





Neurology Summary

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L53- CNS infections

Bacterial meningitis						
Definition		 Inflammation of the (meninges) pia mater and the arachnoid mater (dura mater is usually spared), with suppuration of the cerebrospinal fluid 				
Signs and Symptoms	• Se to • Bu What's th • Jo ho a p	loud noises) can be specific to bacteria lging fontanel in infants, sometimes with Kernig's sign While patient is lying supine, with the hip and knee flexed to 90 degrees pain limits passive extension of the knee. The Kernig sign e most useful sign? It accentuation maneuver: ask patient rizontally: Headache worsens, In health of with meningitis will avoid doing it.	ance of light) and Phonophobia (intolerance imeningitis. th hydrocephalus Brudzinski's neck sign Flexion of the neck causes involuntary flexion of the knee and hip. Brudzinski sign			
Management (Based on Dr notes)	 Star <li< th=""><th colspan="4"> a pt with meningitis will avoid doing it. Sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 54% (Low, unlike kernig and Brudzinski signs), How to manage a patient with meningitis? Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the ER, before you see him) Step 2: CT (To exclude herniation, supratentorial tumor, bleeding, pus collection (Subdural empyema) before doing LP bc it may kill the pt). NEVER do LP before CT. Step 3: LP. Contraindications to LP: Herniation, Infection at the site of LP (e.g. Cellulitis), bleeding disorders, Low platelet count <100, anticoagulants . If one of these contraindication is present you can delay LP but NEVER delay the treatment What antibiotics should be given? Ceftriaxone + Vancomycin (to cover highly penicillin resistant pneumococcus) </th></li<>	 a pt with meningitis will avoid doing it. Sensitivity of 100%, specificity of 54% (Low, unlike kernig and Brudzinski signs), How to manage a patient with meningitis? Step 1: Give empirical therapy!! Whenever you suspect meningitis or encephalitis, start empirical therapy! (In real life the pt will be started on empirical therapy in the ER, before you see him) Step 2: CT (To exclude herniation, supratentorial tumor, bleeding, pus collection (Subdural empyema) before doing LP bc it may kill the pt). NEVER do LP before CT. Step 3: LP. Contraindications to LP: Herniation, Infection at the site of LP (e.g. Cellulitis), bleeding disorders, Low platelet count <100, anticoagulants . If one of these contraindication is present you can delay LP but NEVER delay the treatment What antibiotics should be given? Ceftriaxone + Vancomycin (to cover highly penicillin resistant pneumococcus) 				

EXTRA Typical CSF changes in viral, pyogenic and TB meningitis							
	Normal Viral Bacterial Tuberculosis						
Appearance	Crystal clear	Clear/turbid	Turbid/purulent	Turbid/viscous			
Mononuclear cells	<5/mm ³	10-100/mm ³	<50/mm ³	100-300/mm ³			
Polymorph cells	Nil	Nil	200-300/mm ³	0-200/mm ³			
Protein	0.2-0.4 g/L	0.4-0.8 g/L	0.5-2.0 g/L	0.5-3.0 g/L			
Glucose	⅔ - ½ blood glucose	> ½ blood glucose	< 1⁄2 blood glucose	< 1⁄2 blood glucose			

L53- CNS infections (cont.)

	Special cases of bacterial meningitis
Menningococcal meningittis (Emergency) Meningococcal meningitis and meningococcaemia: (Emergency) Meningococcal infection is a medical mergency requiring treatment immediately. Suspicion of meningococcal infection is a medical mergency requiring treatment immediately. Nichai of anonspecific blotchy per arsh Perer, headache, neck stiffnesc. All these fleatures may not be present – and meningococcal infection may sometimes begin like any oparently non-sprious infection. Immediate treatment for suspected meningococcal meningitis af first contact before transfer to hospital or or instrauscularly. Alternative if gencillin 1200 mg (adult dose) slow i.v. injection or instrauscularly. Alternative if gencillin allergy – celotaxime 1 g i.v. In meningitis, minutes count: delay is unacceptable. On arrival in hospital: Datter tests including blocd cultures immediately Datter tests including blocd cultures immediately	 Fulminate meningococcemia with purpura caused by Neisseria meningitidis Overwhelming sepsis, DIC Classic: Meningitis with rash (Petechiae) + Headache + Fever Lumbar puncture should not be performed if meningococcal sepsis is suspected because coning of the cerebellar tonsils may follow – the organism is confirmed by blood culture. Treatment and prophylaxis: Droplet Isolation: 48h post Abx Treatment: Ceftriaxone or Pen G 7 days Eradicate nasopharyngeal carriage: House hold contact Health care providers who examined patient closely Prophylaxis (Not done routinely): Rifampin 600 mg for 2 d or Ciprofloxacin 500mg once or Ceftriaxone 125mg I.M once
Listeria Monocytogenes meningitis	 Pathology: It causes brain stem, cerebellum inflammation (Rhombencephalitis) and meningitis Risk groups: Age <1y or >50y Alcoholics Pregnancy: up to 30% Immunocompromised 70 % Routes of transmission: Mainly food borne: survives refrigeration linked to poultry, hotdogs, cold cuts, coleslaw, ice-cream Cheeses, particularly soft cheeses, have been implicated in listeriosis outbreaks worldwide. Inform micro lab: special media (Mueller-Hinton agar) Note: Whenever you see a pt with changing signals in brain stem and cerebellum MRI, think of Listeria. Treatment: Ampicillin 2gm IV Q4h +/- Gentamicin 2mg/kg loading dose then 1.7mg/kg Q8h 21 day duration Penicillin allergy patients: TMP-SMX or Meropenem
Neuro Brucellosis	 Treatment: Doxycycline Plus Rifampin Plus Ceftriaxone 2gm IV q12h

What's the most common organism in neonates?

• Group B Streptococci (occurs ONLY in neonates)

What's the most common organism in older infants and children?

• Streptococcus pneumonia

What's the most common organism in adults?

• Streptococcus pneumonia

What's the most common complication?

• CN palsies (esp. deafness)

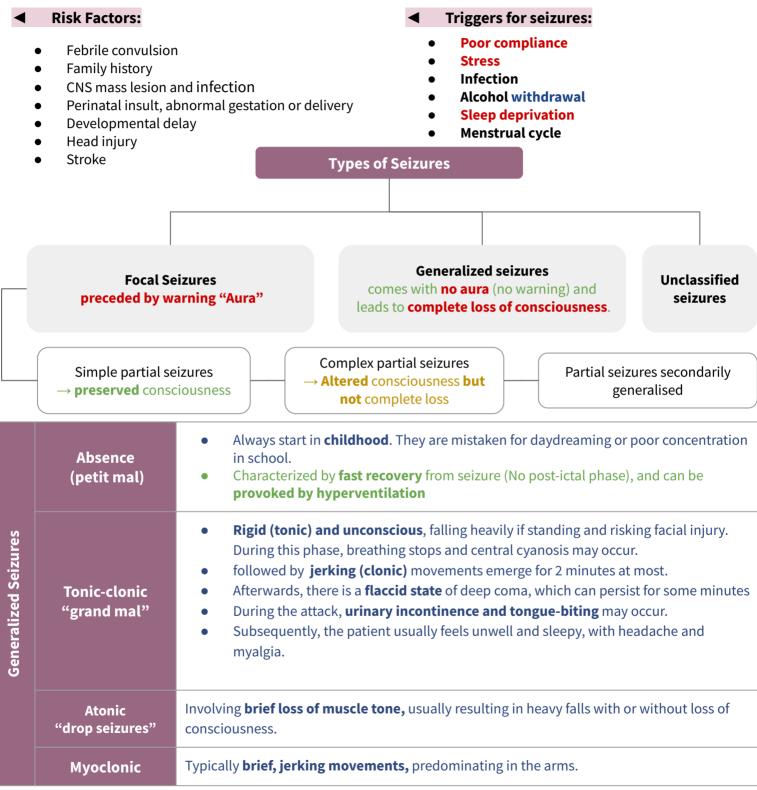
L53- CNS infections (cont.)

