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Optical coherence tomography angiography in patients with cerebral small vessel disease

Thesis

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List of Contents

Title	Page No.
List of Abbreviations	i
List of Tables	iii
List of Figures	iv
Introduction	1
Aim of the Work	4
Review of Literature	
Cerebral Small Vessel Disease	5
Optical Coherence Tomography Angiography	·16
Patients and Methods	28
Results	35
Discussion	50
Study Limitations	59
Conclusion	
Recommendations	
Summary	62
References	
Arabic Summary	

List of Abbreviations

Full term Abb. Aβ..... Amyloid- beta BBB Blood brain barrier CMBs..... Cerebral microbleeds CSF..... Cerebro spinal fluid CSVD...... Cerebral small vessel disease DCPDeep capillary plexus DOCT...... Doppler OCT DR...... Diabetic retinopathy DVP.....Deep vascular plexus DWI Diffusion weighted images DWMH Deep white matter hyperintensities EPVS Enlarged perivascular spaces FA..... Fluorescein angiography FAZ AI.....Foveal avascular zone acircular index FAZ FDFoveal avascular zone foveal density FAZ..... Foveal avascular zone FLAIR..... Fluid attenuated inversion recovery GCC Ganglion cell complex GCLGanglion cell layer INLInner nuclear layer ISF..... Interstitial fluid LACS Lacunar stroke clinical syndrome MMSE...... Mini-mental state examination MRA...... Magnetic resonance angiography MRI...... Magnetic resonance image mRS...... Modified Rankin scale

List of Abbreviations cont...

Abb.	Full term
NFL	Nerve fiber layer
	. National institutes of health stroke scale
	. Neuromyelitis optica spectrum disorders
	Optical coherence tomography
	Optical coherence tomography angiography
ONH	. Optic nerve head
PVH	. Periventricular hyperintensities
RGC	. Retinal ganglion cells
RNFL	. Retinal nerve fiber layer
RPC	. Retinal peripapillary capillary
RPCP	Radial peripapillary capillary plexus
RSSI	Recent single subcortical infarction
SCP	Superficial capillary plexus
SVD	. Small vessel disease
SVP	Superficial vascular plexus
VEGF	. Vascular endothelial growth factor
WMH	White matter hyperintensities

List of Tables

Table No.	Title	Page No.
Table (1):	Etiologic classification of CSVD	9
Table (2):	Demographic data distribution of group and healthy controls	
Table (3):	Magnetic resonance imaging findings group	
Table (4):	Carotid duplex and MRA findings group	in case
Table (5):	Optical coherence tomography angion parameters in superficial retinal plexu	graphy
Table (6):	Optical coherence tomography angion parameters in deep retinal plexus	graphy
Table (7):	Macular thickness parameters:	42
Table (8):	Foveal avascular zone (FAZ) parameters	OCTA
Table (9):	Disc OCTA parameters	
Table (10):	Ganglion cell complex (GCC) and opti head (ONH) OCTA parameters	c nerve
Table (11):	Correlations between significant parameters and Fazekas grade	
Table (12):	Correlations between significant parameters and SVD score	OCTA

List of Figures

Fig. No.	Title F	age No.
Figure (1): Figure (2):	Cerebral small vessel and its comparts The relation between conditions as dia and hypertension influences.	abetes
	arteriosclerosis	
Figure (3):	Pathogenesis of CSVD	10
Figure (4):	A formulation describing small injury and their neurovascular units	
Figure (5):	MRI findings for lesions related to ce SVD	
Figure (6):	Clinical picture of CSVD	
Figure (7):	Retinal layers	
Figure (8):	The location of different enface zor relation to histology of the human retin	nes in
Figure (9):	OCTA slabs and correspondentations	onding
Figure (10):	Scanning patterns in OCT and OCTA.	
Figure (11):	FAZEKAS grading in cases	
Figure (12):	SVD score in cases	
Figure (13):	Significant OCTA parameters in superetinal plexus.	erficial
Figure (14):	Significant OCTA parameters in retinal plexus.	
Figure (15):	Significant OCTA parameters in mathickness.	acular



INTRODUCTION

Verebral small vessel disease (CSVD) refers to pathological changes affecting the small vasculature of the brain including; small perforating arterioles, capillaries and venules (Zhang et al., 2020).

Vascular risk factors that are commonly found in large vessel disease have shown to contribute to CSVD, as well, hypertension, including diabetes mellitus. smoking and dyslipidemia. Also old age is considered to be a risk factor as the prevalence of CSVD increases with age (Cannistraro et al., 2019).

