



CASE STUDY

24 HOURS WITH AN INTRACRANIAL BULLET WITHOUT NEUROLOGICAL DEFICIT

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ABSTRACT

Gunshot injuries occur when one is shot by a bullet or other sort of projectile from a firearm. Peace time gunshot injuries occur in a variety of different situations: criminal and terrorist incidents (including shots fired by law enforcement agents), attempted suicides as well as unintended firearm 'accidents' (both civilian and amongst the armed forces). Penetrating traumatic brain injury is the most lethal form of traumatic head injury. Approximately 70-90% of these victims die before arriving at the hospital, and 50% of those who survive to reach the hospital die during resuscitation attempts in the Emergency Department. We report a case of a 17 year old male patient who was previously well. He was accidentally shot on his head by a friend, he did not lose consciousness and neither did he have any seizures, but was complaining of mild headache. On examination, hemodynamically stable, he had a punctate scalp wound on the left temporal area anterior to the ear with crusted blood around it and no exit wound, his Glasgow coma scale was 15/15, his pupils were 3mm bilaterally and reactive to light, he had no cranial nerve deficit with normal conjugate eye movement. Motor and sensory examination was normal. He was communicating and mobilizing very well. Skull x-ray showed the bullet in the cranium. Unenhanced Computer Tomography (CT) scan of the brain confirmed the intracranial bullet in the supratentorial space with hemorrhagic contusion in the left cerebellar hemisphere and posterior fossa pneumocephalus. There was effacement of sulci and gyri and no evidence of intraventricular hemorrhage. The patient was then admitted to a high dependency unit for observation with a diagnosis of penetrating head injury secondary to gunshot wound. He remained fully conscious and neurologically intact for 24 hours after which his level of consciousness suddenly started deteriorating associated with vomiting; he passed on while he was being taken for repeat and further imaging of the brain. A post mortem examination was consistent with the CT Scan findings including massive subarachnoid hemorrhage and brain swelling.

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INTRODUCTION

Cranio-Cerebral Gunshot Wounds (CCGW) are the most devastating injuries in humans, affecting central nervous system structures, representing a real concern to the community as a whole (Federico C Vinas, 2009; Antic and Spaic, 2006; Rosenfeld, 2002). CCGW could be: penetrating - in which a projectile breaches the cranium but does not exit it, made by low-velocity bullets as a rifle, projectiles, nail guns used in construction devices, stun guns used for animal slaughter, shrapnel produced during explosions, but also perforating - in which the projectile passes entirely through the head, leaving both entrance and exit wounds, by high-mass and velocity

metal jacket bullets fired from military weapons, or guns fired from a very close range as in aggression or suicide attempts (Erdogan et al., 2002; Majer and Jacob, 2010).

Case presentation

We report a case of a 17 year old previously well male patient who was accidentally shot on his head by a friend. The patient had visited his friend's house and while playing the friend took his father's pistol and started playing with it like a toy after which the friend accidentally shot the patient on his head, patient did not lose consciousness and neither did he have any seizures, but was complaining of mild headache, he was taken to a local hospital where subsequently was transferred to our emergency department. On examination, his blood pressure was: 110/68 mmHg, pulse 67 beats/minute,

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respiratory rate 18 breaths/minute, temperature 36.1°C, oxygen saturation was 100% on free air, he was well hydrated and had a punctate scalp wound on the left temporal area anterior to the ear with crusted blood around it and no exit wound, his Glasgow coma scale was 15/15, his pupils were 3mm bilaterally and reactive to light, he had no cranial nerve deficits and there was normal conjugate eye movement. His motor and sensory exam was normal. He was communicating fluently and could mobilise without any problems. Full blood count was normal with Hemoglobin of 13.5g/dl, White cell count 7.0×10^{11} , platelets 240×10^9 , mean corpuscular volume 83. Urea and electrolytes: Sodium 136mmol/L, Potassium 4.1mmol/L, urea 3mmol/L, creatinin 59mmol/L. Skull x-ray taken showed a bullet in the cranium; CT scan brain confirmed the bullet placement in the supratentorial space with hemorrhagic contusion in the left cerebellar hemisphere and posterior fossa pneumocephalus. The sulci and gyri were effaced and no evidence of intraventricular hemorrhage. Patient was then admitted to high dependency unit for observation with a diagnosis of penetrating head injury secondary to gunshot wound and managed as per head injury management protocol, he remained fully conscious and neurologically intact for 24 hours after which his level of consciousness suddenly started deteriorating associated with vomiting, he demised while was being rushed to the imaging suite for a repeat CT scan of the brain. A post mortem examination was findings of which confirmed the CT scan images in addition to massive subarachnoid hemorrhage.

