

**Neuropsychological Deficits in Children with Epilepsy in Ghana: A Study
At Korle-Bu Teaching Hospital**

ABSTRACT

Epilepsy may be associated with a wide range of neuropsychological deficits. The study examined the neuropsychological deficits (language skills, attention skills and executive functioning) associated with epileptic children. The role of medication compliance on the neuropsychological deficits was also assessed. Seventy two participants consisting of 36 epileptic patients visiting the neurological clinic at the Korle Bu Teaching Hospital (children's department) and 36 healthy control group from West African Basic School were selected to complete the Digit Span Tasks, Kilifi Naming Test (KNT), Trail Making Test (TMT) and the Morisky 8-Item Medication Adherence Scale (MMAS-8). Analysis was done using Pearson correlation and the MANOVA. Findings of the study indicated higher deficits in language skills, attention skills and executive functioning among epileptic patients compared to healthy control group. Medication compliance was found to ameliorate the deficits associated with attention, language skills, and executive functions among epileptic patients. Findings suggest that though epilepsy (seizure) is associated with higher neuropsychological deficits, compliance with medication decreases the deficits associated with epilepsy.

Keywords: *epilepsy, seizure, neuropsychological deficits, language skills, attention skills, executive functions, medication compliance*

1. INTRODUCTION

Epilepsy or seizure is one of the most common neurological disorders in childhood (Fastenau, Shen, Dunn, Perkins, Hermann & Austin, 2004). Prevalence estimates suggest that approximately 5% of children will have at least one seizure in their lifetime with approximately 25% of these children subsequently meeting formal diagnostic criteria for epileptic disorder (Sharma, Singh, Goyal, Singla & Kaur, 2011). The prevalence of the deficits associated with epilepsy has attracted a lot of attention with large body of studies conducted on the neuropsychological deficits associated with it (Dunn, Johnson, Perkins, Fastenau, Byars, & Austin, 2010; Reilly & Neville, 2011; Vingerhoets, 2006). Though numerous studies have been carried out on how epilepsy is linked to neuropsychological deficits in the European countries, very little has been done to examine the risk factors that may account for the high deficits among these epileptic children especially in Ghana. In Ghana, because of the low socio-economic status and the belief as to the cause of the disorder, people do not seek adequate care to help control the seizures associated with it. It is therefore important to assess how certain factors such as medication compliance exposes patients to severe neuropsychological deficits in Ghana.

Epilepsy disorder is a neurological condition that affects the nervous system. It is a neurological condition involving the brain (damage to either part or both parts) that makes people more susceptible to having recurrent, unprovoked seizure (Dunn, et al., 2010).

49 Epilepsy involves a breakdown of the natural electrical activity in the brain (Dunn, et al.,
50 2010). Anyone can have one or more seizures but when a person has two or more
51 unprovoked seizures, he or she is considered to have epilepsy or seizure disorder (Sharma,
52 Singh, Goyal, Singla & Kaur, 2011).

53

54 Epileptic disorder is associated with varying brain damage or changes in brain neural
55 network. The changes in brain neural networks affect behaviour causing dysfunctions such as
56 the processing of language (Duke, Tesfaye, Berl, Walker, Ritzl, Fasano, Conry, Pearl, Sato,
57 Theodore & Gaillard, 2012). The deficit in language may range from very limited problems
58 in exact word finding to more pervasive deficits impacting on all language modalities. Yet
59 another cognitive ability affected by epilepsy is executive function (MacAllister, Bender,
60 Whitman, Welsh, Keller, Granader & Sherman, 2012). Epilepsy makes it impossible for the
61 brain to develop connection between the past experiences and the present actions which
62 affect executive function processes (Stuss & Levine, 2002). Repeated seizures also affect
63 attention, particularly in children (Hermann, Jones, Dabbs, Allen, Sheth, Fine, McMillan, &
64 Seidenberg, 2007). Damage to the brain leads to the dysfunction of the central nervous
65 system (CNS). Epileptic patients encounter unusual electrical activity in their brains between
66 seizures because of the CNS dysfunction. This has the propensity of interfering with the
67 ability to focus on stimulus (Hermann, et al., 2007).

