

# 癫痫药物治疗的过去、现在与未来

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**【摘要】** 癫痫是临床常见的神经系统疾病,发病机制尚未阐明,抗癫痫发作药物是主要治疗方法,其本质是抗癫痫发作而非改善癫痫疾病。本文依照“过去”、“现在”、“未来”的时间顺序,从药代动力学、药理学机制、适应证、疗效、不良反应等方面综述抗癫痫发作药物的发展历程并展望未来发展方向,为癫痫的预防与治疗提供依据。

**【关键词】** 癫痫; 抗惊厥药; 医学史; 综述

## The past, present and future of drug therapy for epilepsy

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**【Abstract】** Epilepsy is a common clinical neurological disease, the pathogenesis of which has not yet been elucidated. As the main treatment, antiepileptic seizure medicine (ASM) fights against seizures rather than improve epilepsy. According to the chronological order of "past", "present" and "future", this article reviews the development history of ASM from the aspects of pharmacokinetics, pharmacological mechanism, indications, efficacy and adverse reactions, and looks forward to the future development direction. It can provide a theoretical basis for the prevention and treatment of epilepsy.

**【Key words】** Epilepsy; Anticonvulsants; History of medicine; Review

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癫痫患病率约为 7‰, 目前全球约有癫痫患者 5000 万例<sup>[1]</sup>。近年来, 癫痫外科、神经调控和生酮饮食等非药物治疗取得长足进步, 但药物治疗仍是主要方法<sup>[2]</sup>。抗癫痫发作药物(ASM)可使 2/3 患者的临床发作得以控制, 但仍有 1/3 患者未达完全无发作<sup>[3-4]</sup>。自 1857 年溴化物问世, 历经 150 余年研发, 数十种抗癫痫发作药物先后应用于临床, 但仍是针对症治疗而非对因治疗, 无法改变癫痫的自然病程<sup>[5]</sup>, 亦无法提高无发作率<sup>[3-4,6-7]</sup>。本文依照“过去”、“现在”、“未来”的时间顺序, “过去”意为已放弃或已显放弃趋势的药物、“现在”意为目前主要应用药物、“未来”意为药物研发展望, 从药代动力学、

药理学机制、适应证、疗效、不良反应等方面综述抗癫痫发作药物的发展历程并展望未来发展方向。

### 一、抗癫痫发作药物的“过去”

1907 年, *Epilepsy* 和国际抗癫痫联盟(ILAE)创始人之一 Turner 教授在其著作 *Epilepsy: a study of the idiopathic disease* 中指出, 癫痫患者应至癫痫中心进行诊断与治疗, 并进行分类管理和分期治疗; 癫痫的治疗不仅应控制发作, 还应预防进展; 不仅依靠药物治疗, 更应关注患者精神和智力状况; 以及提出对患者进行社会环境、工作安排和教育培养的建议。20 世纪 70 年代以前, 抗癫痫发作药物多为联合用药。“过去”抗癫痫发作药物的药代动力学、抗癫痫机制和抗癫痫谱参见表 1~3<sup>[8]</sup>。(1) 溴化物: 1857 年, Locook 医生以溴化物治疗 1 例癫痫产妇的性欲减退症状, 偶然发现其癫痫发作得以控制<sup>[9]</sup>, 首个现代抗癫痫发作药物问世。其作用机制是溴离子与氯离子竞争性跨膜转运, 导致神经细胞胞膜超极化、动作电位阈值增高、痫样放电抑制、γ-氨基丁

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表1 临床常用抗癫痫发作药物的药物半衰期<sup>[8]</sup>Table 1. Elimination half-life of clinically approved ASM<sup>[8]</sup>

ASM	药物半衰期(小时)			药理学机制
	成人	成年大鼠	成年小鼠	
乙酰唑胺	10~15	0.33	—	—
布瓦西坦	7~8	2.8	—	—
大麻二酚	18~32	7.8	4.7	—
卡马西平	25~50	1.2~3.5	3.4	长期治疗期间因自身诱导减少药物半衰期,产生耐药性
赛诺贝特	50~60	2.9	—	—
氯巴占	10~30	1	0.25	活性代谢物为N-去甲基氯巴占
氯硝西洋	17~56	—	2.1	—
醋酸艾司利卡西平	10~20	—	5.2	醋酸艾司利卡西平的药物半衰期指其活性代谢物利卡西平的药物半衰期
乙琥胺	40~60	10~16	—	—
依维莫司	≤30	20	4.3	脑组织中长期存在
非尔氨酯	16~22	2~17	—	在啮齿类动物中呈非线性药代动力学(药物半衰期随剂量的增加而延长)
芬氟拉明	13~30	2.6	4.3	活性代谢物为去甲芬氟拉明
加巴喷丁	5~9	2~3	—	—
拉科酰胺	13	3	—	—
拉莫三嗪	15~35	12~>30	—	—
左乙拉西坦	6~8	2~3	1.5	—
奥卡西平	8~15	0.7~4	6.8	奥卡西平的药物半衰期指其活性代谢物利卡西平的药物半衰期
吡仑帕奈	70	2	—	—
苯巴比妥	70~140	9~20	4~7.5	长期治疗期间因自身诱导减少药物半衰期,产生耐药性
苯妥英钠	15~20	≤2	5~16	呈非线性药代动力学(药物半衰期随剂量的增加而延长);长期治疗期间因自身诱导减少药物半衰期,产生耐药性
普瑞巴林	5~7	—	—	—
扑米酮	6~12	5	2.2	活性代谢物为苯巴比妥,长期治疗期间因自身诱导减少药物半衰期,产生耐药性
瑞替加滨(依佐加滨)	6~8	—	—	—
卢非酰胺	6~10	≤8	—	—
司替戊醇	4.5~13	13	—	—
舒噻美	2~16	—	—	—
噻加宾	5~9	1	—	—
托吡酯	20~30	2.5	—	—
丙戊酸钠	8~15	≤1.5	0.8	在啮齿类动物中呈非线性药代动力学(药物半衰期随剂量的增加而延长)
氨己烯酸	5~8	≤1	—	不可逆性抑制GABA的降解,作用持续时间与药物半衰期无关
唑尼沙胺	50~70	8	—	—

