



Conservative and operative management of iatrogenic craniocerebral disproportion—a case-based review

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Abstract

Introduction Craniocerebral disproportion (CCD) can occur as a sequela after shunting in early infancy. It can be understood as a disorder closely related to slit ventricle syndrome and chronic overdrainage syndrome. Here, we present two exemplary cases and summarize the pathophysiological, diagnostic, and therapeutic approaches to CCD.

Clinical presentation Two premature babies underwent shunting for posthemorrhagic hydrocephalus and presented in later childhood with recurrent episodes of symptomatic raised intracranial pressure (ICP) at 2 and 8 years of age, respectively.

Diagnosis and management Both patients had unchanged ventricular size on cranial imaging and fulfilled the clinical diagnostic criteria of CCD. After confirming shunt patency, ICP monitoring was performed to diagnose intermittent intracranial hypertension. Different treatment pathways were pursued: While readjustment of a programmable shunt valve was sufficient to alleviate the raised ICP in the first case, a cranial expansion surgery was necessary in the second case.

Outcome and conclusions Both children were treated successfully after thorough assessment and careful choice of treatment approaches. This review provides detailed insight into CCD and highlights the importance of individual and critical decision-making in these complex patients.

Keywords Intracranial hypertension · Shunt · Chronic overdrainage · Slit ventricles

Introduction

Craniocerebral disproportion (CCD) has been defined as a state where the volume of the brain exceeds the intracranial space, leading to inadequate accommodation of the growing brain or of physiological volume fluctuations, such as cerebral blood volume [1]. The secondary form of CCD has been attributed to shunting in infancy or early childhood and is thus considered an iatrogenic phenomenon [2]. It shares common features with slit ventricle syndrome (SVS) and chronic overdrainage syndrome and due to inconsistent or overlapping definitions, the terms are unfortunately sometimes used as

synonyms [3–5]. It is thought to occur in less than 2% of children shunted in infancy [6].

The pathophysiological concept underlying CCD can be traced back to the Monro-Kellie doctrine: The skull is considered to be a fixed inelastic container, and therefore, a volumetric increase in one of the intracranial contents will lead to a compensatory decrease in another or to an increase in intracranial pressure (ICP) [7]. In CCD, the inelastic container is too small to accommodate the growing brain or physiological volume fluctuations, such as temporary increase of cerebral blood volume, and thus raised ICP will occur. The underlying reason for the inadequately small intracranial volume in secondary CCD is shunting in infancy or early childhood (usually in the first year of life), which influences intracranial volume and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) pulse pressure. These two parameters are considered important mechanical forces, which under physiological conditions are modulators of calvarial expansive growth, i.e., skull growth is triggered by brain growth [8].

The morphological hallmarks of CCD comprise microcephaly, thickening of the skull bone with copper-beaten

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appearance of the inner table, premature fusion of cranial sutures, slit-like ventricles, effacement of cortical subarachnoid spaces, and hindbrain herniation. Sandler et al. have hypothesized that a pressurized cortical subarachnoid space is the universal finding in CCD: The growing brain is surrounded by an inadequately small, prematurely fused, and thus inelastic skull, leading to the cascade of morphological changes of the skull, brain, and ventricular system during further development, summarized above as the hallmarks of CCD [1].

Historical background

As the 1950s and 1960s saw significant advances in shunt technology and increasing numbers of shunt procedures being performed, literature on complications and side effects began to emerge [9]. Among the known common shunt complications, “craniosynostosis developing with the approximation of the parietes after a successful ventriculo-atrionostomy” was briefly mentioned by Strenger in 1963 [10]. Case reports and small case series of similar observations in shunted patients soon followed [11, 12]. The radiological changes occurring in affected patients were formally described and in 1966, the term “hyperostosis cranii ex vacuo” was coined by Moseley et al. to distinguish thickening of the calvarium and premature closure of cranial sutures in shunted children from other forms of calvarial disorders [13]. The foundation of the current concept of CCD was laid in 1976 with the description of “cephalocranial disproportion” as a “complication of the treatment of hydrocephalus in children” by Hoffman and Tucker [14].

