Presurgical evaluation in many epilepsy programmes often includes the intracarotid amobarbital procedure (IAP). Sodium amytal is injected into the internal carotid artery to produce a temporary "pharmacological paralysis" of hemispheric function. Traditionally, the IAP has been employed in patients with refractory temporal lobe epilepsy being considered for anterior temporal lobectomy. In these cases it is used to determine cerebral dominance for language, to assess the risk of severe postsurgical amnesia, and to predict postsurgical memory specific memory changes. More recently, the use of the IAP has been extended to compliment EEG localisation and radiological data by lateralisising temporal lobe dysfunction.

On neuropsychological examination, his general cognitive ability was normal. At a behavioural level, however, he presented as very peurile in manner with a very rigid, inflexible cognitive style. The neuropsychological opinion was of a mild frontal lobe syndromic consistent with the history of traumatic head injury. There was no current evidence of psychiatric disorder. Although having successfully passed his final year of secondary school (together with several courses of advanced education), he had remained unemployed due to his seizures. He was socially isolated and his interpersonal relationships were limited.

He had severe life threatening epilepsy with the surgical option the only remaining avenue of treatment. However, as surgical management would involve resection of the left frontal lobe against a background of traumatic head injury and the possibility of more generalised frontal lobe resection, a left hemispheric IAP was performed. Sodium amytal (125 mg) was administered via a slow hand injection. Of relevance, no crossflow into the contralateral anterior cerebral artery via the anterior communicating artery was present (as assessed by a separate injection of contrast medium). The injection was accompanied by a dense right hemiplegia and global aphasic arrest. Resolution of language was characterised by a dense perseveration of counting which could not be influenced by the examiner. Despite normal comprehension, he showed severely impaired capacity for motor regulation (gait, speech and fine motor responses). The overall impression was of a pronounced frontal lobe syndrome, suggesting that the right frontal lobe had incurred some damage secondary to the documented head trauma and that he must have been reliant on some left frontal contribution.

On the basis of the IAP findings, a selective cortical resection (as opposed to more extensive frontal lobe resection) to the region of damage was advised. Intraoperative electrocorticography showed active focal epileptiform discharges maximal in the inferior frontal lobe in the electrodes closest to the lesion. A cortical resection was performed with framesless stereotaxy guidance excision of the frontal lesion. Histopathology on the resected tissue showed an old post-traumatic cyst involving the cortex and white matter. His postoperative course was unremarkable. When reviewed 3 months after surgery he was seizure free. His performance on neuropsychological evaluation remained commensurate with presurgical status. There were no novel subjective complaints. Mood, behaviour, and temperament remained stable.
Reversal of tetrabenazine induced depression by selective noradrenaline (norepinephrine) reuptake inhibitor

Tetrabenazine (TBZ), a synthetic benzoquinolizine, was first introduced as a neuroleptic agent in 1960, and is now widely used in the treatment of hyperkinetic movement disorders such as chorea, tics, or tardive dyskinesia. The side effect profile is mainly characterised by the triad of drowsiness/fatigue, parkinsonism, and depression; depression is found in about 15% of patients treated with TBZ. We here report on the rapid reversal of depressive symptoms in a patient treated with TBZ for orofacial dystonia by administering the new and highly selective noradrenaline (norepinephrine) reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) reboxetine.

On admission, the 64-year-old woman presented with perioral and lingual hyperkinesias as well as intermittent and involuntary movements of her lower jaw, which had lasted for about 2 years, causing her a considerable inconvenience. No history of neuroleptic treatment or Parkinson’s disease was evident. Her cranial CT and blood chemistry were normal. We diagnosed a segmental dystonia, which improved dramatically after a tetrabenazine medication (60 mg a day). This successful treatment response, however, was accompanied by a severe depressive syndrome, which was characterized by a mixed anxious-depressive mood, low self-esteem, a complete loss of drive, and intermit tent suicidal ideations. After switching from TBZ to tiapride, the patient recovered from depression, but her neurological status worsened significantly. The re-exposure to TBZ again ameliorated hyperkinesia, but provoked a depressive relapse. A com medication with reboxetine (6 mg/day), a new and selective noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor, finally led to a stable remission of the depressive symptoms within a week, without any worsening of the dystonic syndrome.

Tetrabenazine (TBZ) is known to act as a monoaminergic and dopamine receptor blocking drug. In more detail, TBZ binds to and inhibits specifically the human vesicular monoamine transporter isoform 2 (hVMA2). Whereas the indolamine serotonin forms a similar affinity for both hVMA1 and hVMA2, cate cholamines such as noradrenaline exhibit a threefold higher affinity for hVMA2. As these specific transporters are responsible for packaging monoamine neurotransmitters into presynaptic secretory vesicles for release by exocytosis, the inhibition of hVMA2 by compounds such as tetrabenazine thus results in consecutive noradrenaline depletion.

