



Thamar University Journal of Natural & Applied Sciences

Refereed Scientific Journal

Volume

2

June 2010

A(1-86), B(1-11)



Thamar University Publications

© 2010 Thamar University

Epidemiology of Diabetes Mellitus in Al-Baidha Governorate, Yemen

Ahmed M. Al-Hadrani*, Ismail S. Abuassaf,
Mansour A. Ataa and Khaled Al-Surimi

Faculty of Medicine and Faculty of Education, Thamar University, Republic of Yemen

ABSTRACT

Objectives: To identify the magnitude of diabetes and its epidemiological profile at Al-Baidha Governorate, Yemen, and assess the potential role of the inter-family marriage in increasing the risk of diabetes.

Method: This is a descriptive and analytic epidemiological study of 2458 diabetic patients profile reported at Al-Baidha Governorate population in Yemen covering the period (2007-2009). Data sources included reviewing the patients' files and health statistical reports of the governorate Health office. Additional primary data on family history and diabetes treatment types were collected by a group of researchers (medical students) through conducting home visits for the diabetic patients during the study period.

Results: The percentage of diabetes mellitus is estimated to be 14.8% among males and 10.2% of females. The percentage of diabetes appeared to be increasing among urban areas (20.7%) than that of rural areas (4.3%). The overall age-adjusted proportions obtained from the study showed that 564 (23.2%) individuals were less than 30 years of age and the majority 1864 (76.8%) were above 30. The study demonstrated that 2071 (84.3%) diabetic individuals are on oral hypoglycemic agents and that 381 (15.7%) were on insulin injections. Tracing the family history of 801 diabetic men and women demonstrated that the father was diabetic in 39.8%, mother in 26.8%, Grandfather 14.8%, grandmother 10.5% and second degree relative 8.4%. Also, the study showed that 58% of diabetic patients have marriage with first degree or second-degree relatives.

Conclusion: The results of this study indicated that diabetes has become a major health problem in Yemen. Further studies are needed to clarify the potential role of interfamily marriage and genetic susceptibility in the aetiology of diabetes.

Keywords: Diabetes, Aetiology, Odds Ratio, Chi-Squares Tests, Yemen

* Correspondence: Professor Ahmed M. Al-Hadrani, MD, FRCS, President of Thamar University, Thamar, Republic of Yemen, Fax:+967 6 509553, E-mail: hadhrani@yahoo.com or hadhrani@y.net.ye

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes is defined as a group of metabolic diseases that are characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action or both [1]. The disease is one of the leading causes of death, blindness and lower limb amputation. Diabetic retinopathy remains a major cause of blindness worldwide [2]. Currently, diabetes is responsible for one death every 10 sec, and an amputation every 30 sec with a mortality rate of approximately 4 million per year [3].

The international diabetes federation estimated in 2003 that 194 million people have diabetes, and that by 2025, 333 million people will have this disease [4, 5]. In 2007 it was estimated that global health expenditure on diabetes and its complications would be at least \$232 billion [6]. Treatment and adapting preventive care programs in persons with diabetes can slow the progression of end stage complications and reduce the risk of microvascular and microvascular complications of type 2 diabetic [7, 8]. The aims of this study were to examine the prevalence of diabetes in the urban and rural community in Al-Baidha Governorate in Yemen and to highlight on the potential role of the family and cousin marriage in the development of diabetes.

The objective is to examine the proportion of diabetes among urban and rural community in Al-Baidha Governorate, review the treatment lines being used by patients and to assess the potential role of the inter-family marriage in increasing the risk of diabetes.

METHOD

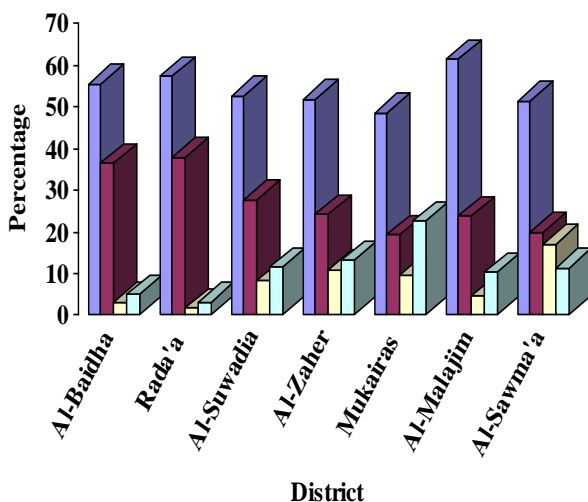
AL-Baidha Governorate is situated at a distance of 280 km south east of Sana'a and its population is about 680000. This study is a community based study conducted in rural and urban areas of 7 districts of Al-Baidha Governorate in Yemen. The study comes from a sample of 2458 diabetic patients living in these districts. Some of the data were collected from patients' files and documents in the offices of the Ministry of Health in the region. Seven committees, each of 3 students were distributed to Provinces, and visited diabetic patients and their families. Patients and their families were asked about diabetic history in the family and type of the treatment they had received. The students pursued the family history along two correlated lines: first, knowing the father's status and his genealogy up to the grandfather and including the diabetic brothers, sisters, and second degree relatives; and second, knowing the mother's status in the same way. Also, the family history included the cousin marriage in diabetic individuals. Periodic medical examinations were done weekly by doctors in district hospitals and biochemical analysis was done as well. Blood sugar measurements were done twice daily: in the early morning and before bedtime. Diabetes was diagnosed as per WHO criteria, the treatment of each patient (oral hypoglycemic agents or Insulin) recorded and all treatment lines were reviewed. Some diabetic patients that are not registered in the registry of the Ministry of health were traced and recruited in the study. It is estimated that 5-15% of diabetic individuals are not included in the study due to some technical & social difficulties (e.g. refusal of the patient or his family to meet the team and participate in the study). The diabetic men and women were divided according to age and gender into four groups: GI of men with age class 7 to 30 years, GII of males with age class 31 to 70 + years, GIII of females with age class 7 to 30 years and GIV of females with age class 31 to 70 or more years.

RESULTS

The total number of subjects examined was 2458, with 1460 males (59.4%) and 998 (40.6%) women. The registered diabetic individuals were 2231 (90.8%) (1373 men and 858 women), 227 patients (9.2%) : 87 men and 140 women were not registered. Table 1.1 and figure (1) shows the distribution of diabetic individuals in the seven districts and shows that the number of unregistered women is almost double the number of unregistered men. The percentage of diabetes was estimated to be 14.8% among males and 10.2% among females (table 1.2). The percentage of diabetes mellitus appeared to be increasing among urban areas (20.7%) than that of rural areas (4.3%) (Table 1.2).

The overall age-adjusted prevalence obtained from the study showed that 564 (23.2%) individuals were under 30 years of age and the majority 1894 (76.8%) were above 30. Tables 2.1, 2.2 show the distribution of diabetes according to age and sex. The study demonstrated that 2071 (84.3%) diabetic individuals are on oral hypoglycemic agents and that 381 (15.7%) were on insulin injections (table 3).

Tracing the family history for 801 diabetic men and women demonstrated that the father was diabetic in 39.8%, mother in 26.8%, Grandfather in 14.8% grandmother 10.5% and second degree relative 8.4% (tables 4.1, 4.2). Moreover, the study shows that 58% of diabetic patients have marriage with first or second-degree relatives and this might explain the high prevalence of diabetes in some Yemeni community sectors.



■ Registered Males ■ Registered Females □ Un registered Males □ Un registered Females

Figure (1): Percentage of diabetic patients by district, Al-baidha governorate.

Table (1.1): The distribution of diabetic patients in seven districts of Al-Baidha Governorate

Area	District	Registration				Total
		Registered		Unregistered		
		Males	Females	Males	Females	
Urban	Al-Baidha	581	381	32	53	1047
	Rada'a	565	374	17	31	987
Rural	Al-Suwadia	82	43	13	18	156
	Al-Zaher	43	20	9	11	83
	Mukairas	30	12	6	14	62
	Al-Malajim	54	21	4	9	88
	Al-Sawma'a	18	7	6	4	35
Total		1373	858	87	140	2458

Table (1.2): Test of Significance using Chi-Squares Tests of Gender vs Registration vs Area.

Gender	Registration	Area	Number of Cases	Chi-Squares Value	P-value
Male	Registered	Urban	1146	1373	P<0.0001
		Rural	227		
	Unregistered	Urban	49	87	P<0.0001
		Rural	38		
Female	Registered	Urban	755	858	P<0.0001
		Rural	103		
	Unregistered	Urban	84	140	P<0.0001
		Rural	56		
Overall			2458	125.03	P<0.0001

Ratios of diabetes estimation			
Ratio of diabetes among gender		Ratio of diabetes by Area	
Males	14.8	Urban	20.7
Females	10.2	Rural	4.3

Table (2.1): Diabetic Patients according to age class and Gender

Group	Diabetic Patients' Age classes				Total
	7 - 30	31 - 70	7 - 30	30 - 70	
Sex	Males		Female		
I	365	-	-	-	365
II	-	1065	-	-	1065
III	-	-	199	-	199
IV	-	-	-	799	799
Total %	15.5	44.5	8.01	31.99	2428

Table (2.2): Diabetic Patients according to age class and Gender

Gender	Age class (years)		Total	Chi-Squares Test for any variation	
	< 30	≥ 30		Chi-Square value	p-value
Male	365	1065	1430	10.26	P<0.05
Female	199	799	998		
Total	564	1864	2428		

Table (3): Anti-diabetic Agents

	Type	of taken	Percent
Insulin (Intermediate acting) 100 Iu/m / vial	I	30	0.6
Insulin Human mixtared (30/70) 100 Iu/m /vial		153	2.8
Insulin Human R (Actnapid) 100 Iu/m /vials		195	3.6
Glibenclamide 2.5 and 5mg Smg Tablets	II	979	18.0
Glimepiride 1 and 3mg		380	7.0
Gliclazide 80 mg Tablets		210	3.9
Metformin HCL 500 mg Tablets		194	3.6
Insulin Human mixtared (30/70) 100 Iu/m /vial		131	2.4
Insulin Human R (Actnapid) 100 Iu/m /vials		176	3.2
Chi-Square goodness-of-fit tests	Chi-squares	P-value	
	730.5	P<0.0001	

Table (4.1): Distribution of the family's history of 808 Diabetic Patients

Group	No. of diabetic patients	Family's history demonstrated that the following family members are associated with a diabetic disease:				
		Percent of Fathers	Percent of Mother	Percent of Grand-father	Percent of Grand-mothers	Percent of Second degree Relatives
I	321	+	-	-	-	-
II	214	-	+	-	-	-
III	121	-	-	+	-	-
IV	85	-	-	-	+	-
V	67	-	-	-	-	+
Total	808	39.8	26.5	14.8	10.5	8.4
Overall Test of Significance						
P-value		<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001

Table (4.2): Analysis of Odds ratios for testing the relationship between the diabetes mellitus occurrence among fathers, mothers, grand-fathers, grand-mothers, second-degree relatives and offspring's.

Groups	Fathers	Mothers	Grand Fathers	Grand Mothers	Second degree relatives
I	1.0 (**)	1.5 (***)	2.7 (***)	3.8 (***)	4.8 (***)
II		1.0 (**)	1.8 (***)	2.5 (***)	3.2 (***)
III			1.0 (**)	1.4 (**)	1.8 (***)
IV				1.0 (**)	1.3 (**)
V					1.0 (**)

NB: (**)= $P < 0.001$ and (***)= $P < 0.0001$

Statistical analysis

Table 1.1 shows the distribution of registered and unregistered diabetic males and females patients by the district of Al-Baidha governorate. The right column of Table 1 displays the test of significance resulted from testing for any significant difference among diabetic patients in the seventh districts. The multiple comparisons test yielded significant results as implied by their p-values ($p < 0.05$). Figure 1 also confirms this conclusion.

The results in Table 1.2 reveal that the mean difference of patients with diabetes in urban and rural areas is significant at the 0.05 level. The percentage of diabetes mellitus appeared to be increasing among urban areas (20.7 %) than that of rural areas (4.3 %). Similarly, the diabetes mellitus occurrence among males is clearly much more than that among females. Table 1.2 shows that percentage of diabetes mellitus is estimated to be 14.8 % among males and 10.2 % of females. Table 2.1, displays the statistical test results produced to the diabetic patients as distributed by age class and gender. The last column (to

the right) of Table 2.1 shows the probability values which indicate highly significant results with respect to group differences of their counts.

Table 2.2 displays the statistical test results produced to the diabetic patients as distributed as a 2×2 contingency table. The obtained results indicated that the diabetes occurred among males and female varies significantly ($P < 0.05$) according to the age class and gender of the patient's. Across the age class and gender of the patients, the estimated proportions (P) of diabetes are summarized as follows: For males and females with age class under 30 years, the proportions of being diabetics are, respectively, given by 25.5 % for males and 19.9 % for females. Furthermore, for combined sex, the proportion is given by 23.2%. Similarly, for males and females with age class 30 years and more, the respective proportions of being diabetics are given by 44 % for males and 81% for females. For combined sex, the overall proportion is given by 76.8% as well.

In Table 3, the types of Antidiabetic agents were tested for any significant difference. As can be seen from the corresponding probability values in the last column (to the right) of Table 3, the test of between subject effects is clearly significant at the 0.05 level. Meanwhile, the two types of Antidiabetic agents were also compared using Pairwise comparisons test. The two types of Antidiabetic agents were found to differ significantly. Table 4.1 shows the overall test to the family's history of diabetic disease factors across the five groups of diabetic patients. The Chi-Squares test was used to check for any significant relationships of diabetic fathers, mothers, grand-fathers, grand-mothers and second degree relatives. The Chi-Squares test yielded that these factors are significantly associated ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, the odds ratios test results displayed in Table 4.2 show that the occurrence of diabetic disease among fathers, mothers, grand-fathers, grand-mothers and second-degree relatives are not statistically independent. This might be due to inheritance factors. The coefficient (termed as Kappa) representing the similarity between factors was found to be -0.25.

DISCUSSION

This study showed a male predominance, but this might be explained by the under-registration of diabetic women for social, cultural and religious reasons. This opinion is supported by the result in this paper which showed that the number of unregistered women almost double the number of unregistered men. In this study, type 2 diabetes in Yemeni was diagnosed in 564 (23.2%) patients under the age of 31 years. Gunaid and others reported type 2 diabetes in 16% under the age of 40 years [9]. Several authors showed that in Asia the age at which type 2 diabetes development has decreased and the prevalence of the disease has risen in children and adolescents [10].

This study has shown that the onset of type 2 diabetes in younger age-groups was similar to that reported in developing countries but different from that reported in developed countries [11, 12, 13]. Moreover, the current study showed that among 801 patients having diabetes the father was diabetic in 39.8%, mother in 26.8%, grandfather in 14.8%, grandmother 10.5% and 58% of diabetic patients had interfamily marriage.

These results might support evidence that the genetic factors play an important role in the pathogenesis of diabetes mellitus in some Yemeni patients. Gunaid in a study on 191 Yemeni patients with type II diabetes showed a considerable familial clustering of type II DM [14]. Bone-Tamir and others reported that Yemeni Jews who have unusually high incidence of diabetes differ by gene clustering from all other Jews [15]. On the other hand,

we believe that environmental factors play an important role in the development of diabetes. This includes the change in life-style of Yemeni individuals; mainly sedentary life and consuming diet rich in fat and carbohydrates and low in fibers even in rural areas in Yemen. Another environmental factor might play a role in the development of diabetes in Yemeni population is the Yemeni habit of chronic chewing of khat sprayed with pesticides. In a study conducted by Manciola and Parinello on 27410 Yemeni subjects, they found that 60% of males and 35% of females were chronic daily khat chewers and that 30% of males and 24% of females chew khat in weekends and special occasions [16].

It is estimated that 70% of pesticides imported or smuggled to Yemen are used on qat [17]. The study showed high ratio of diabetes in Yemeni sampled society, reaching 20.7% in urban areas and 4.3% in rural areas. The prevalence of diabetes is increasing in developing countries more than the developed countries, for example, the prevalence rates of type 2 diabetes in Korea, Indonesia and Malaysia have increased three fold to five-fold during the past 30 years [12, 18, 19]. In the countries of the Gulf Co-operation Council, the prevalence is also increasing; reaching 10% to 20% of the population. In Saudi Arabia the prevalence rates have increased from 12.3% in the mid 1990 to 24% in 2004 [20, 21, 22].

For Yemen and other developing countries, prevention of diabetes must take first priority, because it is more cost-effective to start prevention policies than the treatment of diabetes and its complications. Strong public actions and well-planned government policies are crucial to control the epidemic of diabetes.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicate that diabetes is an increasing health problem in Yemeni society and affects young age groups. Further studies are needed to clarify the potential role of interfamily marriage and genetic susceptibility in the aetiology of diabetes. It is strongly recommended that Yemen and developing countries start to implement prevention policies against the diabetic epidemic.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We express our gratitude and appreciation to doctor Tawfick Saleh Othman Ahmed and other doctors and health workers in the ministry of health offices in Al-Baidha Governorate.

REFERENCES

- [1] Report of the expert committee on the diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus, diabetes care 1997, 20:1183.
- [2] Moss SE, Klein BE, (1998), the 14-year incidence of visual loss in a diabetic population. *Ophthalmology*, 105:998-1003.
- [3] Silink M, (2007), United Nations resolution 61/225- what does it mean to the diabetes world?, *Int J Clin Pract*, Blackwell Publishing Ltd, 61.
- [4] King H, et al, (1998), Global burden of diabetes, 1995-2025: Prevalence, numerical estimates, and projections. *Diabetes care*: 21, 1414-31.

- [5] Wild S, et al, (May 2004), Global Prevalence of diabetes, Estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030, *Diabetes care*, V 27, N 5, P:1047-1053.
- [6] International diabetes Federation, (2006), *Diabetes atlas*. 3rd edn. Brussels.
- [7] Bertoni AG., (2001), Achieving control of diabetic risk factors in primary care settings. *American journal of managed care*, 7(4):411-21.
- [8] UK Prospective Diabetes study Group (UKPDS), (1988), Tight blood pressure control and risk of macrovascular and microvascular complications in type 2 diabetes. *British medical journal*, 317(7160):703-13.
- [9] Gunaid A, et al, (1997), Demographic and clinical features of diabetes mellitus in 1095 Yemeni patients, *Annals of Saudi Medicine*, 17:402-409.
- [10] Alberti G, et al, (2004), Type 2 diabetes in the young: the evolving epidemic: the International Diabetes Federation consensus workshop. *Diabetes Care*; 27:1798-811.
- [11] Feng. Hwa Lu., et al, (1998), A population-based study of the prevalence and associated factors of diabetes mellitus in southern Taiwan. *Diabet Med*; 15:564-72.
- [12] Cockram CS, Woo J, Lau E, et al, (1993), The prevalence of diabetes mellitus and impaired glucose tolerance among Hong Kong Chinese adults of working age. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*; 21:67-73.
- [13] Takahashi Y., et al, (2000), Prevalence of diabetes estimated by plasma glucose criteria combined participants on Miyako Island, Japan. *Diabetes Care*; 23:1092-96.
- [14] Gunaid A, (1999), Familial clustering of type II diabetes mellitus (DM) diagnosed under the age of 40 years in Yemen: is it early-onset type II DM or maturity-onset diabetes of the young?, *Annals of Saudi Medicine*, 19:308-316.
- [15] Bonne-Tamir B, Johnson M, Natali A, (1986), tochondrial DNA types in two Israeli populations: a comparative study at the DNA level. *Am J Hum Genet* 38:341-351.
- [16] Manciola M., and Parrinello A., (1967), II qat (*Catha edulis*). *La Clinica Terapeutica*; 43/2: 103-172.
- [17] Al-Gahashm My, Mogaahed AA., (1988), Pesticides on Khat; A danger threatens the society health. *Dirasat Yamaniyyah: A Journal of Yemen Centre for studies and Research*, Sana'a, Yemen Republic; 32.
- [18] Yoon K, et al, (2006), Epidemic obesity and type 2 diabetes in Asia, *The Lancet*, 368: 1681-1688.
- [19] Duc Son LN, Kusama K, Hung NT, et al, (2004), Prevalence and risk factors for diabetes in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. *Diabet Med*; 21:371-76.
- [20] Al-Lawati JA, et al, (2002), Increasing prevalence of diabetes mellitus in Oman. *Diabet Med*; 19:954-957.
- [21] Al-Nozha MM, et al, (2004), Diabetes mellitus in Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Med J*; 25: 1603-1610.
- [22] تقرير المكتب التنفيذي لمجلس وزراء الصحة لدول مجلس التعاون، الرياض، (2006)، ص 151-165.

دراسة وبائية عن داء السكري في محافظة البيضاء، اليمن

أحمد محمد الحضرائي، إسماعيل أبو عساف، منصور على عطاء و خالد الصريمي

كلية الطب وكلية التربية، جامعة ذمار، اليمن

ملخص

الأهداف: التعرف على حجم مشكلة مرض داء السكر ومدى انتشاره في محافظة البيضاء، اليمن، وتقييم الدور الوراثي المحتمل في زيادة خطر مرض السكر نتيجة للزواج بين الأقارب.
الطريقة: هذه دراسة عبارة عن دراسة وبائية وصفية وتحليلية لـ 2458 حالة من مرضى السكر المسجلة بين سكان محافظة البيضاء، للفترة (2007-2009). تضمنت مصادر البيانات مُراجعة ملفات المرضى والتقارير الإحصائية لمكتب الصحة في المحافظة. كما تم جمع بيانات أساسية إضافية عن التاريخ العائلي وأنواع المعالجات لحالات مرض السكر بواسطة مجموعة من الباحثين (طلاب كلية الطب بجامعة ذمار) من خلال إجراء الزيارة المنزلية للمرضى بالسكر أثناء فترة الدراسة.

النتائج: وجد أن النسبة المئوية لانتشار مرض داء السكري تقدر بـ 14.8% بين الذكور و 10.2% بين الإناث. كما لوحظ أن النسبة المئوية لانتشار مرض السكر تتزايد بين سكان المناطق الحضرية (20.7%) بينما تقل نسبة انتشار داء السكر في المناطق الريفية البعيدة (4.3%). كما أظهرت الدراسة أن عدد و نسبة المصابين وفقاً للفئة العمرية كما يلي: 564 (23.2%) كانوا من الفئة العمرية أقل من 30 سنة والأغلبية 1864 (76.8%) كانوا من الفئة العمرية فوق 30 سنة. بينت الدراسة أيضاً بأن 2071 (84.3%) من مرضى السكر كانوا يتلقون Oral hypoglycemic agents وأن 381 (15.7%) كانوا يتلقون العلاج عن طريق حقن الأنسولين. كما تم في الدراسة تتبع العلاقات الوراثية باقتفاء التاريخ العائلي لـ 801 رجل وامرأة مرضى بالسكر وتبين بأن الأب كان مريض بالسكر في 39.8%، والأم في 26.8%، والجَد في 14.8%، والجدَّة في 10.5% والقريب من الدرجة ثانية في 8.4%. ووجد أن هناك دلالة إحصائية معنوية لهذه النتائج ($P < 0.05$). كما بينت الدراسة أيضاً بأن 58% من المرضى بمرض السكر لديهم حالات زواج من الريفية. وتوصي هذه الدراسة بعمل دراسات أخرى وذلك لتوضيح الدور المحتمل للعوامل الوراثية للزواج من الأقارب ودورها كمسببات في انتقال الأمراض الوراثية وبصورة خاصة مرض داء السكر.

الكلمات الدلالية: مرض السكر، علم أسباب المرض، نسبة الاحتمال، اختبارات مربع كاي

Etiological Spectrum of Obstructive Jaundice: "Our Experience in Two University Hospitals in Yemen"

Saeed H. Al-Bahlouli^{*}, Mohammed A. H. Al-Bahlouli, Mohammed A. Shaban^{**} and Mohammed I. Tantawy^{***}

Faculty of Medicine, Thamar University, Yemen.

ABSTRACT

Background: Obstructive jaundice is a surgical emergency with preoperatively uncertain diagnosis. Its early diagnosis and treatment is important to avoid fatal complications.

Objective: to determine the etiology of obstructive jaundice.

Patients and methods: The data of patients, who were operated for obstructive jaundice at department of Surgery in Sana'a University Hospital and Thamar University Hospital between January 2004 and December 2008, were prospectively analyzed in relation to the causes of obstructive jaundice. The study included 134 patients (91 females and 43 males). Their ages varied from 8-90 years.

Results: Among 9 underlying causes of obstructive jaundice, the common bile duct stones were the most common cause, 68 patients (50.7%). Malignancies of pancreas and hepatobiliary tract came in the second place, 33 patients (24.6%), followed by 13 patients with stenosis of papilla of Vater (9.7%) and benign strictures of extrahepatic biliary ducts, 10 patients (7.4%).

Ascariis in common bile duct was found in 3 patients. Mirrizi's syndrome was found in 2 patients. Obstruction due to ruptured hydatid cyst was found in 2 patients. Two patients had amoebic liver abscesses. One patient had pancreatic pseudocyst.

Conclusion: Obstructive jaundice of Yemeni patients in our series was most often due to common bile duct stones followed by malignancy of pancreas and hepatobiliary tract. Cancer of the pancreas was the most common malignant cause. Rare causes such as ascariis in common bile duct was detected. Cooperation between surgeon and radiologist is highly recommended



*For correspondence: Email: drsaeedhadi@hotmail.com,

Tel: 00967-711694187 or 00967-771222418

**Present address: Department of Surgery, Ain Shams University, Egypt

*** Present address: Pediatric surgical department, Faculty of Medicine, Zagazig University, Egypt

INTRODUCTION

Jaundice in general is being defined as an increase in the concentration of bilirubin in the serum leading to yellowish discoloration of the skin and sclera [1]. However, obstructive jaundice implies partial or complete mechanical obstruction of the flow of the bile into the intestinal tract [2,3]. The most common causes of obstructive jaundice are common bile duct stones and malignancies of pancreas and biliary ducts [3,4,5,6,7]. Rare causes of obstructive jaundice include acquired disorders (worms, scarring from previous surgical procedures, bile duct inflammations) and congenital anomalies such as Choledochal cyst, biliary atresia, localized strictures and stenosis, compression of the extrahepatic bile ducts by vascular abnormalities and the stenosis of the ampulla of Vater [7]

While most of studies [3,4,6,8] reported hepatobiliary and pancreatic malignancies as the most common cause of obstructive jaundice, other studies [5] gave priority for common bile duct (CBD) stones to be the most common cause of obstructive jaundice. Unlike jaundice due to stones in CBD that is usually painful and intermittent with sudden onset, jaundice due to malignancy is painless and progressive with gradual onset.

The early diagnosis and timely treatment of obstructive jaundice is of a great importance, since pathological changes [purulent cholangitis or secondary biliary cirrhosis] may occur if obstruction is not relieved [1,2,9]. Therefore, the early surgical intervention may prevent development of such pathological complications. Our study is to determine the underlying causes of obstructive jaundice among Yemeni patients operated in two university hospitals between 2004 and 2008.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

One hundred forty four patients with obstructive jaundice were admitted to the Department of Surgery in Sana'a University Al-Kuwait hospital (123 patients) and Thamar University Al-Wahdah hospital (21 patients) between January 2004 and December 2008. There were 97 females and 47 males with mean age at 50.4 years. Ten patients of this number were excluded from the study because they died during preoperative period before surgical intervention was carried out due to advanced malignancies of the pancreas and hepatobiliary tract.

Therefore, the study included 134 patients. There were 91 females (68%) and 43 males (32%) cases with age groups varying from 8 to 90 years with mean age of 50.2 years.

The diagnosis of obstruction was based on history, clinical examination and investigation which included liver function test (LFTs) and imaging methods (abdominal sonography, abdominal CT and ERCP). Intraoperative finding and results of histopathology were used either to confirm or to correct preoperative diagnosis.

The types of surgical procedure performed depended upon the nature of obstructive jaundice and intraoperative finding.

Operative procedures

The surgical treatment of obstructive jaundice was performed depending on the cause and extension of the disease, general condition and age of the patient and experience of the surgical staff. For benign causes such as CBD stones and benign strictures, cholecystectomy and choledocho-duodenostomy or choledocho-jejunostomy, transduodenal papillosphincterotomy was carried out. Amoebic abscesses and ruptured hydatid cysts were

managed by cavity drainage. In cases of hydatid cysts T-Tube was inserted in CBD after the clearance of CBD lumen from daughter cysts and debris. Endoscopic retrograde papillosphincterotomy and stones extraction from CBD was used as late as 2005. Eleven patients (8.2%) with stone in CBD were managed by this modern method.

Hepaticojejunostomy was mostly performed for cholangiocarcinomas. Whipple's procedure (pancreatoduodenectomy+partial gastrectomy) was performed for pancreatic malignancy with gastric outlet obstruction. Two cases of obstructive jaundice due to malignancy of the pancreas with bad condition were managed just by cholecystostomy. Transhepatic drainage was applied for cases of inoperable hepatocellular carcinoma.

Explorative laparotomy was performed for advanced and irresectable malignancies.

RESULTS

The most common cause of obstruction of hepatobiliary ducts was common bile duct stones. Out of 134 patients, 68 patients (50.7 %) had jaundice due to stones in CBD. There were 46 females and 22 males with mean age at 39 years. Malignancy cases came in the second place in 33 patients (24.6 %). There were 23 females and 10 males with mean age at 54 years. Among these malignant cases, 16 patients had cancer of the pancreas to occupy the first place (48% of malignant cases, or 12% of all cases) followed by hepatocellular malignancy in 6 patients (18% of malignant cases, or 4.4 % of all cases). Cancer of the gallbladder comes in the last place before advanced inoperable cancer of the stomach. Distribution of malignancy causing obstructive jaundice is shown in (Table 1).

