

Management of Canine Epilepsy Beyond Drugs

Holger A. Volk, DVM, PHD, PGCAP, DIPECVN



The following content is
provided courtesy of

 **PURINA**[®]
PRO PLAN[®]
VETERINARY
DIETS

Management of Canine Epilepsy Beyond Drugs

Holger A. Volk, DVM, PHD, PGCAP, DIPECVN

The following content is provided courtesy of



The following content is provided courtesy of



Management of Canine Epilepsy Beyond Drugs

Holger A. Volk, DVM, PHD, PGCAP, DIPECVN

KEYWORDS

- Epilepsy • Seizure • Drug Resistance • Medium Chain Triglycerides
- Fatty Acids

ABSTRACT

Seizures and epilepsy in the dog are frequently encountered in first opinion practice. Most veterinary practitioners share the experience that despite an ever-increasing number of available antiepileptic drugs, most dogs continue to have seizures and suffer from quality of life (QOL)-limiting side effects. Epilepsy is a multifactorial brain disease, and new treatment strategies should reflect this in a more multimodal (holistic) approach to epilepsy management. The "right mix" in epilepsy management usually needs to include antiepileptic drug(s) medication tailored to the individual case, a balanced and potentially specialized nutrition plan, a reduction of potential seizure triggers and stress factors, and a treatment plan for comorbidities. Until recently, there was only anecdotal evidence that nutrition could play a role in epilepsy treatment. A newly developed diet based on medium chain triglycerides (MCTs) has been shown to be effective not only in significantly improving seizure control but also in reducing behavioral comorbidities in most dogs with idiopathic epilepsy, when fed as an adjunct to antiepileptic drug treatment. This was shown in a recent double-blind, randomized, controlled, cross-over design study in dogs nonresponsive to standard antiepileptic medication(s). Fourteen percent of dogs became seizure free when on an MCT diet, and 48% of dogs showed a 50% or greater reduction in seizure frequency. Diets provide a new therapeutic angle in the treatment of canine epilepsy and should be considered as an additional treatment option in this challenging brain disease.

INTRODUCTION

Epilepsy is known to be the most common chronic neurological brain disease seen in first opinion practice,¹ but thinking of it as a simple seizure disorder that can be controlled with antiepileptic drugs would be far too simple. Epilepsy is more than just a seizure disorder.² Epilepsy is a brain disease.³ Epilepsy is also a major risk to health and welfare in dogs. A recent review paper⁴ highlighted that dogs with epilepsy are at risk not only of reduced quality but also quantity of life, with threats to quality of life (QOL) including an increased risk of developing comorbidities such as anxiety and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), antiepileptic drug (AED) side effects, complications of AED treatment and early death.⁵⁻⁹ Between 20% and 60% of dogs with idiopathic epilepsy (IE) are euthanized as a direct consequence of this brain disease and the side effects of AEDs.¹⁰ In a subpopulation of dogs with IE, seizure severity and frequency progresses with time, especially in those with high seizure density (cluster seizures) or severity (status epilepticus).¹¹ A very high seizure density and prolonged seizure activity (status epilepticus) can potentially lead to brain damage and death. The disease is of early onset (most dogs have their first seizure between 1 and 4 years of age) and is lifelong,¹² usually requiring chronic medication.^{13,14}

