# Pathophysiology and treatment of traumatic brain edema

Abhishek Patro MBBS, Sureswar Mohanty M Ch Department of Neurosurgery IMS & SUM Hospital, Bhubaneswar-751003

Abstract:Traumatic brain edema is a secondary phenomenon of traumatic brain injury. It manifests during a time interval by escape of fluid from the vascular compartment to extracellular spaces (vasogenic edema) or due to failure of energy pumps to remove intracellular fluid resulting from hypoxic mitochondrial damage (cellular or cytotoxic edema). The above process is a cascade mechanism mediated by several biochemicals and vasoactive substances.

Keywords: blood brain barrier, brain edema, head injury, intracranial pressure

#### INTRODUCTION

The tissue damage following brain trauma is a primary injury, whereas secondary mechanisms lead to brain edema.

- a) The primary injuries like contusions, lacerations, intracranial hemorrhage, neuronal shearing, transection and axonal injury occur at the time of traumatic event<sup>1</sup> and this can only be prevented by reducing impact force by preventive measures like seat belts and helmet.
- b) Brain edema is a secondary injury caused by a cascade of mechanisms initiated at the moment of injury<sup>2</sup>. This secondary injury is to a large extent responsive to timely therapeutic interventions. Understanding of the pathophysiology of the secondary mechanisms may prevent or at least attenuate the progression of brain damage due to edema. If untreated, it leads to raised intracranial pressure (ICP), herniation and death.

#### **BRAIN EDEMA**

Brain edema is an excess accumulation of water in the intracellular and/or extracellular spaces of the brain. Brain edema after traumatic brain injury is a frequent finding. Grossly in older terminology of brain edema, the cut surface oozes fluid (*Hirn Edem*). In Brain Swelling, the cut surface is dry (*Hirn Swellung*).

Address for correspondence: Prof. (Dr.) S. Mohanty 206, Duplex, Manorama estate, Rasulgarh Bhubeneswar-751010 Orissa. Tel:09437035901 E-mail: sureswar.mohanty@gmail.com Basically post-traumatic brain edema is of two types<sup>3</sup>: vasogenic and cytotoxic. Vasogenic brain edema is caused by disruption of the blood brain barrier (BBB)<sup>4,5,6</sup>. Intravascular fluid escapes through endothelium (pinocytosis), or leaky tight junction. Cytotoxic edema is characterized by accumulation of water inside the neurons, microglia and astrocytes<sup>7</sup>. Sometimes they bloat, rupture and fluid escapes into extracellular space. Although cytoxic edema seems more frequent than vasogenic edema in patients after traumatic brain injury (TBI), both entities relate to increased ICP and secondary ischemic events<sup>8,9</sup>. Microscopic and ultrastructural studies reveal increased fluid in interstitial space in vasogenic edema, whereas increased intracellular fluid is present in cellular or cytotoxic edema. Diffusion weighted imaging can differentiate between vasogenic and cytotoxic (cellular) edema by tissue water measurements.

### PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

Disruption of the BBB is the most important prerequisite for edema formation. Both vasogenic and cytotoxic edema results in increased intra-cranial pressure and eventually decreased cerebral perfusion pressure. This is in line with the Monroe - Kellie hypothesis which states that 'the sum of the intracranial volumes of blood, brain, CSF and other components is constant and that an in increase in any one of these must be offset by an equal decrease in another<sup>10</sup>. Elevated ICP diminished cerebral perfusion and can lead to tissue ischaemia. Ischaemia in turn may lead to vasodilation via autoregulatory mechanisms designed to restore cerebral perfusion. However vasodilation increases cerebral blood volume, which in turn then increases ICP, lower CPP and provokes further ischaemia<sup>11</sup>. After Traumatic brain injury, CBF autoregulation is impaired or abolished in

Indian Journal of Neurotrauma (IJNT), Vol. 6, No. 1, 2009

most patients. When pressure autoregulation is impaired or absent ICP decreases and increases with change in cerebral perfusion pressure (CPP)<sup>12,13</sup>. Also, autoregulatory vasoconstriction seems to be more resistant compared with autoregulatory vasodilation which indicated that patients are more sensitive to damage from low rather than high CPPs<sup>14</sup>.

