

1 **The utility of magnetic resonance angiography in children with nutcracker**
2 **syndrome**

3 **Abstract**

4 **Background/aim:** The presented study aimed to evaluate the utility of magnetic
5 resonance angiography(MRA) in the pediatric population with nutcracker syndrome.

6 **Materials and methods:** Patients with suggestive clinical symptoms and laboratory
7 findings and got the diagnosis of nutcracker syndrome with Doppler ultrasonography
8 between January 2011-2019 were included in the study. In addition, children who had
9 renal MRA due to hypertension were evaluated as the control group. MRA images of all
10 patients were examined retrospectively by three radiologists at different levels of
11 experience, and the superior mesenteric artery angle, aorta-mesenteric distance, left renal
12 vein diameter both in the regions of aorta-mesenteric and renal hilum were recorded.

13 **Results:** Forty-five patients diagnosed with nutcracker syndrome were included in the
14 study. The mean age of patients was 12 (4-16) and 30 (67%) were female. As the control
15 group, 25 patients with hypertension who had MRA were included and they had a mean
16 age of 12 (1-18) and 19 (76%) were male. The mean superior mesenteric artery angle was
17 26.5 ° (16-73 ± 12) in the patient group and 57.8 ° (25-139, ± 33) in the control group (p
18 <0.001); the mean aorta-mesenteric distance was 3.3 mm (1.7-6.5, ± 1.1) in the patient
19 group and 8 mm (3.4-32, ± 5.9) in the control group (p <0.001). MRA measurements of
20 three radiologists were consistent with each other.

21 **Conclusion:** MRA imaging can be applied as an alternative diagnostic method for
22 Doppler ultrasonography and Multidetector CT examinations by radiologists with
23 different experience levels in pediatric patients with nutcracker syndrome.

1 **Keywords:** Nutcracker syndrome, nutcracker phenomenon, SMA angle, abdominal
2 MRA

3 **1. Introduction**

4
5 The nutcracker phenomenon is characterised by the compression of the left renal vein
6 (LRV) – which can typically be between the superior mesenteric artery (SMA) and the
7 abdominal aorta (the anterior nutcracker) or, less frequently, be between the aorta and the
8 vertebral body (the posterior nutcracker). This phenomenon does not always present with
9 clinical symptoms [1]. In patients with nutcracker syndrome (NCS), compression of the
10 LRV results in left renal venous hypertension and related symptoms, such as flank pain,
11 haematuria, pelvic congestion, left-sided varicocele and orthostatic proteinuria [2].
12

13 In patients with clinical symptoms that are highly suspicious for NCS, a diagnosis of NCS
14 can be validated with imaging techniques such as Doppler ultrasonography (DUS),
15 multidetector CT (MDCT), magnetic resonance angiography (MRA), retrograde
16 phlebography and intravenous ultrasound. Phlebography and intravenous ultrasound are
17 known as the gold standard methods of diagnosis; however, both are invasive methods
18 and are rarely selected (only used if a diagnosis of NCS remains unclear with the other
19 [noninvasive] techniques). The initial imaging technique that is mostly utilised is DUS.
20 Following this, patients suspected of having NCS undergo cross-sectional angiographic
21 imaging of the abdomen to demonstrate the anatomical relation of the LRV with the aorta
22 and the SMA[3]. It seems that DUS has the disadvantages of patient and user dependency
23 more prominently in pediatric patients than in adults. Also, a cross-sectional method such
24 as MDCT is associated with ionisation radiation exposure, which makes it unsuitable for

1 the pediatric patient group. Thus, we aimed to demonstrate the usefulness of MRA as a
2 cross-sectional method in the diagnosis of NCS among pediatric patients.

3

4 **2. Material and methods**

5

6 **2.1. Study population**

7

8 Pediatric patients who had a diagnosis of NCS after clinical evaluation and DUS between
9 January 2011 and January 2019 and had renal MRA were included as the patient group,
10 while pediatric patients who had renal MRA to evaluate hypertension were categorized
11 as the control group in this retrospective study. In the patient group, the children with
12 persistent haematuria (microscopic/macrosopic) and/or proteinuria were clinically
13 assessed for other common causes of these findings. If other differentials were excluded,
14 then the patients were evaluated by DUS for possible NCS. The Doppler criterion for
15 diagnosis in our radiology department was the LRV diameter and flow ratio
16 (aortomesenteric/hilus) ≥ 4.9 [4]. Patients older than 18 years, without renal MRA or with
17 conditions that may affect the SMA angle (para-aortic lymphadenopathies, intra-
18 abdominal mass, intra-abdominal or retroperitoneal free fluid and scoliosis) were
19 excluded from the patient and control groups. In addition, patients with haematuria or
20 proteinuria were excluded from the control group due to the possibility of undiagnosed
21 NCS. The study was approved by the Local Research Ethics Committee, and the need for
22 written informed consent was waived because retrospective data were used.

