



RESEARCH ARTICLE

CLINICAL ANALYSIS AND ROLE OF ENDOSCOPIC THIRD VENTRICULOSTOMY FOR OBSTRUCTIVE HYDROCEPHALUS IN INFANTS - A PROSPECTIVE STUDY

\*Dr. Ankur Bhupendrakumar Pachani, Dr. Jaimin K. Shah, Dr. Milan K. Senjaliya, Dr. Sandip R. Solanki, Dr. Vikash J. Singh, Dr. Nikunj R. Godhani, Dr. Shailendra J. Solanki, Dr. Sachin V. Bhimani, Dr. Riteshkumar R. Parmar and Dr. Jigar M. Shah

Department of Neurosurgery, B. J. Medical College and Civil Hospital, Ahmedabad – 380016, Gujarat – India

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 17<sup>th</sup> June, 2016  
Received in revised form  
21<sup>st</sup> July, 2016  
Accepted 14<sup>th</sup> August, 2016  
Published online 30<sup>th</sup> September, 2016

Key words:

Endoscopic third ventriculostomy (ETV),  
Obstructive Hydrocephalus,  
Infants.

ABSTRACT

**Background:** Endoscopic third ventriculostomy is increasingly used in the treatment of hydrocephalus. It is considered treatment of choice in obstructive hydrocephalus. There are varying opinions about results of ETV in infants. We therefore prospectively studied the outcome of endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants with obstructive hydrocephalus.

**Aim:** To investigate the outcome of endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants with obstructive hydrocephalus.

**Methods & Materials:** A prospective study of 34 infants undergoing ETV in our institution from July 2013 to December 2015 was carried out. Obstruction was revealed by preoperative computed tomographic scan and magnetic resonance imaging. The etiology of obstructive hydrocephalus was congenital aqueductal stenosis in twenty five patients, posthemorrhagic obstruction in two patients and postinfection etiology in seven patients. The results of ETV were determined by assessing clinical signs of raised intracranial pressure, head circumference measurements and fontanelle tension, as well as by MRI / CT scans and post operative CSF flow studies. ETV was considered successful if a patient showed clinical evidence of normal intracranial pressure and structural evidence of stable or decreased ventricular size whereas was considered failure in cases in which a patient showed no change in clinical symptoms or requires placement of a shunt within days or months of the procedure.

**Results:** ETV was successful in 28 patients with a mean follow up period of 14.6 months. Successful procedure was noted in 88% patients with aqueductal stenosis, 50% with posthaemorrhagic and 71.4% with postinfective obstructive hydrocephalus. In 6 patients ETV was considered failure. These patients required a shunt. Out of 6 patients with failure, five of them were less than 6 months old when ETV was performed and four of them were low birth weight pre mature infants. Overall success rate was 82.3% in infants with obstructive hydrocephalus.

**Conclusion:** ETV is a better alternative surgical treatment to shunt surgery for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants. Its fairly safe and effective. Posthaemorrhagic and Postinfective obstructive hydrocephalus have more failure rate as compared to congenital obstructive hydrocephalus due to aqueductal stenosis. Efficacy of ETV was better in full term normal birth weight infant as compared to low birth weight pre mature infants.

Copyright©2016, Dr. Ankur Bhupendrakumar Pachani et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Citation: Dr. Ankur Bhupendrakumar Pachani, Dr. Jaimin K. Shah, Dr. Milan K. Senjaliya et al. 2016. "Clinical analysis and role of endoscopic third ventriculostomy for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants - A prospective study", *International Journal of Current Research*, 8, (09), 39071-39075.