68

69 The relation between seizures and these deficits may not necessarily be a direct causal
70 relationship but possibly influenced by compliance with treatment (Sharma, et al., 2011).
71 According to Fountain (2000), effective treatment of seizure disorder depends on medication
72 compliance across a lifetime. For individuals with epilepsy, adherence to medication is
73 crucial in preventing or minimizing the seizures associated with it and their cumulative
74 impact on everyday life. Failure to comply with medication may lead to toxicity which may
75 serve as a significant limiting factor in treatment maintenance (Rowland, 2005).

76

77 In Ghana, people look for alternative explanations and cure to epilepsy. The traditional belief
78 as to the causes of diseases such as epilepsy in Ghana affects the extent to which epileptic
79 children comply with medication (Dakwa & Mudyahoto, 2013). Patients who believe
80 epilepsy is caused by spiritual factors other than a defect in the brain fail to comply with
81 medications provided by the medical practitioner (Bootsma, et al., 2009).

82

83 According to Luria theory of executive function (Luria, 1974), the human brain consists of
84 three basic functional units that are interactively linked and the participation of these three
85 functional units is necessary for any type of mental activity. These three basic functional
86 units are the primary functional unit, the secondary functional unit and the tertiary functional
87 unit. According to Luria theory of executive function (Luria, 1974), each form of conscious
88 activity is always a complex functional system and takes place through the combined
89 working of all three functional units. When the complex functional system is damaged by
90 injury to any of the functional unit or all of the functional units, it disrupts the cohesion of the
91 system resulting in the inability to verify or regulate behavioural outcomes. Consequently, it
92 can lead to the replacement of these complex programmes by more basic behaviour or
93 stereotypical behaviour that is either illogical, irrelevant, or inappropriate.

94

95 **Studies have indicated that epileptic patients are prone to neuropsychological deficits.** Jones,
96 Watson, Sheth, Caplan, Koehn, Seidenberg, and Hermann (2007) found that attention deficit
97 is more prevalent in new onset idiopathic epilepsy children (26.4%) than in healthy controls

98 (10%). A study by MacAllister, et al. (2012) found higher deficits in executive function
99 among epileptic children. Culhane-Shelburne, Chapieski, Hiscock and Glaze (2002) also
100 indicated that children with epilepsy compared to healthy control group have higher deficits
101 in planning and executive functions. Rejno-Habte, Olsson et al. (2009) indicated that
102 epileptic children have severe language deficits compared to healthy control group.

103

104 According to Dunn, et al. (2010), some epileptic children exhibit severe neuropsychological
105 deficits compared to others. If this is the case, then some factors have the potential to
106 influence the neuropsychological deficits of these children. Studies have indicated that
107 medication compliance is one of the major factors that have the potential to influence the
108 neuropsychological deficits of epileptic patients. A study by Nolan, Redoblado, Lah and
109 Sabaz (2003) indicated that medication compliance reduce the deficits associated with
110 epilepsy. Gallassi, Morreale, Lorusso, Procaccianti, Lugaresi and Baruzzi (1990) also
111 revealed that patients who comply with medication had lower neuropsychological deficits
112 than those who do not comply with medication.

113

114 Assessing the extant studies, most have been conducted in the European countries. The
115 paucity of studies in Ghana failed to examine the risk factors that may account for the high
116 deficits among the epileptic patients though people do not seek adequate care to help control
117 the seizures due to the belief about the causes of the disorder. It is therefore important to
118 assess how certain factors such as medication compliance exposes patients to severe
119 neuropsychological deficits in Ghana. It is based on this that the present study sought to
120 examine neuropsychological deficits in language skills, attention skills and executive
121 functions of epileptic children. The study also sought to assess whether medication
122 compliance ameliorate the neuropsychological deficits associated with epilepsy. Accordingly,
123 the study sought to test the following predictions:

124

- 125 1. Epileptic patients will exhibit deficits in attention, language and executive function
126 compared to healthy participants
- 127 2. Compliance with medication will have a significant relationship with attention,
128 language skills and executive function

128

129 **2. METHODOLOGY**

130

131 **2.1 Population**

132 The target group consisted of all patients diagnosed with epileptic disorder and healthy
133 individuals without any trace or history of epilepsy. Epileptic patients were obtained from the
134 Korle-Bu Teaching Hospital (children's' department). Korle-Bu Teaching Hospital was
135 selected because it is the biggest hospital in Ghana and it serves as referral centre for patients
136 suffering from epilepsy. Based on the educational background and the age of the selected
137 epileptic patients, participants without epileptic disorders (control group) were also selected
138 using matching. Control participants were selected from West African Basic School at
139 Adenta in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana.

