

Management Of sellar and suprasellar lesi0ns.

Thesis

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INTRODUCTION

The area immediately around the pituitary, the sellar and suprasellar region is an anatomically complex area that represents a crucial crossroads for important adjacent structures (Pinker et al., 2005) .

While the sellar region has specific anatomical landmarks, the suprasellar region is not clearly delineated and includes all the structures that surround the sella turcica (Rennert & Dörfler, 2007) .

Vital structures such as the brain parenchyma, meninges, visual pathways and other cranial nerves, major blood vessels, hypothalamopituitary system and bony compartments may be involved (Kaltsas, Evanson, Chrisoulidou, & Grossman, 2008) .

The majority of neoplasms arising in the sella turcica are, by far, pituitary adenomas. On occasion, sellar tumors of non-pituitary origin may present with symptoms that mimic those of a nonfunctioning adenoma of the anterior pituitary gland. The most common non-pituitary neoplasms in this location are craniopharyngiomas, germ cell tumors, meningiomas, chordomas, gliomas, and Schwannomas (Perez, Farkas, Padron, Changus, & Webster, 2004) .

Pathology in the sellar and suprasellar regions accounts for several disabling and distinctive neurological syndromes characterized by visual failure and upper cranial neuropathies. These features have a major impact

On functional outcome more than the commonly associated endocrine morbidity (Pollack, 2010) .

Radiological imaging of the suprasellar and parasellar regions is challenging since the sella is a small volume region in close proximity to many complex structures. Both thin-section computerized tomography and magnetic resonance imaging play an important role in the anatomical delineation of lesions in this area (**Boardman, Rothfus, & Dulai, 2008**).

Magnetic resonance imaging is the modality of choice providing multiplanar high-contrast images, whereas computerized tomography has a complementary role in delineating bony destruction and the visualization of calcification (**Kaltsas et al., 2008**).

Conventional radiology is no longer in use, whereas digital subtraction angiography has been largely replaced by the continuous improvement in magnetic resonance and computerized tomography angiographies (**Rennert & Dörfler, 2007**).

The standard evaluation of the patient with a sellar and suprasellar mass currently requires an endocrinologic evaluation of the pituitary hormonal axis (**Perez et al, 2004**).

The treatment of sellar and suprasellar tumors is basically surgical, the choice of the surgical approaches is first determined by the surgeon's own preference and experience, secondly by the site and direction of the growth. Early post-operative neuroimaging should be used in every patient (for future treatment planning purposes and to evaluate the efficacy of the surgical procedure (Bresson, Herman, Polivka, & Froelich, 2016) .

Aim of the work

This aim of this work is to present the incidence of various lesions in the sellar and suprasellar area and evaluate the different protocols for management of these lesions.

ANATOMY

Understanding the Osteology Of the skull base is a fundamental step in skull base surgery. It enables accurate topographic location and helps tailoring surgical routes to specific skull base areas.

On the endocranial side of the skull base, the border between the anterior and middle fossa is marked by the sphenoid ridge, joined medially by the chiasmatic sulcus. The border between the middle and posterior fossae is formed by the petrous ridges joined by the dorsum sellae and posterior clinoid processes (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002).

On the exocranial side, the anterior and middle fossae are divided by a transverse line, extending through the pterygo-maxillary fissures and pterygo-palatine fossae at the upper level, and the posterior edge of the alveolar processes of the maxillae at a lower level. Medially, this corresponds to the attachment of the vomer to the sphenoid bone. The middle and posterior cranial fossae are separated on each side by a transverse line crossing near the posterior border of the vomer-sphenoid junction, foramen lacerum, carotid canal, jugular foramen, styloid process, and mastoid tip (Jr., 2003).

Each of the three skull base areas has a center and two lateral parts. The center parts are arranged as a midline corridor and comprise, on the endocranial side, the cribriform area, planum, sellae, clivus, and craniovertebral junction. On the exocranial side, this center corridor encompasses the nasal cavity, sphenoid sinus, and the pharynx. In the center corridor, the anterior, middle, and posterior skull

base areas are close together and bridged by the body of the sphenoid (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002) .