INTRODUCTION

Endoscopic techniques are being increasingly used in the management of various neurosurgical pathologies in recent times. (Yadav et al., 2012; Yadav et al., 2011; Yadav et al., 2010; Yadav et al., 2008; Yadav et al., 2010) Deep seated pathology in the intracranial compartment can provide a

difficult challenge to the neurosurgeon. Advances in endoscopic technology and miniaturization of surgical instrumentations have expanded the application of neuroendoscopy. Justifiably, endoscopic third ventriculostomy (ETV) is considered the greatest breakthrough in the management of obstructive hydrocephalus. (Van Beijnum et al., 2008; Mohanty et al., 2011; Morgenstern et al., 2011) Currently ETV is the first choice for obstructive hydrocephalus because of the quality of endoscopic instruments and advances in imaging techniques, it has yielded excellent results and can

\*Corresponding author: Dr. Ankur Bhupendrakumar Pachani,  
Department of Neurosurgery, B. J. Medical College and Civil Hospital,  
Ahmedabad – 380016, Gujarat – India.

render a large number of patients shunt-independent. (Al-Tamimi *et al.*, 2008; Oppido *et al.*, 2011; Roopesh Kumar *et al.*, 2007) Few studies report poor success rate in infants as compared to older patients. (Buxton *et al.*, 1998; Goumnerova and Frim, 1997; Hopf *et al.*, 1999; Jones *et al.*, 1994) We therefore prospectively studied the outcome of endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants with obstructive hydrocephalus.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

A prospective study of 34 infants undergoing ETV in our institution from July 2013 to December 2015 was carried out.

### Inclusion criteria

- i. Infant
- ii. Obstructive Hydrocephalus
- iii. Normal or collapsed fourth ventricle

### Exclusion criteria

- i. History of previous CSF diversion procedure
- ii. Associated myelomeningocele (Arnold Chiari Malformation – Type II)
- iii. Patients who lost follow up

Obstruction was revealed by preoperative computed tomographic scan or magnetic resonance imaging. The etiology of obstructive hydrocephalus was congenital aqueductal stenosis in twenty five patients, posthemorrhagic obstruction in two patients and postinfection etiology in seven patients. The results of ETV were determined by assessing clinical signs of raised intracranial pressure, head circumference measurements and fontanelle tension, as well as by MRI / CT scans and post operative CSF flow studies. ETV was considered successful if a patient showed clinical evidence of normal intracranial pressure and structural evidence of stable or decreased ventricular size whereas was considered failure in cases in which a patient showed no change in clinical symptoms or requires placement of a shunt within days or months of the procedure.

### Statistical Analysis

Categorical data were expressed as rates, ratios and percentages and comparison was done using chi-square test. Continuous data was expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation.

## RESULTS

A total of 34 infants who underwent ETV in our institution from July 2013 to December 2015 were included in our prospective analysis. Age, gender, clinical features, aetiology, radiological features and surgical outcome were considered for analysis. The result of the study was analysed by appropriate statistical tool. The mean follow up period was 14.6 months. The results of the study are as follows. The age of the patient ranged from 18 days to 356 days. 65% of patients were below 6 months of age. The mean age was 146.6 days and median age was 131 days. 59% of patients were male and 41% were

females. There was no gender predilection but slight male preponderance.

**Table 1. Clinical Features**

Symptoms	Percentage	Signs	Percentage
Rapid increase in head size	88%	Increase in head circumference	94%
Downward deviation of eye	68%	Sunset sign	74%
Vomiting	38%	Cranial nerve deficit	68%
Excessive sleep	35%	Altered sensorium	41%
Poor feeding	21%	Papilloedema	59%
Seizure	09%	Bulging anterior fontanelle	71%

Obstruction was revealed by preoperative computed tomographic scan and magnetic resonance imaging. The etiology of obstructive hydrocephalus was congenital aqueductal stenosis in twenty five patients, posthemorrhagic obstruction in two patients and postinfection etiology in seven patients. The results of ETV were determined by assessing clinical signs of raised intracranial pressure, head circumference measurements and fontanelle tension, as well as by MRI / CT scans and post operative CSF flow studies. ETV was considered successful if a patient showed clinical evidence of normal intracranial pressure and structural evidence of stable or decreased ventricular size whereas was considered failure in cases in which a patient showed no change in clinical symptoms or requires placement of a shunt within days or months of the procedure. ETV was successful in 28 patients with a mean follow up period of 14.6 months. Successful procedure was noted in 88% patients with aqueductal stenosis, 50% with posthaemorrhagic and 71.4% with postinfective obstructive hydrocephalus. In 6 patients ETV was considered failure. These patients required a shunt. Out of 6 patients with failure, five of them were less than 6 months old when ETV was performed and four of them were low birth weight pre mature infants. Overall success rate was 82.3% in infants with obstructive hydrocephalus.

