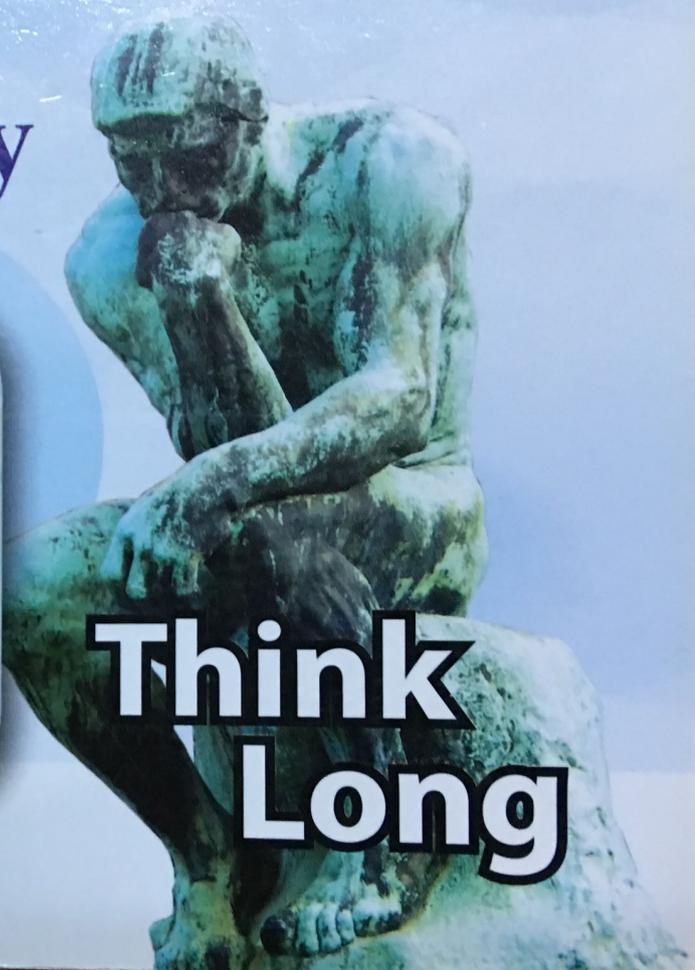


Paediatric and Neonate Surgery

GUIDE TO HOUSE SURGEON



Dr. A. Al Rawi / FRCS



**Think
Long**



Causes of neonate intestinal obstruction

Mechanical

Intrinsic
(In the wall)

Atresia
Stenosis

Intra lumen

Meconium Ileus

Extrinsic

Malrotation
* Diaph – hernia
* Volvulus

Neurogenic

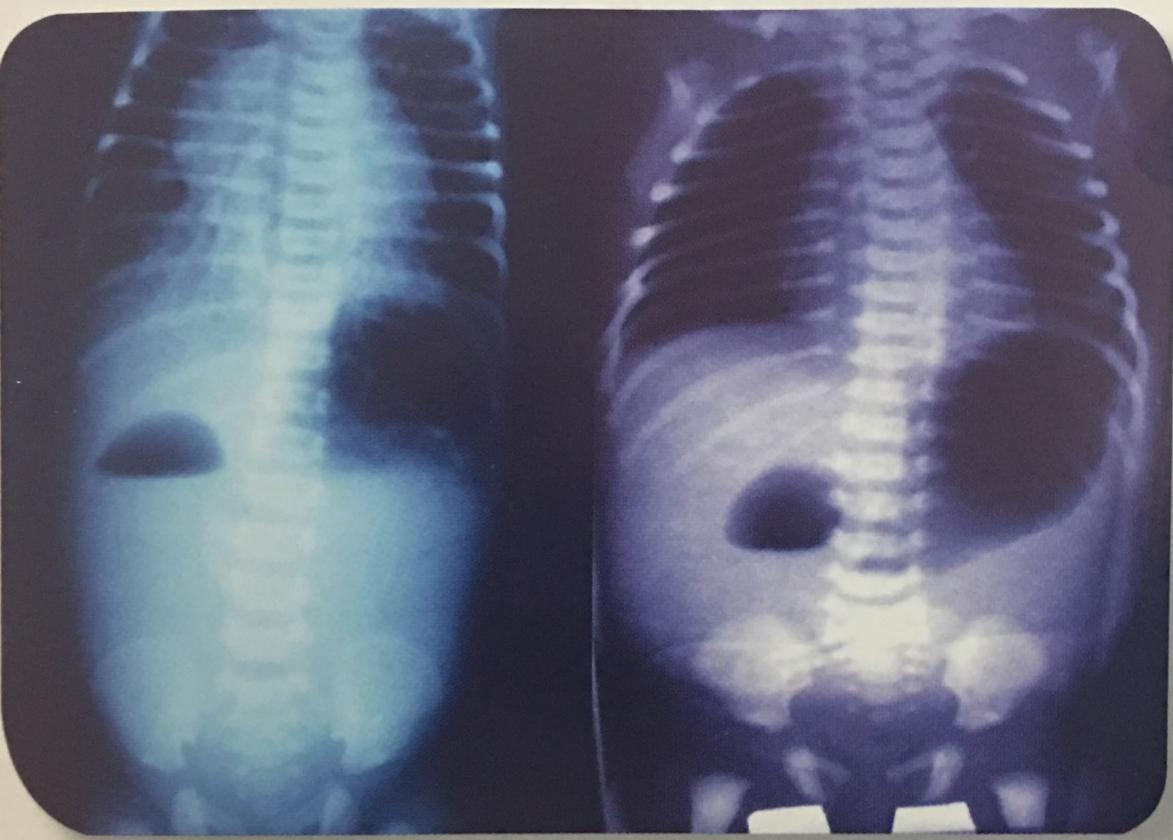
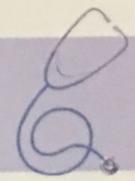
Aganglionosis
* Hirschsprung`s

Functional

* Sepsis
* NEC
* Prematurity
* Drugs in labour

**Duodenal Obstruction**

Extrinsic	volvulus neonatorum (caused by ladd band). annular pancreas
Intrinsic	atresia stenosis
Presentation	vomiting (85% distal to CBD entry) → bile-stained vomit. 30% Down's syndrome double bubble pattern x-ray
Treatment	duodeno- duodenostomy



Double bubble pattern x-ray

Important Notes For The Resident

Duodenal Atresia

Diagnosis

- * Bile- stained vomiting from birth (90%).
- * Non-bilious in (10%).
- * Double bubble on plain x-ray abdomen (erect + supine).
- * Down's syndrome occurs in 30% of cases.

Pre-op.

- * ECG, to look for cardiac anomalies.
- * If in doubt get an upper GI contrast study.

Post-op.

- * Ng tube or gastrostomy tube.
- * May have a trans-anastomotic tube for early enteral feeding.
- * On full IV-fluids or TPN.



**Malrotation
Midgut Volvulus
Volvulus Neonatorum**

yolk sac

Return of the fetal (GIT) from (EEC) during the 4th. weeks the bowel undergoes rotation in a counter clock wise at the end of 11th. Weeks – 270 degree complete rotation when the process is incomplete – result (malrotation)

* Pathology : narrow stalk (root) around SMV
Poor attachment of the bowel

* Presentation : 30 % in the 1st. Week
50 % before 1 month of age

90° out (yolk sac)
180° in (in abd. cavity)

mesentery border (base) one to close to each other, so it can rotate causing volvulus

Unexplained bilious vomiting is a surgical emergency until Prove otherwise.

* Treatment : Ladd's procedure
Incidental appendicectomy

so 2 problems
volvulus + bands

الطبلي، لون سواد و L1
و غير هيا، ام يكون عن L5
lad band.



Important Notes For The Resident

Malrotation

Diagnosis.

- * Bile vomiting often the only sign.
- * Plain film may show proximal small bowel to right side.
- * An upper GI contrast study is the definitive investigation.

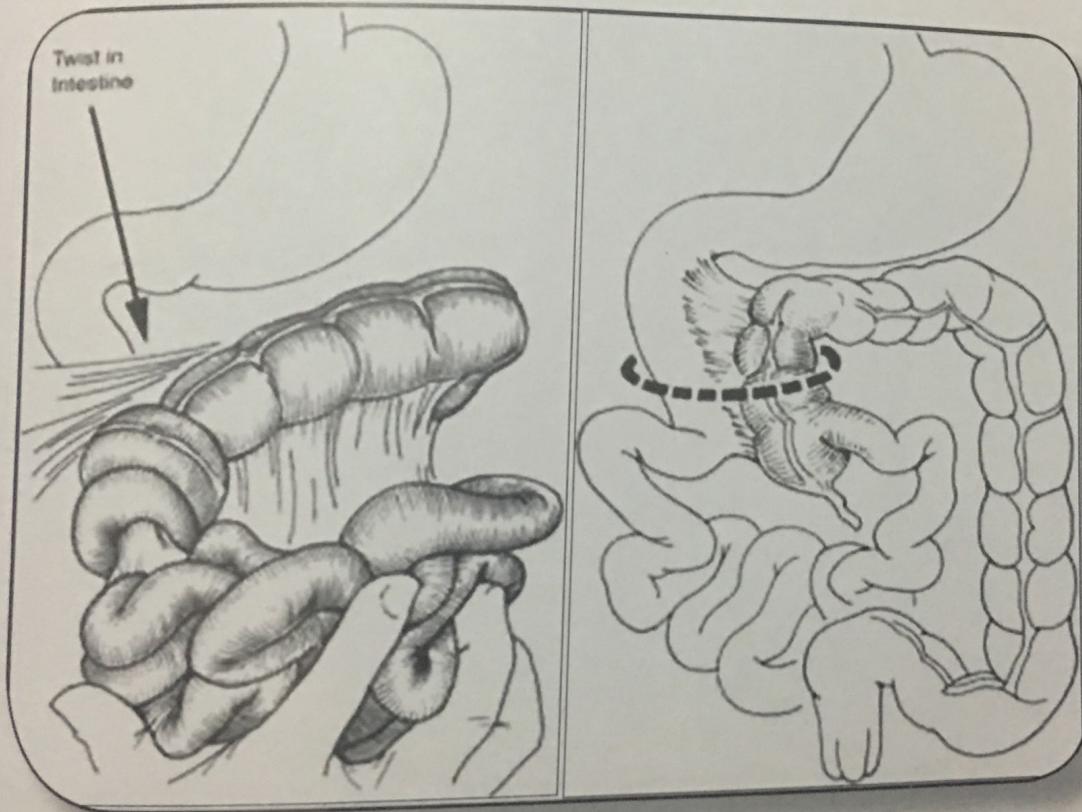
Pre-op.