23

24 **2.2. Image acquisition**

25

1 MRA imaging was performed using 1.5 T MR (Magnetom Symphony, Siemens
2 Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany) and 3.0 T MR (Magnetom Skyra, Siemens Healthcare,
3 Erlangen, Germany) machines. All MR sequences were acquired while the patients were
4 in a supine position. The abdominal MRA imaging protocols of the study population for
5 both 1.5 T MR and 3.0 T MR were contrast-enhanced 3D angiographic sequences. All
6 image parameters were the same for the study and control group in both 1.5 and 3 T MR,
7 except the contrast phase of the images. The images were acquired in the venous phase
8 for the study group and the arterial phase for the control group. The imaging parameters
9 used for each MR imaging sequence are demonstrated in Table 1.

10

11 **2.3. Image analysis**

12

13 MR images were evaluated by three radiologists with different levels of experience
14 (Radiologist 1: 3-year general radiologist, Radiologist 2: 5-year general radiologist, and
15 Radiologist 3: 10-year abdominal radiologist). The radiologists were blinded to the
16 groups. A picture archiving and communication system (Akgun PACS, Ankara, Turkey)
17 was used for the analysis. The SMA angles were measured from the sagittal MRA
18 sequences as the angle between the SMA origin, a point 1 cm along the posterior wall of
19 the SMA and 1 cm along the anterior wall of the abdominal aorta[5]. The distance
20 between the SMA and the abdominal aorta was measured on axial slices as the minimum
21 distance between the anterior wall of the aorta and the posterior wall of the SMA at the
22 level of the LRV. The caliper of the LRV at the aorta-mesenteric region (the narrowest
23 point) and the left hilum region (the widest point) from the axial MRA sequence were
24 measured, and the ratio between them (the LRV ratio) was calculated.

25

1 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

2

3 The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows (Version 23.0; IBM, New
4 York, NY) was used for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics of the evaluation results
5 were given as mean value, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for
6 measured variables, and numbers (percentiles) for categorical variables. The one-sample
7 Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to analyse the normal distribution of the data.
8 Because the measured variables did not have a normal distribution, the Mann–Whitney
9 U test was utilised for the comparison of the categorical variables of the patient and
10 control groups (two independent groups). Bland–Altman plots were used to evaluate the
11 agreement among the observers. The level of statistical significance was accepted as
12 $p < 0.05$. The results of power analysis for the sample size of patients and control group
13 with 95% confidence interval was %96.

14 **3. Results**

15

16 The number of patients referred to the radiology department with suspicion of NCS was
17 70, but only 45 patients received a diagnosis of NCS after DUS. Of these patients, 64%
18 clinically presented with proteinuria, 32% with haematuria and 4% with a combination
19 of both. The participants in the patient and control groups that met the inclusion criteria
20 were 45 and 25, respectively. The mean age at MRA examination was 12 in both groups.
21 In the patient group, the female gender was dominant, whereas in the control group, there
22 was male dominance (Table 2).

23 The mean aorta-mesenteric distance was 3.3 (1.7-6.5, ± 1.1) mm in the patient group and
24 8 (3.4-32, ± 5.9) mm in the control group, and the distance was significantly narrower in
25 patients with NCS ($p < 0.05$) (Figures 1a and 2a). Similarly, the SMA angle was 26.5°

1 (16-73 ±12) in the group with NCS, while it was 57.8° (25-139, ±33) in the control group
2 (p < 0.05) (Figures 1b,1c, 2b and, 2c). There was no statistically significant difference in
3 renal vein diameter ratio between the two groups (Table 3).

4 All the measurements were repeated by three observers, and interobserver variability was
5 evaluated. Bland–Altman plots (Figure 3) revealed no significant differences between the
6 three observers (Table 4).

7

8 **4. Discussion**

9

10 Although there is a lack of diagnostic consensus on NCS, imaging methods are commonly
11 utilised for its diagnosis in patients with suspicious clinical presentations [1,4,6,7]. This
12 study found that nutcracker-related measurements, including the SMA angle and the
13 aorta-mesenteric distance, can be acquired from abdominal MRA to support the diagnosis
14 of NCS in the pediatric population, similarly MDCT. In addition, this method can be used
15 accurately by radiologists with different levels of experience.