The bony nasal septum, which is formed by the vomer and perpendicular plate of the ethmoid and attached to the sphenoid crest and rostrum, divides the nasal cavity along the midline, whereas the lateral plates of the ethmoid bones separate the nasal cavity from each orbit . Some foramina and grooves connect the endocranial and exocranial surfaces and transmit vascular and neural structures in this area. The foramen cecum in the midline serves as the site of passage of an emissary vein; the cribriform plate is pierced by the filaments of the olfactory nerve; the supraorbital grooves, on the superior orbital limits, are related to the frontal branch of the first trigeminal division , the anterior and posterior ethmoidal canals, located along the suture line formed by the frontal and ethmoid bones, transmit the anterior and posterior ethmoidal nerves and arteries; the superior orbital fissure, located between the lesser and greater sphenoidal wings, transmit the superior ophthalmic vein and the first division of the trigeminal, oculomotor, trochlear, and abducent nerves; and the optic canals between the anterior and posterior roots of the anterior clinoid processes transmit the optic nerve and the ophthalmic artery(J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002) .

The pituitary gland and sella are located below the center of the brain in the center of the cranial base. Access to the sella is limited from above by the optic nerves and chiasm and the circle of Willis, from laterally by the cavernous sinuses and internal carotid arteries, and from behind by the

brainstem and basilar artery. The vital structures protecting its superior, lateral, and posterior borders have led to the preferred surgical routes to tumors of the gland being from below through the nasal cavity and sphenoid sinus or from anteriorly between the frontal lobe and the floor of the anterior cranial fossa (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002) .

Diaphragma Sellae : The diaphragma sellae forms the roof of the sella turcica . It covers the pituitary gland, except for a small central opening in its center, which transmits the pituitary stalk . The diaphragma is more rectangular than circular, tends to be convex or concave rather than flat, and is thinner around the infundibulum and somewhat thicker at the periphery. It frequently is a thin, tenuous structure that *would not be an adequate barrier for protecting the suprasellar structures during transsphenoidal operation*. The opening in the diaphragm's center is large when compared with the size of the pituitary stalk. The diaphragmal opening was 5 mm or more , a deficiency of the diaphragma sellae is assumed to be a precondition to formation of an empty sella. An outpouching of the arachnoid protruded through the central opening in the diaphragma into the sella turcica in approximately half of the patients. This outpouching, if opened, represents a potential source of postoperative cerebrospinal fluid leakage (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002) .

Pituitary Gland

The anterior lobe wraps around the lower part of the pituitary stalk to form the pars tuberalis . The posterior lobe is softer, almost gelatinous, and is more densely adherent to the sellar wall. The anterior lobe is firmer and is

more easily separated from the sellar walls. The gland's width is the same or more than either its depth or its length in most patients. Its inferior surface usually conforms to the shape of the sellar floor, but its lateral and superior margins vary in shape because these walls are composed of soft tissue rather than bone. If there is a large opening in the diaphragma, the gland tends to be concave superiorly in the area around the stalk. The superior surface may become triangular as a result of being compressed laterally and posteriorly by the carotid arteries. As the anterior lobe is separated from the posterior lobe, there is a tendency for the pars tuberalis to be retained with the posterior lobe. Small intermediate lobe cysts are frequently encountered during separation of the anterior and posterior lobes (J. A. L. Rothman, 2002) .

Pituitary Gland and Carotid Artery

The distance separating the medial margin of the carotid artery and the lateral surface of the pituitary gland is an important consideration in transsphenoidal surgery. There is often a separation between the lateral surface of the gland and the carotid artery, the distance between the gland and artery varied from 1 to 7 mm (average, 2.3 mm); however, in approximately one in four cases, the artery protruded through the medial wall of the cavernous sinus to indent the gland. In these cases, the gland loses its spherical shape and conforms to the wall of the artery, often developing protrusions above or below the artery. In these cases, it would be difficult to remove the entire gland during transsphenoidal hypophysectomy. Such residual fragments may explain the pituitary function that remains after attempted hypophysectomy. Intracellular tumors are subjected to the same

