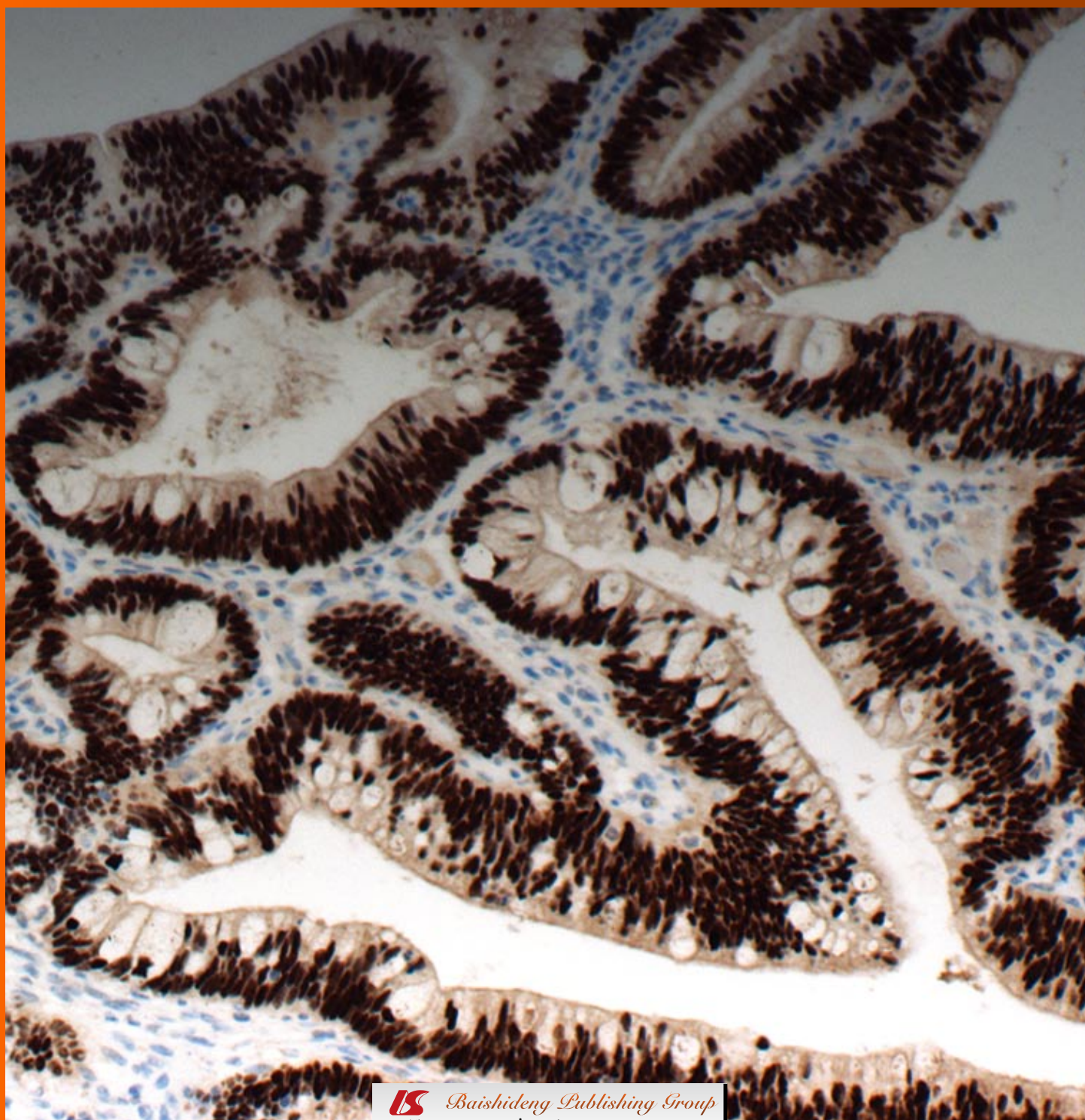


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CDX2 as a marker for intestinal differentiation: Its utility and limitations

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Abstract

CDX2 is a nuclear homeobox transcription factor that belongs to the caudal-related family of CDX homeobox genes. The gene encoding CDX2 is a nonclustered hexapeptide located on chromosome 13q12-13. Homeobox genes play an essential role in the control of normal embryonic development. CDX2 is crucial for axial patterning of the alimentary tract during embryonic development and is involved in the processes of intestinal cell proliferation, differentiation, adhesion, and apoptosis. It is considered specific for enterocytes and has been used for the diagnosis of primary and metastatic colorectal adenocarcinoma. CDX2 expression has been reported to be organ specific and is normally expressed throughout embryonic and postnatal life within the nuclei of epithelial cells of the alimentary tract from the proximal duodenum to the distal rectum. In this review, the authors elaborate on the diagnostic utility of CDX2 in gastrointestinal tumors and other neoplasms with intestinal differentiation. Limitations with its use as the sole predictor of a gastrointestinal origin of metastatic carcinomas are also discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

CDX2 is a nuclear homeobox transcription factor that belongs to the caudal-related family of CDX homeobox genes^[1-3]. The gene encoding CDX2 is a nonclustered hexapeptide located on chromosome 13q12-13^[1,2]. Homeobox genes play an essential role in the control of normal embryonic development^[1,2]. CDX2 is crucial for axial patterning of the alimentary tract during embryonic development^[4,5] and is involved in the processes of intestinal cell proliferation, differentiation, adhesion, and apoptosis^[4-6]. CDX2 functions within the cell to induce differentiation and inhibit proliferation at the level of gene transcription^[4]. It stimulates intestinal epithelium differentiation through activating the transcription of proteins specific to the intestine, such as MUC2, sucrase, isomaltase, and carbonic anhydrase I^[4,5]. CDX2 inhibits epithelial proliferation through upregulating WAF1/p21, a cdk inhibitor that arrests the cell cycle upon DNA damage^[6]. CDX2 expression has been reported to be organ specific and is normally expressed throughout embryonic and postnatal life within the nuclei of epithelial cells of the alimentary tract from the proximal duodenum to the distal rectum^[4-7].

The majority of homeobox genes are considered as proto-oncogenes, with few exceptions^[8]. Expression of CDX2 decreases in human colorectal cancers in proportion to the tumor grade and it is lost in minimally differentiated colon carcinomas^[9]. In addition, CDX2 is downregulated by oncogenic pathways in colon cancer cells. These observations have suggested that CDX2 has a tumor suppressor function. In addition, Bonhomme *et al*^[8] have provided experimental evidence that CDX2 is a colon tumor suppressor gene. Unlike other colon tumor suppressor genes such as APC and p53^[10], which act also outside the gut, CDX2 is the first intestine-specific tumor suppressor^[8].

Since CDX2 is a transcription factor, it shows a nuclear immunostaining pattern. In practice, nuclear expression of transcription factors has several distinct advantages over cytoplasmic “differentiation” markers. Firstly, transcription factors generally yield an “all or none” signal, with the vast majority of positive cases containing positive signal in > 90% of the target cell population. Secondly, the nuclear localization of the signal is much less likely to be confused with biotin or other sources of false-positive cytoplasmic signals. Third, there is no association between the levels of expression of nuclear transcription factors and the state of differentiation of the tumor.

CDX2 EXPRESSION IN GASTROINTESTINAL TUMORS

CDX2 expression in colorectal carcinoma

CDX2 is expressed in normal small and large intestinal epithelial cells, including absorptive, endocrine and Paneth cells^[4]. Recent immunohistochemical studies have reported that CDX2 is a specific and sensitive marker for adenocarcinoma of the gastrointestinal tract, particularly colorectal adenocarcinoma^[7,11-14]. Moskaluk *et al*^[12], examined CDX2 expression in tissue microarrays containing 745 cancers from many anatomic sites and observed strong positive staining in 90% of colonic adenocarcinomas, 20%-30% of carcinomas of the stomach, esophagus and ovary (limited to endometrioid and mucinous types) and in less than 1% of all other carcinoma types. Another study conducted by De Lott *et al*^[13], investigated CDX2 expression in tissue microarrays from 71 colorectal adenocarcinomas, 47 lung adenocarcinomas, 31 hepatocellular carcinomas, 55 squamous cell carcinomas of the lung, 69 neuroendocrine carcinomas of the lung, 43 neuroendocrine carcinomas of the pancreas, 57 pancreatic adenocarcinomas, and 256 endometrial adenocarcinomas. Positive results were found in about 72% of colorectal cancers and in only 6% of endometrial carcinomas^[13]. Tumors from other sites were either negative or rarely positive. Similarly, Werling *et al*^[14] found CDX2 expression in the majority of colorectal carcinomas, with only few exceptions. A heterogeneous focal staining pattern was found in pancreatic, gastric and gastroesophageal adenocarcinomas and cholangiocarcinomas. CDX2 was

rarely expressed in carcinomas of the breast, genitourinary tracts, gynecologic tracts, lung, head and neck^[14]. Bakaris *et al*^[15] observed that CDX2 expression was seen in all cases of colonic adenoma, and the majority of colorectal adenocarcinomas. These previous studies have illustrated the value of CDX2 expression in determining tumor origin in the diagnostic settings^[12].

Previous studies have reported a wide variation in the proportion of colorectal adenocarcinomas that express CDX2. Some studies have reported its expression in 98% to 100% of cases, while others have observed loss of CDX2 expression in 14% to 37% of cases^[7, 12,16]. Loss of CDX2 expression in colorectal cancer has been found to correlate with high tumor grade, microsatellite instability or advanced tumor stage^[7,15,17]. Considering the role of CDX2 in promoting cellular differentiation and inhibiting proliferation^[2,3], loss of CDX2 expression could conceivably contribute to aggressive tumor behavior and increase the likelihood of metastatic disease^[17]. Choi *et al*^[18] analyzed the expression of CDX2 in 123 cases of sporadic colorectal cancers and found loss of its expression in 29/123 (23.6%) specimens. Again, this loss of expression was found to correlate with higher tumor stage and positive lymph node metastasis^[18]. Loss of CDX2 is also more frequently encountered in mismatch repair-deficient colorectal cancer^[9]. Utilizing a database of 621 colorectal cancers, Baba *et al*^[9] found that CDX2 loss was correlated directly with female gender, high tumor grade, stage IV disease, and inversely with LINE-1 hypomethylation, p53 expression, and β -catenin activation. CDX2 loss was associated with high overall mortality among patients with a family history of colorectal cancer^[9]. This implies the importance of CDX2 in the suppression of tumorigenesis in a subset of colorectal cancers and its potential for use as a prognostic marker in identifying high risk patients.

