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Outcomes of continuous flow ventricular assist devices

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Abstract

Heart transplantation is commonplace, the supply is limited. Many exciting changes in the field of mechanical circulatory support have occurred in the past few years, including the axial flow pump. Left ventricular assist device (LVAD) therapy is ever evolving. As the use of LVAD therapy increases it is important to understand the indications, surgical considerations and outcomes.

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Key words: Left ventricular assist device; Axial flow; Mechanical circulatory support; Heart failure; Continuous flow

Core tip: Left ventricular assist devices provide a durable, long-term alternative to heart transplant for those with end-stage heart failure. In an era of limited

transplant donor supply, axial flow pumps are a viable alternative.

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

It is estimated that 5 million individuals are affected by heart failure. In general patients with heart failure have a poor prognosis and while cardiac transplantation is an effective long-term therapy for a select group of patients, the number of transplants have plateaued^[1]. While pharmacologic therapy and cardiac resynchronization have improved symptoms and survival in heart failure patients, the survival for patients on inotropes is approximately 6% at 12 mo^[2,3]. Due to the severe organ shortage and marginal improvements in outcomes with medical management alternate therapies such as mechanical circulatory support have developed. Since the first generation pulsatile pumps were developed approximately 50 years ago, improvements have been made to the design and have largely been replaced by axial pumps^[4]. This article will review mechanical circulatory support, specifically left ventricular assist device (LVAD) axial flow pumps, and indications for use, surgical considerations and outcomes.

History of axial pumps

The first sets of pumps were developed over fifty years ago at the National Heart, Lung and Blood institute^[4]. First generation pumps were pulsatile and included the Heartmate XVE and Novacor device. Originally placed as a bridge to transplant, the REMATCH trial showed an unprecedented improvement in early survival compared to conventional therapy and they were approved for destination therapy^[5]. In 2009, Slaughter *et al*^[6] showed

significantly better survival for axial flow pumps, 68% at 1 year and 58% at 2 years. These findings resulted in a significant change in practice and increased the use of axial flow pumps by tenfold^[4].

Pump mechanics

Compared to pulsatile devices, axial flow pumps are smaller in size and easier to implant. In addition they have a singular moving part, making axial flow pumps more reliable with a lower adverse event profile. Axial flow pumps have a blood inlet and an outlet. A single internal rotor or impeller continuously unloads the left ventricle propelling blood in the axial direction. The impeller is kept within a rigid house. There are several bearing designs that drive the impeller, which include mechanical/pivot design, hydrodynamics, electromagnetic or a permanent magnet^[7].

In an axial flow pump, mechanics are based on pre-load, speed at which the impeller rotates and afterload. For example, as the blood volume decreases, such as in hemorrhagic shock, the pump will continue to flow and the ventricle will collapse and result in inlet obstruction. In contrast, the patient might be volume overloaded and the speed of the pump might be inadequate to unload the ventricle resulting in signs and symptoms of heart failure.

Axial flow pumps are sensitive to afterload and this can have a profound impact on the flow mechanics. As the blood pressure increases the impeller has to increase its power to generate rotation in an attempt to maintain the constant rotations per minute (rpm). With an increased afterload, even at a set rpm, the increased afterload causes decrease in flows and hemodynamic support^[8]. In this scenario the pulsatility index (PI) will be elevated and the flows will be decreased. It is therefore important to control blood pressure in the acute and out-patient setting.

Axial flow pumps run by setting the speed of the impeller, or rpm. Pump speeds are based on the patient's clinical status, volume status and echocardiographic findings^[8]. The monitor provides information on speed, power, PI and calculated flows. The monitor can alert clinicians about proper pump function and changes in the PI or power may be a result of pump malfunction or a change in clinical status.

To summarize, axial flow pumps are durable pumps with a 58% survival at 2 years for destination therapy. Long term durability is attributed to minimal friction and heat production. Pump function is based on the patient's clinical status and pump speed. And finally due to continuous blood flow patients lack a pulse and may require Doppler blood pressure measurement.

How long have they been used

Axial flow pumps went into trial in 2003. Primary endpoints for bridge to transplant (BTT) patients included rate of survival to transplant or survival at 180 d. The primary endpoint for destination therapy patients was a composite endpoint at 2 years that included survival,

adverse events and pump durability. The study found improved survival rates, improvement in quality of life and functional status in both groups. Axial flow devices, specifically the Heartmate II, were approved by the Food and Drug Administration in 2008 as a bridge to transplant and in 2010 as destination therapy^[9]. Since then a more recent review of outcomes for destination therapy demonstrates 74% survival at one year^[10].

TYPES OF USE

Second generation and third generation axial flow devices have a high degree of reliability. This has resulted in a tenfold increase in their use^[4]. Current indications include, myocardial recovery, BTT, bridge to decision and destination therapy. Device strategy is dependent on the patient's clinical status, co morbidities, end organ dysfunction and social support.

Bridge to recovery

Very few patients after LVAD placement will have myocardial recovery. A recent analysis of approximately 1100 Heartmate II patients showed a 1.8% rate of recovery^[11]. In a few, long term left ventricular unloading may provide reversal of atrophy in the cardiomyocytes and recovery of left ventricular geometry and function^[12]. One such strategy includes the addition of pharmacological therapy to patients with continuous flow devices, to promote reverse remodeling. Birks *et al*^[13] showed in a small group of patients the addition of high dose ACE inhibitors, beta blockers plus clenbuterol promotes myocardial recovery. While much is unknown about myocardial recovery after LVAD implantation, a considerable amount of research is being performed in this area.

Bridge to decision

Patients receiving mechanical circulatory support prior to determining eligibility for transplant are considered bridge to decision. In these patients end organ dysfunction including pulmonary hypertension, renal failure, obesity, medical compliance, tobacco abuse can be absolute or temporary contraindications for heart transplant. For a few of these patients, organ dysfunction will be reversible with mechanical circulatory support or afford them the opportunity to modify lifestyle making them eligible for transplantation.

Bridge to transplant

Bridges to transplant are patients who are eligible for cardiac transplant but have had progression of their disease. On any given day, there are 3000 patients on the waitlist per day, since survival is poor, approximately 43% will require mechanical circulatory support to "bridge" them until an organ is available^[14]. The goal is to prevent end organ dysfunction for continued eligibility. Additionally, during that wait-list time, the patient is able to be out of the hospital, enjoying a reasonable quality of life and gaining strength and conditioning.

The use of LVAD therapy in candidates for heart

transplant is not benign and careful consideration should be made regarding the risks and benefits. While LVAD therapy will support end-organ function and improve quality of life, LVAD therapy will require an additional sternotomy for placement and redo sternotomy at the time of transplant. Additional concerns include blood transfusions at the time of placement, infections, stroke, and complications with the pump.

Destination therapy

Most patients in heart failure are not candidates for transplantation. Without advanced therapy, many will die within a year or continue to have poor function and quality of life.

The REMATCH trial was the first study to compare mechanical circulatory support to medical management. In this landmark trial the survival rate was 52% in the patients receiving mechanical circulatory support and 23% in the medical management group^[5]. In 2002 the first generation pumps were approved and in 2010 the second-generation pump was approved for destination therapy. Since then the survival rates have improved and mechanical circulatory support provides patients equivalent survival to transplant patients at one year^[6,15].

With the support of LVAD's, destination therapy patients have improved quality of life and improvement in their function. A study from Rogers *et al*^[16] reported on functional capacity and quality of life of patients under long-term LVAD support. NYHA functional class, 6-min walk distance, patient activity scores as well as quality of life (Minnesota Living With Heart Failure and Kansas City Cardiomyopathy Questionnaires) were collected before and after LVAD implantation. Following implant, 80% of destination treatment patients at 6 mo and 79% at 24 mo improved to NYHA functional class I or II. Mean 6-min walk distance in these patients was 204 m in patients able to ambulate at baseline, which improved to 350 and 360 m at 6 and 24 mo. There were also significant and sustained improvements from baseline in both quality of life scores. The relative bridge to recovery is minimal between indications.

TYPES OF PUMPS

Heartmate II

The Heartmate II is a continuous axial flow device. It contains an internal rotor with helical blades that curve around a central shaft. As blood enters the chamber the internal blade rotates and converts the radial velocity of the blood flow to an axial direction, hence the term axial pump. The pump weighs 350 g and can flow up to 10 L/min. The inflow cannula is placed in the left ventricle apex and the outflow graft is connected to the ascending aorta. Due to pump size the pump housing is placed in the left upper quadrant in the pre-peritoneal pocket. The device is connected to controller *via* a driveline that is tunneled thru the subcutaneous tissue and brought out to the skin.

Jarvik 2000

The Jarvik 2000 is a continuous flow pump that unlike the Heartmate II is placed within the left ventricle. It weighs approximately 85 g. A single impeller is housed within titanium housing completely inside the ventricle. Interestingly the outflow can be connected to either the ascending or descending aorta. The pump flows up to 7 L/min. One added benefit of the Jarvik pump is the skull mounted driveline. Unlike other pumps the skull implant is designed to be resistant to infection and allows patients to shower, bath or swim^[17].

