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Homeopathy: In God we trust, all others must bring data

Nasseer A Masoodi

Effectiveness of homeopathic remedies continues to be a question of concern for public, policy makers and the other involved stakeholders. A recent systematic review of studies by Australian National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) 1 heightened further the concerns about the perception of effectiveness of homeopathic treatments in general. After an exhaustive review, the authors found no good quality, or well-designed studies with adequate sample size to support claims made by homeopathic practitioners. They concluded that the homeopathic remedies are no better than a placebo. Authors of the report cited concerns about the designs of the most of the studies especially the ones that showed any beneficial effect. Authors noted that such studies either had smaller sample sizes, were conducted poorly and/or were insufficiently powered to detect a statistically significant outcome. NHMRC concluded that there is no evidence from systematic reviews regarding the effectiveness of homeopathy as a treatment for any clinical condition in humans. The NHMRC identified "claiming benefits for human health not based on evidence" as a major health issue in Australia.

NHRMC's report comes as no surprise as many other exhaustive reviews had failed to show any objective benefits of such remedies. Authors of a 2009-10 UK report titled as Evidence Check 2: Homeopathy², reached to a similar conclusion. They questioned the lack of homeopathic treatment trials and cited that there is plenty of evidence showing that it is not efficacious. Their conclusion was no different from NHRMC's and proposed that "systematic reviews and metaanalyses conclusively demonstrate that homeopathic products perform no better than placebo"2. They further recommended stopping any public funding of Homeopathic remedies in UK. Although a Swiss report³ argued otherwise claiming that homeopathy is a "valuable addition to the conventional medical landscape"3; however its methodology was considered to be flawed, biased, misinterpreting and discrediting the current science based study methodologies⁴.

The homeopathic notion of successive dilution of its products in water increasing the potency of the final product and "like cures like" doesn't only defy any science based medicine logic, it is also in contrast to other alternative systems of medicine. The paucity of good-quality studies of sufficient size that examine the effectiveness of homeopathy as a treatment for any clinical condition in humans does no favors to this notion either. As

cited by many reports referenced above, the available evidence is not compelling and fails to demonstrate that homeopathy is an effective treatment for any of the reported clinical conditions in humans. In spite of these significant concerns about the legitimacy and efficacy of homeopathy, the industry continues to benefit from public's increasingly favorable attitudes toward homeopathy. The National Institutes of Health⁵ in the United States, reports that there is little evidence to support homeopathy as an effective treatment for any specific condition however millions of American adults and thousands of children use homeopathy. Even in UK6 where there is no legal regulation of homeopathic practitioners, The National Institute of Health and Care Excellence (NICE)-that advises the NHS on proper use of treatments, doesn't recommend that homeopathy should be used in the treatment of any health condition. However homeopathy has seen a significant increase in its market share not only in UK but many other European countries too⁷.

With its market share in USA and rest of the world markets reaching in billions of dollars with yearly incremental increase, its claims for its remedial effects albeit lacking any generally acceptable evidence, raises concern that a vulnerable person may choose an ineffective remedy that may actually worsen their clinical status. There is a clash between patient autonomy and informed consent in decision making by a vulnerable patient about the appropriateness of homeopathic remedies. The ethical and policy debate on the appropriate balance between public's access to different remedies (autonomy) and government institutional duty of public's protection from potentially harmful or ineffective medicines is a delicate balance. An objective and thorough evaluation of homeopathic remedies is needed however how to decide what is an objective and accurate way to assess homeopathic research continues to be the bone of contention. Although from a science based medicine perspective, homeopathic remedies have no scientific explanation, its advocates^{3, 4}don't agree that it has to fall or go through same process of research methodology for its effectiveness as do allopathic remedies. Though it is a valid logic that reasoning directly from data that is gathered by controlled structure, as is true of science based trials in allopathy, is not always accurate as it's with many biases and confounders, however the statistical testing helps to get beyond mere correlation to cause-and-effect and eliminate most of these concerns. These trials also help to formulate conclusions that

can be further validated or refuted by gathering real world data. The mainstream science considers the homeopathic notion of ultra-dilutions, particle leaving imprint of itself on water, and "likes cures like" to be scientifically implausible. Even though this notion of scientists may be considered as a bias towards evaluating any homeopathic remedy, the public health institutions have an ethical obligation to educate public especially the vulnerable ones, not to substitute a proven and effective treatment for the ones whose effectiveness has not been scientifically proven.

As the saying goes, "change the rule and you will get a new number", the onus is on homeopathic advocates not only to design trials, gather data, and publish papers but also to collect real world data to further study the impact of treatments on outcomes. The real world data can further help to understand the effects of treatments on patient outcomes that was not generated from a clinical trial. It is also an obligation of the homeopathic practitioners and organizations to seek to create standards of medical treatment, that are objective, replicable, and that will be made broadly available to physicians, researchers, parents, policy makers, and others who want to improve the care of individuals. As recommended by many exhaustive reviews^{1,2}, these studies should recruit larger samples of patients, utilize methodologies that eliminate the bias, better discoverable record keeping for proper reporting and follow up, an objective analysis of outcomes data and how they were measured, and better discussion of potential confounders or biases. Besides they have to adequately and accurately report study details including treatment regimens, length of follow up, outcomes studied and the clinical and statistical significance of results.

Going by the logic of famous words attributed to the noted statistician and management scientist, W Edwards Deming, "In God we trust; all others must bring data," the ball is in their court.

Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

NASSEER A MASOODI, MD, MBA,FACP, Senior Consultant, Department of Medicine, Hamad Medical Corporation, Qatar. CORRESSPONDENCE: Nasseer A Masoodi, Senior Consultant, Department of Medicine, Hamad Medical Corporation, Qatar. Email: haadin@yahoo.com

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Cervical ripening balloon as an alternative for induction of labour: a randomized controlled trial

Toh Lick Tan, Grace Yang Huang Ng, Sheri Ee-Lin Lim, Shephali Tagore, Ei Ei Phyo Kyaw and George Seow Heong Yeo

Abstract

Objective: To evaluate the use of cervical ripening balloon (CRB) for induction of labour (IOL) in Singapore.

Design: Prospective cohort randomised controlled study comparing CRB to Prostin (PGE) for IOL

Setting: Tertiary maternity hospital in Singapore.

Population: Women aged 21 to 40 years old for IOL in a singleton term pregnancy without major fetal anomaly suitable for vaginal delivery were recruited unless they were in labour, had cervical dilatation ³3 cm, ruptured membrane, abnormal CTG, scarred uterus or malpresentation. **Methods:** Suitable women were recruited in the ante-natal period and randomized to receive either CRB or PGE on the day of IOL. Characteristics of the women, labour and birth outcomes, as well as their pain and satisfaction scores were obtained from case notes and by interviewing the women at IOL and after delivery.

Main Outcome Measures: Characteristics of participants, labour outcomes, birth outcomes.

Results: 98 women were enrolled for the study with 31 CRB and 52 PGE cases analysed. Both groups had similar maternal age, ethnic mix, proportion of primigravidae, weight, gestational age, cervical dilatation, indication for IOL, baby gender and birth weight. The induction to vaginal delivery time and vaginal delivery rate, as well as risk of low Apgar scores, meconium aspiration, pyrexia in labour, neonatal intensive care unit or intensive care unit admissions were also similar. Although only 1 (3.2%) in CRB arm failed to be induced compared with 9 (17.3%), this was not statistically significant (p = 0.082). Only 1 case of uterine hyperstimulation was observed and was from the PGE group.

Conclusions: Both CRB and PGE are effective and complementary methods for IOL. The availability of both methods in an obstetric unit will allow women and clinicians choice in their method of IOL.

Keywords: cervical ripening; Cook balloon; labour induction; mechanical ripening

Introduction

Increasing number of term deliveries undergo induction of labour (IOL). This figure is as high as 1 in 4 in developed countries, making it one of the most common procedures a woman may experience in pregnancy. 1 IOL may be achieved with pharmacological, mechanical or surgical methods. 1, ² Mechanical methods were the first methods used to ripen the cervix and induce labour. The National Institute of Clinical Excellence (NICE) does not recommend the routine use of mechanical methods for IOL as only heterogeneous small studies were available at their time of publication more than half a decade ago. 2 However, since then there is increasing evidence of safety and efficacy of mechanical IOL. Subsequent publications including those from World Health Organization (WHO) and Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews support the use of balloon catheter for IOL. 1, 3 It is therefore important to revisit the role of mechanical methods of IOL.

The Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews concluded that mechanical methods of induction of labour have a lower risk of uterine hyperstimulation with similar caesarean section rates and delivery within 24 hours as prostaglandins. Furthermore, mechanical methods reduce the risk of caesarean section when compared with oxytocin induction of labour.³ This review is consistent with another earlier systematic review.⁴

Both Pfizer's Prostin (PGE) and Cook Medical's Cervical Ripening Balloon (CRB) are licensed for IOL. While the use of Prostin is a standard care in Singapore, the CRB has not been used routinely. We therefore propose a study to evaluate the use of CRB for IOL in Singapore.

Methods

A prospective cohort randomised controlled study was conducted in a tertiary referral maternity unit in Singapore. Pregnant women aged 21 – 40 years old with a singleton pregnancy with no major fetal anomaly who were suitable for vaginal delivery and scheduled for a planned IOL at 37⁺⁰ to 41⁺⁶ weeks gestation were invited for the study. Cases were excluded if at the start of the planned IOL, they were in spontaneous labour, had a cervical dilatation of ³3 cm, had confirmed rupture of membrane, had abnormal cardiotocogram (CTG), had a scarred uterus such as previous caesarean section, had malpresentation in labour, or if caesarean section delivery was indicated. Women who were unable to give or had withdrawn their consent to participate in the trial were also excluded for the study.

All suitable pregnant women receiving team care who require elective IOL were identified in antenatal clinic, antenatal or labour wards by the attending doctor or clinical research coordinator (CRC). Following routine counselling for IOL by

the attending doctor, the woman will be offered participation in the study and a member of the research team will counsel and obtain informed consent from her. The woman will be made to understand that participation in the study is voluntary, does not affect her medical care and consent for participation can be withdrawn at any stage of the study. Women who were uncertain in their participation were offered the opportunity to participate during her follow-up or on the day of IOL after further consideration. Patient information leaflet on IOL as well as information of the study were made available to the participants.

On the day of the IOL, the participants were reviewed for the appropriateness of the IOL and participation in the study. A presentation scan, vaginal examination for cervical dilatation and CTG were performed. If they were suitable, they were randomly allocated PGE or CRB IOL in labour ward. Randomization was achieved with third party sealed envelope allocation. A total of 75 envelopes containing a folded paper with the words "Cervical Ripening Balloon" and another 75 identical envelopes containing a folded paper with the word "Prostin" were prepared and shuffled after sealing. These randomized envelopes were then labelled sequentially with their randomization allocation number from 1 to 150. The participants who underwent randomization were allocated to the next randomization allocation numbered envelop which contain either allocation for CRB or PGE IOL.

Participants undergoing CRB IOL will have the CRB inserted after cleaning the vulva and vagina with Cetrimide solution. The uterine and vaginal balloons of the CRB will be gradually inflated with normal saline, initially 40 ml and 20 ml respectively, and a further 20 ml each hour later until each balloon is 80 ml. CTG monitoring was undertaken before and after each inflation for at least 20 minutes. If the participant was not in labour after complete inflation of the balloons, she would be transferred to the antenatal wards for rest before removing the CRB 12 hours after insertion in labour ward when possible.

Participants undergoing PGE IOL will have 3 mg Prostin tablet inserted in the posterior fornix after cleaning the vulva with Cetrimide solution. CTG monitoring was also undertaken for at least 40 minutes after PGE insertion. If the participant was not in labour, she would be transferred to the antenatal wards. If there was no response to the first PGE, a repeat dose was given after 6 hours in labour ward when possible.

Participants will undergo artificial rupture of membrane (ARM) and/or oxytocin infusion augmentation of labour as necessary. If the participant was not in labour or ARM was not possible after removing the CRB or 2 cycles of PGE, the participant would have been considered having a failed IOL and will leave the study protocol with her subsequent management determined by the specialist attending to her. This would typically involve insertion of a third or first PGE in the PGE or CRB arm respectively.

Upon delivery of the pregnancy, a member of the research team will interview the participant and obtain demographics, labour and delivery outcomes data from the clinical notes. Pain and maternal satisfaction scores and comments were also recorded by interviewing the participants in the post-natal period; these findings will however be discussed separately.

The data was collected on a pro forma and entered into an excel spreadsheet. The data was then analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics version 19.

This study was approved by the SingHealth centralised institutional review board with the reference number of 2013/553/D.

Results

A total of 138 women were approached to join the study but 40 (29.0%) women declined. There was no significant difference in maternal age (27.8 \pm 5.4 vs 28.7 \pm 5.2 years; p = 0.373), ethnicity, proportion of primigravidae (62.5% vs 53.1%; p = 0.349), weight (61.2 \pm 15.4 vs 64.4 \pm 13.8 kg; p = 0.228), BMI (24.8 \pm 5.8 vs 25.3 \pm 5.0 kg/m²; p = 0.646) and primary indication for IOL between women who declined and accepted enrolment to the study respectively.

The remaining 98 women were enrolled for the study. Eight-seven women were randomized after excluding 6 women in spontaneous labour, 1 woman with non-cephalic fetal presentation, and 1 woman had confirmed ruptured of membrane on admission for their IOL, as well as 3 other cases in which the women presented for IOL without the availability of the research team (figure 1).

In the CRB arm, one woman withdrew from the study after 8 hours 55 minutes as she felt the discomfort was too unbearable. Another woman was excluded when she was found to have spontaneous version to breech in labour. One woman randomized to PGE did not receive it as she went into spontaneous labour prior to IOL. Another woman in the PGE arm was subsequently found to be only 36^{+3} weeks and was therefore excluded from analysis (figure 1). The remaining 83 cases were analysed and their characteristics are shown in table 1.

The induction to vaginal delivery time, as well as vaginal delivery rate were similar in both arms of the study (table 2). Compared to PGE arm, participants undergoing CRB IOL were faster in achieving cervical dilatation ≥ 4 cm $(14.4 \pm 5.7 \text{ vs } 23.5 \pm 16.6 \text{ hr}; p = 0.001)$ and requesting epidural $(16.4 \pm 5.4 \text{ vs } 23.2 \pm 15.8 \text{ hr}; p = 0.040)$, as well as more likely to require oxytocin infusion for augmentation (77.4% vs 50.0%; p = 0.020). Uterine hyperstimulation defined as > 5 contractions every 10 minutes was only found in PGE arm. Cervical dilatation from 0-2 cm to ≥ 4 cm was achieved without regular contractions in 2 (6.9%) cases in the CRB arm and 1 (2.4%) case in the PGE arm. The mean frequency of uterine

Figure 1. Flow diagram of recruitment, randomisation and completion status

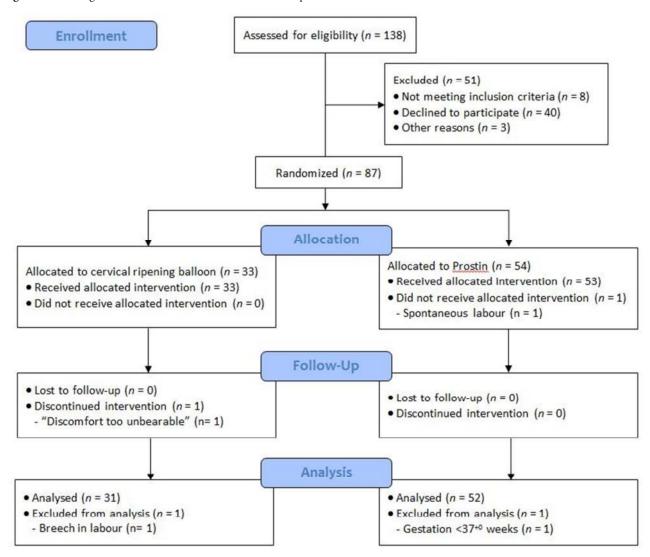


Table 1. Characteristics of participants undergoing cervical ripening balloon (CRB) and Prostin (PGE) induction of labour.

	CRB $(n = 3)$	31)	PGE (n = 5	52)	p
Maternal age, years (83) ¹	28.2	± 5.3	28.7	± 5.0	0.646
Ethnicity (83) ²					0.222
· Chinese	35.5%	(11)	42.3%	(22)	
· Malay	54.8%	(17)	36.5%	(19)	
· Indian	3.2%	(1)	15.4%	(8)	
· Others	6.5%	(2)	5.8%	(3)	
Primigravidae (83) ²	61.3%	(19)	44.2%	(23)	0.174
Weight, kg (83) ¹	64.4	± 15.0	63.9.4	± 13.2	0.861
BMI, kg m ⁻² (83) ¹	25.5	± 5.0	25.0	± 5.1	0.706
Pre delivery Hb, g dl ⁻¹ (80) ¹	11.6	± 1.8	12.0	± 1.3	0.211
GBS positive (79) ²	22.6%	(7)	21.2%	(11)	0.204
Gestational age, weeks (83) ¹	39.4	± 1.1	39.2	± 1.9	0.357
Cervical dilatation, cm (83) ¹	1.0	± 0.7	0.9	± 0.7	0.954
Primary indication for IOL (83) ²					0.108
Decreased fetal movement ³	-		11.5%	(6)	0.082

· Post dates ³	54.8%	(17)	32.7%	(17)	0.065
· Gestational diabetes ³	16.1%	(5)	13.5%	(7)	0.756
· Impending macrosomia ³	-		1.9%	(1)	0.526
· IUGR ³	3.2%	(1)	-		0.137
· Low amniotic fluid index ³	19.4%	(6)	34.6%	(18)	0.089
· Maternal request ³	3.2%	(1)	5.8%	(3)	0.489
· Pre-eclampsia ³	3.2%	(1)	-		0.373

¹ Values are mean \pm SD, p calculated with Student t-test; ² Values are percentage (n), p calculated with Pearson chi-square test; ³ Values are percentage (n), p calculated with Fisher's exact test.

Table 2. Labour outcomes of participants undergoing cervical ripening balloon (CRB) and Prostin (PGE) induction of labour.

