OPEN

The Negative Prognostic Role of Inflammatory Biomarkers in Patients With Chronic Cerebrospinal Venous Insufficiency

Si-ying Song, MD, *†‡ Duo Lan, MD, *†‡ Bao-lian Jiao, MD, *†‡ Yun-huan Liu, MD, *§ Yu-chuan Ding, PhD, †‡|| Xun-ming Ji, MD, PhD, *†‡ and Ran Meng, MD, PhD*†‡

Background: The pathologic consequences of inflammatory responses in chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency (CCSVI) remains poorly understood. Hence, this study was aimed to evaluate the peripheral inflammatory biomarkers in patients with intracranial and extracranial CCSVI pathology. In addition, the relationship between inflammatory cytokine profile and CCSVI prognosis was also evaluated.

Methods: Patients diagnosed with CCSVI between July 2017 and July 2019 were included and subsequently divided into 3 groups based on the location of stenosis. The inflammatory biomarker assay included neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratios (NLRs), platelet-to-lymphocyte ratios (PLRs), red blood cell distribution widths (RDW), C-reactive protein (CRP) levels, interleukin-6 (IL-6) levels, and neuron-specific enolase levels. Clinical outcomes were assessed using the modified Rankin Scale and Patient Global Impression of Change score. Univariate and multivariate regression analyses were performed to identify significant prognostic factors for poorer outcomes. Finally, we established a nomogram based on the multivariate regression analysis.

Results: We enrolled 248 patients in total, including 102 males and 146 females, with an average age of 57.85 ± 12.28 years. Compared with patients with internal jugular vein stenosis, cerebral venous sinus stenosis (CVSS) patients were mostly younger and had been suffering

- From the Departments of *Neurology; ‡China-America Institute of Neuroscience, Xuanvu Hospital, Capital Medical University; †Advanced Center of Stroke, Beijing Institute for Brain Disorders, Beijing; §HuaDong Hospital, Fudan University, Shanghai, China; and ||Department of Neurosurgery, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI.
- This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Xuanwu Hospital. All informed consent was obtained from study participants in written form.
- R.M.: helped in manuscript drafting and revision; and study concept and design. S.-y.S.: helped in manuscript drafting and revision; study conception and design; and data collection, assembly, and interpretation. R.M., S.-y.S., D.L., B.-I.J., and Y.-h.L.: helped in manuscript writing and final revision of the manuscript. R.M., X.-m.J., and Y.-c.D.: helped in manuscript drafting and revision.
- This manuscript has been released as a preprint at Research Square, Si-ying Song et al, Inflammatory Biomarkers May Predict Poor Outcome in Patients with Chronic Cerebrospinal Venous Insufficiency; May 12, 2020, PREPRINT (Version 1) available at Research Square (https://doi.org/10. 21203/rs.3.rs-27600/v1).

Supported by the National Natural Science Foundation under Grant (82171297), and the Beijing Natural Science Foundation (7212047).

- The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- Correspondence to: Ran Meng, MD, PhD, Department of Neurology, Xuanwu Hospital, Capital Medical University, Chang Chun Road 45, Xicheng, Beijing 100053, China. E-mail: victor65@126.com.
- Supplemental Digital Content is available for this article. Direct URL citations appear in the printed text and are provided in the HTML and PDF versions of this article on the journal's website, www.theneurologist.org.
- Copyright © 2022 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-No Derivatives License 4.0 (CCBY-NC-ND), where it is permissible to download and share the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be changed in any way or used commercially without permission from the journal.

ISSN: 2331-2637/23/2802-0057

DOI: 10.1097/NRL.000000000000443

from headaches and severe papilledema. Higher levels of NLR, RDW, and CRP were also observed in the CVSS group. Multivariate analysis indicated that NLR, PLR, and IL-6 were the independent prognostic factors for poor CCSVI outcomes.

Conclusions: The clinical presentations and increases in NLR, PLR, IL-6, and CRP levels could be distinctly marked in patients with CVSS-related CCSVI than that in internal jugular vein stenosis–related CCSVI, indicating poor prognostic outcomes in these patients. A proinflammatory state might be associated with CCSVI pathology.

Key Words: chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency, cerebral venous sinus stenosis, internal jugular vein stenosis, inflammatory biomarkers, clinical outcome

(The Neurologist 2023;28:57-68)

C hronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency (CCSVI) was first defined by Zamboni et al¹ as a chronic state of impaired cerebral or cervical venous drainage. The close relationship between CCSVI and multiple sclerosis (MS), leukoaraiosis, and vascular dementia has been discussed over the past decade.² Although there is still a controversy over the relationship between CCSVI and neurological disorders, CCSVI has been found in apparently "healthy people," and caused nonspecific symptoms, including headache, tinnitus, and head noises.^{3–5} CCSVI may induce venous refluxes and cerebral venous hypertension, resulting in brain-blood barrier integrity disruption and perivenous iron accumulation,^{6,7} and decreased cerebral brain flow (CBF),^{8,9} which leads to chronic cerebral hypoxia, inflammatory cells infiltration into the brain parenchyma and even local inflammatory processes.^{10,11}

Our previous work demonstrated that the neutrophilto-lymphocyte ratio (NLR)12 and red blood cell distribution width (RDW)¹³ were negative diagnostic and prognostic markers for acute ischemic stroke. Furthermore, inflammatory biomarkers, such as NLR, hypersensitive C-reactive protein (CRP), and interleukin-6 (IL-6), were correlated with the severity and clinical outcomes of cerebral venous thrombosis.14 We also discovered the coexistence of arterial stenosis and venous stenosis for the first time.¹⁵ Based on these findings,¹⁶⁻¹⁹ we were interested in determining if CCSVI would be related to elevations in peripheral inflammatory biomarkers [eg, NLR, RDW, IL-6, CRP, and neuron-specific enolase (NSE)], and whether there would be differences in inflammatory responses between the extracranial (internal jugular vein stenosis, IJVS) and intracranial (cerebral venous sinus stenosis, CVSS) forms of CCSVI. Furthermore, we were interested in investigating if there were any correlations between inflammatory cells (eg, neutrophils and lymphocytes) and inflammatory cytokines (eg, IL-6, CRP, and NSE). Besides, to establish the relationship between the hyperactivated inflammatory signaling and CCSVI prognosis, a prognostic model was established.

