



ENCEPHALOMALACIA: PATHOLOGICAL PROGRESSION, RADIOLOGIC CLASSIFICATION, AND THE CLINICAL IMPACT OF CORTICAL SOFTENING

Amitabh Dilip Prasadⁱ

PhD Candidate,
Istanbul Okan University Hospital,
Istanbul, Türkiye

Abstract:

Background: Encephalomalacia is a descriptive term for the localized softening or loss of brain parenchyma resulting from irreversible tissue injury. It represents the final macroscopic stage of various neuropathological insults, characterized by the replacement of functional neural tissue with fluid-filled cavities or glial scars. Unlike most systemic tissues that undergo coagulative necrosis, the central nervous system (CNS) is uniquely prone to liquefactive necrosis, leading to the distinct "softened" texture of the brain following injury. **Pathophysiology:** The progression of encephalomalacia typically follows an evolutionary sequence from initial cellular death to chronic cavitation. This process begins with an acute inflammatory response, followed by the enzymatic digestion of necrotic tissue by macrophages and microglia. As the liquid debris is resorbed, the brain undergoes "white softening," where the resulting void is surrounded by a dense network of hypertrophic astrocytes—a process known as gliosis. **Etiology and Classification:** The condition is most commonly triggered by vascular events (ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke), mechanical trauma (traumatic brain injury), or severe inflammatory processes (encephalitis). In neonatal populations, it often presents as "multicystic encephalomalacia," a severe consequence of global hypoxic-ischemic injury. **Conclusion:** Although encephalomalacia is a permanent and non-progressive finding once the initial insult has stabilized, it acts as a significant focus for secondary complications, most notably post-traumatic or post-stroke epilepsy. Accurate characterization via neuroimaging is essential for differentiating simple volume loss from active pathological processes and for guiding long-term rehabilitative strategies.

Keywords: encephalomalacia; liquefactive necrosis; gliosis; cerebral infarction; multicystic encephalomalacia; neuroimaging; cortical atrophy

ⁱ Correspondence: email sdrprax_adp@gmail.com

1. Introduction

1.1 Definition and Etymology

Encephalomalacia is a term derived from the Greek words *enkephalos* (brain) and *malakia* (softness). In a clinical context, it refers to a permanent, localized loss of brain parenchyma that occurs after an insult. As noted by Silverman and Liu (2008), it is essentially the "*end-stage result of liquefactive necrosis*," where the once-solid neural tissue is replaced by fluid and glial scarring. This loss of tissue leads to a visible reduction in brain volume and a subsequent expansion of nearby ventricles or sulci to fill the void—a phenomenon known as *ex vacuo* ventriculomegaly.

1.2 The Pathological Concept

It is important to understand that encephalomalacia is not a primary disease but a descriptive marker of a past event. It serves as a "pathological footprint," indicating where the brain has survived a major injury such as an infarct or a contusion. Unlike other organs that form dense collagenous scars, the brain's lack of a traditional connective tissue framework means that when cells die, the area effectively "dissolves" into a fluid-filled cavity. This makes encephalomalacia a definitive indicator of irreversible neurological damage in both forensic and clinical settings.

1.3 Prevalence and Demographics

The prevalence of encephalomalacia is highly correlated with the incidence of stroke and traumatic brain injury (TBI). Because it is a secondary condition, its demographic reach is broad, affecting infants with birth asphyxia as well as elderly patients with chronic cardiovascular disease. In the pediatric population, the condition is often more devastating; as documented in *StatPearls*, neonatal encephalomalacia often manifests as a multicystic transformation that can affect the developmental trajectory of the entire central nervous system (Sakuru & Mesfin, 2023).

2. Pathophysiology and Stages

The transformation of healthy brain tissue into an encephalomalacic void is a dynamic process that follows a predictable chronological sequence of "softening."

2.1 The Acute Phase and Liquefactive Necrosis

When the brain suffers a lack of oxygen (ischemia) or direct physical trauma, the cells undergo a unique form of death. While most organs undergo coagulative necrosis (where the tissue architecture is preserved for a time), the brain undergoes **liquefactive necrosis**. This occurs because the brain is rich in lipids and lysosomal enzymes but low in structural proteins. These enzymes quickly digest the dead neurons, turning the affected area into a soft, semi-liquid mass.