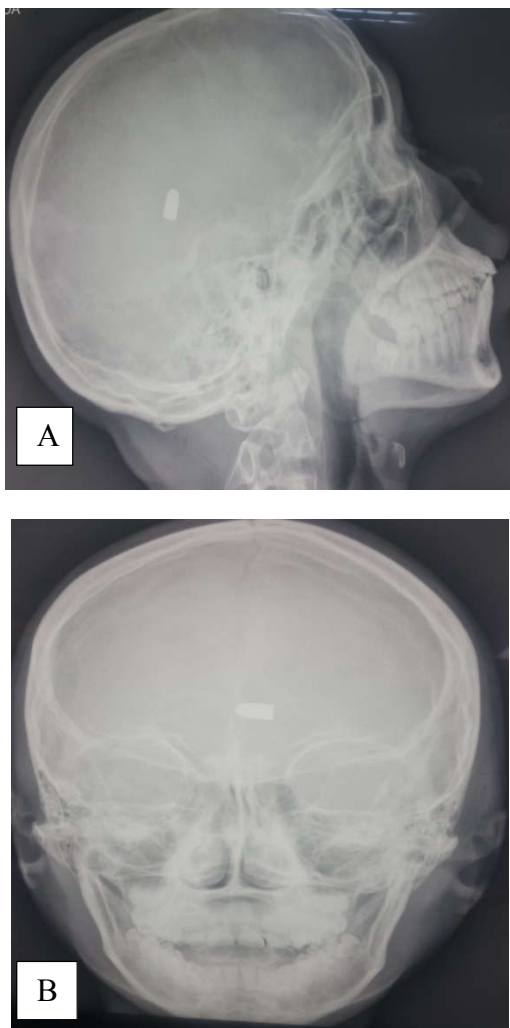


Figure 1. The skull X - ray (antero– posterior (B) and lateral views(A)) showing a bullet in the intracranium

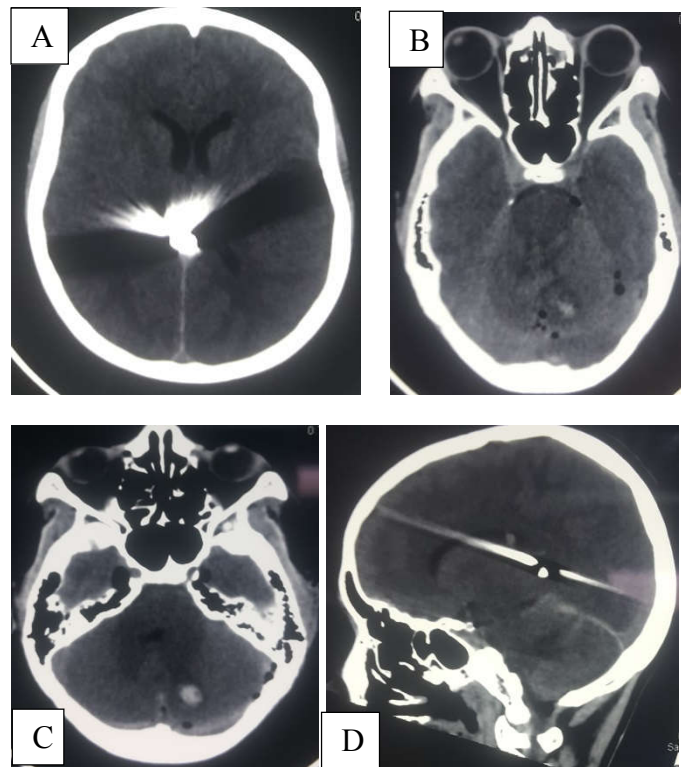


Figure 2. Axial CT brain without contrast the bullet in the midline; the bullet did not exit the intracranial cavity (A and D). A left sided intraparenchymal cerebellar hematoma is present with posterior fossa pneumocephalus (B and C). Diffuse sulcal effacement is appreciated in all images

