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Neurological Institute of Thailand

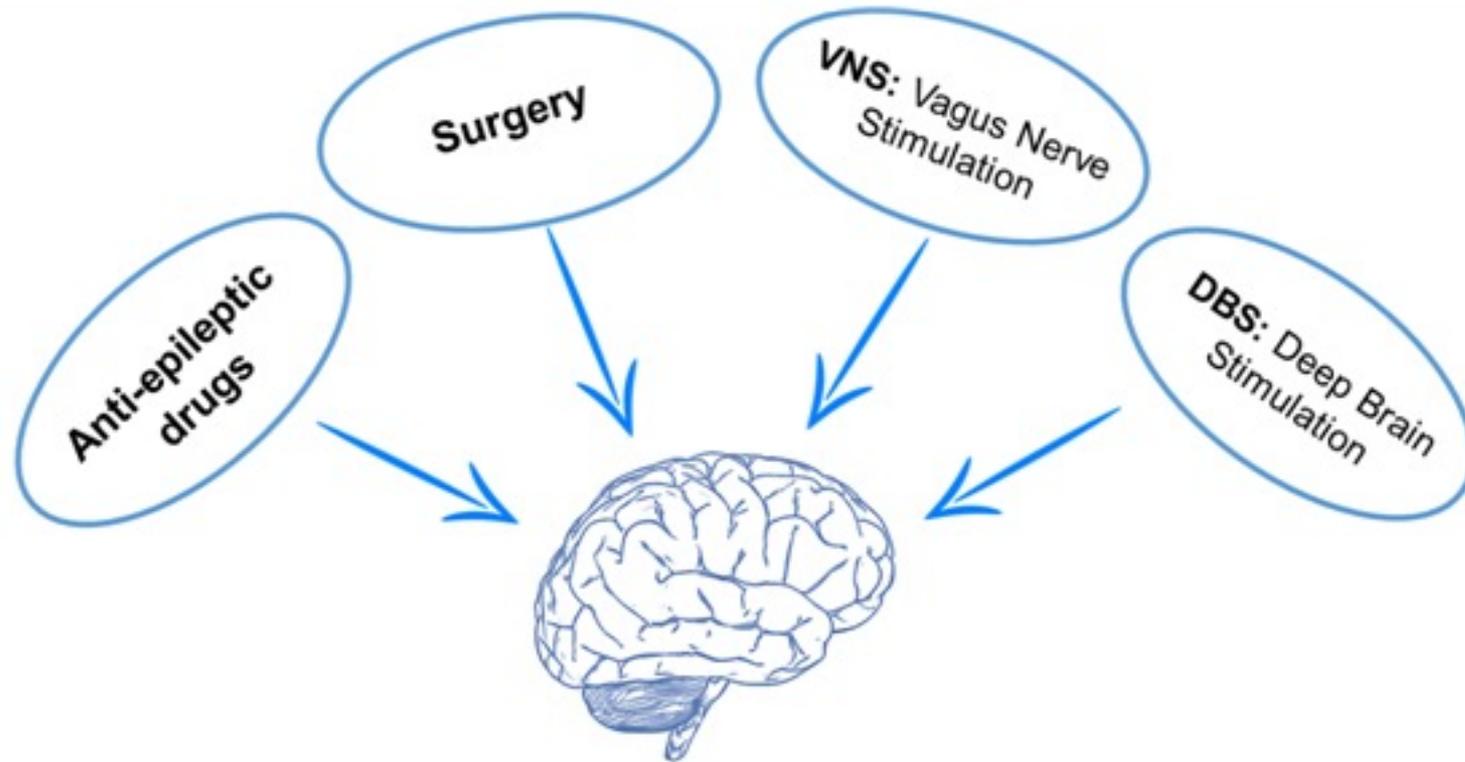
# Presurgical Evaluation and Epilepsy surgery

Tinonkorn Yadee, MD  
Neurological of Thailand

# Outline

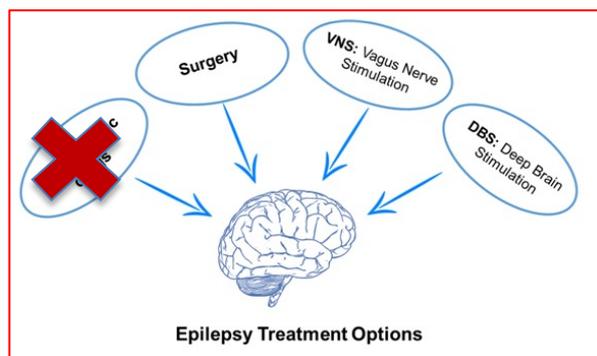
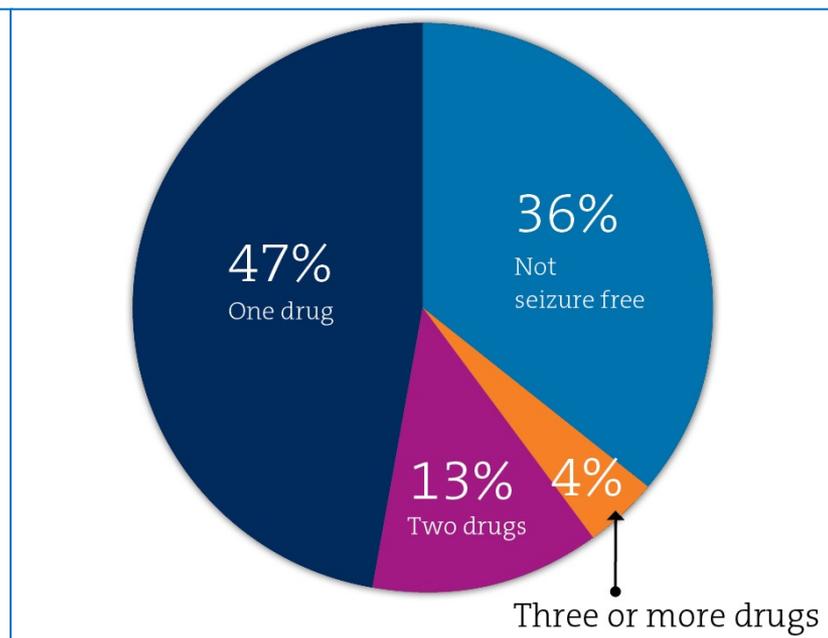
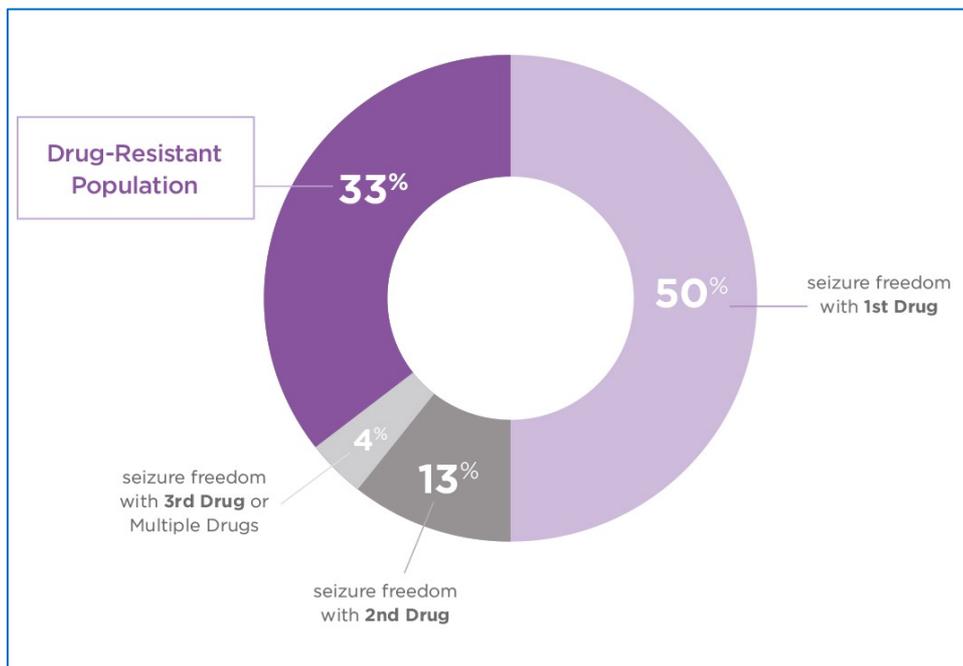
- Selecting patient for Epilepsy surgery
- Concept of presurgical evaluation
- Type of Epilepsy surgery
- Epilepsy surgery outcome

# Epilepsy treatment



**Epilepsy Treatment Options**

# Drug resistance epilepsy



# Selecting patient for Epilepsy surgery



## Recognizing Drug-Resistant Epilepsy

### Definition of drug resistant epilepsy: Consensus proposal by the ad hoc Task Force of the ILAE Commission on Therapeutic Strategies

\*<sup>1</sup>Patrick Kwan, †Alexis Arzimanoglou, ‡Anne T. Berg, §Martin J. Brodie, ¶W. Allen Hauser, #<sup>2</sup>Gary Mathern, \*\*Solomon L. Moshé, ††Emilio Perucca, ‡‡Samuel Wiebe, and §§<sup>2</sup>Jacqueline French

- “Failure of adequate trials of two tolerated and appropriately chosen and used AED regimens whether as monotherapy or in combination to achieve sustained seizure freedom”

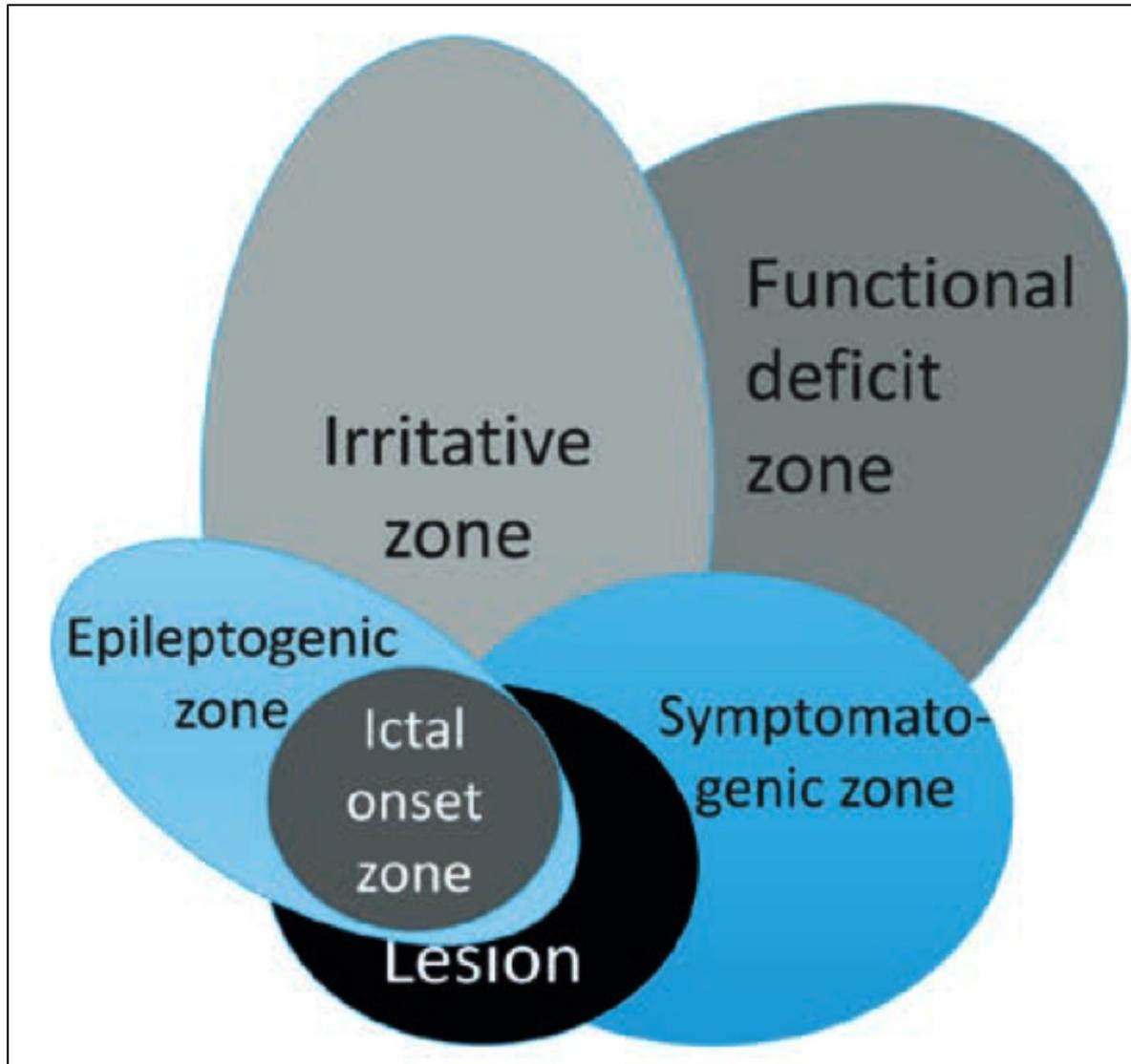
# Selecting patient for Epilepsy surgery