	Aseptic meningitis
Definition	 Inflammation of meninges with sterile CSF CSF: pleocytosis 100s, Normal Glucose, Protein normal, Neg Culture Note: Pleocytosis is the hallmark of aseptic meningitis, since it's sterile inflammation usually it has neutrophilic pleocytosis (there might be some lymphocytes, but the main cells are neutrophils)
Causes	 Enteroviruses: most common cause 80% HSV-2 (HSV-1 can cause it but it usually causes encephalitis) Partially treated bacteria (Think of it when the pt has taken abx in the past 2-3 days. When you suspect viral meningitis it is important to verify that the patient has not received antibiotics (for whatever cause) prior to the lumbar puncture, as CSF lymphocytosis can also be found in partially treated bacterial meningitis.) Drugs: Metronidazole, TMP-SMX, NSAIDs, carbamazepine (Given to epileptic pts), IVIG-headache is very common (Given to pts with myasthenia gravis and Guillain barre syndrome (GBS))
	Viral encephalitis
General info	 Encephalitis: means acute infection/inflammation of brain parenchyma, and is often seen simultaneously with meningitis, usually viral. Meningoencephalitis: inflammation of brain + meninges In viral encephalitis, fever (90%) and meningism are usual; in contrast to meningitis, however, the clinical picture is dominated by brain parenchyma inflammation. Personality and behavioural change is a common early manifestation, which progresses to a reduced level of consciousness and even coma. Seizures (focal and generalized) are very common and focal neurological deficits, such as speech disturbance, often occur (especially in herpes simplex encephalitis). What's the most common organism? Most common: Herpes simplex (Either type 1 or 2): How to confirm? Perform LP and PCR. MRI is also helpful (The limbic system and the medial temporal are its favourable place) Treat with Acyclovir
	Cerebral abscess
General info	 Bacteria may enter the cerebral substance through penetrating injury, by direct spread from paranasal sinuses or the middle ear, or secondary to sepsis. Untreated congenital heart disease is a recognised risk factor. Initial infection leads to local suppuration followed by loculation of pus within a surrounding wall of gliosis, which in a chronic abscess may form a tough capsule. Organisms: Streptococci (60-70%), Bacteroides (20-40%), Enterobacteriacea (25-33%), S&S: Fever, Headache, Meningism, Drowsiness Seizures, raised intracranial pressure and focal hemisphere signs occur alone or in combination.
Management	 Lumbar puncture is potentially hazardous in the presence of raised intracranial pressure and CT should always precede it. CT with contrast: reveals single or multiple low-density areas, which show ring enhancement with contrast and surrounding cerebral oedema CT brain: If abscess more than 2.5cm then surgical drainage. And if patient neurologically unstable or decrease LOC drain regardless of size Antimicrobials: empirically Ceftriaxone with metronidazole, otherwise according to susceptibility

L54- Epilepsy

Definitions:

- **Epileptic seizure:** Transient occurrence of signs and symptoms of sudden changes in neurological function due • to **abnormal excessive** and **synchronous** discharge of cortical neurons
- Epilepsy: recurrent (two or more) unprovoked seizures.
- Provoked seizures: occurs in the setting of acute medical and neurological illnesses in people with no prior history of seizures



Seizure approach

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Non Invasive tests:

Invasive monitoring

Neuropsychological evaluation 0

Clinical history

MRI and Nuclear medicine

Video EEG 0

L54- Epilepsy (cont.)

Typical EEG Sign	Localizes to	Typical EEG Sign	Localizes to	
Oral Automatismes	Temporal lobe	Tonic arm elevation	Supplementary motor area	
Hypermotor automatism	Frontal lobe	Epigastric Aura	Temporal lobe	
Manual picking automatismes	Temporal lobe	Throat tightening Sensation	Insula	
Visual Hallucinations	Occipital lobe	Ictal pain	Parietal lobe	
Auditory Hallucinations	Temporal neocortex (Heschl's Gyrus)	Somatosensory sensations	Postcentral gyrus or Supplementary motor area	
Olfactory Hallucinations	Mesial temporal lobe	Clonic activity	Precentral gyrus	
Nystagmus, eye blinking, eye pulling sensation	Occipital Jaho	De-ja-vu or jamais vu aura	Mesial / Medial temporal lobe	
Ictal amaurosis	Occipital lobe	Fear	Most often temporal, but also frontal lobe	

Medical Treatment (first line):

МОА	 Reducing electrical excitability of cell membranes: by inhibition of sodium channel. Enhancing GABA: By inhibiting GABA-transaminase or direct GABA-agonist properties.
Clinical uses of Antiepileptic drugs	 Tonic-clonic (grand mal) seizures: phenytoin or valproate (drugs of choice) Partial (focal) seizures: carbamazepine (drug of choice) valproate; clonazepam or phenytoin are alternatives. Absence seizures (petit mal): ethosuximide (drug of choice) or valproate Myoclonic seizures: valproate or clonazepam
Basic rules for drug treatment	 Drug treatment should be simple, preferably using one anticonvulsant (monotherapy). "Start low, increase slow" Add-on therapy is necessary in <u>some patients</u> If patient is seizure-free for three years, withdrawal of pharmacotherapy should be considered. Should be performed very carefully and <u>slowly!</u>
Drug resistant epilepsy	 Failure of at least TWO antiepileptic medications to completely control seizures Appropriately chosen for seizure type . Taken as prescribed Well tolerated (not failed due to side effects)

Surgical Treatment (second line):

- Hemispherectomy: one of the two cerebral hemispheres is removed.
- **Hemispherotomy:** disconnects the cortex of a hemisphere from the other cutting the corpus callosum.
- Temporal lobectomy

→ If the patient is not a good candidate for surgery?

- ◆ Vagus nerve stimulation (NS)
- Deep Brain Stimulation (DBS)

L54- Epilepsy (cont.)

Status epilepticus

- **Definition:** recurrent convulsions that last for more than **30 minutes** (5 min in the last update) and are interrupted by only brief periods of partial relief.
- Rhabdomyolysis is a complication of SE that may lead to acute kidney injury
- Treatment:
 - Early status (up to 30 min): lorazepam IV
 - Established status (30–90 min): Phenytoin
 - If ongoing seizures: Phenobarbital, and Valproate
 - Refractory status (>90 min): general anaesthesia

Epilepsy treatment in pregnancy

The **risk of teratogenicity** is well known, especially with **valproates**, but withdrawing drug therapy in pregnancy is more risky than continuation.

• All antiepileptic medications are not safe, however <u>lamotrigine</u> is the <u>safest</u>. .

Seizures vs Syncope:

	Cardiogenic Syncope	Seizure Disorders
Loss of Consciousness	Typical	Common
Aura	-	+
Cyanosis	-	+
Episode Duration	Seconds	Minutes
Involuntary movements	Common	Typical
Amnesia	Yes	Yes
Postictal delirium & headache	-	+
Arrhythmia	Common	Rare
Electroencephalogram	Slow waves Flattening	Focal or General Spike
Responsive to AED	No	Often
Short Term Mortality	High	Low

L55- Peripheral neuropathies

	Weakness			Sensory Severe UM		UMN	UMN Autonomic		
	Proximal	Distal	Asymmetric	Symmetric	symptoms	propriocep tive loss	signs	symptoms/ signs	Diagnosis
Pattern 1: symmetric proximal and distal weakness with sensory loss	+	+		+	+				GBS, CIDP
Pattern 2: Distal Sensory loss with/ without weakness		+		+	+				CSPN ¹ , metabolic, drugs, hereditary: (CMT, Amyloidosis)
Pattern 3: Distal weakness with sensory loss		+	+		+				- Multiple: vasculitis, HNPP ² , MADSAM, infection (leprosy, lyme, sarcoid, HIV) - Single: Mononeuropathy, radiculopathy
Pattern 4: Asymmetric Proximal and distal weakness with sensory loss	+	+	+		+				Polyradiculopathy, plexopathy
Pattern 5 : Asymmetric distal weakness without sensory loss		+	+				±		- LMN and UMN - ALS - Pure UMN - PLS - Pure LMN - MMN ³ . PMA ⁴ , BAD ⁵ , LAD ⁶ , MAMA ⁷
Pattern 6 : Symmetric sensory loss and upper motor neuron signs		+		+	+	+	+		b ₁₂ deficiency, copper deficiency, friedreich ataxia, adrenomyeloneuropat hy
Pattern 7: Symmetric weakness without sensory loss	±	+		+					- Proximal and distal SMA - Distal Hereditary motor neuropathy
Pattern 8: Focal midline proximal symmetric weakness	+ Neck/extensor + Bulbar			+ +			+ +		ALS
Pattern 9: Asymmetric proprioceptive loss without weakness			+		+	+			Sensory Neuropathy (Ganglionopathy)
Pattern 10: Autonomic dysfunction								+	HSAN ⁹ , Diabetes, GBS, amyloid, poryphyria, Fabry's

L55- Peripheral neuropathies (cont.)