INCOR

The INCOR is a continuous axial flow pump developed by Berlin Heart. The INCOR design is slightly different in that the impeller is levitated by an electromagnetic bearing and therefore the parts do not come in contact with each other. The lack of contact improves long-term durability by decreasing heat and friction. The pump can flow up to 6 L/min. The INOR is currently not available in the United States^[18].

Micromed debakey

The Micromed Debakey is a fully implantable electromagnetic axial flow pump. The pump weighs 93 g. Due to its small size it can be placed in the intra-pericardial position. The pump consists of an inflow cannula, apical ring, the pump, and outflow graft. A flow probe encircles the outflow graft providing real-time cardiac output. The pump can flow up to 5 L/min. The pump is connected thru a driveline to a controller module and runs off 12-volt DC batteries for 4 to 6 h^[19].

TECHNICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Aortic insufficiency

Pre-operative aortic insufficiency (AI) is important to identify in LVAD patients. Patients with greater than moderate aortic insufficiency prior to implant should be surgically treated at the time LVAD implant. Since the ventricle does not contract the ventricle fills during the cardiac cycle creating a circular loop^[20]. Since the left ventricle does not have time to unload this may affect the long term durability of the pump. More importantly aortic insufficiency leads to high pump flows and low total cardiac output^[21]. For patients with mild AI who are undergoing LVAD placement for long term support the AI may progress over time and should be monitored. Cowger *et al*^[22] found that patients supported at 18 mo had moderate or worse AI and half the individuals with moderate or worse AI required readmission for heart failure or an arrhythmia. They pointed out that while the long-term significance is not known increase in AI might have real clinical impact on long-term mechanical support.

A second group of patients develop AI over time due to degeneration or fusion of the leaflets. Since patients with LVAD's have minimal or no pulse in the native LV,

although contracting the LV may not generate enough pressure to open the aortic valve. The lack of pulse is implicated in postoperative AI^[23]. Decreasing pump speed may reduce the transvalvular gradient and temporarily improve systemic perfusion especially in patients who develop AI after LVAD placement. But this may be temporary solution. More durable options include the Park stitch, over sewing of the valve with patch, or replacement with a tissue valve, but come with increased morbidity.

Surgical options for the treatment of aortic insufficiency include repair or replacement of the aortic valve. The Park stitch is described as a central coaptation stitch has been shown to be a durable option up to two years after LVAD placement^[24]. Another option includes over sewing of the outflow tract and keeping the valve leaflets intact. Patients with an over sewn aortic valve are completely dependent on the LVAD. If an aortic valve replacement is needed, a tissue valve is preferred. Mechanical valves leave patients with increased risk of thromboembolic phenomena, since the lack of ventricular contraction leads to sub valvular thrombus formation and stasis around the struts.

Mechanical aortic valve

Preexisting mechanical aortic valves are considered a relative contraindication to LVAD placement. Leaving a mechanical aortic valve leaflets patients at higher risk of thromboembolic complications and the possibility that the valve could remain in the open position. Replacement of mechanical valve at the time of LVAD operation increases pump times and may not be tolerated in sicker patient. Therefore careful consideration should be made when placing LVAD's in this patient population^[25].

Mitral regurgitation

In most cases mitral regurgitation does not need to be corrected at the time of implantation. Once the LV is decompressed, in most cases mitral insufficiency can be managed by increasing or decreasing pump speed. In a few patients, specifically BTT candidates, the addition of a mitral valve regurgitation may result in a decrease in pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) and may permit certain patients thought to be ineligible for transplantation to become candidates^[26]. It should be noted that patients with myocardial recovery who undergo LVAD explanation might need an additional operation for mitral insufficiency at the time of device explant.

Tricuspid regurgitation

Tricuspid regurgitation in patients with right heart dysfunction is associated with poor prognosis^[27]. Continued tricuspid regurgitation after LVAD may progress after LV decompression, resulting in further annular dilatation and right ventricular (RV) failure. Also there is increased operative mortality in patients undergoing isolated redo tricuspid valve (TV) operation especially in the face of worsening right heart failure. While there are increased cardiopulmonary bypass times in patients who undergo

concomitant TV repair/replacement, repair/or replacement of the TV at the time of implantation results in improved short term results including less RV failure and may promote remodeling of the RV^[23,28].

Patent foramen ovale

Investigations for a patent foramen ovale (PFO) should be performed prior to LVAD implantation. Imaging studies include surface or trans esophageal echocardiography combined with "bubble study" and concurrent color Doppler. Patients can perform a Valsalva maneuver with release to identify hidden PFO's. Doppler echocardiography may show a left to right shunt, but the bubble study may not reveal a PFO in the setting of high elevated left atrial pressures^[21]. After LVAD implantation, unloading of the left ventricle may uncover a PFO. Patients may present with stroke or pump thrombosis. One of more common consequences of a PFO includes the development of severe hypoxia due to a right to left shunt, making it important to identify prior to LVAD implantation^[21].

Mitral stenosis

Mitral stenosis is a bigger problem for patients undergoing LVAD placement^[29]. Mitral stenosis limits left ventricular filling and limit pump flows^[30]. In addition, the persistently elevated left atrial pressure lead to continued pulmonary hypertension. Treatment options include commissurotomy or tissue replacement^[8].

Ventricular tachycardia

Ventricular tachycardia (VT) is common in patients with heart failure. Most patients undergoing LVAD's already have an implantable defibrillator at the time of the surgery. Despite ventricular unloading many patients continue to have VT. Reversible and non-reversible causes of VT should be determined since continued VT after LVAD placement can lead to inadequate systemic perfusion. Reversible causes include suction events or cannula position. Patients with irreversible causes should be managed with pharmacological therapies and or catheter ablation^[31]. A unique option includes scar mapping and ablation for resistant ventricular arrhythmias. A recent series by Cantillon *et al*^[32] showed that out of 32 diagnostic and ablation procedures out of 611 LVAD implantations, the dominant mechanism was intrinsic myocardial scar, with only 14% of VT circuits involving the apical inflow cannulation site. Ablation was acutely successful (VT non-inducible) in 86% of patients, with freedom from recurrent VT of 67% during a mean duration of LVAD support of 120 d.

DURABILITY OF PUMP

Pump technology has improved significantly since the original pulsatile devices. The current second generation pumps have an estimated clinical life of greater than 5 years. Due to improved durability we are now seeing a different number of adverse events.

Complications

Thrombosis and bleeding are common complications in patients with mechanical circulatory support. Patients with LVADs are prone to thrombosis due to the blood device interaction. In order to prevent this patients are maintained on a regimen of coumadin and antiplatelet agents. The current rates of pump thrombosis is anywhere from 0.014 to 0.03 events per patient-year and actually may be increasing in incidence^[33]. Pump thrombosis is a difficult problem to diagnose and even more difficult to treat. Laboratory monitoring of lactate dehydrogenase, plasma free hemoglobin and increased pump power alert physicians to pump thrombus but additional studies such as RAMP protocols help to diagnose thrombus. The question remains how best to treat the problem. Increase in pump speed, change in international normalized ratio goals, or additional antiplatelet agents may help to resolve the pump thrombosis. Ultimately some patients will have to their pump changed out due to the thrombosis; which comes with and increased morbidity and mortality.

Bleeding

Bleeding is another common problem seen in patients with LVAD's. The combination of anticoagulation and acquired hematologic problems due to device flow characteristics results in a bleeding diathesis. Bleeding is a significant problem and results in 3% mortality from bleeding complications^[34]. Gastrointestinal bleeding is a long been recognized complication of axial flow pumps. Acquired von Willebrand syndrome or distention of submucosal venous plexus from diminished pulsatility is thought to be a key event. An attempt at decreasing pump speeds to restore pulsatility and stop the destruction of large von willebrand factor multimers may be of benefit^[34]. Other treatment options include epinephrine or octreotide. For patients with recalcitrant bleeding, long-term cessation of anticoagulation or surgical management of the culprit gastrointestinal tract lesion has also been used.

Stroke

The incidence of stroke after LVAD placement is reported to be 8.0% to 25.0%^[35]. Depending on the anticoagulation regimen, antiplatelet regimen and device type the stroke rates will vary^[36]. Approximately a third of ischemic strokes will convert to a hemorrhagic stroke.

Infection

Infection remains a considerable complication with LVAD patients. Infections can be grouped into three categories; VAD specific, VAD related or non-VAD related infections^[37]. Of the VAD specific infections, pocket infections occur in ten percent of the population. Driveline infections are a much larger problem in the LVAD population. The rate of infection is somewhere between 0.37-0.58 events per patient year. Driveline infections are generally related to driveline movement. Chronic movement prevent in growth of tissue into the external velour layer of the driveline. Once a driveline infection is suspected, treatment should include both systemic and local

antibiotics. It is important to note that infections in the LVAD patients may lead to pump infections, bacteremia and even more worrisome pump thrombosis^[33].

Pump failure

The newer second generation are estimated to have long-term clinical durability; greater than 5 years^[7]. But with increased wear and tear it exposes the LVAD to device related problems. Failure of the controller and power source are rare. The most susceptible to damage is the external driveline due to tugging, twisting or kinking. The estimated rate is approximately 0.03 events per patient year^[38]. In most cases of pump failure, patients are trained on trouble shooting the controller and power source.