Thus, here, we specifically enrolled patients with CCSVI caused by the obstruction of internal jugular veins (IJVs) and/or cerebral venous sinuses (CVSs). We present this article in accordance with the STROBE reporting checklist (Supplementary Table 3, Supplemental Digital Content 1, http://links.lww.com/NRL/A87).

METHODS

Population

CCSVI is a hemodynamic condition in which cerebrospinal venous drainage is altered and inhibited. Outflow obstructions of the IJVs, vertebral veins (VVs), azygos vein, and/or CVS and their tributaries result in stasis or reflux of these outflow veins and redirection of flow through various circuits. Here, we specifically enrolled patients with CCSVI caused by the obstruction of IJVs and/or CVSs who were treated at the Department of Neurology, Xuanwu Hospital, at Capital Medical University, between 2017 and 2021. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Xuanwu Hospital at Capital Medical University. All procedures were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations. All participants signed consent forms before the beginning of the study.

For enrollment in the study, patients were noninvasively screened using transcranial and extracranial echo-color Doppler ultrasounds based on venous hemodynamic criteria.¹ The 5 characteristic criteria of venous hemodynamic include: (1) reflux in the IJVs and/or VVs in sitting and supine postures; (2) reflux in the deep cerebral veins; (3) high-resolution B-mode evidence of IJVS; (4) non–Doppler-detectable flow in the IJVs and/or VVs; and (5) reverted postural control of the main cerebral venous outflow pathways. A subject was considered CCSVI-positive if > 2 of these 5 characteristics were fulfilled.^{20,21} Then, a confirmed CCSVI diagnosis was made using contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance venography or digital subtraction angiography.^{22,23} There were no age and sex limitations. Patients had no previous or current evidence of MS, no remarkable parenchymal CCSVI-induced brain lesions, or a disease course at a subacute or chronic stage [defined as an interval (from symptoms and signs onset to enrollment) of > 1 mo].

We excluded patients (1) with definite acute or chronic inflammatory diseases that could affect the levels of inflammatory biomarkers (eg, acute upper respiratory infection or gastrointestinal infection, asthma, chronic peptic ulcer, tuberculosis, rheumatoid arthritis, ulcerative colitis, and Crohn disease); (2) receiving antiinflammatory medications within 4 weeks before blood collection; (3) who were on their menstrual periods; and (4) having intracranial hypertension (IH) induced by other reasons: (a) druginduced IH; (b) cerebrospinal fluid shunt history; (c) intracranial mass occupation; (d) arteriovenous malformations; (f) traumatic brain injury, and (g) acute arterial stroke.

Clinical and Demographic Data

We recorded each patient's age, sex, course of CCSVI (from symptoms onset to admission), treatments, presumable risk factors known before hospitalization, and presumable risk factors discovered during hospitalization. The risk factors included hypertension (use of antihypertensive medications or systolic blood pressure > 140 mm Hg or diastolic blood pressure > 90 mm Hg before hospitalization), diabetes mellitus (use of antidiabetic therapies or fasting blood glucose > 7 mmol/L on 2 occasions during hospitalization), hypercholesterolemia (hypolipidemic agents usage or low-density lipoprotein cholesterol > 1 g/L), a history of myocardial infarction or angina, overweight (body mass index > 25 kg/m²), anemia (hemoglobin court

> 12.5 g/dL), hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection (ie, use of anti-HBV agents or positive for hepatitis B core antibody/antigen or hepatitis B e antibody/antigen), hyperhomocysteinemia (serum homocysteine > 15 mmol/L), hyperuricemia (serum uric acid >416 µmol/L), chronic rhinosinusitis, history of otitis media/mastoiditis, suspected thyroid disorders (including either abnormal thyroid ultrasound results or abnormal thyroid function results), autoimmune disease, thrombophilia (including protein S deficiency, protein C deficiency, antithrombin III deficiency, hyperfibrinogenemia, primary thrombocythemia, or increased D-dimer level), and history of ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke. We also collected clinical symptoms and signs, including instances of headache, tinnitus, head noises, papilledema, and IH. The severity of papilledema was evaluated by Frisen papilledema grading.24 Intracranial pressure was detected with a lumbar puncture. IH was defined by the presentation of common IH symptoms (headache and blurry/double vision) and LP pressure $> 200 \text{ mm H}_2\text{O}^{25}$

Inflammatory Biomarkers Assay

The inflammatory biomarker assay included NLR, platelet-to-lymphocyte ratio (PLR), IL-6, CRP, and NSE measurement. Baseline values were measured on admission. NLR was calculated as the absolute neutrophil count divided by the absolute lymphocyte count. PLR was calculated as the absolute platelet count divided by the absolute lymphocyte count. Baseline inflammatory markers were considered both as continuous and categorical variables. We used receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves to assess the predictive value of inflammatory markers and define cutoff values. We then used optimal cutoffs to find thresholds and change inflammatory markers into categorical variables.

Clinical Outcome Evaluation

The modified Rankin Scale (mRS) score was used to evaluate the functional outcomes of the patients at discharge, and the Patient Global Impression of Change (PGIC) score was used to predict outcomes during outpatient telephone follow-up. PGIC is a semiquantitated 7-point self-evaluation scale of the patients that reflects overall changes in symptoms (1 = very much improved, 2 = much improved, 3 = minimally improved, 4 = no change, 5 = minimally worse, 6 = much worse, 7 = very much worse). Based on PGIC scores, we divided the patients into 2 groups: those that had good outcomes (PGIC \leq 3) and those that had poor outcomes (PGIC > 3).