**Table 2. ETV outcome**

Aetiology	Successful ETV	Age (Days)	Successful ETV
Aqueductal Stenosis	88%	0 – 90	77%
Posthaemorrhagic	50%	91 – 180	78%
Postinfective	71.4%	181 and above	92%
P > 0.05		P > 0.05	
Gestational period and Birth weight	Successful ETV	Sex	Successful ETV
Full term normal birth weight	93%	Male	80%
Pre mature low birth weight	20%	Female	86%
P < 0.05 (Significant Statistically)			P > 0.05

Following ETV few complications were associated. 15% patients had infection, 30% had CSF leak, 3% had intraoperative haemorrhage and 18% had subdural fluid collection. 1 patient died following ETV due to pneumonia.

## DISCUSSION

Endoscopic Third Ventriculostomy (ETV) is considered as treatment of choice for obstructive hydrocephalus. (Zohdi

*et al.*, 2013) It is indicated in hydrocephalus secondary to congenital aqueductal stenosis, posterior third ventricle tumor, cerebellar infarct, Dandy-Walker malformation, vein of Galen aneurism, syringomyelia with or without Chiari malformation type I, intraventricular hematoma, post infective, normal pressure hydrocephalus, myelomeningocele, multiloculated hydrocephalus, encephalocele, posterior fossa tumor and craniosynostosis. It is also indicated in block shunt or slit ventricle syndrome. (Yadav *et al.*, 2012) Ventriculoscopy was introduced in early 1900s. Walter E. Dandy performed choroid plexectomy using a primitive endoscope for communicating hydrocephalus. He later modified and introduced the sub-frontal approach for an open third ventriculostomy but was associated with high morbidity and mortality. Later in 1910, V. L. L'Espinasse, an urologist, attempted endoscopic management for hydrocephalus using cystoscope to cauterize choroid plexus. Further in 1923, William Mixter was the first one to perform ETV in a child with obstructive hydrocephalus using an urethroscope. Further necessary modification in this urethroscope was done by Tracy J. Putnam for cauterization of the choroid plexus. In 1947, H. F. McNickle introduced a percutaneous method of performing third ventriculostomy that decreased the complication rate and improved the success rate. In the early 1970s, the leukotome was introduced to enlarge the perforation in third ventricle floor without an injury to the surrounding vascular structures. This was further supported by an advent of advanced fiber optic and lens technology. We now have small neuroendoscopes with deflectable tips, working ports, and good optic resolution, in addition to the rigid endoscopes with their excellent optic resolution. High definition camera has further improved visualizing and recording. An improvement in the success of third ventriculostomy in recent time could be due to better patient selection; improvements in endoscope, better imaging, advanced surgical technique and instruments. (Yadav *et al.*, 2012) In endoscopic third ventriculostomy, a small perforation is made in the thinned floor of the third ventricle, allowing movement of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) out of the blocked ventricular system and into the interpenducular cistern. Cerebrospinal fluid within the ventricle is thus diverted elsewhere in an attempt to bypass an obstruction in the aqueduct of Sylvius and thereby relieve pressure. The objective of this procedure, called an "intracranial CSF diversion," is to normalize pressure on the brain without using a shunt. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy is not a cure for hydrocephalus, but rather an alternate treatment. Although open ventriculostomies were performed as early as 1922, they became a less common method of treating hydrocephalus in the 1960s, with the advent of shunt systems. Shunt placement, due to its effectiveness in early post operative period, has become widespread method of treating both obstructive and non obstructive hydrocephalus. However, the high frequency and seriousness of post operative complications lead to a significant decrease in quality of patients life. The ultimate goal of endoscopic third ventriculostomy is to render a shunt unnecessary. Although endoscopic third ventriculostomy is ideally a one-time procedure, evidence suggests that some patients will require more than one surgery to maintain adequate opening and drainage. (Mohanty *et al.*, 2002) The clinical success rate of ETV in our study was 82.3%. These results are comparable to other studies. Success rate of 83.7%

(Yadav YR *et al.*), 71% (Javadpour M *et al.*), 64% (Gorayeb RB *et al.*) and 85% (Buxton N *et al.*) was observed in other studies done in infants.(12,18-20) In our study, about 77% patients below 6 months had successful ETV whereas success rate was about 92% in patients above 6 months old.