- * Resuscitate.
- * IV. antibiotics.

Post-op.

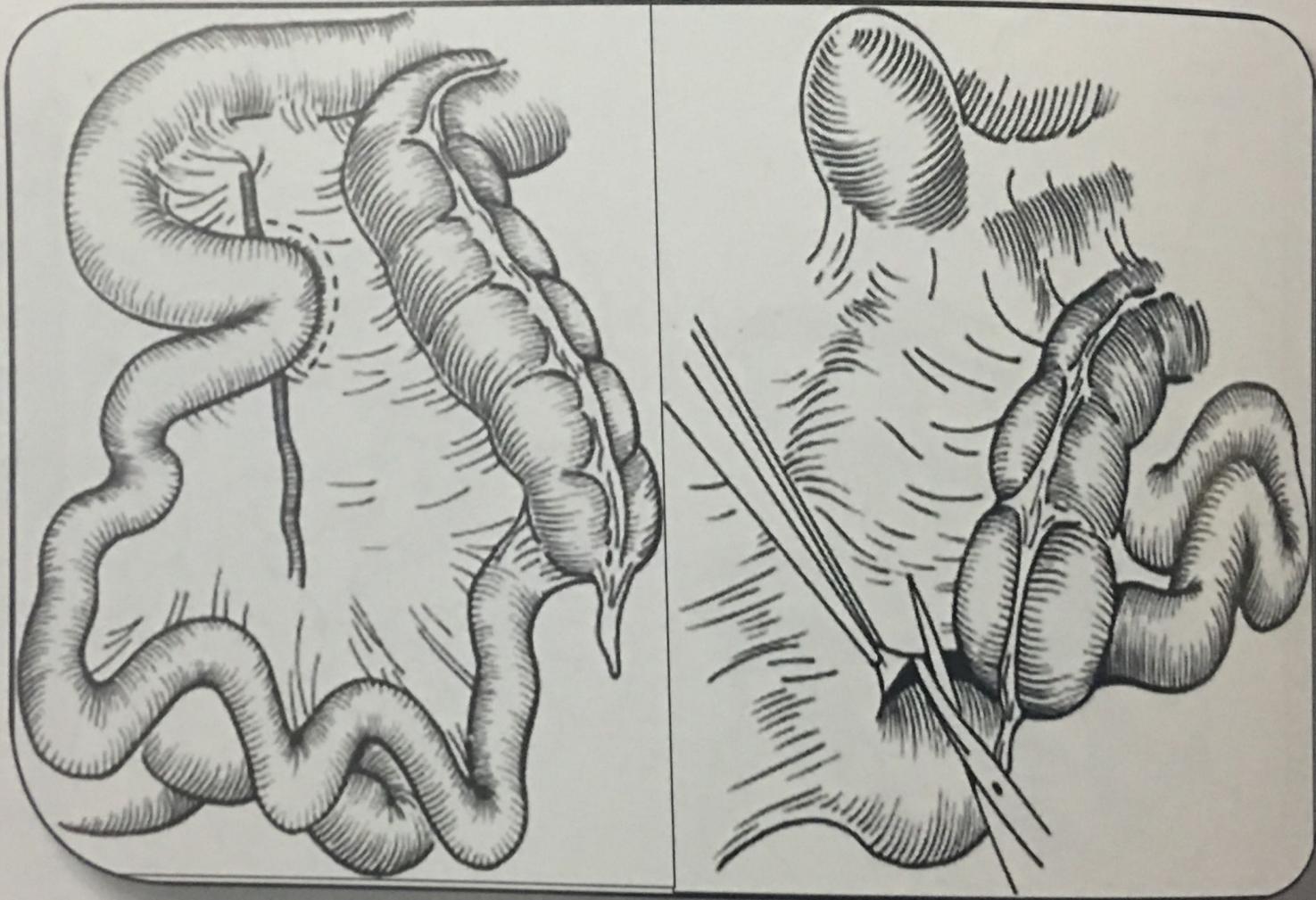
- * IV. Fluids for at least 24 hrs.
- * Antibiotic course according to findings at surgery.

