Right-sided Aorta*

Part I: Occurrence of Right Aortic Arch in Various Types of Congenital Heart Disease

ALOIS R. HASTREITER, IVAN A. D’CRUZ, AND TALAT CANTEZ

Part II: Right Aortic Arch, Right Descending Aorta, and Associated Anomalies

IVAN A. D’CRUZ, TALAT CANTEZ, ERNESTO P. NAMIN, RICHARD LICATA, AND ALOIS R. HASTREITER

From the Department of Pediatric Cardiology, Cook County Children’s Hospital, Hektoen Institute for Medical Research, and The University of Illinois College of Medicine, Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.

Part I

A right-sided aortic arch was first described two centuries ago by Fioratti and Aglietti (1763). Fifty-five years later, Corvisart (1818) reported its occurrence in a case of tetralogy of Fallot. A right-sided arch of the aorta has since been shown to occur with various other types of congenital heart lesions.

Present study

The present report deals with the findings from a total of 116 children or young adults with a right aortic arch. In all these cases the aortic arch was specifically studied at necropsy or could be located from angiocardiography. The diagnosis of the associated congenital cardiovascular lesions was established by cardiac catheterization, angiography, operation, or post-mortem examination. This study reviews the occurrence of a right-sided aortic arch in various congenital cardiac malformations (Tables I and II) and its significance in the differential diagnosis of these lesions.

The frequency of occurrence of a right-sided aortic arch among adults is approximately 0·1 per cent. The largest series of consecutive necropsies reporting its incidence is that of Biedermann (1931) who found 8 cases among about 20,000 post-mortem examinations (0·04%). More recent data, dealing with a smaller number of necropsies but perhaps a more accurate analysis, report the incidence of 0·1 per cent. Thus, Liechty, Shields, and Anson (1957) and Anson (1961) each found one instance of a right-sided aortic arch among 1000 cadavers examined independently for aortic arch anomalies in their anatomy departments.

Following the recognition that the side of the aortic arch could be determined from a conventional postero-anterior radiograph of the chest, several instances of right aortic arch occurring in otherwise normal persons were described by radiologists (Spencer and Dresser, 1936; Beddow and Parkinson, 1936; Eisen, 1944).

Figures reporting the incidence of a right aortic arch from the examination of large series of consecutive chest radiographs range from 0·1 per cent (Nozaki and Sekiya, 1948; Nozaki and Maki, 1950) to 0·14 per cent (Biedermann, 1931), based on an analysis of 15,000 and 5000 cases, respectively. In the present series, there were only four children with a right-sided aortic arch unassociated with congenital cardiovascular anomalies (Fig. 1on p.726).

A right aortic arch is seldom, if ever, found in...
association with isolated atrial septal defect, isolated anomalies of pulmonary venous drainage, and some left-sided heart lesions such as congenital mitral stenosis, mitral insufficiency, or aortic stenosis. It is not present in our cases, nor has right aortic arch been mentioned as an associated finding in many large series of patients with these anomalies. Isolated instances of a right aortic arch associated with coarctation of the aorta and patent ductus arteriosus have been described (Stewart, Kincaid, and Edwards, 1964; Felson and Palayew, 1963).

Pulmonary stenosis with intact ventricular septum is almost invariably associated with a left aortic arch. Hence the presence of a right aortic arch in a patient clinically suspected of having pulmonary stenosis suggests an associated ventricular septal defect. To our knowledge, only two instances of the association of right aortic arch with isolated pulmonary stenosis

**TABLE I**

**FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF RIGHT AORTIC ARCH IN LARGE SERIES OF PATIENTS WITH CONGENITAL CARDIOVASCULAR LESIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of cases</th>
<th>No. with right arch</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Congenital heart lesion</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anson</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0:1</td>
<td>Normal cadavers</td>
<td>14 cases had normal hearts, 21 had associated cardiac defects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liechty et al.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0:1</td>
<td>Normal cadavers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbott</td>
<td>1936</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3:5</td>
<td>All congenital heart</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blalock and Bahnson</td>
<td>1948</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>23:6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cyanotic heart disease with subclavian pulmonary anasomosis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker et al.</td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>28:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cyanotic heart disease with subclavian pulmonary anasomosis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damann et al.</td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>26:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brinton and Campbell</td>
<td>1953</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowe</td>
<td>1953</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>12:8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edwards</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>18:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keith et al.</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>30:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood</td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>17:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our series</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>34:0</td>
<td>Tricuspid atresia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keith et al.</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>8:8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tricuspid atresia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our series</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7:7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tricuspid atresia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collett and Edwards</td>
<td>1949</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>15:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>All 3 had VSD and PS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tandon, Hauck, and Nadas</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33:3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Truncus</td>
<td>All 4 had VSD, 3 had PS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keith et al.</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Truncus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our series</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36:0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Truncus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliott et al.</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4:9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keith et al.</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>3:7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our series</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6:7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brotmacher and Campbell</td>
<td>1958</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>2:3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ventricular septal defect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our series</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>2:6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ventricular septal defect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE II**

**INCIDENCE OF RIGHT AORTIC ARCH**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardiac diagnosis</th>
<th>No. of patients*</th>
<th>Right aortic arch</th>
<th>Incidence of right aortic arch (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Right descending aorta</td>
<td>Left descending aorta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulmonary stenosis with intact venricular septum</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ventricular septal defect</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetralogy</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truncus</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double outlet right ventricle</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tausig-Bing</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tricuspid atresia</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atrio-ventricular canal</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected transposition</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levocardia—with partial or complete situs inversus</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dextrocardia—with complete situs inversus</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dextrocardia—with right-sided venous atrium</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Only those patients in whom the side of the aortic arch was definitely stated in the necropsy report, or visualized by angiocardiography were included.
have been reported (Campbell, 1954; Bressie, 1964). We found one additional case among our 92 patients with isolated pulmonary stenosis (see Fig. 8). One other patient had isolated supravalvular stenosis of the pulmonary trunk and a right aortic arch.