Brief comparison compared to heart failure

The REMATCH trial evaluated the efficacy and safety of long-term left ventricular assist device support chronic end-stage heart failure patients. Compared with optimal medical management, LVAD implantation significantly improved the survival and quality of life. Favorable results in this bridge to transplant population encouraged the design of the multicenter REMATCH trial to evaluate the efficacy and safety of long-term LVAD support. Compared with optimal medical management ($n = 61$), LVAD implantation ($n = 68$) doubled the 1-year survival rate (from 25% to 51%). While the original trial compared first generation pumps to medical management, the outcomes with LVADS were superior. At two years the survival was 23% compared to 8% in the medical therapy group. Functional status and quality of life were improved at one year in the LVAD group^[5]. A second study comparing first generation devices to the current axial flow devices showed improved survival. One-year survival was 68% and 58% at the second year compared to original REMATCH trial results^[6].

EFFECTS ON PHYSIOLOGY

End organ perfusion

An animal study using the Terumo DuraHeart LVAD, an axial flow device, found an increase in the plasma renin levels without a significant increase in the blood pressure despite the up regulation^[39]. But the clinical relevance is unknown. More work is needed to evaluate and closely study the effect of continuous-flow devices in select populations of heart failure patients, such as those with baseline severe multisystem organ failure. In addition, longer-term studies are needed to assess end-organ function with continuous-flow devices, which may have important implications for use as destination therapy^[40].

Renal failure

Forty five percent of patients with heart failure have associated renal dysfunction. Cardiorenal syndrome is related to low output and low flow to the kidneys and venous hypertension. Since chronic kidney disease is a relative contraindication to heart transplant, patients with heart failure and renal dysfunction may be candidates for

destination therapy. LVAD therapy improves forward flow and improves renal function in a large proportion of patients. Initial improvements can be seen in the first month, but plateaus thereafter. The implantation of LVAD therapy might help differentiate reversible and irreversible renal dysfunction in heart failure^[41].

PA pressures

Fixed pulmonary hypertension is a contra indication for patients with heart failure. Many times it is unclear if pulmonary hypertension is due to left ventricular failure or intrinsic lung disease. Generally these patients will have a transpulmonary gradient greater than 14 mmHg and a pulmonary vascular resistance greater than 3 Wood units. For patients with reversible pulmonary hypertension, unloading of the left ventricle may decrease pulmonary hypertension. A study from John *et al*^[42] showed improvement in mean pulmonary pressures and improvement in PVR. While the improvements in pulmonary artery pressures are seen in the first 6 mo, the changes in pulmonary pressures plateau. The hemodynamic changes in pulmonary artery pressures appear to persist after heart transplant.

Right ventricle

After LVAD placement, end organ perfusion improves and there may be a drastic decrease in afterload of the pulmonary circulation. In some patients this is beneficial, but in a third of patients this will result in right ventricular failure. Hannan *et al*^[37] looked at the outcomes of right ventricular failure after LVAD placement. Overall, 30 (6%) patients receiving left ventricular assist devices required a right ventricular assist device, 35 (7%) required extended inotropes, and 33 (7%) required late inotropes. A significantly greater percentage of patients without right ventricular failure survived to transplantation, recovery, or ongoing device support at 180 d compared with patients with right ventricular failure. They concluded that right ventricular failure is associated with worse outcomes than without. An extremely difficult problem to manage both medically and surgically, acute RV failure comes with high short and long term mortality. Predicting RV failure is difficult. Optimizing volume status, decreasing pulmonary pressures and the addition of inotropes is important. Post operatively the use of inhaled nitric oxide and pulmonary vasodilators will help to augment right ventricular function.

Coagulation

Recent reports have indicated that there may be an increase in the relative rate of thrombosis of axial flow devices^[43]. The exact etiology of this observation is unknown but does make one more aware of the need for meticulous attention to anticoagulation in these implantable devices with a continuous blood interface.

supply is limited. Many exciting changes in the field of mechanical circulatory support have occurred in the past few years, including the axial flow pump. LVAD therapy is ever evolving. As the use of LVAD therapy increases it is important to understand the indications, surgical considerations and outcomes.

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SUMMARY/OVERVIEW

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Review of (acquired) incidental, rare and difficult tracheoesophageal fistula management

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Abstract

Acquired benign tracheoesophageal fistula is a rare condition and a difficult problem. The rarity and unpredictable presentation of this condition makes the design and setting of randomized prospective trials impossible. Guidelines on this matter are also difficult to establish. Based on a comprehensive evaluation of published literature and their experience, the authors review the etiology and best options for treatment, either surgical and non surgical, according to present knowledge.

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Key words: Tracheoesophageal fistula; Esophageal stents; Tracheal stents; Surgical treatment

Core tip: Acquired nonmalignant tracheoesophageal fistula is a rare life-threatening condition. Several management approaches have been proposed, without a real consensual approach. The authors review the published literature and discuss the different options.

dental, rare and difficult tracheoesophageal fistula management. *World J Surg Proced* 2014; 4(1): 9-12 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2219-2832/full/v4/i1/9.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5412/wjsp.v4.i1.9>

INTRODUCTION

Acquired benign tracheoesophageal fistula (TEF) is a rare condition and a difficult problem that simultaneously compromises the respiratory and digestive functions. Morbidity is very high and, in untreated patients, mortality is probably close to one hundred percent. Similarly, treatment is also very difficult and published collective experience scarce. The rarity and unpredictable presentation of this condition makes the design and setting of randomized prospective trials impossible and is a limiting factor for the quality of information derived from the very few retrospective series published so far. Guidelines on this matter are also difficult to establish since the few published data differ significantly in issues like fistula etiology and location and the clinical expertise of surgeons (thoracic, general, ear, nose and throat) and gastroenterologists.

Therefore, for surgeons facing this difficult issue, a full and comprehensive evaluation of the literature should consider all the published data and the specificities of the information provided, such as the correct assessment of hospital resources, namely, the collective experience of a mandatory multidisciplinary approach. In such a difficult and rare condition, to reach a large and sound clinical experience is very challenging. At best, the concurrent experience in other clinical fields will hopefully provide the skills to deal with acquired benign tracheoesophageal fistulas. Due to the complexity of this condition, a clinical surgeon uncomfortable with the management of this disease should refer these patients to an experienced center.

THE SURGICAL APPROACH

Five important papers published on this subject can be

Freire JP, Mendes de Almeida JC. Review of (acquired) inci-

identified^[1-5], coming from experienced surgical groups with a sound reputation and experience and reporting clinical good outcomes. However, none of those groups were able to treat more than 75 patients and only over a long period of 30 to 35 years could those numbers be reached. Published scientific evidence is, at best, on the expert opinion range (level 3). Hilgenberg *et al*^[1] were probably the first to publish a systematic review on this complication based in their personal experience with 20 patients. Lesions were caused by tracheal intubation (14), blunt trauma (3), orthopedic cervical spine procedures (2) and foreign body ingestion (1). Almost all of these lesions involved the proximal esophagus and the surgical approach relied on tracheal resection and anastomosis with either a direct suture of the esophageal perforation (16 patients) or an end to end reconstruction (3). Mortality reached 10% and fistula recurrence 5%. The most useful recommendations were the importance of pre-operative mechanical ventilation weaning and the use of interposition of healthy muscular tissue buttressing the tracheal and esophageal suture lines.

Mathisen *et al*^[2] reported their results in 1991 with a series of 38 patients treated for tracheoesophageal fistulas over a 16 year period, later completed with another 36 patients operated on from 1992 to 2010^[3]. Interestingly in this series, the largest published until now, the etiology changed, with a decreasing incidence of post intubation injuries (71.1% to 47.2%) whilst other causes, like esophageal surgery and laryngectomy complications, increased in prevalence (5.3% to 27.8%). Reported fistulas were mostly located in the mid and upper trachea (61% and 36%). The majority (92%) were less than 3 cm long. Surgical approach was mostly cervical or cervical plus upper sternotomy. There was a clear trend change, from tracheal resection and anastomosis to direct and simple repair of the tracheal lesions, during the time span of this study, which the authors attributed to the increase of complications of esophageal and laryngeal surgery as the cause of tracheoesophageal fistulas. In this setting, compared with post intubation injury, the destruction of tracheal tissue was found less disruptive and more suitable for a conservative approach. Although mortality decreased from over 10% to 2.8% in the second period, fistula recurrence more than doubled, general complications remained the same, the number of patients requiring a tracheal procedure increased more than four fold, and the patients that were not able to recover oral intake were in excess of 17.1%, a five fold increase over the first time period. The authors established a relationship between these events and the minor tracheal lesions, TEF occurring after resection of the esophagus or larynx, and they considered that the later conditions were more challenging problems with a higher rate of fistula recurrence. They also reinforce the statement for the use of healthy muscular tissue to protect suture lines, underlining the importance of mechanical ventilation weaning before endeavouring tracheal reconstruction. For ventilator dependent patients, the authors emphasize the need for an adequate endotracheal tube cuff placement distal to the

fistula opening. They also sustain the need for optimization of the overall medical condition prior to any definitive surgical approach, through placement of a feeding jejunostomy and a decompression gastrostomy, the removal of nasogastric feeding tubes (which adds further damage to tissues), and control of sepsis. They argue against the use of temporary or definitive esophageal stents because, in their opinion, they do not contribute to the treatment of established lesions and may also enlarge TEF, creating giant fistulas.