## Other causes consider to surgical intervention

- Cognitive decline accruing due to recurrent epilepsy
- Depression
- Vocational issues impeding employment
- Social stigma associated with epilepsy
- Better long term economic feasibility in the patient under- going early surgery

# Using the Presurgical Evaluation to Select Epilepsy Surgery Candidates





# Using the Presurgical Evaluation to Select Epilepsy Surgery Candidates

Zone	Tests Used to Define It
Irritative zone: area of cortex that generates interictal spikes	EEG, MEG, EEG-fMRI
Seizure-onset zone: area of cortex that initiates clinical seizures	EEG, ictal SPECT and, to a lesser degree, f-MRI and MEG
Symptomatogenic zone: area of cortex that, when activated, produces the initial ictal symptoms or signs	Initial seizure symptomatology
Epileptogenic lesion: macroscopic lesion that is causative of the epileptic seizures because the lesion itself is epileptogenic (e.g., cortical dysplasia) or by secondary hyperexcitability of adjacent cortex)	MRI
Functional deficit zone: area of cortex that is not functioning normally in the interictal period	Neurological examination, neuropsychological examination and functional imaging (interictal SPECT and PET)



From the American Epilepsy Society 2009 Annual Course

## Localizing and lateralizing features of auras and seizures

Nancy Foldvary-Schaefer <sup>a,\*</sup>, Kanjana Unnwongse <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Cleveland Clinic Neurological Institute, Cleveland, OH, USA

<sup>b</sup> Prasat Neurological Institute, Bangkok, Thailand

Localization and lateralization of epileptic signs and symptoms.  
Source. Modified from Rona [61].

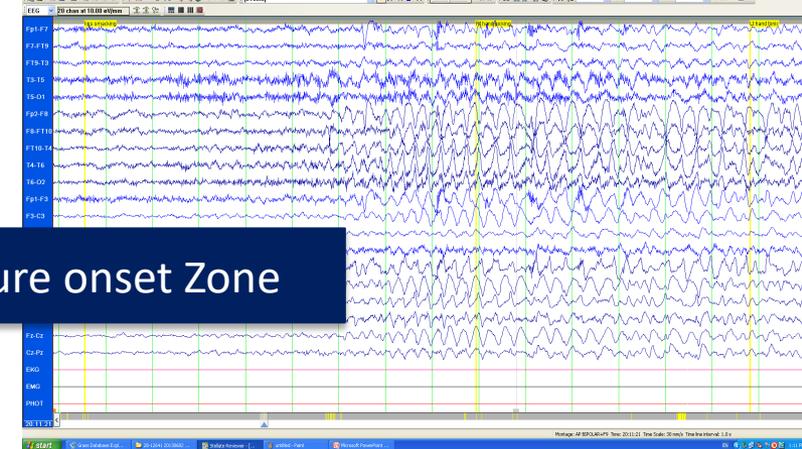
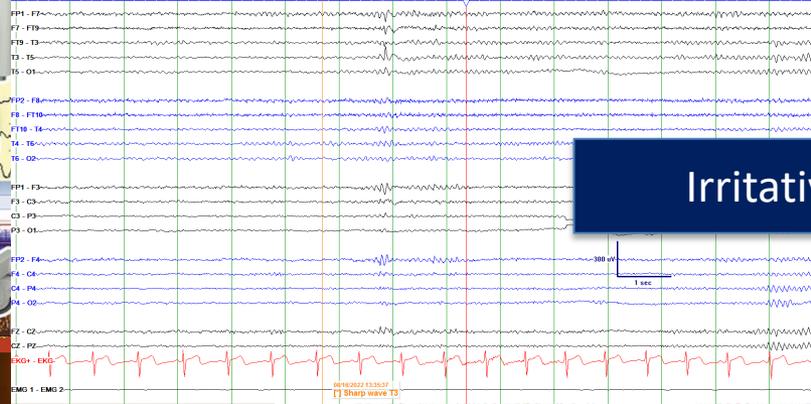
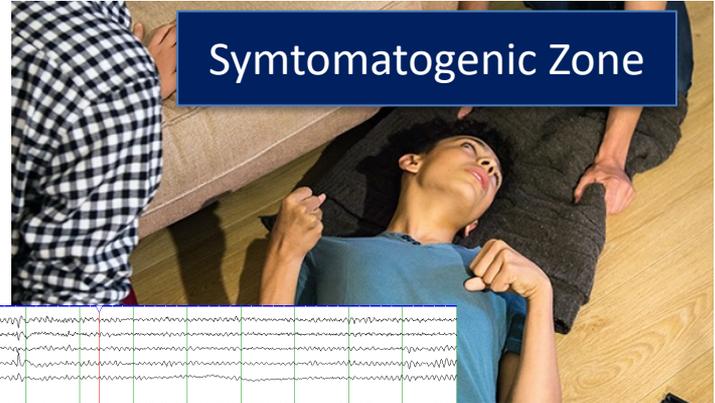
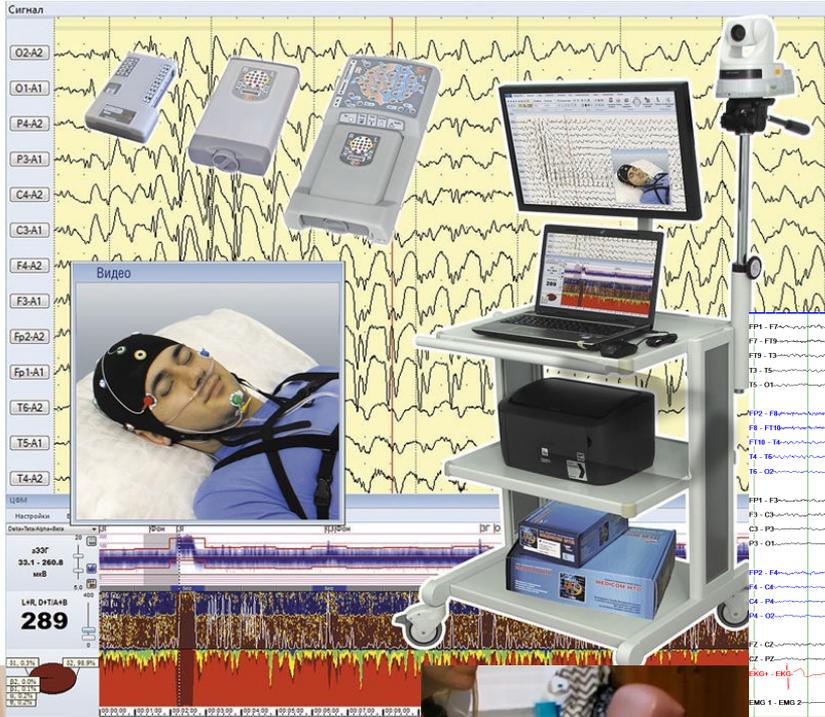
Seizure type	Subtype	Symptomatogenic zone <sup>a</sup>	Lateralization	Epilepsy syndrome <sup>b</sup>
Auras	Somatosensory	Primary somatosensory cortex (areas 1, 2, and 3b)	CL <sup>c</sup>	PLE
		Secondary somatosensory areas (parietal operculum/SSII) SSMA	IPSI (if unilateral) CL (mostly)	PLE, TLE PLE, FLE OLE
	Simple visual	Primary visual cortex (areas 17, 18, and 19)	CL	TLE, OLE
		Temporo-occipital junction and basal temporal cortex	CL (if unilateral)	TLE
	Simple auditory	Primary auditory cortex (area 41)	CL (if unilateral)	TLE
		Complex auditory	Auditory association cortex (areas 42 and 22)	CL (if unilateral)
	Vertiginous	Temporo-occipital junction	NonLAT (often right)	TLE
	Olfactory	Orbitofrontal region, amygdala, and insula	NonLAT	MTLE, FLE
	Gustatory	Parietal operculum and basal temporal cortex	NonLAT	TLE
	Autonomic	Insula, amygdala, anterior cingulum, and SSMA	NonLAT	TLE, FLE
	Abdominal	Anterior insula, frontal operculum, mesial temporal lobe, and SSMA	NonLAT	MTLE
	Fear	Amygdala, hippocampus, and mesial frontal lobe	NonLAT	TLE, FLE
	Déjà vu/jamais vu	Uncus, entorhinal cortex, and temporal neocortex	NonLAT (often ND)	TLE
	Multisensorial	Mesiotemporal limbic cortex, temporal neocortex, TPO junction	NonLAT	TLE, PLE
Cephalic/whole body	Amygdala, entorhinal cortex, and temporal neocortex/SSII and SSMA	NonLAT	NTLE, FLE	
Simple motor	Myoclonic/negative myoclonus	Primary motor cortex (area 4) and premotor cortex (area 6)/primary somatosensory area	CL (if unilateral)	FLE
	Clonic	Primary motor cortex, premotor cortex, and SSMA	CL	FLE
	Tonic	Primary motor cortex and SSMA	CL (if unilateral)	FLE
	Hypermotor	Anterior cingulum, orbitofrontal region, frontopolar region, opercular-insular cortex, and medial intermediate frontal area	NonLAT	FLE
Complex motor	Automotor	Mesial temporal and anterior cingulum	NonLAT	TLE, FLE
	Gelastic	Hypothalamus, anteromesial frontal region, and basal temporal area	NonLAT	FLE, TLE
Dialeptic		Limbic temporal structures, cingulum, intermediate frontal (area 8) and orbitofrontal areas	NonLAT	
Autonomic	Tachycardia/ hyperventilation	Amygdala, insula, anterior cingulum, and medial prefrontal cortex	NonLAT (often right)	TLE
	Piloerection		IPSI	TLE
	Mydriasis		IPSI (if unilateral)	TOLE

Lateralizing signs of focal seizures.