140

141 **2.2 Participants**

142 Respondents for the study were recruited through **purposive** sampling technique and
 143 matching. The **purposive** sampling technique was used in selecting the patients with epilepsy.
 144 **Participants who served the purpose of the study and were willing to participants were**
 145 **selected by the researcher.** After selecting the epileptic children, healthy individuals (control
 146 participants) with no known history of epilepsy or neurological disorders were also selected
 147 using matching. The control was matched on sex, age and educational level.

148
 149 Seventy two (n=72) participants took part in the study. The seventy two (72) participants
 150 consisted of 36 patients with epileptic disorder and 36 healthy individuals. **The sample size of**
 151 **80 was targeted because as proposed by Tabachnick and Fidel (1996), for a sample size to be**
 152 **appropriate for a targeted population, $n > 50+8M$ (n = sample size, M = number of IVs).**
 153 **Since there are 2 IVs (health status and gender) in the present study, the sample size was**
 154 **estimated to be more than 66 ($n > 66$). The response rate of 72 participants was therefore**
 155 **large enough for the study.** The age range of the participants was within 10 – 14 years with a
 156 mean age of 12.50 years. Among the 72 participants, 40 were males and 32 were females.
 157 The educational level of the respondents ranged from class 4 to Junior Secondary 2. (See
 158 Table 1 below for demographic composition of the participants).

159
 160
 161

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables		Seizure Patients (n = 36)	Healthy Control (n = 36)	Total (n = 72)
Gender	Males	20	20	40
	Females	16	16	32
Education	Class 4	5	5	10
	Class 5	11	11	22
	Class 6	10	10	20
	JHS 1	4	4	8
	JSH 2	6	6	12

162

163 2.3 Design

164 The study adopted the cross-sectional survey assessing the neuropsychological deficits using
 165 structured questionnaires. The cross-sectional was appropriate since large amount of data on
 166 neuropsychological deficits were collected from among many participants within a relatively
 167 short time.

168

169 2.4 Measures

170 Data on neuropsychological deficits (attention skills, executive functions, language) and
 171 medication compliance were measured using Digit Span Tasks (DST), Kilifi Naming Test
 172 (KNT), Trail Making Test (TMT) and the Morisky 8-Item Medication Adherence Scale
 173 (MMAS-8). Comprehensive descriptions of the scales used are presented below:

174

175 The Digit Span Tasks (DST) was used to assess attention skills. DST is a sub-scale of the
 176 Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Fourth Edition for assessing cognitive ability of
 177 children between the ages of 6 years through to 16 years 11 months. The DST requires
 178 working memory processes to manipulate orally presented verbal sequences or to simply
 179 recall orally presented sequential information. DST contains both forward and backward
 180 items (9 forward items and 8 backward items). Each item also consists of two questions

181 making it 18 forward and 16 backward items. To complete the task children need to hold and
182 manipulate (reverse) a series of numbers in their minds. In the digit span, children are told
183 they are going to play a number game. The children are told that they will hear some numbers
184 and they will need first repeat the numbers to the examiner and then later they are asked to
185 repeat the numbers backwards (e.g., If I say '1, 3,' you say '3,1'). The DST has been found to
186 be reliable with Cronbach alpha of .86 (Watkins & Smith, 2013). Total scores range from 0 –
187 18 for the forward series and 0 – 16 for the backward series. Higher scores represent lower
188 deficits in attention.