Kadrian *et al.* reported a strong effect of patient age on outcome. They reported that the success rate of ETV in infants younger than one month was extremely low. The maximum observed reliability of ETV in his study was 3.5 years. (Kadrian *et al.*, 2008) Javadpour *et al.* reported success rate of 33% and found that success depend on aetiology rather than on patients age. (Javadpour *et al.*, 2001) The largest study of ETV success involving 153 infants was conducted in Uganda. (Warf, 2005) The success rate was 53%. The surgery success rate for patients with aqueductal stenosis was 70% which in our case was 88%. This difference may be due to small sample size in our case. Y R Yadav *et al.* and Baldauf *et al.* are the most similar studies to ours. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Baldauf *et al.*, 2007) The mean age in our study was 146.6 days whereas it was 6.7 months in Baldauf *et al.* series. Y R Yadav *et al.* reported overall success rate of 83.3% with a mean follow-up period of 18 months. Baldauf *et al.* reported overall success rate of 43% with a mean follow-up period of 26.2 months. In our study overall ETV success rate was 82.3% with a mean follow-up period of 14.6 months. Clinical success rate of ETV in congenital aqueductal stenosis in Y R Yadav *et al.*, Baldauf *et al.* and our study was reported as 84.5%, 50% and 88% respectively. Whereas in postinfective aetiology success rate reported by Y R Yadav *et al.*, Singh *et al.* and our study was 66.6%, 77% and 71.4% respectively. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Singh *et al.*, 2005) Jonathan *et al.* reported long term successful results with ETV in both their cases with hydrocephalus secondary to TB meningitis. (Jonathan and Rajshekhar, 2005) These results are almost comparable to our study. Fritsch *et al.* reported clinical ETV success rate of 37%. (Fritsch *et al.*, 2005) He concluded that ETV is an alternative surgical method for treatment of obstructive hydrocephalus in infants. They also concluded that success of ETV was determined by the aetiology of hydrocephalus and age does not present a contraindication or increase the perioperative risk. There are great debates regarding the success of ETV in infants. Some authors found that ETV success do not depend on age of the patient whereas aetiology, gestational age and birth weight have variable impact on the results. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Lipina *et al.*, 2008) Others reported poor results, especially in neonates and infants younger than 2 months. (Gallo *et al.*, 2010; Drake, 2007) Shim *et al.* suggested that simultaneous ETV and ventriculo peritoneal shunt should be performed in infantile hydrocephalus due to poor results of ETV alone. (Shim *et al.*, 2008) Kulkarni AV *et al.* reported the relative higher risk of initial failure in ETV, than shunt in children. (Kulkarni *et al.*, 2010) The relative risk becomes progressively lower for ETV after about 3 months of age. Patient could experience a long term treatment survival advantage after an early high risk period of ETV failure as compared to shunt. To realize this benefit, it might take several years was concluded by them. Failure rate of ETV done in premature low birth weight infants as compared to full term normal birth weight infants was statistically significant. Failure rate of ETV in low birth weight pre mature infants was higher (80%) as compared to full term