Brotmacher and Campbell (1958) found a right aortic arch in 4 of 175 patients with isolated ventricular septal defect (2.3%). Wood (1958) noted that 16 per cent of his patients with ventricular septal defect and pulmonary hypertension at systemic level had a right aortic arch, and mentioned this as a diagnostic clue helpful in distinguishing this group from those with pulmonary hypertension and communications at atrial or ductal levels. Espino-Vela and Mata (1956) described four cases of Eisenmenger's complex, of which one definitely and another probably had a right aortic arch. They commented that "a right aortic arch is very often indicative of the co-existence of a bulbo-septal malformation". However, in a review of 35 reported cases of Eisenmenger's complex, Selzer and Laqueur (1951) found only one with a right aortic arch. We found 8 with right aortic arch among 310 patients with isolated ventricular septal defect in whom the side of the aortic arch was definitely known (2.6%). In these 8, the cardiac lesions varied in severity, from small ventricular septal defects with normal pulmonary artery pressures, to large defects with systemic pulmonary artery pressures.

The association of a right aortic arch with tetralogy of Fallot (Corvisart's disease) is well known. It varies from 13 to 34 per cent in different series (Dammann, Gibson, and Potts, 1949; Brinton and Campbell, 1953; Lowe, 1953; Edwards, 1960; Keith, Rowe, and Vlad, 1958; Wood, 1956). It occurred in 34 per cent of our 167 patients with this anomaly. The diagnostic importance of a right aortic arch accompanying a tetralogy of Fallot complex is of special significance in the so-called acyanotic variety. Nadas (1963) stated that 25 per cent of children with this lesion have a right aortic arch. Some may have a large left-to-right shunt early in life, and later develop progressive pulmonary infundibular stenosis and cyanosis. Of 15 reported cases of tetralogy of Fallot with absent pulmonary valve, in which the side of the aortic arch was stated, 5 had a right aortic arch. Other aspects of aortic arch anomalies found in association with tetralogy of Fallot are alluded to in succeeding sections of this paper.

As many as 60 per cent of Keith's cases of persistent truncus arteriosus and 36 per cent of the present series had the aortic arch on the right side (Keith et al., 1958). However, of 76 reported cases collected by Collett and Edwards (1949), in which the side of the arch was specifically stated, it was right-sided in only 11 (14.5%). They did not find any striking association between right aortic arch and any of their four anatomical types of persistent truncus arteriosus.

A right aortic arch is found in about 8 per cent of the cases with tricuspid atresia complexes. Certain subtypes of tricuspid atresia lesions appear to have a higher incidence of a right aortic arch than the group as a whole. Thus, Keith et al. (1958) noted that when a right aortic arch occurred with tricuspid atresia, it was usually in their subtype 1b (with pulmonary artery hypoplasia, subpulmonary stenosis, and small ventricular septal defect). One of our two patients with tricuspid atresia and a right aortic arch was of this type; the other differed only in that pulmonary atresia rather than stenosis was present. Similar cases have been reported by others (Wittenborg, Neuhauer, and Sprunt, 1951; Sommers and Johnson, 1951; Marder, Seaman, and Scott, 1953).

In complete transposition of the great vessels the incidence of a right aortic arch is relatively low. It was approximately 4 to 5 per cent in two series (Keith et al., 1958; Elliott et al., 1963). The occurrence of a right aortic arch appears to be higher in those cases of transposition associated with a ventricular septal defect and pulmonary stenosis. This was true of our series, in which all cases of complete transposition of the great vessels with a right aortic arch had a ventricular septal defect and pulmonary stenosis (Elliott et al., 1963). Lev, Alcalde, and Baffes (1961) did not mention right aortic arch as an associated anomaly in 51 instances of transposition without associated defects and in 54 instances of transposition with a ventricular septal defect. A right-sided aortic arch was present, however, in much smaller groups of transposition with a ventricular septal defect and pulmonary stenosis, transposition with tricuspid atresia or stenosis, and transposition with mitral stenosis or atresia and pulmonary stenosis. Two of our 6 patients who presented a complete transposition of the great vessels, ventricular septal defect, and pulmonary stenosis associated with mirror-image dextrocardia and complete situs inversus and had a left aortic arch (mirror image of a right aortic arch with situs solitus) were not included in the series.

In the uncomplicated cases of mirror-image dextrocardia associated with situs inversus of the viscera, the aortic arch is right-sided, and the great vessels occupy a position symmetrically opposite of normal in the frontal plane. This was observed in our 8 cases. When mirror-image dextrocardia is associated with congenital cardiac lesions, a left aortic arch is present in only 1 of our 9 cases (12%), and in about 20 per cent of other series (Keith et al., 1958; Arcilla and Gasul, 1961). In dextrocardia...
Right-sided Aorta

with situs solitus of the viscera, the venous atrium is usually located on the right side, and the aortic arch is, as a rule, situated on the left, e.g. opposite the cardiac apex. In our series this occurred in 15 of 17 cases (88%). In a previous report by Arcilla and Gasul (1961) the aortic arch was on the right side in 20 per cent of the cases. According to Keith et al. (1958), in isolated dextrocardia a right-sided aortic arch occurs predominantly in those cases in which the right ventricle is posterior to the left ventricle, and the aorta placed anteriorly and to the left of the pulmonary artery. This was observed in our 2 patients. Of the 4 patients with a common atrium only one had a right aortic arch. In so-called dextroposition of the heart (heart shifted to the right of the chest, but apex pointing towards the left side), either isolated or associated with extracardiac factors, the aortic arch maintains its normal left-sided position.

