

1 Investigating the Comparison between MDCT Brain Plain and MRI Findings in 2 Infants Presenting with Hydrocephalus: A Hospital-based Cross-Sectional Study

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 **Background and Aims**

5 Hydrocephalus is a disorder characterised by abnormal accumulation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
6 in the brain ventricles, demands accurate diagnosis for effective management. The primary aim
7 of this research was to compare the MDCT Brain Plain and MRI findings in infants presenting
8 with hydrocephalous.

9 **Methods**

10 A cross-sectional investigation of 39 newborns used 64-slice MDCT and 1.5 Tesla MRI, which
11 followed paediatric imaging procedures. Temporal horns, ventricle size, and specific disorders
12 such as spina bifida and encephalitis were studied. Chi-square tests were used to analyse
13 statistical differences.

14 **Results**

15 CT excelled in detecting lateral ventricle involvement (94.9%) compared to MRI (84.6%,
16 $p=0.001$). MRI was more successful in detecting 4th ventricle anomalies (30.8% vs. 12.8%).
17 Temporal horns were identified similarly (CT: 66.7% and MRI: 61.5%, $p<0.001$). Spina bifida
18 (5.1%) was found by MRI but not by CT. MRI revealed no tumours, in contrast to CT, which
19 detected 2.6%.

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21 **Conclusion**

22 The researchers discovered that MRI was better at identifying specific illnesses such spina bifida,
23 absence of corpus callosum, Arnold Chiari syndrome, and encephalitis, whereas CT was better
24 at detecting lateral ventricle involvement. However, the incidence of brain tumours was
25 noticeably absent in the CT findings, whilst the prevalence was unclear in the MRI results. The
26 clinical setting, specific diagnostic needs, and radiation exposure factors should all be taken into
27 account when deciding between MDCT and MRI for hydrocephalus assessment. The results of
28 this study reinforce the importance of a multidisciplinary approach, involving radiologists and
29 clinicians, to tailor the choice of imaging modality to each patient's unique circumstances.
30 While MDCT and MRI have distinct advantages, their combined use may increase the diagnostic
31 accuracy and comprehensiveness of hydrocephalus evaluation in newborns, ultimately leading
32 to better patient care and management.

33 **Key words:** Computed tomography, Magnetic resonance imaging, hydrocephalus, infants.

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38 **Introduction**

39 Hydrocephalus is a disorder characterised by abnormal accumulation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)
40 in the brain. This extra fluid causes the ventricles (cavities) in the brain to expand, putting
41 additional strain on the brain's structures. Hydrocephalus can occur during or shortly after birth,
42 or it can develop gradually as a result of damage or injury [1]. The term "hydrocephalus" is
43 derived from the Greek terms "hydro," meaning water, and "cephalus," which means head.
44 Despite its name, the condition is caused by an accumulation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), a
45 clear organic liquid that surrounds the brain and spinal cord and performs important tasks such
46 as cushioning, nutrition delivery, and waste disposal [2, 3]. When too much CSF accumulates, it
47 can injure brain tissues and lead to a variety of cognitive and neurological problems [4, 5, 6].

48 Childhood hydrocephalus is a complex underlying cause, which includes both genetic and
49 acquired diseases. Congenital abnormalities, infections, tumours, and genetic factors are some
50 of the most prevalent causes of hydrocephalus [7-9]. Infants with hydrocephalus may exhibit a
51 wide range of symptoms, many of which are associated with elevated intracranial pressure and
52 reduced brain function. One of the most evident indications of hydrocephalus in neonates is
53 fast growth in head circumference. This is usually linked to the accumulation of cerebrospinal
54 fluid (CSF) in the brain's ventricles [10]. Infants with hydrocephalus might become irritable and
55 fussy, displaying distress and restlessness [3]. Infants' eyes may deviate downward, described
56 as "sunsetting eyes," which can suggest hydrocephalus-induced pressure on the brainstem [11].
57 Infants with hydrocephalus may experience seizures due to increased pressure on the brain and
58 disturbance of normal brain activity [12], as well as delays in developmental milestones
59 including as head control and turning over. Hydrocephalus can also cause changes in muscle

60 tone, resulting in either stiffness (hypertonia) or floppiness (hypotonia) in the infant's muscles
61 [6, 13].