189
190 The Kilifi Naming Test (KNT), a test of confrontation naming, was used to assess language
191 skills (Kitsao-Wekulo et al., 2012). The KNT measures expressive vocabulary in which the
192 child is required to provide names of common pictures as they are presented. In the KNT, the
193 child is asked to spontaneously give one-word responses when presented with a black and
194 white line drawing of a familiar object. If at the first attempt the child provides the correct
195 responses, a score of 2 is encoded. A stimulus cue is provided when no response is given. A
196 score of 1 is given when the child provides correct response after the naming cue is provided.
197 If the child does not provide a correct response after the stimulus cue, the word that is
198 provided is recorded verbatim or the child is given a score of 0. The final score is calculated
199 by summing the number of spontaneously correct items and the number of correct items
200 following a stimulus cue. Cronbach alpha of .88 was reported by Kitsao-Wekulo et al. (2012).
201 Lower score represent higher level of impairment.

202
203 The Trail Making Test (TMT; Reitan, 1958) was used to measure executive function. The
204 TMT consists of two parts. Each part consists of 25 circles distributed over a sheet of paper.
205 In Part A, the circles are numbered 1 – 25. Participants are asked to draw lines to connect the
206 numbers in ascending order. In Part B, the circles include both numbers (1 – 13) and letters
207 (A – L). Participants are asked to draws lines to connect the circles in an ascending pattern,
208 but with the added task of alternating between the numbers and letters (i.e., 1-A-2-B-3-C,
209 etc.). Participants are asked to connect the circles as quickly as possible, without lifting the
210 pen or pencil from the paper. Participants are timed as they connect the "trail." If the
211 participant makes an error, it is pointed out immediately and is allowed to correct it and
212 continue. The participant is asked to stop after five minutes if he or she has not completed
213 both parts. Gaudino and Geisler (1995) reported a Cronbach alpha of .84 for the scale.
214 Results for both TMT A and B are reported as the number of seconds required to complete
215 the task with higher scores indicating higher impairment.

216
217 The Morisky 8-Item Medication Adherence Scale (MMAS-8; Morisky, Green & Levine,
218 2008) is a self-report measure use to measure medication compliance. The scale addresses
219 barriers to medication-taking and has an Alpha Reliability of 0.83 (Morisky, Green & Levine,
220 2008). Among Ghanaian populace, the reliability of the scale was found to be .79 (Beune,
221 van Charante, Beem, Mohrs, & Agyemang, 2014). Participants respond to the scale on a five
222 point Likert scale ranging from Never/rarely (0), Once in a while (1), Sometimes (2), Usually
223 (3) and All the time (4). Scores ranged from 0 – 32 with higher score indicating higher
224 medication compliance.

225

226 **2.5 Procedure for Data Collection**

227 Ethical clearance was sought from Ethics Committee for Humanities (ECH) at the University
228 of Ghana followed by distribution of introductory letters to the hospital (Korle-Bu Teaching
229 Hospital) and the school (West African Basic School at Adenta). The approvals from the

230 institutions and consent of the participants were sought before administration of the
 231 questionnaires. The participants consent was sought from their caregivers. The caregivers
 232 signed an informed consent form before the children responded to the measures. Collection of
 233 data among the epileptic children took approximately one and half months whilst data from
 234 the control group (healthy participants) took approximately one week. Participants took
 235 approximately 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

236

237 3. DATA ANALYSIS

238

239 The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS, version 20) was used in data analysis. Two
 240 hypotheses were tested in the study. The difference in language skills, attention and executive
 241 function between epileptic and healthy children as indicated in the first hypothesis was
 242 analyzed using the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) (see table 2). This is
 243 because the effect of one independent variable (health status) on three dependent variables
 244 (language skills, attention and executive function) was investigated.

245 The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to establish the relationship
 246 between medication compliance and the neuropsychological deficits (language skills,
 247 attention skills and executive function as indicated in hypothesis 2 (see table 3). This is
 248 because the relationship between medication compliance and neuropsychological deficits was
 249 established.