Ulnar nerve mononeuropathy	 system involved: sensory and motor clinical features: numbness of medial hand (fourth and fifth digits). weakness of abduction and adduction, atrophy of intrinsic muscles of the hand, wartenberg and froment signs will be evident there will also be grip weakness finger extensors are not involved (sign of radial nerve)
carpal tunnel syndrome	 system involved: sensory and motor clinical features: wasting of thenar eminences. weak thumb abduction, reduced sensation over thumb, index, middle and ring fingers. the most common focal neuropathy it is usually asymmetrical, however, it can occur bilaterally.
Hereditary neuropathy	 they might deny family history sensory problems may not be present in the history but it can be present in the physical because it's chronic. clinical features: Deformities e.g. high arched foot (Pes cavus), symmetric weakness, distal more than proximal. absent reflexes. decreased proprioception, vibration, heat and pinprick.
Diabetic neuropathy	 history of Diabetes Clinical features: decreased sensation, numbness, and tingling that is progressive for a very long time (e.g 2 years) and pain usually symmetrical. most common Asymmetric neuropathy in Diabetics is Carpal tunnel syndrome most common symmetric is Distal symmetric polyneuropathy.
S1 Radiculopathy	 clinical features: Weakness of hip extension, Weakness of knee flexion, Weakness of ankle plantar flexion, Absent ankle reflex. sensory over lateral and plantar surfaces How to differentiate sciatic from S1? by sensory distribution and the presence of hip extension.
Common peroneal nerve damage	 clinical features: Foot drop (difficulty in dorsiflexion). parasthesia in teh dorsum of the foot. toe dorsiflexion weakness. ankle eversion is also affected. inversion is NORMAL. loss of sensation is well demarcated. over the dorsum extending over the lateral calf.
Guillain barre syndrome	 Paralysis follows 1-3 weeks after an infection signs and symptoms include:

L56- Ischemic stroke

Stroke :

- Ischemic (blockage) \rightarrow 80-85% of all strokes
- Hemorrhagic (bleeding) \rightarrow 15-20% of strokes

Ischemic stroke :

- Persisting neurologic deficit after 24 hours and/or
- infarct on CT or MRI.

Transient ischemic attacks :

stroke-like symptoms that last for a very short time(<1hr) with complete recovery (most are <5 min) with the **absence of infarct** in neuroimaging study.

Risk factors:

Modifiable :

- Hypertension. (Most important one)
- Diabetes mellitus.
- Hyperlipidemia.

Non- modifiable:

- Age
- Sex young women are at higher risk than men due to pregnancy, hormonal changes.

Subtypes:

• Blood vessels

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- Atheromatous (most common)
 - Non-atheromatous
 - Vasculitis
 - Dissection of blood vessels (common in young patient "50 and less").
- Heart
 - Cardio Embolic
 - Atrial fibrillation
- Blood
 - Haemoglobinopathies
 - Sickle cell disease
 - Coagulopathy
 - Thrombophilia

Clinical presentation :

Middle cerebral artery occlusion:

- Hemiparesis: Arm + face (UE) more than leg weakness (LE)
- Hemisensory loss
- Higher cerebral dysfunction:
 - Aphasia if affecting the **dominant (left)** hemisphere.
 - Broca's (expressive, anterior) aphasia: Damage in the left inferior frontal lobe causes reduced speech fluency with relatively preserved comprehension
 - Wernicke's (receptive, posterior) aphasia: Left temporo-parietal damage leaves fluency of language but words are muddled. This varies from insertion of a few incorrect or non-existent words
 - Nominal (anomic, amnestic) aphasia: difficulty naming familiar objects
 - Global (central) aphasia: combination of the expressive problems of Broca's aphasia and the loss of comprehension of Wernicke's with loss of both language production and understanding. Writing and reading are also affected.
 - Neglect if affecting the **non-dominant** hemisphere.
- homonymous hemianopia

Anterior Cerebral Artery (ACA) occlusion :

- Symptoms :
- Weakness LE more than UE
 - Emotional disturbance.

Internal carotid occlusion:

Symptoms : above and ophthalmic

Posterior cerebral artery :

Symptoms:

- Vision visual field (homonymous hemianopia)
- memory

Vertebrobasilar

Symptoms

- Cranial nerve syndrome with crossed motor
- cerebellum (cerebellar syndrome)
- altered LOC.
- homonymous hemianopia

Midbrain

Symptoms:

- CN III: signs of complete CN III palsy:
 - dilated pupil
 - Unilateral complete ptosis (levator weakness)
 - Eye deviated **down and out** (unopposed lateral rectus and superior oblique
 - Weber's syndrome: Ipsilateral IIIrd nerve palsy with contralateral hemiplegia

Pons

Symptoms: CN V \rightarrow Sensory:

- CN VI \rightarrow lateral rectus palsy
- CN VII \rightarrow facial weakness.

Medulla

Symptoms: CN VIII \rightarrow vertigo, hearing loss.

- CN IX, $X \rightarrow$ dysphagia.
- CN XII \rightarrow tongue weakness.

Small penetrating arteries (Lacunar syndrome)

Symptoms:

arms and face will be affected to the same degree.

no higher cerebral dysfunction or hemianopia

Pathophysiology:

- **Core:** area of <u>irreversible</u> damage.
- Penumbra: tissue at risk (ischemic but still viable cerebral tissue)
- Reduced blood blow (20-30cc) → tissue is still viable but stops functioning (penumbra) → needs to be saved ASAP
- A drop to 10 cc in blood flow \rightarrow severe ischemia

History taking in Ischemic stroke :

- Onset (Last time seen normal)
 - Symptoms: FAST
 - Headache
 - $\circ \qquad {\sf Neck \ pain/trauma \ in \ case \ of \ dissection}$
 - Past Medical history
 - Oral contraceptives
 - Antithrombotics

L56- Ischemic stroke (cont.)

Physical examination in ischemic stroke : :

- keep it neurological (focused) and quick, use **National Institution of Health Stroke Scale (NIHSS)**
- ABC (sometimes they add D for dextrose)
- BP Will be high (in both ischemic and hemorrhagic strokes)
- CN involvement and crossed motor typical presentation of brainstem strokes (ipsilateral CN involvement & contralateral weakness)
- Tone : decreased on side of weakness early on, later on increased
- Reflexes: hyperreflexia on side of weakness, with upgoing toe.

Investigations of ischemic stroke :

- Coagulation profile
- Chemistry : Fasting glucose
- Imaging
 - ^{a.} CT scan¹ non-contrast CT is the only way to differentiate between ischemic and hemorrhagic strokes
 - b. MRI:
 - MRI is better overall, if immediately available
 - MRI is used when there is diagnostic uncertainty or delayed presentation, and when more
- Vascular imaging
 - a. Carotid U/S the least invasive
 - b. CTA: invasive
- Cardiac workup : ECG to detect Afib

Management of ischemic stroke :

- Acute stroke management code stroke
 - a. ABC

c.

- b. Reperfusion
 - Intravenous thrombolysis (IV t-PA): Effective up to <u>4.5 hours</u> from onset.
 - Exclusion criteria: Intracerebral hemorrhage, stroke in the past 3 months., major surgery 14d, Pregnancy, active bleeding or acute trauma
 - aspirin (300 mg daily) should be started immediately after an ischaemic stroke if the patient is not a candidate for thrombolysis. If the patient has already received tPA, withhold aspirin for at least 24 hours.
 - In case of atrial fibrillation \rightarrow add warfarin.
 - In case of significant carotid stenosis → surgery
 - In case of vasculitis \rightarrow steroids
 - Intra-arterial thrombolytic & Mechanical thrombectomy
 - Only in case of blockage in large vessels e.g. MCA, ACA, Internal carotid or basillar
 you could do for up to 6 hours.
 - Internal carotid endarterectomy: recommended in TIA or stroke patients with internal carotid artery stenosis >70%.
 - Prevent progression and complications:
 - BP and glycemic control
 - do not lower blood pressure abruptly in first week as it may reduce cerebral perfusion
 - Control BP before thrombolysis bc of the risk of bleeding
 - NPO, avoid aspiration.
 - Dx and Rx temp
 - PT, OT and early rehab.
 - DVT prophylaxis



d. Other components of acute stroke management:

- Nutrition: If dysphagia persists for >48 hrs, start feeding via nasogastric
- Temperature: Control with antipyretics, as raised brain temperature may increase infarct volume

Long term stroke management:

- a. Long term management of Risk factors (secondary prevention)
 - HTN: Transient hypertension, often seen in the first 24-48 hours following stroke, usually does not require treatment provided (let BP autoregulate) given diastolic pressure does not rise >100 mmHg, because high BP helps the cerebral circulation. unless
 - Patient is candidate for thrombolysis
 - patient has other risk factors that necessitate BP control
 - DM,Lipid , Smoking , A-fib, and Exercise
- b. Anti-platelet: for atherosclerosis Long-term soluble aspirin (75 mg daily) Anticoagulant
 - Heparin and warfarin should be given when there is:
 - atrial fibrillation
 - Hypercoagulability
 - Anticoagulants are potentially dangerous in the two weeks following infarction
- c. Rehabilitation

Transient ischemic attack :

- The term TIA traditionally also includes patients with **amaurosis fugax :** sudden transient loss of vision in one eye. the first clinical evidence of internal carotid artery stenosis and forerunner of a hemiparesis.
- Duration: most TIA's last 5-20 mins
- Features depend on: anterior circulation carotid system posterior vertebrobasilar circulation. system
- Prognosis: up to ¹/₃ will have a stroke (usually within 48 hours)

Clinical findings :

Consciousness is usually preserved in TIA.