Another very interesting study comes from Italy with Baisi *et al*^[4] reporting 31 patients operated on for tracheoesophageal fistulas over a period of 18 years. In this series, two thirds of the fistulas were caused by endotracheal intubation. The other significant cause was orthopedic cervical spine surgery (4 patients). Laryngeal surgery was not identified as a cause and esophageal surgery accounted with only one case of a Zenker's diverticulectomy as the primary procedure. Fistulas were all proximal in the trachea and surgical approach was mainly cervical. Again, they agree with previous authors on the need for weaning the patient from mechanical ventilation and obtaining an optimal general and medical condition with endoscopic percutaneous gastrostomy, feeding jejunostomy and sepsis control. In their experience, tracheal resection and reanastomosis was rarely needed since 26 patients were treated with tracheal and esophageal direct suture. This approach is contradictory to Mathisen's claim that post intubation lesions are more disruptive of tracheal tissue and more often require tracheal resection. These last authors also emphasize the need for muscular tissue interposition. Mortality was low, with only one reported death.

A very important series comes from the Mayo Clinic in Rochester, with Deschamps^[5] presenting the results from a 30-year retrospective review including 35 patients. In this series, fistula etiology differs significantly from previous data, with most TEFs related to post-esophagectomy complications, while the post-intubation lesions accounted for less than 6% of the cases. Other important differences were the presence of trauma (17.1%), mediastinal tuberculosis (14.3%), radiation therapy (5.7%) and the *de novo* reported presence of an indwelling airway or esophageal stents as a cause for TEF (11.4%). All these etiologies were previously unreported. Not surprisingly, fistula location was more widely distributed, the majority being located distally in the carina (9) and main bronchus (14). This modified the surgical approach and strategy, with most patients being operated on through a thoracotomy or a thoracotomy plus a cervicotomy or laparotomy. In some patients, segmental bronchial resection was needed. The number of TEF requiring a multistaged repair was also important (7) and reoperations for complications (esophageal leak, bleeding, recurrence of TEF and tracheal dehiscence) reached almost 22.8%. Despite those figures, mortality was only 5.7% and 29 patients (82.9%) were able to return to an oral diet. Still, a great number of patients were treated with single stage division of the fistula and direct repair of both the tracheal and esophageal defect. These authors concur with previous

reports on the importance of buttressing the suture lines and weaning the patients from mechanical ventilation, although they do not equally emphasize these procedures, particularly in cases where tracheal resection and anastomosis is not needed.

Bartels *et al*^[6] presented a report on tracheobronchial lesions (including 4 TEF) exclusively as morbidity of post esophageal resections. They were more frequent with the transthoracic approach than with the transmediastinal route and all cases were evident up to one month after the original operation. Prevalence was 3.9%. Factors closely related to the occurrence of those lesions were neoadjuvant radiotherapy, extensive thoracic lymphadenectomy and dissection, as well as insufficiently drained local sepsis (mostly from anastomotic leaks). Despite this surgical group experience and expertise in Siewert's report, mortality averaged 33% and was correlated with the above risk factors. The authors found no positive contribution for fibrin glue or stents use and underscored the importance of weaning the patient from mechanical ventilation and of the use of buttressing of suture lines.

THE CONSERVATIVE APPROACH

For many years, esophageal stenting has been used in the management of malignant and benign dysphagia and tracheoesophageal fistulas^[7]. Tracheal^[8] and combined (tracheal and esophageal) stenting^[9-12] were also reported, including combined surgical and endoscopic approaches. The results from these studies are difficult to analyze due to the mixed nature of the pathologies involved (benign, malign, strictures, isolated esophageal or tracheal fistulas) and the diversity of stents used (plastic, metallic, covered or uncovered, retrievable or not). Major criticisms on this type of solutions for benign TEF are the low rate of fistula sealing without a real cure^[13], the unnecessary and deleterious delay of definitive treatment and the potential for further damage of already traumatized tissue^[14,15]. In fact, it is unlikely that the artificial surface of an esophageal prosthesis might allow, without the natural matrix provided by natural healthy tissue (muscle or other tissue buttressing), the healing of the *pars membranosa* of the trachea, the anterior wall of the native or interponate esophagus or both. This is mostly true in a patient dependent on mechanical ventilation because positive pressure will fuel the conditions for a perpetual tracheal leak. The same holds true for tracheal prosthesis alone. In this case, despite effective sealing of the airway, the esophageal leak will be responsible for local sepsis and persistent fistula. However, we found that a tracheal prosthesis that seals the airway defect might be temporarily useful, protecting the tracheal suture and tissue buttressing during unavoidable mechanical ventilation in the post operative period^[8]. Its temporary and cautious use might also correct (modulate) late tracheal stenosis after surgical procedures. Recently, we used this approach with good results on a patient successfully operated on for TEF (post tracheal intubation) that subsequently developed isolated tracheal stenosis (unpublished data).

In our personal series, we also registered 2 TEF after esophageal resection for cancer (3.1% of the esophagectomies performed) with both patients submitted to neoadjuvant radiotherapy. Both patients were operated on through a thoracic approach and both suffered from long lasting cervical anastomotic leaks. The risk factors were identical to the ones reported in the Siewert^[6] series but, in these cases, the TEF presented late, at 3 and 9 months after esophagectomy and cervical anastomotic leaks closure (unpublished data). A conservative approach was initially selected, with esophageal or tracheal prosthesis, but this approach failed and both patients were later operated on (tracheal and esophageal suture and sternocleidomastoid muscle interposition). One recovered uneventfully from the surgical procedure. The other patient suffered from recurrence of the fistula, reoperation, and finally, transsternal definitive tracheostomy followed by death from sepsis and multiple organ failure.

Finally, a 5th patient was operated on with a TEF resulting from a long lasting (1 year) tracheal stent initially inserted to treat a post intubation stenosis. This case underlines the indwelling esophageal or tracheal prosthesis risk of TEF.

CONCLUSION

Treating benign TEF is challenging and a very difficult problem due to the potential devastating complications, patient suffering and death. Personal or institutional experience is scarce and even "high volume" centers face this problem at most once a year. There are no randomized studies or guidelines and only expert opinion is available^[1-6,16]. Furthermore, published series differ significantly over important issues like fistula etiology and location, hospital resources and specificities of surgical and gastroenterology training. Therefore, for the occasional surgeon facing this problem, there are "off the shelf" solutions. Thus, these cases should be referred to experienced centers.

TEF patients require a multidisciplinary approach, encompassing the cooperation not only of surgical specialties (general, thoracic, ear, nose and throat), but also anesthesiologists and intensivists who in the end will have to manage and secure the airway in a complicated and difficult acute setting. This is a very important statement and only Baisi *et al*^[4] report briefly and incompletely state this need. There are in fact a few studies published by anesthesiologists^[17,18] reporting the difficulties they faced and the imaginative solutions that they used to overcome these uncommon situations. Some of these reports deserve to be carefully consulted, discussed and made available to all surgical teams as in some cases the reported "tricks" may make a substantial difference.

From the surgical point of view, some important issues are consensual. Almost all groups agree on the advantage of unsupported ventilation before any major surgical procedure. An optimal medical condition also should be pursued, namely through a gastric decompression and feeding jejunostomy tube placement. If at all

possible, the simpler surgical solution is certainly the best, that is, use of a single surgical approach (cervical or thoracic), a direct suture of the tracheal and esophageal lesions and the placement muscle interposition between suture lines. In fact, only Camargo *et al.*^[19] seems to minimize the importance of this simple, harmless and effective step. In spite of the complexity and etiology of TEF, a recent trend for less frequent tracheal resections, less frequent use of multistage procedures and esophageal exclusion or diversion is apparent.

Every surgeon must be prepared for complex and demanding procedures like tracheal resection and reconstruction, laryngotracheal resection and reconstruction eventually associated with major esophageal surgery.

The use of stents in benign situations must be cautious, temporary, tailored for specific situations, and should not be considered as a definitive approach. However, during the post operative period when a distal to the suture line tracheal tube placement is not possible, they may have a role as an adjunct, either as a short bridge for a definite surgical approach or as an airway protection procedure in a mechanical ventilation dependent patient.

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Diagnostic imaging and interventional procedures in a growing problem: Hepatic alveolar echinococcosis

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Abstract

Alveolar echinococcosis (AE) of the liver is caused by the metacestode of the fox tapeworm *Echinococcus multilocularis* (*E. multilocularis*), which is endemic in many parts of the world. AE is a very aggressive and potentially fatal infestation which always affects the liver primarily and metastasizes to any part of the body. Without timely diagnosis and therapy, the prognosis is dismal, with death the eventual outcome in most cases. Diagnosis is usually based on findings at radiological imaging and in serological analyses. The alveolar cysts grow by exogenous proliferation and behave like a malignant neoplasm. Since AE lesions can occur almost anywhere in the body, familiarity with the spectrum of cross-sectional imaging appearances is advantageous. Therefore, AE lesions can cause physicians to generate a long list of differential diagnoses, including malignant tumors. Disseminated parasitic lesions in unusual locations with atypical imaging appearances may make it difficult to narrow the differential diagnosis. For diagnosis, ultrasonography (US) remains the first line examination. For a more accurate disease evaluation, aiming to guide the surgical strategy, computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), including

magnetic resonance cholangiography (MRC) imaging, are of importance, providing useful complementary information. However, making the correct diagnosis is possible if imaging findings are correlated with appropriate clinical findings. We present an overview of the radiological patterns produced by *E. multilocularis* lesions as seen on US, CT and MRI and discuss the interventional procedures in hepatic AE lesions.