16

17 Patients with NCS can belong to any age group – from the pediatric age group to the
18 geriatric age group – however, the majority of the patients are young (second or third
19 decade) and middle-aged adults [6]. In our study, we evaluated pediatric patients, in
20 particular, owing to the need for a delicate diagnostic algorithm. Although the gender
21 distribution is undetermined, it is estimated that the prevalence of NCS may be slightly
22 higher in females[6]. Similarly, in this study, most of the participants in the patient group
23 were females (67%).

24

1 NCS is mainly a clinical diagnosis, and the diagnosis should be made only in the presence
2 of characteristic symptoms. Several imaging modalities can be used to confirm NCS, such
3 as DUS, MDCT, MR-MRA, retrograde phlebography and intravenous ultrasound[1,4].
4 Even though the sensitivity and specificity of DUS are variable (69–90 and 89–100,
5 respectively) [6,8,9] , it is considered the initial diagnostic method for NCS in patients
6 with suspicious symptoms. It is noninvasive, has no radiation exposure and provides
7 direct information about flow measurements [10,11]. However, insufficient patient
8 cooperation during examinations and positional differences (supine, prone or upright
9 position) may lead to variable results [12]. In our experience, the major challenge was a
10 lack of cooperation during sonography with pediatric patients compared to adults. All
11 DUS measurements were made in a supine position to minimise the inconsistency.
12 Retrograde phlebography is known as the gold standard in the final diagnosis of NCS, but
13 it is seldom chosen because it is invasive [3,13].

14

15 MDCT angiography and conventional MR and MRA imaging provide more detailed
16 information about the vascular anatomy of SMA region compared with sonography.
17 However, one drawback of these imaging modalities is the inability to acquire direct
18 information about flow dynamics. On the other hand, it is possible to acquire information
19 about indirect haemodynamic consequences, such as prestenotic dilatation (hilar,
20 periureteric and pelvic varices) and dilated gonadal veins [3,4]. Additionally, MDCT
21 angiography is associated with exposure to radiation and intravenous contrast material,
22 which makes it questionable for pediatric patients. MR and MRA imaging can be the
23 second choice after DUS in pediatric patients. Some conventional MR sequences, such
24 as T1-VIBE, out-of-phase (opposed phase) T1, FSE T2WI, T2-TRUFI and T2-HASTE
25 sequences, may be useful for the diagnosis of NCS, with the benefit of not requiring

1 contrast media exposure [14,15]. Although MRA angiography is not associated with
2 radiation exposure, it still requires the usage of contrast material.

3

4 In our study, MRA revealed that the mean SMA angle in the patient population (26.5°)
5 was significantly lower than that of the control group (57.8°). This is consistent with a
6 study that found a significant difference in the SMA angle between children with and
7 without NCS (17.8° versus 28.7° , respectively) on MDCT[16]. The largest cross-
8 sectional (with MDCT) study of SMA angles in normal children reported the mean SMA
9 angle as 45.6° , which is lower than our control group. The study reported the mean
10 distance between the aorta and the SMA as 8.6 mm, which is similar to our control group
11 (8 mm)[5]. However, in this study, the mean distance between the aorta and the SMA was
12 3.3 mm in the patient group, which is significantly lower than the control group. Cho et
13 al., also found a significant difference among children with and without NCS (4.3 mm
14 versus 6 mm, respectively) [16].

15

16 The mean renal vein ratio (hilus/aortomesenteric) was 2.4 mm in the patient group and
17 3.4 mm in the control group. Although it has been reported as the most specific
18 measurement for NCS in MDCT in a previous study[6], we found no significant
19 difference between the groups on MRA. However, we believe that the results reflect the
20 phase difference in MRA sequences between the patient group and the control group.
21 Considering that the MRA images of our control group were obtained in the arterial phase,
22 it was not possible to measure the vein ratio in most of our participants.

23

24 In this study, three radiologists with different levels of experience evaluated the images
25 of the participants, and there was no significant difference in the measurements. We

1 reckon that this is a benefit of MRA in the diagnosis of NCS in pediatric patients,
2 especially when compared to DUS, which has a high user dependency. Although some
3 studies have demonstrated value of the DUS in the diagnosis of NCS, in most of them,
4 interobserver reproducibility was not calculated [8,11,12].

