CEREBRAL CIRCULATION

Anatomy

Vessels

- the principal arterial inflow is via 2 internal carotids & 2 vertebrals
- the later unite to form the *basilar artery*
- the basilar artery and the internal carotids form the *circle of Willis*
 - \rightarrow 6 arteries supplying the cerebral cortex
- majority of arterial flow is carried by the *carotids*
- · anastomotic flow is minimal due to small diameter and equal pressures on each side
- venous drainage via the deep veins and *dural sinuses* \rightarrow internal jugular veins
- in the *choroid plexuses* there are gaps between the endothelial cells of the capillary wall,
- however the choroid epithelial cells are densely intermeshed and interlocking
- cerebral capillaries resemble *nonfenestrated* capillaries in muscle etc.
- however, there are *tight junctions* between the cells which prevent the passage of substances
- the cerebral capillaries are surrounded by the end-feet of *astrocytes*, closely applied to the basement lamina of the capillary \rightarrow gaps ~ 20 nm wide

Innervation

• three systems of nerves supply the cerebral vessels,

1. postganglionic sympathetic from the *superior cervical ganglion*

 \rightarrow NA and neuropeptide-Y

2. cholinergic neurones from the *sphenopalatine ganglion*

 \rightarrow ACh, VIP, and PHM?

3. sensory nerves with cell bodies in the *trigeminal ganglion*

 \rightarrow substance P

NB: the actions of these neurotransmitters are,

- i. vasodilators substance P, VIP, PHM, CGRP
- ii. vasoconstrictors NA, neuropeptide Y

Normal Values			
CBF	 Global¹ Cortical Subcortical 1400g brain 	~ 45-55 ~ 75-80 ~ 20 ~ 700 ~ 12-15% CO	ml/100g/min ml/100g/min ml/100g/min ml/min
C-VO ₂		~ 3-3.5 ~ 50 ~ 20%	ml/100g/min ml/min basal VO ₂
Cerebral P _{vO2}		~ 35-40	mmHg
ICP (supine)		~ 8-12 ~ 10-16	mmHg cmH ₂ O
¹ autoregulated between cerebral perfusion pressures 60-130 mmHg			

NB: a large proportion of the brains energy consumption (~ 60%) is used to support electrophysiological function & the maintenance of *ion gradients*

local CBF & C-VO₂ are heterogeneous throughout the brain, both are ~ 4x greater in *grey matter*

Regulation of CBF

- the determinants of total cerebral blood flow are,
 - 1. the arterial pressure at brain level
 - 2. the venous pressure at brain level
 - 3. the intracranial pressure
 - 4. the viscosity of blood
 - 5. the tone of the cerebral arterioles
- normal *cerebral perfusion pressure* is determined by MAP cerebral venous pressure
- the later is usually maintained ~ 2-4 mmHg above ICP

• factors which influence these, and therefore determine CBF include,

a.	metabolic / chemical / humoral factors		
	i.	C-VO ₂	- arousal, seizures
			- temperature
			- anaesthetic agents
	ii.	PaCO ₂	
	iii.	PaO ₂	
	iv.	drugs	- vasodilators/vasopressors
			- anaesthetic agents
b.	myogenic mechanisms		- autoregulation & MAP
c.	rheologic factors		- blood viscosity
			- temperature, proteinaemias
d.	neurogenic mechanisms		- extracranial sympathetic pathways
			- intracranial pathways

• although other intrinsic factors play a role, the most *important factors* are,

- 1. C-VO₂/CBF coupling \rightarrow autoregulation
- 2. $PaCO_2$
- 3. neurogenic regulation

Coupling of C-VO₂ & CBF

- in the normal state there is tight coupling between *l*-C-VO₂ and *l*-CBF
- the cerebral RQ ~ 1.0, \therefore O₂ consumption ~ CO₂ production ~ 3.5 ml/100g/min
- factors proported, but not proven, to contribute to this include,
 - a. H⁺
 - b. extracellular K⁺ and/or Ca⁺⁺
 - c. thromboxane & prostaglandins
 - d. adenosine

• temperature reduction decreases C-VO₂~ 6-7% per °C

• the EEG becomes *isoelectric* ~ 20° C, however, in contrast to anaesthetic agents, further reduction in temperature *does* result in further reduction in C-VO₂

• at 18°C the C-VO₂ ~ 10% of the basal rate and accounts for the profound protective effect during deep hypothermic arrest

• hyperthermia has the opposite effect, with marked increases in C-VO₂ up to 42° C

• beyond which there is a reduction in C-VO₂, possibly due to inhibition of enzymatic function

Carbon Dioxide

• CBF is *linearly* related to PaCO₂ over the range ~ 18-80 mmHg

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \rightarrow & \delta PaCO_2 & \sim 1 \text{ mmHg} \\ \rightarrow & \delta CBF & \sim 1\text{-2 ml/100g/min} & (\sim 3\text{-4\%/mmHg}) \end{array} \\ \bullet & PaCO_2 & \sim 60 \text{ mmHg} & \rightarrow & \uparrow CBF \sim 50\% & \& & \uparrow \text{ blood volume} \sim 14 \text{ ml (20\%)} \\ & \sim 80 \text{ mmHg} & \rightarrow & \uparrow CBF \sim 100\% \end{array}$

• under normal circumstances, CO2 sensitivity appears positively correlated with basal C-VO2

• accordingly, agents which alter basal C-VO₂, also alter *slope* of the δ CBF/ δ PaCO₂ curve

• H^+ acts directly on blood vessels, however, due to the impermeability of the BBB, metabolic acidosis has little immediate effect upon CBF

• hyperventilation is useful for both *brain decompression* and *brain relaxation*

• loss of **PaCO**₂ *reactivity* is a good predictor of *outcome* after severe head injury

• the effects of $PaCO_2$ occur rapidly but are not sustained, CBF returning to normal over ~ 6-8 hrs

- vasoconstriction by hyperventilation may \downarrow CBF to marginally perfused areas and \uparrow ischaemia

• studies of global O_2 extraction show hyperventilation \rightarrow \uparrow A-VO₂ difference

: argue $S_{ib}O_2$ is a better guide to the ideal V_M than measurement of ICP

- CSF bicarbonate adaptation occurs with a $t_{\nu_{\beta}}$ ~ 6 hours and CSF pH gradually returns to normal despite the sustained alteration of arterial pH

• thereafter, acute normalisation of arterial pH will result in significant CSF *acidosis* and induced "hypocapnia" may carry a theoretical risk of ischaemia

• Oxygen

• changes in PaO₂ also affect cerebral vessels

• hyperoxia causes minimal vasoconstriction \rightarrow from the range 60-300 mmHg CBF remains approximately constant and at 1 atm, CBF is decreased ~ 15%

• at a $PaO_2 < 60$ mmHg CBF begins to increase rapidly, such that at $P_{aO2} \sim 35$ mmHg

$$\rightarrow$$
 \uparrow CBF ~ 30-35%

• the mechanisms mediating this vasodilatation are not fully understood

- EEG slowing is evident at $P_{aO2} < 30 \text{ mmHg} \rightarrow CBF \sim 30 \text{ ml/100g/min}$
- EEG becomes flat at $P_{a02} < 20$ mmHg \rightarrow CBF ~ 15-20 ml/100g/min

Autoregulation

- maintenance of a near constant CBF over a range of MAP ~ 50-150 mmHg
- · beyond these limits, perfusion is pressure passive
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ there are a number of points relevant to anaesthesia / ICU,
 - 1. hypertensive patients may have a *right shift*
 - 2. autoregulation is not instantaneous \rightarrow *dynamic* changes in CBF ~ 3-4 minutes
 - 3. induced hypotension should be achieved over a period of several minutes
 - 4. volatile anaesthetics obtund autoregulation in a dose dependent manner
 - *NB*: therefore, the use of high dose volatile should be avoided if autoregulation is being relied upon to maintain CBF during induced hypotension

Viscosity

- *haematocrit* is the single most important determinant of blood viscosity
- variations within the range 33-45%, result in *clinically insignificant* alterations of CBF
 - 1. polycythaemia vera \rightarrow \uparrow viscosity \rightarrow \downarrow CBF to $\frac{1}{2}$ normal values
 - 2. anaemia $\rightarrow \downarrow CVR / \uparrow CBF$
 - though this may represent a response to the decreased CaO_2 and O_2 delivery

• the effects of viscosity are more obvious during focal ischaemia, when vasodilatation is already maximal, where a reduction in Hct. results in an increase in flow to the ischaemic territory

• pooled data for DO_2 in the setting of *focal ischaemia* suggests the *optimal Hct* ~ 30-34%

Cerebrospinal Fluid

Formation & Absorption

• there is ~ 150 ml of CSF in the adult, $\frac{1}{2}$ within the cranium

- about 60-70% of the CSF is formed by the *choroid plexuses*
- the remaining 30-40% by the cerebral vessels lining the *ventricular walls*
- in humans the CSF turns-over ~ 4 times/day

• composition is essentially brain ECF, and there appears to be free communication between the brain extracellular space, the ventricles and the subarachnoid space

• brain ECF normally occupies ~ 15% of brain volume

• CSF flows out through the foramina of *Magendie* and *Luschka* and is absorbed through the *arachnoid villi* into the cerebral venous sinuses

• bulk flow via the villi is ~ 500 ml/d (~ 3.5 ml/min)

a. *formation* is *independent* of ventricular pressure

- b. absorption, being largely by bulk flow, is proportional to ventricular pressure
 - at *normal pressure* ~ 7.0-18.0 cmH₂O (mean ~ 11), filtration = absorption
 - when pressure falls below ~ 7 cmH_2O absorption ceases

• factors resulting in a *reduction* in CSF formation,

- 1. metabolic & respiratory alkalosis
- 2. hypothermia
- 3. *hyperosmolality* ~ $95\% \downarrow$ formation with osmolality > 310 mosmol/kg
- 4. NaK-ATPase inhibition
 - · digoxin, acetazolamide, frusemide, amiloride
 - may result in ~ 80% \downarrow formation
- CSF Functions
 - 1.support- brain dry weight~ 1400g- boyant in CSF~ 50g
 - 2. constant metabolic environment
 BBB buffers CSF against rapid plasma changes in K⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺
 - 3. transport of chemical messengers
 - 4. sink for waste disposal

Intracranial Pressure

• the normal contents of the cranium are,

- 1. brain neural tissue & interstitial fluid ~ 1400g
- 2. blood ~ 75 ml
- 3. CSF ~ 75 ml (+75 ml spinal cord)
- 4. ICP $\sim 7-18$ cmH₂O
- *NB*: because each of these three components is relatively *incompressible*, the combined volume at any one time must be constant \rightarrow the *Monro-Kellie doctrine*

• ICP Measurement

continuous measurement was introduced into clinical practice ~ 1960 by *Lundberg indications* for perioperative ICP monitoring include,

- 1. neurotrauma / head injury
- 2. hydrocephalus
- 3. large brain tumours
- 4. ruptured aneurysms
- 5. postoperative cerebral oedema / swelling
- 6. metabolic encephalopathy
 - i. cerebral oedema 2° fulminant hepatic failure
 - ii. Reye's syndrome
- 7. large CVA ICH > infarction
- 8. proposed therapy to maximise CPP

• Methods of Measurement

- a. *intraventricular catheter* ventriculostomy
 - · represents the "gold standard" for pressure measurement
 - normally placed frontal horn of lateral ventricle
 - difficult with large tumours & compressed ventricles
 - allows therapeutic CSF drainage
 - requires *destruction* of brain tissue
 - creates a pathway for *infection*
 - potential for *accidental venting* of CSF
 - \rightarrow possible subdural haemorrhage or upward brain herniation
 - catheter obstruction & ventricular haemorrhage may occur
 - Camino Laboratories OLM uses a fibreoptic device within the ventricular catheter

- b. *subdural bolt* "Richmond Screw" or "Leeds device"
 - inserted through a burr hole & an opening in the dura
 - arachnoid remains intact, ∴less risk of infection, theoretically ??
 - connects via a fluid couple to a transducer
 - less invasive than (a) and does not require penetration of brain tissue
 - doesn't allow CSF drainage or study of cerebral compliance
 - may underestimate high ICP and damping is a problem

c. subdural catheter

- usually subdural space over frontal lobe of non-dominant hemisphere
- prone to signal damping and calibration drift
- Gaelic Model ICT, Camino Laboratories OLM
- potential risk of infection
- does not allow CSF drainage
- doesn't require penetration of brain tissue
- d. intracerebral transducer

- Camino Laboratories

- may also be implanted extradurally
- requires catheter placement into brain tissue
- inability to check zero calibration, drain CSF
- risk of infection

• the incidence of *infection* ~ 2-7% with monitoring \geq 5 days, and the risks are slightly greater with dural penetration

• LIGW states rates reported up to 20%, but should be ~ 1% with care

• *intracranial haemorrhage* may be associated with coagulopathy or difficulty during insertion

• with all methods, the zero reference point of the transducer is usually taken as the external auditory meatus

• hydrostatic potential differences between the heart and the brain need to be evaluated when calculating CPP

• LIGW states,

- 1. line from tragus to angle of eye
- 2. perpendicular line at middle and posterior thirds of line above
- 3. zero reference = 2.5 cm cephelad on perpendicular
- *NB*: patient 15° head-up in neutral position same zero reference for MAP transducer
- if patient nursed flat, then reference is the external auditory meatus
- ICP values are often ~ 5 mmHg higher with later method

Intracranial Hypertension

Def'n: sustained pressure with the subarachnoid space ³ 20 mmHg*

variable definitions & lack of agreement* Cucchiara (ASA) states a figure of \geq 40 mmHg other authors use upper limits of 15-25 mmHg

- compensatory mechanisms
 - a. *CSF displacement* to the spinal SA space
 - b. CSF reabsorption
 - i. by the arachnoid villi pressure dependent up to ~ 30 mmHg ICP
 - ii. intraventricular transependymal CSF reabsorption
 - c. reduction in blood volume via compression of the *venous sinuses*
 - results in collapse of the bridging veins entering the saggital sinus
 - \rightarrow back-pressure to the capillary bed with further elevation of ICP
 - d. obliteration of cisternal and convexity CSF spaces \rightarrow
 - i. distortion of CSF reabsorptive pathways & vicious cycle
 - ii. *craniospinal disparity* \rightarrow ICP \neq LP pressure
 - *NB*: cerebral compensation is described in terms of *compliance*, however the true relationship is $\mathbf{\Phi}/\mathbf{dV} \rightarrow elastance$
- sustained pressure > 15 mmHg is abnormal & associated with,
 - a. \uparrow amplitude of arterial oscillations
 - b. \downarrow respiratory waveform
- these effects become more evident > 20 mmHg & > 30 mmHg CBF is reduced

• tissue expansion leads to pressure gradients \rightarrow localised pressure on areas of brain tissue

• thus, *focal ischaemia* is usually evident prior to *global ischaemia*

• *cerebrovasomotor paralysis* occurs as the areas of ischaemic tissue increase and global autoregulation fails

• this is often heralded by the development of *Cushing's triad*,

- 1. intracranial hypertension
- 2. arterial hypertension
- 3. reflex bradycardia

• under these circumstances the normal compensatory mechanisms become counterproductive and central to the generation of *global ischaemia*

A waves:	Lunberg's plateau
	• large waves, 5-20 min duration £50-100 mmHg
	• associated with a <i>baseline ICP</i> > 20 mmHg
	• rapid rise & descent, several times / hr
	 exhaustion of intracranial spatial compensation associated with increased CBV & decreased CBF
	 associated with increased CBV & decreased CBF ? due to a variable CPP with intact autoregulation
	** pathological **
B waves:	• rhythmic (1/min) oscillations £50 mmHg
	• partly related to depression of consciousness
	often associated with periodic breathing
	• usually disappear with mechanical ventilation
C waves:	• rhythmic (4-8/min) oscillations £20 mmHg

NB: various authors state, "ICP monitoring has been shown to decrease *mortality* and improve outcome by guiding optimal therapy to prevent reduction in CPP < 40 mmHg" ?? reference</p>

• Aetiology of Intracranial Hypertension T.Oh

a. *intracranial*

- i. head injury
- ii. tumours
- iii. subarachnoid haemorrhage
- iv. intracranial haemorrhage
- v. hydrocephalus
- vi. pseudotumour cerebri
- vii. post ischaemia ?? oedema omitted
- viii. infective

b. extracranial

ii.

- i. hypertension strokes
- encephalopathy
 - impaired venous drainage
- iii. infection SIRS
- iv. metabolic encepalopathy
- v. Reye's syndrome
- vi. osmolar imbalance
- vii. dialysis related
- viii. hypoxia & hypercarbia

• these produce raised ICP by 1 of, or any combination of 4 mechanisms,

- 1. intracranial *mass effect*
- 2. cerebral *oedema*
- 3. *CSF* retention
- 4. increased cerebral *blood volume*
- **NB:** management is then directed at these 4 mechanisms

Oxygen Consumption

• the cerebral rate of O_2 usage (C-VO₂) ~ 49 ml/min for a 1400g brain

• this equates to ~ 20% of the total body O_2 consumption

• the brain is extremely sensitive to hypoxia, occlusion of the blood supply resulting in unconsciousness in < 10 secs

• the vegetative structures in the brainstem are more resistant to hypoxia than the cortex

• the *basal ganglia* also use O_2 at a rapid rate and hypoxic injury, therefore, frequently results in intellectual dysfunction and Parkinsonian symptoms

Energy Sources

• glucose is the major ultimate energy source under normal conditions

• the normal *respiratory quotient* for cerebral tissue is ~ 0.95 to 0.99

• during prolonged starvation appreciable utilisation of other substances occurs

• even under normal conditions, as much as 30% of glucose taken up by the brain is converted to amino acids and lipids

• *insulin* is not required for the cerebral uptake of glucose

• uptake is increased in active neurones, as is that of 2-deoxyglucose, however the later is not metabolised and uptake of radioactive labelled tracer is used to map cerebral activity

• there is an average decrease of 30% uptake in all areas during slow wave sleep

• Hypoglycaemia

• the symptoms of hypoglycaemia include,

- 1. mental changes, confusion
- 2. ataxia, convulsions
- 3. sweating
- 4. coma

• the available glucose and glycogen is exhausted within 2 minutes of cessation of arterial flow

• thus, the brain can withstand hypoglycaemia for longer periods than hypoxia

· as for oxygen, the cortical areas are more sensitive to sublethal exposures to hypoglycaemia

• diabetic patients exposed to chronic hyperglycaemia exhibit a reduced transport of glucose across the BBB and, therefore, may exhibit symptoms of hypoglycaemia at a "normal" BSL

Glutamate & Ammonia Removal

• the brain uptake of *glutamate* is ~ equal to its output of *glutamine*, thereby clearing the CNS of ammonia

• this is effectively the reverse process to the clearance of ammonia by the kidney

• ammonia is very toxic to nerve cells and this process is necessary for normal CNS function, eg. the CNS effects of hepatic coma

Lumbar Puncture

Indications

1. diagnosis

ii.

- i. meningitis / encephalitis
 - CNS malignancy haematological
- iii. Guillain-Barre syndrome
- iv. spinal obstruction
- v. subarachnoid haemorrhage rarely these days
- 2. treatment
 - i. antibiotic / cytotoxic therapy
 - ii. anaesthesia / analgesia / chronic pain
 - iii. antispasmodic therapy

• Normal Findings

1.	cultu	ire	 negative bacterial, fungal, vira 	al, mycobacterial
2.	cell o	count	< 5 mononuclear cells - <i>no</i> neutrophils or rbc	,
3.	biocl i. ii.	nemistry protein glucose	< 0.45 g/l > 2.2 mmol/l	*60-70% plasma levels
	11.	glucose	> 2.2 1111101/1	·00-70% plasma levels
4.	press	sure	~ $6.0-15.0 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$ > 19.0 cmH ₂ O abnorm	al (~ 15 mmHg)

Common Patterns

- 1. bacterial meningitis
 - culture +'ve in most cases if not given ABx previously
 - \uparrow PMN count
 - \uparrow protein
 - \downarrow glucose \rightarrow CSF:serum ratio < 0.31 in 70%
- 2. fungal meningitis
 - commonly *cryptococcus* especially in AIDS
 - culture +'ve in ~ 60-70% of cases
 - \uparrow mononuclear cell count
 - \uparrow protein
 - low-normal glucose
 - Indian ink stain \rightarrow cell halos in ~ 20-50%

- 3. viral meningitis
 - culture rarely of value, -'ve for other pathogens
 - high mononuclear cell count * up to 1000/mm³
 - normal-elevated protein
 - normal glucose
- 4. other causes of elevated *mononuclear cell* count
 - encephalitis, multiple sclerosis, TB * rarely > 300/mm³
 - mild rise in cerebral tumours, abscesses, venous thrombosis, poliomyelitis
- 5. SAH
 - only performed following CT scan if diagnosis in doubt
 - last specimen should be centrifuged ASAP & supernant for xanthochromia
 - becomes +'ve after 1-2 hrs, maximal at 7 days & lasts for 3-4 weeks
- 6. malignancy
 - detects meningeal spread in lymphoma / leukaemia
 - associated elevation of protein with normal glucose
- 7. GBS
 - elevated protein without increase in cell count or decreased glucose
 - \rightarrow cytoalbuminologic dissociation
 - levels are characteristically *very high* (up to 10x)
 - other causes of elevated protein are rarely as high & have other changes
 - → meningitis/encephalitis, haemorrhage/infarction, MS, poliomyelitis, tumours

Complications

- 1. bleeding
 - traumatic tap ~ 10-20%
 - clinically significant spinal / epidural haematoma is exceedingly rare
- 2. pain & paraesthesiae
 - up to 10%, requiring no specific therapy
- 3. post-spinal headache
 - standard recommendation is *not* to perform a blood-patch, cf. spinal anaesthesia
 - most indications for LP mean the patient will be lying flat > 24 hrs anyway
- 4. infection
- 5. coning
 - may occur in up to 12% of patients with raised ICP
 - associated mortality ~ 40%

DISORDERS OF CONSCIOUSNESS

Def'n:	confusion:	state of cognitive impairment where the patient is unable to think with customary speed and clarity
	disorientation	state of cognitive impairment where the patient has impaired attention, concentration & <i>immediate memory</i>
	delerium:	state of <i>increased</i> arousal and cognitive impairment, characterized by hallucinations, delusions, agitation, seizures and autonomic hyperactivity
	stupor:	a sleep-like state from which the patient can be aroused only by vigorous, repeated stimulation
	coma:	a sleep-like state from which the patient <i>cannot</i> be aroused

Acute Confusional State

- **NB:** common \rightarrow pain, metabolic, sepsis, electrolytes, drugs
- 1. medical
- 2. psychological
- 3. environmental
- 4. staff

Medical

6.

NB: ie. all the causes of *acute delerium*, especially,

- 1. pain, bladder distension
- 2. anxiety, disorientation
- 3. sleep deprivation, insomnia
- 4. metabolic changes
- hypoxia, hypoglycaemia, hypercarbia
- fever, hyperthermic syndromes, hypothermia
- uraemia, hepatic encephalopathy
- 5. electrolyte disturbance

haemodynamic

- Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, acidosis
 hypertensive encephalopathy
- hypotension/hypoperfusion
- 15

- 7. drugs
 - i. direct toxicity
 - ii. overdose | withdrawal
 - iii. idiosyncratic
- 8. endocrine

- thyrotoxicosis, hypothyroidism

- sedatives, anaesthetics, narcotics

- alcohol, addictive drugs, amphetamines

- anti-depressants, antihistamines, steroids

- Cushing's, Addison's
- $-\ hyperparathyroidism$
- porphyria
- metabolic
- osmolar change
- pre-existing cerebral disease

vasogenic cerebral oedema

- 11. fat embolism syndrome
- 12. pancreatitis
- 13. severe burns

Psychological

9.

10.

- 1. personality, anxiety
- 2. age, dementia
- 3. previous psychiatric history
- 4. perception of self / illness / prognosis
- 5. 'defence' mechanisms, coping abilities
- 6. lack of support
- 7. sleep deprivation, altered sleep-wake cycle

Environmental

- 1. privacy
- 2. light, noise, visual input
- 3. monotony
- 4. equipment / monitors

2

- fluid shifts l disease - dementia, senility
 - CVA

■ Staff

- 1. communication
- 2. unguarded comments
- 3. pre-occupation
- 4. stress

Management

- 1. resuscitation & supportive therapy
- 2. elimination of contributory factors
- 3. physical restraint
- 4. pharmacological restraint
 - i. benzodiazepines
 - ii. phenothiazines
 - + $D_1 \& D_2$ receptor blocking agents $\pm M_{1/2}, H_1, \alpha_1$ -adrenergic
 - *antipsychotic* activity is largely 2° D₂ receptor activity in the *limbic system*
 - elimination half-life of chlorpromazine ~ 24-48 hrs, however, CNS half-life is clinically shorter
 - dry mouth, constipation, urinary retention
 - blurred vision, hypotension, hypothermia
 - Parkinsonism, opisthotonus, tardive dyskinesia
 - long QT_c / torsade de pointes
 - malignant neuroleptic syndrome
 - cholestatic jaundice, photosensitivity
 - leukopaenia, eosinophilia
 - iii. ethyl alcohol
 - used in DT's and prevention at very low plasma levels with some success
 - iv. propranolol / atenolol

side-effects include

- for autonomic hyperactivity, especially in drug withdrawal
- v. clonidine
 - also used by some in withdrawal states to combate ANS hyperactivity
 - inherent sedative effects & potentiation of other sedatives

COMA

Def'n: "a sleep-like state from which the patient cannot be roused" (LIGW)

*many researchers add a factor of *time* ³ 6 hrs

no <i>verbal</i> response	≤ 2
no eye opening, spontaneous or to stimuli	= 1
<i>motor</i> , not obeying commands	≤ 5
\rightarrow Glasgow Coma Score, <i>GCS</i>	≤ 8

Aetiology

1.

