

CATAMENIAL EPILEPSY: HISTORY, EPIDEMIOLOGY, DIAGNOSIS, PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Epilepsy is a disease resulting from the disorders in neuronal excitability. There are impressive views that explain the mechanism of the occurrence of epileptic seizures. The present clinical review on the history, epidemiology, diagnosis, pathophysiology, and management of catamenial epilepsy uncovers various aspects that are either needed to be further confirmed or otherwise are needed to be conducted for newer information at cellular and molecular level. The history of epilepsy summarized in the present article provides the diagnostic and therapeutic approaches to understand the catamenial seizures and carry out further studies for better understanding and applications. The variation in steroid, gonadotropic and other hormones/ systemic changes/ comorbidity associated changes has enormous involvement in the development/ exacerbation/ inhibition of seizures/ seizure disorders/ catamenial seizures in women with epilepsy during any of the involved cycle phase/ segment. There is an urgent requirement of incorporating multidisciplinary approach for clinicophysiological, and physicomathematical applications for better understanding and innovative management of medical disorders. Such and other therapeutic approaches in medicine could revolutionize the methodologies for pathophysiological understandings especially employing the biophysical and mathematical medicine for the management of seizures/ catamenial seizures and other medical disorders. Further studies would hopefully explore the intricate impact of hormones and other factors/ changes in the pathophysiology and diagnostic and therapeutic aspects of catamenial epilepsy.

Keywords: Catamenial epilepsy, steroid hormones and gonadotropins, history, epidemiology, diagnosis, pathophysiology, management

INTRODUCTION

Epilepsy is a disease resulting from the disorders in neuronal excitability. In general, about 65 million people world-over suffer from epileptic disorders (Ngugi *et al.*, 2010). The International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE) provides the criteria for epilepsy/epilepsy syndromes to establish a diagnostic uniformity (Kansal *et al.*, 2024). In this regard, some of the factors causing alteration in excitability are electrolytes, glucose, blood gases, hormones etc. that may cause the development of seizures. It has been documented that no specific variation occurs by gender (Burneo *et al.*, 2005). However, the endocrine and neuroendocrine variations occurring during menstrual cycle influences the epilepsy and severity of seizures/ epileptic disorders (Roeder and Leira, 2021; Octaviana *et al.*, 2022; Sazgar *et al.*, 2023; Rider *et al.*, 2024). Furthermore, it is also known that the seizure dispersion could be affected by the pattern of seizure occurrence, and hence it seems necessary to evaluate more thoroughly the dispersion of seizures and with/ without medication (Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Voinescu and Pennell, 2017; Octaviana *et al.*, 2022).

There are impressive views that explain the mechanism of the occurrence of epileptic seizures (Delgado-Escueta *et al.*, 1986; Hussain *et al.* 1987; Aziz and Hussain, 1994a, b; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Leppik and Birnbaum, 2010; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). The involved factors in the pathophysiology of epilepsy were presented (Haglund and Schwartzkroin, 1990; Hussain, 1991; Pitkänen *et al.*, 2007; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021; Kansal *et al.*, 2024). It was evident that epilepsy patients present various hormonal disturbances (Hussain *et al.*, 2006; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Pennell, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Octaviana *et al.*, 2022; Sazgar *et al.*, 2023; Rider *et al.*, 2024). Important reports in perimenstrual seizures (Roszczewska, 1987; Herzog *et al.*, 1997; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Roeder and Leira, 2021) provided firm evidence that seizure frequently occurs in association with menstruation/ menstruation related cycle phases.

There are different views about cause of the occurrence/ dispersion of catamenial seizures (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020), e.g., water retention (McQuarrie, 1932), primary role of progesterone and estrogen (Laidlaw, 1956; Backstrom, 1976) decrease of progesterone in luteal phase but not in the follicular phase (Roszczewska *et al.*, 1985; Herzog and Frye, 2014), and psychic and emotional disturbances/complications (Stieglitz and Kimble, 1949) denied by Ansell and Clarke (1956b). Epileptic

seizures during the menstrual cycle and the role of steroid hormones (mainly estrogen and progesterone) in catamenial epilepsy were studied thoroughly (Backstrom, *et al.*, 1985; Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; Tuveri *et al.*, 2008; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Octaviana *et al.*, 2022; Sazgar *et al.*, 2023; Rider *et al.*, 2024).

Several studies emphasize the relationship of various factors with epilepsy e.g., temperature and sleep-wake cycle (Hussain, 1991), calcium (Hussain, 1991; Hamed *et al.*, 2004), epileptic seizures and the cortical excitability and gonadotrophic hormones (Luef, 2010), prolactin (Hussain, 1991; Luef, 2010), cortisol (Hussain, 1991; Marek *et al.*, 2010), electrolytes and water metabolism (Hussain, 1991; Castilla-Guerra *et al.*, 2006; Reynolds *et al.*, 2007), and antiseizure medication (Hussain *et al.*, 1987, 2007a; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hamed *et al.*, 2004).

The feedback mechanism (Rebar and Yen, 1979) explains the control of hypothalamo-pituitary axis (HHPA). Electrolytes and seizure occurrence were found associated (Jacono and Robertson, 1987). The occurrence of seizures in women with epilepsy with/ without medication was studied thoroughly (Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Voinescu and Pennell, 2017; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). However, the present review emphasizes the need of further studies for dispersion pattern of epileptic seizures in women with catamenial and noncatamenial seizures, and their association with the variation in hormones for diagnostic, pathophysiological and management purpose.

EPILEPSY- CLASSIFICATION/ TYPES

Epilepsy and its classification have been presented considering various views (Marsden and Reynolds, 1982; Kansal *et al.*, 2024). Based on various approaches, just a seizure cannot be considered as epilepsy since epilepsy is a neuronal disorder originating from brain neurons (Weiner and Levitt, 1989). If clinical processes or events detectable by a subject or the observer in response to neuronal paroxysmal discharge, then such discharge is termed as the epileptic seizure (Hopkins, 1987). Epilepsy is a consequence of various causes expressing finally as the recurrent seizures (Gastaut, 1973). Epilepsy is a condition characterized by recurrent two or more seizures and is quite oldest condition in the human history, (WHO, 2001a) and further techniques have helped diagnosing the people with epilepsy (WHO, 2001b). Various criteria were established for classifying epilepsy/ epileptic seizures (International Classification of Functioning and Disability, 1999; Kansal *et al.*, 2024).

