



Review Paper

Plant Bioactive Chemicals With Antiepileptic Properties and Their Promising Mechanisms- A Systematic Review



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Running Title Bio-actives in Epilepsy: Mechanisms and Healing Potential

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ABSTRACT

Background: Epilepsy is a major neurological disorder impacting about 1% of the worldwide population, with a considerable percentage of cases resistant to standard antiepileptic medications. Current pharmacological therapies demonstrate limitations, like exorbitant costs, significant adverse effects, and diminished patient compliance. As a result, bioactive chemicals derived from plants are gaining interest for their potential antiepileptic effects, providing economical and safer alternatives.

Objectives: This comprehensive review aimed to analyze the antiepileptic potency of phytochemicals, such as alkaloids, coumarins, flavonoids, glycosides, and terpenoids, by examining their mechanisms of action, effectiveness, and therapeutic potential.

Materials & Methods: A comprehensive examination was conducted in online databases, like Scopus, Web of Science, PubMed, Medline, Frontiers, and MDPI, utilizing keywords, such as epilepsy, antiepileptic phytochemicals, and seizure causes. Studies relevant to the topic, published from 2014 to 2024, were chosen according to established inclusion and exclusion criteria. Data extraction focused on study specifics, experimental frameworks, bioactive substances, and results related to seizure mitigation and neuroprotection.

Results: A total of 1,579 studies were obtained, with 135 studies meeting the inclusion criteria. The review identified many phytochemicals exhibiting antiepileptic effects via mechanisms, including GABAergic modulation, ion channel regulation, neurotransmitter equilibrium, immune response modulation, and oxidative stress mitigation. Experimental investigations showed the effectiveness of plant-based phytochemical/bioactive compounds in reducing seizures via GABAergic neurotransmission, antioxidant activity, and other pathways.

Conclusion: Phytochemicals demonstrate significant antiepileptic potential via many pathways. Additional clinical trials and mechanistic research are necessary to confirm their therapeutic effectiveness and possible incorporation into epilepsy treatment.

Keywords: Anticonvulsants, Antiepileptic, Epilepsy, Flavonoids, Phytochemicals

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Highlights

- A total of 135 studies demonstrate significant antiepileptic properties of plant bioactives.
- Phytochemicals acts through GABA regulation and antioxidant mechanisms.
- Flavonoids, alkaloids, and terpenoids exhibit great potential for seizure reduction.
- Plant bioactives enhance neuroprotection and optimize treatment results.
- Future clinical trials are need to substantiate plant-based treatments for epilepsy.

Introduction

Epilepsy is among the most prevalent and severe neurological disorders worldwide (Figure 1). Approximately 1% of the general population is afflicted with epilepsy, with roughly one-third of these cases suffering from refractory epilepsy, characterized by the continuation of seizures despite sufficient trials of at least two suitably selected and tolerated antiepileptic medications [1]. About 75% of epilepsy manifests throughout infancy, indicating the growing brain's vulnerability to seizures. Nonetheless, the prevalence in children has declined over the past 30 years in affluent nations, accompanied by another increase in the elderly [2]. A clinical condition often possesses multiple potential aetiologies that may result in diverse epileptic manifestations. An epilepsy syndrome denotes a collection of clinical features that coexist with similar seizure types, age of onset, electroencephalogram abnormalities, precipitating factors, genetic predispositions, natural history, prognosis, and responses to antiepileptic medications [3].

The prevalent forms of epilepsy are complex conditions influenced by specific genetic variations. A seizure can be described as “a condition resulting from an aberrant uncontrolled neuronal activation across the central nervous system” [4]. A convulsion is abrupt, involuntary muscle contractions and relaxations, frequently associated with atypical motions or postures, which may arise from excessive and synchronized neuronal discharges in the brain. The term “seizure of epilepsy” is used to distinguish a seizure resulting from abnormal neural activity from a non-epileptic event, such as psychogenic epilepsy [5, 6]. Some epilepsies are classified as electro-clinical disorders, and this can be achieved through modern computerized technologies [7-9]. Rare epilepsy disorders with monogenic inheritance are linked to abnormalities in genes encoding components of voltage-

gated and ligand-gated ion channels. Mutations in voltage-gated Na^+ , Cl^- , and K^+ channels are linked to various kinds of generalized epilepsy along with juvenile seizure disorders [10]. Absence seizures are linked to the impairment of P/Q-type calcium channels with voltage regulation. Nicotinic ligand-gated ions channels, cholinergic receptors, and GABA receptor monomers are linked to prefrontal and generalized epilepsies [11].