With AEDs, there is a fine line between benefit and harm, with potentially adverse welfare consequences due to unpleasant side effects, including polyphagia and weight gain, polydipsia, polyuria, restlessness, lethargy, and ataxia.^{7,15} These side effects, especially sedation and ataxia, can impact an owner's QOL considerably, with this being one of the top reasons cited by owners for a decreased QOL.^{7,9} A high seizure frequency and treatment with a third AED is significantly associated with a reduced QOL in dogs with IE.⁹ In addition, drug resistance to AEDs can be a source of frustration for owners and veterinarians alike in the treatment of canine IE. Seizures can be perceived by the owners as "unpredictable" and "uncontrollable" and have been associated with a stress response in form of a postictal cortisol spike in dogs with IE and owners alike (personal communication, H. Volk). The ultimate aim in the management of IE is the complete cessation of seizures without causing clinically significant side effects.¹⁶ It is, however, difficult to achieve seizure remission. Around two-thirds of dogs with IE continue to have seizures despite AED treatment,^{6,17-19} with around 20% to 30% remaining inadequately controlled (<50% reduction of seizure frequency) despite adequate and appropriate medication with the standard AEDs phenobarbital and/or potassium bromide.²⁰⁻²² Finding an effective AED that reduces seizure frequency to an acceptable level or results in seizure freedom can be a long process, with several AEDs tried and added before optimum treatment is reached. Recent research has indicated that overall response rates (defined as >50% reduction in seizure frequency) to successive AED treatments are 37% (first), 11% (second), and 6% (third) AEDs, respectively.²³ Many dogs therefore continue to have seizures long term despite polytherapy. New treatments for canine IE are urgently required. The use of recently developed, effective, and well-tolerated AEDs for people with epilepsy for pets²⁴⁻²⁶ is limited due to cost, inappropriate

pharmacokinetics, and sometimes life-threatening side effects.^{27,28} Finding new and alternative treatment options to improve seizure control is of utmost importance, to allow dogs with IE to either be treated with a reduced AED dosage or ideally no AED treatment to avoid associated side effects.

THE INFLUENCE OF DIET ON SEIZURES

Key for reducing stress and improving QOL for the owner and the dog is to consider the influence of the environment, diet, comorbidities and antiepileptic treatment (Figs. 1 and 2; it is beyond the scope of this article to discuss appropriate antiepileptic drug treatment and the diagnosis of IE, and the interested reader should consider the recent consensus statements published by the International Veterinary Epilepsy Task Force and American College of Veterinary Internal Medicine^{3,13,14,16,29}). It is long known that salt content in the diet can influence bromide serum concentration, potentially leading to poorer seizure control. Therefore, a balanced and consistent diet has been recommended for years in dogs receiving AEDs. Newer reports have indicated the importance of specialized nutrition, such as the ketogenic diet (KD), hypoallergenic diet, and fatty acid supplementation as new or alternative treatment strategies for canine epilepsy. Anecdotally, canine epilepsy support groups commonly report the importance of diets for the control of the disease. Food supplementation with omega-3 fatty acids showed inconclusive results.³⁰ There is some anecdotal evidence that a hypoallergenic diet might improve seizure control in dogs with gastrointestinal hypersensitivity.³¹

Ketogenic diets have shown their efficiency in reducing seizure frequency in people with epilepsy and animal models of epilepsy. Ketone bodies (acetone, acetoacetate, and β -hydroxybutyrate) can support 60% of the brain's energy requirements and have been shown to be increased in the brain of patients consuming a KD.³² Changing brain metabolism has been one explanation why KDs can improve seizure control. The original KD, characterized by its high fat and low carbohydrate content, has been used for many years successfully in children with drug-resistant epilepsy, even allowing reduction or cessation of AEDs in some patients.^{33,34} The diet is also efficacious in adult patients, but compliance to the traditional KD is poor due to the high fat and low carbohydrate content of the diet. The original human KD can induce ketosis in people, but not as easily in dogs.³⁵ Its effect in dogs was therefore questionable. A traditional high fat low carbohydrate/protein KD failed to improve seizure control in dogs.³⁶ A more promising KD is based on medium chain triglycerides (MCTs), which improved seizure control in the majority of cases.³⁷ MCTs have a high ketogenic yield that can improve brain metabolism. Furthermore, valproic acid—an AED—is an MCT, and it is thought that its metabolites and other MCTs might have a similar antiepileptic effect. There is also now robust evidence that the MCT decanoic acid (capric acid; C10) has antiseizure effects, with a recent ground-breaking study revealing its mechanism of action. Decanoic acid was found to be a noncompetitive AMPA receptor antagonist at therapeutically relevant concentrations, in a voltage- and subunit-dependent manner, that results in direct