—, not reported, 未报道。ASM, antiepileptic seizure medicine, 抗癫痫发作药物; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid, γ-氨基丁酸

酸(GABA)抑制作用增强<sup>[10]</sup>。随着临床广泛应用,溴化物相关毒性反应如反应迟钝、舌震颤、流涎、呼吸短浅乏力、肢体乏力、肢端发绀和痤疮皮疹等,逐渐引起关注。随着苯巴比妥和苯妥英的临床应用,溴化物逐渐被弃用。随后,卡马西平和丙戊酸应用于临床,西方国家于20世纪70年代禁用溴化物。但至20世纪90年代,有研究发现溴化物对Dravet综合征(DS)疗效良好<sup>[11]</sup>。(2)苯巴比妥:1912年,Hauptmann医生予1例癫痫患者苯巴比妥镇静催

眠,偶然发现其癫痫发作得以控制<sup>[12]</sup>,自此开启苯巴比妥抗癫痫治疗的时代。随后因其潜在的呼吸抑制、困倦、反应迟钝、情绪改变和认知功能障碍等不良反应,逐渐被后续研发的抗癫痫发作药物所替代。鉴于成本低廉,目前世界卫生组织(WHO)仍推荐其作为发展中国家全面性强直-阵挛发作(GTCS)的一线药物。特别是缺氧缺血性脑病(HIE)导致的新生儿惊厥,静脉注射苯巴比妥是终止发作的首选药物<sup>[13]</sup>。(3)苯妥英:1939年,美国食品与药品管理

**表2** 临床常用抗癫痫发作药物的分子靶点<sup>[8]</sup>**Table 2.** Molecular targets of clinically approved ASM<sup>[8]</sup>

抗癫痫机制	相应 ASM
电压门控钠通道调节剂	
增加快速失活(瞬时钠电流)	苯妥英钠、磷苯妥英(苯妥英钠前体药物)、卡马西平、奥卡西平(利卡西平前体药物,活性代谢物为艾司利卡西平)、醋酸艾司利卡西平(艾司利卡西平前体药物)、拉莫三嗪;可能的有托吡酯、唑尼沙胺、卢非酰胺、布瓦西坦
增加慢失活	拉科酰胺
持续性钠电流阻断	赛诺贝特、拉科酰胺、卡马西平、奥卡西平、醋酸艾司利卡西平、拉莫三嗪、苯妥英钠、托吡酯、丙戊酸钠、加巴喷丁、大麻二酚
电压门控钙通道(T型)阻滞剂	
高电压激活	苯巴比妥、苯妥英钠、左乙拉西坦
低电压激活T型(Cav3)	乙琥胺(Cav3.2含量高于Cav3.1含量)、甲琥胺、醋酸艾司利卡西平(Cav3.2);可能的有丙戊酸钠
电压门控钾通道(Kv7)激活剂	瑞替加滨(依佐加滨)
GABA介导的抑制性调节剂	
GABA <sub>A</sub> R变构调节剂	苯巴比妥、扑米酮、司替戊醇、苯二氮草类(包括氯硝西洋、氯巴占、地西洋、劳拉西洋、咪达唑仑)、托吡酯、非尔氨酯、瑞替加滨(依佐加滨)、赛诺贝特
GAT1抑制剂	噻加宾
GABA转氨酶抑制剂	氨己烯酸
GAD激活剂	可能的有丙戊酸、加巴喷丁、普瑞巴林
离子型谷氨酸受体阻断剂	
NMDAR阻断剂	非尔氨酯、托吡酯;可能的有丙戊酸钠
AMPAR阻断剂	吡仑帕奈、苯巴比妥、左乙拉西坦
突触前释放机制的调节剂	
SV2A	左乙拉西坦、布瓦西坦
电压门控钙通道α2δ亚单位	加巴喷丁、普瑞巴林
碳酸酐酶抑制剂	乙酰唑胺、舒噻美、托吡酯、唑尼沙胺;可能的有拉科酰胺
血清素释放剂	芬氟拉明
疾病特异性调节剂	
mTORC1信号转导通路抑制剂 (用于结节性硬化症致癫痫)	依维莫司
溶酶体酶替代疗法 (用于NCL2型致癫痫)	活性成分为TPP1重组蛋白
混合或未知	丙戊酸钠、非尔氨酯、托吡酯、唑尼沙胺、卢非酰胺、促肾上腺皮质激素、大麻二酚、赛诺贝特、溴化钾