In the present series of 30 patients with levocardia and complete or partial inversion of the viscera, 40 per cent had a right aortic arch. In levocardia with atrial inversion, the aortic arch is usually right-sided (Shafer and Johnson, 1963). In one series this occurred in 8 of 11 cases (Keith et al., 1958). A left-sided aortic arch may be present, however, particularly in those cases associated with transposition of the great vessels, ventricular septal defect, and pulmonary stenosis. In the present group, 7 of the 30 patients with levocardia had separate and inverted atria (23%): in 6 of these a right aortic arch was present. In isolated levocardia without atrial inversion, the aortic arch may be on the right or left side: Keith et al. (1958) reported the occurrence of a right aortic arch in 16 of 28 cases of this type reviewed. In the present study, 17 patients with levocardia had two separate atria with a right-sided venous atrium: 5 of these had a right aortic arch (30%). In levocardia with a common atrium, the aortic arch may be right- or left-sided (Ivemark, 1955; Ruttenberg et al., 1964). Six patients with levocardia of this series had a common atrium: in one the aortic arch was right-sided.

As a general rule, in dextrocardia and levocardia associated with situs solitus or inversus, the atria follow the position of the viscera (Van Praagh et al., 1964), and the aortic arch is usually opposite the side of the venous atrium. In those cases in which the venous atrium does not follow the position of the viscera, or with a common atrium, splenic abnormalities and partial heterotaxy are very likely to be present, and the aortic arch may be either right- or left-sided.

In cases of mixed levocardia with bulboventricular inversion and situs solitus (usual form of so-called corrected transposition), the presence of a right aortic arch is rare (Lochte, 1898). Only one such instance was seen in our series. It is of interest to note that anomalies involving abnormal persistence of the fourth right branchial arterial arch, other than right aortic arch itself, have a similar association with certain cardiac defects. Thus, Bahnsen and Blalock (1950) found 19 instances of anomalous right subclavian artery and an equal number of anomalous left subclavian artery among 841 cyanotic patients on whom a palliative shunt operation was performed (4.3%). Pattinson and Emanuel (1957) found 4 cases with aberrant right subclavian artery in a series of 44 patients with tetralogy of Fallot (9%). This vascular anomaly occurs with a higher incidence in patients with tetralogy of Fallot than in the general population, where it is less than 2 per cent. Thus, Liechty et al. (1957) found an anomalous right subclavian artery present in 13 of over 1000 cadavers without cardiac lesions. Others have reported a similar or even lower incidence among routine anatomy dissections (Quain, 1844; Thomson, 1893; Harvey, 1917; Goldbloom, 1922; Cairney, 1925; DeGaris, 1923).

Although a double aortic arch is usually not associated with other cardiac anomalies, 3 of the 841 cyanotic patients of Blalock and Bahnsen (1948) had a double aortic arch. We have seen 6 children with this vascular anomaly. Two had associated cardio-vascular lesions—one a common atrio-ventricular orifice, the other a patent ductus arteriosus.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A series of 116 children and young adults with a right-sided aortic arch proven by angiography or necropsy is analysed. The findings are compared with reported data in subjects with and without congenital heart disease. Knowledge of the statistical distribution of a right-sided aortic arch among the various types of congenital heart disease is probably important for the understanding of the pathogenesis of some forms of congenital heart lesions.

Part II

Several variations of the aortic arch system are known to occur in association with a right aortic arch or right descending aorta. Some of these are of interest only to the embryologist or anatomist, while others have, in addition, clinical significance. Anatomical classifications of the various forms of aortic arch and their branches were published by Krause (1868), Poynter (1916), Adachi (1928), Liechty et al. (1957), and Anson (1961), based on
large series of post-mortem specimens. Adachi (1928) classified these forms into types A to G, and this grouping was later expanded to 16 types by Williams and Edmonds (1935) and Nakagawa (1939a, b). According to the sequence of origin of their branches, the right aortic arches have been divided into two forms: the mirror-image type (type M of Adachi-Williams-Nakagawa) and the form with the left subclavian artery originating as the last branch (type N) (Fig. 1).

Congdon (1922) and Barry (1951) provided excellent embryological descriptions of the aortic arch system, and Edwards (1948b, 1953), and more recently Stewart et al. (1964), have presented a well-accepted classification for anomalies of the derivatives of the aortic arch system.

The present study deals with the anatomical variations found in a series of 116 children or young adults with a right aortic arch or right descending aorta and a review of the published reports. The aortic arch anomaly was demonstrated either by angiography, operation, or necropsy. The anatomical variations of right aortic arch are as follows.

(1) Circumflex retro-oesophageal aortic arch: (a) right aortic arch with left descending aorta; and (b) left aortic arch with right descending aorta.

(2) Cervical right aortic arch.

(3) Right aortic arch with variations in the location of the ductus arteriosus and in the origin of the left subclavian artery.

(4) Right aortic arch with isolation of the left subclavian from the aorta.

(5) Right aortic arch with unilateral absence of a pulmonary artery.

(6) Hemi-truncus with right aortic arch.