The earlier classification that was well organized later (Hill, 1958) constituted cortical, primary/secondary subcortical and that originating from cortical/ subcortical areas. Later the term epilepsies were found more appropriate than just epilepsy due to complex forms of symptoms (Porter, 1984). Reoccurring seizures chronically with no specific precipitants constitutes epilepsy (Giblin and Blumenfeld, 2010), and about 8-10/ 1000 individuals in most of the areas was the prevalence of epilepsy (Forsgren and colleagues, 2005). The International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE) provides the details for diagnostic features/criteria for epilepsy syndromes that establishes a uniformity for diagnosing epilepsy/ epilepsy syndromes in various conditions. (Kansal *et al.*, 2024). Taylor (1931) suggested occasional excessive and a quite disorderly neuronal discharges were aligned with seizures. Such seizures or fits and their manifestations occur in response to excessive neuronal activity, but epilepsy was found more than were these seizures (Marsden and Reynolds, 1982).

Epilepsy syndromes were included in epilepsy classification (Dreifuss, 1987; Kansal *et al.*, 2024). The concept of dichotomies while classifying epilepsies was challenged (Engel, 2006), and the concept of systems in the ictal phenomenon/ event in generalized seizures was introduced (Polack *et al.*, 2007). Five important criteria (type of seizures and EEG analysis, causes/ etiology, extent/ magnitude of seizure severity, level of chronicity and predominantly involved body part) (Merlis, 1972) helped classifying epilepsy as generalized (primary or secondary) and partial. It was noted that as suggested previously (Penfield and Erickson, 1941) for epilepsy being only the reoccurrence of fits or seizures, and only the "paroxysmal cerebral dysrhythmia" (Gibbs *et al.*, 1937) could not be understood clearly. It was redefined by Penfield physiologically as a tendency to periodic involuntary neuronal discharges /explosions (Kiloh *et al.*, 1981).

HISTORY AND EPIDEMIOLOGY OF CATAMENIAL EPILEPSY

The menstrual cycle is regulated by the endocrine and neuroendocrine hormones/ factors and other mechanisms mainly under the control of hypothalamo-hypophyseal-ovarian axis (HHO), and the cycle lasts for around 28 days (24-35) with day 14 as the ovulatory day, while around day around -14 is considered as ovulation day in longer cycles (Herzog *et al.*, 1997; Foldvary-Schaefer and Falcone 2003). Catamenial epilepsy precisely is a type of epilepsy characterized by the increase in the frequency of seizure occurrence mainly during the perimenstrual and periovulatory phases and seizure exacerbation may occur during/ around ovulation or any other phase/ phases. (Hussain *et al.*, 1987, 2006, 2007a; Hussain, 1991, 2010; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Pennell, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). The name catamenial epilepsy was used to indicate the

cyclical increase/ exacerbation of epileptic seizures during a specific phase/ phases/ periods in menstrual cycle (Herzog 2008).

There are reports for 10-78% prevalence of catamenial pattern (Schelp and Speciali, 1983; Taubøll *et al.*, 1991). The terms precatamenial and premenstrual epilepsy are sometimes used synonymously to explain the premenstrual seizure exacerbations mainly or exclusively during few or several days before the start of menstruation. Prevalence of catamenial seizure pattern was documented as the highest where a rough estimation of the dispersion of seizures was found quite high in perimenstrual phases (Taubøll *et al.*, 1991). Herzog *et al.* (1997) defined catamenial epilepsy a type of epilepsy showing greater than average seizure frequency during perimenstrual or periovulatory periods in normal ovulatory cycles and during the luteal phase in anovulatory cycles. The term pericatamenial was used for those conditions where seizures exacerbation occurs during the menstruation related cycle phases (premenstruation, menstruation and postmenstruation) (Hussain *et al.*, 2006, 2007a). Another term semi-pericatamenial or partial pericatamenial was used to describe the conditions where partial dominance of seizure occurrence is found during perimenstrual or menstrual related cycle phases/menstruation related cycle segment (Hussain *et al.*, 2006, 2007a, b).

Some of the women with epilepsy may have certain menstrual abnormality (Bosak *et al.*, 2018) including the absence of ovulation. Tuveri *et al.*, (2008) used a fractional change method to calculate the catamenial change in seizure frequency, but due to wide variability, this method of assessing the catamenial influence is not considered as a proper procedure to be employed for catamenial epilepsy. Decreased levels of progesterone permit gonadotropin-releasing hormone to be increased for generating a new cycle (Foldvary-Schaefer and Falcone 2003; Reddy 2009). Progesterone deficiency and inappropriate luteal phase occur when the cycle is anovulatory (Herzog *et al.*, 1997).

Penfield and Jasper (1954) concluded that epileptic seizures in females often begin around the menarche that shows some relationship of seizures with the menstrual cycle. It was in accordance with the views for menstrual epilepsy (Wilson 1940) that seizures occur mainly before the onset or during menstruation and rarely after the end of menstruation. When the proper definition or specified criteria were strictly followed, the prevalence of catamenial seizure patterns were found low (Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009). The term menstrual or catamenial epilepsy was used to describe the seizure occurrence in relation with the menstrual cycle (Laidlaw (1956; Gastaut, 1973). Another study showed 12.5% of prevalence when around 75 % seizures occurred 10 day perimenstrually in three consecutive menstrual cycles (Duncan *et al.*, 1993).

Wilson (1940) used the term menstrual epilepsy in those women who had majority of their seizures during or after menstruation, and the details were provided later by Penfield & Jasper (1954). The association of seizures in women with sex, menstruation and menstrual cycle were supported (Lennox, 1955; Bandler *et al.*, 1957; Temkin, 1971). It was found that catamenial or menstrual epilepsy occurs around menstruation (Bouchet and Cazauveilh, 1826; Penfield and Jasper, 1954; Lennox, 1955; Ansell and Clarke, 1956b; Logothetis *et al.*, 1959; Backstrom, 1976; Newmark and Penry, 1980; Laidlaw and Richens, 1982; Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Rosciszewska, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Reddy, 2004a; Pennell, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). However, most of the previous studies did not provide the detailed information about the type of epileptic seizures and antiseizure medication (Livingston, 1972).