The notable characteristics vary among epileptic phenotypes and are linked to the identified genetic mutations that cause all recognized monogenic disorders. Modifications in two non-ion channel encoding genes were discovered in idiopathic epileptic seizures. Current antiepileptic medications inhibit seizures despite addressing the root cause of seizure generation, demonstrating efficacy in 60–70% of patients [12]. Synthetic pharmaceuticals for neurological illnesses are costly and may exhibit severe and unavoidable adverse effects, resulting in low patient adherence. Consequently, medicinal and traditional therapies are favored over synthetic pharmaceuticals for neurological illnesses [13]. The accessibility, low occurrence of adverse effects, and cost efficiency of botanical medications provide significant advantages over synthetic drugs [14, 15]. Around 70% of individuals in impoverished nations continue to depend on alternative and complementary treatments despite advancements in traditional care [16]. This review aimed to highlight phytochemicals (alkaloids, coumarins, flavonoids, glycosides, terpenoids, etc.) that possess anti-epileptic activities and their potential mechanisms, as supported by documented global research.

Materials and Methods

Search methodology

This study encompassed both human clinical trials and experimental animal research that examined the antiepi-

leptic potential and mechanisms of bioactive substances derived from plants were retrieved from scientific databases (Scopus, PubMed, Web of Science (WoS), Medline, Frontiers, MDPI, and Google Scholar). Particular search terms, such as epilepsy, pathogenesis, approved drugs for epilepsy, antiepileptic, prevalence, epidemiology, phytochemicals (alkaloids, coumarins, flavonoids, glycosides, terpenoid, etc.), antiseizures, and antiepileptic mechanisms were used in searching. Each article was subsequently examined individually, and the phytochemicals identified as effective for epilepsy were compiled and organized into a table. Data regarding the local utilization and methods of using phytochemicals to treat epilepsy were gathered from practitioners of informal medicine, herbalists, and knowledgeable elderly individuals familiar with phytochemical remedies.

Data extraction

The authors individually evaluated all titles and abstracts identified during the search according to the inclusion criteria. All potentially eligible studies, including those with undefined eligibility, were meticulously evaluated. Following this phase, the complete publications were thoroughly reviewed, and any discrepancies in viewpoints were reconciled.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The review encompassed peer-reviewed papers and randomized controlled trials (RCTs) investigating plant bioactive substances with antiepileptic effects. The research examined plant-derived bioactive substances exhibiting significant antiepileptic or neuroprotective properties, utilizing experimental models of epilepsy, clinical trials on humans, or cultures of cells pertinent to epilepsy investigations. Qualified research evaluated seizure reduction, neuroprotective benefits, control of oxidative stress, neurotransmitter equilibrium, ion channel regulation, or other pathways linked to antiepileptic efficacy. Only full-text, peer-reviewed journal publications published in English over the past 10 years were included. The exclusion criteria were applied to research that examined synthetic medicines or non-bioactive extracts of plants lacking documented antiepileptic properties [17]. Studies that failed to evaluate antiepileptic efficacy or relevant mechanisms were also omitted. Narrative reviews, editorials, letters to the editor, and non-systematic reviews were excluded. Furthermore, publications in languages other than English were eliminated unless a high-quality translation was provided. Unpublished works, such as preprints, conference abstracts, and dissertations without peer review, were excluded

from consideration. Additionally, this review excluded studies that analyzed mixed plant extracts without separating and assessing individual bioactive components.

Results

A total of 1579 documents (research, review, and case reports) were obtained through the searches, along with 135 papers that were individually evaluated and selected according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria of the preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses (PRISMA) templates (Figure 2). Relevant publications were found according to criteria, including researcher details, year of publication (2014-2024), research objectives, sample demographics and size, experimental methodology, and important findings. The literature study revealed that phytochemicals derived from herbs has antiepileptic properties. This facilitates the selection of plant-based phytochemicals/bioactive chemicals/bioactive compounds for investigators seeking phytochemical treatments for epilepsy. Despite the growing body of knowledge on natural medicine, its constituents remain intricate, including alkaloids, cardiac glycosides, coumarins, flavonoids, quinones, saponins, terpenes, and volatile oils. An investigation was performed to investigate the antiepileptic efficacy of phytochemicals enriched in *Acalypha fruticosa* extract in rats [18, 19].

