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Highlights

Predictor of Acute Aortic

Study of Impact of Early Diagnosis

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Aortic Wall Thickness as a Predictor of Acute Aortic Dissection

By Jaroslav Benedik, Daniel Wendt, Fanar Mourad, Daniel Dohle, Lisa Himpel,
Vivien Price, Konstantinos Tsagakis & Heinz Jakob

University Hospital Essen, Germany

Abstract- Background: Risk stratification for aortic dissection (AD) or rupture based on ascending aortic diameter and connective tissue disorders are inadequate. We have evaluated the impact of aortic wall thickness (AWT) on aortic wall quality.

Methods: Aortic wall cohesion of 496 patients divided into two groups according to AWT was analyzed using the Dissectometer, a device mimicking transverse shear stress. Correlation of cohesion testing (P7,P8,P9), histology as well as diameter of the ascending aorta with AWT were analyzed.

Results: AWT > 2.28mm was associated with decreased aortic cohesion (P7:131.7±66.3 vs.153.7±89.5 p=0.02; P8:2.95±1.55 vs.3.78±1,90 p<0.01; P9:4.22±1.75 vs.4.94±2.12 p<0.01) and increased media degeneration (45.8%vs.15.8% p<0.01) compared to AWT ≤ 2.28mm. Diameter of ascending aorta did not correlate with AWT (p=0.20). Majority of patients with AD presented with normal aortic diameter (13/18, 72.2%) and had an AWT > 2.28mm (15/18, 83.3%).

Keywords: aortic wall, dissection, aortic wall cohesion testing.

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ADRTICWALLTHICKENESSASAPREDICTOROFACUTEADRTICDISSECTION

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Aortic Wall Thickness as a Predictor of Acute Aortic Dissection

Jaroslav Benedik ^α, Daniel Wendt ^σ, Fanar Mourad ^ρ, Daniel Dohle ^ω, Lisa Himpel [¥], Vivien Price [§], Konstantinos Tsagakis ^χ & Heinz Jakob ^ν

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Conclusions: Aortic wall thickness>2.28mm appears to correlate with decreased aortic cohesion as well as histological signs of aortic wall instability irrespective of aortic diameter.

Keywords: aortic wall, dissection, aortic wall cohesion testing.

I. INTRODUCTION

Acute aortic dissection (AD) is a serious disease with high morbidity and mortality, regularly presenting without any prognostic symptoms, but nevertheless being associated with underlying aortic wall pathology [1,2].

In addition to spontaneous dissection without triggering injury, acute aortic complications occur in approximately 0.16% - 0.35% of patients undergoing cardiac surgery as well as following other interventions involving aortic manipulation including intra-aortic balloon pump (IABP) insertion [3]. Currently, prediction of individual risk for future aortic dissection is mainly based on aortic diameter as well as history of

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connective tissue diseases (e.g. Marfan syndrome) or aortic valve abnormalities (e.g. bicuspid valve) [2]. Although it has been established that aneurysm size has a profound impact on risk of rupture, dissection and death, large studies have shown that a significant proportion of patients developing acute aortic dissection have a normal or only marginally enlarged aortic diameter [3]. Our current means of risk stratification for aortic dissection or rupture are therefore suboptimal, and prophylactic aortic replacement based solely on aortic diameter appears to be an insufficient strategy [4,5]. There is therefore a need to develop further diagnostic tools to predict the risk of future aortic complications. Aortic enlargement with resultant wall thinning was believed to be an important factor increasing wall stress and leading to aortic rupture or dissection. Therefore, it was the aim of this study to test the hypothesis that the aortic wall thickness (AWT) correlates to histological or clinical signs of aortic wall instability and cohesion as assessed by the Dissectometer device [6].

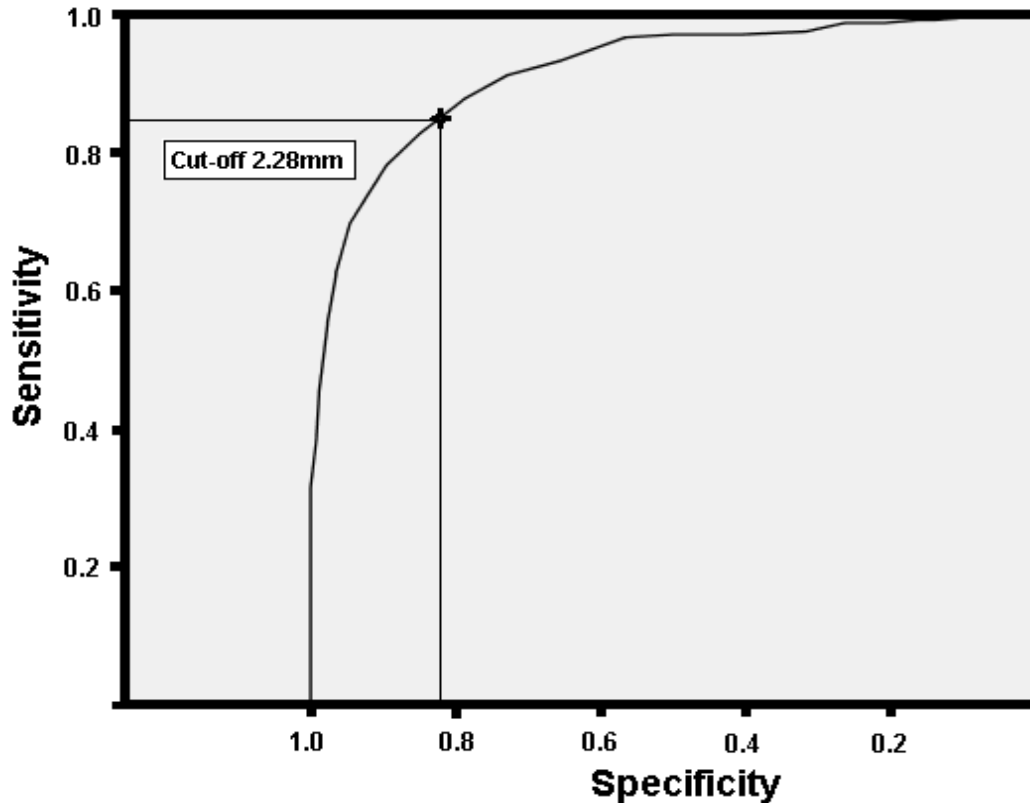
II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Study design

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board and patients' written informed consent was obtained. This single-center, non-randomized study enrolled 496 consecutive patients undergoing surgery for aortic valve stenosis (AS) or regurgitation (AR), aortic aneurysms (AA) and coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) (including concomitant procedures) at the West-German Heart Center Essen between March 2010 and December 2013. Patients with acute aortic dissection (ADD) were only included in this study if a piece of the aortic wall could be resected for histological and cohesion testing that was clearly unaffected by dissection.