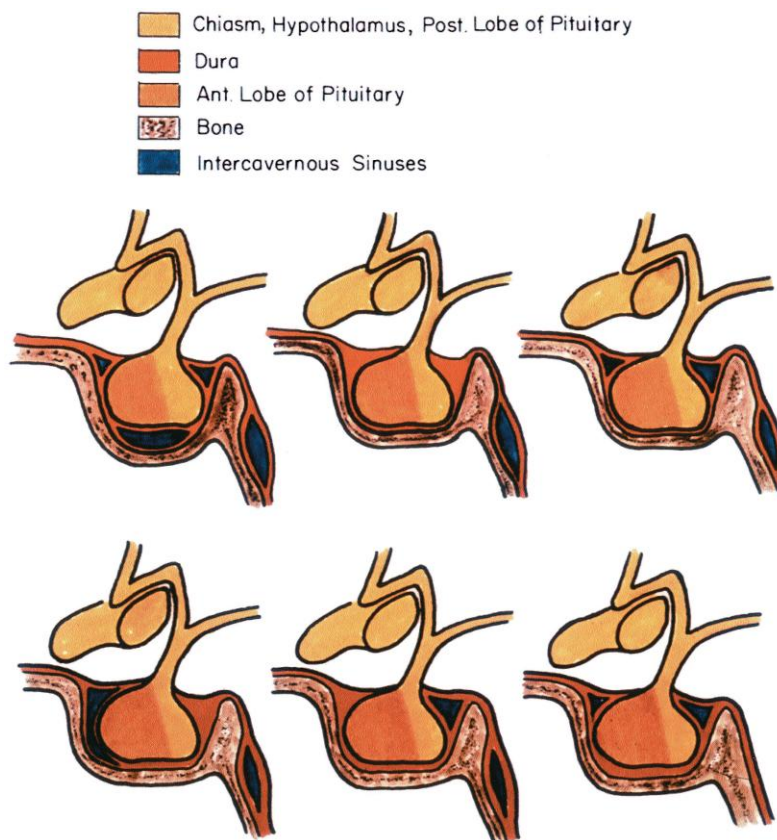
forces, which prevent them from being spherical, and the increased pressure within the tumor increases the degree to which the tumor insinuates into surrounding crevices and tissue planes. Separation of these extensions from the main mass of gland or tumor may explain cases in which the tumor and elevated pituitary hormone levels persist or recur after adenoma removed. The proximity of the carotid arteries to the midline is extremely important in pituitary surgery. The shortest distance between the two carotid arteries was found in the supraclinoid area in 82% of the cases, in the cavernous sinus along the side of the sella in 14%, and in the sphenoid sinus in 4% (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002).

Carotid artery and sphenoid sinus; the internal carotid artery rests directly against the lateral surface of the body of the sphenoid bone, and its course is marked by a groove in the bone, the carotid sulcus, that defines the course of the intracavernous portion of the carotid artery. As the sphenoid sinus expands and its walls resorb, the carotid sulcus produces a prominence within the sinus wall below the floor and along the anterior margin of the sella. The carotid prominence can be divided into three parts: the retrosellar, infrasellar, and presellar segments. The first part, the retrosellar segment, is located in the posterolateral part of the sinus. This segment of the prominence is present only in well-pneumatized sellar-type sinuses in which the air cavity extends laterally in the area below the dorsum. The second part, the infrasellar segment, is located below the sellar floor. The third part, the presellar segment, is located anterolateral to the anterior sellar wall. Arterial bleeding during transsphenoidal surgery has been reported as due to carotid artery injury, but may also have arisen from a tear in an arterial branch of the carotid, such as the inferior hypophyseal artery, or by avulsion of a small capsular artery from the carotid artery.

Intercavernous Venous Connections Venous sinuses that interconnect the paired cavernous sinuses may be found in the margins of the diaphragma and around the gland. The intercavernous connections within the sella are named on the basis of their relationship to the pituitary gland; the anterior intercavernous sinuses pass anterior to the hypophysis, and the posterior intercavernous sinuses pass behind the gland. Actually, these intercavernous connections can occur at any site along the anterior, inferior, or posterior surface of the gland, or all connections between the two sides may be absent. The anterior intercavernous sinus may cover the whole anterior wall of the sella. The anterior sinus is usually larger than the posterior sinus, but either or both may be absent. If the anterior and posterior connections coexist, the whole structure constitutes the “circular sinus”. Entering an anterior intercavernous connection that extends downward in front of the gland during transsphenoidal operation may produce brisk bleeding. However, this usually stops with temporary compression of the channel with hemostatic foam or with light coagulation, which serves to glue the walls of the channel together. A large intercavernous venous connection called the basilar sinus passes posterior to the dorsum sellae and upper clivus connecting the posterior aspect of both cavernous sinuses. The basilar sinus is the largest and most constant intercavernous connection across the midline. The superior and inferior petrosal sinuses join the basilar sinus. The abducent nerve often enters the posterior part of the cavernous sinus by passing through the basilar sinus.