Statistical Analysis

The Bartlett test for equal variances and the Shapiro-Wilk test for normal distribution were conducted for each continuous variable. We then used either Kruskal-Wallis tests or Fisher exact tests to compare continuous and/or categorical variables between patients with IJVS, CVSS, and CVSS combined with IJVS. Finally, differences between baseline inflammatory marker values (NLR, PLR, and RDW) and values at discharge were tested using Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Correlation coefficients were calculated between inflammatory biomarkers using the Spearman tests. The Kaplan-Meier score was used to plot the distribution of time and poor outcomes among CCSVI subtypes (IJVS, CVSS, and CVSS combined with IJVS) and inflammatory biomarkers. The log-rank test was also used to compare the curves. We performed univariate and multivariate Cox proportional hazards models to examine the relationship between inflammatory markers and clinical outcomes. Groups with lower levels of inflammatory biomarkers were used as references. We included the most common symptoms (headache, sleep disturbances, head noise, tinnitus), risk factors

TABLE 1. Demographic and Basic Clinical Features					
Variables	All (N = 248)	IJVS (n = 171)	CVSS (n = 43)	CVSS Combined With LJVS $(n = 34)$	Р
Personal data					
Age (mean \pm SD) (y)	53.44 ± 14.94	57.85 ± 12.28	43.02±16.20†	44.44±15.30†	< 0.001
Sex (male:female)	102:146	75:96	11:32	16:18	0.067
Course of disease					0.005
Subacute (within 1 mo)	11 (4.4)	3 (2.1)	4 (9.3)	4 (8.8)	
Chronic (>1 mo)	237 (95.6)	168 (98.2)	39 (90.6)	30 (88.2)	
Follow-up time (mean \pm SD) (mo)‡	18.00 ± 5.57	18.79 ± 5.30	17.47 ± 6.36	17.00 ± 5.60	0.082
Symptoms and signs					
Sleep disturbances	152 (61.5)	125 (73.0)	11 (26.1)	16/34 (47.1)	< 0.001
Eye discomfort	146 (58.9)	97 (56.7)	29 (67.4)	20 (58.8)	0.441
Papilledema	46 (18.6)	15 (8.8)	17 (39.5)	14 (41.1)	< 0.001
Frisen scale (mean \pm SD)	1.08 ± 1.31	0.50 ± 0.83	1.96±1.49†	$1.63 \pm 1.30^{+}$	< 0.001
Head noises	136 (54.8)	112 (65.4)	11 (25.6)	13 (38.2)	0.001
Tinnitus	129 (52.0)	102 (60.0)	15 (34.9)	12(35.2)	0.002
Headache	114 (46.0)	65 (38.0) 50 (24.5)	28 (65.1)†	21 (61.8)†	0.001
Neck discomfort	/6 (30.7)	59 (34.5)	9 (20.9)	8 (23.5)	0.146
Hearing loss	82 (33.1)	67 (39.1)	9 (20.9)	6/34 (17.6)	0.009
Anxiety	44 (17.7)	35(20.5)	/ (10.3)	2 (5.9)	0.114
Nausea/vomiting	47 (19.0)	28 (10.3)	10(23.3)	9 (20.7)	0.200
Memory loss	21 (8.5)	17 (9.9)	2(4.7)	2 (5.9)	0.566
Iff Decourse while with the states	42/84 (50.0)	25/49 (40.9)	15/15 (80.7)	6/20 (30.0)	0.003
The second sectors					
	(51007 (09 ()	12/1(2 (25 0)	11/22 (24.2)	12/22 (27.5)	0 100
PS deficiency	65/227 (28.6) 25/227 (11.0)	42/163 (25.9)	11/32 (34.3)	12/32 (37.5)	0.109
AT III deficiency	25/227 (11.0) 26/227 (11.5)	11/105(0.7) 21/158(12.2)	7/32 (21.9) 5/20 (12.8)	0 (0)	0.002
A I-III deliciency	20/227 (11.3) 22/206 (10.7)	21/136(15.5) 10/126(7.4)	3/39(12.6)	0(0)	0.000
Increased D-dimer level	22/200(10.7)	10/130 (7.4)	//38 (18.4)	5/32 (15.6)	0.075
Brimory, thromboouthamia	20/247 (10.5) 0/246 (2.7)	10/1/0 (9.4)	0(14.0)	4(11.8)	0.592
Overweight (DML > 25)	9/240 (3.7)	2/1/0(1.2) 52/165(21.5)	3/42 (11.9) 34/41 (58.2)	2(5.9)	0.021
Uverweight (BMI > 25)	89/240 (37.1)	52/105(31.5)	24/41 (58.3)	13/34 (38.2)	0.006
	80 (34.7) 70 (21.0)	64(57.4)	10(23.2) 10(22.2)	12 (55.5)	0.219
	79 (31.9) 56/046 (00.8)	01(33.7) 27/170(21.8)	10(25.2) 12/42(28.6)	8 (23.3) 7 (20.6)	0.181
Allellia UDV infection	30/240 (22.8)	3//1/0 (21.8) 24/170 (20.0)	12/42 (20.0)	(20.0)	0.017
FID V IIIIection Suspected thyroid disorders	40 (18.0)	54/170 (20.0)	0 (14.0)	0 (17.0)	0.743
Abnormal thursid ultrasound	21 (12.5)	25(116)	2(47)	4 (11.8)	0.220
Abnormal thyroid function test	51(12.3) 64(25.0)	23(14.0)	2(4.7) 0(200)	4(11.6) 13(382)	0.230
	04(23.9) 25 (10.1)	42(24.0)	$\frac{9}{20.9}$	3(88)	0.100
Type 2 DM	20 (8 1)	17(12.2)	1(2.3) 1(2.3)	2(5.9)	0.150
IS history	20(0.1) 20(8.1)	17(0.0) 16(0.4)	2(47)	2(5.9)	0.201
Hyperhomocysteinemia	10(77)	9(53)	$\frac{2}{7}(163)$	$\frac{2}{3}(8.8)$	0.046
Hyperuricemia	19(7.7) 18(7.3)	12/170(7.1)	3/42(71)	3 (8 8)	0.040
Chronic rhinosinusitis	13(52)	12,170(7.1) 12(7.0)	1(23)	0 (0)	0.266
Previous otitis media/mastoiditis	6(24)	5(2.9)	0(0)	1(29)	0.200
ICH history	6(2.4)	3(1.8)	3(70)	0(0)	0.072
Pregnancy/postpartum	1(0.4)	0(0)	1(23)	0 (0)	0.120
Autoimmune disease	1 (0.1)	0 (0)	1 (2.5)	0 (0)	0.510
SS	6 (2 4)	4(23)	0 (0)	2(59)	0 189
APS	3(1.2)	3(1.8)	0(0)	0(0)	1.000
Behcet disease	2(0.8)	1 (0.6)	1(2,3)	0(0)	0.525
IgG4-related disease	4 (1.6)	2(1.2)	1 (2.3)	1 (2.9)	0.367
Increased IgE	2(0.8)	1 (0.6)	0 (0)	1 (2.9)	0.285
Others	4 (1.6)	3(1.8)	1 (2.3)	0 (0)	1.000
Inflammatory markers (mean + SD)	. (210)	- ()	- ()		
NLR on admission§	1.81 ± 0.77	1.71 ± 0.67	$1.97 \pm 0.76 \pm$	$2.10 \pm 1.09 \pm$	0.026
NLR at discharge*	$2.91 \pm 2.56*$	$2.71 \pm 1.60*$	3.55 ± 4.48	2.49 ± 1.63	0.183
Delta-NLR	1.12 ± 2.15	1.07 ± 1.66	1.29 ± 3.41	0.98 ± 1.39	0.641
PLR on admission	124.13 ± 46.93	118.69 ± 36.70	133.82 ± 49.19	139.78 ± 76.95	0.183
PLR at discharge	151.32 ± 100.88	147.72 ± 112.74	158.15 ± 69.93	165.46 ± 104.12	0.779
Delta-PLR	26.75 ± 103.07	31.58 ± 113.15	6.66 ± 81.94	56.83 ± 69.44	0.746
RDW on admission (%)	13.14 ± 1.43	12.97 ± 1.15	$13.72 \pm 1.96 \ddagger$	13.29 ± 1.78	0.013
RDW at discharge (%)§	13.49 ± 2.28	13.43 ± 2.23	13.76 ± 2.77	13.05 ± 0.49	0.837
Delta-RDW (%)	0.44 ± 2.37	0.57 ± 2.27	0.06 + 2.95	0.70 ± 1.26	0.315
IL-6 (pg/mL)	4.70 ± 5.71	4.60 ± 5.65	4.97 ± 6.97	5.05 ± 4.68	0.621
CRP (mg/L)	2.80 ± 3.69	2.42 ± 1.70	4.78 ± 8.68 †	2.69 ± 1.53	0.017
NSE (ng/mL)	12.93 ± 2.71	12.80 ± 2.48	12.99 ± 3.08	13.55 ± 3.33	0.861