5

6 This study had some limitations. The main limitation was the usage of two different MR
7 machines with different magnetic fields (1.5 T and 3 T) owing to the retrospective design
8 of the study. Second, we defined the patients with hypertension as the control group
9 because they were the only pediatric patient group with renal MRA in our department.
10 Nevertheless, there were only a few cases in the literature with both NCS and
11 hypertension, and it was mostly reported as a coincidence [17–20]. Additionally, there
12 was male dominance in the control group, while most of the participants were females in
13 the patient group. However, in a previous study, no significant gender difference was
14 revealed in nutcracker-related measurements[5]. Finally, the phases of the MRA in the
15 patient and control groups were different, which could be the reason for the statistically
16 insignificant results in the measurement of the LRV diameter. In the patient group, the
17 images were obtained in the venous phase, while they were obtained in the arterial phase
18 in the control group.

19 In conclusion, there is a lack of a diagnostic algorithm for NCS, which makes the
20 diagnosis problematic. MR angiography provides a radiation-free alternative to CT
21 angiography in children with NCS, with the ability to do the same diagnostic
22 measurements of the SMA region. Moreover, it offers less user-dependent results
23 compared to DUS. However, MRA still has the disadvantage of contrast media exposure;
24 thus, there is a need for safer and objective diagnostic methods, and this could be
25 evaluated in future research.

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4

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6

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23

Table 1. MRA imaging parameters

Parameters	3T Siemens Skyra	1,5 T Siemens Symphony
Sequence	3D angio	3D angio
Image plane	Coronal	Coronal
TR (msec)	2.91	2.84
TE (msec)	1.02	1.14
Flip angle (degree)	20	25
FOV (mm)	300	400
Slice thickness (mm)	1.1	1.4
Matrix	192X288	193X220
Number of slice	80	72
NEX	1	1
Total duration (sec)	13	16
Contrast	0.1 mmol/ kg	0.1 mmol/ kg
Speed of injection(ml/sec)	2.5	2.5

Table 2. The patient and control group in terms of demographics

	Patient group	Control group
Number of subjects	45	25
Age	12(4-16)	12(1-18)
Gender	15 M (33%) 30 F (67%)	19 M(76%) 6 F (24%)

Table 3. The patient and control group in terms of measurements

Parameters	Patient group	Control group	P value
Aortamesenteric distance (mm)	3.3 (1.7-6.5, \pm 1.1)	8 (3.4-32, \pm 5.9)	p<0.001
SMA angle	26.5° (16-73 \pm 12)	57.8 (25-139, \pm 33)	p<0.001
Renal vein ratio (hilus/aortomesenteric)	2.4 (1.42-7 \pm 1.3)	3.4(1.1-3.4 \pm 0.9)	P>0.05

1

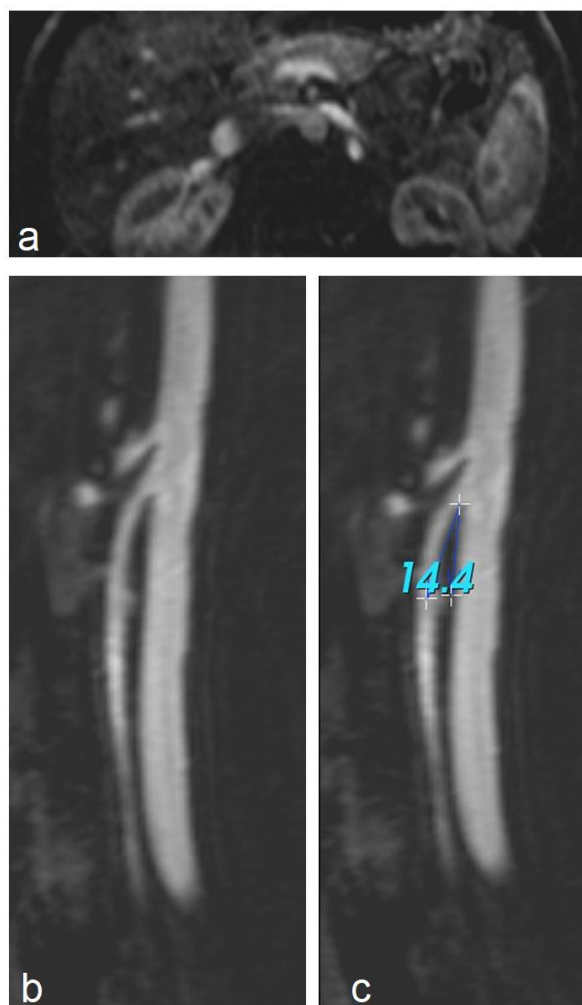
2

3

Table 4. The difference between the radiologists in terms of measurements

	SMA angle (°) difference mean ± STD	Aorta-mesenteric distance difference (mm) mean ± STD
Radiologist 1-2	0.95±7.43(-13.65, 15.55)	0.07±1.02(-1.92, 2.07)
Radiologist 2-3	0.73±8.08(-15.07, 16.56)	0.05±0.87(-1.65,1.75)
Radiologist 1-3	1.67±7.49(-13.01,16.35)	0.07±0.74(-1.38,1.52)

