Remote cerebellar hemorrhage in neurosurgery

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ABSTRACT

Remote cerebellar hemorrhage (RCH), a complication rarely encountered in neurosurgery with a reported incidence of 0.08-0.6% post supratentorial craniotomies. Since it was first described by Yasargil et al in 1977, this complication has intrigued the neurosurgical community, with more than 164 cases documented after supratentorial surgeries to date, not counting those occurring after spinal procedures. Our understanding of the pathophysiology and risk factors of this complication is as limited as this phenomenon is rare. This is a source of concern, as without a complete understanding of this phenomenon we can neither accurately identify those at risk, nor follow the optimum line of management. This study reviews the literature, and presents what is known regarding the clinical and radiologic features and prognosis of this rarely encountered complication. It also attempts to explain an observed discrepancy in outcome between RCH occurring from supratentorial and spinal procedures, adding more insight to the pathophysiology, and opening new fields of research.

The spectrum of implicated procedures. Remote cerebellar hemorrhage is a poorly understood consequence of neurosurgical procedures resulting in significant CSF hypovolemia, reported to occur after supratentorial procedures, trans-sphenoidal surgeries, and spine surgeries at the cervical, lumbar, and thoracic levels. There have been a few documented cases after burr hole evacuations of subdural hematomas with significant CSF egress, and uncontrolled lumbar punctures. The overall frequency mentioned in the literature ranges from 0.08-0.6% of all supratentorial craniotomies, and are even less common following spine surgery. Specific procedures requiring significant CSF drainage as part of the procedure show a higher incidence of RCH, with series reporting numbers of 3.9% following aneurysm surgeries, and 5% following temporal lobectomies.

Disclosure. The author declares no conflicting interests, support or funding from any drug company.
Pathophysiology: a source of ongoing debate. Despite the controversy surrounding this phenomenon, some aspects appear to be agreed upon in the reviewed literature. It is believed to be of venous origin; this conclusion was reached after observing that RCH is commonly bilateral. It also has a predilection for the superior cerebellar surface and vermis (territory drained by the superior vermian veins), this does not follow the behavior of typical arterial bleeds seen in the cerebellum of the hypertensive patient. Cloft et al, also followed the behavior of typical arterial bleeds seen in the cerebellum. Cloft et al, 11 also showed that the mechanism that would label RCH as an arterial event, namely, a hemorrhagic transformation of a cerebellar infarct, resulting from the clamping and unclamping of the superior cerebellar arteries in aneurysm surgeries, does not explain the inconsistent presence of cerebellar infarction with RCH. Further support would come from histopathologic studies of surgically decompressed RCH cases consistent with venous infarction.13 The other aspects agreed upon are the need for CSF drainage (either intraoperatively or post operatively, the latter being more strongly associated), and that the RCH is typically subarachnoid, with a variable intraparenchymal element whose size corresponds to the associated morbidity and mortality.2

The pathophysiologic theories presented are numerous. They do, however, all have the common endpoint of increasing the pressure gradient across the walls of the infratentorial vessels. This can occur by one of 2 mechanisms; it may occur secondary to an increase in the intraluminal venous pressure by interrupting the outflow through the stretched internal jugular vein, as demonstrated to result from the intraoperative positioning typical of pterional craniotomies as proposed by Seoane and Rhoton14 (extensive rotation and extension), or as Yoshida et al 15 suggested by stretching and kinking, or even shearing, of the superior vermian veins by the caudal migration of the cerebellum as a result of CSF hypovolemia, the "cerebellar sag." Another mechanism provided by Konig et al, 16 is by decreasing the CSF pressure in the surrounding subarachnoid spaces with a reciprocal relative rise in pressure; other studies support this mechanism.17 Honneger et al, 5 later proposed that the hemorrhage is a result of the suctioning effect exerted by the transtentorial gradient on the cerebellum.

It is our belief that out of all the mentioned theories, the one that can explain the occurrence of RCH after both supratentorial and spinal procedures is the "cerebellar sag" hypothesis described in 1990 by Yoshida et al,15 and which is later echoed by Friedman et al in several reports.4,8,13 This theory also explains the propensity of RCH to occur after procedures requiring massive CSF drainage.11,12

The literature seems to have reached a similar conclusion, at least regarding the need for substantial CSF drainage to occur, with its reference to the "zebra pattern" as characteristic of CSF over drainage.16 This, however, has recently come under increasing scrutiny, as the result of the "cerebellar sag" theory is kinking of the vermian veins. However, RCH is not uncommon after infratentorial surgeries involving the intentional occlusion of the supracerebellar veins.3 Other flaws in this theory include the conspicuous absence of cerebellar edema expected by venous obstruction. The fact that the distribution is not confined to the territory of a single vein,2 and most recently, the theory's failure to explain the occurrence of RCH after controlled CSF drainage, with episodes reported after lumbar puncture19 and one very recently occurring post operatively secondary to lumboperitoneal shunting,6 are additional weaknesses in this theory.

