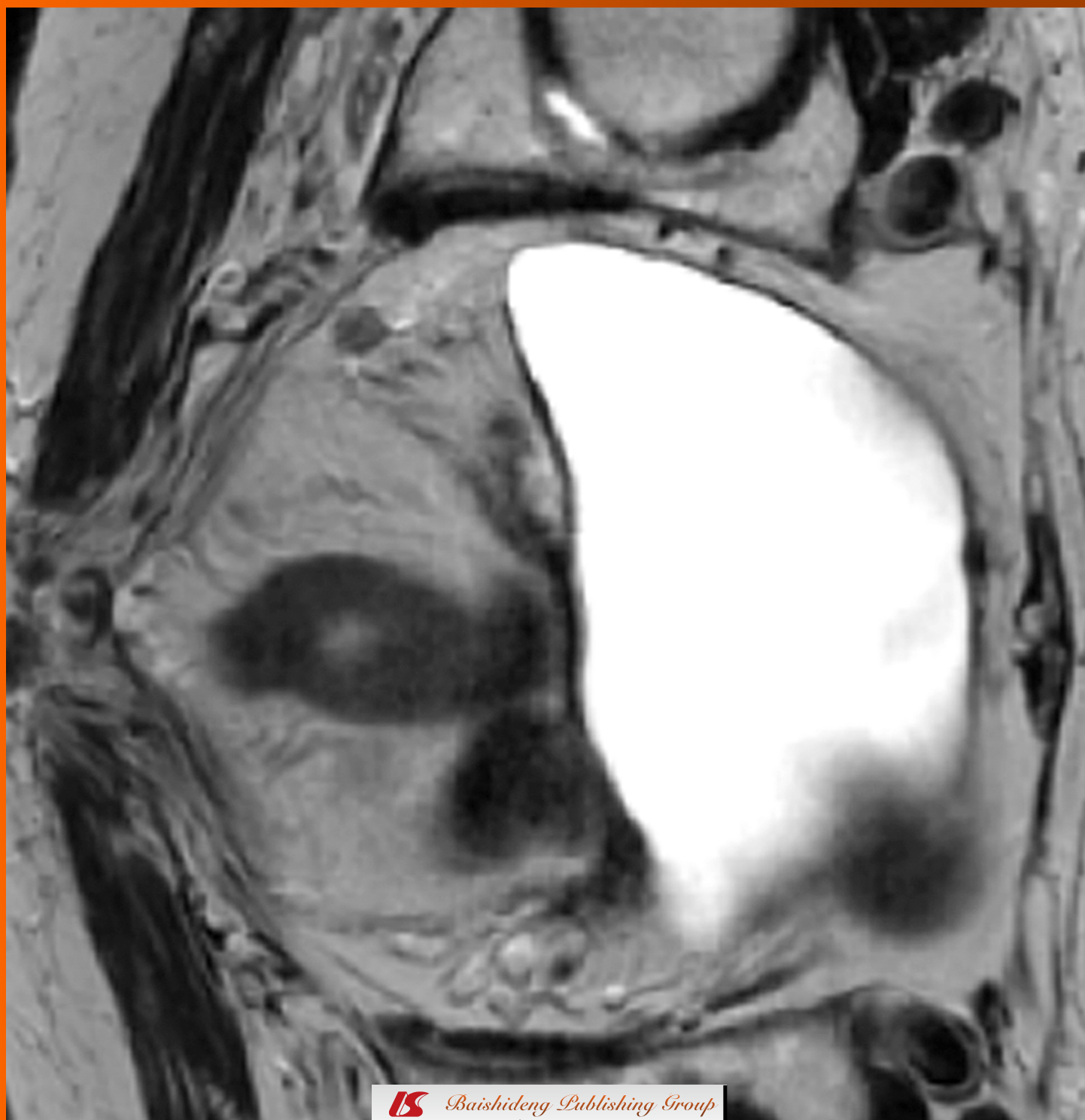


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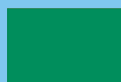
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Ultrasonography of normal and abnormal appendix in children

Noh Hyuck Park, Hwa Eun Oh, Hee Jin Park, Ji Yeon Park

Noh Hyuck Park, Hee Jin Park, Ji Yeon Park, Department of Radiology, Kwandong University College of Medicine, Myongji Hospital, 697-24 Hwajung-dong, Deokyang-gu, Goyang-si, Gyeonggi-do 412-270, South Korea

Hwa Eun Oh, Department of Pathology, Kwandong University College of Medicine, Myongji Hospital, 697-24 Hwajung-dong, Deokyang-gu, Goyang-si, Gyeonggi-do 412-270, South Korea

Author contributions: Park NH designed the study and wrote the manuscript; Park JY and Park HJ reviewed the literature related to this study; Oh HE contributed to the pathologic review and illustrations of histologic findings.

Correspondence to: Noh Hyuck Park, MD, PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Radiology, Kwandong University College of Medicine, Myongji Hospital, 697-24 Hwajung-dong, Deokyang-gu, Goyang-si, Gyeonggi-do 412-270, South Korea. nhpark904@kwandong.ac.kr

Telephone: +82-31-8107167 Fax: +82-31-8107173

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abnormal appendix and eventually to reduce unnecessary surgery in children.

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Abstract

Appendicitis is the most common acute surgical emergency of childhood. Since the original report by Puylaert in 1986, the use of ultrasonography in the diagnosis of appendicitis has been the subject of considerable study. Among the reported diagnostic criteria, the maximal outer diameter (MOD) of the appendix is accepted as the one of the most reliable criteria used to differentiate between a normal appendix and acute appendicitis. However, MOD measurement is subject to inaccuracies because luminal distention by non-compressible, non-inflammatory material such as fecal material, or increased maximal mural thickness due to reactive mucosal lymphoid hyperplasia, or a medical cause due to a generalized gastrointestinal disease, such as Crohn's disease, can cause the measurement to exceed the upper limits of normality. The aim of this article is to introduce the spectrum of ultrasonographic findings in the normal and

INTRODUCTION

The appendix is a small organ. However, to clinicians and radiologists, it is a very important organ because acute appendicitis is the most common form of acute abdomen that requires surgery in children. Many clinicians deliberate on the decision to operate following clinical suspicion of acute appendicitis.

The quoted negative appendectomy rate was 15% to 25%, but could be as high as 40% in female patients because many gynecological conditions such as dysmenorrhea and ovarian cyst complications can masquerade as acute appendicitis^[1-4].

Since the use of sonography by Puylaert^[5] to diagnose acute appendicitis in 1986, ultrasonography became the first line of diagnostic tools to detect or exclude acute appendicitis in many institutes. In addition, with advances in the increased resolution of ultrasonography, the incidence of detection of normal appendix and appendicitis mimicking non-inflamed, distended appendix is increasing. Thus, radiologists should be familiar with the ultrasonographic findings of these conditions. The aim of this

article is to introduce the spectrum of ultrasonographic findings from normal appendix through to overt acute appendicitis.

NORMAL APPENDIX

The appendix is a worm-like extension of the cecum and, for this reason, has been called the vermiform appendix. The average length of the appendix is 8-10 cm (range 2-20 cm). The normal appendix consists of 5 distinct layers; the inner most echogenic layer which represents the interface of mucosa and lumen, the hypoechoic mucosal layer, the echogenic submucosal layer, the hypoechoic muscularis propria layer and the outermost echogenic serosal layer. The typical normal appendix in children has an inner hypoechoic band without folding (Figure 1), and this feature is a distinguishable finding from other bowel structures. Therefore, recognition of this finding reduces the time and effort involved in identifying normal appendix and confidently excluding acute appendicitis^[6,7]. This inner hypoechoic band corresponds to the mucosal layer with abundant lymphoid tissue on histologic examination^[6] and disappears with aging^[8].

Normal appendix is a compressible tubular structure with a blind end. It is generally accepted that normal appendix does not exceed 6 mm in maximal outer diameter (MOD), which is the most important diagnostic criterion to exclude acute appendicitis. However, the MOD may be exaggerated by the presence of intraluminal materials such as gas, feces and non-inflamed fluid. To decrease the false positive rate of this MOD criterion, some radiologists recently tried to determine another size criterion, the maximal mural thickness (MMT) of the appendix^[9-12]. Simonovsky^[9] reported that the differences in the normal appendiceal MMT between groups of young children, adolescents and adults were marginally significant. In addition, a MMT < 3 mm should be regarded as normal in children less than 6 years old.

Wiersma *et al.*^[10] also reported that the sizes of the MOD and the MMT in a normal appendix in children was 0.21-0.64 cm and 0.11-0.27 cm, respectively.

NORMAL APPENDIX WITH MUCOSAL LYMPHOID HYPERPLASIA

Viral gastroenteritis produces lymphoid hyperplasia in the ileocecal valve region and appendix, altering the intestinal motility and leading to intussusception^[13]. Mucosal lymphoid hyperplasia of the appendix is seen as a discernable hypoechoic band without folding in the inner-most layer of the appendix. Although this finding is seen in the normal appendix of children, in conditions of viral gastroenteritis, mesenteric lymphadenitis colitis or other inflammatory conditions, this hypoechoic band becomes thickened and prominent (Figure 2) when compared with that of normal appendix. In one series, the mean thickness of the inner hypoechoic band was measured as

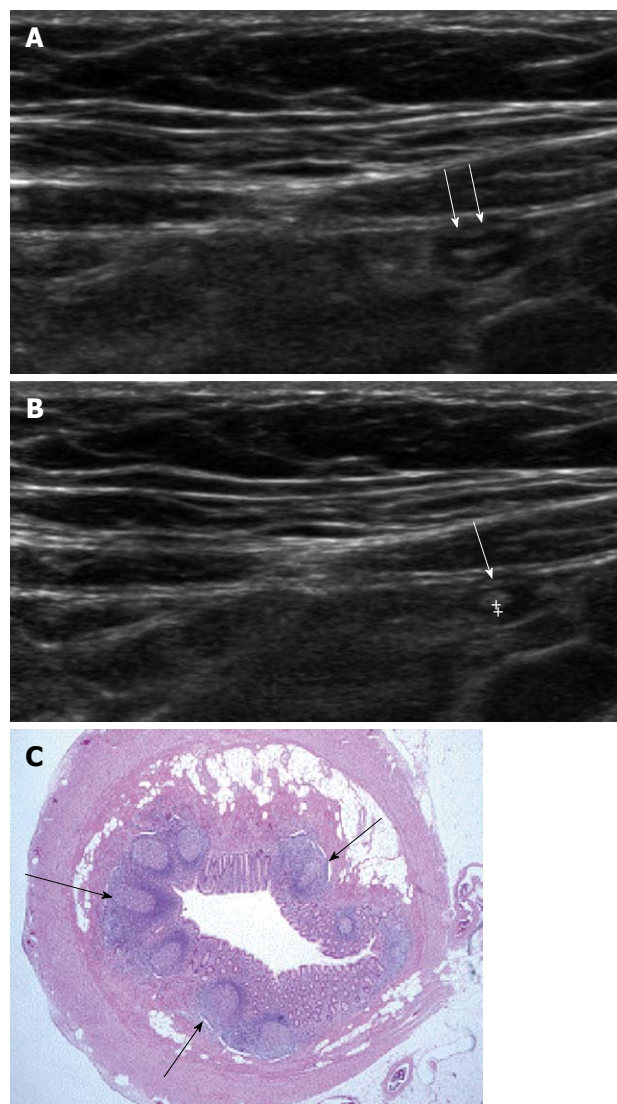


Figure 1 Ultrasonographic and histologic findings of normal appendix. A: Normal appendix (arrows) with thin inner hypoechoic band was seen on high frequency ultrasonography; B: The thickness of the inner hypoechoic band (cur-sors) of appendix (arrow) was measured as 0.5 mm; C: Low-magnification view of a cross section of the appendix. The inner wall of the appendix is lined by a layer of surface epithelium. The remainder of the mucosa (crypts, surrounding lamina propria, and the inconspicuous muscularis mucosae) surrounds this surface epithelial layer. The characteristic lymphoid nodules (arrows) within the lamina propria were found ($\times 20$, H-E stain).

0.80 mm in mesenteric lymphadenitis and 0.74 mm in viral gastroenteritis^[6].

Mucosal lymphoid hyperplasia results in an increase in MMT of the appendix, which may lead to the misdiagnosis of acute appendicitis. However, in most cases, we can differentiate it from acute appendicitis by the points of smooth and even hypoechoic band, no demonstrable intraluminal exudates, absence of periappendiceal fat infiltration and absence of blood flow in thickened appendiceal wall^[6].

FECAL IMPACTED APPENDIX

Fecal material within the appendiceal lumen was

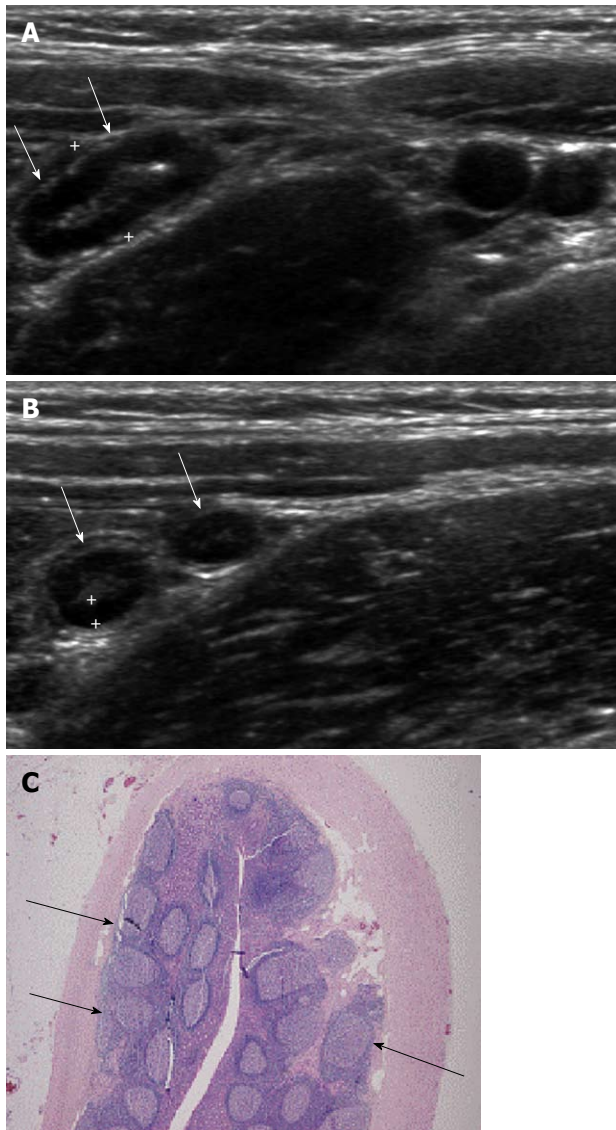


Figure 2 Ultrasonographic and histologic findings of mucosal lymphoid hyperplasia of the appendix. A: Normal appendix with thick inner hypoechoic band was seen (arrows). The maximal outer diameter was measured as 7.3 mm; B: The thickness of the inner hypoechoic band (cursors) of the appendix (arrows) was measured as 1.4 mm; C: Prominent lymphoid follicles (arrows) were found ($\times 20$, H-E stain).

characterized as a heterogeneous mild hyperechoic mass without demonstrable posterior shadowing on ultrasonography^[11,14]. The absence of strong hyperechogenicity and posterior shadowing is a distinguishable finding from appendicolith. Fecal material may be present in whole lumen, focal or in a skipped pattern. Fecal impaction of the appendix increases the MOD, frequently leading to a misdiagnosis of acute appendicitis. However, in the fecal impacted appendix, recognition of the sonographic findings of intraluminal fecal material, preservation of the normal wall layering, smaller MOD, thinner MMT, the absence of periappendiceal mesenteric infiltration and no demonstrable increase in blood flow in the appendiceal wall (Figure 3A and B) is helpful in preventing unnecessary surgery^[11].

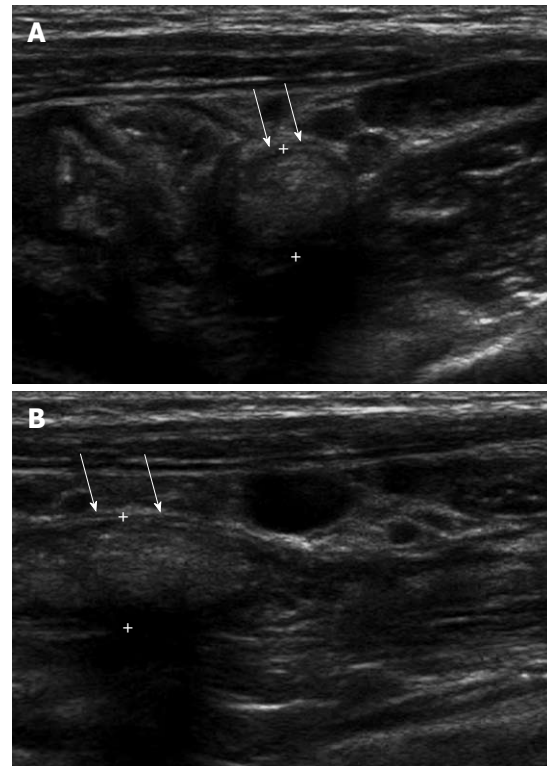


Figure 3 A 5-year-old male with acute abdominal pain. A: Fecal distended appendix (arrows) with thinned maximal mural thickness (0.6 mm) and preservation of wall layers were seen on axial image; B: The maximal outer diameter of fecal distended appendix (arrows) was measured as 8.5 mm.

CROHN'S DISEASE OF APPENDIX

It was shown that 21% of patients with Crohn's disease had appendiceal involvement^[15]. This incidence is similar to that reported in pathologic studies (20%-36%)^[16]. Appendiceal involvement in Crohn's disease was always associated with segmental thickening of the terminal part of the ileum, cecum, or both.

Newly diagnosed Crohn's disease with involvement of the appendix is difficult to differentiate from acute appendicitis. Distinguishing both entities is important: acute appendicitis usually requires surgery, whereas Crohn's disease does not. On ultrasonography, Crohn's appendicitis shows marked thickening of the appendiceal wall, may be up to 3 cm (Figure 4A and B), which is an unusual finding in primary acute appendicitis. Also periappendiceal fibrofatty proliferation and hyperemia of thickened terminal ileum on color Doppler study are important points in differentiating acute appendicitis^[17].

There are two major concerns when isolated Crohn's appendicitis is diagnosed at the time of emergency laparotomy or during subsequent evaluation of the resected specimens, which are: is there concurrent involvement elsewhere in the gastrointestinal tract and what is the potential risk of local recurrence or development of disease elsewhere in the gastrointestinal tract? Both issues are of obvious critical importance for the optimal management of these patients. Yang *et al*^[18] and Timmcke^[19] reviewed

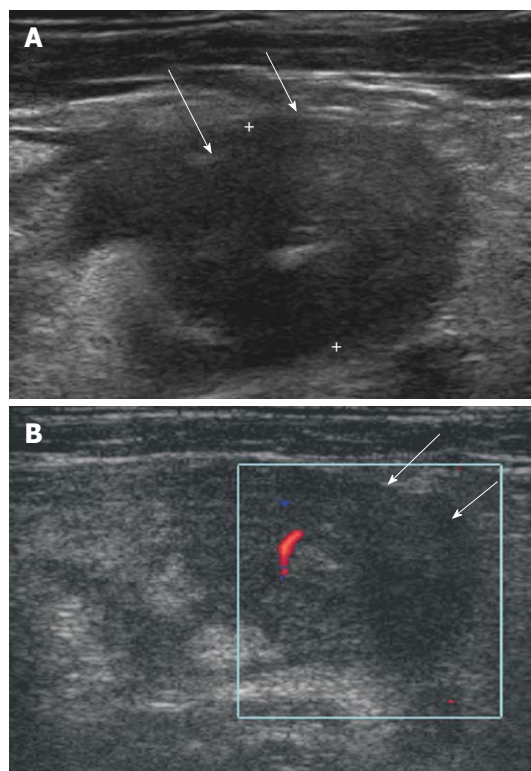


Figure 4 Isolated Crohn's appendicitis. A: Marked thickening with transverse hypoechoic echo-alteration of appendiceal wall (arrows); B: Mild increased blood flow in thickened appendiceal wall (arrows) was seen on color Doppler study.

the literature and noted that concurrent Crohn's disease elsewhere in the gastrointestinal tract was present in approximately 25% of patients with Crohn's appendicitis. The recurrence rate after appendectomy for localized Crohn's disease has been reported to be 14%-50%^[18-20].