The study population was divided into two groups according to aortic wall thickness: Group 1: AWT ≤ 2,28mm (n=260) and group 2: AWT > 2,28mm (n=236). The optimal cutoff level was defined by the largest sum of sensitivity and specificity of the AWT for histological signs of aortic wall instability using ROC analysis (Cut-off 2,28 mm: sensitivity 83% and specificity 85% see Fig. 1).

Figure 1



ROC curve - Sensitivity and specificity for cut-off 2.28mm

b) Sample collection

Surgery was carried out through a median sternotomy using cardiopulmonary bypass with ascending aortic cannulation. In patients with aortic valve disease or aortic aneurysm, a sample of the aortic wall was harvested from the edge of the aortic incision site (~ 3cm above the aortic valve), as previously described [6]. In patients undergoing isolated CABG, the sample of aortic wall was harvested using a rounded scalpel. The resulting hole was then used as the insertion point for a vein graft. In patients with acute type A dissection, only those patients in whom sufficient specimens of non-dissected aorta allowing for measurement of thickness and cohesion were included in the study.

The aortic sample was immediately placed in cold saline until the cohesion test was performed (within 2 hours of collection). Aortic wall thickness was measured immediately before cohesion testing using a micrometer (Kometex B.V./Hogetex, Netherlands).

c) Intraoperative echocardiography

TOE was performed with a multiplane 2.9–6.7 MHz (6T-RS) phased-array probe (Vivid i, GE Healthcare, Milwaukee, WI, USA) using a standardized protocol prior to cardiopulmonary bypass in all patients. The following aortic dimensions were measured: diameter of the aortic annulus, aortic sinuses, sinotubular junction and ascending aorta.

d) Aortic wall cohesion testing

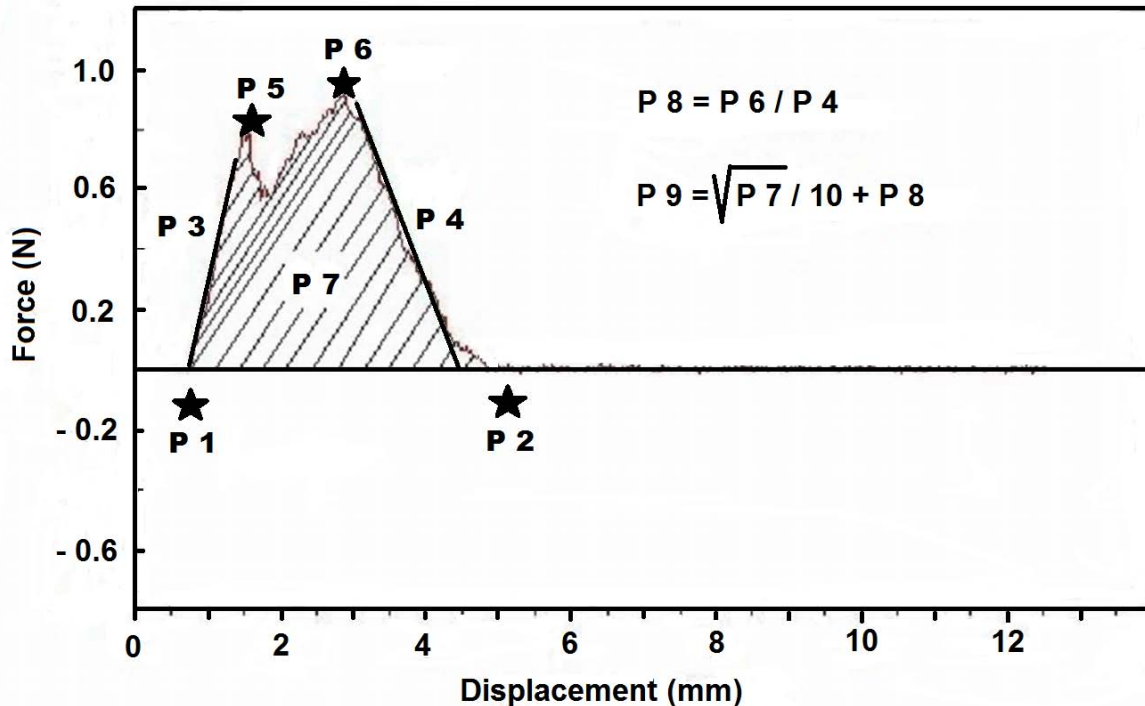
Aortic wall cohesion testing was performed using the Dissectometer, a device mimicking transverse shear stress (simulating the acute dissection process), as previously described [6]. Results of the dissection were visualized as tensile strain curves (TSC), which were subsequently converted to numerical parameters.

P1, P2, P5 and P6 correspond to points on the curve. P1 (mm) is the beginning of the positive deviation – the point when the Dissectometer registers the tension in the sample. P2 (mm) is the point of the dissection and the power has a value of zero. P5 (N) is the first power maximum (at this point the power has decreased temporarily). After this point the aortic wall sample is damaged irreversibly. P6 (N) represents the “dissection limit” after which the power necessary to disrupt the aorta decreases. P3 ($\text{N}\cdot\text{mm}^{-1}$) is the angle of the line between P1 and P5. This characteristic describes the elasticity of the aortic wall – the sharper the angle, the greater the elasticity of the aorta. P4 ($\text{N}\cdot\text{mm}^{-1}$) is the angle of the power decrease, which characterizes the cohesion of the aortic wall. P7 (N.mm) represents the area under the TSC, which describes the total cohesion of the aorta. These seven parameters were used to mathematically derive the next two parameters, P8 and P9. P8 is described as the “dissection tendency” (calculated as the maximal force divided by the downward angle) and P9 as the “dissection potential”

(calculated as the sum of P8 and the square root of P7 divided by ten). The parameters with the highest sensitivity and specificity for discriminating between histologically stable and unstable aortic wall identified in

a previous study (P7, P8 and P9) were analyzed in the present study (Fig. 2) [7]. One observer blinded to all patient data performed all cohesion tests.