Rectal adenocarcinomas are commonly lumped together with colonic tumors, making their proper immunoprofiling difficult^[19]. We recently investigated the expression of CDX2, along with CK7 and CK20, in rectal adenocarcinoma. In our experience, CDX2 was expressed in the majority of cases of rectal adenocarcinoma, and staining was predominantly nuclear with occasional faint cytoplasmic staining^[19]. In our study, CDX2 expression did not appear to correlate with tumor grade (tumor differentiation).

CDX2 expression in esophageal neoplasms

CDX2 is not expressed in normal esophageal and gastric epithelial cells but is expressed in intestinal metaplasia of the esophagus^[20-22]. In some patients, Barrett's esophagus is complicated by the development of esophageal adenocarcinoma^[20,21]. Lord *et al*^[22] investigated the expression of CDX2 and PITX1 in Barrett's esophagus and associated adenocarcinoma. Negative CDX2 staining was observed in normal squamous esophageal lining, while strong (3+) nuclear staining was seen in all cases of Barrett's intestinal metaplasia, dysplasia, and associated adenocarcinoma^[22]. The level of CDX2 mRNA expression was found to co-

incide with immunohistochemical CDX2 expression as both were upregulated in Barrett's intestinal metaplasia tissues and remained elevated in dysplastic and adenocarcinoma cells^[22]. In contrast, a recent study has reported CDX2 expression which was significantly weaker or absent in esophageal dysplasia and adenocarcinoma in comparison to metaplastic cells^[23].

CDX2 expression in gastric adenocarcinoma

Gastric carcinoma is frequently found in association with intestinal metaplasia^[24]. Studies have reported CDX2 expression in both intestinal metaplasia of the stomach and intestinal-type gastric carcinoma^[25-31]. Furthermore, incomplete intestinal metaplasia, which expresses both gastric and intestinal mucins, shows lower CDX2 expression compared with complete intestinal metaplasia^[32]. Although incomplete intestinal metaplasia morphologically resembles colon, its CDX2 expression was apparently lower than that seen in the normal colon. Similar to esophageal dysplasia, previous studies showed decreasing CDX2 expression from metaplasia to dysplasia to adenocarcinoma^[32]. Intestinal metaplasia or dysplasia with low expression of CDX2 may potentially serve as predictive markers for gastric cancer^[32].

Song *et al.*^[33] reported a significantly better outcome for CDX2-positive gastric tumors over CDX2-negative tumors. Other studies have similarly demonstrated that positive CDX2 expression in gastric cancer significantly correlated with better differentiation and prognosis^[34,35]. CDX2 expression has been evaluated in 69 cases of gastric epithelial dysplasia, 88 early gastric cancers and 56 advanced gastric cancers. Increased CDX2 expression was more frequently associated with adenomatous-type gastric epithelial dysplasia (87%), compared with the foveolar (47%) or hybrid (44%) types. CDX2 expression levels also gradually decreased from gastric dysplasia, to early and advanced gastric cancers. Moreover, a negative correlation was observed between CDX2 expression and the depth of tumor invasion^[26]. A recent study showed that absence of nuclear CDX2 expression may serve as a powerful predictor of lymph node metastasis in gastric cancer^[36]. Overexpression of CDX2 has recently been shown to inhibit cell growth and proliferation *in vitro* and can effectively inhibit gastric cancer progression, making this a potential therapeutic target^[37].

CDX2 expression in small intestinal adenocarcinoma

Despite the large surface area, malignancies of the small intestine are quite rare and account for only 2% of primary gastrointestinal tumors^[38]. Small intestinal adenocarcinoma shows similarities in morphology and risk factors with its colorectal counterpart^[38]. However, it has been found to be immunophenotypically distinct from colorectal adenocarcinoma. Zhang *et al.*^[38] examined the expression of CDX2 in small intestinal adenocarcinoma and found that CDX2 was expressed in 60% of cases of small intestinal adenocarcinoma in comparison to 98% of colorectal adenocarcinoma.

CDX2 expression in gallbladder adenocarcinoma

Gallbladder adenocarcinoma is a highly malignant neoplasm with variable incidence depending on gender and geographic distribution^[39]. Sakamoto *et al.*^[40] investigated the expression of CDX2 in human gallbladders with cholelithiasis and reported CDX2 expression in 92% of gallbladder intestinal metaplasias. CDX2 expression has been found in dysplasia, carcinoma and intestinal metaplasia of the gallbladder and carcinogenesis may proceed through intestinal metaplasia as seen in esophageal metaplasia^[39,40].

Wu *et al.*^[39] examined the expression of CDX2 in 68 primary gallbladder carcinomas and compared its expression with various clinicopathologic factors. Positive staining was observed in 25/68 (36.8%) cases with no significant correlation with clinicopathologic prognostic parameters. Well-differentiated carcinomas had high CDX2 expression (54.8%) compared to moderately differentiated (7.1%) and poorly differentiated carcinomas (0%)^[39]. In contrast, Chang *et al.*^[41] reported CDX2 positivity in 29% of their cases and that expression was an independent prognostic factor in patients with biliary tract carcinoma.

CDX2 expression in extrahepatic bile duct and pancreatic adenocarcinoma

Hong *et al.*^[42] found CDX2 expression in 37% of their extrahepatic bile duct carcinoma cases. They observed more frequent CDX2 expression in tumors with papillary growth (60%) than in those with a nodular (25%) or infiltrative (34.9%) pattern. CDX2 expression was also more frequent in cases without vascular invasion (41.3%) than in those with vascular invasion (23%). In univariate analysis, CDX2/MUC2 positive patients had a significantly higher survival rate than negative patients^[42].

CDX2 expression is focal and patchy in normal pancreatic epithelium^[20] and CDX2 is infrequently expressed in pancreatic adenocarcinoma. In our experience, CDX2 is focally expressed in less than 10% of pancreatic duct adenocarcinomas^[19]. Another report found CDX2 expression in only 3 of the 57 (5%) pancreatic adenocarcinoma cases studied^[13]. In general, the staining pattern is usually focal and less intense than that found in colorectal adenocarcinoma.

CDX2 expression in gastrointestinal neuroendocrine tumors

We have also examined the use of CDX2 and TTF1 in differentiating metastatic neuroendocrine neoplasms of unknown origin^[43]. Expression of CDX2 was found in 28/60 (47%) gastrointestinal neuroendocrine tumors with high prevalence in ileal, appendiceal and colonic origin^[43] (Figure 1). Similarly, previous studies documented exclusive positive staining for CDX2 in ileal and appendiceal neuroendocrine tumors, while all rectal, gastric and duodenal neuroendocrine tumors were negative^[44,45]. No CDX2 expression was observed in neuroendocrine tumors of other origins, including skin, ovary or thymus^[43].

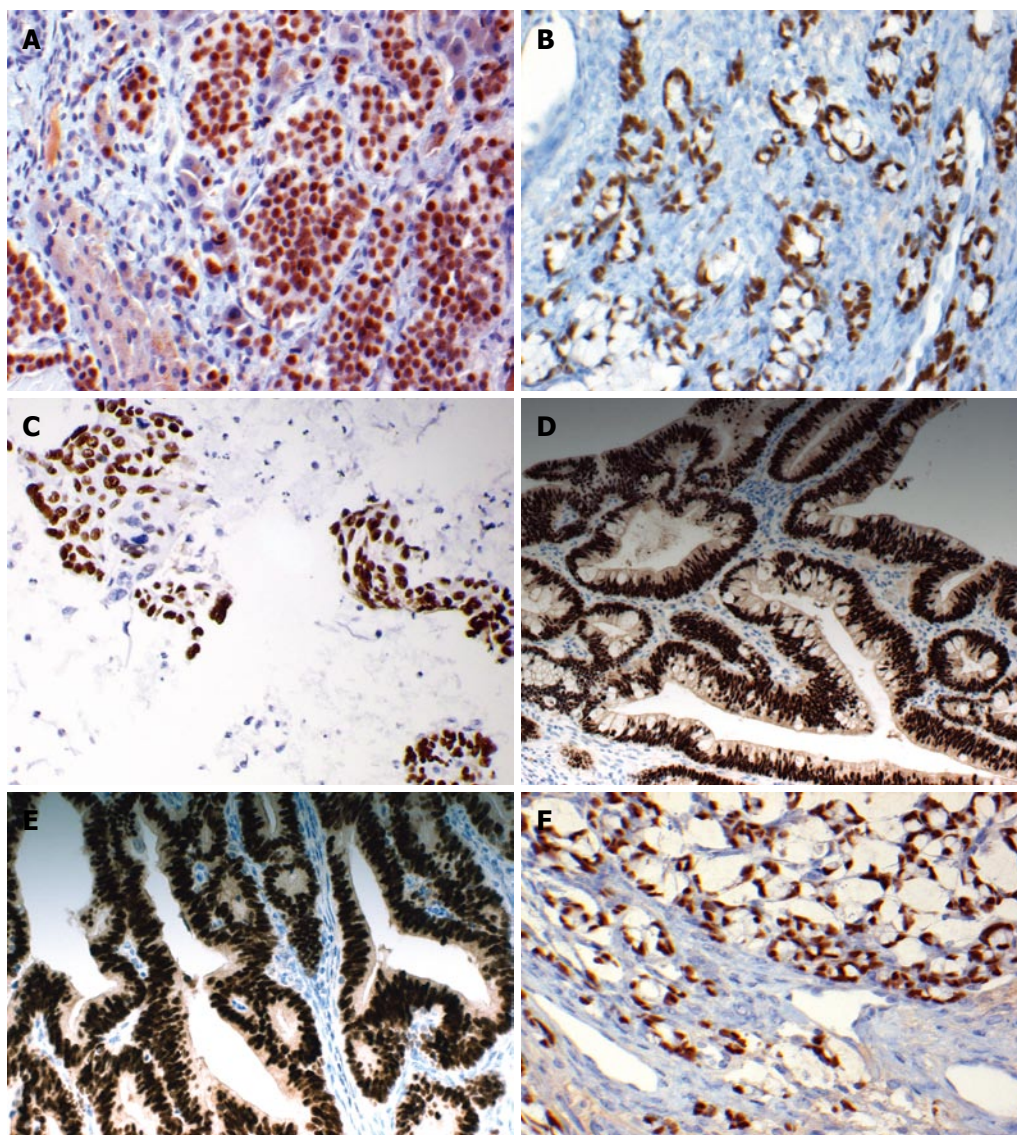


Figure 1 CDX2 expression. A: CDX2 expression in metastatic ileal carcinoid to the liver. Please note the presence of moderate nuclear staining; B: CDX2 expression is also seen in appendiceal goblet carcinoid (Immunohistochemistry $\times 400$); C: CDX2 expression in cytology specimens of metastatic colonic carcinoma to the lung, supporting their colorectal origin. (Immunohistochemistry $\times 250$); D: CDX2 expression is seen in the majority of endocervical adenocarcinomas of intestinal type (Immunohistochemistry $\times 400$); E: CDX2 expression in endometrioid carcinoma (Immunohistochemistry $\times 400$); F: CDX2 expression in sinonasal adenocarcinoma of intestinal type (Immunohistochemistry $\times 400$).