# ROLE OF NEUROTRANSMITTERS AND VASOACTIVE SUBSTANCES IN THE PATHOGENESIS OF BRAIN EDEMA.

Studies on experimental models have shown several neurotransmitters like glutamate, acetylcholine and vasoactive substance i.e., serotonin, histamine, prostaglandins, amino acids, lactic acid etc. to mediate initiation and propagation of brain edema. Platelets are rich source and such substances are released due to their clogging in capillaries<sup>15,16,17</sup>. Serotonin accumulation and diffusion to the surrounding tissue is seen in histoflourescence studies in edematous and contused tissue from human brain. So role of serotonin in pathogenesis of vasogenic cerebral edema is strongly implicated<sup>18,19</sup>. Cortical serotonin (5-HT) metabolism increased following brain injury and this increase is temporarily related to depression of glucose utilization<sup>20,21</sup>. Moreover, Pappius et al showed that administration of the serotonin synthesis inhibitor, Pchlorphenylalamine, attenuated depression of glucose utilization and post injury increases in cortical serotonin<sup>20</sup>.

Histamine is released from the mast cells or histaminergic neurons which influence the BBB function. Both  $H_1 & H_2$  receptors are present within the endothelium and Histamine  $H_2$  receptors are known to be involved in the BBB disruption following trauma<sup>22,23</sup>. Histamine has the capacity to induce brain edema by its direct effect on the cerebral endothelial cells to influence nitric oxide (NO) formation probably via histamine  $H_2$ receptors. Since NO is a potential contributor of the BBB breakdown, brain edema and cell injury, blockade of NO by Histamine receptors blockers like ranitidine, cimetidine may provide neuroprotection<sup>24</sup>. Studies conducted by Mohanty et al have shown ranitidine to be more effective than cimetidine in reducing brain edema induced by hyperthermia<sup>25</sup>.

Prostaglandins of E series  $E_1 \& E_2$  released from the severed blood vessels and damaged platelets<sup>26</sup>. The possible mechanisms by which the released PGs are

Indian Journal of Neurotrauma (IJNT), Vol. 6, No. 1, 2009

involved in brain edema are 1) increased permeability of cerebral capillaries. 2) ischemia by vasoconstrictor action<sup>27</sup> and 3) potentiation of action of other chemical agents like serotonin or catecholamines. Treatment with indomethacin a PG synthatase inhibitor led to remarkable reduction of occurrence of edema as a result of injury<sup>28</sup>.

AQP4 channels were first cloned by Peter Agre and co-workers who received the Nobel prize for the same. AQP4 channels is expressed in the astroglial cells end feet membranes adjacent to blood vessels<sup>29</sup>. AQP4 was responsible for the water transport in cultured astroglial cells and might be a primary factor in ischaemia induced ceberal edema<sup>30</sup>. The perivascular pool of AQP4 allows bidirectional water flow and hence is likely to be ratelimiting for both water influx and efflux. Perivascular AQP4 pool is anchored through dystrophin complex (brain dystrophin isoform DP71 and a-syntrophin). Mice with targeted deletion of a-syntrophin displayed a dramatic loss of perivascular AQP4 and a concomitant reduction in the extent of post-ischemic edema<sup>31</sup>. The transgenic mouse studies suggests that aquaporin inhibitors may have clinical indications as diuretics and in the treatment of cerebral edema<sup>32</sup>. Studies conducted on male Sprague-Dawley rats concluded that magnesium decreases brain edema formation after TBI, possibly by restoring the polarized state of astrocytes and by down regulation of AQP4 channels in astrocytes<sup>33</sup>.

Trabold et al studied the role of vasopressor receptors for post-traumatic brain edema formation and secondary brain damage in C57\B16 mice and found that inhibition of AVP V1 receptors reduced brain content by 45% ,ICP by 29%, and contusion volume by 18%, while inhibition of AVP V2 receptors had no effect<sup>34</sup>.