Figure 2



Tensile strain curve – Localization of the parameters P1 - P7; mathematical formula for P8 and P9.

e) Histological examination

All samples were collected in 4% buffered Formalin, embedded in paraffin and cut to micrometer sections. These sections were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin, and Elastica van Giessen. Histological examination was performed by an independent, blinded pathologist. The aortic wall was categorized using an integrated approach, by evaluating the media according to presence of vacuolization and texture disturbances as “pathological/media degeneration”, or “intact /minimal changes”. Media degeneration was defined as fibrosis of the media with fragmentation and/or loss of elastic fibers and increased deposition of proteoglycans. Media disruption was defined as disruption of elastic fibers in the media of the aorta.

f) Statistics

Descriptive statistics are summarized for categorical variables as frequencies (%). Pearson's χ^2 or Fisher's exact tests were used for comparisons between groups. Continuous variables are reported as mean \pm standard deviation and were compared using the Student's *t*-test or Mann-Whitney U test. *P*-value of < 0.05 was considered to indicate statistical significance. All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS System[®], version 19.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

III. RESULTS

Out of 496 patients, 260 had an \leq AWT 2,28mm, while 236 patients presented with an AWT $>$ 2,28mm. There were no difference in demographics and prevalence of comorbidities (age, gender, diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney insufficiency, hypercholesterolemia and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease) between the two groups (Table 1). Type of surgery and proportion of histology positive for aortic wall instability are summarized in table 2. A total of 109 patients underwent replacement of the aortic valve due to aortic stenosis (slightly more than in Group 2, $p = 0.07$). Coronary artery revascularization was performed in 285 patients ($p = 0.87$), in 134 cases as isolated procedure. 18 patients underwent surgery for aortic dissection (significantly more in Group 2, $p < 0.01$). While only 41 (15.8%) patients in Group 1 showed histological signs of aortic wall instability, the aortic wall of 108 (45.8%) patients in Group 2 was classified as histologically unstable ($p < 0.01$).

Table 1 : Demographics

n=496	Group1 (n=136)	Group 2 (n=360)	P-value*
Age (years)	65.0±12.9	65.8±12.7	0.69
Female	48 (35.3)	96 (26.7)	0.06
Hypertension	110 (80.9)	315 (87.5)	0.06
DM	28 (20.6)	66 (18.3)	0.57
Renal insufficiency	19 (14.0)	33 (9.2)	0.12
Hypercholesterolemia	67 (49.3)	190 (52.8)	0.49
COPD	14 (10.3)	37 (10.3)	1.00

Data are presented as mean±SD or number (%); DM, Diabetes mellitus; COPD, Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; *, group 1 versus group 2.

Table 2 : Operation diagnoses and positive histology

n=496	Group 1 (n=136)	Group 2 (n=360)	OR	P-value*
AS	62 (45.6)	115 (31.9)	0.77	<0.01
AR	31 (22.8)	101 (28.1)	1.2	0.24
AA	23 (16.9)	87 (24.2)	1.3	0.08
CAD	74 (54.4)	211 (58.6)	1.0	0.40
Dissection	1 (0.7)	17 (4.7)	6.2	0.03
Positive Histology	24 (17.7)	161 (44.7)	2.1	<0.01

Data are presented as number (%); OR, Odds ratio; AS, aortic stenosis; AR, aortic regurgitation; AA, ascending aneurysm; CAD, Coronary artery disease; *, group 1 versus group 2.

Echocardiographic and Dissectometer-derived results are summarized in table 3, showing that aortic diameter as assessed by TOE (i.e. the annulus, aortic sinuses, sinotubular junction and ascending aorta) did not differ between the two groups. We observed statistically significant differences in aortic wall cohesion

between the Group 1 and Group 2 as demonstrated by Dissectometer testing (P7: 153.7 ± 89.5 vs. 131.7 ± 66.3, $p < 0.02$; P8: 3.78 ± 1.90 vs. 2.95 ± 1.55, $p < 0.01$; P9: 4.94 ± 2.12 vs. 4.22 ± 1.75, $p < 0.01$), indicating a more stable aortic wall in patients with a thin aortic wall.

Table 3 : Transesophageal dimensions and TSC results

n=496	Group 1 (n=136)	Group 2 (n=360)	P-value*
Aortic annulus (mm)	24.5±2.2	24.5±2.4	0.74
Aortic Sinuses (mm)	33.5±6.3	34.4±7.7	0.62
Sino-tubular junction (mm)	30.8±7.2	31.5±8.2	0.70
Ascending aorta (mm)	35.1±9.0	37.0±10.2	0.09
P7	165.3±103.3	132.7±84.9	<0.01
P8	4.52±2.17	2.53±1.14	<0.01
P9	5.74±2.37	3.62±1.35	<0.01

A significant correlation (CC) was found between aortic wall thickness and the parameters P7 (CC 0.13; $p = 0.04$), P8 (CC 0.29; $p < 0.01$) and P9 (CC 0.27; $p < 0.01$) in cohesion testing, presence of acute dissection (CC 0.17; $p < 0.01$) and positive histological changes in aortic media (CC 0.55; $p < 0.01$). Diameter of ascending aorta did not correlate with AWT (CC 0.06 $p = 0.20$).

Of 18 patients presenting with acute type A Aortic dissection, 13 (72.2%) had an aortic diameter of

less than 45 mm and the majority of these patients presented with an AWT > 2,28 mm (15/18; 83.3%).

III. DISCUSSION

Acute aortic dissection is a serious disease with significant associated morbidity and mortality, which often occurs spontaneously in individuals with no significant comorbidities, but is also observed as a rare complication of cardiac surgery as a result of aortic wall injury from cannulation, cross-clamping, aortic incisions

or central anastomoses of bypass grafts [3]. The mechanisms leading to high susceptibility for further injury and development of localized subadventitial hematoma or widespread acute dissection in some patients are only poorly understood. Luk et al [8] described histological changes including intimal thickening, cystic media necrosis and disruption of the media in excised aortic samples of patients undergoing surgery for AD as a post-operative complication after primary cardiac surgery. The majority of changes were located near the cannulation sites, aortic incisions or cross-clamping sites and near to stitch holes or knots. In addition, non-dissected samples of aortic wall still showed changes in vessel architecture. Williams et colleagues [3] published data from the Society of thoracic Surgeons (STS) database analyzing prevalence and risk factors for intraoperative AD in more than 2 million patients undergoing elective surgery. 1294 patients suffered from intraoperative AD (0.06%). Patients with intraoperative dissection were more likely to be older, female and have a history of previous cardiac surgery, compared to patients without intraoperative dissection.

Another retrospective single-center study including mainly patients undergoing CABG reported an incidence of 0.12% of intraoperative or early postoperative (8-32 days) AD [9]. In all cases of intraoperative AD, the primary tear was located at the cannulation site. Histological examination of the aortic wall revealed cystic media necrosis in four cases, atherosclerosis in three cases, but no pathological changes in two cases. Aortic diameter did not predict the development of AD.

Current guidelines suggest intervention in the general population when the thoracic aorta exceeds 5.5 cm in diameter, as the annual rupture risk outbalances the perioperative mortality. However, several large studies of patients with small aortic aneurysms have revealed heterogeneity in patterns of growth and rupture potential among patients with a moderate dilatation of the aorta. Indeed, the majority of patients with acute type A aortic dissection present with aortic diameters <5.5 cm and thus do not fall within current guidelines for elective ascending aortic replacement [3,10].

Besides aortic diameter, many other properties of the aorta and their potential roles in the pathogenesis of aortic dissection have been discussed. Beller et al [11] demonstrated that the most distinct motion of the ascending aorta can be observed approximately 2 cm above the STJ, which is the most frequent location of intimal tear formation in the process of AD, indicating a potential role for aortic dissection.