2.

intra	icranial	
i.	vascular	- infarction, haemorrhage
ii.	infection	- meningitis, encephalitis, abscess
iii.	tumour	- mass effect cerebral oedema - haemorrhage
iv.	trauma	 primary parenchymal damage vascular disruption oedema, late infection
v.	hydrocephalus	- communicating non-comunicating
vi.	post-ictal	
vii.	psychiatric	- conversion reaction, depression, catatonia
extra	acranial	
i.	metabolic	 hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis, hypoglycaemia severe ↑↓ osmolality severe ↑↓ Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, K⁺, HPO₄⁼ hepatic uraemic encephalopathy Reye's syndrome, porphyria
ii.	"infection"	- severe SIRS sepsis
iii.	CVS	-
	 embolism hypotension hypertensive of	 thrombotic mycotic air fat amniotic cardiogenic hypovolaemic shock encephalopathy
iv.	endocrine	- pituitary thyroid adrenal dysfunction
v.	drugs	sedatives, analgesics, ethanol, other alcoholslead, other toxins
vi.	physical	hyper hypothermiaelectrocution
vii.	nutritional	 Wernicke's encephalopathy thiamine, B₁₂, pyridoxine

■ <u>Aetiology:</u> Diabetic

a.	hyperglycaemic ketoacidosis	~ 75%
b.	euglycaemic ketoacidosis	~ 18%
c.	hyperosmolar, hyperglycaemic, non-ketotic	~ 5-15%
d.	hypoglycaemia	
e.	alcoholic hypoglycaemic ketoacidosis	
f.	lactic acidosis	
g.	cerebro-vascular disease	
h.	common causes	- trauma, drug ingestion, etc.
i.	uraemia	
j.	bacterial infections	- meningitis, septicaemia

Complications of Coma

a.	respiratory	 airway obstruction acute respiratory failure neurogenic pulmonary oedema abnormal respiratory patterns (Cheyne-Stokes, hyperventilation) aspiration (macro, micro) sputum retention, collapse pneumonia
b.	CVS	 euvolaemic hypotension hypovolaemia arrhythmias venous thrombosis pulmonary emboli
c.	eyes	- keratitis, ulcers
d.	skin	 pressure areas decubitus ulcers (heals, buttocks, sacrum, shoulders)
e.	GUS	- retention / overflow - UTI
f.	GIT	 gastric erosions functional ileus / constipation malnutrition
g.	metabolic	 hypothermia hypoglycaemia electrolyte abnormalities
h.	muscle contractu	ires

Motor response	Verbal response ¹	Eye opening	Total
1. nil	1. nil	1. nil	
2. extensor response	2. incomprehensible sounds	2. to pain	
3. abnormal flexor response	3. inappropriate words	3. to speech	
4. withdraws to pain	4. confused conversation	4. spontaneous	
5. localises to pain	5. orientated speech		
6. obeys command			
6	5	4	3-15

• GCS: Problems

- a. doesn't record
 - i. abnormal *pupil signs*
 - ii. neurological asymmetries
 - iii. the strength of stimulus required to elicit a response
 - iv. other brainstem reflexes, eg. oculocephalic reflex
- b. limited usefulness in
 - i. intubated / ventilated patient
 - ii. language disturbances
 - iii. presence of aphasia, hemiplegia, or quadriplegia
 - iv. "middle" ranges of impaired consciousness

Investigation - Stage 1

- a. history and examination family, observers
- b. immediate
 - i. BSL
 - ii. urinalysis glucose, ketones
- c. $S_pO_2 / AGA's$
- d. biochemistry
 - i. glucose
 - ii. U+E's Na⁺, K⁺, Mg⁺⁺, Ca⁺⁺, HPO₄⁼ * osmolar gap
 - iii. LFT's
 - iv. blood alcohol
 - v. paracetamol & salicylates
 - vi. urine drug screen
- e. FBE / ESR
- f. ECG AMI, AF
- g. CXR malignancy, infection - collapse, aspiration
 - LVF
- h. CT head
- i. lumbar puncture
- j. skull and C_x spine X-ray

Investigation - Stage 2

- a. angiography
- b. EEG
- c. evoked potentials
- d. MRI scanning
- e. nuclear medicine

Specific Investigations

a.	EEG	 useful for epilepsy depth & type of coma technically difficulty
b.	Cortical EP's	 less affected by sedatives useful in paralysed patient tests <i>brainstem</i> functions dynamic investigation some correlation with outcome in trauma technically difficult easier than continuous EEG
c.	Ultrasound A scans	 show midline shifts rapid portable non specific
d.	CT scan	 macro-anatomic picture readily available technical difficulties, eg. transfer, airway, monitoring no indication of function or microanatomy static investigation expensive radiation hazards
	i. non-contrast	 haemorrhage hydrocephalus oedema infarction tumours bony abnormalities
	ii. contrast	 abscess tumours eg. glioblastoma vascular anomalies subacute subdural

e. ICP monitoring qv.

Prognosis in Non-Traumatic Coma

All Non-Traumatic Coma Patients

- only ~ 16% made a satisfactory neurological recovery
 - 1. ~ 61% died
 - 2. ~ 12% did not improve from a vegetative state
 - 3. ~ 11% had moderate disability

NB: SAH and CVA had a worse prognosis than metabolic and non-structural damage

- most of the improvement occurred within the first months
- · those suffering hypoxic damage had an intermediate survival

Poor Prognostic Signs

a. <u>on admission</u>

• *no signs useful for discriminating outcome from coma at this stage

b. <u>day 2</u>

- i. absent light reflexes
- ii. absent corneal reflexes
- iii. abnormal caloric and/or oculocephalic reflex
- iv. absent motor response to pain

*normal responses in the above tests had a better prognosis

c. <u>day 4</u>

- i. absent light reflexes
- ii. absent corneal reflexes
- iii. absent motor response to pain

d. <u>1 week</u>

- i. absence of eye opening
- ii. absence of spontaneous eye movements
- iii. absent light reflexes or absent corneal reflexes
- iv. abnormal oculocephalic and oculovestibular reflexes

Hypoxic-Ischaemic, Non-Traumatic Coma Patients

- most patients who recover,
 - a. do so within a short *time* ~ 90% by day 3
 - b. had normal *pupillary reflexes*
 - c. continued to improve over the first 1-3 days

<u>Poor Prognostic Factors</u>

a.	on admission	 no pupillary light reflex <i>no factors</i> actually predictive at this stage
b.	day 1	 GCS:M ≤ 3 - abnormal flexor response to pain disconjugate, or no spontaneous eye movements
c.	day 3	 GCS:M ≤ 3 - abnormal flexor response to pain disconjugate, or no spontaneous eye movements
d.	1 week	- GCS: $M \le 5$ - no motor response to command - disconjugate or no spontaneous eye movements
e.	2 weeks	 GCS:M ≤ 5 - no motor response to command no improvement in eye movements from day 3 no oculocephalic reflex

f. myoclonic seizures, any stage

Myxoedema Coma

- usual scenarios,
 - a. hypothyroidism unmasked by *concurrent illness*
 - b. known hypothyroid \rightarrow *emergency surgery*
- precipitating factors for coma,
 - a. surgery, trauma, anaesthesia
 - b. sepsis, severe illness
 - c. hypothermia
 - d. sedatives, narcotics
 - NB: mortality ~ 50%
- Clinical Features

a.	\downarrow BMR	~ 40-50%		
b.	CVS	- ↓ CO ~ 4	ction ~ 50-60% 0% galy, pericardial et	ffusion ~ 60%
c.	\uparrow SNS activity \rightarrow	± hyperten	sion (? 2° hyperca	urbia)
d.	\downarrow blood volume	~ 10-25%		
e.	baroreceptor dysfunction	on & blunted	d response to	- IPPV - hypovolaemia - valsalva
f.	ECG		itudes or inverted T wav depolarization, b	
g.	respiratory	$-\downarrow$ MBC $-\downarrow$ D _{co}		
	• impaired respiratory	^r drives	- O ₂ ~ 10-15% - CO ₂ ~ 30-40%	of normal
h.	electrolytes	$- \downarrow BV$ - $\uparrow ECF vc$ - inappropri- low Na ⁺ - impaired		

i.	drugs	- increased t _{1/28} 's
		- impaired liver and renal excretion
		- \downarrow MAC for volatile agents
		- \uparrow sensitivity to sedatives and narcotics
j.	CNS	 ↑ sensitivity to sedatives and narcotics tendency to hypothermia
		5 51
		* $C-VO_2$ <i>not</i> decreased, except with hypothermia

Assessment

a.	severity	 <i>bradycardia</i> <i>hyporeflexia</i> with slow recovery <i>temperature</i> skin, hair, facies, voice
b.	CVS	 bradycardia hypertension ischaemia CCF
c.	respiratory	 hypoventilation, P_{aCO2} pulmonary oedema infection
d.	CNS	conscious stateairway protection reflexes
e.	essential Ix	- U&E's, glucose, TFT's if not already done- Hb, WCC- CXR, ECG

Treatment

a.	assisted	ventilation	with slow	correction	of hype	ercarbia
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- b. IVT with glucose for *hypoglycaemia* may need CVC & $D_{50}W^*$
- c. water restriction &/or hypertonic saline for *hyponatraemia**
- d. passive rewarming for *hypothermia* (raise by $< 0.5^{\circ}$ C/hr)
- e. $\mathbf{T}_3 \sim 5-20 \ \mu \text{g IV}$ in 100 ml N.saline slowly over 30-60 min, or $\mathbf{T}_4 \sim 200-500 \ \mu \text{g IV} (\rightarrow \text{more constant } \mathbf{T}_3 \text{ levels})$ ** *no* studies as to best dose or form of replacement
- f. *hydrocortisone* 300 mg on first day, reducing over a few days
- g. treat underlying illness
- h. avoid sedatives, narcotics, etc.

Preparation for Emergency Surgery

- a. avoid sedatives, narcotics
- b. ? antacids, Ranitidine, intubate if airway reflexes absent
- c. *hydrocortisone* 100 mg IV 6 hrly for first 24 hrs
- d. commence T_3 replacement if,
 - i. no active IHD
 - ii. no depression of conscious state (pre-coma or coma)
 - iii. surgery can be delayed a few hours to assess the effect of T_3
 - iv. continuous ECG monitoring available, viz.
 - $T_3 \sim 5-20 \ \mu g$ in 100 ml N. saline IV slowly over 30-60 min
- NB: otherwise withhold until after surgery and give low dose slowly

COMA: Common, Non-traumatic Causes

- 1. hypoglycaemic
- 2. hyperglycaemic ketoacidosis
- 3. hyperosmolar, hyperglycaemic, non-ketotic
- 4. alcoholic hypoglycaemic ketoacidosis

Hypoglycaemic Coma

a.	drugs	 excess insulin oral hypoglycaemics β-blockers alcohol 	?? induce or perpetuate
b.	severe liver disease	- fulminant hepatic fail	ure, any cause
c.	endocrine	- hypopituitary - hypothyroidism - hypoadrenalism	
d.	malignancy	- insulinoma - sarcoma - metastatic carcinoma	
e.	post-gastrectomy		
f.	factitious	?? how	
g.	post-ictal hypoglycaem	nia	

Hyperosmolar, Hyperglycaemic, Non-ketotic Coma

Def'n:	hyperglycaemia, <i>without</i> ketosis dehydration hyperosmolarity \geq 320 mosm/l	\rightarrow	<i>mortality</i> ~ 50% (40-70%)

NB: Osmolarity ~ $(2 \times Na^+) + glucose + urea$ True Na⁺ ~ measured Na⁺ + [(glucose - 6)/3]

Pathogenesis

- a. insulin lack & hyperglycaemia * but enough insulin to prevent ketosis
- b. impaired renal function exaggerating high glucose and hyperosmolality
- c. fluid restriction (eg. impaired thirst mechanism from CNS disease or sedatives)
- d. osmolality \geq 350 mosm/kg \rightarrow *coma*

Presentation

a.	precipitating event	- infection
		- AMI
		- stroke
		- haemorrhage
		- trauma
b.	drugs	- phenytoin
	-	- propanolol
		- immunosuppressants
		- thiazides
		- cimetidine
	\ all impair	ingesting a constitute on ingesting a stick
	\rightarrow all impair	insulin <i>secretion</i> or insulin <i>action</i>
c.	→ an mpan fever	- with or without infection
c. d.	-	
	fever	- with or without infection
	fever	with or without infectiondisorientation
	fever	with or without infectiondisorientationtremors
	fever	 with or without infection disorientation tremors seizures ~ 30%
d.	fever neurological	 with or without infection disorientation tremors seizures ~ 30% coma ~ 50%
d.	fever neurological	 with or without infection disorientation tremors seizures ~ 30% coma ~ 50% ~ 99%

Investigations ¹				
glucose	~	50-60	mmol/l	
acetone (ketones)	~	4-6	mmol/l	normal or slightly elevated
osmolality	~	380	mosm/l	• often > 50%
pH	~	7.3-7.4		normal or mild acidosis
HCO ₃ ⁻	~	17-22	mmol/l	
Na ⁺	~	144	mmol/l	~ 160 mmol/l "corrected"
\mathbf{K}^{+}	~	5	mmol/l	
urea	~	10-15	mmol/l	\rightarrow <i>low</i> U:C ratio
creatinine	~	0.4	mmol/l	$\rightarrow 10000.0000$
average fluid deficit	~	10	litres	
DIC				occasionally
¹ average values, Arieff 1972, HPIM 12 th Edition				

Treatment

- a. ABC
- b. expand ECF initially with N. saline, then 0.45% saline, according to CVP and U/O
- c. replace K⁺
- d. infuse insulin at *slow rate* ~ 3 U/hr
 - elderly are sensitive to insulin
 - a rapid fall in plasma glucose may result in *cerebral oedema*
 - therefore, aim to reduce glucose by $\leq 3 \text{ mmol/l/hr}$
- e. low dose *heparin* ??? anticoagulate
- f. treat underlying cause

• Causes of Death

- a. cerebral oedema post-resuscitation
- b. cerebral infarction thrombosis
 - haemorrhage
- c. primary disease

Hyperglycaemic Ketoacidosis

- *Def'n:* coma resulting from an imbalance in the *insulin:glucagon ratio*, resulting in,
 - 1. extracellular hyperglycaemia
 - 2. intracellular glucose deficit
 - 3. ketoacidosis
 - 4. marked fluid & electrolyte shifts

• the \downarrow insulin:glucagon ratio \rightarrow directly results in,

- 1. hyperglycaemia
- 2. \uparrow lipolysis
- 3. hepatic ketogenesis
- 4. \uparrow catecholamines, cortisol, GH, and glucagon

NB: small amounts of insulin will prevent *ketosis* (cf. basal pancreatic secretion)

• Causes of Death

a. mortality $\leq 5\%$

b.	adults	 precipitating cause hypokalaemia aspiration pneumoni respiratory failure 	* AMI, CVA, sepsis tis, ARDS
c.	children	- cerebral oedema - hypokalaemia	* too rapid treatment

Precipitants

- a. unknown ~ 30%
- b. acute infection ~ 30%
- c. undiagnosed diabetic ~ 15%
- d. no insulin in known diabetic, especially with poor diet control
- e. trauma/surgery

Typical Early Biochemical Abnormalities			
Acidaemia • pH • P _{aCO2} • HCO ₃ ⁻ • ketoacidosis • lactic acidosis	~ 6.9 - 7.15 ~ 8-15 mmHg ~ 5 mmol/l ~ 5 mmol/l ~ 10-15 mmol/l ~ 4-6 mmol/l	• acetoacetate $(N < 0.3)$ • β -OH-butyrate $(N < 1.2)$	
hyperglycaemia	~ 20-40 mmol/l		
hyperkalaemia	~ 5-8 mmol/l	• total <i>deficit</i> ~ 200-700 mmol	
hyperosmolar hyponatraemia	~ 130 mmol/l	• 2° to high glucose & lipids	
hyperosmolality	~ 310-350 mosm/l		
hyperuricaemia		protein breakdown	
↑ FFA	~ 2-4 mmol/l • if higher may	\rightarrow lower Na ⁺ ~ 110 mmol/l	
uraemia	~ 25 mmol/l		
high creatinine	~ 0.3-0.5 mmol/l		

• Late Biochemical Abnormalities

- following treatment these may progress to,
 - 1. hypernatraemia
 - especially if correction solely with normal saline
 - 2. severe hypokalaemia
 - 3. hypophosphataemia
 - 4. hypomagnesaemia
 - 5. hypochloraemia

• Other Features

a.	fluid loss	~ 5-10 litres
b.	full blood count	- high Hct - leukocytosis ~ 15-90,000/ μ l with left shift \rightarrow B ₁₂ or folate deficiency
c.	fever usually absent	- if febrile suspect infection & do septic screen
d.	NaCl usually normal	- vomiting \rightarrow low Cl ⁻ & lower Na ⁺
e.	normal or low $K^{\scriptscriptstyle +} \rightarrow$	* severe deficiency \geq 400 mmol
f.	uraemia	 raised creatinine low <i>urea:creatinine ratio</i> (∝ ketones)
g.	anion gap > 17	 predominantly ketones + some lactate ± SO₄ = & PO₄ =
h.	increases in	 amylase (salivary glands) triglycerides, VLDL and CM uric acid LFT's (ketones interfere with assays, acute fatty liver)
i.	phosphate	 initially high but with R_x may fall precipitately like K⁺ replacement no proven benefit on mortality may reduce the time to recovery and insulin needs
j.	ketones drag H^+ with t	hem in urine, up to 10 mmol H ⁺ /hr
k.	• $\uparrow \beta$ -OHB - wh	sk a small ketoacidosis \propto <i>low redox state</i> ich is <i>not</i> measured by ketone tests ich is measured by ketone tests

• \downarrow AcAc - which is measured by ketone tests

■ <u>Treatment</u>

- a. resuscitate ABC
- b. fluid/volume resuscitation
 - i. colloid ~ 10-20 ml/kg prn
 - ii. crystalloid*

iii.

- 0.9% saline
- **0.45% saline** if corrected $Na^+ > 150 \text{ mmol/l}$
- dextrose when BSL < 20 mmol/l
 - total body *deficit* in energy substrate

Fluid Requirements					
Hour	Crystalloid*				
1 st	• 15-20 ml/kg				
2^{nd}	• 10-15 ml/kg				
3 rd	• 5-10 ml/kg				
4^{th}	• 5-10 ml/kg				
5 th & over	• 2-5 ml/kg				

c. insulin

	i.	loading dose		~ 10-20 ^U IV ~ 0.25U/kg	
	ii.	infusion (U	/hr)	~ BSL / 8	(mmol/l)
d.	pota	ssium	~ 0.3 * 30-	mmol/hr 8 mmol/kg/hr -50 mmol/hr if HC PO ₄ ⁻ and Mg ⁺⁺	CO_3^- used
e.	HCC	D_{3}^{-}	- giv	nsider if persistent pH < 7.0 e 1 mmol/kg in 500 ml (~1.4%) over 1 hr evidence for benefit	
f.	Na/H	2 T		usider if [plasma] < 0.7 mmol/l e as K ⁺ salt 7-10 mmol/hr	
g.	MgS	O_4	- no :	need unless tachya	arrhythmia
h.	treat underlying cause				

• Other Management

- a. repeated monitoring vital signs - UO, CVP - pH, P_{a02}, K⁺, Na⁺, glucose
- b. low dose *heparin*
- c. appropriate *antibiotics*
 - no benefit unless good evidence for infection, ie. febrile & symptoms
- d. other Ix: ECG
 - blood cultures and sepsis workup
 - coagulation

• Causes of Hypokalaemia

- a. extracellular shift with acidosis + osmotic diuresis \rightarrow major cause b. vomiting
- c. neutralisation of ketones
- d. renal Na⁺/K⁺ exchange $\propto 2^{\circ}$ hyperaldosteronism
- e. total body K^+ deficit ~ **200-700 mmol**
 - ~ 15-55 grams !

• Complications of Rapid Correction

- 1. hypokalaemia
- 2. hypophosphataemia
- 3. hypernatraemia
- 4. *hypomagnesaemia* & dysrhythmias
- 5. *cerebral oedema* * especially children

Cheyne-Stokes Breathing

Def'n: abnormal crescendo-decrescendo pattern of periodic breathing

Physiological

- a. infants during sleep
- b. occasionally in otherwise healthy persons

Pathological

- a. cerebral injury vascular
 - trauma
 - oedema
 - infection
- b. overdose of respiratory depressants, esp. narcotics
- c. slow circulation time cardiac failure
 - elderly

BRAIN DEATH

Def'n: 1. irreversible cessation of all functions of the brain,

- 1. loss of consciousness
- 2. loss of brainstem reflexes
- 3. loss of respiratory centre function, **OR**

Def'n: 2. irreversible cessation of intracerebral blood flow

the terms "whole brain death" and "brainstem death" should not be used

Preconditions

- 1. presence of an identifiable cause for *non-remediable* structural brain damage
- 2. absence of,
 - i. CNS depressant drugs > 72 hrs with normal renal function
 - ii. hypothermia $T > 35^{\circ}C$
 - iii. metabolic or endocrine disturbances

• Testing

1. absence of *brain stem reflexes*

i. fixed, dilated, unresponsive pupils

ii.	corneal reflex	
iii.	vestibulo-ocular reflexes	- clear intact tympanic membranes
		- 20 ml iced saline
	oculo-cephalic reflex	*optional, not formally required

- iv. cranial nerve motor response to pain
- v. gag reflex
- 2. no spontaneous *respiration* with 1. $P_{aCO2} > 60 \text{ mmHg}$ 2. pH < 7.3
- 3. confirmation of the above on *two occasions*, independently by *two examiners*
- NB: spinal reflexes may be present

• Guidelines: ANZICS

- "rule of 2's"
 - 1. 2 separate examinations
 - 2. 2 different examiners
 - 3. 2 separate occasions
 - 4. at least 2 hrs apart

• the first examination should not take place until the patient has been comatose for at least 4 hrs

- following hypoxic brain injury, the first examination should occur after at least 12 hrs
- during this time there must be a continuous period of *observation* by nursing staff

• the 2 practitioners may choose to be present at each examination, however, each must perform and be responsible for one of the 2 examinations

• there is no legal requirement for certification of persons not considered for removal of organs for transplantation, though, this is *encouraged*

• if the *preconditions* for clinical diagnosis of brain death cannot be established, then,

- 1. 4 vessel contrast, or digital subtraction *angiography*, or
- 2. radionuclide cerebral perfusion scanning

may be used to demonstrate *absent intracranial blood flow*

NB: the final certificate of death, however, should be signed by 2 practitioners qualified as such, but not including the practitioner who performed the scan

• the *time of death* should be recorded as the time of completion of the second examination

CEREBRAL OEDEMA

- *Def'n:* an increase in the total water content of brain tissue, classically divided into 3 types
 - 1. vasogenic
 - 2. cytotoxic
 - 3. *interstitial*

Vasogenic Cerebral Oedema

Def'n: oedema resulting from increased capillary permeability

- forms in the grey matter but distributed mainly in the more compliant white matter
 - a. ECF ~ plasma filtrate, including the plasma *proteins*
 - b. ECF volume is increased
- the EEG shows *focal slowing*
- associated with,
 - a. tumour[§]
 - b. cerebral abscess[§]
 - c. encephalitis, meningitis
 - d. traumatic head injury * mixed vasogenic/cytotoxic
 - e. haemorrhage
 - f. cerebral vasospasm, hypertensive encephalopathy
 - g. TTP/HUS, pre-eclampsia
 - h. cerebral vasculitis, SLE
 - i. metabolic encephalopathy sepsis
 - hepatic, uraemic
 - electrolytes, hypoglycaemia

Treatment

- a. *steroids* are only useful in abscess or tumour[§]
- b. osmotherapy
 - only useful acutely
 - only if *autoregulation* is normal
 - reduces the volume of remaining *normal* brain tissue
- c. management of primary condition

*???

Cytotoxic Cerebral Oedema

Def'n: oedema resulting from cellular membrane failure & swelling

- neuronal, endothelial and glial cells involved
- both grey and white matter are involved
- there is increased *intracellular* water and Na⁺
- ECF volume is decreased & there is *no* increased permeability of capillaries
- the EEG shows generalised slowing
- occurs in association with,
 - a. hypoxia / ischaemia, cerebral anoxic damage
 - b. hypo-osmolar syndromes, water intoxication
 - c. dialysis disequilibrium
 - d. Reye's syndrome, acute hepatic failure
 - e. meningitis / encephalitis

Treatment

- a. steroids of *no benefit*
- b. osmotherapy only in hypo-osmolar setting

Interstitial Cerebral Oedema

Def'n: oedema resulting from hydrocephalus or raised CSF pressure

- results from CSF circulation blockade
- oedema occurs mainly in *periventricular white matter* & ECF is increased
- the EEG is often normal
- occurs in association with,
 - a. obstructive hydrocephalus
 - b. pseudotumour cerebri
 - c. meningitis

■ <u>Treatment</u>

- a. steroids, osmotherapy and acetazolamide are of uncertain or little use
- b. *shunting* is beneficial for,
 - i. high pressure hydrocephalus
 - ii. normal pressure hydrocephalus + neurological signs

CEREBRAL ISCHAEMIA

NB: has come to encompass: "any diminution of flow sufficient to cause symptoms"

this may result from reduction in O_2 and substrate delivery, and/or insufficient removal of toxic metabolites,

- a. *global ischaemia* cardiac arrest
- b. *global hypoxaemia* drowning, suffocation
 - other causes of respiratory failure
 - initially associated with hyperaemia
 - LIGW divides these into *incomplete* and *complete global ischaemia*
 - clinical & experimental studies suggest normothermic brain is unable to withstand complete ischaemia for > 8-10 min
 - ICP is rarely elevated significantly & severe cerebral oedema rarely follows
 - in all cases, except *intentional cardiac arrest*, brain protection is limited to reducing the period of the insult and resuscitation measures

c. focal ischaemia

i.	stroke	- thrombotic, embolic, haemorrhagic
		- atherosclerosis, remote/local
		- valvular heart disease

- ii. aneurysms, AVM's
- iii. tumours
- iv. surgical SAH, CEA

• *focal ischaemia*, is far more likely to occur during anaesthesia

• the frequency of *perioperative stroke* varies,

a.	carotid endarterectomy	~ 1-20%
b.	CABG surgery	- at least 1% - most authors ≤ 5%
		- most autions $\leq 5\%$

NB: given the finding that CEA is superior to medical treatment with *symptomatic stenosis* > 70%, the frequency is not likely to decrease

• accordingly, as with intentional circulatory arrest, cerebral protective measures should include,

- 1. prophylactic pharmacology
- 2. procedural intervention during detected ischaemia
- 3. initiation of resuscitative measures prior to irreversible neuronal death

Normal Cellular Events

• t	he brain	uses ~ 20% of total body VO_2	~ 50 ml/min ~ 3.5 ml/min/100g
	a.	preservation of <i>cellular integrity</i>	~ 40%
	b.	transmission of <i>neuronal impulses</i>	~ 60%

- when O_2 is abundant, glucose is metabolised to pyruvate, generating ATP from ADP & Pi and NADH from NAD^+

- complete metabolism of pyruvate in the CAC results in regeneration of $\text{NAD}^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$

- in the mitochondria, conversion of NADH + H⁺ \rightarrow NAD⁺ is coupled (albeit indirectly) to the production of ATP from ADP & Pi

- a. the energy from 1 NADH yielding 3 ATP molecules
- b. on balance this results in the generation of **38 ATP** per glucose molecule
- the brain contains low concentrations of ATP & stores minimal glucose as glycogen
- therefore it requires a near constant energy supply
- glucose is transported into the CNS by facilitated diffusion, *independent* of the action of *insulin*
- failure of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATP'ase \rightarrow \uparrow intracellular Na⁺, which in turn,
 - 1. depolarises the membrane, activating *voltage dependent* Ca⁺⁺ channels
 - 2. reduces the clearance of intracellular Ca^{++}

NB: reduction of intracellular Ca⁺⁺ is an energy dependent process, however, accumulation is passive

• calcium plays an integral role in intracellular function,

- a. inhibition of certain enzyme systems hexokinase
- b. stimulation of enzyme systems
- nexokinase
- Ca⁺⁺-ATP'ase
- adenylate cyclase
- *phospholipases A & C*MLCK (smooth muscle)
- c. regulation of actin-myosin interaction
- d. Ca⁺⁺-dependent neurotransmitter release