Thirteen patients (9.7%) were diagnosed as stenosis of papilla of Vater. These cases had mildly dilated common bile duct and increased preoperative LFTs, but neither stones in common bile duct, nor tumors or strictures were found. Preoperative sonography of extrahepatic biliary ducts in this group failed to reveal the causes of obstruction. It wrongly reported stones or sludge in CBD.

Table 1: Distribution of malignancies causing obstructive jaundice.

	Type of malignancy	Male	Female	Total	%
1	Malignancy of pancreas	4	12	16	%12
2	Hepatocellular malignancy	2	4	6	%4.4
3	Cholangiocarcinoma	1	3	4	%3
4	Periampullary carcinoma	1	3	4	%3
5	Cancer of the gallbladder	1	1	2	%1.5
6	Advanced gastric cancer (inoperable)	1	0	1	%0.7
	Total	10	23	33	%24.6

Ten jaundiced patients have benign strictures of extrahepatic biliary tree that cause obstructive jaundice (7.4%). Out of these 10 cases, 7 cases were caused by iatrogenic injury to extrahepatic ducts during previous operation for gallstones. Out of 7 iatrogenic cases, 2 cases have complete injury of right hepatic duct and five cases had postoperative strictures of common bile duct. Six of 7 iatrogenic cases were sent to our hospital from smaller hospitals. The remaining 3 cases had primary strictures of common bile duct.

Three patients (2.2%) with jaundice had worms (Ascaris) in their common bile ducts (one female and 2 young male patients). No marked dilatation of biliary tree was found in this group Fig 1.

Two patients (1.4%) had Mirrizi's syndrome as a cause of obstructive jaundice.

Another cause of obstructive jaundice in this study was ruptured hydatid cysts that obliterated hepatic ducts and CBD in two patients (1.4%) Fig2.

Two patients (1.4%) had big amoebic abscesses of the liver. The largest one is about 21x14cm and occupying almost the entire right hepatic lobe Fig 3.

One case with posttraumatic pseudocyst of the pancreas was found to be the cause of obstruction of biliary duct in one 8-year-old child. The causes of biliary obstruction in our study are shown in (Table2).

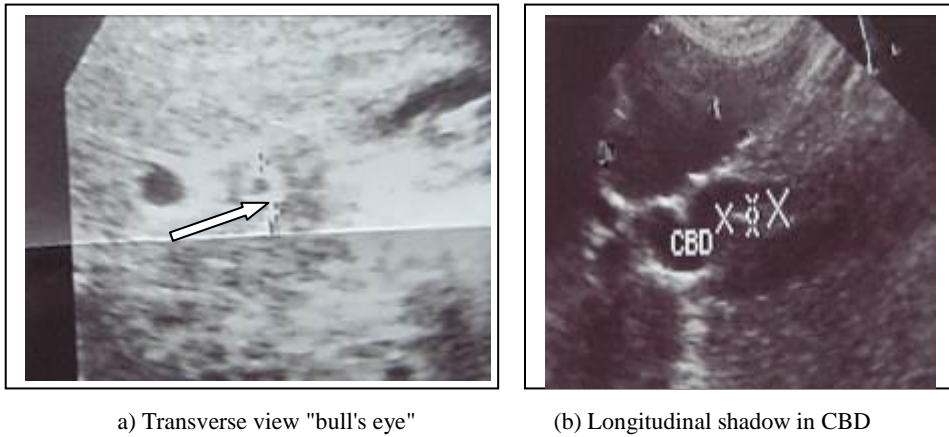
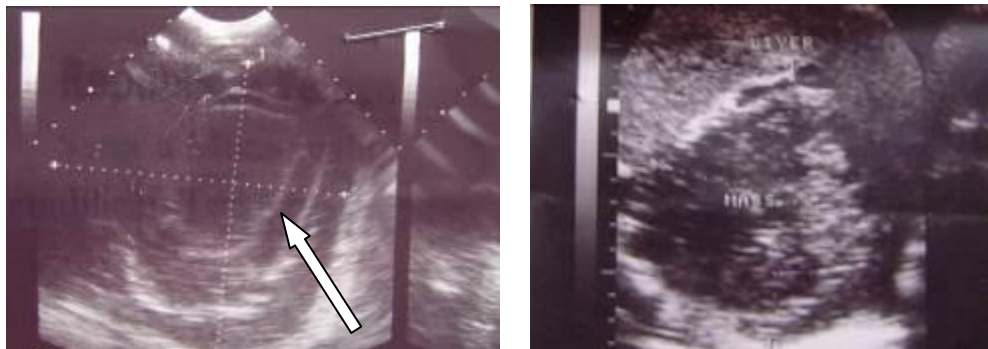


Figure (1): ultrasound finding: Ascaris in common bile ducts.



Arrow: detached laminated membrane

Figure (2): Ultrasound finding: Ruptured liver hydatid cyst Causing obstructive jaundice

Fig. 3: Ultrasound finding: Liver amoebic abscess

Regarding operative mortality and complications, 11 patients (8 %) died postoperatively within 2 weeks. There were 6 females and 5 males with mean age at 61.4 years. The majority of them succumbed to their primary diseases. As for operative complications, there were 9 (6.7%) cases with wound infection (5 females and 4 males); 5 females and 2 males (5.2%) had bile leakage that was conservatively dealt with and 6 patients (4.4%) with Chest infection. Sixteen patients (12%) had diarrhea; they were 9 females and 7 males. Immediate postoperative mortality is shown in (Table 3).

Table (2): The causes of biliary obstruction.

	Cause of obstructive jaundice	Male	Female	Total	%
1	Common bile duct stones	22	46	68	%50.7
2	Malignancy	10	23	33	%24.6
3	Stenosis of papilla of Vater	4	9	13	%9.7
4	Benign strictures of extrahepatic biliary tree	2	8	10	%7.4
5	Ascaris in CBD	2	1	3	%2.2
6	Mirrizi's syndrome	1	1	2	%1.4
7	Liver hydatid cyst	0	2	2	%1.4
8	Liver abscesses	1	1	2	%1.4
9	Pseudopancreatic cyst	1	0	1	%0.7
	Total	43	91	134	%100

Table (3): Immediate postoperative mortality

	Type of malignancy	Male	Female	Total%
	Inoperable hepatocellular carcinoma	1	2	3 %2.2
	Inoperable gastric cancer	1	0	1 %0.7
	Inoperable pancreatic cancer	2	3	5 %3.7
	Cholangiocarcinoma	1	1	2 %1.4
	T o t a l	5	6	11 %8

DISCUSSION

Obstructive jaundice has wide variation of etiology; it is not therefore a definitive diagnosis at the time of presentation. The obstructive jaundice syndrome is now common and its prevalence has increased with female preponderance [5]. Unlike obstructive jaundice due to stones in CBD that is usually painful with sudden onset and intermittent course, the jaundice due to malignancy has gradual and painless onset and it is progressive in course [6,7].

In the literature, the most common cause of obstructive jaundice is malignancy of pancreas and biliary ducts [3,4,6,7,8,10]. Muhammad S. et al [3] reported 54.17% of their patients having malignant causes of obstructive jaundice. Sharma MP et al [4] reported that 75.3% of their patients had malignancies of pancreas and hepatobiliary.

In our study, the most common cause of obstructive jaundice was stones in common biliary ducts (50.7%) followed by malignancy (24.6%). Grandic et al [5] reported similar findings. In our study, common bile duct stones are the most common cause of obstructive jaundice due to the nature of the jaundice, low health awareness among our patients and

lack of adequate equipments of our health institutions. Regarding the nature of the jaundice, patients suffering from stones in CBD usually search for medical service urgently because of sudden and painful onset of their complaint. They seek medical help earlier and usually receive treatment at the beginning of their complaint. In contrast, patients with obstructive jaundice due to malignancy have insidious and painless onset of their complaint. Thus they don't seek medical help as early as those with CBD stones. Most of these patients therefore present with an inoperable disease [11]. The patients mostly die before reaching the hospital or they die during preoperative period. This fact is apparent in our study: 10 patients with malignancy were excluded from the study because they died during preoperative period.

Stenosis of papilla is the second common cause of postcholecystectomy syndrome after missed stones in CBD [12]. It is postulated that stenosis of papilla is usually resulted from repeated injury of papilla and Oddi's sphincter during the passage of small stones through papilla to the duodenum or due to inflammation of the duodenum or pancreas [12,13]. In our study, 13 patients (9.7%) had benign stenosis of the papilla of Vater to become the third common cause of obstructive jaundice after CBD stones and malignancy. Surprisingly, there were no stones in common bile duct that might cause obstructive jaundice despite preoperative ultrasound reported either stones or sand sludge in CBD in all these cases. Therefore, stenosis of papilla can be explained in our study by repeated episodes of inflammation of papilla and its surroundings followed by healing by fibrous stenosing non-elastic tissue.

One further cause of obstructive jaundice was benign strictures of extrahepatic biliary ducts. An iatrogenic injury of biliary ducts is more likely to happen during simple cholecystectomy rather than during complicated cholecystectomy[12]. Undue self-confidence of the surgeon during simple cholecystectomy, insufficient approach and inappropriate lightening of operative field, bad assistance and inappropriate anesthesia, structural anomaly in Calot's triangle and impatience of the surgeon may lead to technical mistakes and iatrogenic injury of biliary ducts.

In our study, 10 patients (7.4%) had benign strictures of extrahepatic biliary ducts. Unfortunately, 7 of these patients with obstructive jaundice had iatrogenic injury of extrahepatic biliary ducts during previous operations. Only one case occurred in our department, while others were transferred to our hospital from smaller peripheral hospitals. It is postulated that bad assisting increases possibility of injury of surrounding structures. It is not uncommon that our surgeons perform cholecystectomy alone and sometime do CBD exploration just with scrubbing nurse assistance. This inevitably leads to iatrogenic injury to surrounding structures.

Ascaris lumbricoides is the most common nematode found in the human gastrointestinal tract with a greater prevalence in developing tropical and subtropical countries [13,14]. It normally inhabits the small intestine and have propensity to migrate through the ampulla of Vater to lodge in the gallbladder and biliary tract [15] and may give rise to serious conditions such as biliary colic, acute cholecystitis, acute pancreatitis, acute cholangitis and hepatic abscess [16,17,18].

The cause of obstructive jaundice in 3 of our patients (2.2%) was the presence of *ascaris* in common bile duct. Manzor Salim [19] reported higher percentage at (10.26%). It is attributed to the high incidence of parasites infestation in our developing country probably due to low socioeconomic conditions and poor sanitation. Since there was no dilatation of

CBD, we managed these cases by milking the worms to the duodenum followed by postoperatively albendazole tab 400mg as a daily single dose for 3 consecutive days. We did not try to extract worms through choledochotomy in order to avoid the possibility of worms' immigration to the peritoneal cavity through stitches.

Another etiological factor of obstructive jaundice is amoebic cysts and abscesses in the liver. Amoebiasis is the infection of the human gastrointestinal tract by *Entamoeba histolytica*, a parasite that is capable of invading the intestinal mucosa and may spread to other organs; mainly the liver usually in right lobe [20]. Amoebic Liver Cyst (ALC) might be infected to become Abscess (ALA) [21]. It is usually solitary in (30% - 70%) of patients and large enough to produce compression syndrome and obstructive jaundice [20, 21]. Amoebiasis is common in Asia, Africa, South America and the Middle East, probably because of poor sanitation and low socioeconomic conditions [21, 22]. In our study there were 2 cases (1.4%) of ALA that were compressing upon the biliary ducts and produced a feature of obstructive jaundice. They were managed surgically by open drainage. Amoebicidal Metronidazole was postoperatively given in 500mg tid for 10 days. However, one ALA case developed a biliary leak through the drainage site that stopped spontaneously within 2 weeks.

In the literature, the Mirrizi's syndrome is frequently used to describe a rare entity consisting of an anatomic variation of the cystic duct or neck of the gallbladder, an impacted gallstone in the cystic duct, and a benign mechanical obstruction of the hepatic duct causing jaundice and cholangitis [23].

In our study we found 2 patients with obstructive jaundice due to Mirrizi's syndrome (1.4 %).

Alam A. M et al [24] reported almost a similar (1.6%) finding among 60 patients who underwent cholangiography for obstructive jaundice.

Hydatid disease may affect any organ of the body; and liver is involved most commonly. The rupture of the cyst is a serious complication [17]. After cyst rupture into the biliary system, daughter cysts and membranes pass into biliary ducts producing obstructive jaundice. We found 2 cases (1.4%) of obstructive jaundice due to rupturing liver hydatid cysts into biliary tree. Both cases were managed surgically. An excision of the dome, evacuation and drainage of cyst cavity was performed. Cholecystectomy and T-Tube insertion in the common bile duct was performed. Albendazole tab was given in 600 mg in 2 divided doses for 2 months. The clinical outcome was good except one patient who developed wound infection.

The less common cause of obstructive jaundice is pseudo-cyst of the pancreas. Usually pseudo-cyst of pancreas is regarded a complication of pancreatitis. However, pancreatitis in our country is very rare. Our case of one 11 year-old young patient had history of trauma to the abdomen one year ago. Therefore, we attribute this finding to that trauma rather than to pancreatitis.

CONCLUSION

Stones of common and hepatic bile ducts are the most common cause of obstructive jaundice in our study. In the second place come malignancies of pancreas and hepatobiliary tract. The cancer of the pancreas was the most common malignant cause of obstructive jaundice.

Cooperation between surgeon and radiologist to diagnose the underlying cause of obstructive jaundice and identify its location should be a routine practice, and has a priority because the outcome of surgical treatment of obstructive jaundice depends on the stage of the disease at the time of presentation. The early surgical intervention therefore prevents developing fatal complications especially in malignant cases.

REFERENCES

- [1] Briggs C D and Peterson M. (ed), (2007). Investigation and management of obstructive jaundice. Elsevier Ltd, Surgery, pp 74-80.
- [2] Blakeborough A, Thomas W E G.(ed),(2003) Investigation and management of obstructive jaundice. The Medicine Publishing Company; Surgery, pp105-112.
- [3] Muhammad S, Syed Abdullah I.(2007). Management of Obstructive Jaundice: Experience in a Tertiary Care Surgical Unit. Pakistan Journal of Surgery, 23 (1): 23-25.
- [4] Sharma MP, Ahuja V.(1999). Aetiological spectrum of obstructive jaundice and diagnostic ability of Ultrasonography: a clinician's perspective. Tropical Gastroenterology, 20 (4):167-9.
- [5] Leo Grandic, Zdravko Perko, Josip Banovic, Zenon Pogorelic, Nenad Ilic, Ivana Jukic, Dragan Saric and Andro Tripkovic. (2007). Our experience in the treatment of obstructive icterus. Acta Clin Croat, 46: 175-160.
- [6] Pitiakoudi M, Mimidis K, Tsaroucha AK, Papadopoulos V, Karayiannakis A, Simopoulos C. (2004). Predictive value of risk factors in patients with obstructive jaundice. Journal of Internal Medicine Research. 32(6):633-8.
- [7] David K. Yousefzadeh, Robert T. Soper, and Joseph H. Jackson, Jr.(1979). Obstructive Jaundice due to Congenital Stenosis of the Ampulla of Vater. Gastrointest Radiology, 4: 379-382.
- [8] Moghimi M, Marashi AS, Salehian MT, Sheikvatan M.(2008). Obstructive jaundice in Iran: factors Affecting early outcome. Hepatobiliary Pancreatic Diseases Int, 7(5):515-9.
- [9] Craig P. Fisher, Mark Fernandez, O. James Graden.(2002). Papillary cholangiocarcinoma: A case of Intermittent obstructive jaundice. Surgery, 131 (2): 234-235.
- [10] M.W. Whitehead, I Hainswarth, J G C Kingham.(2001). The causes of obvious jaundice in South West Wales: Perception versus reality. An International Journal of Gastroenterology and hepatology, 48: 409-413
- [11] Lee CK, Barrios BR, Bjarnason H.(1997). Biliary tree malignancies: the University of Minnesota Experience. Journal of Surgical Oncology, 65(4):298-305
- [12] Chung JP, Cho JC, Park YN, Lee SJ, Lee KS, Chung JB, Lee SI, Kang JK, Kim KW and Chi HS.(1999). Obstructive jaundice and acute cholangitis due to papillary stenosis. Yonsei Medical Journal, 40(2):191-4.
- [13] de la Fuente-Lira M, Molotla X. C, Rocha G. ER.(2006). Biliary ascariasis. Case report and review of The literature. Cir Cir. 74(3):195-8.

- [14] Sanai FM, AlKarawi MA.(2007). Biliary Ascariasis: Report of a complicated case and literature review. Saudi Journal of Gastroenterology, 13: 25-32.
- [15] Gohil YM, Patel SB, Goswami KG, Shah S, Soni H.(2006) Ultrasonography in Obstructive Jaundice. Pictorial Essay. Indian Journal of Radiological Imaging, 16(4): 477-481
- [16] Sandouk F, Haffar S, Zada MM, Graham DY, Anand BS.(1997]. Pancreatic-biliary ascariasis: Experience of 300 cases. American Journal of Gastroenterology, 92 (12) 2264-7
- [17] Ersoz G, Ustun S. and Dagci H.(2001). Obstructive jaundice and acute pancreatitis due to biliary Ascariasis. Turkey Journal of Gastroenterology, 12 (2): 154-157.
- [18] Tzee-cheng C, Adam E, Edmund M.(1966). A case of fatal biliary ascariasis. Singapore Medical Journal, 7(4): 246-249.
- [19] Manzor S.(2000). Biliary Ascariasis. Pakistan Journal of Surgery, 16(1-2) 37.
- [20] Sharma MP and Ahuja V.(2003). Amoebic liver abscess. Journal of Indian Academy of Clinical Medicine, 4 (2): 107-1011.
- [21] Jesus V Perez Jr.(2006). Amoebic liver abscess: Revisited. Philadelphia Journal of Gastroenterology, 2: 11-13.
- [22] Anil K.S, Ravi K, Anju G, Vikash M, Pashupati K.J. and Sumit P.(1998). Amoebic liver abscess with Jaundice. Surgery Today Journal of Surgery, 28:305-307.
- [23] Starling JR and Matallana RH.(1980). Benign mechanical obstruction of the common hepatic duct (Mirizzi syndrome). Surgery, 88(5):737-40.
- [24] AM Alam, G Rudra, Sh I Lutfi, S Dhiraj, V Pradeep and P Sunil.(2007). Biliary obstruction. Evaluation with direct cholangiography. International Journal of Radiology, 5 (2).

طيف أسباب اليرقان الإنسدادي "تجربتنا في مستشفيات جامعيين في اليمن"

سعيد هادي البهلولي^{1*}، محمد عبدالهادي البهلولي²،
شعبان محمد عبدالمجيد³، إسماعيل محمد طنطاوي⁴

- 1 قسم الجراحة العامة، كلية الطب والعلوم الصحية، جامعة ذمار- اليمن
 - 2 قسم الأطفال، كلية الطب والعلوم الصحية، جامعة ذمار- اليمن
 - 3 العنوان الحالي: قسم الجراحة العامة، كلية الطب، جامعة عين شمس- مصر
 - 4 العنوان الحالي: قسم جراحة الأطفال، كلية الطب، جامعة الزقازيق- مصر
- * للتواصل : Email: drsaedhadi@hotmail.com

ملخص

يُعد انسداد القنوات الصفراوية حالة جراحية طارئة يصعب تحديد أسبابها قبل إجراء العملية الجراحية، والتشخيص المبكر لتلك الأسباب وبالتالي العلاج المبكر للحالة يقلل من المضاعفات الخطيرة المحتملة. هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة الأسباب المختلفة لانسداد القنوات الصفراوية.

المرضى وطرق البحث:

تم دراسة وتحليل المعلومات المتعلقة بالمرضى الذين خضعوا لعمليات جراحية بسبب انسداد القنوات الصفراوية في قسمي الجراحة العامة بمستشفى الوحدة الجامعي بجامعة ذمار ومستشفى الكويت الجامعي بجامعة صنعاء وذلك في الفترة من يناير 2003 وحتى ديسمبر 2008 بهدف معرفة وتحديد أسباب انسداد القنوات الصفراوية. شملت الدراسة 134 مريضاً (91 من الإناث و 43 من الذكور) وتراوح أعمارهم من 8 إلى 90 سنة.

النتائج:

تم تحديد 9 أسباب لانسداد القنوات الصفراوية، وان حصوات القنوات الصفراوية هي أكثر الأسباب وجوداً حيث سببت انسداد تلك القنوات عند 68 مريضاً (50.7%). كما إن سرطان البنكرياس والكبد والقنوات الصفراوية قد تسببت في انسداد القنوات الصفراوية عند 33 مريضاً (24.6%) يتصدرها سرطان البنكرياس. في المرتبة الثالثة تأتي تضيق "بؤبؤ فاتر" لدى 13 مريضاً (9.7%) ثم تضيق القنوات الصفراوية لدى 10 مرضى (7.4%). كما تسببت دودة الإسكارس في انسداد القنوات الصفراوية عند 3 مرضى، ميريز سيندروم عند 2 مرضى، وتسببت الأكياس المائية في الكبد والأميبية عند حالتين من المرضى، أما الأكياس الكاذبة للبنكرياس فقد تسببت في انسداد القنوات الصفراوية عند حالة واحدة.

الخلاصة:

هناك تسعة عوامل تسببت في انسداد القنوات الصفراوية في دراستنا، وتعتبر حصوات القنوات الصفراوية السبب الرئيس، ثم سرطان البنكرياس والكبد والقنوات الصفراوية حيث يأتي سرطان البنكرياس في المقدمة. ومن الأسباب النادرة لانسداد القنوات الصفراوية وجود دودة الإسكارس في تلك القنوات. ننصح بالتعاون والتكامل بين الجراح وأخصائي الأشعة لتحديد ومعرفة الأسباب قبل إجراء التدخل الجراحي. الكلمات الدالة: اليرقان الإنسدادي- انسداد القنوات الصفراوية- الأسباب.

Bacterial Contamination in Some Hospitals in Thamar

Maha Al-Alousi*, Ahmed Al-Shehari, Thikra Al-Omary and A. Al-Alwi

College of medicine and health sciences/ University of Thamar

* Correspondence to Dr. Maha Al-Alousi: al_khansaa77@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Contamination of hospital departments is a major cause of hospital acquired infections (nosocomial infection). Multi reservoirs have been reported as being responsible for hospital contamination, particularly delivery theaters, intensive care units (I.C.U), instruments, canuola, stethoscopes, etc. This study was carried out in 2010, and aimed to evaluate the incidence of bacterial contamination of Thamar hospital and Alwehda teaching hospital in Thamar city/Yemen. 263 swabs collected from instruments, equipments, devices, mobiles, blankets, gowns, and others, of different hospital departments, and examined for bacterial contamination. Resistance to commonly used antimicrobials is evaluated in positive cultures. This study showed that the rate of positive cultures in Thamar hospital is 28% (44 were positive out of 156 examined). Of the 44 positive cultures: 77.2% were Gram positive and 22.7% were Gram negative. *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) was the most common isolate, represent 41% and present in almost all items examined, whereas non-coagulase staphylococcus, which is the predominant in second place, represent 18.2%. The rate of positive cultures in Alwehda teaching hospital is 7.5% (8 were positive out of 107 examined). Of the 8 positive cultures: 87.5% were gram positive and 12.5% were Gram negative. Non-coagulase staphylococcus was the most common isolate represent 50%, whereas *S. aureus* came second, represent 37.5%. The resistance rate to commonly used antimicrobials in isolated bacteria from hospitals departments and instruments varied and no clear pattern was found except that all isolates showed a high resistance rate to Ampicilin. *S. aureus* showed a high resistance rate to Ampicilin (85% resistant), while it showed a low resistance rate to vancomycin (4.8%).

INTRODUCTION

Nosocomial infections are infections which are a result of treatment in a hospital or a healthcare service unit. Infections are considered nosocomial if they first appear 48 hours or more after hospital admission or within 30 days



after discharge. This type of infection is also known as a hospital-acquired infection (HAI) (or more generically healthcare-associated infection) [1, 15, 2].

Nosocomial infections occur worldwide and affect both developed and resource-poor countries.

A prevalence survey conducted under the auspices of WHO in 55 hospitals of 14 countries representing 4 WHO regions (Europe, Eastern Mediterranean, South-East Asia and Western Pacific) showed an average of 8.7% of hospital patients had nosocomial infections at any time and over 1.4 million people worldwide suffer from infectious complications acquired in hospitals [4]. The so-called hospital infections are among the main causes of morbidity and mortality in hospitals. Also, they increase hospital stays and costs [10]. The hospital acquired infection is estimated to more than double mortality, and morbidity risk of any admitted patient [9], and probably result in as many as 70,000 death per year, in the United States [17].

Nosocomial infections can cause severe pneumonia and infections of the urinary tract, bloodstream and other parts of the body[1].

Hospital contamination is the most probable cause of nosocomial infection. Contaminations of hospital equipments, hands of staff , and improper use of detergent, disinfectant, and antibiotics, affect patient directly, and may result in nosocomial infection [7, 14].

20% of hospital patients suffer from infection: half of them are admitted with, and often because of, their infection (community acquired); the other half develop their infection during their hospital stay (hospital acquired)[18, 19].

Multi reservoirs have been reported as being responsible for hospital contamination, particularly delivery theater, instruments, intensive care units (I.C.U), canola, and stethoscope, operating theaters, purified water systems, personal phones and hospital air [6, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18].

Some patients are at greater risk than others for acquiring HAIs due to the presence of certain risk factors which alter their susceptibility to infection. These risk factors may be roughly divided into 2 groups: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic risk factors are factors inherent to the patient and include the presence of acute medical/surgical disease, and severity of illness. Extrinsic risk factors relate to the types of medical practice performed at individual staff or hospital level and the mix of patients within hospitals. For example, urinary catheterisation, parenteral nutrition, mechanical ventilation, tracheostomy, and surgical contamination are significantly associated with HAIs [7].

Many factors promote infection among hospitalized patients such as: decreased immunity among patients, the increasing variety of medical procedures, invasive techniques creating potential routes of infection and the transmission of drug-resistant bacteria among crowded hospital populations, where poor infection control practices may facilitate transmission frequency of infection [7,8] . Infection rates are higher among patients with increased susceptibility because of old age, underlying disease, or chemotherapy.

The majority of hospital acquired infections are due to common organisms, example; urinary infections due to coliform, wound infection due to *S. aureus*, pneumonia due to *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, septicemia is the most serious infection, and is associated with significant mortality: most often due to coliforms, *S. aureus*, *S. epidermidis*[18].

Many reports worldwide have indicated the strong involvement of bacteria in hospital contamination and consequently in nosocomial infection [3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 16].

In Baghdad/Iraq (2001-2002), a study [6] on "Microbial contamination in the operating theaters", showed that in 2001 the rate of positive cultures were 3.7%, and 4% in 2002. In 2001 *S. epidermidis* was the most common isolate in 39%, followed by *P. aeruginosa* that was 30.4%, whereas in 2002 coliform bacteria were the highest 62.5%, followed by *P. aeruginosa* 25%. In Kerman, Iran in 2009, a study [16] showed that nearly 40% of health care worker's dominant hands, and 32% of their mobile phones were contaminated with *S. epidermidis* (77% of bacterial contamination), followed by 12.5% contaminated with *S. aureus*, the percentage of contamination in all mobile phones is about 32.5% and , 59% of hands. Bernard, et al (1999) found that 85% of hospital physicians' stethoscope were contaminated, of which 9% showed the common isolated pathogen, *S. aureus* [4].

The microbiota from the uniforms of 31 professionals from the general intensive care unit was analyzed [11]. 39% of pathogens were Gram negative and 61% were Gram positive. *S. aureus*, was among the isolated pathogens. Some of these isolates were multi-resistant to antibiotics. Bacterial Distribution Analysis in the Atmosphere of two Hospitals in Ibb/Yemen was studied by Al-shahwani [13]. and revealed a high level of bacterial counts.

Nosocomial infections caused by multi-drugs resistance Gram positive organism, such as, *S. aureus*, MRSA, VISA and Enterococcus species are a growing problem in many health care institutions [5, 12].

Intensive use of broad spectrum antibiotics has likewise facilitated the emergence of resistance among gram-negative bacteria. Enterobacteriaceae, *Pseudomonas* species, and other gram-negative bacteria have become increasingly resistant to most first-line antibiotics, including third-generation cephalosporins, monobactams, aminoglycosides, and quinolones [8].

This study aimed to evaluate the incidence of bacterial contamination in Thamar and Alwehda teaching hospitals in Thamar city/Yemen, to identify contaminating agent and their distribution within different theaters and to identify the resistance rate of isolated bacteria to some of commonly used antibiotics.

MATERIAL & METHODS

Material

263 swabs were collected from different departments of Thamar hospital and Alwehda teaching hospital in Thamar city, Yemen .

The samples were as follow:

- a. 156 samples from Thamar hospital; 50 samples from Operation rooms, 52 samples from the nursery, 8 samples from the doctor's mobiles, 15 samples from the blankets of the patients, 8 samples from the doctor's stethoscopes, 23 samples from others (Lock of door, floor, gowns (hospital staff uniforms), Medicine table, sink).
- b. 107 samples from Alwehda teaching hospital: 50 samples from Operation rooms, 9 samples from intensive care unit (ICU), 10 samples from the doctor's mobiles, 15 samples from the blankets of the patients, 7 samples from the doctor's stethoscopes, 16 samples from others (Lock of door, floor, gowns, Medicine table, sink).
- c. Controls included in this study were as follows: sterile swabs were selected randomly and cultured on Blood, Chocolate and MacConkey agar.

Methods

Samples were collected by taking a smear of selected devices, instruments, mobiles and others, using a moist sterile swabs. Samples were then returned to the laboratory and Agar plates were marked according to the sites. Swabs obtained were cultured directly on prepared Blood, Chocolate and MacConkey agar. by streaking method, and standard method of inoculation. The inoculated plates were incubated aerobically overnight at 37 °C, for 24 hours while chocolate agar plates were incubated anaerobically at 37 °C for 24-48 hours.

