–167 (1999).
- 17 Annegers JF, Coan SP: The risks of epilepsy after traumatic brain injury. *Seizure* 9, 453–457 (2000).
- 18 Christensen J, Pedersen MG, Pedersen CB, Sidenius P, Olsen J, Vestergaard M: Long-term risk of epilepsy after traumatic brain injury in children and young adults: a population-based cohort study. *Lancet* 373, 1105–1110 (2009).
- 19 Desai BT, Whitman S, Coonley-Hoganson R *et al.*: Seizures and civilian head injuries. *Epilepsia* 24, 289–296 (1983).
- 20 Temkin NR, Haglund MM, Winn HR: Causes, prevention and treatment of post-traumatic epilepsy. *New Horiz.* 3(3), 518–522 (1995).
- 21 Temkin NR: Risk factors for posttraumatic seizures in adults. *Epilepsia* 44(Suppl. 10), 18–20 (2003).
- **Presents data from two studies identifying risk factors for PTE in individuals originally considered to be at high risk for PTE given severity of traumatic brain injury at initial presentation.**
- 22 Raymont V, Salazar AM, Lipsky R *et al.*: Correlates of posttraumatic epilepsy 35 years following combat brain injury. *Neurology* 75, 224–229 (2010).
- **Presents a 35-year, Phase III follow-up analysis of PTE after traumatic brain injury from the Vietnam Head Injury Study.**
- 23 Schmitz EB, Robertson MM, Trimble MR: Depression and schizophrenia in epilepsy: social and biological risk factors. *Epilepsy Res.* 35, 59–68 (1999).
- 24 Hermann BP, Seidenberg M, Bell B: Psychiatric comorbidity in chronic epilepsy: identification, consequences, and treatment of major depression. *Epilepsia* 41(Suppl. 2), S31–S41 (2000).
- 25 Ettinger A, Reed M, Cramer J; Epilepsy Impact Project Group: Depression and comorbidity in community-based patients with epilepsy or asthma. *Neurology* 63, 1008–1014 (2004).
- 26 Mensah SA, Beavis JM, Thapar AK, Kerr M: The presence and clinical implications of depression in a community population of adults with epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav.* 8, 213–219 (2006).

- 27 Angeleri F, Majkowski J, Cacchio G *et al.*: Posttraumatic epilepsy risk factors: one-year prospective study after head injury. *Epilepsia* 40, 1222–1230 (1999).
- 28 Messori A, Polonara G, Carle F *et al.*: Predicting posttraumatic epilepsy with MRI: prospective longitudinal morphologic study in adults. *Epilepsia* 46(9), 1472–1481 (2005).
- 29 Annegers JF, Hauser WA, Coan SP *et al.*: A population-based study of seizures after traumatic brain injuries. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 338, 20–42 (1998).
- 30 Chen JW, Ruff RL, Eavey R, Wasterlain CG: Posttraumatic epilepsy and treatment. *J. Rehabil. Res. Dev.* 46(6), 685–696 (2009).
- 31 Jennett B, van de Sande J: EEG prediction of post-traumatic epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 16(2), 251–256 (1975).
- 32 Chang BS, Lowenstein DH: Practice parameter: antiepileptic drug prophylaxis in severe traumatic brain injury. *Neurology* 60, 10–16 (2003).
- 33 Schierhout G, Roberts I: Prophylactic antiepileptic agents after head injury: a systematic review. *J. Neurol. Neurosurg. Psychiatr.* 64(1), 108–112 (1998).
- 34 Temkin NR: Antiepileptogenesis and seizure prevention trials with antiepileptic drugs: meta-analysis of controlled trials. *Epilepsia* 42(4), 515–524 (2001).
- **Meta-analysis of controlled drug trials evaluating effectiveness of antiepileptic drugs for provoked and unprovoked seizures.**
- 35 Formisano R, Barba C, Buzzi MG *et al.*: The impact of prophylactic treatment on post-traumatic epilepsy after severe traumatic brain injury. *Brain Inj.* 21(5), 499–504 (2007).
- 36 Temkin NR, Anderson GD, Winn HR *et al.*: Magnesium sulfate for neuroprotection after traumatic brain injury: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol.* 6(1), 29–38 (2007).
- 37 Bombardier CH, Fann JR, Temkin NR, Esselman PC, Barber J, Dikmen SS: Rates of major depressive disorder and clinical outcomes following traumatic brain injury. *JAMA* 303(19), 1938–1945 (2010).
- 38 Lowenstein DH: Epilepsy after head injury: an overview. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl. 2), 4–9 (2009).
- 39 Temkin NR: Preventing and treating posttraumatic seizures: the human experience. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl. 2), 10–13 (2009).
- 40 Diaz-Arrastia R, Agostini MA, Madden CJ, Van Ness PC: Posttraumatic epilepsy: the endophenotypes of a human model of epileptogenesis. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl. 2), 14–20 (2009).
- 41 Pitkänen A, Immonen RJ, Gröhn OH, Kharatishvili I: From traumatic brain injury to posttraumatic epilepsy: what animal models tell us about the process and treatment options. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl. 2), 21–29 (2009).
- 42 Dichter MA: Posttraumatic epilepsy: the challenge of translating discoveries in the laboratory to pathways to a cure. *Epilepsia* 50(Suppl. 2), 41–45 (2009).
- **Reviews the basic mechanisms involved in progression from traumatic brain injury to PTE as well as an important discussion on the need for further research and collaboration.**
- 43 Bushnik T, Englander J, Duong T: Medical and social issues related to posttraumatic seizures in persons with traumatic brain injury. *J. Head Trauma Rehabil.* 19(4), 296–304 (2004).