	CRB $(n = 3)$	31)	PGE (n = 5	52)	p
IOL to ≥4 cm dilatation, hr (78) ¹	14.4	± 5.7	23.5	± 16.6	0.001
IOL to full dilatation, hr (66) ¹	20.8	± 6.1	24.8	± 15.7	0.150
IOL to vaginal delivery, hr (63) ¹	21.2	± 6.8	25.6	± 16.1	0.136
Duration of 2 nd stage, hr (63) ¹	0.9	± 2.9	0.8	± 0.9	0.741
Delivery within 24 hr (83) ²	77.3%	(17)	61.0%	(25)	0.265
Failed IOL (83) ³	3.2%	(1)	17.3%	(9)	0.082
Number of PGE used (83) ²					<0.001
. 0	96.8%	(30)	-		
• 1	3.2%	(1)	53.8%	(28)	
. 2	-		28.8%	(15)	
. 3	-		17.3%	(9)	
Augmentation use (83) ³	77.4%	(24)	50.0%	(26)	0.020
Epidural use (83) ³	58.1%	(18)	55.8%	(29)	1.000
· IOL to epidural use, hr (47) ¹	16.4	± 5.4	23.2	± 15.8	0.040
\cdot Epidural use to delivery, hr (47) 1	9.2	± 4.1	7.0	± 3.8	0.065
Contractions ¹					
· At IOL (83)	0.2	± 0.6	0.2	± 0.5	0.579
· 3 hr after IOL (81)	2.0	± 1.9	1.6	± 1.9	0.451
Contractions >5 every 10 min ³					
· 30 min after IOL (81)	-		-		-
· 3 hr after IOL (81)	-		2.0%	(1)	1.000
Vaginal delivery (83) ³	71.0%	(22)	78.8%	(41)	0.438
Indication for LSCS (20) ²					0.513
· Failed IOL	-		18.2%	(2)	
· FTP in 1st stage of labour	55.6%	(5)	36.4%	(4)	
· FTP in 2 nd stage of labour	22.2%	(2)	9.1%	(1)	
· NRFS	11.1%	(1)	27.3%	(3)	
· FTP and NRFS	11.1%	(1)	9.1%	(1)	

¹ Values are mean ± SD, *p* calculated with Student t-test; ² Values are percentage (*n*), *p* calculated with Pearson chi-square test; ³ Values are percentage (*n*), *p* calculated with Fisher exact test.

Table 3. Birth outcomes of participants undergoing cervical ripening balloon (CRB) and Prostin (PGE) induction of labour.

	CRB $(n = 31)$		PGE2 (n = 52)		p
Male fetus (83) ²	51.6%	(16)	42.3%	(22)	0.496
Birth weight, g (83) 1	3,166	± 478	3,094	± 417	0.472
Apgar at 5 min <7 (83)	-		-		-
Meconium aspiration (83)	-		-		-
Pyrexia in labour (83) ³	6.5%	(2)	5.8%	(3)	1.000
NICU admission (83) ²	-		3.8%	(2)	0.526
ITU admission (83)	-		-		-

¹ Values are mean ± SD, *p* calculated with Student t-test; ² Values are percentage (*n*), *p* calculated with Pearson chi-square test; ³ Values are percentage (*n*), *p* calculated with Fisher exact test.

contractions at cervical dilatation ≥ 4 cm was 2.5 ± 1.4 in 10 minutes for CRB arm compared to 3.8 ± 1.4 in 10 minutes for PGE arm (p < 0.001). No case of uterine rupture was observed.

There was 1 (3.2%) case for failed CRB IOL where both uterine and cervical balloons were found in the vagina suggesting that either placement of the uterine balloon was not optimal or it was expelled after placement. The woman went on to have Prostin and delivered vaginally. In the 9 (17.3%) cases in the PGE group that did not respond after 2 cycles, all went on to have the third Prostin successfully except for 2 women who required Caesarean section for persistent failed IOL.

The birth outcomes of both arms of the study were also similar with no case of stillbirth (table 3). There were 2 case of neonatal intensive care unit admission in the PGE arm for continuous positive airway pressure therapy; both were discharged from NICU within 24 hours.

Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first randomized controlled study to assess the use of CRB for IOL in Singapore. Our study concur with the published literature that both CRB and PGE have similar rate of vaginal deliveries and rate of deliveries within 24 hours. Both methods are effective and safe with PGE having a higher risk of uterine hyperstimulation and need for Caesarean section for failed IOL.

Pharmacological induction of labour using PGE is the most established form of IOL. However, it is important to be able to offer alternative methods to women particularly in cases of hypersensitivity or allergy to PGE. PGE can cause bronchospasm complicating asthma, a medical condition which affects 4-12% of pregnant women. ^{5, 6} Similarly, caution should be exercised in the use of PGE in women with other common medical conditions such as hypertension and epilepsy.

In addition, women may not respond to PGE for IOL, or the PGE may only result in uterine tightenings which do not lead to cervical dilatation. In these situations the CRB may be considered as an adjunct for IOL to avoid Caesarean section of 'failed IOL'.

The risk of uterine hyperstimulation and the need for a repeat dose in 6 to 8 hours for PGE typically require the women to be admitted for IOL. The use of CRB does not require planned intervention until 12 hours later. This potentially allows an outpatient IOL if further studies support its safety in this aspect.

The application of PGE is relatively straightforward and is already performed by both doctors and midwives. The insertion of CRB may however be considered too invasive for midwives thus limiting the type and hence availability of staff to commence IOL. We have explored the learning curve in the insertion of CRB and will discuss this separately.

Conclusion

Both CRB and PGE are effective methods for IOL at term. Each method has its own benefits and limitations. The availability of both methods in an obstetric unit will allow the clinician to choose the most appropriate form of IOL, provide a complementary method of IOL, as well as offer women choice in their IOL.

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Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

TOH LICK TAN, MBBS MRCOG, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore. GRACE YANG HUANG NG, MBChB, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore. SHERI EE-LIN LIM, MBBS PhD MRCOG, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore. SHEPHALI TAGORE, MBBS MRCOG, Department of Maternal Fetal Medicine, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore. EI EI PHYO KYAW, BDS, BSc (Hons), Department of Maternal Fetal Medicine, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore. GEORGE SEOW HEONG YEO, MBBS FRCOG FAMS, Department of Maternal Fetal Medicine, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, Singapore.

CORRESSPONDENCE: Dr Tan Toh Lick, Department of Obstetrics

and Gynaecology, KK Women's and Children's Hospital, 100 Bukit Timah Road, Singapore 229899, Singapore. Email: tan.toh.lick@kkh.com.sg

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Trend of developing resistance among isolates of Acinetobacter spp.; Threat of hospital acquired infection

Sadia Zafar, Syed Baqir Shyum Naqvi, Tanveer Abbas, Faaiza Qazi and Rabia Sheikh

Abstract

Aim: Acinetobacter sp. is a Gm-ve bacteria which is a major cause of serious infections. Today it has emerged as multidrug resistant organism. The aim of current study was to evaluate the trend of sensitivity/resistance pattern of Acinetobacter spp. against broad spectrum antibiotics. Method: Standard Kirby bauer Disc Diffusion method was adopted to conduct the study according to the CLSI 2013 Standards. Total 52 isolates were collected from different sites of inpatients admitted to renowned tertiary care hospital from Feb 2014-March 2014 and sensitivity/resistance pattern was observed against 08 broad spectrum antibiotics of different classes.

Result: It is observed that 61.5% of all samples were obtained from male patients while, the mean range of age group among both the gender frequently found infected was 51-75 yrs. The highest percentage of isolate was obtained from tracheal aspirate (55.76%) of both the genders. Both Colistin and Polymixin were found to be most effective against 98% isolates each, while Imipenem was the least effective broad spectrum antibiotic. Thus, the isolates were highly resistant to 05 antibiotics traditionally used to treat infections caused by Acinetobacter spp. Surprisingly, more than 32% of isolates showed Intermediate sensitivity to Fosfomycin.

Conclusion: Due to emerging trend of developing resistance among Acinetobacter spp. and spread of hospital acquired infections. There is a serious need to take necessary steps by hospital officials to ensure cleanliness. Patients should also be educated about the proper use of antibiotics.

Keywords: Acinetobacter sp. , Hospital acquired, Resistance Pattern.

Abbreviations: CLSI :Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute

Introduction

For decades the genus Acinetobacter has undergone several taxonomical modifications. Large number of non-fastidious, aerobic, Gram-negative bacteria (GNB) are included in this genus. In the last few years these organisms are genetically modifying into highly resistant forms resulting in untreatable nosocomial infections1 and health infections.² Acinetobacter is also a major cause of invasive type infections in children resulting in untreatable urinary tract infections (UTIs), skin infections and septicemia.3 One identified cause of the resistance mechanism in carbapenem resistant Acinetobacter spp. is the production of the MBL enzyme.4 It has been revealed through various published studies that Acinetobacter displays a specific type of mechanism of resistance against different antimicrobials. Some of them, for example β-lactam, are inhibited by enzymatic degradation, while quinolones are rendered ineffective due to a genetic mutation preventing the binding of an antibiotic to a distinct binding site. The same is true with aminoglycosides in which the resistant strains are noticed to acquire a gene involved in enzymatic modification.1

Although polymixin resistance in *Acinetobacter* spp. was reported the specific cause of resistance was unknown until 2008. In 2013, one study detected the presence of hetero-and adaptive resistance due to mutation in specific gene for the first time.^{1,21} Hence the aim of this current study was to evaluate the trend of sensitivity/resistance pattern of *Acinetobacter* spp. against broad spectrum antibiotics.

Method and Materials

The objective of the study was to evaluate the sensitivity of *Acinetobacter* spp. to 08 broad spectrum antibiotics. The Kirby Bauer Disc Diffusion method was used following the standard procedures as laid down by CLSI 2013.⁶ A total of 52 isolates were collected from Feb 2014-March 2014 from patients admitted to tertiary care hospitals in Karachi. The isolates were identified by routine lab procedures.

Antimicrobial agents and medium: Standard (Oxoid) discs of Amikacin (30 μ g), Cefoperazone (75 μ g), Ceftriaxone (30 μ g), Ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), Colistin (10 μ g), Fosfomycin (50 μ g), imipenem (10 μ g), Polymixin B (300units), Mueller Hinton Agar (Oxoid UK) and Mueller Hinton broth (Oxoid UK) were used.

<u>0.5 McFarlan Standard</u>: The inoculum was grown at 37^oC for 2-6 hrs. Turbidity Standard of 0.5 McFarland was achieved by incubating broth culture.

<u>Inoculation of test plates</u>:The plates were inoculated with the culture of *Acinetobacter* spp. by the help of sterile cotton swabs. The excess fluid was removed after the cotton swab was dipped into inoculum suspension. When the inoculum were dried the antibiotic discs were placed with sterile forceps onto the agar surface.¹⁵

<u>Incubation of test plates</u>: The isolates after application of antibiotic discs plates were incubated for 24 hours and results were interpreted according to CLSI standards ^{5,6}. Interpretative

standards for used antibiotics and Zone diameter of inhibition are shown in Table 2⁵.

<u>Control strain</u>: *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922was used as a control strain to maintain accuracy and precision of procedures.

Results

 Table
 1: Age
 and
 gender
 specific
 distribution

 of Acinetobacter spp. among patients

Age	Male n=32(61.5%)	Female n=20(38.46%)
00-25	10	06
26-50	05	02
51-75	12	11
76-100	05	01

Table 2: Zone diameter interpretive standards for *Acinetobacter* spp. CLSI standards table of antibiotics for *Acinetobacter spp*.

Antibiotic	Disc Content	Zone of Inhibition (mm)				
		Resistance	Intermediate	Sensitive		
Amikacin	30μg	≤14	15-16	≥17		
Cefoperazone	75 μg	≤15	16-20	≥21		
Ceftriaxone	30 μg	≤13	14-20	≥21		
Ciprofloxacin	5 μg	≤15	16-20	≥21		
Colistin*	10μg	≤11		≥17		
Fosfomycin*	50 μg	≤12	13-15	≥16		
Imipenem	10 μg	≤13	14-15	≥16		
Polymixin B*	300units	≤13		≥19		

^{*}Since the interpretive standards for Colistin, Fosfomycin and Polymixin B against *Acinetobacter* spp. is not established in CLSI 2013 mannual zone diameter interpretative standards for Enterobacter spp. and *E. coli* were used.²⁰

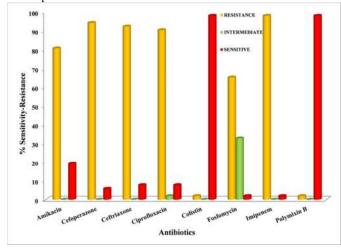
Table 3: Total % efficacy of different antibiotics among *Acinetobacter* spp. isolated (N= 52)

Antibiotics	Disc Code	Resistance (%)	Intermediate (%)	Sensitivity (%)
Amikacin	30µg	42(80.76)	00	10(19.23)
Cefoperazone	75μg	49(94.23)	00	03(5.76)
Ceftriaxone	30µg	48(92.3)	00	04(7.69)
Ciprofloxacin	05μg	47(90.38)	01(1.9)	04(7.69)
Colistin	10μg	01(1.9)	00	51(98)
Fosfomycin	50μg	34(65.38)	17(32.69)	01(1.9)
Imipenem	10μg	51(98)	00	01(1.9)
Polymixin B	300 units	01(1.9)	00	51(98)

It is reported that out of all the samples 61.5% were obtained from male patients. Infections caused by *Acinetobacters*pp. had a high prevalence among both the genders among the age group 51-75 yrs. The most frequent site of isolate collection was

tracheal aspirate (55.76%) among both genders and the second highest percentage of isolate was obtained from sputum (19.23%) as shown in Table 1. The Colistin and Polymixin B were found equally effective against *Acinetobacter* spp. by inhibiting 98% of isolates each and 19.23% isolates showed sensitivity against Amikacin. The isolate showed the highest degree of resistance against Imipenem (98%), followed by Cefoperazone (94.23%) and Ceftrioxone (92.3). Surprisingly 32.69% of isolates exhibited intermediate sensitivity (IS) against Fosfomycin as indicated in Table 3 and Figure 1.

Figure 1: Susceptibility pattern of *Acinetobacter* spp. against broad spectrum antibiotics



Discussion

Our present study shows that the *Acinetobacter* spp. were highly resistant to Cefoperazone (94.23%). This finding is further substantiated by research that observed Cefoperazone to be only effective when used in combination.^{7,8}

We also observed that only 19% isolates were sensitive to Amikacin, which contradicts the findings of Liu et al 2013 ³who observed 100% efficacy. However, they also discovered that 82% were inhibited by Imipenem while Fluoroquinolone was also found to be effective against 70% of all isolated organisms and Cefoperazone as least effective.

Organisms isolated from sputum showed a high degree of resistance to most of antibiotics, Zheng W and Yuan S also observed such results⁹.Nwadike et al 2014¹⁰ found a high prevalence of resistant *Acinetobacter* spp. isolates against Ciprofloxacin (100%) and Amikacin (50%).¹⁰

Polymixin inhibited 98% of isolates, which is similar to figures found by Haeili et al 2013¹ who observed 95.5% susceptibility to Polymixin B. The second most effective antibiotic was Colistin - Trottier et al 2007¹² also observed 100% susceptibility of *A. baumanni* to Colistin. Similarly, Vakilietal 2014¹³ found a low rate (i.e, 11.6%) of Colistin resistance.

Colistin has emerged as a viable choice for treatment of multidrug resistant *Acinetobacter* strains. In several

studies, 13,14 where 98% of isolates were resistant to Imipenem these results support the work of Khajuria et al 2014¹⁶ who also reported reduced efficacy. Our findings are in contradiction to the study by of Tripathi et al 201417 who reported that Imipenem was a highly effective drug in comparison to other broad spectrum antibiotics. Fosfomycin surprisingly exhibited unusual results in our study; 32% of Acinetobacter spp. were IS while 65% were resistant. However, previous studies showed that Fosfomycin were proved to be good option to treat by Acinetobacter spp. 18 Zhang et infections caused al201319 reported that Fosfomycin used alone was highly ineffective in treatment of Penicillin Drug Resistant-Acinetobacter baumannii (PDR-Ab). Another study revealed that Acinetobacter spp. has developed adaptive resistance against Polymixin.²¹

Acinetobacter spp. are emerging as a resistant bacteria and a common cause of nosocomial and hospital acquired infections. There is a serious need to take necessary measures by hospital administration in maintaining environmental and personnel cleanliness according to current Good Manufacturing Practices. Pharmacists should educate patients about the drawbacks of self-medication and not completing medication courses, which is resulting in development of resistant bacterial pathogens.

Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

SADIA ZAFAR, M.PHIL, Faculty of Pharmacy, Jinnah University for Women, Karachi, 5C, Nazimabad, Karachi, PAKISTAN. SYED BAQIR SHYUM NAQVI, PHD, Department of Pharmaceutics, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Karachi, Main university road, PAKISTAN. TANVEER ABBAS, PHD, Department of Microbiology, University of Karachi, Main university road, PAKISTAN. FAAIZA QAZI, M.PHIL, Faculty of Pharmacy, Jinnah University for Women, Karachi, 5C, Nazimabad, Karachi, PAKISTAN. RABIA SHEIKH, B.PHARM, Nigehban Compounding Pharmacy, Karachi, Bangalow#46 C.P.Brar society, PAKISTAN.

CORRESSPONDENCE: SADIA ZAFAR, MUHAMMAD ZAFAR IQBAL, FACULTY OF PHARMACY, JINNAH UNIVERSITY FOR WOMEN, KARACHI, P.O.Box 74600, PAKISTAN.

Email: sadiazafarnew@yahoo.com

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Current management of oesophageal cancer

Naufal Rashid, Mohamed Elshaer, Michael Kosmin and Amjid Riaz.

Abstract

Background: Oesophageal cancer is the eighth most common cancer and it's the sixth leading cause of death in the world. The five years overall survival is reported to be between 15-20%. The aim of this review is to highlight the current trends of management of oesophageal cancer.

Methods: A literature search of PubMed/MEDLINE, EMBASE and Cochrane Library and Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) databases up to November 2014 was conducted.

Results: Oesophageal cancer accounts for almost 3% of all cancers and is the ninth most common malignancy in the UK. Diagnosis is usually made by oesophago-gastro-duodenoscopy where multiple biopsy samples must be taken from any mucosal abnormality to exclude early tumours. The management of oesophageal cancers requires a multi-disciplinary team approach involving surgeons, oncologists, radiologists, pathologists, specialist nurses, dietitians and specialists from other specialities if required.

Conclusions: Treatment of oesophageal cancer is still a challenge however recent advances in surgery, endoscopic treatments and new therapeutic agents will hopefully improve prognosis.

Keywords: Oesophageal cancer, staging, Transhiatal oesophagectomy, Ivor-Lewis oesophagectomy, chemotherapy.

Introduction

Oesophageal cancer (OC) is the eighth most common cancer affecting an estimated 481,000 people worldwide with a rapidly rising incidence. Due to the poor prognosis of patients with these cancers it is the sixth leading cause of cancer related mortality with 406,000 deaths. Although the overall 5-year survival has increased from 4% in the 1970s to currently ranging between 15 to 20%, it remains a challenge to treat as clinical presentation is often late and diagnosis is made at advanced stages. Incidence and mortality rates for OCs are two fold higher in males compared to females, however this ratio rises to up to 5-10:1 for oesophageal adenocarcinomas. Cohort studies have shown that the incidence of OC increases with age; the average of onset is between 65 to 70 years. This article seeks to discuss the epidemiology, diagnosis and staging, prevention and current trends in the management of OC.