There may be clinical evidence of a source of embolus, e.g.:

- Carotid arterial bruit (stenosis)
- Atrial fibrillation or other dysrhythmia

Approach to TIA:

1. Needs **urgent assessment** (ER)

- 2. Rule out other causes
- 3. Work up: (labs, CT scan or MRI)
 - Vascular image of carotid CTA, MRA, US.
 - Cardiac work up: (EKG، echo, +/- holter)
 - Start stroke prevention measures (like ischemic stroke)

Hemorrhagic transformation :

- > 50% of ischemic stroke have some hemorrhage
- Risk factors:
 - a. Older age
 - b. Larger stroke size
 - c. Anticoagulant use
 - d. Thrombolytic therapy/recanalization: increases the risk of haemorrhagic transformation

Prognosis :

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• Why does hemorrhagic stroke carries worse prognosis? Because the blood can compress the neurons, blood vessels. Also, it will cause edema and herniation

brain parenchyma.

Intracranial hemorrhage (ICH):

- meningeal space hemorrhage:
 - epidural hemorrhage.
 - subdural hemorrhage..
 - subarachnoid hemorrhage.

Risk factors:

Hypertension. - excessive alcohol use. - smoking. - obesity. - physical inactivity. - older age.

IVH.

ethnicity/race. - medications (antiplatelet or anticoagulant). -sympathomimetics (cocaine & amphetamine in young age).

Etiology :

Hypertensive ICH: 1- Essential: rupture of microaneurysms (Charcot-Bouchard aneurysm). 2- Eclampsia.

intracerebral:

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- Non-hypertensive ICH:
 - 1- Vascular malformation: aneurysm, cavernous hemangioma, bleeding disorders, venous and cavernous angiomas.
 - 2- anticoagulant (more than antiplatelets)
 - 3- Amyloid angiopathy: elderly especially Alzheimer pt. usually in cortical and subcortical areas (lobar area).
 - 4- Trauma: commonly causes subdural hemorrhage or epidural hemorrhage.
 - 5- Tumor
 - 6- Drug abuse: amphetamine, cocaine, and PPA.
- other causes:
 - 1- Cerebral venous thrombosis (CVT): young female due to OCP use.
 - 2- Intracranial neoplasm.
 - 3- Moya Moya.
 - 4- Vasculitis.

Pathophysiology :

- Primary immediate effect: hemorrhage growth and increase intracranial pressure.
 - Secondary effect: downstream effect, edema, and ischemia.
- Site: basal ganglia, lobar regions, thalamus, pons, and cerebellum.

clinical presentation :

- Alteration in level of consciousness
- Nausea and vomiting
- Headache
- Headache

Investigations:

- LAboratory studies:
 - **CBC** \rightarrow looking for thrombocytopenia.
 - coagulogram
- Imaging
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- CT brain without contrast (essential to differentiate ischemic from hemorrhagic)
 - Hyperdense signal intensity.
 - Multifocal hemorrhages suggests a traumatic etiology.
 - Hematoma volume can be approximately by (AxBxCx)/2.
- **CT vessels:** CT angiography screening for AVMs, vasculitis.
- the workup:

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- MRI brain: with gado if looking for neoplasm, MRI diffusion-weighted.
 - MRA/MRV: if allergic to CT dye of if you're looking at venous outfkow.
 - $\blacksquare \qquad \mathsf{MRA} \rightarrow \mathsf{for} \mathsf{AVM} \mathsf{ and } \mathsf{aneurysm}.$
 - $\blacksquare \qquad \mathsf{MRV} \to \mathsf{for} \ \mathsf{cerebral} \ \mathsf{venous} \ \mathsf{thrombosis}.$
- Cerebral angiography.

Management of ICH:

• Medical:

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- Control blood pressure:
 - Reduction of SBP to 140 is save. why not less? to preserve blood perfusion to small vessel and preventing ischemia resulted from small blood vessel compression. in the area around the hemorrhage.
 - Use labetalol and/or nicardipine drip to titrate blood pressure.

Intracranial hemorrhage (ICH):

Management of ICH:

• Medical:

Control blood pressure:

- Evidence-based practice nursing care:
- Watch for neuro decline -Type and cross with your labs -Head of bed > 300 elevation -Head midline
- -Treat hyperthermia -Prevent vagal maneuvers -Control SBP (120-140) -Treat hyperglycemia
- -Treat hyperthermia -Seizure prophylaxis -DVT prophylaxis only after 48hrs & no haemorrhage
- Cerebral edema: soduim (hypoosmolar hyponatremia) and CO2
 - Use the ventilator to manage CO2.
 - Get the Sodium levels up to 145-155.
 - Mannitol 3% Given to prevent brain herniation that's caused by the cerebral edema.
 - Give them hypertonic saline e.g. 3% sodium or mannitol to lower edema
- Surgical:
 - Surgery never works except in only two scenarios:
 - Cerebellar hemorrhage if the hemorrhage is small we will observe the patient for any deterioration
 Labor superficial hemorrhage: if small observe the pt deterioration to take him to the OR.

subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH):

Etiology:

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- Aneurysm rupture: usually **berry aneurysm rupture**, most common sites are: anterior communicating artery, posterior communicating artery, and middle cerebral artery.
 - $\circ \qquad {\sf Can \ be \ perimesence phalic \ SAH.}$
 - Arteriovenous malformation (AVM).

Differential diagnosis of SAH:

- Migraine: presence of neck stiffness usually indicates SAH.
- Acute bacterial meningitis.
- Cervical dissection.

Clinical presentation:

- Sudden acute severe headache: thunderclap headache (often occipital), could be followed by vomiting and death.
- Other features: raised PB, neck stiffness or pain, straining, sexual excitement, papilloedema, and loss of consciousness at the onset.
- Physical examination:
 - Distress & Irritability. Photophobia. -Positive Kernig's sign: (may take hours to develop).
 - Focal hemisphere signs, such as hemiparesis or aphasia.

Investigations:

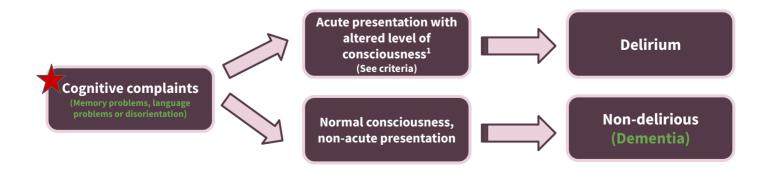
- CT brain scan: negative result does not completely exclude SAH
 - if CT is negative and the presentation is suggestive of subarachnoid hemorrhage then you do spinal tap to look for blood in the CSF.
- Lumbar puncture: performed 12 hr after symptom onset, to allow detection of xanthochromia \rightarrow yellow CSF.
- CT angiogram: if wither CT of LP is +ve, angiogram is required to determine the optimal approach to prevent recurrent bleeding.