• The Ischaemic Penumbra

- in the face of declining O_2 supply neuronal function deteriorates progressively rather than in an "all or none" fashion

• the *ischaemic thresholds* for CBF have been well established,

a.	normal CBF	~ 45-55	ml/100g/min	
b.	EEG evidence of ischaemia	~ 22	ml/100g/min	~ 40-50%
c.	EEG becomes isoelectric	~ 15-18	ml/100g/min	~ 30%
d.	irreversible neuronal death	~ 6-10	ml/100g/min	~ 15%
NB:	CBF / SaO ₂ combinations	$< 2 \text{ ml O}_2$	/min/100g	

• as CBF falls below ~ 15 ml/100g/min the decrease in energy supply is *progressive* and neuronal damage occurs, but over a time course of hours rather than minutes

• this region will display EEG evidence of ischaemia but may the recovery some time later if flow is restored

Pathophysiology During Ischaemia

a. ATP depletion

- in the absence of O_2 , the mitochondria neither generate ATP nor regenerate NAD⁺ from NADH
- in order to allow glycolysis to proceed, pyruvate is metabolised to *lactate*, regenerating the NAD⁺ required for the conversion of phosphoglyceraldehyde to 3-phosphoglycerate
- Pinsky et al. would argue that the reduction in ICF pH is due to,
- i. the unreplenished hydrolysis of $ATP \rightarrow ADP + H^+$
- ii. *not* pyruvate \rightarrow lactate, as this generates no net H⁺
 - H^+ reduction of pyruvate released when PGA \rightarrow 3-PG
- on balance this results in the generation of **2 ATP** per glucose molecule
- after ~ 20 sec of complete ischaemia synaptic transmission is no longer possible and the EEG becomes *isoelectric*
- creatine phosphokinase approaches zero at 1 min and ATP at 5-7 minutes

b. *Ionic failure*

- the later process is insufficient to sustain homeostatic cellular function
- initially there is a failure of the Na^+/K^+ -ATP'ase

 \rightarrow an efflux of K⁺ and an influx of Na⁺ and Cl⁻

- when ECF K⁺ reaches ~ 15 mmol/l membrane depolarisation and opening of *voltage dependent* Ca⁺⁺ channels results in massive Ca⁺⁺ influx
- membrane bound Ca^{++} pumps fail, in part due to the reduction in ATP, but also due to the increased load of Ca^{++} & the raised intracellular Na^{+}
- these ion exchange failures become unabated within 2-4 minutes

c. Excitatory neurotransmitter release

- depolarisation leads to the release of excessive *glutamate & aspartate*
 - \rightarrow excitatory neurotransmitter at NMDA, AMPA & kainate receptors
- these receptors are,
- i. concentrated in areas most vulnerable to ischaemia
- ii. coupled to an ionophore
- \rightarrow extremely high Ca⁺⁺ conductance
- \rightarrow ionotropic
- iii. coupled to metabolic processes \rightarrow *metabotropic*
- · activity is raised during periods of neuronal hyperactivity, eg. following ischaemia
- activation induces "burst-firing" which may be responsible for *ischaemic seizures*
- unlike other excitatory receptors, there is *no down-regulation* during ischaemia

Receptor	Functions	Modulatory Sites
NMDA	 opens Ca⁺⁺/Na⁺ channels modulates 2nd messengers 	 glycine binding site channel site Mg⁺⁺ MK-801 pH-sensitive polyamine site NO binding site
AMPA	• opens Ca ⁺⁺ /Na ⁺ channels	• benzodiazepine modulatory site
Kainate	 opens mainly Na⁺ channels 	
	 Up-Regulation O₂ free radicals Ca⁺⁺ glycine substantia nigra input nitric oxide 	 Down-Regulation hypothermia Mg⁺⁺ adenosine catecholamines (AD, NA) zinc GABA'ergic neural input

d. Calcium accumulation

- raised ICF Ca⁺⁺ leads to activation of *phospholipases A & C*, with subsequent hydrolysis of membrane lipids and accumulation of *arachidonic acid*
- FFA's have been shown to increase throughout the ischaemic period \rightarrow membrane damaging effects & organelle dysfunction
- during incomplete ischaemia, as in *reperfusion*, arachidonic acid is further
 - metabolised to prostaglandins, thromboxanes & leukotrienes
- oxidation also produces *free radicals* which lead to lipid and protein damage

e. Nitric Oxide

- one of the principal neurotransmitters of the CNS
- synthesized from *l-arginine* by *NO-synthase*
- three major forms of NOS \rightarrow brain, endothelial and macrophage
- 2 functional subtypes,
- i. constitutive NOS (cNOS) brain & endothelium
 - activated by $Ca^{\!\scriptscriptstyle +\!\!\!+}\,/\,calmodulin$
- ii. inducible NOS (iNOS) macrophages
- when l-arginine concentrations are low, cNOS can form toxic free radical species \rightarrow superoxide & hydrogen peroxide
- iNOS is *calcium independent* and can form large quantities of NO in response to cytokine & lipopolysaccharide stimulation
- CNS NO levels show a *triphasic* response with,
- i. ischaemia [NO] increases then decreases with prolonged ischaemia
- ii. reperfusion [NO] increases again
- studies have given variable results, probably as reduced species also exist,
- i. NO activates the NMDA receptor
- ii. NO· reacts with superoxide to form *peroxynitrite* (ONOO⁻)
- iii. NO⁺ reacts with thiol groups on NMDA & blocks the receptor

f. Lactic acidosis

- animal studies using MCA occlusion show almost a 4-fold rise in lactate within 30 minutes, with levels rising to ~ 17 mmol/kg by 3 hours
- levels in the region 16-20 mmol/kg are considered the threshold above which tissue damage occurs
- i. necrosis of endothelial cells & rupture of astrocytes
 - \rightarrow reduced collateral flow
- ii. denaturation & inactivation of cellular proteins
- iii. suppression of the generation of NAD⁺ from NADH
- iv. production of O_2 free radicals
- other authors claim lactate itself is fairly *innocuous* and that it is the associated pH change which results in cellular damage

g. Glucose potentiation of ischaemic damage

- supported by primate models of focal and global ischaemia, and by *retrospective* outcome studies of global ischaemia in humans
- during complete ischaemia, high brain levels of glucose allow continued anaerobic glycolysis, with the production of $\rm H^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ and lactate
- IV administration of glucose during or prior to an ischaemic event may worsen neurological outcome and should *perhaps* be avoided in high risk situations, ie. cardiac surgery and carotid endarterectomy

h. *Free radical generation*

- a free radical is a chemical species with an *unpaired electron*
- superoxide (O_2) appears to be one of the important species
- ischaemia increases levels of reducing species (NADH, lactate, H⁺, xanthine)
- xanthine dehydrogenase is converted to *xanthine oxidase*, ? 2° to Ca⁺⁺
- this enzyme is the major source of O_2^- during *reperfusion* of ischaemic tissue
- other species produced include lipid peroxide (ROO⁻), lipid hydroperoxide (RHOO⁻) and hydrogen peroxide (HO⁻)
- mechanisms of damage include,
 - ↑ *phospholipase* activity & arachidonic acid formation
- ii. \uparrow membrane permeability & Ca⁺⁺ influx
- iii. protein cross-linking and strand scission
- iv. release of enzymes from liposomes
- v. mitochondrial disruption and decreased ATP formation
- *superoxide dismutase* catalyses the conversion of O_2^- to H_2O_2 , which is then converted to water and oxygen
- there is no physiological defence system against HO⁻ radicals (? catalase)

Reperfusion Injury

i.

• during ischaemia *autoregulation* is non-functional and perfusion is dependent upon CPP and vessel calibre

• reperfusion results in a 15-30 minute period of 100-200% hyperaemia

• this is the result of formation of *NO* and *adenosine* from the breakdown of AMP

• *adenosine* has protective effects during ischaemia, but its breakdown products may lead to a surge of free radical formation

- followed by a prolonged (6-48h) period of *hypoperfusion*, which is usually heterogeneous
- CBF decreases to ~ 5-40% of 'normal' due to arteriolar vasoconstriction, the *no reflow phenomenon*, which is proportional to the decrease in C-VO₂

• endothelial cell damage results in an imbalance of the production of PGI, & TXA,

• free radicals react with membrane phospholipids to produce *lipid peroxides*, which selectively inhibit the formation of prostacycline

• upon reoxygenation the large pool of arachidonic acid is then converted predominantly to

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{thromboxane} & \rightarrow & \text{vasoconstriction} \\ & & \text{platelet aggregation} \\ & & \text{microvascular occlusion} \end{array}$

• other factors contributing to the decrease in CBF include,

- a. $\uparrow Ca^{++}$ in vascular smooth muscle \rightarrow *vasoconstriction*
- b. \downarrow RBC deformability during ischaemia \rightarrow \uparrow blood *viscosity*
- c. ischaemic *cytotoxic oedema* \rightarrow \uparrow extravascular resistance
- d. *vasogenic oedema* (hours-days) \rightarrow \uparrow extravascular resistance

• Mechanisms of Repair

- excititoxic neurotransmitters, eg. *glutamine*, and subsequent Ca⁺⁺ entry
 - \rightarrow transcription / translation of *immediate early genes* IEG's

• IEG's, like *cfos* and *cjun*, signal the coding for *repair proteins*

· requires coordinated production of "stress proteins",

1.	HSP family	
2.	nerve growth factor	NGF
3.	glucose transporters	GT ₁₋₃
4.	brain-derived neurotrophic factor	BDNF
5.	neurotroponin-3	NT ₃

• highest levels occur in damaged cells capable of survival, and as a part of *diachisis*

• induction of these substances prior to ischaemia, or enhanced production following ischaemia is protective in animal models

· conversely, with inhibition damage is enhanced

NB: thus, agents which block *excitotoxicity* can themselves be harmful, depending upon the time-frame of administration

• IEG's also stimulate the expression of genes for *programmed cell death* **PCD**

- neurones dying from necrosis ultimately succumb from disrupted membrane integrity
- those dying from PCD shrivel up with their membrane intact, while DNA is autodigested

• this is the same process as *apoptosis* which occurs during development, weeding-out

approximately half of the neurones produced during neurogenesis, selecting those with appropriate functional interconnections

NB: much of the delayed neuronal death subsequent to reperfusion appears to be due to PCD, \therefore the assumption that all neuronal death is bad may be quite incorrect;

this is supported by the known *poor correlation* between functional outcome and histological damage

• damaged circuits may effectively add *noise* and render the system non-functional unless removed

Cerebral Protection

Def'n: physical or pharmacological actions aimed at mimising *neuronal death* secondary to an ischaemic event, including *neuronal salvage* following such an event

• Strategies for Protection

- 1. increasing regional *blood flow* and DO_2
- 2. decreasing *metabolism*
- 3. preventing/reducing loss of normal cellular *ion gradients*
- 4. blocking production of *toxic metabolites*
- 5. *scavenging* those metabolites which are produced

• Methods of Protection

1.	phys	hysiological / homeostatic			
	i.	maintenance of	- MAP, CPP, DO ₂		
	ii.	prevention of	 hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis <i>hyperglycaemia</i> hyponatraemia, hypoosmolality 		
2.	phys	ical			
	i.	hypothermia	 deep hypothermic arrest / mild hypothermia * following arrest, no benefit & may be harmful 		
	ii.	haemodilution			
	iii.	hypertension			
	iv.	surgery	- CSF drainage, decompression		
3.	phar	macological			
	i.	depression of C-VO ₂	 barbiturates, propofol, etomidate, benzodiazepines volatile GA's 		
	ii.	Na ⁺ -channel blockade	- lignocaine, QX-314, QX-222		
	iii.	Ca++-channel blockade	- nimodipine, nicardipine, flunarizine, Mg ⁺⁺		
	iv.	glutamate receptor blockade			
		 NMDA - dize AMPA - NB 	<i>ocipline</i> (MK-801), dexmedetomidine, dextromethorphan QX		
	v.	membrane stabilisation			
		• steroids - met	hylprednisolone		
	vi.	free radical scavenging			
		• vitamin E, steroids,	dihydrolipoate, PEG-SOD		

NB: some agents, eg. STP, may act via multiple effects

• Hypothermia

- remains the most effective means of reducing C-VO₂,
 - a. Temp ~ $27^{\circ}C \rightarrow C-VO_2 \sim 50\%$
 - b. Temp ~ $17^{\circ}C \rightarrow C-VO_2 \sim 8\%$
 - *NB*: the need for formal testing is obviated by the observation that human brains often recovery after an hour of intentional circulatory arrest at 12-15°C

• although hypothermia to 28°C is routinely used during non-circulatory arrest bypass surgery, its efficacy has not been *prospectively* established

• Wong et al. (Lancet 1992) compared warm CPB (34.7°C) with hypothermic CPB (27.8°C)

- a. all seven neuropsychological tests were "better" in the "warm" group, however, only one test difference achieved statistical significance
- b. this would support that *mild hypothermia* is equally "protective", though, this is a preliminary study and numbers are too small to draw statistical significance

• recent laboratory work suggests that the principal protective effects of hypothermia are due to reduced *glutamate & dopamine* release

• unfortunately, the deleterious membrane effects of hypothermia are quantitatively similar to those of ischaemia, but simply take longer to develop

• hypothermia, however is not nearly as deleterious as *normothermic hypoxia*

• accordingly, patients subjected to deep hypothermia & circulatory arrest can usually re-establish ion gradients if *perfusion* is restored

• this is a reasonable prospect following bypass, but is unlikely if the heart is relied upon for circulation, as the adverse membrane effects impair cardiac function

• Mild Hypothermia

in distinction to deep hypothermia, the beneficial effects of *mild hypothermia* are likely to outweigh the manageable adverse effects (NB: Sano *et al.* Anesth., 1992)
effects of intraoperative mild hypothermia are attributed to,

- 1. reduction of *glutamate, glycine* and *dopamine* release
- 2. recovery of *ubiquitin* synthesis
- 3. inhibition of protein kinase C
- 4. reduction of free-radical induced *lipid peroxidation*

NB: however, probably relates to diminution of all of the adverse effects of ischaemia

• Berntman *et al.* (Anesth.1981) found that $1^{\circ}C$ of hypothermia maintained ATP levels during a hypoxic insult which resulted in 50% depletion at $37^{\circ}C$

- hypothermia to 34° C more than doubles preservation of PCr

• the initial decline in C-VO₂ during hypothermia appears *exponential*, not linear

• 4 recent (animal) studies have shown improved CNS *outcome* even when hypothermia (31-34°C) was induced *subsequent* to the injury

• LIGW states *no benefit* post-global ischaemia, but references are old

Induced Hypertension

- in focal ischaemia, improved outcome is the result of better *colateral flow*
- following global ischaemia, this may reduce the degree of post-ischaemic hypoperfusion
- · gaining some evidence for reduction of deficits
- however, associated risks of,
 - 1. elevating ICP
 - 2. rebleeding / ICH
 - 3. aggravating oedema

• Anaesthetic & Adjuvant Drugs

• reducing C-VO₂ is the main theory for pharmacological management of ischaemia

barbiturate administration is the only such intervention which has proven useful in humans
only during *focal ischaemia*, where BBTs have been shown in numerous studies to reduce

• only during *focal ischaemia*, where BB1s have been shown in numerous studies to reduce infarct volume

- in addition to lowering C-VO₂, pentobarbital often reduces ICP refractory to mannitol & hyperventilation

• some experimental work in animals suggests that a part of the protective effect of the barbiturates is due to vasoconstriction in healthy brain with shunting of CBF to the injured area

- however, other workers have argued against this effect, "reverse steal" (GOK)
- other effects include,
 - 1. reducing the influx of Ca^{++}
 - 2. inhibiting free radical formation
 - 3. potentiation of GABA'ergic activity
 - 4. reduction of cerebral oedema
 - 5. ability to block Na⁺ channels *may be 1° mechanism of \downarrow C-VO₂

• the ability of the barbiturates to be protective after global ischaemia remains controversial

NB: the one large randomised study (NEJM Study Group 1986) found only a statistically *insignificant* trend in favour of barbiturate therapy following cardiac arrest

" therefore, use of barbiturates should be restricted to management of status epilepticus, and to facilitate mechanical ventilation" (LIGW)

- propofol reduces CBF, C-VO₂ and ICP similar to STP, but with a faster recovery
- may cause dramatic falls in CPP 2° to reductions in MAP >> ICP
- has been shown to be protective of hippocampal neurones following ~ 7 minutes of anoxia
- protective effects have been disputed by more recent studies

• *midazolam* reduces $C-VO_2$ in humans and animals and has shown some protective effects for hippocampal neurones following anoxic damage, by maintaining ATP and reducing Ca^{++} efflux

• Calcium Channel Blockade

early studies with *nimodipine* showed benefit, however even the benefit following acute *subarachnoid haemorrhage* has now been seriously challenged (Mercier *et al.*, Neurosurg '94)
the National Stroke Association (USA) still recommends nimodipine 60 mg qid for grade 1,2 & 3

SAH patients, preferrably starting within 6 hours of haemorrhage

initial enthusiasm for use following *ischaemic stroke* and head injury has diminished
a meta-analysis of pooled data from 5 studies showed a small benefit if administered early (12-18

hours) after the onset of symptoms (Gelmers et al., Stroke 1990)

• some of the lack of efficacy may relate to the presence of multiple Ca⁺⁺ channels, as the *dihydropyridine* class only block voltage gated L-channels

• PRCT of 51 cardiac arrest patients showed a reduction in the "no reflow" phenomenon, but there was no alteration of *outcome* (Forsman, *et al*, Anesth-Anal '89)

• PRCT of 520 cardiac arrest patients & IV *lidoflazine* showed no improvement in neurological outcome (Brain Resuscitation Clinical Trial II Study Group, NEJM 1991)

• *nicardipine* is another agent with cerebrovascular relaxant properties, similar to nimodipine, but is easier to administer IV

• recent multicentre trial in SAH patients showed similar results to nimodipine,

- a. angiographic and CBF measurements showed a reduction in *vasospasm*
- b. "no improvement in *outcome* at 3 months when compared to standard management"

• however, this study essentially compared the nicardipine group to a *hypertensive/hypervolaemic* group in ICU, monitored with PA and radial artery catheters, with the nicardipine group requiring significantly fewer days ICU

• other **Ca**⁺⁺ *channel blockers*, particularly *flunarizine* have shown potential for direct neuronal protection in laboratory work

more recent work suggests the effects of flunarizine are probably due to Na⁺-channel blockade
Mg⁺⁺ is a potent inhibitor of Ca⁺⁺ entry and has shown protective action *in vitro* and has recently been shown to be beneficial *in vivo*

• Na^+ *channel blockers* should contribute to the stabilisation of neuronal membranes

• both lignocaine and phenytoin have shown some promise in laboratory work

• quaternary LA derivatives **QX-314** and **QX-222** have been shown to be more protective than either lignocaine or procaine, with less conduction blockade

• *riluzole* has shown some protective action in animal models, and has been shown to be useful in the treatment of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis in humans

• Excitatory Neurotransmitters

- there has been a lot of recent research into the *excitotoxic hypothesis* of cerebral damage
- ischaemia results in the excessive release of the excitatory neurotransmitter *glutamine*

NB: "reducing glutamate release, either by direct inhibitors BW1003C87 or BW619C89, or indirectly through modulation of *adenosine*, is likely to prove more effective than blockade of glutamate receptors"

• the adenosine modulating agent *acadesine* has reduced perioperative stroke rate in 634 CABG patients from 4.5 to 0.5% (Mangano, A&A Refresher Lectures 1994)

• both NMDA and non-NMDA glutamate receptor blockers have proven beneficial in some studies but not in others,

- 1. **MK-801** \rightarrow *dizocipline*, a non-competitive NMDA receptor antagonist
 - protective in a variety of laboratory models
 - effective both with and without hypothermia
 - in conjunction with nimodipine, nicardipine and the σ -agonist SKF-10,047
 - results from less sensitive models disappointing
- 2. **NBQX** \rightarrow an *AMPA* glutamate receptor antagonist (non-NMDA)
 - results may prove better than dizocipline
 - · beneficial in a laboratory model of global ischaemia
- ketamine & *dexmedetomidine* → NMDA receptor antagonism
 both may show some protective effects due to catecholamine reduction
- 4. *dextromethorphan* \rightarrow non-competitive NMDA antagonist
 - protective effects in focal ischaemic models
 - undergoing phase I trials in humans
- 5. CGS-19755
 - competitive NMDA blocker
 - beneficial in a laboratory model of global ischaemia
- 6. 2 endogenous inhibitors of excitatory AA receptors, *kynurenic acid* and *IL-1 receptor antagonist* have been shown to reduce excitotoxic damage
- 7. *muscimol* \rightarrow increases levels of the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA
 - derived from Amanita muscaria
 - has been effective in animal models in combination with dizocipline
- *free radical scavengers* should theoretically be beneficial

• NO and CO are examples of free radicals which are normal neurotransmitters but are toxic in higher concentrations

• these and other radicals are removed by *superoxide dismutases*

NB: there are no randomized clinical trials showing benefit, post cardiac arrest, for any of these agents

• large studies of *glucocorticoids* following cardiac arrest have shown *no benefit* in outcome

• conversely, a large randomised controlled trial has shown that the administration of

methylprednisolone administered within 8 hours of injury reduces spinal cord deficit

• this has not been supported by a subsequent study and routine administration post spinal injury is now uncertain

• *vitamin E* has proven protective *in vitro* with some supportive evidence *in vivo*

• the 21 amino-steroid *tirilazad* (U74006F) has recently entered phase 3 trials

- initial reports showed substantial benefit in SAH
- *superoxide dismutase* has recently been shown to be of benefit during reperfusion
- a preliminary study showed some benefit in CHI
- subsequent RCT (PEG-SOD) showed *no benefit* in acute head injured patients

• the hydroxyl scavenger dimethylthiourea has been shown to reduce the infarct size and brain oedema following MCA occlusion in rats, without affecting CBF

- *NB*: the principal problem with scavenging is the production of free radicals occurs after ischaemia has run its course & other methods of protection are likely to be required in conjunction, ie.
 - i. reduction in $C-VO_2$
 - ii. tolerance of ischaemia without loss of membrane ionic gradients

Agents & Techniques to Avoid

• hyperglycaemia has long been known to worsen the outcome following cerebral ischaemia

• laboratory evidence indicates that even a *mildly* elevated plasma glucose may be deleterious

• the assumption is that an increased supply of glucose leads to increased anaerobic metabolism and lactate production

• however, recent *in vitro* work suggests that an elevation of lactate per se *does not* lead to neuronal damage and may actually ameliorate some of the effects of ischaemia

• *insulin* has been shown to have a protective effect partially independent of a reduction in plasma glucose, however, *hypoglycaemia* is equally as detrimental

NB: until the controversy regarding this is settled, glucose containing fluids are best avoided and *normoglycaemia* should be maintained

• all 3 of the commonly used volatiles increase CBF and ICP

• although *isoflurane* is considered safe for neuroanaesthesia, early enthusiasm for its protective effects *have not* been substantiated

• the association between $C-VO_2$ reduction and protection has been challenged upon these grounds, see argument by Todd & Hanson to follow

others argue that all methods of CMR reduction have deleterious effects, and the net result is a combination of these superimposed upon the protective effect of CMR reduction (Cottrell, ASA)
ie., the benefit of C-VO₂ reduction remains constant, but the cost of achieving this varies with the method used, ranging from mild hypothermia to irreversible neurotoxins

• nitrous oxide has been shown to,

- 1. *elevate ICP* in humans
- 2. aggravate the potential for *gas embolism*
- 3. negate the protective effects of the barbiturates in laboratory studies
- 4. attenuate the beneficial effects of isoflurane relative to N_2O alone
- 5. reduce recovery subsequent to anoxia in the hippocampal slice model

• recent work has shown that the effects of N_2O on ICP and metabolic stimulation are markedly attenuated by the prior administration of thiopentone, or in the isoelectric brain

C-VO₂ & Cerebral Protection

• Todd and Hansen comment that we have long taken an approach to cerebral protection similar to that used for cardiac physiology, ie. control of supply and demand

• the value of increasing supply is unarguable, however, that agents reducing C-VO₂ are also "protective" is open to debate

• Sano et al. compared three groups of rats anaesthetised with either 1.3MAC halothane or isoflurane, or halothane plus *mild hypothermia* (35°C)

• both normothermic groups showed histological evidence of severe damage, cf. the hypothermic/halothane group where damage was dramatically reduced • at the levels used in this study, isoflurane

- reduces the CMR for glucose by 30-50% more than halothane a.
- b. produces burst suppression on the EEG
- c. produces a far greater reduction in C-VO₂ compared with hypothermia to 35°C
- **NB:** therefore, the degree of neuropathological injury in the 3 groups *did not* correlate with the magnitude of *metabolic depression*

Michenfelder 1978

- argued that the barbiturates acted by reducing C-VO₂ linked to synaptic activity
- he concluded that barbiturates would offer little protection if the brain were already isoelectric
- he also carefully avoided the conclusion that protection is directly related to C-VO₂ per se
- most subsequent studies have interpreted his work as saying "metabolic depression protects"
- this idea requires modification for two major reasons,
 - the protective efficacy of the various anaesthetic agents does not parallel their ability to 1. depress the EEG or C-VO₂
 - 2. the protective efficacy of *hypothermia* is not proportional to depression of C-VO₂, nor is it clearly related to the accumulation of metabolic by-products

Alternative Approaches

• ischaemic injury can be temporally divided into three phases,

1. *diminished energy reserve*

- if ischaemia is mild, then anaesthetic agents and hypothermia can reduce C-VO₂ and "buy time"
- with severe ischaemia this target period is short, less than 1-2 min, and probably of little clinical significance
- · once membrane depolarisation has occurred other means of protection are required

2. *complete energy failure*

- signalled by membrane depolarisation, marked Ca⁺⁺ influx, triggering of metabolic pathways, excessive release of certain neurotransmitters
- there are two basic mechanisms of protection during this phase,
- i. prevention of synthesis or release of these compounds
- ii. blockade at their site of action
- it is well known that *mild hypothermia* can block the release of *glutamate*, however, the effects of the anaesthetic agents is largely unknown
- drugs such as *dizocipline* and NBQX block the action of glutamate at two of its receptors, NMDA and AMPA (quisqualate)
- other agents, such as dexmedetomidine may act by augmenting inhibitory transmission

3. reperfusion injury

- the liberation of *free radicals* upon the reintroduction of oxygen
- most anaesthetic agents are relatively poor free radical scavengers
- in the absence of seizures, post-ischaemic hypermetabolism *does not* occur
- therefore, agents directed at C-VO₂ are unlikely to have a profound influence

'Nontraumatic' Cerebral Ischaemia

Def'n: brain protection: treatment implemented *before* a cerebral insult to prevent or minimise brain damage *brain resuscitation:* treatment that is implemented *after* an insult to restore brain function