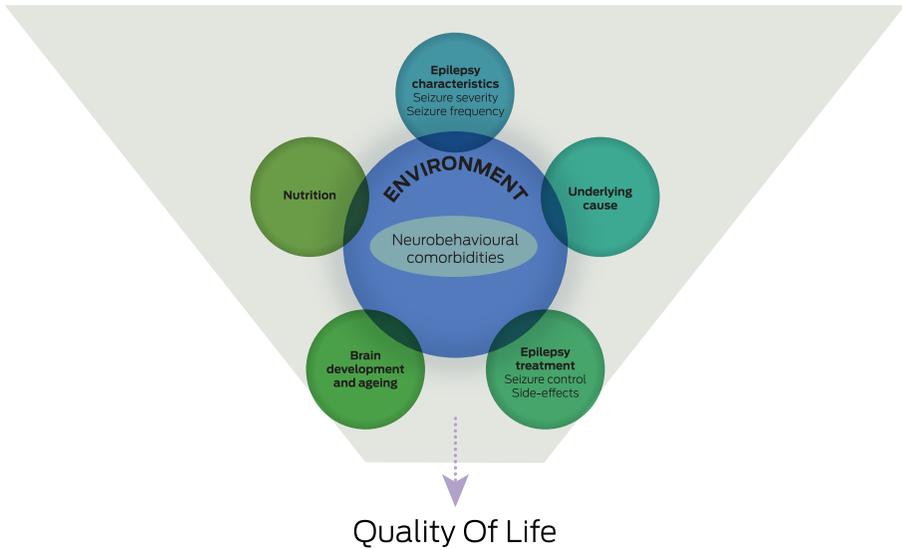


Fig. 1. Quality of life (QOL) influencing factors in dogs with idiopathic epilepsy. Reductions in perceived canine QOL scores are associated with reductions in caregiver QOL, and vice versa.⁹ It is therefore important in epilepsy management to consider the QOL of the canine patient and its caregiver, the owner.

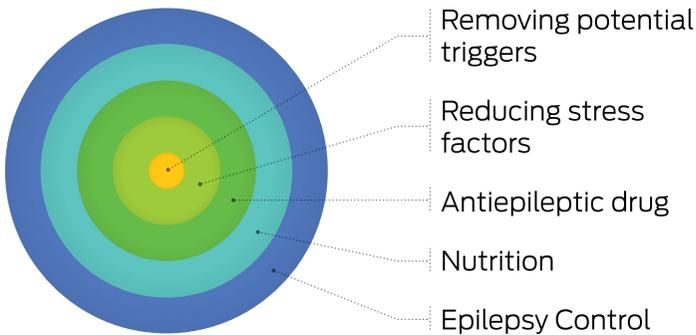


Fig. 2. Targeted epilepsy control. Epilepsy control can usually only be achieved fully when targeted and tailored to the individual patient.

inhibition of excitatory neurotransmission, and thus has an anticonvulsant effect.³⁸ This is especially interesting, as most AEDs used in veterinary medicine work on increasing the function of the inhibitory brain pathways, which can also explain the side effects frequently seen such as sedation and ataxia.^{13,14} Decanoic acid has been shown to readily pass the blood–brain barrier, with 60% to 80% of its serum concentration arriving in the brain.³⁹ Interestingly, in experimental seizure models in which the direct seizure-reducing effect of decanoic acid has been shown to be effective, high concentration of acetone or β -hydroxybutyrate has no effect.³⁸ This could suggest that the effect on the AMPA receptor is the main mechanism of action for an MCT diet. Another interesting potential mechanism could be explained by decanoic acid regulating mitochondrial proliferation⁴⁰ and therefore protecting against mitochondrial dysfunction, which can be seen with intensive seizure activity.