**Circumflex Retro-oesophageal Aortic Arch**

The two anomalies in this group are mirror images of each other: (1) right aortic arch with left descending aorta and (2) left aortic arch with right descending aorta. In both situations the terminal portion of the aortic arch crosses the midline just anterior to the spine, before it turns abruptly downwards to continue as the descending aorta.

The large smooth round pulsating notch produced by the retro-oesophageal aorta on a barium swallow renders the clinical diagnosis of a circumflex aortic arch relatively easy. Sub-varieties of circumflex aortic arch are known, depending on whether the subclavian artery on the side opposite the aortic arch arises anteriorly from an innominate artery or posteriorly as the fourth branch of the aortic arch. Another variable is the ductus (or ligamentum) arteriosus which may be located on either right or left side. When the ductus (or ligamentum) arteriosus is on the side opposite the aortic arch, a vascular ring may be formed encircling the trachea and oesophagus. Right aortic arch with left descending aorta has been said to occur in 4 to 5 per cent of all patients with tetralogy of Fallot (Heim de Balsac, 1960), though Pattinson and Emanuel (1957) did not find a single such instance in a series of 60 patients with this cardiac malformation. In the present series, there were 3 such cases among 167 patients with tetralogy of Fallot in whom the location of the aortic arch and descending aorta had been ascertained by angiography or post-mortem examination (1.8%). Of the 116 patients with right aortic arch analysed in this study, 9 had a circumflex arch with left descending thoracic aorta (Fig. 2). One of four people with a right aortic arch and normal heart had a left descending aorta.

To our knowledge, only 7 patients with left aortic arch with right descending aorta have been reported (Paul, 1948; Edwards, 1948a; Heinrich and Perez Tamayo, 1956; Heim de Balsac, 1960; Sterz, 1961; Schlamowitz, Di Giorgi, and Gensini, 1962). We have studied 3 additional ones (Table III). The aortic anomaly was diagnosed by angiography
in 2 of these (Fig. 3 and 4). One was a 6-month-old girl with aortic valvular stenosis, and the other an 8-year-old girl with a ventricular septal defect and infundibular pulmonary stenosis. The findings of our third patient are briefly described.

C.O. was an 11-month-old girl with a history of "gurgling in the throat" and chronic intermittent cough since 3 weeks of age. The cardiovascular examination, including electrocardiogram and radiographs, was normal. Barium swallow examination revealed an indentation of the oesophagus on its left and posterior

TABLE III
ANATOMICAL AND CLINICAL FINDINGS IN PATIENTS WITH LEFT AORTIC ARCH WITH RIGHT DESCENDING AORTA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Age (yr.)</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Diagnosed by</th>
<th>Associated congenital defects</th>
<th>Sequence of origin of branches arising from aorta</th>
<th>Pressure symptoms</th>
<th>Ligamentum arteriosus, right or left</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paul (1948)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>X-rays with barium swallow; confirmed at operation</td>
<td>&quot;Cyanotic heart disease&quot;</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul (1948)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>X-rays with barium swallow Necropsy</td>
<td>Tetralogy of Fallot</td>
<td>Probably normal</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edwards (1948a)</td>
<td>17 mth.</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td>Imperforate anus; no cardiac defect</td>
<td>Rt. common carotid; Lt. common carotid; Lt. subclavian; Rt. subclavian</td>
<td>Dysphagia for solid food</td>
<td>Right-sided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heim de Balsac (1960)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>X-rays with barium swallow (calcified aorta)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heinrich and Perez Tamayo (1956)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>X-rays with barium swallow (calcified aorta)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schlamowitz et al. (1962)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Selective angiography and aortography</td>
<td>Persistent left superior vena cava</td>
<td>Rt. common carotid; Lt. common carotid; Lt. subclavian; Rt. subclavian</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Right-sided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sterz (1961)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>X-rays with barium swallow (calcified aorta)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>Dysphagia for solid food</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Case 1</td>
<td>6 mth.</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Selective angiography</td>
<td>Aortic stenosis</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Case 2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Selective angiography</td>
<td>VSD and infundibular pulmonary stenosis</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Case 3</td>
<td>11 mth.</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Surgery</td>
<td>Large thymus; no cardiac defect</td>
<td>Normal</td>
<td>Respiratory symptoms</td>
<td>Left-sided</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2.—(A) Postero-anterior, (B) right anterior oblique, and (C) left anterior oblique projections of barium swallow of a patient with right circumflex aortic arch and left descending aorta, demonstrating the retro-oesophageal aortic impression.
aspects at the level of the aortic arch, and also a filling defect caused by a foreign body just above this level. The foreign body, a button, was removed by oesophagoscopy. At thoracotomy (sternal splitting incision) the aortic arch was dissected in its entirety. A very large thymus was found and removed. The aortic arch was left-sided but crossed behind the oesophagus horizontally to descend on the right of the spine. The aorta gave off the right innominate, left common carotid, and left subclavian arteries, in that order. No atretic right aortic arch segment could be found, and the vascular ring was thus incomplete. A left ligamentum arteriosum was identified, which joined the left pulmonary artery to the contiguous aspect of the aortic arch.

Fig. 4.—(A) and (B) angiocardiograms of two children with a circumflex left aortic arch and right descending aorta (Cases J. P. and B. L.).
This particular combination of lesions (left aortic arch, left ductus arteriosus, and right descending aorta) has, to our knowledge, never been described before. In fact, Edwards (1960) stated that "though such malformations are hypothetical possibilities it is unlikely that they would occur".

Of the 10 reported patients with a left-sided aortic arch and right-sided descending aorta, 5 had coexisting cardiac malformations. In only one was a true vascular ring proved to exist (Edwards, 1948a). Another patient, however, had mild dysphagia (Sterz, 1961). The abnormal findings of the barium swallow examination (Fig. 3) in this anomaly were well described by Paul (1948).