62 Hydrocephalus can affect anyone, however it is most frequent in infants and adults over the
63 age of 60 [14, 15]. The frequency of hydrocephalus in babies varies greatly, ranging from 0.2 to
64 8.2 per 1,000 live births [16]. Infant hydrocephalus is more prevalent in some Asian countries
65 than others. Some communities have greater incidence rates due to variables such restricted
66 access to prenatal care, increasing infection rates, and a lack of awareness [17, 18, 19, 20].

67 Brain computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) are important
68 diagnostic tools for paediatric hydrocephalus because they provide high-resolution imaging of
69 cerebral structures and make it easier to characterise ventricular enlargement, parenchymal
70 changes, and other abnormalities. In summary, the available evidence suggests that MRI is
71 more sensitive than MDCT in detecting minor brain abnormalities and developmental
72 anomalies that might cause hydrocephalus in babies [21]. However, MDCT can be useful in
73 detecting brain calcifications, which may indicate underlying diseases. The ultimate imaging
74 modality is chosen by the patient's clinical presentation, the suspected underlying cause of
75 hydrocephalus, and the availability of imaging resources. The comparison of MDCT plain brain
76 and MRI findings in babies with hydrocephalus is critical for early detection, treatment, and
77 decision-making. The choice of imaging modality influences diagnosis accuracy and treatment
78 approaches. Understanding the diagnostic yield of MRI and MDCT can aid in the development
79 of evidence-based guidelines for hydrocephalus diagnosis and management, thereby
80 standardising clinical practice and improving patient outcomes.

81 **Materials and Methods**

82 Study Design, Setting and Participants

83 This cross-sectional comparative investigation was conducted from September 2024 to January
84 10, 2025 to compare the MDCT Brain Plain and MRI findings in infants presenting with
85 hydrocephalus. The study included 39 infants who were referred for imaging because they had
86 suspected neurological problems. The imaging data were gathered at The University of Lahore
87 Teaching Hospital with advanced CT and MRI facilities. Ethical approval for this study (Ethical
88 Committee Ref No: REC-UOL-201-09-2024) was provided by the Ethical Committee of the
89 Research Ethics Committee (REC), Faculty of Allied Health Sciences; The University of Lahore on
90 September 13th, 2024. The institutional ethics committee approved the study, and the parents
91 or guardians of all participants supplied signed informed consent.

92 Infants with clinical indications for both CT and MRI imaging, such as suspected hydrocephalus,
93 spina bifida, meningitis, encephalitis, or other neurological abnormalities, were included in the
94 study; infants with poor-quality imaging results or contraindications to MRI (e.g., metallic
95 implants) were excluded. The study included 39 infants, with a male-to-female ratio of roughly
96 2:1 (64.1% males and 35.9% females). Participants' ages ranged from five to fourteen months.

97 Imaging Protocols and Data Collection

98 Computed Tomography (CT) scans were performed with a cutting-edge 64-slice CT scanner.
99 Axial and coronal slices of the brain were obtained with a slice thickness of 5mm. Standard
100 paediatric imaging methods were followed to achieve high image quality while limiting

101 radiation exposure. The tube voltage and current were adjusted based on the patient's age and
102 weight.

103 Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) scans were performed on a 1.5 Tesla MRI equipment. T1-
104 weighted, T2-weighted, and fluid-attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) imaging sequences
105 were used, as well as diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI) for particular patients. Axial, coronal,
106 and sagittal views were obtained to offer complete anatomical and pathological information.
107 Sedation was given to some infants under the guidance of a paediatric anaesthesiologist to
108 ensure motionless imaging.

109 After getting the ethical approval from the hospital ethical committee patients were recruited
110 in the study keeping in mind the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Informed consent was taken
111 from each study participants with all possible benefits and expected risks. Basic clinical
112 information was noted down on a pre-designed data collection sheet by the researcher himself.
113 The following variables were recorded ; Age, Gender, and CT/MRI Findings. The study looked at
114 the presence or absence of specific abnormalities such as temporal horn enlargement,
115 ventricular size, 4th ventricle involvement, lateral ventricle involvement, spina bifida, corpus
116 callosum abnormalities, brain tumours, Arnold-Chiari malformations, encephalitis, and
117 meningitis. Each abnormality was classified as present ("Yes") or absent ("No") in both the CT
118 and MRI modalities. To maintain uniformity, all imaging investigations were evaluated
119 separately by two experienced radiologists. Discrepancies in the findings were resolved via
120 consensus. Strict adherence to imaging methods and data documenting rules ensured that
121 results were reliable.