Pancreatic endocrine tumors show focal and heterogeneous staining for CDX2^[43].

Rabban *et al*^[46] have evaluated CDX2 expression in metastatic and primary ovarian carcinoids. They reported diffuse nuclear CDX-2 expression in majority of primary ovarian and metastatic intestinal carcinoids involving the ovary, particularly insular and mucinous types. They concluded that CDX2 is not specific and cannot be used to determine the site of ovarian carcinoids. All primary ovarian carcinoids were negative for TTF-1, CK7 and CK20^[46].

USE OF CDX2 TO CONFIRM METASTATIC ADENOCARCINOMA OF A GASTROINTESTINAL ORIGIN

CDX2 immunohistochemical staining for diagnosis of

metastatic adenocarcinoma has recently come into practice^[47-49]. Due to its limited expression in the spectrum of human tissues and neoplasia, CDX2 has been investigated for its usefulness in diagnosing a metastatic adenocarcinoma as being of a gastrointestinal origin^[47-49].

The diagnostic utility of CDX2 as a marker to identify the gastrointestinal origin of a metastatic tumor was addressed a study where we used CDX2 to distinguish bronchioloalveolar adenocarcinoma of the lung from metastatic mucinous colorectal adenocarcinoma^[42]. Using surgical material, Saad *et al*^[47] and Barbareschi *et al*^[49] both found CDX2 expression in metastatic colorectal adenocarcinoma to the lung compared but absent in primary lung adenocarcinoma. Similarly, CDX2 was useful in cytology specimens as a marker of metastatic gastrointestinal adenocarcinoma when compared to other metastatic tumors (Figure 1C). CDX2 expression was

found in 19/22 (86%) confirmed metastatic gastrointestinal specimens^[50]. All other metastatic adenocarcinomas, from lung, breast, ovaries, pancreas, and prostate sites, were negative for CDX2^[50]. Similarly, Lora and Kanitakis investigated CDX2 expression in 68 cutaneous metastatic tumors of various origin and found that CDX2 was a specific immunohistochemical marker for cutaneous metastases from intestinal and urothelial carcinomas^[48].

Expression of CDX2 tumors outside the colorectum has been reported^[12,14]. Tot^[51] reported that the CK20+/CK7- pattern is more specific than CDX2 expression in predicting the colorectal origin of metastatic adenocarcinoma. It is usually recommended to use CDX2 as a part of immunostaining panel including CK7, CK20, mCEA and villin to prove the intestinal origin of a metastatic tumor^[50].

DIAGNOSTIC DILEMMAS WITH ABERRANT CDX2 EXPRESSION

Despite the relatively restricted CDX2 expression profile, expression of CDX2 in tumors outside the colorectum has been previously reported. Moskaluk *et al.*^[12] and Werling *et al.*^[14] reported that a significant fraction of ovarian mucinous carcinomas and primary bladder adenocarcinomas were CDX2-positive and there have been other studies reporting CDX2 expression in adenocarcinomas of various anatomic sites.

CDX2 expression in cervical adenocarcinoma

Intestinal differentiation of cervical adenocarcinoma, in the form of goblet cells and/or Paneth cells, is uncommon but may generate diagnostic dilemmas. Invasive cervical adenocarcinomas with intestinal differentiation could mimic the histology of colorectal adenocarcinoma, raising the possibility of metastasis or direct spread. Also, a distant metastasis from an intestinal type cervical adenocarcinoma could be easily mistaken for a metastatic adenocarcinoma of an intestinal origin, based on morphology alone.

CDX2 immunostaining has been studied in a few large series of cervical adenocarcinomas of various histologic subtypes. McCluggage *et al.*^[52] have recently reported CDX2 positivity in the majority of intestinal-type endocervical adenocarcinomas *in situ* (20/21 cases) and in all the three invasive intestinal-type adenocarcinomas (ITAC) studied. We compared the expression of CDX2 in 119 cases of different types of cervical adenocarcinoma with that in rectal adenocarcinoma^[53]. Our study is the largest reported to date and confirms that the majority of invasive and *in situ* endocervical adenocarcinomas of intestinal-type show CDX2 immunoreactivity^[53], in agreement with the results of McCluggage *et al.*^[52] (Figure 1D).

CDX2 expression in primary ovarian mucinous tumors

Of all ovarian epithelial tumors, mucinous tumors pose the greatest difficulty with regard to differentiation between primary and metastatic tumors. Previous studies

have demonstrated conflicting results regarding the value of CDX2 in distinguishing primary tumors from metastatic carcinomas of the ovary with mucinous morphology. CDX2 expression has been reported in from 0 to 100% of ovarian mucinous tumors and in 0% to 30% of ovarian endometrioid carcinomas^[54-64]. In contrast, a recent study showed that almost all primary ovarian carcinomas lacked immunoreactivity for CDX2, while the majority of metastatic colorectal carcinomas of the ovary were CDX2-positive^[57]. In an attempt to reconcile the wide gap in data from different studies, the authors claimed that previous studies may have misclassified ovarian metastases as primary tumors. Taken together, the results available to date suggest that the differential diagnosis of primary and metastatic mucinous carcinoma still poses a great problem because these tumors can share their immunophenotype, gross and microscopic features.

CDX2 expression in uterine endometrioid adenocarcinoma

Wani *et al.*^[65] investigated CDX2 expression in 225 cases of endometrial biopsies including 101 endometrioid carcinomas. Normal and non-proliferative endometrium showed negative CDX2 staining. Endometrioid carcinoma with squamous differentiation was positive for CDX2 in 73% of cases, whereas only 14% of tumors without squamous differentiation were positive (Figure 1E). In addition, the authors found that the larger the number of squamous foci the greater the number of CDX2 positive cells which correlated strongly with nuclear β -catenin expression. This may suggest an important role of CDX2 in squamous morular formation^[65].

CDX2 expression in prostatic adenocarcinoma

Herawi *et al.*^[66] have investigated CDX2 expression in prostatic adenocarcinoma, including 708 tissue microarrays containing either benign or malignant prostate tissue as well normal tissues from various anatomic sites. Out of 185 prostatic adenocarcinomas, only four cases (6%) showed focal positive staining while benign prostatic tissue was positive in 12% of cases. No cases of metastatic prostatic carcinoma expressed CDX2^[66]. Another study found CDX2 expression in 31% of prostatic adenocarcinoma with mucinous or signet cell differentiation^[67]. However, in routine pathology practice, positive PSA immunostaining and clinical findings should prove more helpful when a prostatic origin is suspected for a metastatic adenocarcinoma^[66,67].

CDX2 expression in urachal adenocarcinoma

The majority of urachal epithelial neoplasms are adenocarcinomas with enteric or nonenteric histologies. Urachal adenocarcinoma may mimic metastatic adenocarcinoma of different origins. Paner *et al.*^[68] studied CDX2 expression in 32 urachal adenocarcinomas and reported CDX2 expression in 85% of their cases. CDX2 expression can be diffuse in urachal adenocarcinomas, even without the classic enteric morphology. In urachal adenocarcinoma

subtypes, CDX2 expression was seen in 8/8 (100%) of mucinous, 10/11 (91%) of enteric type, 5/7 (71%) of not otherwise specified, and in 4/6 (67%) of signet ring cell type. In addition, CDX2 was expressed by urachal remnants of glandular type, and noninvasive urachal mucinous cystic tumors^[68].

CDX2 expression in intestinal-type sinonasal adenocarcinoma

ITAC of the nasal cavity and paranasal sinuses are uncommon^[69]. They are clinically aggressive and generally present at an advanced stage. Franchi *et al.*^[69] demonstrated nuclear expression of CDX2 in all their cases of ITAC, with strong nuclear staining identified in the majority. CDX2 staining was not present in normal respiratory mucosa or seromucous glands. A similar study detected strong and diffuse nuclear expression of CDX2 in all cases of ITAC^[70] (Figure 1F). Choi *et al.*^[71] suggested that the development of ITAC is preceded by intestinal metaplasia, with conversion from a normal CK7+/CK20-/CDX2-/villin-phenotype to an abnormal CK7-/CK20+/CDX2+/villin- intestinal phenotype.

CDX2 expression in acute myeloid leukemia

CDX2 is expressed in 90% of acute myeloid leukemia (AML) but not in hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells derived from normal individuals^[72,73]. Frequent expression of CDX2 in the adult hematopoietic compartment suggests a role for CDX2 as part of a common effector pathway that promotes the proliferative capacity and self-renewal potential of myeloid progenitor cells^[73].

CONCLUSION

CDX2 is a useful immunohistochemical marker for a colorectal origin of metastatic carcinoma. However, CDX2 can be expressed in other neoplasms, especially those with intestinal differentiation, irrespective of their origin. Therefore, CDX2 should not be used as the sole basis for the conclusion that the gastrointestinal tract is the primary origin of metastatic carcinomas. We recommend that CDX2 should always be used as a part of a broader immunohistochemical panel.

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Current status and recent advances of liver transplantation from donation after cardiac death

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Abstract

The last decade saw increased organ donation activity from donors after cardiac death (DCD). This contributed to a significant proportion of transplant activity. Despite certain drawbacks, liver transplantation from DCD donors continues to supplement the donor pool on the backdrop of a severe organ shortage. Understanding the pathophysiology has provided the basis for modulation of DCD organs that has been proven to be effective outside liver transplantation but remains experimental in liver transplantation models. Research continues on how best to further increase the utility of DCD grafts. Most of the work has been carried out exploring the use of organ preservation using machine assisted perfusion. Both *ex-situ* and *in-situ* organ perfusion systems are tested in the liver transplantation setting with promising results. Additional techniques involved pharmacological manipulation of the donor, graft and the recipient. Ethical barriers and end-of-life care pathways are obstacles to widespread clinical application of some of the recent advances to practice. It is likely that some of the DCD offers are in fact probably "prematurely" of-

fered without ideal donor management or even prior to brain death being established. The absolute benefits of DCD exist only if this form of donation supplements the existing deceased donor pool; hence, it is worthwhile revisiting organ donation process enabling us to identify counter remedial measures.