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Key words: Alveolar echinococcosis; Liver; Diagnosis; Intervention; Imaging; Review

Core tip: Diagnosis and treatment of alveolar echinococcosis remains a challenge for clinicians. Most patients suffering from a chronic carrier status need continuous medical treatment and follow-up examinations. Diagnosis of alveolar echinococcosis is supported by results from imaging studies, histopathology and/or serological analyses. The present review summarizes current understanding of imaging features and knowledge of interventional procedures.

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INTRODUCTION

Alveolar echinococcosis (AE) is a rare parasitic disease due to the intra-hepatic development of the larva of the small metacestode *Echinococcus multilocularis* (*E. multilocularis*). Metacestode cells of *E. multilocularis* proliferate in the liver, inducing slowly progressive, life-threatening tumor like growths^[1,2]. The prognosis is generally poor

and liver transplantation may be required in patients with inoperable lesions, chronic liver failure^[2,3]. Most patients suffering from a chronic carrier status need continuous medical treatment and follow-up examinations^[1,4]. In addition to anti-infective therapy with benzimidazoles, early diagnosis by imaging techniques, radical surgery, transplantation, radiological interventional procedures and long term medical care of the patients have contributed to the success of treatment and increase in patient survival time^[5].

This article provides an epidemiological, pathophysiological, diagnostic profile of the disease as background for a detailed review of the clinical, interventional approach, and radiological features of hepatic AE. The current roles of specific imaging modalities are described to aid radiologists in the timely detection and characterization of AE infestations.

EPIDEMIOLOGICAL AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Most human cases of *E. multilocularis* infection have been reported in endemic areas of western and central Europe, including Turkey, the former Soviet Union, Iran, Iraq, western and central China, and northern Japan^[6]. Definitive hosts are foxes and, less commonly, cats and dogs. Intermediate hosts are wild rodents. Humans are infested either by direct contact with definitive hosts or indirectly by intake of contaminated water or contaminated plants, such as wild berries^[6,7]. Humans are accidental intermediate hosts, becoming infected after ingesting contaminated foods, including fruits and vegetables^[8]. The walls of the parasite eggs are destroyed in the host digestive system, after which the embryos penetrate the intestinal wall and reach the liver, by way of the portal or lymphatic system, where the larvae develop. In the liver, *E. multilocularis* larvae grow as tumor-like buds that evolve into multiple vesicles containing a germinal layer surrounded by a laminar membrane^[4]. The liver parenchyma near the mass is typically atrophic with capsular retraction due to biliary or vascular invasion. Necrosis is observed in the center of the lesions; moreover, these lesions may become superinfected with bacteria and fungi, possibly leading to complications such as liver abscesses and septicemia. The larva causes invasive and destructive changes in the human host that often lead to complications^[7-9].

Hepatic AE is a chronic disease with a latent stage that may last for years before signs and symptoms develop. If left untreated, the disease is usually fatal. Death eventually results from hepatobiliary complications, such as biliary obstruction with bacterial or fungal superinfection or secondary biliary cirrhosis, bleeding from esophageal or duodenal varices due to portal hypertension, Budd-Chiari disease or obstruction of the vena cava^[9,10].

CLINICAL FEATURES

The liver is the most common site of *E. multilocularis* in-

fection, with more than 90% of patients having infected livers. The lesions may be single or multiple^[4]. Alveolar echinococcosis of the liver behaves like a slow growing liver cancer. Symptoms of hepatic alveolar echinococcosis are principally cholestatic jaundice and epigastric pain^[3,7]. Involvement of the bile ducts and blood vessels leads to severe complications, such as cholangitis, portal hypertension, liver abscesses, septic shock and Budd-Chiari syndrome^[11].

DIAGNOSIS

Clinical diagnosis of hepatic AE is based on the patient's medical history, clinical features, morphological characteristics of lesions, determined at radiological imaging, and results of serological and histopathological analyses^[7,8,12]. A diagnosis of alveolar echinococcosis is based on the presence of at least two of the following findings^[4,12]: (1) a lesion or lesions with the typical appearance, detected in the usual sites at cross-sectional imaging; (2) echinococcus species-specific serum antibodies detected in blood tests with high diagnostic sensitivity and confirmed in immunoassays with high specificity; and (3) histopathological features suggestive of *E. multilocularis* and nucleic acid of *E. multilocularis* detected in a clinical specimen.

The World Health Organization Informal Working Group on Echinococcosis classification system, based on imaging findings, has been established as the international benchmark for standardized evaluation of diagnostic and therapeutic measures^[13]. This PNM-system denotes the extension of the primary mass in the liver (P), the involvement of neighboring organs including lymph nodes (N), and metastases (M)^[14] (Table 1).

IMAGING METHODS FOR DETECTING THE HEPATIC AE LESIONS

Abdominal ultrasonography (US) is the first line imaging examination for evaluation of patients in whom the presence of alveolar echinococcosis is suspected. Computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance (MR) imaging performed with cholangiopancreatography and diffusion-weighted techniques, as well as standard sequences, typically are required for preoperative evaluation^[4,8,10]. Recently, we have performed CT perfusion imaging for demonstration of the perfusion characteristics of the hepatic AE lesions and to make a differential diagnosis between AE and other malignant liver lesions.

US

US is the initial investigative modality of choice for detection of hepatic AE lesions^[4,12]. Typical findings at abdominal US (in approximately 70% of cases) include a large hepatic mass with juxtaposed areas of internal hyper- and hypo-echoic, irregular margins and scattered foci of calcification, and a pseudocyst with a large area of central necrosis surrounded by an irregular ring like region of hyperechoic representing fibrous tissue^[15] (Figure 1A).

Table 1 PNM classification of alveolar echinococcosis

P	Primary lesion localized to the liver
PX	Primary lesion cannot be assessed
P0	No detectable hepatic lesion
P1	Peripheral hepatic lesion with no proximal hepatic vascular or biliary involvement
P2	Central hepatic lesion with proximal involvement of vessels or biliary ducts in one lobe ¹
P3	Central hepatic lesion with involvement of hilar vessels or biliary ducts in both lobes or with involvement of two hepatic veins
P4	Hepatic lesion with extension along the vessels ² and biliary tree
N	Extrahepatic involvement of neighboring organs or tissues [diaphragm, lung, pleura, pericardium, heart, gastric or duodenal wall, adrenal gland, peritoneum, retroperitoneum, parietal wall (muscles, skin, bone), pancreas, regional lymph nodes, hepatic ligaments, kidney]
NX	Cannot be evaluated
N0	No regional involvement
N1	Regional involvement of contiguous organs or tissues
M	Absence or presence of distant metastasis (in lung, distant lymph nodes, spleen, central nervous system, orbits, bone, skin, muscle, kidney, distant peritoneum, and retroperitoneum)
MX	Not completely evaluated
M0	No metastasis ³
M1	Metastasis

¹For purposes of PNM classification, the liver is considered to be divided into two lobes by a plane projecting between the gallbladder bed and the inferior vena cava; ²Vessels include the inferior vena cava, portal vein and arteries; ³Absence of metastases is considered to be indicated by negative findings at chest radiography and computed tomography of the brain.

Less typical appearances (in approximately 30% of cases) include multiple clustered hemangioma-like hyperechoic nodules (Figure 1B). These lesions usually show a “hail-storm pattern”. This pattern represents the histopathologically heterogeneous stroma containing microscopic metacystode vesicles, areas of non liquefactive necrosis, entrapped host tissue and microcalcifications, which account for the stroma’s relatively increased echogenicity^[16]. Irregular borders and a lack of enhancement are suggestive of AE; the other liver lesions usually enhance and are rarely calcified. A pseudocyst appearance might also be seen in recurrent foci of AE after percutaneous drainage of primary lesions^[11,16]. Doppler US images can show distortion and displacement of the hepatic veins, portal vein and biliary tree resulting from mass effect, invasion of the inferior vena cava, hepatic or portal vein walls, and intrahepatic bile duct dilatation^[8].