122 Statistical Analysis

123 Data was evaluated and analyzed with Statistical Software (SPSS v 27.0). Descriptive analyses
124 was performed to investigate the distribution of data. Frequency and percentages was
125 calculated for categorical variables. Collected data was stored in Microsoft Excel. Chi-square
126 test was applied. P-value <0.05 was considered as significant.

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130 Results

131 Table 1 displays the gender and age distribution of the 39 neonates with hydrocephalus in the
132 study. In terms of gender, the majority were men (64.1%), with women accounting for 35.9%.

133 The age distribution shows that the majority of newborns were 5 months old (23.1%), followed
134 by those aged 12 months (20.5%). Other age groups, such as 3-9 and 10 months, were less
135 common (7.7% each). Infants aged six, seven, and fourteen months had the lowest prevalence
136 (2.6% each).

137 **Table 1: Gender and Age Distribution of Infants**

Distribution of the Gender and Age			
Parameter	Statistic	Frequency	Percentage (%)

Gender	Female	14	35.9%
	Male	25	64.1%
	Total	39	100%
Age (Months)	1	3	7.7%
	2	2	5.1%
	3	4	10.3%
	4	2	5.1%
	5	9	23.1%
	6	1	2.6%
	7	1	2.6%
	8	2	5.1%
	9	3	7.7%
	10	3	7.7%
	12	8	20.5%
	14	1	2.6%
	Total	39	100%

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139 The crosstabulation table compares the CT and MRI findings using a variety of statistics,
140 including frequencies, percentages, and statistical significance (p-values). Temporal horns were
141 detected (Yes) in 66.7% of cases using CT and 61.5% utilising MRI in this study. The two imaging
142 modalities demonstrated excellent agreement ($p=0.000$). 79.5% of CT scans and 74.4% of MRI
143 images revealed an abnormal third ventricular size of less than 3 mm, however the difference
144 was not statistically significant ($p=0.340$). Although the p-value (0.110) suggests no discernible
145 difference, the 4th Ventricle Involvement revealed abnormalities in 12.8% of CT scans and
146 30.8% of MRI scans, with MRI having a higher detection rate. Abnormalities in Lateral Ventricle
147 Involvement were found in 94.9% of CT scans and 84.6% of MRI scans, with a statistically
148 significant difference ($p=0.001$), indicating that CT may over-report involvement when
149 compared to MRI [Table 2].

150 CT imaging revealed severe hydrocephalus and significant skull vault deformation (Figure 1A).
151 Additionally, affected infants' ventricular enlargement was highlighted by axial CT scans, which
152 showed a dilated cerebral aqueduct (Figure 1B). A surgical lesion on the third ventricle's floor
153 indicated aqueductal stenosis on sagittal reformatted CT images (Figure 1C). These results
154 highlight how important CT is for identifying structural abnormalities in hydrocephalus. CT
155 imaging correctly indicated important hydrocephalus symptoms, with Figure 2A displaying
156 enlarged lateral and third ventricles, indicating ventricular dilatation. Figure 2B shows
157 transependymal oedema, which indicates higher intracranial pressure, whereas Figure 2C
158 shows a normal-sized fourth ventricle, which serves as a reference to emphasise the anomalies

159 detected in affected regions. These findings emphasise CT's usefulness in detecting ventricular
160 enlargement and accompanying hydrocephalus alterations.

161 Spina Bifida was detected in 5.1% of MRI scans, while no cases were identified on CT. Similarly,
162 Absence of the Corpus Callosum and Arnold Chiari Syndrome were detected in 7.7% of CT scans
163 and 5.1% of MRI scans, showing minimal differences and non-significant p-values (0.675 for
164 both conditions). While no brain tumors were detected by MRI, 2.6% of CT scans revealed brain
165 tumours. Abnormalities were detected in 15.4% of encephalitis cases by CT and 10.3% by MRI;
166 the difference was not statistically significant ($p=0.368$). Finally, with a p-value of 0.807,
167 meningitis was identified in abnormalities in 20.5% of MRI images and 46.2% of CT scans,
168 demonstrating significant variability but no clear diagnostic difference between modalities
169 [Table 2].