if bleeding per-rectum occurred ⇒ late diagnosis

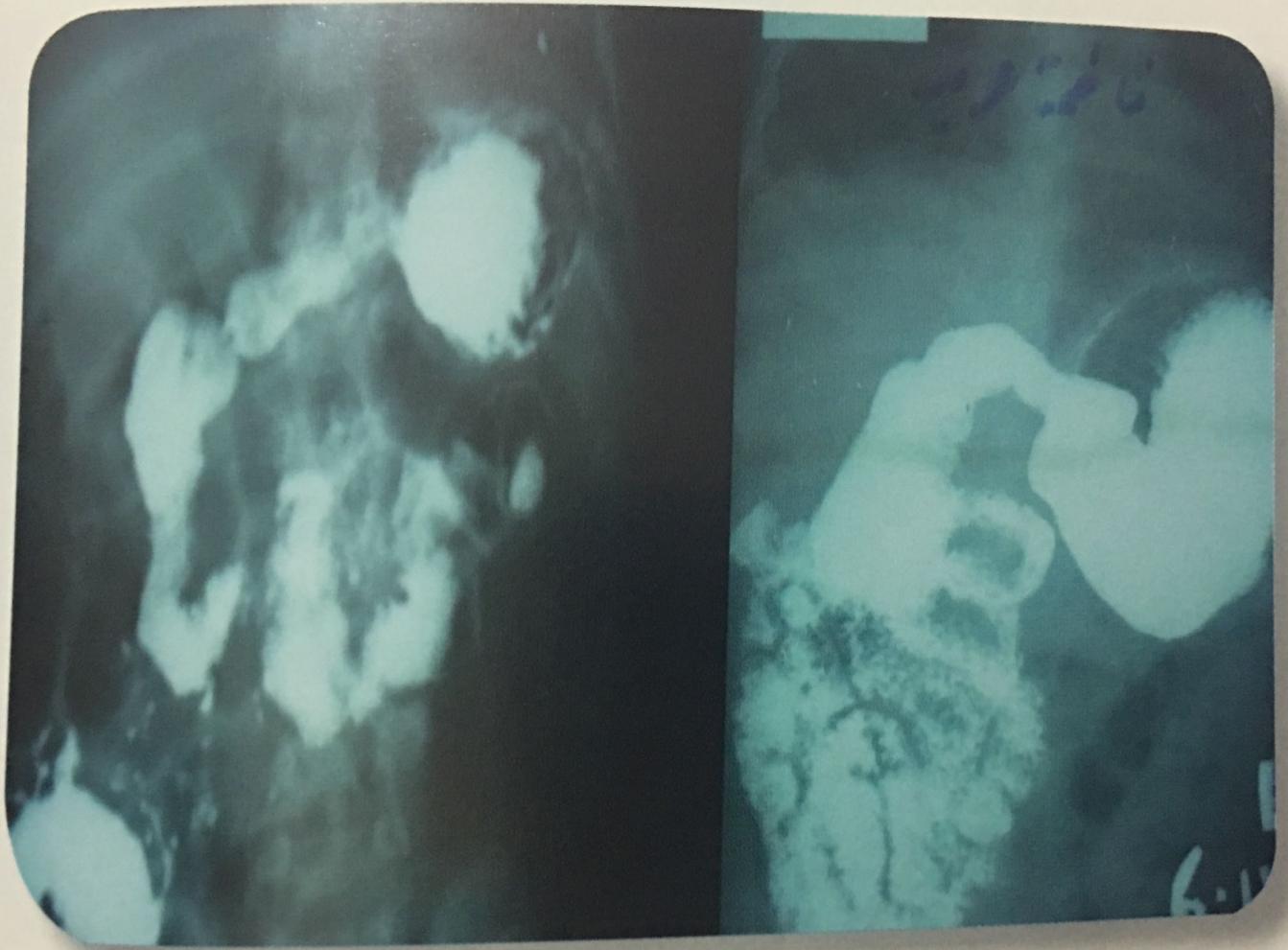


notice that
the cecum
is high.
Just next
to DJ Flexure

Volvulus Neonatorum (1-12) UNSW



Ladd's procedure(1-12)UNSW



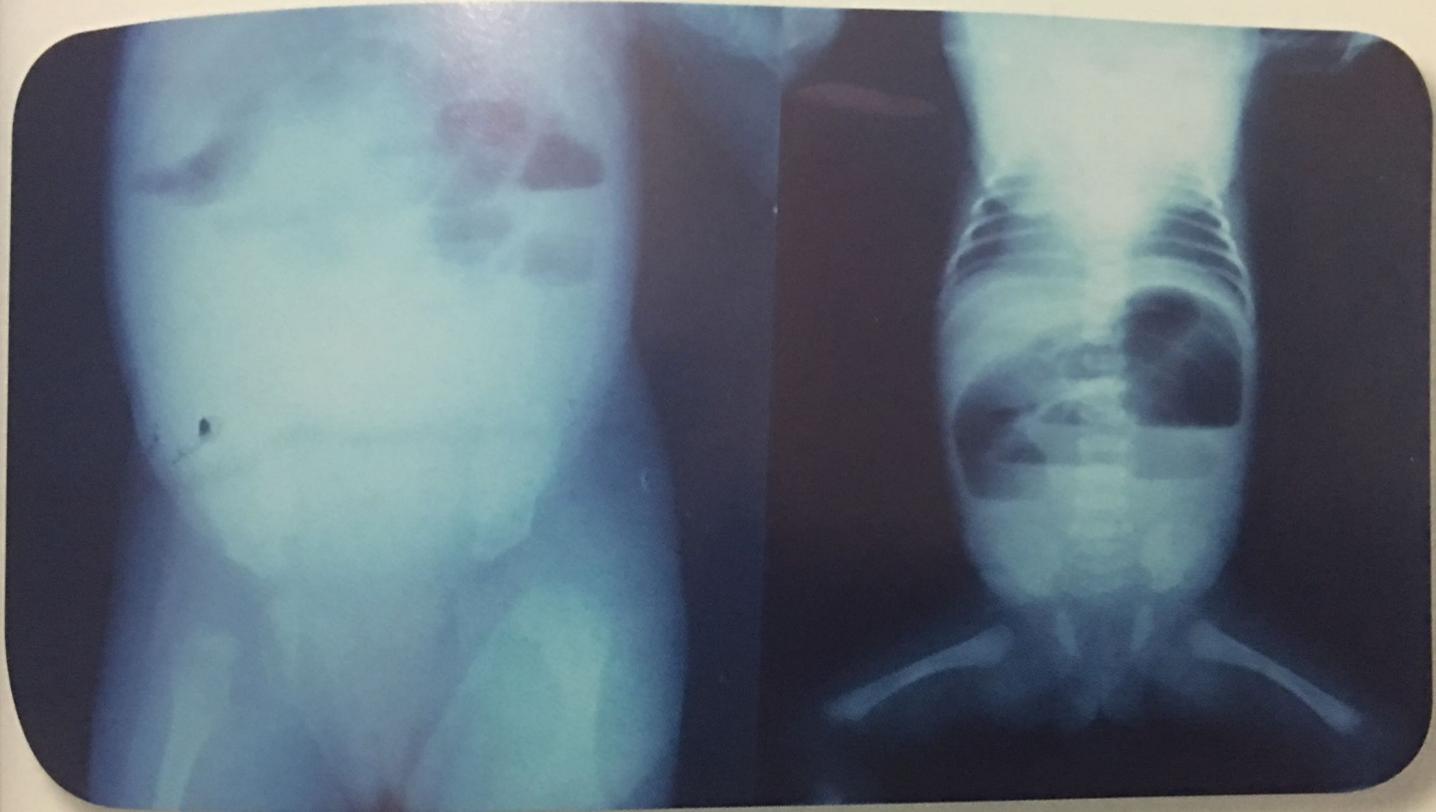
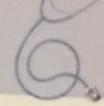
Barium Meal and follow through in malrotated cases

Jejunum**Ileum****Atresia****Colonic**

- * Common in the Jejunum
- * Single atresia 90 %
- * Multiple atresia 10 %
- * 10 % as complicated of meconium obstruction
- * Low incidence in Colon 5 %
- * Associated anomalies : Cloacal extrophy
Abdominal wall defect

Diagnosis : Fluid level progressive down to level of obstruction

Treatment : Remove the poor blood supply segment Provide a functional anastomosis



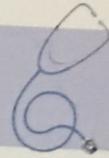
Erect views for neonate intestinal obstructions

**Important Notes For The Resident****Intestinal atresia****Pre-op**

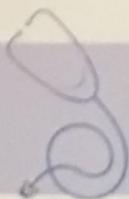
- * Plain abdominal x-ray (erect & supine).
- * Prophylaxis antibiotics.
- * FBC, U&E, X- match.

Post-op

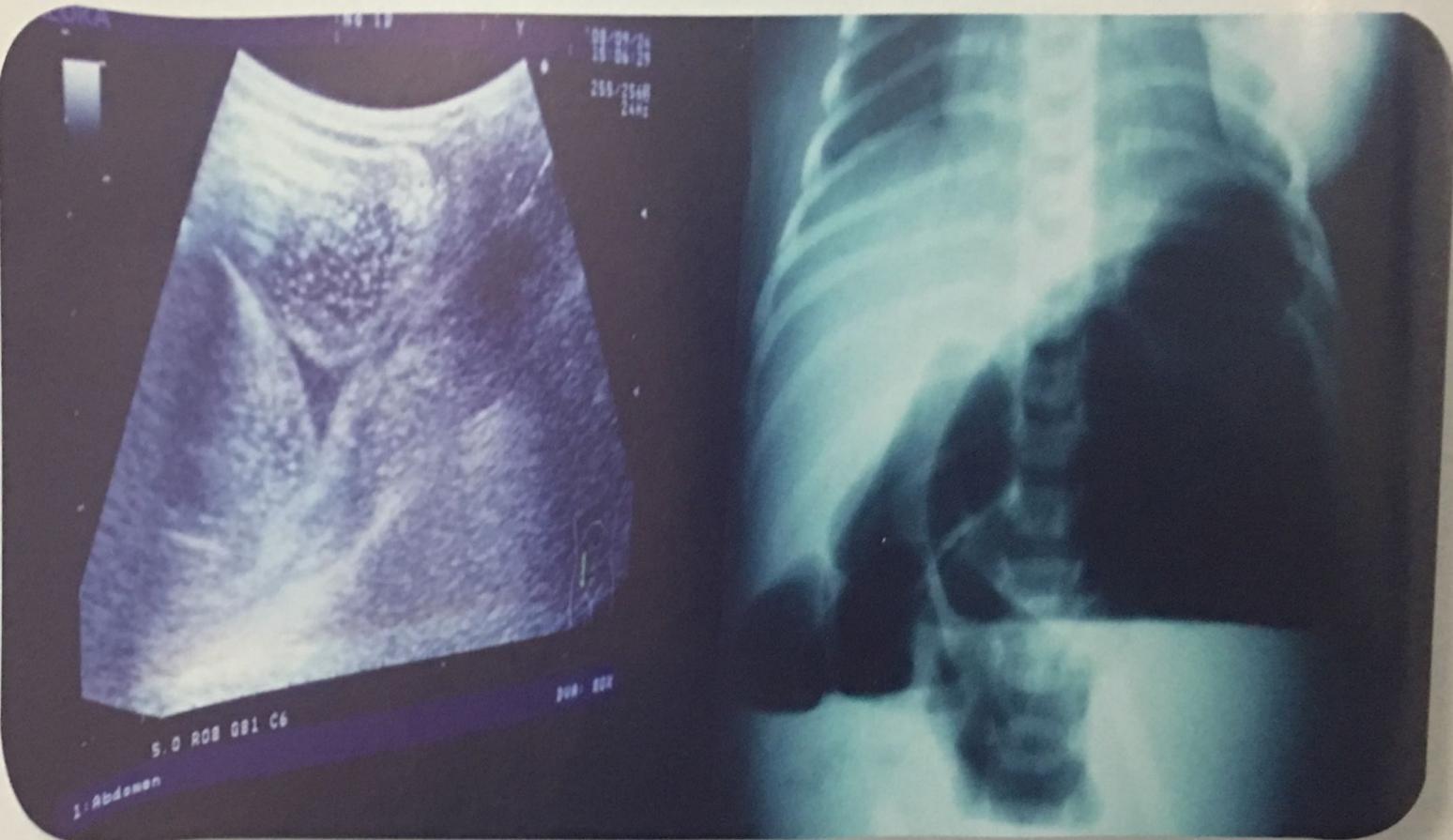
- * Routine observations.
- * Antibiotic prophylaxis.
- * I.V. fluids & TPN until the bowels regain its function.



Neonate Intestinal Obstruction



Paediatric and Neonate Surgery

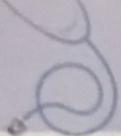


Ultrasound

Erect plain abdomen x-ray Ileal Atresia



Multiple Ileal Atresia



Ileal atresia



Meconium Ileus

Obstruction caused by inspissated meconium in the newborn

every one with CF ??