Two-fold or greater increase in seizures in certain specific phase in at least two consecutive cycles is currently emphasized for better understanding of the catamenial patterns (Reddy, 2009; Herzog 2015; Frank and Tyson, 2020). Gastaut (1973) named pubertal epilepsy and catamenial epilepsy respectively while seizures occurring during puberty and perimenstrual periods, and defined catamenial epilepsy as: "A type of epilepsy characterized mainly or exclusively by catamenial epileptic seizures". Rosciszewska (1987) studied epilepsy in women in their puberty, pre/post-menopause, and pregnancy. Further, the catamenial seizure was defined by Gastaut (1973) as "An epileptic seizure that occurs either during menstruation or several days preceding or following it and that is caused by a lowering of the convulsive threshold secondary to endocrine and cellular changes brought about by menstruation". It was suggested that following / accepting different definitions has influence on how we find the prevalence in the same population (Herzog *et al.*, 1997), and while when considering/ including the data of a greater number of cycles (Herzog *et al.*, 2012). The definition of catamenial epilepsy proposed by Gastaut (1973) is generally accepted (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Herzog *et al.* 2004; Hussain *et al.*, 2006, 2007a; Reddy, 2009).

Analysis of seizure dispersion pattern classifies the menstrual cycle into segments/ phases (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Hussain, 1991, 2010). The other important segment of the menstrual cycle is ovulation related (periovulatory) cycle segment. Catamenial seizures (either perimenstrual or periovulatory) are observed during ovulatory and anovulatory cycles (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008). The terms like semi/partial precatamenial, semi/partial catamenial, semi/partial postcatamenial can also be used considering the seizure dispersion pattern (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Hussain, 1991, 2010). However, it has also been viewed that a two-fold or greater increase in seizure frequency during a particular phase of the menstrual cycle could generally be considered as catamenial epilepsy (Reddy, 2009).

DIAGNOSIS OF CATAMENIAL EPILEPSY

Seizure occurrence and plasma hormone levels during the cycle phases of premenstruation (last four days of the cycle, D: -1, D: -2, D: -3 and D: -4), menstruation (D:1, D:2, D:3, D:4 and D:5, depending on phase duration) and postmenstruation (D:+1, D:+2, D:+3, and D:+4) were studied (Hussain *et al.*, 1987, Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; 2010). Though the seizures appearing at or around the time of menstrual bleeding were termed as catamenial seizures (Rosciszewska, 1987), different criteria were emphasized by various researchers, and cyclical seizures unrelated to menses were ignored (Bandler *et al.*, 1957). Hence, the proper diagnosis is highly essential, as described in detail (Frank and Tyson, 2020; Kansal *et al.*, 2024). The catamenial epilepsy is an intractable type of epilepsy depending on the resistance in cycle phases/ or certain timings in cycle phases (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008; Pennell, 2009; Reddy, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). Patients with both simple partial complex partial and generalized tonic-clonic seizures show association of epilepsy with the menstrual cycle (Rosciszewska, 1980; Backstrom *et al.*, 1984).

To explore the specific phase/ phases involved in catamenial epilepsy, it was revealed that seizure occurrence increased frequently at or around the time of menstrual flow (Logothetis *et al.*, 1959; Frank and Tyson, 2020), only during the time of menses (Kramer, 1977), during almost 2 days after the start of menses (Bunter & Rosciszewska, 1975), in both premenstrual and menstrual phases (Ansell and Clarke, 1956b; Laidlaw, 1956) and during all three perimenstrual phases (premenstrual, menstrual and postmenstrual) though mostly during the last part of premenstrual phase (Hussain *et al.*, 1987, Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; 2010). Backstrom (1976) studied both ovulatory and anovulatory cycles and reported that generalized tonic-clonic seizures increased during menstrual flow and during preovulatory phases. Rosciszewska (1987) showed that only 4 of 226 women with epilepsy had seizures regularly with every menstruation and a further six had occasional seizures during some menstruations only (Rosciszewska, 1974). It was noted that seizure frequency increased for days 14-16 after the start of menses (Helmchen *et al.*, 1964) and decreased during luteal phase from days 4-15 days before menstruation (Laidlaw, 1956). Furthermore, the perimenstrual or periovulatory catamenial seizures were observed to appear in ovulatory as well as anovulatory cycles (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008). Grudzinska and Rosciszewska (1980) noted that most of their patients had tonic-clonic seizures on day 6 and day 22 of menstrual cycle.

It was found that rapid increase in seizures with concomitant fast drop in progesterone occurred during specific phases of the menstrual cycle, especially during the last part of premenstrual phase (Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; Hussain, 2010). Women patients with catamenial epilepsy showed increase in estradiol during premenstrual days (Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; Hussain, 2010). Another report showed drop in estrogen (Herzog *et al.*, 1997) during specific periods of menstrual cycle. Periovulatory pattern of seizure occurrence showed rapid increase in estrogen but no association with increase in progesterone (Navis and Harden, 2016; Frank and Tyson, 2020). There are studies showing seizure exacerbations during and around menses as 10-63% (Ansell & Clarke, 1956b; 72%: Laidlaw, 1956), exacerbation of seizures as 31-60% (Herzog *et al.*, 2004; El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008) and exacerbation of two third of women (Rosciszewska, 1980). These studies confirmed the previously suggested association of seizures during various cycle phases, though no apparent relationship of seizures with various cycle phases were documented (Bandler *et al.*, 1957). Such seizures unrelated to menstrual cycle or any specific cycle phases were considered as noncatamenial seizures (Hussain *et al.*, 1987).

Frequency of seizures is doubled in cycles in the second half of luteal phase with inadequate luteal phase where deficiency of progesterone and elevated estradiol/progesterone ratio occur (Navis and Harden, 2016; Frank and Tyson, 2020). The variation of seizure occurrence in ovulatory and anovulatory cycles can be described with the neuroactive properties of estrogen and progesterone, and serum levels of these steroid hormones in ovulatory compared to anovulatory cycles (Herzog and Fowler, 2008; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020). It is necessary to record the seizures occurring in various phases in the menstrual cycle to verify that the patients are fulfilling the diagnostic criteria to be considered as having the catamenial seizure pattern owing to association with endocrine/ neuroendocrine changes (Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Pennell, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021).