### Cervical Right Aortic Arch

A true cervical aortic arch is very rare. The 4 previously reported patients (Beavan and Fatti, 1947; Harley, 1959; Gravier, Viallet, and Pinet, 1959; Massumi, Weiner, and Charif, 1963) and one of ours were strikingly similar (Table IV; Case 1) and were associated with certain unusual anatomical and clinical features (Fig. 5). In all 5 patients the aortic arch was right-sided and elongated, presenting as a pulsatile swelling on the right side of the neck. The aortic arch had a typical appearance, and its terminal portion crossed the midline behind the esophagus to descend on the left of the thoracic spine. The first branch given off by the aorta was the left common carotid artery; it originated from the ascending aorta in all cases. The right subclavian and either both right external and internal carotid arteries (our case; Beavan and Fatti, 1947), or a right common carotid artery (Harley, 1959), arose separately from the apex of the arch, except in one case in which a right brachiocephalic trunk was present (Gravier et al., 1959). The common carotid artery was atretic in another case (Massumi et al., 1963). The left subclavian artery originated always as the last branch of the aortic arch, with its origin at the junction of the retro-œsophageal and descending segments of the aorta, where a conical diverticulum usually existed, which also gave rise to a ductus or ligamentum arteriosus. The left subclavian artery was atretic at its origin in one case (Massumi et al., 1963), and was probably stenotic in ours since aortography revealed later visualization and lesser opacification than the other brachiocephalic vessels.

Patient 2 of the present series, a 10-year-old Negro girl, had a high variety of cervical aortic arch with its apex situated above the angle of the mandible just below the level of the mastoid. The girl complained of frontal headaches, and presented with a large pulsating right cervical mass with a thrill and a continuous bruit. Cardiac catheterization was consistent with a normal heart. Selective angiograms from the root of the aorta are shown in Fig. 6. The first brachiocephalic branch is a large left carotid artery; it originates from the ascending aorta. The right internal and external carotid arteries originate independently from the apex of the arch. The initial descending portion of the aorta is directed towards the right, and gives origin to the right subclavian artery. It then turns leftwards and becomes retro-œsophageal, and finally descends on the left side of the spine. There appears to be complete atresia of the left subclavian artery at its origin, this vessel being supplied by the vertebral and other collateral arteries.

No instance of a left cervical aorta has yet been described.

Of the 6 reported patients with a cervical right aortic arch, 3 had symptoms of tracheo-œsophageal compression (Beavan and Fatti, 1947; Harley, 1959; Massumi et al., 1963). This was caused by a vascular ring consisting of the right circumflex aortic arch, the left ligamentum arteriosum, and the pulmonary artery. Division of the ligamentum arteriosum in two of these cases relieved the symptoms of constriction. A clinical diagnosis of this rare anomaly would be suggested by a combination of: (1) symptoms of tracheal and œsophageal obstruction; (2) a pulsatile right cervical swelling; (3) a retro-
Fig. 5.—(A) Antero-posterior and (B) lateral projections of an angiocardiogram of a child with a cervical aortic arch (Case D. M.). The aortic arch is right-sided, abnormally elongated, and takes a horizontal retro-oesophageal course across the midline before it descends to the left of the spine.

Fig. 6.—Selective angiograms of a patient with a very high cervical (subcranial) aortic arch. (A) shows the ascending aorta and the origin of a large left carotid artery as its first branch. (B) shows the very high aortic arch. The right internal and external carotid arteries originate independently from the apex. The right subclavian artery originates from the initial descending portion of the aorta. (C) shows a later phase of the angiogram. The left subclavian artery is isolated from the aorta. There appears to be complete atresia of its origin and it is supplied by collateral arteries.
cesophageal aortic impression on a barium swallow examination; (4) disappearance or diminution of the femoral pulses when the cervical swelling is compressed.

**Right Aortic Arch with Variations in Connection of Left Subclavian Artery and of the Ductus Arteriosus to the Aorta**

Bedford and Parkinson (1936) distinguished two types of right aortic arch: (1) with "mirror-image branching", in which a left innominate artery arises as the first branch off the aortic arch, and then divides into a left common carotid and left subclavian artery (type M of Adachi-Williams-Nakagawa); (2) with aberrant left subclavian artery, which arises as a fourth branch off the aortic arch (type N of Adachi-Williams-Nakagawa). The aorta is often dilated into a conical diverticulum at the point of origin of the left subclavian artery (Fig. 1), producing a retro-cesophageal impression very similar to that made by a retro-cesophageal circumflex aortic arch.

Since the ductus arteriosus can be right-sided, left-sided, or bilateral, further sub-categories exist (Fig. 7). Some of these sub-varieties are extremely rare, but two of them are commonly encountered:

(a) Right aortic arch with mirror-image branching and left ductus arteriosus (or ligamentum arteriosus) connecting the left innominate artery or the root of the left subclavian artery to the left pulmonary artery. This type does not form a vascular ring and causes no symptoms. Nearly always a cyanotic cardiac anomaly coexists.

(b) Right aortic arch with an aberrant left subclavian artery arising as a fourth branch from the aortic arch. More often than not, the heart is normal.