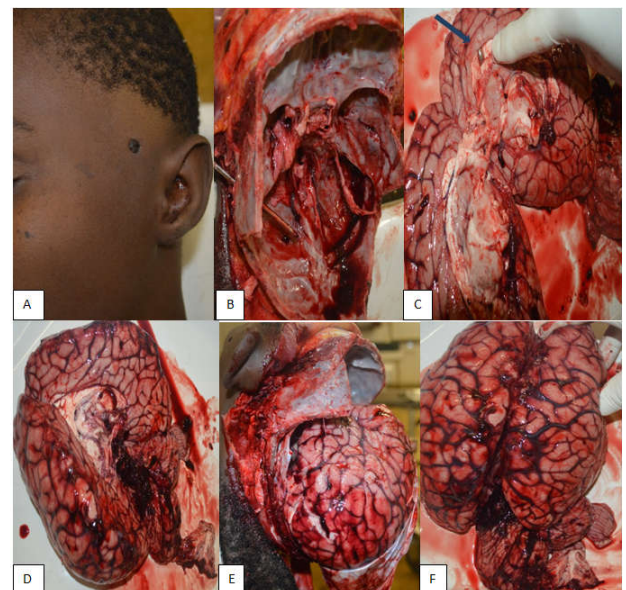


Figure 3. Post mortem pictures: punctured scalp wound, entry point (A), bony entry (B), bullet in the splenium of corpus callosum (bleu arrow) (A), subarachnoid hemorrhage with huge intracerebellar hematoma (D, E and F)

DISCUSSION

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) occurs when the brain is damaged as a result of physical trauma. TBI may be caused by a penetrating (open) head injury, in which an object pierces the skull and enters the brain tissue, or a closed head injury, in which the skull is not breached (Iker *et al.*, 2009) and frequently results in the major long-term disability of individuals surviving head injuries sustained in war zones.

Cranial gunshot wounds often result in severe injury to the brain and related central nervous system (CNS) structures (Erdogan *et al.*, 2002; Iker *et al.*, 2009). Such wounds can be classified as tangential, perforating, or penetrating. The latter are the most devastating type of missile injury to the head. Penetrating gunshot wounds, especially those that cross the coronal or midline sagittal planes, are usually fatal. Penetrating head injuries are becoming increasingly common as a result of the widespread availability of firearms. Civilian penetrating head injury is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality and represents a significant public health problem. The severity of the injury is related to several factors, including velocity of the bullet, refraction of a bullet after hitting a hard structure, distance of flight, caliber, and trajectory of passage through the cranium, expressiveness of the damaged brain, vascular injury and bullet migration (Castillo-Rangel *et al.*, 2010). Immediate intracranial injury occurs as the result of neuronal and vascular destruction caused by the projectile traveling through intracranial tissues. Once the projectile strikes the head and transfers its kinetic energy to extra and intracranial tissues, destruction occurs in tissue both in the projectile's path as well as in distant tissues outside the projectile's trajectory. Permanent cavitation occurs in tissues directly in the projectile's path, but sonic waves followed by pressure waves of as much as 30 atmospheres produce temporary cavitation (Aarabi *et al.*, 2015).

Expansion and retraction of the temporary cavities cause distant punctate hemorrhages and neuronal membrane disruption. The result is a rapid rise in intracranial pressure (ICP) as hematomas enlarge, and cerebral edema increases as early as 30 minutes after the initial injury (Blissitt, 2006). Concurrently, cerebral perfusion pressure decreases and infarction can follow. If severe, herniation can occur (Van Wyck *et al.*, 2015). The utility of various neuroimaging methods used in patients with Penetrating brain injury (PBI) lies on the potential management and prognostic implications of these modalities (Neuroimaging in the management of penetrating brain injury, 2001; Offiah and Twigg, 2009). Important findings include: entry and exit sites; intracranial fragments; missile track and its relationship to both blood vessels and air-containing skull-base structures; intracranial air; transventricular injury; basal ganglia and brain stem injury; missile track crossing the midline; multilobar injury; basal cisterns effacement; brain parenchymal herniation and associated mass effect (Neuroimaging in the management of penetrating brain injury, 2001; Offiah and Twigg, 2009).

Neuroimaging is vital for surgical decision making, the type of surgery, the size and site of craniotomy, the route for extraction of foreign body, etc. as well as the decision to choose non-surgical management, which is also not uncommon in PBI (Kazim *et al.*, 2011). Plain radiographs of the skull can be of considerable value in identifying the cranial wound (s), the location of missile and bone fragments, and the presence of intracranial air. However, evaluating the projectile trajectory with plain radiographs alone can be misleading in the presence of intracranial ricocheting or fragmentation (Neuroimaging in the management of penetrating brain injury, 2001). Besides, the availability of computed tomography (CT) scanning largely precludes the use of plain radiography, and it is not routinely recommended. Computed tomography (CT) scanning of the head is now the primary modality used in the neuroradiologic evaluation of patients with PBI. This is because CT scanning is quick and provides improved identification of