The MCT diet was tested in a 6-month prospective, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled crossover dietary trial in chronically antiepileptic drug-treated dogs with IE.³⁷ The dogs were randomized to either start on the MCT or placebo diet and were switched over to the other diet after a 3-month period, respectively. Seizure frequency, severity, physical and neurological examination findings, drug serum concentrations, and clinical pathology data were recorded and analyzed for all dogs with IE completing the study. The overall seizure frequency was significantly reduced by 13% on the MCT diet compared with the placebo diet; 71% of dogs showed a reduction in seizure frequency, 48% of dogs showed a 50% or greater reduction in seizure frequency, and 14% of dogs achieved cessation of seizures. Because many dogs experienced cluster seizures, the number of seizure days also was assessed, which also significantly decreased on the MCT diet. The MCT diet resulted in significant elevation of blood β -hydroxybutyrate concentrations compared with the placebo diet, but no significant differences were found for AED serum concentrations, visual analogue scores for sedation, ataxia, QOL, weight, and most laboratory values (there was only a mild decrease in creatinine and mean cell Hb concentration on the MCT diet).

INFLUENCE OF DIET ON BEHAVIOR IN CANINE EPILEPSY

In addition to the demonstrated benefits of MCTs on seizure frequency, there are potentially beneficial effects on the behavioral comorbidities seen in canine epilepsy. A pilot study in children with autism showed an improvement in some of the social interaction, behavioral, and cognitive insufficiencies seen in these patients.⁴¹ In dogs, diets have been reported to modify certain types of behaviors,⁴² for example, certain types of aggression can improve on a low protein diet.^{43,44} Interestingly, a similar MCT diet as used in the aforementioned epilepsy trial in dogs³⁷ previously was shown to support cognitive health of aging dogs.⁴⁵ The authors hypothesized that the improvement in cognitive function can be explained by the diet providing the aged brain with a more effective energy source.⁴⁵

The prevalence of psychiatric disorders is increased in people with epilepsy. It is higher than in either the general background population or patients with

other chronic medical disorders.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ Depression and anxiety disorders, followed by psychoses and attention-deficit disorders, are the most frequently reported psychiatric disorders.^{47,49-52} A bidirectional relationship between psychiatric disorders such as depression and epilepsy has been suggested, with potentially mutual operant pathophysiological mechanisms.⁵³ This observation is supported by patients with epilepsy being at greater risk of developing depression, but patients with depression are also at higher risk of developing epilepsy.^{54,55}

Behavioral comorbidities of epilepsy should be taken seriously due to their potential to decrease QOL. In a study of health-related QOL (HRQOL) in people with epilepsy, interictal anxiety and depression were found to have adverse effects on HRQOL, with their effects greater than those of seizure frequency, severity, and chronicity.⁵⁶ To date, few studies have considered the possibility of psychiatric comorbidities in dogs with IE. The first study of this topic was successfully carried out by a research group from London, where it was found that at least one behavior had changed since the onset of IE in 71% of all dogs studied.⁵ Drug-resistant dogs were found to have greater amounts of unfavorable behavioral changes than drug responders in that study,⁵ a finding also seen in rodent models of epilepsy, where drug-resistant rats had greater behavior changes.⁵⁷ As such, finding appropriate treatments to reduce the effects of behavioral comorbidities alongside seizure frequency in dogs with epilepsy (if present) should be a further goal of epilepsy treatment. A significant reduction in chasing behavior (a potential indicator of canine ADHD-like behavior) was documented during the MCT diet period compared with the placebo diet phase as well as a reduction in stranger-directed fear, which may indicate anxiolytic properties of the MCT.⁵⁸

PET OWNER EDUCATION

Finally, pet owner education is another key to successful management of the patient with epilepsy. The better the pet owner is educated about epilepsy, its comorbidities, nutritional and antiepileptic treatment (side effects, pharmacodynamics, and pharmacokinetic aspects), the more the owner will learn to live with the condition successfully and help the veterinarian in the care of the patient—for example, active monitoring of seizure frequency (e.g., paper or electronic seizure diary using an APP [<http://www.rvc.ac.uk/news-and-events/press-office/rvc-creates-a-dog-epilepsy-smart-phone-app-to-help-manage-mans-best-friend-s-fits>]).¹³ The owner can also help to identify and reduce environmental stress factors, keep daily routines, and help with the individualization of the diet and drug treatment, depending on the seizure status of the dog.⁵⁹ The principle of holistic epilepsy care is based on the concept that “every little bit helps” to increase the seizure threshold and therefore improve the management of epilepsy.