Almost all Felson and Palayew's 26 patients (1963) with right aortic arch and "mirror-image" type of branching had cyanotic heart disease, while almost all their 33 patients with the other type of right aortic arch had normal hearts, except 3 who had a patent ductus arteriosus, and one other unusual case. The latter patient had a right innominate artery arising as the first branch off the aorta and also a coarctation of the aorta proximal to the origin of the left subclavian artery. One of our patients with right aortic arch unassociated with heart disease underwent investigation for a suspected superior mediastinal tumour before the correct diagnosis of right aortic arch was made. This error has been reported several times before, and such people have even been subjected to unnecessary thoracotomy.

A left ductus arteriosus (or ligamentum arteriosus) usually joins the root of the aberrant left subclavian artery to the left pulmonary artery and, thus, completes a vascular ring. Fontana and Edwards (1962) collected 26 such cases from the published material, and noted that in only 6 were there symptoms of tracheo-cesophageal compression. Gross and Neuhäuser (1951), however, reported 7 children with this type of vascular ring who needed surgical relief. They commented on the fact that symptoms caused by this variety of vascular ring usually appear later in life and are less severe than those associated with double aortic arch. Felson and Palayew (1963) had
5 patients with symptoms of tracheo-oesophageal compression, 3 of whom underwent surgical correction.

An aberrant left subclavian artery is a frequent accompaniment of a right aortic arch, especially when such a person has a normal heart. Although, as a rule, such an aberrant left retro-oesophageal subclavian artery causes no symptoms, Gross and Neuhauser (1951) have reported "hesitancy in swallowing" in one child. When both an aberrant left subclavian artery and a "posterior" left ductus arteriosus coexist in a patient with right aortic arch, the left subclavian artery may sometimes be a more important cause of oesophageal compression than the left ductus, as in a child reported by Felson and Palayew (1963).

Blake and Manion (1962) mention one instance of a right aortic arch associated with a left innominate artery that crossed the midline posterior to the trachea and oesophagus.

The various impressions produced on the tracheal air shadow and on the barium-filled oesophagus by the right aortic arch, left ductus arteriosus, and aberrant left subclavian artery, can be detected in plain x-ray studies of the chest. These radiological manifestations have been recently reviewed in detail (Felson and Palayew, 1963; Stewart et al., 1964).

**RIGHT AORTIC ARCH WITH LEFT SUBCLAVIAN ARTERY ISOLATED FROM AORTA AND ARISING FROM THE PULMONARY ARTERY**

Very few such cases have been described (Table V) (Holst, 1837; Barger, Bregman, and Edwards, 1956; Brown and Morris, 1951; Stewart et al., 1964), though the earliest report was more than a century ago. An associated cardiac anomaly has usually also been present, except in one patient (Barger et al., 1956). The left subclavian artery, which has no anatomical connexion with the aorta, is connected to the root of the left pulmonary artery via a left ductus arteriosus. Since the ductus, in all reported cases, has undergone obliteration, blood flow to the left subclavian artery takes place through collateral vessels (Fig. 8). Retrograde flow in the ipsilateral vertebral artery has been demonstrated. The left radial pulse is weak or absent. This so-called "subclavian steal" phenomenon, generally considered to be a very recent concept (Contorni, 1960; Reivich et al., 1961; Massumi, 1963), was commented upon as long ago as 1837 by Holst.

There were 3 instances of a right aortic arch with isolation of the left subclavian artery in the present series. Case 1 was that of a 4-year-old girl with a ventricular septal defect, a moderate left-to-right shunt, and normal pulmonary artery pressures. Aortography showed delayed opacification of the distal left subclavian artery through collaterals. A catheter passed retrogradely into this artery could not progress beyond its proximal portion: this suggested that the arterial lumen at this site was obliterated. Simultaneous pressures recorded in the left brachial artery and the descending aorta (Fig. 9) revealed a significant gradient in pressure between these two vessels. In Case 2, the anomalous origin of the left subclavian artery from the pulmonary artery was demonstrated at necropsy. The associated lesions were double outlet right ventricle with pulmonary stenosis, mitral atresia, a persistent left superior vena cava entering the coronary sinus, and a bicuspid pulmonary valve. Case 3, a male infant with pulmonary stenosis, intact ventricular septum, and right aortic arch, was unique in that the left common carotid as well as the left subclavian artery had no connexion whatever with the aorta. Both these vessels arose from a left

**TABLE V**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Aortic arch</th>
<th>Abnormal subclavian artery</th>
<th>Ductus arteriosus</th>
<th>Associated anomaly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edwards (1948b)</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Bilateral</td>
<td>VSD, ASD, coarctation of aorta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 1</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Tetralogy of Fallot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewart et al. (1964)</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left; possibly bilateral</td>
<td>No heart defect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>ASD; double outlet right ventricle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barger et al. (1956)</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left; possibly bilateral</td>
<td>Tetralogy of Fallot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holst (1837)</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>VSD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown and Morris (1951)</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Double outlet right ventricle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 1</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Pulmonary stenosis with intact ventricular septum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Case 1</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Our Case 2</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Our Case 3</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our Case 4</td>
<td>Left</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Bilateral; right patent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ductus arteriosus and were shown by angiocardiography to opacify, through collaterals, much later than the right subclavian and right common carotid arteries (Fig. 8). The diagnosis was confirmed at necropsy.

Only one report exists of a "mirror-image" equivalent anomaly, e.g. a left aortic arch with isolation of the right subclavian artery from the aorta (Stewart et al., 1964). An additional case was encountered in our series.
A 7-year-old Negro boy had a ventricular septal defect, a moderate left-to-right shunt, and normal pulmonary artery pressures. In addition to the harsh pansystolic murmur at the left lower sternal border and the mid-diastolic rumble at the apex, there was also a higher-pitched continuous murmur at the upper right sternal border. The child had a left aortic arch. When extracorporeal circulation was instituted, with the heart opened and fibrillating, a large amount of oxygenated blood could be seen flowing retrogradely through the pulmonary valve. There was a continuous thrill in the pulmonary artery. There was a ligamentum arteriosum on the left, and, in addition, a patent ductus arteriosus on the right connecting to the right subclavian artery. The subclavian artery had no connections with the aorta. The blood flow was retrograde from the subclavian through the ductus into the pulmonary artery. The right patent ductus arteriosus was ligated and divided. The right carotid artery was the first branch of the aortic arch.