SECONDARY APPENDICITIS DUE TO A GENERALIZED GASTROINTESTINAL INFECTION

Although rare, there are numerous bacterial, viral, fungal and parasitic infections that can affect the appendix as part of a generalized gastrointestinal disease^[13]. It is important to differentiate these disorders from primary acute appendicitis, because the former can be treated with medical therapy for the primary causes and the latter should be treated with surgical therapy. Secondary appendicitis due to a generalized gastrointestinal disease is seen as an increase in MMT with preservation of wall layers, no demonstrable intraluminal exudates and no evidence of peri-appendiceal change in the setting of the presence of cecal and contiguous colonic wall thickening (Figure 5).

ACUTE APPENDICITIS

Acute appendicitis in children is more difficult to recognize clinically than in adults because most children can-

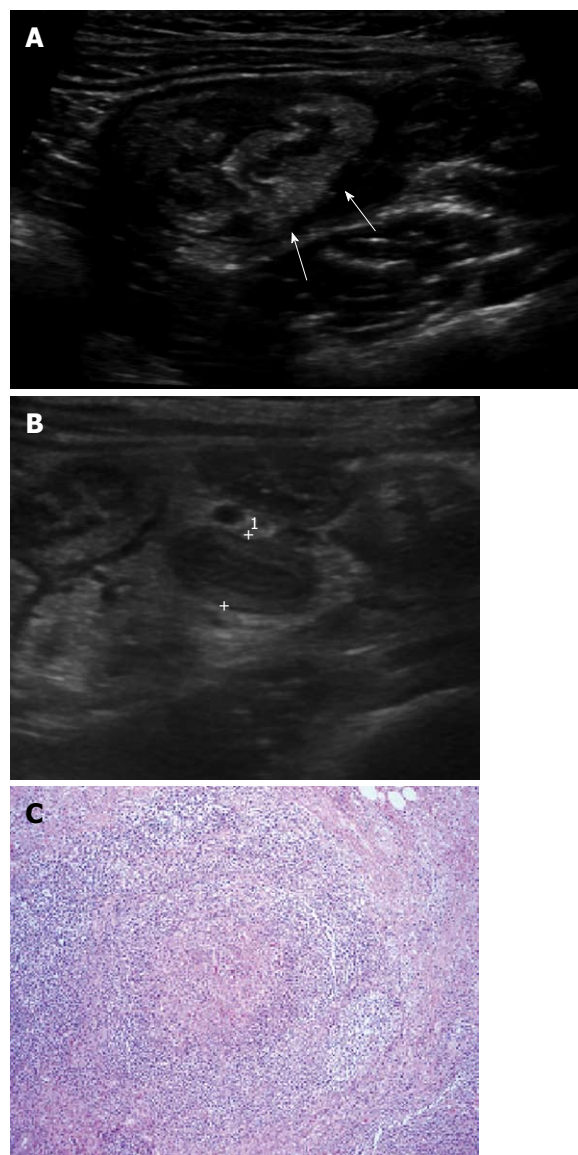


Figure 5 A 4-year-old female with acute colitis. A: Diffuse thickening of the colonic wall including cecum (arrows) was seen; B: Appendix (cursors) was also swollen with a maximal outer diameter of 7.8 mm and mildly increased echogenicity of periappendiceal mesenteric fat, which led to the misdiagnosis of acute appendicitis; C: The lymphoid follicles within the Peyer's patches show granulomas with microabscesses ($\times 100$, H-E stain), suggestive of yersiniosis.

not describe their symptoms clearly and abdominal pain is often poorly localized^[21]. The use of high frequency sonography with additional compression in children with acute abdominal pain have improved both diagnostic accuracy and treatment outcome^[22].

The exact mechanism of appendicitis is not well characterized. However, the etiology is most likely multifactorial, a combination of ischemic mucosal damage and bacterial overgrowth with some luminal obstruction appears to be the most likely pathogenesis^[23,24].

In our experience, non-obstructive appendicitis without luminal distention is frequently present on US examination, although its exact incidence rate is not yet documented. Of course, non-obstructive appendicitis does not have appendicolith or demonstrable intraluminal

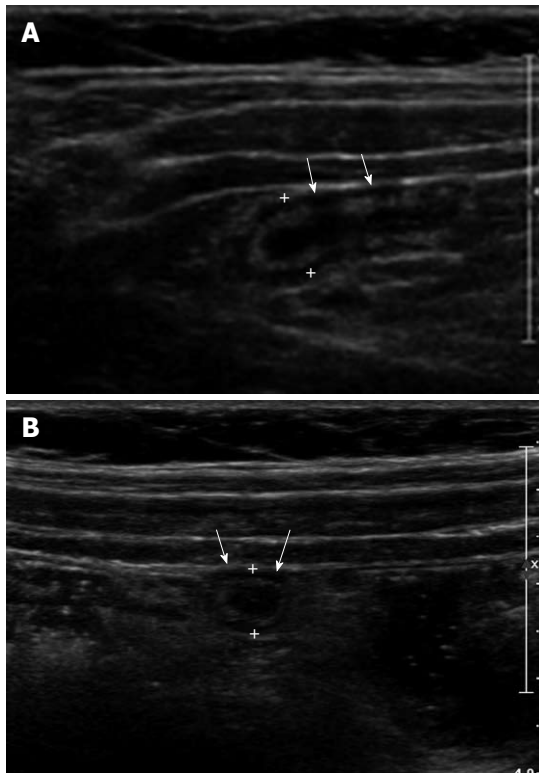


Figure 6 A 10-year-old male with a non-obstructive acute appendicitis. A: Thickening of appendiceal wall (arrows) with a maximal outer diameter (MOD) of 3 mm and some irregularity of the submucosal echogenic layer. However, no evidence of luminal distention and intraluminal appendicolith was found; B: MOD of inflamed appendix (arrows) was measured as 7.1 mm.

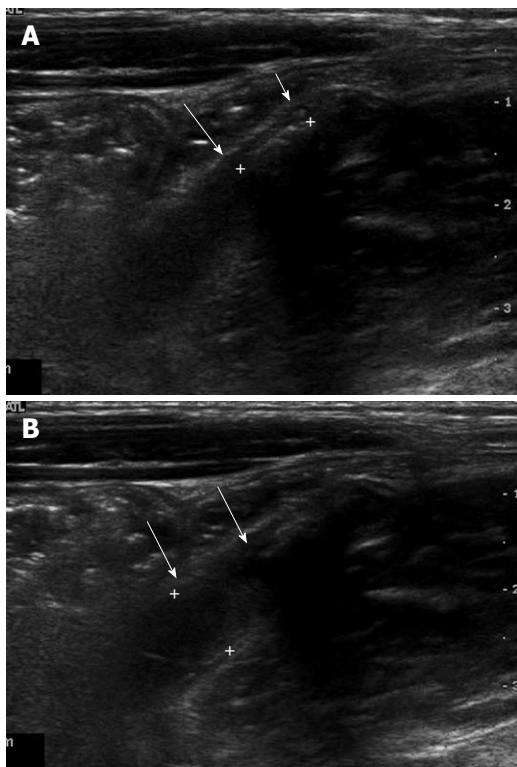


Figure 7 A 7-year-old female with an obstructive acute appendicitis. A: Luminal distention of appendix (arrows) was seen. The maximal outer diameter was measured as approximately 7.9 mm; B: Proximal intraluminal appendicolith (cursors) of appendix (arrows) was identified.

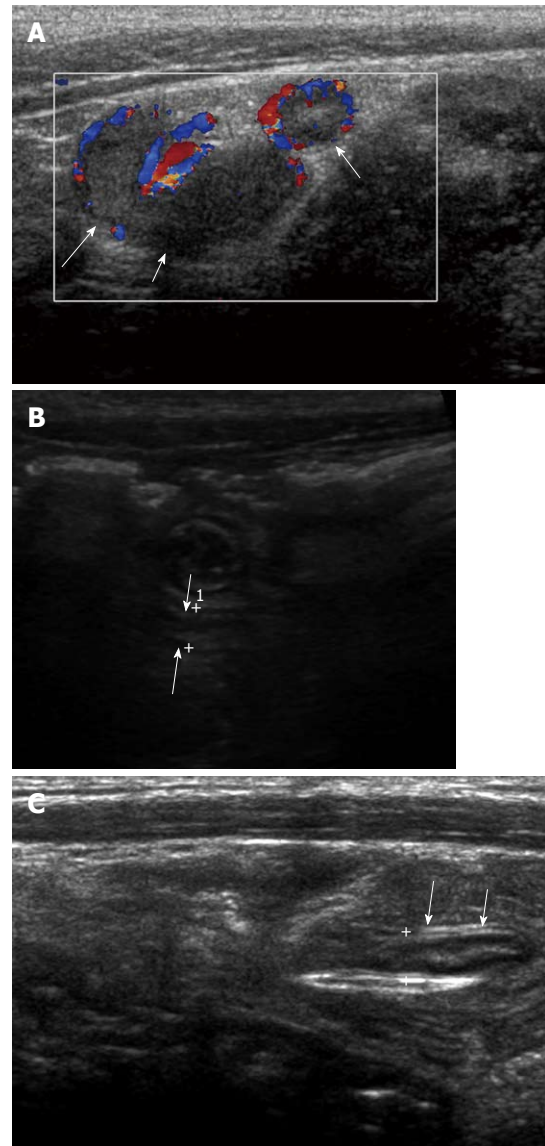


Figure 8 A 6-year-old male with acute appendicitis and fever. A: Distended appendix with dirty intraluminal fluid and hyperemia of appendiceal wall on color Doppler study (arrows). Periappendiceal mesenteric fat infiltration was identified; B: Because of lobar pneumonia, surgery was delayed and antibiotic therapy given. On follow-up ultrasonography 3 d later, the maximal outer diameter of appendix (arrows) was decreased to 4 mm with disappearance of intraluminal content; C: On follow-up after 6 d, the wall layers of the appendix (arrows) had recovered significantly. Periappendiceal mesenteric fat change had almost resolved.

nal obstructive lesion. It has increased MMT with some obliteration of wall layers and periappendiceal fat infiltration (Figure 6A and B). We assume that the incidence of perforation in non-obstructive appendicitis may be lower than obstructive appendicitis (Figure 7A and B). Furthermore, antibiotic therapy with close ultrasonographic observation may be an alternative treatment rather than immediate appendectomy in the case of mild non-obstructive appendicitis when the operation is not allowed due to inadequate systemic condition (Figure 8A-C)^[25].

A MOD >6 mm has been regarded as the most reliable feature in diagnosing acute appendicitis. In a recent report, a MOD > 5.7 mm was suggested as the optimal

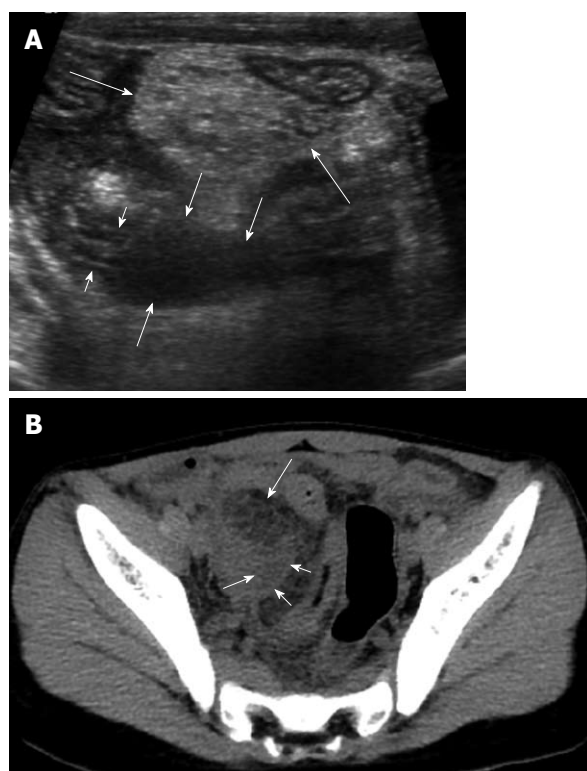


Figure 9 An 8-year-old male with perforated appendicitis. A: Initial US showed a collapsed appendix with distal wall defect (short arrows) and peri-appendiceal fluid collection (medium sized arrows) in the deep right lower abdomen. In addition, marked mesenteric inflammatory change (long arrows) was seen; B: Subsequent axial CT scan revealed loculated fluid (short arrows) corresponding to the periappendiceal fluid collection on US and marked mesenteric fat change (long arrow) in the right lower abdomen.

criterion to diagnose acute appendicitis in children^[11].

However, the MOD may be larger than 6 mm without acute inflammation, due to the presence of intraluminal materials such as gas, feces and fluid^[11,14,26,27] or mucosal lymphoid hyperplasia secondary to viral gastroenteritis or mesenteric lymphadenitis. To decrease the false positive rate of the MOD criterion, one should consider the intraluminal content, presence of periappendiceal change, MMT, preservation of wall layers and increase in blood flow in the appendiceal wall in equivocal cases^[9-12,14].

PERFORATED APPENDICITIS

The diagnosis of perforated appendicitis can be more difficult because the appendix frequently decompresses with perforation and yet may not “wall off” or form a well-defined abscess. As a result, identifying the appendix can be very difficult^[28]. Marked inflammatory change of the mesentery/omentum and abnormal fluid collection or abscess formation in the right lower abdomen or pelvic cavity may be clues to the diagnosis of perforated appendicitis in children (Figure 9).

CONCLUSION

Knowledge of ultrasonographic findings of the normal

and abnormal appendix is helpful in reducing the time and effort involved in detecting normal appendix and to diagnose or exclude acute appendicitis confidently.

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Clinical significance of magnetic resonance imaging findings in rectal cancer

Charles F Bellows, Bernard Jaffe, Lorenzo Bacigalupo, Salvatore Pucciarelli, Guiseppe Gagliardi

Charles F Bellows, Bernard Jaffe, Guiseppe Gagliardi, Department of Surgery, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA 70112, United States

Lorenzo Bacigalupo, Department of Radiology, Galliera Hospital, Genoa, 16128, Italy

Salvatore Pucciarelli, Department of Surgery, University of Padua, Padua, 35121, Italy

Author contributions: Bellows CF, Jaffe B and Gagliardi G wrote the manuscript; Bacigalupo L and Pucciarelli S contributed materials and wrote sections of the manuscript; Bellows CF and Gagliardi G conceived the idea of the manuscript and performed the literature search.

Correspondence to: Charles F Bellows, MD, Department of Surgery, Tulane University, 1430 Tulane Ave, New Orleans, LA 70112, United States. cbellows@tulane.edu

Telephone: +1-504-9882307 Fax: +1-504-9884762

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Peer reviewer: Chan Kyo Kim, MD, Assistant Professor, Department of Radiology, Samsung Medical Center, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, 50 Ilwon-dong, Kangnam-gu, Seoul 135-710, South Korea

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INTRODUCTION

In 2010, an estimated 142 570 people were diagnosed with colorectal cancer in the United States, including 39 670 with rectal cancer^[1]. In contrast to colon cancer, local recurrences in rectal cancer, which occur in up to 50% of patients with T3 or node positive lesions, have been a significant cause of morbidity^[2]. In order to decrease rates of local recurrence, adjuvant treatment, such as radiotherapy with or without chemotherapy, is generally recommended for patients with T3 or higher and/or N+ rectal cancers^[3]. Preoperative radiotherapy and chemo-radiotherapy are now preferred to postoperative because they are much better tolerated, thereby increasing treatment compliance. They also result in lower local recurrence rates^[4]. However, even if given preoperatively, pelvic radiotherapy can result in deterioration of anal continence and sexual function as well as worsen the quality of life^[5]. Importantly, according to data from recent chemoradiotherapy (CRT) trials, 18%-30% of enrolled patients are over-staged and therefore receive unnecessary and potentially harmful therapy^[6]. Thus, accurate staging of this disease is essential to spare patients from potentially toxic over-treatment.

The most common pre-operative staging modalities

Abstract

Staging of rectal cancer is essential to help guide clinicians to decide upon the correct type of surgery and determine whether or not neoadjuvant therapy is indicated. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is currently one of the most accurate modalities on which to base treatment decisions for patients with rectal cancer. MRI can accurately detect the mesorectal fascia, assess the invasion of the mesorectum or surrounding organs and predict the circumferential resection margin. Although nodal disease remains a difficult radiological diagnosis, new lymphographic agents and diffusion weighted imaging may allow identification of metastatic nodes by criteria other than size. In light of this, we have reviewed the literature on the accuracy of specific MRI findings for staging the local extent of primary rectal cancer. The aim of this review is to establish a correlation between MRI findings, prognosis, and available treatment options.

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for rectal cancer include endorectal ultrasonography (EUS), computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In two large retrospective studies on rectal cancer patients, over a period of 10 years, the overall accuracy of T and N staging by EUS was shown to be only 69% and 68% respectively^[7,8]. Compared to EUS, CT has an even lower accuracy for determining the depth of tumor invasion^[9]. In contrast, high definition MRI with phased-array coils has been shown to be more reliable than EUS in staging advanced (stage \geq II) rectal cancer^[10]. In fact, MRI has been shown to provide important information about the depth of tumor infiltration within the bowel wall, the relationship between the tumor and mesorectal fascia, and the presence of lymph node and extramural vascular invasion. Information determined from MRI can help guide clinicians to decide upon the correct type of surgery, determine whether or not neoadjuvant therapy, such as chemo-radiation, is indicated, and predict patients' prognosis. This information can be used to maximize the chance of complete oncological resection, improve survival and the quality of life, and minimize morbidity. The aim of this review is to establish a correlation between MRI findings, prognosis, and available treatment options.

MR IMAGING PROTOCOLS

The introduction of phased-array coils has been a major advance in imaging of rectal cancer allowing high spatial resolution, a large field of coverage^[10], and visualization of structures 1-2 mm in diameter^[11]. Ideally, for rectal MRI, the field of view should be small (i.e. less than 200 mm), the matrix (resolution in 2D) at least 256×256 pixels, and the slices 3 mm or less in thickness.

In the most current MRI protocol (Table 1), the tumor is first localized with low-resolution axial and sagittal images of the entire pelvis. The field of view is then restricted to the area of the cancer and high-resolution T2 weighted images are obtained perpendicular to the cranio-caudal axis of the rectum at the level of the tumor (Figure 1A). True axial (i.e. perpendicular) images of the tumor are critical because they reduce the overestimation of the tumor depth of invasion noted upon oblique imaging^[12]. Coronal images (parallel to the anus) are important in identifying the relationship of low rectal tumors to the internal sphincter as well as the external sphincter/levator complex^[13] (Figure 1B). T2-weighted sagittal images are often necessary to determine the relationship of the tumor to the peritoneal reflection (Figure 1C)^[14]. In some cases, axial diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) may be performed to help in the localization of small tumors^[15] (Figure 2).

The importance of the imaging protocol for assessment of advanced rectal tumors has recently been reported. Suzuki and associates demonstrated that by including the imaging parameters listed in sequence 2 and 3 (Table 1), the sensitivity and specificity of assessing invasion of anterior organs was 80% and 95% respectively, compared to

only 50% and 33% with protocols that employed different imaging parameters^[16].

Improving MR image quality can be facilitated with the use of rectal cleaning to limit misinterpretation due to stool residue. Distension of the rectum by air insufflation, gel enema, or intravenous administration of spasmolytic medication also improves evaluation of the rectal wall layers.

MRI FINDINGS IN RECTAL CANCER

In T2 weighted images, rectal cancers typically have a signal-intensity intermediate between that of the perirectal fat, which is bright, and the muscularis propria, which is pitch black. The signal intensity is increased if the tumors contain mucin, but a low signal intensity similar to that of the muscle layer usually indicates a marked desmoplastic reaction of the tumor^[17].

The anatomy relevant to rectal cancer imaging is also well visualized in T2 weighted images (Figure 1). The mucosa has a hypointense signal, the submucosa a hyperintense signal, the muscularis propria a hypointense signal, and the mesorectal fat a highly hyperintense signal. The mesorectal fascia can be identified as a thin, low-signal intensity structure that envelopes the mesorectum. However, due to a diminishing thickness of mesorectal fat, the mesorectal fascia is typically better visualized in the upper and middle third as well as the posterior portions of the rectum than the lower third and anterior portions^[9]. The presacral fascia is also a thin hypointense layer in T2 weighted images. It covers the pelvic walls and the sacrum and joins with the mesorectum at the level of S4/S5 to form the rectosacral fascia, also known as the Waldayer's fascia (Figure 1B).