250

251 4. RESULTS

252

253 Findings obtained from the analysis are summarized in the Tables below.

254

255 **Table 2: Influence of Health Status (Seizure and Healthy Children) on**
 256 **Neuropsychological Deficits**

257

Variable	Epileptic Patients <i>n</i> =36	Healthy Children <i>n</i> =36	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	<i>Mean (SD)</i>			
Attention Skills	9.72 (4.58)	16.47 (5.26)	26.39	(1, 72)	.000**
Language Skills	61.50 (28.25)	90.19 (19.64)	7.39	(1, 72)	.008*
Executive Function	25.00 (18.30)	15.13 (11.78)	33.64	(1, 72)	.000**

258

** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

259

260 **Table 3: Relationship between Medication Compliance and Neuropsychological Deficits**

261

Variable	1	2	3
1. Medication Compliance	-		
2. Attention Skills	.34**	-	
3. Language Skills	.38**	.29**	-
4. Executive Functions	-.23*	-.23*	-.18*

262

** $p < 0.01$ * $p < 0.05$

263

264 Table 2 shows a significant impact of health status (epileptic patients and healthy children) on
 265 attention skills ($F_{(1, 72)} = 26.39, p < .01$), language skills ($F_{(1, 72)} = 7.39, p < .05$) and

266 executive function ($F_{(1, 72)} = 33.64, p < .01$). This means that epileptic patients had
267 significantly higher deficits in attention ($M=9.72, SD=4.58$), language ($M=61.50, SD=28.25$)
268 and executive function ($M=25.00, SD=18.30$) than the deficits in attention ($M=16.47,$
269 $SD=5.26$), language ($M=90.19, SD=19.64$) and executive function ($M=15.13, SD=11.78$) of
270 healthy children. The first prediction that “epileptic patients will exhibit higher deficits in
271 attention, language and executive function compared to healthy participants” was supported.
272

273 The results in Table 3 also shows that medication compliance had a significant positive
274 correlations with attention skills ($r = .34, p < .05$) and language ($r = .38, p < .01$) but a
275 negative relationship with executive functions ($r = -.23, p < .05$). This means that the second
276 prediction which stated that “compliance with medication will have a significant relationship
277 with attention, language skills and executive function” was also supported.
278

279 **5. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

280
281 The first aim of the study sought to find out the influence of epilepsy on neuropsychological
282 deficits. The results of the study indicated that epileptic children performed poorly on
283 executive function, attention and language skills compared to healthy children. This means
284 that epilepsy is associated with deficits in executive functions, language, and attention.
285

286 The high deficits associated with executive function among epileptic children compared to
287 healthy control group found in the present study is congruent with the study conducted by
288 MacAllister, et al. (2012) which indicated that executive function deficits is more closely
289 related to epilepsy severity. One reason for the deficits in executive function associated with
290 seizure is that executive function is mediated by a healthy functioning frontal lobe,
291 particularly, the prefrontal cortex that regulates inhibition and working memory (Saboya,
292 Franco & Mattos, 2002). Seizures, be it global or focused can affect the frontal lobe because
293 of the primary function of the frontal cortex integrating sensory information from different
294 areas of the brain (Chan, Shum, Touloupoulou, & Chen, 2008). According to the nociferous
295 cortex hypothesis (Hermann, et al., 2007), executive function deficits in epileptic children
296 result from the propagation of the epileptic discharges from the temporal lobe epileptic focus
297 to the frontal lobes. The theory profess that, there are white matter tracts connecting the
298 temporal lobes with the frontal lobes which help in the functioning of the executive function.
299 Epilepsy also releases some discharges. The epileptic discharges may spread through the
300 projections connecting the temporal lobes with the frontal lobes which lead to deficits in the
301 executive function.
302

303 There was also a higher deficit in attention among epileptic children compared to the healthy
304 control group. The higher deficit in attention among epileptic patients agrees with the study
305 by Chou, et al. (2013) which indicated that patients with seizure deficit are generally prone to
306 attention disorder. As explained by Hamoda, Guild, Gumlak, Travers and Gonzalez-Heydrich
307 (2008), certain predisposing factors that induce inattention such as frequency of seizure,
308 drugs used etc. can cause higher attentional deficit among epileptic patients. An underlying
309 central nervous system (CNS) dysfunction caused by damage to the brain of epileptic patients
310 could also be a major factor for the low level of attentiveness among the epileptic patients.
311 Because of the central nervous dysfunction, epileptic patients experience unusual electrical
312 activity in their brains in between seizures which interfere with the ability to focus on one’s
313 attention. Moreover, the frequencies of seizures experience by epileptic children disrupt their

314 sleep and causes fatigue which has the propensity to induce inattentiveness among epileptic
315 patients.