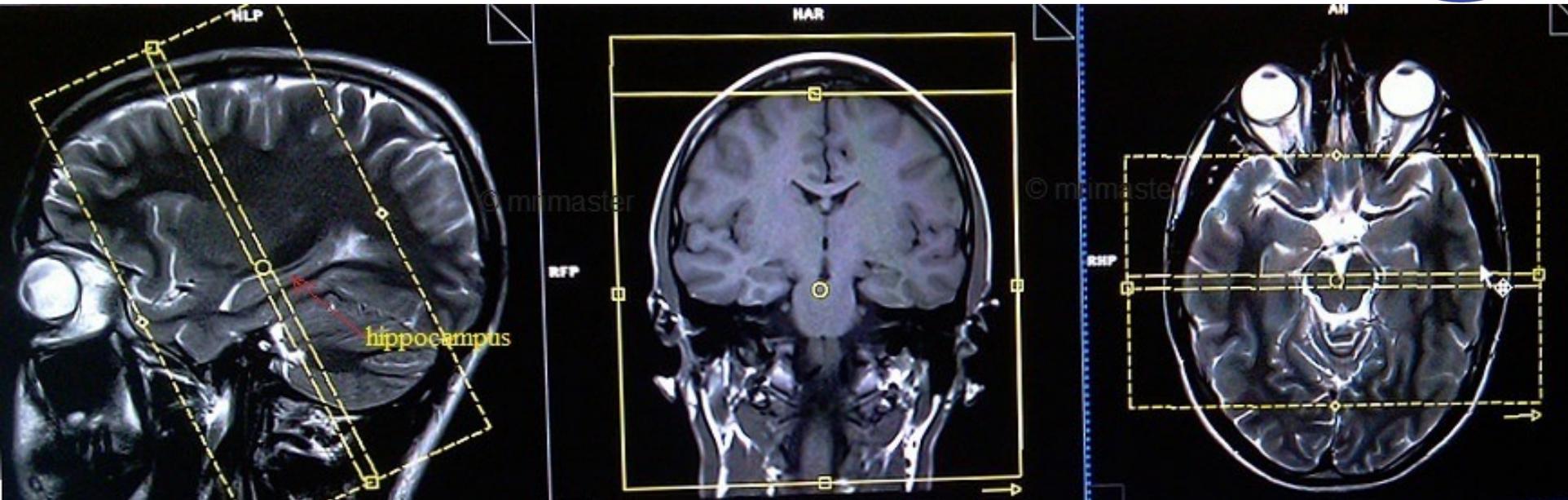
Source. Modified from Bianchin and Sakamoto [62].

Ictal sign	Subtype	Symptomatogenic zone or mechanism <sup>a</sup>	Lateralization	Epilepsy syndrome <sup>b</sup>
Motor signs in complex motor seizures	Dystonic limb posturing	Activation of basal ganglia	CL <sup>c</sup>	TLE, FLE
	Tonic posturing	Activation of SSMA, basal ganglia, cingulum, and primary motor cortex	CL	FLE, TLE
	Immobile limb	Activation of negative motor areas or exhaustion of primary motor or premotor cortex	CL	TLE
	Head turning	Exhaustion of epileptogenic hemisphere, seizures propagate to basal ganglia, or neglect of CL space	IPSI	TLE
Facial alterations		Activation of emotional network (amygdala, prefrontal cortex, hypothalamus, orbitofrontal region, insula) or emotional facial movements in cingulum	CL (if facial weakness)	TLE
	Eye version	Frontal eye fields (area 8) and extrastriate cortex (area 19)	CL	
	Unilateral eye blinking	Mesial temporal structures	IPSI	
Nondominant temporal signs	Nose wiping	Ictal olfactory hallucinations, increased nasal secretions, or CL postictal immobile limb	IPSI	MTLE
	Automatisms with preserved responsiveness	Non-speech-dominant temporal lobe and anterior cingulum	ND	TLE, FLE
	Ictal vomiting	Mesial temporal structures, insula, and mesial frontal regions	ND	TLE
Signs during secondary generalized tonic-clonic seizures	Ictal splitting	Complex automatisms, excessive salivation, or bad mouth sensations	ND	TLE
	Ictal urinary urge	Activation of central bladder control	ND	TLE
	Peri-ictal water drinking	Hypothalamic involvement	ND	TLE
	Ictal/postictal cough	Increased secretions or direct activation of central autonomic system	ND	TLE
	Unilateral ear plugging	Superior temporal gyrus	CL	FLE, TLE
	Head version	Premotor area (areas 6 and 8)	CL	FLE, TLE
	Asymmetric tonic limb posturing	SSMA and precentral area	CL	FLE, TLE
	Asymmetric ending of clonic jerks	Exhaustion of hemisphere of seizure onset	IPSI	
	Ictal/postictal aphasia	Anterior and posterior language areas	D	TLE
	Ictal speech	Inhibition of D hemisphere or overexcitement of ND hemisphere	ND	TLE

# Continuous VEEG monitoring



# MRI



## MRI protocol epilepsy

**T1WI**

*isotropic 3D-sequence*

**FLAIR**

*Axial  
Coronal = perpendicular to temporal lobe*

**T2\* or SWI**

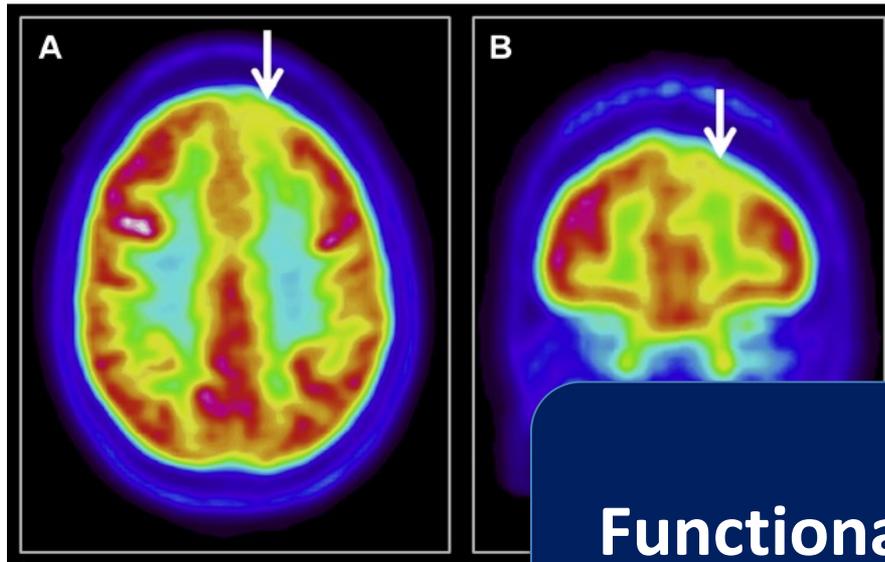
*Susceptibility artefacts*

**CE T1WI**

*Brain tumor - Sturge Weber*

**Epileptogenic Lesion**

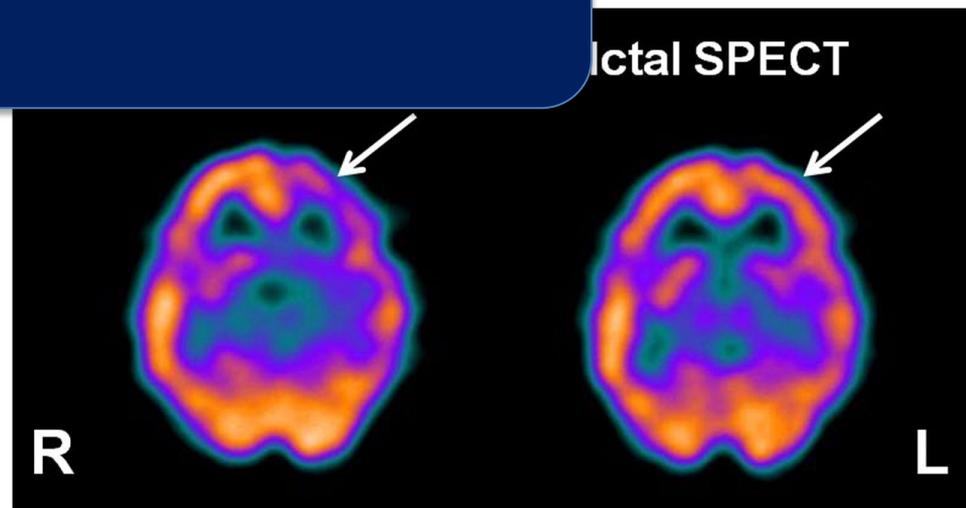
# Neuclear radiology



PET Scan

**Functional Deficit Zone**

Ictal SPECT



Ictal SPECT

# Neuropsychology test



## ILAE commission report

*Epileptic Disord 2019; 21 (3): 221-34*

# Indications and expectations for neuropsychological assessment in epilepsy surgery in children and adults

## Report of the ILAE Neuropsychology Task Force Diagnostic and Commission: 2017-2021

### Neuropsychological assessment in epilepsy surgery

**Functional Deficit Zone**

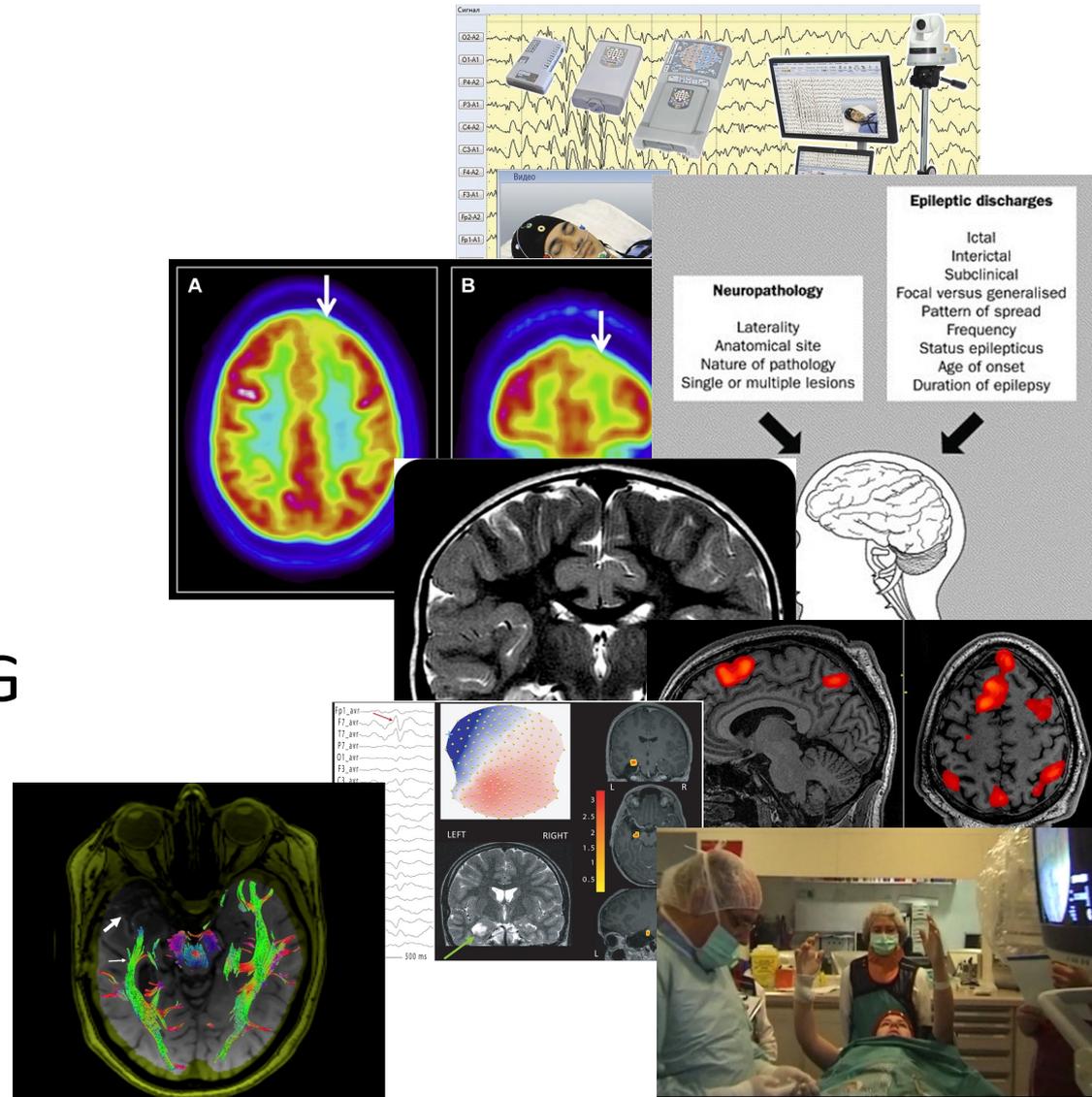
Sallie Baxendale<sup>1</sup>, Sarah J. Wilson<sup>2</sup>, Gus A. Baker<sup>3</sup>,  
William Barr<sup>4</sup>, Christoph Helmstaedter<sup>5</sup>,  
Bruce P. Hermann<sup>6</sup>, John Langfitt<sup>7</sup>, Gitta Reuner<sup>8</sup>,  
Patricia Rzezak<sup>9</sup>, Séverine Samson<sup>10</sup>, Mary-Lou Smith<sup>11</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Clinical and Experimental Epilepsy, Institute of Neurology, UCL, London, UK