Non-enhanced T1 weighted images have limited value in distinguishing the tumor from the layers of the bowel wall^[14]. However, after intravenous injection of paramagnetic contrast, the smooth muscle of the internal sphincter brightly enhances, which can sometimes be useful in studying the relationship of the tumor with the sphincter complex^[18].

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS ASSESSED BY MRI

The prognostic factors of rectal cancer that significantly influence the management strategy, the type of resection, tumor resectability, and candidacy for neo-adjuvant therapy, depend on the information obtained from pre-operative MRI, including depth of tumor infiltration within the bowel wall, involvement of neighboring pelvic organs and/or the peritoneum (T stage), the circumferential resection margin (CRM), the presence of local lymph node metastases (N stage), extramural vascular invasion, and the extent of extramural tumor spread in mm.

T staging

The depth of invasion through the muscle wall is one

Table 1 Optimal rectal MRI protocol

Sequence	Area	Plane	Purpose
1-Low resolution T2 ± T1	Whole pelvis	Axial	Overview of the pelvis and tumor localization
2-High resolution T2	Rectum	Sagittal	Determination of cranio-caudal extension of the tumor, peritoneal reflection and distance from the anal canal
3-High resolution T2	Whole mesorectum	Axial to the tumor	Assessment of the mesorectum and of the CRM
4-High resolution T2	Rectum	Coronal based on the anal canal plane	Assess relation to the sphincter-levator complex

CRM: Circumferential resection margin.

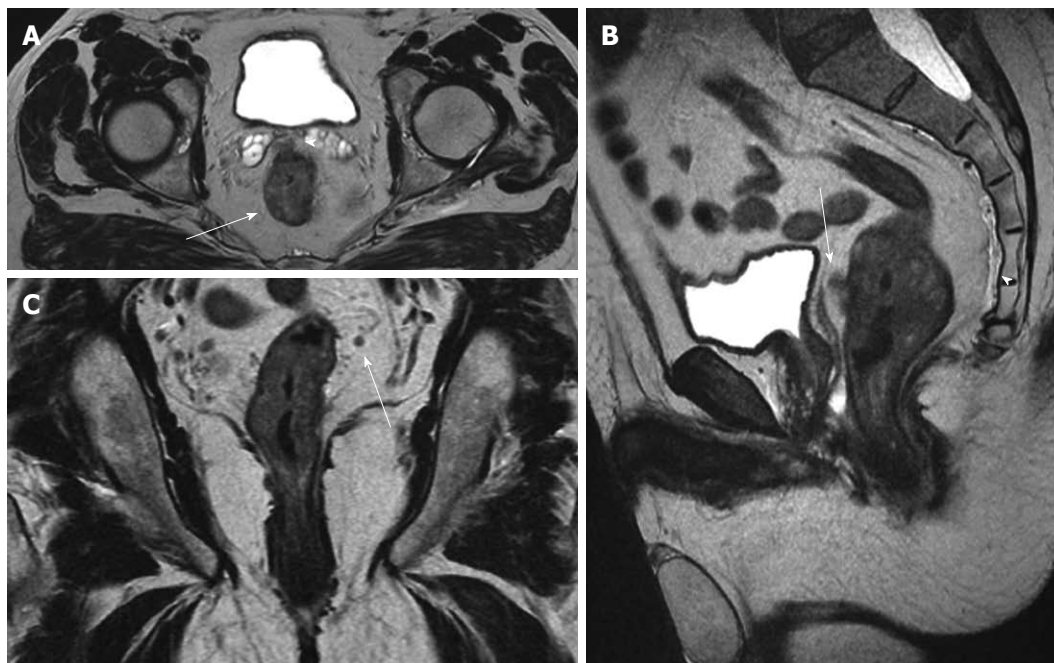


Figure 1 Magnetic resonance imaging staging of rectal cancer before chemoradiation: T3, N+. Pathology result: T3, N1. A: Axial T2w image shows the circumferential tumor (arrow) and the extramural spread anteriorly (arrowhead) close to the seminal vesicles; B: In the sagittal T2w image, the anterior extramural spread (arrow) can be also recognized close to the mesorectal fascia (thin vertical hypointense line posterior to the bladder). The presacral fascia can also be appreciated (arrowhead) continuing inferiorly as the rectosacral fascia; C: In the coronal T2w image, a small mesorectal lymph node (arrow) is seen.

important element seen on MRI that can help guide clinical decision making for patients with rectal cancer. Not only does the incidence of nodal involvement increase with increasing tumor penetration^[19,20], but clinical studies have shown that patients with stage I (T1-2 N0) rectal cancer do not benefit from neo-adjuvant radiotherapy^[21] and may be amenable to a less than radical surgical treatment^[22]. Patients with clinically staged T3-4 tumors typically require preoperative CRT since it reduces the rates of local recurrence more effectively than either post-operative CRT or preoperative radiotherapy alone^[23-25]. However, some problems remain with T stage determination on MR imaging. Overall, the agreement between MRI and histology for T staging has ranged from 66%-94%^[18,26-28]. One of the main problems of T staging on MRI is the distinction between T2 and T3 tumors. In fact, investigators have shown that the negative predictive value for invasion beyond the muscularis propria varied from 93% (expert reading) to 76% (general radiologist reading)^[26]. This difficulty is attributed to the presence of desmoplastic reactions around the tumor. This reaction

makes it difficult to distinguish between spiculation in the perirectal fat caused by fibrosis alone from that caused by fibrous tissue that contains tumor cells^[26]. In contrast, MRI has been shown to be more accurate in imaging the more advanced tumors (T4)^[27,29]. According to a meta-analysis, MRI for T4 lesions has a specificity of 96%^[30].

CRM

The CRM (lateral, radial) is defined as the surgical cut surface of the connective tissues (i.e. lymphovascular, fatty and neural tissue) that circumferentially encase the rectum. It equates to the mesorectal fascia that forms the plane of dissection in rectal cancer surgery. It is assessed by marking the outer surface (i.e. the CRM) with ink, taking serial cuts through the specimen and examining the macroscopic and microscopic relations between the tumor and the inked margin (Figure 3A-C). The CRM gives significant information not only about the quality of the performed operation but also prognosis of the disease. Indeed, in a recent study based on the data from a randomized clinical trial, Nagtegaal *et al.*^[31] demonstrated in a multivariate

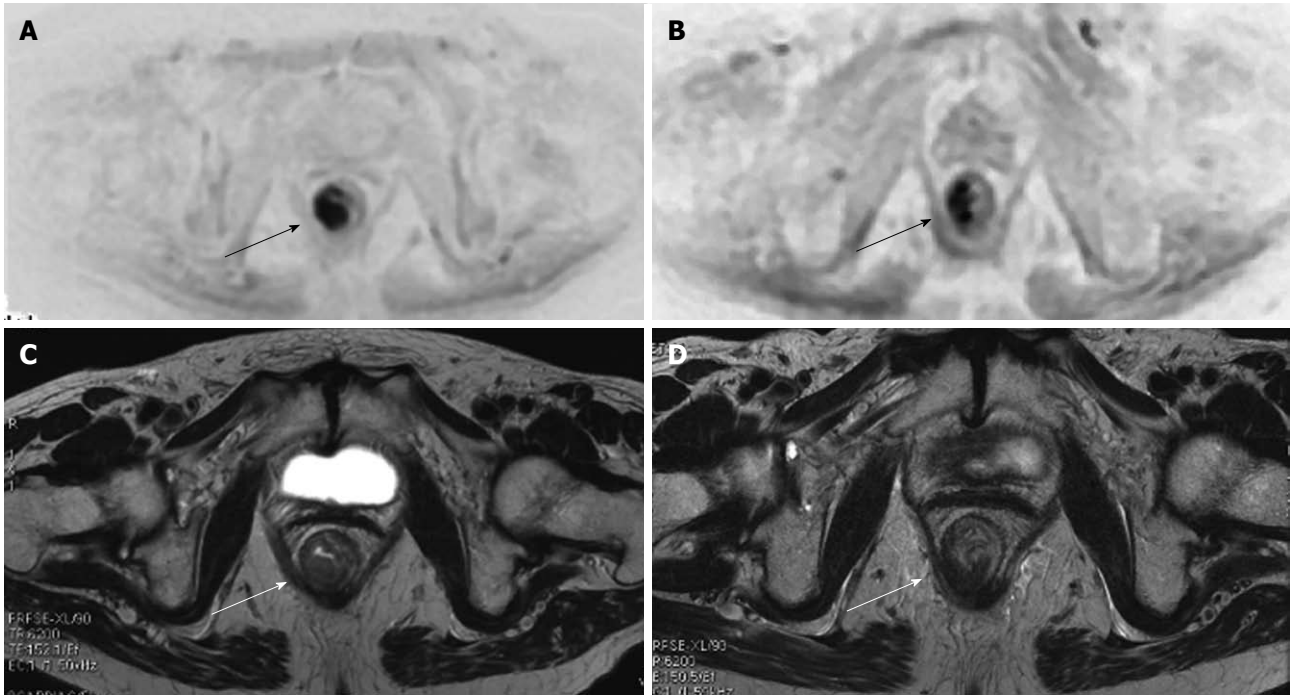


Figure 2 Diffuse weighted imaging and cancer (arrows) of the lower rectum. At initial MR staging T3N1. After neoadjuvant therapy, MR restage was T3N0. At pathology: T3N1 (only one small metastatic mesorectal lymph node). Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) (A) and axial T2w (B) images show the tumor (arrows) before chemoradiotherapy. The DWI image allows for better recognition of the lesion. DWI (C) and axial T2w (D) images after chemoradiotherapy show a reduction in the dimensions of the lesion (arrows).

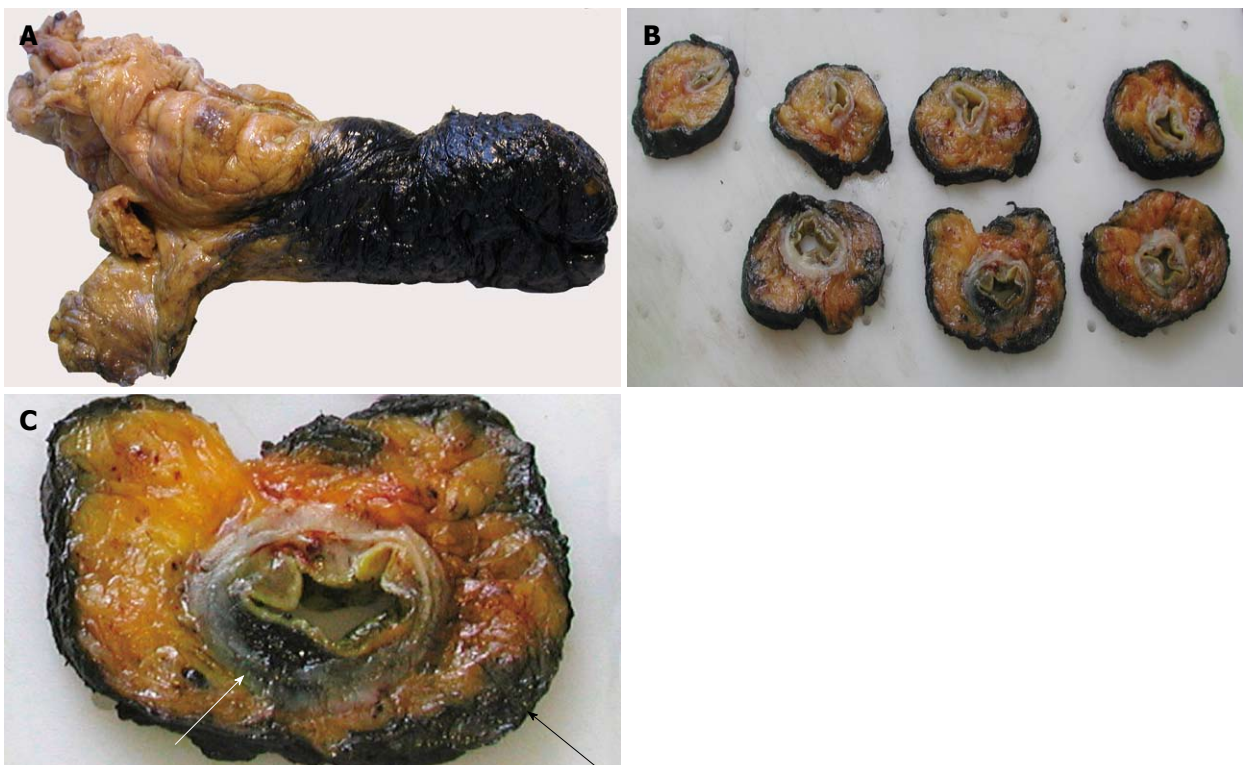


Figure 3 Pathological evaluation of the circumferential resection margin (CRM). A: The excised rectum is dipped in ink; B: Serial sections including the tumor are taken through the entire rectum; C: One of the sections shows the tumor's leading edge (white arrow) and its relation with the CRM (black arrow).

model that the CRM is more important than the T stage for the prognosis of rectal cancer. The definition of a positive CRM remains a matter of debate. A review of

the literature in 2006 showed that the majority of studies that dealt with CRM status used the ≤ 1 mm definition for positive CRM (91.1%; 7373 of 8094 patients)^[32].

Six distinct types of CRM involvement have been described; direct tumor spread which occurs in 18% to 29% of cases; discontinuous tumor spread in 14% to 67% of cases; lymph node metastases in 12% to 14% of cases; venous invasion in 14% to 57% of cases; lymphatic invasion in 9% of cases; and perineural tumor spread in 7% to 14% of cases^[32]. In approximately 30% of patients, there is more than one type of margin involvement. In contrast to direct tumor spread, the involvement of the CRM by lymph node metastases is not associated with local recurrence^[32].

MRI is highly accurate and reliable for prediction of the CRM^[33,34]. In their most recent study of 98 rectal cancer patients, Brown *et al*^[27] reported a 92% agreement between MRI images and histologic findings for prediction of CRM involvement. In another study assessing the tumor relationship to the mesorectal fascia, two observers independently scored the tumor stage and the distance to the mesorectal fascia on MRI and compared these observations with the final histological findings^[26]. For twelve tumors with involved mesorectal fascia, and thus, a CRM of 0 mm, the accuracy in predicting the CRM was 100% for both readers. In 29 patients with a wide CRM (10 mm), the accuracy for predicting the negative margin was 97% (27 of 28) for one reader and 93% (26 of 28) for the other^[26].

It is relevant to point out that 5 mm of mesorectal tissue surrounding the lateral tumor edge on MRI was shown to equal a CRM of 2 mm in the surgical specimen^[26]. In the report by Nagtegaal *et al*^[35], a linear regression curve showed that the crucial distance of at least 2 mm could be predicted with 97% confidence when the distance on MRI is at least 6 mm. Therefore, the safe rule to predict CRM involvement on MRI is considered to be an MRI measurement minus 4 mm due to shrinkage of the specimen with fixation^[6]. Of note, the CRM becomes more difficult to identify in low, anterior tumors and in patients with a limited amount of perirectal fat^[36].

In a recent study by Frasson *et al*^[37], the 5-year local recurrence rates for patients with a preoperative CRM of < 2 mm on MRI or EUS who did not receive preoperative chemoradiation was 19.4% compared to 5.4% for patients with a non threatened margin. It is important to realize that a short course of preoperative radiotherapy has limited ability to control positive CRM. An analysis of more than 17 500 pathologic specimens by Nagtegaal *et al*^[32] revealed that the chance of local recurrence was higher for patients with a positive CRM after neoadjuvant treatment (both radiotherapy and radiochemotherapy) than those with a positive CRM following immediate surgery (Hazard ratio 6.3 *vs* 2.0, respectively). Similar results have been reported following postoperative treatment^[38]. In the MRC CR-07 trial, patients with positive radial margins who were selected to receive postoperative chemoradiation had a 21% local recurrence rate^[39]. Thus, in cases where the tumors are close (< 2 mm) or through the mesorectal margin on preoperative MRI, a more aggressive treatment regimen is required with neoadjuvant CRT or an upfront regimen of chemotherapy before

chemoradiation prior to operation. In contrast, patients with a free margin > 2 mm from mesorectal fascia may undergo surgery [total mesorectal excision (TME)] alone, avoiding preoperative chemoradiation.

Interestingly, MRI-based therapy for CRM positive tumors was able to reduce the frequency of neoadjuvant therapy for rectal carcinoma by 35% without the risk of worsening the oncological results^[40]. However, omitting preoperative chemoradiation for all CRM-negative tumors on MRI needs to be further investigated in prospective clinical trials before it is adopted as standard therapy.

N staging

The presence of involved lymph nodes is an indicator for the likelihood of systemic disease and local recurrence^[41]. Therefore node-positive disease is generally an indication for preoperative chemoradiation. However, radiological evaluation of lymph node metastatic involvement remains a challenge.

Results of anatomic studies show that over half of the metastatic nodes from rectal cancer are within 3 cm of the primary tumor and are smaller than 5 mm in size^[42]. With a standard TME, the perirectal nodes are removed with the primary tumor, but the internal iliac and obturator nodes are left in place. Moriya *et al*^[43] reported that as many as 28% of lymph node-positive distal rectal cancers have involvement of lateral nodes and in 6% of cases, these were the only nodes involved. This means that in 6% of patients, the disease was incorrectly staged postoperatively as node-negative at TME.

For pre-operative lymph node imaging, MRI at present is only moderately accurate, although this could change with advances in new MR techniques. Currently, the reported accuracy rate of MRI for nodal staging ranges from 71% to 91%^[42]. On MRI, lymph nodes typically have lower signal intensity than the perirectal fat but higher signal intensity than arteries and veins (Figure 4). In patients with mucinous carcinoma, metastatic lymph nodes are visualized as hyperintense nodules alone or as hyperintense areas within hypointense nodules. A node is considered enlarged if the major axis length is more than 5 mm (mesorectal), 7 mm (internal iliac), 10 mm (external iliac), or 9 mm (common iliac)^[44]. However, the morphological features or signal intensity of the nodes on MRI may more accurately determine metastatic involvement rather than measurement of size. Brown *et al*^[45] demonstrated that an irregular border or mixed signal intensity of lymph nodes on MRI improved the specificity of predicting nodal status from 68% (based on size alone) to 97%.

One of the more promising advances of MRI may be the use of new lymphographic agents that help assess tumor spread to lymph nodes. In a recent study, gadofosveset-enhanced MRI improved the specificity of nodal staging from 82% achieved with standard MRI to 97%^[46]. Fusion of diffusion-weighted MR with T2-weighted images improves identification of pelvic lymph nodes compared with T2-weighted images alone. Using fusion

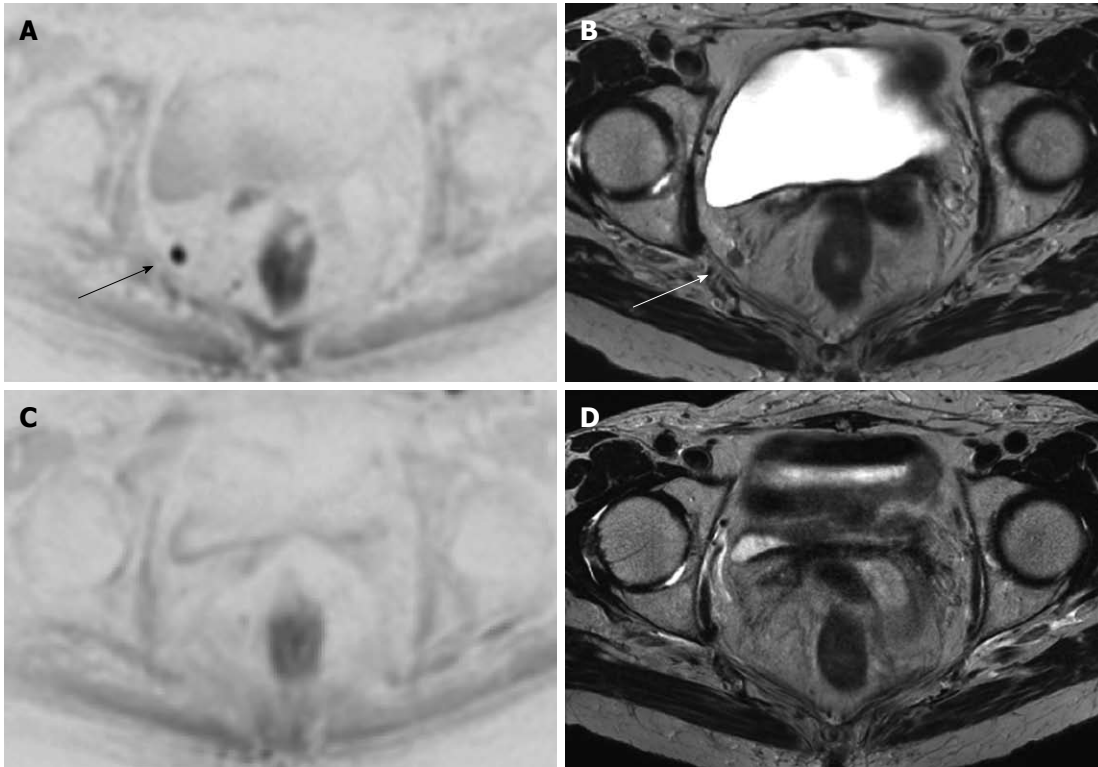


Figure 4 Same case as Figure 2. An enlarged right obturator lymph node is suspected in this patient with a lower third rectal cancer. Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) (A) and axial T2w (B) images show the enlarged obturator lymph node nicely (arrows). DWI (C) and axial T2w (D) images following chemoradiotherapy show that the lymph node has disappeared

images, 29% additional nodes were detected compared with T2-weighted images alone^[47]. The improved nodal identification may aid in treatment planning.