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Key words: Non-heart beating donor; Liver graft; Primary non-function; Reperfusion injury; Modulation

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INTRODUCTION

The current literature suggests that outcomes of liver transplantation using organs from donors after cardiac death (DCD) are nearly comparable to that of donors after brain death (DBD) or live donor transplants^[1-3]. However, these results are obtained at the expense of significant peri-operative and long term morbidity to the recipient and add substantial cost to the health economics. In countries where transplant programs depend on deceased donors for the supply of organs, there appears to be a recent increase in DCD numbers. In the United Kingdom alone, DCD activity contributed up to 35% of deceased donor transplants in the year 2009-2010. The United Network for Organ Sharing (UNOS) data suggests similar trends, with DCD accounting up to 10% of

overall transplant activity. The initial euphoria of DCD as a viable and alternative organ source is diminishing with the realisation that these DCD organs have contributed to an increased number of transplants at the expense of DBD organs (Figure 1).

There is a lack of universally acceptable objective criteria in identification of an ideal DCD donor and suitable recipient selection. With ever growing transplant waiting lists and death while on the list, clinicians are always on the lookout for means of pushing the boundaries; which donors can be accepted for DCD donation and which organs can be safely transplanted into which potential recipient. The big unanswered question that remains is “which potential DCD donor would become a DBD donor if appropriately managed?” but this is beyond the control of transplant surgeons and lies in the hands of the intensivists who manage most of these donors prior to the referral^[4,5].

Translational studies are not readily incorporated in to the practice in the field of DCD liver transplantation. The bulk of the evidence on clinical outcomes consists of retrospective and observational series. On a positive note, there is evidence on manipulation of DCD grafts, potentially rectifying initial warm ischemia induced organ injury^[6]. Most of the problems associated with DCD liver transplantation are related to the additional ischemic insult that occurs following cardiac death and until organ perfusion with preservation solution is commenced. The exaggerated ischemia reperfusion injury might be potentially life threatening to the recipient upon reperfusion of the graft^[7]. A higher incidence of significant organ dysfunction, delayed graft function with primary non-function is reported with organs from DCD donors^[8,9]. Dependency on organ support in the immediate post operative period is an added burden on healthcare systems, in addition to increased risk of long term complications e.g. biliary complications in DCD liver grafts.

In this review we aim to analyze the current literature on outcomes, results and complications of DCD liver transplantation and investigate interventional and experimental strategies to overcome issues related to DCD liver transplantation.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

For many years, liver transplant programs, based on deceased organ donation programs, have depended on “cadaveric donors” where death has been confirmed by brain stem death testing. These donors are called heart beating donors but more recently have become known as deceased after brain death (DBD) donors. Liver transplantation became an accepted treatment for end stage liver disease following the refinement of immunosuppression therapy that resulted in improved long term graft and patient survival. The increasing success of liver transplantation led to a widening of the indications and in the UK was at a time of a reduction in the number of potential donors offered to the donor coordinator

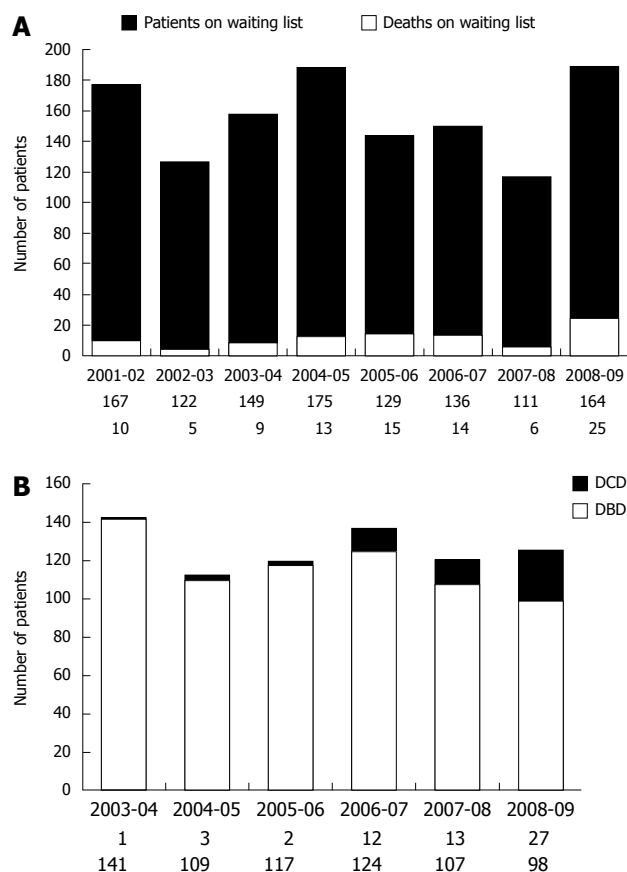


Figure 1 Data from the Queen Elizabeth Hospital Birmingham Liver Transplant Unit. (A) Note the average number of patients in the transplant wait list, especially in the years 2001/02, 2004/05 and 2008/09 had not changed; in contrast, the mortality while on transplant wait list has been significantly increased despite an increase in the LT activity from donors after cardiac death donors (B).

teams to a point where the organ supply did not meet the demand, and so surgeons explored alternative organ sources.

The concept of non-heart beating donation or donation after cardiac death (DCD) was re-visited as a viable source of liver grafts in this setting^[10]. DCD donation was in fact not a new phenomenon but could be regarded as a revival of a historical procedure first performed in 1933. Historically, almost all renal transplants were carried out using DCD organs following the first published report in 1955^[11]. There was a revival of DCD activity towards the end of the 20th Century^[12-14]; this success in the light of a reducing pool of DBD donors prompted liver transplant surgeons to re-explore the possibility of grafts from DCD donors for liver transplantation^[15-18]. In the 1990s, there was increased activity of DCD liver transplantation in the United States and Europe, which led to the 1st DCD conference held in 1995^[19,20]. During this conference, experts gathered in Maastricht defined the categories of DCD donors, widely known as Maastricht criteria. The following four categories were defined: Category I - Death on arrival; Category II - Failed resuscitation; Category III - Awaiting cardiac arrest, generally

comprising planned withdrawal of life support of an in-hospital (ITU) patient; Category IV - Cardiac arrest after brain stem death.

Categories I and II are known as “uncontrolled” donors owing to lack of the time of cardiac arrest; hence the predictability of initial warm ischemia. In contrast, types III/IV donors have a more predictable course before the cardiac death and were termed “controlled” donors. The outcomes of livers from uncontrolled DCD donors were poor; only a few reports have been published on liver transplantation using these donors and some form of cardio-pulmonary support was employed in these donors to maintain recirculation^[8,21]. Substantial data on renal transplantation from uncontrolled DCD donors exists; however, most liver transplant programs only use controlled DCD donors at present^[22]. Initial results following controlled DCD transplantation were acceptable and similar to that of livers from DBD donors; initially this donor organ source was thought to be a supplement to reducing numbers of organs from DBD donor sources.

CURRENT TREND IN DCD DONATION

In the UK, DCD donation activity has increased by 100% over the last few years. One would expect this to have contributed to a parallel increase in the overall transplant activity, but in reality, the total number of deceased donors (DCD and DBD) and the number transplants has remained static or declined in comparison to the previous years. Therefore, it appears that the DCD activity has increased at the expense of DBD activity. We speculate that this might be explained by some DCD donors being referred prior to the establishment of brain stem death. This is opposite to UNOS data which suggests that DCD activity has increased to supplement the overall transplant activity^[16].

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF DCD

Following withdrawal of treatment in DCD donors, organs suffer an ischemic insult resulting from hypotension and desaturation below the levels that are required to maintain adequate tissue perfusion. In our own unit, we consider blood pressure < 50 mmHg and oxygen saturation < 80% as heralding the beginning of warm ischemia. Intracellular energy charge is paramount for cellular viability^[23,24]. In the absence of oxygenated perfusion during warm ischemia, anaerobic metabolism heralds intracellular energy depletion, lactic acidosis and paralysis of energy driven Na^+/K^+ pumps that maintain cell membrane integrity culminating in edema, intracellular vacuolation and cell death. In general, it is accepted that hepatocytes withstand sustained warm ischemic injury for up to 30 min, and grafts transplanted beyond this limit have a higher incidence of primary non function^[25]. The degree of intracellular vacuolation has been shown to be predictive of the eventual graft outcome in pig liver transplantation^[26], although this is not routinely examined in the clinical setting.

Another factor which is detrimental to DCD grafts is post-mortem clot formation in the hepatic microvasculature. This leads to differential and non-uniform perfusion during both organ retrieval and upon reperfusion and eventually determines subsequent graft function. Additional problems specific to liver transplantation include biliary epithelial damage leading to ischemic type biliary strictures (ITBL)^[21]. Bile ducts derive an exclusive arterial blood supply and poor perfusion of the biliary microvasculature is implicated in ITBL. The incidence of biliary strictures is also associated with inadequate bile duct flush at the commencement of cold ischemia. Inspissated bile salts are deposited inside the intrahepatic segmental ducts causing biliary epithelial injury progressing to strictures^[27].

The added ischemic insult in DCD grafts compared with DBD donor grafts can provoke severe ischemia reperfusion injury after transplantation. This can lead to cardiovascular, renal and systemic instability and oxygen derived free radicals are implicated^[28]. Various biomarkers have been described to quantify the ischemic injury prior to organ retrieval or transplantation, with the objective of assessing suitability of grafts for transplantation; these include xanthine, hypoxanthine, hyaluronic acid and reduced glutathione *etc.*^[29-33]. Hypoxanthine is a catabolic by-product of intracellular ATP depletion and upon reperfusion with oxygenated blood becomes oxidised to xanthine. Both molecules possess the potential to generate free radicals which are implicated in ischemia reperfusion injury^[28,34]. Proportionate increase in extracellular hypoxanthine was shown to be associated with duration warm ischemia reflecting increased free radical production, poor graft viability and function^[31]. Undoubtedly, assessment of these biomarkers in DCD liver grafts prior to implantation would be helpful. Certain technical limitations, namely the failure to identify these biomarkers in the peripheral body fluids, technical demands and time constraints in the actual clinical setting, preclude them from being incorporated in to current practice.

CLINICAL OUTCOMES OF DCD

The incidence of delayed graft function and primary non-function is higher in livers from DCD donors and this leads to patient instability in the early post transplant period. Worsening liver function tests in the presence of acidosis and coagulopathy are poor prognostic markers. The reported incidence of primary non-function is up to 15% following transplantation of a DCD donor liver^[21,35]. This is 4-5 fold higher when compared to livers from DBD donors. The risk of PNF further increases with prolongation of the cold ischemia time^[36]. Some authors have suggested that cold ischemia is more detrimental to DCD grafts^[37].