Methods

We searched PubMed/MEDLINE, EMBASE and Cochrane Library and Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) databases up to November 2014. Our search strategy used a combination of MeSH, textwords, and appropriate words variants of "oesophagus", "cancer", "epidemiology", "adenocarcinoma", or "squamous cell carcinoma", and "staging", "transhiatal oesophagectomy", "transthoracic oesophagectomy", "chemotherapy", "radiotherapy". This was supplemented with selected systematic reviews, evidence based guidelines and consensus statements.

Epidemiology

There have been major changes in the epidemiology of OC over the last thirty years. The two key histological types of OC are adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) and they differ significantly in their fundamental patterns of incidence and aetiological factors. Oesophageal SCC comprises the majority of cases worldwide and represents 90% of all OCs in most Eastern countries. However the incidence of adenocarcinoma has risen rapidly over the last three decades and it is now the predominant histological type in Western Europe, USA and Australia, particularly amongst white males.5, 6There are other rare histological types, which include lymphoma, leiomyosarcoma, melanoma, rhabdomyosarcoma and small cell carcinoma.7 OC accounts for almost 3% of all cancers in the UK and is the ninth most common malignancy in the UK. There were 8,173 new cases in 2008; incidence rates have increased over the last thirty years in the UK and are now one of the highest in Europe.8 Incidence rates of OC differ markedly by geographical locations and between ethnic groups; overall, rates are twice as high in less developed regions compared with more-developed regions and the highest rates occur in Asia. In this region, especially in Iran, Turkey, Kazakhstan and China, a very high incidence of oesophageal SCC exists with greater than 100 cases per 100,000 population annually. A similar trend is also seen in South Africa.9-12In contrast, the rate of rise in incidence of oesophageal adenocarcinoma in more-developed countries has exceeded that of oesophageal SCC, which has remained the same or decreased. Oesophageal adenocarcinoma now comprises approximately 50% of all OCs in these countries. 13

Who gets oesophageal cancer?

The aetiology of OC is multifactorial, with interactions between environmental risk exposures and genetic factors. These can be divided between the two different histological types of OC.

Pathology of oesophageal tumours

Oesophageal tumours are classified as epithelial and non epithelial. Epithelial tumours include papilloma, intraepithelial neoplasia, carcinoma and carcinoid tumours. Non epithelial tumours include leiomyoma, lipoma and gastrointestinal stromal tumours (Table 1).

Table 1: WHO histological classification of oesophageal tumours

Epithelial	Non Epithelial
Squamous cell papilloma	Leiomyoma Lipoma
Intraepithelial neoplasia	Granular cell tumour
· Squamous	Gastrointestinal stromal
· Glandular (adenoma)	tumour
Carcinoma	· benign
· Squamous cell carcinoma	· uncertain malignant
· Verrucous (squamous)	potential
carcinoma	· malignant
· Basaloid squamous cell	Leiomyosarcoma
carcinoma	Rhabdomyosarcoma
· Spindle cell (squamous)	Kaposi sarcoma
carcinoma	Malignant melanoma
· Adenocarcinoma	Others
· Adenosquamous carcinoma	Secondary tumours
Mucoepidermoid carcinoma	
· Adenoid cystic carcinoma	
· Small cell carcinoma	
· Undifferentiated carcinoma	
· Others	
Carcinoid tumour	

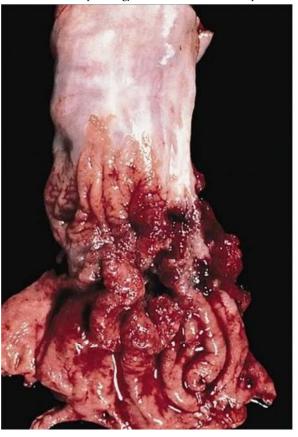
Oesophageal adenocarcinoma

Established risk factors for oesophageal adenocarcinoma (Fig. 1) include gastro-oesophageal reflux disease, Barrett's oesophagus, obesity, male sex, tobacco smoking and a low intake of fruit and vegetables. $^{15,16}$ There is evidence to suggest that previous infection with Helicobacter Pylori and the use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may decrease the risk of OC. 17

Barrett's oesophagus (Fig. 2) occurs when there is metaplastic change in the lining of the oesophagus from normal stratified squamous mucosa to single layered columnar glandular mucosa with variable degrees of goblet cell differentiation.¹⁸ This transition usually occurs in the context of chronic gastrooesophageal reflux disease, which causes exposure of the epithelium to refluxate. Gastro-oesophageal reflux disease is a major contributory factor and 5% of people with reflux disease develop Barrett's oesophagus. The estimated prevalence of Barrett's oesophagus is just under 2% amongst adults in the West and the annual incidence is approximately 0.1%. However, there is evidence to suggest that the rate of diagnosis is increasing by 2% annually. 19 There has been a rise in the incidence of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease, which may be explained by a number of factors. The rise in the prevalence of obesity, specifically central and intra-abdominal obesity has been found to have a link with oesophageal adenocarcinoma.

This can be explained by the fact that an increase in adiposity will cause a rise in intra-abdominal pressure thereby increasing reflux that may be asymptomatic. However, studies also suggest that obesity is a strong independent risk factor for oesophageal adenocarcinoma regardless of gastro-oesophageal reflux symptoms implying an underlying link. 20, 21 Another factor that may contribute to the rise in reflux disease is the increased use of drugs that relax the lower oesophageal sphincter. There is evidence to suggest that individuals with previous H. Pylori infections are less likely to develop oesophageal adenocarcinoma.²² This might be explained by the gastric atrophy that results from this infection, which will reduce the acidity and quantity of gastric secretions and thus decreasing the chances of gastro-oesophageal reflux. However, the prevalence of H. Pylori infections is decreasing in the Western population, which may contribute to the rising incidence of oesophageal adenocarcinoma. Gastro-oesophageal iunction adenocarcinoma was classified by Siewert and Stein into three types. Type I arises from 1 to 5 cm proximal to the GOJ (tumours of the distal oesophagus), type II arises from 1 cm proximal to 2 cm distal to the GOJ (true cardiacarcinoma), and type III arises from 2 to 5 cm distal to the GOJ (subcardial gastric carcinoma). 61

Fig. 1: Adenocarcinoma of the oesophagus (from Lewin et al. Gastrointestinal pathology and its clinical implications)



Oesophageal squamous cell carcinoma

The major risk factors for the development of oesophageal SCC (Fig. 3,4) are tobacco use and alcohol consumption; particularly

Fig. 2: Barrett's oesophagus (adapted from WHO classification of oesophageal tumours)

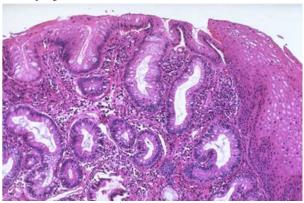


Fig. 3: Squamous cell carcinoma of the oesophagus



Other risk factors for oesophageal SCC in the Western world include low socioeconomic status, poor oral hygiene, achalasia, history of thoracic radiation, caustic injury, hereditary tylosis and Plummer-Vinson Syndrome.²⁵ a combination of both.^{23, 24} Nitrosamine exposure in tobacco smoking and the alcohol metabolite aldehyde, which is a known carcinogen, are probably the underlying reasons for these two risk factors. The high incidence of oesophageal SCC in Northern China, Iran and areas of Southern Africa may be related to a diet rich in nitrosamines and deficient in trace elements and vitamins A & C.

How does oesophageal cancer present clinically?

Patients presenting with symptoms of OC almost invariably have advanced disease. The most common presenting symptom is progressive dysphagia with 74% of patients reporting difficulty swallowing.²⁶ This is graded according to the following: ²⁷

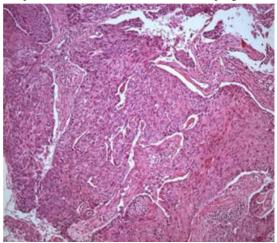
- Grade 1: Able to swallow most foods
- Grade 2: Able to swallow soft foods only
- Grade 3: Able to swallow liquids only
- Grade 4: Unable to swallow anything

17% of patients will also report pain on swallowing food and liquids (odynophagia). ²⁶ Typically, patients with oesophageal adenocarcinoma will be white males with a background of gastro-oesophageal reflux disease who have developed dysphagia. On the other hand, patients with oesophageal SCC will present with dysphagia, associated with weight loss and a history of smoking and increased alcohol intake may exist.

Other less common symptoms include dyspnoea, cough, hoarseness, acute haemorrhage and pain which may be retrosternal, back or right upper abdominal. These will usually represent the existence of metastatic disease.

Physical examination is often normal; positive clinical findings may include cachexia, lymphadenopathy and hepatomegaly in the presence of metastases.

Fig. 4: Microscopic picture of squamous cell carcinoma (adapted from WHO classification of oesophageal tumours)



How is oesophageal cancer diagnosed?

It is essential to have a low threshold if cancers are to be detected at an early, treatable stage. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) guidelines state that a patient presenting with symptoms suggestive of upper gastrointestinal cancer should be referred to a team specialising in the management of these cancers. Specifically; patients of any age presenting with dyspepsia in association with alarm symptoms should be urgently referred for endoscopy or to a

specialist. The classical 'alarm' symptoms associated with OC includes dysphagia, vomiting, anorexia, weight loss and symptoms associated with gastro-intestinal blood loss. Patients aged 55 or more with persistent, recent onset, and unexplained dyspepsia should be referred urgently for an endoscopy.

Diagnosis is usually made by oesophago-gastro-duodenoscopy where multiple biopsy samples must be taken from any mucosal abnormality to exclude early tumours. Suspicious lesions including oesophageal strictures may require repeated biopsies if initial results are negative.

Once diagnosis is made patients should be urgently referred to an Upper Gastro-intestinal team at a specialist centre for investigations to stage disease and further management.

Staging oesophageal cancers

It is essential to accurately stage disease to exclude patients with widespread metastatic disease for whom surgery will not be curative and to identify subgroups of patients who will require neo-adjuvant therapies. Whilst it is difficult to completely eliminate the possibility of 'open and shut' cases where tumours are found to be inoperable at the time of surgery; it is important to develop a staging strategy with investigations and procedures that help to minimise this risk. The TNM (Tumour, Node, Metastasis) staging system is used to classify the depth of tumour invasion into or through the oesophageal wall, the status of regional lymph nodes and metastases to distant sites. The TNM7 categories are shown in Tables 2 and the current stage groupings is shown in Table 3. ²⁸

Table 2: TNM7 staging system

Prim	ary Tumour (T)					
TX	Primary tumour cannot be assessed					
T0	No evidence of primary tumour					
Tis	High-grade dysplasia					
T1	Tumour invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosae, or submocusa					
T1a	Tumour invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosae					
T1b	Tumour invades submucosa					
T2	Tumour invades muscularis propria					
T3	Tumour invades adventitia					
T4	Tumour invades adjacent strictures					
T4a	Resectable tumour invading pleura, pericardium, or diaphragm					
T4b	Unresectable tumour invading other adjacent structures, such as aorta, vertebral body, trachea etc.					
Regi	Regional Lymph Nodes (N)					
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed					
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis					
N1	Metastases in 1-2 regional lymph nodes					

N2	Metastases in 3-6 regional lymph nodes				
N3	Metastases in ≥ 7 regional lymph nodes				
Dista	Distant Metastasis (M)				
M0	No distant metastasis				
M1	Distant metastasis				

Table 3: Stage classification for oesophageal cancer in the 2010 TNM7 staging system

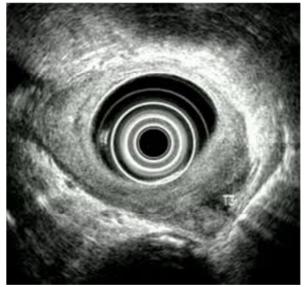
Squan	Squamous-cell carcinoma							
Stage	Tumour	Node	Metastasis	Grade	Tumour location			
0	Tis(HGD)	N0	M0	1, X	Any			
IA	T1	N0	M0	1, X	Any			
IB	T1	N0	M0	2-3	Any			
	T2-3	N0	M0	1, X	Lower, X			
IIA	T2-3	N0	M0	1, X	Upper, middle			
	T2-3	N0	M0	2-3	Lower, X			
IIB	T2-3	N0	M0	2-3	Upper, middle			
	T1-2	N1	M0	Any	Any			
IIIA	T1-2	N2	M0	Any	Any			
	Т3	N1	M0	Any	Any			
	T4a	N0	M0	Any	Any			
IIIB	Т3	N2	M0	Any	Any			
IIIC	T4a	N1-2	M0	Any	Any			
	T4b	Any	M0	Any	Any			
	Any	N3	M0	Any	Any			
IV	Any	Any	M1	Any	Any			
Adend	ocarcinoma							
Stage	Tumour	Node	Metastasis	Grade				
0	Tis(HGD)	N0	M0	1, X				
IA	T1	N0	M0	1-2, X				
IB	T1	N0	M0	3				
	T2	N0	M0	1-2, X				
IIA	T2	N0	M0	3				
IIB	Т3	N0	M0	Any				
	T1-2	N1	M0	Any				
IIIA	T1-2	N2	M0	Any				
	Т3	N1	M0	Any				
	T4a	N0	M0	Any				
IIIB	Т3	N2	M0	Any				
IIIC	T4a	N1-2	M0	Any				
	T4b	Any	M0	Any				
	Any	N3	M0	Any				
IV	Any	Any	M1	Any				

Initial staging assessment includes Computed Tomography (CT) (Fig. 5) of the thorax, abdomen and pelvis and its major role will be in evaluating the T stage to detect local tumour invasion into adjacent structures and determining the presence or absence of metastatic disease. However CT will not be able to determine the depth of tumour invasion. Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) (Fig. 6) is the main modality used to stage the primary tumour and primarily aids in distinguishing T1 lesions from T2-4 lesions. This method has an accuracy ranging from between 73% to 89% in tumour staging.²⁹ Accurately distinguishing tumour stage will affect treatment as T1 lesions may be treated with endoscopic therapy or with oesophagectomy whereas T2-4 lesions may require neoadjuvant chemo-radiotherapy prior to surgery. EUS is also used for evaluation of regional lymph nodes however although sensitivity is approximately 80%, the specificity is lower at approximately 70%. 30 It is best to perform a EUS-guided lymph node biopsy for confirmation of involvement.

Fig. 5: CT scan shows irregular wall thickening of the esophagus and enlarged metastatic lymph node.



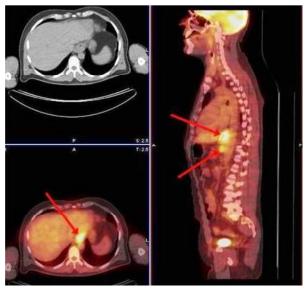
Fig. 6: Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) of oesophagus showing T3 tumour



FDG-PET (¹⁸F-fluoroudeoxyglucose PET) (Fig. 7) is a key modality for the detection of distant metastatic disease in OC.³¹,

³² PET may reveal previously occult distant metastases in nodal and non-nodal sites with a sensitivity of 67% and high specificity of 97%. ³³ It can also reveal metastases to bone, which may not be detected using conventional methods. An investigation has shown PET to be the only modality that predicted intended curative resection and it may also be used to prevent unnecessary surgical explorations. ³⁴ The use of PET has been shown in a study to change the management of patients from curative to palliative due to detection of previously unknown metastases. ³⁵ It has also been used in a prospective study to assess response early after neo-adjuvant chemotherapy to determine the need for urgent surgery or further chemotherapy. The usage of CT and PET in combination has become increasingly available and is useful in selective cases. ³⁶

Fig. 7: FDG PET/CT image demonstrating increased uptake at the distal oesophagus and coeliac lymph node in oesophageal cancer case



Minimally invasive surgery is also used as a method to stage OC in many specialist centres.³⁷ A staging laparoscopy can visualise the primary tumour, identify metastases such as hepatic and regional nodal and can accurately detect intraperitoneal dissemination of disease, which may not have been appreciated on other radiological staging investigations. Samples of peritoneal ascites or washings for cytology can also be obtained at this stage if present.

Endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR) can provide accurate histological staging for high grade dysplasia and intramucosal carcinomas. ³⁸ In many cases EMR alone can be a therapeutic intervention depending on the depth of invasion on the specimen.

Treatment

The management of OCs requires a multi-disciplinary team approach involving surgeons, oncologists, radiologists, pathologists, specialist nurses, dietitians and specialists from other specialties if required. Patients considered for surgery or

chemo-radiotherapy will require a fitness assessment. In addition to pulmonary function tests, ECG and echocardiogram, cardio-pulmonary exercise testing (CPEX/CPET) is now being increasingly used to assess fitness for major surgery.

OCs can be managed with surgery, chemotherapy or radiotherapy, a combination of the three or palliation in many cases. Disease that is locally advanced without signs of distant metastases is treated with an intention to cure and this will involve a multimodal approach. Metastatic, disseminated and recurrent disease will be treated with palliative intent with chemotherapy to increase survival or measures such as radiotherapy or stent placement for symptomatic relief.

Surgical

Surgical resection can be part of a multimodal approach or alone and is the main option for curative treatment. There are a number of surgical procedures that can be used however it is important to ensure removal of macroscopic and microscopic tumour in association with dissection of lymph nodes with either method as these are vital prognostic factors following surgery.

Open oesophagectomy (OO):

Options for resection include trans-hiatal oesophagectomy and transthoracic approaches and the choice of approach will depend on the location of the tumour, access to lymph nodes and surgeon preference. An Ivor Lewis oesophagectomy (also known as Lewis-Tanner oesophagectomy) involves abdominal mobilization of the stomach and right thoracic approach for resection of the oesophagus. The three-stage modified McKeown oesophagectomy involves a laparotomy, right thoracotomy and neck anastomosis. A resection margin 8-10 cm proximally and 7 cm distally is recommended to achieve an R0 resection (recommendation class IIB, level of evidence C). The next step is to construct a conduit for the anastomosis and this can be achieved by using a gastric tube, large or small bowel. A gastric tube is preferred due to the following factors; ease of use, tension free and longest term conduit survival (recommendation class IIA, level of evidence C). The anastomosis can be performed in the chest or the neck. This relies on multiple factors such as ease of the anastomosis, tension on the repair, ability to diagnose and treat complications and the oncological status. Circular staplers or hand sewn technique usually used with no significant differences in the outcomes. A drainage procedure such as pyloroplasty is recommended to avoid delayed gastric emptying (recommendation class I, level of evidence B). 62

Radical oesophagectomy using either approach has a perioperative mortality of 5-10% and morbidity of 30-40%. ³⁹Lymph node dissection plays an important role owing to the extensive submucosal lymphatic drainage of the oesophagus. This has meant that nearly 80% of patients

undergoing surgery have positive lymph nodes and prognostically this is of importance. 40, 41 However, there has been controversy with regards to the extent of lymph node dissection required. For optimal staging 10 lymph nodes for T1 and 20-30 lymph nodes for T2 and T3 tumours should be harvested. 42 In order to perform a curative resection for carcinoma of the middle and lower third of the oesophagus it is recommended to dissect the abdominal and mediastinal lymph nodes. Three-field lymphadenectomy in the abdomen, chest and neck, is performed in Japan for oesophageal SCC. 42 Proponents of radical lymphadenectomy argue that it does allow optimal staging, improves loco-regional disease free survival improving the quality of life for these patients.