Tonic-clonic seizures were more cyclical in patients with more than one type of epileptic seizures (Rosciszewska, 1987). Frequency for partial seizures increases during menstruation and just before ovulation but decreases during luteal phase (Backstrom *et al.*, 1984). Collecting the precise records of seizure parameters as well as menstrual cycle provide the major information for the proper diagnosis of catamenial/ menstrual epilepsy (Hussain, 1991; Herzog, 2006; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Kansal *et al.*, 2024). Three main patterns of catamenial exacerbations noted during perimenstrual phases are: premenstrual (C1), periovulatory (C2), and luteal (C3) (Herzog *et al.*, 1997; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Pennell, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). First day of the menstrual bleeding was recorded as first day of menstrual cycle (Reddy, 2009). Reddy (2009) divided the menstrual cycle into four phases: menstrual phase (days -3 to +3),

follicular phase (days +4 to +9), ovulatory phase (+10 to +16) and luteal phase (days +17 to -4). However, a little different procedure for evaluating the seizure dispersion pattern in the menstrual cycle was described earlier (Hussain *et al.*, 1987) and the data of non-catamenial epileptics and catamenial epileptics were evaluated (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991, 2010).

Though the endocrine factors were considered unimportant, various studies related to the occurrence/ dispersion of seizures and the analysis and anticonvulsant treatment during menstrual cycle (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Jacono and Robertson, 1987; Rosciszewska, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991; Hussain *et al.*, 2006, 2007a,b; El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Pennell, 2009; Reddy, 2009; Hussain, 2010; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021) indicate an important involvement of hormones in the pathophysiology of catamenial epilepsy.

Controversial results were found for the type of seizures showing catamenial pattern (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Pennell, 2009; Reddy, 2009; Herzog and Frye, 2014; Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). Both the focal and generalized epilepsy patients present catamenial epilepsy (El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008), and epilepsy syndrome and temporal lobe epilepsy patients have prominent catamenial pattern (Morrel, 1999). But unfortunately, most of the previous reports did not describe such information (Ansell and Clarke, 1956b; Bandler *et al.*, 1957) or otherwise included the patients with generalized seizures (Laidlaw, 1956). One report showed generalized but not the partial seizures as cyclical and associated with the menstrual cycle with concomitant variation of estrogen in ovulatory subjects (Backstrom, 1976), whereas partial seizures and not the generalized seizures as cyclical or catamenial (Helmchen *et al.*, 1964) or both generalized tonic-clonic seizures and complex partial seizures were found with catamenial pattern (Sanchez-Longo and Gonzales-Saldana, 1966), However, association of catamenial epilepsy more in partial epilepsy specially related to temporal lobe epilepsy than in the generalized epilepsy was found later (Foldvary-Schaefer and Falcone, 2003).

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF CATAMENIAL EPILEPSY

WATER METABOLISM:

Change in serum sodium in patients having catamenial epilepsy with and without anticonvulsant therapy (Hussain 1991, 2010; Shah *et al.*, 2001; Frank and Tyson, 2020) revealed that water metabolism was found related to the occurrence of catamenial pattern of seizures. Furthermore, the precatamenial (or premenstrual catamenial) epilepsy women showed weight gain in premenstruation and weight loss during menstrual phase (Hussain 1991, 2010), though the extracellular water storage was not primarily found responsible for exacerbation of seizures (Ansell and Clarke, 1956b). Most of the data determined for uncovering the etiology of catamenial epilepsy have been the hormonal (mainly steroid hormones) evaluations (Frank and Tyson, 2020; Roeder and Leira, 2021). It is suggested to carry out further studies to verify the role of water metabolism in the pathobiology of catamenial epilepsy. Acetazolamide showed efficacy in catamenial epilepsy (Lim *et al.*, 2001), whereas valproate, electrolyte disturbances (Castilla-Guerra *et al.*, 2006), combined anticonvulsant therapy (Jallon and Picard, 2001), increased levels of serum sodium in response to long-term anticonvulsant medication (Hamed *et al.*, 2004) increase body weight and metabolic effects and may cause insulin sensitivity (Reynolds *et al.*, 2007), whereas lamotrigine is not related with weight gain in women with menstruation related epilepsy (Morrell *et al.*, 2003).

A significant linear correlation of body weight with menstrual disturbances was obtained in women with generalized epilepsy without any linear correlation of weight change with reproductive hormones/ menstrual disorders (Prabhakar *et al.* 2007). However, change in the levels of gonadosteroids, adrenosteroid hormones, antiepileptic drug (AED) levels and water and electrolyte metabolism in epilepsy women with catamenial pattern was documented (Ansell and Clarke, 1956b; Backstrom, 1976; Tuveri *et al.*, 2008). Decreased levels of ionized calcium may cause seizures (Glasser and Levy, 1960); and overhydration may also lead to generalized tonic-clonic seizure treatable by increase in osmolality (Saly and Andrew, 1993).

GONADOSTEROID HORMONES:

The effect of estrogen on pre-existing epileptic foci in response was suggested since the estrogen administration as a therapy was performed in some of the epilepsy patients, and the response was even aggravation of seizures (Logothetis *et al.*, 1959). It has been documented that urinary excretion of estradiol, estriol and pregnanediol decrease in patients with menstrual epilepsy, whereas excretion of pregnanetriol decrease in epilepsy women with non-catamenial seizures only (Buntner & Rosciszewska, 1975). However, other reports show inconsistent excretions of estrogen or pregnanediol in patients with catamenial pattern of seizures, and excretion of estrogen in patients having both catamenial and non-catamenial pattern of seizures (Thirty *et al.*, 1954; Zaichkina, 1963), but no specific pattern of hormonal excretion could be investigated.