Cerebral amyloid angiopathy is one of the suggested underlying pathologies in some cases of CSVD (Zoppo et al., 2014).

Clinically, CSVD accounts for 25% of ischemic strokes and 50% of dementias (Zhang et al., 2020).

It may present as acute events (focal neurological deficit) known as lacunar syndrome or chronic events as mild cognitive dysfunction, dementia, mood disorders, gait disturbance, sleep disorder and urinary incontinence. Also, it may be a symptomatic (Chen et al., 2019).

Although CSVD is a common reason for strokes and vascular dementia, pathogenesis is still poorly understood. It is endothelial dysfunction suggested that the in cerebral

1



microvessels may be a key problem. Endothelial failure leads to increased permeability and increased leakage into the vessel wall and the surrounding tissue, damaging of the vessel wall, inflammation, demyelination, glial scar formation, thickening and stiffness of vessels leading to failure of autoregulation, narrowing of the lumen and occlusion, causing featured focal ischemic lesions in the brain parenchyma (Wardlaw et al., 2013).

Neuroimaging markers seen on MRI are classified into: Recent small subcortical infarct (DWI), Lacune of presumed vascular origin (FLAIR), White matter hyperintensity of presumed vascular origin (FLAIR), Perivascular space (T1, T2), cerebral microbleed (T2*-weighted GRE/SWI) (Chen et al., 2019).

The changes in brain microvasculature are difficult to be visualized in vivo. Because of similarities between brain and retina in anatomy, embryology and physiology, investigating the retinal vessels network may reflect the brain condition (Lee et al., 2020).

Optical coherence tomography angiography (OCTA) is a novel, real-time and noninvasive technique to detect retinal and choroidal blood flow in vivo (Tsokolas et al., 2020).

The retinal capillary network is arranged anatomically into several layers as which are: 3 macular plexuses, 4 plexuses in peripapillary region and one capillary layer in midequatorial



and anterior zones where the retina is thinner. OCTA devices are based on (en face) approach to get information of the superficial and deep plexuses. 4 en face zones are detected: superficial plexus in ganglion cell layer, deep plexus, photoreceptors(outer retina) and choriocapillaris. For each en face zone, the indices of perfusion could be reached (Sambhav, 2017).

OCTA has a big advantage over classic methods as retinal microvasculature is segmented into layers and can be visualized and quantified more accurately. It is a safe and rapid technique giving a vascular map of retinal blood flow without using intravenous dye (Tsokolas et al., 2020).



AIM OF THE WORK

he aim of our study is to: - detect changes in retinal structure and microvasculature in patients with cerebral small vessel disease using optical coherence tomography angiography, correlate these changes with brain imaging markers and determine if (OCTA) can be used as a screening tool for cerebral small vessel disease.

Chapter 1

CEREBRAL SMALL VESSEL DISEASE

Anatomy of cerebral micro vessel circulation:

The brain is a highly perfused organ consumes about 20% of cardiac output (*Xing et al.*, 2017).

The arterial system of the brain forms anastomotic ring at the base of the skull called (circle of Willis) which gives rise to 3 main cerebral arteries (anterior, middle and posterior) divide progressively into small arteries and arterioles that penetrate the brain tissue to supply the subcortical parenchyma called (perforating arteries) one of the components of cerebral small vessels. The second component is the leptomeninges vasoganglion derived from covering of the subarachnoid space and the brain convex surface. The cerebral small vessels include small arteries, arterioles, venules and capillaries at size of 50-400 micrometer (*Qian Li et al.*, *2018*).

Perivascular spaces (Virchow-Robin spaces) are fluid-filled compartments surrounding the small perforating brain microvessels, act as channels for fluid transport, exchange between cerebro spinal fluid (CSF) and interstitial fluid (ISF) clears waste product from the brain (*Ballerini et al.*, 2020).

Pathophysiology of CSVD:

The pathophysiologic aspects of CSVD are still not clear, but some mechanisms are suggested. The core mechanism of CSVD-related brain injury is ischemia, acting through arteriolar narrowing or occlusion lead to hypoperfusion as (vasospasm, hypotension or impaired autoregulation). The another key problem is diffuse cerebrovascular endothelial failure as endothelial failure leads to increased permeability and increased leakage into the vessel wall and the surrounding damaging of the vessel wall, inflammation, demyelination, glial scar formation, thickening and stiffness of vessels leading to failure of autoregulation, narrowing of the lumen and occlusion, causing featured focal ischemic lesions in the brain parenchyma (Wardlaw et al., 2013).