Minimally invasive oesophagectomy (MIO):

Minimally invasive approaches, which involve laparoscopic mobilisation of the stomach, thoracoscopic mobilisation of the oesophagus and hybrid or robotic approaches, are increasing in many specialist centres. Benefits of this approach include shorter recovery times, decreased post-operative pain and reduced cardiopulmonary complications without jeopardising the oncological outcomes. Luketich et al. reported a mortality rate of 1.7%, leak 5% and empyema 6% following MIO.63Several randomised controlled trials (RCTs) comparative studies were conducted to investigate the efficacy and outcomes of MIO. A study by Li et al was conducted on 407 patients underwent MIO and OO found that the overall incidence of complications was lower in the MIO patients. The incidence of pulmonary complications was 20.7% in contrast to 39.7% in the OO group. However, there was no difference in the overall survival among the groups. Another comparative retrospective study by Mu et al. didn't reveal any difference in the morbidity, anastomotic leak rate, pulmonary complications and length of stay between the approaches and the authors concluded that both techniques are equivalent. 63, 64

Neo-adjuvant chemotherapy

This aims to improve operability; achieving this by shrinking the tumour prior to surgery, down-staging the disease as well as treating occult metastatic disease. Response to treatment can be assessed prior to surgery with repeat radiological investigations. It is now common for patients in the UK with locally advanced disease to undergo neo-adjuvant chemotherapy followed by resection. This is based on the results of a multi-centre study conducted by the Medical Research Council (OEO2), which showed a 9% improvement in two-year survival in patients given 2 cycles of Cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil chemotherapy compared to those who were not. Five-year survival with surgery alone was 17%, compared with 23% with neoadjuvant chemotherapy. 43 The MRC Adjuvant Gastric Infusional Chemotherapy (MAGIC) trial randomized patients to chemotherapy with surgery or to surgery alone and it was found that patients in the chemotherapy group (who received Epirubicin, Cisplatin and infused 5-Fluorouracil, 'ECF') had a

significant improvement in progression-free survival and a 13% increase in 5-year survival. 45

In a meta-analysis of neoadjuvant chemotherapy, there was an overall all-cause absolute survival benefit of 7% at 2 years with the addition of chemotherapy. When analysed by subtype, chemotherapy had no significant effect on mortality for patients with squamous cell carcinoma; however, there was a significant survival benefit for patients with oesophageal adenocarcinoma (HR 0.78; p=0.014). 47

As a result of this evidence, neoadjuvant chemotherapy is a standard of care for patients with operable mid and lower oesophageal and GOJ adenocarcinoma. The ongoing MRC OEO5 trial is evaluating optimal neoadjuvant chemotherapy regimens: 4 cycles of chemotherapy with 'ECX' (Epirubicin, Cisplatin and Capecitabine) compared to two cycles Cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil, as in OEO2.⁴⁴

Patients who are deemed suitable for surgical management of mid or distal oesophageal (including GOJ) adenocarcinomas are referred to the GI oncology team to assess fitness for chemotherapy. Many of the criteria assessed are similar to those in the pre-operative assessment, particularly performance status and medical comorbidities. Significant history of renal disease or cardiovascular disease, especially ischaemic heart disease would be a relative contraindication to systemic chemotherapy. Toxicities from chemotherapy are wide-ranging and include gastrointestinal upset, hair loss, skin rash, neurotoxicity, renal toxicity, bone marrow suppression (with risk of neutropaenic sepsis, thrombocytopaenia, and anaemia), cardiovascular toxicity, and chemotherapy-related fatigue. In the MAGIC trial, three cycles of epirubicin, cisplatin and capecitabine (ECX) chemotherapy were given both before and after surgery, and approximately one quarter of patients had CTCAE grade 3 or 4 neutropaenia. 45

Table 4: Efficacies of major combination chemotherapy drugs

Drug	Histologic type	No. of cases	Response rate (%)
5-FU + cisplatin	Squamous cell carcinoma	39	36
Cisplatin + paclitaxel	Squamous cell carcinoma/adenocarcinoma	32	44
Cisplatin + irinotecan	Squamous cell carcinoma/adenocarcinoma	35	57
Cisplatin + gemcitabine	Squamous cell carcinoma/adenocarcinoma	32	45
5-FU + nedaplatin	Squamous cell carcinoma	38	40

The REAL 2 trial ⁴⁸ was a 2x2 factorial non-inferiority comparison of cisplatin versus oxaliplatin and 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) versus oral capectiabine in patients with oesophageal,

gastro-oesophageal junction and gastric tumours. Treatment was given as triplet chemotherapy: epirubicin plus platinum agent (cisplatin or oxaliplatin) plus 5-FU or capecitabine. The trial results showed that oxaliplatin was at least as effective as cisplatin, and oral capectibine was at least as effective as intravenous 5-fluorouracil. There was less grade 3 and 4 neutropaenia with oxaliplatin versus cisplatin, but this was offset by an increase in neuropathy and diarrhoea. As a result of this trial, EOX chemotherapy can be used as an alternative to ECX in both the neoadjuvant and metastatic settings (Table 4).

Neo-adjuvant chemo-radiotherapy

In contrast to the UK, patients in the USA commonly receive neo-adjuvant chemo-radiotherapy (CRT) for locally advanced oesophageal carcinoma. There is evidence that preoperative CRT is superior to surgery alone. A meta-analysis of ten randomised controlled trials showed a hazard ratio for all-cause mortality of 0.81 (95% CI 0.70 to 0.93; p=0.002). This corresponded to a 13% absolute survival benefit at 2 years.⁴⁷ In the subgroup analysis of the Dutch CRT trial (which used paclitaxel and carboplatin combination chemotherapy), the beneficial effect was more pronounced in patients with squamous cell carcinoma (HR 0.34; 95% CI 0.17 to 0.65) compared to adenocarcinoma (HR 0.82; 95% CI 0.58 to 1.16).⁴⁹

There has been no direct head-to-head comparison of neoadjuvant chemotherapy and neoadjuvant CRT in the context of a phase III randomised control trial. Concerns regarding the added morbidity of CRT have meant that chemotherapy alone is the standard neoadjuvant treatment of choice in the UK. However, the role of neoadjuvant CRT is currently being reassessed in the Neo-SCOPE trial.

Definitive chemo-radiotherapy (CRT)

According to current UK consensus guidelines, CRT is the definitive treatment of choice for localised squamous cell carcinoma of the proximal oesophagus. ⁵⁰ Localised squamous cell carcinoma of the middle or lower oesophagus may be treated with CRT alone, or CRT plus surgery. ⁵⁰

In a pivotal study, US Intergroup RTOG-8501 randomised 121 patients with squamous cell carcinoma or adenocarcinoma to receive CRT (cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil with 50 Gray in 25 fractions), or radiotherapy alone (64 Gray in 32 fractions). This trial ⁴⁶, together with a subsequent systematic review ⁵⁵, demonstrated a survival superiority of CRT over radiotherapy alone (1-year mortality odds ratio 0.61; 95% CI 0.31 to 0.89; p<0.001). This was at the expense of increased toxicity.

This and similar studies ⁵⁶⁻⁵⁷ have demonstrated a remarkably consistent median survival of 14-18 months and 2 year overall survival of 30-40% with CRT.

CRT practice in the UK is somewhat varied, but within the authors' multidisciplinary team Cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil chemotherapy is given in weeks 1 and 5 of a five-and-a-half week course of radiotherapy. The radiation dose used is 50.4 Gray in 28 daily fractions, treating Mondays to Fridays. An alternative radiation dose-fractionation which is supported by the Royal College of Radiologists guidelines is 50 Gray in 25 daily fractions. ⁵⁸

There are few trials directly comparing surgery alone with CRT. A study of 80 patients with squamous cell carcinoma randomised to surgery or CRT failed to show superiority of either strategy in terms of early disease free survival or overall survival. ⁵¹ Adding surgery to CRT can improve local control rates compared with CRT alone, but combined-modality therapy has not been shown to improve survival. It predictably also leads to significantly more treatment-related morbidity. ⁵²

The French FFCD 9102 trial recruited 444 patients with potentially resectable OC (90% squamous cell carcinoma) to receive induction CRT. Those patients who showed evidence of response to CRT were then randomised to further CRT or surgery. Median overall survival was 19.3 months in the CRT alone arm, and 17.7 months in those randomised to surgery. The trial met its endpoint of non-inferiority for 2 year overall survival. Again, toxicity was shown to be significantly higher in patients who received both CRT and surgery.⁵³

Although definitive CRT is a current recommended standard of care for localised squamous cell carcinoma of the oesophagus, there is insufficient evidence to to support either a surgical or non-surgical approach ⁵⁰. Surgery should be considered in patients who have histologically-confirmed residual disease at the end of CRT.

For patients deemed unsuitable for surgery with localised adenocarcinoma of the oesophagus, CRT is a valid option for treatment. An American case series of 25 patients with a median age of 77 years showed that CRT using two cycles of mitomycin-C and 5-fluorouracil in combination with radiation (dose 50.4Gy in 28 daily fractions) was effective and tolerable. 68% of these patients had no evidence of residual disease on post-treatment endoscopy. This small series of patients had a two year overall survival of 64%, with a median overall survival of 35 months.⁵⁴

Salvage surgery after definitive CRT

Local recurrence occurs within the first year in 10-30% of patients treated with definitive CRT.⁵⁰ Salvage curative oesophagectomy may be considered within a multidisciplinary team setting. Repeat staging investigations including a CT-PET and EUS are required before a final decision for salvage surgery is made. Survival benefit is limited, and such surgery is associated with an increased in-hospital mortality rate and increased morbidity.⁵⁹ Informing patients of the potential high

risks and poor outcomes is an integral part of the decision-making process for salvage surgery.

Palliation

The majority of patients diagnosed with OC are never treated with curative intent as a result of advanced disease or their physical fitness and comorbidities not allowing for radical treatment. It also includes patients who have developed recurrent or metastatic disease following resection. For this group of patients, there are a number of palliative treatments available for relief of symptoms, prolonging and maximising their quality of life. Once again, a multidisciplinary, holistic approach is required to provide the best treatment.

Treatments to provide symptomatic relief such as dysphagia can include intraluminal brachytherapy, endoscopic stenting using self-expanding metal stents or repeated endoscopic dilatations. Dysphagia can also be palliated by chemotherapy or external beam radiotherapy. Laser-thermal Nd-YAG endoluminal tumour destruction and photodynamic therapy can also be administered however this requires a number of treatments and may be more suitable for short exophytic tumours. It is essential to manage pain and nutrition and feeding options through a gastrostomy, jejunostomy or even intravenously can be provided to ensure adequate nutritional status. In addition to providing symptomatic relief it is important to also ensure that these patients receive social and psychological support by identifying and addressing the needs of the patients as well as their carers.

Palliative radiotherapy can be offered to patients with symptomatic primary oesophageal tumours in the context of metastatic or inoperable disease. Palliative dose and fractionation options are varied, but include 27 Gray in 6 fractions treating twice a week for 3 weeks; 30 Gray in 10 fractions treating daily for 2 weeks; 20 Gray in 5 fractions treating daily for 1 week. The aim of such radiation treatment is to palliate dysphagia. This effect is not immediate, and therefore patients with significant dysphagia are better served initially by endoscopic stenting.

Chemotherapy has been shown to be effective in improving symptoms and overall survival. Patients with good performance status are offered combination chemotherapy. This can be with EOX, as per the MAGIC trial, ⁴⁵or with Cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil, with or without the addition of Epirubicin (CF or ECF). 5-Fluorouracil can be substituted for oral Capecitabine (i.e. CX or ECX) without any adverse effects on outcomes. ⁴⁵

When choosing palliative systemic chemotherapy for patients with incurable OC, the primary aim should be about maximising quality of life. Improvements in outcome with more intensive chemotherapy regimens, such as docetaxel, cisplatin and 5-Fluorouracil, have been shown to be offset by significantly more toxicity.⁶⁰ As a result, Docetaxel containing regimens are not approved in the UK for this indication.⁵⁰

Conclusions

The incidence of oesophageal carcinoma is increasing and despite advances in management and treatment the overall prognosis remains poor. It is essential to recognize and diagnose early, to have a clear pathway for subsequent investigations to ensure accurate staging. This will allow appropriate therapy to be administered to ensure the best possible outcomes are achieved. Treatment of OC is still a challenge however recent advances in surgery, endoscopic treatments and new therapeutic agents will hopefully improve prognosis.

Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

NAUFAL RASHID, Department of Upper GI Surgery, West Hertfordshire Hospitals, England. MOHAMED ELSHAER, Department of Upper GI Surgery, West Hertfordshire Hospitals, England. MICHAEL KOSMIN, Department of Oncology, Mount Vernon Hospital, England. AMJID RIAZ, Department of Upper GI Surgery, West Hertfordshire Hospitals, England. CORRESSPONDENCE: AMJID ALI RIAZ, Department of Upper GI Surgery, Watford General Hospital, Vicarage road, Watford, WD18 0HB, United Kingdom. Email: mrariaz@hotmail.com

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Legal Highs - Not so new and still growing in popularity

Francis J Dunne, Khalid Jaffar and Shazia Hashmi

Abstract

Designer or synthetic drugs which include legal highs and other "club drugs" are substances which have a propensity to cause euphoria, central nervous system stimulation, and hallucinations. Based on chemical formulae for opioids, mescaline, and cannabis, they are created in laboratories under lax conditions for no defined medical purposes. Because they vary in composition from batch to batch they are potentially dangerous for users. Furthermore, the chemical structure is continually changing in order to avoid legislation and therefore users can never be sure what they are taking.

For the purpose of this article readers should use the terms legal highs, designer drugs, bath salts, herbal highs, 'research' chemicals, and novel psychoactive substances, interchangeably. Their main purpose is to induce psychoactive effects that mimic amphetamines, cannabinoids or psychedelic drugs. The term 'research' only infers that very little is known about these substances and information on adverse effects is often sparse. The reader should also bear in mind that it is beyond the scope of this article to include many other agents.

Keywords: legal highs, bath salts, designer drugs

Overview

The term 'designer drug', coined in the 1980s, generally referred to various synthetic opioids based mostly on the (α-methylfentanyl) molecule and **MDMA** (methylenedioxymethamphetamine) commonly known as ecstasy. Fentanyl is an extremely potent analgesic, some 100 times more potent than morphine. MDMA and fentanyl compounds were the most popular synthetic drugs initially. The terminology is confusing because although the description 'designer drug' seems to imply the creation of new drugs, many are not new. For example, cathinone derivatives have been reported since the late 1920s. MDMA was first synthesised in 1912, methcathinone in 1928, and mephedrone in 1929. Cathinone is chemically similar to ephedrine, cathine, methcathinone and other amphetamines.

Legal highs generally comprise cathinone stimulants and synthetic cannabinoids. Hallucinogenic agents such as salvia divinorum are also included, the latter sometimes described as herbal ecstasy. Synthetic amphetamines are not regarded as hallucinogenic, though hallucinations are experienced by some users.

Thus, the term 'designer drugs' covers an array of substances which are used recreationally, are not controlled under the Misuse of Drugs Act (1971), are not licensed for 'legal' use, and are not regulated under the Medicines Act (1968). They are chemicals produced by tweaking or altering the molecular structure of previous well-known psychoactive agents. By stating they are 'not for human consumption', or are just 'bath salts', they can be sold legally. Hundreds of such substances are now available, reflecting the ease at which chemists can produce them.

Availability and Consumption

The World Drug Report (available on the Internet) produced annually by the UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), provides information on the worldwide manufacture and marketing of illegal drugs. The 2013 report highlights a striking rise in the availability of new substances. Part of the challenge lies in their variety - some are derived from plants, for instance, the mint plant *Salvia divinorum*, native to Mexico, with synthetic cathinones and cannabinoids also being major contributors in other countries.

Ease of synthesis, low cost, and resourceful marketing have contributed to the problem. Information provided via the internet, combined with minimal difficulty in the manufacture and transport from distant regions, together with lax legal enforcement, creates an ideal opportunity for legal highs to flourish. The low cost is particularly attractive though ironically legal highs probably cost more these days: for example, 1g of mephedrone costs about £16.00 more than when legislation was introduced in 2010. On the other hand MDAI (methylenedioxy-2-aminoindane), a legal stimulant and club drug which is snorted or bombed, costs about half the price of cocaine (£20 per gm). It is sometimes cheaper to buy legal highs over the internet than from a drug dealer. Part of the increase in use of legal highs may be a result of decreasing purity of other 'buzz' drugs such as cocaine and MDMA.As with other illegal drugs regulatory measures drive the drugs 'underground' and into the hands of drug dealers and the price then varies with the purity of the drug and its ease of manufacture and availability.

Some users will revert to taking an illegal drug when the legal alternative is prohibited. There is also a certain curiosity to experiment with new drugs. Even so, to keep things in

perspective, consumption of more harmful familiar illegal drugs (for example, cocaine, amphetamines) has not abated, with over 315 million people worldwide thought to be using them. More worrying is that millions of individuals inject more harmful drugs such as opiates with resultant increased rates of HIV, hepatitis B and hepatitis C infection. Readers are also likely to be aware of the violence and deaths associated with drug manufacturing and supplying within countries such as Latin America.

Government Control

The Medicines Act 1968 (UK) governs the control of medicines for human and veterinary use. It defines three categories of medicines: a) prescription only medicines (POM), available solely from a pharmacist and requiring an appropriate practitioner to issue, b) pharmacy medicines (P), available only from a pharmacist, without the need for a prescription, and c) general sales list (GSL) meaning medicines bought without a prescription. The Medicines Act 1968was set up to protect patients from unscrupulous suppliers of medicines. Safeguarding the public from illegal medicines or any inaccurate and misleading labelling of medicines is paramount. However, manufacturers have managed to sell legal highs by passing them off as bath salts or research chemicals.

Phenylalkylamines analogues such as amphetamine are widely misused and because of their simple structure hundreds of amphetamine analogues have been introduced for decades. This is the reason why so many legal highs are available. Amphetamine (phenylisopropolamine), a familiar central nervous system (CNS) stimulant, has effects which last for several hours after oral intake. Methamphetamine is closely related to amphetamine and ephedrine (a mixed-acting sympathomimetic). Ephedrine and pseudoephedrine (often used for relief of nasal congestion) undergo reduction to methamphetamine, or oxidation to methcathinone. As with methamphetamines, methcathinones can be readily 'cooked' in the laboratory and hence the term 'synthetic'.