Estrogen facilitates convulsions in kindling model (discovered by Graham Goddard, 1967), hippocampal excitability and audiogenic seizures in animal studies, and hence it is considered as having proconvulsant/anticonvulsant properties (Logothetis *et al.*, 1959; Wooley and Timiras, 1962a; Backstrom, *et al.*, 1985; Hussain *et al.*, 1987, 2006; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991, 2010). The ovariectomized female rats showed that estrogen changes the acquisition of seizures kindled by pentylenetetrazole (PTZ) or repeated stimulation of amygdala (Hom and Buterbaugh, 1986). The estradiol levels associated negatively with the ionized calcium (Jacono and Robertson, 1987). Despite the animal models showed convulsant effects of estrogen and anticonvulsant effects of progesterone (Logothetis *et al.*, 1959; Backstrom, *et al.*, 1985), later studies could not find the convulsant effects of estrogen (Rosciszewska *et al.*, 1986; Rosciszewska 1987). It was further investigated that low dose of estradiol has neuroprotective action (Veliskova and Velisek, 2007; Velísek and Velísková, 2008).

Regarding the role of progesterone in epilepsy, it is pertinent to mention that progesterone in serum and brain correlates since progesterone crosses blood-brain barrier (BBB) quickly (Stoffel-Wagner 2001) and it helps in inhibiting the development and occurrence of seizures (Holmes and, Weber 1984). Progesterone acts a: via converting allopregnanolone and other neurosteroids and hence influencing the brain receptors (Kapur and Joshi, 2021), b: by slow and long lasting post-transcriptional mechanisms (Joshi *et al.*, 2018; Shiono *et al.*, 2021), c: the gamma aminobutyric acid receptor A (GABA_A) receptors that cause effects of allopregnanolone (Joshi and Kapur, 2019), d: by forming 5 α -dihydroprogesterone that inhibits the neuronal activity (Wu and Burnham, 2018), e: as the sulfated progesterone metabolites that decrease the GABAergic neurotransmission, and hence increase in excitability occurs (Joshi and Kapur, 2018; Kapur and Joshi, 2021), f: leading to occurrence of perimenstrual seizures by the activation of progesterone receptors in the last part of luteal phase that elevates the glutamatergic action related to excitatory transmission (Joshi *et al.*, 2018; Kapur and Joshi, 2021), g: by its direct action on brain progesterone receptors and increasing neural excitability, h: by the effect of allopregnanolone to increase the inhibitory effects of GABA_A (Reddy 2004 a), h: as the concentration of progesterone and allopregnanolone are reduced in the last part of luteal phase that increases the excitability (Reddy *et al.*, 2001), and i: as progesterone and allopregnanolone concentration in the mid-luteal phase is maximum, and hence, progesterone has protective effect and maximum inhibition against epileptic seizures (Reddy 2022).

It is known that estrogen causes hyperexcitability (Herzog, 2015), increases the glutamatergic related excitatory transmission through NMDA N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors (glutamate receptors) via mediation of kainite (that activate glutamate receptors) (Smejkalova and Woolley, 2010). Cytochrome aromatase enzymes synthesize estradiol in the hippocampus, and hence the level of estradiol is increased in hippocampus than that in the serum (Hojo *et al.*, 2009). Increase in the frequency of seizures during the pre-ovulatory phase associates with the increased level of estrogen, and similarly increase in estrogen/progesterone ratio during the inadequate luteal phase also associates with increase in the frequency of epileptic seizures (Reddy, 2009).

There are studies that indicate that very high and very low doses of estrogen may increase the epileptic activity, whereas low levels of estrogen decrease the epileptiform activity (Zhang *et al.*, 2005). There is much controversy for the action of estrogen. A U-shaped excitability and dose-dependance style was obtained (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). Estrogen shows a protective effect (Velísková *et al.*, 2010). It was also found that estrogen delayed the time of the onset/ occurrence of seizures induced by kainite (Velísková *et al.*, 2000). Negative correlation of progesterone levels and number of seizures, and positive correlation of estrogen/progesterone ratio with the number of seizures was revealed (Backstrom, 1976; Rosciszewska, 1987). The luteinizing hormone (LH) levels verified the decreased levels of progesterone in luteal but not in follicular phase (Rosciszewska *et al.*, 1985; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991, 2010; Hussain *et al.*, 2006). Significant reduction was recorded in spike frequency after intravenous administration of progesterone in some of the patients (Backstrom, 1984), and it was verified that menstrual cycle and steroid hormones are influenced by seizures and AEDs (Morrell and Montouris, 2004; Kariyawasam *et al.*, 2009; Voinescu and Pennell, 2017; Frank and Tyson, 2020).

The incidence of overweight/obesity especially related to estradiol levels in women of reproductive age is associated with infertility and related disorders and may lead to other disorders attributed both to epilepsy and use of AEDs (Isojärvi *et al.*, 2005; Rehman *et al.*, 2012a, b, 2013a, b, c, d, 2016). The experimental and clinical studies (Abbas *et al.*, 1995; Inam *et al.*, 1995; Khan *et al.*, 1995; Masood *et al.*, 1995; Isojärvi *et al.*, 2005) confirmed the metabolic influences of estradiol.

On the other hand, progesterone was found having anticonvulsant/antiepileptic activity in animal models and human studies (Logothetis *et al.*, 1959; Backstrom *et al.*, 1984, 1985; El-Khayat *et al.*, 2008; Tuveri *et al.*, 2008). The anticonvulsant activity of progesterone was found clearer than the effects of estrogen, e.g., reduction of mid luteal seizures in the presence of increased progesterone levels (Laidlaw, 1956; Backstrom, 1976), and increased seizure occurrence near menstrual period owing to decreasing levels of progesterone (Laidlaw, 1956). Furthermore, the data

from ovulatory cycles in women with generalized as well as partial seizures revealed increased estrogen-progesterone ratio associating with increased seizure occurrence (Backstrom, 1976).

Besides other functions of transient receptor potential (TRP) channels related to common molecular mechanisms for polycystic kidney disease of different genotypes (Wu *et al.*, 2006), a TRP channel activated by heat and endogenous neuro-steroid pregnenolone sulfate have been suggested to be involved in epilepsy and other related disorders (Matsubara *et al.*, 2021; Zhao and Rohacs, 2021). The use of depot medroxyprogesterone acetate, Depo-Provera or DMPA as a contraceptive has demonstrated reduced sperm penetration, show estrogen-associated complications/ disorders, reduced seizure frequency in epilepsy, reduced pre-menstrual symptoms/complications, decreased menstrual flow, and prevention of iron deficiency/ iron deficiency anemia. However, one main drawback/disadvantage of using it is that weight gain occurs (Khoiny *et al.*, 1996; Rehman *et al.*, 2014, 2015).