ASM, antiepileptic seizure medicine, 抗癫痫发作药物; GABA, γ-aminobutyric acid, γ-氨基丁酸; GABA<sub>A</sub>R, γ-aminobutyric acid receptor type A, γ-氨基丁酸 A型受体; GAT1, γ-aminobutyric acid transporter 1, γ-氨基丁酸转运蛋白 1; GAD, glutamic acid decarboxylase, 谷氨酸脱羧酶; NMDAR, N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor, N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸受体; AMPAR, α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid receptor, α-氨基-3-羟基-5-甲基-4-异噁唑丙酸受体; SV2A, synaptic vesicle protein 2A, 突触囊泡蛋白 2A; mTORC1, mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1, 哺乳动物雷帕霉素靶蛋白复合物 1; NCL2, neuronal ceroid lipofuscinose 2, 神经元蜡样质脂褐质沉积病 2型; TPP1, tripeptidyl peptidase 1, 三肽基肽酶 1

局(FDA)批准苯妥英用于治疗癫痫。因其药代动力学呈非线性,治疗剂量与中毒剂量相近,治疗药物监测(TDM)即显得尤为重要。药物不良反应主要为齿龈增生、小脑萎缩、代谢性骨病、周围神经病变和致畸。至20世纪80年代以后逐渐被卡马西平和丙戊酸替代,渐有被弃用的趋势<sup>[14]</sup>。(4)扑米酮:1952年,扑米酮在英国上市,因其不良反应与苯巴比妥相似且更严重,特别是药物治疗初期<sup>[15]</sup>,目前已较少应用于临床,国内已几乎弃用扑米酮。(5)乙酰唑胺:为广谱抗癫痫发作药物,早在1954年Merlis

即报告其抗癫痫作用<sup>[14]</sup>。药物不反应主要为电解质紊乱、泌尿系统结石和再生障碍性贫血。目前,乙酰唑胺在女性月经性癫痫的间歇治疗中有一定地位<sup>[14]</sup>。国内则较少应用。(6)乙琥胺:1958年,乙琥胺作为典型失神发作的首选药物在美国上市,其常见不良反应为嗜睡、头晕、恶心。随着1967年丙戊酸在法国上市,其对失神发作疗效良好、安全性较高且抗癫痫谱更加广泛<sup>[16]</sup>,逐渐取代乙琥胺成为首选药物,但FDA始终未批准丙戊酸在美国上市,使得乙琥胺在美国乃至全球广泛应用,直至20世纪

**表3 已批准的“过去”抗癫痫发作药物在动物模型和癫痫患者中的抗癫痫谱<sup>[8]</sup>****Table 3. Spectrum of antiseizure effects of approved past ASM in preclinical seizure models and patients with epilepsy<sup>[8]</sup>**

ASM	动物模型疗效				癫痫患者疗效						
	GTCS (MES测验) (6 Hz测验;32或4 mA)	局灶性发作 (点燃效应)	局灶性发作 (点燃效应)	失神发作(GAERS或 WAG/Rij大鼠)	局灶性 发作	原发性全面性发作			LGS	婴儿痉挛症	DS
	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	±
苯巴比妥	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	±
苯妥英钠	+	±	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
扑米酮	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
乙酰唑胺*	+	-	±	-	±	±	±	±	-	-	-
乙琥胺	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	±
舒噻美**	+	-	-	±	-	-	-	-	-	±	-
非尔氨酯	+	+	+	-	+	+	±	-	+	+	-
噻加宾	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	±	-

\*Loss of efficacy (tolerance) during chronic administration,长期服药期间耐受性丧失; \*\*Used in Europe in self-limited childhood (rolandic) epilepsy with centrotemporal spikes, 欧洲用于伴中央颞区棘波的儿童自限性癫痫。+, indicates efficacy, 有效;- , indicates ineffectiveness or worsening of seizures, 无效或癫痫发作恶化; ±, indicates inconsistent or preliminary findings, 不一致或初步发现; -, indicates insufficient data, 未报道。ASM, antiepileptic seizure medicine, 抗癫痫发作药物; GTCS, generalized tonic-clonic seizure, 全面性强直-阵挛发作; MES, maximal electroshock seizures, 最大电休克发作; GAERS, genetic absence epilepsy rat from Strasbourg, 斯特拉斯堡基因缺失癫痫大鼠; LGS, Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, Lennox-Gastaut综合征; DS, Dravet syndrome, Dravet综合征

末才逐渐弃用<sup>[17]</sup>。乙琥胺在国内始终未曾上市。  
(7)舒噻美:1960年,舒噻美在欧洲上市。舒噻美添加治疗婴儿痉挛症[IS, 亦称West综合征(WS)]和Lennox-Gastaut综合征(LGS)可以显著减少癫痫发作<sup>[15]</sup>。药物不良反应为呼吸困难、恶心、嗜睡、头痛和烦躁等,但均较轻微且短暂<sup>[18]</sup>。舒噻美是苯巴比妥、苯妥英和扑米酮的强代谢抑制剂,可显著升高这3种药物的血药浓度,增强药物作用,故其自身的抗癫痫作用一直未被认可<sup>[19]</sup>,目前仅应用于少数欧洲国家。舒噻美未曾在国内上市。(8)非尔氨酯:为新型抗癫痫发作药物,1992年经FDA批准用于治疗癫痫,但仅2年即出现23例药物相关再生障碍性贫血(其中14例死亡)以及18例药物相关肝功能衰竭(其中5例死亡)的报道<sup>[17]</sup>,故1994年8月FDA宣布暂停使用非尔氨酯,1个月后改为标识有黑框警告的限制性使用<sup>[17]</sup>。非尔氨酯在国内始终未曾上市。  
(9)噻加宾:1996年,噻加宾在法国上市。该药可以导致非惊厥性发作,还可引起药物相关性脑病,目前已较少应用于临床<sup>[17]</sup>。噻加宾未曾在国内上市。