Management:

- Surgery: Coil/Clip
- Medication:
 NIM
 - NIMOTOP/ NIMODIPINE: all the patient should be given, CCB prevent and treat the vasospasm, given for 21 days.
 - If patient develops vasospasm while on Nimodipine you should do angioplasty of the vasospasm.
- strict BP control.
- Check Sodium Levels \rightarrow Treat the central Hyponatremia:
 - best managed by fluid restriction & 3% NaCl
- Check Urine output.
- Treat the obstructive hydrocephalus (a complication of SAH) \rightarrow may require drainage via a shunt

L58- Dementia

Characteristic	Delirium	Dementia
Causes	Metabolic, Toxic, Infectious, Drugs, Surgery & CNS disorders.	Vascular, <mark>Neurodegenerative</mark> , Infective, Toxic/Nutritional, Traumatic,Hydrocephalus, Inflammatory, Neoplastic & Prion.
Attention	Impaired (fluctuating (worse at night))	Usually alert
Onset	Acute (Hours/Days)	Gradual
Course	Fluctuating from hour to hour (waxing and waning)	Progressive deterioration
Consciousness	Clouded	Intact
Hallucinations/ Delusions	Present (often visual or tactile) Delusions of Harm	Rare, only in highly advanced disease
Diagnostic Criteria DSM-V	 Disturbance in attention Change in cognition The disturbance develops over a short period (usually hours to days) and tends to fluctuate during the course of the day. There is evidence from the history, physical examination, or laboratory findings that the disturbance is caused by a direct physiologic consequence of a general medical condition 	 Evidence of significant cognitive decline from a previous level of performance in one or more cognitive domains: Learning and memory - Language Executive function - Complex attention Perceptual-motor - Social cognition The cognitive deficits interfere with independence in everyday activities. The cognitive deficits do not occur exclusively in the context of a delirium. The cognitive deficits are not better explained by another mental disorder.
Prognosis	Reversible	Irreversible
Treatment	Treat the underlying cause	Cholinesterase inhibitors



L58- Dementia (cont.)

Alzheimer's Disease (Most common cause of dementia)

Clinical features	Risk factors	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Decreased memory and new learning Language impairment Apraxia Unawareness of illness Delusions Passivity Delusions Depression, Circadian rhythm disturbances & Weight loss 	 Increasing age APOE ε4 Down Syndrome vascular risk factors(DM, HTN, Hyperlipidemia & Lack of exercise) Brain trauma 	 Accumulation of amyloid beta > senile plaques Accumulation of hyperphosphorylate d tau protein > neurofibrillary tangles Resultant loss of neurons and synapses, (esp. in basal forebrain leading to cholinergic deficit) 	 Diagnosis is clinical Brain structure on MRI may demonstrate medial temporal atrophy bilaterally PET scans can demonstrate decreased metabolism in temporal and parietal regions 	 Donepezil, rivastigmine and galantamine which increase central nervous system acetylcholine Does not stop disease progression, only provides transient clinical stability. Not a treatment, but education and physical activity (Most beneficial)

Lewy body dementia (LBD): dementia and signs of Parkinson's disease. (Second most common cause of dementia)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Visual hallucinations Parkinsonism Fluctuations in cognitive ability and level of consciousness. Visual spatial impairment Sensitivity to neuroleptics REM sleep behavior disorder Autonomic dysfunction 	Parkinson's Disease Dementia (PDD) is similar to LBD, The difference is that a clear history of PD with NO cognitive impairment precedes the development of dementia by at least a year.	 intracytoplasmic "Lewy Bodies" present in neurons, which are the result of abnormal α-synuclein protein accumulation 	 Diagnosis is primarily clinical PET scan may show decreased occipital lobe metabolism Myocardial scintigraphy may be abnormal due to abnormal cardiac sympathetic innervation 	• Same as Alzheimer's Disease.

Frontotempol Dementia:

A number of different syndromes characterised by behaviour abnormalities and impairment of language.

Behavioral Variant	 Associated with personality changes, inappropriate social behavior (disinhibited), lack of insight, Binging on certain foods, emotional blunting, rigidity & decreased attention modulation. MRI: atrophy in the <u>frontal</u> lobes (may be asymmetric).
Primary Progressive Aphasia	 Slowly progressive non-fluent aphasia: Patients present first with a non-fluent type of aphasia. MRI : focal left <u>frontal</u> atrophy
Semantic Dementia	 Usually have intact fluency, but comprehension is impaired and decreased naming ability. MRI may show focal left <u>temporal</u> atrophy.

Vascular Dementia

Clinical features	Risk factors	• A single stroke in a region important to cognition such as hippocampus or thalamus , or a large stroke that affects multiple lobes.
 Frequently coexists with Alzheimer's disease 	 Hypertension Hyperlipidemia DM Smoking 	 Recurrent strokes that accumulate over time, there is a step-wise development of cognitive deficits. Slowly progressing cognitive deficits due to subclinical progressing of small vessel disease.



L58- Dementia (cont.)

Normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH) (Rare)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
Classically triad of: • Gait impairment "magnetic" • Dementia • Urinary incontinence	 In 2ry NPH, there is a history of a previous meningitis, inflammatory disorder, or SAH. Idiopathic NPH is when there is no preceding explanation for the condition. 	 Impaired CSF absorption at the level of the arachnoid villi 	 Improvement after a LP that removes 30-50 cc of CSF MRI: dilated ventricles (CSF pressure is normal) 	• CSF shunting procedure is performed.

Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease (CJD) (Rare, 1 in a million)

Clinical features	Notes	Pathophysiology	Diagnosis	Management
 Rapidly progressing dementia, disease duration (usually 6 months). Myoclonic jerks may occur. 	Prion disorder	 abnormally formed proteins that induce pathological transformations in other proteins leading to leading to spongiform pathology in brain 	 CSF Analysis: ↑ 14-3-3 protein EEG shows characteristic periodic sharp wave complexes abnormal signal intensity in the basal ganglia and cortical ribbon 	 No treatment, patients die within a year.

Feel free to vent here, no one will read it.

Types of movement Disorders

- Hyperkinesia: Myoclonus, Tremor, Dystonia and Chorea.
- Hypokinesia: Bradykinesia.

Parkinsonism

- Clinical syndrome characterised primarily by bradykinesia, with associated increased tone (rigidity), tremor and loss of postural reflexes.
- Most common cause is idiopathic parkinson's disease.

Idiopathic Parkinson's disease

Pathophysiology

- Presence of neuronal inclusions called **Lewy bodies** which contains tangles of α-synuclein.
- Loss of the dopaminergic neurons from the substantia nigra

Risk Factors

• Older age, men, pesticide exposure, MPTP (potent mitochondrial toxin) and non-smokers.

Clinical features

- <u>Pre-motor</u> \rightarrow Ansomia, **REMBD**, autonomic dysfunction and Depression/anxiety.
- <u>Motor</u> \rightarrow
 - Bradykinesia; slowness of movement and progressive fatiguing, mask like semblance of the face.
 - **Parkinsonian tremor** "pill-rolling"; rhythmic **oscillatory**, **predominantly at rest, re-emergence with maintained posture.**
 - Rigidity; "lead-pipe" "cogwheel", independent of velocity.
 - **Postural gait changes;** stooped posture, **shuffling**.
 - Quit speech and drooling, Visual hallucination.

Diagnosis

Clinical with normal imaging.

Management

Levodopa/Carbidopa (LD/CD)	Dopamine agonists (Pramipexole, rotigotine)	other drugs
 Mainstay of treatment Relieving akinesia and rigidity Combined with dopa decarboxylase inhibitor (carbidopa). ADRs: ON-OFF phenomenon; ON with dyskinesia happens when the levels of L-dopa are too high. 	 Used in combination with levodopa or as initial monotherapy in younger patients < 65-70 with mild to moderate impairment. Apomorphine: short-acting DA administered subcutaneously, It is used in advanced PD ADRs: fibrotic reactions, including cardiac valvular fibrosis. 	 - (MAO)-B inhibitor: Selegiline - COMT inhibitors : Entacapone - Anticholinergic: help tremor, cause confusion and cognitive impairment in older patients.

Other management options

• Deep brain stimulation (DBS) \rightarrow LD/CD responsive patients only) as an adjunct to treatment.

Red flags

If present, suspect conditions other than Parkinson's disease.

- Neuroleptic or anti-emetic drug use.
- Early/prominent autonomic dysfunction
- Limited eye movements
- Pyramidal, cerebellar or sensory symptoms
- Cognitive impairment

Other akinetic-rigid syndromes

Drug induced Parkinsonism	- Metoclopramide or haloperidol
Progressive Supranuclear Gaze Palsy	 Parkinsonism + the inability to look up & down due to degeneration in the part of the midbrain. Path: Shrunken midbrain "hummingbird sign" and Tau deposition.
Multiple System Atrophy	- Cerebellar signs, extrapyramidal system and severe early autonomic dysfunction. - Path : α-synuclein inclusion and hot cross bun sign".
Vascular Parkinsonism	- Upper motor neuron signs, results from multiple strokes.
Corticobasal degeneration	- Cortical impairment: Sensory, Astereognosis, Agraphesthesia, Apraxia.
Wilson's disease	 Copper deposition occurs in the basal ganglia, the cornea and liver causing cirrhosis. Young patients <50 Check serum copper and ceruloplasmin.