in-driven bone and missile fragments, characterization of the missile trajectory, evaluation of the extent of brain injury, and detection of intracranial hematomas and mass effects (Kazim *et al.*, 2011). Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is generally not recommended for use in the acute management of PBI, as it is time consuming and can be potentially dangerous when there are retained ferromagnetic objects because of possible movement of the object in response to the magnetic torque (Gutiérrez-González *et al.*, 2008). However, MRI can be a useful neuroradiologic modality, if the PBI is caused by a wooden object (Green *et al.*, 1990). Cerebral angiography (either CT or catheter) is recommended in patients with PBI where there is an increased risk of vascular injury. This would include those cases where the wound's trajectory is through or near the Sylvian fissure (location of M1 and M2 segments of the middle cerebral artery), the supraclinoid carotid artery, the vertebrobasilar vessels, the cavernous sinus region or the major dural venous sinuses. Peripheral branches of the middle cerebral artery followed by the anterior cerebral artery are more vulnerable in craniocerebral penetrating injury than the internal carotid artery. The development of otherwise unexplained subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH) or delayed hematoma could also suggest the presence of a vascular injury, and thus warrant angiography (Kazim *et al.*, 2011; Vascular complications of penetrating brain injury, 2001). Surgical treatment consists of adequate debridement of all grossly necrotic tissue, removal of significant intracranial hematomas, and easily accessible bone and metallic fragments. Overaggressive debridement and repeat operations solely for the purpose of removing retained fragments is currently contraindicated (James M. Ecklund and Panayiotis Sioutos, 2014).

The surgical treatment of penetrating brain injury has evolved significantly over the past century. Prior to 1889, pTBI patients did not typically undergo surgery due to ineffective hemostasis and poor postoperative infection control (Assassination of Abraham Lincoln and the Evolution of Neuro-Trauma Care). Dr. Harvey Cushing was the first to develop a formal approach to the management of pTBI, and advocated complete removal of metallic and bone fragments, as well as craniectomies to relieve ICP. Radical debridement continued to be a standard throughout World Wars I and II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War. (Assassination of Abraham Lincoln and the Evolution of Neuro-Trauma Care; Jallo and Loftus, 2009) In the 1980s during the Israeli-Lebanon conflict, however, a shift was made toward conservative debridement in an effort to preserve as much cerebral tissue as possible. The results, according to Brandvold *et al.*, were similar with regard to acute and chronic outcomes as compared to soldiers who underwent radical debridement in the Korean and Vietnam conflicts (Van Wyck *et al.*, 2015). The most recent conflicts in Afghanistan and Iraq have resulted in further refinements to surgical management with a trend toward early decompression with conservative debridement and duroplasty. This approach appears to yield improved survivability not seen in prior conflicts (Van Wyck *et al.*, 2015; Aarabi *et al.*, 2014; Rosenfeld and Cooper, 2010). A challenging aspect to the surgical management of pTBI is the selection of appropriate surgical candidates. There is extensive literature that has attempted to identify which patients may benefit from surgery. Poor prognostic indicators have previously been identified as old age, low admission GCS, abnormal pupil reactivity, bihemispheric involvement, path of the projectile, and loss of the basal cisterns on imaging (Jallo and Loftus, 2009; Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2015).

A GCS of 3-5 and/or a projectile path crossing the midline at the level of the corpus callosum, through the bilateral thalamic basal ganglia posterior fossa/brainstem or through an area 4cm above the dorsum sellae containing the vessels of the Circle of Willis known as the "zonafatalis" has historically resulted in the withholding of surgical care (Martins *et al.*, 2003) like in our case we opted for conservative management as the bullet was deep seated, reached the midline at the level of corpus callosum, crossed the posterior fossa and part of basal ganglia. Lateral penetrating injuries have worse outcomes when compared with antero-posterior injuries like in our case (Jallo and Loftus, 2009). Another common indicator, the "tram track sign" or a hypodense wound track with hyperdense blood on either side has been associated with poor outcomes (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 2015). Tram track signs are more common with low caliber projectiles. With modern surgical and intensive care management, however, some series have shown markedly improved survival rates even in those with the low post-resuscitation GCS scores (Weisbrod *et al.*, 2012). Mortality rates are higher in patients with penetrating brain injuries compared to those with closed brain injury. In one study, patients with penetrating brain injuries were approximately seven times more likely to die compared to closed brain injured patients.

Conclusion

One of the first challenges in managing patients with gunshot wounds (GSW) to the head is determining whether any intervention will result in an outcome that is acceptable to the patient, family, and society. This generally requires an individualized approach because the definition of an acceptable result can vary with different patients and families. It can also be partially dependent upon the resources available for rehabilitative and supportive care in individual societies.

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