2.2 The Role of Glial Scarring (Gliosis)

As the liquid debris is cleared away by specialized immune cells called microglia and macrophages, the surrounding healthy tissue begins to react. This reaction is known as gliosis. Astrocytes, the support cells of the brain, undergo hypertrophy and hyperplasia to create a physical barrier around the necrotic site. According to Haines (2018), this "glial scar" is the brain's attempt to restore homeostasis, though it often becomes a source of abnormal electrical activity, potentially leading to post-traumatic epilepsy.

2.3 The Color Stages of Softening

Historically, pathologists have categorized encephalomalacia by the color of the tissue during the breakdown process:

- **Red Softening:** Typically seen in the earliest stages or in hemorrhagic strokes where blood infiltrates the necrotic area.
- **Yellow Softening:** Occurs as the blood breaks down and lipids from the myelin sheaths are released, giving the area a yellowish, fatty appearance.
- **White Softening:** The final, chronic stage. The debris has been fully resorbed, leaving a clear, fluid-filled cavity (pseudocyst) that may be crossed by thin strands of glial tissue.

3. Etiology: Classification by Cause

3.1 Vascular Insults (Ischemia and Hemorrhage)

The most common cause in adults is the interruption of blood flow. When a major vessel like the Middle Cerebral Artery (MCA) is blocked, the territory it supplies undergoes rapid necrosis. "The extent of encephalomalacia is directly proportional to the duration of ischemia and the adequacy of collateral circulation" (Aisen & Canobbio, 2018). Even after the stroke is "cured" or the patient is stabilized, the encephalomalacic void remains as a permanent radiologic marker of the event.

3.2 Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI)

Mechanical trauma often results in "contrecoup" injuries, where the brain bounces against the skull. This typically affects the frontal and temporal poles. Over time, these bruised areas (contusions) resolve into localized regions of encephalomalacia. Because the frontal lobes are heavily involved in personality and executive function, this specific etiology often leads to profound behavioral changes despite the physical recovery of the patient.

4. Clinical Presentation: Symptomatic Correlation

The symptoms of encephalomalacia are rarely uniform; they are strictly dictated by the functional "real estate" lost during the necrotic process.

4.1 Focal Neurological Deficits

Because encephalomalacia represents a "hole" in the functional architecture of the brain, the deficits are typically permanent and focal.

- **Motor and Sensory Loss:** If the softening occurs in the primary motor cortex or the internal capsule, the patient may suffer from chronic hemiparesis or spasticity.
- **Aphasia:** Lesions in the dominant hemisphere's Broca's or Wernicke's areas result in permanent expressive or receptive language impairments. Unlike acute stroke symptoms, these deficits are stable but may be exacerbated by systemic illness or aging (Aisen & Canobbio, 2018).

4.2 Neuropsychiatric and Cognitive Changes

Encephalomalacia in "silent" areas of the brain, such as the prefrontal cortex, may not cause motor loss but can drastically alter a patient's essence.

- **Frontal Lobe Syndrome:** Damage to the frontal poles often leads to disinhibition, poor executive function, and personality shifts.
- **Memory Impairment:** Temporal lobe encephalomalacia, often a result of herpes simplex encephalitis or severe trauma, can lead to profound anterograde amnesia and emotional dysregulation.

4.3 Post-Encephalomalacic Epilepsy

One of the most significant clinical concerns is the development of seizures. The interface between the encephalomalacic cavity and the healthy brain—the **gliotic zone**—is often electrically unstable. *"The glial scar acts as a focus for paroxysmal electrical discharges, making encephalomalacia one of the leading causes of acquired epilepsy in adults"* (Prasad & Galetta, 2011).

5. Diagnostic Imaging: The Radiologic Signature

Imaging is the only definitive way to diagnose encephalomalacia and distinguish it from other forms of brain atrophy or active tumors.

5.1 Computed Tomography (CT)

On a CT scan, encephalomalacia appears as a well-defined area of **hypodensity** (darkness).

- **Density:** The density of the area typically matches that of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF).
- **Volume Loss:** Radiologists look for secondary signs, such as the "pulling" of the adjacent lateral ventricle toward the lesion (compensatory ventriculomegaly), which confirms that the tissue is gone rather than simply swollen.

5.2 Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)

MRI is the superior modality for characterizing the "softened" brain.