The early results of graft and patient survival following liver transplantation from DCD donors were comparable to that of transplantation from DBD donors^[38]. Refinements of donor procurement, preservation, donor

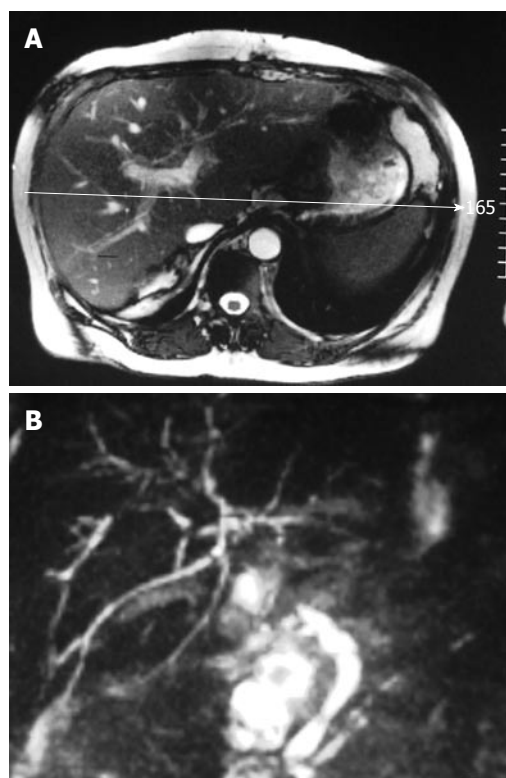


Figure 2 Magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography images of 60-year-old patient received a donors after cardiac death liver graft received 7 years ago. Patient developed ischemic type intrahepatic biliary strictures 8 mo since transplant, confirmed to be of ischemic origin by liver biopsy. Note: dilated intrahepatic ducts proximal to intrahepatic biliary strictures.

organ selection and peri-operative care has resulted in improved outcomes in the last decade. At present, the long term patient and graft survival stands at 60%-70% at 5 years following liver transplantation from a DCD donor. A recent report even suggested equal survival outcomes^[1]. Strict donor selection criteria probably contributed to these results that may not be possible to apply in most of the other centers^[39].

ITBL is associated with long term morbidity and risk of further surgical and non-surgical interventions and even re-transplantation^[35,40]. Isolated intrahepatic lesions may have an indolent course in the presence of free biliary drainage from the unaffected hepatic parenchyma (Figure 2). Involvement of major bile ducts or the extra-hepatic biliary system, however, is not uncommon and warrants aggressive management^[41]. The risk of ITBL appears extremely high and is reported in up to 50% of uncontrolled DCD transplantation^[21]. Although less frequent, in the controlled DCD setting the highest reported incidence is between 30%-40%^[40,42].

Anecdotal evidence suggests that there is a tendency for an increased use of hospital resources, including intensive care facilities, renal support including dialysis and hemofiltration during the early post transplant period in those recipients receiving a DCD donor liver when compared with those receiving a DBD donor liver. There is no published evidence to support this theory; however, some initial unpublished work that has been carried out

in our institution points towards such trend. This means increased financial costs associated with DCD donation and the recipients are at greater operative risk.

Despite all of these shortcomings, DCD donor grafts have been able to save lives of patients with both acute and chronic liver failure and have been used as either full or segmental grafts^[43,44]. Despite the substantial risk carried with such procedures, the long term outcomes have been satisfactory. Based on these limited data, it could be speculated that these grafts may even be routinely used in the setting of acute liver failure for emergency transplants or used as split grafts benefiting two recipients^[45,46]. The key to success is careful donor selection when DCD donor grafts are considered for such extreme clinical situations.

CURRENT RESEARCH

There are a number of levels of intervention that offer potential areas of research on reconditioning of DCD liver grafts (Figure 3). Most of the published studies are in animals and a significant proportion of these included surrogate biomarker analysis in non-transplant models. How these data extrapolate to clinical practice remains unclear. In countries where DCD transplantation (mostly renal transplants) from category II donors is practiced, some of these techniques have been employed in the clinical setting with better long term outcomes for the recipients and grafts^[12]. Reconditioning of non heart beating donors offers an opportunity to both improve outcomes and increase the availability of DCD donor organs. Understanding the pathophysiology of DCD donation has enabled many investigators to explore the impact of pharmacological manipulation and both *in-situ* and *ex-situ* machine perfusion has begun to become a real clinical possibility. The success of *ex-situ* machine perfusion of kidney grafts from DCD donors^[12,47-49] has been begun to be adapted by other specialties, including cardiac transplantation^[50].

Numerous methods of improving the quality of the DCD grafts have been described and the different terminology adds to confusion. The two principle techniques of machine perfusion described are “hypothermic” and “normothermic”. During hypothermic perfusion, graft energy stores are replenished whilst normothermic reperfusion goes a step further and is aimed at reviving DCD grafts from ischemic injury. Depending on the timing of application, such procedures are further classified as “pre-conditioning” and “post-conditioning”. Apart from machine perfusion, these terms may also encompass other pharmacological modulation/intervention of grafts. Pre-conditioning refers to such applications carried out at the time of retrieval or after the retrieval but prior to cold storage of organs. In contrast, post-conditioning refers to techniques that are employed after cold storage and immediately prior to the reperfusion in the recipient.

Extra-corporeal (ex-vivo) perfusion

The Oxford Group studied the benefits of normother-

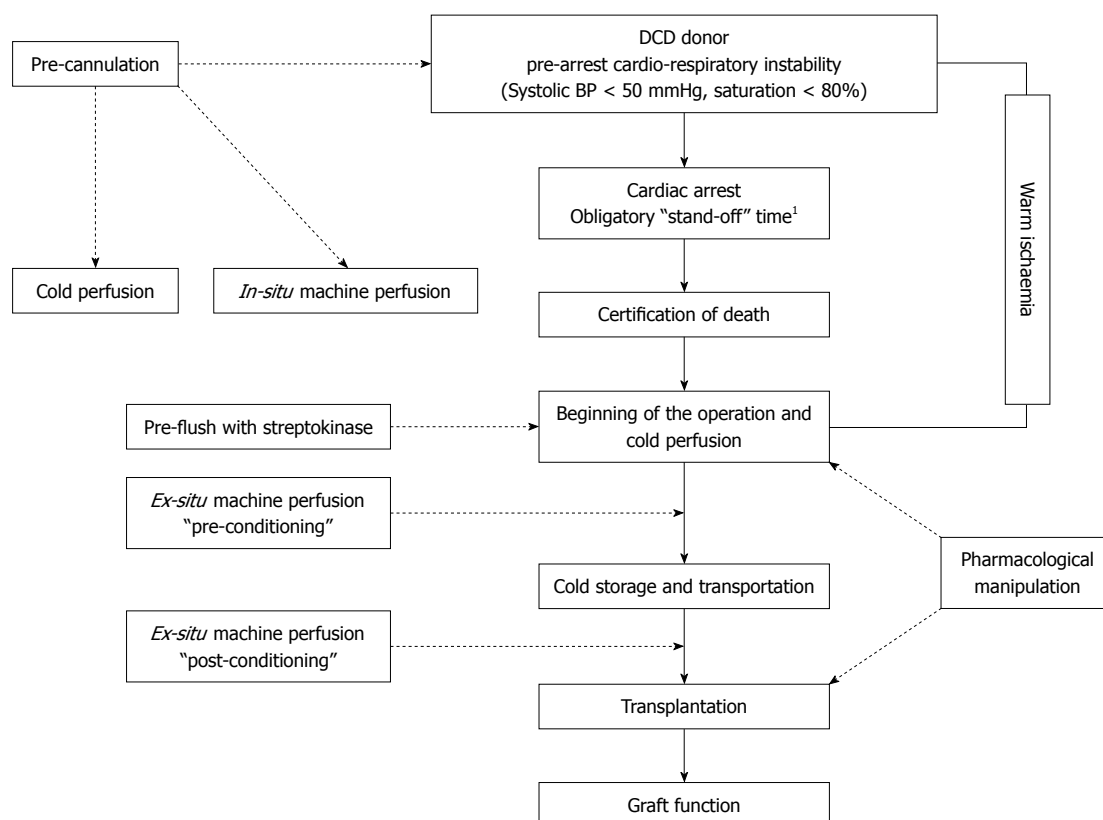


Figure 3 Diagrammatic representation of major steps in donors after cardiac death donation and current research targets. ¹Obligatory stand-off time varies according to the setting; in the United Kingdom this is 5 min whilst 2-10 min are being observed by others according to the centre policy. DCD: Donors after cardiac death.

mic machine perfusion extensively. Imber *et al*^[51,52] (2002) reported that normothermic perfusion is superior to the traditional UW solution based cold storage. Total extracorporeal machine perfusion has its disadvantages owing to technical difficulties in vascular connections; expertise and organ transport, *etc.*, and hence may not be practical in most situations. Subsequently Reddy *et al*^[53] (2004) explored the possibility of post-conditioning of liver grafts that have been stored in the cold storage for a limited period. This model has more practical sense as in real practice the organs could be transported (cold stored) to the recipient center and “post-conditioned” with normothermic perfusion for a certain period of time prior to implantation. The authors concluded that sequential cold storage followed by normothermic perfusion is detrimental to the grafts, leading to more hepatocyte injury. Subsequent to this, the same group tested a similar model but with shorter cold ischemia compared to their previous study, and they demonstrated that hepatocytes retained the synthetic function after brief cold ischemia and more prolonged post conditioning^[37]. The results from Gong *et al*^[54] (2008) had also drawn similar conclusions following normothermic perfusion of swine liver when compared to cold stored liver in histidine-tryptophan-ketoglutarate solution.

The results of hypothermic perfusion appear to be different to that of normothermic models. Several studies have suggested post conditioning in the experimental liver

transplant as well as renal transplant setting where hypothermic post conditioning yielded better outcomes^[55-57]. Extra-corporeal oxygenated machine perfusion (ECMO) of DCD liver grafts was shown to be superior to the traditionally cold stored liver grafts^[58]. The key elements of hypoxia induced cellular injury are shown to be reversible in pre-conditioned grafts perfused with oxygenated buffer using the extracorporeal perfusion system^[59]. Short term hypothermic oxygenated machine perfusion restored intracellular ATP and gave better post-transplant biochemical parameters than those transplanted without such intervention^[58]. Work carried out by Manekeller *et al*^[60] (2007) reported comparable outcomes in terms of bile acid production, ammonia clearance, vascular resistance and oxygen utilisation of DCD liver grafts treated with a short period of post conditioning prior to viability assessment. The authors concluded that prolonged cold ischemia may potentially augment injury caused by warm ischemia; some of the conclusions drawn in this study may be considered speculative in the presence of drawbacks in their study design^[60] (Table 1).