Alterations of noradrenergic neurotransmission—that is, a neuronal noradrenaline depletion—can therefore be postulated to form one major origin of TBZ induced depression. Based on this assumption, brain-specific catecholaminergic activity enhancers (CAEs) such as phenterylline have been shown to antagonise TBZ induced depression-like behaviour in rats. Modulating this altered noradrenergic neurotransmission pattern by the administration of selective noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors such as reboxetine may thus provide a new, specific, and fast acting tool in the management of depression caused by TBZ and related (neuroleptic) compounds.

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Spinal sulcal artery syndrome due to spontaneous bilateral vertebral artery dissection

In young adults vertebral artery dissection (VAD) is an important cause of brain infarction. A known mechanism is microtrauma due to abrupt head movements. For example, chiropractic manoeuvres. In addition a pathogenetic role of connective tissue diseases, cystic media necrosis, fibromuscular dysplasia, migraine, and inflammatory diseases has been postulated. In VAD initial neck pain is often reported, which may be slight. Lesions caused by VAD are cerebellar or brainstem infarcts, unilateral or bilateral thalamic infarcts (top of the basal syndrome), or infarctions in the posterior cerebral artery territory due to intra-arterial embolism or haemodynamic decompensation when collaterals are insufficient. Lesions of the spinal cord are rare because of its good collateral supply. We report on a patient with a syndrome of the spinal sulcal artery (incomplete Brown-Séquard syndrome) caused by spontaneous bilateral VAD. A 43-year-old man with a history of arterial hypertension presented with left sided numbness sparing the face, which had evolved suddenly while he was walking. In addition, he reported on dull right-sided neck pain irradiating into the occiput, which had been initiated by a head rotation while he was working at a computer 2 weeks before. The neck pain had spontaneously ceased 6 days later. Neurological examination disclosed dissociated sensation defect on the left with an indistinct level around C4 to C6. Below this level on the left he had a marked hypalgesia and nearly a loss of temperature sense. The right limbs were warmer than the left ones. In addition, we found mild right sided motor system deficits. Cranial nerve function was intact, despite a right sided Horner’s syndrome. According to chest radiography phrenic nerve function was preserved. Further laboratory findings including CSF analysis were normal. The hemiparesis and the different temperature sensation in the limbs resolved completely within 3 weeks.

Tribal nerve somatosensory evoked potentials (SSEPs) had regular N22 and P40 latencies and amplitudes. Central motor conduction time (CMCT) was transcranial magnetic stimulation was prolonged to the right abductor digitii minimi (9.2 ms) and tibialis anterior (23.1 ms). The CMCT to the left target muscles was normal. Duplex sonography showed increased flow velocity on the level of the cervical vertebrae 3 to 5 with a maximum of 214 cm/s in the right and 197 cm/s in the left vertebral artery. Colour mode showed irregular narrowings of the lumen indicating dissections.

Cervical MRI showed a spinal cord infarction at the level C2 (figure). The circumference and dorsal part of the cord were not affected. In digital subtraction angiography (DSA) both vertebral arteries had string signs in the V1 and V2 segments with collateral flow to the distal V2–4 segments via the threecervical trunk (cervical ascendent artery) and the costocervical trunk also. The anterior spinal artery was incompletely contrasted by unilateral spinal branches of the right vertebral artery. They originated at the level of dissection. The intradural origins of the anterior spinal arteries (ACA) and posterior inferior cerebellar arteries (V4 segment) were not visible.

Bilateral spontaneous VAD is not rare, but often missed. In most cases, microtrauma preceding the dissection can be recalled by the patients. Due to the mild mechanical impact, the action of predisposing factors might be postulated. Among these may be changing in type III collagen, migraine, fibromuscular dysplasia, infections in the near past, and inflammatory vasculopathy. Magnetic resonance imaging with typical semilunar mural haematoma and in addition magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) with complementary documentation of an irregular lumen or tapering occlusion have a high sensitivity and specificity in cases of internal carotid artery dissection.

By contrast, mural haematomas of the VA especially in the V1 and the V3 segments are often not detectable by MRI. In cases of unclear non-invasive findings, DSA is still the method of choice. In addition to consecutive brain infarctions, cervical spinal cord infarctions and nerve root compression syndromes may occur in cases of unilateral or bilateral VAD. Probably as a result of the pial collateral network and the dual posterior spinal artery, spi-
nal cord infarction is often located in the anterior spinal artery territory with the grey matter of the anterior horns exhibiting the highest vulnerability to ischaemia.\textsuperscript{4,5} This mechanism may lead to a typical “snake eye” configuration of medullary infarction.\textsuperscript{6} Besides the supply via VA spinal branches, which is found in 19% only unilaterally,\textsuperscript{7} there are branches originating from the ascending cervical artery (thyrocervical trunk) and the costocervical trunk supplying the spinal cord.\textsuperscript{8}