Background biochemistry

Morphine, the most abundant opiate alkaloid found in the poppy plant, papaver somniferum, was first isolated in 1804. The actual term alkaloid is derived from "alkaloide" introduced in 1819 by the German chemist Carl Friedrich Wilhelm Meisner, from the Latin root 'alkali', and the Arabic word alqalwī meaning "ashes of plants".

Alkaloids are a group of naturally occurring organic nitrogencontaining bases, a base being a substance with a pH above 7 which turns red litmus paper blue. They include related compounds with neutral and even weakly acidic properties and more than 3,000 different types have been identified. In addition to nitrogen, hydrogen and carbon, most alkaloids contain oxygen, sulfur, and to a lesser extent, chlorine, bromine, and phosphorus. Generally, an alkaloid contains at least one nitrogen atom in an amine-type structure, i.e. one derived from ammonia (NH_3) replacing the hydrogen atoms with hydrocarbons, for example, CH_3 or CH_2 . Alkaloids generally are weak bases and some act as acid or base (amphoteric).

Alkaloids are produced primarily by flowering plants and organisms such as bacteria, fungi, and animals. Several alkaloids may be extracted from one plant. They can be purified from crude extracts by acid-base extraction and tend to have a bitter taste. Those containing a ring system are known as indole alkaloids (for example, terpenoids and steroids). Some are named after the biological species from which they are derived (morphine from the poppy plant Papaver somniferum, cocaine from erythroxolon coca, and so on). Other common examples include psilocin, caffeine, nicotine, vincristine, reserpine, atropine, quinidine, ephedrine, strychnine and quinine. Atropine is the tropane alkaloid isolated from the deadlynightshade plant Atropa belladonna, and strychnine is derived from the seeds of the Strychnos nux-vomica tree. Caffeine, cocaine, codeine (methylmorphine) and nicotine are water-soluble alkaloids. Morphine and yohimbine are highly water-soluble. Other alkaloids dissolve poorly in water yet readily in organic solvents such as chloroform or ether. The biological precursors of most alkaloids are amino acids, such as phenylalanine, tyrosine, tryptophan, histidine, and aspartic acid, among others. 1

How are they used?

The synthetic cathinones (usually mephedrone and methylone, or M-Cats) are most commonly used intranasally (insufflated) or ingested. "Bombing" is a method of ingestion whereby mephedrone powder is wrapped in cigarette paper and swallowed. Because sniffing the drug may cause nasal burns users will often resort to 'bombing'. "Keying" is the practice of dipping a key into powder and then insufflating, with approximately five to eight "keys" per gram. Rectal administration, gingival delivery, inhalation, intramuscular and intravenous injection have also been described. Multiple concomitant routes of administration are reported. Self-reported doses range from a few milligrams to over 1 g of powder. A typical dose of mephedrone would be 100-200mg every 1-2 hours.

Users cannot be certain of the actual contents or indeed of the purity of the drug, therefore actual dosage and exposure is highly variable. For example, when MDAI (methylenedioxy-2-aminoindane) known as Sparkle (a granular, brownish powder) is snorted or bombed, it has an effect similar to ecstasy causing mood enhancement and hallucinations. Onset of action is usually within one hour and the effects are then almost immediate, perhaps a minute or so. The high lasts about six hours with a peak of two hours. It may cause hyperthermia, paranoid ideation and panic attacks.²

Cathinone is a naturally-occurring beta-ketone amphetamine analogue found in the leaves of the khat plant. Other synthetic cathinones such as methcathinone and MDVP (methylenedioxypyrovalerone) produce similar effects. Beta-ketone refers to the possession of a ketone group in the beta position of the aminoalkyl chain attached to the main molecular methylenedioxyphenyl ring.

Synthetic cannabinoids share some functional similarities with $\Delta 9$ -tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), the active principle of cannabis. Like THC, they can have sedative, depressant and hallucinogenic effects. They have been detected in herbal smoking mixtures such as 'Spice' as well as resins that mimic cannabis resin.

Khat (Catha edulis)

Some knowledge of this plant is necessary in order to explain the background to many of the synthetic designer drugs. Khat is an evergreen shrub the leaves of which are chewed for their stimulant properties. An understanding of its chemical composition helps to explain the use of its constituents in the formation of designer drugs. Khat contains more than 40 alkaloids as well as many other compounds. The khat pheylalkylamines consist of cathinone, cathine and norephedrine: these alkaloids are structurally related to amphetamine and noradrenaline. Although similar to methylamphetamine, methcathinone (variously known as *Cat*, Kat, Qat, Ghat, and Chat) possesses a chemical structure resembling cathinone; its side effects and addictive properties are more potent.

The plant is chewed into a ball and kept in the cheek for a while. When khat leaves dry, cathinone (benzoylethanamine) decomposes within 48 hours leaving behind the milder chemical, cathine (a phenethylamine compound). Therefore, to maintain the potency of the drug, harvesters transport khat by packaging the leaves and stems in plastic bags or wrapping them in banana leaves to preserve moisture. It is common to sprinkle the plant with water or use refrigeration during transportation. Khat is therefore best used within 12-48 hours when the leaves are still moist.

Catha edulis is a flowering plant (one that produces seeds) native to the Horn of Africa (Eritrea, Djibouti, Ethiopia and Somalia) and the Arabian Peninsula. In these countries chewing the leaves and stalks is a social custom dating back thousands of years. It may take 7-8 years for the shrub to reach its full height (6-12 feet or more). Globally it is estimated that some 10 million males (usually) use khat on a daily basis.

Cathaedulis leaves containa beta-ketone amphetamine analogue. Ketones contain a carbonyl group (C=O) bonded to two other carbon atoms. Phenylalkylamines (derived from *phenethylamine*) are often termed "bk-amphetamines" for the beta-ketone moiety.

The principal active components in khat are cathinone and cathine. By chewing khat these substances are secreted into saliva. The effects are similar to amphetamine though less potent. Psychological dependence does occur in some though generally khat is not addictive. It is freely available in many countries and its production, sale and consumption are legal, including the Horn of Africa. In the Arab Peninsula it is known as Arabian tea and in South Africa it is referred to as Bushman's tea.

Although its stimulant effect was originally attributed to cathine, extracts from fresh leaves of khat were shown to contain *cathinone*, isolated in 1975 and its properties recognized in 1978. Cathinone is not very stable and breaks down to produce cathine and norephedrine which belong to the phenylpropanolamine family, a subset of the phenethylamines and the catecholamines adrenaline and noradrenaline.

When the leaves are chewed the active ingredients are absorbed through the oral and gastric mucous membranes. The action of cathine and cathinone on the reuptake of adrenaline and noradrenaline results in the wakefulness associated with amphetamine derivatives. The effects of cathinone peak after 30 minutes, with nearly 98% of the substance metabolized by the liver into noradrenaline. Cathine has a half-life of about three hours in humans. Typically, an individual consumes 100–200 g of khat leaves (one bundle) in a session, and its effects last for several hours.

Symptoms are rather similar to the ingestion of strong coffee or amphetamines, for example, overtalkativeness and hyperactivity. The effects of oral cathinone occur more rapidly than those of amphetamine, 15 minutes compared to 30 minutes respectively. Khat causes constipation, dilated pupils (mydriasis), tachycardia and increased blood pressure, reflecting the sympathomimetic effects of the drug. Withdrawal symptoms, as would be expected, include mild depression and irritability, lethargy, rebound anxiety causing nightmares, tremulousness and loss of appetite. Long-term use may cause hepatic dysfunction, a permanent greenish tinge darkening of the teeth, and diminished libido. Rarely, dilated cardiomyopathy and myocardial infarction result from chronic use. ³

Mephedrone

Mephedrone ('meow meow') is a synthetic stimulant chemically related to cathinone, the psychoactive substance present in the khat plant. It is usually sold as a white crystalline or off-white-yellow powder (as a hydrochloride salt) for about £10 per gram. Consumption is usually oral or intranasal and rarely, by injection. Sellers avoid attracting the attention of regulatory bodies by labelling the substance "not for human consumption," which means that no advice on safer use and dosing is provided.⁴

In one study the most commonly seen drug class were piperazines, followed by the cathinones, with significant

variation in the content in one quarter of these compounds. The authors stated that it was relatively easy to purchase a number of legal highs from different Internet suppliers, though there times when not all of the products were available leading to the problem of users buying different active drugs to those they are used to, raising the prospect of potential toxicity to unknown agents.5A cross-sectional survey of 947 of mephedrone users found it to be the sixth most frequently used drug in the previous month after tobacco, alcohol, cannabis, cocaine and MDMA. Users typically were young males; 15% reported using weekly or more frequently; nearly 50% used between 0.5 and 1g during a typical session; intranasal use was the most common route of use (70%). Almost 55% of those who used cocaine reported that the 'high' obtained with mephedrone was better: intranasal use was also more likely addictive than oral use. Mephedrone appears to be the most widely abused synthetic cathinone in Europe, in contrast to the USA where MDVP and methylone are the most frequently abused. 67

Classification of mephedrone has had a limited effect on controlling its availability and use. Before the introduction of the legislation users generally obtained it via the internet. Now it is bought from street dealers, on average at double the price. Mephedrone was defined as a Class B drug under the Misuse of Drugs Act (1971) in the UK in April 2010. ⁴

Mephedrone produces similar effects to ecstasy, amphetamines and cocaine. It is detected in 20% of ecstasy tablets. It simulates the release of and inhibits the reuptake of monoamine neurotransmitters. The onset of psychoactive effects after insufflation is usually 10–20 minutes with an expected duration of effect of 1–2 hours; after oral ingestion onset is about 15–45 minutes with duration of 2–4 hours, and intravenous users report symptoms peaking at 10–15 minutes with a 30-minute duration of the desired effect.

Mephedrone users report that it has a better quality high than cocaine. It is speculated that mephedrone's popularity reflects dissatisfaction with the purity and consistency of available cocaine and ecstasy. Concerns are also raised when it is considered that mephedrone is readily available from street dealers and may be taken by young people who have little previous experience of drug use.

Blood or plasma mephedrone concentrations are expected to be in a range of 50–100 $\mu g/l$ in persons using the drug recreationally, >100 $\mu g/l$ in intoxicated patients and >500 $\mu g/l$ in victims of acute overdose.

Mephedroneinduces a greater increase in dopamine than serotonin release whereas MDMA ('ecstasy') induces a huge increase in serotonin with an insignificant rise in dopamine. Amphetamine results in a surge in dopamine release with an insignificant increase in serotonin. Mephedrone, amphetamine, and MDMA have decay values of 25, 50 and 300 minutes

respectively. Therefore, the rapid rise and fall of dopamine levels could explain the addictive properties of mephedrone in some users. The effects are often described as somewhere between ecstasy and cocaine. As with cocaine, the 'high' generally lasts around an hour before wearing off. Furthermore, prolonged high –dose use of the substances can produce long-lasting neurotransmitter deficits in humans. ^{8 9}

According to Mixmag (the online drug-use clubbing survey magazine for the UK) published in March 2012, 42% of clubbers had tried mephedrone the drug, and 34% had taken it in the last month. Some 30% of mephedrone users had reported using more ecstasy since the ban came into effect, while 19% reported using more cocaine. Blood or plasma mephedrone concentrations are expected to be in a range of 50– $100 \mu g/l$ in persons using the drug recreationally, >100 $\mu g/l$ in intoxicated patients and >500 $\mu g/l$ in victims of acute overdose.

In 2011, Mixmag and the Guardian newspaper which draws on previous Mixmag surveys collected 15,500 responses from around the world, mostly the United Kingdom. In 2010/11, reported levels of use of mephedrone in the last year and last month were three times higher among clubbers (30 % and 13 %) than non-clubbers (10 % and 3 %).

Mephedronepredictably, causes increased alertness, restlessness, euphoria, excitement, the urge to talk, openness, time rushes, hot flushes, increased libido and elation. Hyperhidrosis, headache, palpitations, a Raynaud-type syndrome, and nausea are other relatively common unpleasant effects. Dizziness, hallucinations, panic attacks, and psychosis may occur. Other physical symptoms include dry mouth, blurred vision, and epistaxis. Symptoms of intoxication include agitation, aggression, violence, seizures and hyperthermia. Fatigue and insomnia are common residual effects. Mephedrone is generally used by nasal insufflation or ingestion of powder, liquid, capsule or tablets. The majority of users source mephedrone from street level dealers. 10 Mephedrone induces strong feelings of craving in most users. If the unstable ecstasy market situation persists, the potential of mephedrone to substitute for MDMA might be substantial. Mephedrone, sold as ecstasy, is therefore more likely to be a cause for concern in the future.

Bath salts

This is the street name for substances which contain synthetic cathinone stimulants, such as methylenedioxypyrovalerone (MDPV) and mephedrone. Hath salts components act synergistically at the dopamine transporter site and enhanced dopamine transmission may increase the potential for abuse. MDPV is consumed with other illicit drugs of abuse. It is the primary ingredient in "bath salts." Being a synthetic, cathinone-derivative it produces a high similar to cocaine or methamphetamine. It can be administered orally, by nasal insufflation, smoking, intravenously/intramuscularly, or per rectum, and intoxication lasts many hours.

MDPV may cause cardiac problems and disturbance of perception. During the withdrawal period after MDPV use, bone and muscle pain, and visual disturbances may occur. In the metabolism of MDPV, the most important catalyst is the CYP2C19 isoenzyme; the CYP1A2 and the CYP2D6 isoenzymes also play a role. The formed catechols are conjugated with either glucuronic acid or sulphate.

These compounds are not true bath salts in the traditional sense of household products. Cathinone is an amphetamine-like stimulant found naturally in the khat plant, described in more detail below. MDPV is much more potent than cocaine and its effect is longer lasting.¹²

Because of the sympathomimetic activity side effects are predictable and include cardiac arrhythmias, hypertension, arrhythmias, and hyperthermia. Chest pain, myocardial infarction, sweating, rhabdomyolysis, seizures, stroke, cerebral oedema, cardiorespiratory collapse, and rarely, death, have been reported. Psychiatric manifestations include hypersomnia, panic attacks, agitation, paranoia, suicidal ideation, self-mutilation, and aggressive behaviour.

The mode of action is thought to be the result of disruption and interference with central monoamine systems. In other words, synthetic cathinones increase extracellular monoamines by blocking transporter reuptake and increasing presynaptic neurotransmitter release. The dopamine (DA) transporter (DAT) and serotonin (5-HT) transporter (SERT) tightly regulate the amount of neurotransmitters within the synaptic cleft. Monoamine release also may be driven by presynaptic input from cholinergic or glutaminergic systems.¹²

Psychoactive bath salts are sold as tablets, capsules, or powder and purchased in places such as tobacco and convenience stores, gas stations, head shops, and the Internet. Bath salts may mimic cocaine, lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), methamphetamine, or MDMA. The most common bath salts are the cathinone derivatives MDPV, mephedrone and methylone. The drugs have the potential for addiction because they cause intense stimulation, euphoria, elevated mood, and a pleasurable "rush". ¹³ ¹⁴

In the United Kingdom (UK) to avoid being controlled by the Medicines Act, legal highs are sometimes described as bath salts, fertilizer (plant food), or incense, even though they have never been used for these purposes. In other words, legal highs are not covered by current drugs laws yet are used by individuals in the same way as illegal drugs such as cocaine or cannabis. The easy availability of legal highs marketed as "bath salts", 'incense' and 'plant foods', with the added proviso that they are not to be consumed by humans allows the drugs to circumvent current legislation. When legislation is changed the molecular structure is easily altered to produce a new legal high.

Synthetic cannabinoids

Marketed as 'incense' and labeled "not for human consumption", these drugs were increasingly popular with students and young adults being initially legal and easily available from stores, online, head shops (outlets selling drug paraphernalia/counterculture magazines) and petrol stations. The structure of synthetic cannabinoids does not resemble that of tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) contained in marijuana or hashish, yet the drugs affect individuals in the same manner and are much more potent. Synthetic cannabinoids are sold under countless names such as 'Mr Nice Guy,' 'Spice', 'Sabbaba' and 'Lemon Grass', to name a few. Spice is a designer drug derived from herbs sprayed with synthetic chemicals which mimic the effects of cannabis. The ingredients are thus similar to but not identical to THC. Synthetic cannabis can precipitate psychosis, especially in individuals with a previous history and a chronic psychotic disorder may persist in some vulnerable patients.

A great variety of synthetic cannabinoids, most often cannabicyclohexanol, are used in an attempt to avoid prosecution. Some are sold in 'herbal' smoking mixtures and the latter have been found on occasion not to contain any synthetic cannabinoids at all. Cannabicyclohexanol is a cannabinoid receptor agonist drug. It has been sold under various brands such as Black Mamba, Bombay Blue, Fake Weed, Genie, Bliss, Blaze, Yucatan Fire. Spice products sometimes sold as "incense," more closely resemble potpourri. Although Spice is usually smoked, sometimes individuals mix it with cannabis or prepare a herbal infusion for drinking.

Table 1: Side effects of mephedrone

Common:

Hyperhidrosis

Headache

Palpitations

Nausea

Raynaud-type syndrome

<u>Uncommon</u> < 10%

Dizziness

Hallucinations

Psychosis

Dry mouth

Increased sociability

Chest pain

Blurred vision

Agitation, aggression, violence,

Hyponatraemia

Seizures and hyperthermia

Fatigue and insomnia

To create the herbal products, synthetic cannabimimetics are dissolved in an organic solvent (e.g. acetone) and the resulting solution is sprayed on plant material. The doped plant material is then dried and smoked in a similar fashion to actual cannabis. Spice products typically have a pleasurable smell and taste. They are often referred to as herbal or legal highs because of their legal status and 'natural' herbal make-up. They are distributed in the form of dried leaves or resin, and powder, and are sold without age restriction in metal-foil sachets, usually containing

3 g of vegetable matter, to which one or more of the synthetic cannabinoids have been added. Spice is typically smoked, using a pipe or by rolling in a cigarette paper, and can also be ingested as an infusion, or inhaled. $^{15\ 16}$

Drugs of the 2C family (phenethylamines containing methoxy groups attached to a benzene ring) have hallucinogenic and stimulant effects. The term '2C' refers to the 2 carbon atoms between the benzene ring and the amino group in these compounds. The effects are a cross between MDMA and LSD. They are relatively new to the market and not widely available in the UK. An excited delirium presentation seems to be consistent in deaths attributed to 2C drugs and at least five deaths have been reported in the literature in patients intoxicated with 2C drugs. One agent known as 2C-1 or Smiles, which first appeared in 2003,has more potent effects than MDMA and LSD. Users report an intense energy with vivid visual and auditory hallucinations lasting hours to days. Patients may exhibit symptoms consistent with serotonin toxicity. Doctors need to be vigilant as synthetic drugs do not show up on routine testing. Treatment of 2C intoxication is primarily supportive.17

Despite widespread Internet availability, many of these drugs remain unfamiliar to doctors and yet 'bath salts', have resulted in nationwide emergency department visits for severe agitation, sympathomimetic toxicity, and death. As with other illicit substances designer drugs may compromise cardiac function causing hypertension and tachycardia and users who inject run the well-known risks of contracting hepatitis C or HIV, thrombophlebitis and embolus formation.