Isolation of one or both subclavian arteries from the proximal aorta in patients with interruption of the aortic arch has also been described. There are 3 such cases in our series, proven at necropsy.

![Graph](image)

Fig. 9.—Simultaneous pressure curves obtained from the left brachial artery and descending aorta in a patient with ventricular septal defect associated with right aortic arch and isolation of the left subclavian artery from the aorta (Case S. C.).

**RIGHT AORTIC ARCH WITH UNILATERAL ABSENCE OF A PULMONARY ARTERY**

Pool, Vogel, and Blount (1962) recently reviewed all cases of unilateral absence of a pulmonary artery (excluding those associated with a persistent truncus arteriosus or agenesis of a lung). These authors found that of 18 anatomically proven cases of absent left pulmonary artery, at least 10 had a right-sided aortic arch. Tetralogy of Fallot was an accompanying lesion in 6 of these 10 patients. Neither right aortic arch nor tetralogy of Fallot was mentioned as an associated finding in any of 22 patients with proven absence of the right pulmonary artery. McKim and Wiglesworth (1954) had earlier noted the high incidence of location of the aortic arch on the side opposite the absent pulmonary artery: all 3 patients had a right aortic arch and absent left pulmonary artery. Emanuel and Pattinson (1956) reviewed 20 published cases of tetralogy with absent left pulmonary artery (including those with angiocardiographic diagnosis only). They noted that 12 of these had a right aortic arch (60%), which constitutes a higher incidence than is usually found in uncomplicated tetralogy of Fallot.

Excluding cases of persistent truncus arteriosus and agenesis of one lung, we have studied 8 patients with unilateral absence of a pulmonary artery: tetralogy of Fallot was an associated lesion in 4. Angiocardiography in 3 of them, all of whom are still living, demonstrated a right aortic arch and absent left pulmonary artery. In the other patient with tetralogy of Fallot, necropsy revealed a left aortic arch and absent right pulmonary artery, thus proving an exception to the rule that absence of the right pulmonary artery eliminates tetralogy of Fallot from the differential diagnosis of a given case (Pool et al., 1962). The only other reported case of tetralogy of Fallot with absent right pulmonary artery was associated with total situs inversus.

**RIGHT AORTIC ARCH WITH ORIGIN OF THE LEFT PULMONARY ARTERY FROM THE AORTA (HEMI-TRUNCUS)**

Stewart et al. (1964) described the necropsy findings in one such patient. This was an infant with multiple congenital defects who died three hours after birth. The aortic arch was right-sided. The right pulmonary artery arose normally from the pulmonary trunk but the left pulmonary artery arose from the ascending aorta.

**EMBRYOLOGY**

Prenatally, formation of the arch of the aorta and its branches is principally determined by the progressive caudal descent of the heart and partitioning of the truncus arteriosus. The extent to which the intracardiac streams of flow play a part in establishment of the normal aortic arch system is yet to be ascertained.

During the early phase of cardiogenesis, arterial arches are elaborated within the branchial arches of the embryo as undeclared delicate endothelial channels. While six pairs of aortic arches comprise the theoretical primitive plan, all do not exist simultaneously and the first two pairs are short lived (Fig. 10, Table VI). The fifth arch must be regarded as transient and apparently non-contributory...
Fig. 10.—(A) Silhouette of primary arch system in background (light). Rudiments of derived definitive vessel shown in relief over background diagram and indicated in parenthesis. (B) Postnatal plan of aortic arch and major divisions. The derivation of the different segments of the aorta is indicated. Embryonic rudiment in parenthesis. (Both reproductions by courtesy of R. Licata in Blood Vessels and Lymphatics. Edited by D. I. Abranson, Academic Press, New York and London, 1962).
TABLE VI
ANATOMICAL AND CLINICAL FINDINGS IN CHRONOLOGY OF DEVELOPMENT OF AORTIC ARCHES
(adapted largely after Congdon, 1922)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vascular structure</th>
<th>Age of embryo</th>
<th>Length of embryo (mm.)</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arch I</td>
<td>3 weeks</td>
<td>1.5-3-5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch II</td>
<td>3-4 weeks</td>
<td>3-4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch III</td>
<td>3-1.2/4 weeks</td>
<td>4-5 to term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch IV</td>
<td>5th week</td>
<td>4-7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch V</td>
<td>Appears 5 weeks</td>
<td>4-5, established by 6-11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arch VI</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ductus caroticus (rt. dorsal aorta between arches III and IV)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right dorsal aorta (arteria aberrans); dorsal aortae descent of heart</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Transient; drops out at end of 3rd week when 3rd arch appears

Transient

Takes configuration of carotid sinus complex at 11 mm.; maximal endothelial development at 10 mm.

Definitive aortic arch completed at 18-20 mm. (6-8 weeks) (maximal endothelial development at 10 mm.)

Subclavian artery first established at 6 mm.

Transient

Mediastinal plexus and proximal segment of arch VI meet at 11 mm.; pulmonary artery established at 6-11 mm.; interruption of distal right arch VI at 12 mm. (45 days)

Together with distal part of right arch VI, it begins to drop out at 8-10 mm. and disappears at 14-16 mm.