## 二、抗癫痫发作药物的“现在”

20世纪60年代,国际抗癫痫联盟重启后首任主席Lennox教授提出,癫痫治疗中应足量予以抗癫痫发作药物,应监测脑电图、重视药物监测、关注药物成本等<sup>[20]</sup>。20世纪70年代后期,时任国际抗癫痫联盟主席的Reynolds教授发现,抗癫痫发作药物单

药治疗较联合用药更有效,从而确定了应优先单药治疗,至今仍是癫痫药物治疗的基本原则之一<sup>[17]</sup>。抗癫痫发作药物最优方案应基于癫痫和癫痫综合征类型,综合考虑药物不良反应、药代动力学、与其他药物的相互作用、对共患病的影响、药物费用,同时结合患者年龄、生育需求等,进行个体化药物选择<sup>[18]</sup>。(1)癫痫和癫痫综合征类型与药物选择:抗癫痫发作药物选择应基于癫痫和癫痫综合征类型。对于全面性癫痫(GE),丙戊酸钠、左乙拉西坦、拉莫三嗪、托吡酯和拉科酰胺均有效;对于全面性发作(GS),上述药物对全面性强直、全面性强直-阵挛发作均有效。上述抗癫痫发作药物存在多种抗癫痫机制,包括电压门控钠通道阻滞、突触前神经递质调节、抗谷氨酸能活性抑制及多种机制并存等<sup>[21]</sup>。临床实践中可见不同抗癫痫机制药物对同一发作类型有效,而相同或相似抗癫痫机制药物对某一发作类型则可能有效、无效甚至加重,例如,局灶性癫痫(FE)和局灶性发作(FS)对所有的抗癫痫发作药物均反应良好,而癫痫综合征则对特定的抗癫痫发作药物有反应,激素和氨己烯酸对婴儿痉挛症有独特疗效,氯巴占和大麻二酚对Lennox-Gastaut综合征有效,芬氟拉明对Dravet综合征疗效更佳,依维莫司用于结节性硬化致癫痫的精准治疗<sup>[22-24]</sup>。对于多种癫痫和癫痫综合征并存或发作类型难以确定的患者,应首选广谱抗癫痫发作药物。(2)抗癫痫发

作药物不良反应与药物选择:头晕、嗜睡、疲劳感是大多数抗癫痫发作药物共有的剂量依赖性中枢神经系统不良反应,亦有部分药物有其特定不良反应,例如,丙戊酸钠导致体重增加、高雄激素血症、代谢综合征、多囊卵巢综合征、肝炎和胰腺炎等;卡马西平、奥卡西平、拉莫三嗪引起严重过敏反应;丙戊酸钠、卡马西平、唑尼沙胺导致肝脏损害;托吡酯、唑尼沙胺诱发和加重肾结石;左乙拉西坦诱发和加重抑郁和焦虑;左乙拉西坦和吡仑帕奈诱发激惹、敌对和愤怒情绪;卡马西平、奥卡西平、艾司利卡西平引起低钠血症;卡马西平导致骨质疏松;丙戊酸钠、拉莫三嗪诱发和加重震颤。对药物特有不良反应存在潜在易感性的患者应避免或慎用上述抗癫痫发作药物。(3)抗癫痫发作药物代谢和排泄途径与药物选择:肝脏疾病患者应避免或慎用肝脏代谢药物,如卡马西平、丙戊酸钠、氯巴占和大麻二酚等;肾脏疾病患者应避免或慎用肾脏排泄药物,如左乙拉西坦、拉科酰胺、加巴喷丁和普瑞巴林等。(4)抗癫痫发作药物“次要”作用与药物选择:对癫痫和偏头痛有双重作用的丙戊酸钠和托吡酯可能是癫痫共病偏头痛的优先选择;同样可以作为情感稳定剂的丙戊酸钠、拉莫三嗪、卡马西平和奥卡西平可能成为癫痫共病双相情感障碍(BAD)和抑郁的优先选择<sup>[25]</sup>;托吡酯和唑尼沙胺可使体重减轻,是癫痫合并肥胖患者的优先选择。吡仑帕奈具有镇静作用且仅需晚上服用,适用于癫痫共病失眠的患者;托吡酯和唑尼沙胺均对震颤有效,适用于癫痫共病特发性震颤的患者<sup>[26]</sup>。(5)妊娠与药物选择:备孕期和妊娠期女性最关注药物致畸作用,应避免应用丙戊酸钠和托吡酯,而首选拉莫三嗪和左乙拉西坦<sup>[27]</sup>。(6)老年患者与药物选择:老年患者对药物较敏感,常因共病而服用多种药物,因此应选择不良反应少且轻微、无药物间相互作用或作用轻微、药代动力学简单的抗癫痫发作药物,如左乙拉西坦、加巴喷丁、普瑞巴林、拉莫三嗪、拉科酰胺和布瓦西坦等<sup>[28]</sup>。(7)应用便捷性与药物选择:抗癫痫发作药物应用便捷性直接影响患者对药物的接受性。拉莫三嗪、托吡酯、吡仑帕奈和森巴考特等需低起始剂量并缓慢滴定给药,发作频率较高患者通常难以接受;而左乙拉西坦、布瓦西坦、奥卡西平、艾司利卡西平、拉科酰胺、唑尼沙胺和卡马西平等可快速滴定给药甚至无需滴定,更易被患者接受。(8)联合用药与药物选择:联合用药仅对少数患者有效,如