170 **Table 2: Comparative Crosstabulation of CT and MRI Findings**

Comparative Crosstabulation of CT and MRI Findings for Neurological and Structural Abnormalities, Including Frequencies, Percentages, and Statistical Analysis				
Parameter	Statistic	CT (Count, %)	MRI (Count, %)	p-Value
Temporal Horns	No	13 (33.3%)	15 (38.5%)	0.000
	Yes	26 (66.7%)	24 (61.5%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Size of 3rd ventricle <3mm	No	8 (20.5%)	10 (25.6%)	0.340
	Yes	31 (79.5%)	29 (74.4%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	

Lateral ventricle involvement	No	2 (5.1%)	6 (15.4%)	0.001
	Yes	37 (94.9%)	33 (84.6%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
4th ventricle involvement	No	34 (87.2%)	27 (69.2%)	0.110
	Yes	5 (12.8%)	12 (30.8%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Spina Bifida	No	39 (100%)	37 (94.9%)	0.675
	Yes	0 (0%)	2 (5.1%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Absence of Corpus callosum	No	36 (92.3%)	37 (94.9%)	0.675
	Yes	3 (7.7%)	2 (5.1%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Brain Tumor	No	38 (97.44%)	39 (100%)	-
	Yes	1 (2.56%)	0 (0%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Arnold Chiari Syndrome	No	36 (92.3%)	37 (94.9%)	0.675
	Yes	3 (7.7%)	2 (5.1%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Encephalitis	No	33 (84.6%)	35 (89.7%)	0.368
	Yes	6 (15.4%)	4 (10.3%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	
Meningitis	No	21 (53.8%)	31 (79.5%)	0.807
	Yes	18 (46.2%)	8 (20.5%)	
	Total	39 (100%)	39 (100%)	

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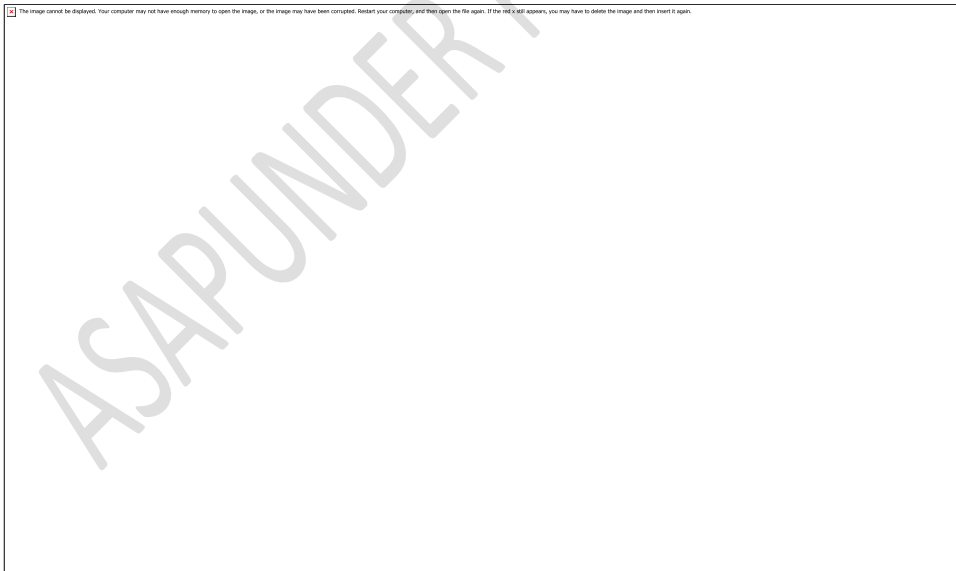
172 **Figure 1**