DSA findings in the present case suggest that spinal branches originating from the right V2 segment were dominant feeders of the anterior spinal artery whereas there was no evidence of direct communication between vertebral and spinal arteries from the V4 segment. The dissection involved the V2 segment from which these spinal branches originate. A transient occlusion of these spinal branches is a likely consequence. This unusual type of arterial medullary supply may explain why VAD causes spinal cord infarction. Contrary to Pullicino,\textsuperscript{9} who described upper limb atrophies due to cervical spinal cord infarction involving the anterior horns, the present case shows a unilateral involvement of commissural, spinthalamic, pyramidal, and vasoconstrictor tracts. To our knowledge, sulcal spinal artery syndrome caused by bilateral spontaneous VAD has not yet been described. In conclusion, differential diagnosis of acute spinal symptoms in young adults should include spontaneous unilateral or bilateral VAD with cervical spinal cord ischaemia.

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Spanish families with cavernous angiomas do not share the Hispano-American CCM1 haplotype

Cerebral cavernous malformations are vascular malformations mostly located in the CNS. Their frequency is estimated close to 0.5% in the general population.\textsuperscript{1} Cerebral cavernous malformations occur as a sporadic or hereditary condition. From the Hispanic-American population, familial forms were reported with a high frequency.\textsuperscript{2} CCM1, a hitherto unidentified gene mapping on chromosome 7 was shown to be involved in all families with cerebral cavernous malformations of Hispano-American descent with a strong founder effect.\textsuperscript{3} Around 50% of non-Hispano-American families showed linkage to CCM1 but no common haplotype was found.\textsuperscript{4} A recent study showed linkage of cerebral cavernous malformations to two additional loci.\textsuperscript{5} No Spanish family with cerebral cavernous malformations has been analysed so far.

We report herein a genetic linkage analysis conducted on nine Spanish families with cerebral cavernous malformations. All procedures were approved by an ethics committee. The families were unrelated and originated from different regions of Spain (south west (CVE2, 3, 4, 10, 17, 25), central (CVE24), south east (CVE28), and north east (CVE29). Seventy seven subjects including 55 potentially informative meioses and 12 spouses gave their informed consent. They were examined by a board certified neurologist, underwent cerebral MRI, and blood samples were taken. Magnetic resonance imaging was used to establish status for linkage analysis. Thirty four members had MRI diagnosis of cavernomas and were considered as affected. Among them, 14 experienced neurological symptoms (cerebral haemorrhage n=6, seizures n=8). Nine-teen members with normal cerebral MRI were considered as healthy. Twelve members without MRI investigation had an unknown status. Analysis of pedigrees was consistent with an
cerebral cavernous malformations, this haplotype is more likely not predominant in Spain, and the strong founder effect seen in all published Hispanic-American families with cerebral cavernous malformations might be specific for this population.

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In conclusion, linkage analysis of Spanish families with metastatic tumors of the posterior fossa or thalamus. They typically presented with symptoms of acute hydrocephalus in addition to any local mass effect of the tumour. Postoperatively, five patients were relieved of hydrocephalic symptoms and follow up brain imaging studies disclosed decreased ventricular size. These five patients had a median hospital time of 6.5 days and median survival of 5 weeks after third ventriculostomy. The hospital stay was prolonged by care of their primary disease. However, most of our patients who underwent this operation for hydrocephalus caused by other diseases were discharged from the hospital within 3 days to 48 hours from the procedure. There were no operative complications. All five patients had no evidence of redevelopment of hydrocephalus up to the last clinic visit.

The patient’s family requested comfort care only and the patient died 2 days later. In the second case (case 6) the patient had improvement in his neurological examination and ventricle size by CT scan immediately after the operation, but had recurrent symptoms of hydrocephalus 11 days later. After placement of a ventriculoperitoneal shunt, his examination returned to baseline. Every patient except the person described in case 4 received brain radiation therapy after the palliative procedure. One patient (case 3) underwent a course of radiation treatment prior to the operation. Another (case 5) had radiation to her orbit in the distant past after enucleation for retinoblastoma. Even though previous radiotherapy may be considered a contraindication for third ventriculostomy by some authors, it did not seem to affect the success of third ventriculostomy in our patients. Carcinomatous meningiomas which could have caused a communicating hydrocephalus was not grossly evident on examination, on any of the brain imagings, or during endoscopy. However, tumours in contact with CSF space can also cause a communicating hydrocephalus by raising CSF protein which can obstruct distal CSF space and arachnoid granulations. Our success rate of about 70% (five of seven) for third ventriculostomy in perrinventricular metastatic disease is consistent with the results obtained with third ventriculostomy for adult patients with secondary hydrocephalus. This is comparable with the alternative shunting with an implanted catheter which has a first year revision rate as high as

Hydrocephalus caused by metastatic brain lesions: treatment by third ventriculostomy