<u>Cardiac Arrest / Global Cerebral Ischaemia</u>

• factors associated with improved cerebral outcome,

- 1. short ischaemic time
- 2. rapid defibrillation majority VF, pulseless VT
- 3. correct CPR with ~ 50% compression (depth)
- 4. use of adrenaline animal models only, not in human PRCTs
- 5. no hyperglycaemia at time of arrest

• factors most important in improving cerebral outcome after successful CPR,

1. maintenance of oxygen delivery

2.	prevention of secondary injury	- hypotension, hypoxia, hypercarbia
		- convulsions

- hyperpyrexia
- see "reperfusion injury syndrome"

• modalities not associated with improved cerebral outcome,

1.	IPPV	- unless respiratory failure exists
2.	ICP monitoring	- ICH rare in this group
3.	hypothermia	 OK if pre-event but detrimental if prolonged technically difficult, therefore no justification
4.	haemodilution	 may be of some use in <i>regional ischaemia</i> no proven benefit in global ischaemia
5.	osmotherapy	- mannitol, diuretics
6.	steroids	
7.	barbiturates	 - conflicting animal studies - multi-centre UK clinical trial showed <i>no benefit</i> * useful for 2° seizures or excessive posturing
8.	Ca ⁺⁺ entry blockers	 improvement in reperfusion flows conflicting results about neurological outcome * but cause vasodilatation and negative inotropy

9. free radical scavengers, iron chelators, anti-inflammatories

• *outcome* may be classified as,

- 1. good recovery recovery without demonstrable neurological deficit
- 2. moderate disability sufficient cerebral function for daily living
 clearly demonstrable neurological deficit
- 3. severe disability neurologcial deficit requiring institutional care

• alternatively, may use Glasgow outcome score,

- 1. dead
- 2. vegetative
- 3. severely disabled conscious but dependent
- 4. moderately disabled independent but disabled
- 5. good neuropsychological impairment or better

Immediate Outcome 48-72 Hrs

• bad prognostic signs, in the absence of persistent drug or metabolic effects,

1.	decerebrate, or no response to pain	$M \le 2$
2.	no verbal response	V = 1
3.	no eye response	E = 1

4. development of *myoclonic seizures*

Delayed Outcome

- *delayed postanoxic encephalopathy* may follow a lucid interval
- results from diffuse demyelination of the cerebral hemispheres
- occurs at 1-4 weeks post-event with,
 - 1. cognitive or psychiatric impairment
 - 2. cerebellar or pyramidal signs
 - 3. may progress to coma

HEAD INJURY

- leading cause of *death* between the ages of *15-24 years*
- incidence ~ 25-28:100,000 in Australia (1977) ~ *1:4,000*
- hospital admission rates for head injury are

~ 200-300:100,000

- motor vehicle accidents accounting for ~ 60% of deaths 2° to head injuries
- *severe* or "malignant", GCS < 7, head injuries,
 - a. form ~ 9-11% of the total group
 - b. incidence depends upon definition of "severe", (GCS < 9, 7, or 5!)
 - LIGW defines as head injury resulting in *coma* > 6 hrs
 - *NB*: aggressive management / ICU therapy has been shown to *improve outcome*, *without* increasing the number of vegetative or severely disabled survivors (T.Oh)

Pathology

1.	prim	<i>primary</i> brain injury \rightarrow			
	i.	diffuse axonal damage			
	ii.	expanding mass lesions	 intracerebral, subarachnoid, subdural extradural haematoma 		
	iii.	dural tearing			
2.	seco	<i>ndary</i> brain injury \rightarrow			
	i.	cerebral ischaemia	 hypotension, hypoxaemia, anaemia hyperpyrexia, seizures 		
	ii.	intracranial hypertension	 hypertension, vasodilatation, ↑ CBF/CBV venous obstruction mass lesions 		

• Extradural Haematoma

• classical presentation of LOC then *lucid interval* with subsequent rapid LOC

- has a high *mortality* £30% in some series
- this relates to already comatose patients undergoing surgical evacuation

 \cdot LIGW states ~ 10-20% & significantly lower than subdural due to relative absence of underlying cerebral injury

- mortality is significantly higher in those,
 - 1. requiring operative evacuation within 12 hours of admission
 - 2. with an ICP \ge 35 mmHg
 - 3. age > 70

• administration of *barbiturates* is usually effective in reducing refractory intracranial hypertension

<u>Subdural Haematoma</u>

- · results from shearing acceleration/deceleration forces & rupture of bridging veins
- :: relatively high *mortality* ~ 42-63% \propto underlying injury
- collections presenting *within* 72 *hrs* of head injury are termed *acute*
- following haematoma evacuation, acute cerebral oedema may complicate surgical closure
- · these patients frequently require intensive pharmacological control of ICP

NB: Seelig *et al.* NEJM 1981 \rightarrow significant reduction in mortality in the subgroup of ASDH with midline shift > 5 mm if operated on *within 4 hrs*

• chronic subdural haematomas develop slowly and liquefaction has frequently already commenced

• therefore, they can frequently be managed by *burr hole* drainage

• outcome in this group largely relates to the *preoperative state*

Dural Tear

• CSF rhinorrhoea following fracture to the frontal bone is often transient & requires only prophylactic flucloxacillin/gentamicin for 1 week after the leak stops

• identifiable by *glucose* > 2.2 mmol/l

• CSF otorrhoea indicates fractured base of skull & significant cerebral injury

NB: Infection in Neurosurgery Working Party, Lancet 1994 "review of the published work *has not* shown that prophylaxis is beneficial in patients with skull fractures complicated by CSF leaks; indeed, there is evidence that this strategy may be harmful.....antibiotics should be withheld and the patients should be monitored closely for signs and symptoms of early meningitis"

Intracranial Hypertension

- autoregulation is lost and perfusion becomes pressure dependent
- virtually all patients with severe head injury have *reduced* cerebral metabolism
- however, only ~ 45% have a reduction in CBF \rightarrow *luxury perfusion*
- this results in diffuse cerebral hyperaemia & \uparrow ICP, usually lasting ~ 3-4 days

 ICP^1 %Head Injury Mortality < 20mmHg 30% 19% 20-40 mmHg 50% 28% > 4020% 79% mmHg Miller et al. BJA 1985

NB: there is *no correlation* in head injury between cerebral blood flow and GCS, or outcome at 6 months

Management

• about 75% of all HI patients admitted to hospital have a GCS \ge 9 and recover irrespective of the standard of care

• of those with GCS < 9, many have a lethal primary injury and the level of care is virtually insignificant to outcome

• \therefore ~ 10% have a borderline injury, with *mortality* ~ 35-50%, depending upon,

- 1. extent of 1° brain injury
- 2. age
- 3. duration of coma
- 4. degree of raised ICP
- 5. associated injuries

• therapy in this group is directed at preventing secondary injury, which may result from,

- 1. hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis
- 2. hypotension, vasospasm & hypoperfusion
- 3. expanding intracranial lesions focal masses - generalised oedema
- all patients GCS < 9 (?7) require immediate *intubation*, mild hyperventilation and increased F_1O_2
 - a. in-line axial head stabilisation if *cervical pathology* (~ 10%) has not been excluded
 - b. nasal intubation should be avoided
 - *NB:* hyperventilation to $P_{aCO2} \sim 30$ mmHg pre-CT in case there is an expanding mass lesion; once this is excluded, aim for 'normocapnoea' $\rightarrow P_{aCO2} \sim 35$ mmHg

• correction of *hypovolaemia* 2° to blood loss takes precedence over either,

- a. CT scanning
- b. definitive neurosurgical intervention
- maintain normal $C-VO_2$
 - a. seizure prophylaxis
 - b. normothermia or mild hypothermia $> 35^{\circ}$ C
 - c. control sympathetic hyperactivity

• maintain *cerebral perfusion pressure* \rightarrow 60-90 mmHg

Neurological Sequelae

- a. malignant intracranial hypertension
- b. acute mass effect rebleeding
 - acute cerebral oedema
- c. brain herniation syndromes
 - i. nerve palsies 3rd nerve palsy
 - 6th nerve palsy
 - ii. cingulate gyrus
 - iii. uncal gyrus
 - iv. brainstem
- d. epileptic seizure activity
 - 1-2% of head injury patients have grand mal seizures within 48 hrs of injury
 - 5% of CHI and 40% of penetrating HI have seizures following major injury requiring prolonged antiepileptic therapy
- e. posterior pituitary
 - i. SIADH
 - ii. central salt wasting syndrome
 - iii. central DI
- f. focal neurological deficits
- g. vegetative survival
- h. brain death

Systemic Sequelae

a.	cardi	ardiopulmonary		
	i.	resuscitation	 airway obstruct hypoxia, hypere hypovolaemic s 	capnia, acidosis
	ii.	ARDS	aspiration pneupulmonary trau	
	iii.	neurogenic pulm	onary oedema (NI	PE)
	iv.	ECG changes		
b.	haen	natological	- DIC - anaemia in chile	dren
c.	endo	crinological		
	i.	ant. pituitary	* rarely	
	ii.	central salt wasti	ng syndrome	
	iii.	nonketotic hyper	glycaemic coma	 unrecognised diabetics prolonged steroid therapy mannitol, water restriction NG enteral feeding phenytoin
d.	gastr	rointestinal	stress ulceratiosteroid therapy	$n \pm haemorrhage$

• a number of these complications can occur in *nontraumatic* neurological disease

• persistent hypoxaemia requiring raised F_1O_2 or PEEP occurs in ~ 25%

• abrupt onset acute neurogenic pulmonary oedema can accompany severe head injury in young patients *without* a history of CVS disease

• this frequently proves refractory to conventional therapy and only resolves with reduction of ICP

• NPE is associated with intense *sympathetic discharge*, with systemic \pm pulmonary vasoconstriction

· thus, management aimed at blocking sympathetic outflow / activity may be useful

• tachyarrhythmias and ST segment changes may accompany SAH and severe head injury

• the sympathetic overactivity associated with these changes may actually result in punctate areas of myocardial necrosis

· bradycardias requiring treatment with atropine are also seen with raised ICP

• clotting abnormalities have been described following trauma and also manipulation of brain tissue during tumour resection

- this is thought to relate to the release of *brain thromboplastin* into the circulation
- mortality increases markedly when DIC complicates acute head injury
- the DIC is usually self-limiting and resolves with management of the primary problem
- · blood component therapy is rarely required

Severe Head Injury

NB: competent early resuscitation is the most important factor

30-90% are *hypoxic* and/or *hypercapnoeic* on arrival at hospital

Factors in Secondary Injury		
Early	Delayed	
 hypoxia hypercarbia hypotension convulsions hyperpyrexia obstructed venous return pain 	 haemorrhage hydrocephalus (high or normal pressure) infection chronic subdural cystic hygroma 	

• Indications for Intubation / IPPV

- a.airway obstruction / protectionb.hypoventilation- P_{aCO2} > 45 mmHgc.hypoxia on 60% F_1O_2 P_{aO2} < 80 mmHg</td>d.tachypnoea- RR> 25
- e. GCS < 9
- f. hyperthermia
- g. seizures
- h. severe chest or abdominal injury
- i. CT scan & need for sedation
- j. ICP > 30 mmHg and unresponsive to therapy

Investigation	
Indications for <i>CT head</i>	Indications for <i>Skull XR</i>
focal CNS signs	moderate risk groupCT scan not necessary
• GCS < 9	• GCS ≥ 9
• deteriorating GCS without 2° cause	
• penetrating or depressed skull #	

ICP Monitoring

NB: those that *may benefit* from ICP monitoring (~ 40%) are *severe head injuries* with,

- a. GCS ≤ 8 and coma ≥ 6 hours
- b. abnormal CT scan, plus either,
 - i. evidence of \uparrow ICP
 - ii. focal lesion *with or without mass effect
 - iii. abnormal motor posturing
- c. where specialised ICP control measures will be undertaken,
 - i. hyperventilation, muscular paralysis
 - ii. mannitol
 - iii. hypothermia
 - iv. barbiturates

Contraindications

- a. GCS > 8
- b. normal CT * no evidence of \uparrow ICP, but normal scan *doesn't* exclude oedema
- c. bone flap or cranial decompression undertaken *relative
- d. lack of technical expertise

Alternatives

- a. repeat CT scans \rightarrow "radiological ICP monitoring"
- b. treat all high risk patients,
 - hyperventilation for 2-3 days
 - dehydration ± 1 or 2 doses of mannitol (if CT evidence of ICH)
 - prevent hyperthermia, seizures, hypotension, hypoxia, etc.

ICP & Intracranial Hypertension

Def'n:	normal <i>ICP</i>	~ 10-15 ~ 7-10	cmH ₂ O mmHg	
	normal <i>compliance</i>	> 0.5 < 0.25	ml/mmHg ml/mmHg \rightarrow	pathological

• significance of ICP is that it influences *cerebral perfusion pressure*, CPP = MAP - ICP

- a. for adequate perfusion, $CPP \ge 60 \text{ mmHg}$
- b. normal autoregulation is *impaired* at, CPP < 50 mmHg
- c. cerebral perfusion becomes *critical* at, CPP < 30 mmHg

Raised ICP Physiological

- 1. lowering of head
- 2. obstruction of jugular veins with head positioning
- 3. sleep
- 4. coughing, straining, Valsalve manoeuvre

Raised ICP Pathological

- 1. cerebral tumour, abscess
- 2. intracranial haemorrhage
- 3. cerebral oedema
- 4. hydrocephalus
- 5. hypercarbia / hypoxia / acidosis
- 6. severe hypertension
- 7. venous obstruction
- 8. metabolic uraemia, Reye's syndrome

• Causes of Lowered ICP

- 1. CSF leakage (chronic > 500 ml/day)
- 2. wasting diseases
- 3. hypocapnia
- 4. barbiturate therapy
- 5. elderly

Monitoring of ICP in Head Injury

Rationale

- a. intracranial hypertension is associated with a *high mortality*
- b. *clinical signs* of raised ICP present only at very late stage
- c. of severe head injury patients,
 - i. ICP > 10 mmHg mild $\sim 80\%$
 - ii. ICP > 20 mmHg moderate $\sim 40\%$
 - iii. ICP > 40 mmHg malignant ~ 15%
 - *'malignant ICH'* \rightarrow ICP > 40 mmHg for 15 min
 - those with normal CT scan (10-20%) rarely have raised ICP
 - neurological deterioration at levels above 15-25 mmHg
- d. studies claim up to **40%** *reduction* in mortality with treatment, *without* an increase in the number of vegetative/poor outcome patients

Evidence Against

- a. not *conclusively* proven to be of benefit
 - many studies have been uncontrolled, not blinded and sequential
- b. of all head injuries only 25% are severe, of which ~ 50% die from the primary damage
 - ICP monitoring \rightarrow only affects ~ 10-15% of head injuries
- c. the correlation between ICP and functional status is not always consistent and must be tempered by clinical assessment
- d. risk of *infection* varies widely between studies from 1-20%!
- e. rises in ICP may take up to 2 weeks to dissipate even in good outcome patients
- f. subarachnoid bolt is unreliable at high ICPs
- g. pressure in one compartment is not necessarily indicative of global pressure

Major Dangers

- 1. haemorrhage
- 2. patient / cerebral injury
- 3. infection ~ 2-7%
- 4. system inaccuracy or failure
- 5. sole reliance of management on ICP

Treatment: Intracranial Hypertension

- 1. treat *hypoxia*, acidosis, & hypotension cerebral O_2 supply
- 2. hyperventilation and hypocapnia
 - useful as an interim measure to reduce ICP prior to definitive or other therapy
 - chronically of little use \rightarrow 75% of S_{ib}O₂ desaturation (Lewis *et al.* AIC 1995)
 - current recommendation \rightarrow P_{aCO2} ~ 30-40 mmHg
 - plus sedation/paralysis as required
 - article in J.Trauma $\rightarrow \downarrow$ outcome with use of paralysis
- 3. *posture* \rightarrow 0-10° head up
 - avoid extreme rotation
 - Rosner (1986) showed that for every 10° head up
 → ICP fell 1 mmHg but CPP fell 2-3 mmHg, ∴ may be *no advantage*

4. osmotherapy / mannitol

- mannitol effective only if autoregulation intact
- reduces viscosity, increases flow, ∴ reflex vasoconstriction
- maximal ICP reduction at ~ 15-20 min, lasting ~ 3-4 hrs
- mild hyperosmolarity $\sim 320 \text{ mosm/l} \equiv 2x \text{ increase in urea}$
- a serum:CSF osmolar gradient ~ 30 mosm/kg required to reduce brain H_2O
- fall in CBF \rightarrow ? adenosine
- *hypertonic saline* has also been used, advantages of no diuresis & ability to monitor plasma levels more accurately

5. diuretics

- frusemide inhibits Na/H₂O transport across the BBB $\rightarrow \downarrow$ CSF formation
- acetazolamide also reduces CSF formation but is less effective in \downarrow ICP
- frusemide / mannitol are synergistic when frusemide administered first (15 min)

6. hypothermia

- may be helpful if initiated very early
- prolonged deep hypothermia is equally detrimental as ischaemia
- technical difficulties, therefore not used
- recent work (Sano *et al.*) mild hypothermia may offer significant benefits
- *hyperthermia* is definitely detrimental & requires aggressive treatment

7. barbiturates

- STP $\sim 10 \text{ mg/kg/30}$ min, then 5 mg/kg/hr x 3 hrs, then 1 mg/kg/hr
- no improvement in outcome
- may result in increased number of vegetative patients
- 8. propofol \rightarrow too much hypotension & \downarrow CPP
- 9. Ca⁺⁺ entry blockers Nimodipine
 - questionable role in prevention of vasospasm
 - still recommended for SAH, but studies divided

Post-Traumatic Hydrocephalus

- a. incidence depends on definition and measurement of ventricular size ~ 30-72%
- b. mechanisms impairment of *absorption* of CSF
 - impairment of *flow* of CSF
 - blockage is usually around the convexities (extra-ventricular)
 - subarachnoid blood
 - skull fracture involving meninges
 - cerebral contusion or oedema
 - cerebral infarct

Clinical Features

• presentation can be quite variable and at times atypical,

- a. deep coma
- b. failure to improve neurologically
- c. gradual deterioration in neurological signs

d.	obtundation with	 decerebrate posturing pupil dilatation respiratory arrest
e.	"NPH" syndrome	 dementia incontinence gait disturbance psychomotor slowing

* in the setting of post-traumatic head injury

• outcome is related to,

- 1. the extent underlying of brain injury
- 2. the severity of ventriculomegaly
- 3. response treatment

Diagnosis - CT Scan Criteria

- a. distended anterior & temporal horns
- b. enlargement of 3rd ventricle
- c. normal or absent sulci ie. no sign of *cerebral atrophy*
- d. \pm enlargement of basal cisterns and 4th ventricle
- e. periventricular decreased density \rightarrow communicating hydrocephalus

Response to Shunting

NB: good if the CT scan is positive *and*,

a.	increased ICP/LP found	> 18 cmH ₂ O - especially acute onset
b.	features of "NPH" syndrome	- especially chronic onset
c.	progression of CT changes over 2-	4 weeks

d. CSF dynamic studies show flow or absorption problems

Outcome

- Glascow Outcome Score
 - 1. dead
 - 2. vegetative
 - 3. severely disabled conscious but dependent
 - 4. moderately disabled independent but disabled
 - 5. good neuropsychological impairment or better

NB: Jennett, Lancet 1975, performed at 6 months post-injury

• Factors Associated with Poor Outcome

- 1. depth of coma
- 2. motor response
- 3. pupil reactions
- 4. eye movements
- 5. patient age
- 6. presence of an intracerebral haematoma
- 7. intractable intracranial hypertension
- 8. ? central hyperthermia / hyperventilation

SPINAL CORD INJURY

Actiology of Spinal Dysfunction

- 1. traumatic
- 2. mechanical
 - i. vertebral body/disc lesion
 - ii. haemorrhage, abscess, neoplasia
 - \rightarrow epidural, dural, subdural or intramedullary
- 3. ischaemic
 - i. post-surgical aortic, spinal
 - ii. atherosclerosis
 - iii. aortic dissection
 - iv. hypotensive shock
- 4. transverse myelitis
 - i. idiopathic
 - ii. MS
 - iii. carcinoma
 - iv. syphilis
 - v. viral influenza, HZV, EBV, Echoviruses, rabies, measles
 - vi. vasculitis SLE, PAN
 - Bechet's syndrome

• Anterior Spinal Artery Syndrome

- anterior spinal artery originates from branches of both vertebral arteries
- segmental feeding vessels, most notable artery of Adamkiewicz (left 10th intercostal)
- supplies the *anterior two-thirds* of the cord, loss resulting in bilateral,
 - 1. paralysis
 - 2. loss of pain & temperature
 - 3. preservation of proprioception, light touch & vibration

• Transverse Myelitis

• a *monophasic illness* usually commencing with paraesthesia of the lower limbs and altered sphincter function

- in contrast to GBS,
 - a. neuronal loss is *both* motor and sensory, and
 - b. localized to a spinal level
- in ~ 30% there is an antecedent history of viral or bacterial infection
- CSF shows mild pleocytosis and elevated protein levels
- functional recovery is good in ~ 33%, though, ~ 25% have severe disability
- Cord Hemisection Brown Séquard
 - 1. ipsilateral
 - i. paralysis
 - ii. loss of proprioception, light touch and vibration sense
 - iii. normal pain & temperature sensation
 - 2. contralateral
 - i. normal power
 - ii. loss of pain & temperature sensation

Management

- 1. decompressive & stabilising surgery
- 2. methylprednisolone ~ 30 mg/kg bolus, then 5.4 mg/kg/hr x 24
 - for acute traumatic spinal injury within 8 hrs
 - this is now questionable as a repeat study showed no benefit
- 3. GM-1 ganglioside
 - used to induce neuronal regeneration
 - may improve outcome
- 4. supportive care

CEREBROVASCULAR DISEASE

Presentation

1.	• ~		- deficit lasting < 24 hrs duration ly develop a stroke ~ 50% within 5 years isodes present with transient events in ~ 10%
	i.	carotid or MCA	1
	ii.	vertebrobasilar	- diplopia, dysarthria, dizziness
2.	stroke		
	i.	aetiology	 ~ 85% infarction (thrombotic or embolic) ~ 10-15% haemorrhage
	ii.	mortality	
		• infarction	~ 30% at 1 mth ~ 50% at 12 mths
		• haemorrhage	~ 50% at 1 mth "~ <i>infarct</i> + 20%" ~ 70% at 6 mths

3. multi-infarct dementia

Predisposing Factors: Cerebral Infarction

1. *major*

- i. age
- ii. hypertension

2. *minor*

- i. diabetes
- ii. hyperlipidaemia
- iii. heart disease
- iv. smoking
- v. obesity
- vi. OCP
- vii. hypotension

Predisposing Factors: Cerebral Arterial Thrombosis

- 1. hypertension
- 2. atherosclerosis
- 3. arteritis SLE, temporal arteritis, PAN, Takayasu's arteritis
- 4. aortitis, syphilis
- 5. arterial dissection
- 6. vasospasm migraine, pre-eclampsia, LSD, cocaine, amphetamines
- 7. angiography
- 8. infection
- 9. haematological HITTS, TTP

• Predisposing Factors: Cerebral Venous Thrombosis

- 1. raised ICP
- 2. malignancy
- 3. septicaemia
- 4. hyperviscosity syndromes
 - i. hyperproteinaemic states MM, Waldenstrom's, MGUS
 - ii. severe dehydration HHNKC
 - iii. polycythaemia
- 5. hypercoagulable states
 - i. ATIII, proteins C & S deficiency
 - ii. polycythaemia, paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria
 - iii. HITTS, TTP

Predisposing Factors: Cerebral Embolism

- 1. mitral stenosis, AF
- 2. AMI, mural thrombus, LV aneurysm
- 3. prosthetic valve replacement
- 4. endocarditis
- 5. atrial myxoma
- 6. cardiomyopathies
- 7. paradoxical thromboembolism, or air emboli via ASD
- *NB*: in **50%** of embolic cases the origin is the heart

Investigation

- a. history & clinical examination
- b. FBE / Coags \pm protein C, S, ATIII, anti-phospholipid Ab's
- c. CT head
- d. carotid ultrasound / doppler
- e. angiography DSA
- f. echocardiography
- g. MRI
- h. LP rarely

• Clinical Features

- 1. carotid / middle cerebral artery
 - altered conscious state
 - spastic paralysis of arm, leg or face
 - receptive / expressive dysphasia
 - perseveration repetitive feeling of clothes
 - astereognosis inability to name an object in hand
 - Gerstmann's syndrome * AALF, dominant parietal lobe
 - i. **a**calculia serial 7's
 - ii. **a**graphia inability to write
 - iii. $L \leftrightarrow R$ confusion
 - iv. finger agnosia inability to name fingers
 - dressing apraxia, constructional apraxia
 - sensory inattention
 - cortical blindness
 - cranial nerve palsies
- 2. vertebrobasilar
 - i. *medial* medullary syndrome
 - ipsilateral 12th nerve palsy wasting & paralysis of tongue
 - contralateral arm/leg paralysis sparing the face
 - ii. *lateral* medullary syndrome
 - ipsilateral pain/numbness & impaired sensation over face (V)
 - arm/trunk/leg numbness
 - bulbar palsy (IX and X), loss of taste
 - Horner's syndrome
 - nystagmus, diplopia, vertigo, N&V
 - limb ataxia & falling to side of lesion
 - contralateral pain/temperature loss over body (rarely face)

Management

- a. general supportive care
 - supplemental oxygen per PaO₂
 - treat associated cardiac disorders
 - treat anaemia (Hct ~ 0.3-0.33)

b. *hypertension*

- control severe hypertension (> 200/115 mmHg)
- in patients with TIA's, reduction in MAP ~ 5-10 mmHg reduces stroke ~ 40%
- prevent hypotension
- c. aspirin for TIA's
 - reduces incidence (~ 20-30%) & severity of subsequent CVA
 - * no reduction in *mortality*

d. anticoagulation

 embolic stroke 	\leq 48 hrs	+ absence of hypertension
		+ no haemorrhagic lesion on CT scan
	•.• .• •	. 1 1 11

· crescendo TIA's with carotid or vertebrobasilar stenosis

e.	haemodilution	- may be of possible benefit
		- ?? hypervolaemic or normovolaemic

f. carotid endarterectomy

- TIA's or minor strokes & > 70% stenosis
- complication rate < 3% for asymptomatic stenosis
 - < 5% for TIA's
 - ~ 10% for recurrent carotid disease

• Therapy of Unproven Benefit

- a. surgery in asymptomatic patients with < 70% stenosis
- b. hyperbaric O_2
- c. pentoxifylline methylxanthine derivative
 - unknown mechanism of action
 - reduces viscosity & RBC 'stiffness'
- d. anticoagulants in acute stroke
- e. other antiplatelet drugs in TIA's (dipyridamole, sulphinpyrazone)
- f. thrombolytic agents * rTPA
 - European Cooperative Acute Stroke Study, JAMA 1995
 - may benefit subgroup, but unacceptable incidence of *haemorrhage* overall
- g. steroids, barbiturates and hyperventilation
- h. NMDA receptor antagonists
- i. Ca⁺⁺ entry blockers