316

317 There was also a deficit in language skills among epileptic children compared to the healthy
318 children. This supports the study by Duke, et al. (2012) which revealed higher deficits in
319 language among epileptic patients. The language deficits among epileptic patients compared
320 to the healthy control group can be due to injury to the Wernicke's and the Broca's areas of
321 the left temporal lobe. The Wernicke's and the Broca's areas of the left temporal lobe are
322 critical for language comprehension and production. Therefore, if there is an injury to these
323 areas, speech production or verbal comprehension becomes a problem (Deonna & Roulet-
324 Perez, 2005).

325

326 The significant neuropsychological deficits (language, attention and executive function)
327 associated with epileptic patients can be proffered with the Luria theory of executive function
328 (Luria, 1974). According to this theory, the human brain consists of three basic functional
329 units that are interactively linked and the participation of these three functional units is
330 necessary for any type of mental activity. When this complex functional system is damaged
331 by injury to any of the functional unit or all of the functional units, it disrupts the cohesion of
332 the system resulting in the inability to verify or regulate behavioural outcomes which can lead
333 to neuropsychological deficits (Chan & Chen, 2004). Since epilepsy is associated with
334 varying brain damage or changes in brain neural networks, it will disrupt the cohesion of the
335 functional brain system resulting in cognitive and behavioural dysfunctions in area of
336 thinking including language, memory, attention, planning and behavioural inhibition (Chan &
337 Chen, 2004).

338

339 While the effects of epilepsy on neuropsychological deficits were found, the effect was found
340 to be dependent on medication compliance. Effective treatment of epilepsy has been found to
341 depend on medication compliance across a lifetime (Fountain, 2000). Based on this, it was
342 predicted that compliance with medication will have a significant relationship with attention,
343 language skills and executive function. The finding indicated that there was a significant
344 positive relationship between medication compliance and neuropsychological deficits such as
345 attention and language. This means as epileptic children comply with their medication, their
346 level of attention and language skills improve tremendously. Again the findings indicated that
347 medication compliance has significant negative relationship with executive function. With
348 highly scores indicating higher deficits in executive function, the finding implies that as
349 epileptic patients comply with medication, it improve their executive function abilities.

350

351 These findings indicate that compliance with medication helps to reduce the
352 neuropsychological deficits associated with epilepsy. The findings agree with the assertion by
353 Nolan, et al. (2003) that the medications prescribed by medical doctors have the potential of
354 reducing the seizure frequency which is associated with the deficits associated with epilepsy.
355 Failure to comply with the medication will reduce the efficacy of the drug in controlling
356 seizure frequency (Nolan, et al., 2003). Complying with the dosage of the medication
357 prescribed has the potential of controlling the frequency of seizure and hence reducing the
358 neuropsychological deficits associated with it. For individuals with epilepsy, adherence to
359 medication is crucial in preventing or minimizing seizures and their cumulative impact on
360 everyday life. Failure to comply with medication may lead to toxicity which will serve as a
361 significant limiting factor in treatment maintenance (Rowland, 2005). Non-adherence to

362 antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) can result in breakthrough seizures many months or years after a
363 previous episode and may lead to varying neuropsychological deficits (Bootsma, et al., 2009).

364

365 This study has some limitations that need to be addressed. First, it must be noted that this
366 study is a survey that employed the use of self-report measures. The conclusions drawn in
367 this study therefore are largely correlational and so causal relationships cannot be inferred.
368 Moreover, the study utilized the non-probability sampling and the sample size was also small.
369 This makes it difficult to generalize the findings to the larger population of seizure patients.

370

371 Even though the study had some limitations, it invariably yielded reliable results as it
372 supported most of the studies conducted previously on the field of neuropsychological
373 deficits associated with epilepsy. The results of the study indicated that epilepsy is associated
374 with severe neuropsychological deficits in attention, language and executive function
375 compared to healthy children. Complying with medication was found to reduce the deficits
376 associated with it. The implication of the findings is that epileptic patients suffer from various
377 degrees of neuropsychological problems, which if patients comply with medication can
378 reduce the deficits among the epileptic patients and lower the neuropsychological impact of
379 epilepsy in general.