normal birth weight infants (7%) in our series which reported by Yadav YR *et al.* was 60% cases in low birth weight pre term infants and 12.3% cases in full term normal birth weight infants which are comparable. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006) In our series, failure rate of ETV is 17.7% which reported by Yadav YR *et al.* was 16.7%. Overall complication rate after ETV is about 2% to 15%, but the permanent complications are few. (Yadav *et al.*, 2012) However, complications such as fever, bleeding, hemiparesis, cranial nerve deficit, memory disorders, altered consciousness, chronic subdural haematoma, diabetes insipidus, weight gain and precocious puberty are reported. Intra operative neural injury such as thalamic, forniceal, hypothalamic and midbrain injuries are also reported. (Ersahin and Arslan, 2008; Bouras and Sgouros, 2011; Fritsch *et al.*, 2007; Wiewrodt *et al.*, 2008; Civelek *et al.*, 2007) Intraoperative bradycardia and haemorrhages including fatal haemorrhage due to basilar artery rupture are also reported. (El-Dawlatly *et al.*, 2002) Fatal haemorrhage due to basilar artery injury was noticed in one patient in our study. This patient died later due to ventilator associated pneumonia. Attempts to perforate ventricular floor can also lead to bleeding, especially in hydrocephalus following an infection and haemorrhage. Minor bleeding was noticed during the procedure in 6% patients which stopped with persistent irrigation which reported by Yadav *et al.*, Hopf *et al.* and Choi *et al.* was about 8%, 5% and 3% of cases respectively in their series. (Hopf *et al.*, 1999; Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Choi *et al.*, 1999) Infection was seen in 15% patients in our study. Other studies also reported infection as a common complication. Yadav *et al.*, Gorayeb *et al.*, Javadpour *et al.* and Buxton *et al.* reported 8%, 11%, 10% and 15% of patients developed infection respectively in their series. (Buxton *et al.*, 1998; Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Javadpour *et al.*, 2001; Gorayeb *et al.*, 2004) Stoma blockage resulting in ETV failure in our series was found in 17.7% patients who underwent ventriculoperitoneal shunt later. Intraoperative bleeding and infection following ETV was common cause for stoma blockage. Aspiration of clots and thorough irrigation of ventricular cavity should be done after bleeding is controlled which can reduce the possibility of stoma closure. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006) CSF leak was other common complication reported. In our series, CSF leak was present in about 30% cases where as reported by Yadav *et al.*, Schroeder HW *et al.* and Kwiek *et al.* was about 16%, 2% and 7% cases respectively. (Yadav *et al.*, 2006; Schroeder *et al.*, 2002; Kwiek *et al.*, 2003) Most common cause of persistent CSF leak was failed ETV mainly due to stoma closure while temporary CSF leak was attributable to common cause like failure of closure of dura, thinned out scalp and thin cortical mantle with gross obstructive hydrocephalus.

Though the present study does not show any distinct advantages statistically of type of surgical procedure for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants, in the light of above results, it can be concluded that ETV as an alternative surgical treatment to ventriculo peritoneal shunt as a primary choice. This alternative helps children to be shunt independent and low rate of complication of ETV as compared to shunt surgeries gives a better quality of life. The prospective analysis of the efficacy of ETV in infants was the strength of our study. However, the sample size and the follow up period in the current study being relatively short, a larger study sample and

a longer follow up study may be needed before any further conclusions can be made. To summarise, there is no universal treatment protocol for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants. Complications of ETV and shunt surgeries have frustrated surgeons since the inception of modern surgery. In the quest for a perfect technique, various techniques were introduced but none guaranteed zero failure. At last but not the least, we should try to outline a management for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants which will help us to achieve a goal that includes better quality of life and less morbidity and mortality. We recommend that families be given the opportunity to decide whether ETV should be attempted or a ventriculoperitoneal shunt is directly applied.

## Conclusion

ETV is a better alternative surgical treatment to shunt surgery for obstructive hydrocephalus in infants. Its fairly safe and effective. Posthaemorrhagic and Postinfective obstructive hydrocephalus have more failure rate as compared to congenital obstructive hydrocephalus due to aqueductal stenosis. Efficacy of ETV was better in full term normal birth weight infant as compared to low birth weight pre mature infants. As per literature, the fact that complication rates of ETV are lower as compared to ventriculo peritoneal shunt and has relatively better quality of life and less morbidity and mortality with ETV, we recommend parental counseling in guiding the families in decision making to perform ETV or shunt in the treatment of obstructive hydrocephalus in infants. A multicenter extended study with a higher number of cases and long follow up period and exchange of experience is suggested for better outcome.