This theory alone cannot explain why RCH secondary to spinal procedures is more likely to result in persistent deficits than RCH following supratentorial craniotomies.2 We believe that is because "spinal" RCH has 2 forces synergizing, the "cerebellar sag," and a pressure gradient favoring downward cerebellar migration. While in the case of "cranial" RCH, they counteract, and the result is weaker. Recently, there was an interesting report linking intracranial hypotension to venous thrombosis; a mechanism not previously suggested as a cause of venous obstruction underlying RCH. We do acknowledge that this would imply that antithrombotic agents would be protective, not a risk factor as has been observed, but it may still have a role in impeding the venous outflow and thereby increasing venous pressure.8,16

Proposed risk factors. With the widespread use of routine post-operative computed tomography (CT) scanning and the large number of implicated procedures performed daily, the occurrence of RCH may be much more common than believed. However, the vast majority are either passing undetected clinically or radiologically, and there are other factors, either perioperative or intrinsic to the patient that act to convert this ubiquitous hemorrhage from undetectable to detectable. Perioperative factors and patient traits presented in the literature to identify those at higher risk of developing RCH are numerous. They include: the intraoperative and, more likely, post-operative CSF loss, especially if negative pressure drains were used,18 perioperative hypertension,16 coagulopathies16 (both congenital and acquired), and platelet dysfunction8 (including perioperative aspirin administration); other factors implicated include dehydration19 (iatrogenic
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intraoperatively or unintended) with its unfavorable effect on venous hemodynamics. It is believed to more likely occur in males, and has been observed in patients as young as 14 years of age.1,20

Clinical presentation. Despite being asymptomatic in almost one quarter of reported cases, these bleeds may manifest with altered levels of consciousness, and headache, cerebellar signs, delayed awakening from anesthesia, and seizures have all been reported.1,20

Radiologic features. The “zebra sign” is used to describe the CT characteristic appearance of the subarachnoid component of this entity. The alternating hyperdensity of the acute bleed, and the relative hypodensity of the upper cerebellar folia combine to form this characteristic pattern (Figure 1). Extension to adjacent structures or significant edema is rarely seen, but may occur in the territories of the draining superior vermian veins.18

What is also worth noting is the presence of a variable intraparenchymal component.

Although it is widely accepted that non-contrasted CT scan is considered the imaging modality of choice for intracranial hemorrhage, there are, however, reports of CT scans and negative bleeds discovered on MRI, which we believe could be yet another reason for underreporting.20 But with 23.4% of hemorrhages in the literature being asymptomatic,1 with CT scan as the prevailing modality, we believe that it would be very unlikely that a clinically significant lesion is missed. The use of MRI, however, may result in a rise of reported cases, albeit by detecting insignificant bleeds.

Management strategy. The management of RCH, a poorly understood and rarely encountered entity, is not well described in the literature. It may be inferred from the reported cases and series that the same principles of spontaneous cerebellar hemorrhage management apply. If no mass effect were noted, then a conservative line of management can be followed with good outcomes expected. If, however, hydrocephalus or brain stem compression were to be present, then CSF diversion, and direct evacuation of the clot should be considered as needed.13 The one aspect of management that deserves special attention, because of its unique pathogenesis, is the need to assess for either CSF overdrainage in the inserted drains or the possible presence of an occult CSF leak.1,2 Some have called for correcting the CSF hypovolemia by infusing isotonic crystalloids, but this has not been widely accepted by the neurosurgical community, and may even be deleterious in a hydrocephalic patient.6 It should be noted that the need for intervention is a marker for poor outcome, as is increasing age and hemorrhage severity.2

The management of hydrocephalus in a deteriorating patient with an expanding cerebellar hematoma would pose a dilemma. On one hand, the patient is hydrocephalic and needs CSF diversion. On the other hand, its presence risks losing the tamponading effect of CSF, with its drainage allowing the hematoma to rapidly grow. This has been reported in a patient with a VP shunt who rapidly deteriorated following head trauma; the CT scan showed an epidural hematoma that rapidly grew to huge proportions.21

Prognosis. The literature paints a grim picture for this entity’s clinical behavior, with the overall morbidity rate reported around 8.4%, and a reported mortality rate estimated at 7.8%.12 An RCH associated with spinal procedures is more likely to result in permanent deficits,2 but does not otherwise differ from that associated with cranial procedures in a statistically significant manner.

Figure 1 - The CT scans of a 4-month-old boy in A) sagittal, B) coronal, and C) axial views showing development of a remote cerebellar hemorrhage one day following insertion of a ventriculoperitoneal shunt. Note the demonstration of the classically described Zebra sign.
Outcome was only affected by patient age and severity of hemorrhage, with both having a negative impact on outcome.

In conclusion, RCH is a poorly understood disease whose pathophysiology and management is still a matter of controversy. We believe that there are in fact, several subtypes, as evidenced by the varying morbidity observed between those caused by supratentorial and spinal procedures. Each of these subtypes is with their own underlying mechanisms, which along with certain patient and procedure-related factors converge to disrupt the infratentorial venous bed. Further research is needed to better describe its clinical behavior as well as to identify those patients at risk of developing RCH. Should we be able to label them as such, we may offer a personalized line of management that prevents and proactively attempts to detect it in the pre clinical stage.

References