Discussion

The *A. fruticosa* crude extract at dosages ranging from 30 to 300 mg/kg was assessed for its effects on maximal electroshock (MES), pentylenetetrazol (PTZ), and isoniazid (INH)-caused epilepsy in mouse. In comparison to diazepam-treated animals using the MES approach, the extract significantly safeguarded the mouse against electroshock-induced convulsions in a dose-dependent manner, exhibiting enhanced efficacy at 300 mg/kg. The extract efficiently inhibited seizures in mice compared to phenobarbitone sodium using the PTZ method, whereas it prolonged the onset of seizures in a dose-dependent manner using the INH methodology but failed to prevent mortality [20]. The existence of antioxidant ingredients, such as flavonoids may account for significant and dosage-dependent antiepileptic activity. In PTZ, bicuculline, and picrotoxin treatments, *Achyranthes aspera* extract at dosages of 5–10 mg/kg demonstrated a substantial elevation in seizure level relative to saline-treated mouse; nevertheless, the extract lacked any sort of immunity against MES-stimulated seizures [21]. Moreover, *A. aspera* treatment at 5–10 mg/kg elevated GABA concentrations within the cortex and hip-

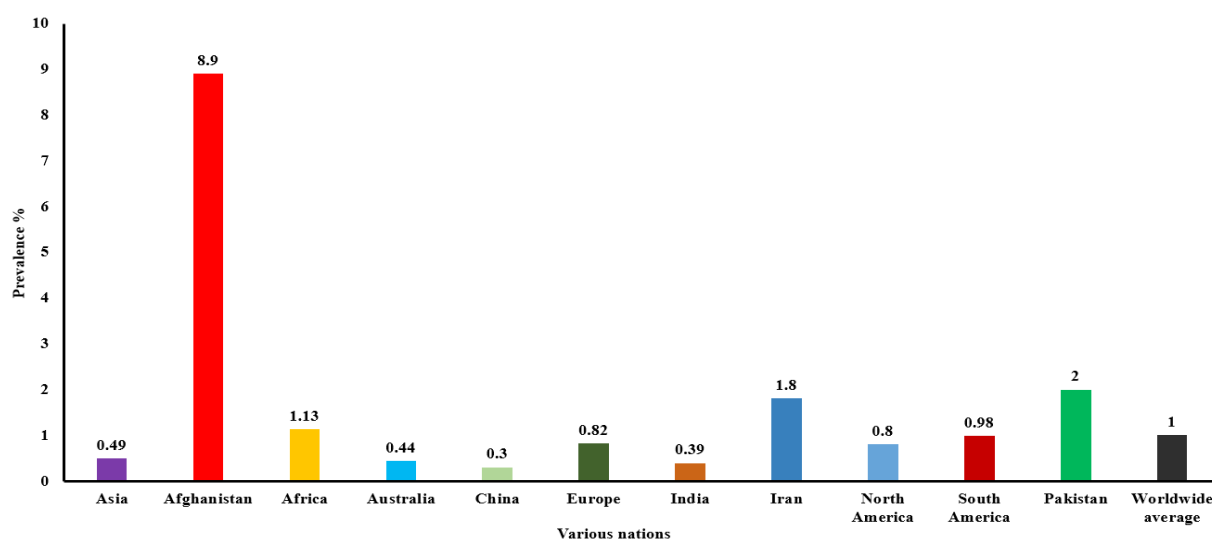


Figure 1. Worldwide epilepsy epidemiology and its comparable prevalence across nations

pocampus relative to the control group, as determined by HPLC analysis [21]. The antiepileptic properties of *A. aspera* extract are presumed to be enhanced through the participation of GABAergic neurotransmission. Numerous compounds have been identified as possessing antiepileptic properties, primarily through mechanisms

that regulate synaptic and receptor processes (such as GABA, 5-HT, Glu, and NMDAR), immune responses (such as CD3, IL-1 β , IL-1, IL-2, IL-4, IL-6, and IL-10, CD4, TNF- α , IgG, and IgA) [22], ion channels (for instance, Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and K⁺), glial cell functions (such as proliferation and K⁺ uptake) [23], as well as mitochon-