Extramural vascular invasion

Venous invasion is defined as the presence of tumor tissue within an endothelium lined space, either surrounded by a rim of smooth muscle or containing red blood cells. Talbot *et al.*^[48] showed that extramural venous invasion was present in 52% of rectal cancer specimens examined. Of these, the specimens showing invasion in thick-walled veins were significantly associated with distant metastases and death from tumor recurrence.

On MRI, using contiguous 3-mm slices, the presence of tumor signal intensity within a vascular structure is highly suggestive of extramural vascular invasion^[49]. Typically, on T2-weighted images, the tumor signal intensity is intermediate (gray) while the veins are serpiginous or tortuous linear structures beyond the muscle coat^[49]. Larger vessels are typically in a consistent anatomic position and appear black owing to signal void. As tumor invades along the vessel lumen, the vessel expands and ultimately the tumor may disrupt the vessel border, making the vessel border appear irregular or nodular^[49]. Brown *et al.*^[50] found that MRI correctly identified 15 of the 26 rectal cancer patients that had extramural venous invasion documented histologically. In the remaining cases, the subtle microscopic extramural venous invasion could not be resolved on MRI.

Using four criteria (tumor margin, tumor location relative to vessels, vessel size, and vessel border), a 5-point grading system for the MRI-based preoperative assessment of extramural vascular invasion has been proposed^[51]. Initial data suggests it that has been shown to correlate with clinical outcome. On univariable analysis, relapse-free survival at 3 years was 35% for patients with an extramural vascular invasion score on MRI of 3 to 4, compared with 74% for those with a score of 0 to 2 ($P < 0.001$). Interestingly, these scores are similar to relapse-free survival rates noted in patients with histologically positive and negative extramural vascular invasion, respectively (34% *vs* 73.7%, $P < 0.001$). Therefore, the stratification of patients into prognostic groups according to MRI extramural vascular invasion score appears to be clinically accurate for assessing the need for preoperative treatment of patients at high risk.

Extramural spread

Depth of extramural tumor spread is defined as the measured distance of the tumor beyond the outer longitudinal muscle coat. MRI provides valuable information regarding extramural tumor spread^[12], except when the tumors are circumferential or have little peri-rectal fat^[36].

Pathologists have long recognized that with increasing depth of spread there is an increasing incidence of nodal involvement and extramural vascular invasion^[52,53]. Moreover, patients with T3 rectal cancers extending less than 5 mm into the perirectal fat have a significantly better

5-year cancer-related survival rate than do patients with pT3 tumors extending more than 5 mm beyond the rectal wall (85% *vs* 54%, respectively)^[52-54]. Based on these observations, neo-adjuvant therapy has not been routinely recommended for patients with pT3 carcinomas invading minimally (< 5 mm) into the perirectal tissue; instead patients should undergo immediate surgery.

However, the use of < 5 mm as the determinant for the therapeutic decision is controversial and should be used with caution when determining treatment options for patients. Merkel *et al*^[54] reported that tumors with less than 5 mm extramural spread may still have a 38%-43% rate of nodal metastasis. Moreover, if very advanced tumors and those with positive margins are excluded this prognostic factor no longer correlates with survival^[55].

RE-STAGING AFTER CRT

Because of the increasing use of preoperative CRT, MRI is frequently repeated after treatment to re-stage the tumor, assess the response, determine whether it is operable, and establish the extent of surgical resection. However, early studies have questioned the accuracy of MRI in the post-CRT setting with a T-stage correlation of only 47%-54% and an N stage correlation of 64%-68%^[46,56-59]. In the study by Kulkarni *et al*^[60], MRI performed 6 wk post CRT overestimated the CRM involvement in 56% of cases, while T stages were over-staged in 38% and N stages in 4%. Over-staging was due to lack of discrimination between residual tumor and post-treatment changes, both appearing as a diffuse hypointense signal. Post-treatment changes are due to marked fibrosis of the bowel wall or to peritumoral infiltration of inflammatory cells and proliferating vessels as confirmed by other investigators^[46,57].

Recently, improved accuracy of MRI in the post-CRT setting was achieved by lengthening the interval after CRT. In the study by Johnston *et al*^[61], the radiological T-stage determined on MRI obtained 10-11 wk after CRT was the same as the pathological T-stage on the resected specimen in 14 out of 17 cases (88%) as compared to only a 59% agreement between the MRI and subsequent post-resection histopathology when the MRI was performed 6 wk after treatment. In this study, the pre-operative MRI showed ongoing response to CRT up to 12 wk after CRT, which has important clinical implications regarding the most appropriate time to operate.

Change in the surgical strategy may occur after CRT, especially for patients who seem to exhibit a complete tumor response. For this subset of patients, transanal excision or non-operative treatment in selected circumstances maybe considered with good prognosis^[62]. However, predicting the nodal status for these patients using imaging techniques becomes crucial, since the nodes are not removed at local excision. Importantly, the assessment of tumor spread to lymph nodes may be improved with the use of a novel nanoparticle contrast medium (ultra-small superparamagnetic iron oxide; USPIO)^[63,64]. In a recent prospective multicenter study, MRI performed after CRT for rectal cancer

using USPIO was able to improve the negative predictive value of the nodal status to 95%^[65]. Unfortunately, this product is not currently commercially available.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATION

Adenocarcinoma of the lower rectum

The lower third of the rectum (less than 5 cm from the anal verge) lies below the level of the peritoneal reflection. The majority of published series have shown that tumors arising in this anatomic location have the worst outcome, with local recurrence rates as high as 30%. This is due, in part, to the fact that compared to the tumors of the upper rectum, the surgical dissection for these low rectal tumors is less straightforward and is associated with a higher rate of perforation through the correct oncologic plane compared to the tumors of the upper rectum. Anatomically, the mesorectum thins out towards the lower third of the rectum and disappears at the level of the internal sphincter. There is less space for the tumor to traverse before it reaches the surgical plane of resection. Consequently, the CRM is more often positive in the surgical specimen for tumors located in the lower rectum, than for those located in the middle and upper rectum^[32].

To overcome this shortcoming, a new operation, the "cylindrical" abdominoperineal resection (APR), has been pioneered in Europe^[66,67]. In this operation, instead of following the mesorectum all the way to the levator muscles, the surgeon stops when the coccyx is visualized. The remaining dissection is performed from the perineum and is facilitated by the prone position. In the standard APR the perineal operator enters the levators anteriorly to the coccyx and the amount of levator muscle and ischioanal fat removed around the tumor is not standardized. Instead in the cylindrical APR once the levators and the coccyx are encountered the coccyx is excised and the levators are followed laterally to their origin from the lateral pelvic sidewalls where they are transected. In the case of anterior tumors, the posterior vaginal wall and part of the prostate are also removed *en bloc*^[66]. One disadvantage of the technique is that it leaves a very large pelvic gap that can not be primarily closed and therefore a muscle flap reconstruction with the gracilis, the rectus abdominis or the gluteus maximus is often required^[66]. Comparing 27 cylindrical to 99 conventional APRs, West *et al*^[68] found a 70% increase in the amount of tissue removed around the tumor and no violation of the oncologic plane of dissection in the former group as well as a much lower rate of positive CRM 15% *vs* 40%, respectively. While many series advocate a wide perineal resection, and report low rates of local recurrence, these enhanced perineal resections have not become standard of care and prospective data are lacking^[69]. Perineal wound infection, wound breakdown, and neurological dysfunctions are major problems for patients who receive radiation followed by abdominoperineal excision^[69]. Primary closure with a flap overcomes some of these difficulties by bringing non-irradiated tissue into the perineal wound.

In a prospective study of 40 rectal tumors ≤ 5 cm from the dentate line from a single institution, MRI with intravenous contrast medium was universally successful in detecting invasion of the internal and external sphincters^[70]. For low-lying rectal tumors that are restricted to the rectal wall or internal sphincter, spare the external sphincter and levator ani, and are not amenable to local excision as determined by preoperative MRI, there are several advantages to performing inter-sphincteric APR. While the standard APR removes the whole sphincter complex in this procedure the dissection is carried out in the inter-sphincteric plane, the external sphincter is left in place and the perineal defect is easily closed by approximating the external sphincter margins. This not only minimizes the problems with wound healing and postoperative pain but also reduces risk of damage to the erigentes nerves, hypogastric plexus, and the neurovascular bundles of Walsh (containing the cavernous nerves). Damage to these nerves causes both sexual and bladder dysfunction in men and women. Overall, this represents an anatomic and well-standardized dissection, which decreases the risk of rectal perforation and positive margins.

Among the sphincter-saving options, the inter-sphincteric TME, which removes only the upper half of the internal sphincter, has been recently found to be a valid option for selected tumors of the lower rectum^[71]. The procedure is similar to a TME with a manual colo-anal anastomosis. In a TME with a manual colo-anal anastomosis the surgeon performs a mucosectomy above the dentate line leaving the internal sphincter intact. In the inter-sphincteric TME the surgeon cuts through the internal sphincter at the level of the dentate line, enters and dissects along the inter-sphincteric plane until establishing a connection with the abdominal operator. The proximal bowel is then manually anastomosed to the dentate line leaving the distal part of the internal sphincter intact. This allows one to achieve negative distal margins for tumors down to the ano-rectal junction while still providing good functional and oncologic results^[71]. This procedure is indicated for T1-2 tumors that are well or moderately differentiated and for selected T3 tumors that have responded well to CRT.

For some tumors of the lower rectum, a trans-perineal approach overcomes the lack of exposure due to the angled pelvic anatomy and the rectum being surrounded by the levators^[72]. In this approach the external sphincter and the perineal body is exposed through a transverse incision between the anus and the vagina or scrotum. This dissection allows the last 2-3 cm of rectum to be directly visualized.

These new procedures are not part of the standard surgical armamentarium and have to be planned in advance. MRI can offer the surgeon a road map to select the safest plane of dissection and plan the most appropriate procedure (Figure 5)^[13].

Currently, the majority of tumors of the lower third of the rectum are irradiated preoperatively and MRI is not accurate for detecting residual microscopic sites of disease^[57]. Thus, it is not advisable to make decisions



Figure 5 This case highlights the importance of the coronal plane in the assessment of the extension of the T4 lesion across the right levator complex into the right ischiorectal fossa, also shown (arrow) an enlarged and suspect lymph node. In this case, the surgeon may choose a modified APR resection (black dotted line).

about sphincter preservation based purely on MRI assessments of post-radiation tumor response. In this specific circumstance, EUS repeated after irradiation provided a 100% sensitivity but only a 53% positive predictive value for invasion of the sphincters^[73].

Mucinous carcinomas

MRI in rectal carcinoma provides information on the mucinous status in addition to local tumor stage. The definition of mucinous carcinoma originates from histopathological examinations designating carcinomas with a mucin proportion of $> 50\%$ within the tumor volume^[74]. Because of the high signal intensity in T2-weighted imaging, MRI can identify mucin pools in rectal carcinomas with a 97% accuracy and high inter-observer agreement^[75]. Mucinous rectal tumors diagnosed at pre-therapeutic MRI have been associated with a noticeably worse response to chemoradiation as compared to that observed in non-mucinous carcinomas which allows an estimation of response before initiating neoadjuvant treatment^[76,77].

NEW DEVELOPMENTS

There have been many advances in MRI techniques. The spatial resolution has improved, the speed of the examinations has been increased, DWI sequences have been used for body applications, and new contrast media have been developed. The newest 3 Tesla scanners provide excellent spatial resolution. High-resolution T2 sequences can be acquired in a shorter time^[78] and isotropic (cubic) voxels can be acquired. In the near future, 3D T2 sequences with isotropic voxels will probably be available and the accurate positioning of imaging planes will no longer be an issue.

DWI is one of the most interesting developments of MR, allowing it to become an alternative to FDG-positron emission tomography (PET) in oncological imaging. DWI provides MR images with a signal intensity sensitized to the random motion of free water molecules^[79,80]. In the

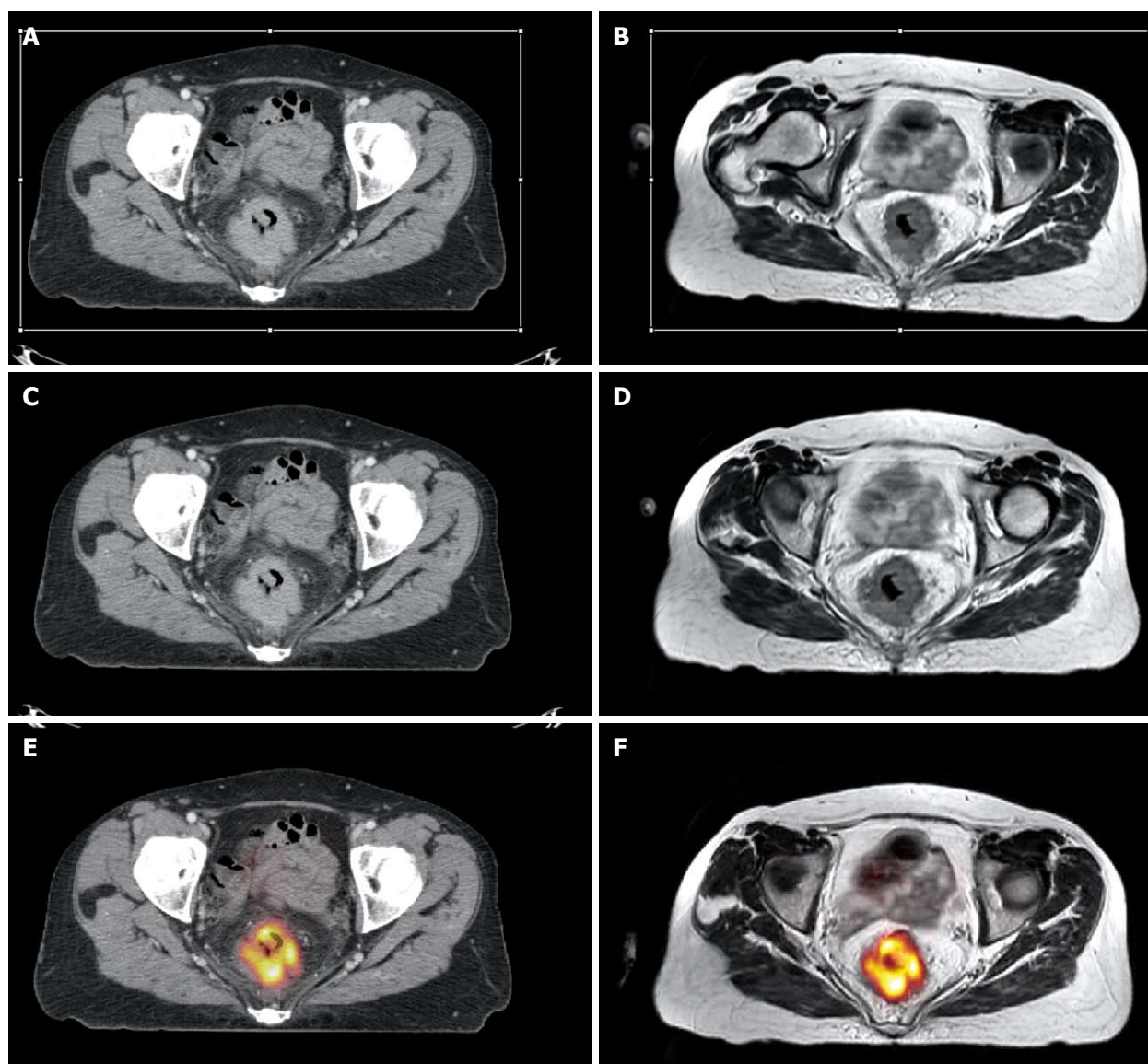


Figure 6 Multimodal image registration can be performed to improve staging and radiotherapy planning of rectal cancer. Axial contrast enhanced computed tomography (CT) at the portal phase (A) and rigid registration of the axial T2w magnetic resonance (MR) image (B). Rigid registration reduces the misalignment between the anatomical structures in the two modalities. A, B: Volume selection (rectangular white thin line) for non-rigid registration is performed; C, D: Non-rigid registration compensates for the more complex deformations due to the different acquisition setting; E, F: Following non rigid registration, MR can be fused with the positron emission tomography (PET) image (F) and the result is super-imposable on the PET-CT image (E).

rectum it is able to distinguish neoplastic from surrounding normal tissue (Figure 2). As such it may help in the detection of small tumors. However, the major challenge of MRI for rectal cancer is to reliably define the response to neoadjuvant therapy. Predicting a tumor's response to treatment can be of considerable clinical benefit. Interestingly, preliminary results indicate that DWI might be effective in predicting treatment outcomes and for detecting the early tumor response^[81-83]. In quantitative DWI, the magnetic resonance signal arises from both intracellular and extracellular compartments, and the result is given in terms of the apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC). Changes in the tumor ADC have been shown to correlate with the development of intra-tumoral fibrosis after chemoradiation^[83], histologically proven apoptotic cell death^[84] and regression in tumor size after chemotherapy

and chemoradiation^[81]. Other authors have supported the use of ADC values in combination with other MR imaging criteria in improving the discrimination between malignant and benign lymph nodes even after chemoradiation^[46,63,85] (Figure 4). The main limitation to DWI imaging today is the variability in ADC values that are obtained with different magnets and imaging protocols. Further studies will be necessary to prove the possible value of DWI on predicting therapy outcome.

There are also alternative imaging techniques. CT has so far had a limited role in the local staging of rectal cancer. Today, perfusion imaging represents one of the most interesting fields of CT development. Perfusion imaging of large volumes is possible with multi-detector CT scanners. This technique has shown promise in predicting the response to neoadjuvant treatment^[86]. CT perfusion data

cannot currently be obtained with dynamic contrast-enhanced MR^[87] and this represents a strong point in favor of CT.

PET and CT-PET scans are used mainly in the assessment of metastatic rectal cancer and local recurrence. Sequential determination of fluorodeoxyglucose uptake on PET/CT has proved useful in differentiating responsive from nonresponsive tumors during and at the end of neoadjuvant therapy^[88]. However, radionuclide techniques have limitations, such as low spatial resolution and high cost. Large studies are needed to establish the most effective morphologic and functional imaging modalities for post-neoadjuvant therapy restaging of rectal cancer^[86].

Over the last several years many strategies have been developed to overcome the limitations of radiotherapy planning using noncontrast-enhanced CT. Radiotherapy guided by MRI is possible using strategies that allow fusion and/or co-registration of MR images with those from other imaging techniques^[88]. PET-CT, contrast enhanced CT, and non contrast enhanced CT and MR images can all be fused together to improve the assessment of rectal lesions and radiotherapy planning^[89-91] (Figure 6). However, PET-guided radiotherapy has not yet provided a clear advantage. Better delineation of pelvic anatomy and pathology will become progressively more important as radiotherapy protocols are developed that include a boost on the gross tumor volume with documented improvement in patient outcome^[92].