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175 **Figure 2**



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177 The **Table 3** serves to compare the CT and MRI findings results for a variety of neurological and
178 structural diseases in infants with hydrocephalus. Key differences include a larger percentage of
179 results for 4th Ventricle Involvement in MRI (30.8%) compared to CT (12.8%), and CT has a
180 slightly higher rate of Temporal Horns (66.7%) than MRI (61.5%). Lateral Ventricle Involvement
181 is much higher in CT (94.9%) than in MRI (84.6%), with a p-value of 0.001, indicating statistical
182 significance. For some disorders, such as Spina Bifida and Brain Tumour, either modality or both
183 failed to detect abnormalities consistently. Although, computed tomography is more likely than
184 magnetic resonance imaging to identify meningitis and encephalitis, the difference is not
185 statistically significant. Signs of communicating hydrocephalus were found in the MRI scans;
186 Figure 3 displays increased periventricular and deep white matter signal on FLAIR sequences
187 together with surrounding atrophy. These changes indicate the ability of MRI to identify modest
188 parenchymal and structural changes associated with hydrocephalus. MRI results revealed
189 additional structural abnormalities in hydrocephalus, with Figure 4A showing larger lateral
190 ventricles and Figure 4B showing an enlarged third ventricle. Figure 4C also shows aqueductal
191 compression, demonstrating MRI's utility in detecting substantial structural changes and
192 obstructions that lead to the illness.

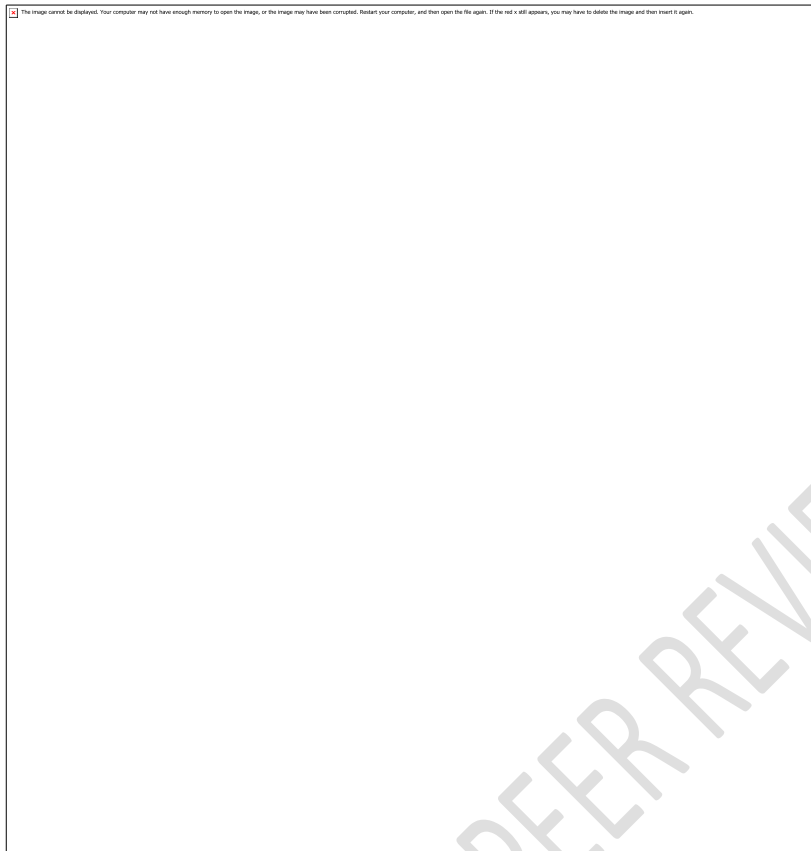
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196 **Table 3: Comparative Results of CT and MRI Findings**

Comparative Results of CT and MRI Findings				
Variables	CT Results (%)	CT p-Value	MRI Results (%)	MRI p-Value
Temporal Horns	66.7%	0.000	61.5%	0.000
Size of 3rd Ventricle <3mm	79.5%	0.340	74.4%	0.340
4th Ventricle Involvement	12.8%	0.110	30.8%	0.110
Lateral Ventricle Involvement	94.9%	0.001	84.6%	0.001
Spina Bifida	-	-	5.1%	0.675
Absence of Corpus Callosum	7.7%	0.675	5.1%	0.675
Brain Tumor	2.6%	-	-	-
Arnold Chiari Syndrome	7.7%	0.675	5.1%	0.675
Encephalitis	15.4%	0.368	10.3%	0.368
Meningitis	46.2%	0.807	20.5%	0.807