Erythropoetin is gaining intrest as a neuroprotective agent, apparent diffusion coefficient measurements showed that rhEpo( recombinant human erythropoietin) decreases brain edema early and durably in the rat brain<sup>35</sup>. The mechanism by which it works is still not clear and further studies are needed to know it.

## CASCADE OF EVENTS IN THE PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF TBI

1. Initially there is direct tissue damage and impaired regulation of cerebral blood flow and metabolism.

- 2. Decreased CBF leads to accumulation of lactic acid due to anerobic glycolysis, increased membrane permeability and consecutive edema formation.
- 3. Anerobic glycolysis leads to depleted ATP stores and failure of energy dependent brain ion pumps.
- 4. Hypoxia leads to release of excitatory neurotransmitters like glutamate and aspartate.
- 5. These and other neurotransmitters activate the ionotropic (NMDA) and metabotropic receptors.
- 6. Consequently Ca++ and Na+ influx with K+ efflux.
- 7. Ca++ influx leads to catabolic intracellular processes.
- 8. Ca++ also activated lipid peroxidase, accumulation of free fatty acids and oxygen free radicals.
- 9. Prostaglandins and kinins initiate an inflammatory response.
- 10. Further activations of caspases, translocases and endonucleases initiate progressive structural changes of biological membranes and nucleosomal DNA.
- 11. There is a depression of metabolic activity of neural tissue resulting in suppressed neuronal activity.
- 12. Role of aquaporin4 channels, decreased Mg++ levels and vassopressor2 receptor channels and erythropoietin in the pathophysiology of post traumatic brain edema is being studied.

Collectively these events lead to BBB disruption and degradation of cellular structures and ultimately necrotic or programmed cell death

## IMAGING TECHNIQUES TO IDENTIFY TYPE OF EDEMA

CT scan is a cost effective technique to distinguish between infarct and hemorrhage. Done within 24 hrs of trauma, it can also identify edema but it cannot distinguish between vasogenic and cellular edema. MR imaging techniques can measure the diffusion of water in the brain tissue. This is usually expressed as the ADC. A reduction in ADC is interpreted as a decrease in diffusion.In cellular edema the water is more closely bound and thus it would be expected to result in a decrease ADC. Proton spectroscopy shows elevated Nacetylaspartate levels indicating tissue damage i.e, mitochondrial damage.

## TREATMENT OF BRAIN EDEMA

The goal of medical management of cerebral edema is to maintain regional and global CBF to meet the metabolic requirements of the brain and prevent secondary neuronal injury from cerebral ischaemia. Medical management of cerebral edema (Table 1) involves using a systemic approach, from general measures i.e, optimal head and neck positioning for facilitating intracranial venous outflow, proper airway, avoidance of dehydration and systemic hypotension and maintenance of normothermia to specific therapeutic interventions like controlled hyperventilation, administration of diuretics, osmotherapy and pharmalogical cerebral metabolic suppression.

Surgical decompression and use of osmotherapy to reduce brain edema and its deleterious effect remain the mainstay of treatment even today. This only attenuates the primary injury but cannot abate the secondary cascade of events. Drugs which inhibit or slow the various secondary mechanisms are still in a experimental stage. Few have shown their efficacy in

Table 1: Drugs reducing brain edema

| Factors increasing edema     | Blocking\inhibitory substances   |
|------------------------------|--|
| Free fatty acids             | endogenous inhibitors<br>(long chain fatty acids)  |
| Prostaglandins               | Indomethacin   |
| Mitochondrial                | Cyclosporin A  |
| permeability\damage          | Citicholine  |
| Cerebral anerobic metabolism | Lactate  |
| Polyamines                   | NMDA receptor antagonists<br>Ifenprodil  |
| Free radicals                | Scavengers-Vitamin C & E<br>21 amino steroids<br>Edaravone<br>n-acetyl cysteine<br>Citicholine |
| Endothelin                   | Endothelin antagonists –<br>Patent EPO 838223  |
| Chloride transport           | Cl transport inhibitor-Torase  |
| Carbonic anhydrase           | CA inhibitors-Acetazolamide  |
| Kappa opoid                  | Agonist-Niravoline   |
| Aquaporin 4                  | Dexamethasone & hCRF   |

Indian Journal of Neurotrauma (IJNT), Vol. 6, No. 1, 2009

controlled trails and further research is needed to bring these to the main stream of treatment. The most promising of the studies are the aquaporin 4 channel inhibitors.