Methoxetamine

Methoxetamine (also known as 'mexxy') is available on the Internet and marketed as 'legal ketamine.' It is an arylcyclohexylamine chemically related to ketamine and PCP (phencyclidine). Methoxetamine is longer acting and more potent than ketamine. The drug, a white powder, is usually taken sublingually, snorted, 'bombed', or intramuscularly. Doses are typically between 5mg-90mg orally. After snorting the drug it may take 30-90 minutes for its effects to become apparent. When injected the onset of action is usually within five to ten minutes. The overall duration of effect is within the range of 1-3 hours, sometimes longer. The drug induces feelings of detachment (dissociative state), paranoid symptoms, visual hallucinations, restlessness and increased energy in some. Other reported symptoms include confusion, depression, tachycardia hypertension. catatonia. and Methoxetamine is now a Class B drug under the Misuse of Drugs Act. 18 19

Piperazine derivatives

The piperazine derivatives, a class of amphetamine-like compounds that includes BZP (benzylpiperazine) and TFMPP (trifluoromethylphenylpiperazine) are making a comeback as

"legal ecstasy." Often perceived as safe by the public, adverse effects may range from minimal to life-threatening. Coingestion of BZP and TFMPP causes increased action of dopamine and serotonin, similar to MDMA. Severe symptoms include seizures, hyperthermia, hyponatremia, dystonic reactions, rhabdomyolysis, renal failure, metabolic acidosis, DIC, and respiratory failure. 20 Over the last few years piperazine derivatives are being sold as ecstasy pills, or under the names of "Frenzy", "Bliss", "Charge", "Herbal ecstasy", "A2", "Legal X" and "Legal E". Although piperazine designer drugs enjoy a market reputation of being safe, they may cause distorted perceptions after ingestion. There are several reports of toxic symptoms experienced by users after drug intake. The piperazinic compounds are derived from piperazine, a cyclic molecule containing two opposite nitrogen atoms and four carbon atoms distributed between the two and were originally used as anti-helminthic agents in the 1950s. Designer drugs of this class can be divided into the benzylpiperazines such as benzylpiperazine (BZP) and its methylenedioxy analogue methylenedioxybenzylpiperazine (MDBP), and phenylpiperazines such as chlorophenylpiperazine (CPP), trifluoromethylphenylpiperazine (TFMPP), methoxyphenylpiperazine (MeOPP). A third group includes the thienylmethylpiperazines. Chlorophenylpiperazine is an active metabolite of drugs such as trazodone, and nefazodone used as antidepressants. A survey in the UK found that piperazines are among the most common active drugs in tablets purchased from internet supplier sites. Piperazine-derived compounds are therefore emerging designer drugs, whose abuse has increased remarkably worldwide.21

Naphyrone

Naphyrone(*naphthylpyrovalerone*) or NRG-1 (or Energy1) is a cathinone derivative available to buy on a number of websites and is gaining popularity. It is sold as an alternative to mephedrone. Belonging to the designer drugs class, it is similar in structure to pyrovalerone, a monoamine uptake inhibitor and as it is somewhat similar to other cathinone derivatives it has the potential to produce anxiety, paranoia, and cardiovascular side effects. Two products, both sold as NRG-2 from different internet suppliers, were found to contain the banned substituted cathinones - 4-methylethcathinone (4-MEC) and 4-methylmethcathinone (4-MMC), the latter being present in much smaller quantities. Although sold as research chemicals and labelled 'not for human consumption', they are essentially legal highs and are available online. ²² ²³

Discussion

New designer drugs have increased in popularity over the past several years because of their euphoric effects. Understanding the pharmacology and toxicology of these agents is essential in order to provide the best medical care for patients. They are all potentially dangerous. For example, an excited delirium

presentation seems to be consistent amongst deaths attributed to 2C drugs.

Table 2: Some commonly used psychoactive substances

Drug	Mode of Action	How used
MDMA ('ecstasy') 'Molly' is the pure crystalline powder form	Releases and inhibits reuptake of dopamine, serotonin and noradrenaline	Tablet or capsules Sometimes one or more tablets taken at one time ('bumping')
Salvia divinorum	Partial dopamine receptor agonist; also works on kappa receptors	Smoked, inhaled, ingested, used sublingually
Mephedrone	Effects similar to MDMA, cocaine and amphetamines	Nasal insufflation, ingestion
MDVP (see text)	Related to cathinone. Effects similar to 'ecstasy'	Nasal insufflation, inhalation, ingestion
Spice	Similar to THC	Smoked; sometimes prepared as a herbal infusion for drinking
Naphyrone	Effects similar to mephedrone	Usually snorted, sometimes swallowed in paper wraps ('bombing')

From the above description it can be seen that synthetic drugs fall into three broad categories: synthetic cathinones (bath salts), synthetic cannabinoids (spice or incense), and amphetaminedrugs (methamphetamine, ephedrine, MDMA). Cathinones being related to the amphetamine family will cause dilated pupils, hypertension, hyperventilation, paranoia, agitation, hyperthermia, tremors and seizures. Many countries have made certain cathinones illegal, for example, mephedrone, methylone and MDPV. Indeed, the robust stimulation of dopamine transmission by MDPV predicts serious potential for abuse and may provide a mechanism to explain the adverse effects observed in humans taking high doses of 'bath salts' preparations. Furthermore, pyrovalerone is much more potent than cocaine at inhibiting the uptake of dopamine and norepinephrine.

Methcathinone was previously used in Russia as an antidepressant, also known as "Cat" and "Jeff" when used recreationally. Nowadays the drugs are sold as bath salts, plant food, insecticides, chicken feed additives, or research chemicals with names such as like NRG (Energy) and meow, meow. Bath salts are water-soluble, usually inorganic, solid products designed to be added to water during bathing. Numerous nicknames are used to describe them including Ivory Wave, Purple Wave, Red Dove, Zoom, Bloom, Cloud Nine, Ocean

Snow, Lunar Wave, Vanilla Sky, White Lightning, and Hurricane Charlie.

Although 'legal highs' are commonly referred to as bath salts they are not Epsom salts (magnesium sulphate) or other water softeners within the usual meaning. In many cases the chemical ingredients are changed without the consumer knowing, making risks unpredictable. Some legal highs contain active ingredients controlled under the Misuse of Drugs Act 1971 (UK). Therefore any individual found in possession of these products would be liable to prosecution and the associated penalties, even if unaware that he/she has purchased a controlled drug. However, claiming a product to be "not intended for human consumption" can potentially circumvent the entire legal process. Drug designers are already showing skilful exploitation of the law and remain far ahead of criminalization efforts. Furthermore, the irony of prohibition is that the supply and slump in the market for cocaine and ecstasy in 2009 led to individuals resorting to untried and untested substances that are now easily available online. 24 25

Synthetic cathinones are mostly excreted via the urine and can be measured via gas or liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry in the blood, urine and stomach contents. They can also be analysed in hair. Unlike traditional cosmetic bath salts, which are packaged and sold for adding to bath water for soaking and cleaning, synthetic designer drugs sold as "bath salts" have no legitimate use for bathing and are intended for abuse. Baths salts contain one or more synthetic derivatives of the naturally-occurring stimulant cathinone. Low doses produce euphoria and increase alertness, but high doses or chronic use may cause serious adverse effects. ²⁶

Treatment

Treatment should be tailored to the specific drug of abuse. Medical and psychological needs require examining. Generally, treatment uses a combination of counselling and medication to reduce the need or desire (craving) for the drug and give the person the skills to refrain from future drug use. Other treatments might include cognitive behavioural therapy, detox, and relapse prevention techniques.

Supportive care is the mainstay of treatment for untoward serious side effects. Sedation with benzodiazepines is indicated for agitation, seizures, tachycardia, and hypertension. Extreme hypertension that persists despite benzodiazepines may be treated with vasodilators. Beta blockers should be avoided due to the potential to cause unopposed alpha-adrenergic stimulation, worsening the hypertension. Significant hyperthermia may require passive or active cooling. All moderately to severe symptomatic patients should have an electrocardiogram (ECG), be placed on a cardiac monitor, and receive serial temperature checks. Electrolytes, liver function tests, cardiac enzymes creatine, and toxicology should be carried

out. Asymptomatic patients with no other suspected ingested drugs or psychiatric symptoms generally may be discharged.

Prevention

Banning legal highs is probably futile because it is impossible to keep up with newer drugs because they are synthesized as soon as the 'illegal' drug becomes banned. Some would argue that arresting users creates more harm for individuals, their families and society, as they are then caught up in the criminal system. Others may argue that 'legal highs' are not generally harmful and not as dangerous as opiates or their derivatives, or indeed alcohol. It might be more worthwhile making legal highs 'uncool', much in the same way that cigarette consumption is now frowned upon. However, it would require a great deal of public money to subsidise such an advertising venture.

Users of legal highs need to be made aware that such drugs purchased on-line may contain illegal substances and therefore may render them subject to prosecution if found in possession. ²⁷

Pre-school family based programmes, and programmes involving the school and community, motivational interviewing for adolescents, and individual programmes, may be beneficial in reducing drug use and other harmful outcomes. Importantly, none of these approaches focus exclusively on particular substances or groups of substances, and although there have been relatively few investigations of intervention processes they most likely work by targeting a number of important precursors of drug use behaviour.²⁸

Preventing designer drug abuse begins with understanding the warning signs of addiction which in many respects are similar to alcohol or more common street drugs.

Club drugs are now widely available and their harmful effects are increasingly becoming more evident. Their effects are unpredictable as they are often 'contaminated' with other harmful substances. It is unlikely that legislation will have a meaningful impact. Increasing public awareness about these drugs is paramount, and medical and nursing staff should consider intoxication in those patients who present with agitation and psychosis who have no previous history of mental health problems.

Pharmacists are in a pivotal position to observe changes in patterns of drug use and report worrying trends to health care practitioners. Counselling for young people especially and prevention programmes based in schools could prove useful in pointing out the dangers of these drugs to teenagers. Health care professional too should endeavour to keep up with recent information on these substances by attending hospital-based lectures or conferences as part of continuing professional education.

Urine drug testing will generally be unhelpful as many club drugs are undetectable on standard urine drug screens.²⁹Mental health staff should enquire about club drugs as part of routine drug and alcohol assessment and be aware that these patients may not fit the stereotype of a drug misuser.

Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

Dr Francis J Dunne, FRCPsych, Consultant Psychiatrist, Havering Community Recovery Team, 137-145 Church Road, Romford, Essex RM3 0SH. Dr Khalid Jaffar, MRCPsych, Specialist Registrar ST6, Havering Community Recovery Team, 137-145 Church Road, Romford, Essex RM3 0SH. Dr Shazia Hashmi, MRCPsych, Specialist Registrar ST6, Havering Community Recovery Team, 137-145 Church Road, Romford, Essex RM3 0SH.

CORRESSPONDENCE: Francis J Dunne, Thorpe Coombe Hospital,

The Larkswood Centre, Walthamstow, E17 3HP.

Email: dunnefrancis@googlemail.com

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Successful Anaesthetic Management of an Intra-tracheal Tumour

Harshal D Wagh

Abstract

We report a successful management of an intra-tracheal tumour in a 56 year old patient. The tumour was situated about 4 cm above the carina. The case was managed without the need of cardiopulmonary bypass. An orotracheal tube placed above the tumour was used to ventilate the lungs before the trachea was opened. A smaller tube was placed in the left bronchus to ventilate the left lung after the trachea was opened to facilitate sleeve resection and anastomosis of the trachea. The patient was extubated in the immediate postop period without any adverse effects. Careful preoperative planning and good team work made the procedure possible and without complications.

Introduction

Anaesthetic management of a patient with a tracheal tumour is challenging, as the airway is shared with the surgeon and patency must be maintained despite airway manipulation.

Several anaesthetic techniques have been used in patients requiring tracheal resection and reconstruction. Cardiopulmonary bypass standby after femoral artery and vein cannulation and then intravenous/inhalational induction while oxygenating the patient has been considered to be a reasonable approach. Intratracheal tumours are challenging to anaesthetists because of the difficulty in establishment of a patent airway before commencement of surgery. The principal anaesthetic consideration is ventilation and oxygenation in the face of an open airway.

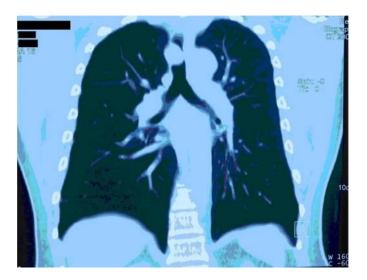
Case report

A 56 year old male with no other co-morbidities presented to the Thoracic Oncology department with a history of progressive dyspnoea and orthopnoea. On examination he was found to have dyspnoea at rest and could not complete full sentences while talking. Change of position made no difference to his symptoms.

Routine blood investigations which included full blood count, renal and liver functions, coagulation profile, ECG and 2DEcho were within normal limits. PFT showed a typical intrathoracic obstructive picture.

His chest X-ray showed bilateral hyperinflated lungs suggesting airtrapping. CT of the chest showed an intratracheal growth about 4 cm above the carina almost completely obstructing the lumen. An awake flexible bronschoscopy confirmed the CT scan findings. A 2.7mm flexible bronschocope was passed with difficulty beyond the tumour to visualise the carina. Excision of the intratracheal tumour was planned with possible resection and anastomosis of the involved tracheal segment. A careful

perioperative plan was discussed and decided in agreement with the thoracic surgeons, anaesthetist, cardiovascular surgeons and the rest of the team members.



Flexible and rigid bronchoscope, a Sanders venturi, an additional anaesthesia machine and various sizes of reinforced and normal endotracheal tubes and tracheostomy tubes were kept ready.

Preoperatively the patient had incentive spirometry and bronchodilator nebulisation and intravenous steroids. An awake epidural at T9-10 level and radial artery cannulation were done under local anaesthesia without any problems. Two 16 gauge peripheral IV lines were sited under local anaesthesia.

After adequate preoxygenation anaesthesia was induced with IV propofol along with oxygen and sevoflurane with BIS monitoring. As mask ventilation proved to be easy the patient was paralysed with suxamethonium. There was no difficulty in ventilation after muscle paralysis. An 8.5 number COETT portex tube was placed in the trachea with the cuff just beyond the cords to avoid possible trauma to the tumour. Since there was preoperative evidence of airtrapping, ventilator settings

were set to an I:E ration of 1:3 with a tidal volume of 550ml, respiratory rate of 12-14 per minute and PEEP of 4. At these ventilator settings the airway pressures were reaching up to 22 cm of H20 and ETCO2 reaching a maximum of 40mmHg. Anaesthesia was maintained with oxygen: air with sevoflurane and atarcurium for muscle paralysis.

Flexible bronchoscopy was done to confirm the position of the endotracheal tube, which showed that the ETT was adequately above the tumour.

A laryngeal drop procedure was done in the supine position with neck extension to facilitate mobilisation of the trachea for resection anastomosis. After the laryngeal drop procedure a right thoracotomy was done in the left lateral position. At this point of the procedure, the patient was ventilated with low tidal volumes of 300 and respiratory rate of 16-20 to keep the ETCO2 at around 40.The right lung was surgically retracted and the trachea was exposed up to the carina. A repeat bronchoscopy was done through the ETT to help identify the upper and lower extent of the tumour. The trachea was then opened below the tumour, after which a 6.5 reinforced tube was introduced through the left bronchus to aid ventilation of the left lung. This ETT was withdrawn intermittently to help visualisation and aid surgical excision of the tumour and sleeve resection of the trachea. The left lung was ventilated till partial closure of the trachea. The left-sided tube was then removed. Ventilation resumed through the orotracheal tube with intermittent occlusion of the defect with gauze by the surgeon. The orotracheal tube was adjusted under vision before closure of the trachea to position it above the anastomotic site. The trachea was sutured and the thoracotomy incision closed without any adverse event. The neck was kept in a flexed position to avoid tension on the tracheal anastomotic area.

The patient was then extubated in the immediate postoperative period without any problems and the recovery was uneventful.

Discussion

Anaesthetic management of a patient with a tracheal tumor is challenging, as the airway is shared with the surgeon, and patency must be maintained despite airway manipulation^{1, 2}. Several anaesthetic techniques have been used in patients requiring tracheal resection and reconstruction ^{3–5}.

Primary tracheal masses are very rare and mostly malignant, occurring in 0.2 in 1,00,000 persons per year ⁶ and among these squamous cell carcinomas form the main bulk. Cardiopulmonary bypass standby after femoral artery and vein cannulation and then intravenous/inhalational induction while oxygenating the patient with the oxygen inhalation has been considered to be a reasonable approach ⁷. Byrne JG et al (2004) advocated planned use of CPB to facilitate complete resection of thoracic malignancies after careful patient selection ⁸.

These patients are often mistaken to have asthma and require treatment with inhaled corticosteroids and beta agonists ⁹. They are generally treated for many years for asthma or COPD, unless a CT scan or endoscopic procedure is done for the symptoms ¹⁰. Intratracheal masses usually start getting symptomatic when 75% or more of the tracheal lumen is obstructed. Tracheal lesions present at lower level can have more complicated management of airway, anaesthesia and surgery for successful and safe removal of the mass. ¹⁰

Intratracheal tumours are challenging to anaesthetists because of the difficulty in establishment of a patent airway before commencement of surgery. The principal anaesthetic consideration is ventilation and oxygenation in the face of an open airway. Ventilation can be managed in many ways, including manual jet ventilation, high frequency jet ventilation, distal tracheal intubation, tracheostomy, spontaneous ventilation and CPB.¹¹

Knowledge of various techniques available for management of such cases is vital. In order to have a successful and safe outcome it is extremely important to have good communication between the anaesthetic, surgical and intensive care team.

The challenge in managing such cases lies in establishing and maintaining a patent airway and also preventing seepage of blood and tumour particles distally into the tracheobronchial tree during the surgery.

There is a possibility of total airway obstruction during ventilation attempts using positive pressure because airway obstruction has a fixed and dynamic component. Dislodgement of the tumour, possibly from trauma following intubation causing total obstruction, should also be considered.

Thus an intratracheal tumour was successfully removed without any complications and by avoiding CPB. This case report also highlights the importance of proper planning and good communication between team members to ensure a successful and safe outcome.

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RAJESH MISTRY, Consultant and Head of the Department of Oncosurgery, Kokilaben Ambani Hospital, Mumbai, India.

Competing Interests

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Author Details

DR.HARSHAL D WAGH, MBBS,DA,DNB,FCPS,FRCA(LON), Kokilaben Ambani Hospital, Mumbai, India.