Copyright © 2022 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.

TABLE 1.	(continued)
----------	-------------

TABLE 1. (continued)					
Variables	All (N = 248)	IJVS (n = 171)	CVSS (n = 43)	CVSS Combined With IJVS $(n = 34)$	Р
Treatment					
Antiplatelet drugs	148 (59.9)	118/170 (69.4)	18 (41.9)	12 (5.9)	< 0.001
Anticoagulants	80 (32.4)	26/170 (15.3)	30 (69.7)	24 (70.6)	< 0.001
Endovascular therapies	30 (12.1)	10 (5.8)	14 (32.6)	6 (17.6)	< 0.001
Stenting	23 (9.3)	9 (5.3)	9 (20.3)	5 (14.7)	0.003
Balloon dilation	5 (2.0)	1 (0.6)	3 (7.0)	1 (2.9)	0.022
Intrasinus thrombolysis	4 (1.6)	0 (0)	2 (4.7)	1 (2.9)	0.090
ONSD	7 (2.8)	1 (0.6)	2 (4.7)	4 (11.8)	0.002
Outcomes at discharge					0.062
mRS <3	246 (99.1)	171 (100)	41 (95.3)	34 (100)	
mRS ≥ 3	2 (0.9)	0 (0)	2 (4.7)	0 (0)	

*Compared with group of NLR tested on admission, statistically significant at P < 0.05.

†Compared with group of IJVS, statistically significant at P < 0.05.

‡Time from discharge to follow-up (mo).

§The number of patients who had complete blood count test at discharge (n = 36).

APS indicates antiphospholipid syndrome; AT-III, antithrombin III; BMI, body mass index; CAD, coronary artery disease; CRP, C-reactive protein; CVSS, cerebral venous sinus stenosis; DM, diabetes mellitus; HBP, high blood pressure; HBV, hepatic type B virus; ICH, intracranial hemorrhage; Ig, immunoglobulin; IH, intracranial hypertension; IJVS, internal jugular vein stenosis; IL-6, interleukin-6; IS, ischemic stroke; mRS, modified Rankin Scale; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; ONSD, optic nerve sheath decompression; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; PC, protein C; PS, protein S; RDW, red blood cell distribution width; SS, Sjögren syndrome.

(thrombophilia and overweight), and inflammatory markers in the univariate model. For the multivariate analysis, we used the following 3 models based on the results from the univariate model and our previous studies^{26,27} as well as clinical

experiences: model 1 estimated the crude association with inflammatory markers; model 2 also adjusted for age and sex; and model 3 added several other potential confounders, including thrombophilia and anticoagulation. We also generated a scoring



factor(Variables)

FIGURE 1. Significant differences in symptoms and risk factors among subgroups of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency. AT-II indicates antithrombin III; CVSS, cerebral venous sinus stenosis; IH, intracranial hypertension; IJVS, internal jugular vein stenosis; PC, protein C.



FIGURE 2. Heatmap analysis of age, inflammatory biomarkers, and subgroups of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency. CRP indicates C-reactive protein; CVSS, cerebral venous sinus stenosis; IJVS, internal jugular vein stenosis; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophilto-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

system reflecting individual prognoses according to model 3. Model performance was assessed using discrimination (the *C*-index) and calibration (internal validation by bootstrap resampling and calibration plots).^{28,29}

Values were presented as mean \pm SD or percentages. Hazard ratios (HRs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were provided where appropriate. Differences were considered significant at a 2-sided *P*-value <0.05 level. Analyses were



FIGURE 3. Spearman correlations between age and inflammatory biomarkers. *P < 0.05. CRP indicates C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

Copyright © 2022 The Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.



FIGURE 4. Receiver operating characteristic curves for inflammatory biomarkers. CRP indicates C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

performed using Stata software (version 15.0 SE; Stata Corp, LP, TX) and R software [version 3.6.2 (2019-12-12)].