CONCLUSION

As a busy clinician, one can easily not see the forest for the trees in canine epilepsy and its management. Epilepsy is a complex disease process that can be difficult

to treat with AEDs alone, but working together with the owner and having a holistic approach will not only provide the best chance of treatment success but also improve the QOL of the patients and their owners.

REFERENCES

1. Kearsley-Fleet L, O'Neill DG, Volk HA, et al. Prevalence and risk factors for canine epilepsy of unknown origin in the UK. *Vet Rec* 2013;172:338.
2. De Risio L, Bhatti S, Munana K, et al. International veterinary epilepsy task force consensus proposal: diagnostic approach to epilepsy in dogs. *BMC Vet Res* 2015;11:148.
3. Berendt M, Farquhar RG, Mandigers P, et al. International Veterinary Epilepsy Task Force consensus report on epilepsy definition, classification and terminology in companion animals *BMC veterinary research* 2015.
4. Packer RMA, Volk HA. Epilepsy beyond seizures: a review of the impact of epilepsy and its comorbidities on health-related quality of life in dogs. *Veterinary Record* 2015;177:306-315.
5. Shihab N, Bowen J, Volk HA. Behavioral changes in dogs associated with the development of idiopathic epilepsy. *Epilepsy & Behavior* 2011;21:160-167.
6. Berendt M, Gredal H, Ersbøll AK, et al. Premature Death, Risk Factors, and Life Patterns in Dogs with Epilepsy. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2007;21:754-759.
7. Chang Y, Mellor DJ, Anderson TJ. Idiopathic epilepsy in dogs: owners' perspectives on management with phenobarbitone and/or potassium bromide. *Journal of Small Animal Practice* 2006;47:574-581.
8. Wessmann A, Volk H, Parkin T, et al. Living with canine idiopathic epilepsy: a questionnaire-based evaluation of quality of life. *Proceedings of the 24th Symposium ESVN-ECVN. J Vet Intern Med* 2012;26:823-852.
9. Wessmann A, Volk HA, Packer RM, et al. Quality-of-life aspects in idiopathic epilepsy in dogs. *Vet Rec* 2016.
10. Mellersh CS. Genetic Testing in Canine and Feline Epilepsy. In: *British Small Animal Veterinary Association Congress, Birmingham, UK* 2010.
11. Packer RMA, Shihab NK, Torres BBJ, et al. Clinical risk factors associated with anti-epileptic drug responsiveness in canine epilepsy. *PLoS ONE* 2014;9:e106026.
12. Skerritt G. Canine Epilepsy. In *Practice* 1988;10:27-30.
13. Bhatti S, De Risio L, Muñana KR, et al. International Veterinary Epilepsy Task Force consensus proposal: Medical treatment of canine epilepsy in Europe. *BMC veterinary research* 2015.
14. Podell M, Volk HA, Berendt M, et al. 2015 ACVIM Small Animal Consensus Statement on Seizure Management in Dogs. *J Vet Intern Med* 2016;30:477-490.
15. Suiter EJ, Packer RM, Volk HA. Comparing the effects of first-line antiepileptic drugs on the gait of dogs with idiopathic epilepsy. *Vet Rec* 2016;178:652.
16. Potschka H, Fischer A, Loscher W, et al. International veterinary epilepsy task force consensus proposal: outcome of therapeutic interventions in canine and feline epilepsy. *BMC Vet Res* 2015;11:177.
17. Heynold Y, Faissler D, Steffen F, et al. Clinical, epidemiological and treatment results of idiopathic epilepsy in 54 Labrador retrievers: a long-term study. *Journal of Small Animal Practice* 1997;38:7-14.
18. Arrol L, Penderis J, Garosi L, et al. Aetiology and long-term outcome of juvenile epilepsy in 136 dogs. *Veterinary Record* 2012;170:335.
19. Berendt M, Gredal H, Pedersen LG, et al. A Cross-Sectional Study of Epilepsy in Danish Labrador Retrievers: Prevalence and Selected Risk Factors. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2002;16:262-268.
20. Trepanier L, Schwark W, Van Schoick A, et al. Therapeutic serum drug concentrations in epileptic dogs treated with potassium bromide alone or in combination with other anticonvulsants: 122 cases (1992-1996). *J Am Vet Med Assoc* 1998;213:1449-1453.
21. Schwartz-Porsche D, Löscher W, Frey H. Therapeutic efficacy of phenobarbital and primidone in canine epilepsy: a comparison. *J Vet Pharmacol Ther* 1985;8:113-119.
22. Podell M, Fenner W. Bromide therapy in refractory canine idiopathic epilepsy. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 1993;7:318-327.
23. Packer RMA, Shihab NK, Torres BBJ, et al. Responses to successive anti-epileptic drugs in canine idiopathic epilepsy. *Veterinary Record* 2015.
24. Beghi E. Efficacy and tolerability of the new antiepileptic drugs: comparison of two recent guidelines. *Lancet Neurol* 2004;3:618-621.
25. French JA, Kanner AM, Bautista J, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of the new antiepileptic drugs II: treatment of refractory epilepsy: report of the Therapeutics and Technology Assessment Subcommittee and Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology and the American Epilepsy Society. *Neurology* 2004;62:1261-1273.
26. French JA, Kanner AM, Bautista J, et al. Efficacy and tolerability of the new antiepileptic drugs I: treatment of new onset epilepsy: report of the Therapeutics and Technology Assessment Subcommittee and Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology and the American Epilepsy Society. *Neurology* 2004;62:1252-1260.
27. Dewey CW. Anticonvulsant therapy in dogs and cats. *Veterinary Clinics of North America-Small Animal Practice* 2006;36:1107-+.