Clinical presentation

CCD is clinically characterized by chronic, often incapacitating headaches in the presence of a functioning cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) shunt, which had been implanted in infancy or early childhood [1, 15]. In our experience, these headaches typically occur in episodes and, unlike pure low-pressure headache associated with CSF overdrainage, are not reliably relieved by lying flat. During episodes of raised ICP, other typical signs and symptoms of intracranial hypertension can be observed, such as lethargy or Parinaud syndrome. In children with long-standing CCD, developmental delay, decline in school performance and social withdrawal can be sequelae of chronic severe headache interfering with activities of daily life. A typical patient suffering from CCD will have a history of multiple shunt revisions, ranging from a mean number of five revisions prior to cranial expansion surgery to extreme numbers of up to 40 previous revisions in young adults [16, 17].

Diagnosis

Measurement of head circumference and ear-to-ear distance will typically indicate below-average head size or microcephaly. The morphological hallmarks of CCD can be visualized by cranial magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and cranial computed tomography (CT). Of note, serial cranial imaging in affected children typically remains unchanged with regard to ventricular size even during episodes of severe headache [15]. In addition to radiological imaging, shunt taps with manometric assessment are often performed as the next step to ensure shunt patency. Ophthalmological examination with regard to papilledema can be helpful, although papilledema can be absent when intracranial hypertension occurs in an episodic fashion. Finally, invasive ICP monitoring is recommended to elucidate the origin of symptoms in affected children, i.e., low or high ICP, and thus coordinate and guide further treatment [3, 18, 19]. Sandler et al. have suggested a diagnostic and therapeutic algorithm for shunted patients complaining of chronic headache, which in our experience offers excellent clinical guidance [1].

Management

If iatrogenic CCD is suspected, the clinical algorithm suggested by Sandler et al. can provide guidance regarding diagnostic and therapeutic steps [1]. In affected children, ventricular size typically remains stable even during episodes of acute headache exacerbation. If ventricular dilatation is evident, shunt failure should be suspected. If cranial imaging remains unchanged during headache episodes, the patency of the shunt system has to be verified. In these children, repeated emergent CT imaging should be avoided as it is futile and carries a risk of radiation-induced malignancy.

If a patent shunt system can be confirmed, ICP monitoring should be performed as the next step. In our experience, implantation of a telemetric ICP probe offers the advantage of long-term monitoring even in the outpatient setting. In selected patients, an attempt to relieve headache episodes by shunt valve readjustment should be considered. In our practice, such initial adjustments are made under inpatient observation and guidance by ICP monitoring. The basic goals of treatment should be the relief from headaches and normalization of ICP during all positions and during sleep. If conservative approaches fail and episodically raised ICP still occurs during headache episodes, cranial vault expansion is indicated [1].

Prognosis and outcomes

The best treatment of CCD in shunted patients would be its avoidance. While it has to be acknowledged that no particular shunt system can be recommended according to the criteria of evidence-based medicine, several studies at least indicate that

shunts without overdrainage protection or low-pressure shunts should be avoided especially in infancy and early childhood [20–24]. The efficacy of anti-siphon devices in general has been demonstrated also in *in vitro* studies [25]. Based on this data, we hypothesize that avoidance of chronic overdrainage in children shunted in infancy and early childhood would reduce the risk of subsequent iatrogenic CCD.

A systematic literature review of cranial expansion surgery for iatrogenic CCD secondary to CSF shunting identified 13 publications describing 64 patients (Table 1) [16, 17, 26–36]. The craniofacial procedures described in these publications ranged from strip craniectomies with barrel-stave osteotomies to full calvarial remodeling procedures and use of distraction devices. However, irrespective of surgical techniques, the authors achieved significant clinical improvement or complete resolution of symptoms. A regression of hindbrain herniation has been reported after supratentorial cranial expansion [37]. The complication rate appears to be low, suggesting that cranial expansion surgery for iatrogenic CCD is effective and has a favorable risk-benefit ratio. Concerning underlying pathophysiological aspects, Cornelissen et al. recently demonstrated a decreased mean venous flow velocity in the superior sagittal sinus in children with craniosynostosis [38]. After surgical intervention, an improvement of superficial venous drainage was noted.