CONCLUSION

Rectal cancer is a global disease associated with poor outcomes if not properly staged and treated. The increased use of preoperative chemoradiation and refinement of surgical techniques have led to a greater proportion of patients being considered for curative resection. New surgical options exist for these patients in the form of sphincter saving resection or transanal excision in selected circumstances. For the vast majority of rectal carcinomas, MRI is currently the most accurate modality on which to base treatment decisions for patients with rectal cancer. Traditionally, the decision to apply preoperative treatment for rectal cancer patients has been based on the T- and N-stage. Lately, other MRI findings such as the radial distance of the tumor to the CRM and extramural vascular invasion score have been identified as important risk factors for local failure and survival. We strongly believe that every center that treats patients with rectal cancer should develop a multidisciplinary team featuring a description of the MRI findings and their implementation in the treatment strategy with the aim of increasing resectability, reducing the local recurrence and treatment morbidity, and improving the quality of life.

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Applications of multi-nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy at 7T

Mary C Stephenson, Frances Gunner, Antonio Napolitano, Paul L Greenhaff, Ian A MacDonald, Nadeem Saeed, William Vennart, Susan T Francis, Peter G Morris

Mary C Stephenson, Susan T Francis, Peter G Morris, The Sir Peter Mansfield Magnetic Resonance Centre, School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, United Kingdom

Frances Gunner, Paul L Greenhaff, Ian A MacDonald, School of Biomedical Sciences, University of Nottingham Medical School, Nottingham NG7 2UH, United Kingdom

Antonio Napolitano, Academic Radiology, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2UH, United Kingdom

Nadeem Saeed, William Vennart, Molecular Medicine, Pfizer, Sandwich, Kent CT13 9NJ, United Kingdom

Author contributions: Stephenson MC, Gunner F, Morris PG, Francis ST, Saeed N, MacDonald IA, Greenhaff PL and Vennart W designed the research; Stephenson MC and Gunner F performed the research; Stephenson MC analyzed the data; Napolitano A contributed new analytic tools; Stephenson MC and Morris PG wrote the paper.

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Correspondence to: Mary C Stephenson, PhD, The Sir Peter Mansfield Magnetic Resonance Centre, School of Physics and Astronomy, University of Nottingham, Nottingham NG7 2RD, United Kingdom. mary.stephenson@nottingham.ac.uk

Telephone: +44-115-9566881 Fax: +44-115-9515166

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Abstract

AIM: To discuss the advantages of ultra-high field (7T) for ^1H and ^{13}C magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) studies of metabolism.

METHODS: Measurements of brain metabolites were

made at both 3 and 7T using ^1H MRS. Measurements of glycogen and lipids in muscle were measured using ^{13}C and ^1H MRS respectively.

RESULTS: In the brain, increased signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and dispersion allows spectral separation of the amino-acids glutamate, glutamine and γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), without the need for sophisticated editing sequences. Improved quantification of these metabolites is demonstrated at 7T relative to 3T. SNR was 36% higher, and measurement repeatability (% coefficients of variation) was 4%, 10% and 10% at 7T, vs 8%, 29% and 21% at 3T for glutamate, glutamine and GABA respectively. Measurements at 7T were used to compare metabolite levels in the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and insula. Creatine and glutamate levels were found to be significantly higher in the insula compared to the ACC ($P < 0.05$). In muscle, the increased SNR and spectral resolution at 7T enables interleaved studies of glycogen (^{13}C) and intra-myocellular lipid (IMCL) and extra-myocellular lipid (EMCL) (^1H) following exercise and re-feeding. Glycogen levels were significantly decreased following exercise (-28% at 50% VO_2 max; -58% at 75% VO_2 max). Interestingly, levels of glycogen in the hamstrings followed those in the quadriceps, despite reduce exercise loading. No changes in IMCL and EMCL were found in the study.

CONCLUSION: The demonstrated improvements in brain and muscle MRS measurements at 7T will increase the potential for use in investigating human metabolism and changes due to pathologies.

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Key words: Magnetic resonance spectroscopy; ^{13}C ; ^1H ; 7 Tesla; Glutamate; Glutamine; γ -aminobutyric acid

Peer reviewer: Kubilay Aydin, MD, Professor, Istanbul University, Istanbul Faculty of Medicine, Department of Radiology, Neuroradiology Division Capa, Istanbul, Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) is a versatile technique which can be used for measurement of metabolite levels, studies of bioenergetics, and measurement of chemical reaction rates without the need for invasive procedures such as biopsy. Whilst magnetic resonance imaging has quickly become one of the most widely used clinical tools, progress in MRS has been much slower. MRS has the potential to become a vital tool for aiding the understanding of changes due to pathology in specific regions of the body, as well as for clinical diagnosis and treatment monitoring. Improvements in hardware, which have allowed higher field spectrometers to be developed, provide increased sensitivity and spectral resolution. Many studies have demonstrated these improvements with increasing field^[1-10], however the extent has been variable, with increases in signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of 20% to 46% reported between 1.5 and 3T^[1,4-6] and 80% from 1.5T to 4T^[2]. This paper compares SNR and measurement reproducibility for ¹H and ¹³C MRS measurements in the human brain and skeletal muscle, and discusses applications of ¹H and ¹³C MRS for studying human metabolism, utilizing the increased sensitivity and spectral resolution at 7T.

Improved ¹H MRS reproducibility of glutamate, glutamine and γ -aminobutyric acid measurements in the human brain at 7T

Levels of metabolites, measurable in the human brain with ¹H MRS, are important in understanding changes involved in neurological^[11,12] and psychiatric diseases^[13-17], and potential therapies^[18-19]. Studies at low field strength (≤ 1.5 T) tend to concentrate on measurement of N-acetyl aspartate (NAA), Creatine (Cr) and Choline (Cho). Measurement of glutamate (Glu), glutamine (Gln) and γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) is difficult at low field strength due to their overlapping resonances with each other, and with those of other molecules such as myo-Inositol (mI) and NAA. Thus, at low field, the concentrations of Glu and Gln are often combined as Glx = Glu + Gln. This could mask relative changes in Glu and Gln, such as might be expected if the rate of the glutamate/glutamine cycle is altered. Many different methods have been suggested for individual measurement of Glu, Gln and GABA, including constant time point resolved spectroscopy^[20], chemical shift selective filters^[21], 2D J-resolved spectroscopy^[22] and MEGA-editing sequences^[23,24]. However, these techniques are often time consuming, or may result in the loss of other metabolite signals which may be of interest. At higher fields, increasing spectral resolution enables metabolites to be accurately quantified without the need for sophisticated editing, and

various sequences, optimized to give maximum separation, have been proposed^[25-29]. Little work has been done to compare optimized sequences, or to establish levels of reproducibility based on different sequences. The aim of this study was to compare the ¹H MRS reproducibility of measurements of Glu, Gln and GABA at 3 and 7T using both a short TE STEAM sequence (TE/TM = 16/17 ms for optimum SNR) and a long TE STEAM sequence (TE/TM = 74/68 ms, shown to give pseudo-singlets for these metabolites^[29]). Levels of variation in neurotransmitter concentrations over a week were then assessed in the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and insula (Ins) using the sequence which provided the most reproducible results.

Ultra-high field studies of skeletal muscle energy stores

Glycogen, intra-myocellular lipid (IMCL) and extra-myocellular lipid (EMCL) are the major sources of energy in human skeletal muscle^[30] and can be measured *in vivo* using ¹³C^[31-33] and ¹H MRS respectively^[34-40]. Studies of energy stores in skeletal muscle (or hepatic tissue) can provide much information on utilization during exercise or during postprandial replenishment^[41-45], and are important for understanding diseases where glucose or lipid metabolism is thought to be perturbed. Due to the low natural abundance and low relative sensitivity of the ¹³C nucleus, natural abundance ¹³C MRS acquisition times tend to be long. Increased signal, available at 7T, allows for shorter acquisition times, which can be used to achieve better temporal resolution for dynamic studies. Shorter acquisition times for dynamic studies allow ¹³C MRS measurements of glycogen to be made sequentially with ¹H MRS measurements of lipid stores thus allowing both of the major sources of energy to be observed on a reasonable timescale. The separation of IMCL and EMCL peaks in ¹H MR spectra is determined by the orientation of the muscle fibres in the magnetic field^[40]. For well aligned fibres, orientated with the static magnetic field, the resonances from EMCL shift approximately 0.2 ppm from their respective IMCL resonances. Thus, at higher field, increased spectral resolution should provide more accurate quantitation as well as enabling separation of peaks in muscles with reduced alignment, for example the quadriceps and hamstrings in the human thigh.

Previous studies of energy stores have shown that muscle glycogen depletion during exercise is dependent on muscle fibre type^[46] as well as exercise intensity^[47] and duration^[48]. Much less is known about the role of IMCL in muscle substrate selection and maintaining performance during exercise, although it is suggested that at higher exercise intensities IMCL contributes little to meeting energy demand, whereas at lower intensities IMCL may be oxidised to provide energy^[49]. Here, a study was performed to assess the feasibility of sequential monitoring muscle glycogen and IMCL levels, in thigh muscles, prior to and following exercise, by utilizing the higher SNR and spectral resolution available at 7T.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical permission was obtained from the University of

Nottingham Medical School Ethics Committee and all subjects provided informed written consent before participation in the study. All measurements were performed on the Philips Achieva 3T and 7T systems at the Sir Peter Mansfield Magnetic Resonance Centre, Nottingham.

¹H reproducibility study

3T scans were acquired using an 8-channel SENSE head coil with transmission on the Q-Body coil. 7T scans were acquired on a 16-channel SENSE head, with transmission on a head volume coil.

Sequence reproducibility: Twelve healthy male subjects (age = 28 ± 11 years) attended two scan visits, 8 ± 2 d apart. On each visit subjects were scanned for 1h in each scanner, the protocol consisted of 3 survey images (to allow voxel positioning within the ACC) and 3 ¹H MRS acquisitions. Subjects were asked to reposition their head between repeats. For each spectral acquisition a 1 mm isotropic anatomical T₁ weighted Turbo-field Echo (TFE) image was acquired with TE/TR = 3.8/8.3 ms. This image was used to estimate the tissue percentage within the voxel to allow correction of metabolite concentrations since metabolites (with the exception of Gln and lactate) are present in much lower concentrations in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) compartment (levels of Gln are given without correction).

3T spectra were acquired with a bandwidth (BW) = 3000 Hz, and the number of points (No. samples) = 2048. 7T spectra were acquired with BW = 4000 Hz, No. samples = 2048. At both 3T and 7T the “short TE” STimulated Echo Acquisition Mode (STEAM) sequence was acquired with TE/TM/TR = 16/17/2000 ms, and the “long TE” sequence with TE/TM/TR = 74/68/2000 ms. The volume of interest (VOI) = 20 mm × 18 mm × 25 mm was placed in the ACC. Spectra for metabolite analysis consisted of 288 water-suppressed averages. Reference spectra consisted of 18 averages without water suppression.

Regional and longitudinal variation: 12 healthy male subjects (age = 30 ± 5 years) were scanned twice 7 ± 0 d apart. On visit 1, three repeat spectra (7T short TE) were acquired from the insula (VOI = 40 mm × 12 mm × 18 mm), to assess single session repeatability, and one spectrum acquired from the ACC. On visit 2, one spectrum was acquired from the ACC and one from the insula.

Post-processing: All spectra were processed in jMRUI. The water suppressed spectra were summed in jMRUI before analysis using LCModel and sequence specific basis-datasets based on 10 metabolites: N-acetyl aspartate (NAA), Creatine (Cr), Choline (Cho), Glu, Gln, GABA, Myo-Inositol (mI), Aspartate (Asp), Taurine (Tau) and Guanidinoacetate (Gua). Cramer-Rao lower bounds (CRLB) > 100% were eliminated from averages. Metabolite concentrations from LCModel were then corrected for tissue concentrations (by dividing by the tissue fraction). Metabolite concentrations are given

in arbitrary units and no correction has been made for relaxation effects. Estimated standard deviations (%SDs) were taken directly from LCModel and average values were calculated across all subjects. Coefficients of variation [%CV = (SD/mean) × 100] were calculated across the three repeat measures in a single visit in ACC and insula cortex. Longitudinal variation [%LV = (SD/mean) × 100] was calculated from repeat measures over a week. SNR measurements were calculated from post-processed spectra using an in-house Matlab script [SNR = peak height/(1.96 × RMS_{noise})]. Significance was calculated using a Wilcoxon signed ranks test in SPSS 17 (SPSS for Windows, Chicago Ill, USA).

3T vs 7T comparisons of muscle glycogen and IMCL measurements

Subjects: Four healthy subjects (age 18-30 years) were scanned for ¹H MRS measurement of lipid levels in muscle on both the 3 and 7T scanners. 3T ¹H IMCL scans were acquired using the Q-Body coil for signal transmission and reception. 7T ¹H IMCL scans were acquired using a transmit/receive quadrature ¹H coil (with inbuilt ¹³C quadrature coil), supplied by Philips (Cleveland, Ohio, USA). Spectra were acquired from the soleus muscle using a PRESS sequence with TE/TR = 40/7000 ms and the following parameters: VOI = 30 mm × 30 mm × 50 mm, with 16 water-suppressed averages. Reference spectra consisted of 16 acquisitions without water suppression. At 3T BW = 2000 Hz, No. samples = 1024, and at 7T BW = 4000 Hz, No. samples = 2048. To assess the repeatability of measurements, three measurements were made in a single subject.

For measurement of glycogen SNRs, spectra were acquired from a phantom containing 250 mol/L oyster glycogen. 3T ¹³C glycogen measurements were acquired using a transmit/receive 13cm diameter ¹³C coil with quadrature ¹H decouple coils (PulseTeq Ltd, Gloucestershire, UK). 7T glycogen measurements were acquired using a transmit/receive ¹³C quadrature coil with quadrature ¹H decouple coils. Spectra were acquired using a pulse-acquire sequence with optimized adiabatic pulses and narrowband decoupling (3T BW = 8000 Hz, No. samples = 256; 7T BW = 16000 Hz, No. samples = 256). Eight spectra, each with 80 averages, were collected at each time point (total scan time 11 min) before signal averaging in jMRUI.

¹H and ¹³C MRS of muscle energy stores

Subjects: Six healthy, recreationally active, male volunteers (age = 26 ± 1.5 years, body mass index = 23.7 ± 0.9 kg/m², VO₂ max = 53.4 ± 2.7 mL/kg per minute) underwent preliminary testing to establish VO₂ max, before attending two study visits, separated by at least 1 wk. Subjects were overnight fasted and had refrained from alcohol, caffeine and strenuous exercise for 24 h and were requested to consume the same quantity and type of food prior to each study visit.

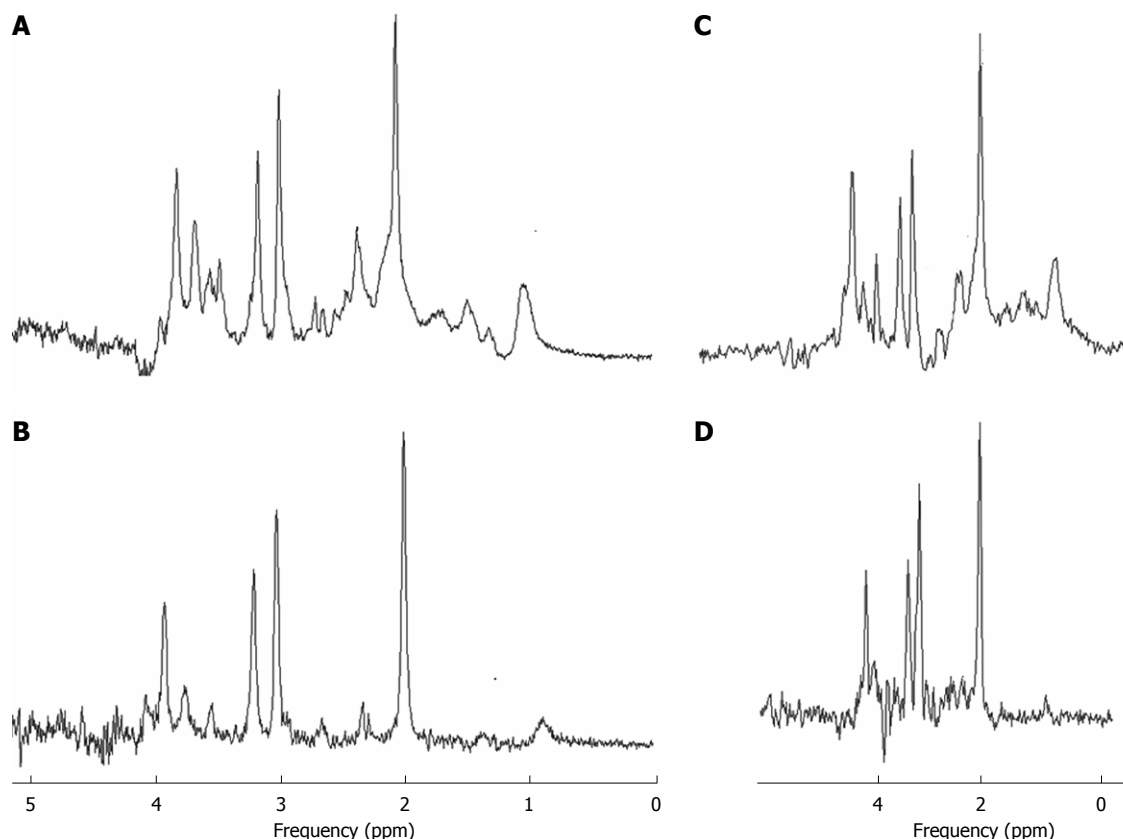


Figure 1 Example spectra acquired from subject 1 using 7T short TE (A), 7T long TE (B), 3T short TE (C) and 3T long TE (D) sequence.

Experimental protocol: On each visit, subjects underwent two baseline scan sessions with the RF coil positioned on the front and the back of the thigh respectively. Measurements were made of IMCL and glycogen. Following the baseline scans, subjects cycled for 1h at either 50% VO_2 max ($50.8\% \pm 0.7\%$) or 75% VO_2 max ($74.9\% \pm 1.9\%$) with exercise intensity randomized across the subject's two visits. A post exercise (PE) scan was carried out on the front of the thigh to measure glycogen levels before subjects were given a carbohydrate drink ($t = 20$ min PE) consisting of a 1 litre solution containing 100 g of a commercially available glucose polymer. Following ingestion of the drink, ^{13}C scans for measurement of glycogen were acquired at $t = 20, 80$, and 120 min in the quadriceps, and $t = 50$ and 100 min in the hamstring muscle group. Measurements of ^1H IMCL were carried out at $t = 20$ and 80 min in the vastus intermedius (VI) muscle and at $t = 50$ and 110 min in the semitendinosus (ST) muscle.

^{13}C MRS: ^{13}C spectra were acquired using a proton-decoupled pulse acquire sequence with adiabatic pulses and narrowband decoupling (BW = 16 000 Hz, No. samples = 256, TR = 1000 ms) for measurement of glycogen concentrations. Eight spectra, each with 80 averages, were collected at each time point (total scan time 11 min). ^{13}C spectra were post-processed by signal averaging and 50 Hz Lorentzian line broadening added before a phase correction was applied using jMRUI. Glycogen/external

reference peak areas were determined using in-house software built in Matlab.

^1H MRS: ^1H MR spectra, for measurement of IMCL and EMCL, were acquired from the VI and the ST muscles using a STEAM sequence with the following parameters: TE/TM/TR = 11/13/8000 ms, VOI = 18 mm \times 18 mm \times 30 mm, No. samples = 4096, BW = 4000 Hz. Sixteen water-suppressed averages, and 4 reference spectra were acquired. Spectra were post-processed by realigning and phase correcting using jMRUI. Peak areas were calculated using the AMARES algorithm^[50], fitting to Gaussian line-shapes. Values were converted to absolute levels as described by Szczepaniak *et al.*^[51], using T_2 values measured at 7T^[52].

RESULTS

^1H reproducibility study

Sequence optimization: Example spectra, acquired in the ACC for a single subject, are shown in Figure 1. Average ACC SNR values, calculated for each sequence from the unfiltered NAA peak at 2.008 ppm, were highest for the 7T short TE sequence (SNR = 69 ± 7), which was significantly better than the 3T short TE sequence (SNR = 51 ± 6 , $P < 0.002$). Similarly the 7T long TE sequence produced significantly higher SNR values than the 3T long TE sequence (SNR = 37 ± 9 vs 27 ± 6 , $P = 0.006$).