Metastasis to the brain occurs in 20%–40% of cancer patients. About 20% of these metastases are located in the posterior fossa, cerebellum, and brainstem. Metastatic disease to perrinventricular brain tissue can obstruct intracerebrospinal fluid (CSF) produced in the ventricles to the subarachnoid space where it is normally absorbed by arachnoid granulations. This typically causes an obstructive or non-communication hydrocephalus. A lateral ventricle is customarily placed to drain CSF from a lateral ventricle through a pressure regulating valve and into the atrium or peritoneal or pleural cavity. Even though this technique has been successful in relieving the hydrocephalus, it has about a 50% chance of infection or failure from blockage. Another option for the treatment of obstructive hydrocephalus is third ventriculostomy, a minimal invasive endoscopic neurosurgical procedure. In performing third ventriculostomy, a hole is created in the floor of the third ventricle, allowing CSF inside the ventricle to drain out to the CSF space surrounding the brain. Although third ventriculostomy has a low operative morbidity and a high probability of success in primary hydrocephalus, it is only commonly used on patients with aqueductal stenosis and the pediatric population. To avoid placing shunts in patients with inoperable metastatic brain tumours who typically have only a few months to live, we have offered the patients third ventriculostomy as a palliative procedure.

We performed third ventriculostomy on seven patients with hydrocephalus caused by metastatic tumors of the posterior fossa or thalamus. About 20% of these metastases are located in the posterior fossa, cerebellum, and brainstem. Even though previous radiotherapy may be considered a contraindication for third ventriculostomy by some authors, it did not seem to affect the success of third ventriculostomy in our patients. Carcinomatous meningiomas which could have caused a communicating hydrocephalus was not grossly evident on examination, on any of the brain imagings, or during endoscopy. However, tumours in contact with CSF space can also cause a communicating hydrocephalus by raising CSF protein which can obstruct distal CSF space and arachnoid granulations. Our success rate of about 70% (five of seven) for third ventriculostomy in perrinventricular metastatic disease is consistent with the results obtained with third ventriculostomy for adult patients with secondary hydrocephalus. This is comparable with the alternative shunting with an implanted catheter which has a first year revision rate as high as...
Patient is currently alive.

Results are considered improved if the patient had resolution of symptoms and follow up imaging showed hydrocephalus improved or resolved.


tours have been studied extensively in brain tumour adjacent to the 

Neuronal activity alters local blood flow near normal CSF dynamics, as 50%, with the highest failure rate in the first few months after shunt placement. The complication rates for both procedures are low. Third ventriculostomy and shunting can potentially cause a stroke, bleeding, ventriculitis, meningitis, a subdural haematoma, CSF leak, diabetes insipidus, and SIADH. However, shunting has additional risks of mechanical malfunction, complications associated with implanting a foreign body, and overdrainage syndrome.

Because third ventriculostomy restores near normal CSF dynamics, overdrainage is prevented. The procedure is also minimally invasive and safe. The procedure’s low morbidity, high efficacy, and potentially short hospital stay are well suited as a palliative treatment of hydrocephalus for patients with an expected shortened life span. We propose that third ventriculostomy should be offered as a first treatment to patients suffering from obstructive hydrocephalus from unresectable tumours.


Neuronal activity alters local blood flow in brain tumour adjacent to the activating cortex

Such an interaction between cortical blood flow and tumour blood flow may be of value for evaluating mechanisms of neurological symptoms associated with brain tumours.

Neuronal activation causes an increase of regional cerebral blood flow (rCBF) in the activating cortical area. Near infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) demonstrates the increase in rCBF during neuronal activity as increases in oxygenated haemoglobin (oxy-Hb) and total haemoglobin (total-Hb) with a decrease in deoxygenated haemoglobin (deoxygen-Hb). NIRS is an optical method to measure concentration changes of oxy-Hb, deoxy-Hb, and total-Hb in cerebral vessels by means of the characteristic absorption spectra of haemoglobin in the near infrared range.

In the present study, we measured changes of oxygenation and haemodynamics in the brain tumour adjacent to the activating cortex by means of NIRS. We found transient decreases in oxy-Hb and total-Hb in the tumour during neuronal activation, suggesting that the local blood flow of the tumour was decreased by a transient increase of rCBF induced by neuronal activation.

The patient was a 35 year old right handed man who presented with complaints of headache and dizziness. A neurological examination showed no abnormalities and a decline in language functions. A postcontrast CT showed a well defined large enhancing tumour (4×5 cm) compressing the left frontal lobe. Computed tomographic angiography showed that the branches of the left middle cerebral artery supplied the tumour (figure A). The patient underwent a left frontal craniotomy for removal of the tumour; the pathological diagnosis was meningioma. The NIRS measurement was performed before the operation.