## REFERENCES

- Al-Tamimi YZ, Bhargava D, Surash S, Ramirez RE, Novegno F, Crimmins DW, *et al.* 2008. Endoscopic biopsy during third ventriculostomy in paediatric pineal region tumours. *Childs Nerv Syst.*, 24:1323-6.
- Baldauf J, Oertel J, Gaab MR, Schroeder HW. 2007. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in children younger than 2 years of age. *Childs Nerv Syst.*, 23:623-626.
- Bouras T, Sgouros S. 2011. Complications of endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *J Neurosurg Pediatr.*, 7:643-649.
- Buxton N, Macarthur D, Mallucci C, Punt J, Vloeberghs M. 1998. Neuroendoscopic third ventriculostomy in patients less than 1 year old. *Pediatr Neurosurg.*, 29:73-76.
- Choi JU, Kim DS, Kim SH. 1999. Endoscopic surgery for obstructive hydrocephalus. *Yonsei Med J.*, 40:600-607.
- Civelek E, Cansever T, Karasu A, Sabanci A, Sencer A, Kiriş T. 2007. Chronic subdural hematoma after endoscopic third ventriculostomy: Case report. *Turk Neurosurg.*, 17:289-293.
- Drake JM. 2007. Canadian Pediatric Neurosurgery Study Group. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in pediatric patients: The Canadian experience. *Neurosurgery*, 60:881-886. discussion 881-886.
- El-Dawlatly AA, Takrouri MS, Murshid WR. 2002. Intraoperative bradycardia and postoperative hyperkalemia in patients undergoing endoscopic third