Haemorrhagic Stroke

NB: incidence $\sim 10-12\%$ of CVA	NB:	incidence	~ 10-12% of CVA
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- a. *major* risk factors
 - i. hypertension ~ 35% of all intracerebral haemorrhage
 - ii. anticoagulation
- b. other causes tumours
 - raised ICP
 - cerebral arteritis
 - mycotic aneurysms
 - coarctation of the aorta
 - Marfan's syndrome
 - amyloidosis, sarcoidosis
- c. site *putamen* ~ 55% - cortical ~ 15% - thalamic ~ 10% - pontine ~ 10% - cerebellum ~ 10%
- d. mortality ~ 68% at 6 months
- severe headache occurs in ~ 50%
- if there is subarachnoid spread of blood then *meningism* occurs
- in the absence of coagulopathy, unlike berry aneurysms, rebleeding is *rare*
- surgical evacuation of the clot is *seldom* beneficial, unless,
 - 1. located superficially
 - 2. patient is conscious
 - 3. CT shows midline shift > 5 mm
 - NB: this contrasts acute cerebellar haematoma
 - \rightarrow evacuation is the Rx of choice

Subarachnoid Haemorrhage

a. *aetiology*

		0.		
	i.	saccular aneurysm*		 of all strokes <i>anterior</i> circle of Willis vertebrobasilar
	ii.	atherosclerotic		
	iii.	mycotic		
	iv.	traumatic		
	v.	arteriovenous malform	ations	
b.	incia	dence (USA)*	~ 11:100,0	00
	• in	acreased incidence with		on of the aorta c kidney disease
	• 2	0% of patients have <i>mul</i>	ltiple aneury	vsms
c.	mor	tality*	$\sim \frac{1}{2}$ the rem	he first week mainder within 3 months

~ $\frac{1}{2}$ the long-term survivors have *major disability*

• outcome is related to,

- 1. the amount of subarachnoid blood, and
- 2. the neurological condition at presentation
- the major causes of death are,
 - 1. neurological injury from the *initial haemorrhage*
 - 2. *rebleeding*
 - 3. ischaemia from *vasospasm*

• *saccular aneurysms* were originally thought to be congenital

• recent evidence is that they are *acquired*, due to degeneration of the internal elastic membrane at the apex of bifurcations, secondary to *haemodynamic stress*

NB: hypertension and turbulent flow lead to further degeneration & saccular enlargement

 \rightarrow increased risk of rupture ~ 5-15 mm

• Clinical Presentation

1.	<i>prodromal</i> symptoms	 headache, dizziness, orbital pain often vague & not diagnosed ≤ 50% of patients
2.	sudden onset of severe headache	
3.	meningism	photophobia, neck stiffness, vomitingKernig's sign
4.	transient <i>neurological deficits</i>	\propto site & size of aneurysm

5. loss of consciousness

6. subhyaloid haemorrhages on fundoscopy

Clinical Neurological Classification of SAH			
Grade I	conscious patient ± meningism		
Grade II	• drowsy patient \pm neurological deficit		
Grade III	 drowsy patient with a neurological deficit (localising) probable intracerebral haematoma		
Grade IV	 deteriorating patient + major neurological deficit large intracerebral haematoma 		
Grade V	• moribund patient, extensor rigidity & failing vital centres		

• the World Federation of Neurological Surgeons has suggested another classification scheme, incorporating the GCS and the presence of absence of motor deficit (grades I-V)

1. haemorrhagic compression

• severe SAH with loss of consciousness and persistently raised ICP

2. noncompressive SAH

• minimal mass effect, ICP usually normalises 10-15 minutes post-bleed

• of patients presenting with an acute bleed,

- a. 12% lapse into coma & die
- b. a further 40% die within 2 weeks without surgical treatment

• Complications: Cerebral

- 1. *rebleeding* ~ 20% (16-25%)
 - ~ 4% within the first 24 hours
 - peak incidence at *days 4-9*
 - \downarrow incidence 30-50% with antifibrinolytics, but mortality is unchanged
 - early 2^{nd} haemorrhage \rightarrow ~ 40% mortality
 - late rebleed ~ 3% / yr \rightarrow ~ 67% mortality
- 2. *vasospasm* ~ 70% of all SAH by *angiography*

$\sim 40\%$ demonstrate *clinical vasospasm*

- peak incidence at *days 6-7*
- * major cause of morbidity / mortality
- · requires exclusion of other causes of neurological deficit
 - \rightarrow rebleeding / ICH
 - hydrocephalus, oedema
 - hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis, hyponatraemia
- 3. *hydrocephalus* ~ **30%** of SAH
 - ~ 7% require surgical decompression
- 4. cerebral oedema
- 5. seizures

i.

• Complications: General

1. sympathetic hyperactivity

ECG changes

- ST segment depression, T-wave inversion
 - U-waves, prolonged Q-T
- arrhythmias
- ii. acute neurogenic pulmonary oedema
- 2. hyponatraemia SIADH
 - cerebral salt wasting syndrome
- 3. reduced total blood volume & RBC mass
- 4. complications related to depressed CNS state
 - i. respiratory failure / insufficiency
 - ii. aspiration
 - iii. pressure sores
 - iv. venous thrombosis / thromboembolism
 - v. gastric stasis, constipation, gastric ulceration
 - vi. nosocomial infection

Preoperative Management

- a. general supportive care
- b. control of *hypertension* but avoid hypotension
 - sedation & analgesia
 - antihypertensives
 - β -blockers, α -methyldopa, CEB's
 - * avoid cerebral vasodilators
- c. control of *vasospasm*
 - * CEB's, *nimodipine*
 - reduces the delayed ischaemic deficit & improves outcome in patients with aneurysmal SAH
 - · less effect, and contradictory studies, once vasospasm established
 - most consistent results are obtained with hypertension & hypervolaemia
 - may require the use of antidiuretics
 - generally requires *early surgery*
 - LIGW states there are no PRCT's to support this view
- d. control of *seizures*
- e. control of *cerebral oedema* & raised ICP
- f. control of *hydrocephalus*
- g. antifibrinolytics
 - epsilon aminocaproic acid (EACA) & tranexamic acid
 - inhibit clot lysis & reduce rebleeding
 - * problems of cerebral ischaemia, hydrocephalus and thrombosis
 - no change in *mortality*, therefore *not recommended*
- h. prevention of *gastric erosion / ulceration*
- i. maintenance of *fluid & electrolyte* balance
- j. intrathecal rTPA
 - small studies of patients undergoing early clipping (< 72h)
 - reduced incidence of vasospasm

• Anaesthetic Management

- 1. preoperative assessment
 - i. evidence of raised ICP
 - ii. presence & extent of CNS deficit
 - iii. volume status
 - iv. biochemical derangement
 - v. ECG changes \pm CE's
 - vi. other system diseases

2. management goals

- i. prevention of aneurysmal *rebleed*[§]
 - intraoperative rupture $\rightarrow > 60\%$ mortality
- ii. avoidance of ischaemia 2° to *vasospasm*
- iii. brain *decompression* surgical access
 - retractor ischaemia
- iv. *controlled hypotension* when required
- *NB:* [§]the risk of rebleeding is determined by the vessel wall gradient, MAP ICP changes in MAP are of *far greater* significance cf. reductions in ICP

Operative Management

- 1. direct clipping
 - good risk patients, *mortality* ~ 5%
- 2. encasement with various materials
- 3. occlusion of the feeding vessel
- 4. stereotaxic thrombosis

Postoperative Management

- a. general supportive care
- b. adequate analgesia & sedation
- c. ICP measurement/monitoring

d.	medical complications	 seizures SIADH, CSWS, hyponatraemia cardiac arrhythmias, AMI, CCF pneumonia, PTE UTI's
e.	surgical complications	 vasospasm rebleeding cerebral oedema subdural/extradural haematoma hydrocephalus intracranial hypertension persistent neurological deficit
f.	vasospasm	 <i>hypervolaemia & haemodilution</i> CVP ~ 8-12 mmHg / PAOP ~ 10-12 mmHg ± PAOP ~ 16-20 mmHg if no improvement Hct ~ 30-35% ± antidiuretics - digoxin/inotropes with CCF

NB: patients with oedema and vasospasm may require mannitol, cautious volume loading with colloid, and IPPV

• *hypervolaemia* is reported to produce transient improvement in 80-90%, and permanent improvement in $\sim 60\%$ of cases

• complications of this therapy include,

- a. pulmonary oedema
- b. cerebral oedema
- c. haemorrhagic cerebral infarction
- d. biochemical derangement
- e. complications from insertion of invasive monitoring

■ Summary

- only ~ 30% of SAH patients ever have surgery
- of patients who reach hospital, a favourable outcome is reported in ~ 43% of surgical cases
- of Grade I & II SAH patients ~ 60% will have a favourable outcome
- in patients without a preoperative neurological deficit, an operative mortality $\leq 5\%$ is possible

HYPERTENSIVE ENCEPHALOPATHY

Def'n: potentially life-threatening syndrome of acute severe hypertension with *neurological* and *retinal* signs

Risk Groups

- a. < 1% of all hypertensives
- b. increased in smokers
- c. 2° hypertensives renovascular - endocrine - vasculitis

• Clinical Features

1.	diastolic hypertension	³ 140 mmHg
2.	hypertensive <i>retinopathy</i>	 haemorrhages & exudates * papilloedema
3.	neurological	 headache, confusion, apprehension focal neurological signs coma, seizures SAH, CVA
4.	cardiac	 angina, AMI palpitations, cardiomegaly, LVF aortic dissection
5.	renal failure	- oliguria, uraemia
6.	GIT symptoms	 nausea, vomiting mesenteric ischaemia, haemorrhage pancreatitis

7. microangiopathic haemolytic anaemia

Treatment

\rightarrow	reduce <i>diastolic</i> £100 mmHg		
a.	nitroprusside	~ 30 µg IV bolus plus 1-5 µg/min	
b.	hydrallazine	~ 5-20 mg IV	
c.	esmolol	~ 0.5 mg/kg bolus plus infusion 0.05 mg/kg/min	
d.	nifedipine	~ 10-20 mg SL	
e.	GTN infusion	~ 25-250 µg/min	
f.	diazoxide	~ 50 mg/min, up to 300 mg	

Investigations

a.	E,C&U,	CaP, LFT
b.	FBE	- film for haemolysis
		- platelets

- c. INR/APTT
- d. CXR heart size, LVF
- e. ECG AMI, ischaemia, LVH
- f. CT Head when clinically stabilised
- g. urine 5HIAA, VMA, metanephrine * drug screen
- h. plasma renin activity

Differential Diagnosis of Hypertension + CNS Signs

- a. CVA
- b. encephalitis
- c. vasculitis
- d. uraemia
- e. drugs ergot poisoning
 - amphetamines
 - phencyclidine
 - cocaine
- f. head injury
- g. intracranial hypertension

CNS INFECTIONS

Cerebral Abscess

- majority are from *haematogenous* spread or by *direct* extension
- associated conditions,
 - 1. sinusitis frontal, sphenoidal, ethmoidal
 - 2. chronic otitis media / mastoid infection
 - 3. cyanotic congenital heart disease
 - 4. pulmonary AV fistulae
 - 5. suppurative lung disease bronchiectasis, lung abscess, empyema
 - 6. bacterial endocarditis
 - 7. dental sepsis
 - 8. penetrating cerebral trauma

• common organisms,

- 1. staphylococci
- 2. anaerobic streptococci
- 3. Bacteroides
- 4. Enterobacter

• in immunocompromised hosts, Nocardia, other fungal and protozoal pathogens occur

• cerebral abscesses *almost never* result from meningitis,

:. Pneumococcus, Meningococcus and H.influenzae are rarely causes

Investigation

- 1. CT with contrast \pm MRI
 - LP is *contraindicated*
- 2. blood cultures x 3
- 3. CXR, SXR, sinus XRays
- 4. echocardiogram
- 5. FBE / E,C&U
- *NB*: often diagnosed at craniotomy, ie. suspected intracerebral malignancy; may be difficult to distinguish on CT, ∴must use *contrast*; MRI will give better differentiation

■ <u>Management</u>

- majority of morbidity results from *compression*, not direct brain destruction
- abscesses with brainstem compression \rightarrow mortality ~ 40%
 - cf. treated prior to \downarrow CNS state \rightarrow mortality ~ 10%
 - a. high dose antibiotic therapy $\sim 6-8$ weeks
 - i. empirically
 - penicillin G 4^{MU} q4h + metronidazole 20 mg/kg/day
 - chloramphenacol may be used if penicillin allergic
 - R&B suggest penicillin + metronidazole + 3rd generation cephalosporin
 - ii. otic or metastatic lung abscess
 - high incidence of GIT pathogens, .: gentamicin 3.5 mg/kg/d added to above
 - iii. traumatic / post-surgical
 - commonly *Staph. aureus*
 - ∴use flucloxacillin or vancomycin, plus rifampicin
 - b. surgical drainage
 - c. prophlactic *antiepileptic* therapy
 - d. *steroids* only if significant cerebral oedema, otherwise should be avoided

Meningitis

	Adult Cases %	Paediatric %	Neonatal - type
Strep. pneumoniae	30-50	10-20	group B streptococci
Neisseria meningitidis	10-30	30-45	gram negative aerobes
H. influenzae ¹	1-3	40-60	Listeria monocytogenes

most commonly blood-borne infection

- remaining ~ 20% result from,
 - a. Staph. aureus / epidermidis
 - b. anaerobic & microaerophilic *Streptococci*
 - c. Enterobacteriaciae
 - d. Pseudomonas

• rarely Listeria monocytogenes or other agents in severely debilitated patients

Investigation

- 1. FBE, EC&U
- 2. blood cultures x 3
- 3. urinary latex Ag screening
- 4. CT scan * *with* contrast
 - should be performed *prior* to LP
- 5. *lumbar puncture*
 - ↑ pressure
 - ↑ total protein> 450 mg/l• pleocytosis~ 5,000-20,000 PMNs / mm³• ↓ CSF:blood glucose ratio< 0.3</td>• positive culture> 75%
- 6. CXR, SXR, sinus XRay
- *NB*: in the paediatric subset especially, LP should not be performed where there is evidence of raised ICP, or where the diagnosis is obvious

• Aseptic Meningitis

- a. viral infection
- b. other infective organisms with negative culture
 syphilis, toxoplasmosis, leptospirosis, cryptococcosis, nocardia, TB
- c. cerebral abscess
- d. Lyme disease
- e. relapsing fever
- f. SLE
- g. metastatic carcinoma

■ <u>Management</u>

- a. pneumococcal or meningococcal
 - penicillin G ~ $16-24^{MU}$ /70kg/day
- b. *Haemophilus influenzae* or, patients allergic to penicillin or, *empirical therapy*
 - *cefotaxime* ~ 200 mg/kg/day
 - or chloramphenacol
- c. Staph. aureus
 - flucoxacillin $\sim 12 \text{ g} / 70 \text{kg/day}$
- d. other organisms per culture sensitivity
- e. dexamethasone ~ 0.15 mg/kg prior to antibiotics
 - children only results in reduction of neurological and auditory sequelae
- f. prophylaxis
 - all household contacts for meningococcal or Haemophilus influenzae infection
 - incidence of infection in this group ~ 500-800x general population
 - rifampicin
- ~ 600 mg q12h for 2 days in adults ~ 10 mg/kg q12h in children
- ~ 5 mg/kg q12h in infants < 12 months
- g. vaccination
 - meningococcal vaccination of little routine use
 - may be given for high risk groups post-splenectomy
 - low CH₅₀

Viral Encephalitis

- Aetiology
 - 1. HSV-1
 - 2. EBV
 - 3. measles, mumps, rubella, varicella
 - 4. echoviruses, coxsackie, poliovirus, arbovirus, rabies
- *herpes simplex* is the most common sporadic viral encephalitis
- most cases are due to activation of latent infection
- in 90% of cases 1 or both *temporal lobes* are involved
- onset is typical of a generalized viraemia, followed by,
 - a. decreased CNS state
 - b. focal sensory & motor neurological deficits
 - c. convulsions & coma

Investigation

- a. CT scan | MRI scan | isotope brain scan
 - · often demonstrate characteristic temporal lobe abnormalities
 - \uparrow contrast of white matter around basal ganglia
 - if done early, CT is most often *normal*
- b. LP
 - clear, or slight turbidity
 - normal or slightly elevated pressure
 - mild pleocytosis ~ 50-500 PMNs/mm³
 - mild elevation of protein
- c. serum | CSF serology
 - > 4x rise in specific Ab titre
 - polymerase chain reaction amplification of DNA extracted from CSF allows early detection of the HSV genome & is *highly specific*
- d. brain biopsy

■ <u>Management</u>

- a. supportive
- b. seizure prophylaxis
- c. acyclovir ~ 10 mg/kg q8h

Poliomyelitis

- may present as a generalised viraemia, without CNS signs, or as an *aseptic meningitis*
- a small percentage of patients, after 5-10 days develop,
 - a. meningeal signs
 - b. assymetric flaccid paralysis \pm bulbar paralysis
 - \pm respiratory paralysis
 - c. urinary retention may occur
 - d. sensation is normal
- weakness may recur or worsen 15-45 years following the illness

\rightarrow progressive poliomyelitis muscular atrophy

EPILEPSY

Def'n: epilepsy denotes any disorder caracterised by *recurrent seizures*,

a *seizure* is a transient disturbance of cerebral function due to an abnormal paroxysmal neuronal discharge in the brain

• Essential Features

- 1. recurrent seizures, accompanied by EEG changes
- 2. mental status abnormality, or focal neurological symptoms / signs
 - these may persist for a period of several hours post-ictally

Classification: Seizures

- 1. *partial* seizures
 - involve, or begin in only one part of the brain
 - causes include cerebral structural lesions (neoplasia, infarction, abscess)
 - i. simple partial no LOC
 - ii. complex partial associated disturbance of consciousness
 - predominantly a *temporal lobe* disorder

2. general seizures

- i. absence seizures petit mal
- ii. atypical absence
- iii. myoclonic seizures
- iv. tonic-clonic grand mal
- v. tonic, clonic, or atonic

Aetiology: Common Causes

- 1. idiopathic onset most commonly 5-20 yrs
- 2. infective
- 3. traumatic
- 4. anticonvulsant withdrawal
- 5. drug related alcohol
 - induced | withdrawal

Aetiology

a. *idiopathic*

b. *focal lesions*

i.	1° CNS disease	- multiple sclerosis, leucodystrophies, tuberose sclerosis
ii.	1° dementias	- Alzheimer's
iii.	trauma	 post-traumatic / postoperative scarring subdural, extradural haematoma
iv.	tumour	- especially <i>meningioma</i>
v.	cerebrovascular	 angioma, AV malformation thrombotic/embolic CVA, SAH, subdural hypertensive encephalopathy TTP, SLE, PAN, cerebral arteritis
vi.	infectious	 meningitis, encephalitis (esp. HSV-1) abscess, tuberculoma, hydatid cyst neurosyphilis, cysticercosis

c. *metabolic*

- i. hypoxia, hypoglycaemia
- ii. rapid or severe $\downarrow \downarrow$ osmolality, Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, Mg⁺⁺, HPO₄⁼
- iii. severe alkalosis
- iv. uraemia, dialysis disequilibrium
- v. hepatic encephalopathy
- vi. pyridoxine deficiency
- vii. hyperthermia febrile convulsions

d. drugs

- i. analeptics theophylline, caffeine, cocaine, amphetamines
- ii. direct toxicity
 - local anaesthetics
 - penicillins, imipenem
 - phenothiazines, tricyclic antidepressants, lithium, lead
 - possibly enflurane, propofol, ether
- iii. side-effects
 - insulin hypoglycaemia
 - isoniazid pyridoxine deficiency
- iv. withdrawal
 - anticonvulsants
 - alcohol, barbiturates, benzodiazepines, other sedatives
 - corticosteroids
 - opioids ?? not according to HPIM

e. other causes

- i. electrocution
- ii. electroconvulsive therapy

• Common Causes: Children

- 1. febrile convulsion
- 2. anticonvulsant withdrawal
- 3. CNS infection meningitis, encephalitis
- 4. traumatic
- 5. metabolic hypo-Na⁺
 - hypo-Ca⁺⁺
- 6. cerebral palsy

<u>Common Causes: Neonate</u>

- 1. perinatal hypoxia / ischaemia
- 2. hypoglycaemia
- 3. intracerebral haemorrhage days 1-3
- 4. electrolyte disturbance (Na⁺, Ca⁺⁺, HPO₄⁼) days 3-8
- 5. meningitis, encephalitis
- 6. inborn-errors of metabolism (pyridoxine def.)

Investigations

• Adult

- 1. serum biochemistry EC&U, Ca/P, LFT, BSL
- 2. AGA's
- 3. drug screen
- 4. drug levels known epileptic
- 5. ECG
- 6. echocardiogram
- 7. CT | MRI scan
- 8. LP
- 9. EEG

• Neonate

a.	biochemistry	- Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , Ca ⁺⁺ , Mg ⁺⁺ , HPO ₄ ⁼ - LFT's, urea and NH ₃
b.	FBE	- WCC, platelets
c.	TORCH screen	- toxoplasmosis, rubella, CMV, HSV, other
d.	micro	- blood & urine for culture, Ag testing
e.	LP	- MC&S
		- glucose, protein & electrolytes, cells
f.	AA and organic	acid screen

Treatment Status

- 1. resuscitation / ABC
- 2. IV access & check serum chemistry
- 3. diazepam $\sim 0.1 \text{ mg/kg to } 0.3 \text{ mg/kg}$
- 4. phenytoin $\sim 13-18 \text{ mg/kg}$ @ 50 mg/min = 1000 mg/20 min
 - achieves full effect in 10-15 minutes
 - rapid administration may result in AV block & hypotension
 - requires co-admininistration of a rapidly acting agent
- 5. thiopentone $\sim 5-10 \text{ mg/kg over } 10 \text{ min}$
 - ~ 2-7 mg/min
- 6. $MgSO_4$ ~ 10-15 mmol stat ~ 4 mmol/hr
 - recent large RCT showed more effective than phenytoin in *eclampsia*

• Adverse Effects

1.	phenytoin	- nystagmus, ataxia, dysarthria
		- dysmorphic effects (gum hypertrophy, acne, hirsutism)
		- lymphadenopathy, peripheral neuropathy, rash, hyperkeratosis
		- vit.K antagonism, vit.D antagonism (osteomalacia)
		- folic acid antagonism (competes for GI transport)
2.	carbamazepine	 metabolism induced by self & other agents, variable t_{μβ} drowsiness, dizziness, diplopia, nystagmus, ataxia, N&V rash, anaemia, granulocytopaenia, oedema SIADH, complete heart block, hepatotoxicity
3.	Na-valproate	 hepatotoxicity, thrombocytopaenia, hypofibrinogenaemia pancreatitis, alopecia, N&V, weight gain
4.	vigabatrin	* inhibits <i>GABA-aminotransferase</i> \rightarrow \uparrow CNS GABA levels

Myoclonic Seizures / Jerks

- a. myoclonic epilepsy
- b. withdrawal syndrome alcohol
 - barbiturates
 - benzodiazepines
- c. metabolic encephalopathies
- hepatic encephalopathy
- hyponatraemia
- porphyria

- uraemia

- thyrotoxicosis
- hypoglycaemia
- pyridoxine deficiency
- phenylketonuria
- d. hypoxic encephalopathy- post-anoxia
 - respiratory failure
 - CO poisoning
 - rarely CVA

- abscess

- e. septic encephalopathy especially gram (-)'ve
- f. CNS infections
 - encephalitis (viral, parasitic)
 - rarely meningitis
- g. other rare causes lipid storage diseases
 - Jacob-Creutzfeld disease
 - SSPE

AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY

• Classification

- a. primary or secondary
- b. hyporeflexic or hyperreflexic types

<u>Primary Autonomic Neuropathy</u>

a.	pure	e ANS disease	 idiopathic <i>postural hypotension</i> familial dysautonomia (Riley-Day)
b.	with	h CNS involvement	
	i.	Shy-Drager	- postural hypotension & parkinsonian features
	ii.	Holmes-Adie	 tonic dilated pupil parasympathetic lesion distal to ciliary ganglion

Secondary Autonomic Neuropathy

a.	cent	ral	 poliomyelitis tetanus multiple sclerosis Parkinson's d.
b.	spin	al	- trauma - transverse myelitis - syringomyelia
c.	periț	oheral	
	i.	afferent	 tabes dorsalis Guillain-Bárre
	ii.	efferent	diabetesamyloidosisalcohol
	iii.	mixed	

- d. *mixed* \rightarrow multiple sites of action
 - i. drugs
 - ii. porphyria
 - iii. chronic renal failure

Hyporeflexic Autonomic Neuropathy

a.	diabetes mellitus	- commonest $\leq 40\%$
b.	other metabolic	 Wernicke's encephalopathy alcohol associated polyneuropathy
с.	primary	
	i. idiopathic postur	ral hypotension
	ii. Riley-Day	- familial dysautonomia
	iii. Shy-Drager synd	Irome - progressive disease of unknown aetiologyANS, then CNS disease, esp. Parkinsonism
	iv. Holmes-Adie's	- tonic pulpillary response to near vision
d.	drug-induced	 sympathectomy (local anaesthetic, pharmacological) malignant neuroleptic syndrome ganglionic blocking agents, α/β blockers
e.	infectious	 Guillain-Bárre syndrome (?) tetanus poliomyelitis syphilis
f.	other	 acute spinal cord trauma MS amyloidosis
■ <u>Clinica</u>	l Features	
a.	CVS	 postural hypotension abnormal Valsalva response, no reflex ↑ or ↓ HR loss of sinus arrhythmia
b.	GUS	 impotence frequency / incontinence retention
c.	GIT	 acute gastric dilatation ileus, constipation, occ. diarrhoea
d.	skin	- anhydrosis
e.	respiratory system	- stridor
f.	pupils	- anisocoria, Horner's syndrome
g.	metabolic	 blunted response to hypoglycaemia poikilothermia
h	CNS	- extrapyramidal signs Parkinsonian

h. CNS - extrapyramidal signs, Parkinsonian - cerebellar signs

• ICU / Anaesthetic Problems

a.	exaggerated hypotension	- IPPV
		- drugs
		- hypovolaemia
		- postural change
		- spinal/epidural anaesthesia
b.	denervation hypersensitivity	- adrenergic & cholinergic
c.	impaired response to	 hypoglycaemia hypovolaemia, hypervolaemia changing anaesthetic depth
d.	bradyarrhythmias	? ischaemia - hypersensitivity
e.	GIT	acute gastric dilatation, reflux/regurgitationileus
f.	hyperpyrexia	

g. urinary retention

■ <u>Treatment</u>

a.	treat primary cause	
b.	CVS	 avoid rapid postural changes, heat, alcohol, high CHO increase fluid intake elastic stockings, antigravity suits
c.	drugs	 9-α-fluorohydrocortisone ephedrine, dihydroergotamine indomethacin metoclopramide, ? cisapride desmopressin caffeine
d.	GIT	 metoclopramide, ? cisapride high-fibre diet codeine
e.	urinary frequency	- cholinergics