* **Incidence** 16 % of patients with cystic fibrosis
insufficiency of the pancreatic exocrine

* **Presentation** bile stained vomiting
abdominal distention
fail to pass meconium
palpable masses →

(firm) ~~caused~~ dist

* **Type**
* **Simple (uncomplicated)**
thickened meconium
obstructs the mid - ileum
proximal dilatation
bowel wall thickening

X - ray

mottled meconium
fail to form fluid levels
soap - bubble appearance

* **Complicated**
abdominal wall edema, volvulus,
atresia, necrosis, perforation,
meconium peritonitis and
pseudocyst formation

calcifications
free air
clustering
frank distention

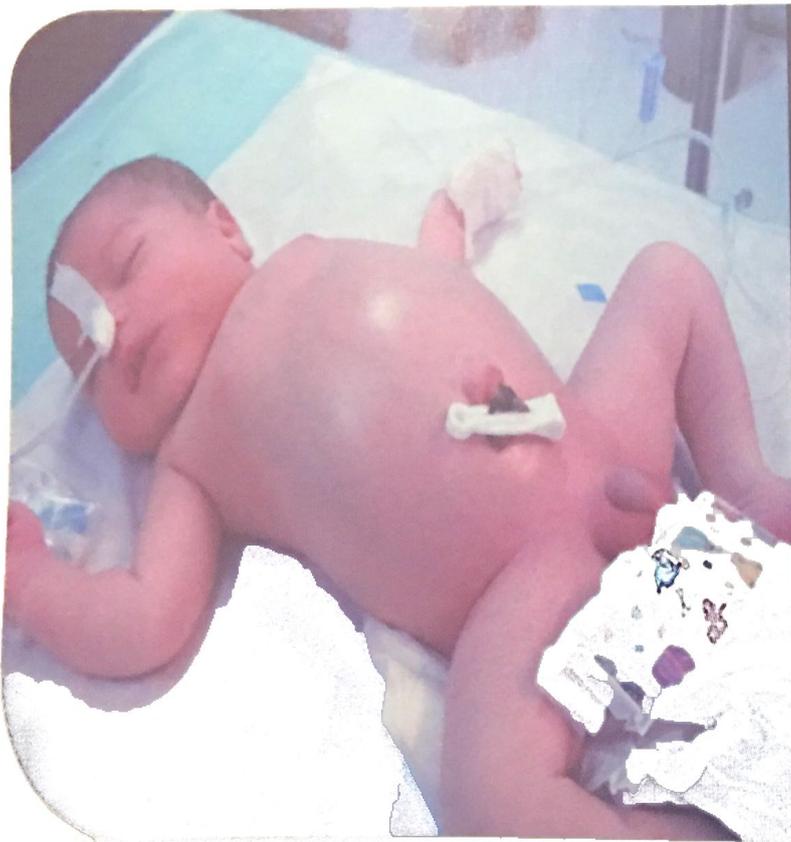
* **Management** * Conservative

Non - surgical gastrograffin enema
saline bowel washouts.

* Surgical Laparotomy, bowel resection with or without ileostomy

types ??

Paediatric and Neonate Surgery



Meconium Ileus



Soap – bubble appearance
+ mottled meconium

no fluid level.



Important Notes For The Resident

Meconium Ileus

- * Usually this is due to hyperviscous meconium in the small bowel.
- * Cystic fibrosis is often the cause.
- * Clinical presentation is that of a neonate with intestinal obstruction.
- * A family history of cystic fibrosis will suggest the diagnosis. **
- * Plain x-ray of the abdomen shows marked bowel distension.
- * The erect and supine films may be almost identical.
- * A snowstorm appearance with few if any fluid levels.
- * In complicated cases, intra peritoneal calcification may be visible.

Management

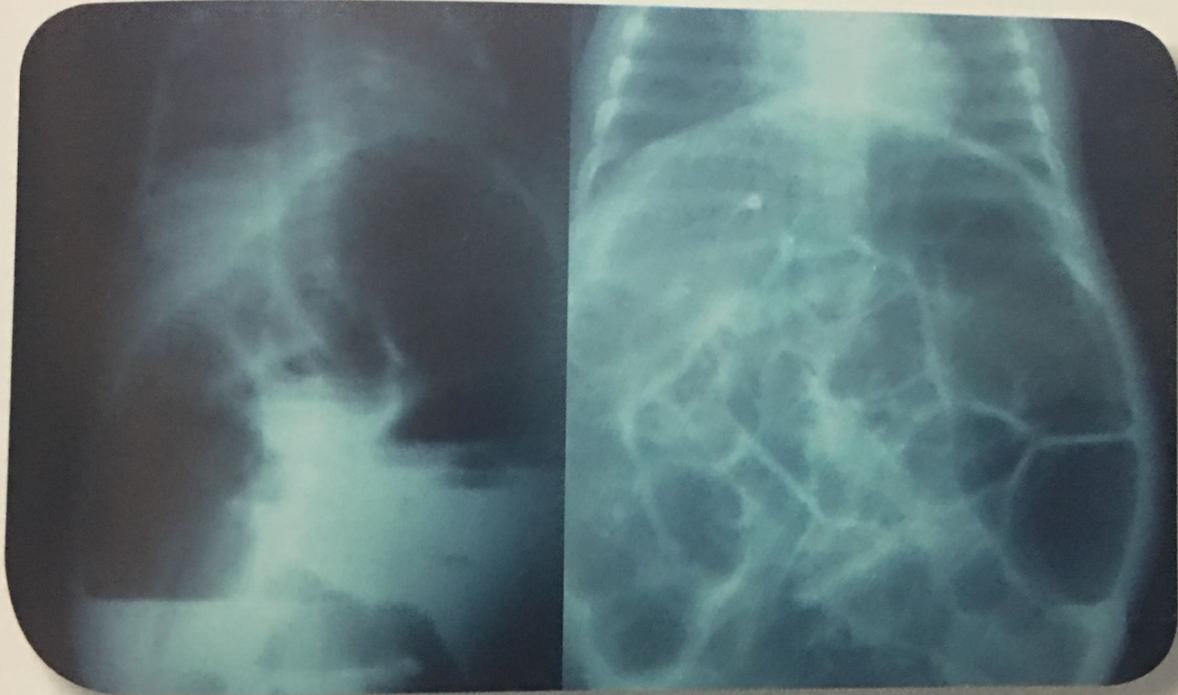
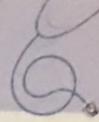
- * A dilute gastrografen or an isotonic contrast enema.(close observation for the risk of perforation).
- * Repeating the procedure at daily intervals for 4-5days.
- * Adequate I.V.fluids are required to replace the fluid lost.
- * Conservative management is successful in about 60%.

Surgery Required

- 1- With Ileal atresia.
- 2- In case of perforation.
- 3- Not responding to conservative management.

Hirschsprung's Disease

Incidence	1/ 5000 birth
	<u>Commonest cause of intestinal obstruction in the newborn</u>
Types	Short aganglionic segment 75 % Long aganglionic segment 17 % Total colonic aganglionosis 8 %
Presentation	<u>Complete obstruction</u> <u>Partial obstruction</u>
Classical Signs	Delay passage of meconium (24 – 48 hrs.) Bile stained vomiting Abdominal distention
Diagnosis	Rectal examination, empty rectum, tight sphincter X- ray erect, dilated bowel with air/fluid levels. Barium enema, <u>positive transition zone & barium retained over 24 hrs, in the colon.</u> Rectal biopsy, <u>absence of ganglion cells.</u> Histochemical, increase staining for acetylcholinesterase activity.
Treatment	Multiple- staged approach – diversion colostomy Pull – through operation One – stage approach – open procedure, laparoscopically or transanally



Erect

Supine

Hirschsprung's Disease, plain x-ray , erect and supine



(Transition Zone) Barium Enema
Hirschsprungs disease features in children



Transition Zone (the cone of Hirschsprungs)

Important Notes For The Resident

Hirschsprung's Disease

- * Suspected if delayed passage of meconium.
- * Barium enema will usually demonstrate the features of diagnosis.
- * Definitive diagnosis is made on histological examination.
- * Most of the mortality is related to the severe enterocolitis.

Pre-op.

- * Large volume saline bowel washouts.
- * Prophylaxis antibiotics.

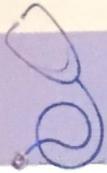
Post-op. care.

- * I.V. fluids for 3-4 days.
- * Check, labs, while the patient on full I.V. fluids.



Necrotizing Enterocolitis

Incidence	3 / 1000 live births
Infants at risk	Premature Low- birth- weight Weight less than 1.5kg Exchange transfusion Congenital heart disease
Common site	Terminal ileum ,Colon Single or multiple Pan necrosis / entire intestine can be involved
Pathologic changes	Dilated bowel Fibrous exudates covering the serosal surface Patchy necrosis & haemorrhage Subserosal gas collections
Histology	Mucosal ulcerations with epithelial sloughing Coagulative necrosis of the mucosa Mucosal ulceration & intramural gas