Applications of the density functional theory (DFT) for understanding the epimeric and anomeric structural complexities (Ahmadi *et al.*, 2017) and studies related to DFT of the reproductive hormones (progesterone and estrone) help understanding the pathophysiological involvement of cyclic variations (Liang *et al.*, 2024), and pathophysiology of epilepsy (Singh and Pathak, 2024). The literature shows that the ion channel and non-ion channel mutations due to gene mutations are the main involvements in epilepsies e.g., sodium channel mutations in epilepsy (Meisler and Kearney, 2005). The role of hydrogen bonding in sodium and other ion channels in epilepsy have revolutionized the area of epileptology, epileptoelectrophysiology and epileptopharmacology (Ahsan, 2013; Hussain 2022 a, 2024 a).

GONADOTROPINS AND OTHER HORMONES:

Serum/ plasma levels of LH and follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) were determined in women with epilepsy and controversy about the gender-based variation in FSH and LH was noticed (Kuba *et al.*, 2006). Various studies showed: post-puberty increased LH in patients taking carbamazepine and valproic acid, and increased LH in untreated patients compared to controls and decreased LH after carbamazepine therapy for initial year (Isojarvi, 1990) and decreased LH-RH (luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone) levels after two months' therapy of carbamazepine; correlation of seizure occurrence with LH levels and abnormal release of LH in women with epilepsy (Morrell, 1999); change in the LH pulse frequency (Bauer, 2001); increased LH concentration in women with epilepsy (Rosciszewska *et al.*, 1985); and significant increase in LH in women with catamenial epilepsy (Hussain, 1991, 2010).

LH was found increased after electroshock convulsions and in the women with generalized epilepsy having increased BMI and menstrual disorders (Prabhakar *et al.*, 2007). Postictal increases in LH, and FSH was found in patients with generalized tonic-clonic as well as partial seizures (Luef, 2010). Abnormalities in LH and FSH were found in women with epilepsy having reproductive disorders (Hamed *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, a recent study reveals that hypothalamo-pituitary-ovarian (HPO) axis is influenced by neuroendocrine mechanisms after the occurrence of epilepsy and hence, secretions of gonadotropins are disturbed (Sazgar *et al.*, 2023). Valproate and lamotrigine therapy associated with variation in FSH and estradiol levels, whereas polytherapy including clobazam caused irregular cycles. (Octaviana *et al.*, 2022).

Levels of serum/ plasma prolactin in women with epilepsy in spontaneous seizures were determined. Some of the significant investigations are: increased plasma prolactin in women with catamenial epilepsy (Hussain, 1991, 2010; Bauer, 2001; Hamed *et al.*, 2004), higher serum concentration of prolactin than normal healthy subjects, positive correlation of prolactin with plasma levels of phenytoin and primidone and elevated levels in after puberty patients undergoing anticonvulsant therapy of valproate and carbamazepine and postictal increased prolactin in epileptic seizures compared to psychogenic attacks, slight correlation of prolactin with seizure duration, no change in prolactin during one year of carbamazepine therapy but decrease after one year therapy, direct correlation with seizure frequency, association of prolactin with the reproductive disorders in women with epilepsy, postictal increase in prolactin in patients with partial seizures and tonic-clonic generalized seizures, and increased levels of serum prolactin after repetitive seizures in women having epilepsy (Isojarvi, 1990; Hamed *et al.*, 2004); Luef, 2010). The lower levels of prolactin and estradiol in women with epilepsy associated with higher seizure frequency (Octaviana *et al.*, 2022).

General studies about the pathophysiological role of cortisol were related to serum/ plasma levels of cortisol after the occurrence of spontaneous epileptic seizures (Hussain, 1991, 2010; Marek *et al.*, 2010; Rider *et al.*, 2024), and influence of antiseizure medication. Cortisol is considered as the differential marker for the diagnosis of epileptic seizures (Ess) and psychogenic non-epileptic seizures (PNESs) (Rider *et al.*, 2024). Some of the pertinent investigations were elevated levels of cortisol (Marek *et al.*, 2010); decreased level of DHEAS/cortisol ratio in catamenial epileptics during perimenstrual phases (Tuveri *et al.*, 2008); and non-significant variation of cortisol (Isojarvi, 1990).

SYSTEMIC AND COMORBIDITY ASSOCIATED CHANGES:

Several changes occur during the seizure occurrence. e.g., it was documented that alteration in sleep-wake cycle (Ogihara *et al.*, 2010) and increase in basal body temperature (Hussain, 1991; Ogihara *et al.*, 2010) may facilitate the occurrence of seizures. Low levels of dopamine in neostriatum and nucleus accumbens septi in epileptic mice showing improvement after intraventricular supply of calcium chloride. Systemic effects of seizures and AEDs in epilepsy was documented (Shah *et al.*, 2001; Hamed *et al.*, 2004). It was demonstrated that anesthetized rats presented extracellular potassium and extracellular calcium response patterns, and calcium influx during the paroxysmal depolarization shift (PDF) after pentylenetetrazol (PTZ) administration (Luecke and Speckmann, 1990). It was further found that the ketamine may block spontaneous epileptiform activity recorded in low calcium, but when there is still some synaptic transmission present.

Changes in sodium and calcium induced by quisqualate, excitatory synaptic contacts, accumulation of extracellular potassium in penicillin-induced epileptogenesis, epileptic bursting activity and inactivation of potassium conductance causing potassium channel inactivity and generating epileptic activity (Swann *et al.*, 2000). It shows the possibility of potassium-channel activators as novel therapeutic intervention in epilepsy disorders. Association of serum calcium with the occurrence of seizures (Hamed *et al.*, 2004), and negative correlation of estrogen and ionized calcium was investigated in healthy women and women with epilepsy having catamenial pattern (Jacono and Robertson, 1987).