## CONCLUSION

Post traumatic brain edema is a result of various secondary mechanisms and the treatment options are limited to osmotherapy and surgical decompression. Pharmacological drugs which influence the various secondary mechanisms are still in their infancy, the most promising of them being the aquaporin 4 channel inhibitors. The present concept of therapy has to base on brain volume regulation and improved microcirculation by means of combination therapy.

## REFERENCES

- 1. Povlishock JT, Becker DP. The morphopathologic responses to head injuries of varying severity. Pages 443-452 in: Central Nervous system Trauma Status Report-1985.William Byrd Press/NIH,1985
- Cooper PR. Delayed brain injury:Secondary insults: Central 2. Nervous system Trauma Status Report-1985.William Byrd press/NIH,1985- 217-28.
- Klatzo I. Presidental address. Neuropathological aspects of 3. brain edema.

J Neuropathol Exp Neurol 26:1–14, 1967.

- 4. Barzo P, Marmarou A, Fatouros P, Corwin F, Dunbar J. Magnetic resonance imaging-monitored acute blood-brain barrier changes in experimental traumatic brain injury. J Neurosurg 1996; 85:1113-21.
- 5. Barzo P, Marmarou A, Fatouros P, Hayasaki K, Corwin F. Biphasic pathophysiological response of vasogenic and cellularedema in traumatic brain swelling. Acta Neurochir Suppl 1997; 70:119-22.
- Barzo P, Marmarou A, Fatouros P, Hayasaki K, Corwin F. 6. Contribution of vasogenic and cellular edema to traumatic brain swelling measured by diffusion-weighted imaging. [Neurosurg 1997; 87:900-907.
- Unterberg AW, Stover J, Kress B ,Kiening KL. Edema and 7. brain trauma. Neuroscience 2004;129:1021-9.
- Marmarou A, Fatouros P, Barzo P, et al. Contribution of 8. edema and cerebral blood volume to traumatic brain swelling in head injured patients. J Neurosurg 2000; 93 : 183-93.
- Marmarou A, Fatouros P, Signoretti S, Portella G, Aygok GA, 9. Bullock MR. Predominance of cellular edema in traumatic brain swelling in patients with severe head injuries. J Neurosurg 2006; 104: 720-30.