All bacterial growths were then subjected to identification: Morphology of colony on culture media, appearance of colony, such as : hemolytic pigmentation, mucous production, swarming phenomena and lactose fermentation. Further identifications were done by biochemical tests, including: the oxidase ,catalase , gelatinase , KIA, MIU, and citrate tests.

Bacterial isolates were inoculated in Muller Hinton Agar , and several antimicrobial were added to observe inhibition zones. The following types of antibiotics were used in this study: Cephotaxime , Ampicillin , Augmentin , Gentamicin ,Vancomycin. 52 positive cultures were subjected to sensitivity tests

RESULTS

Culture results

The total number of swabs cultured were 263 ; 156 from Thamar hospital and 107 from Alwehda teaching hospital.

All control samples were negative. Out of 156 samples cultures, 44 samples were positive (showing bacterial growth), making the percentage of contamination in Thamar hospital 28%. The distribution of positive cultures in Thamar hospital is presented in table;1

Table (1): Distribution of positive samples cultures in Thamar hospital.

Department	No. of samples examined			Type of bacteria
	Total	+ve	-ve	
Operation room	50	6 (12%)	44 (88%)	<u>S. aureus</u> , <u>Proteus spp.</u> , <u>Bacillus cereus</u> , Non-coagulase staphylococcus
I.C.U	-	-	-	
Nursery	52	18 (34.6%)	34 (65.4%)	<u>Proteus spp.</u> , <u>K. pneumonia</u> , <u>Pseudomonas</u> spp., streptococcus, <u>S. aureus</u> , non-Coagulase staphylococcus., <u>Streptococcus</u> spp.,
Mobiles	8	1 (12.5%)	7 (87.5%)	<u>S. aureus</u>
Blankets	15	10 (66.7%)	5 (33.3%)	<u>S. aureus</u> ,non-Coagulase staphylococcus., <u>Streptococcus</u> spp., <u>Bacillus cereus</u>
Stethoscopes	8	1 (12.5%)	7 (87.5%)	<u>S. aureus</u> .
Gowns	12	2 (16.7%)	10 (83.3%)	<u>S. aureus</u>
Others	11	6 (54.5%)	5 (45.5%)	<u>S. aureus</u> , <u>Proteus spp.</u> , <u>Pseudomonas</u> spp.
Total	156	44 (28%)	112 (72%)	

Of the 44 positive cultures: *S. aureus* was isolated in 18 samples (41%), *non-coagulase staphylococcus* in 8 (18.2%), *Bacillus cereus* in 6 (13.6%), *Proteus* spp. in 5 (11.4%), *Pseudomonas* spp. in 3 (6.8%), *Streptococcus* spp. in 2 (4.5%), *K. pneumonia* in one culture, and *E. coli* is also isolated in just one culture (2.3% for each) (table; 2)

Table (2): Distribution of bacterial contamination in Thamar hospital

Types of bacteria	Hospital departments.								
	Operation room	I.C. U	mobiles	blankets	Stethoscopes	gowns	Others	nursery	Total
<i>S. aureus</i>	2 (33.3 %)	-	1 (100%)	6 (60%)	1 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (33.3%)	4 (22.2 %)	18 (41%)
<i>Proteus</i> spp.	1 (16.7%)	-	-	-	-	-	2 (33.3%)	2 (11.1%)	5 (11.4 %)
Non-coagulase staphylococcus.	1 (16.7%)	-	-	1 (10%)	-	-	1 (16.7%)	5 (27.8%)	8 (18.2 %)
<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (16.7%)	2 (11.1%)	3 (6.8%)
<i>Streptococcus</i> spp.	-	-	-	1 (10%)	-	-	-	1 (5.6%)	2 (4.5%)
<i>K .pneumonia</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (5.6%)	1 (2.3%)
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	2 (33.3%)	-	-	2 (20%)	-	-	-	2 (11.1%)	6 (13.6%)
<i>E.coli</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (5.6%)	1 (2.3%)
Total	6	-	1	10	1	2	6	18	44 (100%)

In Alwehda teaching hospital, out of 107 cultures, 8 were positive, making the percentage of contamination 7.5%. The distribution of positive cultures in Alwehda teaching hospital is presented in table; 3.

Table (3): Distribution of positive samples cultures in Alwehda teaching hospital.

Department.	No. of samples examined			Type of bacteria
	Total	+ve	-ve	
Operation room	50	2 (4%)	48 (96%)	S. aureus, proteus spp.
I.C.U	9	1 (11%)	8 (89%)	Non-coagulase staphylococcus
Mobiles	10	-	10 100%	-
Nusery	-	-	-	-
Blankets	15	4 (26.7%)	11 (73.3%)	S. aureus ,non-coagulase staphylococcus
Stethoscopes	7	-	7 (100%)	-
Gowns	8	-	8 (100%)	-
Others	8	1 (12.5%)	7 (87.5%)	S. aureus
Total	107	8 (7.5%)	99 (92.5%)	-

Of the 8 positive cultures, *S. aureus* was isolated in 3 cultures (37.5%), *non-coagulase staphylococcus* in 4 cultures (50%) and *Proteus spp.* in just one culture (12.5%) (table;4)

Table (4): Distribution of bacterial contamination in Alwehda teaching hospital.

Types of bacteria	Hospital departments.								
	Operation room	I.C.U	mobiles	blankets	Stetho-scopes	Gowns	Others	nursery	Total
S. aureus	1 50%	-	-	1 (25%)	-	-	1 (100%)	-	3 (37.5%)
Proteus spp.	1 50%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (12.5%)
Non-coagulase stapylococcus	-	1 100%	-	3 (75%)	-	-	-	-	4 (50%)
Total	2	1	-	4	-	-	1	-	8 (100%)

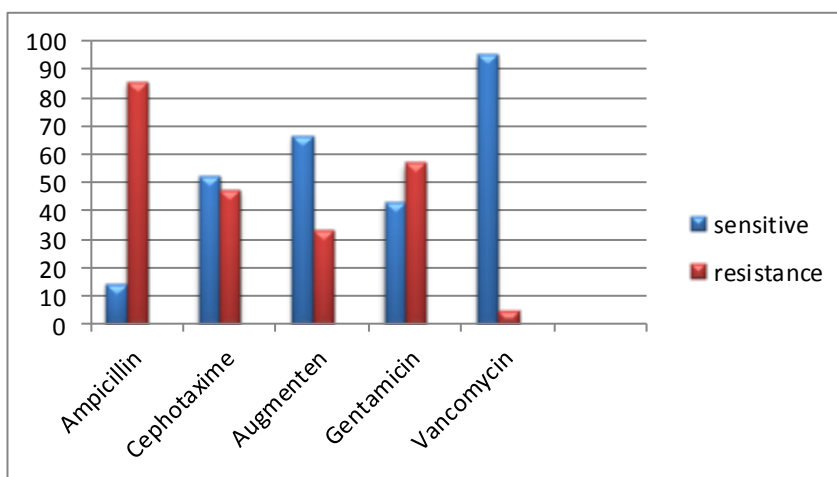
Sensitivity results

The resistance rate of the isolated bacteria to the antibiotics in this study was: 25% for Vancomycin, 25.5% for Augmenten, 33% for Cephotaxime, 53% for Gentamicin and 81% for Ampicillin (table;5)

Table (5): Bac,terial resistance to antibiotics

Type of antibiotics	Sensitive %	Resistant %
Ampicillin	19%	81%
Cephotaxime	67%	33%
Augmenten	74.5%	25.5%
Gentamicin	47%	53%
Vancomycin	75%	25%

The resistance rate of *S. aureus* to the antibiotics used in this study was as follow: 85.7% resistant to Ampicillin, 57% to Gentamicin, 47% to Cephotaxime, 33.3% to Augmentin and 4.8% to Vancomycin (Figure 1)

**Figure (1): S. aureus resistance to antibiotics**

DISCUSSION.

This study was carried out in the year 2010, to evaluate the incidence of bacterial contamination of two largest hospitals in Thamar city/Yemen.

In this study the percent of bacterial contamination in Thamar hospital and Al-Wehda teaching hospitals was: 28% & 7.5% respectively.

The contamination percentage differ from one theater to another, the highest contaminated department in this study was the nursery in Thamar hospital (34.6%).

The results of this study regarding types of bacteria isolated are similar to other studies published^[4, 6, 16], but the percent of hospital contamination in this study is higher, especially than that of Ensayef et al,^[6] who reported a low contamination rate compared to this study (3.7% in 2001 and 4% in 2002).

This might be due to the level of hygiene in different countries. In this study, 12.5% (1 out of 8 examined) of doctor's mobiles in Thamar hospital found to be contaminated with

S. aureus. The results of this study is lower than that reported by Sephehri et al,^[16] in Iran who isolated the same bacteria but reported high rate of contamination (32.5%).

Regarding physicians' stethoscopes, S. aureus was isolated from one out of 8 swabs examined (12.5%) in Thamar hospital. The rate of contamination of this study is much lower than that of Bernard, et al^[4] who reported 85% of physicians' stethoscope were contaminated with bacteria, of which 9% showed the common isolated pathogen, S. aureus).

The isolation of Bacillus cereus in this study has not been reported before in hospital theatres except in an investigation^[3] into two cases of post-operative Bacillus cereus meningitis which revealed that hospital linen was heavily contaminated by Bacillus cereus spores. Spores of Bacillus cereus can be found widely in nature, including samples of dust^[23]. The bacteria isolated in this study may be from the dust as Thamar city is known for its dusty weather.

In this study 16.7% (2 out of 10) of professional uniforms in Thamar hospital were found to be contaminated with S. aureus. These results are, in part, in agreement with those related in other reports^[11, 20, 22], which detected certain pathogens, e.g. S. aureus which was the only Gram-positive pathogen isolated.

The isolation of pathogens from uniforms of hospital staff reinforces the need for more care with clothing.

In this study, 10 out of 15 blankets examined for bacterial contamination in Thamar hospital were culture positive. In Alwehda teaching hospital, only 4 blankets out of 15 examined were positive. S. aureus, non-Coagulase Staphylococcus, Streptococcus species and Bacillus cereus were isolated. In any environment, blankets can become a haven for bacteria. These bacteria usually represent a spectrum of Gram positive and Gram negative organisms capable of producing infections. In a hospital environment, fever and sweat are common and an excellent source of bacterial contamination^[21].

This study also aimed to identify the resistance rate of contaminating bacteria to some antibiotics. The following types of antibiotics were used in this study as they are commonly given by doctors for bacterial infections: Cephotaxime, Ampicillin, Augmenten, Gentamicin, and Vancomycin.

S. aureus showed a high resistance rate to Ampicillin (85% resistant), while showed a low resistance rate to vancomycin (4.8%).

Today, S. aureus has become resistant to many commonly used antibiotics. In the UK, only 2% of all S. aureus isolates are sensitive to penicillin with a similar picture in the rest of the world^[26]. The most effective defense used today against methicillin-resistant S. aureus (called MRSA) is vancomycin. However, the increasing use of vancomycin has set the stage for the evolution of vancomycin-resistant S. aureus (called VRSA). Scientists expect strains of the bacterium S. aureus that are fully resistant to the antibiotic vancomycin to evolve soon^[25]. All types of bacteria isolated in this study showed a high resistance rate to Ampicillin and most of the isolated bacteria had some resistance to other antibiotics commonly used in therapy. The similar resistance profile of some microorganisms of the same species isolated from different items suggests that these could have had a common source of contamination. Also, the widespread use of antibiotic for these organisms might cause the resistance. Careful use of anti-microbial agents, such as antibiotics, is vital.

CONCLUSION

In summary the result of this study showed that there is bacterial contamination in both Thamar and Alwehda teaching hospitals, which may cause nosocomial infection to patients who stay in hospitals, and to medical staff and visitors.

The percent of bacterial contamination in Thamar hospital and Al-Wehda teaching hospitals was: 28% & 7.5% respectively. *S. aureus* & non-Coagulase *Staphylococcus* were the most common isolates. All bacterial isolates showed high resistance rate to Ampicilin. *S. aureus* was highly sensitive to Vancomycin.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank Dr. Ahmed Al-Hadhrany, the president of Thamar University for his support. The authors also thank the managers of Thamar and Alwehda teaching hospitals for allowing the research group to take smears. Thanks are also due to the following students for their participation in this study: Basheer Otail, Mohamed Kaid, Amani Abuanza, Jamila Jaid, Khulood hasan. Moshera alansi, Nasot Rashid, Saleh alkhader, Wafa Abdulaziz, Jihad Al-Hamoudi, Adham Alhadji, Salah Saleh, & Ali rizq

REFERENCES

- [1] Abert B, Max S,(2002).Microbiology and microbial infection, 9th edition, Volume III:13:191-195.
- [2] Ayliffe Gaj, (2008).Hospital hygiene and infection control,chapter14:pp148-158
- [3] Barrie D, Hoffman PN, Wilson JA, Kramer JM (1994) Contamination of hospital linen by *Bacillus cereus*. Epidemiol Infect. ;113(2):297-306
- [4] Bernard L, Kereveur A, Durand D, et al. (1999). Bacterial contamination of hospital stethoscope, *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 20 (9): 274-276.
- [5] El-Mishad M. Abla,(2005).Manual of medical microbiology and immunity, 5th dition, Vol. II:2; 6-7
- [6] Ensayef E, Shalchi S, Sabber M. (2009).Microbial contamination in the operating theater: a study in hospital in Baghdad. *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, 15 (1):219-223.
- [7] Grady O,(2002). Guidelines for the prevention of intravascular catheter related infection. *Pediatrics* ;110: 51-51.
- [8] Lautenbach E (2001). "Chapter 14. Impact of Changes in Antibiotic Use Practices on Nosocomial Infections and Antimicrobial Resistance—*Clostridium difficile* and Vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus* (VRE)". in Markowitz AJ. *Making Health Care Safer: A Critical Analysis of Patient Safety Practices*. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. 2005. 10th Epiet Scientific Seminar. Mahon, Menorca, Spain, 13-15 October 2005 [Poster].
- [9] Madigan M; Martinko J (2005). *Brock Biology of Microorganisms*, 11th edition. Prentice Hall.

- [10] Mangram A.J., Horan T.C., Pearson M.L., et al. (1999) Guideline for prevention of surgical site infection. *Am J Infect Control*; 27:97-134.
- [11] Marcelo Pilonetto; Edvaldo Antonio Ribeiro Rosa; Paulo Roberto Slud Brofman; Daniela Baggio; Francine Calvário; Cristiane Schelp; Aguinaldo Nascimento; Iara Messias-Reason (2004): Hospital gowns as a vehicle for bacterial dissemination in an intensive care unit. *Braz J Infect Dis* ; 8 (3)
- [12] McBryde ES, Bradley LC, Whitby M, McElwain DL (2004). "An investigation of contact transmission of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*". *J. Hosp. Infect.*; 58 (2): 104–8.
- [13] Muhammad F. Al-Shahwani (2004):Bacterial Distribution Analysis in the Atmosphere of Two Hospitals at Ibb City, Yemen. *J. King Saud Univ.*;17 (1): 9-15
- [14] Pittet D, Dharan S, Touveneau S, Sauvan V, Perneger TV.(1999) Bacterial contamination of the hand of hospital staff during routine patient care. *Arch Inter. Med.*; 159 (8):821:826.
- [15] Pollack, Andrew. (2010) "Rising Threat of Infections Unfazed by Antibiotics" *New York Times*, Feb. 27
- [16] Sephehri G., Talebizadeh N., Mirzazadeh A., et al(2007).Bacterial contamination and resistance to commonly used antimicrobial at healthcare worker"s "mobile phone in teaching hospital., kerman, Iran. *Amirican Journal of Applied Science*; 6(5):806-810
- [17] Singh D, Kaur H, Gardner G, et al.(2002).Bacterial contamination of hospital pager"s, *Infection Control Hospital Epidemiology*; 23:274-276
- [18] Sleight J, Timbury M, (1998). Notes on medical bacteriology, fifth edition, infection in hospital; 43:357-358.
- [19] Vnguyen Q. (2009). hospital acquired infection, http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/7022_overview
- [20] Wong D., Nye K., Hollis P. (1991) Microbial flora on doctors' white coats. *Br Med J*;303:1602-4,
- [21] Reducing Microbial Contamination in Hospital Blankets <http://www.aegisasia.com>
- [22] Loh W., Ng V.V., Holton J. (2000) Bacterial flora on the white coats of medical students. *J Hosp Infect*;45:65-68
- [23] Hobbs, B.C. and Gilbert, R. J. 1974. 'Microbiological Counts in relation to food poisoning', *Proceedings of the IV international Congress of Food Science Technology* 3:159.
- [24] Chambers HF (2001). [The changing epidemiology of *Staphylococcus aureus*?](#) *Emerg Infect Dis* 7 (2): 178–82.
- [25] Menichetti F (2005). "Current and emerging serious Gram-positive infections". *Clin Microbiol Infect* 11 Suppl 3: 22–8.
- [26] Wikipedia. *Staphylococcus aureus*

التلوث البكتيري لبعض مستشفيات محافظة ذمار، اليمن

مها الألويسي* ، احمد الشهاري ، ذكرى العمري و عبدالله العلوي

كلية الطب والعلوم الصحية/جامعه ذمار

*al_khansaa77@yahoo.com

ملخص

يعتبر التلوث البكتيري للمستشفيات هو السبب الرئيس للعدوى المكتسبة للمرضى من المستشفيات. أجريت هذه الدراسة في عام 2010 حيث هدفت إلى تقييم التلوث البكتيري في مستشفيات محافظة ذمار في اليمن: مستشفى ذمار العام ومستشفى الوحدة التعليمي.

تم جمع 263 مسحة من أدوات ومعدات وأجهزة هواتف نقالة وبطانيات المرضى وبالطو الأطباء والممرضات وأشياء أخرى مختلفة وتم تقييم التلوث الجرثومي والتعرف على نوع البكتيريا المعزولة من العينات وكذلك تم تقييم حساسية هذه الجراثيم لعدد من المضادات البكتيرية التي تستخدم بشكل واسع لمعالجة التهابات البكتيرية للمرضى المترددين.

أظهرت هذه الدراسة أن معدل العينات التي وجدت فيها تلوث بكتيري كانت %28 (44 موجبة من 156 عينة تم فحصها) في مستشفى ذمار العام وكان من الـ 44 عينة موجبة %77.2 جرام موجب و%22.7 جرام سالب وكانت البكتيريا الأكثر شيوعا هي الستافيلوكوكاس اوريوس (%41) والنانكواوكيوليس ستافيلوكوكاس (%18.2) أن معدل العينات التي وجدت فيها تلوث بكتيري في مستشفى الوحدة التعليمي كانت %7.5 (8 موجبة من 107 عينة تم فحصها) وكان من الـ 8 عينات موجبة %87.5 جرام موجب و%12.5 جرام سالب وكانت البكتيريا الأكثر شيوعا هي النانكواوكيوليس ستافيلوكوكاس (%50) و الستافيلوكوكاس اوريوس (%37.5) وأظهرت جميع أنواع البكتيريا المعزولة في هذه الدراسة مقاومة عالية لمضاد الامبيسيلين وأظهرت بكتريا الستافيلوكوكاس اوريوس مقاومة عالية للامبيسيلين (%85) بينما أظهرت مقاومة قليلة للانكوميسين (%4.8).

Septum Pellucidum Cyst in Patient with Parkinson's Disease-minimally Invasive Staged Therapy

**K. Ghallab¹, Z. Novák¹, J. Chrastina*¹, M. Baláž²
and I. Říha¹**

*1 Department of Neurosurgery MF MU, St. Anne's Teaching Hospital Brno,
Czech Republic*

*2 First Department of Neurology MF MU, St. Anne's Teaching Hospital, Brno,
Czech Republic*

ABSTRACT

Background: The aim of the case report is to present the minimally invasive staged treatment of a patient with motor complications of Parkinson's disease with a large septum pellucidum cyst.

Material and Method: A two-stage surgical strategy was proposed by the movement disorders team: neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration with subsequent implantation of deep brain stimulation electrodes (subthalamic nucleus) depending on the effect of neuroendoscopic treatment.

Results: Despite the technical success of a neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration, as evidenced by a reduction in cyst volume, intraoperative ventriculocystography and postoperative CT showing free communication between the cyst and the ventricular system the motor symptoms caused by Parkinson's disease remained unchanged. A bilateral subthalamic deep brain stimulation system was implanted with good functional results as documented by her UPRDS III score in the off-medication state (52 points preoperative and 34 point after 6 years postoperative) and reduction of L-DOPA equivalent dose (60% of the pre-deep brain stimulation level).

Conclusion: Minimally invasive therapy-neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration, followed by a bilateral subthalamic stimulation implantation-led to the substantial and lasting improvement of the patient's symptoms.

Key words: septum pellucidum cyst, Parkinson's disease, deep brain stimulation, neuroendoscopy



*Correspondence: Jan Chrastina, M.D., Ph.D., Department of Neurosurgery MF MU, St. Anne's Teaching Hospital, Pekarska 53, 656 91 Brno, Czech Republic, phone: 00 420 543 182 697, fax: 00 420 543 182 687, e-mail: jan.chrastina@fnusa.cz

INTRODUCTION

The cavum septi pellucidi and cavum vergae are fluid collections between the leaflets of the septum pellucidum. The prevalence in children declines with age and in adults varies significantly depending on the criteria used for diagnosis as some remnant can be present in all patients. The prevalence of abnormal cavum septi pellucidi (cavum septi pellucidi contained on four or more 1,5 mm MRI slices) is 10,3 % for normal subjects [1]. The cavities may occasionally enlarge into cysts (by definition laterally bowing walls 10 mm apart or greater) and cause neurological symptoms. Although the causal relationship with neurological and psychiatric symptoms remains unclear, there are data reporting the association of septal cysts with some functional brain disorders (epilepsy, psychiatric problems) [2,3]. The aim of this paper is to present a case report of a patient referred for subthalamic deep brain stimulation (DBS) with a large midline cyst discovered by presurgical imaging studies. Minimally invasive therapy – neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration, followed by a bilateral subthalamic stimulation – led to the substantial and lasting improvement of the patient's symptoms.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A 51-year-old female with late motor complications of Parkinson's disease (PD) was referred for deep brain stimulation. There was no family history of PD, and the patient did not complain of any previous neurological or psychiatric problems. She had been suffering from PD for 12 years, since the age of 39. L-DOPA therapy was started one year after the onset of symptoms. A positive therapeutic effect from this treatment lasted for 8 years, when "wearing-off" symptoms and disabling biphasic dyskinesias affecting the neck and upper and lower extremities appeared. The symptoms were uncontrollable by medication. No intellectual, cognitive, or memory dysfunctions were detected during the routine presurgical evaluation. The patient was scheduled for bilateral DBS subthalamic electrode implantation. A routine presurgical MRI revealed a large midline cyst with the bulging of the lateral walls and interventricular foramina narrowing (Fig.1). Although there were no symptoms indicating intracranial hypertension, a two-stage surgical strategy was proposed by the movement disorders team: neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration and subsequent implantation of DBS electrodes.

The first step (septum pellucidum cyst neuroendoscopic fenestration) was performed using frame based stereotactic system (ceramic frame Leibinger, 3D T1 WI, Zamorano Dujovny, Praezis Plus). The trajectory for a safe neuroendoscopic surgery was planned, with the entry site selected so as not to complicate the planned DBS implantation – anterior to the presumed point in front of the coronal suture (Fig. 2). Thinned and bulging walls suggesting expansive behaviour of the midline cysts together with slit like foramina of Monro were observed immediately after the endoscope entered the ventricular system (Fig. 3). After an uneventful fenestration (of both cyst walls), intraoperative ventriculocystography and postoperative CT showed free communication between the cyst and the ventricular system.

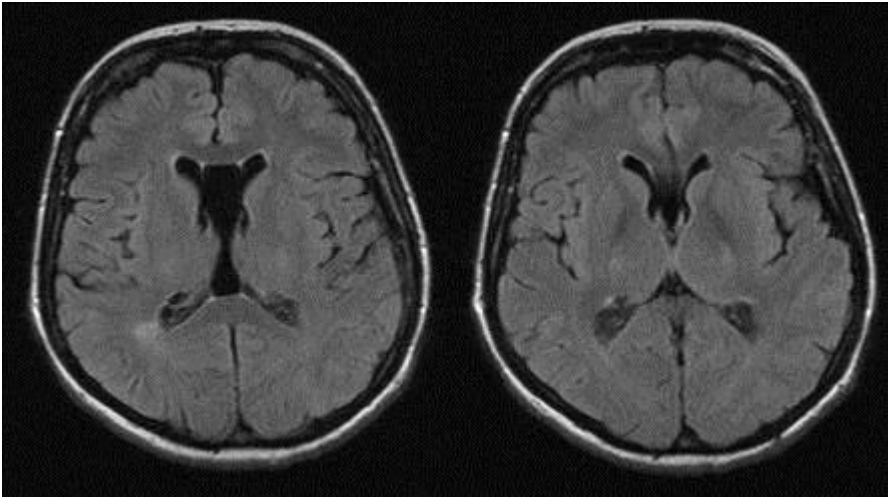


Figure (1): MRI findings - cyst wall bulging, the width of the cyst 16 mm



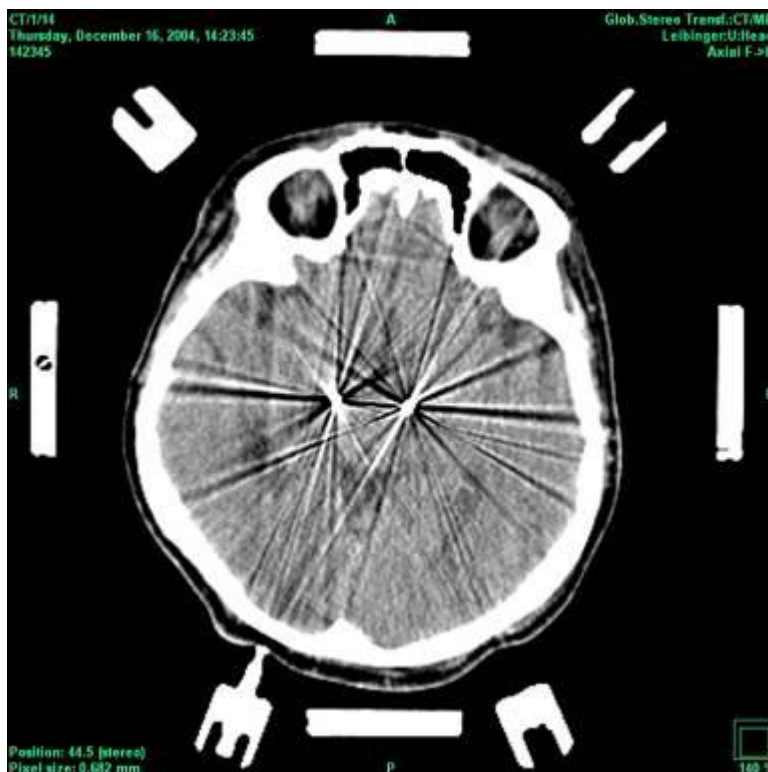
Figure (2): Presurgical planning of neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration



Figure (3): Endoscopic findings during surgery - bulging and thinning of the cyst walls

RESULTS

A volumetric MRI follow up (one month after surgery) also showed a reduction of cyst volume (7,8 cm³ before surgery and 6,4 cm³ after surgery, 17,9 % reduction of cyst volume). However, the patient's problems remained unchanged by the follow-up period 2 months after surgery. The patient then underwent an implantation of bilateral subthalamic DBS electrodes supported by intraoperative microrecording and macrostimulation. Clear subthalamic nucleus recordings were present on two (central and posterior) tracks of both sites out of four microelectrode trajectories. The central trajectories, with the tip of the electrode on the target or 1 mm below the targets, were selected for the definitive placement of DBS electrodes (Model 3389, Medtronic Inc, Minneapolis, MN, USA)(Fig. 4). The stimulator was implanted during the second stage of the surgery. After six years of stimulation, the patient significantly benefits from the procedure, as documented by her UPRDS III score in the off-medication state (52 points preoperative, 28 points after 3 years postoperative, and 34 point after 6 years postoperative). After six years, the patient's stimulation parameters are set at 3.4 V / 90 microsecond and 130 Hz. Medication (L-DOPA equivalent dose) is at 60% of the pre-DBS level.



Figure(4): Final position of the implanted electrodes

DISCUSSION

Three main issues were discussed when preparing the optimum treatment strategy for this individual patient:

- the relationship of clinical symptoms and cystic midline anomaly
- the indication for treatment of cystic lesion before DBS implantation
- the choice of appropriate surgical therapy

A search of the available literature did not find any paper suggesting a causal association between a midline cystic anomaly and parkinsonian symptoms. There was a frequent association between the cavum septi pellucidi and schizophrenia (30.4 %) and affective disorders (20 %) [2].

The main symptoms of midline cystic anomalies are intracranial hypertension, epileptic seizures and emotional instability [4]. A possible cause of the clinical symptoms associated with midline cysts is the compression of the interventricular foramen, the vascular structures, and the hypothalamoseptal triangle [3].

Only case reports or small clinical series of patients after neuroendoscopic surgeries for midline cystic anomalies have been reported. The main indication for neuroendoscopic cyst fenestration (cystoventriculostomy by fenestration of septal leaflet) is expansive behaviour of the cyst that may result in hydrocephalus caused by the obstruction or narrowing of the

interventricular foramen [5]. Meticulous attention should be paid to presurgical planning and ventricular entry to avoid injury to the fornices, thalamus, internal capsule, caudate nucleus, or the septal and thalamostriate veins. In a large surgical series of 10 patients (paediatric and adult cases) the main clinical symptoms were headaches, accompanied with dizziness, vomiting, and epileptic seizures; however, 2 of the patients presented with epileptic seizures only. Endoscopic septostomy (rigid endoscope via frontal approach) led to symptom relief and cyst size reduction in all patients, with no cyst recurrences [6].