Epilepsy as a risk factor in patients with ischemic stroke, and effect of menstrual cycle on stroke and other neurological complications (Hussain *et al.*, 1987; Hussain, 1991; Khan *et al.*, 2009; Naz *et al.*, 2009; Hussain, 2010; Roeder and Leira, 2021) reveal the involvement of catamenial seizure pattern. There is an important role of alpha-actinin in menstrual cycle and epileptogenesis and its enhancing property for transient receptor potential channel-3 (Li *et al.*, 2007; Sbai *et al.*, 2020). Sexual problems and endocrine changes in progesterone and testosterone in men and women with epilepsy and other disorders (Smith *et al.*, 2007; Hussain *et al.*, 2017; Demirkhanyan *et al.*, 2018; Mohandass *et al.*, 2020) leading to abnormal functions of TRP channels (Mohandass *et al.*, 2020) and variations in endogenous steroids e.g., progesterone metabolites via GABA(A) receptor (GABAR) mediation result in premenstrual disorders and catamenial epilepsy (Smith *et al.*, 2007).

Epilepsy and catamenial epilepsy were found influenced by sex hormones with the complications of infertility, ischemic disorders, diabetes mellitus and other disorders (Lemley and Voinescu, 2023). These complications were studied in various perspectives (Khan and Hussain, 2008; Sohail and Hussain, 2008, 2009, 2013; Yasmeen *et al.*, 2008, 2009; Sohail *et al.*, 2013, 2019; Lemley and Voinescu, 2023). Oxidative stress and lipid profile under the effect of black seed oil showed evidence in experimental hypercholesterolemia and patients with intractable epilepsy (Fatima *et al.*, 2007; Shawki *et al.*, 2013).

The clinical, diagnostic, and therapeutic aspects of common cold and effect of common cold on development of epileptic seizures has been revealed (Jallon *et al.*, 1986; Anjum and Hussain, 1998 a, b; 1999 a, b,c,d,e; Mahmood and Hussain, 1998, 1999; Munir and Hussain, 1999; Takahashi *et al.*, 2003; Fujita *et al.*, 2011; Hussain and Hussain, 2020; Neshige *et al.*, 2023). A 25-year-old woman with non-herpetic acute limbic encephalitis (NHALE) suffered from generalized seizures following common cold that improved after high dose of methylprednisolone, but the symptomatic epileptic seizures could not be managed probably due to the involvement of host immune system in NHALE (Takahashi *et al.*, 2003). The diagnostic and therapeutic aspects of pneumonia (Ahmed *et al.*, 1994) reveal pneumonia accompanied with epilepsy and acute respiratory distress syndrome (Saito *et al.*, 2013). There are several etiological factors in hypertension (Siddiqui *et al.*, 1994). One of those factors is the use of low doses of combined estrogen-progestin-containing oral contraceptives (OCs) that decrease the risks of hypertension and other related disorders and have favorable effects in menstrual or catamenial epilepsy (Presl, 1991).

Women with epilepsy associated to menstrual cycle suffer from several sex-specific disturbances including seizure exacerbation, viral and bacterial infections of skin and cosmetic problems influencing skin/ hair with the use of AEDs (Inam *et al.*, 1994; Røste and Taubøll, 2007). Erythrocyte osmotic fragility was significantly increased in erythrocyte malondialdehyde release in the epileptic compared to control subjects. Hence, it was viewed that the usage of antioxidants in addition to AEDs provide beneficial effects (Zafar *et al.*, 1990; Yalçın *et al.*, 1994). Low level of kisspeptin (Kp) was found associated with infertility, and intracerebroventricular administration of prolactin-releasing peptide (PrRP), and Kp was noted as causing decrease in cortical excitability while searching for anticonvulsants for intractable epilepsy (Buffel *et al.*, 2015; Mumtaz *et al.*, 2016). A variety of immunological, biochemical, and physiological factors/ markers were found associated with anemia, immune disorders, epilepsy, and cerebrovascular disorders (Hussain and Hassan, 1982; Breckwoldt *et al.*, 1990; Hussain, 2022 a, b, 2024 a, b).

THEAPEUTIC APPROACHES

Systematic studies were conducted to evaluate and investigate the role of estrogen and progesterone in women with epilepsy with and without antiseizure treatment in various cycle phases (Rosciszewska *et al.*, 1986; Hussain *et al.*, 1987, 2006, 2007; Frank and Tyson, 2020). Conventional drugs that are hormonal and non-hormonal are optimized for the patients with catamenial epilepsy. No specific treatment could yet be approved for patients showing catamenial pattern (Patel and Foldvary-Schaefer, 2014), though various therapies have been proposed. Non-hormonal treatment comprises cyclic (e.g., clobazam) and non-cyclic (e.g., acetazolamide, lamotrigine) products that are used for the treatment for the patients with catamenial epilepsy. The mechanism of action for the clobazam relates to GABA_A receptor modulator, whereas the mode of action for lamotrigine is sodium channel blocker and for acetazolamide is the carbonic anhydrase inhibitor (Lim *et al.*, 2001; Gilad *et al.*, 2008). There are various side effects of the mentioned products.

Gilad *et al.* (2008) investigated the role of EEG in assessing the efficacy of lamotrigine in decreasing the seizure occurrence in patients with catamenial epilepsy. While understanding the pathophysiology of catamenial pattern, it was found that cortical excitability during various cycle phases in women with catamenial epilepsy was involved that manifested a reduced inhibition owing to GABA-ergic neurotransmission in luteal phase and menstruation phase in women having catamenial epilepsy. The exacerbation of catamenial seizures is due to fall though non-significant in plasma phenytoin level in menses despite a rapid drop of plasma phenytoin in menstruation as compared to that in ovulation and around ovulation. Some important features are: increased concentration of after- puberty estrogen in monotherapy either of valproate or carbamazepine, and the appearance of beneficial effects of clomiphene on seizure occurrence/ frequency in women with complex partial seizures and reproductive/endocrine disorders, (Herzog, 1988).

The therapies of cyclic hormone products and suppressive hormone products (Maguire and Nevitt, 2021) are two main approaches for the hormonal treatment of catamenial epilepsy. Cyclic hormonal product/ therapy is progesterone (for reducing the seizure frequency) given during luteal phase but indicated for those patients who present regular cycles. It is supplemented specially for perimenstrual seizure exacerbation (Herzog *et al.*, 2012). However, a later study found a negative association for perimenstrual seizure frequency and the serum level of progesterone (Herzog and Frye, 2014). Besides progesterone, anti-estrogen agents have also been used for the treatment of catamenial patterns of seizures. No clear evidence could be obtained (Herzog, 1988), though it was suggested that anti-estrogen product could decrease the premenstrual seizure frequency (Hussain, 1987; Qureshi *et al.*, 1988; Hussain, 1991, 2010). Efficacy of gonadotropin releasing hormone was found in women with intractable/ drug resistant seizures in perimenstrual phase days (Bauer *et al.*, 1992).