RESULTS

Baseline Clinical Features

A total of 248 patients (102 males and 146 females) with CCSVI were enrolled in this study. The majority of patients (95.6%) were at a chronic stage of disease and were followed for an average of 18.00±5.57 months. The top 5 CCSVI symptoms were sleep disturbances (61.5%), eye discomfort (including dry or itchy feeling, eye pain, or irritation) (58.9%), head noise (54.8%), tinnitus (52.0%), and headache (46.0%). Common presumable risk factors identified in > 80% of patients were: comorbid thrombophilia (69.8%), overweight (body mass index > 25) (37.1%), hyperlipidemia (34.7%), hypertension (31.9%), and anemia (22.8%), followed by suspected thyroid disorders (38.4%). Protein S deficiency was the most common prothrombotic abnormality (28.6%). Common treatments for patients with CCSVI included antiplatelet drugs (59.9%), anticoagulants (32.4%), and endovascular therapy (12.1%). Most patients had good outcomes at the time of discharge (mRS ≤ 2). Table 1 summarizes baseline clinical data.

We next divided patients with CCSVI into 3 subgroups based on imaging findings: those with IJVS (n = 171), those with CVSS (n = 43), and those with CVSS combined with IJVS (n = 34). Patients in the IJVS group were slightly older (mean age: 57.85±12.28 y, P < 0.001) and complained more frequently of tinnitus (60.0%, P = 0.002), head noises (64.5%, P = 0.001), and/or sleep disturbances (73.0%, P < 0.001) than those in the other 2 groups. Headache (P = 0.001) and severe papilledema (P < 0.001) were more common in CVSS (either isolated CVSS or CVSS combined

with IJVS) than in isolated IJVS patients, which might have resulted from the higher intracranial pressure levels in these 2 groups. Optic nerve sheath decompression surgery was more likely to be performed in patients with CVSS-related severe papilledema (P = 0.002). CVSS was more commonly related to protein C deficiencies (21.9%, P = 0.002), primary thrombocythemia (11.9%, P = 0.021), being overweight (58.3%, P = 0.006), and hyperhomocysteinemia (16.3%, P = 0.046). Figure 1 demonstrates the differences in symptoms and risk factors between the subgroups. Stenoses mainly involved transverse sinus and sigmoid sinus as well as transverse sinus-sigmoid sinus junctions in almost all CVSS cases, and the common localization of IJVS was typically the J3 segment (Supplementary Table 1, Supplemental Digital Content 2, http://links.lww.com/NRL/A88). Anticoagulants (69.7%, P < 0.001) and endovascular therapies (32.6%, P < 0.001) were more common in patients with CVS involvement.

TABLE 2. Receiver Operating Characteristic Analysis of	of
Inflammatory Markers for Predicting Poor Outcomes	

AUC	Р	Cutoff Value
0.830 (0.770, 0.890)	< 0.001	1.7
0.809 (0.735, 0.883)	< 0.001	127.0
0.451 (0.356, 0.547)	0.310	14.2
0.676 (0.587, 0.765)	0.013	3.2
0.619 (0.524, 0.715)	< 0.001	2.9
0.413 (0.321, 0.504)	0.068	17.5
	AUC 0.830 (0.770, 0.890) 0.809 (0.735, 0.883) 0.451 (0.356, 0.547) 0.676 (0.587, 0.765) 0.619 (0.524, 0.715) 0.413 (0.321, 0.504)	AUC P 0.830 (0.770, 0.890) <0.001

AUC indicates area under the curve; CRP, C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.



FIGURE 5. Kaplan-Meier estimation for the clinical outcomes in subgroups of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency. CVSS indicates cerebral venous sinus stenosis; IJVS, internal jugular vein stenosis; PGIC, Patient Global Impression of Change.

Inflammatory Biomarkers in CCSVI

Subgroups Analysis of Inflammatory Biomarkers in CCSVI

Baseline NLR was significantly higher in groups with CVSS than in those with IJVS only (P=0.026). The CVSS group also had increased baseline RDW (P=0.013) and CRP (P=0.017) levels. In addition, there were no other significant differences in other inflammatory markers between the CVSS and IJVS groups. To further evaluate the dynamic changes of NLR/PLR/RDW during the hospitalization, a few patients underwent a complete blood count test at discharge (n=36). The mean hospital stay was 12.38 ± 5.27 days. The level of NLR at discharge was slightly higher than the baseline (P=0.001), while levels of PLR and RDW at discharge did not show any significant differences compared with their baseline values.

Correlations Between Inflammatory Cells and Inflammatory Cytokines

A heat map was constructed containing variables of inflammatory markers, age, and CCSVI subgroups (Fig. 2). We assumed that patients with CVSS would more likely be younger and had relatively higher levels of inflammatory markers. Furthermore, we calculated correlation coefficients for NLR, PLR, RDW, IL-6, CRP, and NSE using Spearman tests (Fig. 3). As shown in Supplementary Table 2 (Supplemental Digital Content 3, http://links.lww.com/NRL/A89), the baseline NLR was moderately correlated with PLR (ρ =0.358) and IL-6 (ρ =0.297) levels. In addition, IL-6 had a positive association with CRP (ρ =0.340). However, inflammatory biomarkers did not show any correlation with age.

ROC Analysis of Inflammatory Biomarkers in CCSVI

We constructed ROC curves to evaluate the sensitivity and specificity of inflammatory biomarkers for predicting clinical outcomes of CCSVI (Fig. 4). Baseline NLR (P < 0.001), PLR (P < 0.001), IL-6 (P = 0.013), and CRP (P < 0.001) levels had higher prognostic values in CCSVI, while baseline RDW and NSE values proved to be non-significant for predicting CCSVI outcomes. The optimal cutoff value for each variable was then defined based on the respective ROC curve (Table 2).

Inflammatory Biomarkers and Clinical Outcomes in CCSVI

KM Analysis in CCSVI

There were no differences in clinical outcomes between CCSVI subgroups (P = 0.134) (Fig. 5). However, the chance of poor outcomes was significantly increased with higher baseline NLR, PLR, IL-6, and CRP values (P < 0.001), while higher RDW (P = 0.461) and NSE (P = 0.872) levels were not associated with poorer outcomes (Fig. 6).