As previously mentioned the histological changes observed in patients with acute aortic dissection are heterogeneous and vary from minimal changes, to fragmentation of elastin or fibrosis to

complete media necrosis. However, these changes are not specific as they have also been frequently observed in healthy patients [12].

Hypertension is widely believed to be a major triggering factor for the development of AD [13,14,15,16]. Sommer [17] showed that distension of the aorta during systole induces radial movement of the wall layers against each other relative to the distance from the aortic center, as reflected by the diameter of the aorta. Based on this mechanistic approach, increased systolic pressure produces greater expansion of the aortic wall and movement of aortic layers, and might be more harmful than diastolic pressure in conferring dissection risk. Movement of the radial layer caused by systolic pressure might cause a rupture between tunica adventitia and media making the aortic wall susceptible to further injury, leading to dissection. This mechanism could explain the higher dissection risk in those patients with a large aorta or systolic hypertension than patients with a normal aorta or diastolic hypertension.

Bicuspid aortic valve (BAV), the most common congenital heart defect, has long been implicated in the development of severe aortic complications. However, in our previous study comparing the cohesion of the aortic wall in patients presenting with bicuspid and tricuspid aortic valves, we did not detect any difference between these two groups [18]. One explanation for this discrepancy might be the higher prevalence of hypertension in the tricuspid group in this study, possibly modifying aortic wall cohesion of this patient cohort more distinctly.

Another potential factor in the pathogenesis of AD may be the impairment of vasa vasorum flow, as postulated by Angouras et al [19]. Impairment of blood supply to the thoracic aorta in an experimental setting leads to abnormal morphology of collagen and elastin resulting in increased stiffness of the aortic wall. When ischemia of the aortic wall results, even mild traction might cause separation of the aortic layers, with resultant aortic dissection.

Currently, there are only limited data available on the impact of aortic wall thickness on the development of aortic dissection. Fanari et al [20] demonstrated that combined intimal/medial thickness as well as total aortic wall thickness was greater in patients with AD compared to controls. For this reason, the current study focuses on aortic wall thickness, a parameter which can be easily measured preoperatively in routine practice using TOE or CT. We were able to show that aortic wall thickness > 2mm predicts histological pathology, and poorer aortic wall cohesion as measured by Dissectometer. This finding is underlined by the clinical fact that incidence of acute dissection was significantly higher in patients with a thicker aortic wall. At first glance, this seems to be

paradox as aortic enlargement with consecutive wall thinning are believed to be the most important factors increasing wall stress and leading to aortic rupture or dissection.

IV. CONCLUSION

The current study could show that patients with AWT of more than 2,28 mm may be at higher risk of aortic wall instability, as measured by Dissectometer examination and histology compared to patients with a thinner aortic wall. However, a larger prospective study with a long-term follow-up is necessary to confirm our findings.

Limitations

There are some limitations of our study. Firstly, our study suffers from the general limitations of a single-center, retrospective investigation. A larger prospective study with a long-term follow-up is necessary to confirm our findings. Although histology is considered to be the standard technique for analyzing aortic wall stability, the predictive value of this method is unknown.

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Disclosures

The authors had full access to the data and take full responsibility for its integrity. All authors have read and agreed to the manuscript as written. The authors disclose no conflict of interests in regard to the present manuscript.

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A Study of Impact of Early Diagnosis in the Management of Choledochal Cysts of Infancy and Childhood – Experience and Analysis of 205 Cases

By Dr. G Raghavendra Prasad, Dr. Kasha Aishwarya & Dr. J V Subbarao

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Abstract- Introduction: Choledochal cyst not an uncommon encountered pediatric surgical practices. Advances in technology have impacted timing of diagnosis. Advances in instrumentation and surgical access have added yet another way of excision. But the exact impact of early diagnosis on surgery of choledochal cysts have not been analysed and reported. Hence this attempt to analyse the three periods of choledochal cyst, namely 1. PTC (Percutaneous Trans-hepatic Cholangiography) and ERCP (Endoscopic Retrograde Cholangio – pancreatography), 2. USG (Ultrasonography) and CT Scan (Computerised Tomography era, and 3. Period of MRCP (Magnetic Resonance Cholangio –Pancreaticography) with regards to impact of early diagnosis in the management of Choledochal cysts.

Materials and Methods: A total of 205 cases of choledochal cysts treated by the team were analysed. The data retrieval was from a self developed Microsoft Access based soft ware used by senior pediatric surgeon.

Keywords: choledochal cyst, roux en y hepaticoduodenostomy, anomalous pancreatico biliary portal junction, long channel.

GJMR-I Classification: NLMC Code: WI 100



A STUDY OF IMPACT OF EARLY DIAGNOSIS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF CHOLEDOCHAL CYSTS OF INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCE AND ANALYSIS OF 205 CASES

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A Study of Impact of Early Diagnosis in the Management of Choledochal Cysts of Infancy and Childhood – Experience and Analysis of 205 Cases

Dr. G Raghavendra Prasad ^α, Dr. Kasha Aishwarya ^σ & Dr. J V Subbarao ^ρ

Abstract- Introduction: Choledochal cyst not an uncommon encountered pediatric surgical practices. Advances in technology have impacted timing of diagnosis. Advances in instrumentation and surgical access have added yet another way of excision. But the exact impact of early diagnosis on surgery of choledochal cysts have not been analysed and reported. Hence this attempt to analyse the three periods of choledochal cyst, namely 1. PTC (Percutaneous Trans-hepatic Cholangiography) and ERCP (Endoscopic Retrograde Cholangio – pancreatography), 2. USG (Ultrasonography) and CT Scan (Computerised Tomography era, and 3 .Period of MRCP (Magnetic Resonance Cholangio –Pancreaticography) with regards to impact of early diagnosis in the management of Choledochal cysts.

Materials and Methods: A total of 205 cases of choledochal cysts treated by the team were analysed. The data retrieval was from a self developed Microsoft Access based software used by senior pediatric surgeon. The parameter studied was actual impact on surgical aspects of the three main components of surgery of choledochal cysts, namely 1. Approach to cyst excision per se, 2. Management of distal end, 3. Restoration biliary drainage.

Results: The advances in imageology have led to early diagnosis and early surgery before complications develop. This has impacted in disappearance of delayed presentation with complications as seen by the number of cases diagnosed in neonatal period. Neonatal, perinatal, rarely antenatal detection of choledochal cysts was possible due to advances in imaging choledochal cysts. All children underwent excision of cyst and common hepaticoduchojejunostomy. The safety of excision particularly when dealing inflamed, adherent choledochal cysts was better with open conventional excision. Similarly the confidence of handling the distal end was more with open surgery. Laparoscopy and Robot assisted have added another surgical access to choledochal cysts. Minimal access and magnification added to better visual appreciation, but ergonomics, cost, and availability, approach to distal end remain still to be validated.