The mean estimated error in metabolite quantifica-

Table 1 Mean Cramer-Rao lower bounds (SD) from LCModel averaged across all subjects

	NAA	Glu	Gln	ml	GABA	Cr	Cho
7T short	2 (0)	2 (0)	6 (1)	5 (1)	9 (2)	3 (2)	2 (0)
3T short	3 (1)	8 (2)	24 (8)	6 (1)	24 (10)	12 (3)	7 (7)
7T long	2 (1)	8 (1)	28 (13)	10 (3)	26 (9)	2 (0)	2 (0)
3T long	3 (1)	16 (5)	40 (15)	13 (6)	50 (20)	12 (5)	5 (1)

NAA: N-acetyl aspartate; Glu: Glutamate; Gln: Glutamine; ml: Myo-Inositol; GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid; Cr: Creatine; Cho: Choline.

Table 2 Mean % coefficients of variation (SD) averaged across all subjects

	NAA	Glu	Gln	ml	GABA	Cr	Cho
Uncorrected							
7T short	3 (2)	4 (2)	10 (6)	9 (3)	10 (6)	3 (2)	5 (4)
3T short	5 (3)	8 (6)	29 (11)	8 (4)	21 (14)	10 (4)	16 (16)
7T long	6 (6)	10 (6)	29 (19)	19 (10)	16 (8)	7 (6)	8 (6)
3T long	6 (6)	16 (9)	32 (30)	22 (10)	36 (25)	22 (13)	8 (7)
Tissue corrected							
7T short	4 (3)	5 (2)	10 (5)	9 (4)	10 (6)	4 (2)	6 (3)
3T short	6 (4)	8 (6)	29 (12)	8 (5)	22 (15)	10 (5)	17 (16)
7T long	6 (6)	10 (7)	29 (19)	20 (10)	15 (6)	6 (6)	8 (6)
3T long	7 (6)	16 (10)	32 (30)	23 (10)	38 (25)	22 (14)	9 (7)

NAA: N-acetyl aspartate; Glu: Glutamate; Gln: Glutamine; ml: Myo-Inositol; GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid; Cr: Creatine; Cho: Choline.

Table 3 Mean Cramer-Rao lower bounds (SD) from LCModel averaged across all subjects

	NAA	Glu	Gln	ml	GABA	Cr	Cho
CRLB ACC	2 (0)	2 (0)	6 (1)	5 (1)	9 (2)	3 (2)	2 (0)
CRLB Ins	3 (1)	3 (1)	9 (3)	7 (1)	11 (3)	2 (0)	2 (1)

CRLB: Cramer-Rao lower bounds; ACC: Anterior cingulate cortex; NAA: N-acetyl aspartate; Glu: Glutamate; Gln: Glutamine; ml: Myo-Inositol; GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid; Cr: Creatine; Cho: Choline.

tion, the Cramer-Rao lower bounds (CRLB), from LC-Model analysis are shown in Table 1. CRLBs for Glu, Gln and GABA were lowest for the 7T short TE sequence, as expected from the SNR values. CRLB values for the 3T short TE and 7T long TE sequence were similar, despite much increased SNR for the 3T short spectra. CRLBs were highest for the 3T long TE sequence. The signals from Gln and GABA were not measurable (CRLB > 100%) in one spectrum using the 7T long TE sequence, and GABA was not found in 9 spectra using the 3T long TE sequence.

The intra-subject coefficients of variation for repeat measures of ACC metabolite levels are shown in Table 2. Values are given both uncorrected (direct from LCModel) and following correction for the voxel tissue fraction.

Regional and longitudinal variation

Spectral SNRs, averaged across all subjects, were signifi-

Table 4 Mean % coefficients of variation (SD) and % longitudinal variation (SD) averaged across all subjects

	NAA	Glu	Gln	ml	GABA	Cr	Cho
%CV							
ACC	4 (3)	5 (2)	10 (5)	9 (4)	10 (6)	4 (2)	6 (3)
Ins	6 (6)	8 (6)	12 (9)	10 (6)	21 (11)	7 (7)	6 (4)
%LV							
ACC	6 (3)	8 (7)	11 (9)	13 (13)	16 (13)	8 (9)	9 (10)
Ins	6 (5)	8 (10)	18 (18)	18 (11)	20 (24)	6 (6)	6 (6)

CV: Coefficients of variation; LV: Longitudinal variation; ACC: Anterior cingulate cortex; NAA: N-acetyl aspartate; Glu: Glutamate; Gln: Glutamine; ml: Myo-Inositol; GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid; Cr: Creatine; Cho: Choline.

Table 5 Mean (SD) metabolite levels (AU)

	NAA	Glu	Gln	ml	GABA	Cr	Cho
ACC	6.3 (0.7)	11.0 (1.4)	2.3 (0.4)	3.8 (0.3)	1.7 (0.4)	6.1 (0.6)	1.6 (0.2)
Ins	7.1 (0.6)	12.1 (1.3)	2.5 (0.5)	3.8 (0.5)	1.9 (0.4)	6.5 (0.4)	1.7 (0.2)

ACC: Anterior cingulate cortex; NAA: N-acetyl aspartate; Glu: Glutamate; Gln: Glutamine; ml: Myo-Inositol; GABA: γ -aminobutyric acid; Cr: Creatine; Cho: Choline.

cantly higher in the ACC than in the insula cortex (ACC SNR = 63 ± 10 , insula SNR = 36 ± 11 , $P = 0.002$) despite similar VOIs (9.00 mL *vs* 8.64 mL respectively) and similar average tissue fractions (0.94 ± 0.2 and 0.94 ± 0.1 , calculated from 1 mm isotropic images) (Tables 3-5).

3T vs 7T comparisons of muscle glycogen and IMCL measurements: measurements of glycogen and lipid

The SNR for the C1 peak of glycogen at 100.4 ppm (measured using ^{13}C MRS) was increased by 60% at 7T compared with the 3T values (11 *vs* 7) for the same number of acquisitions. Using ^1H MRS, SNRs (measured for the water peak) at 7T were 90% higher than values measured at 3T. %CVs for measurement of EMCL levels at 7T were much lower compared with the 3T measurements (6% *vs* 20% respectively). Similarly, repeat measurement of IMCL levels showed improved repeatability at 7T compared with 3T (2% *vs* 6%).

^1H and ^{13}C MRS of muscle energy stores

Basal glycogen levels were not significantly altered between each subject's visits. Similarly there were no basal differences in glycogen levels between the 50% VO₂ max visit and the 75% VO₂ max visit. Basal glycogen concentrations in the quadriceps tended to be higher than in the hamstrings, although this did not reach significance (front = 204 ± 56 mmol/L, back = 171 ± 49 mmol/L, $P = 0.2$).

Levels of glycogen (Figure 2) decreased significantly in the quadriceps following exercise ($t = 10$ min) at both 50% and 75% VO₂ max ($-28\% \pm 20\%$ and $-52\% \pm 10\%$, $P < 0.05$) and were significantly lower when the subjects cycled at 75% VO₂ max compared with 50% VO₂ max ($P < 0.05$). Levels remained significantly below baseline levels at 20 and

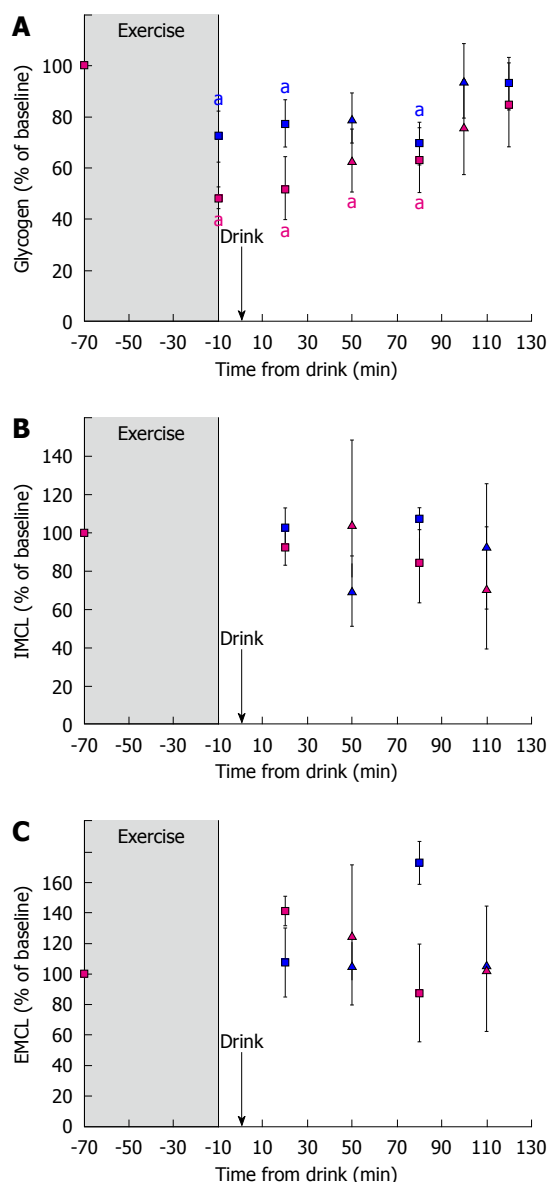


Figure 2 Percentage changes in glycogen (A), intra-myocellular lipid (B) and extra-myocellular lipid (C) levels due to exercise and following recovery. Values are mean \pm SE. Squares represent measurements in the front of thigh, triangles represent measurements in the back of thigh. Points shown in blue and pink indicate exercise at 50% and 75% VO₂ max respectively ($^*P < 0.05$). IMCL: Intra-myocellular lipid; EMCL: Extra-myocellular lipid.

80 min following the drink ($-23\% \pm 21\%$ and $-30\% \pm 19\%$ respectively following cycling at 50% VO₂ max and $-48\% \pm 28\%$ and $-37\% \pm 29\%$ respectively at 75% VO₂ max). By 2 h after ingestion of the carbohydrate rich drink, glycogen levels in the front of the thigh were recovering towards baseline level ($-7\% \pm 23\%$ and $-15\% \pm 37\%$ following cycling at 50% VO₂ max and 75% VO₂ max respectively).

Post-exercise concentrations of glycogen in the hamstrings were not measured until 50 min after ingestion of the drink. Despite this, glycogen levels were still significantly below baseline level following exercise at 75% VO₂ max ($-37\% \pm 28\%$) but had recovered towards baseline by 100 min ($-24\% \pm 19\%$). Measurements of glycogen were not significantly different from baseline levels in the

back of the thigh following exercise at 50% VO₂ max. As expected, mean glycogen concentrations were consistently lower in both the quadriceps and hamstrings following exercise at 75% compared with exercise at 50%.

IMCL and EMCL content

Basal IMCL content in the VI was not significantly different from levels in the ST muscle ($0.4\% \pm 0.2\%$ vs $0.3\% \pm 0.1\%$). No significant differences in IMCL were measured at any time point following exercise and re-feeding. Levels of EMCL were significantly larger in the ST compared with the VI ($2.2\% \pm 0.3\%$ vs $0.8\% \pm 0.3\%$, $P < 0.05$). No changes in EMCL levels were observed following exercise and re-feeding.

DISCUSSION

¹H reproducibility study

Increases in SNR from 3 to 7T are approximately 35% and 37% for the short TE and long TE sequence, respectively. Previous studies have reported various levels of increase in SNR with increasing field; however it is likely the 7T sequence would suffer from increased T₂ relaxation effects at the same TE, as well as increased saturation of signal due to longer T₁ relaxation values. Due to these relaxation effects, the 3T short TE sequence produced significantly higher SNR values than the 7T long TE sequence ($P = 0.002$).

As shown in Table 2, CVs for Glu, Gln and GABA from repeat measures are much lower for the 7T short TE sequence than for the 3T short TE sequence. It is possible this is in part due to reduced SNR; however, %CVs for GABA, using the 7T long TE sequence, are lower than those measured using the 3T short TE sequence despite the reduced SNR. This improvement in quantification is likely due to increased spectral resolution, as previously shown by Tkáč *et al.*^[10].

Regional and longitudinal variation

Differences in SNR values, measured in the ACC and insula are likely due to increased field inhomogeneities for the long, thin VOI used in the insula (linewidths were measured to be approximately 15% wider in the insula compared with the ACC, $P = 0.05$), and poorer water suppression.

In spite of the much reduced SNR levels in the insula, CRLBs (Table 3) are only slightly increased. This is in agreement with single session CVs which, with the exception of GABA, are only slightly larger in the insula compared with the ACC. The reduced ability to accurately measure GABA is likely due to decreased spectral resolution as a consequence of the increased linewidths in the insula since the measured concentrations of GABA in the insula are similar to those measured in the ACC (Table 5).

%LVs tend to be larger than %CVs for all metabolites in the ACC (Table 4). This implies biological variation over a week, greater than the reproducibility of the measurements. %LVs for Gln and GABA were also larger

than %CVs in the insula. In contrast, %LVs for NAA, Cr, Cho, and Glu in the insula were not larger than %CVs. It is possible that there is some biological variation occurring in these levels which is masked by decreased single session repeatability in the insula.

Metabolite concentrations from the ACC and insula showed levels of Glu and Cr were significantly higher in the insula compared with the ACC ($P = 0.05$ and $P = 0.02$ respectively). No other differences in metabolites levels were found.

3T vs 7T comparisons of muscle glycogen and IMCL measurements: measurements of glycogen and lipid

Assuming that signal increases linearly with the number of averages (N_{ave}) while noise increases with $\sqrt{N_{\text{ave}}}$, obtaining the same SNR as measured for the C1 glycogen peak at 7T would take approximately 2.5 times longer at 3T. Utilizing this increase in signal strength at 7T allows either increased temporal resolution or improved measurement accuracy.

Improved measurement repeatability at 7T is likely due to the increase in spectral separation of IMCL and EMCL at 7T compared to 3T. However, repeatability of lipid measurements (particularly EMCL) in muscle is extremely susceptible to voxel repositioning errors. The voxels used for these measurements are quite large and so there are limited positions in which the voxel can be placed whilst avoiding adipose lipids and bone (particularly at 7T where chemical shifts between fat and water are increased). This may make repositioning between repeat measurements less variable and therefore improve measurement repeatability.

^1H and ^{13}C MRS of muscle energy stores

As expected, levels of glycogen in exercising muscles decreased significantly during exercise, with larger decreases following higher intensity exercise. At 2 h, levels of glycogen were returned to baseline levels indicating replenishment of glycogen stores due to carbohydrate re-feeding. Interestingly, levels of glycogen in the hamstrings followed those in the quadriceps, despite the expected reduced exercise load.

No changes were measured in levels of IMCL due to exercise. If there are changes, they are likely to be small, and poor measurement repeatability (due to large spatial variation in levels of IMCL^[40]) may mask these changes. It is thought that EMCL turnover is slow in contrast to IMCL, so EMCL levels would not be expected to change significantly over the timescale observed.

Increased spectral resolution at 7T allows improved ^1H MRS measurement of Glu, Gln and GABA concentrations which are thought to be perturbed in many neurodegenerative disorders and psychiatric diseases. Quantification is further improved by increases in sensitivity with increasing field strength. Using a short TE STEAM sequence, Glu, Gln and GABA were measured repeatedly in the ACC with coefficients of variation of 5%, 10% and 10% respectively within 15 min. Measurements made 1 wk apart showed in-

creased variability indicating biological change in excess of single session reproducibility levels.

Increased sensitivity and spectral resolution available at 7T allows dynamic changes in glycogen and lipid levels in skeletal muscles to be observed with increasing temporal resolution. Measurements following exercise and re-feeding show the expected^[45-50,53,54] decrease in glycogen levels in muscle, with a larger decrease in levels for increased exercise intensity. Levels of lipid were not significantly altered despite cycling for 1 h at 50% and 75% VO_2 max.

COMMENTS

Background

Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) has the potential to become a vital tool to aid the understanding of changes due to pathology in specific regions of the body, as well as for clinical diagnosis and treatment monitoring. Since signal increases with magnetic field strength, the use of ultra-high field (7T) scanners allows increased potential for measuring metabolite concentrations more accurately as well as allowing measurement of low concentration metabolites not seen at lower field.

Research frontiers

Levels of metabolites, particularly neurotransmitters glutamate and γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA), as well as glutamine, are thought to be important in understanding changes involved in neurological and psychiatric diseases. This study shows increased reproducibility for ^1H MRS measurement of glutamate, glutamine and GABA at 7T compared with 3T. In addition, measurement of energy stores [glycogen and intra-myocellular lipid (IMCL)] in skeletal muscle using ^{13}C and ^1H MRS respectively, are shown to be improved at 7T compared to 3T. This study utilizes the increased signal to noise to improve temporal resolution for subsequent measurements of IMCL and glycogen, and shows that higher intensity exercise (70% VO_2 max vs 50% VO_2 max) increases utilization of glycogen. No change in IMCL levels were measured due to exercise.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Little work has been done to compare optimized sequences and to establish levels of reproducibility based on different sequences for measurement of glutamate, glutamine and GABA. This paper contains single session repeatability for various proposed sequences at 3 and 7T, as well as measuring levels of biological variation over time. This paper also shows improved measurement of glycogen and IMCL at 7T, and is one of the first papers to sequentially measure dynamic changes in IMCL and glycogen levels at 7T.

Applications

Measurement of metabolite levels are important in understanding changes involved in neurological and psychiatric diseases, as well as for monitoring potential therapies. More accurate measurements will allow smaller changes to be measured which may provide new information for treatments.

Peer review

The current paper discusses the advantages of ultra-high field MR spectroscopy. It is a very well designed exceptional study.

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Imaging features of a huge spermatic cord leiomyosarcoma: Review of the literature

Irene Kyratzi, Evangelos Lolis, Eleni Antypa, Maria Alexandra Lianou, Demetrios Exarhos

Irene Kyratzi, Eleni Antypa, Demetrios Exarhos, Department of Radiology, Evangelismos General Hospital, Ipsilantou 45-47, 10676, Athens, Greece

Evangelos Lolis, Second Department of Surgery, Evangelismos General Hospital, Ipsilantou 45-47, 10676, Athens, Greece

Maria Alexandra Lianou, Department of Pathology, Evangelismos General Hospital, Ipsilantou 45-47, 10676, Athens, Greece

Author contributions: All authors contributed in the therapeutic approach of the patient (U/S: Antypa E and Kyratzi I, CT: Exarhos D and Kyratzi I, Surgery: Lolis E, Pathologic exams: Lianou MA) and they wrote the part of the paper corresponding to their exam; Kyratzi I made literature searching and wrote the paper; Exarhos D made the supervision of the paper.

Correspondence to: Irene Kyratzi, MD, Department of Radiology, Evangelismos General Hospital, Ipsilantou 45-47, 10676, Athens, Greece. ekyratzi@yahoo.com

Telephone: +30-21-21021560 Fax: +30-21-6015227

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Peer reviewer: Ahmed A Shokeir, MD, PhD, FEBU, Professor, Urology Department, Urology and Nephrology Center, Mansoura University, Mansoura 35516, Egypt

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INTRODUCTION

Leiomyosarcoma (LMS) accounts for 5%-10% of soft tissue sarcomas. However, LMS of the spermatic cord is rare and only approximately 110 cases have been reported in the literature so far^[1]. The spermatic cord is the most common site of extratesticular neoplasia but only 30% of them are malignant, 90% of which are sarcomas. Approximately 10% of paratesticular sarcomas are LMSs^[2]. This type of lesion is reported in all age groups but is mostly diagnosed in the 6th decade^[3]. A case of LMS is presented with description of its imaging features [ultrasound (U/S), computed tomography (CT)].

CASE REPORT

A 60 year-old male presented at the outpatient clinic with a right hydrocele and a small right scrotal lump, 4 mo after having had a mesh repair of bilateral inguinal hernias and mesh repair of an incisional midline hernia. Further work up was recommended during the consultation but the patient did not comply. Eighteen months later he presented once more at the outpatient clinic with a slightly painful, firm and obviously larger than previously right scrotal mass. The patient denied any lower urinary tract symptoms. On physical examination a firm, lobulated mass was palpated in the right hemiscrotum extending proximal up to a few centimeters from the right external

Abstract

Spermatic cord leiomyosarcomas (LMSs) are rare tumors which may cause significant morbidity and mortality if inadequately diagnosed or treated. We report a case of a paratesticular LMS in a 60-year-old man who presented with a right scrotal mass. The patient was evaluated by scrotal ultrasound and computed tomography of the abdomen and pelvis (including scans of the scrotum), which revealed a large extratesticular mass. The lesion proved to be malignant and the patient underwent radical orchiectomy with high cord ligation. To improve the assignment of this lesion, we further analyze the imaging features of LMS and correlate them with pathologic findings.