Univariate and Multivariate Cox Regression Analysis

We included age, sex, common symptoms (sleep disturbances, eye discomfort, head noise, tinnitus, and headache), common risk factors (thrombophilia state, overweight, diabetes mellitus, high blood pressure, hyperlipidemia, HBV infection, and suspected thyroid disorders), and the results of the inflammatory biomarker assay in the primary univariate analysis. However, only NLR, PLR, RDW, IL-6, and CRP had significant negative prognostic values in CCSVI (Fig. 7). In addition, we performed the multivariate analysis in 3 models (Table 3). In model 1, we only included the inflammatory biomarkers, and NSE was not associated with poor prognosis (HR = 1.26, 95% CI = 0.49-3.26). In model 2, groups with elevated NLR, PLR, IL-6, and CRP levels had a greater risk of poorer outcomes after the exclusion of NSE variables and adjustments for sex and age (as a continuous variable). In model 3, we added thrombophilia and anticoagulation as covariates. NLR (HR = 4.14, 95%





FIGURE 6. Kaplan-Meier estimation for the clinical outcomes in subgroups of inflammatory biomarkers. NLR subgroup (A), PLR subgroup (B), RDW subgroup (C), IL-6 subgroup (D), CRP subgroup (E), NSE subgroup (F). CRP indicates C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PGIC, Patient Global Impression of Change; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

CI=1.91-9.00), PLR (HR=4.48, 95% CI=2.38-8.44), and IL-6 (HR=1.97, 95% CI=1.09-3.56) became the independent prognostic factors for negative outcomes.

Nomogram for Predicting CCVI Clinical Outcome Based on model 3 and clinical experiences, we constructed a nomogram with a weighted score for each variable

PLB on admission (High vs Low)	
RDW on admission (High vs Low)	↔→ 1.38 (0.56, 3.4
IL-6 (High vs Low)	←→ 2.35 (1.38, 3.9)
CRP (High vs Low)	2.86 (1.82, 4.4
NSE (High vs Low)	••• 0.94 (0.41, 2.1

FIGURE 7. Forest plot of univariate Cox proportional hazards model of inflammatory biomarkers associated with clinical outcome. Cl indicates confidence interval; CRP, C-reactive protein; HR, hazard ratio; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

(Fig. 8). One- and 2-year outcomes were the final output expressed in scores. A higher score on the nomogram, calculated using a sum of points from each variable, was associated with unfavorable outcomes. However, this nomogram was shown to have a high overall predictive value using *C*-index tests (*C*-index = 0.838). We also constructed calibration plots using the bootstrap resampling method, and these plots showed an adequate fit for predicting clinical outcomes at 1- and 2-year time points (Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplemental Digital Content 4, http://links.lww.com/NRL/A90).

DISCUSSION

Our study, performed in a well-defined CCSVI population, showed that there were significant differences in symptoms, risk factors, and inflammatory states between IJVS, CVSS, and CVSS combined with IJVS groups (Table 1). The CVSS group tended to have headaches and severe papilledema due to a higher prevalence of IH. They also had symptom onset at younger ages and were frequently affected by risk factors like PC deficiency, primary thrombocythemia, being overweight, and hyperhomocysteinemia. Higher NLR, RDW, and CRP levels were also observed in the CVSS group. In addition, most patients with CCVSI, either from intracranial or extracranial causes, had good clinical outcomes during the follow-up phase (Fig. 5). NLR, PLR, and IL-6 were the independent prognostic factors mostly tied to outcomes (Table 3). We then constructed a reliable nomogram model for patients with CCSVI that could predict long-term prognosis (Fig. 8).

Our study was the first to evaluate the possible association between inflammation and CCSVI pathology. In the last decade, a number of studies were conducted to reveal the underlying mechanism of CCSVI (Fig. 9),^{2,30,31} but the majority of them enrolled MS populations to explore the causative relationship between the CCSVI and MS, instead of considering CCSVI to be an independent disease entity. Moreover, few case-control studies observed that CCSVI was also highly prevalent in the non-MS population and was not unique to MS,^{3,4,32} which led to a lively discussion on whether CCSVI was an anatomic variant of a complex vascular system or a pathologic process.^{33–36}

Intriguingly, our enrolled patients, none of whom showed any previous or current MS symptoms, had elevated NLR, PLR, RDW, IL-6, and CRP levels, which may be attributed to the CCSVI itself rather than MS. Thus, we assumed CCSVI to be an independent disease entity that was also closely related to chronic inflammatory processes. CCSVI may first cause the mechanical effect of engorgement and reflux on the brain tissue,^{10,37} which would increase cerebral venous pressure, decrease transmural pressure, and then lead to perivenous edema and disruption of brain-blood barrier integrity.² Cerebral venous pressure could also cause reduced decreased CBF, cerebral blood volume, and elevated mean transit time.^{8,30,38,39} This suboptimal drainage could then result in iron deposition within the brain parenchyma with the potential of initiating local inflammatory responses.^{6,40,41} CCSVI was found to be associated with autonomic neurological system (ANS) dysfunction.^{31,42}

As reviewed by Sternberg, the sympathetic ANS has widespread α - and β -adrenergic receptors on endothelial cells and inflammatory cells. ANS dysfunction could not only weaken the modulation of the cardiovascular system to adapt to the demands of cerebral cortical activity, resulting in decreased CBF and chronic hypoxia, a trigger for venous remodeling,^{43–45} but also could regulate the immune system to activate cellular inflammation, adhesion, and migration.⁴² The role of the

 TABLE 3. Multivariate Cox Regression Analysis Between Inflammatory Biomarkers and Clinical Outcomes

		Ν	Multivariate [Hazard Ratio (95% CI)]		
Variables	Category		Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
NLR on admission	≤1.7	122	1.00	1.00	1.00
	> 1.7	121	3.83 (1.68-8.70)*	3.58 (1.59-8.09)*	4.14 (1.91-9.00)*
PLR on admission	≤127.0	148	1.00	1.00	1.00
	> 127.0	95	3.18 (1.70-5.94)*	3.42 (1.83-6.39)*	4.48 (2.38-8.44)*
RDW on admission	≤14.2%	228	1.00	NA	NA
	> 14.2%	14	2.09 (0.72-6.06)	NA	NA
IL-6 on admission	\leq 3.2 pg/mL	95	1.00	1.00	1.00
	> 3.2 pg/mL	89	1.90 (1.04-3.45)*	1.94 (1.08-3.48)*	1.97 (1.09-3.56)*
CRP on admission	$\leq 2.9 \text{ mg/L}$	169	1.00	1.00	NA
	> 2.9 mg/L	53	1.74 (1.00-3.04)*	1.61 (0.91-2.84)*	NA
NSE on admission	$\leq 17.5 \text{ ng/mL}$	221	1.00	NA	NA
	> 17.5 ng/mL	18	1.26 (0.49-3.26)	NA	NA

Model 1 factors: NLR, PLR, RDW, IL-6, CRP, and NSE.