Necrotizing Enterocolitis

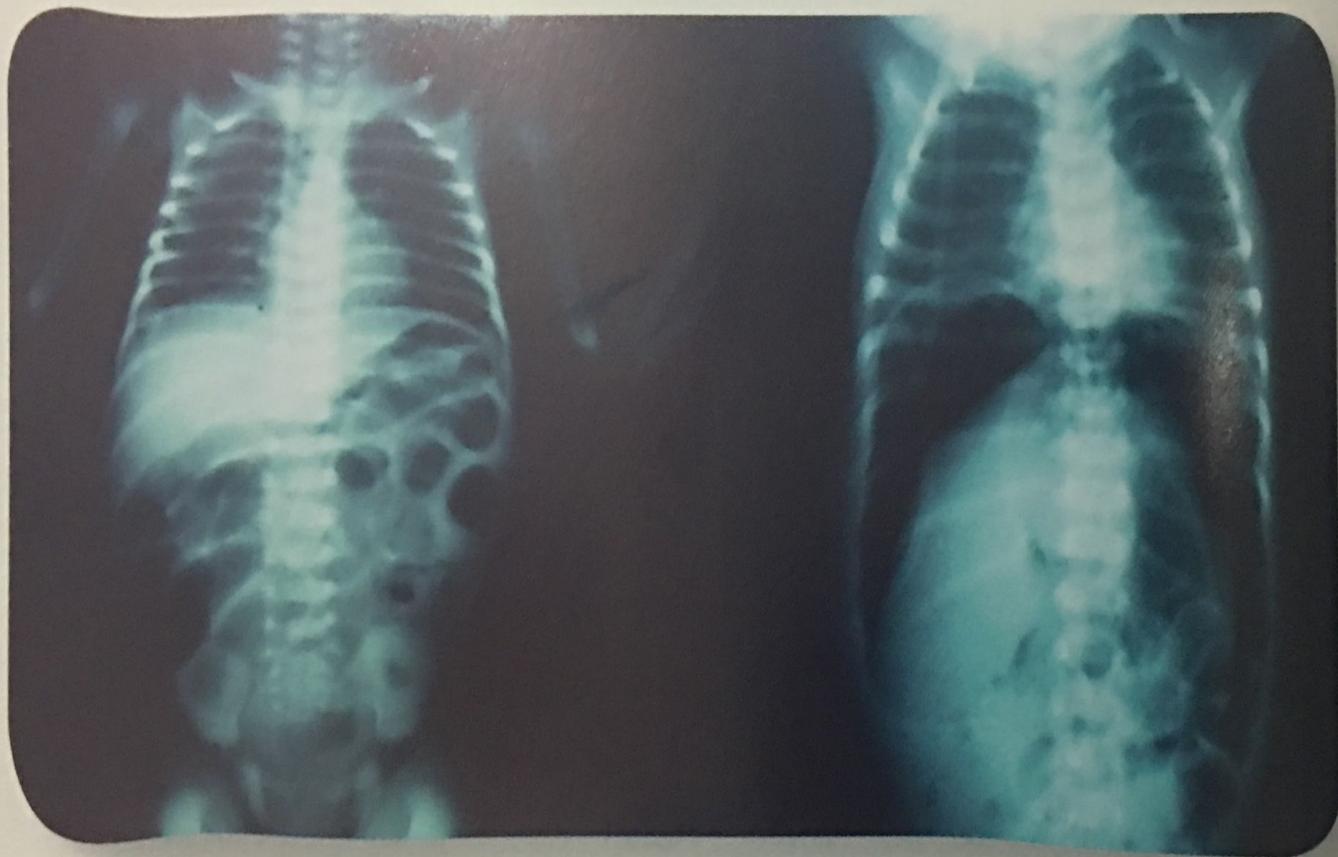
Presentation	Abdominal distention Signs of sepsis(lethargic, apnea, bradycardia, unstable temperature, hypotention) In progress(abdominal wall oedema & erythematous, hematemesis & rectal bleeding)
Laboratory	Metabolic acidosis Lukopenia & thrombocytopenia
Plain film x-ray	Bowel distention, pneumatosis intestinalis, dilated intestinal loops, portal venous air, pneumoperitoneum & ascites
Progress	* Healing : by epithelization Or scarring & stricture formation * Perforation and peritonitis
Treatment	Conservative N/g decompression Tpn , Blood, I.V Fluid & antibiotics
	Surgical Indication free air in the abdomen clinical deterioration(progressive acidosis) erythema of the abdominal wall fixed- loop sign & abdominal mass

due to ischemia

المريض انه لو اذنت له وقتها ٢٥-٣٠
بينهم راجع يتغير المسكن ولكن هنا



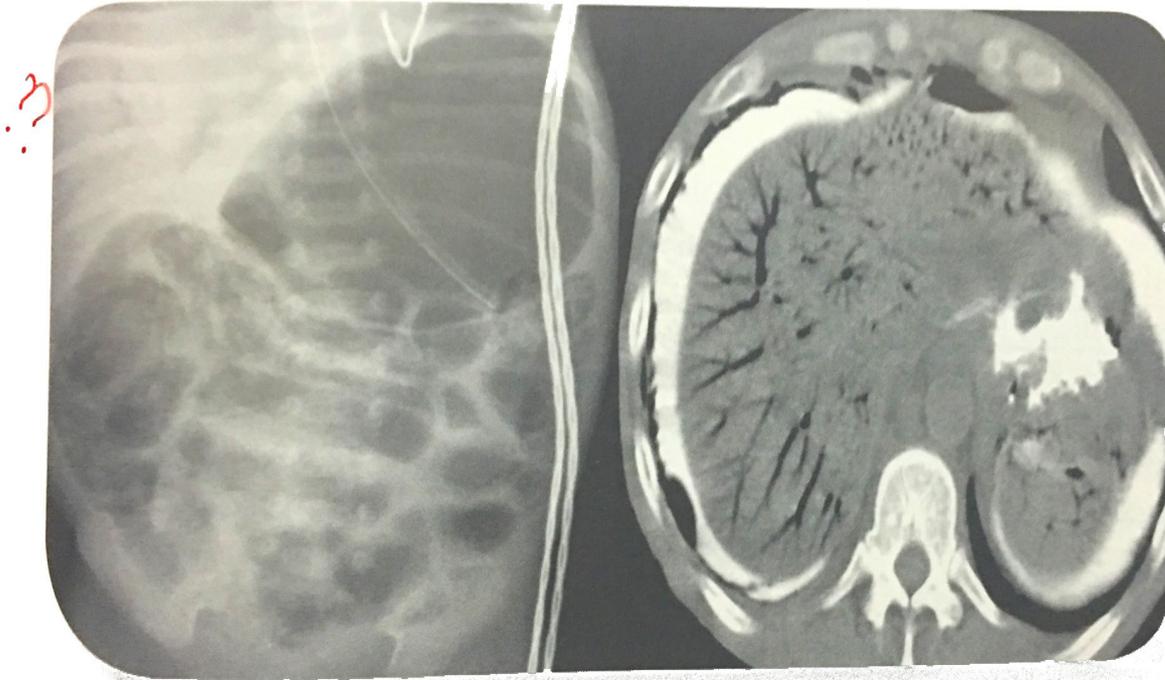
NEC, Baby (BW: 1900 g).



NEC

Intramural gas.
“Pneumatosis Intestinalis”

Free intraperitoneal air
“Pneumoperitonium”



“Portal Venous Gas”

CT- Scan , Shows the portal venous gas
in the liver,
as well as gas in the spleen



Important Notes For The Resident

Necrotizing Enteroocolitis Diagnosis & Work-up.

- * Common in premature infants.
 - * May only have non-specific signs of sepsis.
 - * Classically presents with abdominal distension and bilious vomiting.
 - * May pass blood per-rectum! *one cause for the GI bleeding in newborn along with anal fissures*
 - * FBC, U&Es, Coagulation screen and blood gases.
 - * Plain abdominal x-ray (erect & supine) for diagnosis & follow-up.

Management.

- * General supportive care (may need to be ventilated).
- * Stop all oral feeds.
- * Ng/ tube and I.V. fluids.
- * Blood products as necessary and consider the TPN.
- * Broad spectrum antibiotics.

Surgery If indicated.

- * Lapotomy and bowel resection.
- * Lapotomy and stoma formation.

Anorectal Anomalies

Incidence
Types

1/ 5,000 higher in male

High deformities – Supralelevator

Recto- urinary fistula (male)

Recto- vaginal fistula (female)

Low deformities – translevator

Perineal fistula (male)

Recto- vestibular fistula (female)

Presentation

Recto- urinary fistula

Recto- vaginal fistula

Perineal fistula

Intestinal obstruction

Associated
malformation

(VACTERL), Down syndrome, Hirschsprung's disease
& duodenal atresia

Diagnosis

Perineal examination – observation up to 24 hrs

X-ray spine & pelvis, Micturating cysto- urethrogram, MRI

Treatment

Low defects

Perineal anoplasty

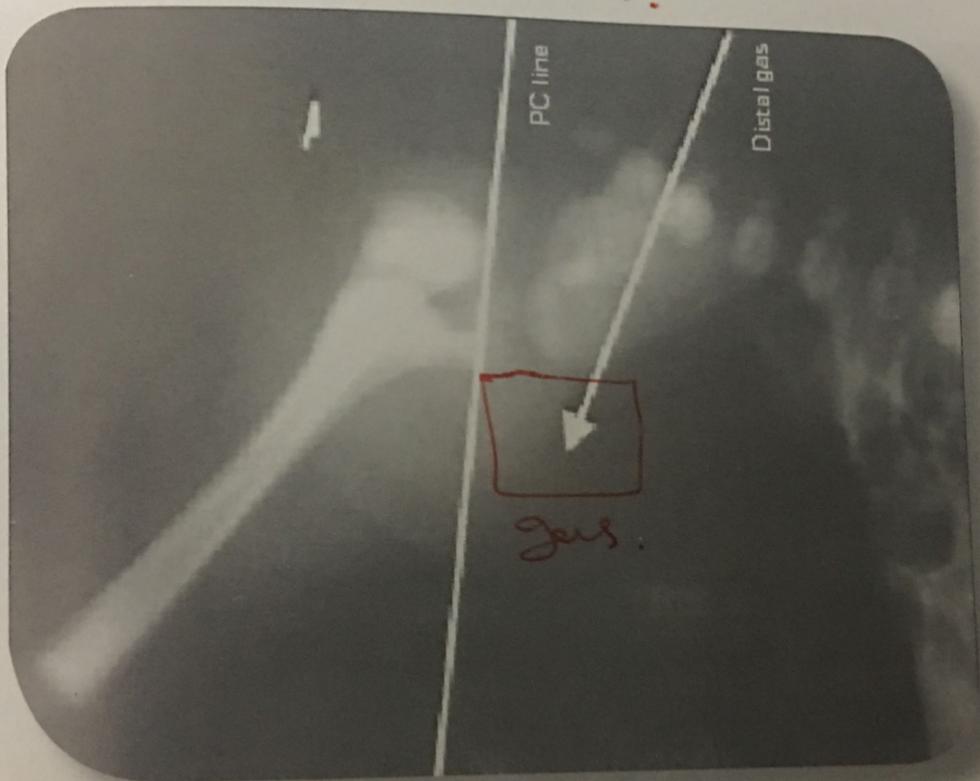
High defects

Colostomy Followed by (PSARP)



Imperforate Anus

??