Conclusions: The present series clearly show the increase in the incidence of Choledochal cyst due to advances in imageology. Also has impacted early diagnosis is early surgical removal and there by delayed presentation, and with complications like stone, recurrent cholangitis, pancreatitis, biliary cirrhosis This technological anatomical detailing has not reflected any significant change in the surgical management of Choledochal cyst. The advances in instrumentation and minimal access surgery and Robot assisted surgery still needs to be validated as safe and can be used as standard surgical option for excision of choledochal cyst.

Keywords: choledochal cyst, roux en y hepaticoduchojejunostomy, anomalous pancreatico biliary portal junction, long channel.

I. INTRODUCTION

Choledochal cyst is cystic dilatation of extra and/or intra hepatic biliary dilatation. Choledochal cyst is not uncommon particularly after the invention of high resolution USG and now MRCP. They continue to perplex surgeons regarding etiology particularly anomalous Pancreatico- biliary ductal junctions. Purpose to question if any advances in diagnosis changed the management of Choledochal Cyst.

II. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

PTC: Percutaneous trans hepatic cholangiogram

ERCP: Endoscopic retrograde cholangiogram

CT Sca : Computerized tomogram

To present experience of 205 cases of Choledochal cyst across 1980's, an era of P.T.C - ERCP. 1990's, an era of USG-CT scan and late part of 1990's & 2000 era dominated by MRCP difficulties in diagnosis in USG- era and accurate anatomical delineation in MRCP era targeted yet in this presentation.

III. MATERIALS AND METHOD

A total 205 cases were seen and treated from 1983 till 2014. This period is divided into 3 periods.

Period 1: from 1983 - 1990 i.e, period of P.T.C and ERCP n=21

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Period 2: from 1991 -1998 i.e, period of USG and CT scan n=38

Period 3: from 1992 – 2014 i.e, period of MRCP dominance n=146

A particular emphasis during analysis was made to know if USG and MRCP have influenced the diagnosis and treatment of choledochal cyst, particularly three components in management of Cyst per se, distal end and Biliary drainage were parameters of study.

Period 1 had 21 cases, period 2 had 38 cases, period 3 had 146 cases, age of presentation, clinical presentation, type of Choledochal cyst, surgical treatment offered and outcome was analyzed.

IV. RESULTS

Table 1: shows the number of cases in each period. Period 1 had 21 cases, period 2 had 38 cases, period 3 had 146 cases.

Table 1 : Case distribution in relation to period of study

Year	Number of cases	%
1983 - 1990	21	10.2%
1991 - 1998	38	18.5%
1999-2014	146	71.2%

It is obvious from table 2 during the era of P.T.C and ERCP, most were diagnosed between 5-15 years, only 3 out of 21 cases (1.5%) were diagnosed in 1- 5 years, none were diagnosed below 1 year of age. Period 2 shows 19 out of 38 cases (9.3%) were diagnosed

during infancy. In period 3, Antenatal diagnosis was made in 8 cases (3.9%) and 103 out of 146 cases (50.2%) during these period were diagnosed and treated before 5 years of age.

Table 2 : Distribution according to age at diagnosis.

Year	O/ month	%	<1 year	%	1-5 years	%	5-10 years	%	10-18 years	%
1983-1990	0	0	0	0	03	1.5%	07	3.4%	11	5.4%
1991-1998	0	0	08	3.9%	11	5.4%	15	7.3%	04	1.9%
1999-2014	08	3.9%	37	18%	58	28.3%	21	10.2%	22	10.7%
Total	08	3.9%	45	21.9%	72	35.2%	43	20.9%	37	18%

Pain abdomen was seen in majority of cases, while jaundice was seen less frequently. Palpable mass seen in only 5 patients in the series. 3 patients were presented with acute pancreatitis picked up on USG and MRCP. 12 babies presented with biliary peritonitis. 72 were picked up incidentally from an USG-abdomen.

For other symptoms see table 3 in all the three eras. Type I out of 4 was commonest Choledochal cyst seen. Type 2 choledochal cyst was seen in four children. Type 3 choledochal cyst was seen in one child. No Caroli's disease was seen in this series.

Table 3 : Clinical presentation in relation to period of study

Clinical presentation	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3
Jaundice	02(0.9%)	04(1.9%)	08(3.9%)
Pain abdomen	18(8.8%)	22(10.7%)	54(26.3%)
Mass	01(0.5%)	0	04(1.9%)
Acute appendicitis	0	0	06(2.9%)
Acute peritonitis	0	04(1.9%)	08(3.9%)
Incidental	0	08(3.9%)	66(32.2%)

All the children underwent excision of the cyst and hepatico-juenostomy, Lilly's technique used in 5, 1 child in type 2 diverticulum had diverticulectomy + repair of CBD. 1 child born with biliary peritonitis died, remaining patients were alive. Follow up ranged from 1 year to 25 years.

and at least 25 cms of Roux en Y hepaticodochojejunostomy were the end points of surgery. Choledochoscopy of distal end was done using cystoscope in two but later not felt to have added any extra information.

Complete excision of the cyst, complete excision of distal end without damaging pancreatic duct

Table 4 : Frequency of type of Choledochal cyst in relation to period of study.

Type of Choledochal cyst	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3
Type 1/4	21(10.2%)	38(18.5%)	141(68.8%)
Type 2	0	0	04(1.9%)
Type 3	0	0	01(0.5%)

V. DISCUSSION

Choledochal cyst is a rare disease of the biliary tract in children. There are five main types of Choledochal cyst described by TODANI et al.,⁽¹⁾ The estimated incidence in western countries varies between 1 in 100000 and 1 in 150000. The incidence is higher in Asia and occurs more in women with a male to female ratio of 1: 3 to 1: 4.⁽²⁾ In our series of study of 205 cases 168 cases were of age group of less than 10 years.

The etiology of Choledochal cyst still remains unclear. One of the most accepted hypothesis is proposed by Bobbit et al.,⁽³⁾ is the presence of an anomalous Pancreatico- Biliary ductal confluence proximal to the regulatory control of sphincter mechanism within the duodenal wall. This predisposes reflux of pancreatic enzymes with deconjugated bile. This induces chronic inflammation predisposing dilation of the biliary tree wall.^(3, 4) Although Anomalous Pancreatico Biliary Portal Junction is not that frequently reported in other series. The present series also had only 15 cases with long common channel.

The clinical triad of jaundice, mass and pain is considered as the most common and significant findings in the diagnosis of the Choledochal cyst. Surprisingly no patient showed this triad in our series. We found pain abdomen 45.8% as the most common presenting finding of Choledochal cyst as described in a study by Bukukyavuz et al.⁽⁵⁾

Rajeev Dhupar et al.,⁽⁶⁾ reported 26% cases presented without any symptoms. But, rather as an incidental finding at CT Scan, Cholangiogram or at laparoscopic surgery for other reasons. Our studies noted 36.1% of cases as an incidental diagnosis most of them being in period 3. The incidental finding of Choledochal cyst is on rise due to advanced diagnostic techniques.