Model 2 factors: NLR, PLR, IL-6, CRP, age, and sex

Model 3 factors: NLR, PLR, IL-6, age, sex, thrombophilia state, and anticoagulants use.

*Statistically significant at P < 0.05.

CRP indicates C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NA, not applicable; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.



FIGURE 8. Nomogram for predicting chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency clinical outcome. CRP indicates C-reactive protein; IL-6, interleukin-6; NLR, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; PLR, platelet to lymphocyte ratio; RDW, red blood cell distribution width.

hypercoagulation state in inflammatory processes should also not be overlooked.⁷ We found that a state of hypercoagulation (eg, PC deficiency, primary thrombocythemia, overweight) and increased inflammatory biomarkers (eg, NLR, PLR, CRP) were more likely in the CVSS group. Finally, we also assumed that



FIGURE 9. The mechanism of CCSVI-induced inflammation. ANS indicates autonomic neurological system; BBB, blood-brain barrier; CAR, cererbal autoregulation; CBF, cerebral blood flow; CCSVI, chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency; CPP, cerebral perfusion pressure; CrCP, critical closure pressure; CVP, cerebral venous pressure; MAP, mean arterial pressure; TP, transmural pressure.

CCSVI-induced inflammation was a well-balanced state of proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory factors. A correlation analysis between inflammatory cells and inflammatory cytokines indicated that NLR and PLR were positively associated with the IL-6 levels. Patients with higher NLR, PLR, IL-6, or CRP levels had poorer clinical outcomes. Thus, we postulate that patients would suffer from more severe symptoms and poorer prognoses when the CCSVI-induced inflammatory state tilted toward the proinflammatory side.

There were several limitations in our study. There were no established diagnostic criteria and imaging modalities, neither in the form of noninvasive nor invasive. The imaging examination is considered the "gold standard" for the detection of CCSVI.^{46,47} The "Zamboni criteria" only focuses on evaluating the major venous drainage pathway, including the IJV, VV, CVS, and deep cerebral veins,¹ while overlooking presumed risk factors,26 degrees of collateral circulation compensation and inflammatory biomarkers.7 We suggested that future studies should combine clinical and imaging features to define CCSVI. In addition, we established a nomogram prognostic scoring model with a high predictive value. A higher score on the nomogram, calculated from a sum of points from each variable, was associated with unfavorable outcomes. However, this nomogram was only tested with internal validation by bootstrap resampling and a calibration plot. Further external validation is needed in the future.

CONCLUSIONS

CCSVI may be an independent disease entity in the Chinese population despite its nonspecific symptoms. Patients

with CVSS-related CCSVI were mostly likely to be younger, had more severe clinical features (including papilledema and IH), and had higher NLR, PLR, and CRP levels, than those with IJVS-related CCSVI. NLR and PLR levels were positively associated with IL-6 levels, indicating that the proinflammatory state could be related to the development of CCSVI. Elevated NLR, PLR, and IL-6 levels in peripheral blood may be independent prognostic factors for unfavorable outcomes in CCSVI.

REFERENCES

- Zamboni P, Galeotti R, Menegatti E, et al. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency in patients with multiple sclerosis. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2009;80:392–399.
- Beggs CB. Venous hemodynamics in neurological disorders: an analytical review with hydrodynamic analysis. *BMC Med.* 2013; 11:142.
- Baracchini C, Perini P, Calabrese M, et al. No evidence of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency at multiple sclerosis onset. *Ann Neurol.* 2011;69:90–99.
- Baracchini C, Perini P, Causin F, et al. Progressive multiple sclerosis is not associated with chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency. *Neurology*. 2011;77:844–850.
- Centonze D, Floris R, Stefanini M, et al. Proposed chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency criteria do not predict multiple sclerosis risk or severity. *Ann Neurol.* 2011;70:51–58.
- Van den Berg PJ, Van den Berg GB, Westerhuis LW, et al. Occurrence of ccsvi in patients with ms and its relationship with iron metabolism and varicose veins. *Eur J Neurol.* 2013;20: 519–526.
- Zivadinov R. Is there a link between the extracranial venous system and central nervous system pathology? *BMC Med.* 2013;11:259.
- Zamboni P, Menegatti E, Weinstock-Guttman B, et al. Hypoperfusion of brain parenchyma is associated with the severity of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency in patients with multiple sclerosis: a cross-sectional preliminary report. *BMC Med.* 2011;9:22.
- Ding J, Guan J, Ji X, et al. Cerebral venous sinus stenosis may cause intracranial arterial hypoperfusion. *Clin Neuroradiol*. 2020; 30:409–411.
- Stolz E. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency: the end of "the big idea"? *Brain Behav.* 2015;5:1–2.
- Torres C, Hogan M, Patro S, et al. Extracranial venous abnormalities: a true pathological finding in patients with multiple sclerosis or an anatomical variant? *Eur Radiol.* 2017;27:239–246.
- Song SY, Zhao XX, Rajah G, et al. Clinical significance of baseline neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio in patients with ischemic stroke or hemorrhagic stroke: an updated meta-analysis. *Front Neurol.* 2019;10:1032.
- Song SY, Hua C, Dornbors D III, et al. Baseline red blood cell distribution width as a predictor of stroke occurrence and outcome: a comprehensive meta-analysis of 31 studies. *Front Neurol.* 2019; 10:1237.
- Wang L, Duan J, Bian T, et al. Inflammation is correlated with severity and outcome of cerebral venous thrombosis. J Neuroinflammation. 2018;15:329.
- Ding J, Guan J, Rajah G, et al. Clinical and neuroimaging correlates among cohorts of cerebral arteriostenosis, venostenosis and arterio-venous stenosis. *Aging*. 2019;11:11073–11083.
- Bai C, Xu Y, Zhou D, et al. The comparative analysis of nonthrombotic internal jugular vein stenosis and cerebral venous sinus stenosis. *J Thromb Thrombolysis*. 2019;48:61–67.
- Zhou D, Ding J, Asmaro K, et al. Clinical characteristics and neuroimaging findings in internal jugular venous outflow disturbance. *Thromb Haemost.* 2019;119:308–318.
- 18. Zhou D, Ding JY, Ya JY, et al. Understanding jugular venous outflow disturbance. *CNS Neurosci Ther.* 2018;24:473–482.
- Zhou D, Meng R, Li SJ, et al. Advances in chronic cerebral circulation insufficiency. CNS Neurosci Ther. 2018;24:5–17.
- Zivadinov R, Bastianello S, Dake MD, et al. Recommendations for multimodal noninvasive and invasive screening for detection of