A8 Management of Canine Epilepsy Beyond Drugs

28. Podell M. Antiepileptic drug therapy. *Clinical Techniques in Small Animal Practice* 1998;13:185-192.
29. De Risio L, Bhatti S, Muñana KR, et al. International Veterinary Epilepsy Task Force Consensus Proposal: Diagnostic approach to epilepsy in dogs. *BMC veterinary research* 2015.
30. Matthews H, Granger N, Wood J, et al. Effects of essential fatty acid supplementation in dogs with idiopathic epilepsy: a clinical trial. *Vet J* 2012;191:396-398.
31. Lujan A, Scott SD, Anderson TJ. The role of diet in refractory canine epilepsy - a retrospective case series. In: BSAVA Congress, Birmingham 2004.
32. Huffman J, Kossoff EH. State of the ketogenic diet(s) in epilepsy. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep* 2006;6:332-340.
33. Katyal N, Koehler A, McGhee B, et al. The ketogenic diet in refractory epilepsy: the experience of Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh. *Clin Pediatr (Phila)* 2000;39:153-159.
34. Hemingway C, Freeman JM, Pillas DJ, et al. The Ketogenic Diet: A 3- to 6-Year Follow-Up of 150 Children Enrolled Prospectively. *Pediatrics* 2001;108:898-905.
35. Puchowicz MA, Smith CL, Bomont C, et al. Dog model of therapeutic ketosis induced by oral administration of R,S-1,3-butanediol diacetoacetate. *J Nutr Biochem* 2000;11:281-287.
36. Patterson EE, Munana KR, Kirk CA, et al. Results of a ketogenic food trial for dogs with idiopathic epilepsy. *Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine* 2005;19:421.
37. Law TH, Davies ES, Pan Y, et al. A randomised trial of a medium-chain TAG diet as treatment for dogs with idiopathic epilepsy. *Br J Nutr* 2015;1-10.
38. Chang P-S, Augustin K, Boddum K, et al. Seizure control by decanoic acid through direct AMPA receptor inhibition. *Brain* 2015;25:1-13.
39. Wlaz P, Socala K, Nieoczym D, et al. Anticonvulsant profile of caprylic acid, a main constituent of the medium-chain triglyceride (MCT) ketogenic diet, in mice. *Neuropharmacology* 2012;62:1882-1889.
40. Hughes SD, Kanabus M, Anderson G, et al. The ketogenic diet component decanoic acid increases mitochondrial citrate synthase and complex I activity in neuronal cells. *J Neurochem* 2014;129:426-433.
41. Evangelidou A, Vlachonikolis I, Mihailidou H, et al. Application of a ketogenic diet in children with autistic behavior: pilot study. *J Child Neurol* 2003 18:113-118.
42. Bosch G, Beerda B, Hendriks WH, et al. Impact of nutrition on canine behaviour: current status and possible mechanisms. *Nutrition Research Reviews* 2007;20:180-194.
43. Dodman NH, Reinsner I, Shuster L, et al. Effect of dietary protein content on behaviour in dogs. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 1996;3:376-379.