380

381 Even though, the study has these unique contributions to the health service, expansion on the
382 present study would allow greater knowledge into the factors that influence the
383 neuropsychological deficits associated with epilepsy. Future investigations should increase
384 the sample size and match the groups in terms of socioeconomic status and type of school
385 attended. To fully pinpoint causality, an ideal study might sample new epileptic children and
386 track their onset of the disorder over a long period (longitudinal design). This will help to
387 know the course of the disorder on neuropsychological deficits.

388

389 6. CONCLUSION

390

391 The findings of the study have established that epileptic patients experience significantly
392 higher deficits in language skills, attention skills and executive functioning than the healthy
393 control group. Compliance with medication was also found to have a significant relationship
394 with neuropsychological deficits. The findings imply that the inability to comply with
395 medication serves as a risk factor for the development of higher neuropsychological deficits.
396 Physicians and caregivers are therefore urged to encourage patients to comply with
397 medication to help reduce the neuropsychological deficits associated with the disorder. There
398 is the need to educate the patients and the general public on the cause of epilepsy to do away
399 with the belief in the supernatural cause of epilepsy in Ghana.

400

401 References

- 402 Beune, E., van Charante, E. P. M., Beem, L., Mohrs, J. & Agyemang, C. O. (2014).
403 Culturally Adapted Hypertension Education (CAHE) to Improve Blood Pressure
404 Control and Treatment Adherence in Patients of African Origin. *PLoS ONE*, 9(3):
405 901-03.
- 406 Bootsma, H. P., Ricker, L., Hekster, Y. A., Hulsman, J., Lambrechts, D., Majoie, M.,
407 Schellekens, A., de Krom, M. & Aldenkamp, A.P. (2009). The impact of side effects
408 on long term retention in three new antiepileptic drugs. *Seizure*, 18:327–331
- 409 Chan, R.C.K. & Chen, E.Y.H. (2004). Executive dysfunctions and neurological
410 manifestations in schizophrenia. *Hong Kong Journal of Psychiatry*, 14 (3): 2–6