Function	Considerations
<b>Pre surgical assessment</b>	<p>Must be up-to-date.</p> <p>Function in all cognitive domains should be assessed.</p> <p>Should include objective &amp; subjective measures of cognitive function.</p> <p>Should include formal measures of psychosocial function and health-related quality of life.</p> <p>Must also include parental/caregiver evaluations of behaviour and ability in paediatric populations.</p> <p>Teacher/educator evaluations may also be helpful in some cases in paediatric populations.</p>
1. Baseline for outcome comparison	<p>The timing of the formal assessment with respect to the proximity to the last medication effects will impact on the stability of the baseline and must be considered in the interpretation of results.</p> <p>Should be interpreted in a developmental context.</p> <p>Non-organic, static and dynamic influences on function must be considered in the interpretation of results from the preoperative assessment.</p> <p>The baseline data should be used to predict the likely cognitive outcome and identify the primary cognitive risks associated with the surgery.</p> <p>Standardised tests and nomograms may aid these predictions in adults and children for standardised operations.</p> <p>Preoperative testing must be identified in temporal lobe surgery candidates.</p>
4. Feedback and preoperative counselling	<p>Should include explanation of the results of the pre-surgical assessment and education about the aetiology of cognitive and functional deficits identified.</p> <p>Must include detailed discussion of any predicted cognitive changes following surgery.</p> <p>Must include discussion of the patients' (and their families') expectations of surgery.</p> <p>May include prehabilitation for anticipated cognitive losses or psychosocial difficulties.</p>
<b>Post-surgical assessment</b>	<p>Should evaluate all aspects of cognitive and behavioural function assessed prior to surgery.</p> <p>Change must be identified using reliable methods.</p> <p>The nature of the surgery and postoperative seizure outcome must be considered in the interpretation of the postoperative results.</p> <p>The timing of the postoperative assessment will have a significant impact on the results and must be considered in the interpretation of the results.</p> <p>The longer the follow-up, the more accurate the picture of postoperative outcome that emerges.</p> <p>It may take at least 5 years after the surgery for quantifiable changes in HRQoL to become evident in adults and for cognitive changes to emerge in children.</p> <p>Psychotherapeutic input may be required in some cases to help surgical candidates maximise their postoperative potential.</p>

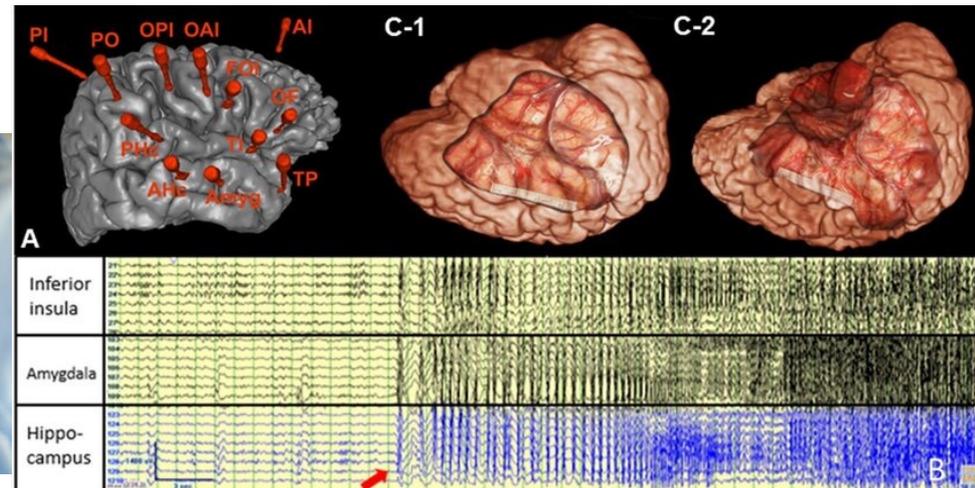
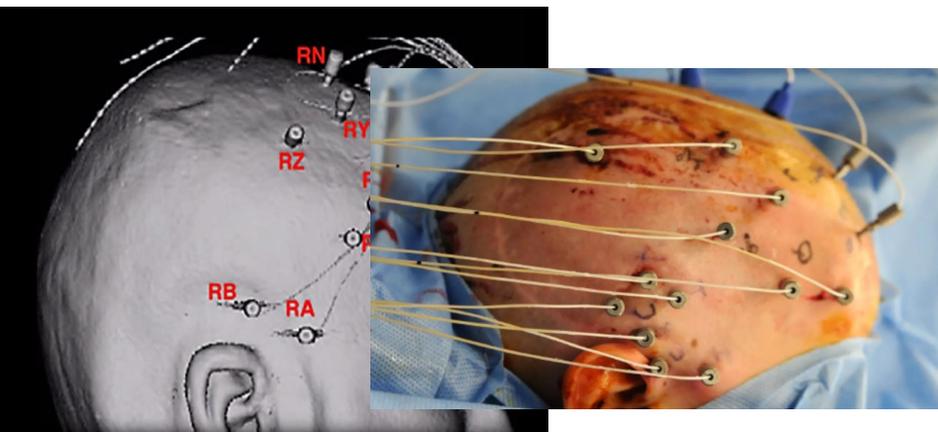
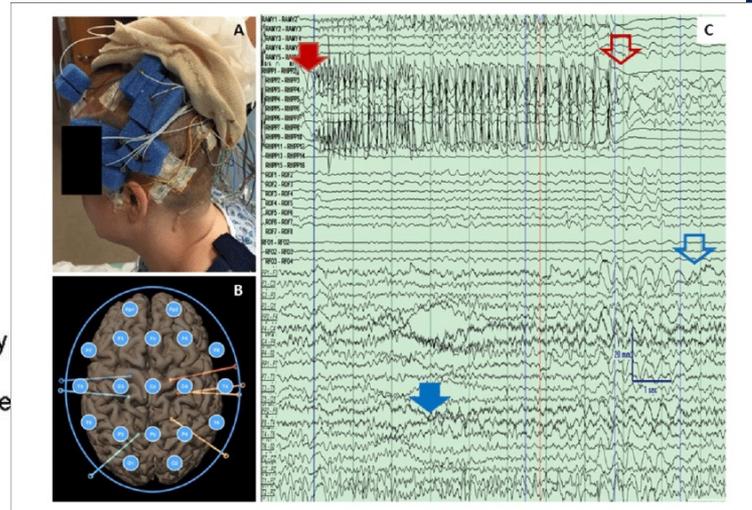
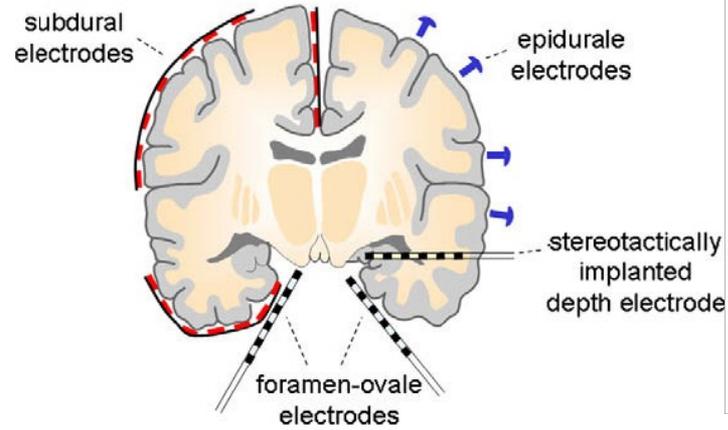
# Presurgical evaluation : Phase I

- VEEG
- MRI
- Nuclear radiology
- Neuropsychology
- Complementary
  - fMRI, Wada, MEG
  - Tractography