Exemplary case description 1—conservative approach

This male patient was born prematurely at 27 weeks of gestation and suffered intraventricular hemorrhage with consecutive posthemorrhagic hydrocephalus. After temporizing treatment with a ventricular access device, he received a ventriculoperitoneal shunt (VPS) with a fixed pressure gravitational valve (Miethke paedigAV 4/19 cmH₂O, B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany) within the first months of life. Shunt malfunctions due to ventricular catheter occlusion occurred at an age of 5 and 6 years, followed by a long period of unremarkable outpatient follow-up visits. However, he was noted to have slit ventricles on routine imaging.

At an age of 8 years, he presented repeatedly with episodes of intractable headaches and vomiting, inconsistently exacerbated in the upright position. He underwent shunt revision with switch to a Miethke paedigAV 9/19 cmH₂O valve (B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany), followed by two further revisions for suspected shunt failure within weeks. He finally presented with persistent headache, lethargy, bradycardia, and arterial hypertension. An external ventricular drain was inserted and complete remission of symptoms was noted with 200–300 ml of CSF drainage per day, maintaining an ICP well below 10 cmH₂O. A programmable valve (Codman Hakim valve, Codman & Shurtleff Inc., Raynham, USA) adjusted at 60 mmH₂O was implanted, combined with an anti-

siphon device (Miethke Shunt-Assistent, B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany) with a 20 cmH₂O pressure level.

He remained well for 2 years, until he again presented with similar but aggravated episodes. Cranial imaging demonstrated an unchanged ventricular size with persistent slit ventricles, copper-beaten appearance of the inner table and hindbrain herniation (Fig. 1). The shunt was patent during reservoir tap and papilledema was excluded. Head circumference was 46 cm, which is approximately 4.5 cm below the 3% percentile for this age. An ICP probe (Raumedic AG, Helmbrechts, Germany) was inserted. Prolonged ICP monitoring during headache exacerbation demonstrated highly pathological recurrent plateau waves and B-wave storms with a mean ICP of 29 mmHg at night (Fig. 2).

As an additional option to the algorithm suggested by Sandler et al., we decided to increase the programmable valve pressure level to 10 cmH₂O in an attempt to reexpand the collapsed ventricles and achieve a more continuous CSF drainage [1]. This approach was successful and no further episodes of exacerbated headaches occurred, although it remains to be seen whether an operative approach to correct the overt CCD in this child can be avoided over the long-term. However, telemetric ICP monitoring during an outpatient clinic visit after 8 months demonstrated a more physiological posture-dependent ICP pattern (Fig. 3).

Exemplary case description 2—operative approach

This female patient was born prematurely at 26 weeks of gestation and suffered intraventricular hemorrhage with consecutive posthemorrhagic hydrocephalus. After temporizing treatment with a ventricular access device, he received a ventriculoperitoneal shunt (VPS) with a fixed pressure gravitational valve (Miethke paedigAV 4/19 cmH₂O, B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany) within the first months of life.

At an age of 2 years, she presented with recurrent episodes of impaired consciousness, vomiting, and seizures. A dolichocephalic head shape was noted with a cephalic index of 63. The head circumference was 41.5 cm, which was 4 cm below the 3% percentile for this age. Serial MRI and CT imaging revealed slit ventricles with unchanged ventricular size regardless of clinical status (Fig. 4a). Two shunt revisions were performed within 6 months and a gravitational valve with higher pressure level was implanted (Miethke paedigAV 4/24 cmH₂O, B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany). However, she presented with further episodes despite unremarkable shunt tap. Invasive ICP monitoring was performed, revealing a mean ICP of 10 mmHg with scattered plateau waves vaguely corresponding to symptom exacerbation. The diagnosis of symptomatic CCD was confirmed. As she had a fixed pressure valve, no option of opening pressure readjustment was available and expansile cranioplasty was preferred

Table 1 Summary of a systematic literature review on craniofacial surgery for iatrogenic CCD