果单药治疗失败,则采用联合用药。随着不同抗癫痫机制以及无药物间相互作用或作用轻微的新型抗癫痫发作药物的研发上市,重新引起对联合用药的兴趣和思考<sup>[2,29]</sup>。目前,联合用药主要基于临床经验或实验室数据,不同抗癫痫机制药物联用,疗效更佳、不良反应更少;钠通道阻滞剂与GABA能药物联用更有益;拉莫三嗪与丙戊酸钠有协同作用,二者可谓“黄金搭档”<sup>[30-31]</sup>。(9)药物加重癫痫发作与药物选择:抗癫痫发作药物诱发或加重癫痫发作并不常见,易忽视,主要表现为癫痫发作频率增加、程度加重,甚至诱发癫痫持续状态(SE)或新发作类型。例如,仅对局灶性发作有效的卡马西平用于全面性癫痫,特别是失神发作或肌阵挛发作(MS)<sup>[32]</sup>。联合用药、药物剂量过大等也可能是抗癫痫发作药物诱发或加重癫痫发作的危险因素。(10)丛集性癫痫发作与药物选择:有15%~70%的癫痫患者存在丛集发作(发作频率>2次/d)<sup>[33]</sup>。丛集发作是癫痫患者所特有,且是间隙性、有恢复期的发作,而癫痫持续状态则可发生于任意疾病患者,且是持续性、无恢复期的发作。欧美等国家或地区通常经鼻腔、口腔或直肠予以地西洋或咪达唑仑,无鼻腔、口腔、直肠或静脉给药条件时,可经其他途径予以苯二氮草类药物<sup>[33-34]</sup>。

“现在”抗癫痫发作药物的药代动力学、抗癫痫机制和抗癫痫谱参见表1,2,4<sup>[8]</sup>。(1)卡马西平:1965和1974年,英国和美国分别批准卡马西平用于癫痫的治疗,但药物不良反应限制其临床应用,粒细胞缺乏症发生率约为0.5/10万,肝功能衰竭发生率约16/10万<sup>[17]</sup>;以及在汉族人群中观察到卡马西平相关Stevens-Johnson综合征(SJS)与HLA-B\*1502基因显著相关<sup>[35]</sup>。国内文献报道,卡马西平相关抗癫痫发作药物高敏感综合征发生率约为3.8%<sup>[36]</sup>。目前,卡马西平仍是局灶性发作的首选药物,亦是新药研发研究的对照标准。(2)丙戊酸钠:1967年,丙戊酸在法国上市。尽管认知功能障碍、脱发、高血氨脑病、肥胖、致畸、肝功能衰竭、胰腺炎和多囊卵巢综合征等不良反应限制其临床应用,但疗效仍优于多数第2和3代抗癫痫发作药物。丙戊酸钠是全面性发作的首选药物,亦是新药研发研究的对照标准<sup>[6,37]</sup>。(3)唑尼沙胺:1972年,唑尼沙胺在日本上市。通过减少T型钙通道电流、与γ-氨基丁酸受体(GABAR)相结合、提高谷氨酸转运体(GLT)水平等,发挥抗癫痫作用<sup>[17]</sup>。唑尼沙胺经细胞色素P450

**表4 已批准的“现在”抗癫痫发作药物在动物模型和癫痫患者中的抗癫痫谱<sup>[8]</sup>**

**Table 4.** Spectrum of antiseizure effects of approved ASM in preclinical seizure models and patients with epilepsy<sup>[8]</sup>

ASM	动物模型疗效				癫痫患者疗效						
	GTCS (MES测验) (6 Hz测验;32或4 mA)	局灶性发作	局灶性发作 (点燃效应)	失神发作(GAERS或 WAG/Rij大鼠)	局灶性 发作	原发性全面性发作			LGS	婴儿痉挛症	DS
	+	±	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
卡马西平	+	±	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
丙戊酸钠	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
唑尼沙胺	+	+	+	-	+	±	±	±	±	±	+
氯硝西洋*	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	±	±	±
氯巴占	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	±	+
氨己烯酸	-	-	+	-	+	±	-	-	-	+	-
拉莫三嗪	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	±	-
奥卡西平	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
加巴喷丁	+	+	+	-	+	±	-	-	-	-	-
托吡酯	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+
左乙拉西坦	-	+	+	+	+	+	±	+	±	-	+
普瑞巴林	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
司替戊醇	+	-	-	-	+	+	±	+	±	±	+
卢非酰胺	+	+	-	-	+	+	±	±	+	-	-
拉科酰胺	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
瑞替加滨**	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
醋酸艾司利卡西平	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
布瓦西坦	+	+	+	+	+	±	±	±	-	-	-
吡仑帕奈	+	+	+	-	+	+	±	±	±	-	±
大麻二酚	+	+	±	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+