Investigations

a.	CVS	 response to standing up head-up tilt 45° Valsalva isometric exercise hyperventilation
b.	sweating	 intradermal ACh increase core temp by 1°C
c.	bladder	- urodynamics, IVP
d.	GIT	- gastric emptying

Hyper-Reflexic Autonomic Neuropathy

- 1. chronic spinal cord trauma $> T_8$
- 2. severe essential hypertension
- 3. phaeochromocytoma
- 4. thyrotoxicosis
- 5. malignant hyperthermia
- 6. head injury diencephalic fits - midbrain lesions
- 7. tetanus
- 8. strychnine poisoning

Blindness Sudden

- a. trauma
- b. cerebrovascular accident, TIA
- c. vitreous haemorrhage eg. diabetics*
- d. retinal detachment*
- e. acute glaucoma*
- f. temporal arteritis*
- g. retinal artery embolus
- h. retinal vein thrombosis
- i. acute migraine
- j. post-vertebral angiogram
- k. drug toxicity
- methanolquinine
- tobacco
- severe B_{12} deficiency
- l. acute hydrocephalus
- m. retrograde spread of LA via epidural veins
- n. hysteria

Carpal Tunnel Syndrome

- a. idiopathic
- b. pregnancy, OCP, pre-menstrual
- c. myxoedema
- d. acromegaly
- e. rheumatoid arthritis
- f. scaphoid fracture
- g. intermittent trauma
- h. mucopolysaccharidosis type V

Differential Diagnosis - CTS

- a. cervical spondylitis
- b. syringomyelia
- c. motor neurone disease

PERIPHERAL NEUROPATHIES

• these may be characterised on the basis of structure primarily affected,

a.	axonal degeneration	normal conduction velocityEMG shows <i>denervation</i>
b.	paranodal demyelination	
c.	segmental demyelination	slowed to completely blocked <i>conduction</i>no EMG signs of denervation

NB: differentiation may be made on nerve conduction studies and EMG

Classification

1. *idiopathic*

i.	acute idiopathic demyelinating polyneuropathy	- GBS / AIDP
----	---	--------------

- ii. chronic idiopathic demyelinating polyneuropathy CIDP
- 2. *hereditary* neuropathies
 - i. Charcot-Marie-Tooth HMSN I & II
 - ii. Dejerine-Sottas HMSN III
 - iii. Refsum's disease HMSN IV
 - iv. Friedreich's ataxia

3. *metabolic* & systemic disorders

- i. diabetes mellitus
- ii. uraemia
- iii. chronic liver disease
- iv. alcoholism / nutritional $-B_{12}$, folate, pryidoxine, thiamine
- v. paraproteinaemias
- vi. porphyria 3 types
- 4. *infectious & inflammatory* disease
 - i. leprosy, Lyme disease
 - ii. AIDS
 - iii. sarcoidosis, PAN, rheumatoid arthritis

5. *toxic* neuropathies

i.	industrial agents & pesticides	- organophosphates, solvents

- ii. heavy metals
- iii. drugs amiodarone, perhexiline, phenytoin, isoniazid
 - * A COLD DAMP MIST (see over)
- iv. diphtheria toxin
- 6. *paraneoplastic*

• mechanisms of nerve injury include,

- 1. idiopathic inflammatory polyneuropathy GBS
- 2. connective tissue disorders
- 3. vasculitidies
- 4. direct trauma / compression
- 5. tumours von Recklinghausen's
- 6. metabolic
- 7. radiation
- 8. infiltration
- 9. paraneoplastic
- 10. hereditary

	Drugs Causing Peripheral Neuropathy		
Condition		Treatment	
А	• alcohol	A • disulfuram	
C O L D	 cancer other (HIV, HT) leprosy deficiency 	C• vincristine, cisplatin, taxolO• didanosine, hydrallazineL• dapsone (motor)D• pyridoxine, thiamine	
D A M P	 dysrhythmia angina microbial psychotic 	D• amiodaroneA• perhexilineM• metronidazole, nitrofurantoin, chloramphenicolP• lithium, tricyclics	
M I S T	 malaria inflammatory seizure TB 	M• chloroquineI• gold, colchicineS• phenytoinT• isoniazid, ethambutol	

■ <u>Neuropathy:</u> Acute

- 1. Guillain-Bárre
- 2. "critically-ill" polyneuropathy
- 3. carcinoma, lymphoma
- 4. drugs, chemicals
- 5. tetanus
- 6. traumatic
- 7. infectious mononucleosis
- 8. botulism
- 9. diphtheria
- 10. acute intermittent porphyria

Neuropathy: Chronic

- 1. diabetes mellitus
- 2. alcoholism
- 3. malignancy
- 4. collagen / vascular diseases PAN, SLE
- 5. uraemia
- 6. amyloidosis
- 7. sarcoidosis
- 8. myxoedema
- 9. multiple myeloma
- 10. drugs, toxic neuropathy

• Neuropathy: Drugs, Toxins/Chemicals

- 1. bacterial botulism, tetanus
- 2. heavy metals lead, mercury, arsenic
- 3. trichlorocresyl PO4⁼
- 4. organophosphates
- 5. nitrofurantoin
- 6. vincristine, vinblastine
- 7. isoniazid
- 8. amiodarone, phenytoin

GUILLAIN-BÁRRE | LANDRY-STROHL SYNDROME

Essential Features

- 1. progressive *symmetrical ascending* weakness \rightarrow LMN-type, > 1 limb
- 2. diminished or *absent reflexes*
- 3. CSF cell count < 50 monocytes & 2 polymorphs / mm³ \uparrow protein \rightarrow *cytoalbuminologic dissociation*

• Supporting Features

1. progression over days/weeks, with *relative symmetry* 2. mild *sensory* signs or symptoms - paraesthesia, neuritic pain, rarely muscle pains ~ 50% mild sensory loss *cranial nerve* involvement ~ 50%. 3. starting with CN's in $\sim 5\%$ 4. autonomic dysfunction ~ 20% 5. absence of fever - elevated *protein* after 1 week CSF: (normal earlier) 6. - may have \uparrow cells in *HIV seropositive* patients with GBS - slow *conduction* velocity 7. EMG: - prolonged F waves (distal latency) 8. ~ 2-8 weeks after - URTI ~ 45% onset: - GIT ~ 20% 9. epidemiology: - isolated cases - well-developed nations 10. incidence - 1.7 per 100,000 11. pathophysiology: - perivenular inflammation - myelin degeneration \pm axonal degeneration (rarely)

Aetiology

a.	post-infectious	~ 50% are sero-positive for <i>Shigella</i>	
	 adenovirus, influenza A&B, EBV, CMV, herpes zoster, parainfluenza 3, mea chickenpox, mycoplasma axonal cases reported following <i>C.jejuni</i> (PEN-19) 		
b.	1	* 1976 USA National Influenza Immunization Program 76 (swine) vaccine, > 1000 cases \sim 5-6 x \uparrow incidence	
c.	involves CMI	? myelin neuritogenic protein - anti-GM ₁ -Ab (<i>C.jejuni</i>)	

• CSF Findings

- 1. normal pressure
- 2. clear
- 3. \geq 90% have *increased protein* \geq 400 mg/l \rightarrow mainly *albumin*
 - cell count / mm³ < 50 lymphocytes
 - < 2 PMN's
 - $\leq 10\%$ have mild lymhpocytosis

■ Monitor

4.

a.	signs of <i>respiratory failure</i>	- RR, HR
		- PEFR, VC
		- P _{aO2} , P _{aCO2}
b.	effectiveness of <i>cough</i>	- VC < 15 ml/kg - bulbar palsy

- c. extent and severity of neurological deficit
- d. nerve conduction studies

Indications for Ventilation

1.	diminished VC	< 15 ml/kg
	• or, clinical / CXR signs of sputum retention & getting worse	
2.	loss of airway reflexes	- bulbar palsy

3. imminent respiratory failure $-P_{aO2}$ < 60 mmHg on 60% (*late signs*) $-P_{aCO2}$ > 60 mmHg, or rapidly rising

• Clinical Variants

- a. Miller-Fisher variant
 - i. ophthalmoplegia
 - ii. ataxia
 - iii. areflexia
- b. severe *sensory loss* with muscle *pain*
- c. presence of a *temperature* at onset
- d. extensor plantar responses ie., UMN signs
- e. unreactive *pupils*

Differential Diagnosis

- 1. severe limb weakness with *normal cranial nerves*
 - i. Guillain-Bárre
 - ii. critically-ill polyneuropathy
 - iii. spinal cord disease
- transverse myelitis
- ant. spinal artery syndrome
- cord trauma, oedema, tumour, malformation
- cervical spondylitis
- iv. motor neurone disease
- amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
- v. dermatomyositis, polymyositis
- vi. endocrine / metabolic
 - familial periodic paralysis hypokalaemic | hyperkalaemic
 - severe hypo/hyperkalaemia, hypermagnesaemia
 - steroids
 - hyperthyroidism
- 2. weakness usually *including*, or mainly *cranial nerves*
 - i. myasthenic crisis
 - ii. botulism
 - iii. poisoning- shellfish, tick paralysis- organophosphates, hexacarbons
 - iv. drugs

vii.

viii.

ix.

X.

- v. acute intermittent porphyria
- vi. infections

pontine disease

- poliomyelitisdiphtheria
- infectious hepatitis
- infarction, central pontine myelinolysis

- nitrofurantoin, perhexiline, dapsone

- polyarteritis nodosa mononeuritis multiplex
- metabolic myopathies high muscle enzymes
- malignancy
- mainly limb girdle

- Eaton-Lambert syndrome

3. *differentiating features*

- i. sensory signs
- ii. muscle enzymes
- iii. CSF cells
- iv. EMG
- v. nerve conduction studies

Plasmapheresis

- *NB: all* patients with severe disease, ie. unable to walk unaided preferrably *early* in the disease course, ie. before 2 weeks; currently some use *immunoglobulin* instead | with pheresis
- 1. shortens the duration of ventilation mean from 48 to 24 days
- 2. shortens time to walk unaided mean from 85 to 53 days
- 3. may halt progression of the disease
- 4. more effective if commenced *prior* to onset of respiratory failure

• corticosteroids are not recommended in uncomplicated GBS, as they,

- 1. delay the onset of recovery
- 2. negate the beneficial effects of plasmapheresis

• however, they may be useful in 2-3% who progress to chronic relapsing polyneuropathy

Signs of Poor Outcome

- a. dense *quadriplegia*
- b. prolonged time to *recovery onset*
 - weakness usually ceases to progress > 2 weeks in 50%
 - > 3 weeks in 80%
 - >4 weeks in 90%
 - recovery usually begins ~ 1-2 weeks after progression stops
- c. *axonal damage* on nerve conduction studies ? C. jejuni infection cases
- NB: 19-28% of this group in most series have a residual motor deficit at 1 year
 mortality even in large teaching centres ~ 10%

• factors not predictive of outcome

- a. CSF protein levels
- b. ? duration of ventilation

• Causes of Death

- a. respiratory failure
- b. aspiration / nosocomial pneumonia
- c. nosocomial infection / sepsis
- d. pulmonary embolus
- e. cardiac arrhythmia

CRITICALLY-ILL POLYNEUROPATHY

Def'n: the *syndrome* of "critically-ill polyneuropathy" includes,

- 1. the development of generalised weakness at the peak of illness, which is often *sepsis*
- *flaccid* weakness in all limbs with preserved *or* absent deep tendon reflexes
 weakness disproportionate to muscle wasting → *amyotrophy*
- 3. similar in features to Guillain-Bárre but *characteristic EMG*
 - i. *normal* conduction velocity
 - ii. 'denervation-type' pattern, with *axonal degeneration*
 - \rightarrow fibrillation potentials & sharp waves
 - iii. reduced sensory and motor CAP's
 - later may be *polyphasic* suggesting associated primary *myopathy*
- 4. pathophysiology
 - patchy axonal degeneration ± muscle involvement
 - histology shows no evidence of inflammation, cf. inflammatory neuropathies
 - muscle biopsy shows scattered, atrophic fibres, typical of acute *denervation*
 - occasional scattered muscle fibre necrosis, suggesting a 1° myopathy 2° to sepsis
- 5. CSF normal \pm raised protein
- f. aetiology *unknown*
 - multiple regression analysis of 43 cases by Witt *et al.* showed significant relationship to time in ICU, plasma glucose and albumin levels
 - suggested by Bolton to be secondary to altered microcirculation to the peripheral nerve, within the CNS

7. *no* association with,

- i. nutritional deficiency
- ii. antibiotics, or drug toxicity
- iii. other known causes of neuropathy [§]see over
- 8. incidence $\sim 20\%$ in patients septic for > 2 weeks
 - may occur in £70% of severely septic patients (Witt *et al.* Chest 1991)
- 9. course spontaneous recovery usual
 - recovery in 1 month in mild forms
 - 3-6 months in severe forms
- 10. mortality *high*, due to primary illness

• in setting of sepsis syndrome, encephalopathy may occur early & may be severe

• as this is resolving, difficulty in *weaning* from ventilation is frequently observed, with clinical signs of polyneuropathy being absent in > 50% of these patients

• sensory testing is unreliable, :: *electrophysiological testing* is essential

• responses to pain may help differentiate between prolonged effects of NMJ blockers & CIP, due to the sparing of cranial nerves in the later

• [§]recent number of reports which implicate *neuromuscular blockers* and *steroids* as causes of neuropathy, myopathy and prolonged NMJ blockade

• Bolton et al. ICM 1993 believe these to be two relatively distinct syndromes,

- 1. patients with sepsis & MODS are given NMJ blockers
 - following discontinuation signs of quadriplegia appear
 - electrophysiology supports 1° axonal degeneration & denervation atrophy
 - repetitive nerve stimulation studies *do not* show a defect of NMJ transmission
 - the *predominant factor* is CIP, probably unmasked by NMJ blockade but the possibility of an additive toxic effect cannot be excluded
- 2. patients with *severe acute asthma* requiring NMJ blockade & high dose steroids
 - some cases have suggested a motor neuropathy, others 1° myopathy
 - nerve stimulation studies may, or may not, show a defect of NMJ transmission
 - CPK levels may be significantly elevated
 - muscle B_x shows central structural loss, especially thick myosin filaments
 - these morphological changes are similar to those seen experimentally with denervated muscle plus high dose steroids
- *NB*: therefore, they describe 3 types of polyneuropathy in the critically ill: classical CIP, plus 1 & 2 above
- to these are added the *primary myopathies* which are commonly,
 - 1. cachexic or disuse atrophy
 - EMG and CPK levels are normal
 - biopsy shows type II fibre atrophy
 - 2. panfascicular muscle fibre necrosis
 - marked \uparrow CPK, rarely myoglobinuria
 - needle EMG may be normal early, but later is consistent with fibre necrosis
 - biopsy shows an inflammatory reaction and fibre necrosis

• Usual Manifestations CIP

- a. difficulty weaning
 b. EMG: characteristic pattern of *axonal degeneration* needle EMG: - positive sharp waves and fibrillation potentials
 - c. reduced or absent deep tendon reflexes
 - d. limb weakness with relative *cranial nerve sparing*
 - e. CSF: usually *normal*, or slightly elevated *protein*
 - f. important *negative features*
 - i. no cranial nerve, autonomic or sensory (?) involvement
 - ii. CSF usually normal

Condition	Illness	Clinical Features	Electro- physiology	Morphology	M
CIP	Sepsis	Absent, or mainly motor neuropathy	1° axonal degeneration	1° axonal degeneration + denervation atrophy of muscle	Rx
Neuropathy & NMJ Blockers	Sepsis	Acute quadriplegia	NMJ transmission defect, ± axonal motor neuropathy	Normal, or denervation atrophy on B_x	Nc
Myopathy & NMJ Blockers & Steroids	?? Sepsis	Acute quadriplegia	NMJ transmission defect, ± myopathy	Thick myosin filament loss	Nc
Panfascicular Muscle Fibre Necrosis	Infection, Trauma	Muscle weakness, ↑ CPK	Positive sharp waves, fibrillation potentials	Panfascicular muscle fibre necrosis	Nc ? C my
Cachetic Myopathy	Severe illness, Prolonged immobility	Diffuse muscle wasting	Normal	Type II fibre atrophy	Ph Nu

Leijten, et al. JAMA 1995

• hypothesis that prolonged motor recovery after long-term ventilation may be due to polyneuropathy

• cohort study, 50 patients < 75 years, IPPV > 7 days over an 18 month period

- a. polyneuropathy was identified by EMG
- b. end point was defined as return of normal muscle strength and ability to walk 50 m
- c. EMG diagnosis of polyneuropathy $\rightarrow 29/50$ patients ~ 60%
 - higher ICU *mortality* $-14 \text{ vs } 4 \quad (p = .03)$
 - multiple organ failure -22 vs 11 (p = .08)
 - aminoglycoside treatment of suspected gram-negative sepsis -17 vs 4 (p = .05)
 - *axonal polyneuropathy* with conduction slowing on EMG indicated a poor prognosis
- 9 patients with delays > 4 weeks,
 - a. 8 had polyneuropathy
 - b. 5 of whom had persistent motor handicap after 1 year

• polyneuropathy in the critically ill,

- 1. is related to multiple organ failure and gram-negative sepsis
- 2. is associated with higher mortality
- 3. causes important rehabilitation problems
- 4. EMG recordings in the ICU can identify patients at risk.

	G	uillain-Bárre Syndrome
Aetiology		 post-infectious adenovirus, influenza A&B, parainfluenza 3, mycoplasma, herpes zoster, EBV, mumps, measles, CMV, chickenpox, <i>C.jejuni</i>
		• post-vaccination (Influenza A/New Jersey/76 swine vaccine)
Epidemic	ology	• isolated cases, usually well developed nations
Incidence	2	• 1.7:100,000
Pathophysiology		 perivenular inflammation, ? cell mediated immunity autoantigen ? <i>myelin neuritogenic protein</i> myelin degeneration ± axonal degeneration
Onset		• ~ 2-8 weeks post URTI ~ 45% GIT ~ 20%
Motor sig	gns	• progressive, ascending <i>symmetrical</i> paralysis
Cranial nerves		 ~ 45% involvement virtually always with limb signs
Tendon r	eflexes	decreased or absent
Sensory symptoms		 <i>paraesthesia</i> ~ 50% cramps (rare)
Sensory signs		• none, or mild loss
Autonom	ic involvement	• Yes ~ 20%
Meningis	smus	• No
CSF:	pressure cells protein	 ~ normal < 50 lymphocytes/µl, < 2 PMN's/µl <i>increased</i> ↑ rise after 1 week
EMG:	conduction velocity distal latency sensory/muscle AP's	reducedincreasednormal
Prognosis		• ~ 85% full recovery
Treatment		 supportive plasmapheresis ± immune globulin
Mortality	7	• low
Permanent weakness		• <10%

	Poliomyelitis	
Aetiology	poliomyelitis enterovirus	
Epidemiology	epidemicsunder-developed countries	
Incidence	• rare ± paralysis ~ 5%	
Pathophysiology	 α-motor neurone bulbar & spinal ± axonal degeneration 	
Onset	• ~ 2-3 weeks	
Motor signs	• <i>asymmetrical</i> paralysis	
Cranial nerves	• ~ 25% involvement	
Tendon reflexes	• diminished	
Sensory symptoms	muscle cramps common	
Sensory signs	• none	
Autonomic involvement	• Yes	
Meningismus	• Yes	
CSF: pressure cells protein	 normal 25-2,000/µl ~ 80% PMN's early, then <i>monocytes</i> <i>increased</i> 	
EMG: conduction velocity distal latency muscle AP's sensory AP's	 normal normal decreased ∝ denervation normal 	
Prognosis	 high incidence of permanent disability scoliosis, limb girdle weakness 	
Mortality	• low with supportive R_x	
Treatment	supportive, physiotherapyprophylactic vaccination	

Critically Ill Polyneuropathy			
Aetiology		 unknown ? toxic/metabolic	
Epidemic	ology	severe sepsisMODS	
Incidence	e	• ~ 20% of severe sepsis (< 70%)	
Pathophy	vsiology	• patchy <i>axonal degeneration</i>	
Onset		• ~ 1-14 days	
Motor signs		flaccid paralysisfailure to wean from IPPV	
Cranial n	nerves	 usually <i>not involved</i> 	
Tendon r	reflexes	• normal, decreased or absent	
Sensory	signs	• probable but unexaminable	
Autonomic involvement		• No	
Meningismus		• No	
CSF:	pressure cells protein	 normal normal normal ± slight increase 	
EMG:	conduction velocity distal latency muscle AP's sensory AP's	 normal normal decreased decreased 	
Prognosis		• <i>poor</i> = underlying disease	
Treatmen	nt	• underlying disease, support	
Mortality	I	• high	
Permanent weakness		low incidence	

	Botulism	
Aetiology	• Clostridium botulinum exotoxin A,B, or E	
Epidemiology	 food-borne, adult intestinal wound infantile 	
Incidence	• rare	
Pathophysiology	• exotoxin inhibits <i>presynaptic</i> ACh release	
Onset	 6 hrs - 8 days prodrome - ingested exotoxin sore throat, GIT, fatigue 	
Motor signs	• descending symmetrical flaccid paralysis	
Cranial N. involvement	• <i>early</i> , most cases	
Tendon reflexes	normal, sometimes decreased	
Sensory symptoms	• none	
Sensory signs	• none	
Autonomic involvement	 mydriasis, ileus, dry mouth ie. anticholinergic 	
Meningismus	• none	
CSF: pressure cells protein	 normal normal normal ± slight increase 	
EMG: conduction velocity distal latency muscle AP's sensory AP's	 normal normal decreased + <i>post-tetanic facilitation</i> decreased 	
Prognosis	• good with treatment	
Treatment	• supportive	
Mortality	• high	
Permanent weakness	• nil	

Neuropathies - Miscellaneous

• Lead Neuropathy

- 1. history of ingestion
- 2. radial nerve palsy \rightarrow *wrist drop*
- 3. arm weakness, rarely shoulder girdle
- 4. anaemia with *basophilic stipling*
- 5. colicky abdominal pain, constipation
- 6. dementia
- 7. encephalopathy in children
- 8. raised urinary Pb⁺⁺, and coproporphyrins

Beri-Beri

- 1. acute *thiamine deficiency* resulting in *axonal degeneration*
 - always malnourished
 - common in chronic alcoholics
- 2. sensory loss
 - progressive *symmetrical* distal paraesthesia, "glove & stocking"
 - diminished proprioception, vibration \pm touch
- 3. *LMN weakness* loss of reflexes
- 4. *no* cranial nerve involvement
- 5. occasionally *autonomic dysfunction*
- 6. normal CSF
- 7. associated CVS changes, *cardiomyopathy*
- 8. abnormal rbc *transketolase*

Subacute Combined Degeneration of the Cord

- 1. vitamin B_{12} deficiency
- 2. spinal postero-lateral column degeneration
- 3. bilateral, usually symmetrical posterior column loss
 - i. joint position & vibration loss
 - ii. ataxic gait
 - iii. positive Romberg sign
- 4. *upper motor neurone* signs in the legs
 - usually exaggerated, but occasionally absent, knee reflexes
 - clonus, up-going plantars
 - but, absent ankle reflexes
 - reflexes may be diminished or absent due to sensory dysfunction
- 5. associated findings
 - i. optic atrophy
 - ii. peripheral sensory neuropathy
 - iii. dementia
- *NB*: $R_X = B_{12} \& folate$

MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS

Essential Features

- 1. *episodic* symptoms including,
 - i. blurred vision
 - ii. sensory abnormalities
 - iii. motor weakness, with or without spasticity
 - iv. sphincter disturbances
- 2. patient age usually < **55** *years*
- 3. clinical findings *cannot* be explained by a *single* pathological lesion
- 4. multiple CNS focal lesions, best shown by MRI

Clinical Features

- a. commonest demyelinating disease
- b. episodic course with *relapses & remissions*
- c. varied symptomatology, mimics many other diseases
- d. usually starts in *young adults* ~ 30 yrs age ~ 60% females
- e. young adults frequently present with *ocular*, or *UMN motor* features
- f. elderly tend to get progressive spastic paraparesis
- g. *localising signs* \rightarrow probably *not* MS

Clinical Symptoms

- a. visual change scotomata, blurring
 - diplopia
- b. ocular pain optic neuritis
- c. vomiting, vertigo, ataxia
- d. limb weakness
- e. paraesthesia
- f. GUS

ii.

- i. early urinary frequency & urgency
 - late urinary retention
 - reflex emptying

Clinical Signs

a.	eye	 nystagmus → <i>abduction</i> > adduction internuclear ophthalmoplegia (III, IV) papilloedema, later optic atrophy
b.	limbs	spasticity, UMNL lesionhypo- or areflexiacerebellar signs
c.	speech	- staccato, scanning speech
d.	personality	emotional labilityintellectual impairment

• CSF Findings

- 1. elevated total protein rare
- 2. increased Ig's
- 3. mild lymphocytosis

Poor Prognostic Features	Better Prognostic Features
1. young age	1. older age
2. male $>$ female	2. complete recovery
3. incomplete, or no remissions	3. \uparrow duration between recurrences
4. early recurrence	4. type of initial lesion
5. type of initial lesion	 retrobulbar neuritis
• motor, brainstem, or cerebellar	• sensory, no motor involvement

Treatment

a.	physiotherapy and	supportive
----	-------------------	------------

• minimise 2° complications - infection, pressure sores, etc.

b. *steroids*

- relapses \rightarrow Dexamethasone 2mg q8h for 5 days
- hastens recovery, but *no change* in long term disability or relapse rate
- c. cyclophosphamide / azathioprine
 - may be beneficial in long-term management, currently being trialled
- d. interferon may help if relapsing disease
 - trials being done
- e. plasmapheresis *no benefit* in MS

MOTOR NEURONE DISEASE

- group of disorders, characterised by *weakness* and *variable wasting*, without sensory changes
- infantile/childhood variants include Wernig-Hoffman disease
- the disease variably involves,
 - a. cranial nerve motor neurones
 - b. spinal motor neurones
 - c. pyramidal tract motor neurones
 - *NB:* \rightarrow progressive *bulbar palsy* or *limb weakness*

• Classification

1.	progressive bulbar palsy	- motor nuclei of cranial nn.
2.	pseudobulbar palsy	bilateral corticobulbar diseaseUMN lesions of the cranial nn.
3.	progressive spinal muscular atro	ophy
4.	primary lateral sclerosis	- purely UMN deficits in the limbs
5.	amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	 mixed UMN/LMN lesions of the limbs associated with dementia, parkinsonism, etc.