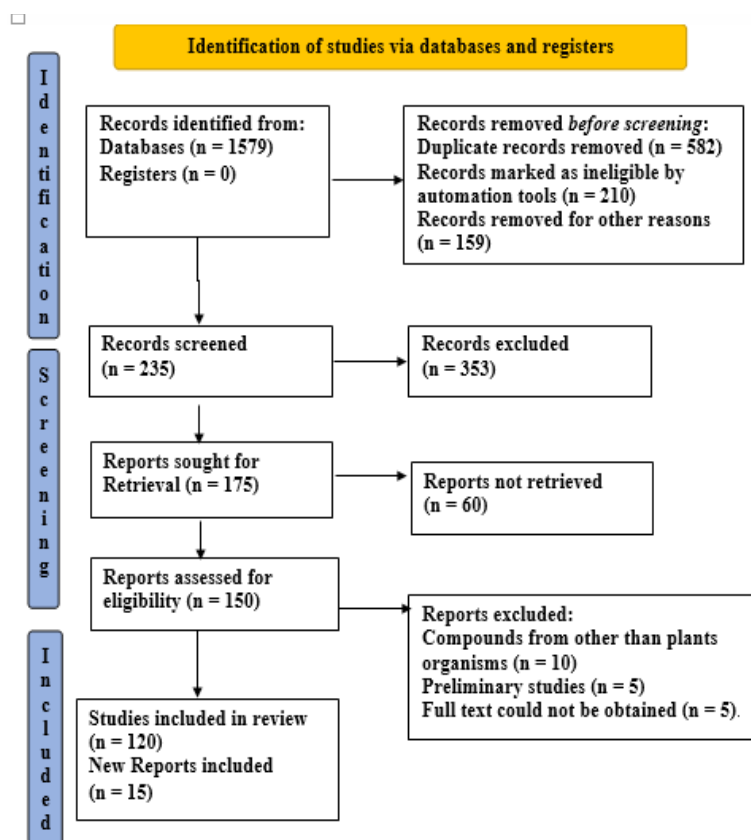
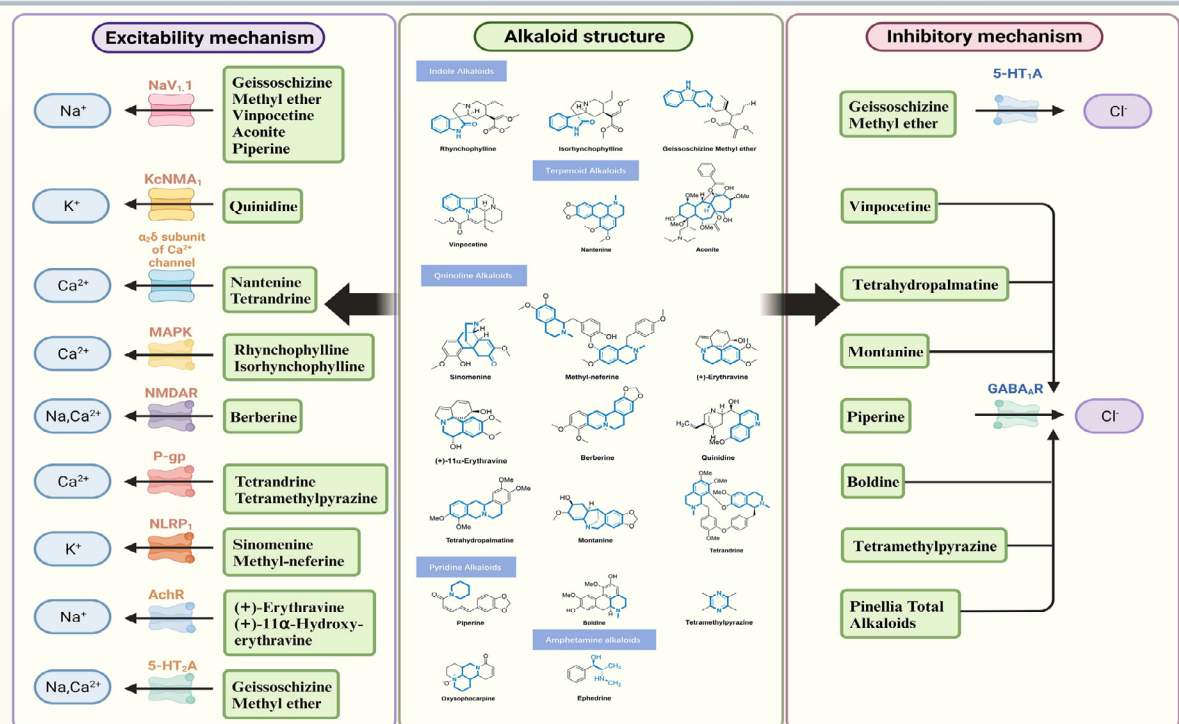


Figure 2. Article processing based on PRISMA criteria

Natural Alkaloid and Therapeutic Mechanism against Epilepsy



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Figure 3. Therapeutic mechanisms of phytochemicals (e.g. alkaloids) in the treatment of epilepsy

Note: Image adopted from Li, et al. [28], used under the terms of the creative commons attribution license (CC BY).

drial disorders and oxidative stress (such as apoptosis, oxidative markers, and Ca^{2+} accumulation) [22].