CORRESSPONDENCE: DR HARSHAL WAGH, Kokilaben Ambani Hospital, Andheri, 4 Bungalows, Mumbai, 400053, INDIA. Email: drhdw@yahoo.com

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25 years of Hallucinogen Persisting Perception Disorder- A diagnostic challenge

Fabida Noushad, Qutaiba Al Hillawi, Vasantha Siram and Muhammad Arif

Abstract

We present an interesting case of a forty eight year old man who took LSD in his early twenties. He continued to experience visual perceptual disturbances for 25 years following cessation of the hallucinogen. This is a unique case, where symptoms of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder have persisted for over two decades after the cessation of Lysergic acid diethylamide. He was treated with clonazepam 1 mg four times a day with good effect. There is a need for raising awareness about this condition to prevent misdiagnosis and delay in appropriate treatment.

Keywords: LSD- Lysergic acid diethylamide

Abbreviations: EEG- electroencephalogram, MRI- magnetic resonance imaging, LSD- Lysergic acid diethylamide, DSM- Diagnostic and statistical manual, HPPD: Hallucinogen persisting perceptual disorder, SSRI- selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors.

Case report

A forty-eight year old man presented with unusual and distressing visual experiences with varying degrees of severity for over twenty years. Some of these included the following; red objects having a green shimmer around them like 3-D glasses, altered sense for distance estimation, people's faces seeming to change shape when looked at, alteration of own reflection, anything patterned appearing to move all the time, words moving about while reading, things appearing to be multi-layered, bright lights throwing up shadows, vehicles appearing to stretch as they drive past, flying birds looking like animation and difficulty in focussing.

When present, his symptoms interfered markedly with his functioning. For example, he could not cross the road, could not read, and had to dim his lights. He struggled with knowing which visual perceptions were real and which were not. The patient felt his visual experiences were related to his past LSD use twenty-five years ago. He felt the drug had put him "in a coma" and he was "dreaming all of this".

He specifically remembered a party with friends where he took a cocktail of illicit drugs, including LSD and marijuana, with alcohol. He said he would usually take drugs and alcohol in a binge pattern. The 'trips' would usually last twelve hours. He felt he experienced some memory loss of that particular night. When he woke up the next morning he was still experiencing the effects of LSD and said he has felt these effects ever since. He tried to explain that it was like drinking alcohol, waking up drunk and being drunk from that point on. After this incident he did not use illicit drugs again.

Prior to this particular night he said he may have used LSD about fifteen times, as Microdot tablets, usually one at a time,

with cannabis. He said it was "like having a tripping switch in your brain". When you took LSD, "the switch turned the tripping on and after a while it turned off". He said his switch "was broken" and he therefore continued to re-experience the effects of the drug.

His other complaint was that of feeling he was "not real"; to the extent he even thought he should harm his family members so he could prove he was real.

He also complained of low mood, decreased concentration, anxiety and an inability to cope.

His first contact with mental health services was at the age twenty two years. He presented with symptoms of anxiety but it was not felt he had a mental illness. He was referred again a year later and was diagnosed to have Primary Depersonalization syndrome.

The patient himself reported that all his symptoms started after he had used LSD about fifteen times in six months. At the time he had described having undergone a complete personality change due to his experiences. He felt objects and experiences had a dream-like quality. His visual experiences caused so much distress he felt suicidal.

Over the next twenty-five years he has had various other diagnoses; LSD induced Depersonalisation Syndrome, Depersonalisation-Derealisation Syndrome, LSD induced Simple schizophrenia, depressive disorder and anxiety disorders. His visual disturbances had been interpreted as visual hallucinations. He had received treatment with antidepressants (Imipramine, Amitriptyline, and Venlafaxine); antipsychotics (Trifluperazine, Promazine); Benzodiazepines (Diazepam);

Table 1: Change in symptoms with Clonazepam

DSM IV/V Symptom Checklist	Prior to treatment with Clonazepam	3 months after initiation of Clonazepam treatment
Geometric hallucinations	Present	Absent
False perception of movement in peripheral fields	Present	Absent
Flashes of colour	Present	Absent
Intensified colours	Present	Absent
Trails of images of moving objects	Present	Absent
Positive after images	Present	Absent
Halos around objects	Present	Present but reduced in intensity and frequency
Macropsia	Present	Absent
Micropsia	Present	Absent

Propranolol; and Fentazine. He was also prescribed Hydergine (which helped reduce symptoms briefly) at one point.

Investigations: EEG, MRI Brain, and Carotid ultrasound were normal.

He was admitted to a psychiatric hospital at the age of forty-eight years old where the admitting doctor described his symptoms as visual hallucinations and started him on Risperidone, which increased the intensity of his symptoms. He was also treated with Citalopram for his low mood. It was noted that his symptoms were different from common psychotic illnesses. Detailed history taking and assessment of his perceptual abnormalities over the following few weeks in hospital confirmed the diagnosis of hallucinogen persisting perception disorder (HPPD).

He was treated with Clonazepam 1 mg four times a day with good effect; as seen by the reduction of symptoms - see Table 1.

After discharge he had .a depressive episode and was treated with Escitalopram. This was later changed to Reboxetine.

Discussion:

This is the first case that we are aware of where symptoms of HPPD have persisted for over two decades after the cessation of the use of Lysergic acid diethylamide. There is a need for raising awareness about this condition to prevent misdiagnosis and delay in appropriate treatment.

This patient presented to psychiatric services over twenty-five years ago and at that time he felt his symptoms were related to his use of LSD. He was given a variety of different diagnoses before the correct diagnosis was established and treatment initiated with good outcome.

The patient had also experienced migraines and used alcohol excessively on occasions in the past. Although we are not aware of any connection between this disorder and these factors, future reports and studies may help provide further knowledge in these areas.

HPPD is a recognised condition described in DSM V and DSM IV with a diagnostic code 292.89. In DSM III it was referred to as post hallucinogen perception disorder (PHPD). It is described in ICD 10 under the code F16.983.

LSD has been known to alter perception and mood in the presence of an unaltered sensorium. HPPD was first described by Eisner and Cohen, who observed spontaneous recurrences of LSD like states in subjects, days to weeks following cessation of drug use¹.

Other authors have described more or less the same clinical picture; for example, Rosenthal described patients suffering from post-drug visual hallucinations lasting as long as five months from the time of drug use²

In a survey of sixty five users of LSD, Holsten found fifty users who described post LSD disturbances eighteen months to four years later³.

Flashbacks have been suggested to be a misnomer as patients described cases of continuous rather than paroxysmal visual disturbances from LSD 4

It is not clear what made our patient re-experience these visual disturbances however the literature suggests that emerging into a dark environment can precipitate or exacerbate post LSD visual symptoms. Among other precipitating factors are intentional inductions, marijuana use, medications like: neuroleptics (phenothiazine), amphetamines, cold remedies, anti-Parkinson's agents and SSRI's⁵.

The patient mentioned that he had ingested LSD approximately fifteen times before he developed this condition. The data suggests that peak incidence occurs with fifteen exposures and second smaller peaks at around forty to fifty exposures ⁶.

A number of hypotheses have been formulated in order to understand the underlying aetiology. HPPD is related to the recreation of symptoms experienced in intoxication. LSD has been shown to be excitotoxic to neurons. It is also known to be a partial agonist at post synaptic 5HT2 receptors and enhances glutaminergic transmission.

The patient had suffered from these rather distressing visual disturbances for more than two decades, which have had considerable impact on his daily living. He was given different diagnoses which included Induced depersonalisation, depersonalisation-derealisation syndrome, LSD induced simple schizophrenia, depressive disorder and anxiety disorders.

The patient had been treated with different psychotropic medications including antidepressants, antipsychotics, benzodiazepines, propranolol, fentazine and hydergine. Some had little effect like hydergine, whilst others worsened symptoms, in particular antipsychotic medications.

A case series of three HPPD patients treated with Risperidone reported an exacerbation of LSD-like panic and visual symptoms. Thus from these reports and our case report Risperidone could be contraindicated in patients with HPPD ⁷.

There have been some published case reports on treatment of HPPD, including the use of Reboxetine, which suggest it is beneficial in the treatment of the visual disturbances and depressive features associated with HPPD. This is possibly due to its alpha 2 adrenoceptor modulating effect on both Noradrenaline and Serotonin release⁸. Another case report suggested the use of a combination of Fluoxetine and Olanzapine in the treatment of HPPD⁹.

Benzodiazepines seem to be the most beneficial treatment so far and Clonazepam is the most effective due to its high potency compared to low potency Benzos and its long action at the GABA receptors¹⁰.

Conclusion:

Hallucinogen Persisting Perception Disorder is one of the outcomes associated with the ingestion of LSD. Symptoms can be present for years as demonstrated by different case reports, and for over two decades as reported in this report. The effect could be devastating to the person experiencing extremely distressing and disturbing perceptual phenomenon. It can last up to twenty five years after the cessation of the hallucinogenic

drug. Early diagnosis and appropriate treatment can significantly help improve the quality of life of patients with this condition.

Competing Interests

None declared

Author Details

FABIDA NOUSHAD, MRCPsych, Consultant Psychiatrist, Leicestershire Partnership NHS Trust, UK. QUTAIBA AL HILLAWI, MRCPsych, Speciality Trainee ST6, Norfolk And Suffolk Foundation Trust, UK. VASANTHA SIRAM, MRCPsych, Specialty Trainee ST4, Leicestershire Partnership NHS Trust, UK. MUHAMMAD ARIF, MRCPsych, Consultant Psychiatrist, Leicestershire Partnership NHS Trust. UK.

CORRESSPONDENCE: DR MUHAMMAD ARIF, Consultant Psychiatrist, Bradgate Mental Health Unit, Groby Road, Leicester, LE3 9EJ, UK.

Email: muhammad.arif@leicspart.nhs.uk

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Refractory Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation Following Ovarian Torsion and Rupture in a Pregnant Patient

Joelle Williams, Amaju Ikomi, Chanaka Karunaratne and Preethi Angala

Abstract

This report describes a case of a 36 year old pregnant woman presenting at 33 weeks' gestation with torsion and rupture of a malignant ovarian tumour. She undergoes an emergency laparotomy, Caesarean section and oophorectomy following which develops severe Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation (DIC) develops. Persistent blood loss warranted multiple surgical explorations, as well as, blood and blood product transfusions in excess of 100 units. Additional complications that arose included hyperkalaemia and VF cardiac arrest. The clinician should be alerted to the possibility of a deleterious coagulopathy which may be seen following a malignant ovarian tumour rupture and torsion.

Keywords: ovarian cancer, tumour, rupture, pregnancy, Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation, haemorrhage

Abbreviations: DIC- Disseminated Intravascular Coagulation, DVT - Deep vein thromboses, IABP -Invasive Arterial Blood Pressure, FFP - Fresh Frozen Plasma

Case report

A 36 year old multiparous woman presented to the Labour Ward at 33 weeks' gestation with lower abdominal pain. She had mild asthma and her obstetric history included 2 previous normal vaginal deliveries.

At 16 weeks' gestation she was found during antenatal scanning to have a right ovarian cystic lesion measuring 59x34x50mm. This was monitored and a repeat scan at 25 weeks' showed it had increased in size to 73x55x47mm.

At 32 weeks' she was diagnosed with a DVT and was commenced on therapeutic enoxaparin (stopped two days before current presentation). (D-Dimer > 4000micrograms/L). An inferior vena cava filter was inserted. The patient declined any surgical intervention of the cystic lesion during pregnancy and an early elective Caesarean Section with surgical management of the cyst at 34 weeks' gestation was planned. She had no symptoms or signs suggestive of a PE and was not formally investigated for one prior her current presentation.

On this presentation at 33 weeks' gestation, her pain suddenly worsened with associated hypotension and evidence of foetal distress and so an emergency exploratory laparotomy was performed.

Admission haematology results: haemoglobin 10g/dL, platelets 158 x 10^9 /L, INR 1.0, APTT 28.4 seconds, APTT ratio 1, fibrinogen 3g/L.

She underwent a rapid sequence induction in the supine wedged position using thiopentone and suxamethonium. She was a Grade 1 intubation and anaesthesia was maintained with oxygen/nitrous oxide/sevoflurane and muscle relaxation was

achieved with atracurium. A ruptured, torted right ovarian mass containing an estimated one litre of altered blood was noted. At Caesarean section a live male infant was delivered. A right oophrectomy was then performed. The infant was subsequently intubated and transferred to the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit.

Oxytocin 5IU followed by a 40IU infusion over 4 hours was administered following delivery of the baby. Effective haemostats was achieved, the uterus appeared well-contracted and the patient's abdomen was closed. Surgical blood loss was estimated as 600mls (excluding blood within the ovarian mass).

Thirty minutes following completion of surgery the patient, fresh blood was noted vaginally. A HemoCue* reading was taken as 5.9g/dL. Four units of blood and two units of FFP were transfused whilst a second laparotomy was performed. Fresh blood was noted intra-abdominally and the uterus was markedly atonic. Ergometrine 500mcg and carboprost trimethamine 250mcg were administered intramuscularly, as well as, misoprostol 800mg vaginally. A hysterectomy was performed due to the rate of bleeding and the evident haemodynamic instability.

Coagulation studies: platelets 27 x 10⁹/L, INR 1.4, APTT 101.8 seconds, APTT ratio 3.6 and fibringen 1g/L.

A further 4 units of blood, 4 units of FFP, 1 pool of platelets and 2 units of cryoprecipitate were transfused. Factor VII was also administered on advice from the Haematologist.

An internal jugular central venous catheter was inserted and a noradrenaline infusion started. Initial attempts to insert an arterial cannula were unsuccessful as peripheral pulses were difficult to palpate. Venous blood gas readings revealed hyperkalaemia (K+ 6.4mmol/L) which was treated with sodium

bicarbonate, 10mls 10% calcium chloride and a continuous 50% dextrose and insulin infusion. Her abdomen was packed and percutaneous drains were inserted. Anaesthesia, close monitoring and resuscitation continued.

Ongoing output from drains prompted a third exploration after an hour. There was generalised oozing particularly around the bed of the resected ovary in the pouch of Douglas.

Coagulation profile: platelets 50 x 10⁹/L, INR 1.4, APTT 89.6 seconds, APTT ratio 3.1 seconds, fibrinogen 1.4g/dL.

A further 10 units of blood, 3 pools of platelets, 5 units of FFP and 3 units of cryoprecipitate were transfused. Sequential coagulation profiles and thromboelastography were used to guide transfusion.

During this exploration, ECG revealed a broad complex tachycardia with no palpable pulse confirming cardiac arrest likely secondary to hypovolaemia and/or hyperkalaemia. Return of spontaneous circulation was achieved after 3 cycles of continuous cardiac massage, 4 direct current shocks and adrenaline 1 mg.

A femoral artery cut-down was performed and arterial cannula was inserted by a general surgeon. IABP monitoring commenced.

A fourth exploration was carried out around two hours later for ongoing blood loss. Again only generalised oozing was noted particularly from the oophrectomy site. Her abdomen was repacked.

Coagulation profile: haemoglobin 7.4g/dL, INR 1.2, APTT 48.9 seconds, APTT ratio 1.7, fibrinogen 1.9g/dL, platelets 94 x 10^9 /L.

She was transferred to the ICU eight hours from the start of the primary operation. Estimated total blood loss was 13,200mls. Transfusions continued and her abdomen was closed two days later. She received haemofiltration therapy for acute kidney injury. She recovered to her premorbid level with no neurological deficit before being discharged with her baby a few weeks later. In total, she was transfused 64 units of blood, 35 units of FFP, 10 pools of platelets and 11 units of cryoprecipitate. Histology of the ovarian mass revealed high grade clear cell carcinoma for which she received chemotherapy but unfortunately she died two years later.

Discussion

The association between cancer and thromboembolism has been well established for many decades. Ovarian cancer patients have one of the highest incidences of VTE amongst cancer patients, particularly clear cell carcinoma (CCC). One study found the incidence of thromboembolic complications to be

significantly higher in CCC when compared with other epithelial types of ovarian cancer (27.3% vs 6.8%).²

The pathological mechanism behind the hypercoaguable state induced in ovarian cancer patients appears to be largely multifaceted. A variety of procoagulant subtances may be involved. Of particular interest is tissue factor (TF), a potent procoagulant found in endothelial and blood cells, as well as, in tumour cells. TF may play an important role in this hypercoaguable state through activation of the coagulation cascade. TF is frequently over-expressed in ovarian cancer tissue and there is research suggesting it influences tumour progression. 3,4

A hyperviscosity syndrome may also be seen in association with ovarian cancer which favours thrombosis and may accelerate tumour progression and metastasis.DVT is a recognised complicating factor of ovarian cancer which may adversely affect the course of the disease possibly as a component of this hyperviscosity syndrome^{5,6} Ovarian cancer patients are also vulnerable to developing cerebrovascular complications and carry a higher risk of developing ischaemic strokes which has a significant impact on morbidity and mortality.⁷

The hypercoagulable state seen in cancer patients can have a spectrum of manifestations that ranges from DIC to massive thromboembolism. DIC in these instances is usually chronic and subclinical.⁸

The degree of coagulopathy which was seen in this case could not be attributed solely to dilutional effects incurred through fluid resuscitation. Instead we propose the acute severe coagulopathy was a consequence of procoagulant factors inherent to neoplastic tissue, including TF, which were suddenly released into the circulation following rupture and surgery to the ovarian tumour. The overall result would be widespread activation of the clotting cascade and a consumptive coagulopathy.

This case aims to increase awareness of a refractory coagulopathy which may be seen following rupture and/or surgical resection of a malignant ovarian tumour. The presence of an ovarian cyst especially in conjunction with evidence of vascular thrombosis in pregnancy should raise suspicion for an ovarian malignancy and hence vigilance for this potential complication. Anticipation of such a severe coagulopathy and associated significant blood loss should pre-empt early establishment of invasive monitoring, ample intravenous access and ensuring quick access to blood and blood products. Bedside coagulation tests such as thromboelastography are useful guides to blood product transfusion. Prompt mobilisation of resources, multi-disciplinary input and effective team work were crucial factors which facilitated the management of this case.

Acute, severe DIC associated with ovarian intratumoural bleed which resolves following resection of the tumour has been

reported previously.¹⁰ This is the first case to the best of our knowledge occurring following ovarian cancer torsion and rupture during pregnancy.

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None declared

Author Details

JOELLE WILLIAMS(MBBS), Basildon Hospital, Nethermayne, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL, United Kingdom. AMAJU IKOMI(MSc FRCOG), Basildon Hospital, Nethermayne, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL, United Kingdom. CHANAKA KARUNARATNE (FRCA), Basildon Hospital, Nethermayne, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL, United Kingdom. PREETHI ANGALA(FRCOG), Basildon Hospital, Nethermayne, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL, United Kingdom. CORRESSPONDENCE: JOELLE WILLIAMS, Basildon Hospital, Nethermayne, Basildon, Essex, SS16 5NL, United Kingdom. Email: joellesw011@gmail.com

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A feasibility study to establish a Deliberate Self-harm Register in a state hospital in southern India.