CT

CT reveals anatomical and morphological features of lesions and best detects the characteristic pattern of calcification. It also allows to help determine the number, size and location of lesions in the liver and allows a comprehensive preoperative evaluation of vascular, biliary and extrahepatic extension, which is an important consideration when assessing lesion resectability^[4,16,17]. Non-contrast enhanced CT images show an infiltrating tumor like hepatic mass with irregular margins and heterogeneous contents with varied attenuation, including scattered hyperattenuating calcifications and hypoattenu-

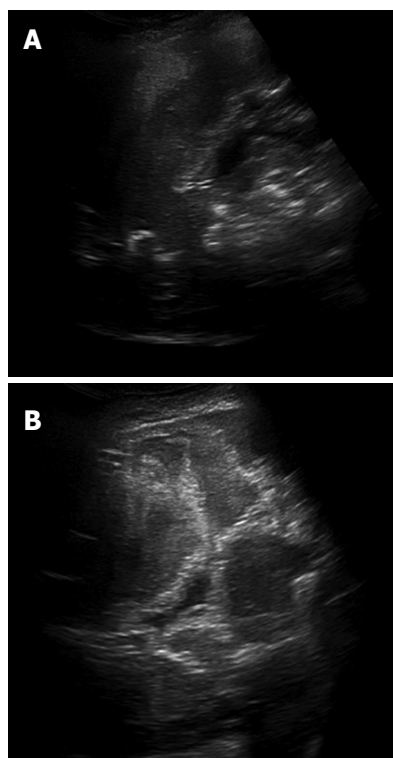


Figure 1 Alveolar echinococcosis in a 41-year-old woman. Abdominal gray-scale ultrasonography (US) image shows a heterogeneous mass lesion in the right lobe of the liver. The mass is generally hypoechoic but contains hyperechoic foci of calcifications (A). Alveolar echinococcosis in a 38 year old woman. Abdominal gray-scale US image shows a heterogeneous, hyperechoic lesion without calcifications (B).

ation areas corresponding to necrosis and parasitic tissue (Figure 2A); these findings are characteristic findings of alveolar echinococcosis (18). Calcifications are found approximately in 90% of all infected patients. Apart from the typical peripheral irregular calcifications, large homogeneous, multiple punctiform or scattered calcifications might be seen^[4,8,9,16].

Large areas of central necrosis can be difficult to differentiate from abscesses. However, there is poor or no enhancement after bolus administration of intravenous contrast agent, emphasizing poor vascularization of the parasitic lesion (Figure 2B). Usually, no lymphadenopathy occurs^[18,19]. Secondary pyogenic infection may occur at any time during the course of disease, resulting in abscess formation. Hilar infiltration occurs in approximately 50% of all patients, resulting in dilatation of the intrahepatic bile ducts and invasion of the portal vein, the portal branches and the hepatic veins. These conditions lead to hypoperfusion and subsequent atrophy of the affected liver segments^[4,8,19]. CT findings of the hepatic AE lesions may be indistinguishable from primary hepatic neoplasms, such as cholangiocarcinoma, biliary cystadenoma and biliary cystadenocarcinoma, as well as hepatic metastases^[4,9,20]. However, hypoattenuation, calcification and absence of contrast enhancement in a hepatic lesion can help identify it as hepatic AE.

CT perfusion, a non-invasive method that has been increasingly used in recent years, allows for functional

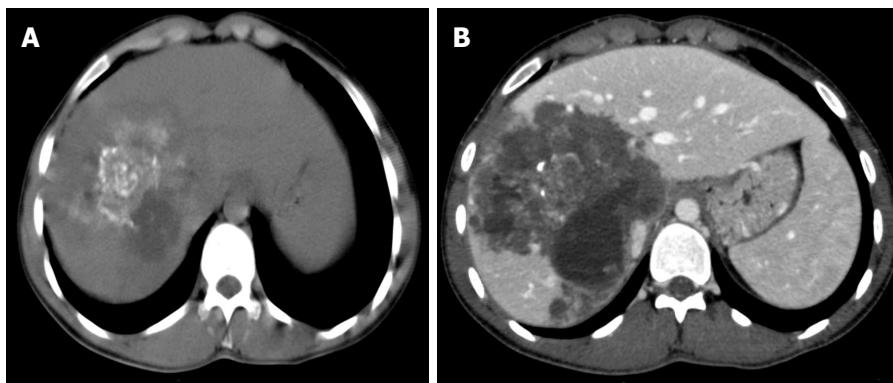


Figure 2 Alveolar echinococcosis in a 34-year-old man. Axial unenhanced computed tomography (CT) image demonstrates an infiltrating tumor-like hepatic mass with irregular margins and heterogeneous contents, including scattered hyperattenuating foci of calcification and areas of hypoattenuation corresponding to necrosis and parasite tissue (A). Alveolar echinococcosis in a 29-year-old man. Abdominal CT images obtained after the administration of intravenous contrast medium show a poor enhancement, hypoattenuating lesion in the portal venous phase (B).

assessment of the perfusion of normal and pathological tissues by means of parameters such as the blood flow (BF), blood volume (BV), mean transit time (MTT), arterial liver perfusion (ALP), portal liver perfusion (PLP) and hepatic perfusion index (HPI). This technique allows for quantitative determination of lesion characteristics, enabling differentiation between malignant lesions and benign ones. Many studies have reported the use of this method to assess hepatocellular carcinoma, cirrhotic nodules and normal liver parenchyma^[21]. Our experience suggests that CT perfusion is a feasible method to quantitatively assess angiogenesis of AE lesions of liver. We determined lower BF, BV, ALP and PVP values in AE lesions compared with normal liver parenchyma by using CT perfusion imaging (Figure 3). The above results demonstrated that CT perfusion can be used in hepatic AE lesions of liver that are confusable, especially with malignant lesions such as hepatocellular and cholangiocellular carcinoma.

MRI

MRI is a good modality for detection of the components of parasitic lesions and depicting vascular or biliary tree involvement and extrahepatic extension. Therefore, it should be added to preoperative evaluations, particularly evaluations of patients who are to undergo extensive hepatic resection or liver transplantation^[8]. MRC has been used to detect the relationship between hepatic AE lesions and the biliary tree before surgical treatment or liver transplantation^[4]. However, non-contrast enhanced CT imaging is superior to MRI in detecting calcifications. The MRI characteristics are a heterogeneous infiltrative mass with irregular margins and a necrotic center that exhibits low to intermediate signal intensity on T1-weighted images and heterogeneous signal intensity (areas of low and high signal intensity) on T2-weighted images. Areas of high T2 signal intensity correspond to small cystic or necrotic components, whereas areas of low T2 signal intensity correspond to fibrotic or collagenous components (Figure 4). T2-weighted images are useful for detecting small hepatic cysts and extrahepatic cysts^[22,23].

Hepatic AE lesions are categorized on the basis of their imaging manifestations into five types. Type 1 (4%) lesions consist of multiple small cysts without a solid tissue component; type 2 (40%) lesions include a solid tissue component associated with multiple small cysts; type 3 (46%) lesions consist of a solid tissue component associated with irregular large cysts; type 4 (4%) lesions consist of solid tissue without cystic components; and type 5 (6%) lesions consist of a single large cyst without solid tissue components^[22]. For lesions with characteristics not often seen in AE (especially types 1, 4 and 5), serological analyses can be helpful^[8]. In particular, MRC can detect biliary dilatation, a reduced number of bile ducts within the lesion, invasion of the biliary wall, distortion and compression of the biliary tree, and communication of intrahepatic bile ducts with necrotic cystic regions^[8,23].

Signal intensity at diffusion-weighted imaging can be quantified by calculating the apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC), a valuable indicator for the diagnosis and characterization of focal hepatic lesions^[24]. Our experience suggests that AE lesions can be reliably identified on diffusion-weighted images obtained with b values of 50400800 and 1000 sec/mm² and qualitatively assessed on ADC maps. These lesions usually result in a subjectively higher ADC in the lesion than in liver parenchyma on diffusion-weighted images obtained with a b value of 800 sec/mm² (Figure 5). Restricted diffusion due to a superinfection (especially an abscess) may be observed in the necrotic central part of particularly large AE lesions. The general lack of diffusion restriction in hepatic AE lesions is an important finding that helps differentiate them from malignancies that have similar clinical features and imaging findings, including invasion and metastases. Table 2 summarizes characteristic imaging features that are helpful for diagnosing hepatic AE lesions.