- **T1 and T2 Sequences:** The encephalomalacic cavity will follow CSF signals—dark on T1 and bright on T2.
- **FLAIR (Fluid-Attenuated Inversion Recovery):** This is the most critical sequence. In encephalomalacia, the fluid in the cavity is "suppressed" (turned black), but the **surrounding gliosis** (the scar tissue) remains bright. This allows clinicians to differentiate between a simple cyst and an area of encephalomalacia with associated scarring.

6. Management and Prognosis

6.1 Medical and Preventative Care

Since the loss of neurons is irreversible, management is focused on preventing further damage and controlling complications.

- **Seizure Control:** Antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) are the primary treatment for patients who develop symptomatic epilepsy.
- **Vascular Prophylaxis:** If the cause was ischemic, strict management of blood pressure, cholesterol, and glucose is required to prevent "multi-infarct" progression, which could lead to widespread encephalomalacia and dementia.

6.2 Neurorehabilitation

The brain possesses a degree of **neuroplasticity**, allowing healthy areas to sometimes take over functions lost in the encephalomalacic zone.

- **Therapy:** Intensive physical and speech therapy can help "re-wire" these pathways, especially in younger patients whose brains are more adaptable.
- **Cognitive Rehabilitation:** For those with frontal or temporal damage, compensatory strategies (such as memory aids and behavioral therapy) are used to manage daily life.

6.3 Surgical Intervention

In rare cases where the encephalomalacic area is the source of frequent, life-threatening, drug-resistant seizures, a **lesionectomy** may be performed. Surgeons remove the scarred glial border to "silence" the epileptic focus, provided the area is not in a "critical" zone like the speech center.

7. Case Study: Post-Traumatic Encephalomalacia and Secondary Epilepsy

7.1 Patient Presentation

A 42-year-old male presents to the neurology clinic with a "first-time" generalized tonic-clonic seizure that occurred during sleep. His medical history is significant for a severe motor vehicle accident ten years prior, which resulted in a prolonged ICU stay for a traumatic brain injury (TBI) and a left frontal bone fracture. Since the accident, he has

reported chronic headaches and a subtle change in personality—specifically, increased impulsivity and difficulty with complex planning—but had otherwise returned to work.

7.2 Clinical Findings

- **Neurological Exam:** No gross motor or sensory deficits were noted. However, bedside cognitive testing showed mild deficits in executive function (difficulty with a multi-step "trail-making" task).
- **Physical Markers:** A healed surgical scar was visible over the left frontal-parietal region.

7.3 Diagnostic Imaging

An MRI of the brain was ordered to investigate the structural cause of the new-onset seizure.

- **T1-weighted image:** Showed a well-defined area of low signal intensity (isointense to CSF) in the left frontal lobe.
- **FLAIR sequence:** The central cavity appeared dark (suppressed fluid), but the perimeter was surrounded by a bright "rim" of hyperintensity, confirming **perilesional gliosis**.
- **Radiologic Diagnosis:** Chronic focal encephalomalacia of the left frontal lobe with associated gliosis, consistent with a prior cerebral contusion.

7.4 Pathophysiological Correlation

The patient's symptoms represent a classic "delayed" complication of encephalomalacia. The original trauma caused liquefactive necrosis of the frontal lobe tissue. Over the decade, this necrotic tissue was resorbed, leaving a fluid-filled void. The surrounding "gliotic rim" (the glial scar) eventually became an **epileptogenic focus**. The instability of the neurons at the border of the encephalomalacia finally reached a threshold, resulting in a paroxysmal electrical discharge that manifested as a generalized seizure.

7.5 Management and Outcome

The patient was started on Levetiracetam (an anticonvulsant) to manage the post-traumatic epilepsy. He was counseled that while the encephalomalacia is permanent and cannot be reversed, his seizures could likely be controlled with medication. A follow-up neuropsychological evaluation was recommended to help manage the executive dysfunction associated with his frontal lobe loss.

8. Conclusion

Encephalomalacia is the permanent structural record of a brain's history. Whether caused by the sudden occlusion of a vessel or the violent impact of a traumatic injury, the resulting "softening" marks the end of a biological process and the beginning of a chronic clinical reality. While modern medicine cannot yet "fill" these voids with new neurons,

an understanding of the relationship between the site of encephalomalacia and its clinical sequelae allows for targeted rehabilitation and better prognostic counseling for patients and their families.