We measured haemodynamic changes in the brain tumour during neuronal activation in the left frontal lobe induced by cognitive

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Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Age (y), Sex</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Result*</th>
<th>Postoperative stay in hospital(days)</th>
<th>Survival time (weeks)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Lung adenocarcinoma and squamous cancer metastasis to thalamus</td>
<td>Improved</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Ovarian adenocarcinoma metastases to cerebrum and medulla</td>
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<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Improved</td>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>39, F</td>
<td>Breast adenocarcinoma metastasis to cerebellum</td>
<td>Improved</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>6+†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>64, M</td>
<td>Osteopagael carcinoma metastatic to cerebellum</td>
<td>Improved</td>
<td>7+</td>
<td>1+†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Results are considered improved if the patient had resolution of symptoms and follow up imaging showed hydrocephalus improved or resolved.

†Patient is currently alive.

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(A) CT angiography of the brain tumour. Note that the tumour was supplied by the branches of the left middle cerebral artery. (B) Oxygenation changes in the brain tumour during the naming task measured by NIRS. The ordinates indicate concentration changes of oxy-Hb, deoxy-Hb, and total-Hb in arbitrary units (au). Horizontal thick bar indicates the period of the task.
tasks. We monitored concentration changes of oxy-Hb, deoxy-Hb, and total-Hb, using an NIRO-500 instrument (Hamamatsu Photonics KK, Japan). The optodes were placed at an interoptode distance of 3.5 cm on the left forehead so that the centre of the two optodes was placed at the centre of the forehead. With an optode distance of 4 cm, correlations of oxy-Hb and total-Hb measured by NIRS and rCBF measured by PET suggested that the reliable penetration depth of near infrared light into brain tissue is about 1.3 cm; thus the present NIRS measurement area was restricted in the tumour. The patient was seated and had his eyes open during the NIRS measurement. Informed consent was obtained from the patient.

To activate the left frontal lobe, we used the following four tasks: (1) semantic verbal fluency, which entails naming as many items in a semantic category (for example, animals) as possible; (2) confrontation naming, which involves naming ordinary items presented by the tester; (3) backward digit span, a working memory task which involves reporting of digits (2 to 8) in the reverse order; and (4) speech repetition, which entails producing a short descriptive passage aloud. The speech responses of the patient to the tasks were normal.

Figure B shows an example of changes in NIRS during the naming task. After the beginning of the task, oxy-Hb and total-Hb decreased to negative values during the task, and deoxy-Hb also decreased. These changes returned to the control level gradually after the end of the task. The other tasks also caused similar changes of oxy-Hb, total-Hb, and deoxy-Hb.

The rCBF in the left frontal lobe is generally increased by all the tasks used in the present study.1 Indeed, our NIRS activation study using the cognitive tasks showed increases in oxy-Hb and total-Hb in the left frontal lobe in most normal adults—for example, increases in oxy-Hb and total-Hb—were found in 92.5% of young adult subjects (mean SD) 28.8 (4.4) years during the word fluency task (unpublished data). Therefore, although we could not measure the changes in rCBF in the left frontal lobe of the present patient from our previous studies strongly suggests that the tasks caused an increase in rCBF in the left frontal lobe of the patient.

A decrease in oxy-Hb and total-Hb recorded from the brain tumour indicates a decrease of local blood flow in the tumour because the NIRS measurement area was restricted to the brain tumour.2 The decreases in oxy-Hb and total-Hb were found only during the tasks; consequently, these changes were probably not due to changes in systemic blood pressure, which can alter tumour blood flow.3 Based on these assumptions, we suggest that the increase of rCBF in the left frontal lobe induced by the tasks stole the local blood flow of the brain tumour through the cortical branches, leading to the decrease of local blood flow in the tumour.

We suggest that reports of symptom-dependent increase in rCBF can steal blood flow from the adjacent tissues including non-activating cortex. Recent NIRS activation studies have shown that cognitive tasks cause decreases in oxy-Hb and total-Hb in the left frontal lobe in some normal subjects;4 these decreases indicate a decrease in rCBF.5 Although the physiological mechanisms of the decrease in rCBF during neuronal activity have not yet been elucidated, we hypothesize that a stealing of blood flow is one of the mechanisms.6 The present report supports this hypothesis.

References


Migraine aura masquerading as Balint’s syndrome

Migraine is a common neurological disorder with a prevalence of 0.5% to 2% in the general population.1 In one fourth of total migraines, migraine aura is preceded by an aura.2 We describe a patient with recurrent episodes of migraine in whom headache was preceded by a constellation of visual symptoms, including perimetry performed during the episode as demonstrated by the confrontation method. Ophthalmological examination, including perimetry performed during a symptom free period, was not contributory. There was no clinical evidence of Gerstmann syndrome, prosopagnosia, object agnosia, or colour agnosia. Her cranial CT and magnetic resonance angiography were unremarkable.