44. DeNapoli JS, Dodman NH, Shuster L, et al. Effect of dietary protein content and tryptophan supplementation on dominance aggression, territorial aggression, and hyperactivity in dogs. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association* 2000;217:504-508.
45. Pan Y, Larson B, Araujo JA. Dietary supplementation with medium-chain TAG has long lasting cognition-enhancing effects in aged dogs. *Brit J Nutr* 2010;103:1746-1754.
46. Gaitatzis A, Carroll K, Majeed A, et al. The epidemiology of the comorbidity of epilepsy in the general population. *Epilepsia* 2004;45 1613-1622.
47. Boro A, Haut S. Medical comorbidities in the treatment of epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav* 2003;4:52-512.
48. Kobau R, Gilliam F, Thurman D. Prevalence of self-reported epilepsy or seizure disorder and its associations with self-reported depression and anxiety: results from the 2004 HealthStyles Survey. *Epilepsia* 2006;47:1915-1921.
49. LaFrance Jr. W, Kanner A, Hermann B. Psychiatric comorbidities in epilepsy. *Int Rev Neurobiol* 2008;83:347-383.
50. Seminario N, Farias S, Jorgensen J, et al. Determination of prevalence of depression in an epilepsy clinic using a brief DSM-IV-based self-report questionnaire. *Epilepsy Behav* 2009;15:362-366.
51. Prueter C, Norra C. Mood disorders and their treatment in patients with epilepsy. *J Neuropsychiatry Clin Neurosci* 2005;17:20-28.
52. Dunn D, Austin J. Differential diagnosis and treatment of psychiatric disorders in children and adolescents with epilepsy. *Epilepsy and Behaviour* 1999;5:510-517.
53. Kanner AM. Depression in epilepsy: prevalence, clinical semiology, pathogenic mechanisms, and treatment. *Biological Psychiatry* 2003;54:388-398.
54. Forsgren L, Nystrom L. An incident case referent study of epileptic seizures in adults. *Epilepsy Research* 1999;6:66-81.
55. Hesdorffer DC, Hauser WA, Annegers JF, et al. Major depression is a risk factor for seizures in older adult. *Annals of Neurology* 2000;47:246-249.
56. Johnson EK, Jones JE, Seidenberg M, et al. The Relative Impact of Anxiety, Depression, and Clinical Seizure Features on Health-related Quality of Life in Epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2004;45:544-550.
57. Gastens AM, Brandt C, Bankstahl JP, et al. Predictors of pharmacoresistant epilepsy: Pharmacoresistant rats differ from pharmacoresponsive rats in behavioral and cognitive abnormalities associated with experimentally induced epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2008;49:1759-1776.
58. Packer RMA, Law TH, Davies E, et al. Effects of a ketogenic diet on ADHD-like behavior in dogs with idiopathic epilepsy. *Epilepsy & Behavior* 2016;55:62-68.
59. Packer RM, Nye G, Porter SE, et al. Assessment into the usage of levetiracetam in a canine epilepsy clinic. *BMC Vet Res* 2015;11:25.