\*Loss of efficacy (tolerance) during chronic administration, 长期服药期间耐受性丧失；\*\*Withdrawn in 2017, 2017年撤回药物。+, indicates efficacy, 有效；-, indicates ineffectiveness or worsening of seizures, 无效或癫痫发作恶化；±, indicates inconsistent or preliminary findings, 不一致或初步发现；-, indicates insufficient data, 未报道。ASM, antiepileptic seizure medicine, 抗癫痫发作药物；GTCS, generalized tonic-clonic seizure, 全面性强直-阵挛发作；MES, maximal electroshock seizures, 最大电休克发作；GAERS, genetic absence epilepsy rat from Strasbourg, 斯特拉斯堡基因缺失癫痫大鼠；LGS, Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, Lennox-Gastaut综合征；DS, Dravet syndrome, Dravet综合征

(CYP450)代谢,对于肝酶诱导型抗癫痫发作药物单药或者联合用药仍然无法控制的局灶性癫痫,唑尼沙胺添加治疗效果良好<sup>[38]</sup>;对于儿童难治性癫痫特别是伴发局灶性发作,唑尼沙胺添加治疗有效且可靠<sup>[39]</sup>。(4)苯二氮䓬类药物:目前服用的苯二氮䓬类药物主要是氯巴占和氯硝西洋。直肠予以地西洋、鼻腔和口腔予以咪达唑仑、静脉予以地西洋和劳拉西泮是惊厥性癫痫持续状态(CSE)和失神性癫痫持续状态的首选药物<sup>[40-43]</sup>。一项单药治疗无效患者的氯巴占添加治疗研究显示,约83.4%的患者达到完全无发作<sup>[44]</sup>。苯二氮䓬类药物还可作为旅行、经期等特殊情况的一次性预防治疗。有50%~80%患者在长期药物治疗过程中产生耐药性和依赖性<sup>[17]</sup>。目前国内已经引进氯巴占。(5)氨己烯酸:1989年,

氨己烯酸在英国上市,用于治疗婴儿痉挛症。脑电图呈现痫样放电即予以氨己烯酸的疗效显著优于出现临床发作后再用药;此外,氨己烯酸可部分抑制哺乳动物雷帕霉素靶蛋白(mTOR)信号转导通路,对结节性硬化症致癫痫有效<sup>[8,45-46]</sup>。有30%~50%患者可出现不可逆性视野缺损,故氨己烯酸主要用于对其他治疗无效、获益大于风险的婴儿痉挛症<sup>[19]</sup>。目前国内已引进氨己烯酸。(6)拉莫三嗪:1990年,拉莫三嗪在爱尔兰上市,其对局灶性发作的疗效优于左乙拉西坦和唑尼沙胺<sup>[47]</sup>,拉莫三嗪添加治疗可减少耐药性局灶性癫痫<sup>[48]</sup>。皮疹是主要不良反应,发生率低于10%,Stevens-Johnson综合征等严重皮疹的发生率仅约0.3%<sup>[49]</sup>,缓慢滴定给药可减少皮疹的发生率,此外,近期有降低皮疹风险的

快速滴定给药方案的报道<sup>[50-51]</sup>。(7)奥卡西平:同年,奥卡西平在丹麦上市。奥卡西平与卡马西平的疗效相似,而安全性和耐受性更佳,但迄今并未能完全取代卡马西平,可能与奥卡西平价格相对昂贵有关。(8)加巴喷丁:1994年,加巴喷丁在英国和美国上市。该药抗癫痫作用较弱,但不良反应温和,与其他药物无相互作用,且对焦虑、抑郁和睡眠障碍等有效,故在老年患者中具有优势<sup>[52]</sup>。(9)托吡酯:1995年,托吡酯在英国上市,不良反应主要为认知功能障碍和语言障碍,可诱发肾结石。(10)左乙拉西坦:1999年,左乙拉西坦在美国上市。静脉注射左乙拉西坦对儿童惊厥性癫痫持续状态的疗效优于苯妥英,且不良反应少于苯妥英<sup>[53]</sup>。其可引起易激惹,偶致严重攻击行为<sup>[54]</sup>,罕见横纹肌溶解综合征和儿童肾功能衰竭<sup>[55-56]</sup>。(11)普瑞巴林:2004年,普瑞巴林在欧盟上市。一项普瑞巴林添加治疗耐药性局灶性癫痫的Meta分析显示,可使癫痫发作减少50%以上,甚至完全控制发作;不良反应有共济失调、头晕、嗜睡、体重增加和疲劳等<sup>[57]</sup>。(12)司替戊醇:2007年,司替戊醇在欧盟上市。药代动力学方面,可抑制细胞色素P450 3A4酶(CYP3A4)、CYP1A2、CYP2C19同工酶,对其他抗癫痫发作药物的血药浓度影响较大<sup>[17]</sup>。一项成人难治性局灶性癫痫的司替戊醇添加治疗研究显示,治疗后12个月药物治疗保留率为54.4%、有效率(发作频率减少≥50%)36.4%、无发作率13.6%<sup>[58]</sup>。目前司替戊醇尚未在国内上市。(13)卢非酰胺:同年,卢非酰胺在欧盟上市。Ⅲ期临床试验显示,卢非酰胺添加治疗儿童和成人Lennox-Gastaut综合征可改善发作且耐受性良好<sup>[59]</sup>,目前尚未在国内上市。(14)拉科酰胺:2008年,拉科酰胺在欧盟上市。药代动力学方面,拉科酰胺与其他抗癫痫发作药物的相互作用较少,抗癫痫机制可能为碳酸酐酶抑制作用<sup>[54,60]</sup>。一项为期3年的拉科酰胺添加治疗耐药性癫痫的研究显示,癫痫发作频率平均降低42%,治疗后1、2和3年药物治疗保留率分别为88.6%、86.4%和72.7%<sup>[61]</sup>。(15)瑞替加滨:是截止目前唯一的钾通道阻滞剂,尚未在国内上市。(16)醋酸艾司利卡西平:属于卡马西平衍生物,可避免卡马西平在体内代谢生成10,11-环氧化物这一步骤,疗效与卡马西平相当且耐受性更高。一项醋酸艾司利卡西平添加治疗耐药性癫痫的Meta分析显示,随着醋酸艾司利卡西剂量增加,癫痫发作频率减少程度增加,常见不良