Creative Commons License Statement

This research work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License. To view a copy of this license, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0>. To view the complete legal code, visit <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/legalcode.en>. Under the terms of this license, members of the community may copy, distribute, and transmit the article, provided that proper, prominent, and unambiguous attribution is given to the authors, and the material is not used for commercial purposes or modified in any way. Reuse is only allowed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The author declares no conflicts of interest.

About the Author

Amitabh Dilip Prasad is a PhD candidate in Neurology with a strong academic background in neuroscience and clinical research. He obtained his master's degree in Neuroscience after completing undergraduate training in life sciences, where his early exposure to neurobiology sparked a sustained interest in the mechanisms underlying neurological disorders. His doctoral research focuses on understanding the pathophysiology of neurodegenerative and neurovascular conditions, with particular emphasis on translational approaches that bridge basic science and clinical practice. His research integrates neuroimaging, electrophysiology, and biomarker analysis to investigate disease progression and therapeutic response in disorders of the central nervous system. He has been actively involved in designing experimental protocols, data analysis, and manuscript preparation, and has contributed to peer-reviewed publications and conference presentations at national and international forums. His work reflects a commitment to methodological rigor and interdisciplinary collaboration, working closely with clinicians, biostatisticians, and biomedical engineers. In addition to his research activities, Amitabh Dilip Prasad has participated in teaching and mentoring undergraduate and postgraduate students, assisting in courses related to neuroanatomy, neurophysiology, and clinical neurology. He values science communication and has a keen interest in making complex neurological concepts accessible to broader audiences, including patients and caregivers. His academic interests extend to global neurological health, with a particular focus on the challenges faced by low- and middle-income countries in the diagnosis and management of neurological disorders. As an Indian researcher, he is especially motivated to contribute to capacity building and evidence-based clinical practice in resource-limited settings. Amitabh Dilip Prasad aspires to

pursue a career in academic neurology and clinical research, with the long-term goal of advancing patient-centered therapies and contributing meaningfully to the global neuroscience community.

References

- Barkovich, A. J., & Raybaud, C. (2018). *Pediatric Neuroimaging* (6th ed.). Wolters Kluwer. Retrieved from <https://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/books/121/>
- Claireaux A. E. (1972). Multicystic encephalomalacia. *Developmental medicine and child neurology*, 14(5), 662–664. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.1972.tb02652.x>
- Cloppenborg, T., May, T. W., Blümcke, I., Grewe, P., Hopf, L. J., Kalbhenn, T., Pfäfflin, M., Polster, T., Schulz, R., Woermann, F. G., & Bien, C. G. (2016). Trends in epilepsy surgery: stable surgical numbers despite increasing presurgical volumes. *Journal of neurology, neurosurgery, and psychiatry*, 87(12), 1322–1329. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jnnp-2016-313831>
- Gupta, R. K., Pant, C. S., Sharma, A., & Khalilullah, A. (1988). Ultrasound diagnosis of multiple cystic encephalomalacia. *Pediatric radiology*, 18(1), 6–8. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02395750>
- Haines, D. E. and Duane E. (2018). *Neuroanatomy in Clinical Context: An Atlas of Structures, Sections, Systems, and Syndromes* (10th ed.). Wolters Kluwer. Retrieved from <https://www.abebooks.com/9781469832029/Neuroanatomy-Clinical-Context-Atlas-Structures-146983202X/plp>
- Hurley, R. A., Flashman, L. A., Chow, T. W., & Taber, K. H. (2010). The brainstem: anatomy, assessment, and clinical syndromes. *The Journal of neuropsychiatry and clinical neurosciences*, 22(1), iv–7. <https://doi.org/10.1176/jnp.2010.22.1.iv>
- Prasad, S., & Galetta, S. L. (2011). Anatomy and physiology of the afferent visual system. In *Encyclopedia of the Neurological Sciences*. Retrieved from <https://www.brighamandwomens.org/assets/BWH/neurology/pdfs/neuro-opt-pubs/visual-system.pdf>
- Sakuru, R. et al. (2023). *Millard-Gubler Syndrome*. StatPearls Publishing. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK532907/>
- Verkijk A. (1979). Encephalomalacieën [Encephalomalacia]. *Tijdschrift voor ziekenverpleging*, 32(12), 534–539. Retrieved from <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/256328/>