Diagnosis of Choledochal cyst was made by different techniques in different periods of study as per the most reliable diagnostic tool of that time including x-ray, PTC, ERCP, USG, CT Scan and ERCP.

The PTC and ERCP were definitive test with 80-90% diagnostic accuracy. The advantage of this is they delineate the anatomy of biliary tree. As both of them are invasive procedures they were associated with complications. It was considered that intra- op PTC as mandatory for knowing anatomy during this period.^(7, 8) The present series PTC – ERCP era 18/21 underwent PTC.

Anwaza et al., first used USG for the diagnosis of Choledochal cyst when it is small. USG Is the first

non-invasive imaging modality of choice in evaluation of patients suspected to have bile duct dilatation.⁽⁹⁾ In a study by J.S. devries et al., USG has been 93% diagnostic as primary imaging. But, for surgical procedure of Choledochal cyst the detailed anatomy made possible only by aid of improved diagnostic techniques like CT & MRCP, CT Scan can clearly visualize the location and relationship with surrounding structures.^(9,10) USG has picked up one incidental Choledochal cyst. In the present series too larger number of choledochal cysts were diagnosed and treated in USG and MRCP era.

Past decade has seen MRCP replaced all other investigations as it is non- invasive and gives clear cut anatomy of biliary tree for good surgical plan.¹¹ Antenatal diagnosis by Antenatal high resolution ultrasound & fetal MR have reported Choledochal cyst with Biliary Atresia.⁽¹²⁾

The present series aparticularystress that advances in imaging have lead to early diagnosis AND THREE BY decreasing late diagnosis , presentation with complications like stones, pancreatitis, recurrent cholangitis , biliary cirrhosis Choledochal cyst should be treated by Surgery as it is highly associated with the risk of malignancy⁽¹⁷⁾ spontaneous or traumatic rupture have been reported by Suneel Chauhan et al.,

In our series out of 205 cases studied 204 presented with type 1 /4 & type 2, all of them underwent complete excision of cyst with Roux-en-y jejunostomy as treatment of choice as proposed by Kasai et al., and shown good results. One case presented with type 3 and underwent excision with repair as treatment of choice. All the patients who underwent excision and repair and are alive but, one expired due to biliary sepsis / peritonitis and associated complications

Despite the advances in accurate anatomical delineation by advanced technology of imaging the surgical approach to the three main components of operation namely Choledochal cyst per se, distal end & biliary enteric anastomosis remains the goals of treatment. As of now open Choledochal cyst excision in toto, complete excision of distal end not injuring pancreatic duct Roux en Y common Hepaticodocho Jejunostomy is the standard care. . Laproscopic Choledochal cystectomy⁽¹⁴⁾ and Robotic assisted Choledochal cyst excision⁽¹⁵⁾ is being tried elsewhere. Although advances in surgical instrumentation, endo surgery and Robot assisted are gathering momentum for regular use, still they cannot be termed as standard care. The cyst excision itself cannot be as safely addressed in laroscopic or Robot assisted, particularly

in the presence of repeated infections. Portal vein is surely safer in open choledochocystectomy as compared to Laparoscopic or Robot assisted excision. Laparoscopic or Robot assisted excision related accidental injury to portal vein makes immediate laparotomy more time consuming and cumbersome, with consequences of blood loss and biliary injuries in attempting hemostasis.

The time taken and not so effective and adequate addressing of the distal end continue to be not accepted by purists. Addressing Distal end by a magnified view of laparoscope, although is an advantage, still what is practiced and is shown in many surgical workshops by experienced endosurgeons convenient ligation rather than complete distal end excision. This may be due to the apprehension of injuring pancreas and or duodenum. The open conventional approach particularly aided by an operating loop, one can safely and surely deal exactly the distal end.

Common Hepaticoduodenostomy⁽¹⁶⁾ although claims as effective as Roux en Y Common Hepaticoduodenostomy, long term results of Common Hepaticoduodenostomy are still awaited to be accepted as a part of standard care of Choledochal cyst excision. As of now open Choledochal cyst excision with complete excision of distal end and atleast 25cms of Roux en Y Common Hepaticoduodenostomy seems to be the gold standard. Laparoscopic & Robotic approach to inflamed, adherent Choledochal cyst may not be acceptable and safe^(15,16)

VI. CONCLUSION

The present series clearly show the increase in the incidence of Choledochal cyst due to advances in imageology. Also has impacted early diagnosis is early surgical removal and there by delayed presentation, and with complications like stone, recurrent cholangitis, pancreatitis, biliary cirrhosis This technological anatomical detaining has not reflected any significant change in the surgical management of Choledochal cyst. The advances in instrumentation and minimal access surgery and Robot assisted surgery still needs to validated as safe and can be used as standard surgical option for excision of choledochal cyst.

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Coronary Artery Disease and Pregnancy

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Abstract- The current classification and protocols that are followed in the Heart Disease and Pregnancy National Center (SNCE abbreviation for Servicio Nacional de Cardiopatía y Embarazo, in Spanish); regarding coronary artery disease associated to pregnancy are presented. Concise guiding principles concerning the diagnosis, evaluation, and management of coronary artery disease during pregnancy, labor, and postpartum period are offered.

Keywords: *coronary artery disease, acute coronary syndromes, pregnancy.*

GJMR-I Classification: *NLMC Code: WG 113*



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Coronary Artery Disease and Pregnancy

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Abstract- The current classification and protocols that are followed in the Heart Disease and Pregnancy National Center (SNCE abbreviation for Servicio Nacional de Cardiopatía y Embarazo, in Spanish); regarding coronary artery disease associated to pregnancy are presented. Concise guiding principles concerning the diagnosis, evaluation, and management of coronary artery disease during pregnancy, labor, and postpartum period are offered.

Keywords: coronary artery disease, acute coronary syndromes, pregnancy.

I. INTRODUCTION.

Although coronary artery disease (CAD) is not frequent in pregnancy, its incidence is rising (approximately 6.2 cases per 100 000 pregnancies in USA), as a consequence of planning reproduction at ages higher than 35, the presence of coronary risk factor such as hypertension, preeclampsia, diabetes, smoking, and the use of assisted reproduction techniques.¹⁻³ The SNCE set the CAD related to pregnancy in three different clinical context: 1) known CAD in a patient planning getting pregnant, 2) known, stable or unstable CAD, in the already pregnant woman or parturient, and 3) CAD debuting during pregnancy, labor or puerperium – usually as acute coronary syndrome-.