# Phase II

## Invasive Electrodes



# Phase II : Cortical stimulation

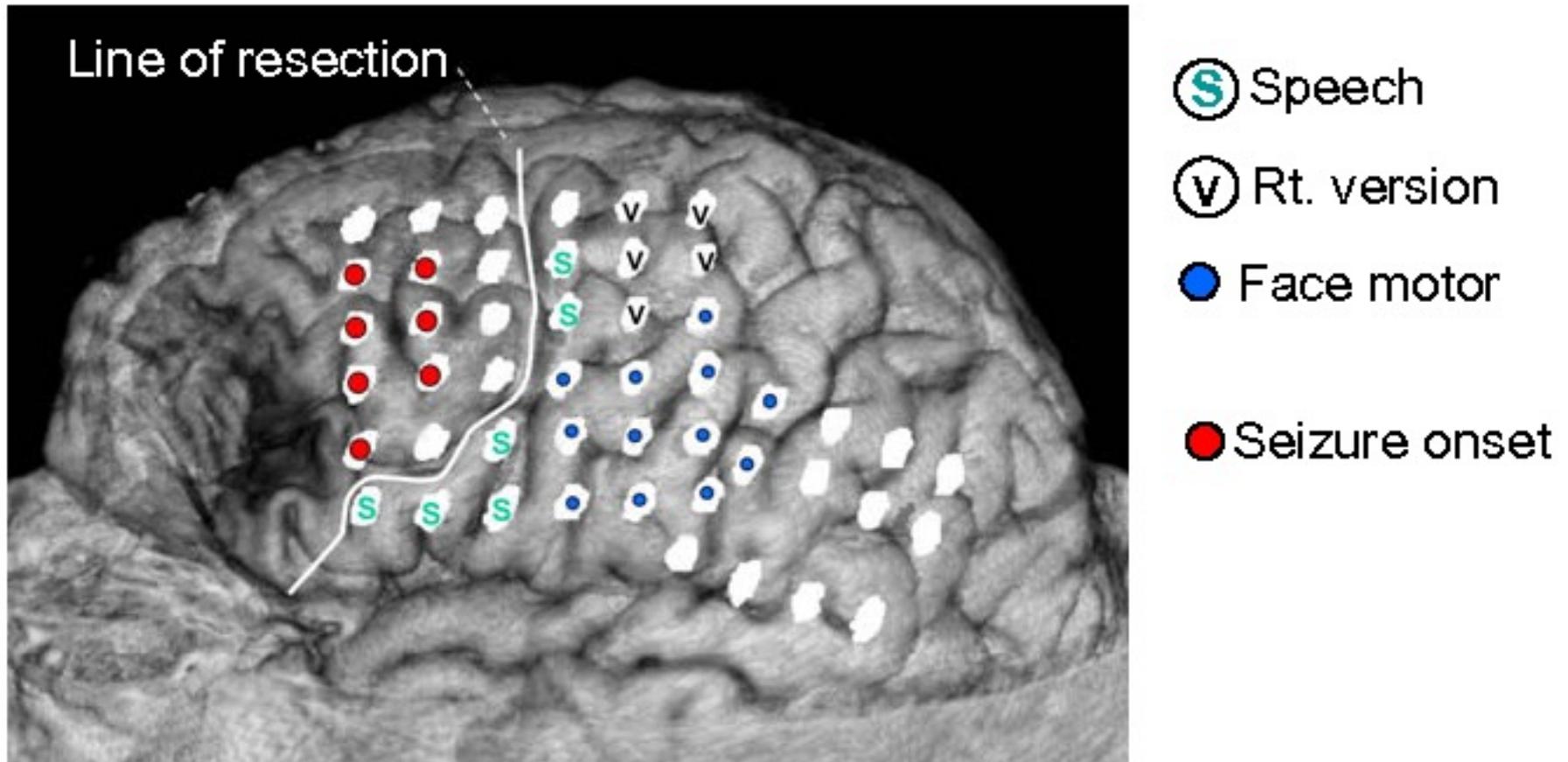
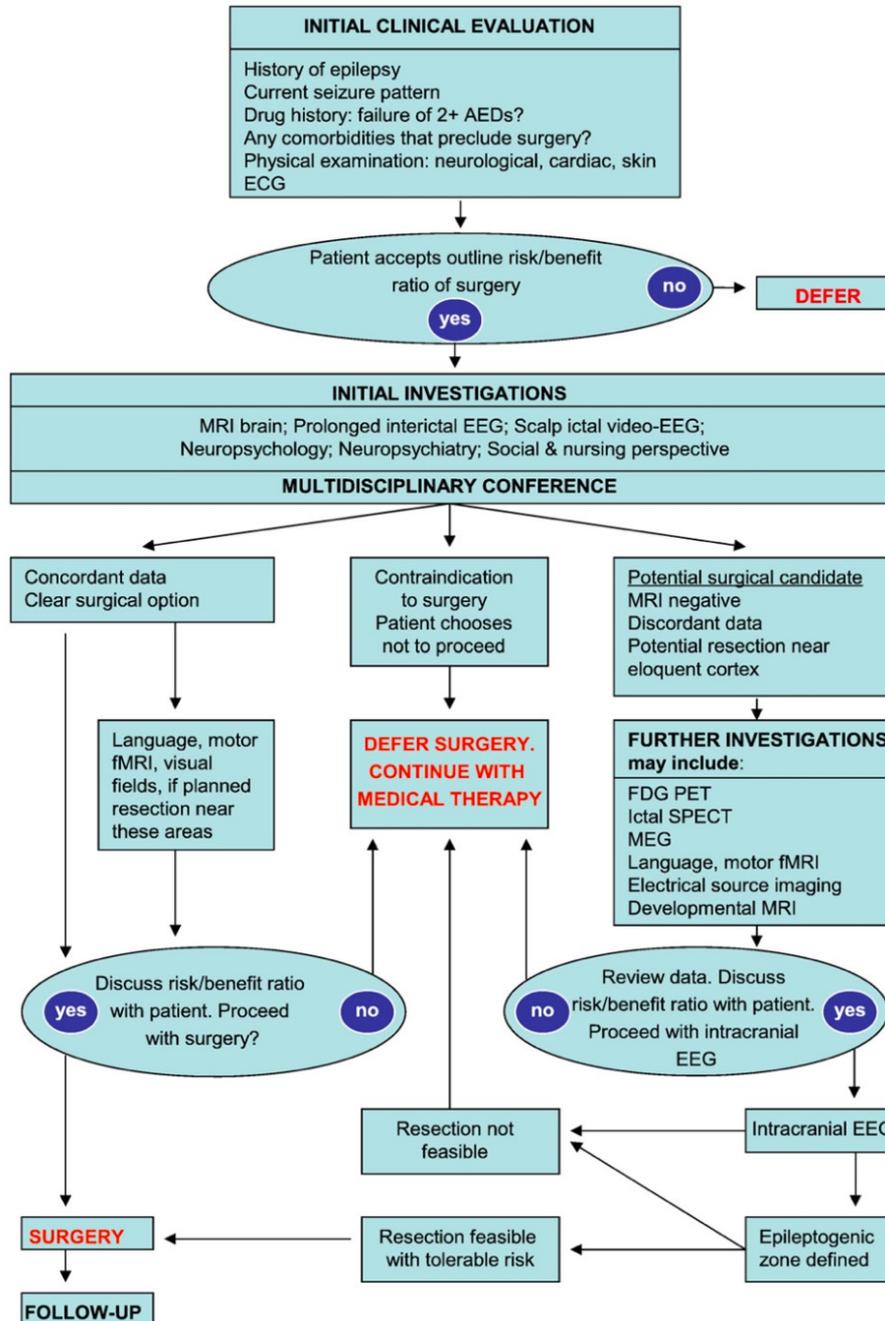
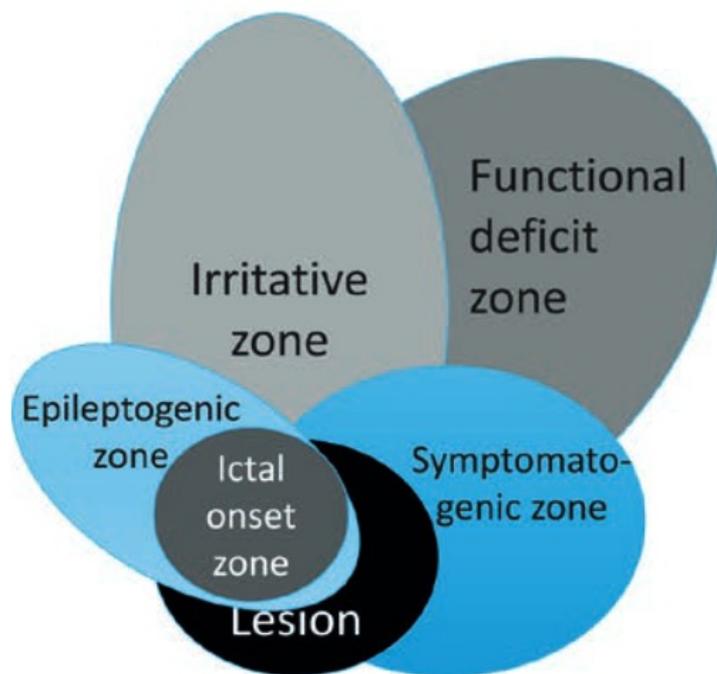


Fig. 2 Mapping of cortical functions and seizure onset after invasive recordings in a