Selective mechanism of phytochemicals on epilepsy

Phytochemicals offer a multi-faceted strategy for epilepsy management by influencing neurotransmitters, ion channels, oxidative stress, inflammation, and mitochondrial activity [23] (Figure 3). Their potential as alternative or supplementary therapy to traditional antiepileptic medications (AEDs) underscores the necessity for additional study and clinical validation. Table 1 presents plant-based phytochemicals reported recently (2014-2024) with antiepileptic activity through various mechanisms studied by in-vitro and in-vivo studied.

Authorized pharmaceuticals and therapeutic targets

Epilepsy impacts individuals across all age groups, particularly those aged 65 and older. About 25% to 35% of individuals continue to exhibit resistance to existing AEDs [24]. Treatment modalities encompass surgical intervention, ketogenic diet, transcranial direct current

activation, vagus nerve activation, deep brain activation, and transcranial magnetic activation. Each method has limitations, including accessibility, cost, and efficacy rates. Currently, pharmacological agents are the predominant therapeutic modality due to their accessibility, high efficacy, and economic viability [25]. During the latter part of the 19th century, potassium bromide (KBr) and herbal remedies were employed to manage epilepsy. Phenobarbital, a GABA_A receptor agonist, received regulatory approval for the management of epilepsy around 1912 during the 20th century [26]. Between 1850 and 1960, five medications were predominantly utilized, followed by an additional eight by 1980 [27]. In the modern era, advances in neuroscience have led to the development of more than twenty medications for the management of epilepsy. Investigators are now examining the cost-effectiveness and exceptional efficacy of various medications, with multiple pharmacological and therapeutic interventions undergoing clinical trials [28].

Table 1. Selected phytochemicals/bioactive chemicals reported in studies

No.	Phytochemicals/Bioactive Chemicals	Source and Extract	Dose (mg/kg)	Study Mode	Animal Model	Mechanism(s) Involved	Ref.
1	Alkaloids, flavonoids, lipids, triterpenoids, coumarins, and terpenes	<i>Pandanus odoratissimus</i> /leaf extract	100 & 200	MES, PTZ and INH-induced convulsions	Swiss Albino mice	Improved GABAergic neurotransmission	[39]
2	Swertianin and gentiopicric acid	<i>Swertia corymbosa</i> / Aerial parts extract	125–500	PTZ, MES, and INH-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	GABAAR benzodiazepines receptor regulation	[40]
3	Anthraquinones, saponins, flavonoids, steroids, carbohydrates, and tannins	<i>Globimetula braunii</i> /leaf extract	150	PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Augmentation of GABAergic neurological communication	[41]
4	Alkaloids, coumarins, lipids, triterpenoids, terpenes, and Flavonoids	<i>Pandanus odoratissimus</i> Linn/leaf extract	100 & 200	Strychnine, MES, and PTX-induced seizures	Swiss Albino mice	Augmented GABA-mediated inhibition	[42]
5	Epoxycarvone	<i>Carum carvi</i>	300	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Enhancement of GABAA receptor activity	[43]
6	Anthocyanins	<i>Sambucus nigra</i> / Aerial parts extract	250, 500 & 1,000	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Mice	GABA levels increased	[44]
7	Oleanolic and ursolic acid	<i>Artemisia indica</i> / whole plant extract	10, 30, & 100	PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss mice	Interacting with GABAA receptors via the benzodiazepine binding site	[45]
8	Phenols and flavonoids	<i>Silybum marianum</i> /seed extract	300	PTZ-induced seizures	Albino mice	GABAAR regulation	[46]
9	Flavonoids, glycosides, saponins, tannins, protein and steroids	<i>Tapinanthus globiferus</i> / Whole plant extract	250, 500, & 1,000	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Albino mice	Modulation of GABA(A) receptors and activation of benzodiazepines	[47]
10	Phenolics, alkaloids, glycosides, flavonoids, saponins, carbohydrates, aminoacids and steroids	<i>Achyranthes aspera</i> /root extract	5 & 10	PTZ, picrotoxin, and bicuculline-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	GABA levels enhanced	[21]
11	(+)-Dehydrofukinone (DHF)	<i>Nectandra grandiflora</i>	10, 30 and 100 mg/kg	PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss mice	Beneficial GABAergic neuronal suppression	[48]
12	Flavonoids, alkaloids, polyphenols, tannins, saponins, and glycosides	<i>Culcasia falcifolia</i>	200 & 400	PTZ-induced seizures	Mice	Activation of GABAA receptors	[28]
13	Morin	<i>Chlorophora tinctoria</i> and <i>Prunus dulcis</i>	20 & 40	PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	GABA levels increased	[49]
14	Saponins, alkaloids, cardiac flavonoids, steroids, glycosides, and tannins	<i>Azelaia Africana</i> / leaf extract	100 mg/kg	PILO-induced seizures	Wistar rats	Engage with the BZD location within the GABA receptor	[28]
15	Alkaloids, carbohydrate, flavonoids, cardiac glycosides, phenolic, tannins, proteins, and steroids	<i>Caladium bicolor</i> / leaf extract	100 & 200	PTZ, Strychnine, and MES-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Activation of inhibitory GABAergic receptors	[50]
16	Tannins, terpenoids, saponins, flavonoids, and steroids	<i>Boswellia dalzielii</i> / stem extract	500	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	GABAAR regulation	[51]