4



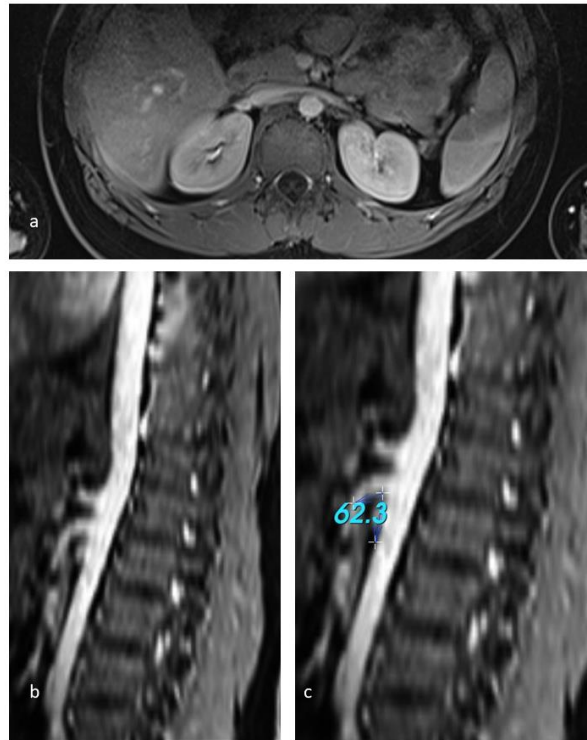
5

Figure 1. Abdominal MRA images of a patient with nutcracker syndrome. a) axial

raw images of 3D MR angiography demonstrate the distance between the SMA and

1 aorta is narrowed. b, c) sagittal images of 3D MR angiography show the angle between
2 the SMA and aorta is narrowed (14.4°).

3



4

5

6 **Figure 2. Abdominal MR and MRA images of a children in the control group. a)**

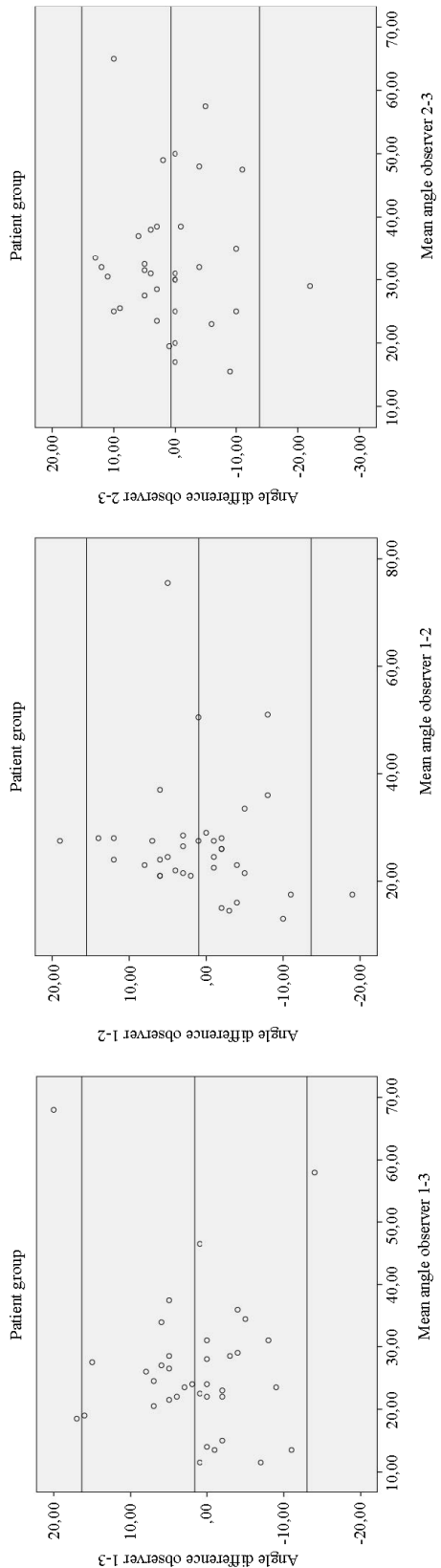
7 axial contrast enhanced MR image demonstrate the distance between the SMA and aorta

8 is normal. b, c) sagittal images of 3D MR angiography show the angle between the

9 SMA and aorta is in normal range (62.3°).

10

11



1 **Figure 3. Bland-Altman Plot test results**