Clinical Features

a.	in at least 3 extremities, a combination of,		
	i.	LMNL in arms	$ ightarrow \ progressive\ muscular\ atrophy$
		• <i>fasciculation</i> , weakness	s, atrophy & loss of reflexes

- ii. UMNL in legs \rightarrow *amyotrophic lateral sclerosis*
- b. LMNL lower cranial nerves bulbar palsy
- c. reflexes variable hyperactive (UMN), or lost early (LMN)
- d. absence of sensory signs and upper cranial nerve involvement
- e. sphincters generally spared
- f. CSF examination normal

Differential Diagnosis

- a. Guillain-Bárre
- b. high cervical cord lesion
- c. syphilis
- d. paraneoplastic syndrome

PHRENIC NERVE PALSY

• Unilateral

- a. idiopathic / congenital
- b. trauma cervical
 - surgical
 - post-CABG
- c. mediastinal tumour
- d. local anaesthetics interpleural, interscalene - stellate ganglion
- e. features
 - i. asymptomatic in the absence of other cardiorespiratory disease
 - ii. small fall in VC
 - iii. elevated hemidiaphragm on CXR
 - iv. no movement on *double-exposure* CXR

Bilateral

- a. congenital
- b. cervical cord damage
- c. motor neurone disease
- d. polyneuropathies
- e. poliomyelitis
- f. mediastinal tumour
- g. "cryoanaesthesia" of phrenic nerves during open-heart surgery
- h. features
 - i. paradoxical respiration
 - ii. respiratory failure
 - iii. small VC
 - iv. failure to wean from IPPV after CABG

CENTRAL PONTINE MYELINOLYSIS

- pontine myelinolysis should be suspected on the following criteria,
 - a. progressive neurological deficits resulting in "locked-in" syndrome,
 - i. flaccid quadriplegia
 - ii. pseudobulbar palsy inability to speak or swallow
 - iii. facial weakness
 - iv. upper cranial nerves *spared*
 - v. impaired pain response
 - b. risk factors,
 - i. severely malnourished alcoholic
 - ii. severe hyponatraemia
 - iii. hepatic encepalopathy only 25% are hyponatraemic
 - iv. inappropriate hydration of a patient at risk
 - too much water, or too rapid correction
 - correction to *hypernatraemic* levels (animal studies ~ 150 mmol/l)
 - c. development over days
 - d. diagnosis by CT/MRI
 - only ~ 15-20% of presumptive CPM is positive by MRI criteria
- the pathology \rightarrow *central* and *symmetrical* demyelination at the base (ventral) of the pons • the major differential diagnosis is from,
 - a. critically-ill polyneuropathy
 - b. severe hyperkalaemia

NB: also termed osmotic demyelination syndrome

Cerebellar Lesions

- a. alcohol[§]
- b. tumour[§]
- c. CVA§
- d. Friedrich's ataxia[§] [§]common causes of *cerebellar signs*
- e. multiple sclerosis
- f. drugs phenytoin
- barbiturates, alcohol
- g. ischaemia vertebrobasilar disease
- h. paraneoplastic syndrome eg. bronchial Ca.
- i. hypothyroidism
- j. Arnold-Chiari malformation
- k. other brainstem and cerebello-pontine angle tumours

Friedrich's Ataxia

a familial disorder, of autosomal *dominant* inheritance, with a usual age of onset ~ 5-15 years
characterised by *dorsal* and *lateral spinal column* degeneration, affecting pyramidal, spinocerebellar and sensory tracts

Clinical Features

- 1. upper motor neurone lesion in legs
 - lower limb weakness and extensor plantars
 - sensory involvement \rightarrow depressed or absent knee jerks
- 2. cerebellar ataxia first in the lower limbs, then upper limbs
- 3. *cardiomyopathy* arrhythmias & sudden death
- 4. optic atrophy
- 5. pes excavatum
- 6. scoliosis

NB: ie. lower limb findings similar to SACD, differentiated by other findings & I_x

Headache

- a. tension headaches
 b. migraine common - neurological
 c. cluster headache, migrainous neuralgia
 d. meningeal irritation - infection - blood
- e. intracerebral tumour
- f. intracranial haematoma
- g. raised ICP any cause
- h. temporal arteritis

Facial Pain

NB: common causes - sinusitis, dental problems, fractures

Differential Diagnosis Severe Pain

- a. trigeminal neuralgia post-herpetic neuralgia b. atypical facial neuralgia c. Costen's syndrome - temporomandibular joint arthritis d. e. Tolosa-Hunt syndrome - temporal / facial arteritis, orbital pain Raeder's para-trigeminal syndrome - organic compression of trigeminal ganglion f. migrainous neuralgia g.
- h. rare neuralgias supraorbital, infraorbital - sphenopalatine, ciliary

Holmes-Adie Syndrome

a.	myotonic pupil	 dilated reacts sluggishly to light
b.	autonomic hyporeflexia	- postural hypotension
c.	absent tendon jerks	

Horner's Syndrome

1.	ptosis	- SNS supplies upper eyelid <i>smooth muscle</i>
2.	miosis	- unopposed PNS action
3.	anhidrosis	* all unilateral
4.	enophthalmos	- probably <i>not</i> in man, or if so very minor

Aetiology

a.	brain-stem vascular disease	 lateral medullar PICA syndrom 	5 5
b.	demyelinating diseases	- MS ? GBS	
c.	syringomyelia, syringobulbia		
d.	carcinoma of the bronchus	- Pancoast tumour	
e.	cervical sympathectomy & stellate ganglion block		- chemical, surgical
f.	secondary carcinoma in cervical no	odes	
g.	traumatic		
h.	aneurysm	- aortic - carotid - ophthalmic	

Limb Pain - Causes

- ii. cellulitis
- iii. lymphangitis
- iv. osteomyelitis
- v. superficial or deep venous thrombosis
- vi. arterial occlusion
- vii. AV fistula
- viii. cramps
- ix. erythromelalgia
- x. sympathetic dystrophy
- xi. nerve entrapments
- xii. erythema nodosum
- xiii. varicose veins
- xiv. ischaemic compartment syndromes

MYASTHENIA GRAVIS

Def'n: a neuromuscular disorder resulting in weakness and fatiguability of skeletal muscle, due to an *autoimmune* mediated decrease in the *number*, and *functional integrity* of ACh receptors at the neuromuscular junction;

"the prototype of antibody mediated autoimmune disease"

- 1. *degradation* of AChR's at an accelerated rate due to cross-linking
- 2. effective *junctional blockade* due to receptor occupancy by antibodies
- 3. damage to the postsynaptic membrane due to *complement activation*

• Essential Features

•

- a. muscular *weakness*
 - external ophthalmoplegia ≥90% * may be assymetrical
 - facial weakness
 - bulbar muscle involvement * risk of aspiration
 - respiratory failure
- b. easy *fatigability*
- c. recovery with *rest* or *anticholinesterases*

	Myasthenia Grades [§]
Ι	 extraocular muscle involvement only good response to anticholinesterases
IIA	 generalised mild muscle weakness <i>no</i> respiratory involvement good response to anticholinesterases and steroids
IIB	 generalised moderate muscle weakness, and/or bulbar dysfunction <i>may</i> involve respiratory muscles more severe, rapidly progressive
III	 acute, fulminating presentation, and/or respiratory dysfunction rapid deterioration over ≤ 6 months high mortality
IV	 late, severe, generalised myasthenia gravis incidence ~ 1:20,000 females > males 80% > 20 yrs progression from types I & II
	[§] Osserman and Genkins (1971)

• Anti-ACh-Receptor Ab's

- a. all grades ~ 85-90% (+)'ve * virtually diagnostic if present
- b. grade I ~ 50% (+)'ve
- c. AChR-Ab (-)'ve patients have mild or localised myasthenia
- d. IgG predominantly against the **a**-subunit of the endplate receptors
- e. individual patients have *heterogenous* populations of AChR antibodies
- f. there is limited sharing of idiotypes between patients
- g. T-cells become sensitised against thymic myoid cell AChR's during maturation
- h. *T-cell dependent*, B-cell antibody production results in circulating Ab's
- *NB*: clinical effects appear when muscle is unable to synthesise new receptors faster than the rate of destruction

Presentation

- a. transient neonatal myasthenia
 - ~ **15-20%** of neonates born to myasthenic mothers
 - pregnancy may result in remission or exacerbation of maternal myasthenia
 - *no correlation* between the severity of maternal disease and neonatal occurrence
 - no correlation between the level of maternal AChR-Ab's and neonatal occurrence
 - spontaneous remission usually in 2-4 weeks

b. congenital or infantile myasthenia

- not autoimmune, possibly autosomal recessive inheritance
- rare in the absence of maternal myasthenia
- comprises a number of genetically determined abnormalities of the AChR or the post-synaptic membrane

c. juvenile myasthenia

- ~ 4% onset before 10 years and ~ 24% before age 20 years
- marked female predominance ~ 4:1
- pathologically identical to the adult disease, though, thymoma *is not* a feature

d. *adult myasthenia*

•	prevalence ~ 1:20,000	* F:M ~ 3:2	overall
		- F:M ~ 2:1	< 50 years
		- F:M ~ 1:1	> 50 years
	males tend to have more	anyona la manidity	nuo ano asin a dia a

- males tend to have more severe & rapidly progressing disease
- hyperplasia of the thymus in > 70%, *thymoma* in 10-15%
- distribution, severity & outcome are determined by the course within the first 2-3 years following onset, suggesting most ACh receptor damage occurs early
- $\sim 15\%$ remain localised to the extraocular muscles, 85% becoming generalised
- spontaneous remission rate ~ 20% in first 2 years, but rarely complete

Clinical Features

	1.	muscle groups	
		i. eye muscle weakness ~ 80%	
		ii. bulbar palsies ~ 30%	
		iii. facial muscles	
		iv. shoulder girdle, neck & respiratory muscle weakness	
		 trunk and limb muscles less frequently involved 	
		v. tendon reflexes are <i>brisk</i> and sensation is normal	
	2. clinical picture		
		i. restricted ocular disease ~	25%
		ii. ocular, bulbar, mild-moderate generalised weakness	~ 50%
		iii. acute fulminating disease + respiratory involvement	~ 10%
		iv. late chronic muscular atrophy	
•	Compli	cations	
	a.	myasthenic crisis - severe life-threatening relapse	
	b.	cholinergic crisis	
		C C	
	c.	respiratory failure - aspiration, infection, weakness	
	d.	"Mary Walker phenomenon"	
		\rightarrow acute muscle weakness following exercise a	ctic acidosis
	e.	cardiomyopathy	
	f.	associated diseases making weakness worse	
		• hyper / hypothyroidism, SLE, RA, polymyositis, pernicious	anaemia
•	Differe	ntial Diagnosis	

- - 1. myasthenic syndrome Eaton-Lambert
 - 2. acquired myopathies hyperthyroidism, hyperparathyroidism, Cushing's d. polymyositis / dermatomyositis
 - 3. botulinism, Guillain-Barré, motor neurone disease
 - 4. organophosphonate poisoning
 - 5. envenomations tick paralysis, snake bites
 - 6. neurasthenia
 - 7. progressive post-poliomyelitis muscular atrophy
 - 8. familial periodic paralysis
 - 9. intracranial mass lesions

Investigation

- 1. ACh-R *antibodies*
 - all grades ~ 85-90%
 - grade I ~ 50%
 - essentially diagnostic if present
- 2. anticholinesterase tests
 - *edrophonium* is commonly used due to rapid onset (< 30s) and short duration of action (~ 5 mins), resulting from freely *reversible* binding with ACh-E
 - objective assessment of one of the unequivocally weak groups of muscles,
 - i. initial dose 2 mg IV
 - ii. improvement (+)'ve test is terminated
 - iii. no improvement (-)'ve further dose of 8 mg
 - iv. small initial dose due to unpleasant side-effects
 - nausea, diarrhoea, salivation, fasciculations and rarely syncope
 - atropine (0.6 mg) should be available for administration
 - v. false positives amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

- placebo-reactors

- some cases may be better assessed with a long acting anticholinesterase agents, such as neostigmine
- 3. electrodiagnositic testing
 - *fade*, train of five (3Hz) > 10% decrement $1 \rightarrow 5$
 - post-tetanic facilitation
- 4. CT of thoracic inlet/mediastinum
- 5. other serology
 - i. thyroid function studies ~ 5% of myasthenics
 - ii. ANF, RF
- 6. other auto-Ab's
 - i. anti-striated muscle Ab's ~ 90% of myasthenics with *thymoma*
 - ii. ANA, DNA, extractable nuclear Ag
 - iii. smooth muscle, islet cell, parietal cell, intrinsic factor, adrenal

Myasthenic Crisis

Def'n: sudden, severe life-threatening relapse

- 1. may last weeks months
- 2. risk factors introduction of steroids
 - increasing age
 - pregnancy
 - infection
 - surgery, trauma
- 3. drugs aminoglycosides, tetracyclines
 - class Ia antiarrhythmics
 - narcotics, volatile anaesthetics
 - muscle relaxants

• Clinical Features

- a. rapid deterioration
- b. *positive* tensilon (edrophonium) test
- c. NM stimulation \rightarrow tetanic fade post-tetanic facilitation

Cholinergic Crisis

Def'n: muscular weakness 2° to excessive doses of anticholinesterases

- 1. risk factors
 - recovery phase from any "stress"
 - following response to steroids, immunosuppressives
 thymectomy, plasmapheresis
- 2. differentiation from *myasthenic crisis*

• Clinical Features

- a. *negative* Tensilon test
- b. NM stimulation \rightarrow depressed single twitch *absent* fade & absent post-tetanic facilitation
- c. signs of *cholinergic toxicity* may appear
 - miosis, lacrimation
 - tremor, anxiety, confusion, seizures
 - bradycardia, AV block
 - bronchospasm, bronchorrhoea, pulmonary oedema
 - abdominal cramps, N&V, diarrhoea, diaphoresis

Treatment

a. anticholinesterases

- · little benefit in severe cases with respiratory muscle involvement
- animal studies show long term administration results in changes in the AChR similar to those seen in myasthenia
- patient education regarding overdose (cholinergic) vs. underdose (myasthenic)
 - neostigmine 15 mg qid ~ 0.5 mg IV
 - ~ 1.5 mg IM
- ii. pyridostigmine 60 mg 6-8 hrly

b. immunosupression

i.

- i. prednisolone 50-100 mg/day
 - increases muscle strength & results in remission ~ 80%
 - may result in *increased* weakness during first 7 days, especially high doses
 - complete withdrawal is seldom possible
- ii. cyclophosphamide, azathioprine

c. plasmapheresis

- every 2-3 days for 2 wks $\rightarrow \sim 45\%$ show marked improvement or *remission*
- however, this only lasts 4 days to 12 weeks
- plasma compartment contains ~ 45% of total IgG,
 - \rightarrow ~ 70% of this being removed by total plasma exchange
 - \rightarrow ~ **30%** removal of IgG
- therefore, should always be accompanied by immunosuppressive therapy
- indications
- i. myasthenic crisis, especially with respiratory failure
- ii. respiratory failure
- iii. preoperative (for thymectomy)
- iv. refractory to drug therapy (steroids & anticholinesterases)
- d. *thymectomy* *see over

■ Thymectomy

NB: should be performed on all adult patients with generalised disease, especially between puberty & 55 years; there is also unanimity regarding resection of thymomas, although, disease remission is less frequent

a.	removal of thymoma	~ 10% of cases, most are benign - resection to prevent local spread
b.	therapeutic thymectomy	 ≤ 85% of patients improve ~ 35% achieve drug-free remission ~ 50% reduction in <i>mortality</i> in generalized disease

- thymus is abnormal in ~ 75% (65% hyperplasia + 10% thymoma)
- improvement may begin up to 1-10 years post-surgery !!
- usually lowers the AChR-Ab titre, which correlates well with clinical improvement
- there is *no evidence* that removal in *childhood* results in immunodeficiency
- operation *is* usually recommended for patients with only extraocular disease (Class I)

• the anterior, *trans-sternal approach* is superior, as even small remnants left during the transcervical approach will limit success

Anaesthetic Management

NB: use regional or local anaesthesia whenever possible

a.	preoperative evaluation	 age, sex, onset & duration of disease presence or absence of thymoma, R_x bulbar involvement, aspiration risk, CAL 		
b.	optimisation of condition	 steroids ± azathioprine (age > 15) plasmapheresis anticholinesterases 		
	the use of anticholinesterases is debated			
	 they potentiate vagal responses & require the use of atropine decrease the metabolism of suxamethonium and ester local anaesthetics 			
c.	premedication	 avoid respiratory depressants ? atropine IM ± benzodiazepines 		
d.	induction / maintenance	 deep inhalational anaesthesia balanced anaesthesia with muscle relaxants 		
	• abnormal response to both <i>depolarizing</i> (\downarrow) & <i>non-depolarizing</i> (\uparrow) relaxants			
	• these responses are seen	during remission & with localised extraocular disease		
	• ED_{95} for SCh may be 2-2	.5 x normal, however type II blockade is readily produced		
	• conversely, the ED_{95} for t	he non-depolarising agents may be 10% of normal		

· atracurium & vecuronium have short enough half-lives to allow titration to effect

e. *postoperative management*

- neuromuscular monitoring should be continued into the postoperative phase
- few studies correlate tests of NMJ function with adequacy of ventilation

NB: the *differential responses* seen between peripheral versus bulbar muscles is further exaggerated in the myasthenic patient !

Factor	Points	
• long history of myasthenia	> 6 yrs	12
moderate to severe CAL	- not 2° to MG	10
high pyridostigmine dose	> 750 mg/day	8
• diminished vital capacity	< 2.9 l < 40 ml/kg	4

NB: following transcervical thymectomy ~ 7.4% of patients require prolonged (> 3 hrs) ventilation

• Outcome

- a. *thymectomy* benefits ~ 96% of patients, irrespective of preoperative status
 - i. $\sim 46\%$ develop complete remission
 - ii. $\sim 50\%$ are asymptomatic or improve on therapy
 - iii. $\sim 4\%$ remain the same
- b. thymectomy *does not* always result in a decrease the anti-AChR-Ab titre
- NB: the anti-AChR sensitised T-cells survive long after thymectomy

Eaton-Lambert Syndrome

- acquired disorder of *quantal release* of ACh from motor nerve terminal
- usually males, aged 50-70 years, with a high association with small cell carcinoma of the lung
- disease predominantly of the *limb girdle* muscles, with weakness, aching and stiffness
- IgG-Ab to the *presynaptic* voltage-dependent Ca⁺⁺ channels $\rightarrow \downarrow$ ACh quantal release
- ACh content and acetyltransferase activity are normal
- decreased quantal release & decreased MEPP frequency
- tendon reflexes are depressed or absent, unlike myasthenia
- dysautonomia may occur
 - \rightarrow dry mouth, impaired accomodation, urinary hesitancy and constipation
- "characteristic" EMG \rightarrow
 - 1. incremental response
 - 2. *improvement* with exercise / tetanic stimulation
 - 3. marked EMG deficit with "normal" clinical strength[§]
 - *NB*: [§] this is in contrast to myasthenia, where the EMG abnormality is *mild* in the presence of marked clinical weakness
- weakness is not reliably reversed with anti-AChE agents
- however, 3,4-diaminopyridine increases ACh release & may be beneficial
- patients are sensitive to *both* depolarising and non-depolarising relaxants

MYOPATHIES

Classification

• Congenital

a.	muscular <i>dystrophies</i>	- Duchene - limb girdle, F-S-H, etc.
b.	myotonias	 dystrophica myotonica myotonia congenita paramyotonia
c.	myopathies	- central core - nemaline - microtubular
d.	glycogen storage diseases	

e. familial periodic paralysis

Acquired

a.	alco	hol	
b.	drug	75	- steroids - D-penicillamine - organophosphates
c.	endo	ocrine	 thyrotoxic diabetes hypoparathyroid hypopituitarism Cushing's
d.	infe	ctive	
	i.	viral	 - influenza A & B - Coxsackie B₅ - adenovirus, EBV, herpes - dengue, measles
	ii.	bacterial	- brucella - legionella - Staphlococcal - leptospirosis
	iii.	fungal	
	iv.	protozoal	 toxoplasmosis trichinosis, worms

e.	auto	immune		SLE, RApolymyositis / dermatomyositispolymyalgia rheumatica
f.	NM.	J		myasthenia gravisEaton-Lambertorganophosphates
g.	meta	abolic		
	i.	hypo	- glycaemia	$a / K^{+} / Ca^{++} / HPO_{4}^{=}$
	ii.	hyper	- Mg^{++} / K^{+}	
h.	chro	nic renal fail	ure	
i.	nutri	tional		
j.	infilt	rative		- amyloid, tumour, fibrositis
k.	disus	se atrophy		
1.	rhab	domyolysis		

Polymyositis / Dermatomyositis

- inflammatory diseases of skeletal muscle with lymphocytic infiltration and fibre damage
- dermatomyositis, in addition, has a *heliotrope* cyanosis & oedema from infiltration of the skin
 often associated with,
 - a. *malignancy* *ovary, breast, GIT, lung and prostate
 - b. collagen/vascular diseases RA, SLE, scleroderma
 - c. Raynaud's disease
 - d. rheumatic fever

• clinical features,

- a. difficulty swallowing bulbar palsy
- b. proximal, limb girdle weakness
- c. diminished reflexes but always *present*
- d. low grade *fever*
- e. \uparrow CPK, ESR, CRP
- f. tachycardia, rarely myocarditis
- g. positive *muscle biopsy*
- · management with steroids / azathioprine

Muscular Dystrophy

• Types

a.	x-linl	ked recessive	
	i.	Duchene's	 onset 1-5 years, rapid progression death within 15 years of onset pelvic, then shoulder girdle later respiratory muscles
	ii.	Becker's	 slow progression, may have normal life-span age of onset 5-25 yrs
b.	autos	somal recessive	
	i.	limb girdle Erb's	onset 10-30 yrsvariable severity, mild & severe formspelvic or shoulder girdle
c.	autos	somal dominant	
	i.	facio-scapulo-humeral	- onset at any age, slow progression
	ii.	distal	- onset 40-60 yrs, slow progression
	iii.	ocular	onset any age (usually 5-30)may be recessive
	iv.	oculopharyngeal	- same as ocular but involves pharyngeal mm.

Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy

Principal Problems

- 1. progressive *muscle weakness*
 - i. ascending lower limb girdle first
 - ii. restrictive respiratory defect
 - iii. dysphagia, dysphonia, risk of aspiration
- 2. increased sensitivity of *respiratory drive* to sedatives
- 3. muscle relaxants
 - i. suxamethonium \rightarrow *hyperkalaemia* and rhabdomyolysis
 - ii. nondepolarisers $\rightarrow \uparrow$ sensitivity

4. cardiomyopathy

- i. especially *RV obstructive cardiomyopathy* (PV outflow obstruction)
- ii. ECG RVH and "strain", conduction delays, VE's
- iii. very sensitive to negative inotropes (eg. volatile agents)
- 5. possible association with *malignant hyperthermia* (probably not)

Clinical Features

- a. *x-linked recessive* disorder, affecting almost exclusively *males*
- b. incidence ~ 13-33:100,000 ~ 1:3,000-8,000
- c. progressive, *symmetrical* weakness of the pelvic & shoulder girdles,
 - i. onset by age 5 years
 - ii. leg braces by 8-10
 - iii. non-ambulatory by 12 years
 - iv. survival beyond 25 years is rare
- d. associated problems
 - i. tendon and muscle contractures
 - ii. progressive *kyphoscoliosis*
 - iii. impaired pulmonary function
 - iv. cardiomyopathy
 - v. intellectual impairment ~ 33%
- e. palpable enlargement of some muscles, resulting initially from *hypertrophy* and later from replacement with fat and connective tissue
- f. laboratory findings

g.

h.

i.	CK, aldolase	•		
		- MM & MB bands		
		- <i>not</i> BB (cancer, heart trauma, CPB, CT disorders)		
ii.	EMG	- myopathic pattern		
iii.	ECG	 tall R in V₁, deep Q in precordial leads 'pseudo-infarct' pattern 		
iv.	biopsy	- necrotic fibres, phagocytosis, fatty replacement		
carrie	carrier detection			
i.	СК	$\sim 50\%$ of female carriers show elevation		
ii.	DNA probes	 abnormal gene coding for <i>dystrophin</i> restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP's) 		
comp	olications			
i.	respiratory	respiratory failurerecurrent infections		
ii.	CVS	 <i>cardiomyopathy</i> in almost <i>all</i> patients CCF occurs rarely, only with major stress arrhythmias occur but also uncommon * cardiac death is <i>rare</i> 		
iii.	GIT	acute gastric dilatation (may be fatal)aspiration syndromes		

Myotonic Dystrophy Dystrophica Myotonica

- a. *autosomal dominant* ~ 1:10,000
- b. onset typically 2^{nd} or 3^{rd} decade
 - affected individuals may remain asymptomatic

c. congenital myotonic dystrophy

- occurs in infants of affected mothers with severe facial and bulbar palsy
- neonatal respiratory insufficiency may occur but is usually *self-limiting*
- d. clinical features
 - i. manifests as an inability to relax muscles following strong contraction
 - ii. initially muscles of face, neck and distal extremities
 - iii. characteristic "hatchet" face
 - ptosis, temporal wasting, drooping of the lower lip and sagging of the jaw
 - iv. cardiac involvement usually affects conducting tissue
 - 1st degree *heart block* is present in the majority
 - CHB may dictate pacemaker insertion
 - sudden death may occur, tachyarrhythmias & CCF are less frequent
 - v. respiratory muscle weakness may be severe with minimal limb involvement
 - vi. impaired ventilatory drive & extreme sensitivity to opioids etc.
 - vii. central & peripheral *sleep apnoea* with chronic hypoxia may lead to *cor pulmonale*, and this is the usual cause of CCF in these patients

e. characteristic *facial features*

- i. ptosis
- ii. atrophy of facial muscles & sternomastoid
- iii. frontal baldness & hyperostosis frontalis
- iv. posterior subcapsular cataracts
- f. laboratory studies
 - i. CK normal or mildly elevated
 - ii. EMG characteristic myotonia & myopathic features
 - iii. ECG -1^{st} degree HB \pm CHB
 - iv. *biopsy* distinctive *type I fibre atrophy*
 - v. genetics mutant gene long arm of C_{19}

* antenatal diagnosis possible

- g. general management
 - condition is seldom so disabling as to require treatment
 - *phenytoin* is drug of choice
 - antimyotonia agents, quinidine & procainamide, may worsen cardiac conduction
- h. treatment of *myotonic contractures* h
 - hydrocortisonedantrolene
 - procainamide

<u>Myotonic Contracture Triggers</u>

- 1. cold, shivering, stress
- 2. trauma, exercise, mechanical stimulation
- 3. tourniquets, hyperkalaemia
- 4. *drugs* suxamethonium
 - halothane
 - anticholinesterases

• Other Complications

1.	respiratory muscle weakness	- respiratory failure	
2.	myotonic contracture	chest wall rigiditydifficult to ventilate	
3.	cardiomyopathy	$\pm \operatorname{cor} pulmonale$	
4.	endocrinopathy	hypothyroidismdiabetes mellitus	
5.	gastrointestinal disease	 pharyngeal weakness aspiration risk 	
6.	gonadal atrophy		
7.	intellectual impairment		
8.	hypersomnia / sleep apnoea syndrome		

- 9. possible association with MH * abnormality on C₁₉
- 10. drugs
- contractures
 - respiratory depression

Treatment of Myotonic Contractures

- 1. hydrocortisone
- 2. phenytoin
- 3. dantrolene
- 4. procainamide, quinidine may worsen intracardiac conduction