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207 **Discussion**

208 The comparison of MDCT brain plain and MRI findings in babies with hydrocephalus exposes
209 each modality's unique diagnostic skills, providing useful insights into the assessment of many
210 variables. Both imaging approaches produced substantial results when assessing temporal
211 horns. CT and MRI both detected temporal horn involvement at 66.7% and 61.5%, respectively,
212 indicating their capacity to identify this component of hydrocephalus ($p < 0.001$). The size of the
213 3rd ventricle (<3 mm) yielded identical results for CT and MRI, with 79.5% and 74.4%,
214 respectively ($p = 0.340$). However, CT had a higher rate of lateral ventricle involvement (94.9%)
215 than MRI (84.6%), indicating CT's potential benefit in detecting this feature ($p = 0.001$).
216 However, with 4th ventricle involvement, MRI had a higher prevalence of 30.8% than CT (12.8%)
217 ($p = 0.110$). The two modalities produce different results when detecting specific scenarios.
218 Spina bifida was more obvious in MRI data, with a prevalence of 5.1%, while it was not found in
219 CT results ($p = 0.675$). Similarly, lack of corpus callosum, Arnold Chiari syndrome, and
220 encephalitis had comparable prevalence levels in both modalities ($p = 0.675$ and $p = 0.368$,
221 respectively).

222 The study's findings on the comparison of MDCT brain plain and MRI in newborns presenting
223 with hydrocephalus are consistent with earlier research. A comparison of temporal horn
224 enlargement in CT and MRI scans revealed similarities between the two imaging modalities,
225 which is consistent with the findings of Missori et al. (2022), who observed correlations
226 between temporal horn abnormalities in both techniques [22]. Our findings on gender
227 distribution are consistent with those of Mulugeta et al. (2022), who discovered that
228 hydrocephalus was more common in men (64.1% male, 35.9% female) [23]. In terms of age
229 distribution, our analysis found that the number of hydrocephalus cases peaked around 5
230 months (23.1%), which is comparable with the findings of Venkataramana et al. (2011), who
231 reported a similar pattern in their study [24].The correlations between lateral ventricle
232 involvement in CT and MRI scans were also comparable with the findings of Alselisly et al.
233 (2021), who discovered the involvement of lateral ventricles in hydrocephalus in their study
234 [25]. Our findings are consistent with prior research that has linked particular anomalies such as
235 spina bifida, lack of the corpus callosum, Arnold Chiari syndrome, and brain tumours to
236 hydrocephalus in babies. This is congruent with the findings of Koo et al. (1991), who
237 discovered comparable anomalies in their research [26]. These studies demonstrate the
238 complimentary functions of CT and MRI in diagnosing hydrocephalus and accompanying
239 newborn illnesses, with each modality providing unique benefits depending on the clinical
240 context.

241 This study has some limitations, which should be considered. Although adequate for
242 preliminary examination, the extremely small sample size may restrict the findings' application
243 to larger populations. The study's use of a single-center dataset introduces potential biases in

244 patient demographics and imaging procedures. Furthermore, the lack of long-term follow-up
245 data hampered our understanding of how imaging results influence prognosis. The outcomes
246 could have been influenced by differences in the operator's experience. Future multicenter
247 research with larger cohorts and consistent imaging modalities are needed to validate and
248 extend these findings and improve diagnostic strategies for hydrocephalus in infants.

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253 **Conclusion**

254 The researchers discovered that MRI was better at identifying specific illnesses such spina bifida,
255 absence of corpus callosum, Arnold Chiari syndrome, and encephalitis, whereas CT was better
256 at detecting lateral ventricle involvement. However, the incidence of brain tumours was
257 noticeably absent in the CT findings, whilst the prevalence was unclear in the MRI results. The
258 clinical setting, specific diagnostic needs, and radiation exposure factors should all be taken into
259 account when deciding between MDCT and MRI for hydrocephalus assessment. The results of
260 this study reinforce the importance of a multidisciplinary approach, involving radiologists and
261 clinicians, to tailor the choice of imaging modality to each patient's unique circumstances.
262 While MDCT and MRI have distinct advantages, their combined use may increase the diagnostic
263 accuracy and comprehensiveness of hydrocephalus evaluation in newborns, ultimately leading

264 to better patient care and management. Further study and collaboration are needed to fine-
265 tune the selection of imaging modalities in response to the changing clinical scenario and
266 technology improvements.

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