Begins to drop out at 12 mm.; fuse at 22 sonite stage (3 weeks); period of rapid descent completed at 18 mm. (50 days)

Persistent dorsoventral and rhombic (right aortic arch) anlage. Persistence of certain segments of the primitive aortic arches is determined by a combination of factors. Abandonment of certain segments of the arch system is probably determined only partly by hæmodynamic alterations. In addition, the absence of local conditions normally promoting persistence and growth of these segments must also be regarded as important. Furthermore, an interdependence of the various segments represents an additional factor; for example, atrophy of the right dorsal aorta is apparently normally related to loss of the distal segment of the right sixth arch.

Once the definitive arterial arch system is declared hæmodynamically, histological differentiation ensues, during which certain segments develop specialized functions. Thus, it seems very probable that extravascular environmental factors at the level of the carotid sinuses, pressor-receptor aortic arch region, and the ductus arteriosus, influence the functional and perhaps also the histological differentiation of these regions.

Embryologically, the anterior part of a right aortic arch is developed principally from the ventral aortic root (right horn of the aortic sac) between the fourth and sixth arches. The region developed from the primitive truncus arteriosus lies below (proximal to) this level. Therefore, right aortic arch is not directly involved in the partitioning process of the truncus, though the streams of flow resulting from faulty partitioning of the truncus may secondarily contribute to the formation of the aortic arch on the right side.

The septation of the truncus arteriosus and subsequent closure of the ventricular septum is completed late in the second and early in the third month of intrauterine life. The fourth arches are established at the end of the fourth week as endothelial channels. Normally the left fourth arch is definitively declared as the persistent arch by the sixth week. At this stage, partitioning of the truncus and formation of the ventricular septum is far from completion. It is open to question, therefore, whether the direction in which blood is ejected into the primitive aorta principally determines whether the right or the left fourth arch will persist. The association between the altered ventricular anatomy of Fallot’s tetralogy and a high incidence of right aortic arch may not be one of cause and effect. Abnormal “controlling” tissue elements may be more important than hæmodynamic factors in causing persistence of the right arch.

Distally, the right aortic arch is derived from the right dorsal aorta involving compressed somatic segments 3–10 and a small intermediate segment representing the fourth right arch proper. The aortic arch anterior to the right subclavian artery is derived from segments 3–7, and posterior to it from segments 8–10 of the dorsal aorta.

From a phylogenetic point of view, it is worth noting that a right aortic arch is normal in birds. Perhaps a transitory phase occurs in the development of the human aortic arch system during which the right ventral aortic root (right horn of the aortic sac) is favoured over its mate on the left to persist as the definitive aortic arch.

All reported instances of cervical aortic arch have been located on the right side. This anomaly has been attributed to persistence of the third right arterial arch and of the ductus caroticus, with involvement of the fourth right arch, so that the right internal and external carotid arteries take separate origin from the aortic arch (Beavan and Fatti, 1947). Another possibility is that the fourth right arch par-
Right-sided Aorta

737
takes in the formation of the arch of the aorta, but for some unaccountable reason it fails to migrate into the thorax. One would have to postulate, in addition, that the right ductus caroticus persists, to explain why the right internal and external carotid arteries arise separately from the aorta (Harley, 1959). A third possible theory is that the right third and fourth arterial arches become confluent at a phase when the primitive arches are cervically located, perhaps due to anomalous growth of the pharyngeal pouch tissue in that area. The mode of the origin of the left subclavian artery from a right aortic arch apparently depends on which part of the left fourth arch and related dorsal aorta persists, and which part disappears. If the segment of the latter immediately dorsal to the left subclavian artery atrophies, this vessel arises anteriorly from a left innominate artery. If the fourth left arch immediately anterior to the left subclavian artery disappears, it will take origin posteriorly as fourth and last branch of the aortic arch. If the elements of the left fourth arch and dorsal aorta both ventral and dorsal to the subclavian artery should atrophy, with the exception of that part entering into the formation of the left ductus arteriosus, the left subclavian artery will have no anatomical connexion whatever with the aorta, but will apparently arise directly from the pulmonary artery. The fact that such an anomalous left subclavian artery undergoes obliteration at its root is explained by the presence of ductal tissue (left ductus arteriosus) in this segment.

The many theories postulated to explain unilateral absence of a pulmonary artery have been recently reviewed (Cucci, Doyle, and Lewis, 1964). These invoke persistence of the fifth arch and atrophy of the sixth (Ambrus, 1936), reabsorption of the proximal portion of the sixth arch (McKinn and Wiglesworth, 1954), failure of the right sixth arch to migrate dorsally and to the left around the primitive truncus arteriosus (Schneiderman, 1958), and defective septation of the truncus (Cucci et al., 1964). According to the latter authors, the frequency of observed combination of tetralogy of Fallot, right aortic arch, and “absent” left pulmonary artery results from a simple primordial error: a dorso-rotation of the left truncal ridge extending throughout the truncus.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The anatomical variations found in a series of 116 children and young adults with a right-sided aortic arch or right descending aorta are presented. The associated congenital cardiac anomalies are analysed, and the various hypotheses concerning the embryology of the right aortic arch and its variations are reviewed. It is felt that the findings presented are of importance for the understanding of the embryology of the normal and abnormal human aortic arch.

We are indebted to Dr. Milton H. Paul, Director, Department of Cardiology, Children's Memorial Hospital, and to Dr. Harvey White, Director, Department of Radiology, Children's Memorial Hospital, for providing us with data on two patients.

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