Machine perfusion alone, however, may not provide the solutions to the problems associated with DCD livers. Jain *et al*^[61] (2004) extensively studied the hemodynamic perfusion changes occurring during hypothermic perfusion at extremes of cold ischemia time extending to 24 h. Such long cold ischemia is not expected in the routine clinical setting but some of their observations highlight

Table 1 Summary data on normothermic *ex-vivo* perfusion studies of donors after cardiac death liver

Author	Yr	Model	Summary	Outcome
Gong <i>et al</i> ^[54]	2008	Animal (swine)	Normothermic perfusion with autologous blood (<i>n</i> = 4), compared with cold stored controls in HTK solution (<i>n</i> = 4)	Improved bile production, less hepatocyte damage and favourable haemodynamic parameters
Manekeller <i>et al</i> ^[60]	2007	Animal (rat)	Oxygenated hypothermic machine perfusion at the end of cold storage (post perfusion)	Improved performance indicators comparable to controls
Reddy <i>et al</i> ^[37]	2005	Animal (swine)	Normothermic perfusion for 24 h (<i>n</i> = 5%) compared with sequential cold storage of 1 h followed by 20 h normothermic perfusion (<i>n</i> = 5)	Greater hepatocyte injury whilst retaining the synthetic function
Reddy <i>et al</i> ^[53]	2004	Animal (swine)	Normothermic perfusion for 24 h (<i>n</i> = 4) compared with sequential 4 h cold storage followed by 20 h normothermic reperfusion (post-conditioning, <i>n</i> = 4)	Greater hepatocyte injury in the sequential post conditioning group
St Peter <i>et al</i> ^[55]	2002	Animal (swine)	Hypothermic storage (<i>n</i> = 4) compared to normothermic perfusion <i>ex-vivo</i> (<i>n</i> = 4) - reperfusion model not transplant	Recovery of synthetic function, less hepatocyte injury and improved substrate utilisation
Imber <i>et al</i> ^[51]	2002	Animal (swine)	Normothermic perfusion (<i>n</i> = 5) compared with standard cold storage (<i>n</i> = 5)	Improved bile production, glucose metabolism and less hepatocyte injury

HTK: Histidine-tryptophan-ketoglutarate.

the problems peculiar to DCD livers. It was shown that heterogenous microvascular perfusion occurred with hypothermic perfusion, probably resulting from endothelial cell injury. This has been confirmed by other studies^[25]; a similar heterogenous perfusion is commonly observed in the clinical setting that is directly associated with peri-operative instability of recipient and reflected on subsequent graft dysfunction.

In-vivo (in-situ) perfusion

A novel approach is the “*in-situ (vivo)*” machine perfusion and current interest is centred on *in-situ* perfusion using autologous blood and an ECMO device. This obviates the need for exhaustive techniques to reconnect the organs to the machine; hence, appears simple when the technical aspects alone are compared with its counterpart “*ex-situ (vivo)*” machine perfusion. The first results of *in-situ* perfusion with an ECMO device was published by Ko *et al*^[62] (2000); the authors reported of the use of an ECMO assisted perfusion when legal barriers precluded organ retrieval from DCD donors after certification of cardiac death. The group published data on 8 renal transplants performed after reviving the organs with hypothermic circulation driven by ECMO and reported immediate graft function in 75% cases, whilst delayed graft function was observed in the remainder. This group reproduced similar results in a subsequent publication which created an interest in the *in-vivo* revival of DCD organs^[63].

Quintela *et al*^[64] (2005) reported the earliest clinical results of liver transplantation from a technique that could be simulated to autologous re-perfusion and without a mechanical device; the importance is that this is the only reported clinical series and the donors in this series could be regarded type II DCD donors. They reported 10 liver transplants performed using grafts that were maintained by abdominal compression-decompression to maintain organ perfusion. Successful results reported by this group have not been reproduced by the same or any other groups to date.

There is very limited data on the performance of liver grafts that have been perfused *in-situ* with normothermic perfusion techniques. Rojas *et al*^[65] (2004) reported their results on swine maintained on ECMO following induced cardiac arrest, and concluded venous oxygen saturation reached the baseline pre-cardiac arrest levels within 15 min of ECMO perfusion, whilst retaining 75% of synthetic function following warm ischemia. These results are exciting, but no other groups have reported similar results. The same group recently published data on a similar model with 30 min of induced warm ischemia followed by ECMO support^[66]. Organs were recovered to a transplantable level. The prospects of *in-vivo* perfusion appear sound as technical aspects are less cumbersome when compared to extracorporeal perfusion techniques. A major obstacle is application of such a technique to human model and overcoming the ethical and legal barriers.

Pharmacological agents and modulation

The initial reports of pre-flush with streptokinase were centered on renal transplantation demonstrating the improved microvascular permeability and graft function^[67,68]. The convincing results led to routine incorporation of this to the practice among many centers^[69]. In the DCD liver grafts of an *ex-vivo* transplant model, heterogenous patchy perfusion resulting in loss of cellular integrity had been shown when not treated with anti-fibrinolytic streptokinase solution^[70]. Yamauchi *et al*^[71] (2000) reported improved microvascular perfusion in the rat liver transplantation model using DCD grafts pre-flushed with streptokinase.

Multifactorial “modulation” of DCD donors with the use of pharmacological agents was reported in a recent animal study^[6]. The investigators used a combined pharmacological modulation “*in-situ*” as well as during the recipient operation. The agents used mainly were anti-thrombogenic and vasodilatory (streptokinase, heparin, epoprostenol) and biological agents (primarily redox

agents) aiming to minimise the ischemia reperfusion injury^[6,72]. The livers were exposed to 45 min of warm ischemia, followed by a cold storage prior to transplant. The investigators reported a lower incidence of primary non-function, improved hepatic synthetic activity and less parenchymal loss following modulation. They also reported lower bile salt-to-phospholipid ratio in the modulation group. Increased bile salt-to-phospholipid ratio has been previously attributed by the same investigators for the higher incidence of ITBL^[27]. The protective effect of L-arginine in relation to attenuation of nitric oxide and plasma endothelin release has also been reported^[73]. It appears that scientists have made some headway in addressing key issues related to DCD liver transplantation; however, these are yet to be proven by long term follow up studies and application to clinical practice.

FUTURE OF DCD LIVER TRANSPLANTATION

The lack of a universally accepted and safe criterion for age of the donor and the amount of macro- and micro-vesicular steatosis in the setting of DCD liver grafts remains a problem. Investigators have so far been looking only at the revival of warm ischemic damage, but other surrogate factors should be investigated in the context of initial poor function. Primary non function donor-recipient matching is inevitably carried out at present and tends to be based on clinical and performance indicators in both the donor and recipient; however, models are needed that score the risk of DCD grafts taking other parameters in to account^[74]. This would help identify the best recipient for a particular DCD or DBD graft^[7]. This would ensure that organ wastage from discard and recipient complications would be minimised.

Judging by the current popularity, it may be speculated that in the future, DCD liver transplantation will contribute a significant proportion of the liver transplant activity. Whether this increased activity of DCD donation is the end results of the organ donation process through awareness among both public and medical personnel alike, or increased DCD activity at the expense of DBD activity, remains in question. Pressure for ITU beds may prompt intensivists to withdraw life support at the earliest opportunity when it is evident that further treatment of a patient is futile. It is known that the majority of patients with intra-cerebral pathologies are managed with a relatively dry fluid regime in order to prevent intra-cerebral edema; meanwhile, donor optimisation prior to organ retrieval involves fluid, electrolytes, blood sugar and hormonal support and prevention of infection^[75,76]. It is likely that if these patients with intra-cerebral pathology were managed using the optimisation guidelines then a proportion would become brain dead within the next few hours^[77].

In our experience, there have been many instances where DCD donor offers were converted to DBD offers at the last minute, even just prior to commencement of organ retrieval. As discussed above, experience sug-

gests that, with further management for a few hours, even more DCD offers would almost certainly see the donors become brain dead^[78]. Ethical or legal barriers may preclude pharmacological or other manipulation of the donor in some countries. In the United Kingdom, amendments to the Human Tissue Act introduced recently declared that once a suitable recipient has been identified to receive organs from a potential donor, the organs belong to the recipient. This amendment might allow us to challenge critics who suggest donor management/manipulation to optimise organ donation is legally and ethically flawed once it is decided that further treatment is futile^[79]. Liver transplantation with DCD organs should also be looked upon as a life saving operation; it is important that every professional involved from donor care to transplantation realises that the price a recipient will have to pay is higher when receiving DCD donor organs than a DBD graft^[80].

The revival of donor liver organs is yet to be translated to clinical practice. Unlike in renal transplantation where one can take a calculated risk and if unsuccessful return to dialysis, liver transplantation using these manipulated livers is a very big risk. What has been achieved so far is promising and combined pharmacological manipulation and ECMO support appears the way forward. *In-situ* revival appears a better option. In the future, we could see a transition from animal to human models at least at the pre-transplant level. In view of the increased demand for donor livers, it is likely that progress made on the issues discussed would increase DCD liver transplantation, contributing to a true and meaningful rise in overall transplant activity.

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Laparoscopic total colectomy: Does the indication influence the outcome?

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Abstract

AIM: To assess and compare outcomes of laparoscopic total colectomy performed for a variety of indications.

METHODS: Sixty six patients underwent laparoscopic total colectomy for inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) (13) and other diseases (53). Data on demographics, pre- and post-operative outcomes were collected prospectively.

RESULTS: Mean operative time was 4.5 h. Conversion rate was 13.6%. Total colectomy performed for IBD was associated with a significantly higher anastomotic leak rate (23.1% vs 1.9%, $P < 0.05$). On univariate analysis, hand sewn anastomosis and treatment with more than 20 mg of prednisolone for at least 3 mo was associated with a higher anastomotic leak rate ($P < 0.05$). No significant difference was found in return of gut function and overall morbidity between disease groups.

CONCLUSION: Laparoscopic total colectomy is feasible and outcomes are equivalent whatever the indication, except for anastomotic leak rate which is higher for patients with IBD.