II. DIAGNOSIS AND ASSESSMENT OF CAD ASSOCIATED TO PREGNANCY

Diagnosis of CAD is principally based on the history, confirmed by some laboratory investigations. The clinical presentation is similar to non-pregnant patients, with some features that should be kept in mind.^{4,5} As pregnancy advances a reduction in functional capacity is normal. Most patients in the third trimester are in New York Heart Associations (NYHA) functional class II.^{1,5} Pregnancy itself predisposes to myocardial ischemia, due to increased cardiac output, heart rate, and heart dimensions; in the other hand, myocardial oxygen supply could be compromised by a reduction in hematocrit, diastolic blood pressure, and subsequence coronary driving pressure. Pregnancy, as well as puerperium, increases the likelihood of thrombosis, as a consequence of higher serum levels of

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fibrinogen, coagulations factors, and enhanced platelet aggregation. The fibrinolytic activity is also reduced. Pregnancy increases the risk of myocardial infarction in four or five thresholds, compared with non-pregnant women.^{1,2,6}

Some patients might confuse symptoms corresponding to CAD with discomfort caused by pregnancy. An episode of thoracic pain, with typical location and radiation, require excluding CAD. When chest pain is atypical or occurs in particular settings – e.g. immediately after a cesarean delivery-, a high grade of suspicion is necessary for making diagnosis.

The *Electrocardiogram* (EKG) in pregnant women shows several variations considered to be normal ones, such as, left QRS axis deviation, atrial and ventricular ectopic beats, sinus tachycardia, T wave inversion, ST segment depression without a rise in serum markers of cardiac damage. New Q waves in DIII, and less frequent in aVF have been described.^{1,2,6,7} That is why, the combination of clinical data, serum markers of cardiac damage, and cardiac image (echocardiography) is recommended for a correct diagnosis. For identifying acute coronary syndrome the use of cardiac Troponins is mandatory, because serum levels of Creatine Kinase and its MB fraction are elevated because of the gravid uterus and placenta.^{1,2,5} The *Holter Monitoring* could be useful in some cases, without any risk. In selected patients, with a high suspicion of CAD, the *Exercise Testing* might be helpful, using stationary bicycle ergometer or treadmill submaximal protocols –first modality is preferred-, with a 70 - 80% of predicted maximum heart rate as goal. The use of echocardiography improves the sensitivity and specificity of the test, and it is secure.^{1,2}

The assessment of *Myocardial Perfusion with Radionuclide Imaging* is proscribed. *Dobutamine Stress Echocardiography* should also be avoided. *Coronary Computed Tomography Angiography*, where high doses of radiation are delivered to mother and fetus, is not recommended unless absolutely necessary.² When coronary anatomy evaluation is needed, the use of *Invasive Coronary Angiography* is preferred. The maternal radiation exposure should be kept in mind; though the procedure represents a 7 mGy maternal exposure dose, only 20 - 30% corresponds to fetal exposure (1,5 mGy), which is far enough of the estimated “secure” radiation exposure dose in pregnancy of 50 mGy (5 rad).^{2,5,6,8,9} Radiation exposure to the fetus can be minimized by lead shielding of the

mother's abdomen and pelvis, and –if possible- abstain to irradiates pelvis and abdomen during catheter advance to thoracic aorta. Radial arterial access is preferred. Contrast ventriculography is not recommended since ventricular function can be appropriately assessed with other methods.^{2,8,9} The procedure should be performed in centers with extensive experience, and if it is undertaken after 26 weeks of pregnancy, obstetric and neonatology standby should be available in case of premature labor.

III. MANAGEMENT OF CAD DURING PREGNANCY, LABOR, AND PUERPERIUM

The available information about the management of heart disease during pregnancy is based on case reports, case series, or retrospective analysis of large series, and sometimes, expert opinions. Prospective randomized trials, and the experimentation with new drugs or procedures during pregnancy or lactation is forbidden for ethical reasons, so pharmaceutical companies usually caution about the use of their products in pregnant women. That is why; recommendations are nearly all wide-ranging, and based on accumulated experience. Many of these strategies are current practice in SNCE.

1. *Known CAD in a patient planning getting pregnant:* women of reproductive ages with known CAD should be included in the Preconception Risk Program of Primary Health Care Setting (PHCS). Pregnancy is feasible when the patient is free of symptoms. Referral from PHCS to a cardiovascular specialist is mandatory, and the information flow bidirectional. Exercise testing before pregnancy might identify whether the patient will tolerate the hemodynamic changes of pregnancy, labor, and puerperium.^{1,2} Those women with NYHA functional class II or more before pregnancy could not be capable to tolerate it, with worsening of symptoms as pregnancy progress.^{1,2,6,8} When the patient decides to get pregnant angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitor therapy, angiotensin receptor blocker (ARB), direct renin inhibitor Aliskiren, and statins should be withdraw. Aldosterone antagonists such as eplerenone and spironolactone should also be avoided.² Beta blockers are safe, and cardioselective agents are better. Atenolol (FDA D category) should be avoided unless necessary; metoprolol and propranolol (noncardioselective) are preferred.^{1,2} Oral nitrates are considered to be safe. Calcium channel blockers (CCB) are relatively safe too. The most employed in pregnancy has been nifedipine in the treatment of hypertension. If CAD is diagnosed the sustained-release preparations are the best choice. Verapamil and diltiazem are most used for their negative chronotropic effect (both FDA C category),
2. *Known, stable or unstable CAD, in the already pregnant woman or parturient:* patient care in this category should be multidisciplinary, including obstetricians, cardiologists, and anesthetists in first place, and also psychologists, genetics professionals, and others. In the first contact with the SNCE the patient undergoes to risk assessment for mother and fetus, and also counseling. The presence of symptoms, functional class, left ventricle dysfunction, arrhythmias, inducible ischemia, and other feature, are considered. The majority of recommendations commented before concerning cardiovascular drugs remains. Anemia in the pregnant ischemic woman should be promptly treated. If there are no symptoms, or they are mild, pregnancy should advance until spontaneously ends. If frequent symptoms or further complications are suspected as pregnancy progresses, patient should be given corticosteroids for fetal lung maturity. In these cases pregnancy conclusion might be counseled. Obstetric team will pay special attention to fetal well-being, observing any influence of cardiovascular drugs on fetal growth, heart rate, amniotic fluids, and uterine perfusion. Vaginal and spontaneous delivery is better in stable CAD patients.^{1,2,6,8} Pain, anxiety, and adrenergic stimulation during labor could be risky, so; it is recommended to maintain anti-ischemic therapy, epidural analgesia, and obstetrical procedures to shorten the total duration of labor, particularly the second stage, if needed. Obstetric team should keep a low threshold for cesarean surgery if labor prolongs or patient deteriorates.² Unstable patients (NYHA class III-IV) should undergo to urgent cesarean delivery.^{6,8} Cesarean surgery when using anti-platelet therapy increases the risk of bleeding. In some cases, our team has decided to interrupt the use of anti-platelet (aspirin and clopidogrel), and began administration of peripartum heparins protocols. Excessive bleeding