It is known that both antiepileptic drugs and gonadosteroidal hormones that are metabolized by cytochrome P450 liver enzyme have two-way influence, and hence the blood concentration of antiepileptic drugs remains fluctuating that may cause toxicity or decreased level of anticonvulsant efficacy (Patel and Foldvary-Schaefer, 2014). The women with perimenstrual seizures showed lower levels of phenytoin, and it was found that decreased phenytoin levels correlated with the perimenstrual seizure frequency (Rościszewska *et al.*, 1986). An interesting investigation (Isojarvi *et al.*, 2005) showed the increased metabolism of steroid hormones by enzyme-inducing AEDs that may affect contraception and other serious disorders contrary to the non-enzyme-inducing AEDs that usually do not cause such consequences. Furthermore, a previous study found change in the levels of steroid hormones under carbamazepine treatment in epileptics (Isojarvi, 1990). It was investigated that some of the AEDs may decrease the efficacy of oral contraceptives (Harden and Leppik, 2006; Velísková, 2007) and may cause the reproductive/endocrine disorders related to gonadosteroids. However, further studies are required to be conducted to understand the complex interaction among AEDs, gonadosteroids, and contraceptives.

There are reports of ochratoxin contamination in various commercial feeds used for broilers (Zafar *et al.*, 2001) and high levels of ochratoxin causing nodding syndrome (NS)-a special type of epilepsy manifesting repeated head-nodding convulsions (Echodu *et al.*, 2018). The efficacy of cannabidiol was verified for the treatment of epileptic seizures by clinical drug-drug interaction (DDI) studies simulated for itraconazole, and other products employing physiologically based pharmacokinetic models (Eh *et al.*, 2021) and liposomal models (Matias *et al.*, 2017; Eh *et al.*, 2021; Yeung *et al.*, 2023). The seizure control in women with epilepsy was studied employing monotherapy of first-line antiepileptic drugs, and it was found that interaction of estrogen could have altered (Grover *et al.*, 2012) that was viewed as a possibility in epilepsy and a variety of other membrane related disorders Matias *et al.*, 2017).

A famous American physician (Internal Medicine, Psychiatry & Physiology) Edmund Jacobson (April 22, 1888 – January 7, 1983) founded Progressive Relaxation (PR) or Progressive Muscle Relaxation (PMR) & of Biofeedback (Jacobson 1927, 1929, 1938). Several medical disorders including epilepsy were treated successfully employing the techniques, therapy, or training of PR (Canter *et al.*, 1975; Rousseau *et al.*, 1985). Later, a Modified Progressive Relaxation (MPR) was founded (Hussain 1982, 1984, 1994, 2001) that demonstrated the combined

effects. It was found that effect of stimulation frequency on muscle fatigue associates with the progressive relaxation exercises (Hussain, 1983; Akgün Şahin and Dayapoğlu, 2015). Such and other therapeutic approaches in medicine may revolutionize the methodologies for pathophysiological understandings especially employing the biophysical and mathematical medicine for the management of seizures/ catamenial seizures and other medical disorders.

CONCLUSIONS

The present clinical review on the history, epidemiology, diagnosis, pathophysiology, and management of catamenial epilepsy uncovers various aspects that are either needed to be further confirmed or otherwise are needed to be conducted for newer information at cellular and molecular level. The history of epilepsy summarized in the present article provides the diagnostic and therapeutic approaches to understand the catamenial seizures and carry out further studies for better understanding and applications. The variation in steroid, gonadotropic and other hormones/ systemic changes/ comorbidity associated changes has enormous involvement in the development/ exacerbation/ inhibition of seizures/ seizure disorders/ catamenial seizures in women with epilepsy during any of the involved cycle phase/ segment. There is an urgent requirement of incorporating multidisciplinary approach for clinicophysiological, and physicomathematical applications for better understanding and innovative management of medical disorders. Further studies would hopefully explore the intricate impact of hormones and other factors/ changes in the pathophysiology and diagnostic and therapeutic aspects of catamenial epilepsy.

DEDICATION

The author dedicates this article to the loving memory of his highly intellectual mentor and the Ph.D. research guide - the Late Prof Khawaja Zaki Hasan (Zaki Hasan or K. Zaki Hasan) MB, FRCP (Edin) (1927, Panipat, District Karnal, British India – December 15, 2007, Karachi, Pakistan). Prof Zaki Hasan was a famous physician, neuropsychiatrist, behavioral scientist, former Head Department of Neuropsychiatry (presently the departments of Neurology & Psychiatry), JPMC, Karachi, and formerly the chairman of UNICEF. He was particularly focused on the health, social aspects of children, and human rights of the working class and other segments of the society. Dr. Zaki Hasan got his initial education in Hyderabad Deccan and got MBBS from the Usmania University Medical College, Hyderabad before migrating to Pakistan. He initially joined the Dow Medical College (DMC), Karachi in the early 50's, and later served in various positions at JPMC and other institutions. He had a collaborative research lab with Late Prof. Atta-ur-Rehman (Professor of Biochemistry & Director Basic Medical Sciences Institute (BMSI), JPMC).



Prof. Dr. K. Zaki Hasan,
MB, FRCP (Edin)

The author of this article had a great facility to carry out much of his research work in this research laboratory for his pre-PhD, PhD, and later studies. Dr Zaki Hasan was quite involved in the foundation of Baqai Medical University and Jinnah Medical and Dental College (JMDC), Karachi, and served as Vice Chancellor and Dean in the mentioned institutions, respectively. Prof. Zaki Hasan was famous in medicine, neuropsychiatry, and behavioral sciences as Prof Salimuzzaman Siddiqui (the Late Professor of Chemistry at the University of Karachi) in science and technology. Dr Zaki Hasan supervised a number of clinical and research programs in Europe, North America, and other regions. The Late Prof. Khawaja Zaki Hasan has an enormous contribution in shaping the health-related studies/ plans/ programs in Pakistan, and supervising/ advising for various innovative medical science programs world over.

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