Electroencephalography was also non-contributory. The frequency of visual aura symptoms and headache decreased considerably after the patient was started on flunarizine at a daily dosage of 10 mg at bed time. The visual impulses, after being recognised by the primary visual cortex (Brodmann area 17), are interpreted and integrated in visual association areas 18 and 19. Brodmann area 19, in turn, is connected with the angular gyrus and frontal eye field by virtue of association fibres. Any lesion in the visual association areas or their connections would result in impaired integration of visual impulses despite normal visual acuity. The visual symptom complex in this case possibly represents an aura of migraine. The pathogenesis of migraine aura has been a debatable issue.3 In this case it is suggested that the pathophysiological process of migraine aura results in a disconnection syndrome by
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Asymmetric, and showed no evidence of lesions were bilateral, widely distributed, in the frontal eye field and dorsal parietal regions. 

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2. Campbell JK. Manifestations of migraine. 


**“Can’t you use another vaccine?” postrabies vaccination encephalitis**

A healthy 39 year old man was bitten on the ankle by his own apparently normal dog. After the incident the dog disappeared into the forest and was not seen again. Three days later the patient was seen at a provincial hospital in Vietnam and started on an alternate day regimen of suckling mouse brain postrabies exposure vaccine (SMBV). After the second dose, he felt unusually lethargic although he was still able to work. After the third dose, he became unrousable, and was transferred to the Centre for Tropical Diseases, Ho Chi Minh City, the referral hospital for infectious diseases in southern Vietnam. On admission, he was afebrile, confused, had slurred speech, and his Glasgow coma score was 13. He had mild spastic weakness of his left face, left arm, and both legs. Full blood count and results from routine biochemistry and chest radiography were all normal. The CSF: blood glucose ratio was 0.47 (63/140 mg%), the protein content was raised (78 mg/dl), and there was one lymphocyte/ml in the CSF. Screens for malaria, toxoplasmosis, cryptococcus, and neurocysticercosis were negative, as was a CSF gram stain. The CSF was sterile after 2 weeks of culture. Brain MRI (Access Toshiba LPT 6.01p, 0.064 Tesla) showed areas of high signal in the cerebral white matter. Bilateral subcortical and periventricular lesions are seen. (B) Brain MRI in July 1997. 2 weighted image shows resolution of the white matter lesions. 

Brain MRI in May 1997. (A) T2 weighted image showing multiple areas of high signal in the cerebral white matter. Bilateral subcortical and periventricular lesions are seen. (B) Brain MRI in July 1997. 2 weighted image shows resolution of the white matter lesions.
Leukoencephalopathy associated with khat misuse

The leaves of the tree *Catha edulis*, or khat (also qat and kat) are chewed by a large proportion of the adult population of the Yemen, (also qat and kat) are chewed by a large proportion of the adult population of the Yemen, and in some parts of Africa. The leaves are also chewed by a large proportion of the adult population of the Yemen, (also qat and kat) are chewed by a large proportion of the adult population of the Yemen, and in some parts of Africa. The leaves are also chewed by a large proportion of the adult population of the Yemen, and in some parts of Africa.


myelinated fibres were markedly decreased (figure A). Some vessels had focal necrosis of rounded by mononuclear cell infiltrates. Sural nerve biopsy was accompanied by fibrillation potentials except in the left anterior tibialis muscle. Sural nerve biopsy was performed on the left leg and showed a dense infiltrate of inflammatory cells around the vessels. (Figure A) Cross-section of a nerve fascicle showing perivascular infiltrates and axonal degeneration. (B) Most of myelinated fibres are undergoing axonal degeneration. Many macrophages containing myelin debris infiltrate the endoneurium. (bar=30 µm).

(A) Sural nerve (toluidine blue staining) showing epineurial vessel surrounded by mononuclear cell infiltrates. Note fibrin deposition (arrow) and necrosis in media. (bar=20 µm). (B) Most of myelinated fibres are undergoing axonal degeneration. Many macrophages containing myelin debris infiltrate the endoneurium. (bar=80 µm).
CORRESPONDENCE

The cholinergic hypothesis of Alzheimer’s disease: a review of progress

I read with interest the review of Francis et al regarding the progress of the cholinergic hypothesis of Alzheimer’s disease.¹ They mentioned that donepezil produced improvement or no deterioration in more than 80% of patients, and that such responses should be viewed positively considering the progressive, degenerative nature of the disease. Various donepezil manufacturer’s medical representatives presenting data from a clinical study² also commonly use this statement. However, this only partially reveals the truth. In fact, the same study produced improvement or no deterioration in 59% patients on placebo. I think that the beneficial effect of donepezil in particular clinical trials should always be critically reviewed in comparison with placebo. In addition, as both 24 week placebo controlled donepezil trials performed so far excluded patients with behavioural disturbances, my impression is that the positive effect of donepezil on the symptoms of behavioural disturbances still remains controversial. In fact there are reports that donepezil might induce behavioural disturbances in patients with Alzheimer’s disease.³ Therefore, I would be extremely cautious about prescribing donepezil to patients with Alzheimer’s disease accompanied by behavioural disturbances.