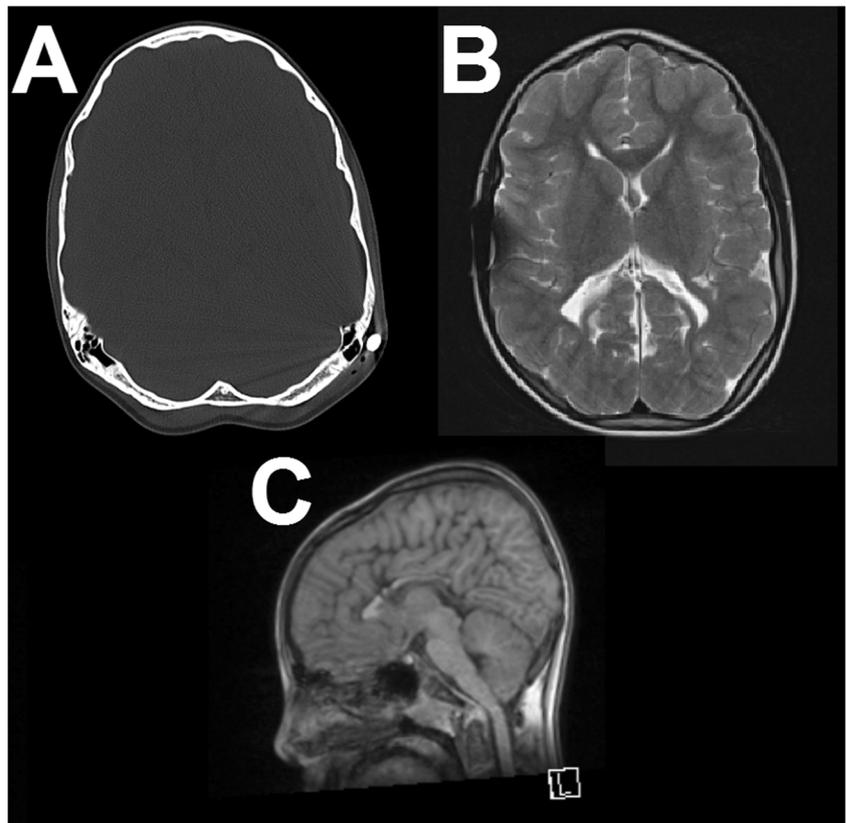
Author, year	N	Symptoms	Diagnostic approach	Treatment	Outcome
Epstein, 1988 [26]	14	Intermittent headache, vomiting, obtundation, bradycardia, hypertension, and extensor posturing	Shunt patency confirmed with radionuclide scan, ICP monitoring, small calvarium noted	Calvarial extension procedure	Improvement
Eide, 2001 [27]	3	Headache, nausea, vomiting, and impaired vision	Radiographic signs of CCD and slit ventricles	Anterior cranial vault expansion (1), posterior approach with modified tiara plastic (2)	Improvement
Martinez-Lage, 2006 [28]	4	Headache, drowsiness, papilledema, ptosis, and ataxia	Cranial imaging demonstrates signs of CCD, ICP monitoring	Bilateral temporo-parietal craniotomies, ± frontal advancement, and ± progressive upgrading of the programmable valve settings	Improvement
Weinzweig, 2008 [16]	12	Headache, bradycardia, papilledema, visual impairment, and seizures	Cranial imaging demonstrates (secondary) craniosynostosis	Frontoorbital advancement with frontotemporoparietal expansion; posterior vault expansion	Improvement in 8 of 12 patients
De Lima, 2013 [29]	2	Headaches, absence seizures, upgaze palsy, and lethargy	Cranial imaging demonstrates signs of SVS and CCD; ICP monitoring demonstrates raised ICP	Bilateral temporo-parieto-occipital osteotomies with internal cranial distractors	Improvement (1) and complete resolution (1)
Sandler, 2013 [30]	2	Headache, vision changes, and aggression	Shunt patency confirmed with nuclear shuntogram, unchanged ventricular size, and ICP monitoring	Bifrontal craniotomy with internal distraction devices	Complete resolution
Ryoo, 2014 [31]	1	Lethargy, seizures, and vomiting	Radiographic signs of slit ventricle syndrome combined with secondary sagittal craniosynostosis	Barrel-stave osteotomies and sagittal strip craniectomy	Complete resolution
Beuriat, 2015 [32]	5	Headache, developmental delay, impaired vision, and seizures	Cranial imaging demonstrates signs of SVS and CCD; ICP monitoring demonstrates raised ICP	Splitting bifrontal bone flap that is left floating posteriorly	Improvement
Bhadkamkar, 2015 [33]	1	Headache, developmental delay	Cranial imaging demonstrates turribrachycephalic head shape, small ventricles	Bilateral parieto-occipital craniotomy and internal distractors	Improvement
Mohan, 2015 [34]	1	Symptoms of raised ICP, microcephaly	Radiographic signs of CCD	Barrel-stave osteotomies and strip craniectomies	Complete resolution
Kim, 2017 [35]	3	Clinical symptoms of increased intracranial pressure	Radiographic signs of CCD	Biparietal craniotomies (2) and frontoparieto-occipital reconstruction (1) and simultaneous replacement of a valve with a programmable one (2)	Improvement
Golinko, 2018 [36]	13	Chronic headaches, papilledema, seizures, or behavioral changes	Radiographic signs of CCD and secondary craniosynostosis	Frontoorbital advancement (7), total cranial vault remodeling (4), posterior cranial vault remodeling, and strip craniectomy (2)	Improvement (6 of 8 with improvement of headache)
Winston, 2018 [17]	3	Headaches, nausea, and blurred vision	Cranial imaging demonstrates signs of SVS and CCD, ICP monitoring	Bilateral frontoparietal osteotomies with cranial distractors	Complete resolution