Indian Journal of Neurotrauma (IJNT), Vol. 6, No. 1, 2009

- 10. Ahmed Raslan, Anish Bhardwaj. Medical management of cerebral edema. Neurosurg Focus 2007; 22(5):E12.
- 11. Rosner MJ, Rosner MD. Cerebral prefusion pressure: management protocol and clinical results. [Neurosurg 1995; 83: 949-62.
- 12. Rangel- Castillo L, Robertson CS. Management of intracranial hypertension. Crit Care Clin 2006; 22: 713-32.
- 13. Enevoldsen EM, Jensen FT. Autoregulation and CO2 responses of cerebral blood flow in patients with acute severe head injury. J Neurosurg 1978;48;689-703.
- 14. DeWitt DS, Prough D. Traumatic cerebral vascular injury: The effects of concussive brain injury on the cerebral vasculature. [Neurotrauma 2003: 20: 795-825.
- 15. Baethmann A, Schurer L, Unterberg A, Wahl W, Staub F, Kempski O. Mediator substances of brain edema in cerebral ischaemia. Arzneimittelforschung 1991; 41:310-5.(German)
- 16. Baethmann A, Oettinger W, Rothenfusser W, Kempski O, Unterberg A, Geiger R. Brain edema factors: current state with particular reference to plasma constituents and glutamate. Adv Neurol 1980; 28:171-95.
- 17. Hayes RL, Jenkins LW, Lyeth BG. Neurotransmitters mediated mechanism of traumatic brain injury: Acetylcholine and excitatory amino acids. Central Nervous System Trauma Status Report;173-88; 1991.
- 18. Mohanty S, Mazumdar S. Role of Serotonin in human cerebral edema and concussion. Ind J Med Res 1978;67:1029-32.
- 19. Mohanty S, Dey PK Sen PC, Ray AK. Accumulation of serotonin in human cerebral contusion. Neurology India 1978; 26:68-70.
- 20. Pappius HM, Dadoun R, McHugh M. The effect of pchlorophenylalanine on cerebral metabolism and biogenic amine content of traumatized brain. J Cerebr Blood Flow Metabol 1988; 8;324-34.
- 21. McIntosh TK. Novel pharmacologic therapies in the treatment of experimental traumatic brain injury: A rewiew. [Neurotrauma 1993; 10; 215-61.
- 22. Mohanty S, Dey PK, Sharma HS, Chansouria JPN, Olsson Y. Role of histamine in traumatic brain edema. An experimental study in the rat. [Neurol Sci 1989; 90; 87-97.
- 23. Schilling L, Wahl M. Opening of the blood brain barrier during cortical superfusion with histamine. Brain Res 1994; 653; 289-92.

- Hunter RP,Short CR, McClure JR, et al. Cimetidine inhibits nitric oxide associated nitrate production in a soft tissue inflammation model in the horse. *J Vet Pharmacol Ther* 1999; 22; 136-47.
- Patnaik R, Mohanty S, Sharma HS. Blockade of Histamine H2 receptors attenuate blood brain barrier permeability, cerebral blood flow disturbances, edema formation and cell reactions following hyperthermic brain injury in the rat. *Acta Neurochir[suppl]* 2000; 76;535-9.
- Smith JB, Ingerman CM, Silver MJ. Prostaglandins and Pharmacology of Platelets. Ciba foundation Symposium. 15(new series), Elsevier, Amsterdam. 207:1975.
- Yamamoto YL, Feindel W, Wolfe LS, Katoh H, Hodge CP. Experimental vasoconstriction of cerebral arteries by prostaglandins. *J Neurosurg* 1972; 37 ;385-97.
- Mohanty S, Ray AK, Dey PK. Cerebral edema and blood brain and blood CSF barriers in experimental brain trauma: Effect of Indomethacin-a prostaglandin synthetase inhibitor. *Ind J Physiol Pharma* 1980; (reprint) 24:90-96.
- 29. Nielsen S, Nagelhus EA, Amiry-Moghaddam M, Bourque C, Agre P, Ottersen OP. Specialized membrane domains for water transport in glial cells: high-resolution immunogold

cytochemistry of aquaporin-4 in rat brain. *J Neurosci* 1997; 17: 171-80.

- Nico B, Frigeri A, Nicchia GP, et al. Severe alterations of endothelial and glial cells in the blood-brain barrier of dystrophic mdx mice. *Glia* 2003; 42: 235-51.
- Bloch O, Manley GT. The role of aquaporin-4 in cerebral water transport and edema. *Neurosurg Focus* 2007; 22:E3.
- Verkman Alan S. Physiological importance of aquaporin water channels. *Ann Med* 2002; 34: 192-20.
- Ghabriel MN, Thomas A, Vink R. Acta Neurochir Supplement 2006; 96; 402-6.
- Trabold R , Plesnilla N. Role of vassopressor receptors for post-traumatic brain edema formation and secondary brain damage; 58.Jahrestagung der Deutschen Gesellschaft fur Neurochirurgie e.V.26. bis 29.04.2007, Leipzig.
- Verdonc O, Lahrech H, Francony G, et al. Erythropoietin protects from post-traumatic edema in the rat brain. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metabol* 2007; 27; 1369-76.

This document was downloaded for personal use only. Unauthorized distribution is strictly prohibited