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Key words: Colectomy; Inflammatory bowel disease; Laparoscopy; Familial adenomatous polyposis; Constipation; Colonic neoplasms; Hereditary nonpolyposis; Diverticulosis; Treatment outcomes

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INTRODUCTION

Numerous studies have demonstrated the benefits of laparoscopic segmental colonic resection for benign and malignant disease^[1,2]. Proven advantages include im-

proved cosmesis, decreased blood loss and a reduction in postoperative pain, fatigue and time to resumption of oral intake. In contrast, data concerning laparoscopic total colectomy has been less compelling. Common indications for total colectomy include familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP), Lynch syndrome, slow transit constipation and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) such as Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis (UC). Restorative proctocolectomy with ileal pouch-anal anastomosis (IPAA) is the treatment of choice in UC. For selected patients presenting with mild disease in the rectum, no dysplasia and with normal rectal compliance, a subtotal colectomy with ileo-distal sigmoid anastomosis may be an alternative and was performed in this study. Few published reports exist and mainly report techniques performed for a single indication or include small numbers of patients^[3-10]. The aim of this study was to report the outcomes of laparoscopic total colectomy based on indication, comparing IBD with other indications.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Between June 1998 and June 2007, 66 consecutive patients underwent a laparoscopic total or subtotal colectomy for benign or malignant disease. Patients were admitted to two surgical departments of Hospices Civils de Lyon and operated on by several surgeons (Digestive Surgical Department of Centre Hospitalier Lyon-Sud and Digestive Surgical Department of Centre Hospitalier Edouard Herriot). Thirteen patients (19.7%) presented with IBD (11 with UC and 2 with colonic Crohn's disease), 40 patients (60.6%) with FAP, 7 patients (10.6%) with slow transit constipation, 5 patients (7.6%) with colonic cancer and Lynch syndrome and 1 patient (1.5%) with diffuse colonic diverticulosis. Patients with IBD were operated on for failure of medical treatment. All patients with IBD except 1 patient with UC received at least 3 mo of maintenance steroid treatment [prednisolone, mean 24.2 mg daily (SD = 11.1)]. The dosage of prednisolone used was > 20 mg for 7 patients and ≤ 20 mg for 5 patients. Six patients (46%) with IBD had an immunosuppressive treatment [azathioprine ($n = 5$) and cyclosporine ($n = 1$)]. No patient with UC had fulminant disease as defined by two or more of the following findings: tachycardia (heart rate > 120 beats per minute), temperature greater than 38.0°C, peritoneal signs and white blood cell count greater than 11 000/mL.

Surgical technique

All patients underwent bowel preparation with polyethylene glycol or sodium phosphate. Under general anesthesia, patients were placed in a modified lithotomy position with legs slightly abducted and arms tucked to the sides. A nasogastric tube was inserted during surgery but postoperative use depended on the individual surgeon's routine practice. Pneumoperitoneum was established with a Veress needle at an abdominal pressure of 12 mmHg. A 10 mm port was placed at the umbilicus for the 30°

oblique viewing laparoscope. Four additional ports were placed under laparoscopic vision: one 12 mm port in the right lower quadrant, one 10 mm port in the right and left upper quadrants and one 5 mm port in the suprapubic position. Dissection and division of the mesentery was performed with a 10 mm laparoscopic Ligasure device (Ligasure Atlas; Valleylab, Boulder, CO, United States) or a 5 mm blade Harmonic Scalpel (Ultracision Shears Harmonic Scalpel LCS; Ethicon Endosurgery SA, Issy-Les-Moulineaux, France) according to the surgeon's preference, without mesenteric lymphadenectomy except for malignancy. Total colectomy was performed from right to left (lateral to medial dissection). The procedure involved right colonic mobilization as well as hepatic flexure mobilization followed by transverse colonic dissection. The omentum was elevated off the transverse colon (except for cancers involving the transverse colon). The splenic flexure and finally the left colonic dissection were followed by division at the rectosigmoid junction using a laparoscopic linear stapler. Patients had either an ileo-distal sigmoid or ileorectal anastomosis. For an ileo-distal sigmoid anastomosis (subtotal colectomy), a short lower midline incision was made for exteriorisation and resection of the specimen and formation of a hand sewn anastomosis. For an ileorectal anastomosis (total colectomy), the bowel was divided at the rectosigmoid junction and the specimen removed through a short transverse incision in the right lower quadrant. After re-establishment of the pneumoperitoneum, a stapled end-to-end ileorectal anastomosis was performed with an endoluminal stapling gun. A pelvic drain was used selectively.

Outcome measures

Demographics, including age, gender and indication for colectomy, were collected prospectively for all patients.

The principle outcome measures were: (1) Intraoperative data: operative time, surgical procedure performed, conversions and their reasons, creation of a stoma; and (2) Early postoperative: time to first bowel movement and time with nasogastric tube, complications, anastomotic leak, radiological intervention, reoperation, length of hospital stay.

The period of inclusion was divided into two 5-year periods: 1998 to 2002 and 2003 to 2007.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States). Results are expressed as the mean ± SD. Comparisons between groups were performed using the Student *t* test for continuous data and χ^2 or Fisher exact test for categorical data. Multivariate analysis was performed using a logistic regression. A *P* value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Intraoperative data

Mean operative time was 4.5 h (Table 1). Length of op-

Table 1 Demographic and intraoperative data (mean \pm SD) *n* (%)

	Crohn (<i>n</i> = 2)	Ulcerative colitis (<i>n</i> = 11)	FAP (<i>n</i> = 40)	Lynch syndrome (<i>n</i> = 5)	Constipation (<i>n</i> = 7)	Diverticulosis (<i>n</i> = 1)	All (<i>n</i> = 66)
Age (yr)	28.0 \pm 9.7	42.5 \pm 12.7	46.1 \pm 19.4	44.8 \pm 19.6	36.4 \pm 8.9	57.0 \pm 0.0	44.4 \pm 17.0
Female	0	3 (27.3)	17 (42.5)	1 (20)	7 (100)	0	28 (42.4)
Operative time (h)	4.0 \pm 0.0	4.6 \pm 0.5	4.5 \pm 1.5	4.1 \pm 1.3	4.2 \pm 1.0	5.0 \pm 0.0	4.5 \pm 1.24
Stoma	1 (50.0)	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1.5)
Conversion	0	2 (18.2)	6 (15)	0	1 (14.3)	0	9 (13.6)
Anastomosis							
Ileorectal	0	3 (27.3)	37 (92.5)	4 (80)	1 (14.3)	1 (100)	46 (69.7)
Ileo-distal sigmoid	2 (100)	8 (72.7)	3 (7.5)	1 (20)	6 (85.7)	0	20 (30.3)

FAP: Familial adenomatous polyposis.

Table 2 Outcomes based on indication for surgery (mean \pm SD) *n* (%)

	Inflammatory bowel disease (<i>n</i> = 13)	Other indications (<i>n</i> = 53)	<i>P</i> value
Age (yr)	42.5 (12.6)	44.9 (18.3)	0.663
Female	3 (23.1)	25 (47.2)	0.115
Operative time (h)	4.5 \pm 0.5	4.40 \pm 1.36	0.899
Conversion	2 (15.4)	7 (13.2)	> 0.999
Length of stay (d)	15.2 \pm 7.5	12.8 \pm 6.7	0.274
Time to first bowel movement (days from surgery)	4.9 \pm 3.1	4.3 \pm 3.1	0.522
Nasogastric tube ¹	9 (69.2)	25 (47.2)	0.154
Overall morbidity	5 (38.5)	19 (35.8)	> 0.999
Anastomotic leak	3 (23.1)	1 (1.9)	0.022
Reoperation	3 (23.1)	6 (11.3)	0.364
Radiological drainage	1 (7.7)	3 (5.7)	> 0.999

¹Numbers of patients (%) requiring a nasogastric tube for more than 1 postoperative day when inserted intraoperatively or requiring postoperative insertion.

eration was not statistically different for IBD compared to other indications (Table 2). One protecting loop ileostomy was performed for Crohn's disease. Conversion rate was 13.6% (9 patients). Seven conversions were due to intra-abdominal adhesions. Super obesity (body mass index > 50) was responsible for one conversion and rectal trauma during stapling of an ileorectal anastomosis for the other. The conversion rate was not statistically different between IBD and other indications. Ileo-distal sigmoid anastomosis was the most common used for IBD [10/13 patients (76.9%)] and slow transit constipation [6/7 patients (85.7%)]. For other indications, an ileorectal anastomosis was most often performed [42/46 patients (91.3%)]. These results were compared between the 2 periods of inclusion (Table 3). Length of operation was shorter after 2002 (4.2 h *vs* 5.0 h, *P* = 0.0156). There was no significant difference in conversion rate between the two time periods.

Early postoperative outcomes

Early postoperative results are reported in Table 4. There were no postoperative deaths (30 d mortality). A nasogastric (N-G) tube was left *in situ* postoperatively in 43 patients (65.1%). In 17 patients it was removed on the

Table 3 Comparison of outcomes over 2 consecutive time periods (mean \pm SD) *n* (%)

	1998-2002 (<i>n</i> = 21)	2003-2007 (<i>n</i> = 45)	<i>P</i> value
Inflammatory bowel disease	10 (47.6)	3 (6.7)	< 0.0001
Operative time (h)	5.0 \pm 0.9	4.2 \pm 1.3	0.0156
Conversion	4 (19.0)	5 (11.1)	0.4499
Length of stay (d)	16.5 \pm 7.9	11.8 \pm 5.9	0.0093
Time to first bowel movement (days from surgery)	5.1 \pm 3.5	4.1 \pm 2.8	0.2439
Overall morbidity	10 (47.6)	14 (31.1)	0.1941
Anastomotic leak	2 (9.5)	2 (4.4)	0.5865
Reoperation	5 (23.8)	4 (8.9)	0.1300

first postoperative day. Twenty-six patients had postoperative small bowel ileus resulting in the N-G tube being left for a median of 3 d after surgery. Of the 23 patients whose N-G tube was removed immediately after surgery, 8 (34.8%) required re-insertion. Therefore, an N-G tube was considered useful in 34 patients (51.5%).

Although the overall complication rate (36.4%) was not statistically greater for patients with IBD (Table 2), anastomotic leak was more frequent following surgery for UC and Crohn's disease (23.1% *vs* 1.9%, *P* = 0.022). On univariate analysis, anastomotic leaks were also significantly correlated with the type of anastomosis (4/20 anastomotic leaks for hand sewn anastomosis *vs* 0/46 for stapled anastomosis, *P* = 0.0067) and maintenance treatment with steroids > 20 mg (3/7 *vs* 1/59, *P* = 0.0029). On multivariate analysis, none of these parameters appeared to significantly increase the anastomotic leak rate. Complications that increased the length of stay were reported (Table 4). In patients with UC, these were profuse diarrhea lasting 10 d (1) and prolonged ileus (1). In patients with FAP: aspiration pneumonia (1), prolonged ileus (1), segmental portal vein thrombosis (1) and intra-abdominal abscess without anastomotic leak (4) requiring reoperation in 2 patients, percutaneous radiological drainage in 1 and treatment with antibiotics in another. In patients with Lynch syndrome: intra-abdominal abscess without anastomotic leak treated by antibiotics only (1), lymph leak which delayed intra-abdominal drain removal (1) and small bowel obstruction treated non-operatively (1). For diverticulosis: intra-abdominal bleeding requiring

Table 4 Early postoperative results (mean \pm SD) *n* (%)

	Crohn (<i>n</i> = 2)	Ulcerative colitis (<i>n</i> = 11)	FAP (<i>n</i> = 40)	Lynch syndrome (<i>n</i> = 5)	Constipation (<i>n</i> = 7)	Diverticulosis (<i>n</i> = 1)	All (<i>n</i> = 66)
Length of stay (d)	17.5 \pm 9.2	14.7 \pm 7.6	11.2 \pm 4.4	12.8 \pm 6.9	13.7 \pm 7.9	13 \pm 0	13.3 \pm 6.7
First bowel movement (d)	5.5 \pm 3.5	4.8 \pm 3.2	3.7 \pm 2.7	4.6 \pm 3.2	7.1 \pm 4.1	5 \pm 0	4.4 \pm 3.1
Nasogastric tube ¹	1 (50)	7 (63.6)	19 (47.5)	1 (20)	4 (57.1)	1 (100)	34 (51.5)
Complications	2 (100)	3 (27.3)	11 (27.5)	4 (80)	3 (43)	1 (100)	24 (36.4)
Anastomotic leak	2 (100)	1 (9.1)	0	0	1 (14.3)	0	4 (6.1)
Wound abscess	0	0	2 (5)	1 (20)	1 (14.3)	0	4 (6.1)
Surgery for bowel obstruction	0	0	1 (2.5)	0	1 (14.3)	0	2 (3)
Other complications	0	2 (18.2)	8 (20)	3 (60)	0	1 (100)	14 (21.2)
Reoperation	2 (100)	1 (9.1)	3 (7.5)	0	2 (28.6)	1 (100)	9 (13.6)
Radiological intervention	1 (50)	0	3 (7.5)	0	0	0	4 (6.1)

¹Numbers of patients (%) requiring a nasogastric tube for more than 1 postoperative day when inserted intraoperatively or requiring postoperative insertion.
FAP: Familial adenomatous polyposis.