INTERVENTIONAL PROCEDURES

In hepatic AE, radical surgical excision is followed by short-term antihelminthic therapy for resectable lesions and long-term aggressive antihelminthic therapy for par-

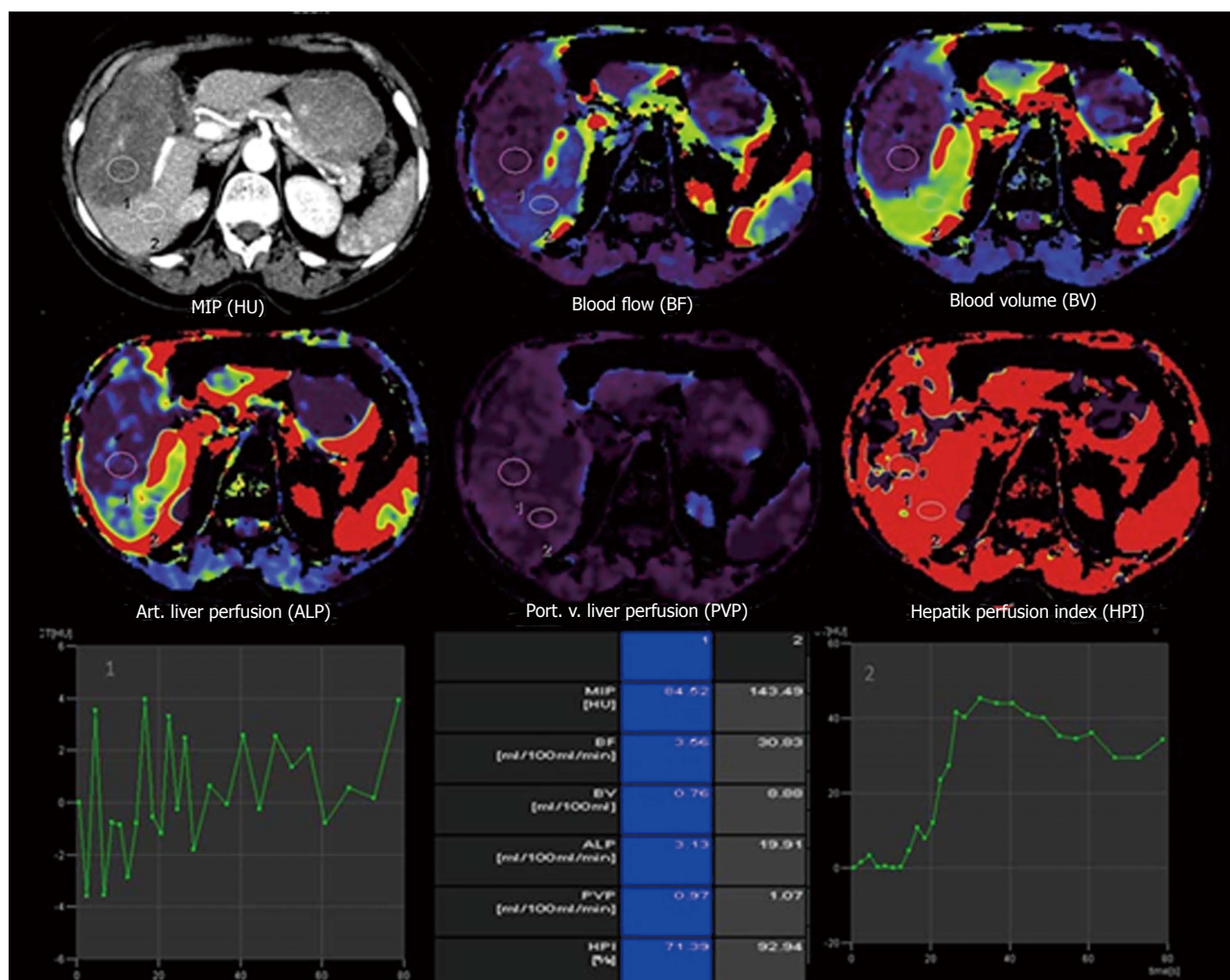


Figure 3 Transverse computed tomography perfusion functional maps of the blood volume, blood flow, portal-venous perfusion, arterial liver perfusion and hepatic perfusion index in a 49-year-old woman show a large alveolar echinococcosis lesion in the right lobe of the liver that has a distinct range of colors compared with the background liver parenchyma. Perfusion values from an ROI drawn in the solid component without calcification of alveolar echinococcosis (ROI 1) and normal tissue (ROI 2) show lower blood flow, blood volume, arterial liver perfusion and portal-venous perfusion values compared with normal liver parenchyma.

Table 2 Morphological characteristics of hepatic alveolar echinococcosis lesions

Modality	Hepatic AE lesions
US	Mass with irregular margins, scattered foci of calcification, central necrosis, and vascular and biliary involvement
CT	
Unenhanced	Mass with irregular margins, hyperattenuating foci of calcification, and hypoattenuating regions of necrosis and parasitic tissue
Contrast-enhanced	Mass with no substantial enhancement and peripheral fibroinflammatory components with slight but long-lasting enhancement
CT perfusion	Lower BF, BV, ALP and PVP values in AE lesions compared with normal liver parenchyma
MRI	
T1-weighted	Heterogeneous mass with irregular margins and a necrotic center that exhibits low to intermediate signal intensity
T2-weighted	Heterogeneous mass with irregular margins, a necrotic center that exhibits high signal intensity, and low-signal-intensity fibrotic and collagenous components
Contrast-enhanced	Mass with no substantial enhancement and peripheral fibroinflammatory components with slight but long-lasting enhancement
Diffusion-weighted	Mass with hypointense signal and high ADC on images obtained with high <i>b</i> values

AE: Alveolar echinococcosis; CT: Computed tomography; US: Ultrasonography; BF: Blood flow; BV: Blood volume; ALP: Arterial liver perfusion; PVP: Portal-venous perfusion; ADC: Apparent diffusion coefficient.

tially resectable or unresectable lesions. Patients with hepatic AE have a poor prognosis and high fatality rate; curative treatment of AE is possible only with early de-

tection and complete surgical excision or liver transplantation^[7,11]. Liver transplantation should only be considered in patients with very severe hilar extension, leading

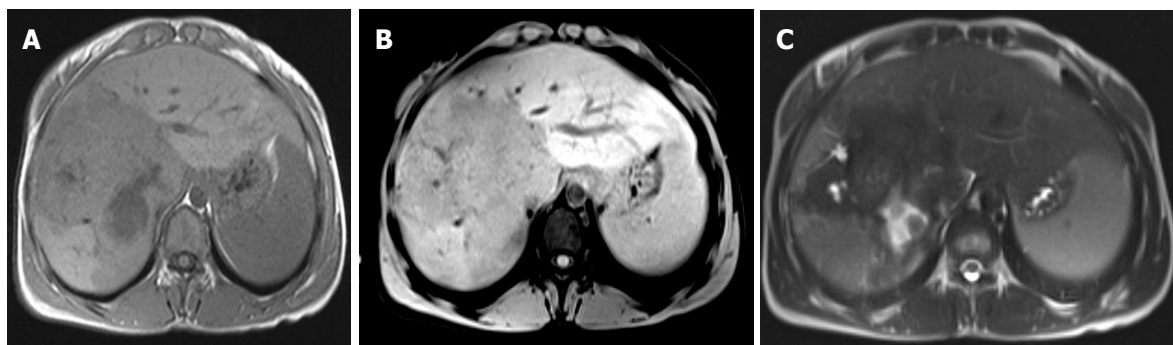


Figure 4 Alveolar echinococcosis in a 39-year-old man. Axial unenhanced T1-weighted image show an infiltrating hypointense mass in the right lobe of the liver (A). Axial magnetic resonance imaging obtained after the administration of intravenous contrast medium show no contrast enhancement within the mass (B). Axial T2-weighted image show an infiltrating hyperintense mass in the right lobe of the liver (C).

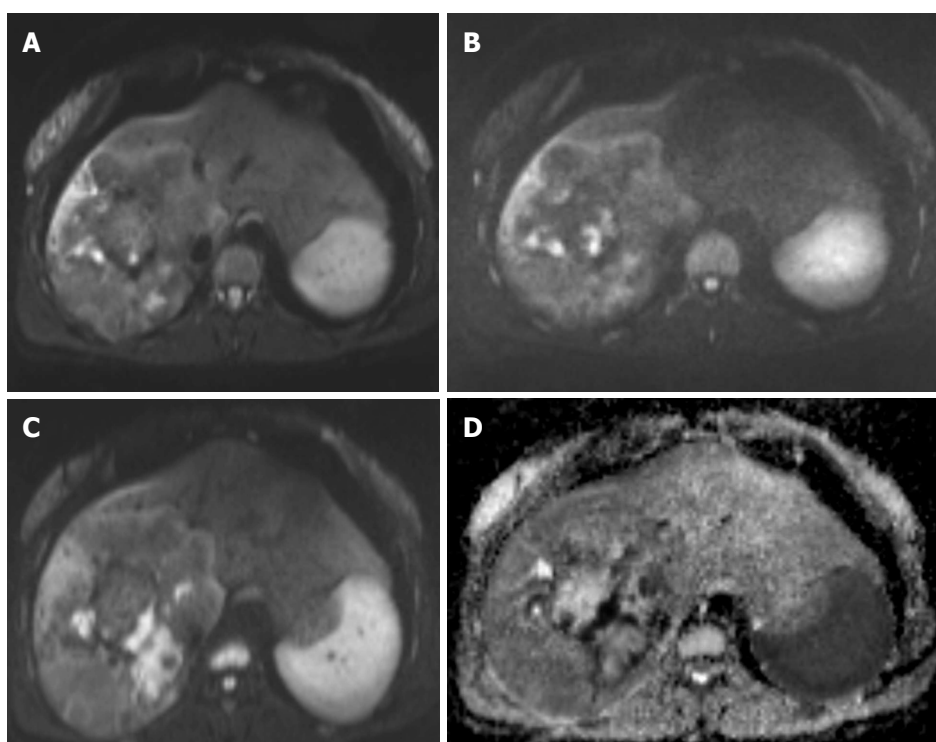


Figure 5 Alveolar echinococcosis in a 44-year-old man. Diffusion-weighted magnetic resonance images obtained with b values of 400 sec/mm^2 (A), 800 sec/mm^2 (B), and 1000 sec/mm^2 (C) and corresponding apparent diffusion coefficient map (D) show signal hyperintensity in a hepatic mass.