From a group of 32 septostomies in 30 patients presented by Oertel, et al., 3 patients were operated on for septum pellucidum cyst. Long-standing cerebrospinal fluid pathway restoration was achieved by endoscopic septostomy [7].

Steerable endoscope was used for the treatment of a 6-year-old boy and a 42-year-old female presenting with headaches and syncopal episodes. Fenestration of the cyst walls allowed communication with both lateral ventricles and adhesions between the cyst wall and the interventricular foramen were lysed with endoscopic cautery [8]. Fenestration of both septal walls using ultrasound followed by cyst regression was reported in one patient, an 11-year-old boy [5].

Our indication for neuroendoscopic surgery was supported mainly by graphic findings suggesting expansive cyst behaviour (cyst walls bulging and foramen of Monro narrowing), because there were no clinical symptoms of intracranial hypertension. The manufacturer's policy contraindicates routine MRI follow up after DBS, therefore CT would be the only graphic modality for graphic cyst follow up. Moreover, artefacts from implanted electrodes may interfere with cyst volumetric analysis and anatomical study.

The literature data show that bilateral subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation has long-term beneficial effects in Parkinson's disease patients. A retrospective study performed by Kleiner-Fishman, et al., summarises the clinical evidence on the effectiveness of subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation (Medline and Ovid databases 1993-2004), with the identification of some prognostic factors for short and long term results [9]. Bilateral subthalamic nucleus stimulation is beneficial in the long term for Parkinson's disease motor symptoms, but does not prevent disease progression or the occurrence of axial L-DOPA unresponsive symptoms in some patients. There is a 50% improvement in the scales evaluating the quality of life in patients after deep brain stimulation [10] which corresponds with the final outcome of the reported patient.

CONCLUSION

Both neuroendoscopy and stereotactic neurosurgery are parts of the complex of minimally invasive neurosurgery. In this particular case of coincidence of an expansive midline cyst and Parkinson's disease, a combined treatment approach was utilised to maximise the functional outcome of the patient avoiding another surgery with DBS implant in situ.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks to VZ MSMT 0021622404 and MZCR IGA NS10411-3 for supporting this study. Conflict of interest: none

REFERENCES

- [1] Silbert P.L., Gubbay S.S. and Vaughan R.J. (1993) Cavum septum pellucidum and obstructive hydrocephalus. *J of Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatr* **56**: 820 - 822
- [2] Kwon J.S., Shenton M.E., Hirayasu Y., Salisbury D.F., Fischer I.A., Dickey C.C., Yurgelun-Todd D., Tohen M., Kikinis R., Jolesz F.A. and McCarley R.W. (1998). MRI study of cavum septi pellucidi in schizophrenia, affective disorder, and schizotypal personality disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* **155**: 509-15.
- [3] Fratzoglou M., Grunert P., Leite dos Santos A., Hwang P. and Fries G.(2003). Symptomatic cysts of the cavum septi pellucidi and cavum vergae: the role of endoscopic neurosurgery in the treatment of four consecutive cases. *Minim Invasive Neurosurg* **46**: 243-9.
- [4] Akiyama K., Sato M., Sora I., Otsuki S., Wake A., Fukui H., Takahashi Y., Yanagida K. and Sudara M.(1983). A study of incidence and symptoms in 71 patients with cavum septi pellucidi. *No To Shinkei* **35**: 575-81.
- [5] Weyerbrock A., Mainprize T., Rutka JT.(2006). Endoscopic fenestration of a symptomatic cavum septum pellucidum: technical case report. *Neurosurgery* **59**(Suppl 4): ONSE 491
- [6] Meng H., Feng H., Le F.and Lu JY.(2006). Neuroendoscopic management of symptomatic septum pellucidum cysts. *Neurosurgery* **59**: 278-83.
- [7] Oertel J.M., Schroeder H.W., Gaab M.R.(2009). Endoscopic stomy of the septum pellucidum: indications, technique, and results. *Neurosurgery* **64**: 482-91.
- [8] Lancon J.A., Haines D.E., Lewis A.I. and Parent A.D.(1999). Endoscopic treatment of symptomatic septum pellucidum cysts: with some preliminary observations on the ultrastructure of the cyst wall: two technical case reports. *Neurosurgery* **45**: 1251-7.
- [9] Kleiner-Fisman G., Herzog J., Fisman D.N., Tamma F., Lyons K.E., Pahwa R., Lang A.E. and Deuschl G.(2006). Subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation: summary and metaanalysis of outcomes. *Mov Disord* **21** (Suppl 14): S290-304.
- [10] Tarsy D., Vitek J.L., Starr P.A., Okun M.S.(eds), (2009), *DBS in Neurological and Psychiatric Disorders*, Humana Press, New York, pp, 3-32.

كيسة الحاجز الشفاف (Septum Pellucidum Cyst) في مريض يعاني من مرض الباركنسون (Parkinson's Disease) مراحل وطرق المعالجة

خالد غلاب، زدنك نوافك، يان خراستينا . بلاج . ايفو ريهالك

- جمهورية التشيك- المستشفى التعليمي- مدينه برنو قسم جراحه المخ والاعصاب

E-mail: jan.chrastina@fnusa.cz, khaled.ghallab@fnusa.cz or drkhgh@hotmail.com.

ملخص

خلفية: الغرض من هذا التقرير لهذه الحالة المرضية هو تقديم العلاج المناسب والحديث لهذا المريض الذي كان بالإضافة للمشكلات الحركية التي سببها مرض باركنسون كان يعاني من وجود كيس كبير في الحاجز الشفاف. المواد والطريقة تمت على مرحلتين اقترح استراتيجية الجراحية من قبل فريق الاضطرابات الحركية بان تتم الجراحة على النحو التالي، يتم ثقب الكيس بواسطة التنظير الجراحي ومن ثم تزرع أقطاب كهربائية لاحقة للتخفيف الدماغي العميق الى نواة تحت المهاد اعتماد على تأثير معالجة التنظير.

النتائج: بعد النجاح التقني في ثقب الكيس وتوصيله بالنظام البطيني عن طريق التنظير الجراحي تم التأكد من صغر حجم الكيس واتصاله بالنظام البطيني اثنا العملية كذلك بعد العملية تم عمل اشعه مقطعيه حيث شوهد ان الاتصال بين الكيس و النظام البطين حر ، الأعراض الحركية لمرض باركنسن بقيت بدون تغيير، نظام التّخفيف الدماغي العميق لخلابا تحت المهادي التي تم زرعها من الجانبين عملت على التحسن الوظيفي للحركة بشكل جيد كما هي موثقة من قبل يو بي آر دي إس الدرجة الثالثة في حالة خارج الدواء (52 نقطة ما قبل الجراحة و34 نقطة بعد 6 سنوات ما بعد الجراحة) و تخفيض جرعة L-DOPA الى (60 % من مستواه قبل التخفيف الدماغ العميق).

الخلاصة: العلاج الجراحي بواسطة التنظير الجراحي الدماغي لثقب الكيس الموجود في الحاجز الشفافي، والذي تلاها زرع التخفيف الدماغي العميق لتحت المهاد الثنائية - أدى إلى تحسن كبير ودائم من أعراض المريض.

الكلمات الدللية: كيسة الحاجز الشفاف، مرض باركنسون ، المخ، التنظير الدماغي.

Geological and Geochemical Investigation of Host Rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar Area North Western Yemen

Ali M. Al-Hawbani

*Dept. of Geology & Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Applied Sciences,
Thamar University, Yemen. Email: ali_alhawbani@yahoo.com*

ABSTRACT

The Suwar Ni-Cu sulfide host rocks are located at the northwest of Yemen, about 18 km of Hajjah city. The host rocks at Suwar are associated with the ultramafic component of differentiated gabbroid intrusive.

The results of chemical analysis of the major elements present in host rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar area shows that, the magnesium oxide ranges from 20 to 30% , the silica oxide has an average 40% and iron oxides is also variegate between 14.4 and 18%.

Based on the comparison between the results of the studied Ni-Cu sulfides in Suwar area with that obtained from famous international host rock, it is clear that there is a possible large collection of sulfides and Suwar host rocks which belong to the group which contains magnesium oxide (MgO) ranged between 15 and 33%, associated with high percentage of nickel and low percentage of copper. It also indicates similarity to Jinchuan and Kambalda magmatic bodies in China and Australia respectively. In addition, it shows that the nickel increases in ore with the increase of MgO contents in hosted rocks. Thus, there is a possibility of increasing percentage of nickel concentration in Suwar ore while the study is in progress.

Keywords: Suwar, North Western Yemen, Geochemical analysis, Nickel, Copper Magnesium oxide and Host rock.

INTRODUCTION

Nickel and copper ores play an important role in the industry because of their multi-usage in different types of alloys. The Suwar Ni-Cu sulfide ores are hosted in ultramafic body located at the southeast of Hajjah city as shown in Fig. (1). The Suwar gabbroid body and its mineralized ultramafic zone are exposed over a length of about 6 km and a maximum width of 2,5 km (Shybani, 2003). Suwar mineralization is exposed on the surface with the chain of gossans shape, which formed in extent that expands about 3 km in the northeast side parallel to the main fault direction.





Figure (1): Location map (Landsat-7) of Suwar area

The Ni-Cu showings are located in a lower proterozoic package of mafic rocks intruding a foliated to gneissic dioritic meta-igneous complex. The showings were discovered within an ultramafic complex consisting of peridotite, pyroxenite, gabbro, diorite and minor anorthosite (Ogryzlo, 1997). The showings are easily identified by malachite staining in the mafic and ultramafic rocks. Gossan zone is prominent and is used as a guide for mineralization.

The geology and Ni-Cu sulfide mineralization of Suwar ore body have been documented and this magmatic is considered to be ultramafic related, based on the mineralogic characteristics of the host rocks.

A correlation is carried out between Suwar magmatic body in the study area and the similar Ni and Cu host rocks of famous areas all over the world for defining the geological and geochemical properties of host rock in the study area.

The host rocks of the Ni and Cu ores are subdivided into three groups according to their thickness, areal extent and the concentration of MgO and nickel-copper. Consequently, it was concluded that, the larger one of the differentiated magmatic body was, the more were the possibilities of sulfides of nickel and copper concentration.

Magmatic size bodies fit with the power quality of these bodies as Smirnov (1981) pointed out that energy sources are essential issues in ore formation theory. Magmatic formations associated with sulfides nickel and copper are changing in content from gabbro-dolerite, as Noril'sk deposits in Russia (Borodabeavskaya 1987) to gabbro-troctalite, as

Duluth deposits in United States (Ripley 1981) and to pyroxenite – peridotite –dunite, as Kambalda deposits in Australia (Naldrett, et al, 1977), Jinchuan deposits in China (Chai, et al, 1992) and Suwar deposits in Yemen (Ogryzol,1998). This change is identical to MgO content which takes the percentage from 8-15% in the former areas to 15-33% in the later areas, as mentioned above. Thus, it's observed that there is a clear relationship between mafic coefficient in magmatic rocks and elements percentage of Ni/Cu in ores.

METHODOLOGY

The methods of study include:

- 1- The field work was carried out and collecting four representative samples of host rocks of nickel and copper in Suwar magmatic body .
- 2- The laboratory work was carried out for the chemical analysis of the four samples to determine the major oxides contents as SiO₂, MgO, total iron oxids etc. The chemical analysis was carried out using Perkin Elmer atomic absorption instrument. It was carried by preparing a solution from the rock powder after burning it at temperature up to 1000°C and then the burned samples were digested with nitric acid and filtrated through filter paper to produce the soultion.

Geological setting

The Suwar Ni-Cu ore occur in the area covering a part of the Proterozoic basement rocks exposed by the headwater of the local Wadi system.

The Precambrian basement of the northwestern part of Yemen is an extension of the Arabian shield to the north and is petrogenetically similar to accreted oceanic arc terrains constituting the Nabitah orogenic mobile belt (Shybani et al, 1997, Canadian, 2000). The Nabitah suture zone may extend to Hajjah in northwest Yemen, as indicated by the presence of deformed ophiolites (Canadian, 2000). The Precambrian basement rocks of northern Yemen are Late Proterozoic in age and they consist the north to northwest trending belts and composed of metavolcanic and metasedimentary rocks, intruded by granitic and granodioritic plutons

The Proterozoic rocks in this area are mostly medium to coarse grained, granitic gneisses, which are extensively faulted and intruded by diabase dykes characterized by steeply dipping northeasterly trending foliation predominates. The gabbroic body intrudes into granitic gneiss and magmatic country rocks (Fig.2 and 3). The Precambrian rocks of study area are overlapped uncomfortably by relatively thin sequences of continental to epicontinental sediments. The flat lying Paleozoic and Jurassic sediments, which cover much of the northern part of the area, including the Permian Akbara shale, which consists mainly shale and siltstone. The Jurassic sediments composed of the Kohlan sandstone and the Amran limestone.

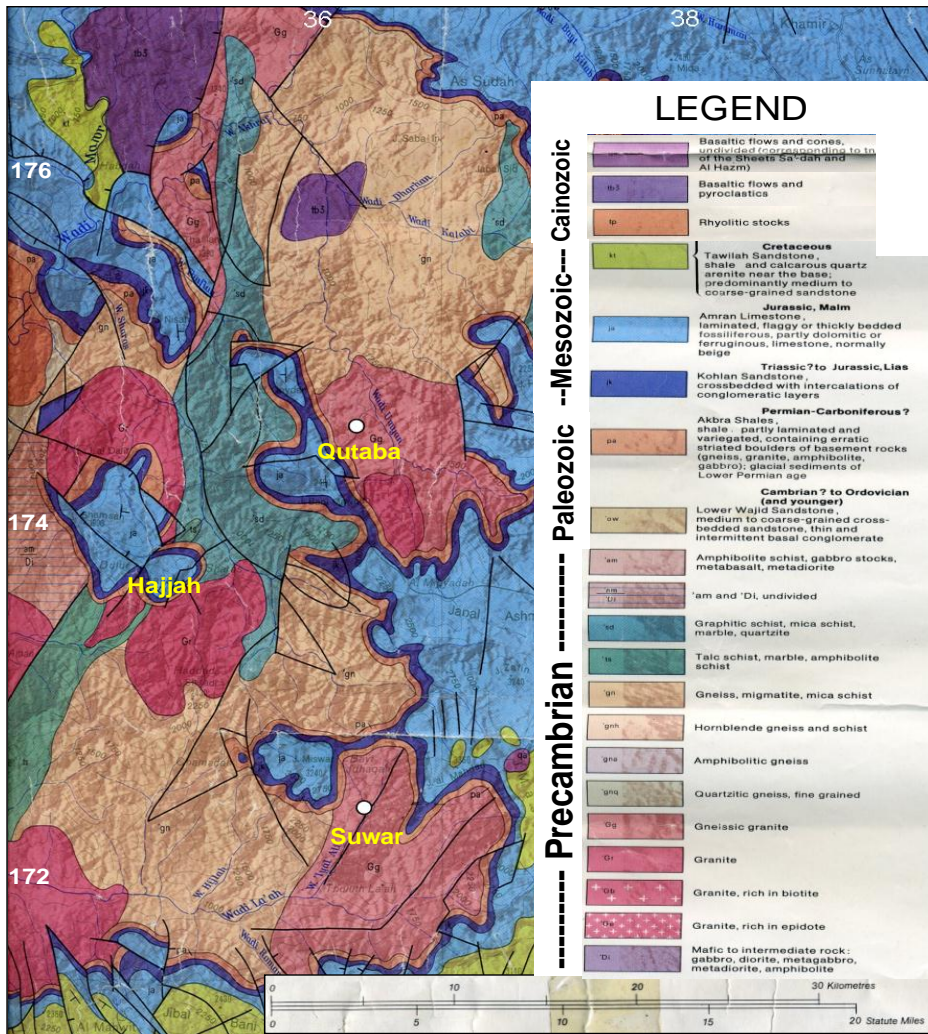


Figure (2): Geological map of the Hajjah region, showing the studied locality of Suwar, southeast of Hajjah City. The map is adapted from the geological map of Al-Hudaydah sheet, prepared by Kruck (1984).

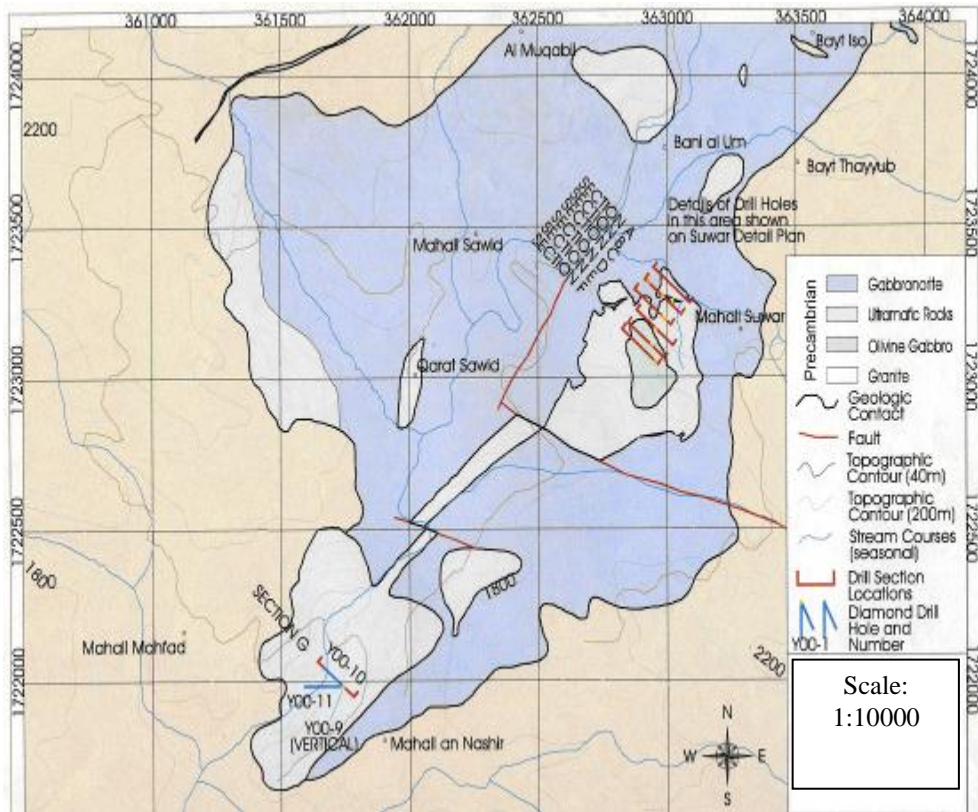


Figure (3): Preliminary geology, Suwar area showing all drill hole locations. Prepared by Canadian Mountain Minerals Yemen LTD.

Geological and Geochemical Characteristics of the Suwar Ore

Sulfide deposits of nickel and copper form a particular group for metallic ore magma. There are lots of huge host rocks in some parts of the world; so these elements in particular play an important role in the economical life. The most important areas are old shields such as Canadian shield (Naldrett, 1986), Australian shield (Ross et al, 1981) and the active platforms, which share the appearance of the magmatic trap in some districts as Noril'sk in Russia (Genkin et al, 1973) and Ensizwa in South Africa (Stump et al, 1982).

Group of magmatic rocks, which hosted nickel and copper ore deposits of variegated ages occurred in different parts of the world are characterized by some identical features like mineralogy and chemical constituent of the hosted rocks and ores. This indicates the existence of one particular type system in the formation and generation of magmatic-hosted nickel. The noticed difference may be as a result of erosion level and the variegated percentage of coming, also nickel concentrations and the productive of ore magmatic bodies. As supported by Smirnov, 1982 who pointed out the magmatic processes and their relation in formation of nickel and copper are similar in all metalugentic epoch from Archaean to Cainozoic.

Nickel and copper Sulfides originated from magma chamber where they are concentrated are mainly related to the fractionation and the gradual melting of the sulfide-bearing magma, which approach in its constituent from chondrite and pyrolite. When the mantle substance melts, it results in the different magmatic material and ore-bearing magma (Lekachev, 1973). The percentage of sulfides in the primitive mantle derived magma substance is not much and approaches less than 1%; so the sulfides concentrate in the parts which have been already influenced by primary melting and getting out the magmatic products which are free of sulfides or sulfides-poor magma (Godlevski, 1968). This means the movement of sulfides-bearing magma are preceded by getting out high of magmatic materials free or poor percentage of sulfides.

The geochemical characteristics of nickel and copper are not identical and the largest nickel percentage is present in the ultrabasic and is 35 times more than in the general percentage in clarke (Salobeb, 1990). For the copper, its largest percentage is present in the basic and intermediate rocks; so it is noticed that the nickel percentage is larger than the copper in the basic rocks (Salobeb, 1990).

For comparing and getting more geological and geochemical characteristics in the mineralization of nickel and copper in Suwar district with the similar and famous mineralization in the world, the researcher has gathered and interpreted some information about many host rocks in the world and this information included standardizations like: thickness and extent of the hosted rocks mineralization, mineralogic composition, the change in MgO concentrations in the hosted rocks and its relation to the concentration of nickel and copper. Accordingly, based on the previous parameters nickel and copper host rocks have been divided into three groups

Group I

This group is characterized by huge intrusive bodies of 1000m thickness and extends to more than 10000m. They are composed of intermediate and basic rocks, and characterized also, by very high degree of secondary changes and recomposition, and may not be involved in the process of auto-metamorphism. The present ore bodies have different forms like veins, layering, and lens. The essential minerals include variegated quantity pyrrhotite, pentlandite and chalcopyrite (Makarov, 1989).

Group II

Group II host rock is smaller than the former one and has dimensions ranged from 150 to 700 m thick and length extension ranges between 500 and 8000 m. This group is characterized by complicated differentiation for the magmatic bodies which are basic and ultrabasic. The intrusive ore bodies of this group exposed to the secondary changes more than group I. Parts of this group's bodies are exposed to auto-metamorphism, such serpentinization (Makarov, 1989). Moreover, the ore body is found in different forms such as layering and lens. Mineralogically they are composed of chalcopyrite, pentlandite and pyrrhotite, the relation between these minerals is that they are swaged in a large scope.

Group III

The size of the magmatic bodies of this group is less than 100m, it includes metamorphism and the differentiated magmatic bodies which composed of basic and ultrabasic rocks. Nevertheless, the rule of differentiation process in this group is not important because of the

small size of the differentiated bodies. Also the magmatic bodies in this group in particular have large product of ore. The ore body morphology is different, even in the same area, and has different shapes as layering, lens and veins. Ore mineral composition is similar to group I and II, the basic minerals show greater variation in their distribution. In some ores, Pyrite is found as a main mineral, which gets a percentage of 16% (Abdo, 1992).

In the study area Suwar gabbroid and its contained mineralized, ultramafic zone is exposed over a length about 6 Km and width of 2000 m (Shybani, 2003), (Fig.1). The ultramafic rock, exhibits extensive metasomatism, but little metamorphism, being consistent with intrusion at a late or post tectonic stage. The complex body has been subjected to at least one generation of flattening and diabase intrusion. The geological setting of the study area is confirmed as a broadly differentiated basic to ultrabasic intrusive host, this compares favorably in size and character to the several mines and host rocks which are commonly identified as "gabbroid type" as described by Ogryzlo, 1997. The immediate host lithology is usually ultramafic zones associated with a large noritic gabbroid body. Nickel deposits associated with this geological environment constitutes the major, high-grade source of world's nickel (Ross and Travis, 1981).

Accordingly, Suwar host rock belongs to the Group I in extension and thickness. And we notice also that there is a huge approximation in the size of these magmatic bodies that hosted Ni-Cu in Jinchuan intrusions in China where it is 8 km long and about 1000 m in wide (Jia,1986) and Suwar intrusions which are 6 km long and 2000 m wide (Shybani, 2003).

The geochemical characteristics of nickel and copper host rocks are highly variegated as in the following.

The highest nickel content is present in the ultrabasic rocks and is 35 times more than that in the general percentage in Clarke (Salobeb, 1990). For the copper, its highest concentration occurred in the basic and intermediate rocks; so it is noticed that the nickel concentration is higher than the copper in the basic rocks (Salobeb, 1990).

According to the concentration of MgO and its relation In Ni/Cu. Magmatic rocks, which hosted nickel and copper, are divided into three groups (Abdo, 1992).

These groups are:

I- Mafic rocks with less than 8% MgO and associated with iron and titanium ores

II- Mesomafic rocks. (komatiite) contain MgO ranging from 8 to 33% with nickelferous magma that characterized by continental magmatic rocks (Borodabevskaya, 1987).

Mesomafic rocks can be divided into three classes according to the concentration of magnesium and percentage of both nickel and copper:

Class 1: Rocks have Low percentage of magnesium (MgO 8-10%), contain high grade of copper comparing to nickel (Ni: Cu=1:2-4) (Abdo,1992) like Duluth host rock in United States and Kurissk deposit in Cibiric platform (Ripley, 1981 and Borodabevskaya, 1987).

Class 2: In which MgO content is ranged from 10 to 15% and middle grade of nickel to copper (Ni: Cu=1:1-2) like Naril'sk deposit in Russia (Genkin et. al, 1973).

Class 3: Magnesium concentration variegated between 15 and 33% which is Characterized by high grade of nickel and low grade copper (Ni: Cu=1-10:1) like Kambalda deposit in Australia, Sudbury and Mont Calm deposits in Canada, and Jinchuan deposit in China (Naldrett et al, 1977, Ross et al, 1981, Naldrett, 1989, and Chai, et al,1992).

III- Ultramafic rocks. In which MgO content rich to more than 33% and have high content of silicate, chromites and platinum (Campbell et al, 1984).

The primary sulfide mineralization at Suwar area is composed essentially of pyrrhotite, pentlandite and chalcopyrite. Both magnetic (hexagonal) and non-magnetic (orthorhombic) pyrrhotite appear to be present in the study area (Canadian, 2000).

The major and trace elements distribution of four rocks samples studied from Suwar host rocks are shown in Table (1)

Table (1): Major and trace elements distribution of the studied samples from Suwar area.

Sample No.	Ca O%	MgO%	SiO ₂ %	Fe ₂ O ₃ %	Al ₂ O ₃ %	P ₂ O ₃ %	TiO ₂	MnO%	Na ₂ O%	K ₂ O	LOI	Ni %	Cu %	Ni/Cu ratio	Co%	Ag gm /ton
SR-1	5.19	20.54	45.69	14.40	9.66	0.04	0.53	0.21	1.75	0.25	1.83	0.93	0.367	31	0.044	0.49
SR-2	1.74	30.63	35.39	17.93	3.71	0.04	0.42	0.22	0.76	0.10	9.40	2.03	0.350	6.71	0.095	0.88
SR-3	3.36	24.79	38.55	14.81	7.67	0.05	0.57	0.18	1.29	0.12	8.76	1.36	0.730	21	0.384	2.17
SR-4	3.80	22.50	40.30	14.61	8.21	0.05	0.53	0.21	1.70	0.20	7.9	1.08	0.470	2.31	0.190	3.16
average	3.5	24.6	40	15.4	7.3	0.05	0.51	0.21	1.38	0.17	6.97	1.35	0.479		0.18	1.68

The results of chemical analyses of host rocks of Ni-Cu in the Suwar area indicated that concentration of MgO is variegated from 20.5 to 30.63 % with an average of 24.6 %, while the average of silica oxide concentration is 40% associated with total iron oxide ranges from 14.4 to 17.93 % with an average of 15.4% as shown in Table (1). These results indicate that Suwar host rocks belong to mesomafic rocks. So host rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar area belong to the group which contains percentage of MgO of 15-33% and they have a high grade of Ni which is ranged between 0.93 and 2.03 % with an average of 1.35 % and low grade of Cu its concentration is variegated from 0.35 % to 0.73 % with an average value 0.479% such as host rocks of Kambalda in Australia and that of Jinchuan in China (Naldrett et al, 1977, Jia, 1986).

The relationship between Ln (Ni/Cu) and percentage MgO is shown in figure (4). The huge change of values of certain relations Ni/Cu and the possibilities of changing the

statistic of distribution from the natural value. Therefore, values of natural logarithms are used in analyzing concentration of elements Ni/Cu. So the process of analyzing for relations isn't simple because the available information in the literature give us contents of elements which are often considered to be changing values such as deposit of Sudbury. It is shown in figure (4) that the values have a linear relationship with the formula: $\text{LnNi/Cu} = 0.143 \text{ MgO} - 1.722$. Using the formula, we can predict the relation of Ni/Cu from concentration of MgO in rocks. As shown in figure (4) and formula refers to increasing of nickel in ore with the increasing of percentage of MgO in rocks. The calculated Ni content of the ore shows excellent linear relation with MgO%. These are typical features of magmatic Ni deposits (Naldrett, 1989). The position of values in the figure generally confirms with linear relation for $\text{Ln Ni/Cu} - \text{MgO}$. The measured values of Ni content as shown in Table (1) and figure (4) show that the Suwar host rocks is identical to host rocks of Kambalda, Petchenge and Jinchuan.

The AFM ternary diagram (fig.5) of the selected samples shows that the host rocks of Ni-Cu are mesomafic to ultramafic. The total alkali-silica classification diagram (fig.6) shows that the studied host rocks of Ni-Cu of Suwar area are basaltoid.