- ventriculostomy. *Minim Invasive Neurosurg*, 47:196-197. *Comment on Minim Invasive Neurosurg*, 45:154-157.
- Ersahin Y, Arslan D. 2008. Complications of endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 24:943-948.
- Fritsch M, Kienke S, Ankermann T, Padiou M, Mehdorn M. 2005. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants. *J Neurosurg*, 103:50-53.
- Fritsch MJ, Bauer M, Partsch CJ, Sippell WG, Mehdorn HM. 2007. Endocrine evaluation after endoscopic third ventriculostomy (ETV) in children. *Childs Nerv Syst*. 23:627-631.
- Gallo P, Szathmari A, De Biasi S, Mottolese C. 2010. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in obstructive infantile hydrocephalus: Remarks about the so-called 'unsuccessful cases'. *Pediatr Neurosurg*, 46:435-441.
- Gorayeb RP, Cavalheiro S, Zymberg ST. 2004. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in children younger than 1 year of age. *J Neurosurg*, 100:427-429.
- Goumnerova LC, Frim DM. 1997. Treatment of hydrocephalus with third ventriculocisternostomy: Outcome and CSF flow patterns. *Pediatr Neurosurg*, 27:149-152.
- Hopf NJ, Grunert P, Fries G, Resch KD, Perneckzy A. 1999. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy: Outcome analysis of 100 consecutive procedures. *Neurosurgery*, 44:795-806.
- Javadpour M, Mallucci C, Brodbelt A, Golash A, May P. 2001. The impact of endoscopic third ventriculostomy on the management of newly diagnosed hydrocephalus in infants. *Pediatr Neurosurg*, 35:131-135.
- Jonathan A, Rajshekhar V. 2005. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy for chronic hydrocephalus after tuberculous meningitis. *Surg Neurol.*, 63:32-34.
- Jones RF, Kwok BC, Stening WA, Vonau M. 1994. Neuroendoscopic third ventriculostomy. A practical alternative to extracranial shunts in non-communicating hydrocephalus. *Acta neurochir Suppl.*, 61:79-83.
- Kadrian D, Van Gelder J, Florida D, Jones R, Vonau M, Teo C, et al. 2008. Long-term reliability of endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *Neurosurgery*, 62:614-621.
- Kulkarni AV, Drake JM, Kestle JR, Mallucci CL, Sgouros S, Constantini S. 2010. Canadian Pediatric Neurosurgery Study Group. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy vs cerebrospinal fluid shunt in the treatment of hydrocephalus in children: A propensity score-adjusted analysis. *Neurosurgery.*, 67:588-593.
- Kwiek SJ, Mandera M, Baowski P, Luszawski J, Duda I, Wolwender A, et al. 2003. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy for hydrocephalus: early and late efficacy in relation to aetiology. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)*. 145:181-184.
- Lipina R, Reguli S, Dolezilová V, Kuncíková M, Podesvová H. 2008. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy for obstructive hydrocephalus in children younger than 6 months of age: Is it a first-choice method? *Childs Nerv Syst*. 24:1021-1027.
- Mohanty A, Santosh V, Devi BI, Satish S, Biswas A. 2011. Efficacy of simultaneous single-trajectory endoscopic tumor biopsy and endoscopic cerebrospinal fluid diversion procedures in intra- and paraventricular tumors. *Neurosurg Focus.*, 30:E4.
- Mohanty A, Vasudev MK, Sampath S, Radhesh S, Sastry Kolluri VR. 2002. Failed endoscopic third ventriculostomy in children: Management options. *Pediatr Neurosurg.*, 37:304-309.
- Morgenstern PF, Osbun N, Schwartz TH, Greenfield JP, Tsiouris AJ, Souweidane MM. 2011. Pineal region tumors: an optimal approach for simultaneous endoscopic third ventriculostomy and biopsy. *Neurosurg Focus*, 30:E3.
- Oppido PA, Fiorindi A, Benvenuti L, Cattani F, Cipri S, Gangemi M, et al. 2011. Neuroendoscopic biopsy of ventricular tumors: A multicentric experience. *Neurosurg Focus*, 30:E2.
- Roopesh Kumar SV, Mohanty A, Santosh V, Satish S, Devi BI, Praharaj SS, et al. 2007. Endoscopic options in management of posterior third ventricular tumors. *Childs Nerv Syst.*, 23:1135-45.
- Schroeder HW, Niendorf WR, Gaab MR. 2002. Complications of endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *J Neurosurg.*, 96:1032-1040.
- Shim KW, Kim DS, Choi JU. 2008. Simultaneous endoscopic third ventriculostomy and ventriculoperitoneal shunt for infantile hydrocephalus. *Childs Nerv Syst.*, 24:443-451.
- Singh D, Sachdev V, Singh AK, Sinha S. 2005. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in post-tubercular meningitic hydrocephalus: a preliminary report. *Minim Invasive Neurosurg*, 48:47-52.
- Van Beijnum J, Hanlo PW, Fischer K, Majidpour MM, Kortekaas MF, Verdaasdonk RM, et al. 2008. Laser-assisted endoscopic third ventriculostomy: Long-term results in a series of 202 patients. *Neurosurgery*, 62:437-43. discussion 443-4.
- Warf BC. 2005. Hydrocephalus in Uganda: The predominance of infectious origin and primary management with endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *J Neurosurg.*, 102:1-15.
- Wiewrodt D, Schumacher R, Wagner W. 2008. Hygromas after endoscopic third ventriculostomy in the first year of life: Incidence, management and outcome in a series of 34 patients. *Childs Nerv Syst.*, 24:57-63.
- Yadav YR, Jaiswal S, Adam N, Basoor A, Jain G. 2006. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants. *Neurol India*, 54:161-163.
- Yadav YR, Parihar V, Pande S, Namdev H, Agarwal M. 2012. Endoscopic third ventriculostomy. *J Neurosci Rural Pract.*, 3(2):163-173.
- Yadav YR, Parihar V, Sinha M, Jain N. 2010. Endoscopic treatment of the suprasellar arachnoid cyst. *Neurol India*, 58:280-3.
- Yadav YR, Shenoy R, Mukerji G, Sherekar S, Parihar V. 2010. Endoscopic transoral excision of odontoid process in irreducible atlanto-axial dislocation. In: Banerji AP, editor. Progress in Clinical Neurosciences. 24. New Delhi: Byword Books Private Limited.
- Yadav YR, Sinha M, Neha, Parihar V. 2008. Endoscopic management of brain abscesses. *Neurol India*, 56:13-6.
- Yadav YR, Yadav S, Sherekar S, Parihar V. 2011. A new minimally invasive tubular brain retractor system for surgery of deep intracerebral hematoma. *Neurol India*, 59:74-7.
- Zohdi AZM, El Damaty AM, Aly KB, El Refaee EA. 2013. Success rate of endoscopic third ventriculostomy in infants below six months of age with congenital hydrocephalus (a preliminary study of eight cases). *Asian J Neurosurg.*, 8(3):147-152.