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Key words: Spermatic cord leiomyosarcoma; Extratesticular sarcoma; Scrotum

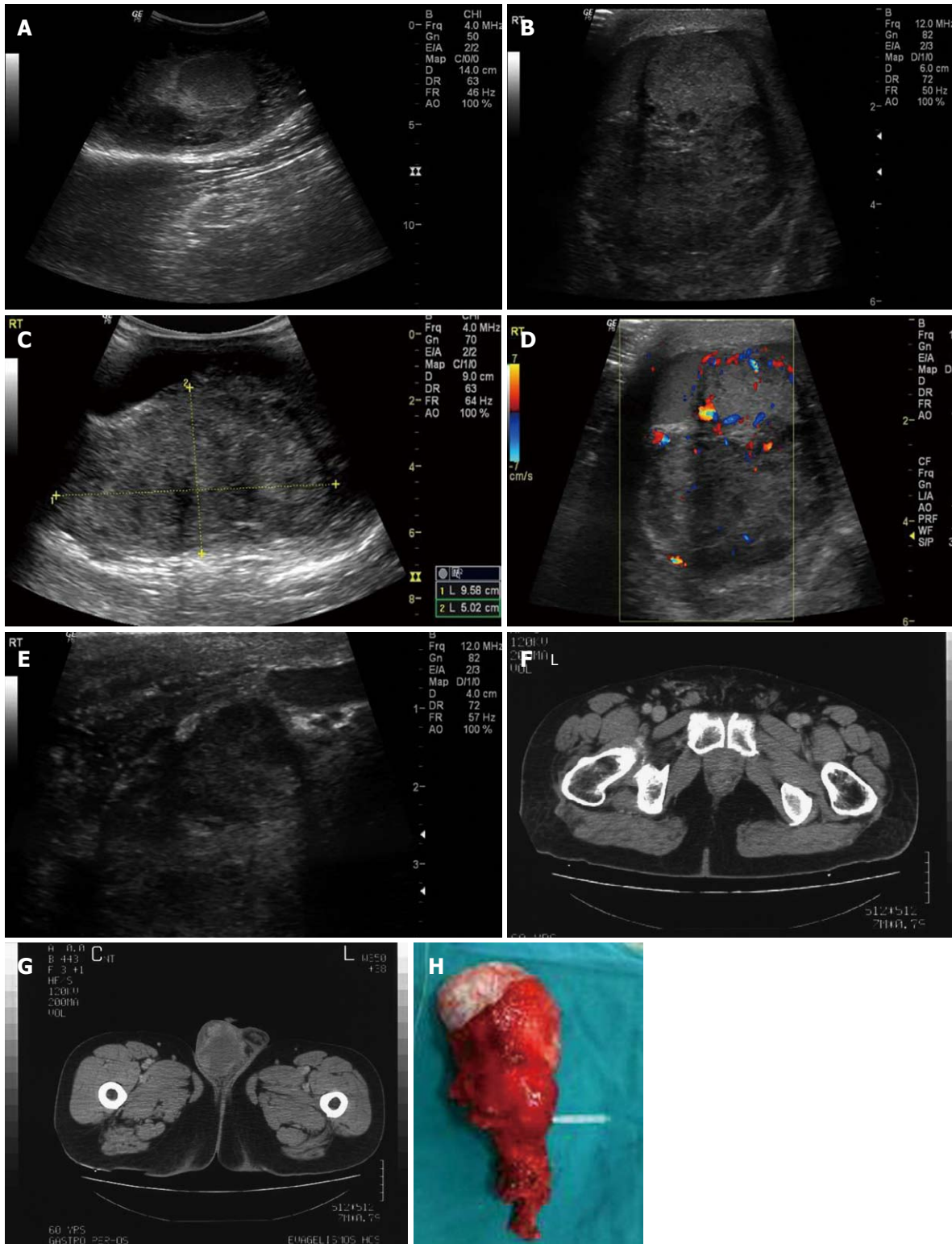


Figure 1 Leiomyosarcoma. A: Extratesticular mass located posterior-superiorly to the right testis; B: Large mass of heterogenous echotexture located posterior-superiorly to the testis without obvious signs of infiltration; C: Presence of calcifications and hypoechoic areas - hydrocele (use of convex probe due to the size of the mass); D: Colour Doppler image revealing vascularity within the tumour; E: Thickening of the spermatic cord in the inguinal canal; F: Thickening of the spermatic cord and dilated vessels present; G: Mass within the right hemiscrotum with irregular, mostly peripheral vascularity; H: Surgical specimen.

inguinal ring. The right spermatic cord was thick and hard on palpation. Recurrence of the right inguinal hernia with mass migration into the scrotum was excluded clinically. Right inguinal lymph nodes were palpated, but they were soft, painless and mobile.

Scrotal ultrasound was performed using a 10 MHz linear transducer and a 4 MHz convex transducer, revealing a large mass of mixed echogenicity with calcifications, measuring approximately 10 cm × 5 cm × 8 cm, located posterior-superiorly to the right testis (Figure 1A). The

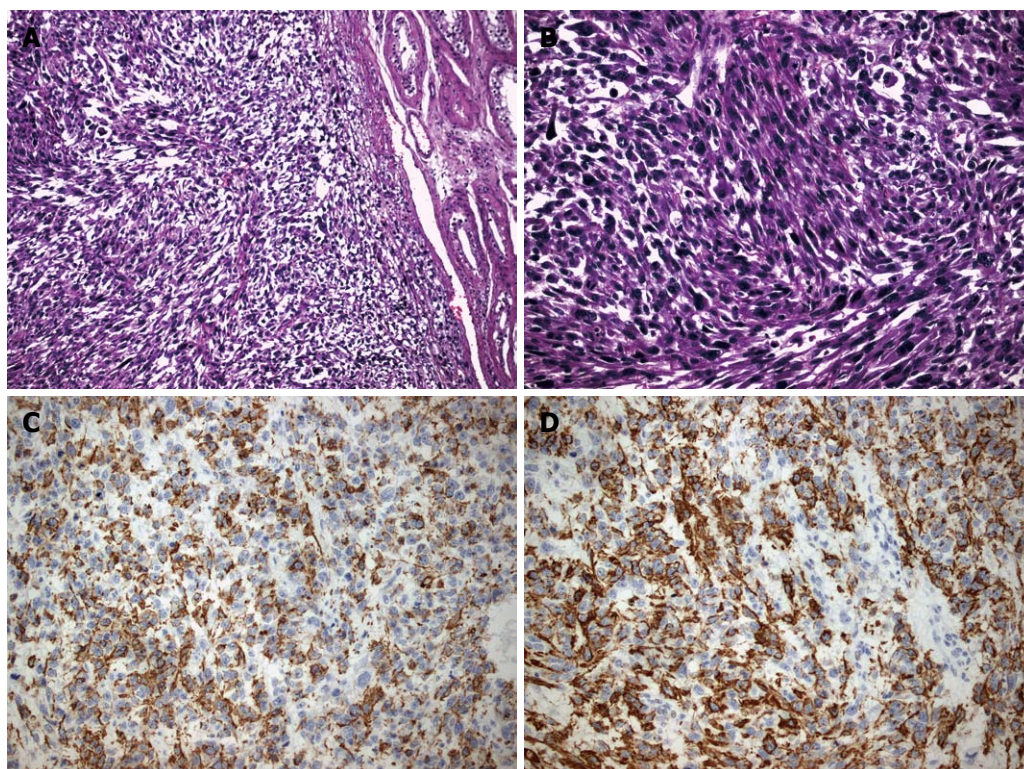


Figure 2 Pathological evidence of spermatic cord leiomyosarcoma. A: A fascicular growth pattern of spindle neoplastic cells is evident, which is highly indicative of leiomyosarcoma; B: A high degree of atypia and cellular pleomorphism is noticed on the above picture; C: Positivity for desmin is shown; D: Positivity for specific muscle actin is shown.

mass was depicted in close proximity to the testis, without obvious signs of infiltration (Figure 1B and C). Colour Doppler revealed increased, mostly peripheral, irregular vascularity (Figure 1D), as well as dilatation and congestion of the vessels within the spermatic cord. The right testis had normal dimensions, echotexture and vascularity. It was impossible to visualize the right epididymis. A significant complex hydrocele was also present. The examination was further expanded into the inguinal canal, to exclude a possible groin hernia. There were no signs of hernia; the walls of the ductus deferens, however, were thick in comparison to the left side (Figure 1E). The wall of the right hemiscrotum was also thick. A few inguinal lymph nodes were detected, without signs of inflammation or infiltration. The findings of the left hemiscrotum were unremarkable. Even though the extratesticular location of the mass was indicative of a benign etiology, the irregularity of the vascularity along with the inability to depict the epididymis led us to the admission of the patient for further investigation.

All laboratory examinations were within normal limits, including α -fetoprotein and β -human chorionic gonadotropin (β -HCG). Plain chest X-ray was normal. A CT scan of the abdomen and the pelvis with intravenous contrast material was performed and the scrotum was also included. The right spermatic cord was edematous with dilated vessels along its course (Figure 1F). A mass with a greater diameter of approximately 10 cm was located in the right hemiscrotum, with peripheral enhancement after intra ve-

nous injection of contrast material (Figure 1G). Soft tissue densities (HU 20-65), which did not imply the presence of fat, were detected throughout the mass. A few inguinal lymph nodes were depicted but without suspicious characteristics of infiltration. No para-aortic or pelvic lymph nodes were detected. There was no evidence of other pathologic conditions. Malignancy was confirmed by a core biopsy.

A transinguinal right radical orchiectomy was carried out with high cord ligation. Two right inguinal lymph nodes were sampled. The patient's post-operative course was uneventful.

Macroscopically, a firm, solid, grey-white tumor measuring 12 cm \times 9.5 cm \times 6 cm involved the right spermatic cord, displacing the testicle inferiorly, without invading it (Figure 1H). The right epididymis was not recognized. Seven neoplastic lesions along the spermatic cord with undefined borders were noted with diameters up to 2.5 cm.

Microscopically, an adequate degree of cellular and nuclear atypia as well as pleomorphism were revealed. In addition to that, multiple mitoses and widespread, coagulant necrotic areas were seen. Immunohistochemical stain results were: desmin (+), specific muscle actin (a-SMA) (+), CD68 (+), myogenic differentiation 1 (MyoD1) (+), Caldesmon (-) (Figure 2A-D). The findings were compatible with the diagnosis of a highly malignant, grade III leiomyosarcoma of low differentiation. Other pathological findings concerning extension of the mass included multiple neoplastic emboli in the tumor periphery, infiltration

of the vessel walls and absence of testicular or tunica infiltration. The sampled lymph nodes were not infiltrated.

Chest CT was performed after the pathological diagnosis was established and revealed multiple nodules throughout the parenchyma of the lungs, compatible with secondary deposits. It was not carried out immediately after malignancy was diagnosed by core biopsy, because it would not have changed the surgical plan. The operation could not have been avoided because the patient was symptomatic and the mass was locally advanced. Moreover, the operation aimed at controlling local disease, regardless secondary lung depositions. Nevertheless, due to the rarity of the disease, there were not sufficient data and clear guidelines regarding the surgical management of these tumors in relation to the stage.

Two courses of adjuvant chemotherapy were administered (doxorubicin hydrochloride, trabectedin), after which progressive disease was still detected on chest CT. A second line of chemotherapy (dacarbazine, cyclophosphamide, vincristine sulfate) was administered and the metastatic disease showed evidence of remission in follow up CT after the third course (approximately 6 mo after the operation). By the end of the sixth course of the second line of chemotherapy, however, progressive disease was detected (increase of the size and number of secondary lung depositions, as well as a block of external iliac lymph nodes). Chemotherapy was switched to paclitaxel and gemcitabine, which is currently administered to the patient (9 mo after the operation).

DISCUSSION

Malignant neoplasms of non testicular origin located in the scrotum are uncommon and are usually sarcomas. In a series of 1583 adult soft tissue sarcomas at the Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, 43 were urological and 14 (0.8%) were paratesticular (5 rhabdomyosarcoma, 4 leiomyosarcoma, 3 liposarcoma, 1 malignant fibrous histiocytoma and 1 undifferentiated sarcoma)^[4]. One of the largest series of solid extratesticular masses in literature with 91 patients included, all of whom underwent surgical resection, reports an overall malignancy rate of 3%^[5]. However, another series of 19 patients with extratesticular masses evaluated with scrotal U/S, reports a malignancy rate of 16%, with a limitation of selection bias^[6]. Even though a few reviews of a small number of series are available, LMS seems to be the second most common histological variety following liposarcoma, with a peak incidence in the sixth decade^[7]. Most patients present with a painless or slightly painful mass in the scrotum as our patient did. Only one case was reported where the mass was extremely painful and this was related to overproduction of β -HCG^[8].

LMS is the result of neoplastic transformation of smooth muscle cells or multi-potential mesenchymal cells in various sites of the body. Its behavior is related to the site, histological grade of the lesion and the presence of nodal or distant metastases. It is subdivided topographi-

cally into 3 groups: LMS of the deep soft tissue, LMS of the cutaneous and subcutaneous tissue and LMS of vascular origin. According to the American Joint Committee on Cancer Staging System, paratesticular sarcomas should belong to the deep subtype^[9].

Paratesticular LMS originates from the spermatic cord, the scrotum (testicular tunica, dartos muscle and scrotal subcutis) or the epididymis. The most common type arises from undifferentiated mesenchymal cells of the cremasteric muscle and vas deferens. The epididymal form is less frequent and arises from the smooth muscle surrounding the basement membrane of the epididymis canal. The dartous layer is the origin of the scrotal types. The first two aforementioned types drain into the retroperitoneal lymph nodes in contrast with the last type, which drains into the inguinal, external and internal iliac nodes^[10,11].

Grading of paratesticular LMS is based on the evaluation of the number of mitoses (the mean number of mitoses in 5 HPF [high power field] in a part of tumor with the highest mitosis rate and cellularity), the percentage of necrosis and the severity of nuclear pleomorphism^[3]. This LMS was classified grade III due to its multiple necrosis, widespread necrotic areas nuclear atypia and nuclear pleomorphism.

Radical orchiectomy is the cornerstone of treatment in the management of this neoplasm, but the reported survival rates indicate the need for additional treatment^[3,9]. It is important to note that negative histological margins are particularly hard to achieve during primary surgery^[10]. Comprehension of the pattern of spread is essential, but this task is difficult by the rare occurrence of this disease. The most common means of dissemination are by regional lymph nodes spread (external, common iliac, hypogastric and retroperitoneal lymph nodes), haematogenous metastases (most commonly to the lungs) and by local extension (local infiltration of the scrotum, inguinal canal or pelvis, along the pathway of vas deferens)^[11]. Involvement of the anterior abdominal wall is also possible^[12]. In 1966, Kyle stated that the ratio of haematogenous to lymphatic spread is 3:1^[13]. Further series suggested that lymph node dissection (especially retroperitoneal) should not be performed unless enlarged lymph nodes are encountered on CT scans or palpated during surgery^[13,14].

Even though the study of a rare disease treated over several decades contains inherent biases that makes firm conclusions difficult to draw, the results of several studies suggest that adjuvant radiation, following radical orchiectomy, may control local microscopic disease and reduce the risk of locoregional relapse^[10]. At present the role of chemotherapy remains controversial and restricted to the presence of metastatic disease^[7].

In this case report, ultrasound examination of the patient revealed a heterogeneous mass, with calcifications and hypoechoic to anechoic areas, with irregular, mostly peripheral vascularity overtaking the right hemiscrotum, pressing the testicle inferiorly, without obviously obscuring its borders. It was impossible to depict the right epididy-

Table 1 Correlation of imaging and pathologic findings

U/S findings	CT findings	Pathologic findings
Hypoechoic to anechoic areas	Heterogeneous lesion with cystic areas	Necrotic areas
Disability to visualize the epididymis		Epididymal infiltration
Location in the root of the hemiscrotum, superiorly to the testis	Location in the root of the hemiscrotum, superiorly to the testis	Spermatic cord origin
Definite testicular borders		No testicular infiltration
Thick and edematous appearance of spermatic cord	Thick and edematous appearance of spermatic cord	Neoplastic lesions within the cord
Distended vessels within the cord	Distended vessels within the cord	Spermatic cord vessels' infiltration
	HU 20-65	Cystic, solid and calcified areas - absence of fat

U/S: Ultrasound; CT: Computed tomography.

mis. The majority of the LMSs described in the literature are heterogeneous lesions like the aforementioned^[6,11,15,16] although some LMSs appear to be hypoechoic^[8,14]. Calcifications are not mentioned in the majority of the cases described^[1,2,6,8,11,14-16]. Colour Doppler ultrasonography shows either minimal^[8], or increased vascularity^[11,16]. The appearance is mostly related to the size of the lesion and the differentiation of the mesenchymal components^[16]. This mass appears to be the largest LMS ever to have been reported in literature until now, with a maximum diameter of 12 cm. LMSs described until now ranged in size from 2-9 cm with a mean of 5 cm^[8,17]. CT scan was not performed for the evaluation of the lesion itself, but in order to estimate the extent of disease, since the mass was suspected to be malignant. The only relevant bibliographic references besides staging concern the exclusion of the extension of retroperitoneal sarcoma into the scrotum^[12]. A non-homogeneous mass with irregular, peripheral contrast enhancement and HU between 20 and 65, indicative of cystic, solid and calcified areas were found. A thickened and edematous spermatic cord with distended vessels was also depicted. The above CT findings parallel the sonographic ones. In addition to that, absence of areas with negative HU excluded the presence of fat within the lesion.

The afore-mentioned are pathologically correlated to necrotic areas within the tumor (cystic areas), infiltration of the epididymis (epididymis not visualized), origin from the spermatic cord (high position of the lesion within the scrotum), absence of testicular infiltration (definite testicular borders), neoplastic lesions within the spermatic cord (thick and edematous appearance) and infiltration of the vessels (vessel distention within the cord) (Table 1).

Even though there are circumstances where MR imaging is very helpful in the assessment of the scrotum, since it is far more specific than U/S (depiction of lipomas, fibrous pseudotumors, polyorchidism), it was considered that it would not limit the aforementioned differential diagnosis^[18] or change the surgical procedure.

Although the ultrasound findings alone should have raised the probability of malignancy, the differential diagnosis of the extratesticular lesions in general is not so limited. Apart from purely cystic extratesticular lesions

(epididymal cyst, scrotal tunica cyst) most of the solid lesions, either benign (adenoid tumor, papillary epididymal cystadenoma, fibrous pseudotumor, inguinoscrotal hernia, lipoma, leiomyoma) or malignant (rhabdomyosarcoma, liposarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, mesothelioma), frequently have overlapping characteristics, making it extremely difficult to exclude malignancy^[18,19]. Considering the above imaging features the mass was more compatible with a leiomyosarcoma (exclusion of rhabdomyosarcoma due to the age of the patient), even though the diagnosis of a benign leiomyoma or a fibrous pseudotumor could not be completely excluded^[18-20].

In conclusion, dealing with an extratesticular lesion can be confusing and troublesome, especially when a young patient is involved. Malignant extratesticular tumors are rare, but even if the malignancy rate of these lesions is much lower than that of the intratesticular masses, it is high enough to be of concern. Sonography should be the initial imaging modality since it can determine the origin of the lesion and even though the imaging characteristics are not adequate to reach a single diagnosis, the heterogeneous appearance along with the irregular, often increased vascularity of the tumor may allow the diagnosis of a sarcoma. Correlation with case history of the patients and CT/MR findings can further limit the differential diagnosis and lead to a better management of the patient.

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Feng Chen's work on translational and clinical imaging

Feng Chen

Feng Chen, Section of Radiology, Department of Medical Diagnostic Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Leuven, 3000 Leuven, Belgium

Feng Chen, Molecular Small Animal Imaging Center, University of Leuven, 3000 Leuven, Belgium

Feng Chen, Department of Radiology, Zhong Da Hospital, Southeast University, Nanjing 210009, Jiangsu Province, China

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Correspondence to: Feng Chen, MD, PhD, Section of Radiology, Department of Medical Diagnostic Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Leuven, Herestraat 49, bus 7003, 3000 Leuven, Belgium. chenfengbe@yahoo.com.cn

Telephone: +32-16-330165 Fax: +32-16-343765

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Abstract

Dr. Feng Chen is a chief medical doctor and the vice chairman of the Department of Radiology in Zhong Da Hospital at Southeast University, Nanjing, China and a senior researcher in the Department of Radiology at the Catholic University of Leuven, Belgium. His main areas of interest are translational imaging research including stroke, tumor angiogenesis, assessment of therapeutic response in solid tumors, and magnetic resonance contrast media. Dr. Feng Chen has published 44 scientific papers in peer-reviewed international journals. He and his colleagues have developed an imaging platform which includes animal models, animal preparations and multiparametric magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) protocols for translational animal imaging research using clinical machines. His MRI findings on rodent stroke are considered to "serve as a model for future laboratory investigations of treatment of acute



Figure 1 Feng Chen, MD, PhD, Section of Radiology, Department of Medical Diagnostic Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Leuven, Herestraat 49, bus 7003, 3000 Leuven, Belgium.

stroke and unify the approaches developed for clinical studies". He and his colleagues have introduced a novel liver tumor model in rodents, in which a series of studies concerning the antitumor activity of vascular disrupting agents have been successively conducted and assessed by *in vivo* MRI, especially by diffusion weighted imaging as an imaging biomarker. His goal is to provide valuable references for clinical practice and to contribute to the translation of animal imaging research into patient applications.