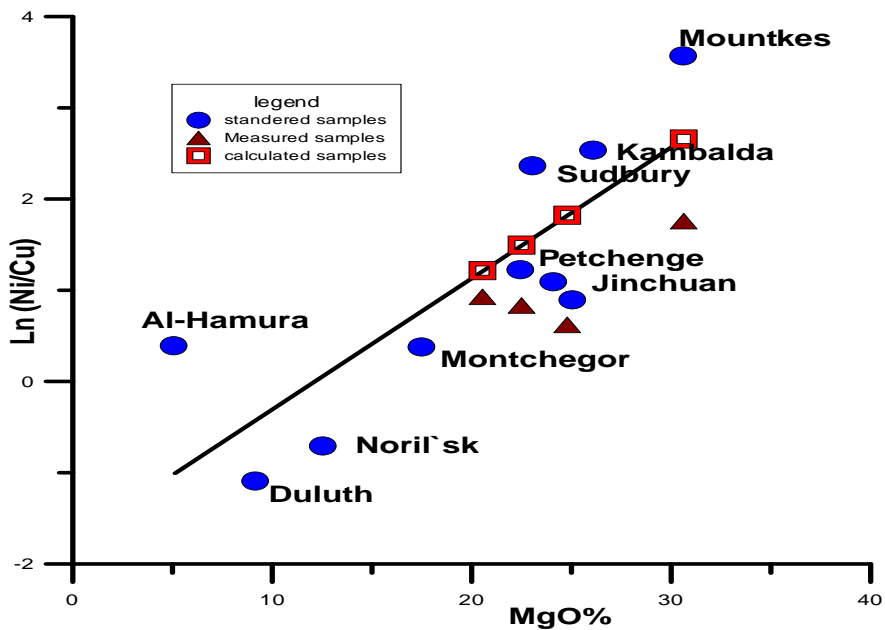


Figure (4): Relationship between MgO % and $\ln(\text{Ni/Cu})$

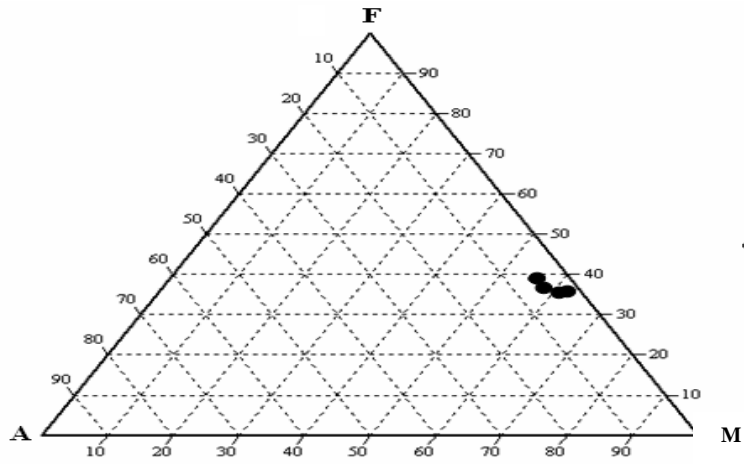
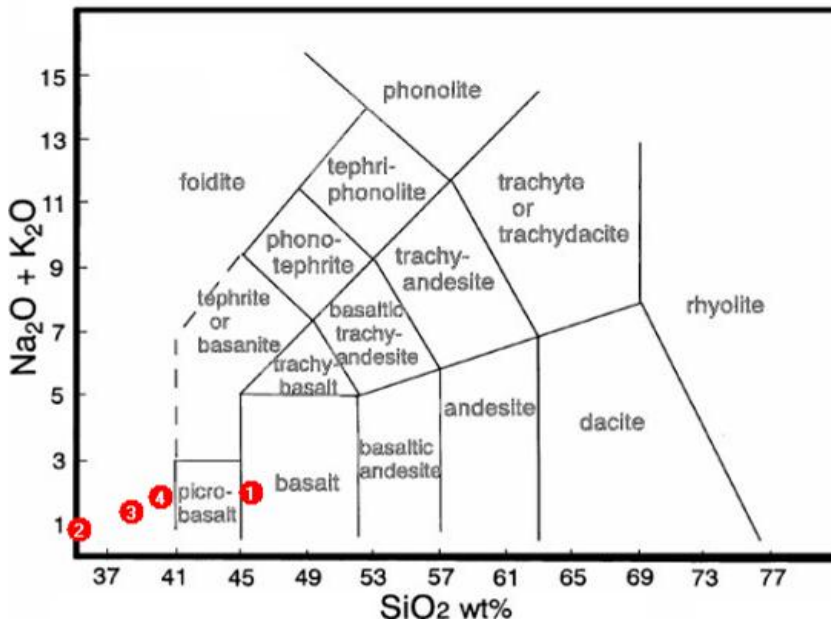


Figure (5): AFM Ternary diagram showing the composition of the host rocks of Ni-Cu from the Suwar area. A= $\text{Na}_2\text{O}+\text{K}_2\text{O}$ F= $\text{FeO}+\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ and M=MgO IUGS (Le Bas et al, 1986)



Figure(6): Total alkali-silica classification diagram after IUGS (Le Bas et al.1986) showing the basaltoid composition of the host rocks of Ni-Cu.

DISCUSSION

There is a possibility of ores concentration in huge intrusive bodies in crystallization area due to the huge size of these bodies in which a temperature dramatically decreases and variegated. Thus, result in possibility of gathering and concentrating of sulfides.

Geochemical study of major and trace elements of the Suwar intrusion as previously mentioned indicates that the primary magma for the Suwar intrusion which have high MgO content variegated from 20 to 30% is a basaltic magma and that the Ni : Cu ratios in Suwar mineralization is variegated also between 1.86: 1 and 5.8 :1 which is comparable to the magma of Jinchuan complex (Chai, et al, 1992) and the magma of Kambalda complex in Western Australia (Naldrett, et. al, 1977).

The percentage of nickel content in Suwar ore, increase with the increasing of MgO percentage in hosted rocks.

The chemical analysis of hosted rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar area show that the percent of silica variegated from 35% to 45% with an average 40% and refers to the ultramafic rocks .The percentages of magnesium, iron and calcium oxides refer to the presence of olivine and pyroxene minerals.

Platinum group elements mineralization is always associated with sulfide ores (Naldrett et al, 1989). Naldrett (1981) has indicated that sulfides associated with ultramafic komatiites, which have been crystallized from magmas containing more than 20% MgO, have a platinum group element. In addition to the basic element Ni-Cu in Suwar magma focus should be made on the associated elements like cobalt and platinum group elements and those are found in Jinchuan magmatic bodies (China) and in the host rock that include a high percentage of MgO ,and these elements are extracted during the process of basic elements extraction.

The characteristics of the nickel-copper sulfide mineralization and its host rocks at Suwar, are associated with the ultramafic component of large differentiated, noritic, gabbroid intrusive. Well documented mines and deposits of this type are the Jinchuan mine in China (Chai and Naldrett, 1992b) and Kambalda deposits in Western Australia (Naldrett, et.al, 1977).

Major characteristics of this type of deposit are:

- 1-Majority of the sulfides is massive pyrrhotite, pentlandite and chalcopyrite.
- 2-The sulfides are closely associated with ultramafic sections of the Intrusive usually within the ultramafic rock.
- 3-It contains magnesium oxide with percentage of (20-30%).
- 4-The main sulfides are concentrated with the host ultramafic rocks in structural traps.

CONCLUSIONS

Through geological and geochemical study of host rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar, we got these results:

- 1-The deposits of nickel and copper are similar in some features for mineral and chemical composition for ore.
- 2-In the huge and differentiated magmatic bodies, there is possibility of concentration ores directly in crystallization area when temperature gets down.

- 3-The host magmatic rocks for Ni-Cu which contains the percentage (MgO 15-33%) have a high grade of Ni and a low grade of Cu.
- 4-The results of chemical analysis for host rocks of Ni-Cu in Suwar area showed that they contain (MgO 20-30%) and have a high grade of Ni reached up to 2.03 gm/ton in some areas and a low grade of Cu.
- 5-Through the comparison of the geological and geochemical features between the similar global magmatic bodies and that of Suwar area, we found out that magma of Suwar is similar somehow to Ginchuan deposit of Ni and Cu in China and in Kambalda at Australia.
- 6-When we keep on studying the ore in Suwar area, it is possible to predict an increase of concentration Ni with the increasing percentage of Mg in host rocks.

REFERENCES

- Abdo, A. M. (1992). Sulfide Ni-Cu deposit at Alhamurah (Yemen) *Journal of Geology and Exploration* No.12., Moscow. 164-167.
- Borodabeavskaya, M.B. (1987). *Geology and metallogeny of copper, nickel and Cobalt .Nedra Moscow.* 40-79.
- Campbell, I.H, and Barnes, s .J. (1984). A model for the geochemistry of the platinum Group elements in magmatic sulfide deposits:*Candian Mineralogist.* 22: 151-160.
- Candian Mountain Minerals (Yemen) LTD. (2000). *Third annual report to the Geological Survey and Minerals Rresources Board, republic of Yemen.* 31P.
- Chai, G. and Naldrett, A.J. (1992) a. The Jinchuan ultramafic intrusion :the cumulate of a High –Mg basaltic magma. *Journal of petrology.* 33: 227-303.
- Chai, G. and Naldrett, A.J. (1992) b. Characteristics of Ni-Cu-PGE mineralization and Genesis of the Jinchuan deposit, northwest China. *Economic Geology* 87 : 1475-1495.
- Genkin, A.D, Distler, v.v., Laputain, I.P.and Filimonova, A.A. (1973). *Geochemistry of palladium in copper-nickel ores: Geochemistry Internat.* 10 : 1007-1013.
- Godlevski, M.N. (1968). *Magmatic deposits, genesis of endogenic ores deposits.* M Nauka. 66-76.
- Jia, E.F. (1986) .*Geological characteristics of the Jinchuan Ni-Cu sulfide deposit in Gansu province: Mineral Deposits.* 5 : .27-37.
- Kruck, w., Al Anissi, A., and Saif, M., (1984). *Geological map of the Yemen Arab Republic sheet Al Hudaydah, Federal Institute for Geosciences and natural Resources (Ministry of Oil and Mineral Resources, Yemen) 1:250 000 Scale map.* Report 156p.
- Le Bas, M. J., Le Maitree, R.W., Streekeisen, A., and Zanettin, B. (1986). A chemical classification of volcanic rocks based on the total alkali-silica diagram. *J. Petrol.* 27 : 745-750.
- Lekachev, A. P. (1973). *Magmatic deposits .journal of geology.* 5 : 33-47.
- Makarov, B. N. (1989). *Genesis of Ni-Cu deposit Journ. of Geology Ores Deposits Nauka Moscow.* 31 No 2 : 28-38.
- Naldrett, A.J. (1981). *Nickel sulfide deposits: classification, composition and genesis, ECON.GEOL.75TH ANN.* 10: 628-685.
- Naldrett, A.J. (1986) . *Geochemistry of the Sudbury igneous complex, a model for the Complex and its gres Geology and Metallogeny of Copper.* 91-110.

- Naldrett, A. J, Turner A.R. (1977). The geology and petrogenesis of a green stone belt and related nickel sulfide mineralization at Yakabindie. Western Australia Precambrian Res. 1: 43-103.
- Naldrett, A.J, and Von Gruenevaldt, G. (1989). Association of platinum group Elements with chromites in layered intrusions and ophiolite complex: Econ, Geol, V.84, pp.180-187.
- Ogryzol, P.L. (1997). Canadian Mountain Minerals (Yemen) LTD. Northwest Yemen exploration license first, second, third and sixth quarterly reports to The Yemen Mineral Resources and Geological Survey Corporation, Republic of Yemen .38P.
- Ogryzol, P.L, (1998). Canadian Mountain Minerals (Yemen) LTD .northwest Yemen First annual report to the Yemen Mineral Resources and Geological Survey Corporation Republic of Yemen for the period ending August 5:31P.
- Ripley, E.M, (1981). Sulfur isotopic studies of the Dunka Road Cu-Ni deposit, Duluth complex, Minnesota: ECON.GEOL. 76 : 610-620.
- Ross , J. R, and Travis, G. A. (1981). The nickel sulfide deposit in Western Australia in Global perspective: ECON.GEOL, 76: 1291-1329.
- Salobeb ,A.P,(1990). Geochemistry of ores deposit .Nedra,Moscow .12-20.
- Shybani, A.M, (2003). Works and results of Canadian Mountain activities in the Southwest of Yemen, a paper was offered to the eight Arab conferences on Mineral resources, Sana'a Republic of Yemen 13-16 October pp.205-218.
- Shybani, A.M., Ogryzlo, P.L., Dutton, J.M. and Vukadinovic, D. (1997). Canadian Mountain Minerals (Yemen) LTD: report on activities for Prospecting permit 1-96 for the period ending march 1997.submitted to the Ministry of Oil and Mineral Resources, Mineral Exploration Board, Republic of Yemen 29P.
- Smirnov, B.I, (1981).Energetic for postmagmatic ore-forming .journal of geology ore Deposits. Nedra, Moscow 23. No1 : 5-17.
- Stump, E.F, and Rucklidge, J. (1982). The platiniferous dunite pipes of the eastern Bushveld: ECON.GEOL. 77 : 1419-1431.

الدراسة الجيولوجية والجيوكيميائية للصخور المضيفة للنیکل والنحاس في منطقة سوار شمال غرب الیمن

علي محمد الحوباني

قسم الجيولوجيا والبيئة- كلية العلوم التطبيقية
جامعة ذمار - الیمن
ali_alhawbani@yahoo.com

ملخص

يقع مكن سوار لسلفيدات النيكل والنحاس شمال غرب الیمن، على بعد 18 كم من مدينة حجة. الصخور المضيفة في سوار ترتبط بمركبات فوق قاعدية لمنذسات الجابروييد المتميزة. نتائج التحليل الكيميائي للعناصر الأساسية في الصخور المضيفة للنیکل والنحاس في منطقة سوار أوضحت إن نسبة أكسيد المغنيسيوم تتراوح من 20 إلى 30% وأكسيد السيليكات بمتوسط 40% واکاسيد الحديد تتراوح بين 14.4 و 18%. من دراسة المقارنة لسلفيدات النيكل والنحاس في منطقة سوار مع المكامن العالمية المشهورة تبين وجود إمكانية كبيرة لتجمع السلفيدات وان الصخور المضيفة في سوار تنتمي إلى المجموعة التي تحتوي على أكسيد المغنيسيوم بين 15 إلى 33% والتي تتميز بنسبة عالية للنیکل ومنخفضة للنحاس وتشابه مع الأجسام المجرمانية المتميزة في جنشوان وكمبالده في كل من الصين وأستراليا على التوالي. علاوة على ذلك تبين إن النيكل يزداد في الخام مع ازدياد أكسيد المغنيسيوم في الصخور المضيفة. لهذا توجد إمكانية لازدياد نسبة تركيز النيكل في خام سوار عند مواصلة الدراسة. كلمات دليلة: سوار، شمال غرب الیمن، التحليل الجيوكيميائية، النيكل، النحاس، أكسيد المغنيسيوم والصخور المضيفة.

Synthesis and Spectroscopic Study of Some New 1,2,4-Triazino[5,6-b]indole Derivatives

Abdulkarim H. Al-Syari, Saieba S. Hassan and Zeina Al-dulaimy

*Chemistry Department, Faculty of Science, Sana'a University, Sana'a, Yemen,
Corresponding Author: k_alsiary@yahoo.com or kalsyari@suye.ac*

ABSTRACT

The Scheme of this work included the synthesis and characterization of new two series of 1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole and 8-bromo-1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole derivatives according to the starting material used. Both, derivatives of 3-thione-1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole and 8-bromo-3-thione-1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole (3a & 3b) were prepared by using Isatin and 5-bromo isatin as a starting material, the new schiff's bases (5a & 5b) were synthesized by the reaction of hydrazino indole derivatives (4a & 4b) with aromatic aldehydes. Tetracyclic derivatives (7a & 7b) were prepared by the reaction of hydrazino derivatives (4a & 4b) with carbon disulfide in the presence of pyridine. Also 3-(N-phenyl thiocarbamoyl hydrazino)-1,2,4-triazino-[5,6-b] indole, and 8-bromo-3-(N phenyl thiocarbamoyl hydrazino)-1,2,4-triazino-[5,6-b] indole (6a & 6b) were prepared by the reaction of the compound (4a & 4b) with phenyl thio isocyanate in the presence of DMF. Finally, new Mannich bases (9a & 9b) were prepared by the reaction of the new acetylenic indole derivatives (8a & 8b) with paraformaldehyde and secondary amine in the presence of coprous chloride as catalyst.

These compounds were identified by their melting points and spectral data (IR & UV), and elemental analysis (C,H,N) and thin layer chromatography (TLC) were used.

Keywords: Isatin, 5-bromo isatin, synthesis, derivatives & characterization.

INTRODUCTION

Indole derivatives are widely present in the unit of biologically active nature of products, and are very important heterocycles in the structure of many medicines [1]. The indole ring system is one of the most important heterocyclic ring generated by the fusion of a benzene ring to the 2,3-positions of a pyrrole. Therefore, the chemistry of indole ring is dominated



by its very easy electrophilic substitution, the heterocyclic ring is very electron rich, by comparison with a benzene ring, so the attack by the electrophiles always takes place in the pyrrole ring; the β -position is preferred to yield β -indole derivatives [2].

Also, indoles underwent the Mannich reaction and Vilsmeier-Haack reaction to produce 3-(dimethyl amino methyl) indole (gramine) which is the natural component of wheat and indole-3-carbaldehyde, respectively [2]. The most widely used synthesis of indole derivatives is Fischer synthesis or Bischler's synthesis [2,3].

Isatine (2,3-indolindione) is a very useful derivative for the synthesis of indoles and other heterocycles; it readily undergoes aromatic substitution reactions at C-5 and ketonic reactions at C-3 carbonyl group [4]. Recently, there has been a great deal of interest in the synthesis of derivatives possessing various functional groups. This research is concerned with the development of synthetic methods of indole derivatives by different routes. These derivatives were characterized by spectroscopic method (IR, UV), and their elemental analysis (C,H,N) and TLC.

EXPERIMENTAL

Instrument and Chemical

Melting points were determined on an electrothermal melting point apparatus. IR spectra were recorded using KBr disc on a pye-Unicam Sp3-1000 spectrophotometer. The UV-visible absorption were determined in ethanol 95% using Hitachi U 2000 spectrophotometer. Elemental analysis (C,H,N) were performed on an elemental analysis system. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) was carried out using Fertigfolien precoated sheets type polygram SilG and the plates were developed with iodine vapour.

Preparation of compound (5-bromoindoline-2,3-dione) (1b)

To a solution of p-bromoaniline, (17.3 g, .01 mol) in concentrated hydrochloric acid with water (55 : 60) were added to a mixture of chloral hydrate (18.19 g, 0.11 mol) and aqueous solution of sodium sulfate (250 g). Then aqueous solution of hydroxyl amine hydrochloride (22 g, 0.33 mol) in water (100 ml) was added. The resulting mixture was refluxed for half hour. The yellow precipitate was formed on cooling, 4-bromo isonitroso acetanilide was collected and recrystallized from chloroform m.p. 142 °C (ref. 143°C) [17a].

The addition of 4-bromoisonitroso acetanilide (12.2 g, 0.05 mol) to concentrated hydrochloric acid portion twice, the mixture was heated at 30-40 °C for half an hour with stirring. Then it was heated at 80 °C for 15 min. the resulting mixture was poured in a beaker containing ice-water (about 10 times the volume of solution). The orange precipitate was formed, filtered off and recrystallized from glacial acetic acid m.p. 196 °C (ref. 198 °C) [17b].

Preparation of compound 2H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole-3(5H)-thione & (8-bromo-2H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole-3(5H)-thione) (3a,b) [18]

A mixture of compound (1a or 1b) (7.3 g or 11.3 g, 0.05 mol), thiosemicarbazide (5 g, 0.005 mol) and solution of potassium carbonate (10.2 g, 0.075mol) in water (200 ml) was refluxed for 7-12 hrs. After cooling, the salt was filtered off; the filtrate was acidified with

glacial acetic acid. Finally, the product (3a or 3b) was collected and recrystallized from ethanol. See Physical properties (Table 1) and spectral data (Table 3).

Preparation of compound 3-hydrazinyl-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole & (8-bromo-3-hydrazinyl-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole) (4a,b) [19]

A solution of compound (3a or b) (4.04 g or 5.62 g, 0.02 mol) and hydrazine hydrate (20-30 ml) was refluxed (on water bath) for 5-8 hrs. After cooling, the hydrazide derivative (4a or 4b) precipitated, filtered off, washed with ethanol, dried and recrystallized from DMF. See physical properties (Table 1).

Preparation of compound 5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indol-3-yl)hydrazinyl)methyl derivatives & ((2-(8-bromo-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indol-3-yl)hydrazinyl)methyl derivatives (5a,b)

To the hydrazide derivatives (4a or 4b) (0.2 g, 0.001 mol), a solution of an appropriate aldehyde (0.001 mol) in DMF (15 ml) was added. The resulting mixture was refluxed as shown the refluxed time (Table 1). After cooling the precipitate 5a,b (Schiff's bases) was filtered off and recrystallized from appropriate solvent (Table 1).

Preparation of compound 3-(5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indol-3-yl)-N-phenyltriazino-1-carbothioamide & (3-(8-bromo-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indol-3-yl)-N-phenyltriazino-1-carbothioamide) (6a,b) [20]

A mixture of compound (4a or b) (0.0025 mol) and phenyl isothiocyanate (0.0025 mol) in DMF (15 ml), was refluxed (Table 1 as shown the refluxing time). After cooling, the precipitate was filtered off and recrystallized from appropriate solvent (Table 1). Preparation of compound 2,3-dihydro-1-thioxo-1,2,4-triazolo[3,4-c]-1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole & 8-bromo-2,3-dihydro-1-thioxo-1,2,4-triazolo[3,4-c]-1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole (7a,b)

To the solution of hydrazide compound (4a or b) (2.02 g or 2.819g, 0.01 mol) in dry pyridine (30 ml), carbon disulfide (5 ml) was added. The resulting mixture was refluxed for the time mentioned in (Table 1). After cooling, the benzene (30 ml) was added with several drops of hydrochloric acid and diluted with water (30 ml), filtered off, dried and recrystallized from appropriate solvent (Table 1)

Preparation of compound 3-(prop-2-ynylthio)-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole & (8-bromo-3-(prop-2-ynylthio)-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole) (8a,b)

A solution of compound (3a or b) (2.02 g, Or 2.81 g) (0.01 mole) and triethyl amine (1.1 g, 0.01 mol) was heated gently; then propargyl bromide (1.2 g, 0.01 mol) was added. The mixture was heated under reflux for the time mentioned in (Table 1). After cooling and diluting with water, the solid was filtered off, dried and recrystallized from appropriate solvent (Table 1).

Preparation of compound 8-bromo-3-(but-2-ynylthio)-5H-[1,2,4]triazino[5,6-b]indole amine derivatives) (9a,b) (Mannich Bases).

A solution of compound (8a or b) (0.0026 mol) and paraformaldehyde (0.0026 mol) in dioxane (15 ml) was heated gently, then cuprous chloride (0.5 g) and secondary amine (0.0026 mol) were added. The resulting mixture was refluxed with stirring (on water bath) for the time mentioned in (Table 1). After cooling, the salt was filtered off. The filtrate was

diluted with ice water (25 ml). The precipitate was filtered off and recrystallized (Table 1 physical properties).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The indole derivatives have a wide spread interest due to their key role in medically important species such as those displaying antiestrogen [5], analgesic [6], antimicrobial [7], anti-allergy, neuroleptic [8], and in cancer chemotherapy [9].

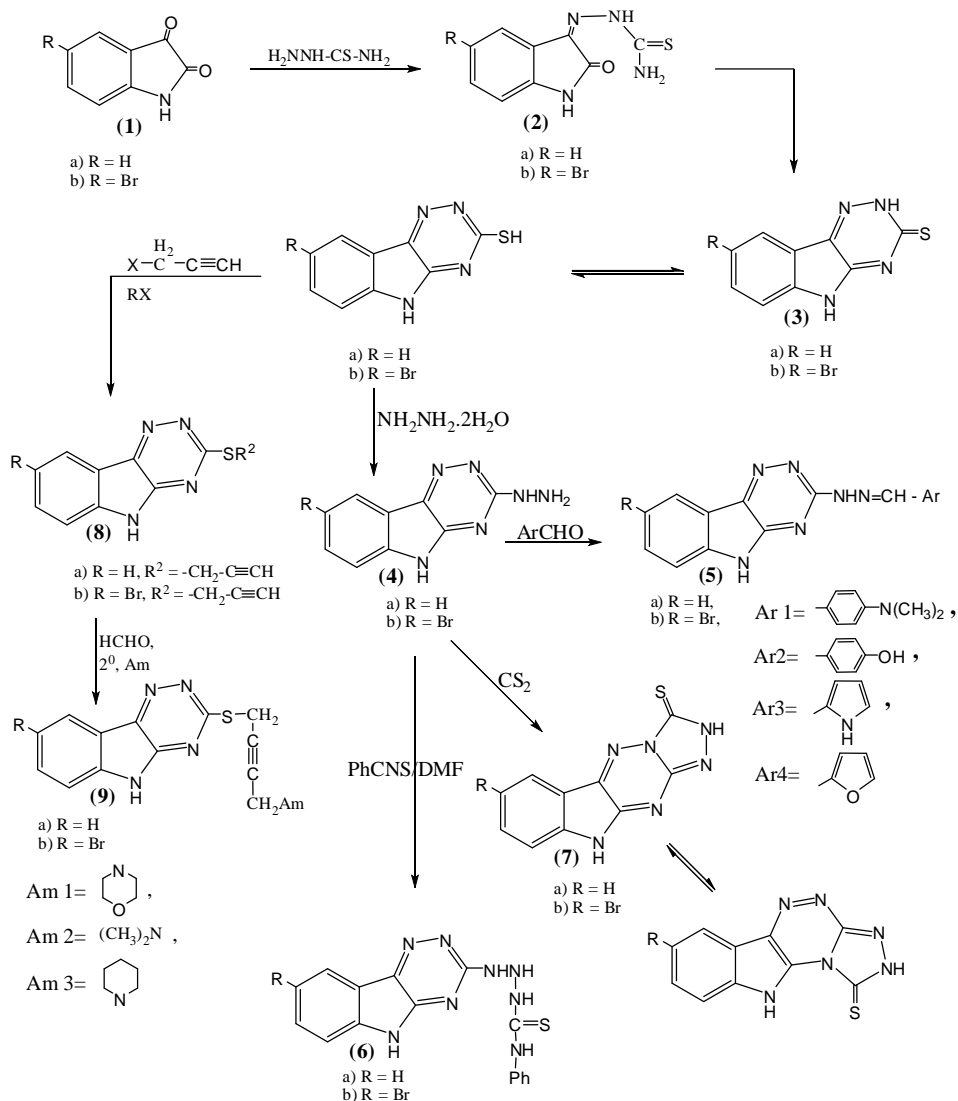
The synthesis and reaction of indoles have been a topic of research interests for over a century because a number of their derivatives occur in nature and they possess a variety of important biological activities [10]. Bromo indole alkaloids have been isolated as secondary metabolites of marine organisms, which are promising sources of new biologically active molecules [11], moreover, bromo groups are useful functional groups. In this paper, we have reported the synthesis of two series of 1,2,4-triazino[5,6-b] indole derivatives. Due to the importance of these compounds in organic chemistry research, the isatine (1a) and 5-bromo isatin (1b) were used as starting materials to prepare the two series of the derivatives. The reaction of (1a and 1b) with thiosemicarbazide in alkaline medium in the presence of potassium carbonate to give the corresponding thiosemicarbazone (2a and 2b) as a result of nucleophilic attack to the amino group of thiosemicarbazide to the β -carbonyl group in the (1a or 1b), followed, as it will undergo the internal cyclization in alkaline medium to give the corresponding 3-thione 1,2,4-triazino [5,6-b] indole derivatives (3a, 3b), which were in a tautomerism form for thiol group (-SH to C=S), were isolated as yellow crystals as illustrated in scheme I; their structures were confirmed by physical properties (Table 1) and IR spectra (Table 3) showed the presence of C=N stretching absorption band at (1600 – 1630 cm^{-1}), S-H stretching absorption band at (2550 – 2600 cm^{-1}), C=S stretching absorption at (1050 – 1250 cm^{-1}) and disappearance of stretching absorption band of carbonyl group C=O at (1720 cm^{-1}), stretching band C-Br (600-750 cm^{-1}). Their UV spectrum showed λ_{max} 371.5 nm (C=N, SH) ($n \rightarrow \pi^*$) and λ_{max} 247.5 nm ($\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$) for aromatic ring [12].

Reaction of compounds (3a,b) with hydrazine hydrate in ethanolic solution, due to the high reactivity of the amino group towards nucleophilic attack to thiol group, is normally to obtain hydrazino derivatives (4a & 4b) [13]. Their structure was identified by physical properties (table 1), and IR spectra showed stretching absorption band (3200-3400 cm^{-1}) for NH₂ & NH and disappearance of stretching absorption band of SH.

Treatment of compound (4a & 4b) with equimolar of selected aldehydes aromatic or heterocyclic (p-dimethylamino benzaldehyde, p-hydroxy benzaldehyde, α -pyrrol carboxyaldehyde and α -furfural) afforded the corresponding Schiff's bases (5a & 5b) and their structures were confirmed by their physical properties (table 1), spectral data (table 3) & elemental analysis (C,H,N) (Table 2). TLC in mixture of hexane-ethylacetate in ratio (3:1) shows that the reaction occurred.

The importance of synthesizing hydrazine and triazole derivatives due to their potential biological activity [14], reaction of compounds (4a & 4b) with carbon disulfide in alkaline medium caused cyclization by internucleophilic attack to give the corresponding triazole derivatives (7a & 7b), either cyclization occurs at N2 or N4. However, the cyclization at N4 was preferred because it is planar (planarity) the aromatic system of indole (10 π e). The products were confirmed by physical properties (Table 1), elemental analysis (Table 2). IR

spectra showed a stretching absorption band at (1250 cm^{-1} C=S) but the absorption band of (NH_2) disappeared; and UV spectra (Table 3) and TLC also showed that the reaction occurred.



Scheme (1)

In an extension of the results, we have studied further improvement of the reactions. In this paper, we report that the reaction of hydrazino derivatives (4a & 4b) with phenyl thiocyanate in DMF as solvent by nucleophilic attack to give the corresponding compound

(6a & 6b). Their structures were confirmed by elemental analysis (C,H,N) (Table 2) spectral data (Table 3).