- 411 Chan, R.C.K., Shum, D., Touloupoulou, T., & Chen, E.Y.H. (2008). Assessment of executive
412 functions: review of instruments and identification of critical issues. *Archives of*
413 *Clinical Neuropsychology*, 23(2): 201-216.
- 414 Chou, I. C., Chang, Y. T., Chin, Z. N., Muo, C. H., & Sung, F. C. (2013). Correlation
415 between Epilepsy and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder: A Population-Based
416 Cohort Study. *PLoS ONE*, 8(3): 26
- 417 Culhane-Shelburne, K., Chapieski, L., Hiscock, M., & Glaze, D. (2002). Executive functions
418 in children with frontal and temporal lobe epilepsy. *J Int Neuropsychol Soc*, 8(5):
419 623-32
- 420 Dakwa, F. E., & Mudyahoto, T. (2013). Impact of Epilepsy on Children's Academic
421 Performance. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education*
422 *and Development*, 2(1): 359 - 365
- 423 Deonna, T. & Roulet-Perez, E. (2005). Cognitive and behavioural disorders of epileptic
424 origin in children. Mac Keith Press, London.
- 425 Duke, E., Tesfaye, M., Berl, M., Walker, J., Ritzl, E., Fasano, R. E., Conry, J. A., Pearl, P. L.,
426 Sato, S., Theodore, W. H., & Gaillard, W. D. (2012). The effect of seizure focus on
427 regional language processing areas. *Epilepsia*, 53(6): 1044-50
- 428 Dunn, D. W., Johnson, C. S., Perkins, S. M., Fastenau, P. S., Byars, A. W., deGrauw, T. J. &
429 Austin, J. K. (2010). Academic problems in children with seizures: Relationships with
430 neuropsychological functioning and family variables during the 3 years after onset.
431 *Epilepsy and Behaviour*, 19: 455-461
- 432 Fastenau, P. S., Shen, J., Dunn, D. W., Perkins, S. M., Hermann, B. P., & Austin, J. K.
433 (2004). Neuropsychological predictors of academic underachievement in pediatric
434 epilepsy: moderating roles of demographic, seizure, and psychosocial variables.
435 *Epilepsia*, 45(10):1261-72.
- 436 Fountain, N. B. (2000). Distribution of seizure precipitants among epilepsy syndromes.
437 *Epilepsia*, 41(12):1534-9.
- 438 Gallassi, R., Morreale, A., Lorusso, S., Procaccianti, P., Lugaresi, S. & Baruzzi, J. (1990).
439 Value of clinical data and neuropsychological measures in probable Alzheimer's
440 disease. *Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics*, 34(2):123-34.
- 441 Hamoda, H. M., Guild, D. J., Gumlak, S., Travers, B. H., & Gonzalez-Heydrich, J. (2008).
442 Association between attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and epilepsy in pediatric
443 populations. *Expert Rev Neurother*, 9: 1747-1754
- 444 Hermann, B., Jones, J., Dabbs, K., Allen, C. A., Sheth, R., Fine, J., McMillan, A.,
445 Seidenberg, M (2007). The frequency, complications and aetiology of ADHD in new
446 onset paediatric epilepsy. *Brain*, 130: 3135-3148
- 447 Jones, J. E., Watson, R., Sheth, R., Caplan, R., Koehn, M., Seidenberg, M., & Hermann, B.
448 (2007). Psychiatric comorbidity in children with new onset epilepsy. *Dev Med Child*
449 *Neurol.* 49: 493-497
- 450 Kitsao-Wekulo P. K., Holding P. A., Taylor H. G., Abubakar A., Connolly K. (2012).
451 Neuropsychological testing in a rural African school-age population: evaluating
452 contributions to variability in test performance. *Assessment Epub*, 10: 1177 - 79.
- 453 Luria, A. R. (1974). *The working brain: An introduction to neuropsychology*. New York, NY:
454 Basic Books.
- 455 MacAllister, W. S., Bender, H. A., Whitman, L., Welsh, A., Keller, S., Granader, Y., &
456 Sherman, E. M. (2012). Assessment of executive functioning in childhood epilepsy:
457 the Tower of London and BRIEF. *Child Neuropsychology*, 8(4): 404-15
- 458 Morisky, D. E., Green, L. W. & Levine, D. M. (2008). Concurrent and predictive validity of a
459 self-reported measure of medication adherence. *J Clins Hypertens*, 10(5):348-354.

- 460 Nolan, M. A., Redoblado, M. A., Lah, S., & Sabaz M. (2003). Intelligence in childhood
461 epilepsy syndromes. *Epilepsy Res*, 53: 139–150.
- 462 Reitan, R. M. (1958). Validity of the Trail Making test as an indicator of organic brain
463 damage. *Percept Mot Skills*, 8: 271-276
- 464 Rejno-Habte, S. G., Olsson, I., & Jennische, M. (2009). Patterns of language and auditory
465 dysfunction in 6-year-old children with epilepsy. *Uppsala Journal of Medical
466 Sciences*, 114: 82-89
- 467 Rowland, L. P. (2005). Merritt's Neurology. 11th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams &
468 Wilkins
- 469 Saboya, E., Franco, C. A., & Mattos, P. (2002). Relações entre processos cognitivosnas
470 funções executivas. *J Bras Psiquiatry*, 51(2): 91-100.
- 471 Sharma, A., Singh, P. R., Goyal, S., Singla, M. & Kaur, H. (2011). A Descriptive Study to
472 Assess the Neuropsychological Deficits among Epileptic Children. *Delhi Psychiatry
473 Journal*, 14 78 – 87
- 474 Stuss, D. T. & Levine, B. (2002). Adult clinical neuropsychology: lessons from studies of the
475 frontal lobes. *Annu Rev Psychology*, 53: 401 – 33.
- 476 Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S (1996). *Multivariate analysis (3rd edition)*. HarperCollins
477 College Publishers (New York, NY)
- 478 Watkins, M. W. & Smith, L. (2013). Long-term stability of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale
479 for Children-Fourth Edition. *Psychological Assessment*, 25, 477-483.