Cavernous Sinus

The cavernous sinuses are located on each side of the sphenoid sinus, sella, and pituitary gland. They extend from the superior Orbital fissure in front to the petrous apex behind and surround the horizontal portion of the carotid artery. The medial wall of the paired cavernous sinuses form the lateral boundary of the sella. Sellar tumors frequently extend into the cavernous sinus. The intracavernous portion of the carotid artery begins lateral to the posterior clinoid process where it leaves the foramen lacerum and turns abruptly forward to enter into the cavernous sinus. It then passes forward in a horizontal direction for approximately 2 cm and terminates by passing upward along the medial side to the anterior clinoid process, where it penetrates the roof of the cavernous sinus. (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002).



The cavernous carotid is relatively fixed by the bony ring formed by the anterior and middle clinoid processes and the carotid sulcus, but despite this, large extensions of pituitary tumor may produce lateral displacement of the artery. The oculomotor, trochlear, and ophthalmic nerves lie between the two dural leaves of the lateral sinus wall. The abducent courses within the sinus on the medial side of the ophthalmic nerve and is adherent to the carotid artery medially and the ophthalmic nerve laterally (J. A. L. Rhoton, 2002) .

Ventricular and Cisternal Relationships

Tumors arising in the sella often extend upward into the suprasellar cisterns to compress the floor of the third ventricle and involve the circle of Willis and deep cerebral venous system . The area involved by these tumors arising in the sellae corresponds to the anterior incisural space located between the free edges of the tentorium and the front of the midbrain. The anterior incisural space corresponds roughly to the suprasellar area.

From the front of the midbrain it extends obliquely forward and upward around the optic chiasm to the subcallosal area. It opens laterally into the sylvian fissure and posteriorly between the uncus and the brainstem. The part of the anterior incisural space located below the optic chiasm has posterior and posterolateral walls . The posterior wall is formed by the cerebral peduncles. The posterolateral wall is formed by the anterior third of the uncus, which hangs over the free edge above the oculomotor nerve. The infundibulum of the pituitary gland crosses the anterior incisural space to reach the opening in the diaphragma sellae. The part of the anterior incisural

space situated above the Optic chiasm is limited superiorly by the rostrum of the corpus callosum, posteriorly by the lamina terminalis, and laterally by the part of the medial surfaces of the frontal lobes located below the rostrum. The anterior incisural space opens laterally into the part of the sylvian fissure situated below the anterior perforated substance. The anterior limb of the internal capsule, the head of the caudate nucleus, and the anterior part of the lentiform nucleus are located above the anterior perforated substance. The interpeduncular cistern, which sits in the posterior part of the anterior incisural space between the cerebral peduncles and the dorsum sellae, communicates anteriorly with the chiasmatic cistern, which is located below the Optic chiasm. The interpeduncular and chiasmatic cisterns are separated by Liliquist's membrane, an arachnoidal sheet extending from the dorsum sellae to the anterior edge of the mamillary bodies. The chiasmatic cistern communicates around the Optic chiasm with the cisterna laminae terminalis, which lies anterior to the lamina terminalis.

Cranial Nerves

The Optic and Oculomotor nerves and the posterior part of the Olfactory tracts pass through the suprasellar region and anterior incisural space. Each Olfactory tract runs posteriorly and splits just above the anterior clinoid process to form the medial and lateral Olfactory striae, which course along the anterior margin of the anterior perforated substance. The Optic nerves and chiasm and the anterior part of the Optic tracts cross the anterior incisural space. The Optic nerves emerge from the Optic canals medial to the attachment of the free edges to the anterior clinoid processes and are directed posteriorly, superiorly, and medially toward the Optic chiasm. From