Due to the importance of synthesizing new acetylenic derivatives arising from their potential biological activity [15], as well as their industrial and medical applications, there are many acetylenic derivatives which are found in the composition of plants. They do have medical effects since they are easily absorbed by the body and have minimal toxic effects. On refluxing compounds (3a & 3b) with propargyl bromide in the presence of trimethyl amine, the compounds (8a & 8b) were produced. The structures which were identified by physical properties (Table -1-), spectra data (table -3-) showed the presence of $\equiv\text{C}-\text{H}$ stretching absorption band at (3200 cm^{-1}) and $-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-$ stretching absorption at (2100 cm^{-1}) and disappearance of the stretching band of ($2250-2600\text{ cm}^{-1}$) due to the SH, elemental analysis (Table -2-) and TLC (mixture) hexane: ethyl acetate (3:1) showed the Rf values for starting material and product.

Consequently, the compounds (8a & 8b) which were heated under reflux with paraformaldehyde and different secondary amines (dimethyl amine, morphine, piperidine) in the presence of cuprous chloride CuCl as catalyst to increase the nucleophilicity of acetylenic carbon atom in the presence of dioxane were used as solvent to give the corresponding Mannich base (9a & 9b) [16]. The structures were confirmed by physical properties (Table -1-) spectra data (Table -3-) showing the presence of CH_2 stretching absorption band at ($2850-2900\text{ cm}^{-1}$) (C-N aliphatic) ($1020-1255\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and absence of the stretching band at (3200 cm^{-1}) due to $\equiv\text{C}-\text{H}$. See Elemental analysis (Table -2-) and TLC (hexane & ethyl acetate).

Table (1): Characterization data of prepared compounds

Com. No.	Yield % (m.p.OC)	Formula	Color	Crystallization solvent	Refl. Time
5a,Ar1	30% 303-305)	C18H17N7	Deep yellow	DMF/water	3 hrs
5a,Ar2	33% (308-310)	C16H12N6O	Green-yellowish	DMF/water	3 hrs
5a,Ar3	36% (280-282)	C14H11N7	Pale yellow	DMF/water	3 hrs
5a,Ar4	36% (293-295)	C14H10N6O	Green-Yellowish	DMF/water	3 hrs
5b,Ar1	34% (240-243)	C18H16N7Br	Deep Red	DMF/Water	5 hrs
5b,Ar2	36% (270-272)	C16H11N6OBr	Orange	DMF/Water	5 hrs
5b,Ar3	39% (250-252)	C14H10N7Br	Red	DMF/Water	5 hrs
5b,Ar4	39% (249-250)	C14H9N6OBr	Pale green	DMF/water	5 hrs
6a	36% (240-243)	C16H13N7S	Gray	DMF/Water	2 hrs
6b	41% (250-252)	C16H12N7SBr	Brown	Ethanol/Water	5 hrs
7a	44% (>300)	C10H5N6S	Deep red	DMF/Water	5 hrs
7b	43% (229-230)	C10H4N6SBr	Orange	DMF/Water	10 hrs

8a	79% (110-112)	C ₁₂ H ₈ N ₄ S	Pale yellow	Ethanol	3-4 hrs
8b	66% (143-145)	C ₁₂ H ₇ N ₄ SBr	Brown	DMF	6-7 hrs
9a,Am1	57% (90-92)	C ₁₇ H ₁₇ N ₅ SO	Black	Ethanol	3 hrs
9a,Am2	43% (70-72)	C ₁₅ H ₁₆ N ₅ S	Black	Ethanol	3 hrs
9a,Am3	40% (85-86)	C ₁₈ H ₂₀ N ₅ S	Brown	Ethanol	3 hrs
9b,Am1	60% (198-200)	C ₁₇ H ₁₆ N ₅ SOBr	Brown	Ethanol	5 hrs
9b,Am2	45% (78-80)	C ₁₅ H ₁₅ N ₅ SBr	Brown	Ethanol	5 hrs
9b,Am3	40% (158-160)	C ₁₈ H ₁₉ N ₅ SBr	Brown	Ethanol	5 hrs

Table (2): Elemental analysis of prepared compounds

Comp. No.	Elemental analysis C,H,N calculated (C,H,Nfound)		
	C	H	N
5a,Ar1	65.45 (65.15)	4.84 (4.28)	29.09 (29.15)
5b,Ar1	49.87 (49.57)	3.89 (3.59)	25.45 (25.09)
6a	57.31 (57.08)	3.88 (3.49)	29.25 (29.12)
6b	46.37 (46.20)	2.89 (2.60)	23.67 (23.27)
7a	49.79 (49.83)	2.07 (2.12)	34.8 (34.41)
7b	37.5 (37.0)	1.25 (1.05)	26.25 (26.15)
8a	60.0 (59.52)	3.33 (3.12)	23.3 (23.0)
8b	45.14 (45.14)	2.19 (2.09)	17.55 (17.05)
9aAm1	60.17 (60.40)	5.01 (5.22)	20.60 (20.16)
9aAm3	64.09 (64.15)	5.63 (5.50)	20.77 (20.52)
9bAm1	48.80 (48.35)	3.80 (3.50)	16.74 (16.34)
9bAm3	51.92 (51.72)	4.32 (4.12)	16.81 (16.51)

Table (3): The spectra data of the prepared compounds (IR & UV)

Com p. No.	IR spectra*							UV. Visible**
	ν =C-H	ν CH ₃	ν C=N arom.	ν -C-N	ν C=C arom.	=C-H out of plane	Others	λ max (nm) (ϵ max)
3a	3000-3100	-	1600-1630	-	1400-1600	690-950	C=S (1050-1250), SH (2550-2600), N=N (1450), NH (3200)	247.5 (632), 371.5 (1627)
3b	3000-3100	-	1630	-	1400-1600	690-950	C=S (1050-1250), N=N (1450), C-Br (600-700), SH (2550-2600)	244 (1533), 298.0 (1505), 372 (1297)
4a	3100	-	1630	-	1400-1470	-	NH ₂ (3200-3400)	322 (1449), 401 (2418)
4b	3080	-	1630	-	1400-1460	-	NH ₂ (3200)	344 (1364), 454 (2977)
5a1	3100	2900-2840	1630	1070-1030	1490-1450	755	NH (3200-3400)	231 (1184), 252 (1322), 300 (1457)
5a2	3070	-	1630	1070-1020	1490, 1400	830	NH (3400-3200) & OH (3600)	250 (1390), 298 (1430), 372 (661), 382 (659)
5a3	3060	-	1630	1050, 1020	1490, 1450	840	NH (3200-3400)	250 (1165), 307 (1197), 372 (621)
5a4	3080	-	1600	1120, 1060	1590, 1500	870	NH (3400-3200)	248.5 (1554), 300 (1563), 373 (1588), 384 (1667)
5b1	3080-3040	2940, 2830	1630	1260, 1060	1470, 1400	840	NH (3200), OH (3600), C-Br (600-750)	244 (1238), 307 (1427)
5b2	3100	-	1630	1070, 1030	1600, 1460	750	NH (3200), OH (3600), C-Br (600-750)	234 (1066), 257 (1146), 301 (1480)
5b3	3100	-	1600	1520, 1080	1500, 1450, 1400	700	NH (3200), C-Br (600-750)	205 (103), 231 (654), 303 (1394)
5b4	3080	-	1600	1100, 1030	1480, 1400	680	NH (3200), C-Br (600-750)	245 (1129), 295 (1373), 372 (716)
6a	3100	-	1620	1070, 1030	1490, 1450	755	C=S (1250), NH (3400-3200)	254 (541), 316 (883), 414 (199.8)
6b	3100	-	1630	1060-1020	1490-1440	740	C=S (1250), NH (3200), C-Br (600-700)	246 (1372), 300(1521), 312 (1508), 372 (1379)
7a	3100	-	1630	1080, 1030	1500, 1460, 1400	750	C=S (1250), NH (3200)	246 (1562), 301 (1552), 372 (1018), 467 (710)
7b	3080	-	1630	1020-1250	1600, 1400	760	C=S (1250)	264 (354), 306 (751)
8a	3000-3100	2900-2960	1630-1600	1070-1030	1640-1600	755	-C≡CH (2100), NH (3200), CH _{bend} (3200)	244 (1562), 300 (1519), 372 (1582)
8b	3070	2900-2840	1630	1060-1020	1490-1400	830	CH _{bend} (3200), -C≡CH (2100), C-Br (760)	244 (1463), 295 (1580), 303 (1575), 372 (1359)

9a1	3100-3040	2960-2800	1630	1240, 1070	1586-1450	830	C-O-C (1100), NH (3300)	208 (370), 244 (1464), 301 (1595), 389 (2311)
9a2	3090	2960-2800	1630	1170, 1080	1480, 1400	840	NH (3300)	
9a3	3080	2950, 2910, 2840	1600	1240	1490, 1450, 1400	750-850	NH (3300)	244 (1450), 307 (1575), 319 (1544), 396 (2404)
9b1	3100	2900, 2800	1600	1210-1080	1480, 1400	770	C-O-C (1100-1120), NH (3300)	
9b2	3080	2820, 2700	1600	1100-1030	1480, 1400	680	NH (3300)	
9b3	3100	2980, 2940, 2840	1630	1250, 1080	1500, 1450	770	NH (3300)	208 (172), 242 (1315), 296 (1295)

* KBr disc, **conc. 10-3, solvent ethanol 95%.

REFERENCES

- [1] a) C.W. Bird and G.W.H. Cleeseman, (ed) (1989), Comprehensive of Heterocyclic chemistry, Vol. 4, Pergamum Press, Int. New York. b) R.J. Sundberg, (ed) (1996), The chemistry of Indole, Academic Press, Int. New York, pp, 113.
- [2] a) R.M. Acheson, (ed), (1976), An introduction to the chemistry of heterocyclic compound, b) J.A. Joule and K. Mills, (ed), (2000), Heterocyclic Chemistry.
- [3] a) Y. Murakami, Y. Yokoyama, T. Miura, H. Hirasawa, Y. Kamimura and M. Izaki,(1984). Heterocycles **22**: 1211. b) G. Baccolini and E. Marotta, (1985). Tetrahedron **20**: 4615. C) G. Baccolini, R. Dalpozzo and P.E. Todesco, (1988). J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans **1**: 971. d) R.J. Sundberg and J.P. aurino, (1984). J.Org. Chem **49**: 249.
- [4] a) F.D. Popp, (1975). The chemistry of Isatin, Adv. Heterocycl chem. **1**:18. b) S.J. Garden, J.C. Torres, A.A. Ferreira, R.B. Silva and A.C. Pinto, (1997). Tetrahedron let **39**: 1501.
- [5] E. Von Angerer and J. Strohmeier, (1987). J. Med. Chem **30**: 131.
- [6] a) E.J. Glankowski, J.M. Fortunato, T.C. Spanlding, J.C. Wilker and D.B. Ellis, (1985). J.Med. Chem **28**: 66. b) G.R. Jr. Allen, V.G. Devrles and E. Green blatt, (1973)). J. Med. Chem **16**: 949. C) F. Benington and R.J. Bradley, (1976). J. Heterocyclic chem **13**: 794.
- [7] a) P.C. Unangst, M.E. Carethers, K. Webster, G.M. Janik and L.J. Robichand, (1984). J. Med. Che **27**: 1629. b) R.S. Varma and W. Lewis Nobles, (1975). J. Pharm. Sci **64**: 881.
- [8] J. Perregaard, J. Arnt, K.P. Boegesoe, J. Hyttel and C. Sancher, (1992). J. Med. Chem **35**: 1092.
- [9] a) A.G. Kamat and G.S. Gadaqinamath, (1994). Indian, J. chem **33B**: 255. b) Hui Xu, Lei Lv, Ling-ling Fan and Xia O-giang He, (2008). J. Heterocycles, chem **76**: 1.

- [10] a) M. Friedman, (1965). *J. Org. chem* **30**: 859. b) T. Bando, H. Jidn, Z.F. Tao, A. Narita, N. Funkuda, T. Yamon, and H. Sugiyama, (2003). *chem., Biol., la*, 751. C) G. Tarzia, A. Duranti, A. Tontini, G. Spadoni, M. Mor, S. Rivara, D.V. Plazzi, S. Kathuria and D. Piomelli, (2003). *Bio org. Med. Chem* **11**: 3965.
- [11] a) G.R. Gribble, (1999). *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **28**: 335. b) G.R. Gribble, (2006). *J. Heterocycles Chem* **68**: 9.
- [12] a) D.W. Brown, (1988). *Organic Spectroscopy* Johnwiley, pp, 3760. b) K. Nakamishi and P.H. Soloman (1977). *Infra-red Absorption Spectroscopy*, Holden Day, San Francisco. C) R.H. Silverstein. (1964). *Spectroscopy identification of Organic compound*.
- [13] D. Kaminsky, U.S. Pat, 3, 752, 891, 1973; C.A. (79, 149328b), 1923.
- [14] a) K.C. Joshi and P.Chand, (1980). *J. Heterocyclic Chem* **16**:1783. and (1981). *J. Heterocyclic Chem* **17**: 43. b) M.M. Goodman and J.L. Alwood, (1976). *J. Org. Chem* **41**: 2860.
- [15] a) H. Pine Stanley, (1987). *Organic Chemistry*. b) T.F. Rulfleelge, (1969. *Acetylenic Compounds*, Reinhold Book New York, pp, 314.
- [16] a) M. Tramontini, (1973). *Synthesis*, **12**: 703. b) H. Hause, (1972). *Modern Synthesis Reactions*, pp, 565.
- [17] a) P.M. Maginnity and C.A. Gaulin, (1951). *J. Am. Chem. Soc* **73**: 3599. b) R. Adams, (1971). *Organic Synthesis*, **1**: 327.
- [18] J. M. Z. Gladych and F.J. Steward, (1972). *J. Med. Chem.*, **15**: 277.
- [19] K. Daniel, U.S. Pat. 3, 752, 891 (1973); C. A. 79, 149328b (1973).
- [20] N. H. Eshba, Mex., (1995). *J. Pharm., Sci.* **1**: 9.

تحضير ودراسة طيفية لمشتقات جديدة من 4,2,1-ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول

عبدالكريم حسين السيارى ، صائبة صادق حسن ، زين الدليمي

قسم الكيمياء، كلية العلوم، جامعة صنعاء، اليمن
k_alsiary@yahoo.com or kalsyari@suye.ac

ملخص

يتضمن هذا البحث تحضير و التعرف على سلسلتين جديتين من 4,2,1-ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول و 8-بروميد-4,2,1-ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول ومشتقاتها وفقا للمادة المتفاعلة المستعملة. تم تحضير كل من مشتق 3-ثيون-4,2,1-ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول و 8-بروميد-3-ثيون-4,2,1-ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول (a3 & b3) من الايساتين و 5-بروميد ايساتين. كما تم تحضير قواعد شيف (5b&5a) بتفاعل مشتقات هيدرازينو اندول (4b&4a) مع الالدهيدات الاروماتية. كذلك تم تحضير المشتقات رباعية الحلقة (7b&7a) بتفاعل مشتقات هيدرازينو اندول (4b&4a) مع ثاني كبريتيد الكربون في وجود البريدين. كما حضر 3-(ن-فينيل ثيوكاربامويل هيدرازينو) -4,2,1- ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول و 8-بروميد-3-(ن-فينيل ثيوكاربامويل هيدرازينو) -4,2,1- ترايزينو[6,5-بي] اندول (6b&6a) من تفاعل المركبات (4b&4a) مع فينيل ايزوثيوسيانات في وجود ثنائي ميثيل فورمامايد (DMF). وفي الاخير تم تحضير قواعد مانيش (9b&9a) من تفاعل المشتقات الجديدة للاندول الالدهيدية مع بارافورمالدهيد وامين ثانوي في وجود كلوريد النحاسوز كحفاز. تم التعرف على هذه المركبات عن طريق قياس نقط الانصهار ، واطياف الاشعة تحت الحمراء و فوق البنفسجية، والتحليل العنصري للكربون والهيدروجين والنيتروجين، كما تم استعمال طرق الفصل الكروماتوجرافي (TLC).

Maximal Subgroups of the Group $\text{PSL}(11, 2)$

Rahie I. Elkhatib

Dept. of Mathematics, Faculty of Applied Science, Thamar University, Yemen
E-mail:Rahie@yahoo.com.

ABSTRACT

In this note, we will determine, up to the conjugacy, all the maximal subgroups of $\text{PSL}(11, 2)$ by Aschbacher's theorem.

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to prove the following main theorem:

Theorem (1.1): Let $G = \text{PSL}(11, 2)$. If H is a maximal subgroup of G , then H is isomorphic to one of the following subgroups:

1. A group $G_{(p)}$ or $G_{(9-\pi)}$, stabilizing a point or its dual, the stabilizer of a hyperplane. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{10} \cdot \text{SL}(10, 2)$.
2. A group $G_{(l)}$ or $G_{(8-\pi)}$, stabilizing a line or its dual, the stabilizer of a 8-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{18} \cdot (\text{SL}(2, 2) \times \text{SL}(9, 2))$.
3. A group $G_{(2-\pi)}$, or $G_{(7-\pi)}$, stabilizing a plane or its dual, the stabilizer of a 7-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{24} \cdot (\text{SL}(3, 2) \times \text{SL}(8, 2))$.
4. A group $G_{(3-\pi)}$, or $G_{(6-\pi)}$, stabilizing a 3-space or its dual, the stabilizer of a 6-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{28} \cdot (\text{SL}(4, 2) \times \text{SL}(7, 2))$.
5. A group $G_{(4-\pi)}$, or $G_{(5-\pi)}$, stabilizing a 4-space or its dual, the stabilizer of a 5-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{30} \cdot (\text{SL}(5, 2) \times \text{SL}(6, 2))$.
6. A Singer cycle subgroup $H = \Gamma\text{L}(1, 2^{11})$.
7. $\text{P}\Gamma\text{L}(2, 23)$.
8. Mathieu group M_{24} .

Through this paper, $\Gamma\text{L}(n, q)$ denote the group of all non-singular semi-linear transformation of a vector space $V_n(q)$ of dimension n over a field F_q with q is a prime power. *The general linear group* $\text{GL}(n, q)$, consisting of the set of all invertible $n \times n$ matrices. In fact, $\text{GL}(n, q)$ is a subgroup of $\Gamma\text{L}(n, q)$ consisting of all non-singular linear transformations of $V_n(q)$. *The centre* Z of $\text{GL}(n, q)$ is the set of all non-singular scalar matrices. The factor group



$GL(n, q) / Z$ called *The projective general linear group* which is denoted by $PGL(n, q)$. $GL(n, q)$ has a normal subgroup $SL(n, q)$, consisting of all matrices of determinant 1 called *the special linear group*. *The projective special linear group* $PSL(n, q)$ is the quotient group $SL(n, q) / (Z \cap SL(n, q))$. $PSL(n, q)$ is simple, except for $PSL(2, 2)$ and $PSL(2, 3)$.

$PG(n-1, q)$ will denote *the projective space* of dimension $n-1$ associated with $V_n(q)$. One, two and three- dimensional subspaces of $V_n(q)$ will be called *points, lines* and *planes* respectively. An $(n-1)$ -dimensional subspace shall be called a *hyperplane*. An element $T \in GL(n, q)$ is called a *transvection* if T satisfies $\text{rank}(T - I_n) = 1$ and $(T - I_n)^2 = 0$.

A *split extension* (a *semidirect product*) $A:B$ is a group G with a normal subgroup A and a subgroup B such that $G = AB$ and $A \cap B = 1$. A *non-split extension* $A.B$ is a group G with a normal subgroup A and $G/A \cong B$, but with no subgroup B satisfying $G = AB$ and $A \cap B = 1$. A group $G = A \circ B$ is a *central product* of its subgroups A and B if $G = AB$ and $[A, B]$, the commutator of A and $B = \{1\}$, in this case A and B are normal subgroups of G and $A \cap B \leq Z(G)$. If $A \cap B = \{1\}$, then $A \circ B = AB$.

$G = PSL(11, 2)$ is a simple group of order $768105432118265670534631586896281600$, thus $|G| = 2^{55} \cdot 3^6 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7^3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17 \cdot 23 \cdot 31^2 \cdot 73 \cdot 89 \cdot 127$ acting as a doubly transitive permutation group on the points of the projective space $PG(10, 2)$.

2. ASCHBACHER'S THEOREM

In this section, we will give some definitions before starting a brief description of Aschbacher's theorem (2).

Definition (2.1) :

Let V be a vector space of dimensional n over a finite field q , a subgroup H of $GL(n, q)$ is called *reducible* if it stabilizes a proper nontrivial subspace of V . If H is not reducible, then it is called *irreducible*. If H is irreducible for all field extension F of F_q , then H is *absolutely irreducible*. An irreducible subgroup H of $GL(n, q)$ is called *imprimitive* if there are subspaces $V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k, k \geq 2$, of V such that $V = V_1 \oplus \dots \oplus V_k$ and H permutes the elements of the set $\{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ among themselves. When H is not imprimitive then it is called *primitive*.

Definition (2.2):

A group $G \leq GL(n, q)$ is a *superfield group* of degree s if for some s divides n with $s > 1$, the group G may be embedded in $\Gamma L(n/s, q^s)$.

Definition (2.3) :

If the group $G \leq Gl(n, q)$ preserves a decomposition $V = V_1 \otimes V_2$ with $\dim(V_1) \neq \dim(V_2)$ then G is a *tensor product group*.

Suppose that $n = r^m$ for $m > 1$. If $G \leq Gl(n, q)$ preserves a decomposition $V = V_1 \otimes \dots \otimes V_m$ with $\dim(V_i) = r$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$, then G is *tensor induced group*.

Definition (2.4):

A group $G \leq GL(n, q)$ is *subfield group* if there exists a subfield $F_{q_0} \subset F_q$ such that G can be embedded in $GL(n, q_0) \cdot Z$.

Definition (2.5):

A p -group G is called *special* if $Z(G) = G'$ and is called *extraspecial* if also $|Z(G)| = p$.

Definition (2.6) :

Let Z denote the group of scalar matrices of G . Then G is *almost simple modulo scalars* if there is a non-abelian simple group T such that $T \leq G/Z \leq \text{Aut}(T)$, the automorphism group of T .

A classification of the maximal subgroups of $GL(n, q)$ by Aschbacher's theorem (2), which may be briefly summarized as follows:

Result (2.7) (Aschbacher's theorem):- (2).

Let H be a subgroup of $GL(n, q)$, $q = p^e$ with the center Z and let V be the underlying n -dimensional vector space over a field q . If H is a maximal subgroup of $GL(n, q)$, then one of the following holds:

- C_1 :- H is a reducible group.
- C_2 :- H is an imprimitive group.
- C_3 :- H is a superfield group.
- C_4 :- H is a tensor product group.
- C_5 :- H is a subfield group.
- C_6 :- H normalizes an irreducible extraspecial or symplectic-type group.
- C_7 :- H is a tensor induced group.
- C_8 :- H normalizes a classical group in its natural representation.
- C_9 :- H is absolutely irreducible and $H/(H \cap Z)$ is almost simple.

To prove theorem (1.1) by using Aschbacher's theorem (Result (2.7)), first, we will determine the maximal subgroups in the classes $C_1 - C_8$ of Aschbacher's theorem (Result (2.7)):

3. CLASSES C_1-C_8 OF ASCHBACHER'S THEOREM (RESULT (2.7))

3.1 The subgroups of C_1 :

Let H be a reducible subgroup of G and W an invariant subspace of H . If we let $d = \dim(W)$, then $1 \leq d \leq 11$. Let $G_d = G_{(W)}$ denote the subgroup of G containing all elements fixing W as a whole and $H \subseteq G_{(W)}$, with a suitable choice of a basis, $G_{(W)}$ consists of all matrices of

the form $\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & C \end{pmatrix}$ where A and C are $d \times d$ and $(11-d) \times (11-d)$ non-singular matrices of

determinant 1, where B is an arbitrary $d \times (11-d)$ matrix. G_d is isomorphic to a group of the form $2^{d(11-d)} (SL(d, 2)) \times (SL(11-d, 2))$.

which give us the following reducible maximal subgroups of G :

1. A group $G_{(p)}$ or $G_{(9-\pi)}$, stabilizing a point or its dual, the stabilizer of a hyperplane. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{10} \cdot SL(10, 2)$.

2. A group $G_{(1)}$ or $G_{(8-\pi)}$, stabilizing a line or its dual, the stabilizer of a 8-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{18} \cdot (SL(2, 2) \times SL(9, 2))$.
 3. A group $G_{(2-\pi)}$, or $G_{(7-\pi)}$, stabilizing a plane or its dual, the stabilizer of a 7-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{24} \cdot (SL(3, 2) \times SL(8, 2))$.
 4. A group $G_{(3-\pi)}$, or $G_{(6-\pi)}$, stabilizing a 3-space or its dual, the stabilizer of a 6-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{28} \cdot (SL(4, 2) \times SL(7, 2))$.
 5. A group $G_{(4-\pi)}$, or $G_{(5-\pi)}$, stabilizing a 4-space or its dual, the stabilizer of a 5-space. These are isomorphic to a group of form $2^{30} \cdot (SL(5, 2) \times SL(6, 2))$.
- Which prove the points (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5) of the main theorem (1.1).

3.2 The maximal subgroups of C_2 :

If H is imprimitive, then H preserves a decomposition of V as a direct sum $V = V_1 \oplus \dots \oplus V_t$, $t > 1$, into subspaces of V , each of dimension $m = n/t$, which are permuted transitively by H , thus C_2 are isomorphic to $GL(m, q):S_t$.

Consequently, there are no C_2 groups in $PSL(11, 2)$ since 11 is a prime number.

Note: if $q > 2$, then there exist an imprimitive group $G_{(\Delta)}$ of order $n! (q-1)^{n-1}$ preserving a n -simplex points of $PG(n-1, q)$ with coordinates in F_q and $G_{(\Delta)}$ interchanges them. Consequently, there is no $G_{(\Delta)}$ subgroup in $PSL(11, 2)$, since $q = 2$ is not greater than 2.

3.3 The maximal subgroups of C_3 :

If H is (superfield group) a semilinear groups over extension fields of $GF(q)$ of prime degree, then H acts on G as a group of semilinear automorphism of a (n/k) -dimensional space over the extension field $GF(q^k)$, so H embeds in $\Gamma L(n/k, q^k)$, for some prime number k dividing n .

Consequently, there are no C_3 groups in $PSL(11, 2)$ since 11 is a prime number.

Definition (3.3.1) : A Singer cycle of $GL(n, q)$ is an element of order $q^n - 1$.

Result (3.3.2): (14) , (20) and (31) .

If n is a prime number, then there exist a Singer cycles group $H = \Gamma L(1, q^n)$ of order $d \cdot (q^n - 1)/(q - 1)$, where $d = \gcd(n, q - 1)$ and H is irreducible maximal subgroup of $PSL(n, q)$ which it is the normalizer of the (cyclic) multiplicative group for $GF(q^n)$.

Consequently, there is a Singer cycle subgroup $H = \Gamma L(1, 2^{11})$ in $PSL(11, 2)$, since 11 is a prime number which prove the point (6) of the main theorem (1.1).

3.4 The maximal subgroups of C_4 :

If H is a tensor product group, then H preserves a decomposition of V as a tensor product $V_1 \otimes V_2$, where $\dim(V_1) \neq \dim(V_2)$ of spaces of dimensions $k, m > 1$ over $GF(q)$, and so H stabilize the tensor product decomposition $F^k \otimes F^m$, where $n = km, k \neq m$. Thus, H is a subgroup of the central product of $GL(k, q) \circ GL(m, q)$.

Consequently, there is no tensor product group in $PSL(11, 2)$, since 11 can not be analysis to two different numbers.

3.5 The maximal subgroups of C_5 :

If H is a subfield group, then H is the linear groups over subfields of $GF(q)$ of prime index. Thus H can be embedded in $GL(n, p^f) \cdot Z$ where e/f is prime number and $q = p^e$.

Consequently, there are no C_5 groups in $PSL(11, 2)$, since 2 is a prime number.

3.6 The maximal subgroups of C_6 :

For the dimension $n = r^m$, if r is prime number divides $q-1$, then $H = r^{2m} : Sp(2m, r)$ is an extraspecial r -group of order r^{2m+1} , or if $r = 2$ and 4 divides $q-1$, then $H = 2^{2m} \cdot O^\epsilon(2m, 2)$ normalizes a 2-group of symplectic type of order 2^{2m+2} .

Consequently, there are no C_6 groups in $PSL(11, 2)$, since $n = 11$ is not prime power.

3.7 The maximal subgroups of C_7 :

If H is a tensor-induced, then H preserves a decomposition of V as $V_1 \otimes V_2 \otimes \dots \otimes V_m$ where V_i are isomorphic and each V_i has dimension $r > 1$, $n = \dim V = r^m$, and the set of V_i is permuted by H , so H stabilize the tensor product decomposition $F^r \otimes F^r \otimes \dots \otimes F^r$, where $F = F_q$. Thus $H/Z \leq PGL(r, q) : S_m$.

Consequently, there is a tensor-induced group in $PSL(11, 2)$, since $n = 11$ is not prime power.

3.8 The maximal subgroups of C_8 :

If H normalizes a classical group in its natural representation, then H lies between a classical group and its normalizer in $GL(n, q)$, so H preserves a classical form up to scalar multiplication. Thus H is a normalizer of such a subgroup $PSL(n, q')$, $PSp(n, q')$, $P\Omega(n, q')$ or $PSU(n, q')$ for various q' dividing q .

Consequently, there are no C_8 groups in $PSL(11, 2)$, since 2 is not a square, and is odd number.

Finally, we will determine the maximal subgroups in class C_9 of Aschbacher's theorem {Result (2.7)}:

4. The maximal subgroups of C_9 :

If H is absolutely irreducible and $H/(H \cap Z)$ is almost simple, then H is the normalizer of absolutely irreducible normal subgroup M of H which is non-abelian and simple group.