# CONSIDERATION OF EPILEPSY SURGERY



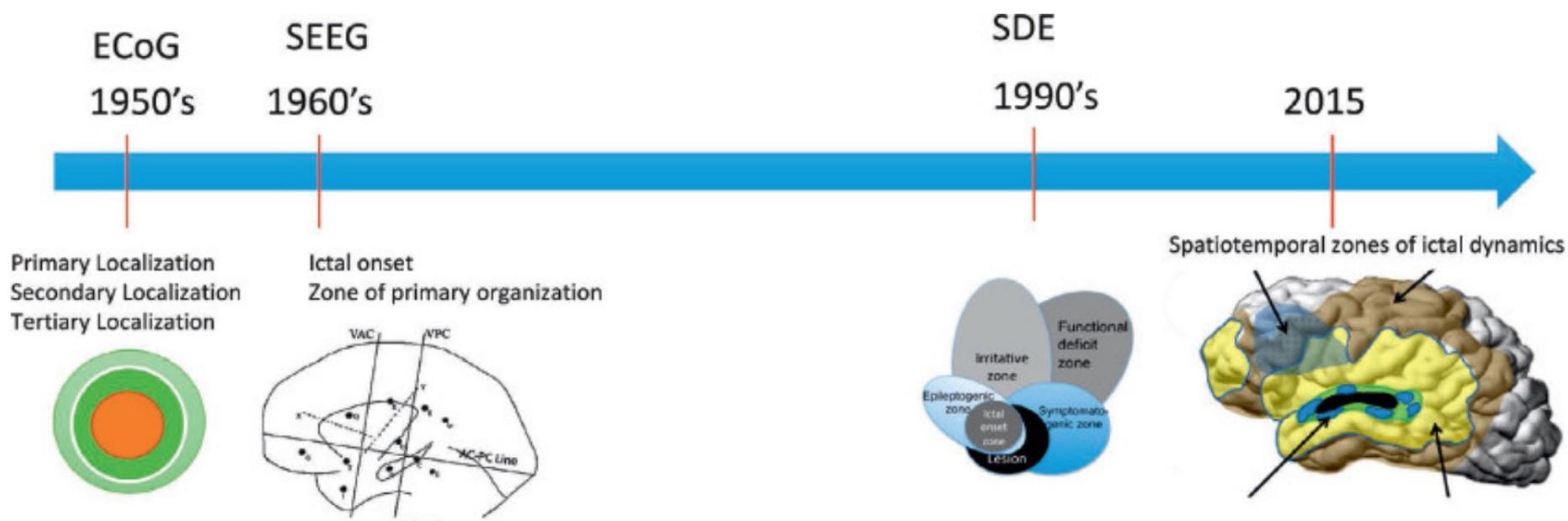
# Epileptogenic Zone concept



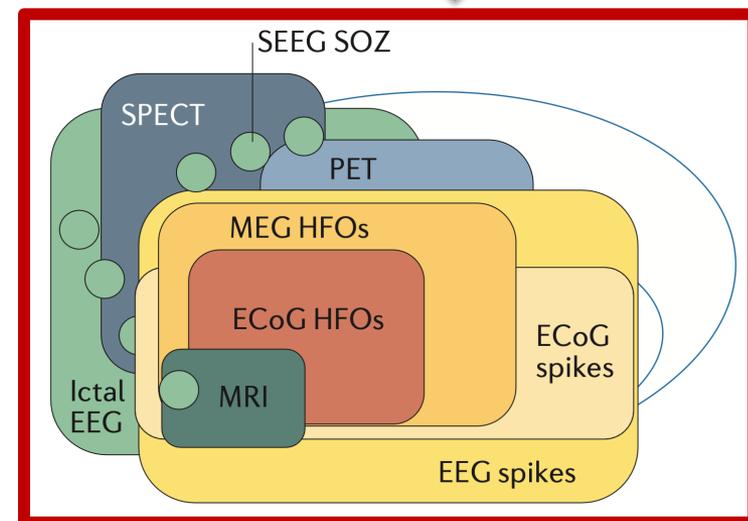
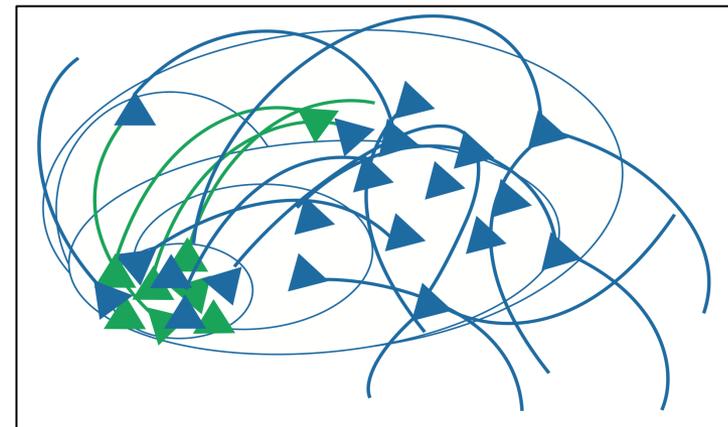
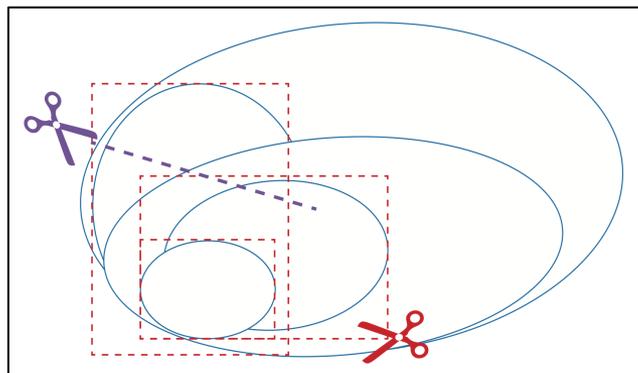
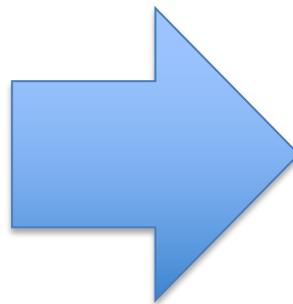
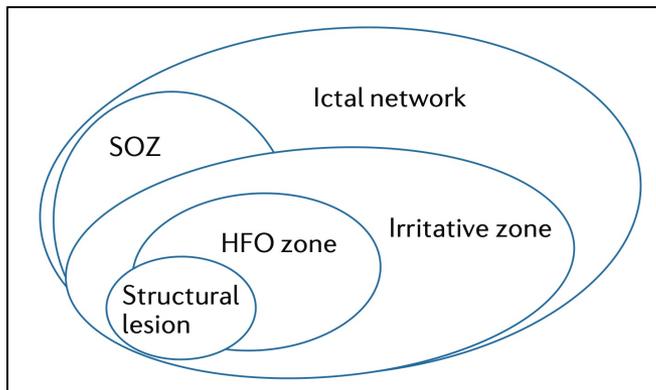
## Implications:

- 1)- No single zone is equivalent to the EZ
- 2)- No single TEST allows measurement of the EZ
- 3)- Specifically, defining the IOZ is not the same as defining the EZ.

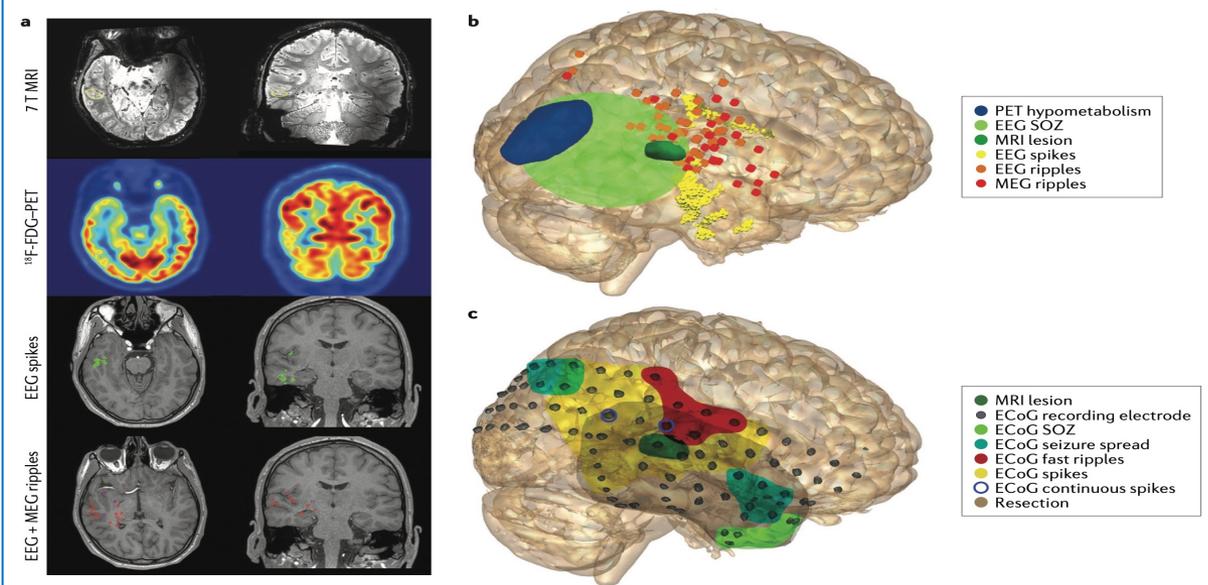
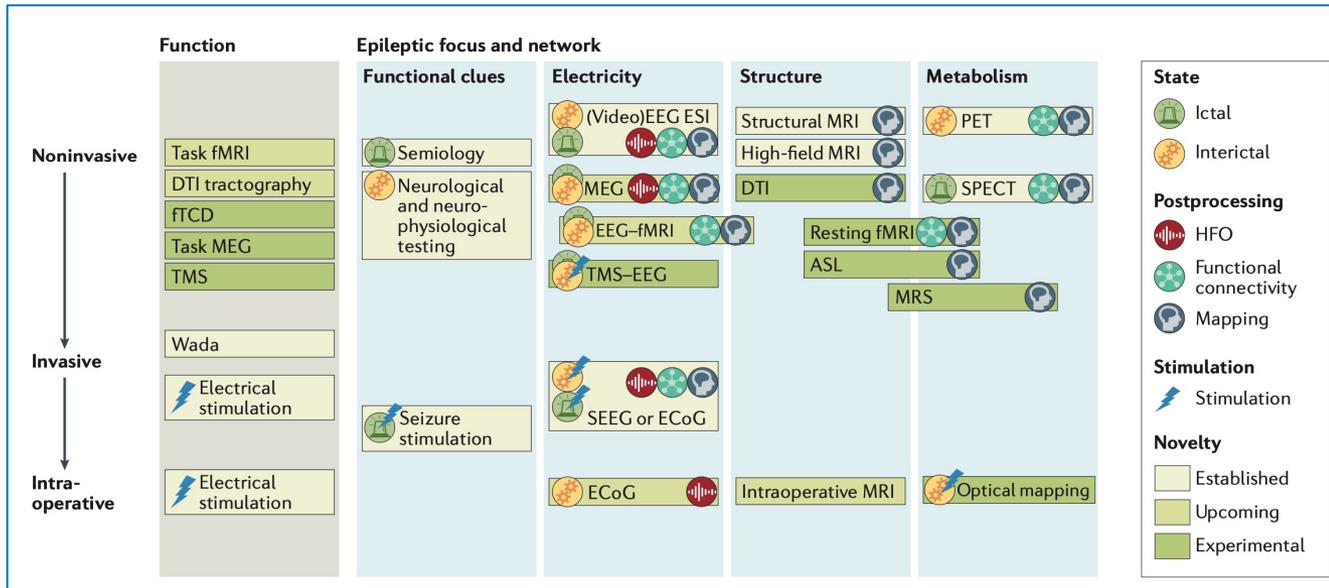
# Network Epilepsy: 2000s to Present – SEEG/Depth Recordings



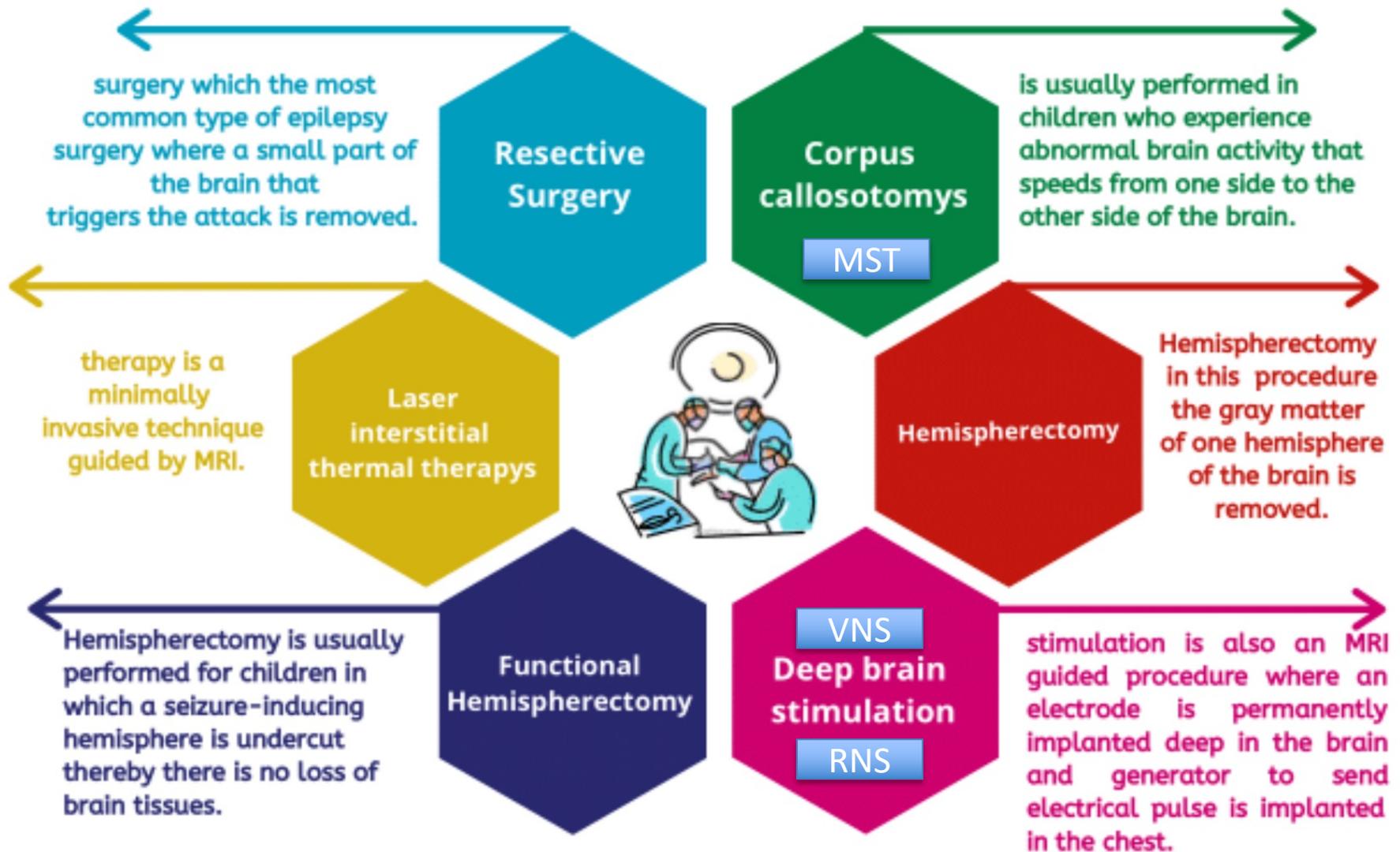
# Change in concept



# Multimodal Presurgical Evaluation of Medically Refractory



# Types of Epilepsy Surgery



# Epilepsy surgery outcome classification



**Table 1**

Engel classification of epilepsy surgery outcome.