No.	Phytochemicals/Bioactive Chemicals	Source and Extract	Dose (mg/kg)	Study Mode	Animal Model	Mechanism(s) Involved	Ref.
17	Alkaloids (argentinine, uvariopsine, and stephan thrine), flavonoids, vanillin, saponins, tannins, terpenoids, steroids, and cardiac glycosides	<i>Bambusa vulgaris</i> / leaf extract	100, 200 & 400	PTZ-induced seizures	Mice	Neurotransmission at GABAA-benzodiazepine receptors	[52]
18	Alkaloids (argentinine, uvariopsine, and stephan thrine), flavonoids, vanillin, saponins, tannins, terpenoids, steroids, and cardiac glycosides	<i>Dennettia tripetala</i> /seeds extract	61, 122, & 245	PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Augmentation of GABAergic activity	[53]
19	Alkaloids, saponins, flavonoids, terpenes (carotenoids, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, triterpenes, sterols, and cyclohexanes), steroids, and tannins	<i>Canarium sweinfurthii</i> /stem bark extract	11.9 mg/kg	MES, 4-AP, and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Increased GABA levels and decrease GABA-T	[54]
20	Prenyl flavonoid (morusin)	<i>Morus nigra</i> /fruit extract	125, 250, & 500	Strychnine-induced seizures	Albino Wistar mice	Enhancing GABA concentrations	[55]
21	Flavonoids (butin and rutin) triterpenoid, psychotrianoside B, saponins, baurenone, alkaloids, 10-hydroxyanthirrhine, isodeppeaninol, hodkin-sine, and 10-hydroxy-Emetine	<i>Psychotria camp-topus</i> Verdc/bark extract	40, 80, & 120	Thiosemicarbazide, strychnine, and PIC-induced seizures	Wistar rats	Engage with the benzodiazepine binding site of GABAA receptors	[56]
22	Steroids, flavonoids, terpenoids, isoquercitrin, quercetin, kaempferol, astragalin, phenolics, rutin, and isorhamnetin phenylpropanes, caffeic acid, chlorogenic acid, coumarins, proteins, scopoletin polysaccharides, and lectins	<i>Urtica dioica</i> /root extract	100 & 200	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Regulating the GABA receptor-chloride channel complex	[57]
23	Alkaloids, phenolics, tannins, and flavonoids	<i>Artemisia afra</i> / whole plant extract	250, 500, & 1000	PTZ-induced seizures	BALB/c mice	Augmented GABA transmission	[58]
24	Phenolics, tannins, terpenoids, alkaloids, steroids, and flavonoid	<i>Pentas schimperiana</i> /roots extract	100, 200, & 400	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Regulate GABA-mediated Cl-channel	[59]
25	Atropine, morphine, quinine, and digoxin	<i>Calotropis procera</i> / leaf extract	100–300	PILO, strychnine, PTZ, and PIC-induced seizures	ICR mice	Interactions of benzodiazepines with GABA receptors	[60]
26	Flavonoids, alkaloids, tannins, and phenolics	<i>Paullinia pinnata</i> / leaf extract	100, 200, & 400	INH-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Augment GAD activity and diminish GABA-T	[61]
27	Alkaloids, steroids, flavonoids, and phenolics	<i>Sarcostemma acidum</i> /aerial parts extract	200 & 400	Phenobarbitone and MES	Albino mice	Augmenting GABA transmission	[62]
28	Tannins, flavonoids, saponins, terpenoids, alkaloids, anthraquinones, steroids, resins, and glycosides	<i>Detarium senegalense</i> /leaf extract	100, 200, & 400	INH, PTZ, and brucine-induced seizures	Swiss mice	GABA receptors regulation	[63]