To find the maximal subgroups of C_9 , we will determine the maximal primitive subgroups H of G which have the property that a minimal normal subgroup M of H is non abelian group.

The following corollary will play an important role in proving the main result of this section {theorem (4.2)}

Corollary (4.1): If M is a non abelian simple group of a primitive subgroup H of G , then M is isomorphic to one of the following groups:

- a) $PSL(2, 23)$.
- b) Mathieu groups, M_{23} or M_{24} .

Proof: let H be a primitive subgroup of G with a minimal normal subgroup M of H is not abelian. So, we will discuss the possibilities of a minimal normal subgroup M of H according to:

- (I) M contains transvections. {(section (4.1))}
- (II) M does not contain any transvection. {(section (4.2))}

(III) M is doubly transitive. (section (4.3)).

4.1 Primitive subgroups H of G which have the property that a minimal normal subgroup of H is not abelian is generated by transvections:

To find the primitive subgroups H of G which have the property that a minimal normal subgroup of H is not abelian is generated by transvections, we will use the following result of Mclaughlin (25):

Result (4.1.1) (Mclaughlin Theorem) (25):

Let H be a proper irreducible subgroup of $SL(n, 2)$ generated by transvections. Then $n > 3$ and H is $Sp(n, 2)$, $O^\epsilon(n, 2)$, S_{n+1} or S_{n+2} .

In the following, we will discuss the different possibilities of Result (4.1.1), which will give us the following main result of section (4.1):

Corollary (4.1.2): There is no proper irreducible subgroup H of $SL(11, 2)$ generated by transvections.

Proof:

From Mclaughlin Theorem {Result (4.1.1)}, M is isomorphic to one of the following groups: symplectic group, orthogonal groups $O(11, 2)$, symmetric groups S_{12} or S_{13} .

1. There is no symplectic groups since n is odd number.
2. From the character table of the orthogonal group $O(11, 2)$ by GAP:

```
gap> g:=GO(11,2);
GO(0,11,2)
gap> c:=CharacterTable("g");
CharacterTable( "4.2^4.S5" )
gap> k:=CharacterTable(c, 2);
BrauerTable( "4.2^4.S5", 2 )
gap> CharacterDegrees(k);
[[ 1, 1 ], [ 4, 2 ] ]
```

And non of them of degree 11. Thus, if $O(11, 2) \subset G$, then it must be reducible.

3. From the character table of S_{12} , G contain no class of subgroups isomorphic to S_{12} .
 [[1, 1], [10, 1], [32, 1], [44, 1], [100, 1], [164, 1], [288, 1], [320, 1], [416, 1],
 [570, 1], [1046, 1], [1408, 1], [1792, 1], [2368, 1], [5632, 1]]

```
(gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("S12")mod 2); )
```

And non of them of degree 11. Thus $S_{12} \not\subset G$.

4. From the character table of S_{13} , G contain no class of subgroups isomorphic to S_{13} .
 [[1, 1], [12, 1], [64, 2], [208, 1], [288, 1], [364, 2], [560, 1], [570, 1], [1572,
 1], [1728, 1], [2208, 1], [2510, 1], [2848, 1], [3200, 1], [8008, 1], [8448, 1]]

```
(gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("S13")mod 2); )
```

And non of them of degree 11. Thus $S_{13} \not\subset G$.

4.2 Primitive subgroups H of G which have the property that a minimal normal subgroup of H is not abelian and does not contain transvections:

In this section, we will consider a minimal normal subgroup M of H is not abelian and does not contain any transvections.

The following corollary is the main result of section (4.2):

And B corresponds to transvections :

$$I + \begin{matrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \\ x_7 \\ x_8 \\ x_9 \\ x_{10} \\ \cdot \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since $S(2)$ does not contain any transvections, then both A and B must be the identity element. Then $S(2)$ contains no elementary abelian subgroup of order 8.

Result (4.2.3): (1)

Let Y be a simple group. Assume that the 2-Sylow subgroup of Y contains no elementary abelian subgroup of order 8. Then Y is isomorphic to one of the following groups: A_7 , $PSL(2, q)$, $PSL(3, q)$, $PSU(3, q)$ with q odd or $PSU(3, 4)$.

We will proceed to determine which of these groups satisfy the conditions of Corollary (4.2.1).

Lemma (4.2.4): $A_7 \not\subset G$

Proof:

Since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_7 by GAP are:

$$[[1, 1], [4, 2], [6, 1], [14, 1], [20, 1]]$$

($\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees} (\text{CharacterTable} ("A7") \text{ mod } 2)$);

And non of them of degree 11.

Lemma (4.2.5): If $PSL(2, q) \subset G$, q odd, then $q = 23$.

Proof:

$PSL(2, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< (1/2)(q-1) \{ (22) \text{ and } (29) \}$ and $(1/2)(q-1) > 11$ for all odd $q > 23$. Hence we need only to consider the cases when $q \leq 23$.

a. $PSL(2, 3)$ is not simple.

b. $PSL(2, 5) \cong PSL(2, 2^2)$,

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(3, 5)$ by GAP are:

$$[[1, 1], [2, 2], [4, 1]],$$

($\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees} (\text{CharacterTable} ("L2(5)") \text{ mod } 2)$);

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 5) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

c. $PSL(2, 7) \cong PSL(3, 2)$,

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 7)$ by GAP are:

$$[[1, 1], [3, 2], [8, 1]],$$

($\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees} (\text{CharacterTable} ("L2(7)") \text{ mod } 2)$);

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 7) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

d. For $PSL(2, 3^2) \cong A_6$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 3^2)$ by GAP are:

$$[[1, 1], [4, 2], [8, 2]].$$

($\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees} (\text{CharacterTable} ("L2(9)") \text{ mod } 2)$);

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 3^2) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

e. For $PSL(2, 11)$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 11)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [5, 2], [10, 1], [12, 2]]$.

`(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable ("L2(11) ") mod 2));`

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 11) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

f. For $PSL(2, 13)$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 13)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [6, 2], [12, 3], [14, 1]]$.

`(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable (" L2(13) ") mod 2));`

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 13) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

g. For $PSL(2, 17)$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 17)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [8, 2], [16, 4]]$,

`(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable (" L2(17) ") mod 2));`

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 17) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

h. For $PSL(2, 19)$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 19)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [9, 2], [18, 2], [20, 4]]$,

`(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable (" L2(19) ") mod 2));`

But non of them of degree 11. Therefore if $PSL(2, 19) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

i. For $PSL(2, 23)$:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(2, 23)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [11, 2], [22, 1], [24, 5]]$

`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("PSL(2,23)")mod 2);`

Hence, there are two classes of degree 11. Therefore $PSL(2, 23) \subset G$

Lemma (4.2.6): $PSL(3, q) \not\subset G$, for all q .

Proof:

$PSL(3, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< q^{n-1} - 1 = q^2 - 1$ $\{(22)$ and $(29)\}$, and it is clear that $q^2 - 1 > 11$ for all $q \geq 4$. Thus, we need to test $PSL(3, 2)$ and $PSL(3, 3)$ as primitive subgroups of G ?

- $PSL(3, 2) \not\subset G$, [see lemma (4.2.5)]

- $PSL(3, 3) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSL(3, 3)$ by GAP are:

$[1, 1], [12, 1], [16, 4], [26, 1]]$,

`(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable (" PSL(3, 3) ") mod 2));`

Hence, non of these is of degree 11, therefore if $PSL(3, 3) \subset G$, then it is reducible.

Lemma (4.2.7): $PSU(3, q) \not\subset G$, for all q .

Proof:

$PSU(3, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< q(q-1)$, (29) , and it is clear that $q(q-1) > 11$ for all $q \geq 4$. Thus, we need to test $PSU(3, 2)$ and $PSU(3, 3)$ are primitive subgroups of G ?

- $PSU(3, 2)$ is not simple.

- $PSU(3, 3) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSU(2, 9)$ by GAP are:
 $[[1, 1], [6, 1], [14, 1], [32, 2]]$
 $(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("U3(3)") \bmod 2))$.
 and non of these of degree 11.

Lemma (4.2.8): $PSU(3, 4) \not\subset G$.

Proof:

$PSU(3, 4)$ does not satisfy the conditions of this section, since $PSU(3, 4)$ is not simple.

4.3 Primitive subgroups H of G which have the property that a minimal normal subgroup of H which is not abelian is doubly transitive group:

In this section, we will consider a minimal normal subgroup M of H is not abelian and is doubly transitive group:

The following Corollary is the main result of this section:

Corollary (4.3.1): If M is a non abelian simple group of doubly transitive group H , then M is isomorphic to one of the following groups:

- $PSL(2, 23)$.
- Mathieu groups, M_{23} or M_{24} .

Proof:

Since every doubly transitive group is a primitive group (3) , then we will use the classification of doubly transitive groups $\{(13)$ and $(26)\}$. And we will prove Corollary (4.3.1) by series of Lemmas (4.3.3) through Lemmas (4.3.15) and Result (4.3.2).

Result (4.3.2): $\{(13)$ and $(26)\}$.

If Y be a doubly transitive group, then Y has a simple normal subgroup M^* , and $M^* \subseteq Y \subseteq \text{Aut}(M^*)$, where M^* as follows:

- $A_n, n \geq 5$;
- $PSL(d, q), d \geq 2$, where $(d, q) \neq (2, 2), (2, 3)$;
- $PSU(3, q), q > 2$;
- the Suzuki group $Sz(q), q = 2^{2m+1}$ and $m > 0$;
- the Ree group $Re(q), q = 3^{2m+1}$ and $m > 0$;
- $Sp(2n, 2), n \geq 3$;
- $PSL(2, 11)$;
- Mathieu groups $M_n, n = 11, 12, 22, 23, 24$.
- HS (Higman-Sims group);
- CO_3 (Conway's smallest group).

In the following, we will discuss the different possibilities of Result (4.3.2);

Lemma (4.3.3): $A_n \not\subset G$, for all $n \geq 5$.

Proof:

From (30) , A_n for all $n > 8$, has a unique faithful 2-modular representation of least degree, this degree being $(n-1)$ if n is odd and $(n-2)$ if n is even, so, the 2-modular representation of least degree is greater than 11 for all $n \geq 14$. Thus $A_n \not\subset G$ for any $n \geq 14$.

$A_5 \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_5 by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [2, 2], [4, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A5") \bmod 2))$;

$A_6 \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_6 by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [4, 2], [8, 2]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A6") \bmod 2));$

$A_7 \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_7 by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [4, 2], [6, 1], [14, 1], [20, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A7") \bmod 2));$

$A_8 \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_8 by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [4, 2], [6, 1], [14, 1], [20, 2], [64, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A8") \bmod 2));$

$A_9 \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_9 by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [8, 3], [20, 2], [26, 1], [48, 1], [78, 1], [160, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A9") \bmod 2));$

$A_{10} \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_{10} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [8, 1], [16, 1], [26, 1], [48, 1], [64, 2], [160, 1], [198, 1], [200, 1], [384, 2]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A10") \bmod 2)).$

$A_{11} \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_{11} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [10, 1], [16, 2], [44, 1], [100, 1], [144, 1], [164, 1], [186, 1], [198, 1], [416, 1], [584, 2], [848, 1]]$,

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A11") \bmod 2));$

$A_{12} \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_{12} by GAP are:

$[1, 1], [10, 1], [16, 2], [44, 1], [100, 1], [144, 2], [164, 1], [320, 1], [416, 1], [570, 1], [1046, 1], [1184, 2], [1408, 1], [1792, 1], [5632, 1].$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A12") \bmod 2));$

$A_{13} \not\subset G$: since the irreducible 2-modular characters for A_{12} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [12, 1], [32, 2], [64, 1], [144, 2], [208, 1], [364, 2], [560, 1], [570, 1], [1572, 1], [1728, 1], [2208, 1], [2510, 1], [2848, 1], [3200, 1], [4224, 2], [8008, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("A13") \bmod 2));$

Lemma (4.3.4): If $\text{PSL}(2, q) \subset G$, then $q = 23$

Proof:

We have two cases:

Case (1). q is even:

$\text{PSL}(2, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< (1/d)(q-1)$, $d = \text{g.c.d}(2, q-1)$ $\{(22)$ and $(29)\}$, and $(q-1) > 11$ for all even $q \geq 16$. Also,

- $\text{PSL}(2, 2)$ not simple.
- $\text{PSL}(2, 4) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSL}(2, 4)$ by GAP

are:

$[[1, 1], [2, 2], [4, 1]]$,

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}("L2(4)") \bmod 2));$

and non of these of degree 11.

- $\text{PSL}(2, 8) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSL}(2, 8)$ by GAP

are:

$[[1, 1], [2, 3], [4, 3], [8, 1]]$,

(gap > CharacterDegrees (CharacterTable (" L2(4) ") mod 2));
and non of these of degree 11.

Thus, $PSL(2, q) \not\subset G$ for all q is even.

Case (2). q is odd:

If $PSL(2, q) \subset G$, q is odd, then $q = 23$. [see Lemma (4.2.5)]

Lemma (4.3.5): $PSL(n, 2) \not\subset G$ for all n .

Proof:

$PSL(n, 2)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< q^{n-1}-1 = 2^{n-1}-1$ { (22) and (29) }, and it is clear that $2^{n-1}-1 > 11$ for all $n > 4$. Thus, we need to test $PSL(2, 2)$, $PSL(3, 2)$ and $PSL(4, 2)$ are primitive subgroups of G ?

- $PSL(2, 2)$ is not simple.
- $PSL(3, 2) \not\subset G$. Since $PSL(3, 2) \cong PSL(2, 7)$, and $PSL(2, 7) \not\subset G$. [see Lemma(4.2.5)]

Lemma(4.2.5)]

- $PSL(4, 2) \not\subset G$. Since $PSL(4, 2) \cong A_8$, and $A_8 \not\subset G$ [see Lemma(4.2.5)]

Lemma (4.3.6): If $PSL(n, q) \subset G$, then $n = 2$ and $q = 23$

Proof:

$PSL(n, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< (q^{n-1}-1)$ { (22) and (29) }, which > 11 for all for all $q \geq 3$ and $n \geq 4$. Thus, we need to test $PSL(2, q)$, $PSL(3, q)$ and $PSL(n, 2)$ as primitive subgroups of G ?

- If $PSL(2, q) \subset G$, then $q = 23$ [see lemma (4.3.4)].
- $PSL(3, q) \not\subset G$ for all q [see Lemma (4.2.6)].
- $PSL(n, 2) \not\subset G$ for all n [see Lemma (4.3.5)].

Lemma (4.3.7): $PSU(2, q) \not\subset G$, for all q .

Proof:

$PSU(2, q) \subseteq PGL(2, q)$. But $PGL(2, q)$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< (q-1)$, provided $q \neq 9$ (29), which > 11 for all $q > 13$.

Thus, we need to test $PSU(2, 2)$, $PSU(2, 3)$, $PSU(2, 4)$, $PSU(2, 5)$, $PSU(2, 7)$, $PSU(2, 9)$, $PSU(2, 11)$ and $PSU(2, 13)$ are primitive subgroups of G ?

- $PSU(2, 2)$ is not simple.
- $PSU(2, 3)$ is not simple.
- $PSU(2, 4) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSU(2, 4)$ by GAP

are: [[1, 1], [2, 2], [4, 1]]

(gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(4)")mod 2))
and there is non of degree 11.

- $PSU(2, 5) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSU(2, 5)$ by GAP

are: [[1, 1], [2, 2], [4, 1]]

(gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(5)")mod 2)).
and there is non of degree 11.

- $PSU(2, 7) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSU(2, 7)$ by GAP

are: [[1, 1], [3, 2], [8, 1]]

(gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(7)")mod 2)).
and there is non of degree 11.

- $\text{PSU}(2, 9) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSU}(2, 9)$ by GAP are: $[[1, 1], [4, 2], [8, 2]]$
(`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(9)") mod 2)`).
and there is non of degree 11.
- $\text{PSU}(2, 11) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSU}(2, 11)$ by GAP are: $[[1, 1], [5, 2], [10, 1], [12, 2]]$
(`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(11)") mod 2)`).
and there is non of degree 11.
- $\text{PSU}(2, 13) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSU}(2, 13)$ by GAP are: $[[1, 1], [6, 2], [12, 3], [14, 1]]$
(`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U2(13)") mod 2)`).
and there is non of degree 11.

Lemma (4.3.8): $\text{PSU}(n, 2) \not\subset G$, for all n .

Proof:

$\text{PSU}(n, q)$, $n \geq 3$, has no projective representation in G of degree $< q(q^{n-1})/(q+1)$ if n is odd, and $\text{PSU}(n, q)$, $n \geq 3$, has no projective representation in G of degree $< (q^n - 1)/(q+1)$ if n is even. { (22) and (29)}, Thus the minimal projective degree for $\text{PSU}(n, 2)$ is > 11 for all $n \geq 6$.

Thus, we need to test $\text{PSU}(2, 2)$, $\text{PSU}(3, 2)$, $\text{PSU}(4, 2)$ and $\text{PSU}(5, 2)$ are primitive subgroups of G ?

- $\text{PSU}(2, 2^2)$ is not simple.
- $\text{PSU}(3, 2^2)$ is not simple.
- $\text{PSU}(4, 2) \not\subset G$. Since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSU}(4, 2)$ by GAP are: $[[1, 1], [4, 2], [6, 1], [14, 1], [20, 2], [64, 1]]$
(`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U4(2)") mod 2)`).
and non of these of degree 11.
- $\text{PSU}(5, 2) \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for $\text{PSU}(5, 2)$ by GAP are: $[[1, 1], [5, 2], [10, 2], [24, 1], [40, 4], [74, 1], [160, 2], [280, 2], [1024, 1]]$
(`gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("U5(2)") mod 2)`).

Lemma (4.3.9): $\text{PSU}(n, q) \not\subset G$.

Proof:

$\text{PSU}(n, q)$, $n \geq 3$, has no projective representation in G of degree $< q(q^{n-1})/(q+1)$ if n is odd, and $\text{PSU}(n, q)$, $n \geq 3$, has no projective representation in G of degree $< (q^n - 1)/(q+1)$ if n is even. { (22) and (29)}, Thus the minimal projective degree is > 11 for all $n > 3$ and $q \geq 3$.

Thus, we need to test $\text{PSU}(n, 2)$, $\text{PSU}(2, q)$ and $\text{PSU}(3, q)$ are primitive subgroups of G ?

- $\text{PSU}(n, 2) \not\subset G$, [see Lemma (4.3.8)].
- $\text{PSU}(2, q) \not\subset G$, [see Lemma (4.3.7)].
- $\text{PSU}(3, q) \not\subset G$, [see lemma (4.2.7)].

Lemma(4.3.10): $\text{Sz}(q) \not\subset G$, $q = 2^{2m+1}$ and $m > 0$.

Proof:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for Suzuki groups by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [4, 3], [16, 3], [64, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"Sz(8)"} \bmod 2));$

and non of these of degree 11, thus $Sz(q) \not\subset G$.

Lemma (4.3.11): $Re(q) \not\subset G, q = 3^{2m+1}$.

Proof:

The irreducible 2-modular characters for Ree group $Re(q)$ by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [702, 1], [741, 2], [2184, 2], [13832, 6], [16796, 1], [18278, 1], [19684, 6], [26936, 3]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"R(27)"} \bmod 2));$

and non of these of degree 11, thus $Re(q) \not\subset G$.

Lemma (4.3.12): $PSp(2n, 2) \not\subset G$ for all $n \geq 3$.

Proof:

From $\{(22)$ and $(29)\}$, $PSp(2n, q), n \geq 2$ has no projective representation in G of degree $< (1/2)q^{n-1}(q^{n-1} - 1)(q-1)$ if q is even. And since $q = 2$, then $(1/2)q^{n-1}(q^{n-1} - 1)(q-1) > 11$ for all $n \geq 4$. Thus, we need to test $PSp(6, 2)$ is a primitive subgroups of G ?

The irreducible 2-modular characters for $PSp(6, 2)$ by GAP are: $[1, 1], [6, 1], [8, 1], [14, 1], [48, 1], [64, 1], [112, 1], [512, 1]]$

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"S6(2)"} \bmod 2);$

and non of these of degree 11, thus $PSp(6, 2) \not\subset G$

Lemma (4.3.13): if the Mathieu groups $M_n, n = 11, 12, 22, 23, 24$ are primitive subgroups of G , then $n = 23$ or 24 .

Proof:

- $M_{11} \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for Mathieu group M_{11} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [10, 1], [16, 2], [44, 1]]$,

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"M11"} \bmod 2));$

- $M_{12} \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for Mathieu group M_{12} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [10, 1], [16, 2], [44, 1], [144, 1]]$,

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"M12"} \bmod 2));$

- $M_{22} \not\subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for Mathieu group M_{22} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [10, 2], [34, 1], [70, 2], [98, 1]]$,

$(\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"M22"} \bmod 2)).$

- $M_{23} \subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for Mathieu group M_{23} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [11, 2], [44, 2], [120, 1], [220, 2], [252, 1], [896, 2]]$

$\text{gap} > \text{CharacterDegrees}(\text{CharacterTable}(\text{"M23"} \bmod 2);$

- $M_{24} \subset G$, since the irreducible 2-modular characters for Mathieu group M_{24} by GAP are:

$[[1, 1], [11, 2], [44, 2], [120, 1], [220, 2], [252, 1], [320, 2], [1242, 1], [1792,$

1]].

Gap> CharacterDegrees(CharacterTable("M24")mod 2);

Which prove the point (b) of Corollary (4.3.1).

Lemma (4.3.14): HS (Higman-Sims group) $\not\subset G$;

Proof:

The minimal degrees of faithful representations of the Higman-Sims group over F_2 is 20, which is greater than 11, (Jansen, 2005).

Lemma (4.3.15): CO_3 (Conway's smallest group) $\not\subset G$;

Proof:

The minimal degrees of faithful representations of the CO_3 over F_2 is 22, which is greater than 11 (Jansen, 2005).

Now, we will determine the maximal primitive group of C_9 :

Theorem (4.2): If H is a maximal primitive subgroup of G which has the property that a minimal normal subgroup M of H is not abelian group, then H is isomorphic to one of the following subgroups of G :

- (1) PGL (2, 23).
- (2) Mathieu group M_{24} .

Proof:

We will prove this theorem by finding the normalizers of the groups of corollary (4.1) and determine which of them are maximal:

- The normalizer of PSL(2, 23) is PGL(2, 23) $\{ (16) , (17) , (33) \text{ and } (34) \}$. Thus PGL(2, 23) is a maximal primitive subgroup of G .

- The normalizer of the Mathieu group M_{23} is the group M_{23} and the normalizer of the Mathieu group M_{24} is the group M_{24} , but M_{23} is a subgroup of M_{24} $\{ (33) \text{ and } (34) \}$. Thus M_{24} is a maximal primitive subgroup of G .

Which prove the points (7) and (8) of theorem (1.1), and this complete the proof of theorem (1.1).

REFERENCES

- [1] Alperin J. L., Brauer R. and Gorenstein D., (1973). Finite simple groups of 2-rank two. Scripta Math. 29.
- [2] Aschbacher M., (1984). On the maximal subgroups of the finite classical groups, Invent. Math. 76, 469–514.
- [3] Aschbacher M., (1986). Finite groups theory. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- [4] Colva M. (2004). Conjugacy of subgroups of the general linear group. Exp. Math. 13, No. 2, 151-163 (2004).
- [5] Curtis M. L. (1979). Matrix Groups. New York. Springer-Verlag.
- [6] Dixon J. D. (1971). The structure of linear groups, Van Nostrand–Reinhold, London.
- [7] Dye R. H., (1979). Symmetric groups as maximal subgroups of orthogonal and symplectic group over the field of two elements. Journal of London Mathematical Society (2), 20.

- [8] Dye R. H., (1980). Maximal subgroups of $GL_{2n}(K)$, $SL_{2n}(K)$, $PGL_{2n}(K)$ and $PSL_{2n}(K)$ associated with symplectic polarities, *J. Algebra* 66, 1–11.
- [9] GAP program (2004). version 4.4. (available at: <http://www.gap-system.org>).
- [10] Gorenstein D. (1979). Finite simple groups I. Simple groups and local analysis. *Bulletin (new series) of the American Mathematical Society* Volume 1, Number 1, 43-199.
- [11] Gorenstein D., Lyons R. and Solomon R. (1994). The classification of the finite simple groups. volume 40.1 of *Mathematical Surveys and Monographs*. American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI.
- [12] Jansen C. (2005). The minimal degrees of faithful representations of the sporadic simple groups and their covering groups, *LMS J. Comput. Math.*, 8, 122–144.
- [13] Kantor W. M. (1985). Homogeneous designs and geometric lattices. *Journal of combinatorial theory, series A* 38, 66-74 .
- [14] Kantor W. M., (1980). Linear groups containing a Singer cycle, *J. Algebra* 62, 232-234.
- [15] Key J.D. (1975). Some maximal subgroups of $PSL(n, q)$, $n \geq 3$, $q = 2r$, *Geom. Dedicata* 4, 377–386.
- [16] King O. H. (1981). On some maximal subgroups of the classical groups, *J. Algebra* 68, 109–120.
- [17] King O. H., (1985a). On subgroups of the special linear group containing the special unitary group, *Geom. Dedicata* 19, 297–310.
- [18] King O. H., (1985b). On subgroups of the special linear group containing the special orthogonal group, *J. Algebra* 96, 178–193.
- [19] King O.H. (1999). Classical groups, Notes of the Socrates intensive programme, Potenza.
- [20] King O.H. (2005). The subgroup structure of finite classical groups in terms of geometric configurations, in *Surveys in combinatorics*, in *London Math. Soc. Lecture Note Ser.* 327, pp. 29–56 (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge)
- [21] Kleidman P.B., M. Liebeck, (1990). The Subgroup Structure of the Finite Classical Groups, *LMS Lecture Note Series* 129, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- [22] Landázuri V. and Seitz G. M. (1974). On the minimal degrees of projective representations of the finite Chevalley groups. *J. Algebra* 32, pp. 418–443
- [23] Liebeck M. W., Saxl J. and Seitz G. M. (1987). On the overgroups of irreducible subgroups of the finite classical groups. *Proc. Lond. Math. Soc.* 55, 507-537.
- [24] Liebeck M. W., Saxl J. and Seitz G. M. (1998). On the subgroup structure of classical groups, *Invent. Math.* 134, 427–453.
- [25] Mclaughlin J. (1967). Some Groups Generated By Transvections. *Arch. Math.* 18.

- [26] Mortimer B. (1980). The modular permutation representations of the known doubly transitive groups, Proc. London Math. Soc. 41, 1-20.
- [27] O'Brien A. (2006). Towards effective algorithms for linear groups, Finite Geometries, Groups, and Computation, Walter de Gruyter, Berlin, pp. 163–190.
- [28] Scott H. M., (2000). Conjugacy classes in maximal parabolic subgroups of the general linear group, J. Algebra 233, no. 1, 135-155
- [29] Seitz G. M. and Zalesskii A. E., (1993). On the minimal degree of projective representations of the finite Chevalley groups, II. J. Algebra 158, pp. 233–243.
- [30] Wagner A. (1976). The faithful linear representation of least degree of S_n and A_n over a field of characteristic 2, Math. Z. 151 (1976), no. 2, 127–137
- [31] Wagner A. (1978). The subgroups of $PSL(5, 2^a)$. Resultate Der Math. 1, 207-226.
- [32] Weyl H. (1997). The classical groups. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
- [33] Wilson R. A (2007). [Finite simple groups](http://www.maths.qmul.ac.uk/~raw/fsgs.html). (available at: <http://www.maths.qmul.ac.uk/~raw/fsgs.html>).
- [34] Wilson R. A, Walsh P., Tripp J., Suleiman I., Rogers S., Parker R. A., Norton S. P., Conway J. H., Curtis, R. T. And Bary J. (2006). Atlas of finite simple groups representations. (available at: <http://web.mat.bham.ac.uk/v2.0/48>).

الزمر الجزئية العظمى للزمرة $PSL(11, 2)$

روحي ابراهيم الخطيب

قسم الرياضيات - كلية العلوم التطبيقية - جامعة ذمار - ذمار - اليمن
E-mail:Rauhie@yahoo.com.

ملخص

في هذا البحث أوجدنا جميع الزمر الجزئية العظمى للزمرة الخطية $PSL(11, 2)$ وذلك باستخدام نظريته أشبكا (2) لتعيين الزمر الجزئية العظمى للزمرة الخطية ودونت النتيجة التي حصلنا عليها في نظرية (1.1).

دراسة مقارنة لإنتاجية و كفاءة عمل نماذج من المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية في الظروف المناخية المختلفة في بعض مدن الجمهورية اليمنية

عبدالله احمد بار عدي ، محمد عبدالله السقاف ، محمد سعيد الجوهي

كلية الهندسة والبتترول – جامعة حضرموت للعلوم والتكنولوجيا – حضرموت – اليمن
abdullah_raadi@yahoo.com

ملخص

يتناول البحث دراسة المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المستوية ، المركّزات الشمسية البؤرية والمركّزات ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني ، لحل بعض مشكلات البيئة واستنزاف الوقود الاحفوري في اليمن ، واستثمارها في تشغيل أنظمة التسخين والتدفئة والتكييف الهوائي. كما تم وضع منهج لحساب القدرة الحرارية للمتر المربع من سطحها الفاعل ، وكذلك حساب إنتاجيتها وكفاءة استخدامها في عدة مدن مختلفة المناخ والموقع الفلكي والطبوغرافي : صنعاء، وصعده ، وعدن، الحديدة ، وسينون ، ومأرب و الريان. استنتج من البحث أن : المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة ، والمركّزات الشمسية المحرّقة و المركّزات الشمسية ذي القطع المكافئ الاسطواني العاملة في المناطق اليمنية المدروسة تمتلك حسب ترتيبها النتائج الآتية : القدرة الحرارية: $49-241W/m^2$ و $153-792W/m^2$ و $350-2240 W/m^2$. إنتاجية محطاتها الشمسية هي: $1.4-9 Mj/m^2$ ، $5-30 Mj/m^2$ و $10-81 Mj/m^2$ ، ومعامل الاستخدام لقدرتها المنتجة: $45-95\%$ و $49-96\%$ ، $52-96\%$. هذه المؤشرات تؤكد إمكانية استخدام هذه المجمعات و المركّزات الشمسية بفعالية في اليمن. الكلمات الدللية: إنتاجية حرارية ، مجمعات و مركّزات شمسية ، اليمن، تدفئة و تسخين المياه.