Class I (free of disabling seizures (excludes early post-op seizures))  
 1A: Completely seizure-free since surgery  
 1B: Non-disabling simple partial seizures only since surgery  
 1C: Some disabling seizures after surgery, but free of disabling seizures for at least 2 years  
 1D: Generalized convulsion with AED withdrawal only

Class II (rare disabling seizures "almost seizure-free")  
 2A: Initially free of disabling seizures but has rare seizures now  
 2B: Rare disabling seizures since surgery  
 2C: More than rare disabling seizures after surgery, but rare seizures for at least 2 years  
 2D: Nocturnal seizures only

Class III (worthwhile improvement)  
 3A: Worthwhile seizure reduction  
 3B: Prolonged seizure-free intervals amounting to greater than half the follow-up period, but not less than 2 years

Class IV (no worthwhile improvement)  
 4A: Significant seizure reduction  
 4B: No appreciable change  
 4C: Seizures worse



TABLE 1: ILAE classification of surgical outcome with respect to epileptic seizures.

Outcome classification	Definition
1	Completely seizure-free; no auras
2	Only auras; no other seizures
3	One to three seizure days per year; $\pm$ auras
4	Four seizure days per year to 50% reduction of baseline seizure days; $\pm$ auras
5	Less than 50% reduction of baseline seizure days to 100% increase of baseline seizure days; $\pm$ auras
6	More than 100% increase of baseline seizure days; $\pm$ auras



# Efficacy and Safety of Epilepsy Surgery for Older Adult Patients with Refractory Epilepsy

**Table 4** Detailed Seizure Outcomes Using the ILAE Seizure Outcome Scale and Histopathology of Surgical Specimens

N=16	Temporal	Frontal	Multilobar	Total
ILAE Class I	8		1	9 (56.3%)
Class II	1			1 (6.3%)
Class III	1		1	2 (12.5%)
Class IV	2	1	1	4 (25%)
	12 (75%)	1 (6.3%)	3 (18.8%)	
Histopathology				15
HS				3 (20%)
HS+AVM				1 (6.7%)
AVM				1 (6.7%)
FCD				3 (20%)
Gliosis				1 (6.7%)
Non specific				6 (40%)

**Table 3** Neurological Deficits and Complications

Total 6 Cases (n=6/52: 11.5%)	
Permanent deficits	2 (3.8%)
Transient deficits & asymptomatic	4 (7.7%)
Intracranial hematoma	4
Hematoma removal	(2)
Observation	(2)
Cerebral infarction	1
Hydrocephalus	1
Invasive procedures	
Electrodes insertion	4
Resective epilepsy surgery	1
Wada test	1

**Conclusion:** These results suggest that epilepsy surgery may represent a valuable approach in selected adult patients.

# Epilepsy surgery outcome

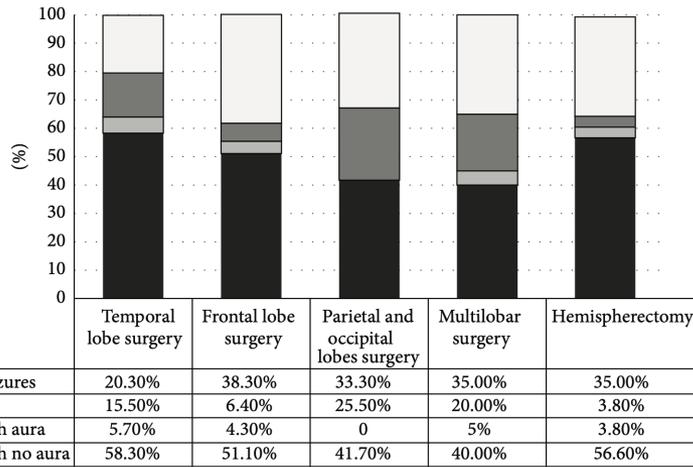


FIGURE 1: first-year epilepsy surgery outcome according to procedure.

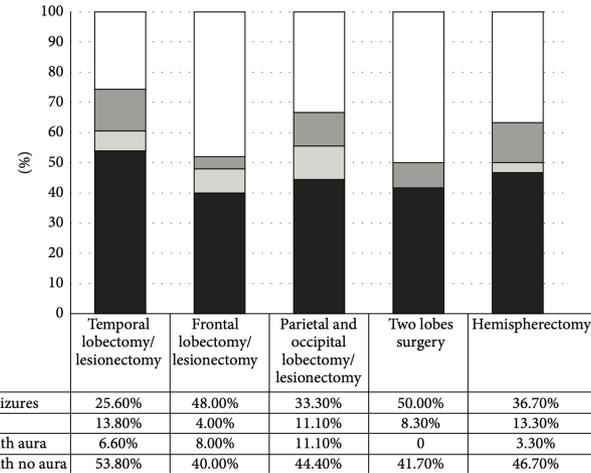


FIGURE 2: The third-year epilepsy surgery outcome according to procedure.

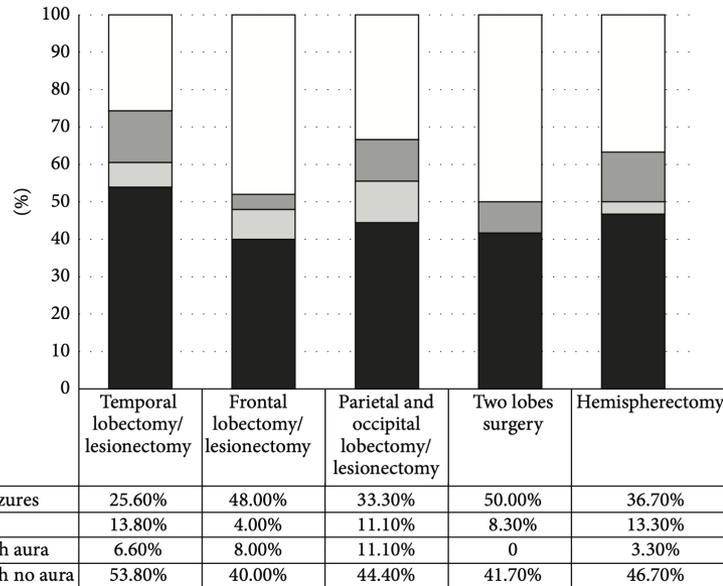


FIGURE 2: The third-year epilepsy surgery outcome according to procedure.

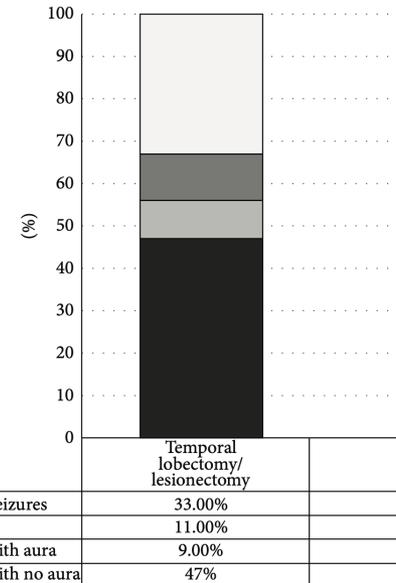


FIGURE 3: The fifth year epilepsy outcome temporal lobe surgery.

# Epilepsy surgery outcome

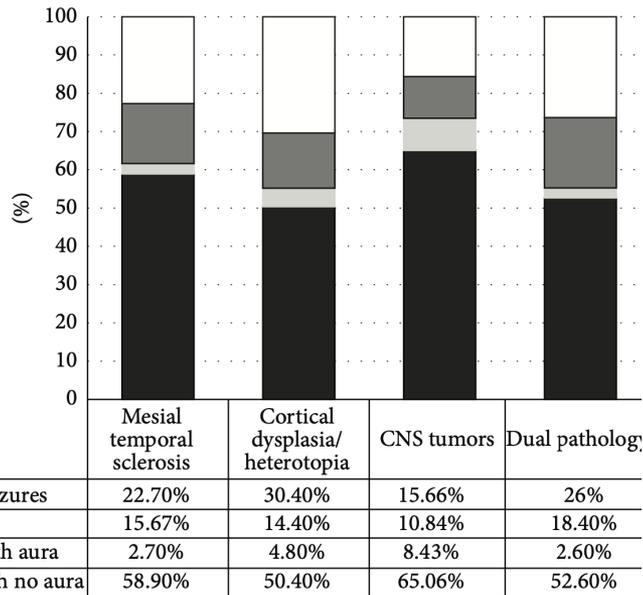


FIGURE 5: The first-year epilepsy surgery outcome according to histopathology.

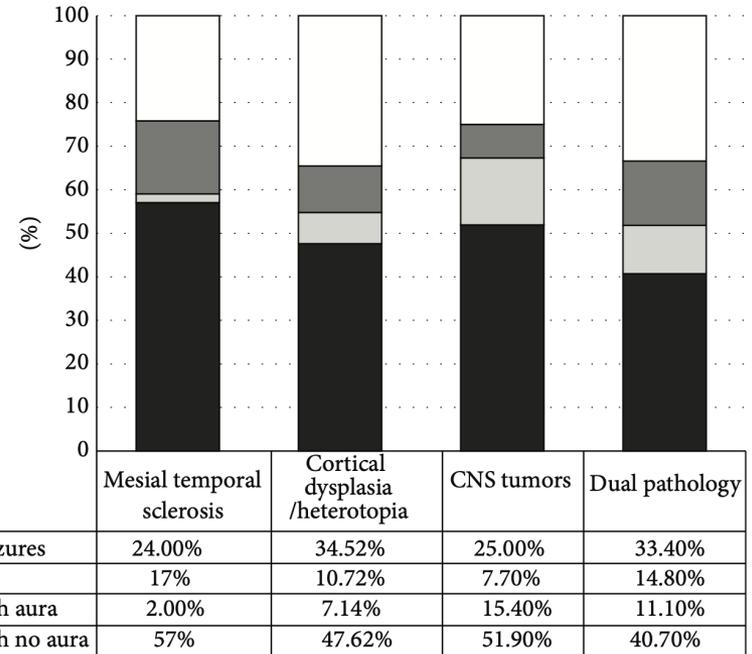


FIGURE 6: The third-year epilepsy surgery outcome according to histopathology.