over a simple shunt valve exchange. She underwent a cranial morcellation procedure and implantation of a new adjustable gravitational shunt (Miethke proGAV, B. Braun/Aesculap AG, Tuttlingen, Germany) with an unremarkable perioperative course. The postoperative cephalic index had increased to 72 and an expansion of the ventricular system was evident (Fig. 4b). No further episodes of impaired consciousness, headaches, or vomiting have occurred since then.

Discussion

Iatrogenic CCD in shunted patients is a challenging phenomenon: It inflicts significant additional morbidity on the patient and effective treatment can require invasive neurosurgical procedures. On the other hand, there is a lack of data from larger prospective studies, the definitions and diagnostic criteria are divergent, and the pathophysiological understanding as well

Fig. 1 Imaging features of CCD: copper-beaten appearance of the inner table of the calvarium (a), small or slit ventricles (b), and compressed cortical subarachnoid spaces as well as hindbrain herniation (c)



as suggested solutions varies across the neurosurgical community.

In a recent survey among American pediatric neurosurgeons on the management of shunt-dependent hydrocephalus

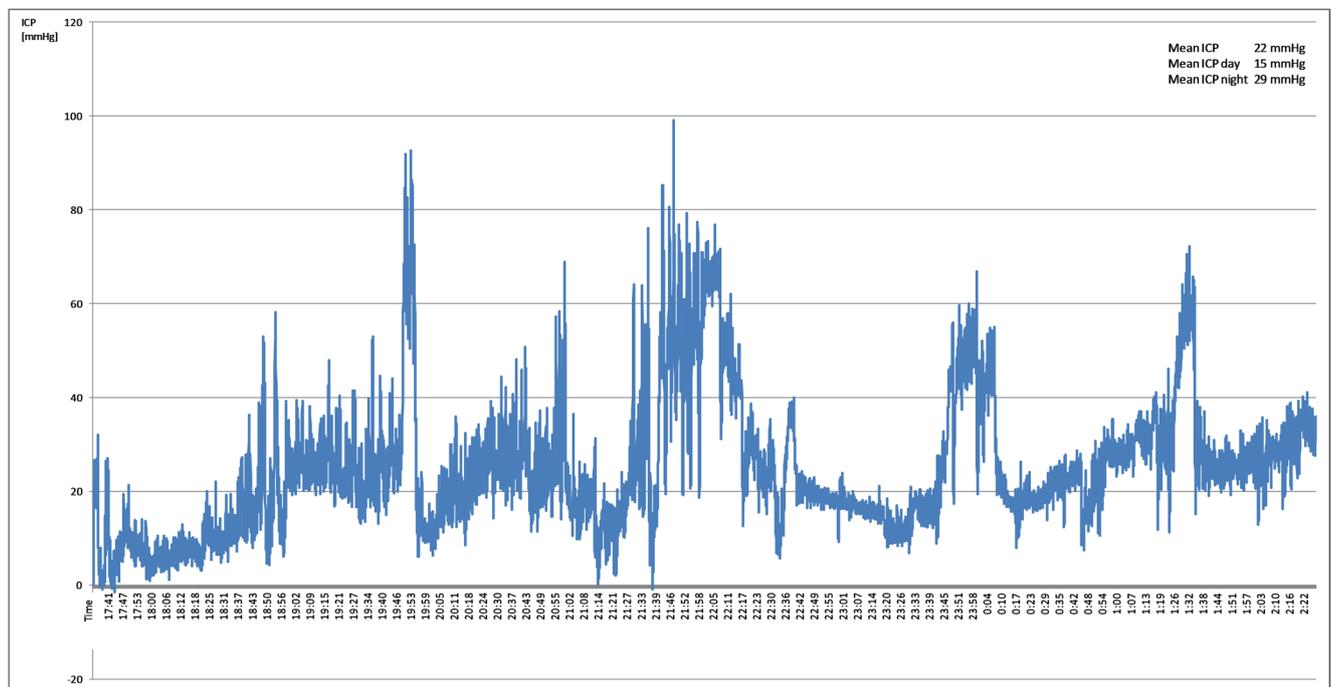


Fig. 2 Prolonged ICP monitoring in a child with symptomatic CCD during headache exacerbation, demonstrating pathological recurrent plateau waves and B wave storms with raised mean ICP