المقدمة

في الوقت الحاضر أصبحت الطاقة الشمسية تلعب دوراً أساسياً في عملية التطور التكنولوجي والعمراني من خلال تحويل الطاقة الشمسية إلى طاقة حرارية وحركية وكهربائية وكذلك في التحويلات الفيزيوجحرارية في المحطات الشمسية ، التي يمكن استخدام دوراتها في نظام التبريد والتدفئة للمساكن الخاصة في المناطق الريفية ، و الحصول على درجات الحرارة التقنية المتوسطة والعالية والتي بدورها تستخدم في مراحل التصنيع وفي أعذاب مياه البحر و الصناعة و الزراعة والصحة [8].

إن تحويل الطاقة الشمسية وتجميعها لغرض الحصول على طاقة حرارية، حركية وكهربائية ، يحتاج إلى نظام تجميع شمسي حراري ، يطلق عليه نظام المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة و المركزة ، وفي هذا البحث سوف نتطرق إلى دراسة



ومقارنة المجمعات الشمسية و مناقش مع تحليل نتائجها لمعرفة مدى إمكانية عملها في الظروف المناخية و الطوبوغرافية للمدن الآتية: صنعاء ، و عدن، وصعدة، والريان، والحديدة ، ومأرب و سيئون، لتعمل كنموذج يساعد على فهم كفاءة و عمل تلك المجمعات في اليمن عامة.

مشكلة البحث:

البحث يعمل في كيفية الاستفادة من الكميات الحرارية للطاقة الشمسية الساقطة على نماذج من المدن اليمنية المختلفة المناخ و الموقع الطبوغرافي في عمليات التدفئة و تسخين المياه و تكييف الهواء و توفير استهلاك الوقود الاحفوري خصوصا و إن اليمن يعاني من انخفاض محسوس في إنتاجه النفطي و خفض معامل التلوث في محيط هذه المدن . [1]

هدف البحث:

معرفة أمثل نماذج المجمعات و المركزات الشمسية الحرارية العاملة في بعض المدن اليمنية المختلفة في المتغيرات المناخية و المواقع الفلكية و الطبوغرافية و تحديد قدراتها الحرارية و معدلاتها الإنتاجية و معامل استخدام قدرتها الإنتاجية لغرض استثمارها و قد تم اختيارنا للمواقع الآتية : عدن، وصعدة ، و سيئون، والريان، والحديدة ، ومأرب و صنعاء .

طرق البحث وأدواته:

يسلك البحث المنهج الحسابي النظري - الإحصائي وتحليل النتائج لحل النقاط الآتية:
- لمحة مختصرة عن المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة و كذا المركزات المحرقة و ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني .
الحساب النظري للقدرة الحرارية للمجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح و المركزات الحرارية الشمسية المحرقة و المركزات ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني.
- معرفة إنتاجية المحطات العاملة على هذه المجمعات و المركزات الشمسية .
معرفة مدى كفاءة عمل المجمعات و المركزات المختارة في المدن اليمنية : عدن ، وصعدة، والحديدة ، والريان، وصنعاء، و عدن و سيئون و تحليل تلك النتائج باستخدام البيانات المناخية الاحصائية التجريبية لغرض المقارنة مع باقي مدن الجمهورية اليمنية.

أولاً: لمحة مختصرة عن أنواع المجمعات والمركزات الشمسية المختارة:

من المتعارف عليه أن هناك نوعان أساسيان من المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية هما: المجمعات المستوية والمجمعات البؤرية.

المجمعات المستوية: هي تلك المجمعات التي ليس لها تركيز بؤري أي أن الأشعة الشمسية الساقطة على تلك المجمعات يفقد جزء منها بسبب تشتتها و عدم تركيزها في نقطة واحدة وبذلك تعطي طاقة حرارية قليلة ، ومع ذلك فإن ميزتها تتمثل في استقبال الأشعة الشمسية المباشرة و المشتتة و المنعكسة من الأجسام القريبة منها ، أي أنها تستقبل مجموع الأشعة الشمسية الساقطة في تلك المنطقة، و معظم عملها يبني على فكرة الصناديق الحرارية التي يسهل صنعها حيث تتطلب سطح له قابلية جيدة لامتصاص الأشعة الشمسية و يلامس هذا السطح مجموعة من الأنابيب التي يمر خلالها الماء أو أي مادة ناقلة للحرارة. و يغطي سطح هذه المادة التي تستقبل الأشعة الشمسية بمادة ذات لون اسود أو أي مادة ذات قدرة عالية على امتصاص الأشعة الشمسية ، ثم توضع هذه في

صندوق عازل للحرارة من اجل التقليل من الفقد الحراري، وهذه الصناديق يمكن أن تستخدم في تسخين المادة السائلة حيث تصل درجة حرارة العاملة فيها ما بين 30-100oC وتعتمد على الظروف المناخية وخواص المجمع الشمسي وظروف الاستخدام. و معامل فعلها المفيد يبلغ ما بين 30-50%. ونسبة المساحة التي تتطلبها 100%، و لا تتطلب أي تتبع لمسار الشمس.

المركزات الشمسية : هي المجمعات التي من خلالها يتم تركيز الأشعة الشمسية الساقطة عليها لتصل درجة حرارتها العاملة ما بين 500-1000oC وهذا يعني زيادة في مقدار الطاقة الحرارية التي يمكن الحصول عليها من هذه المجمعات مقارنة بالمجمعات الشمسية المستوية. ولهذا فإنها عادة تستخدم للحصول على درجات حرارية عالية ومتوسطة. علما بأنها لا يمكن لها استقبال الأشعة الشمسية المباشرة إلا بمساعدة ، ولهذا فهي تحتاج إلى آلية لمتابعة حركة الشمس خلال النهار من الشروق إلى الغروب. و معامل فعلها المفيد يبلغ ما بين 50-75% و أما المساحة النسبية التي تتطلبها فتقع ما بين 20-50% . ومنها ما يدور حول محور واحد المركز ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني ، أو ما يدور حول محورين مثل المستلم المركز العامل في مجال العاكسات المسطحة الشمسية. ومن أهم تلك المركزات الأكثر تعاملًا في اليمن هي :

أ - المجمعات البؤرية . ب - المجمعات القطع المكافئ الاسطوانية [2,7].

ثانيا: حساب القدرة الحرارية المجمعات الشمسية المسطحة و المركزات البؤرية والمركزات ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني المدروسة :

عند دراسة و تحليل عمل و كفاءة المجمعات الشمسية عند وضعها في بعض المدن اليمنية المختلفة المناخ والتضاريس : (عدن، وسيئون ، وصعدة ، وذمار ، والريان، وصنعاء و تعز) ، فأن ذلك يتطلب ضرورة معرفة قيم الأشعة الشمسية الساقطة على المتر المربع لكل منطقة من هذه المناطق و معرفة القدرة الحرارية الشمسية الممتصة لكل متر مربع من أسطح هذه المجمعات الشمسية لهدف تقييم كفاءة عملها. و قد تم تقسيم هذا المنهج للحساب الحراري لهذه المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية إلى ثلاثة أقسام :

أ - حساب القدرة الحرارية للمجمعات الشمسية المستوية P_s ، W/m^2 .

يتم حساب هذه القدرة الحرارية من خلال حل المعادلة الآتية [4,6]

$$P_s = I \times \alpha \times \gamma \times S \times Q_b \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$Q_b = K(T_a - T_{o.c})$$

I : محصلة أشعة الشمس الفاعلة و الساقطة على سطح المجمع الشمسي W/m^2 [3].

α : معامل امتصاص الإشعاع الشمسي. γ : معامل النفاذية للغطاء الزجاجي.

S : المساحة العاملة للسطح m^2 . Q_b : محصلة الفقد الحراري،

T_a ; $T_{o.c}$: درجتى حرارة الوسط المحيط و الوسيط العامل لنقل الحرارة $^{\circ}K$

K_c : معامل ضياع الحرارة الفاعل للمجمع الشمسي و تنحصر قيمته $W/(m^2 \cdot ^{\circ}C)$ 1.2-10

ب - حساب القدرة الحرارية للمجمعات الشمسية البؤرية والقطع المكافئ P_c يتم كالاتي [5]:

$$P_c = I \times K \times \xi \times \alpha \times \rho \times S - Q_b \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

ξ : معامل الكفاءة المفيدة البصرية للمركز. K : معامل التركيز.
 ρ : معامل الانعكاس لأطراف بؤرة الزجاج للمركز.

ثانيا: حساب إنتاجية المجمعات المسطحة و المركزات المحرقة و ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني الشمسي $Mj/m^2.Q$

و يتم الحصول على هذه القيم Q ، من خلال معرفة قيم القدرة الحرارية (Ps, Pc) المشار إليهما في الأشكال 1,2,3 ، وبإيجاد قيم متوسط اليومي لعدد ساعات الإشراق لكل مدينة من المدن اليمينية المختارة قيم τ ، من جداول الإحصاء المناخي لمراكز الأرصاد اليميني ، و باستخدام المعادلة الآتية: [6]

$$W = P \times \tau \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

W: الانتاجية الشهرية لمحطات الطاقة الشمسية، Mj/m^2 .
P: القدرة الحرارية الشمسية و تؤخذ قيمها من بيانات الأشكال 1,2,3.
 τ : المتوسط اليومي لساعات الإشراق المتواصلة ، ساعة.

ثالثا : حساب معامل الاستخدام للقدرة الحرارية المنتجة من المجمعات الحرارية η : المجمعات الشمسية المسطحة و المركزات البؤرية و ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني:

معامل الاستخدام للقدرة المنتجة η يساوى النسبة بين المتوسط اليومي للقدرة الحرارية الواقعية للمجمع الشمسي P_L بالنسبة إلى القدرة الحرارية اليومية لنفس المجمع الشمسي عند السماء الخالية من الغيوم P_N .

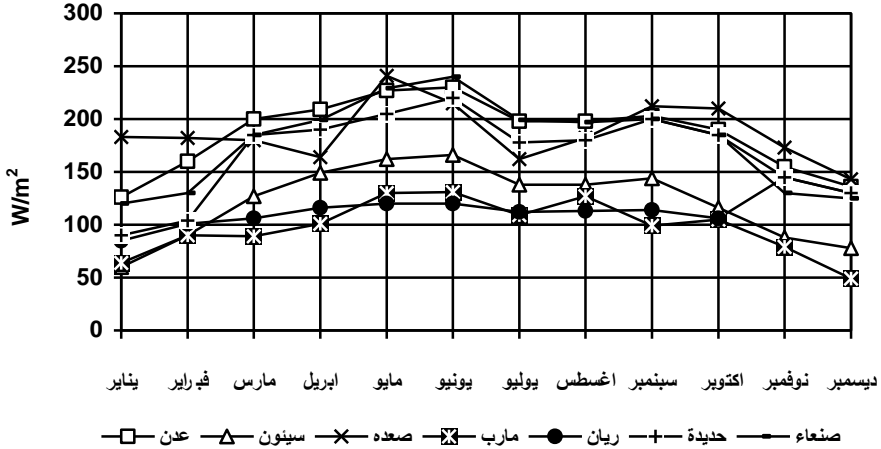
$$\eta = \frac{P_L}{P_N} \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

η : بمعامل الاستخدام للقدرة المنتجة % .
 P_L : المتوسط اليومي للقدرة الحرارية الواقعية للمحطة Mj/m^2 .
 P_N : القدرة الحرارية للمحطة عند السماء الخالية من الغيوم Mj/m^2 ..

النتائج و المناقشة:

من خلال استخدام المعادلات الحرارية 1,2,3 وتحليل نتائجها واستخدام قيم عدد الساعات المشرقة في اليوم لكل المدن المدروسة تحصلنا على النتائج المبينة في الأشكال 1,2,3,4,5,6,7. وهي تبين المقارنة بين القدرات الحرارية وإنتاجية المتر المربع من المجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح أو المركز الشمسي المحرقى أو ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطوانى و معرفة كفاءة عملها في كل المدن اليمنية المدروسة .

تبين الشكل 1 مقارنة نتائج حساب القدرة الحرارية للمتر المربع من السطح العامل من المجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح في المدن اليمنية الآتية : عدن ، وسينون ، وصعدة ، ومأرب وصنعاء، والريان و الحديدية ، إذ يلاحظ من تحليل نتائجه إن: صعدة تمتلك أعلى قدرة حرارية تبلغ 241 W/m^2 في مايو مقارنة 120 W/m^2 في الريان ، أما الانخفاض في القدرة حرارية في اطار المدن المدروسة فتقع في مأرب في ديسمبر وتبلغ 49 W/m^2 مقارنة 143 W/m^2 في صعدة ، و ذلك في الشهر نفسه.



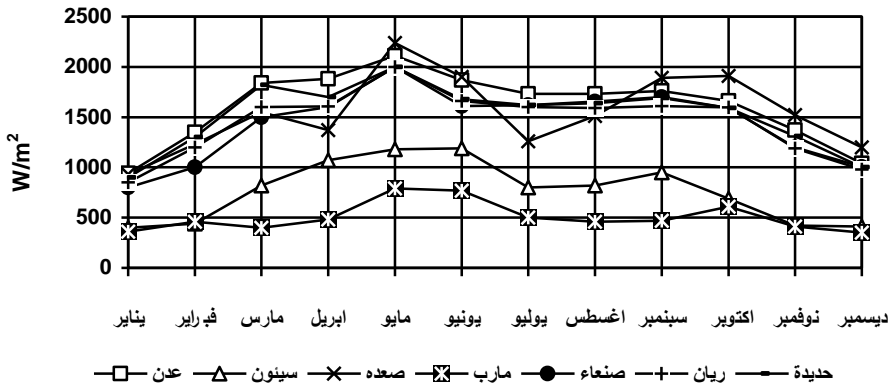
شكل (1): القدرة الحرارية للمجمع الشمسي المسطح و العامل بسطح امتصاص 1 m^2 .

تبين النتائج المبينة في الشكل رقم 2 القدرة الحرارية للمركز الشمسي الحراري البؤري ، الذي يمتلكها المتر المربع من سطح امتصاصه العامل، و يستنتج منها أن: أعلى قدرة حرارية له توجد في صعدة و تقدر بحوالي 792 W/m^2 في شهر مايو مقارنة بـ 377 W/m^2 في مأرب للشهر نفسه، أما الانخفاض في القدرة الحرارية في إطار المناطق المدروسة فتقع في مأرب في شهر ديسمبر وتبلغ 153 W/m^2 مقارنة بـ 493 W/m^2 في صعدة ، في الشهر نفسه.



شكل (2): القدرة الحرارية للمركز الشمسي الحراري البؤري و العامل بسطح امتصاص $1m^2$

تبين النتائج المبينة في الشكل رقم 3 حساب القدرة الحرارية للمركز الشمسي الحراري ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني العامل بمتري مربع من سطح الامتصاص الحراري ، و يستنتج منها أن: أعلى قدرة حرارية له توجد في صعدة و تقدر بحوالي $2240 W/m^2$ في شهر مايو ، مقارنة بـ $790 W/m^2$ في مارب للشهر نفسه، أما الانخفاض في القدرة الحرارية في إطار المناطق المدروسة فنقع في مارب في شهر ديسمبر وتبلغ $350 W/m^2$ مقارنة بـ $1200 W/m^2$ في صعدة ، للشهر نفسه.



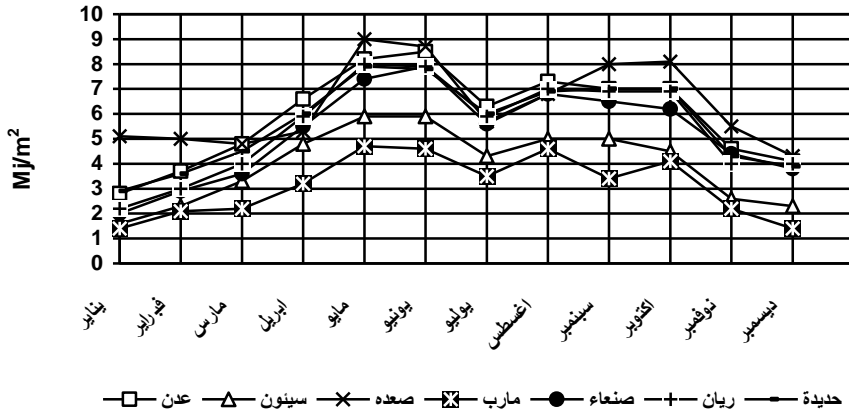
شكل (3): القدرة الحرارية للمركز الشمسي الحراري ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني

من مناقشة بيانات الأشكال 1,2,3 يستنتج أن : المجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح الأقل قدرة حرارية يليه المركز المحرقي في حين يمتلك المركز الشمسي القدرة الحرارية القيمة الأكبر، مثلا في شهر يونيو في مدينة عدن نجد أن: القدرة الحرارية الشمسية للمجمع المسطح $230 W/m^2$ ، والمحرقي $687 W/m^2$ ، و المركز ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني $1870 W/m^2$ و في شهر يناير

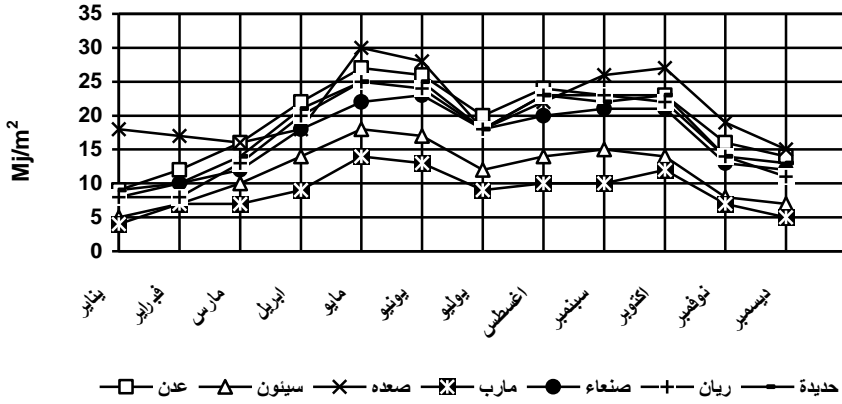
الشمسي المسطح 215 W/m^2 ، المحرقي 694 W/m^2 ، المكافئ الاسطواني 1900 W/m^2 .
في يناير : للمسطح 183 W/m^2 ، 628 ، 930 .

كما تشير نتائج الأشكال 1,2,3 إلى أن فعالية عمل المركزات الشمسية العاملة على النظام المحرقي تكون جيدة في كل أنحاء اليمن في فصل الصيف ، أما في فصل الشتاء فيوصى باستخدامها في المناطق الجنوبية الغربية ، أما المركزات الشمسية الحرارية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني فتعمل في فصل الصيف بفعالية جيدة في جميع أنحاء مناطق اليمن، أما في فصل الشتاء فتعمل بفعالية أعلى في المناطق الشمالية و الجنوبية الغربية .

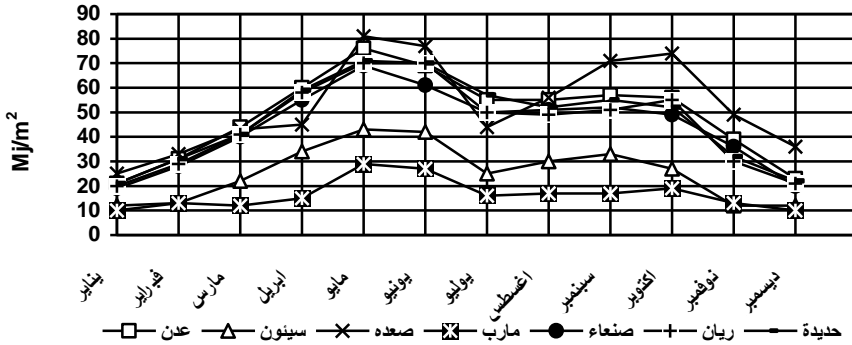
الأشكال رقم 4,5,6 فتبين نتائج حساب إنتاجية المتر المربع العامل من سطح للمجمعات المسطحة والمركزات الشمسية الحرارية المحرقيه و المركزات ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني العاملة في محطات الطاقة في هذه المناطق، و يستنتج أن : الإنتاجية للمجمع المسطح تبلغ أعلاها في مايو و يونيو و اخفضها في يناير و نوفمبر . أما المركزات الشمسية المحرقيه فإنتاجيتها تبلغ في أعظمها في شهر مايو و يونيو و يوليو و اخفضها في يناير و ديسمبر . المركزات الشمسية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني فتمتلك إنتاجية أعلى من المجمع المسطح و المركز المحرقي . من هنا يمكن استنتاج أن المجمع المسطح يمتلك أقل إنتاجية يليه المركز المحرقي أما المركز الشمسي ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني يمتلك إنتاجية أكبر مقارنة بالمجمعين السابقين، هذا يعني أن المجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح يمكن أن يستخدم عندما يتطلب إنتاجية صغيرة و هو قادر على العمل في كافة أنحاء مناطق اليمن و على مدار أيام السنة. أما المركزات الشمسية المحرقيه فتمتلك إنتاجية جيدة على مدار أيام السنة ماعدا شهري ديسمبر و يناير ، أما المركزات الشمسية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني يمكن أن تستخدم في المحطات ذات الإنتاجية الحرارية الكبرى لإنتاج الطاقة الكهربائية وتعمل ما بين أشهر ابريل - أكتوبر في كل مناطق اليمن ، ماعدا الشرقية منها.



شكل (4): إنتاجية محطة شمسية تعمل بالمجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح .

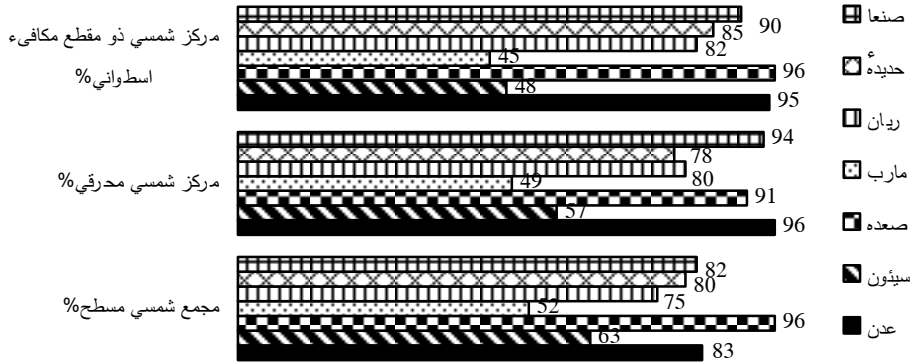


شكل (5): إنتاجية محطة شمسية تعمل بالمركز الشمسي الحراري المحرق.



شكل (6): إنتاجية محطة شمسية تعمل بالمركز الشمسي ذي المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني .

أما بيانات الشكل 7 ، فتبين نتائج قيم معامل الاستخدام القدرة المنتجة من المحطات الشمسية العاملة بالمجمعات الحرارية المسطحة و المركزات الشمسية الحرارية المحرقية و ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني ، والتي تشير إلى أن : معامل استخدام القدرة المنتجة للمجمع الشمسي الحراري المسطح تتراوح ما بين 52-96% بالنسبة لصعدة و مأرب ، أما عند استخدام المركز الشمسي الحراري المحرق ، فإن قيمة المعامل تتراوح ما بين 49-96% بالنسبة لعدن و مأرب ، في حين بلغت قيمة معامل المركز الشمسي الحراري ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني إلى ما بين 45-96% بالنسبة لصعدة و مأرب.



شكل (7): معامل استخدام قدرة المحطات الشمسية الحرارية □ العاملة على : المركز الشمسي ذو المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني و المحرق و المجمع المسطح لبعض المدن اليمنية %.

الخلاصة :

من خلال البيانات حول كمية الإشعاع الشمسي الساقط على المناطق المدروسة تم حساب القدرة الحرارية للمجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة و كذا حساب الإنتاجية الحرارية لكل من المراكز الشمسية الحرارية المحرقية و المراكز الشمسية الحرارية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني و الذي نتج عنه :

- تكون المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة ملائمة للاستخدام خلال كل أيام السنة في كل أنحاء محافظات الجمهورية اليمنية ، شرط أن لا تكون القدرة الحرارية المطلوبة للاستهلاك كبيرة .
- المراكز الشمسية الحرارية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني ملائمة للاستخدام بفعالية في كافة مناطق اليمن ما بين أشهر ابريل و حتى أكتوبر ، أما في باقي الأشهر فيمكن أن تستخدم فقط في الأجزاء الشمالية و الجنوبية الغربية منها .

- المراكز الشمسية الحرارية المحرقية، يمكن اعتبارها من أفضل المراكز الشمسية مقارنة بباقي المجمعات و المراكز الشمسية في اليمن. حيث يمكن استخدامها في كل أوقات السنة وفي كافة مناطق اليمن . إلا أن أكثر فعاليتها الإنتاجية تكون في المناطق الشمالية صيفا ، و في المناطق الجنوبية الغربية شتاء .

- القدرة الحرارية العاملة للمجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة في المناطق اليمنية المدروسة تتراوح ما بين $49-241 \text{ W/m}^2$ و للمراكز المحرقية $153-792 \text{ W/m}^2$ و للمراكز الحرارية الشمسية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني $350-2240 \text{ W/m}^2$.

- إنتاجية المحطات الشمسية العاملة على المجمعات الشمسية المسطحة و المركزات الحرارية في المناطق اليمنية المدروسة تتراوح ما بين $1.4-9 \text{ Mj/m}^2$ للمجمعات الشمسية الحرارية المسطحة و للمراكز الشمسية المحرقية $5-30 \text{ Mj/m}^2$ ، و للمراكز الشمسية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني $10-81 \text{ Mj/m}^2$.

- معامل الاستخدام للقدرة المنتجة للمجمعات الشمسية تقدر قيمها كالاتي :

* معامل الاستخدام للقدرة المنتج من المجمعات الشمسية المسطحة تتراوح ما بين % 52-96

* معامل الاستخدام للقدرة المنتج من المراكز الشمسية المحرقية تتراوح ما بين % 49-96

* معامل الاستخدام للقدررة المنتج من المركزات الشمسية ذات المقطع المكافئ الاسطواني تتراوح ما بين 45-95%.

المراجع:

- 1 . إحصائيات النفط و الغاز و المعادن (2007) العدد 7 وزارة النفط و المعادن ، اليمن
2. السيد .م.م ، فتحى.ق.أ ، مجاهد.أ.إ (1994)"النماذج الحسابية لتنظم الحرارية الشمسية"مركز النشر العلمي . جامعة الملك عبد العزيز . السعودية .ص171-245.
3. إسماعيل.ع.م(1999) " مناخ اليمن" مركز عبادي للنشر . صنعاء. اليمن.ص 50-60
4. بيكمان يو، كلين.س، دايفي.ج(1982) " حساب أنظمة النقل الحراري الشمسية" باللغة الروسية ، دار الطاقة للنشر . موسكو . ص 21-29.
- 5.تفويلد. ج ، بيار.أ، (1990) "مصادر الطاقة المتجددة"، باللغة الروسية ، موسكو، الاتحاد السوفيتي، ص392.
6. دايفي.ج، بيكمان.ي.(1977) " العمليات الحرارية باستخدام الطاقة الشمسية " باللغة الروسية دار الطاقة للنشر . موسكو .ص 420.
- 7 . قورين .أ.ن ، ديروشينكو.أ.ف(2006)" بدائل أنظمة التبريد و تكييف الهواء" باللغة الروسية . نارودني برس للنشر، دينسك. أكرينا ،ص 179-205.
- 8 . كتاني.علي (1982)" مستقبل الطاقة الشمسية بالوطن العربي" ورقة مقدمة المؤتمر الطاقة العربي الثاني بالدوحة / قطر 6-11 مارس، قطر.

A Comparative Study of the Productivity and Efficiency of Thermo-Solar Collector Models in Different Climatological Conditions in Some Regions in Yemen

Ba-raadi A.A , Al-Saggaf . M. A , Al-guhi M.S

Faculty of Engineering & Petroleum, , University for science & Technology, Hadramout, Yemen.
abdullah_raadi@yahoo.com

Abstract

This research studies and analyzes the flat heating solar collectors, the focus solar concentrators and the parabolic cylinder concentrators in order to provide a solution to some environmental problems and the decrease of oil so as to invest operating the heating systems in Yemen. A method has been used to calculate solar heating power of meter square of effective surface, production and efficiency of usage in several zones in Yemen: Sana'a, sa'ada, Aden, Hodeida, Sayon, Ma'rib, and Rayyan.

The research concludes that flat heating solar collectors, the focus solar concentrators and the parabolic cylinder concentrators have the following results: The heating power for each is 49-241W/m², 153-792W/m², 350-2240. W/m², respectively. The production solar energy stations of the above mentioned are: 1.4-9 Mj/m², 5-30 Mj/m², 10-81 Mj/m², and the usage ratio of the productive power is 52-96% , 49-96% 45-95% .

This indicates the potentiality of using these collectors and concentrators in different zones in Yemen.

Key Words: Solar collectors, Yemen, The heating power, The usage ratio

دراسة مقارنة لإنتاجية و كفاءة عمل نماذج من المجمعات الشمسية الحرارية في الظروف ...
عبدالله احمد بارعدي وآخرون