extracranial venous abnormalities indicative of chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency: a position statement of the International Society for Neurovascular Disease. *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 2014;25: 1785.e17–1794.e17.

- Zamboni P, Morovic S, Menegatti E, et al. Screening for chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency (CCSVI) using ultrasound recommendations for a protocol. *Int Angiol.* 2011;30:571–597.
- Ferro JM, Bousser MG, Canhão P, et al. European stroke organization guideline for the diagnosis and treatment of cerebral venous thrombosis—endorsed by the european academy of neurology. *Eur J Neurol.* 2017;24:1203–1213.
- 23. Saposnik G, Barinagarrementeria F, Brown RD Jr, et al. Diagnosis and management of cerebral venous thrombosis: a statement for healthcare professionals from the american heart association/ american stroke association. *Stroke*. 2011;42:1158–1192.
- 24. Scott CJ, Kardon RH, Lee AG, et al. Diagnosis and grading of papilledema in patients with raised intracranial pressure using optical coherence tomography vs clinical expert assessment using a clinical staging scale. *Arch Ophthalmol.* 2010;128:705–711.
- Friedman DI, Jacobson DM. Diagnostic criteria for idiopathic intracranial hypertension. *Neurology*. 2002;59:1492–1495.
- Bai C, Ding J, Da Z, et al. Probable risk factors of internal jugular vein stenosis in chinese patients-a real-world cohort study. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg*. 2020;191:105678.
- Bai C, Wang Z, Guan J, et al. Probable factors affecting clinical outcomes of internal jugular vein stenosis. *Ann Transl Med.* 2019;7:621–621.
- Gönen M, Heller G. Concordance probability and discriminatory power in proportional hazards regression. *Biometrika*. 2005;92: 965–970.
- Saliba W, Barnett-Griness O, Elias M, et al. The association between red cell distribution width and stroke in patients with atrial fibrillation. *Am J Med.* 2015;128:192.e111–198.
- Beggs CB, Magnano C, Shepherd SJ, et al. Aqueductal cerebrospinal fluid pulsatility in healthy individuals is affected by impaired cerebral venous outflow. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2014;40: 1215–1222.
- Sternberg Z. Autonomic dysfunction: a unifying multiple sclerosis theory, linking chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency, vitamin D(3), and epstein-barr virus. *Autoimmun Rev.* 2012;12:250–259.
- 32. Traboulsee AL, Knox KB, Machan L, et al. Prevalence of extracranial venous narrowing on catheter venography in people with multiple sclerosis, their siblings, and unrelated healthy controls: a blinded, case-control study. *Lancet*. 2014;383: 138–145.
- Fox RJ, Rae-Grant A. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency: have we found the cause and cure of ms? *Neurology*. 2011;77: 98–100.
- Paul F, Wattjes MP. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency in multiple sclerosis: the final curtain. *Lancet.* 2014;383:106–108.
- Handel AE, Lincoln MR, Ramagopalan SV. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency and multiple sclerosis. *Ann Neurol.* 2010;68: 270.
- Simka M, Kazibudzki M. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency and multiple sclerosis: a commentary. *Ann Neurol.* 2010; 68:562–563; author reply 563–564.
- Schelling F. Damaging venous reflux into the skull or spine: relevance to multiple sclerosis. *Med Hypotheses*. 1986;21:141–148.
- Garaci FG, Marziali S, Meschini A, et al. Brain hemodynamic changes associated with chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency are not specific to multiple sclerosis and do not increase its severity. *Radiology*. 2012;265:233–239.
- Mancini M, Morra VB, Di Donato O, et al. Multiple sclerosis: cerebral circulation time. *Radiology*. 2012;262:947–955.
- Adams CW. Perivascular iron deposition and other vascular damage in multiple sclerosis. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 1988;51:260–265.
- Worthington V, Killestein J, Eikelenboom MJ, et al. Normal csf ferritin levels in ms suggest against etiologic role of chronic venous insufficiency. *Neurology*. 2010;75:1617–1622.
- 42. Sternberg Z. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency: is it venosclerosis? J Endovasc Ther. 2015;22:647–649.

- Pascolo L, Gianoncelli A, Rizzardi C, et al. Calcium microdepositions in jugular truncular venous malformations revealed by synchrotron-based xrf imaging. *Sci Rep.* 2014;4:6540.
- 44. Zamboni P, Tisato V, Menegatti E, et al. Ultrastructure of internal jugular vein defective valves. *Phlebology*. 2015;30:644–647.
- Coen M, Menegatti E, Salvi F, et al. Altered collagen expression in jugular veins in multiple sclerosis. *Cardiovasc Pathol.* 2013;22: 33–38.
- 46. Dolic K, Siddiqui AH, Karmon Y, et al. The role of noninvasive and invasive diagnostic imaging techniques for detection of extra-cranial venous system anomalies and developmental variants. *BMC Med.* 2013;11:155.
- Zivadinov R, Ramanathan M, Dolic K, et al. Chronic cerebrospinal venous insufficiency in multiple sclerosis: diagnostic, pathogenetic, clinical and treatment perspectives. *Expert Rev Neurother*. 2011;11: 1277–1294.