反应为头晕、恶心、嗜睡等<sup>[62]</sup>。目前醋酸艾司利卡西平尚未在国内上市。(17)布瓦西坦:2016年,布瓦西坦在美国上市。该药与突触囊泡蛋白2A(SV2A)的亲和力较左乙拉西坦高15~30倍,疗效和耐受性亦优于左乙拉西坦<sup>[17]</sup>。一项对左乙拉西坦治疗失败后改用布瓦西坦的研究显示,约46.2%对左乙拉西坦无反应的患者对布瓦西坦有效,且布瓦西坦相关不良事件显著减少<sup>[63]</sup>。目前布瓦西坦尚未在国内上市。(18)吡仑帕奈:一项针对吡仑帕奈添加治疗难治性局灶性发作的Meta分析显示,吡仑帕奈8或12 mg/d疗效最佳,但两种剂量之间无明显差异;与8 mg/d组相比,12 mg/d组退出比例更高;药物不良反应主要有头晕、嗜睡、疲劳和易激惹<sup>[64]</sup>。(19)森巴考特:森巴考特可有效减少难治性局灶性发作且耐受性良好<sup>[65]</sup>。一项森巴考特与钠通道阻滞剂或非钠通道阻滞剂联合治疗未控制的局灶性发作的研究显示,联合用药有效率(发作频率减少≥50%、≥75%和≥90%)更高;森巴考特常见不良反应包括嗜睡、眩晕、疲劳、复视和头痛等<sup>[66]</sup>。一项Meta分析对比森巴考特、布瓦西坦、艾司利卡西平、拉科酰胺和吡仑帕奈添加治疗成人难治性局灶性发作的有效性和安全性,其结果显示,森巴考特组癫痫发作频率减少≥50%比例高于布瓦西坦组、艾司利卡西平组、拉科酰胺组和吡仑帕奈组,而无发作率各组之间无统计学差异;布瓦西坦组、拉科酰胺组和吡仑帕奈组不良事件发生率高于艾司利卡西平组<sup>[67]</sup>。目前森巴考特尚未在国内上市。(20)大麻二酚:该药的抗癫痫机制较为复杂,除阻断持续性钠电流外,还可抑制谷氨酸释放和神经元异常兴奋,同时,对1型和2型大麻素受体、G蛋白耦联受体55(GPCR55)、瞬时受体电位香草醛和过氧化物酶体增殖物激活受体γ(PPARγ)等具有高度亲和力,主要用于局灶性发作、Lennox-Gastaut综合征和Dravet综合征的治疗<sup>[68-69]</sup>。一项采用大麻二酚长期治疗结节性硬化症致癫痫的研究显示,治疗后1年药物保留率为79%,癫痫发作减少54%~68%,发作频率减少≥50%、≥75%和100%的有效率分别为53%~61%、29%~45%和6%~11%;常见药物不良反应包括腹泻、癫痫发作增多和食欲下降等<sup>[70]</sup>。目前大麻二酚尚未在国内上市。(21)依维莫司:一项依维莫司添加治疗结节性硬化症致癫痫的治疗显示,治疗后6个月药物治疗保留率为98%,有效率(发作频率减少≥50%)为33%<sup>[71]</sup>。(22)芬氟拉明:该药于20世

纪60年代用于肥胖症的治疗,因与心脏瓣膜病有关而弃用,随后发现其对Dravet综合征有效,且低剂量芬氟拉明并不引起心脏瓣膜病,遂于2020年经FDA批准用于治疗Dravet综合征<sup>[72]</sup>。一项多中心回顾性研究显示,芬氟拉明添加治疗后3个月,总体有效率(发作频率减少>50%)和无发作率分别为68%和14%,每月发作时间自10天减至3天,进展为癫痫持续状态的比例明显减少;至末次随访时,药物治疗保留率仍达85%,其中45%停用原有的抗癫痫发作药物;药物不良反应主要为嗜睡、食欲下降和共济失调<sup>[73]</sup>。