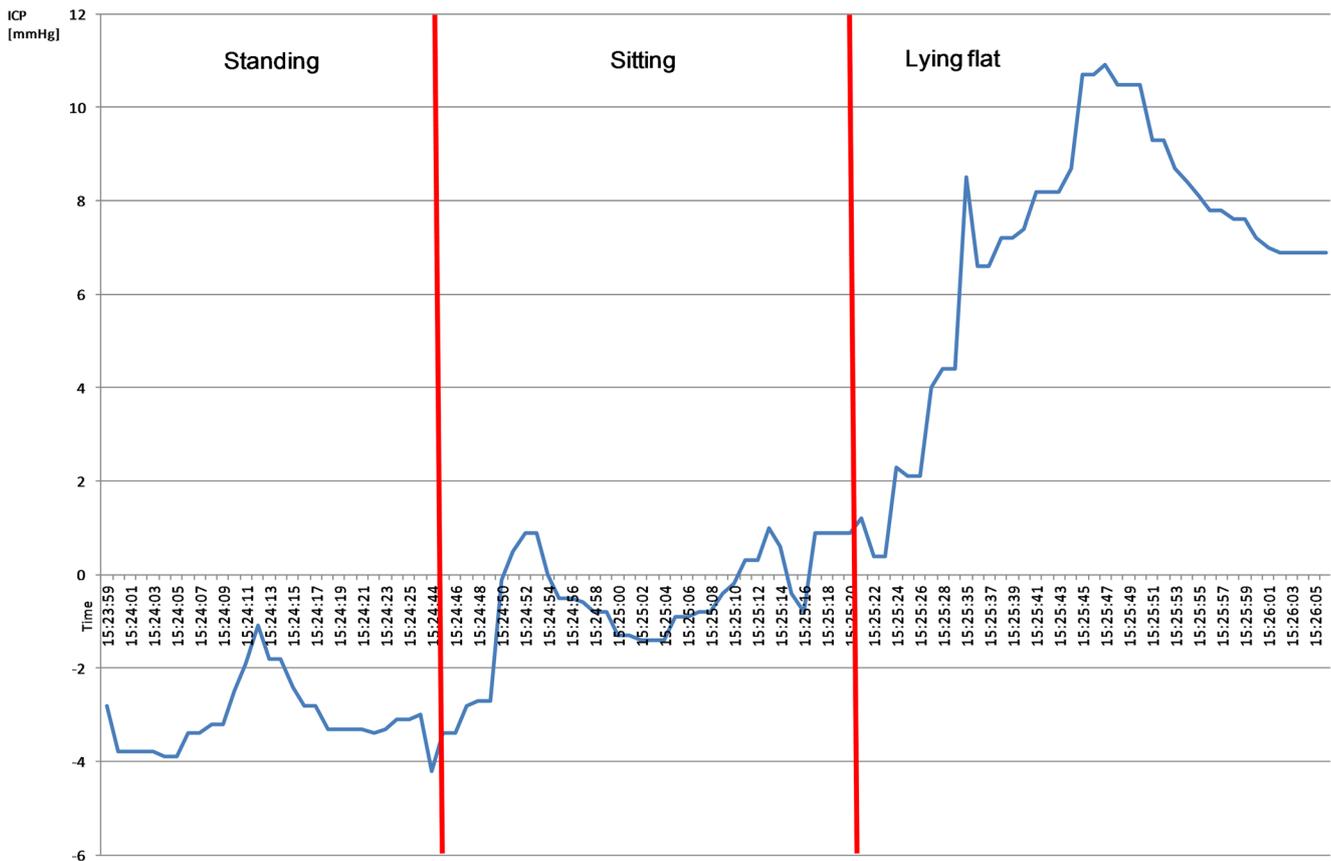


Fig. 3 ICP monitoring of the same child as in Fig. 1 after readjustment of the shunt valve, with complete resolution of symptoms and a more physiological posture-dependent ICP pattern

published by Kraemer et al., siphoning, overdrainage, and small ventricles were commonly reported causes of ventricular catheter obstruction [39]. Chronic headaches in shunted patients were mainly attributed to medical reasons, although overdrainage was considered a more likely cause than underdrainage. For 20% of neurosurgeons, ICP monitoring played a role in the diagnostic evaluation of chronic headaches. Respondents in this survey estimated that a median of 5% of their patients suffer from chronic overdrainage, with estimates ranging between 0 and 75%. Of note, the authors mention that respondents expressed concerns about the definition of chronic overdrainage and suggested different entities: Absolute overdrainage was considered the cause of postural headaches and subdural collections, whereas relative overdrainage predisposes for SVS. In this study, SVS was defined as symptomatic intermittent ICP elevation with small ventricles. Respondents identified chronic overdrainage, abnormal brain compliance, small skull size, cerebro-venous congestion, and shunt placement in early childhood as the major causes of SVS. ICP monitoring is performed by more than 50% of neurosurgeons and shunt revision, cranial expansion surgery, and addition of an anti-siphon device are the most common treatment options. Thus, the results of this survey of actual clinical practice among pediatric neurosurgeons

reflect the conceptual framework and clinical algorithm suggested by Sandler et al. quite well, although an overlap of chronic overdrainage, SVS and CCD is evident [1, 39].

In our experience, ICP monitoring is a useful diagnostic tool in investigating these three clinical entities. As an addition to the previously published algorithm, we would suggest to add shunt valve readjustments to the clinical pathway even in the presence of raised ICP. Intermittent ventricular catheter obstruction can be the underlying cause of episodes of severe headaches correlating with high ICP [15]. For chronic overdrainage syndrome, sudden venous entrapment following chronic venous distention as a result of chronic overdrainage has been suggested before as the underlying pathophysiological key mechanism, with adjustments of the operational pressure of an overdrainage preventing shunt valve being an effective treatment option [40, 41]. Typically, an increase in the operational pressures of shunt valves or gravitational units is required, which might appear counterintuitive in some cases. However, the intermittent nature of the problem has to be embraced. As we assume a close relationship or overlap between chronic overdrainage, SVS, and CCD, we applied this treatment option to children with CCD and were able to achieve clinical improvement, as demonstrated in the exemplary case one. ICP monitoring, preferentially with a