Rajgopal Rajendra, Murali Krishna, Sumanth Majgi, Narendra Heggere, Catherine Robinson and Rob Poole

Abstract

Background: Deliberate self harm (DSH) registers are the first step towards understanding self-harm in developing countries. Aims: To determine the feasibility of a DSH register in a state hospital in India.

Methods: For each individual presenting with DSH between February and July 2012, data was collected by interview and from records. Time taken for complete data entry was recorded. The proportion of DSH patients correctly identified and traced after admission was recorded, indicating 'representativeness', the proportion for whom a full data set was captured was recorded, indicating 'completeness', and the proportion willing to be included in the register and followed up was recorded, indicating 'acceptability'.

Results: 1072 presented with deliberate self-harm. All inpatient survivors (817) were traced and none objected to their details being entered on the register. Of 1023 on the register, complete data was available for 740 (72.3%). Data was incomplete for 283 (27.7%). All 1023 had performed an act of self-harm necessitating medical intervention. The time between identification and completion of data entry ranged from 30 minutes to 2 hours.

Conclusions: It is feasible to establish an accurate, reliable and complete DSH register in a large Indian state hospital. The clinical and service implications are discussed.

Keywords: Self-harm, Register, Feasibility, Developing Countries.

Abbreviations: DSH: Deliberate Self Harm, ICD: International Classification of disorders

BACKGROUND

Suicide and deliberate self-harm (DSH) have been recognised as major public health problems in India for some time, but there are significant obstructions to effective intervention including difficulties in following Western models to understand these behaviours. $^{1, 2, 3}$

The World Health Organisation (WHO) recognises suicide as one of the three leading causes of death in young adults globally. The greatest burden of suicide is now in low- and middle-income countries like India where annual suicide rates are 10-11 per 100,000. Fi. 6, 7 India is second only to China in the absolute number of annual deaths by suicide. The number of individuals who die by suicide each year in India alone is more than the total number of suicides in the four top ranked European countries combined. Fig. 8.

DSH, defined as intentional self-poisoning or self-injury, is a closely related public health problem. WHO estimates that for every suicide there are at least 10-20 DSH acts. In this estimated proportion, based on Western research, is also true in India then there are 1-2 million DSH acts in India each year.

Official data for 2005 suggest that 19.6% (n=22,327) of India's 113,914 officially recorded suicides were self-poisonings with pesticides⁷ (predominately organophosphates, which are freely available and widely used in agriculture). The official suicide rate for India, 10.3 per 100,000 in 2005,⁷ is thought to be an under-estimate.^{3, 11} Studies from several regions suggest that

India's suicide rates may be as high as 40 per 100,000 and that 30% or more of these deaths are due to pesticide self-poisoning. The studies reporting the highest suicide rates within India are from Tamil Nadu (>60 per 100,000 – three times higher than the official figure for the state). The statistics and findings in local studies may be due to urban-rural differences in the incidence of suicide, data collated by the Indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in India occur in non-urban areas. The incidence of suicides in India occur in such areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in India occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in India occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in India occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in India occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in Indian occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in Indian occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in Indian occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in Indian occur in non-urban areas. The indian police suggest that around 90% of suicides in Indian occur in non-urban areas.

India's centrally collated self-harm and suicide data are unreliable owing to a number of factors. Death registration processes are below Western standards. Only about 25% of deaths are registered and only about 10% are medically certified. 16, 17 Attempted suicide is a crime in India. 18 Survivors are interviewed by the police. Fear of legal and social consequences following an act of self-harm probably influence willingness to acknowledge DSH and preparedness to seek medical intervention.

India contributes almost 20% to the world's population, and suicides rates are increasing particularly amongst the young.^{11,} Obtaining reliable and nationally representative data on DSH rates in India should be a priority for health-funding agencies over the next decade. In order to reduce fatalities following self-

harm, information and investment are needed to improve quality, affordability and accessibility of health care close to the affected communities.²⁰

If, as seems likely, self-harm (especially pesticide poisoning) occurs predominantly in rural areas of India, ¹¹ Western models of data collection and intervention aimed at reducing pesticide poisoning (which is predominately accidental in developed economies) are likely to require significant modification to be reliable and effective. The WHO's global suicide prevention strategy is largely based on findings from research and models of suicide prevention developed in the West. ²¹Health care resources in rural areas of India are thinly spread, and are often rudimentary compared to those in the West. There is an urgent need for research in low- and middle-income communities – particularly in rural areas of India – to provide the evidence base to underpin public health strategies for preventing pesticide suicides in these countries.

The establishment of DSH registers is a first step towards the systematic collection of data in relation to self-harm, both for epidemiological purposes and to understand pesticide self-poisoning at an individual level. If DSH registers can be shown to generate reliable information in India, in due course it may be possible to identify the factors that put individuals at risk of behaving in this way, and create relevant evidence-based policies to develop interventions for reducing mortality and morbidity associated with DSH (particularly pesticide poisoning).

This paper explores the feasibility of setting up a DSH register in a resource-poor large State hospital in south India, where rates of suicide and DSH are high.

METHODS

Setting

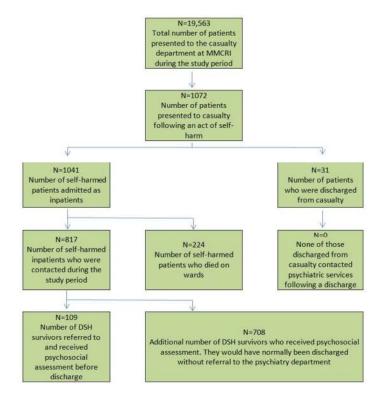
This study was carried out at Mysore Medical College and Research Institution (MMCRI), a State-run hospital in Mysore, southern India. The hospital serves a catchment area of 1,500,000 population and 135 primary health centres. The hospital has most specialities, with 1050 beds and a 10-bedded intensive care unit. 800-1000 patients attend the hospital outpatient department daily. Daily attendance to the casualty department for the purpose of medico-legal registration (which includes self-harm) is between 110 and 130. All other presentations including emergencies are managed through respective speciality outpatient departments.

Setting up of the register

The flow diagram (Fig. 1) illustrates the care pathway of those presenting with DSH to MMCRI highlighting that only a few receive psychosocial assessment. A working group of psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, casualty medical officers, statisticians and hospital managers was formed to arrive at a consensus on the minimum dataset that could be gathered

from DSH survivors for the purpose of setting up a register. Literature on establishing self-harm registers was reviewed along with international guidelines in relation to self-harm assessment in the general hospital. ^{22, 23} Opinion was sought from senior psychiatrists and public health personnel from the private and public sector in Mysore and from the United Kingdom (UK). The team was visited, supported and advised by the Centre for Mental Health and Society, Bangor, UK.

Figure 1. Care Pathway for deliberate self-harm (DSH) at Mysore Medical College and Research Institution (MMCRI)



The items listed in Table 1 were considered as 'minimal yet essential' for informing clinical practice, service development and patient engagement in future research. The study was not externally funded and, due to time and resource implications, it was agreed that outcomes of mental health assessments would not be recorded in the register. The method of DSH was coded according to the International Classification of Diseases 10th Revision (ICD-10) criteria²⁴ and socio-economic indicators were derived from a modified Kuppuswamy's scale²⁵ that is validated for the south Indian urban population.

An electronic DSH register was set up in February 2013 and is currently held in the Department of Psychiatry, MMCRI, and Mysore. Two pre-registration House Officers (junior resident equivalent) visited the casualty department daily and identified those cases registered as self-harm from both the standard patient register and medico-legal case registers. If the individual was discharged from casualty (condition necessitated no further treatment, no intensive care bed available, or patient chose admission in private sector after first aid) the available information is captured from the registers and medical records. If they admitted to the general hospital they were traced and

personally contacted. Information (as in Table 1) was collected from DSH survivors and from medical records. The data was verified by a Consultant Psychiatrist before being entered in the register. DSH survivors are asked to provide two contact details (postal address and phone number) for future tracing if they consent to further contact either in person or by phone. Table 2 is a list of the sources of data for the DSH register in Mysore and their limitations.

Table 1. Contents of the deliberate self-harm (DSH) register.

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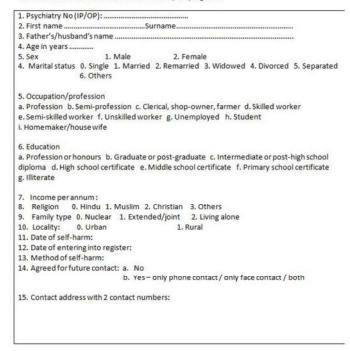


Table 2. Sources of data for deliberate self harm (DSH) register in Mysore and their limitations.

Table 2. Sources of data for deliberate self harm (DSH) register in Mysore and their limitations.

Casualty cards / registration forms

Some detail. Rely on hard-pressed staff. Time-consuming.

Casualty register

Potential to catch all groups. Easy to collect. Lack of detail. Depends on reception is tidentifying presenting complaint or casualty of ficer's discharge code.

Medico-legal register

Potential to catch all those who have 'admitted' that they have self harmed". Easy to collect. L detail.

Mental health assessment

(Those seen by psychiatric service - after admission to a general hospital bed). Detailed inform Not all those admitted after DSH referred. Locally less than 5% of DSH admissions seen by psyc services.

In-patient records and information system

Some detail. Easy to collect. Admissions only. No electronic records in this hospital.

*Attempt to self-harm is a reportable criminal offence.

Feasibility

A DSH register should be representative, complete and accurate. The register should be acceptable to the entrants and only take a minimal time for data collection and registration. For the purpose of this study the following were identified as indicators of feasibility:

- Time between identifying that the patient should be included in the register and completion of data entry in the register. This was recorded for 80 randomly chosen inpatient DSH survivors.
- The proportion of patients presenting with alleged DSH who were correctly identified and, if admitted to the general hospital, traced for the purpose of inclusion to the register (representativeness).
- Proportion of those included in the register for whom a full data set could be captured (completeness).
- Proportion of the DSH survivors who were willing to be included in the register and provided contact details for future follow-up (acceptability).
- Over a period of a week, every month during study period February 2013 to July 2013, a Consultant Psychiatrist independently collected data from casualty registers and checked against the total number registered on the DSH register for the corresponding month (accuracy).

RESULTS

Between February 2013 and July 2013, a total of 19,563 patients attended the casualty department. Of these, 1072 attended in relation to self-harm. 1041 of them were hospitalised for further intervention. All of those who were hospitalised and survived (n=817) were traced and contacted. None objected to their details being entered on the register. However, only 253 of the 817 (30.9%) agreed to be contacted for future follow-up. Of the 817, only 109 (13%) had been formally referred to the psychiatry department for an assessment prior to contact with the research team. None of the 817 had any involvement with Social Services.

Out of the 1023 on the register, complete data was available and/or obtained for 740 (72.3%) individuals and data was incomplete for 283 (27.7%) patients. Either by reviewing the medical records or interviewing the patient, it was confirmed in all 1023 cases that there had been an act of self-harm necessitating medical intervention. The time between identifying that the patient should be included in the register and completion of data entry in the register varied between 30 minutes and 2 hours. When the data collected was cross-verified (n=315) by a Consultant Psychiatrist (author RR), entries of 310 individuals were accurate, with a minor discrepancy in less than 3 items for another 5 individuals.

Various terminologies were used to report a case of DSH in the case records (for example, suicide attempt, failed suicide, self-harm, poisoning, deliberate harm).

DISCUSSION

This is the first description of a method of successfully setting up and maintaining a DSH register in an Indian setting. It was a labour-intensive exercise due of lack of electronic patient data management, administrative support and the absence of an agreed care pathway for DSH in the hospital. Despite these obstructions, we have illustrated that it is feasible to set up a DSH register in a busy tertiary care hospital in India. Results of our study indicate that the register details are accurate and representative of those who seek help from the specialist centre. However, it cannot capture those patients whose DSH was managed successfully within primary health centres, those individuals who failed to seek help and those who died before admission.

Clinical Implications

The experience of establishing a DSH register has lead to changes in local clinical practice. DSH is associated with increased morbidity and increased utilisation of health services.²⁶ DSH survivors who were contacted (n=817) by the psychiatry residents were offered psychosocial assessments. Under normal circumstances, 708 (87%) of this group would not have received any psychosocial assessment. The process of setting up the register has helped to identify DSH cases so that an intervention can be offered before discharge from the general hospital. The register has also played a major role in the identification of people who harmed themselves but were discharged without admission to a ward. This group can also be helped. We have now developed an education and service information leaflet which includes emergency contact details (similar to a crisis card in the UK), which is given to DSH patients on discharge. These are known to decrease the repetition of DSH in the developed world.²⁷ Deaths from suicide are largely preventable if knowledge and understanding of this maladaptive behaviour is used to ensure timely intervention.8

By auditing DSH data in a systematic way, clinical decision-making will be based on pooled experience, not just on each clinician's recall. Comprehensive registers of DSH provide clinicians with the opportunity to review cases of suicide where they have had clinical involvement, using techniques such as psychological autopsy, improving clinical skills and judgements. Overall there is a need for an attitude of vigilance about suicide risk, and of enthusiasm about pursuing initiatives for suicide prevention based on evidence. Better understanding of self-harm will assist in devising means of reaching out to those at risk of dying without having had contact with health care services.

Reporting of DSH in case records was inconsistent. There is a need for uniform recording, medical coding and reporting of DSH. In the DSH register, the method of self-harm is recorded using an international recognised coding system (e.g. ICD-10).

If we continue to offer psychiatric assessment to all cases of DSH, the much higher rate of ascertainment arising from the DSH register will place further strain on an already stretched psychiatric service. Further investment in services specifically targeting self-harm in India is urgently needed.

Service Implications

Use of the register

The register creates an opportunity for a standing DSH audit, allowing for identification of trends over time and comparisons with other services that establish DSH registers using similar methods. Systematic collection of demographic and clinical data will allow calculation of admission rates, repetition rates and other indices of importance in service development. Collaboration with non-governmental organisations in the region who work with those who self-harm will allow development and evaluation of specific culturally appropriate interventions.

Where the register should be held?

In the developed world DSH registers are normally held on electronic systems in the Accident and Emergency department or liaison psychiatric services. In India, it is a mandatory obligation to hold a medico-legal register (which includes DSH) in casualty. Maintaining an additional DSH register risks unnecessary duplication, but modification of a medico-legal register creates an ethical problem and risks under-reporting. There are few liaison psychiatry services in India. On balance, we suggest that our practice of holding the DSH register within the department of adult psychiatry is the optimal arrangement in the Indian setting.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality must be respected. In the UK, when establishing a DSH register, it is necessary to discuss issues of confidentiality and legality with the local Data Protection Officer, and to register under the Data Protection Act. Use of the data for research purposes requires approval from local Research Ethics Committees. In India, there is little regulation of this sort. In order to establish our register it was only necessary to obtain consultant approval and consent through the local medical committee. We suggest that good practice would demand that standards of confidentiality and oversight should, as far as possible, match Western standards.

Manpower and resources

Setting up this register in Mysore required input by a Consultant Psychiatrist, for 2 sessions per week for 6 months, to negotiate with casualty medical officers, consultant physicians and reception staff. The resident from the psychiatry department spent at least 2 hours a day collating and updating the register. The absence of a patient electronic data system and lack of administrative support has placed additional strain on residents and has prolonged the time to identify a case of DSH from the casualty records and trace them on the medical wards. We believe that once the register is established, these tasks could be managed by a trained Social Worker spending 1 session per day collecting the data and 1 session per week editing the register. The work load might vary in other hospitals, depending on the number of daily hospital attendances for DSH.

Integration with other data sources

Linking this register with post mortem records, local civil registration of deaths and police records is desirable but this needs co-ordinated effort from several civil bodies and public health organisations. In the absence of any legislation or national record linkage systems, there are few motivators to drive this change or the allocation of resources. However, a unique person identification number system is presently being rolled out across India. The development of cross-agency electronic databases will facilitate easier record linkage in the future, which creates the opportunity for collection of reliable and representative data at a regional level.

None of those who were contacted during the study period had any formal input from Social Services. Though the models and mode of delivery by Social Services in India is radically different to those in Europe, DSH survivors form a stigmatised vulnerable group who are frequently in need of social assessment and support.

Future investment and development

There are good humanitarian reasons to seek the decriminalisation of acts of self-harm in India, and there is presently strong lobbying to bring this about. It is reasonable to suppose that this might lead to readier help-seeking and better reporting of self-harm and suspected suicide. However, there are other measures that would be necessary to reduce rates of DSH and completed suicide. Regulating the supply of organophosphate insecticides, so that they are only available in dilutions that make fatal overdose more difficult, would be one such measure. There is also a need to develop liaison psychiatric services, offering psychosocial assessments to a higher proportion of those who present with features indicative of probable self-harm. Other necessary developments include investment in patient electronic records and systematic strategies for destigmatisation of DSH.

The register has provided us with a cohort of individuals who are willing to be contacted for future studies. The register has continued beyond the study period. We presently have 3720 individuals on the register. The unit has established formal links with research centres in the UK. We intend to carry out longitudinal studies to examine the patterns of DSH, rates of repetition, compliance with follow-up and suicide rates. This will help to identify the culture-specific access, adherence and prognostic factors, and will influence the development and validation of brief psychosocial interventions in a social, economic and cultural context that is radically different to the West.

CONCLUSIONS

We have illustrated that it is feasible to set up a DSH register in a busy tertiary care hospital in India where rates of self-harm are high. Results of our study indicate that the register details are accurate and representative of those who seek help from the specialist centre.

Very few were referred for psychosocial assessment following an act of self-harm and none of them had any formal input from Social Services. Though the models and mode of delivery by Social Services in India is radically different to those in Europe, DSH survivors form a stigmatised vulnerable group who are frequently in need of social assessment and support.

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None declared

Author Details

RAJAGOPAL RAJENDRA, Associate Professor, Department of Psychiatry, Mysore Medical College and Research Institute, Mysore, India. MURALI KRISHNA, Early Career Research Fellow, Wellcome Department of Biotechnology (DBT) Alliance and Consultant Psychiatrist at CSI Holdsworth Memorial Hospital, Mysore, India. SUMANTH M MAJGI, Assistant Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Mysore Medical College and Research Institute, Mysore, India. NARENDRA HEGGERE, Assistant Professor in Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, Mysore Medical College and Research Institute, Mysore, India. CATHERINE A. ROBINSON, Professor of Social Policy Research, Centre for Mental Health and Society, School of Social Sciences, Bangor University, United Kingdom. ROB POOLE, Professor of Social Sciences, Bangor University, United Kingdom.

CORRESSPONDENCE: DR MURALI KRISHNA, Early Career Research Fellow, Wellcome DBT Alliance and Consultant Psychiatrist at CSI Holdsworth Memorial Hospital, PO Bo 28 Mandi – Mohalla, Mysore, India PIN 570021

Email: muralidoc@gmail.com

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