Pronogram shows the relation of the PC line to the distal bowel gas



Low Type

Pronogram X-ray



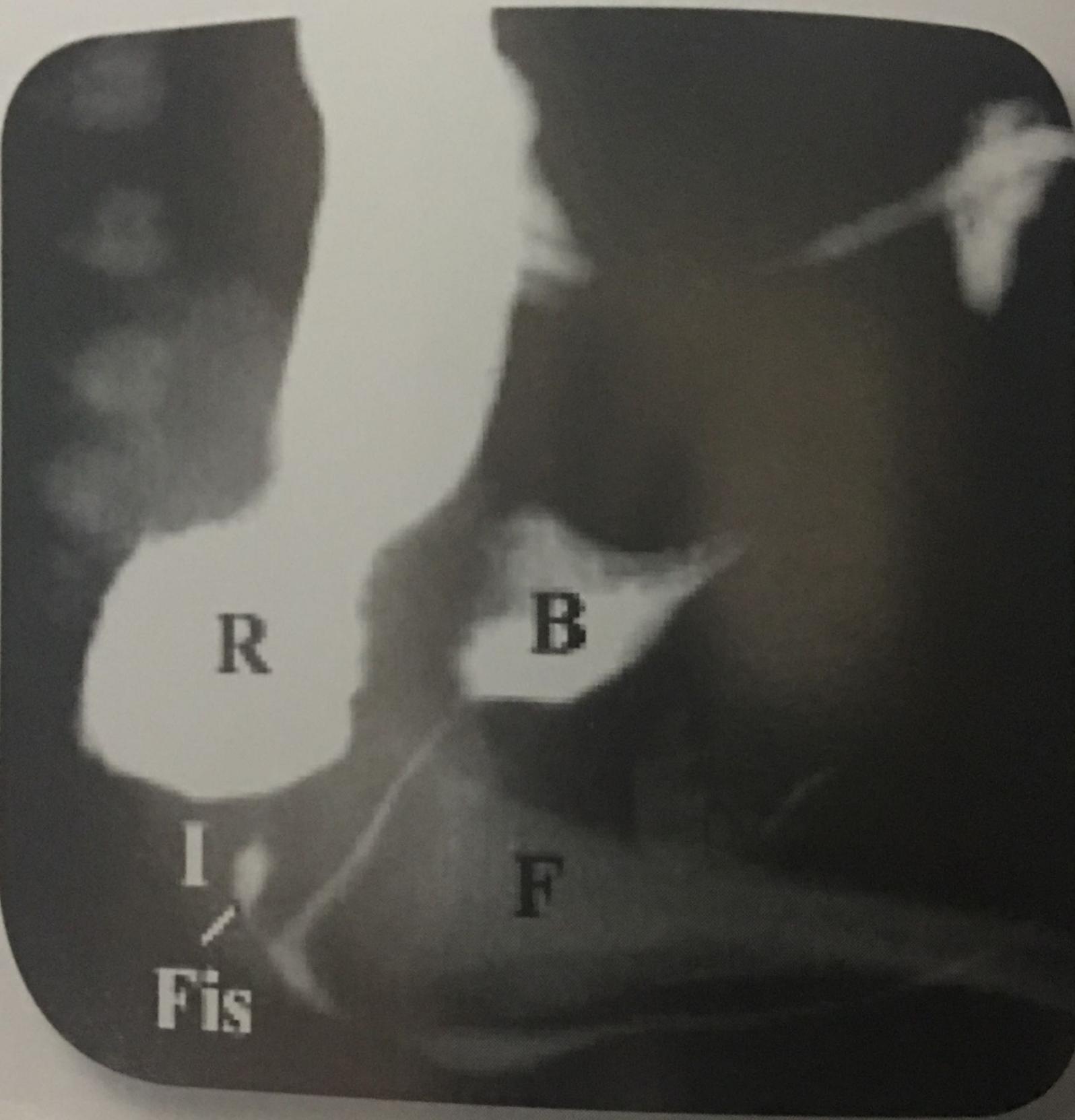
High Type



Bucket handle
anomalies



Imperforate Anus **with**
associate anomalies



Recto – Urethral Fistula

(male)

NEWBORN WITH ANORECTAL MALFORMATION

PERINEAL INSPECTION AND URINALYSIS

CLINICAL EVIDENCE (80-90%)

QUESTIONABLE (10-20%)

PERINEAL FISTULA
"BUCKET HANDLE"
MIDLINE RAPHE FISTULA
ANAL STENOSIS
ANAL MEMBRANE

"FLAT BOTTOM"
MECONIUM IN URINE
AIR IN BLADDER

PRONOGRAM

> 1 cm BOWEL-
SKIN DISTANCE

< 1 cm BOWEL-
SKIN DISTANCE

MINIMAL PSARP
NEWBORN
NO COLOSTOMY

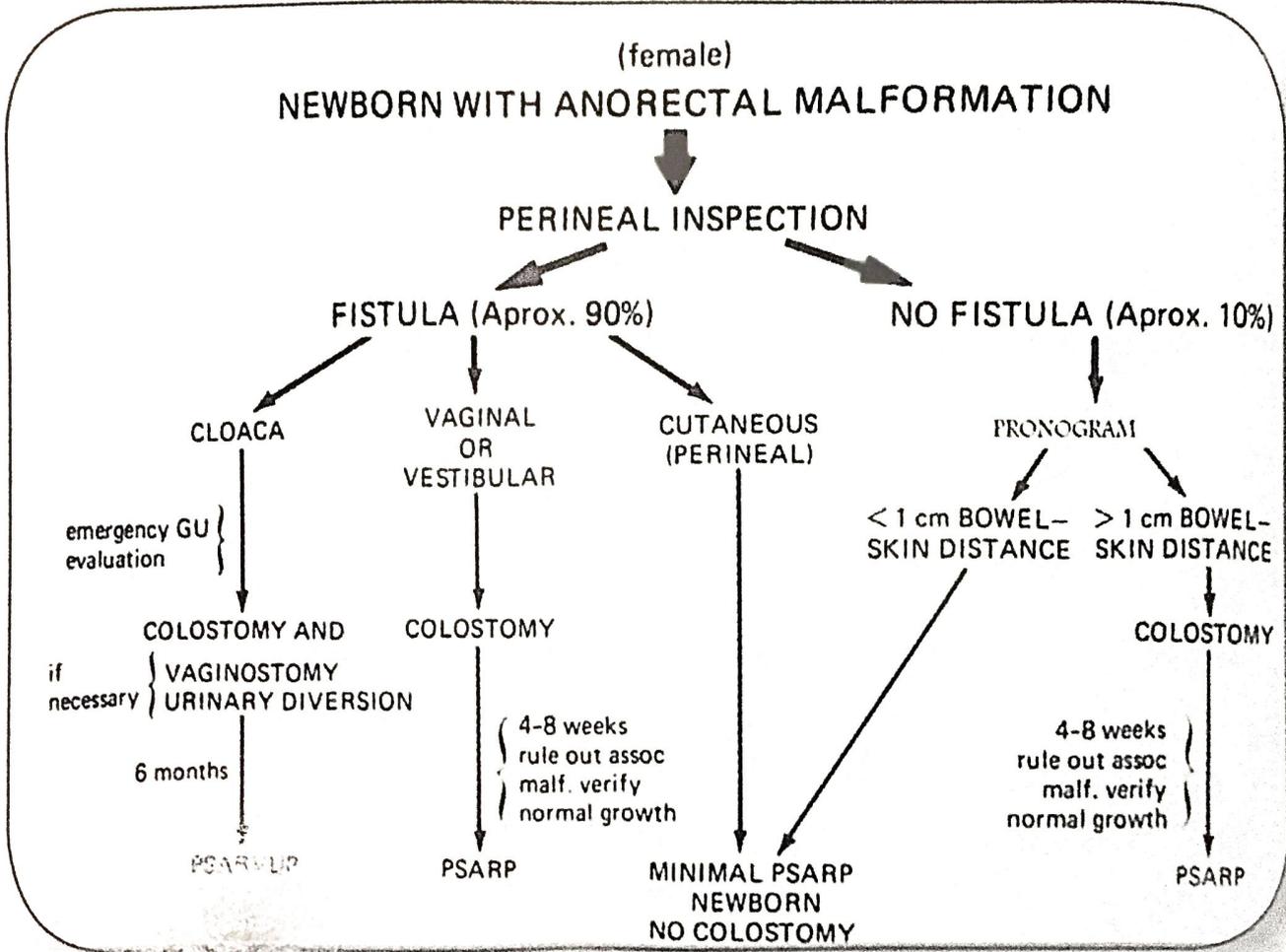
COLOSTOMY

MINIMAL PSARP
NEWBORN
NO COLOSTOMY

{ 4-8 weeks
rule out assoc malf.
verify normal growth

PSARP

Plan for management the ano-rectal malformation in male (7)



Plan for management the ano-rectal malformation in female (7)



Recto-perineal,

Recto- urethral ,

Recto-vesical Fistula

Male Ano-Rectal anomalies (7)



Recto-Vaginal Lower 3rd.-----Upper 3rd.