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Key words: Animal study; Contrast agent; Magnetic resonance imaging; Therapeutic assessment; Translational research; Tumor angiogenesis; Tumor therapy; Vascular disrupting agent

Peer reviewer: Roberto Grassi, MD, Full Professor of Radiology, Department "Magrassi-Lanzara" Institute of Radiology, Second University of Naples, Piazza Miraglia, Naples, 80138, Italy

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INTRODUCTION AND EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Dr. Feng Chen is a chief medical doctor and the vice chairman of the Department of Radiology in Zhong Da Hospital at Southeast University, Nanjing, China. Currently, he is also a senior researcher in the Department of Radiology at the Catholic University of Leuven, Belgium (Figure 1). He obtained his Bachelor's degree in Medicine in 1984 and Master's degree in Radiology in 1987 from Nanjing Railway Medical College (known as Medical School of Southeast University since 2000), China. He was employed as a radiologist in Zhong Da Hospital of Southeast University from 1987 to 2001. He was awarded a Chinese Overseas Scholarship to support his clinical magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) research at Leeds University in the UK as a visiting scholar from 1997 to 1998. He obtained his PhD degree from the Catholic University of Leuven in 2007. Since then he has been employed at the University of Leuven.

Dr. Feng Chen has published 44 scientific papers in peer-reviewed international journals. He has accepted several invitations to be a panel expert at international cancer conferences, to speak at international meetings, and to write reviews or chapters on small animal imaging and oncology imaging using clinical MR scanners. Throughout his academic career, he has been supported by a series of awards including the Chinese Scholarship Council; National Natural Science Foundation of China; EAR-ECR Research and Education Fund Fellowship Grant, European Congress of Radiology 2000, and European Union Asia-Link Program. He was also the silver prize winner of the QUIZ on Asian-Oceanian Seminars on Abdominal Radiology in 1997 and the silver prize winner of the QUIZ on Diagnostic and Interventional Radiology in 1999.

ACADEMIC STRATEGY AND GOALS

As a radiologist with more than 15 years work experience, Dr. Chen is well aware of the vital role of preclinical imaging research in studying the mechanism of human pathologies and in finding a solution for problems encountered in daily clinical practice. Therefore, over the last 9 years Dr. Chen's main work has been focused on translational imaging research^[1-15]. Since clinical MR scanners are available to most institutions conducting animal experiments, he and his colleagues have developed a platform which includes animal models, animal preparations and a multiparametric MRI protocol for translational animal imaging research using clinical machines^[16]. Based on this imaging platform, a number of animal models such as the modified photothrombotic stroke model^[1], implanted liver tumor model^[4,17] and reperfused partial liver infarction model in rodents^[11] have been characterized, and the therapeutic efficacy of some novel thrombolytic and anticancer agents have been monitored and evalu-

ated^[9,12,18]. Dr. Chen is also pursuing the further investigation of ischemic diseases and tumor angiogenesis imaging, and exploring novel specific imaging and biological markers for the noninvasive assessment of pathological processes. The goal is to provide valuable references for clinical practice and to contribute to the translation of animal imaging research into patient applications.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS

MRI studies in rodent stroke

During the 5-year period of his PhD program, Dr. Chen systematically studied a model of photochemically-induced thrombosis (PIT) of proximal middle cerebral artery occlusion with MRI using a 1.5 Tesla clinical scanner^[1-3,7,8,19]. With this model, the therapeutic effects of a novel anti-stroke agent, microplasmin (μ Pli) has been monitored and evaluated with MRI, and compared with the approved thrombolytic agent, tissue plasminogen activator (tPA)^[9]. The results indicated that μ Pli with superior safety may be a potential alternative to tPA for the treatment of focal ischemic stroke.

The main findings of this series of studies included: (1) An ischemic penumbra defined with diffusion and perfusion mismatch using MRI has been approved in this PIT stroke model, which is used as an inclusion criterion before treatment^[6,9]; (2) A delayed perfusion phenomenon has been observed for the first time in a stroke animal model by MR perfusion imaging, which plays an important role in maintaining perfusion to the "penumbra" region after stroke onset^[3,8]; and (3) The evidence of μ Pli in the treatment of the stroke model has been documented with noninvasive multiparametric MRI^[9,20].

The findings of Dr. Chen and his colleagues "demonstrate the ability to identify the ischemic and putatively infarcted regions before therapy, to institute therapy in a model that compares thrombolytic agents, and to document the response and complication rates. These findings serve as a model for future laboratory investigations of the treatment of acute stroke and unify the approaches developed for clinical studies" as stated in an Editorial on Dr. Chen and his colleague's article which appeared in an issue of *Radiology*^[21].

Imaging assessment of therapeutic effects in oncology

Dr. Chen's research activities and contribution in this field are mainly associated with the following work:

Novel liver implanted tumor models in rodents were developed and characterized using comprehensive MRI techniques which included morphologic, functional, and metabolic information^[4,17]. These models provided an upgraded research platform for the preclinical assessment of diagnostic and therapeutic strategies as indicated by the consequent outcomes listed below.

Diffusion weighted imaging (DWI) has emerged as a unique and powerful non-invasive MRI technique. Its value as an imaging biomarker has been investigated extensively

in imaging-based diagnosis in a variety of translational applications including cerebral ischemia and solid tumors using small animals. Through technical adaptation and optimization, Dr. Chen and his colleagues have been able to perform clinically relevant animal studies with conclusions based on DWI quantification using a clinical magnet^[5,22].

MRI monitoring and evaluation of experimental hepatic rhabdomyosarcoma treated with a vascular disrupting agent (VDA) has been conducted in a series of studies^[12-15,18]. The results demonstrate that clinical MRI allows monitoring of VDA-related vascular shutdown and the discrimination between viable tissue and necrotic tumor tissue. However, a single dose of VDA seems insufficient for tumor eradication due to evident peripheral residue and recurrence^[23]. Therefore, VDA combined with other therapeutic strategies, such as antiangiogenics, have been proposed and are undergoing investigation, and are believed to be more easily translated into patient practice because of the clinically relevant experimental set-up.

Investigation and application of tissue specific MR contrast agents

Necrosis-avid contrast agents (NACAs) have thus far been discovered and developed by Prof. Ni in the Catholic University of Leuven, Belgium as necrosis-targeting markers for MRI identification of non-viable tissue^[24]. During recent years, Dr. Chen has been actively involved in the investigation of NACAs^[25,26] and their application in acute myocardial infarction^[27], tissue viability assessment, and therapeutic evaluation after interventional therapies^[28].

Dr. Chen also compared the effects of two superparamagnetic iron oxide (SPIO) contrast agents, ferumoxides and SHU-555A, in MRI of liver and spleen in the early phase of their clinical application^[29], which provided valuable information for best practice in patients.

Computed tomography gastrography for diagnosis of gastric carcinoma

Gastric carcinoma is one of the leading causes of death in East Asia. Dr. Chen was awarded an EAR-ECR Fellowship Grant in this field by the Research and Education Fund during the European Congress of Radiology 2000 in Vienna. In this study, two- and three-dimensional display techniques after spiral computed tomography (CT) scanning were cross-referenced. The role of the combined CT technique was compared with that of upper gastrointestinal series, fiberoptic gastroscopy and histopathology in the detection, Borrmann's classification, and staging of gastric carcinoma^[30]. Based on the work described above, Dr. Chen, together with two colleagues, edited a book entitled "Virtual Endoscopy and Related 3D in Clinical Medicine"^[31]. Dr. Chen also systematically introduced the diagnostic test, the receiver operative characteristic curve (ROC)^[32] approach in diagnostic radiology in China.

Imaging study on relationship between anomalous junction of pancreaticobiliary duct and diseases of biliary tract and pancreas

Dr. Chen systematically investigated and reported, for the

first time, the occurrence of anomalous junction of the pancreaticobiliary duct (AJPBD) based on cholangiopancreatography in a Chinese population. The results showed that AJPBD is a possible risk factor for biliary duct and pancreatic diseases. A new complex pattern of AJPBD was proposed and a novel technique for magnetic resonance pancreatography after oral juice stimulation was developed. Dr. Chen's study findings have been listed as one of the most important advances in abdominal radiology in China^[33].

PERSPECTIVE

Medical imaging is a rapidly growing field in medicine. Small animal imaging has becoming a major player in an increasing number of animal experiments in which MRI has been a favorite choice for *in vivo* monitoring due to its advantages which include excellent resolution and innocuousness^[34]. As one of his research interests, Dr. Chen's work will focus on the novel anti-tumor strategies involving the application of VDA assessed by *in vivo* imaging techniques. Antivascular tumor therapies with VDAs are a promising approach in oncologic research and have been conducted in a number of studies^[5,12,14,18]. However, rapid tumor re-growth from a residual viable rim after treatment with a VDA compromises the therapeutic efficacy of these agents^[23]. Several approaches have been suggested to solve this problem including biological and targeted radiotherapy methods. For instance, tumor rebound after VDA treatment is reported to be associated with the acute mobilization of bone marrow (BM)-derived circulating endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) induced by VDA, which contributes to the responsive tumor neoangiogenesis. The combined use of antiangiogenics with VDA may inhibit the mobilization of EPCs so that tumor recurrence may be prevented or reduced^[35]. However, critical controversy exists in the literature regarding this theory and the consequent role of EPCs in tumor growth^[36]. Therefore, exploration of this scientific issue may allow better insight into the mechanism of tumor recurrence, and lead to new anti-tumor strategies and promote imaging research.

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Kubilay Aydin, MD, Professor, Istanbul University, Istanbul Faculty of Medicine, Department of Radiology, Neuroradiology Division Capa, Istanbul, Turkey

Abhijit P Datir, MB BS, MD, FRCR, DMRE, Division of Interventional Radiology, Jackson Memorial Hospital, 1611 NW 12th Avenue, West Wing 279, Miami, FL 33136, United States

Adnan Kabaalioglu, MD, Professor, Akdeniz University Hospital, 07059, Antalya, Turkey

Chan Kyo Kim, MD, Assistant Professor, Department of Radiology, Samsung Medical Center, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, 50 Ilwon-dong, Kangnam-gu, Seoul 135-710, South Korea

Edson Marchiori, MD, PhD, Full Professor of Radiology, Department of Radiology, Fluminense Federal University, Rua Thomaz Cameron, 438, Valparaíso, CEP 25685, 120, Petrópolis, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil

Roberto Miraglia, MD, Department of Diagnostic and Interventional Radiology, Mediterranean Institute for Transplantation and Advanced Specialized Therapies (IsMeTT), Via Tricomi 1, Palermo, 90100, Italy. Adjunct Associate Professor of Radiology, University of Pittsburgh, United States

Nathalie Lassau, MD, PhD, Imaging Department, Ultrasonography Unit and UPRES EA 40-40, Institut Gustave Roussy, rue Camille-Desmoulins, 94805 Villejuif, France

Ahmed A Shokeir, MD, PhD, FEBU, Professor, Urology Department, Urology and Nephrology Center, Mansoura University, Mansoura 35516, Egypt

Roberto Grassi, MD, Full Professor of Radiology, Department "Magrassi-Lanzara" Institute of Radiology, Second University of Naples, Piazza Miraglia, Naples, 80138, Italy

Events Calendar 2011

January 23-27

Radiology at Snowbird
 San Diego, Mexico

January 24-28

Neuro/ENT at the Beach
 Palm Beach, FL, United States

February 28-29

MIAD 2011 - 2nd International
 Workshop on Medical Image
 Analysis and Description for
 Diagnosis System
 Rome, Italy

February 5-6

Washington Neuroradiology Review
 Arlington, VA, United States

February 12-17

MI11 - SPIE Medical Imaging 2011
 Lake Buena Vista, FL, United States

February 17-18

2nd National Conference Diagnostic
 and Interventional Radiology 2011
 London, United Kingdom

February 17-18

VII National Neuroradiology Course
 Lleida, Spain

February 18

Radiology in child protection
 Nottingham, United Kingdom

February 19-22

COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF
 MUSCULOSKELETAL MRI
 Lake Buena Vista, FL, United States

March 2-5

2011 Abdominal Radiology Course
 Carlsbad, CA, United States

March 3-7

European Congress of Radiology
 Meeting ECR 2011 Vienna, Austria

March 6-9

World Congress Thoracic Imaging - IV
 Bonita Springs, FL, United States

March 14-18

9th Annual NYU Radiology Alpine
 Imaging Symposium at Beaver Creek
 Beaver Creek, CO, United States

March 20-25

Abdominal Radiology Course 2011
 Carlsbad, CA, United States

March 26-31

2011 SIR Annual Meeting
 Chicago, IL, United States

March 28-April 1

University of Utah Neuroradiology
 2nd Intensive Interactive Brain &
 Spine Imaging Conference
 Salt Lake City, UT, United States

April 3-8

1st Annual Ottawa Radiology
 Resident Review
 Ottawa, Canada

April 3-8

43rd International Diagnostic Course
 Davos on Diagnostic Imaging and
 Interventional Techniques
 Davos, Switzerland

April 6-9

Image-Based Neurodiagnosis:
 Intensive Clinical and Radiologic
 Review, CAQ Preparation
 Cincinnati, OH, United States

April 28-May 1

74th Annual Scientific Meeting
 of the Canadian Association of
 Radiologists CAR
 Montreal, Canada

May 5-8

EMBL Conference-Sixth
 International Congress on Electron
 Tomography
 Heidelberg, Germany

May 10-13

27th Iranian Congress of Radiology
 Tehran, Iran

May 14-21

Radiology in Marrakech
 Marrakech, Morocco

May 21-24

European Society of Gastrointestinal
 and Abdominal Radiology 2011
 Annual Meeting
 Venice, Italy

May 23-25

Sports Medicine Imaging State of

the Art: A Collaborative Course for
 Radiologists and Sports Medicine
 Specialists
 New York, NY, United States

May 24-26

Russian Congress of Radiology
 Moscow, Russia

May 28-31

International Congress of Pediatric
 Radiology (IPR)
 London, United Kingdom

June 4-8

58th Annual Meeting of the Society
 of Nuclear Medicine
 San Antonio,
 TX, United States

June 6-8

UKRC 2011 - UK Radiological
 Congress
 Manchester, United Kingdom

June 8-11

CIRA 2011 - Canadian Interventional
 Radiology Association Meeting
 Montreal, QC, Canada

June 9-10

8th ESGAR Liver Imaging Workshop
 Dublin, Ireland

June 17-19

ASCI 2011 - 5th Congress of Asian
 Society of Cardiovascular Imaging
 Hong Kong, China

June 22-25

CARS 2011 - Computer Assisted
 Radiology and Surgery - 25th
 International Congress and
 Exhibition Berlin, Germany

June 27-July 1

NYU Summer Radiology
 Symposium at The Sagamore
 Lake George, NY, United States

July 18-22

Clinical Case-Based Radiology
 Update in Iceland
 Reykjavik, Iceland

August 1-5

NYU Clinical Imaging Symposium
 in Santa Fe
 Santa Fe, NM, United States

September 22-25

European Society of Neuroradiology
 (ESNR) XXXV Congress and 19th
 Advanced Course
 Antwerp, Belgium

October 12-14

International Conference Vipimage
 2011 - Computational Vision and
 Medical Image Processing
 Algarve, Portugal

October 15-16

Essentials of Emergency and Trauma
 Radiology
 Ottawa, Canada

October 23-29

2011 IEEE NSS - 2011 IEEE Nuclear
 Science Symposium and Medical
 Imaging Conference
 Valencia, Spain

October 25-28

NYU Radiology in Scottsdale - Fall
 Radiology Symposium in Scottsdale
 Scottsdale, AZ,
 United States

October 28-30

Fourth National Congress of
 Professionals of Radiological
 Techniques Florianópolis, Brazil

October 28-30

Multi-Modality Gynecological &
 Obstetric Imaging
 Ottawa, Canada

November 3-4

9th ESGAR Liver Imaging Workshop
 Taormina, Italy

November 15-19

EANM 2011 - Annual Congress of
 the European Association of Nuclear
 Medicine
 Birmingham,
 United Kingdom

November 22-29

NSS/MIC - Nuclear Science
 Symposium and Medical Imaging
 Conference 2011 Valencia, Spain

November 26-28

8th Asia Oceanian Congress of
 Neuro-Radiology Bangkok,
 Thailand

GENERAL INFORMATION

World Journal of Radiology (*World J Radiol*, WJR, online ISSN 1949-8470, DOI: 10.4329), is a monthly, open-access (OA), peer-reviewed journal supported by an editorial board of 319 experts in Radiology from 40 countries.

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ticles, thereby realizing the maximization of the personal benefits of editorial board members, authors and readers, and yielding the greatest social and economic benefits.

Aims and scope

The major task of WJR is to rapidly report the most recent improvement in the research of medical imaging and radiation therapy by the radiologists. WJR accepts papers on the following aspects related to radiology: Abdominal radiology, women health radiology, cardiovascular radiology, chest radiology, genitourinary radiology, neuroradiology, head and neck radiology, interventional radiology, musculoskeletal radiology, molecular imaging, pediatric radiology, experimental radiology, radiological technology, nuclear medicine, PACS and radiology informatics, and ultrasound. We also encourage papers that cover all other areas of radiology as well as basic research.

Columns

The columns in the issues of WJR will include: (1) Editorial: To introduce and comment on major advances and developments in the field; (2) Frontier: To review representative achievements, comment on the state of current research, and propose directions for future research; (3) Topic Highlight: This column consists of three formats, including (A) 10 invited review articles on a hot topic, (B) a commentary on common issues of this hot topic, and (C) a commentary on the 10 individual articles; (4) Observation: To update the development of old and new questions, highlight unsolved problems, and provide strategies on how to solve the questions; (5) Guidelines for Basic Research: To provide guidelines for basic research; (6) Guidelines for Clinical Practice: To provide guidelines for clinical diagnosis and treatment; (7) Review: To review systemically progress and unresolved problems in the field, comment on the state of current research, and make suggestions for future work; (8) Original Articles: To report innovative and original findings in radiology; (9) Brief Articles: To briefly report the novel and innovative findings in radiology; (10) Case Report: To report a rare or typical case; (11) Letters to the Editor: To discuss and make reply to the contributions published in WJR, or to introduce and comment on a controversial issue of general interest; (12) Book Reviews: To introduce and comment on quality monographs of radiology; and (13) Guidelines: To introduce consensus and guidelines reached by international and national academic authorities worldwide on the research in radiology.

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In the interests of transparency and to help reviewers assess any potential bias, *WJR* requires authors of all papers to declare any competing commercial, personal, political, intellectual, or religious interests in relation to the submitted work. Referees are also asked to indicate any potential conflict they might have reviewing a particular paper. Before submitting, authors are suggested to read "Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals: Ethical Considerations in the Conduct and Reporting of Research: Conflicts of Interest" from International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE), which is available at: http://www.icmje.org/ethical_4conflicts.html.

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When reporting the results from experiments, authors should follow the highest standards and the trial should conform to Good Clinical Practice (for example, US Food and Drug Administration Good Clinical Practice in FDA-Regulated Clinical Trials; UK Medicines Research Council Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice in Clinical Trials) and/or the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. Generally, we suggest authors follow the lead investigator's national standard. If doubt exists whether the research was conducted in accordance with the above standards, the authors must explain the rationale for their approach and demonstrate that the institutional review body explicitly approved the doubtful aspects of the study.

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- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMCID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

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- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorselaar RJ; Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

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- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

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- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; **(401)**: 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

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- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRS-A Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

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- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

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- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

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- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorffheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiecezorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

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- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

Conference paper

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Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

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- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

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