Finally, donepezil was never investigated in a 36 week randomised double blind study as was mentioned in the review. The authors are probably referring to the randomised 24 week double blind placebo controlled trial with an additional 6 week single blinded placebo phase.

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The authors reply:
We thank Professor Babic for the letter, which raises several interesting points. We agree that it may be more helpful to put the results attributed to treatment with donepezil in the context of the placebo response. In general, looking at this as a class effect in relation to several compounds, the picture emerging is that about twice as many people obtain a response to active treatment as to that with placebo. The high placebo response is a common factor in most studies in this field and is worthy of some explanation in its own right. Although it seems that these studies compare drug treatment with that of a placebo (one treatment against no treatment), the reality is that it is a comparison of patients receiving two treatments against other patients who are receiving one form of treatment. The additional treatment regime is, of course, the care and attention that they receive by being part of the clinical study, which often seems to have an impact, not just on the patient but also on their main carer or carers.

As far as behavioural disturbances are concerned, however, our review was making the point that evidence in favour coming from clinical trials to suggest that cholinomimetic drugs as a whole may have a beneficial effect on some non-cognitive behavioural symptoms. This has now been reported for at least two cholinesterase inhibitors, and two muscarinic agonists.⁴ In particular, a clear link is emerging between psychotic symptoms and cholinergic dysfunction. Thus, Bodick et al have shown that the M₁/M₄ agonist xanomeline causes a dose dependent reduction in hallucinations, agitation, and delusions in a 6 month randomised double blind placebo controlled, parallel group trial. In addition, Cummings and Kauler have shown that the cholinesterase inhibitor rivastigmine is effective in reducing psychotic features than cognitive disturbances; tacrine also reduces or abolishes hallucinations in Parkinson’s disease.⁵ Another cholinesterase inhibitor, metrifonate, was also shown to reduce the number of hallucinations in a 26 week randomised, double blind, placebo controlled safety and efficacy study in patients with Alzheimer’s disease. Further support for a link between acetylcholine and psychosis derives from postmortem data showing that the activity of choline acetyltransferase in the temporal cortex of patients with Lewy body dementia was lower in those patients with hallucinations than in patients without this feature.⁶ Finally, in animals the partial M₁/M₄ agonist (5R,6R)-6-(3-propylthio-1,2,5-thiadiazol-4-yl)-1-azabicyclo[3.2.1]octane produced a preclinical profile suggestive of antipsychotic efficacy⁷ and that the psychomimetic NMDA receptor antagonist ketamine (when administered at subanaesthetic doses) reduced brain concentrations of acetylcholine.⁸ Thus, on the basis of both clinical and preclinical data, a clear rationale is emerging for prescribing cholinomimetic agents for treating the non-cognitive behavioural symptoms associated with dementia, particularly psychosis.

Professor Babic is also correct in identifying two of the studies referred to as the 30 week randomised multicentre placebo controlled parallel group studies, which included a 24 week double blinded treatment phase. We are grateful to your correspondent for providing us with the opportunity to clarify these points.

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BOOK REVIEWS


The neuropathies of diabetes are common (as the chapters in this book repeatedly remind us) and can be very disagreeable. Symptomless neuropathy underlies foot ulceration and sepsis as the commonest clinical consequence of diabetic neuropathy but patients with SUSPN (symptomatic unilateral severe painful neuropathy) or the unpleasant disorders range from exceptionally severe pain to the whole range of problems resulting from autonomic failure. This book comprehensively covers every aspect of the subject, systematically (and at times exhaustively) from its epidemiology and pathogenesis (exhaustingly) to structural, functional, and clinical problems and their treatment. Most of the authors are well known in the field and their accounts are up to date and authoritative.

Unfortunately, struggle as they might, all authorities have difficulty in defining what they mean by diabetic neuropathy, in regard, understanding of this complication both in clinical and pathological terms, as well as with regard to treatment, lags far behind that of the other classic diabetic complications nephropathy and retinopathy. Even its classification presents problems and attempts to do so are found in four different chapters, describing four classifications. Repetition is an unfortunate feature of this book and—quite apart from the confusion over classification—aspects of pathogenesis, structural changes, epidemiology, diagrams, and some reference to treatment (for example, that of pain) appear repeatedly in different chapters in greater or lesser detail.

This is certainly a book for the specialist and not at all (as the preface suggests) for the family practitioner. There are good reviews of nerve structure, causation, and treatment of painful neuropathies and focal neuropathies. The comprehensive survey of the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (DCCT) shows in detail the only treatment which is truly effective (diabetic control); and the lengthy description of aldose reductase inhibitor trials establishes that, even after more than two decades of investigation, further trials are still needed.