Table 5 Studies of total and segmental colectomy

Authors	Indication	No. of patients	Procedure	Conversion (%)	Morbidity (%)	Anastomotic leaks (%)	Reoperation (%)	Hospital stay (d)
Hamel <i>et al</i> ^[3]	Crohn	21	STC (L)	24	33	10	10	8.8
Pokala <i>et al</i> ^[11]	FAP, C, Lynch, IBD	34	TC + STC (L)	11.8	26.5	5.9	8.8	4.1
		34	TC + STC (O)	NA	38.2	0	11.8	6.8
Hsiao <i>et al</i> ^[4]	C	44	TC (HA)	0	18.2	2.3	6.8	7.6
Delaney <i>et al</i> ^[1]	Cancer, IBD, DD	11 044	SegC (L)	10.1	26	0.26	0.5	6.3
		21 689	SegC (O)	NA	31.8	0.18	0.3	8.5
Current series	IDB	13	TC + STC (L)	15.2	38.5	23.1	23.1	15.2
	Non IBD	53		13.2	35.8	1.9	11.3	12.8
	All	66		13.6	36.4	6.1	13.6	13.3

STC: Subtotal colectomy; TC: Total colectomy; SegC: Segmental colectomy; L: Laparoscopic; O: Open; HA: Hand assisted; FAP: Familial adenomatous polyposis; C: Slow transit Constipation; IBD: Inflammatory bowel disease; DD: Diverticular disease; NA: Not applicable.

re-operation (1). Nine reoperations were necessary: 4 for peritonitis after an anastomotic leak, 2 intra-abdominal abscesses without anastomotic leak, 2 for small bowel obstruction and 1 for intra-abdominal bleeding.

Length of hospital stay was 13.3 d (SD = 6.7) with no significant difference between patients with and without IBD (Table 2). Length of hospital stay was shorter after 2002 (11.8 d *vs* 16.5 d, *P* = 0.0093) (Table 3). No significant difference was found between these 2 periods in the time to first bowel movement, overall morbidity, anastomotic leak rate and reoperation rate.

DISCUSSION

This study reports the results of 66 consecutive patients who underwent a laparoscopic total colectomy. Our data shows that this operation is feasible and safe with no mortality and acceptable morbidity, as reported in previous studies^[3-11] (Table 5). The early postoperative results highlight problems with bowel function after total colectomy with a mean of 4.4 d until the first bowel movement. 51.5 % of patients needed a nasogastric tube. Recovery of gut function seems longer than following segmental laparoscopic colectomy when patients rarely require nasogastric tube insertion (less than 15%) and can be discharged on the fourth postoperative day^[12,13]. No

enhanced recovery protocol was followed in this study. These protocols have demonstrated their benefit in improving outcomes after segmental colonic resection^[14,15]. They reduce the time to restoration of bowel function and the length of hospital stay. No studies have evaluated these protocols for total colectomy with the majority of controlled trials including only segmental colectomies. It is therefore difficult to extrapolate the results of these trials to the management of patients after total colectomy. However, length of stay and restoration of bowel function appear longer in our series than in previous published series of total colectomies (Table 5). This may be explained by the long time period over which our study was conducted. When analyzed in two consecutive 5-year time periods (Table 3), a decrease in operative time and length of hospital stay was observed. This is likely due to an improvement in operative technique (riding the learning curve) and in postoperative care. Although no formal enhanced recovery protocol was followed, there was a definite evolution in postoperative care in our unit based on elements of enhanced recovery such as early enteral feeding and mobilization with avoidance of opiate analgesia. Enhanced recovery protocols have demonstrated their utility following segmental colectomy and may also improve outcomes following laparoscopic total colectomy. A randomised controlled trial is necessary to evaluate

this. Refinement in patient selection in our unit may also explain fewer patients with IBD undergoing surgery over time.

IBD is not a common indication for total colectomy. In our series, it was performed principally for UC. Restorative proctocolectomy with IPAA is the treatment of choice in UC. However, in patients, especially young women, with mild rectal disease, no dysplasia and normal rectal compliance, a subtotal colectomy may be an alternative to IPAA that may give better functional results with reduced risk of infertility. Evaluation of the long-term results of total colectomy for UC was not the aim of this study and would require a controlled trial with large numbers of patients.

Morbidity in this study was higher than for segmental colectomy with a reoperation rate of 13.6% (0.5% in a recent study using a large national database of 11 044 segmental laparoscopic colectomies^[1]), but equivalent to other studies of total colectomy for IBD (Table 5).

We compared IBD with other indications for total colectomy. No difference in operative time, conversion rate, the length of stay or overall morbidity was seen. However, there were significantly more anastomotic leaks in patients with IBD, especially Crohn's disease. Both patients with Crohn's disease suffered anastomotic leaks although one had a defunctioning stoma. Several studies report high morbidity rates (up to 35%), with a conversion rate reaching 30% for laparoscopic surgery in Crohn's disease^[3,8,16-18]. In our opinion, all patients with Crohn's disease who undergo total colectomy should be prepared for a defunctioning stoma. For patients without IBD, the anastomotic leak rate (1.9%) was equivalent to segmental colectomy which varies between 0% and 7%^[1,19]. A hand sewn anastomosis and maintenance treatment with more than 20 mg of prednisolone daily were risk factors for anastomotic leak in univariate but not multivariate analysis. Patients with IBD were more likely to possess both these factors but larger numbers are required to evaluate these factors fully. Tilney *et al.*^[10], in a meta-analysis of outcomes after laparoscopic or open total colectomy, reported 63 patients who underwent a restorative laparoscopic total colectomy. Our series is one of the largest reporting laparoscopic total colectomy in the literature and involved two surgical centers although a large multicenter prospective study would help clarify many issues raised.

In conclusion, laparoscopic total colectomy is feasible even for patients with IBD but complication rates are higher and return to normal gut function slower than for segmental colectomy. Outcomes are equivalent whatever the indication, except for anastomotic leak rate which is higher for patients with IBD. To achieve the best outcomes in this group, careful patient selection with a low threshold for a defunctioning stoma is essential.

COMMENTS

Background

Numerous studies have demonstrated the benefits of laparoscopic segmental colonic resection for benign and malignant disease. Proven advantages include improved cosmesis, decreased blood loss and a reduction in postoperative

pain, fatigue and time to resumption of oral intake. In contrast, data concerning laparoscopic total colectomy has been less compelling. The aim of this study was to report the outcomes of laparoscopic total colectomy based on indication, comparing inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) with other indications.

Research frontiers

In the area of mini-invasive surgery, laparoscopy was applied to colorectal surgery. The aim was to reduce the surgical stress to improve the post-operative course.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Based on a large series, this study describes the outcomes of laparoscopic total colectomy and is a reference for comparison in future studies.

Applications

The study results show that laparoscopic total colectomy is feasible and outcomes are equivalent whatever the indication, except for anastomotic leak rate which is higher for patients with IBD. The study results suggest that all patients with Crohn's disease who undergo total colectomy should be prepared for a defunctioning stoma.

Peer review

This paper demonstrates the outcomes of laparoscopic total colectomy performed for a variety of indications.

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Events Calendar 2011

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United States

January 26-30, 2011

5th UK Alpine Liver and Pancreatic
Surgery Meeting, Carlo Magno
Zeledria Hotel, Madonna di
Campiglio, Italy

February 01-03, 2011

6th Annual Academic Surgical
Congress, Huntington Beach, CA,
United States

February 21-26, 2011

Minimally Invasive Surgery
Symposium 2011, The Grand
America Hotel, Salt Lake City, Utah,
United States

March 03-06, 2011

The Society of Surgical Oncology

63rd Annual Meeting, San Antonio,
TX, United States

March 10-13, 2011

The American Hepato-Pancreato-
Biliary Association Annual Meeting,
Miami Beach, FL, United States

March 14-17, 2011

British Society for Gastroenterology
Annual Meeting, International
Convention Centre, Birmingham,
United Kingdom

March 25-27, 2011

NZAGS Conference 2011 GI Surgery,
New Plymouth, New Zealand

March 30-April 02, 2011

The Society of American
Gastrointestinal and Endoscopic
Surgeons 2011 Annual Meeting, San
Antonio Convention Center, San
Antonio, TX, United States

April 02-06, 2011

The American Association for
Cancer Research 102nd Annual
Meeting, Orlando, FL, United States

April 10-12, 2011

The American Association of
Endocrine Surgeons 32nd Annual
Meeting, Houston, TX, United States

April 14-16, 2011

The American Surgical Association
131st Annual Meeting, Boca Raton,
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May 07-10, 2011

Digestive Disease Week, Chicago,
IL, United States

May 07-10, 2011

45th Annual Meeting of the Pancreas
Club, Chicago, IL, United States

June 15-18, 2011

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September 10-14, 2011

International Congress of
Endoscopy, Los Angeles, CA,

United States

September 22-24, 2011

5th joint EAES and ESGE, European
Workshop on NOTES, Frankfurt,
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September 23-25, 2011

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92nd Annual Meeting, Breton
Woods, NH, United States

September 23-27, 2011

ECCO-European Society for Medical
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October 23-27, 2011

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November 02-05, 2011

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November 13-16, 2011

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

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

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

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

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- 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]

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- 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 billiary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

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

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

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

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- 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/cid/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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Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

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