Recto-Vestibular Fistula

Common Cloacae

Female Ano-Rectal Anomalies (7)

Important Notes For The Resident

Imperforate Anus

- * Consider the associated anomalies (VACTERL).
- * Work- up pre-op in addition to usual labs.
- * Renal ultrasound.
- * Echocardiograph.
- * Pronogram x-ray (at about 24 hrs.)
- * X-ray spine.

Following the sigmoid defunctioning colostomy, one should consider the:

- * Cystourthrogram.
- * Loopogram.

Pre-op preparation.

- * Ensure full work-up done.
- * Antibiotic prophylaxis.

Post-op care.

- * Ensure the usual post-op care.
- * Continue antibiotics, start oral Trimethoprim once feeding ok.
- * Consider the need PSARP and closure colostomy at later dates.

Oesophageal Malformation

Oesophageal atresia

Complete interruption of the lumen

Blind upper pouch

With or with out tracheo – oesophageal fistula

1/ 3000 – 4000 live births

Incidence

Associate anomalies

VATER & VACTERL

Vertebral, Anal, Cardiac, Tracheo-oesophageal , Renal & Long bone.

Effect of oesophageal atresia



Accumulates of the saliva in the upper pouch

Spills over in to the trachea

Aspiration of gastric contents

Pulmonary complication

Abdominal distension (air through fistula)

Early diagnosis

The chance of successful surgical treatment
prevent the pulmonary complications

Oesophageal atresia

- * Affects 1 in 3000 live births
- * Aetiology is unknown but incidence is increased in first degree relatives
- * Often associated with a trachea-oesophageal fistula (TOF)
- * Various presentations include:
 - * Oesophageal atresia with TOF - 87%
 - * Isolated oesophageal atresia - 8%
 - * Isolated TOF - 4%
 - * Oesophageal atresia with proximal and distal TOF
- * 50% of patients have other congenital abnormalities Usually involving the cardiovascular, urogenital or anorectal systems

Clinical features

Prenatally

- * Diagnosed by the finding of polyhydramnios.
- * Stomach is empty on ultrasound.

Postnatally

- * Diagnosed by the neonate drooling or unable to swallow
- * Cyanosed during feeding
- * Develop ~~aspiration pneumonia~~
- * Perform a careful physical examination to document and exclude other associated developmental anomalies.
- * In the presence of a TOF, abdominal distention may occur due to collection of the air in the stomach
- * A 10 Fr, naso-gastric tube can not be passed more than 10 cm
- * On chest - abdomen x-ray if there is gas in the stomach, mean there is a distal TOF.

Oesophageal Malformations

Diagnosis

Maternal hydromnios – Present in 60%

no fluid in the stomach

Oesophageal Catheter – arrested about 10cm. from lips

Symptom

✓ Rattling respiration

Excessive salivation

→ Fine frothy white bubbles of mucus at the nostrils & lips

Feeding cause choking

Acute episode of spluttering

Coughing and cyanosis

Regurgitation & aspiration of milk

X-ray thorax

& abdomen to confirm the :

Upper pouch – Catheter (Radio – Opaque)

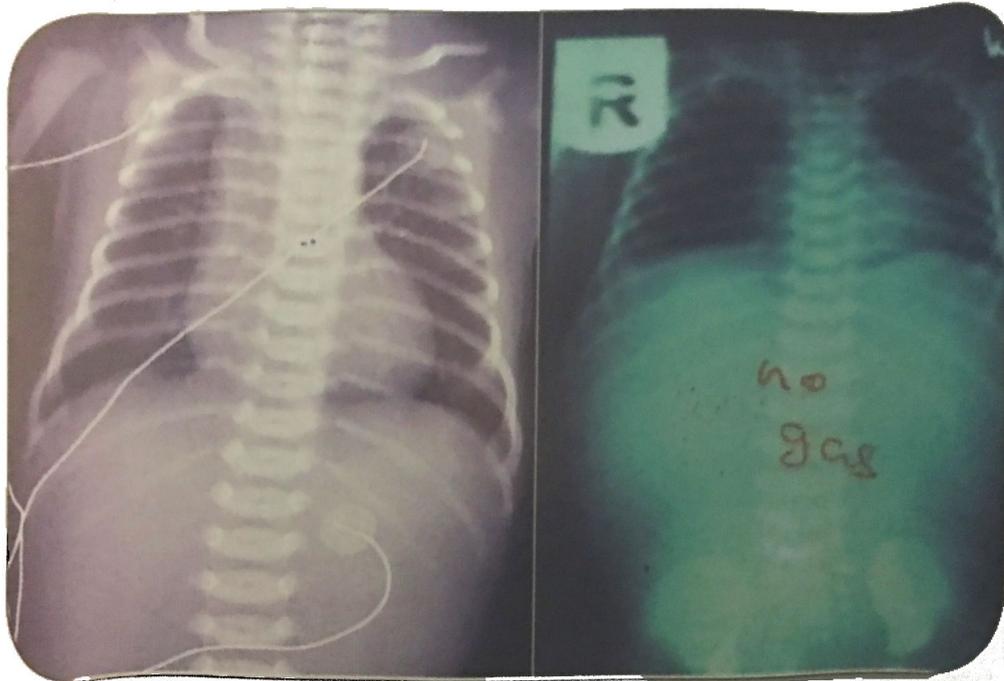
State of the lung or other abnormalities

Presence of air in the stomach

if there is fistula with trachea.



Oesophageal Atresia with T.O.F. the upper pouch visualized by Ng/ tube.



Oesophageal Atresia with out fistula, shows the catheter in the proximal pouch and no air in the bowel.

preoperative

The risk of aspiration should be reduced.

- * Continuous suctioning of the blind oesophageal pouch with an 8F catheter may decrease the risk of aspiration.
- * The infant's head should be elevated, and he or she should be hydrated
- * provide intravenous fluid solution.
- * If the patient develops acute respiratory failure, endotracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation are performed.
- * Administer broad-spectrum antibiotics for patients who may have developed lower respiratory tract infection.

Oesophageal Malformations

Tracheo – oesophageal fistula with out atresia (H- fistula)

- * Very uncommon
- * At the level of C7 or T1

Presentation

- * Episode of choking and coughing, during feeding
- * Cyanosis with pulmonary complication
- * Frequent pulmonary infections
- * Air passes freely in to the stomach (abdominal distention)
- * Acid passes freely as result of this distention and lax cardia in to the trachea and bronchus causes peptic pneumonitis

Diagnosis

- * By contrast cine – radiography

Treatment

- * Division of the fistula
- * Via cervical approach or Via Thorcoscopy.

Oesophageal Malformations

Treatment

Preparation for Surgery

Incubator Care

Antibiotic

I.V Fluid

Upper pouch Suction

Operation

Rt. Posterolateral extra pleural thoracotomy

Fistula – divided and closed

Direct anastomosis

Alternative

Gastrostomy for feeding

Cervical Oesophagostomy

*in case of pneumonia, or the child
is ill.*



Oesophageal Malformations

- Treatment** For a patient unfit for early anastomosis such as ..
Prematurity
Associate anomalies
Pneumonia
Poor general condition
- Actions** Gastrostomy to prevent reflux & for feeding
Continuous aspiration of the upper pouch to prevent spill- over in to the bronchial tree.
Close the fistula
- Prognosis** In full term baby with a good condition
If the diagnosis early with no abnormalities
The survival rate is 98%

Oesophageal Malformations

Complications

- 1 - Brassy Cough
- 2 - Oesophageal Stricture
50% for oesophagoscopy and dilatation
- 3 - Break down of the anastomosis

Partial – develop fistula treated by I.V feeding with out gastrostomy
Complete – treated by – reoperation with or with out gastrostomy.
4- Recurrence of the tracheo – oesophageal fistula

Causes of death

- * Pulmonary Complication
- * Prematurity
- * Associated anomalies

Important Notes For The Resident

Oesophageal Atresia

Diagnosis and work-up

- * Consider associated anomalies VACTERL.
- * AP & lateral CXR with radio-opaque tube held in oesophagus.
- * Renal ultrasound.
- * Echocardiograph.
- * X-ray spine.

Pre-op preparation

- * Sump (Replogle) tube for continuous suction.
- * Elevate the baby head slightly.
- * commence i.v. fluids.
- * Ensure full work-up done.
- * Antibiotics prophylaxis.

Post-op care.

→ kept on ventilation

- * Continue antibiotics.
- * Chest tube can be remove after 5 days.
- * Contrast swallow at 7 days post-op.

Diaphragmatic Hernia

Embryology

Abnormality is due to developmental disturbances

- * The septum transversum form the anterior central tendon
- * The pleuroperitoneal membranes form the dorsolateral portions.
- * The oesophageal mesentery forms the dorsal crura
- * The thoracic intercostal muscle groups form the peripheral muscular portion of the diaphragm



Congenital diaphragmatic hernia

- * Occurs in 1 in 2000 - 4000 live births
- * Results from failure of closure of the pleuro-peritoneal canals
- * 95% occur through the posterior foramen of Bochdalek
- * Less than 5% occur through the anterior foramen of Morgagni
- * The bowel loops herniated through this defect into the chest, impairing lung development.