but diltiazem is seldom used in SNCE for some report of fetal malformation.^{1,2,4,6} Low dose of aspirin is safe. There is less information regarding clopidogrel, but recent reports indicate that the administration during pregnancy is secure.^{1,2,10,11} If the patient is receiving dual antiplatelet therapy for intracoronary stent, it is reasonable to delay pregnancy until one year after stenting, then clopidogrel could be withdraw and continue with aspirin alone. If previous myocardial infarction has occurred, getting pregnant should be wait until the patients is free of symptoms –NYHA class I-, there is not an ischemic systolic dysfunction of the left ventricle –left ventricle ejection fraction less than 0.50-, inducible ischemia, nor electrical or hemodynamic instability.^{1,2,5,6,8}

should be avoided, and treated promptly. The use of prolonged tocolysis with adrenergic agents could be dangerous. Postpartum ergot derivatives are proscribed. Use of selective 5-hydroxytryptamine agonists for migraine headache has been associated to coronary vasoconstriction. Neonatologist should be told about mother's antepartum beta blocker consumption, because several complications in newborn are likely (e.g. apnea, bradycardia, hypoglycemia, prolonged jaundice).^{1,2} The multidisciplinary team should operate resting on an appropriated infrastructure, and if any complications occurs, provide immediate high quality care, including treatment for acute coronary syndrome, with cardiac catheterization laboratory access, ICU, operating room for cesarean, newborn intensive care units; and facilitated communications and motion of all parts.

3. *CAD debuting during pregnancy, labor or puerperium (acute coronary syndrome)*: the largest part of available data regarding acute coronary syndrome (ACS) during pregnancy correspond to ACS with ST segment elevation (ACS-STE), with a related maternal mortality that ranges from of 5.7 to 37%.¹ Usually mortality rate is about 10%, as well as fetal mortality. Most of fetal deaths are consequence of maternal loss.⁴ In almost half of ACS during pregnancy, the typical etiology of thrombotic occlusion due to atherosclerotic plaque rupture is not present.^{4,10,11} Thus, reperfusion strategies using thrombolytic agents would be ineffective in a lot of cases. Based on maternal age, presence of coronary risk factors, moment of occurrence (antepartum, peripartum, or postpartum) the possible etiology might be suspected, but only coronary angiography would provide certainty. In patients with coronary risk factors, few weeks of gestation, and 35 years old, or more, is very likely the presence of thrombus with unstable plaque, but also has been described thrombus without atherosclerotic plaque, coronary vasospasm, and even normal coronary arteries.^{4,10,11} In peripartum and postpartum, coronary artery dissection is most frequently seen, affecting in 80% of cases de left anterior descending coronary artery. In this period vasospasm, embolus, and thrombosis has also been reported.⁴

In case of ACS during pregnancy, labor, or puerperium, the standard procedures for management of ACS should be followed,^{1,2,4,6,8,11} admitting the mother in ICU, and her life been priority at that moment. Obstetricians should be consulted about the exact weeks of gestation and fetal viability. Diagnostic criteria for ACS-STE remain the same for non-pregnant women. Ideally all patients should undergo to urgent coronary angiography for diagnosis of specific etiology.

Whenever not possible, the reperfusion strategy is selected for the physician analyzing risks and benefits of thrombolytics. Pregnancy is a *relative* contraindication for thrombolytics use. It is the authors' opinion that, in case of hemodynamic and electrical stability, inferior myocardial infarction, and a setting where coronary dissection or spasm is likely –young women, no coronary risk factors, peripartum or postpartum-, does not initiate a fibrinolytic therapy. When anterior myocardial infarction is diagnosed with hemodynamic compromise, lethal arrhythmias, women 35 years of age, or more, presence of coronary risk factors, antepartum period, and other situations indicating the probability of plaque rupture and thrombosis; then, use of fibrinolytic therapy should be considered. Thrombolytic agents practically do not cross placental barrier,^{2,4} but are associated with placental micro hemorrhage and hematomas; this is the mechanism implicated if fetal damage. After cesarean delivery, and one week after vaginal delivery, fibrinolytic therapy is absolutely contraindicated.^{2,12,13}

Cardiovascular medications commented before are also useful in ACS. Same precautions remain. The use of unfractionated heparin and low-molecular-weight heparins is secure.^{2,4} In this circumstance, clopidogrel is indicated as usual, in combination with aspirin. For pain relief morphine remains the drug of choice, and it is safe during pregnancy. Its administration near delivery is associated with respiratory depression in neonates.^{2,4,6,8,10,12} Glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor antagonists have not been evaluated in pregnancy, in high-risk acute coronary syndromes undergoing scheduled percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), the physician might consider use them after detailed discussion with the patient regarding the risks and benefits.^{1,2,4} It is important to favor the use of radial access, and bare-metal stents. Drug-eluting stents (DES) have not been investigated. The use of DES requires dual anti-platelet therapy for six months to a year, depending of kind used, so the risk of bleeding increases in case of progression of pregnancy, and further vaginal or cesarean delivery.^{2,4,6,8} In unstable angina/non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction, a conservative strategy is better, reserving the invasive approach for high-risk patients. All previous comments concerning medications remain the same.

It is very important a multidisciplinary approach to pregnant patient with cardiovascular disease. Centers with greater experience and expertise are better. After an ACS recovery, the evaluation of etiology and consequences of the event is significant. Referral to genetic specialist, rheumatologist, hematologist, and other, depending on each case, is useful for identifying vasculitis, antiphospholipid syndrome, thrombophilia, and other possible no atherosclerotic causes of ACS. Differential diagnosis of ACS in pregnancy include preeclampsia, pulmonary embolism, amniotic

embolism, aortic dissection, and hypovolemic shock.^{2,4,5,11}

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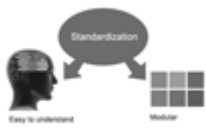
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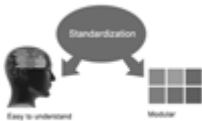


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1. General,
2. Ethical Guidelines,
3. Submission of Manuscripts,
4. Manuscript's Category,
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- Very for a short time explain the tentative propose and how it skilled the declared objectives.

Approach:

- Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done.
- Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point with every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need a least of four paragraphs.



- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
- Shape the theory/purpose specifically - do not take a broad view.
- As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (Methods and Materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
- Describe the method entirely
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures
- Simplify - details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings - save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently. You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.



Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and comprise remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or in manuscript form.

What to stay away from

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

Figures and tables

- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.



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<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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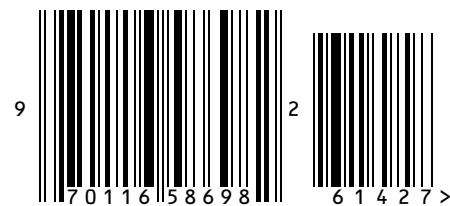
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