Hyperkinetic disorders

Essential Tremor	 Hereditary, benign condition but impairing. Slowly progressive, bilateral, asymmetric, upper limbs action tremor, that disappears at rest. There is no bradykinesia, rigidity, or dystonia. Cerebellar tremor could look exactly like an essential tremor. Treated with Propranolol
Dystonia	 - same movement happening persistently or repetitively, usually there's contraction of both agonist + antagonist muscles at the same time. - Ballismus: large amplitude choreiform movement, seen after subthalamic strokes usually, botulinum toxin injections or DBS may be useful.
Chorea	- continuous flow of random muscle contractions ('dance-like'). - Can occur in "Sydenham's Chorea" and in Huntington's disease (HD)
Myoclonus	- Involuntary single quick contraction of a muscle group (or its inhibition). Can be repeated but not rhythmic
Tics	- stereotyped movements or vocalizations (may be temporarily suppressed)

Inflammatory Myopathies	Polymyositis (PM): inflammatory myopathy affecting the proximal skeletal muscles Dermatomyositis (DM): inflammatory myopathy that presents similarly to polymyositis, with the addition of skin involvement Inclusion body myositis (IBM)
	 Skin features (Specific for DM): Gottron papules, heliotrope rash, and the shawl sign Malignancies are associated with DM > PM Patients with IM typically complain of muscle weakness with difficulties reaching overhead, climbing the stairs, and/or standing up. Advanced disease may present with dysphagia and aspiration because of oropharyngeal muscle involvement, or even respiratory failure if breathing muscles are affected.
	• DM is primarily distinguished from PM by the characteristic rash .
	 The best initial test is CPK and aldolase Muscle biopsy is the pivotal investigation (most accurate test)!
	• DM: Perifascicular atrophy
	• PM: No Perifascicular atrophy
	 interstitial lung disease is strongly associated with the presence of antisynthetase (Jo-1) antibodies
	 Management: Steroids & screen for underlying malignancies
	Inclusion body myositis (IBM): inflammatory myopathy affecting both the proximal and distal skeletal
	 muscles (mainly Distal). Common after age 50 Quadriceps muscle weakness (Thigh): knees lack support → frequent falling
	 Usually spares rectus femoris muscle
Inclusion body myositis	 +/- long finger Finger flexors: difficulties gripping, e.g., shopping bags or a briefcase
inyositis	Severe Oropharyngeal dysphagia
	 Biopsy (most accurate test): Inflammatory cells invading non-necrotic muscle fibers, Rimmed vacuoles.
	 Relentless progression, lacks effective therapies
	 Steroid myopathy: due to chronic exposure to steroids Biopsy: type 2 fiber atrophy and lipid accumulation in type 1 fibers.
Drug Induced	 Biopsy: type 2 fiber atrophy and lipid accumulation in type 1 fibers. Statin Induced Myopathy: Statins inhibit HMG-CoA reductase, rate-limiting enzyme of cholesterol
Myopathies	biosynthesis. Can cause:
	\circ Discontinuation of the statin \rightarrow resolution of symptom
	 They are x-linked recessive disorders (manifest in males). Duchenne (early age) and becker (late age).
	 Mutation in the dystrophin gene (Xp21) → absent (in duchenne) or reduced (in becker) Dystrophin
	DMD:
	 <u>Symmetrical progressive (Proximal > distal) muscle weakness (Legs & Arms)</u> Course: Onset age 2 to 5 yrs, Wheelchair at 10/
Dystrophinopa	 Gower's sign, Loss of ambulation at age 9-13 years, Muscle hypertrophy: Especially calf
thies	• Dilated cardiomyopathy: common after age 15 (usually the cause of death)
	Becker:
	 Older age at onset, Muscle weakness starts from > 7 yrs. Slowly progressive. "Becker is
	Better." Loss of ambulation usually in the 4th decade Investigations & Management:
	 Muscle biopsy: absent dystrophin staining (DMD). Partial loss of dystrophin staining (BMD)

L60- Myopathies (cont.)

Facioscapulohu	 Manifestations are Asymmetrical Face: Initial manifestation, 95% you will detect it at the age of 30 with examination 		
	 Eyes: Often early in disease course 		
	 Lid closure: Incomplete 		
	 Sleeping: With eyes open 		
	 Shoulder: Pain in shoulder girdle, scapular winging, triple humb 		
meral dystrophy	• Ear: deafness		
	• Screen for:		
	• Hearing loss		
	 Retinal vascular disease 		
	 No screening for cardiac needed unless symptomatic 		
	Weakness: Humeroperoneal		
	 Bilateral, Symmetrical 		
	 Arms: Biceps & triceps; Deltoids spared. 		
	 Scapular winging 		
	• Legs: Late		
_	 Face: Mild weakness or normal 		
Emery – dreifuss	Contractures occurs before weakness and it is often more limiting to function than		
muscular	weakness.		
dystrophy	 in elbow, achilles tendon 		
	• Spine:		
	 Posterior neck (extension), Lower back: Usually later onset, but may present with rigid spine syndrome. 		
	• Testing:		
	 CK, EMG, Cardiac screening for arrhythmia and cardiomyopathy (leads to sudden 		
	death)		
	• The most prevalent inherited neuromuscular disease in adults (Autosomal dominant).		
Mustanic	 Tandem repeats at DMPK gene (Anticipation phenomenon) 		
Myotonic Dystrophy	 difficulty releasing hand grip on a doorknob or handle. 		
Dystrophy	 Frontal balding, Cardiorespiratory weakness 		
	• EMG: myopathic plus myotonic discharges. Genetic testing (confirmatory test)		
	• Triggered: Anesthetics, Depolarizing neuromuscular blocking agents		
Malignant	Clinical features: Tachypnea, tachycardia, Rigidity, Acidosis ,Hyperkalemia		
Hyperthermia	Rhabdomyolysis, High CK, Hyperthermia.		
	Treatment: Remove anesthetic agent, Dantrolene sodium		
	• Acute Syndrome of muscle necrosis due to extensive injury of skeletal muscle with		
	release of intracellular muscle materials into the circulation.		
	• What is the commonest muscle disorder that causes myoglobinuria? Metabolic		
	myopathies		
	Clinical features:		
	 Cola or tea color "dark" urine (Myoglobinuria) 		
Rhabdomyolysis			
	 Elevated blood and urine myoglobin 		
	 Fever, leukocytosis 		
	 Markedly elevated CK 		
	\bullet Complications: \uparrow K+ \rightarrow arrhythmia \rightarrow death		
	 Complications: ↑ K+ → arrhythmia → death Management: IV hydration to avoid acute tubular necrosis (ATN) and renal failure !!! 		

L61- Multiple sclerosis

Multiple sclerosis				
Definition	 A chronic autoimmune, T-cell- mediated, inflammatory disorder of the CNS. Myelin is produced by: Schwann cells: Peripheral nerves. Oligodendrocytes: CNS The most common chronic inflammatory, demyelinating and neurodegenerative disease of the CNS in young adults 			
Risk factors	 EBV Infection: Most common Vitamin D: Sun exposure & serum vitamin D are inversely related (Sunlight may be protective) Smoking: also increase the severity of MS Obesity & Genetics 			
Epidemiology	 The life expectancy of patients is reduced by 7-14 years. MS is the main cause of death in more than 50% of patients. Mostly due to MS complications e.g. aspiration pneumonia or Neurogenic bladder (→ Infections → sepsis) 			
Patho- physiology	 Characterized by breakdown of the blood—brain barrier (BBB) → entry of activated T lymphocytes & other inflammatory cells nto the CSF (1st change in MS) Recognise myelin-derived antigens on the surface the microglia → initiates destruction of the oligodendrocyte-myelin unit by macrophages Most easily recognized in the white matter as focal areas of demyelination, inflammation, and glial (astrocytes) reaction → Plaques Recurrent relapses lead to permanent myelin and axonal damage and oligodendrocytes loss 			
Pathology	 Plaques of demyelination, 2–10 mm in size, are the cardinal features. Lesions are most easily recognized in the white matter. There has to be multiple lesions, if only one then it's not MS Plaques occur anywhere in CNS white matter but most commonly sites: Optic nerves Periventricular region Corpus callosum The brainstem and its cerebellar connections Cervical cord (corticospinal tracts and posterior columns) Spinal lesions: In MS: short and peripheral (visualized on axial images) In NMO: long and central or circumferential. 			
Clinically isolated syndrome (Pre-MS)	 CIS is the <u>first clinical episode</u> that is suggestive of MS Why don't we classify them under MS? Bc it's only one episode and not all of them develop MS (Many ppl in their 20s may get this attack and then live normal for the rest of their lives) Monophasic episode with symptoms and objective findings that reflect inflammatory demyelinating event in the CNS. lasting for at least 24 hrs. (If less than 24hrs then it's NOT an MS attack) Occurs in the absence of fever or infection Resembles a typical MS relapse (attack) but occurs in a patient not known to have MS 			