No.	Phytochemicals/Bioactive Chemicals	Source and Extract	Dose (mg/kg)	Study Mode	Animal Model	Mechanism(s) Involved	Ref.
29	Flavonoids, lignin, triterpenoids, non-protein amino acids, phenolics and tannins	Combretum lanceolatum/leaf extract	01–10	PTZ-induced seizures	Zebrafish	Engagement with the GABAA receptor	[64]
30	Flavonoids, steroids, tannins, terpenoids, phenols, and saponins	<i>Biophytum umbraculum</i> /root extract	100, 200, & 400	MES and PTZ-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Augmentation of GABAergic neurotransmission	[65]
31	Alkaloids, tannins, cardiac glycosides, steroids, saponins, flavonoids, and triterpenes	<i>Ipomoea asarifolia</i> /leaf extract	300	PTZ and MES-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	Interaction of GABAergic pathways	[66]
32	Flavonoids, steroids, glycosides, alkaloids, saponins, phenols, and terpenoids	<i>Harungana madagascariensis</i> /leaf extract	100, 500, & 11,000	INH-induced seizures	Mice	GABA levels increased	[67]
33	Alkaloids, gallic acid, flavonoids, Quercetin, phenols, and glycosides	<i>Decalepis nervosa</i> /root extract	250 & 500	INH and PTZ-induced seizures	Mice	GABA levels increased	[28]
34	Phenylethanoid, flavonoid, and terpenoid	<i>Satchys Lavandulifolia</i> /aerial part extract	50	PTZ-induced seizures	Mice	Regulation of GABAA benzodiazepine receptors	[68]
35	Tannins, alkaloids, terpenoids, phytosterols, saponins, flavonoids, and glycosides	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> /leaf extract	100	MES, PIC, 4-AP, and PTZ-induced seizures	ICR mice	GABAergic pathway regulation	[69]
36	Ursolic acid	<i>Hedyotis diffusa</i> and <i>Eriobotrya japonica</i>	20 & 100	PILO-induced seizures	Male Sprague	Reduced loss of GABAergic interneurons	[70]
37	Alkaloids, steroid, tannins, terpenoids, proteins, and flavonoids	<i>Bixa Orellana</i> /leaf extract	200, 400 & 800	INH-induced seizures	Swiss albino mice	GABAAR regulation	[71]
38	Alkaloids, anthraquinones, saponins, tannins, cardiac glycosides, triterpenes, flavonoids, and carbohydrates	<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> /leaf extract	400 and 800 mg/kg	PTZ-induced seizures	Albino mice	Enhancement of GABA	[72]
39	Flavonoids, carbohydrates, cardiac glycosides, hexadecanoic acid, tannins, palmitic acid, steroids, glycosides, saponins, and phenols	<i>Caralluma dalzielii</i> /aerial part extract	250, 500 & 1,000	MES, strychnine, and PTZ-induced seizures	Ranger cockerel	GABAAR activation	[73]
40	Tannins, triterpenes, alkaloids, flavonoids, and saponins	<i>Newbouldia laevis</i>	400 mg/kg	MES, Strychnine, and PTZ-induced seizures	Albino mice	GABA levels increased	[74]
41	Phenolic acids, 4-hydroxyphenylacetic acids, protocatechuic, β-resorcylic, flavonoids, astragaloside, and caffeic acid	<i>Malvaviscus arboreus</i> /whole plant extract	122.5, 245 & 490	PTZ, Strychnine, and PIC-induced seizures	Mus musculus Swiss	Engage with the GABAergic system	[75]
42	Alkaloids, cardiac glycosides, carbohydrates, anthraquinones, saponins, triterpenes, flavonoids, and tannins	<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> /leaf extract	400 & 800	PTZ-induced seizures	Albino mice	Enhanced GABA mediated inhibitory neurotransmission	[72]
43	Flavonoids, Tannins, and alkaloids	<i>Alchemilla Kiwuen-sis</i> /whole plant extract	40 & 80	PTZ-induced seizures	Albinos Wistar rats	Inhibition of GABA-transaminase	[76]