Myotonia Congenita

- a. occurs as autosomal dominant and autosomal recessive forms
- b. those with the *recessive* form may develop slight weakness, those with the dominant form do not
- c. there is no other significant organ involvement
- d. respond well to antimyotonia agents
- quinine, procainamide, tocainide
- phenytoin
- acetazolamide

Miscellaneous Muscular Dystrophies

- 1. oculopharyngeal dystrophy
- 2. congenital muscular dystrophy
- 3. distal muscular dystrophy
- 4. scapuloperoneal dystrophy

Congenital Myopathies

- *NB*: 1. these are rare disorders, distinguished from the *muscular dystrophies* by the presence of *specific histochemical* & *structural* abnormalities in muscle
 - 2. a *non-progressive* course is common but not invariable
 - 3. pectus excavatum, kyphoscoliosis, hip dislocation & pes cavum are common

• Central Core Disease

- the first congenital myopathy described, by Shy & Magee in 1956
- autosomal dominant inheritance but sporadic cases occur
- weakness of muscles of the face & legs is usually mild
- serum CK and EMG may be normal
- · diagnostic biopsy with "central cores" in fibres, devoid of oxidative enzymes

NB: almost definite association with malignant hyperpyrexia

• Nemaline Myopathy

- usually autosomal dominant, may be recessive or sporadic
- infantile hypotonia is present & often severe leading to respiratory failure
- · serum CK may be normal, EMG usually shows myopathy

• Myotubular Myopathy

- multiple patterns of inheritance plus sporadic cases
- similar to above but distinguished by external ophthalmoplegia
- CK is normal or slightly elevated, the EMG abnormal

• Congenital Fibre Disproportion

· hypotonia, weakness, delayed motor milestones, skeletal deformities as above

• biopsy shows increased number of small type I fibres, with normal or hypertrophied type II fibres

THERMAL SYNDROMES

Regulation of Body Temperature

NB: balance between heat generation and heat dissipation

- a. heat production / gain
 - i. basal VO₂
 - ii. muscular activity
 - iii. SDA of food
 - iv. non-shivering thermogenesis
 - v. gain from the environment
- b. heat loss

	i.	radiation	~ 40%		
	ii.	convection	~ 30%		
	iii.	evaporation	~ 29%		
	iv.	conduction, feces/urine	~ 1%		
NB:	respiratory losses		~ 10%	\rightarrow	humidification convection

~ 8%

~ 2%

Sensory Systems

a.	cuta	aneous thermoreceptors	~ 15% of input	
	i.	cold receptors	< 24°C	
	ii.	heat receptors	> 44°C	

b. deep/core thermoreceptors ~ 85% of input

i. *anterior hypothalamus*

- ii. spinal cord
- iii. hollow viscera

• Central Integration

• some processing in the spinal cord, majority in the *posterior hypothalamus*

- "central thermostat" regulated by,
 - 1. diurnal rhythm, age, sex, hormones
 - 2. endogenous pyrogens IL-1 \rightarrow PGE₂
 - 3. drugs
 - 4. neurotransmitters (? 5HT)
 - 5. exercise

• Effector Systems

- 1. higher control centres
 - i. posture, avoidance behaviour
 - ii. apetite/hunger
 - iii. clothing

iv.

level of activity \rightarrow voluntary muscle metabolism

 \uparrow BMR \leq 1000% with exercise

2. cutaneous blood flow

- especially the extremities
- may decrease skin blood flow to ~ 5% of normal & heat loss to ~ 12%
- first line of defence activated against heat loss

3. shivering thermogenesis

- involuntary incoordinate muscular activity ~ 50 Hz
- may \uparrow VO₂ ~ 200-500%
- may \uparrow core temperature ~ 2-3 °C/hr
- requires $\uparrow VO_2 \sim 100\% / \uparrow 1^{\circ}C$

4. nonshivering thermogenesis

• increased combustion of FFA's and glucose, regulated by,

i.	sympathoadrenal outflow	\rightarrow	fast response	- noradrenaline
ii.	thyroid function	\rightarrow	slow response	- adrenaline & T_4
•]	iver and skeletal muscles in a	dults	~ 25% ↑ BMR	
• 1	brown fat in neonates	~ 100% ↑ BMR		
			~ 25% of total C	0

5. sweating

- · direct or reflex stimulation of the spinal cord, medulla, hypothalamus or cortex
- provides only coarse control of temperature
- 6. horripilation / piloerection minimal effects in man cf. animals

NB: usual order of activation,

- i. behavioural modification
- ii. vasoconstriction
- iii. nonshivering thermogenesis
- iv. shivering thermogenesis

Heat Stroke

- above 37°C, for each 1°C rise,
 - a. HR \uparrow 8-10 bpm b. CI \uparrow 1.8 l/m/m²

• results predominantly from a reduced ability to *dissipate heat*

- commonly occurs in susceptible patients, exposed to high environmental temperatures
 - a. elderly patients

b. CCF

- c. alcoholics
- d. patients on anticholinergic medication

• Exertional Heat Injury

- a. extreme exercise
- b. thyroid storm
- c. status epilepticus
- d. delerium
- e. drug induced
 - i. overdosage TCA's, MAOI's, theophylline, salicylates - PCP, cocaine, LSD, MDMA
 - ii. withdrawal alcohol, opioids, barbiturates
- **NB:** cf. heat stroke patients, this group is usually *sweating* freely

• MH Susceptibility

iii.

- a. diseases almost certainly related \rightarrow *central core disease*
- b. diseases possibly related
 - i. King-Denborough syndrome

? RDM says certainly related

- short stature, musculoskeletal deformities and mental retardation
- ii. Deuchenne muscular dystrophy
 - other myopathies Schwartz-Jampel syndrome
 - Fukuyama muscular dystrophy
 - Becker muscular dystrophy
 - familial periodic paralysis
 - myotonia congenita
 - SR-ATP deficiency & mitochondrial myopathy
- c. diseases coincidentally related
 - i. SIDS
 - ii. neuroleptic malignant syndrome
 - iii. others lymphomas
 - osteogenesis imperfecta
 - glycogen storage disease
- d. triggerring agents
 - i. volatile anaesthetic agents
 - ii. depolarising muscle relaxants
 - iii. anticholinesterases

Neuroleptic Malignant Syndrome

- a. a rare complication of neuroleptic drugs
- b. may occur at any age, or with any underlying disease
- c. recent increase in dose, or introduction of a new drug
- d. *incidence* ~ 0.4-0.5% of newly treated patients
- e. sex ~ 66% males
- f. drugs * often parallels the *antidopaminergic* activity of agent
 - haloperidol ~ 50%
 - chlorpromazine, metoclopramide
 - thioridazine, fluphenazine, MAOI's, L-Dopa withdrawal
- g. onset $\sim 1 \text{ hr} 65 \text{ days}$
 - ~ 5 days average
- h. *mortality* ~ 22%
- i. association with MH controversial/unlikely

Clinical Features

- 1. *fever* commonly ~ 40° C, but up to 42° C
- 2. *extrapyramidal* reactions catatonia, akinesia & 'lead-pipe' muscular rigidity
- 3. *autonomic* dysfunction diaphoresis, hyper/hypotension, tachycardia
- 4. mental state alteration agitation, dysarthria, stupor, coma

• may last up to 5 days after offending agent has been ceased

- not related to duration of exposure and usually occurs within *therapeutic range*
- biochemical basis uncertain, but large \downarrow dopaminergic activity & \uparrow cytoplasmic Ca⁺⁺

• Complications

- a. hyperthermia
- b. dehydration
- c. electrolyte disturbance
- d. aspiration pnuemonitis
- e. respiratory failure
- f. rhabdomyolysis
- g. renal failure ~ 16%

Laboratory Findings

a.	- <i>CPK</i>	~ 92%
b.	myoglobinaemia	~ 75%
c.	leukocytosis	~ 70%
d.	normal	- LP/CSF
		- EEG

Treatment

- 1. supportive / resuscitation
- 2. remove offending agent(s)
- 3. *bromocryptine* ~ 2.5-10 mg q8h
- 4. dantrolene
- 5. NSAID's / paracetamol
- *NB*: regression may take from 4-40 days

Hypothermia

	Def'n:		core temperature < $35^{\circ}C$ ~ $36-37.5^{\circ}C$ homeotherms regulate core temperature~ $36-37.5^{\circ}C$ ~ $37 \pm 0.4^{\circ}C$			~ 36-37.5°C ~ 37 ± 0.4°C	(T.Oh) (RDM)	
			1.	mild		> 33°C		
			2.	moderat	te	~ 30-33°C		
			3.	severe		< 30°C		
	NB:		demarcation is art lowest recorded c			y, but effects more pron Γ in a survivor ~ 18	•	compensation
■ <u>A</u>	etiolo	<u>gy</u>						
	a.	ext	reme	es of <i>age</i>				
	b.	deb	ilita	ting <i>illnes</i>	55			
		i.	C	INS		A, head injury, neoplas ogressive mental deterior		
		ii.	C	VS	- CC	CF, MI, PVD, PTE		
		iii.	ir	fections	- sep	oticaemia from any cause	e, pneumonia	
		iv.	re	enal	- ura	emia		
	c.	exp	osu	re		vironment fluids, irrigating fluids		
	d.	drugs		- ant - vas	ohol A, barbiturates, benzodia ipyretics sodilators orpromazine	zepines, etc.		
	e.	end	locri	ine	- par - Ad - dia	pothyroidism hypopituitarism ldisonian crisis, hypogly betes, hyperosmolar con otein / calorie malnutritic	na, ketoacidosis (~ 20%)
	f.	spir	nal e	cord trau	ma			
	g.	skii	n dis	seases	- bu - pso	rns priasis, icthyosis, erythro	oderma	
	h.	iatr	oge	nic	- ind	luced hypothermia & ina	dequate rewarmin	ng

• Cardiovascular

- 1. increased sympathetic tone $-\uparrow$ plasma NA/AD and FFA's
- 2. initially \rightarrow vasoconstriction, tachycardia & \uparrow CO

later \rightarrow bradycardia, hypotension & \downarrow CO

- 3. cardiac output $-\downarrow CO \sim 30-40\%$ at $30^{\circ}C \propto$ decrease in VO₂ - mainly 2° to *bradycardia*, SV well preserved - coronary perfusion well maintained
- 4. ECG changes exacerbated by *acidosis & hyperkalaemia*
 - i. bradycardia / shivering artefact
 - ii. prolonged PR, QRS, QT_{C} duration

iii.	J point elevation		\leq 33°C - delayed repolarisation of inferior heart surface
iv.	AF		~ 25-34°C (commonest arrhythmia)
v.	AV block	1° 3°	~ 30°C ~ 20°
vi.	VF		~ 28°C
vii.	asystole		~ 20°C

5. CPK & LDH levels are elevated

• ? leakage from cells or microinfarction

• Central Nervous System

• reasonably well preserved to 33°C, below this function deteriorates progressively,

1. initial confusion \rightarrow coma at ~ 30°C with pupillary *dilatation*

2.	$\downarrow \text{CBF} \propto \downarrow \text{C-VO}_2$	~ 6-7% / °C
		similar shange of whole

~ similar change cf. whole body VO_2

- 3. progressive brainstem depression $\rightarrow \downarrow$ HR & \downarrow RR
- 4. \downarrow *temperature regulation* $\rightarrow \downarrow$ shivering $\leq 33^{\circ}$ C

 \rightarrow loss of temperature control $\leq 28^{\circ}C$

- 5. cerebral protection
 - i. greater than achieved by metabolic depression
 - ii. deep circulatory arrest
 - iii. recovery from near drowning

Pulmonary Changes

1.	central depression $\rightarrow \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $
2.	impaired cough & gag reflexes \rightarrow aspiration risk
3.	↑ V/Q mismatch
	i. impaired hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction
	ii. \downarrow FRC \rightarrow atelectasis
	iii. decreased gaseous diffusion capacity
4.	$\uparrow \operatorname{VO}_2 \text{ with shivering} \qquad \rightarrow \downarrow \operatorname{VO}_2 \leq 33^\circ \mathrm{C}$
5.	$\uparrow \text{HbO}_2 \text{ affinity / } \textit{left shift} \rightarrow \downarrow \text{O}_2 \text{ availability}$
6.	increased gas solubility
	i. $\uparrow \alpha CO_2 / \downarrow P_{aCO2} \rightarrow \uparrow pH$ (but, also \uparrow neutral point of H ₂ O)
	ii. anaesthetic gases $\rightarrow \downarrow$ rate of rise of F_A/F_I & elimination - halothane MAC _{27°C} ~ 50% MAC _{37°C}

Metabolic

- 1. $\downarrow VO_2$ ~ 6-7% / °C
- 2. severe *acidosis* \rightarrow HbO₂ curve shifts to the *right* i. respiratory \downarrow CO₂ elimination due to hypoventilation
 - ii. metabolic \downarrow tissue perfusion
 - \downarrow hepatic lactate clearance
 - \downarrow renal tubular H⁺ excretion
 - iii. temperature correction of blood gas values offers *no advantage* in management

 $\rightarrow ~~\delta\,pH \sim -0.0147/^{\circ}C$

3. hyperkalaemia / hypokalaemia

- causes for expected rise in K⁺
- i. decreased activity Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase $\rightarrow \quad \downarrow Na^+ / \uparrow K^+$
- ii. cellular hypoxia, membrane damage & acidosis
- however, hypokalaemia is more commonly observed
- i. $? 2^{\circ}$ diuresis
- ii. ICF shift
- 4. *hyperglycaemia* $-\downarrow$ insulin secretion & \downarrow peripheral glucose utilisation -? mild pancreatitis

- hypoglycaemia may ensue in longstanding hypothermia

5. \uparrow drug t_{1/2B} \propto \downarrow hepatic blood flow & enzyme reaction rates

 \rightarrow heparin, citrate & lactate

Renal

- 1. \downarrow GFR \propto \downarrow renal blood flow ~ 50% at 30°C \downarrow drug clearance
- 2. \downarrow tubular function
 - i. cold diuresis volume of urine initially increased or the same
 - ii. hypoosmolar urine
 - iii. glycosuria, kaluria \rightarrow additional diuresis

<u>Neuromuscular Junction</u>

- 1. shivering occurs ~ $33-36^{\circ}C$
- 2. increased muscle tone \rightarrow *myoclonus* ~ 26°C
- 3. increased sensitivity to *both* depolarising & nondepolarising with mild hypothermia

Haematological

1.	coa	coagulopathy					
	i.	\downarrow coagulation	\downarrow enzyme activity				
	ii.	thrombocytopaenia	 ↑ portal/splenic platelet sequestration ↑ bleeding time 				
2.	incr	reased blood <i>viscosity</i>	 dehydration, haemoconcentration & ↑ Hct. ↓ rbc deformability ↓ microcirculatory blood flow 				
3.	imn	nunoparesis	- \downarrow WCC (sequestration) & function				
4.	mar	row hypoplasia					

Immunological

- 1. decreased neutrophils, phagocytes, migration, bactericidal activity
- 2. organ hypoperfusion & increased infection risk
- 3. diminished gag/cough reflexes
- 4. atelectasis

Monitoring

a.	central	- lower oesophageal & PA \rightarrow heart- tympanic membrane \rightarrow brain	
b.	rectal	 intermediate changes lag behind core/shell during cooling & warming 	
c.	shell	 skin/peripheral may estimate vasoconstrictor/vasodilator responses 	
NB:	useful to measure both core & shell,		

core-shell gradient	\rightarrow	better assessment of overall body temperature
	\rightarrow	adequacy of rewarming & predicts "afterdrop"

Management

- 1. resuscitation
 - major hazard is peripheral vasodilatation & hypovolaemia
- 2. monitoring
 - i. routine BP, HR, RR, GCS
 - ii. T°, ECG, U/Output
 - iii. EC&U, AGA's, FBE
 - iv. blood cultures
- 3. rewarming
 - i. *passive* ~ $0.5-1.0^{\circ}C$ / hr in the absence of shivering ~ $0.5-2.0^{\circ}C$ / hr with shivering
 - adequate for the vast majority of cases
 - only require active rewarming if haemodynamically unstable
 - ii. *active*
 - surface 'Bear hugger' type
 - temperatures no greater than 40 $^{\circ}$ C, cease at ~ 35 $^{\circ}$ C
 - core CVVHD, CPB, PD
 - should be ceased at $\sim 33^{\circ}C$
- 4. antibiotics broad spectrum cover pending cultures

<u>Hypothermic Cardiac Arrest</u>

- a. defibrillation virtually useless $< 30^{\circ}C$
- b. extracorporeal rewarming if possible
- c. don't pronounce dead until $T > 35^{\circ}C$
- d. normally *hypokalaemic*, if markedly hyperkalaemic then unlikely to succeed

Deliberate Hypothermia

• Surface Cooling

• principally historical interest, main use currently is in the management of *malignant hyperthermia*, or severe hyperthermia in septic ICU patients

• cold environment, ice bathing, especially groins & axillae

- problems of slow & uneven effects both during cooling and rewarming,
 - a. 2-6°C afterdrop when cooling / rewarming
 - b. uneven effects mean some tissues are still "at risk" for ischaemia

• Cardiopulmonary Bypass

- a. more rapid & even cooling / rewarming
- b. more precise temperature regulation
- c. maintenance of *tissue perfusion* despite \downarrow CO / arrest
- d. combined with *haemodilution*
 - i. offsets the effects on viscosity
 - ii. "optimal Hct." ~ 18-22%

Deep Hypothermia & Total Circulatory Arrest

- a. allows operation on still & bloodless heart
- b. principally for correction of complex CHD
- c. current operative times ~ 50-60 minutes at 18-20 °C
- d. need for more thorough longterm outcome studies on CNS effects

NYSTAGMUS

a.	physiological	- optokinetic
b.	pharmacological	 alcohol phenytoin, carbamazepine barbiturates, benzodiazepines
c.	middle ear disease	Meniere's syndromelabyrinthitis
d.	brainstem lesion	 congenital tumour trauma vascular MS
e.	cerebellar disease	 congenital tumour trauma vascular MS

Nystagmus - Types

NB: the *direction* of nystagmus is taken as the direction of the *fast component*, though, it is the *slow component* which is *pathological*

a.	<i>pendular</i> nystagmus	 macula lesion albinism cataract optic atrophy miners nystagmus spamus mutans
b.	<i>jerk</i> nystagmus	- physiological (optokinetic and caloric)
c.	rotatory	- midbrain or brainstem lesion
d.	vertical	- midbrain tectum lesion

Cranial Nerves

- Third Nerve Lesion
 - 1. clinical features
 - i. complete ptosis
 - ii. divergent strabismus "down & out" gaze \rightarrow
 - dilated pupil unreactive to direct light & accomodation \rightarrow consensual reaction in opposite eye intact
 - must exclude 4th nerve lesion when 3rd lesion present
 - look down & opposite side to lesion \rightarrow eye intorts * superior oblique *in* torts the eye (SIN)
 - 2. aetiology

iii.

- compressive lesions i. aneurysm
- PCA
- tumour - cerebral, nasopharyngeal
- basal meningitis orbital lesions
 - Tolosa-Hunt (superior orbital fissure syndrome)
- ii. ischaemia / infarction
 - diabetes
 - migraine •
 - arteritis
- **NB:** when due to midbrain lesions may involve both sides, as nuclei lie close together & may be incomplete, with *partial ptosis* & preservation of the light reflex

Sixth Nerve Lesion

- 1. clinical features
 - i. stabismus, failure of lateral gaze
 - ii. diplopia
- 2. aetiology

i.

- bilateral
- traumatic
- Wernicke's encephalopathy
- mononeuritis multiplex
- \uparrow ICP from any cause
- idiopathic ii. unilateral

 - traumatic
 - compression due to tumour, aneurysm etc.
 - ↑ ICP
 - vascular lesion, diabetes

Medial Longitudinal Fasiculus

- joins 3^{rd} , 4^{th} , and 6^{th} cranial nuclei
- *multiple sclerosis* causes demyelination and nystagmus on *abduction* but not convergence
- may, or may not, result in weakness of adduction with lateral gaze, ie. a 4th nerve lesion

Seventh Nerve Lesion

1.	clinic	cal features	
	i.	facial asymmetry	drooping of the corner of the mouthloss of the nasolabial foldsmoothing of the forehead (UMN lesion only)
	ii.	decreased power	- eye closure, eyebrow elevation, grinning
	iii.	Bell's phenomenon	 present in <i>all</i> persons, though not visible <i>upward</i> deviation of the eye on firm eyelid closure
	iv.	Ramsay-Hunt synd.	- HSV-I vesicles located on the ear & palate
2.	aetio	logy	
	i.	UMN lesion	vascular lesionstumours
	ii.	LMN lesion	
		• pontine	 often associated with V & VI lesions vascular lesions, tumours, syringobulbia, MS
		• posterior fossa	 acoustic neuroma, meningioma chronic meningitis
		• petrous temporal	 idiopathic, <i>Bell's palsy</i> fracture, Ramsay-Hunt syndrome, otitis media
		• parotid	- tumour, sarcoid
	iii.	bilateral "lesions"	
		• GBS	
		• bilateral parotid dise	ease (sarcoid)

- myasthenia gravis
- myopathies
- rarely mononeuritis multiplex

Argyll Robertson Pupil

Def'n: irregular small pupils accommodation preserved but absent light reflex

- due to a lesion between the *lateral geniculate body* and the 3^{rd} nerve nucleus
- common causes include,
 - 1. diabetes mellitus*
 - 2. syphilis esp. tabes dorsalis*
 - 3. chronic alcoholism
 - 4. encephalitis
 - 5. multiple sclerosis
 - 6. midbrain lesions (vascular, tumour)

Opiate Receptors

• opiate receptor theory evidence,

- a. structure-activity relationship common nucleus in all opiates
- b. stereospecificity \rightarrow *l-isomers* most potent
- c. side-chain alterations change potency
- d. small doses highly effective
- e. agonist and antagonist drugs
- f. similar clinical effects from all opiates
- g. endogenous opiate compounds endorphins, enkephalins, β -lipotropin
- h. tolerance, cross-tolerance, dependence

μ - Receptor

a.	sites	 - cortex (I,IV), thalamus, hypothalamus - periaqueductal grey, midbrain raphe - medullary centres (resp, vasomotor, vomiting, CTZ) - spinal cord (substantia gelatinosa) - gastrointestinal tract
b.	clinical	 potent analgesia respiratory depression
c.	most potent exog	genous ligand - morphine (? lofentanyl)
d.	most potent endo	egenous ligand - metenkephalin $(t_{1/2\beta} \sim 30s)$
e.	antagonist	- naloxone

• **d** Receptor

a.	sites	 cortex limbic system, amygdala pons, medullary centres spinal cord (substantia gelatinosa)
b.	clinical	potent analgesiarespiratory depression
c.	most potent exogenous ligand - buprenorphine	
d.	most potent ende	ogenous ligand - leu-enkephalin
e.	antagonist	- naloxone

• <u>k- Receptor</u>

a.	sites	 limbic system spinal cord (substantia gelatinosa) <i>not</i> in vital medullary centres
b.	clinical	 analgesia, vomiting hallucinations less respiratory depression

- c. most potent exogenous ligand bremazocine, buprenorphine, ?fentanyl
- d. most potent endogenous ligand dynorphin

• e- Receptor

- a. sites * widespread outside CNS
 - heart, liver
 - lung J receptors
 - carotid chemoreceptors
 - gut smooth muscle
 - neutrophils, lymphocytes
- b. most potent exogenous ligand?
- c. most potent endogenous ligand β -endorphin ($t_{\frac{1}{2}\beta} \sim 5-15 \text{ min}$)

s- Receptor

a. sites - limbic system	
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- spinal cord (substantia gelatinosa)
- b. clinical analgesia
- c. most potent exogenous ligand phencyclidine, SKF 10047
- d. antagonist ? n-allyl normetazocine

RETINAL PATHOLOGY

Diabetes Mellitus

Background (Exudative) Retinopathy

- 1. hypertensive changes in vessels
- 2. microaneurysms

3.	haemorrhages	- blot - flame	(deep) (superficial)
4.	exudates	- soft - hard	(deep infarct) (superficial oedema)

<u>Proliferative Retinopathy</u>

- 1. vessel proliferation
- 2. vitreous haemorrhages
- 3. retinal detachment
- 4. optic fibrosis

• Other Associated Eye Problems

- 1. 3^{rd} nerve palsy
- 2. cataract
- 3. glaucoma
- 4. optic atrophy

Papilloedema

- 1. engorged veins $\rightarrow \downarrow A:V$ ratio
- 2. red discolouration of disc
- 3. blurred disc margin
- 4. loss of physiological cupping \pm disc elevation
- 5. later haemorrhage and exudate

Aetiology

a. raised ICP

ii.

- i. space occupying lesion
 - hydrocephalus
 - obstructive
 - comunicating
- iii. benign intracranial hypertension
- idiopathic
- OCP, nitrofurantoin, tetracycline, etc
- Addison's disease
- head trauma

- iv. hypercarbia
- b. central retinal venous obstruction
- c. inflammation
- d. hypertension grade IV
- e. oedema

Hypertensive Retinopathy		
Grade I	• silver wiring	
Grade II	A-V nipping	
Grade III	• haemorrhages, exudates	
Grade IV	• papilloedema	

Optic Neuritis

Def'n: acute inflammation of the optic nerve resulting in,

- 1. acute *visual loss*
- 2. pain
- 3. papilloedema
- 4. optic atrophy later finding

Def'n: retrobulbar neuritis : "optic neuritis" without papilloedema

Aetiology

a.	demyelination	- MS ~ 30% - encephalomyelitis
b.	local inflammation	 meningitis sinusitis cellulitis syphilis
c.	toxic	 ethambutol, chloroquine alcohol, methanol tobacco, nicotine other drugs
d.	metabolic	 diabetes B₁₂ deficiency hypoxia
e.	vascular	 temporal arteritis ischaemia
f.	familial	- Leber's optic atrophy

• Optic Nerve - Anatomical Pathway

- 1. retina
- 2. optic nerve
- 3. optic decussation at chiasma
- 4. lateral geniculate body in thalamus
 - fibres serving pupillary and ocular reflexes, *bypass* the geniculate body to reach the *superior corpus quadrigeminum* & the midbrain nuclei of III, IV & VI
- 5. optic radiation
- 6. calcarine cortex occipital lobes

Optic Atrophy

5.

- 1. chronic papilloedema | optic neuritis
- 2. optic nerve pressure | division
- 3. glaucoma
- 4. ischaemia

familial

- retinitis pigmentosa
- Leber's optic atrophy
- Friederich's ataxia

Papilloedema	Papillitis
• optic disc swollen, no venous pulsation	optic disc swollen
• normal visual acuity, unless chronic	• diminished visual acuity
• large <i>blind spot</i>	large central scotomata
• peripheral constriction of visual fields	• <i>pain</i> on eye movement
normal colour vision	• abnormal <i>colour vision</i> , red desaturation
• usually bilateral	• usually sudden onset & <i>unilateral</i>

Fundoscopy - Other

1.	candidaemia	septic emboli"puff balls" ± haemorrhagic centre
2.	acute pancreatitis	- "peeches" retinopathy
3.	systemic tuberculosis	- choroidal tubercles