	Relapsing-remitting MS (RRMS) (85–90%)
	 The typical and most common pattern of MS A purely RRMS is characterized by the absence of worsening neurological function outside of individual relapses The majority will eventually enter a secondary progressive phase
	Secondary progressive (SPMS)
Four main clinical pattern	 Worsening irreversible neurological function, preceded by RRMS that cannot be explained purely by worsening associated with ongoing relapses This late stage of MS consists of gradually worsening disability progressing slowly over years. Starting early treatment in RRMS can delay the onset of SPMS and hopefully even prevent it.
	Primary progressive (PPMS) (10-15%)
	 Irreversibly continuous worsening neurological function, without preceding relapses Patients older at onset or with PPMS have shorter survival. Example: a 40 years old lady presenting with slowly progressing weakness in the lower limb. At first she was able to walk independently, then she depended on a cane to help her walk for months, afterwards she noticed that she needs a walker (bilateral support) to walk, which she kept using for a few months to years, and now she needs a wheelchair.
	Relapsing-progressive MS (<5%).
	 This is the least common form of MS. It is similar to PPMS but with occasional supra-added relapses on a background of progressive disability from the outset.
	Clinical feature of Multiple sclerosis
Optic Neuritis	 Blurred vision usually in one eye. NOT double vision, seeing black dots, can't see clear in the dark. Pain exacerbated by eyes movement. Reduced perception of colors. (red desaturation, the color will be pale in the affected eye) Flashes of light on moving the eyes. Enlarged blind spot. because the optic nerve is inflamed and swollen
~	Note: Blurred vision in one eye + Pain on eye movement = Almost always optic neuritis
Brain Stem Related Symptoms	 Diplopia if the nucleus of 3rd,4th and 6th nerves affected (the CNs themselves aren't affected, what's affected is their nucleus) Trigeminal neuralgia: is a severe pain that happen when one of the divisions of V CN distribution is touched and lasts for a few seconds, happens if involve trigeminal nerve (sensory). Vertigo (spinning sensation) and nystagmus, happens if there is a plaque in the cerebellum Facial numbness and weakness: if the facial nerve is involved Internuclear ophthalmoplegia (INO): Bilateral internuclear ophthalmoplegia is pathognomonic of MS A Specific gaze abnormality, characterized by impaired horizontal eye movement with weak adduction of the affected eye and abduction nystagmus of the contralateral eye Resulting from a lesion in the medial longitudinal fasciculus in the dorsomedial
	 brainstem tegmentum of either the pons or the midbrain. If you see it in young patient almost always MS (If elderly, think stroke)

Clinical feature of Multiple sclerosis (Cont)			
Cerebellum Related Symptoms	 Oscillopsia: (A visual disturbance in which the object in the visual field appears to oscillate due to nystagmus) Dysarthria: (Slurred speech) Imbalance: (Wide-based gait) 		
Brain And Spinal Cord Symptoms	 Lhermitte's sign: electric like sensation induced by neck flexion, very serious almost always indicate spinal cord lesion (any cervical cord lesion, not specific to MS) Sphincter dysfunction. urine incontinence, neurogenic bladder and stool incontinence, commonly seen if there is spinal cord lesion Cognitive dysfunction: memory, concentration, processing speed. (Uncommon in MS, and usually does not happen with the first attack) Sensory loss/numbness/pain Weakness (monoparesis, paraparesis, quadriparesis). 		
Transverse Myelitis	 A general term that indicates inflammation of the spinal cord with cord swelling and loss of function. Typically, one or two spinal segments are affected with part or all of the cord area at that level involved Spinal cord related motor, sensory &/or autonomic dysfunction. transverse in the name means involve more than one area of the spinal cord Sensory level, means the is loss of sensation in a specific level eg. patient has complete loss of sensation from mid abdomen and below, this sign indicate a spinal cord lesion 		
Uhthoff phenomenon	Less than 24 n, Reversible if last for more than 24h think about relapse		
	Diagnosis of MS: To diagnosis of	MS you must have both:	
 Dissemination in time History of at least two attacks separated by at least one month. if 2 attacks occur in the same month it's counted as 1 Dissemination in space Clinical evidence of involvement of two CNS sites OR of one lesion with historical evidence of another site being affected. 			
• The presence of multiple lesions on MRI (dissemination in space) or the demonstration of additional clinical attacks on MRI (by showing lesions of different densities (dissemination in time)) fulfills the criteria for MS despite the presence of one attack in the patient's history (enhancing are new, non-enhancing are old)			
 it is essential to ask about previous episodes of neurological symptoms MRI is both the best initial test and the most accurate test. Lumbar puncture and CSF analysis: if you not sure about the diagnosis another way to confirm it is to do lumbar puncture and look for oligoclonal IgG bands, BUT with presence of relapse and remitting symptoms. Rarely used anymore 			

L61- Multiple sclerosis (cont.)

Management of MS	
Acute treatment of relapses	 Steroids (IV or orally Methylprednisone) Most of the time relapses resolve on their own but steroids shorten the relapse episode. Only given when relapse is significant or affecting their life (e.g. a pilot comes with blurred vision = needs immediate attention = use steroids) Plasma exchange is used for those who don't respond to steroids
Disease modifying treatments	 Low efficacy DMT (eg: interferon, teriflunomide) vs high efficacy DMT (eg: natalizumab) Examples: Patient with depression: do not give interferon as it worsens depression Patient with cardiac condition: do not give fingolimod - causes heart block and seriously arrhythmias Patient came with only tingling, no residual disabilities after the attack, few lesions on MRI→ give low efficacy DMT (interferon or teriflunomide) Patient with only numbness, but had a previous relapse in which she described ataxia and difficulty walking, do we give her low efficacy DMT? No (if u check MRI, you might find extensive lesions, multiple on spinal cord (very bad prognostic sign)) → start on fingo (medium efficacy DMT) or Natalizumab (high efficacy DMT) Natalizumab can cause: Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy PML (fatal) & leukemia
Other Demyelinating Diseases	
Neuromyelitis Optica Spectrum Disorder (Devic's disease)	 Characterized by longitudinally extensive transverse myelitis (>3 segments) and bilateral or recurrent optic neuritis. Mean age is 10 years later than MS. Affects mainly the optic nerves and the spinal cord More severe attacks than in MS. (presenting with nausea, vomiting and hiccups are important red flags in NMO) Usually negative OCB in the CSF. While 90% of MS has positive OCB Serum antibodies to aquaporin-4 water channels on astrocytes are diagnostic (should be done for every suspected case)
Acute Disseminated Encephalomye litis	 Acute monophasic demyelinating condition. Frequently preceded by vaccination or infection. More common in children. Usually a monophasic illness (no relapses). Pathology: Wide spread white and gray matter peri venous "sleeves" of inflammation and Axons are relatively spared unlike MS and NMO. Symptoms: Encephalopathy, Multifocal neurological deficit, May fluctuates over a 3 months period for one single attack (If more than 3 months, it's not ADEM)
Behçet's disease	 Behçet's principal features are recurrent oral and/or genitalulceration, inflammatory ocular disease (uveitis) and neurological syndromes. Brainstem and cord lesions, aseptic meningitis, encephalitis and cerebral venous thrombosis occur. There is a predilection for ethnic groups along the ancient 'Silk Road' – Turkey, the Middle East and Asia. Behçet's is associated with the HLA- B51 allele.

L62- Neuromuscular junction disorders (NMJ)

Neuromuscular junction physiology :

• This binding of ACh to ACh receptors in the motor end plate causes ion channels to open & so allow the sodium (Na+) ions to flow across (influx) the membrane into the muscle cell, generates a muscle action potential.