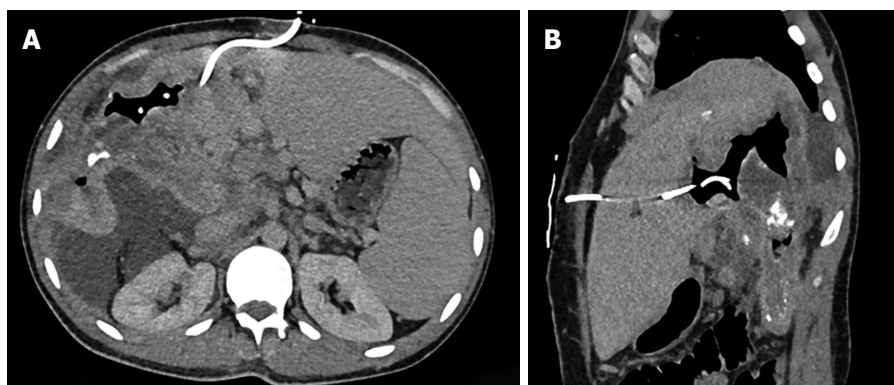


Figure 6 Non-contrast enhanced axial (A) and sagittal (B) computed tomography images show the percutaneous drainage of an infected parasitic cyst in a 43 year old woman with hepatic alveolar echinococcosis.

to uncontrolled biliary infections, symptomatic secondary biliary cirrhosis with ascites and/or severe variceal bleeding owing to portal hypertension^[25].

Cases of late diagnosis require lifelong pharmacological treatment with benzimidazoles and thorough follow-up because benzimidazoles are assumed to exert only a parasitostatic effect on hepatic AE lesions. Albendazole is a broad spectrum anthelmintic agent. Perioperative treatment with albendazole can decrease the recurrence rate and increase the success rate of the operation^[17,26]. Management of the septic complications of alveolar echinococcosis of the liver, such as cholangitis or liver abscesses, should prioritize interventional radiology^[4,25]. The liver abscess is usually treated by percutaneous catheterization, which may lead to complete disappearance of the hepatic alveolar echinococcus lesion^[11] (Figure 6). Additionally, treatment of portal hypertension in alveolar echinococcosis of the liver is also problematic. In patients without cirrhosis, percutaneous stent placement in the hepatic veins is a promising treatment alternative^[27].

CONCLUSION

Hepatic AE lesions mimic slow-growing tumors of the liver parenchyma that tend to infiltrate adjacent structures, especially the portal hilum, hepatic veins, inferior vena cava and biliary system. For effective service to referring clinicians and their patients, radiologists should be familiar with the cross-sectional imaging findings of hepatic AE. Therefore, radiologists should depict in detail the relationships between the mass and the portal bifurcation, especially any evidence of invasion or extension into the main portal vein, hepatic veins, inferior vena cava and bile ducts. Additionally, if liver transplantation is contemplated, the remaining functional hepatic parenchymal mass and reserve should be calculated and septic complications should be treated by percutaneous drainage until performing the radical surgical excision or liver transplantation.

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Notaras procedure for incarcerated rectal prolapse

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tissues and impaired blood flow are the main factors for a high percentage of anastomotic leaks. So, the traditional single stage perineal rectosigmoidectomy is not a safe surgical procedure for treating an incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse associated with severe edema. Herein we report a case of an incarcerated rectal prolapse treated with the Notaras procedure.

Unver M, Ozturk S, Bozbiyik O, Erol V, Akbulut G. Notaras procedure for incarcerated rectal prolapse. *World J Surg Proced* 2014; 4(1): 21-22 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/2219-2832/full/v4/i1/21.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5412/wjsp.v4.i1.21>

Abstract

Patients with an incarcerated rectal prolapse usually present in the emergency department where manual reduction is first attempted. If reduction is unsuccessful, an emergency laparotomy and internal reduction is required. Edema in the rectal and perineal tissues and impaired blood flow are the main factors for a high percentage of anastomotic leaks. The traditional single stage perineal rectosigmoidectomy is not a safe surgical procedure for treating incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapses associated with severe edema. Herein we report a case of an incarcerated rectal prolapse treated with the Notaras procedure.

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Key words: Notaras procedure; Rectal prolapse; Incarcerated; Perineal rectosigmoidectomy

Core tip: Patients with an incarcerated rectal prolapse usually present in the emergency department where manual reduction is first attempted. If reduction is unsuccessful, an emergency laparotomy and internal reduction is required. Edema in the rectal and perineal

INTRODUCTION

Rectal prolapse is defined as intussusception of the rectum through the anal canal. Although known and described as early as 1500 BC^[1], there is still uncertainty concerning its clinical definition, course and pathophysiology, which justifies the numerous therapeutic modalities and operations proposed^[2]. Commonly, in many centers a single stage perineal rectosigmoidectomy is performed to treat patients with a reducible rectal prolapse. Patients with an incarcerated rectal prolapse usually present in the emergency department where manual reduction is first attempted. Reduction of a large prolapse may be difficult because of significant edema that collects in the rectal tissues. If reduction is unsuccessful, an emergency laparotomy and internal reduction is required. If patients with an acute incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse are treated with perineal rectosigmoidectomy, anastomotic leak risk is 25% during the postoperative period^[3,4]. Edema in the rectal and perineal tissues and impaired blood flow are the main factors for a high percentage of anastomotic leaks. The traditional single stage perineal rectosigmoidectomy is not a safe surgical procedure for treating an incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse associated with severe edema^[4].



Figure 1 Edematous and incarcerated rectal prolapse without gangrenous areas.

CASE REPORT

In this report, we present a 59-year-old woman with a three year history of Alzheimer's disease. She checked in to the emergency department with a strangulated rectal prolapse which had appeared 3 h prior to consultation. Physical examination revealed a severely edematous and irreducible rectal prolapse without gangrenous areas (Figure 1). Despite sedation, the Trendelenburg position and topical application of sucrose to decrease bowel edema, all attempts for manual reduction were unsuccessful. As a result, we decided to perform a laparotomy. During the laparotomy, we tried internal reduction with external manual reduction again. The last attempt was successful. The prolapsed section was not necrotic, there were no gangrenous areas and blood flow increased. A piece of monofilament synthetic mesh was sutured behind the rectum, covering approximately one-third of its posterior circumference. The upper edge was then sutured to the sacral promontory, as described by Notaras^[5]. The patient's postoperative course was uneventful and she was discharged on the 8th postoperative day. At the 6 mo follow-up, there was no recurrence in the rectal prolapse other than a minor constipation problem.

DISCUSSION

If the incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse cannot be manually reduced, a few techniques may help the bowel return to its anatomic position, such as sedation, Trendelenburg position and/or topical applications of salt and sucrose which may decrease bowel edema and enable a natural reduction^[6]. The use of an elastic compression wrap can be practiced^[7]. Perineal rectosigmoidectomy is a good surgical option in cases complicated by necrosis and poor intestinal blood flow. However, patients with an acute incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse have an increased risk of an anastomotic leak compared to other elective operations. After internal and external reduction, waiting a few minutes for a better blood supply if the patient has no complications with necrosis is an excellent option. With a good blood flow, the Notaras procedure, in effect rectopexy, suspends the rectum and the presence

of the mesh additionally results in thickening of part of the rectal wall with the result that prolapse of the rectum will be prevented. In conclusion, with a good blood supply and the absence of necrosis, the Notaras procedure can be performed safely in patients with an incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse.

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COMMENTS

Case characteristics

The patient had pain in the rectum.

Clinical diagnosis

The patient had an irreducible rectal prolapse.

Differential diagnosis

It was a certain diagnosis with no differential diagnosis.

Laboratory diagnosis

Laboratory tests were in the normal range.

Treatment

The patient underwent emergency surgery (Notaras procedure).

Related reports

The second and the fifth references are about the repair of rectal prolapses. These studies may help to understand emergency repair of a rectal prolapse and this case.

Term explanation

Notaras procedure: a piece of monofilament synthetic mesh is sutured behind the rectum, covering approximately one-third of its posterior circumference.

Experiences and lessons

The Notaras procedure can be performed safely in patients with an acute incarcerated or strangulated rectal prolapse in the absence of necrosis.

Peer review

This is an interesting case report suggesting the use of a surgical procedure usually not described in the acute phase.

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Acknowledgments

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Chinese journal article (list all authors and include the PMID where applicable)

- 2 Lin GZ, Wang XZ, Wang P, Lin J, Yang FD. Immunologic effect of Jianpi Yishen decoction in treatment of Pixu-diarhoea. *Shijie Huaren Xiaobua Zazhi* 1999; **7**: 285-287

In press

- 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]

Both personal authors and an organization as author

- 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]

No author given

- 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]

Volume with supplement

- 7 Geraud G, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

Issue with no volume

- 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]

No volume or issue

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

Books

Personal author(s)

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

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 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

Author(s) and editor(s)

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

Conference proceedings

- 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

- 14 Christensen S, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA,

Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

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>

Patent (list all authors)

- 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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