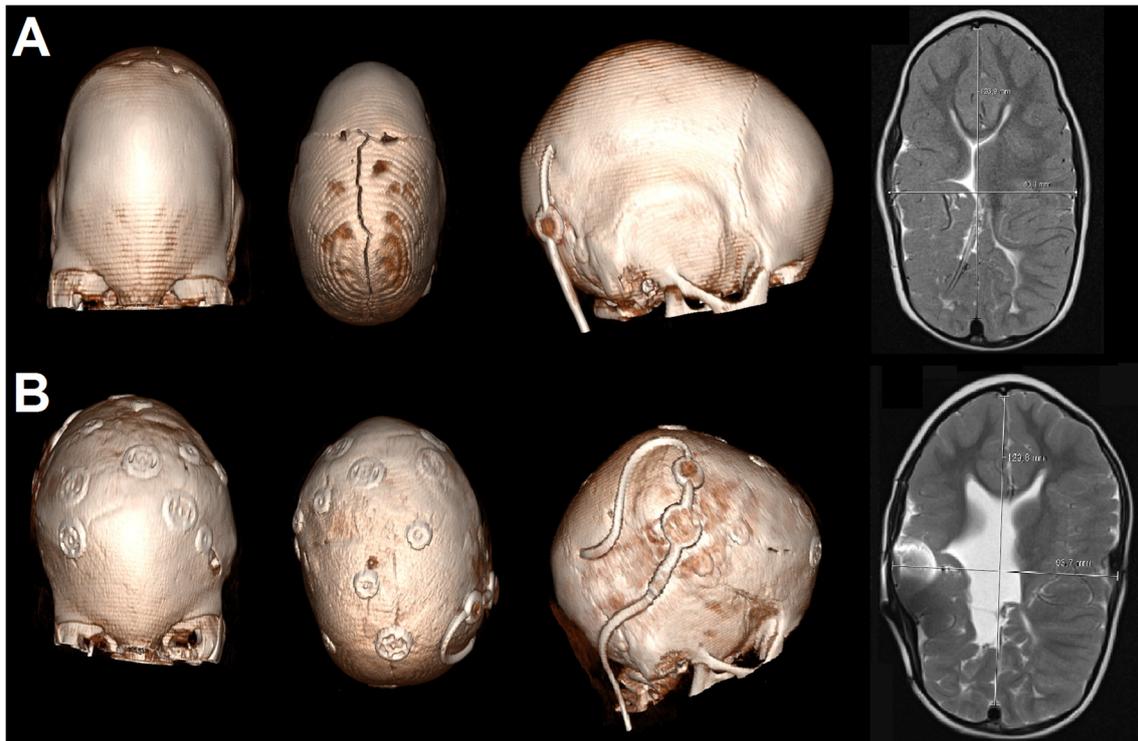


Fig. 4 Cranial MRI of a child with CCD showing a dolichocephalic head shape and slit ventricles before surgery (**a**) and an improvement of cephalic index and ventricular size after cranial expansion surgery (**b**)

telemetric system that can be used over a long period of time, and adjustable valve with overdrainage protection are thus the keys to this treatment option [42, 43].

As a final remark, we would like to emphasize that microcephaly diagnosed by head circumference measurement alone does not by itself imply a pathological situation that requires neurosurgical intervention. From a technical point of view, the diagnostic value of head circumference measurement is limited and it is prone to measurement errors [44, 45]. Its value can be increased by additional measurement of ear-to-ear distance [44]. Hydrocephalic children shunted in infancy are known to have smaller head circumference compared to healthy children, but they also have shorter height and lower weight than healthy peers [6]. From a pathophysiological perspective, we can extrapolate data from children with craniosynostosis, where volume measurement alone is not a reliable predictor of raised ICP [46]. From a clinical point of view, extreme head size is neither specific nor sensitive for neurocognitive impairment and the severity of the underlying primary pathology, such as grade of intraventricular hemorrhage of prematurity, appears to be the major determinant of outcome [45, 47].

Conclusions

CCD is defined as a state where the volume of the brain exceeds the intracranial space, leading to inadequate

accommodation of the growing brain or of physiological volume fluctuations. The secondary form of CCD is an iatrogenic phenomenon occurring in less than 2% of children shunted in infancy. It shares common features with slit ventricle syndrome (SVS) and chronic overdrainage syndrome, suggesting prophylactic avoidance of shunts without overdrainage protection or low-pressure shunts. The diagnosis of CCD should be established following a diagnostic algorithm including assessment of the shunt, radiological imaging, and ICP monitoring. While readjustment of a programmable shunt valve can be helpful in selected cases, a subset of children will require cranial expansion surgery with a favorable risk-benefit ratio.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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