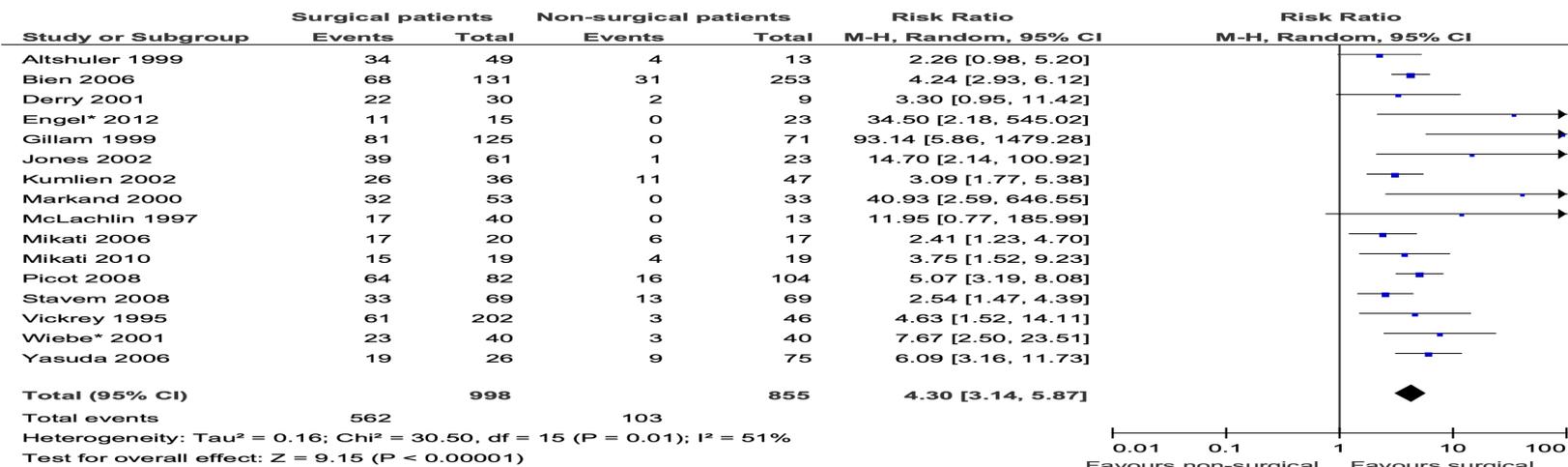


# **Effectiveness of Epilepsy Surgery**

## **Systematic Reviews**



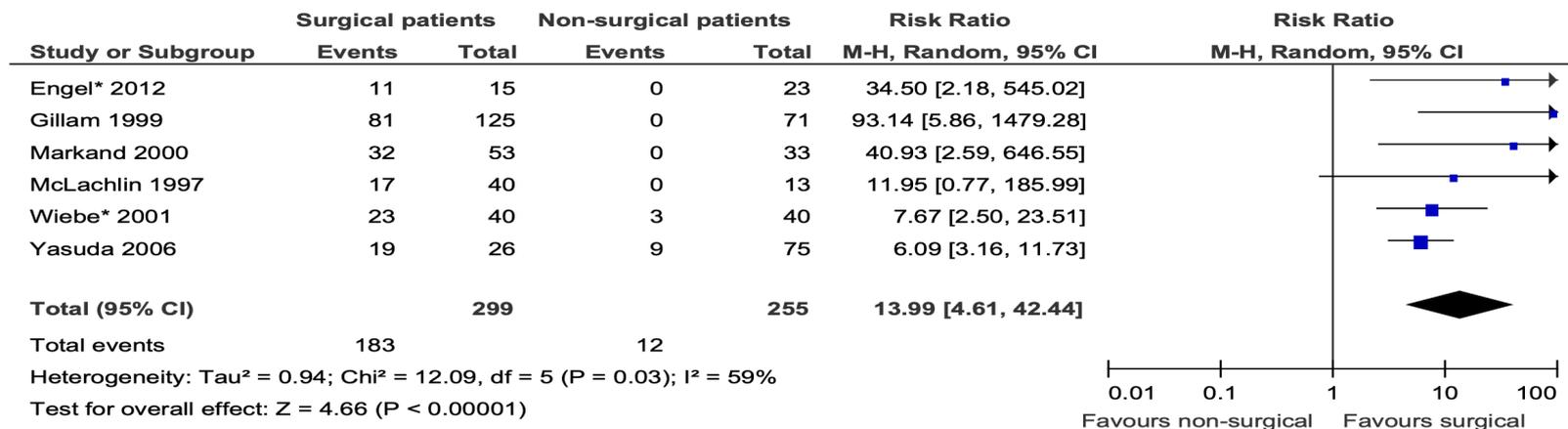
Study	Research Question	Years, Sources Searched	Number of Studies Included	Pooled Seizure Outcome
Englot et al, 2011 (6)	What are the predictors of seizure freedom in the surgical treatment of supratentorial cavernous malformations?	1985–2011, PubMed	31 (1,226 patients)	75% seizure-free
Seiam et al, 2011 (7)	What are the preoperative, operative, and postoperative variables that influence HRQOL after epilepsy surgery in adults?	1950–2008; MEDLINE, EMBASE, Cochrane	39 (3,373 patients)	58.1% seizure-free 35.4% seizure improvement 6.5% no improvement
Tellez-Zenteno et al, 2010 (8)	What are the seizure outcomes in patients undergoing epilepsy surgery and how consistent are the results across studies?	1995–2007, MEDLINE, EMBASE, Cochrane	40 (3,557 patients)	<b>TL + XTL</b> 68% seizure-free (lesional) (95% CI, 66–70) 43% seizure-free (nonlesional) (95% CI, 39–46)  <b>TL</b> 69% seizure-free (lesional) (95% CI, 66–70) 45% seizure-free (nonlesional) (95% CI, 40–49)
Schmidt & Stavem, 2009 (5)	What are the long-term seizure outcomes of surgery versus no surgery for drug-resistant partial epilepsy?	1947–2007, MEDLINE, EMBASE, Index Medicus, Cochrane	20 (1,621 patients)	Surgical: 44% seizure-free; control: 12 % seizure-free (RR 4.26; 95% CI, 3.03–5.98)
Tellez-Zenteno et al, 2005 (9)	What are the long-term (> 5 years) seizure outcomes following epilepsy surgery?	1991–2003, MEDLINE, Index Medicus, Cochrane	76 (7,343 patients)	<b>TL</b> 66% seizure-free (95% CI, 62–70)  <b>TL + XTL</b> 59% seizure-free (95% CI, 56–62)  <b>Frontal</b> 27% seizure-free (95% CI, 23–30)
Tonini et al, 2004 (10)	What are the predictors of epilepsy surgery outcome?	1984–2001, MEDLINE	47 (3,511 patients)	63% 'good outcome' 21% 'improved outcome' 12% 'poor outcome'



**Figure 2: Forest Plot of All Studies Comparing Epilepsy Surgery to No Surgery Since 1995**

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; M-H, Mantel-Haenszel.

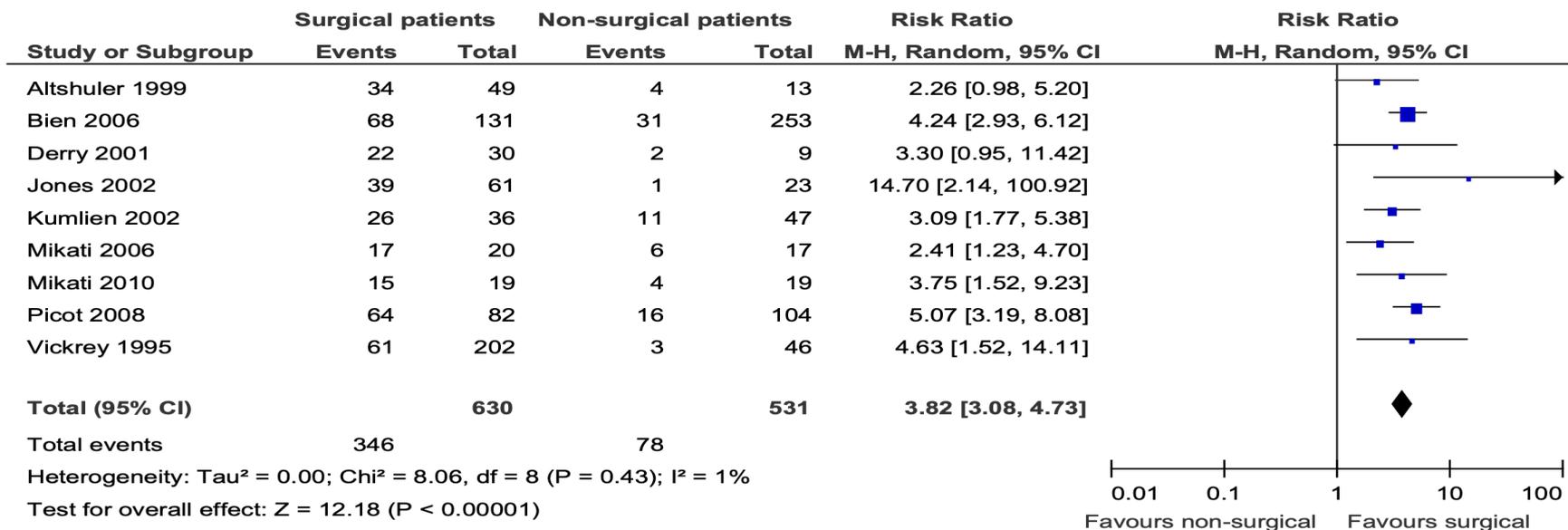
\* Randomized controlled trials (11;12)



**Figure 3: Forest Plot of Studies Comparing Epilepsy Surgery to No Surgery With 1 to 2 Years' Follow-up**

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; M-H, Mantel-Haenszel.

\* Randomized controlled trials (11;12)



**Figure 4: Forest Plot of Studies Comparing Epilepsy Surgery to No Surgery With 3 or More Years' Follow-up**



# **Safety of Epilepsy Surgery**

## **Systematic Reviews**

Study	Study Design	Years	Number of Patients	Patient Population	Duration of Follow-up	Complications
Terra et al, 2010 (28)	Retrospective cohort	1995–2008	267	Children (< 18 years)	Mean [SD] = 5.5 [3.7] years	Only mortality data reported 2 deaths due to acute surgical complications 7 deaths in 2–10 years postsurgery (5 pneumonia, 1 sudden death, 1 status epilepticus)
Koubeissi et al, 2009 (27)	Retrospective cohort (inpatient health administrative data)	2000–2005	484	Inpatients	Duration of in-hospital stay	No surgical mortality Depression (n = 34) Intracerebral hemorrhage (n = 13) Visual field defect (n = 3)
Kim et al, 2008 (29)	Retrospective cohort	1993–2005	134	Children (8 months to 18 years)	62.3 months (range, 12–168 months)	No surgical mortality Brain swelling leading to removal of grid (n = 2) Subdural hematoma (n = 1) Visual field defect (n = 13) Permanent hemiparesis (n = 3)
Sindou et al, 2006 (30)	Retrospective cohort	1994–2003	100	Adults (18–58 years)	Mean 4.5 years (range, 1–10 years)	No surgical mortality Permanent mild hemiparesis (n = 2) Durable depressive state (partial recovery) (n = 3) Transient complications (n = 14)
Clusmann et al, 2004 (31)	Retrospective cohort	1995–2000	442	All ages	Unclear	No surgical mortality Symptomatic postoperative hemorrhages (n = 17) Permanent mild deficits (n = 33)
Salanova et al, 2002 (32)	Retrospective cohort	1984–1999	215	All ages (8 – 57 years) Patients with TLE	Mean 7 years (range, 1–15 years)	No surgical mortality Mortality—3 deaths during seizures, 3 deaths unexplained, 2 suicide, 2 accidents, 1 breast cancer (n = 11) Mild hemiparesis (n = 2) Infections (n = 3) Transient cranial nerve palsies (n = 7) Verbal memory loss (n = 19) Invasive electrode procedures: Infection (n = 4) Hematoma (n = 7) Dislocation of electrode (n = 2)
Rydenhag and Silander, 2001 (33)	Retrospective cohort (data from Swedish National Epilepsy Surgery Register)	1990–1995	654 (205 invasive electrode procedures, 449 therapeutic procedures)	All ages (6 months to 67 years) All surgery types	< 2 years	Therapeutic procedures: <b>Hematoma causing death (n = 1)</b> Hemiparesis (major) (n = 10) Hemianopia (major) (n = 2) Infection (minor) (n = 23) Other minor (n = 17)
Behrens et al, 1997 (34)	Retrospective cohort	1987–1992	429	All ages (4 months to 67 years)	Mean 3 years (range, 1–7.3 years)	No surgical mortality Transient surgical complications (n = 33) Permanent surgical complications (hydrocephalus) (n = 3) Transient neurological complications (n = 13) Permanent neurological complications (hemiparesis, dysphasia, disconnection syndrome) (n = 10)



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