Concurrent utilization of phytochemicals with modern antiepileptic medications

Pharmacological treatment continues to be the primary method for managing epilepsy. The effectiveness of conventional therapies in managing epilepsy is evident, but they are accompanied by numerous known side effects, including anorexia, impaired liver function, dizziness, headaches, leukopenia, cognitive impairment, and diminished quality of life [29]. Particularly for pediatric patients, the physical harm caused by Western medicine is far greater. Conversely, natural medications exhibit minimal toxicity and side effects, resulting in reduced unpleasantness for patients compared to Western pharmaceuticals [30]. The integration of traditional Chinese and Western therapy offers promising options for epilepsy patients who are unresponsive to Western treatments [31]. Furthermore, traditional medicine and its recommendations can significantly enhance the effectiveness of conventional medicine while concurrently mitigating the adverse effects associated with its use. Chinese herbal medicines in the treatment of conditioned tonic improve patients' anti-epileptic and anti-convulsive conditions, mitigate damage to nerves in epilepsy, and facilitate recovery from the illness [32].

Nobiletin and clonazepam effectively diminish epilepsy severity through suppressing seizure-stimulated elevations in apoptosis protein synthesis, restoring the Glu/GABA equilibrium, and modifying GAD 65 and GABAA [33]. They additionally enhance PI3K/Akt signaling. Overall systemic subcutaneous treatment with UMB at 150 mg/kg can increase the risk of EMS in rats. The combination of valproate/phenobarbital with UMB merits consideration for refractory epileptics. Naringin, when combined with phenytoin, has demonstrated neuroprotective effects against seizures and enhanced the acquired reduction responses in a PTZ-stimulated kindling paradigm [34]. This combination improves neurochemical balance by augmenting GABA and dopamine concentrations, reducing MDA and Glu levels, and increasing antioxidant activity. Gastrodin, in conjunction with carbamazepine, can enhance treatment outcomes and rectify electroencephalogram anomalies in epilepsy patients, demonstrating substantial clinical effectiveness and reduced morbidity [35, 36].

Prescriptions are increasingly utilized in medical care, as well as their therapeutic efficacy is acknowledged by a greater number of patients. The optimal combination of two pharmaceuticals can diminish toxicity as well as augment efficacy, whilst offering a more agreeable therapy experience. Tongqiao Dingxian soup, Ziziphi

spinosae decoction, and polyester phlegm soup were documented to reduce the transcription of NMDAR1 and Glu [37]. The integration of different forms of medication has improved therapeutic efficacy while minimizing toxicity and adverse effects, including ligustrazine hydrochloride injections, tranquilizers as well as antiepileptic medications, gastrodin injection, and wild jujube seed decoction [38].

Conclusion

Epilepsy represents a multifaceted disorder impacting the nervous, immunological, and metabolic systems, which can be managed with phytochemical remedies, such as alkaloids, flavonoids, terpenoids etc. These phytochemical remedies have been beneficial in managing psychiatric diseases and enhancing the release of neurotransmitters, rectifying ion channel imbalances, mitigating inflammatory responses, alleviating oxidative stress, repairing mitochondrial damage, and addressing glycogen metabolism abnormalities. The integration of plant-based phytochemicals/bioactive compounds and conventional therapy has demonstrated encouraging outcomes in the treatment of epilepsy, as it mitigates potential adverse effects and enhances overall treatment effectiveness. For certain patients, a holistic treatment strategy is a viable and efficacious alternative. Nonetheless, the study possesses shortcomings, including its emphasis on animal models and its questionable relevance to human subjects. The etiology of epilepsy is intricate, and an example generated by a single pharmacological agent cannot fully replicate its pathophysiology. Future research should integrate clinical experience with theoretical frameworks for the management of epilepsy. Gene therapy, an emerging therapeutic approach, warrants consideration, as the hypothesis that alterations within a single gene can precipitate epilepsy require additional validation. Moreover, brain stem cell transplantation has demonstrated favorable results in the domain of epilepsy. Briefly, the integration of phytochemical medicine and conventional medicine in the treatment of epilepsy remains a prospective and beneficial strategy. Future studies should prioritize the development of more complete epilepsy models, as well as the exploration of gene therapy and brain stem cell transplantation to enhance outcomes.

Ethical Considerations

Compliance with ethical guidelines

There were no ethical considerations to be considered in this research.

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Authors contributions

All authors contributed equally to the conception and design of the study, data collection and analysis, interpretation of the results and drafting of the manuscript. Each author approved the final version of the manuscript for submission.

Conflict of interest

The authors declared no conflict interests.

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