Clinical evaluation of somatic and autonomic neuropathies are useful and also, to some extent, comprehensive but lack specificity—that is, normal values for simple tests are difficult to find. The huge subject of the diabetic foot is covered in these chapters and “the impact of micro and macrovascular disease” is compressed into the last nine pages of the book.

The bibliography is important and often very up to date with references ranging from 33 to 283 per chapter. If this book is at times confusing, this reflects the confusion regarding the nature and treatment of the diabetic neuropathies as much as the overlap and repetition found in its different chapters. It is a book of reference for the specialist who will be well served by the comprehensiveness of some of its reviews and their assembly of the appropriate literature.

PETER WATKINS


The quest for a means of accurate localisation of structures during neurosurgery has taxed the minds of clinicians from early in the history of the specialty, starting with Zernov’s encephalometer more than a century ago. Just as the solution to the mariners’ problem “(the surgeon’s sextant)” has relied on the advent of new technologies to provide solutions to an age old puzzle.

Advances In Neuronavigation begins by tracing the history of stereotaxis from a Cartesian coordinate system devised by Clarke and Horsley at the beginning of this century, through ventriculography, stereotactic brain atlases, and CT/MR frame based stereotaxis. The final part of the first section discusses the roots of image guided frameless stereotaxis through the integration of high speed graphics computers, informatics, biotechnology, and robotics.

The remainder of the text is divided into four sections. The first concerns the creation of maps from CT, MRI, MRA, PET, and various types of functional imaging. The following section discusses clinical applications of stereotaxis, beginning with different authors’ experiences of their own favoured frames, the biopsy of difficult lesions such as those in the brainstem or posterior fossa, and finally experience with different image guidance systems and their integration with the operating microscope and endoscope. There then follows a series of chapters devoted to radiosurgery, and to image guidance in epilepsy and functional surgery. The final section is entitled Entrances in Neuroradiological Navigation and considers, among other topics, intraoperative MRI, telepresence in neuroradiology, and robotics.

The incorporation of new technology is likely to alter surgical practice radically over the coming decade and equipment that seemed at the cutting edge of technology only a few years ago, such as the mechanical arm, has already passed into near obsolescence at a bewildering rate. This volume provides an excellent account of the developments which have occurred in neuronavigation, and a thought provoking insight into the wider applications of equipment of which many of us use only a fraction of the potential capability. The title of the book should perhaps have included the word cranial, as there is almost no discussion of the impact that this technology has had in surgery of the spine. This aside it is an excellent book although, like the technology it chronicles, one which is likely to date quite rapidly.

ROBERT MACFARLANE


The title and back cover of the latest addition to Neurology Lite texts contains the usual proclamation. “Concise, key topics, revision aid, essential, review...” the well trailed soundbites demanded by the consumer in the increasingly competitive market of “read - learn more” books. This book, however, is unusual and distinct. Unlike many rivals it is not an A5 facsimile of a superior parent A3 reference tome. Brevity, so essential to the success of an overview work, has sacrificed neither clarity nor clinical relevance. The strength of Key Topics in Neurology owes much to the author’s ability to negotiate skilfully the compromises necessary for a successful distillation of a large and complex field. He has not shied from wholesale culling of neurological ballast. The allied ability to distingish and highlight the salient and relevant from the obscure and historical allows this small book to be surprisingly thorough in its coverage and topicality. There is sufficient up to date information on most areas of neurology such that this book would be useful for specialist registrars albeit without the detail or embellishment they seek. In terms of the aims of this book such observations must be regarded as complimentary.

My limited criticisms relate to details of layout and presentation. I found the exclusive alphabetical arrangement of chapters mildly disorientating in that, for example, History taking in Neurology is to be found at p 151. Similarly, the absence of diagrams and tables is an unexpected omission as I would imagine that this would have complemented the overall style of the book. These are minor gripes of what in print largely matches the sleeve hype and with a price tag of just £27-50 the book will be welcomed by undergraduates through to specialist registrars.

SIDDHARTHAN CHANDRAN

Readers may be interested in:


CORRECTION

K Sudo, N Fujiki, S Tsuji, M Aijki, T Higashi, M Niino, S Kikuchi, F Moriwaka, K Tashiro.

Focal (segmental) dyshidrosis in syringomyelia. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1999;67:106-8. During the editorial process the footnote to table 1(p 107) was wrongly transcribed. The last line—p value for each pair of items: hyperhidrosis v normohydrosis 0.007; hypohydrosis v normohydrosis 0.728; normohydrosis v hypohydrosis 0.0012 should read—p value for each pair of items: hyperhidrosis v hypohydrosis 0.0007; hypohydrosis v hypohydrosis 0.0007; normohydrosis v normohydrosis 0.728; normohydrosis v hypohydrosis 0.0012.