Classification of NMJ disorders :

- 1. According to the mechanism of action or etiology
 - a. Immune mediated : Myasthenia gravis and lambert eaton syndrome
 - b. Toxic / metabolic : Snake venom, Botulism, Organophosphates and Hypermagnesemia.
 - c. Congenital : Congenital myasthenic syndrome
 - According to the location of the disruption:
 - a. Presynaptic : decrease in the release of acetylcholine and impair the calcium channels
 - Lambert Eaton Syndrome , Botulism, and Congenital myasthenic syndrome
 - b. Synaptic : Organophosphate
 - c. Postsynaptic : The highest number of diseases affect the neuromuscular junction postsynaptically. either affects the Na+ channels or the ACh receptors : Immune mediated myasthenia gravis (most common)

Myasthenia gravis Definition :

The hallmark of the disorder is a fluctuating degree and variable combination of weakness in ocular either alone or in combination with , bulbar, limb, and respiratory muscles.

Epidemiology :

2.

• Myasthenia gravis occurs at any age, but there is a bimodal distribution to the age of onset:

Pathophysiology of MG :

- In MG, there is reduction of postsynaptic AChRs due to production of anti-AChR antibodies that block receptors from binding to Ach and causes damage the postsynaptic membrane.
- Reduction in the number of AChRs available at the muscle endplate and flattening of the postsynaptic folds.
- Patients become symptomatic once the number of AChRs is reduced to approximately 30% of normal.
- Cause of fatigability in MS? inefficient neuromuscular transmission (pathological) + presynaptic rundown phenomenon (normal)
- Which receptors are affected in MS? ONLY nicotinic (skeletal muscles), while cholinergic (smooth &cardiac) are NOT affected.

Clinical features:

- >50% of patients present with ocular symptoms of ptosis (drooping of eyelids) and/or diplopia .
- half (80%) will develop generalized disease within two years.
- The distinguishing clinical feature in MG is fatigable weakness.
- Ocular myasthenia : The weakness is limited to the eyelids and extraocular muscles. Medial rectus muscle is usually most severely involved extraocular muscle
- Generalized disease : The weakness commonly affects ocular muscles, but it also involves a variable combination of bulbar, limb, and respiratory muscles.
- maximum severity is usually in first year of disease, if After 2 years with no limb symptoms, disease usually remains purely ocular.
- Ocular muscles: Asymmetric ptosis (fluctuating), binocular diplopia, and Pupils spared
- Bulbar muscles
 - fatigable- prolonged chewing). Sometimes this can be severe to the extent that it will lead to jaw drop.
 - dysarthria, dysphagia and difficulty clearing secretions, and breathy nasal speech and nasal regurgitation
- Facial muscles
 - expressionless face, **Transverse smile**, and Weak eye closure
 - Neck and limb muscles :
 - Neck extensor and flexor (Musk : NE>NF), Dropped head syndrome, Limb weakness: Proximal > distal, usually symmetric, and Wrist and finger extensors and foot dorsiflexors.
- Respiratory muscles :
 - orthopnea, and respiratory insufficiency and pending respiratory failure "myasthenic crisis

L62- NMJ (cont.)

Investigations:

- Acetylcholine Receptor (AChR) Antibodies. (Best initial) :confirm the diagnosis.
- Anti- MuSK antibodies : If they were seronegative to antiAchR do anti Musk.
- SFEMG. (MOST SENSITIVE TEST)
 - Time required for EPP to reach threshold varies JITTER
 - Sometimes EPP fails to reach threshold BLOCKING
- Ocular Cooling/"ice-pack" Test .
- Edrophonium Chloride (Tensilon) Test, causes bradycardia
- Repetitive Nerve stimulation (RNS) :decline in the CMAP amplitude with the first four to five stimuli (characteristic decremental) response
- CT mediastinum : Thymic hyperplasia is most common 85%. All patients should have a thoracic CT to exclude thymoma
- Other Autoimmune disorders

Management of MG :

Symptomatic treatment (anticholinesterase agents) :

• Cholinesterase Inhibitors: Pyridostigmine (Mestinon).

chronic Immunotherapy:

• Prednisone (Main one), Azathioprine (Imuran), Mycophenolate (CellCept)

MG crisis (Rapid therapy):

• Plasma exchange and intravenous immune globulin [IVIG]

Refractory MG:

• rituximab

Thymectomy::

- Patient has thymoma Or Positive ACh receptor antibodies + Generalised MG + Young patient

Lambert-Eaton Myasthenic Syndrome (LEMS):

• It is a rare presynaptic disorder of neuromuscular transmission in which quantal release of acetylcholine (ACh) is impaired.

Epidemiology :

associated with a malignancy, mainly small cell lung cancer (SCLC).

Pathophysiology :

- 1. Caused by an autoimmune attack directed against the voltage-gated calcium channels (VGCCs) on the presynaptic motor nerve terminal
- 2. Parasympathetic, sympathetic, and enteric neurons are all affected Ca++ channels.

Clinical features:

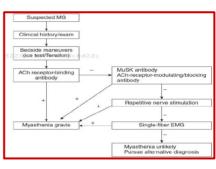
- Weakness/Fatigue (LL>UL) in Limb-Girdle Distribution ,weakness improves with use in LEMS
- slowly progressive proximal muscle weakness, particularly involving the legs
- Autonomic symptoms including **dry mouth**
- Post-tetanic potentiation: Recovery of lost deep tendon reflexes or improvement in muscle strength with vigorous, brief muscle activation is a unique aspect of LEMS

Diagnosis :

- 1. The diagnosis of LEMS is usually clinical and confirmed by the presence of antibodies to voltage-gated calcium channel (VGCC)
- 2. High frequency (10, 20 to 50 Hz) **repetitive nerve stimulation (**RNS) or brief (10 seconds) maximal isometric muscle activation result in **significant increment** (>60%, unlike MG in which there's decrement) with a marked **increase in the CMAP amplitude**

Treatment:

- 1. treat a primary underlying malignancy
- 2. Symptomatic therapies : These are guanidine hydrochloride, aminopyridines such as 3,4-diaminopyridine (3,4-DAP, aka Amifampridine), and acetylcholinesterase inhibitors such as pyridostigmine
- 3. Immunologic therapies include intravenous immune globulin (IVIG)



Botulism:

Clinical features:

- Acute onset (Unlike MG) of bilateral cranial neuropathies associated with symmetric descending weakness.
- initial GI symptoms (nausea & vomiting)
- Pupils dilated , Ptosis, and EOM
- Bulbar weakness, Limb weakness, and Respiratory weakness.

• Absence of fever, The patient remains responsive

Diagnosis:

Repetitive nerve stimulation (RNS) at low frequencies of 2 to 5 Hz causes decremental response.

RNS at high frequencies stimulation or exercise causes incremental response,

The amount of facilitation seen with botulism (40-100%) is usually less than that seen in Lambert-Eaton myasthenic syndrome (200%).

Treatment:

- antitoxin.
- Supportive.
- Equine serum heptavalent botulism antitoxin is used to treat children older than one year of age and adults.

Human-derived botulism immune globulin is used for infants less than one year of age

Tick paralysis:

- inhibits transmission at the neuromuscular junction by blocking influx of sodium ions In the postsynaptic membrane
- Symptoms include anorexia, lethargy, muscle weakness, nystagmus, and an ascending flaccid
- paralysis.
- The diagnosis of tick paralysis usually relies on the finding of a tick attached to the patient.
- Removal of the tick is the primary treatment of tick paralysis.

Snake venom :

- **Presynaptic junction toxin: beta-bungarotoxin** (krait) / mechanism: inhibit Ach release by inhibiting reformation of the vesicles after exocytosis /management: only supportive, no response to anti venom.
- **Postsynaptic junction toxin: alpha-bungarotoxin** / mechanism: toxins bind irreversibly to the acetylcholine receptor site / management: Antivenom

Clinical features:

- ptosis, ophthalmoplegia, dysarthria, dysphagia, and drooling.
- Weakness of limb muscles.
- impaired coagulation profile.
- The postsynaptic toxins produce findings on electrodiagnostic studies identical to those seen in
- myasthenia gravis, Repetitive nerve stimulation produces a decremental response

Organophosphate and carbamates toxicity:

- potent inhibitors of acetylcholinesterase, causing excess acetylcholine concentrations in the synapse.
- Commonly used as pesticides.

Clinical features :

- Both sympathetic and parasympathetic systems are involved.
- Symptoms include muscarinic signs and nicotinic signs .

Management & diagnosis<mark>:</mark>

- Emergency management (ABC management) often requires endotracheal intubation and volume resuscitation
- **Atropine** is used for symptomatic relief of muscarinic symptoms.
- It does not reverse the paralysis

Hypermagnesemia / hypocalcemia

- Causes inhibition of a acetylcholine release
- Magnesium has a calcium channel blocking effect.
- This produces proximal muscle weakness, ocular muscles are generally spread.