### 三、抗癫痫发作药物治疗的“未来”

癫痫药物治疗的“未来”应聚焦当前主要问题和尚未满足的医疗需求。理想的抗癫痫发作药物应该是广谱的,且对中枢神经系统功能和生活质量影响轻微,但现有的抗癫痫发作药物无一完全符合上述要求。究其原因主要是由于癫痫的发生发展机制尚未阐明,目前的抗癫痫发作药物研发仅以降低神经元过度兴奋为目标,无法避免对正常神经传导的干扰<sup>[74]</sup>。尽管第2和3代抗癫痫发作药物未能提高无发作率<sup>[3-4,6]</sup>,但其不良反应更轻微,药物之间相互作用更少,患者耐受性更好<sup>[75]</sup>。目前,全球有30余种抗癫痫发作药物正在临床前期或临床期研发阶段,尤以GABA能药物颇受重视,较氨己烯酸等药物抗癫痫机制更宽泛且耐受性更好<sup>[76-81]</sup>。现有抗癫痫发作药物并不能预防癫痫发生或阻止癫痫进展。临床不仅亟待“患者无发作、药物无不良反应”的抗癫痫发作药物,更呼唤“预防癫痫发生、阻止癫痫进展”的疾病修饰药物(DMA)。氨己烯酸、吡仑帕奈、艾司利卡西平等作为疾病修饰药物的潜力正在评估中;依维莫司在结节性硬化症中抑制mTOR信号转导的机制部分发挥疾病修饰药物的作用<sup>[8]</sup>;Cerliponase在神经元蜡样质脂褐质沉积病2型(NCL2)中替代溶酶体酶,有可能成为彻底改变遗传性癫痫预后的精准治疗典范<sup>[21,82]</sup>。目前,研究者针对癫痫发生发展过程中的诸多环节进行药物再组合,通过小分子技术、反义技术和病毒载体等致力研发可能改善癫痫预后的疾病修饰药物,达到真正意义上的预防与治疗目的<sup>[21,45,77,83-87]</sup>。我们坚信未来“患者无发作、药物无不良反应”的目标必将在多数患者中实现。

综上所述,药物治疗仍是癫痫的主要治疗方法,其本质是抗癫痫发作,而非改善癫痫疾病。以

苯巴比妥、苯妥英为代表的传统抗癫痫发作药物疗效肯定,但不良反应较明显、患者耐受性较差;奥卡西平、拉莫三嗪、托吡酯、左乙拉西坦、唑尼沙胺、拉科酰胺、吡仑帕奈等新型抗癫痫发作药物虽未能提高无发作率,但抗癫痫机制多样、不良反应轻微、药物间相互作用少、患者耐受性良好。未来癫痫药物治疗的方向是研发疗效更好、不良反应更小且无耐药性的抗癫痫发作药物,以及更多精力致力于研发“预防癫痫发生、阻止癫痫进展”的疾病修饰药物,使癫痫易感人群可预防、癫痫患者可治愈。

利益冲突 无

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## · 小词典 ·

### 中英文对照名词词汇(二)

- 功能获得突变 gain-of-function mutation(GoF)  
功能连接 functional connectivity(FC)  
功能失去突变 loss-of-function mutation(LoF)  
功能性惊厥发作 functional seizure(FS)  
功能性认知障碍 functional cognitive disorder(FCD)  
功能性神经系统疾病 functional neurological disorder(FND)  
功能性视觉障碍 functional vision disorder(FVD)  
功能性听觉障碍 functional auditory disorder(FAD)  
功能性运动障碍 functional movement disorder(FMD)  
谷氨酸受体 glutamate receptor(GluR)  
谷氨酸脱羧酶 glutamic acid decarboxylase(GAD)  
谷氨酸脱羧酶65 glutamic acid decarboxylase 65(GAD65)  
谷氨酸转运体 glutamate transporter(GLT)  
国际疾病分类法-10 International Classification of Disease-10(ICD-10)  
国际抗癫痫联盟 International League Against Epilepsy(ILAE)  
国际自身免疫大会 International Congress on Autoimmunity(ICA)  
过氧化物酶体增殖物激活受体 $\gamma$  peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$ (PPAR $\gamma$ )  
海马硬化 hippocampal sclerosis(HS)  
汉密尔顿焦虑量表 Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale(HAMA)  
黑质网状部 substantia nigra reticulata(SNr)  
宏基因组第二代测序技术 metagenomic next-generation sequencing(mNGS)  
获得性癫痫性失语 acquired epileptic aphasia(AEA)  
[Landau-Kleffner综合征 Landau-Kleffner syndrome(LKS)]  
基于Fixel分析 Fixel-based analysis(FBA)  
激动剂结合结构域 agonist binding domain(ABD)  
激光间质热疗 laser interstitial thermotherapy(LITT)  
急性前庭综合征 acute vestibular syndrome(AVS)  
疾病修饰药物 disease modifying agents(DMA)  
N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸 N-methyl-D-aspartate(NMDA)  
N-甲基-D-天冬氨酸受体 N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor(NMDAR)  
接触蛋白相关蛋白-2 contactin-associated protein 2(CASPR2)  
结节性硬化症 tuberous sclerosis(TS)  
经颅磁刺激 transcranial magnetic stimulation(TMS)  
经颅直流电刺激 transcranial direct current stimulation(tDCS)  
静息态功能磁共振成像 resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging(rs-fMRI)  
局灶性癫痫 focal epilepsy(FE)