**Associated conditions seen with
Congenital Diaphragmatic hernia**

* Malrotation

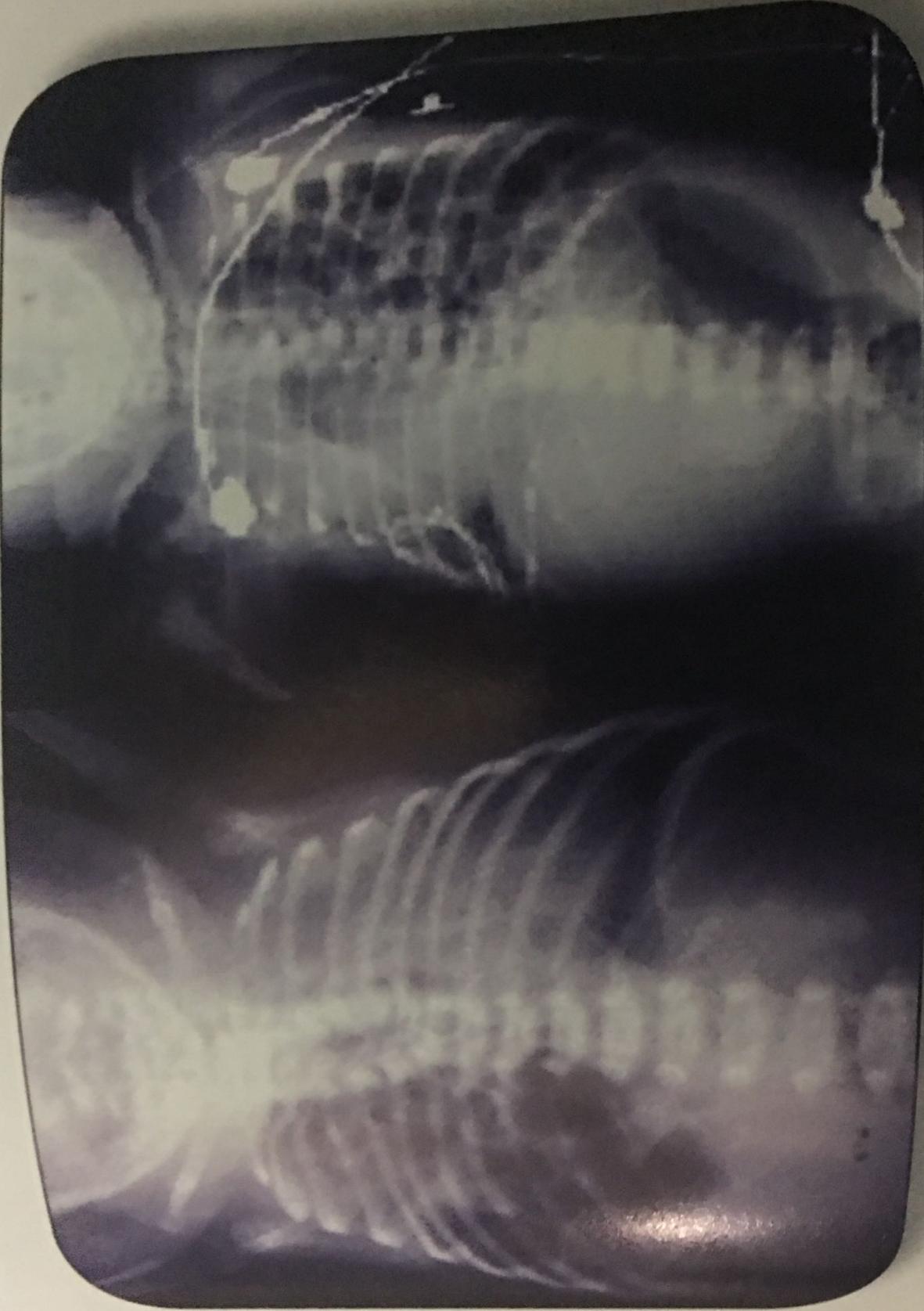
- * CNS defects (spina bifida, hydrocephalus, cerebral dysgenesis)
- * Cardiovascular defects (ASD, VSD, coarctation of aorta, TOF)
- * Chromosomal disorders (Trisomy 18 and 21)

Clinical features

- * May be diagnosed on antenatal ultrasound
- * Often presents with cyanosis and respiratory distress soon after birth
- * Prognosis is related to the time of onset and degree of respiratory impairment
- * Examination shows the abdomen is flat
- * Air entry is reduced on the affected side
- * Heart sounds are often displaced
- * Chest x-ray will confirm the presence of gastrointestinal loops in the chest
- * Occasionally presents with intestinal obstruction later in life

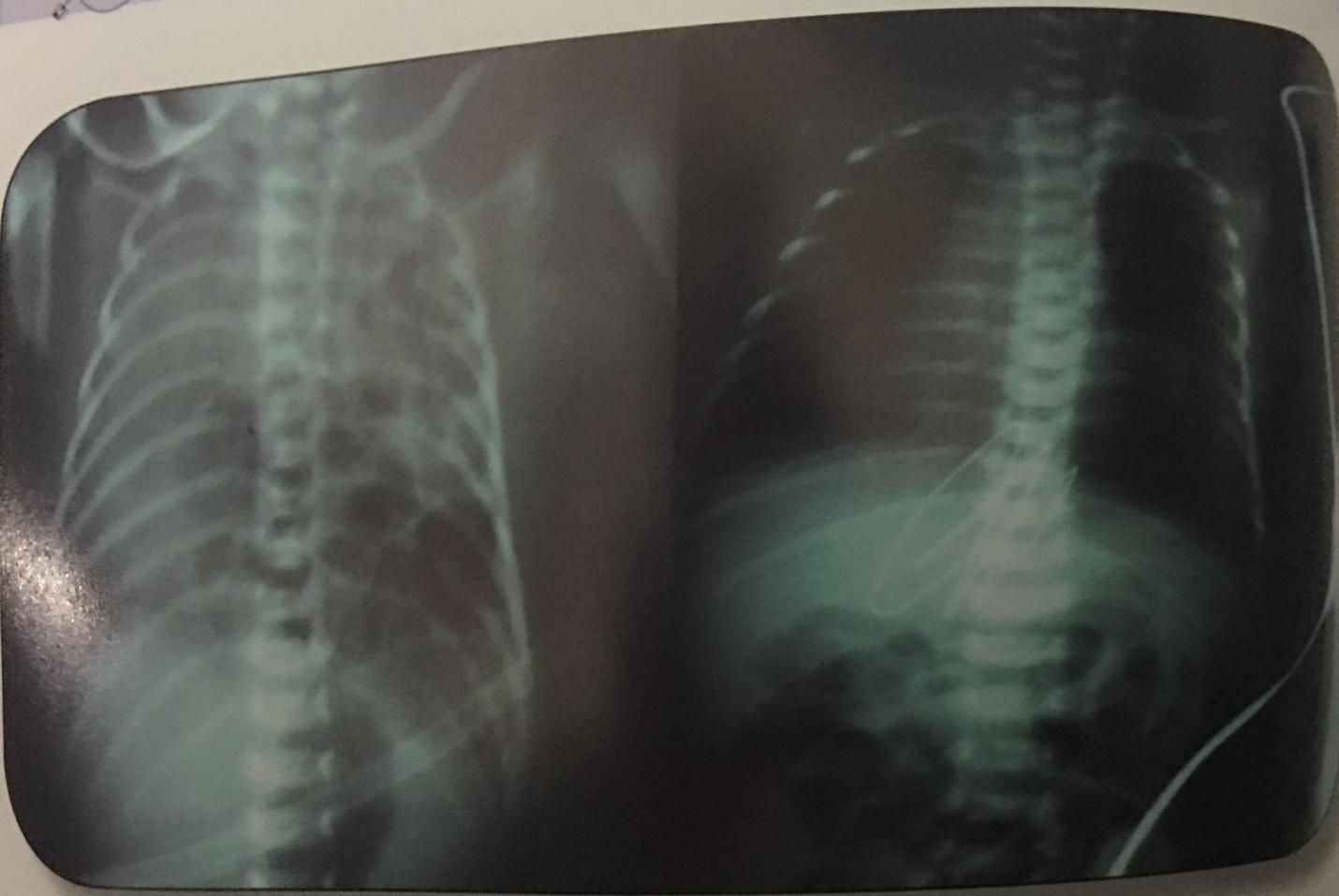
Clinical and Physical features

- * Obvious respiratory distress:
 - * Cyanosis, dyspnoea, tachypnoea
- * Vomiting may be due to:
 - * Underlying complication of malrotation
 - * Strangulated diaphragmatic hernia
 - * Morgagni type hernia
- * Decreased movement of the affected side
- * Scaphoid abdomen.
- * Shift of the apex beat.
- * Apparent dextrocardia.
- * Intestinal gurgling sound in the chest at the affected side.
- * Breath sounds are absent or diminished on affected side



RDH

LDH



Pre operative X- ray

Post operative X-ray



Preoperative baby with CDH



Post operative with sub costal scar



The congenital defects in the diaphragm

*** Incidence:**

- * 1/ 2000 – 4000 live births.
- * 8% of infants with CDH are stillborn.
- * 80% occur on left side
- * 19% on the right side
- * 1% are bilateral
- * 2% are of Morgagni type

*** Bochdalek hernia:**

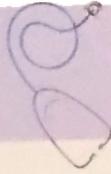
- * A posterolateral defect
- * The most common type of CDH.
- * Ranges from a small defect to almost complete agenesis.

*** Morgagni hernia:**

- * An anteromedial defect
- * Approximately 20 times less common.

*** Diaphragmatic eventration:**

- * A central weakening of the diaphragm



Management

- * Respiratory support with intubation and ventilation is usually required.
- * A nasogastric tube should be passed.
- * Gas exchange and acid-base status should be assessed.
- * Acidosis may need correction with bicarbonate infusion.
- * Surgery should be considered early after resuscitation.
- * Hernial content are usually reduced via and abdominal approach.
- * The diaphragm repaired with nonabsorbable suture or a synthetic patch if the defect is too large.
- * Early respiratory failure is associated with a poor prognosis.

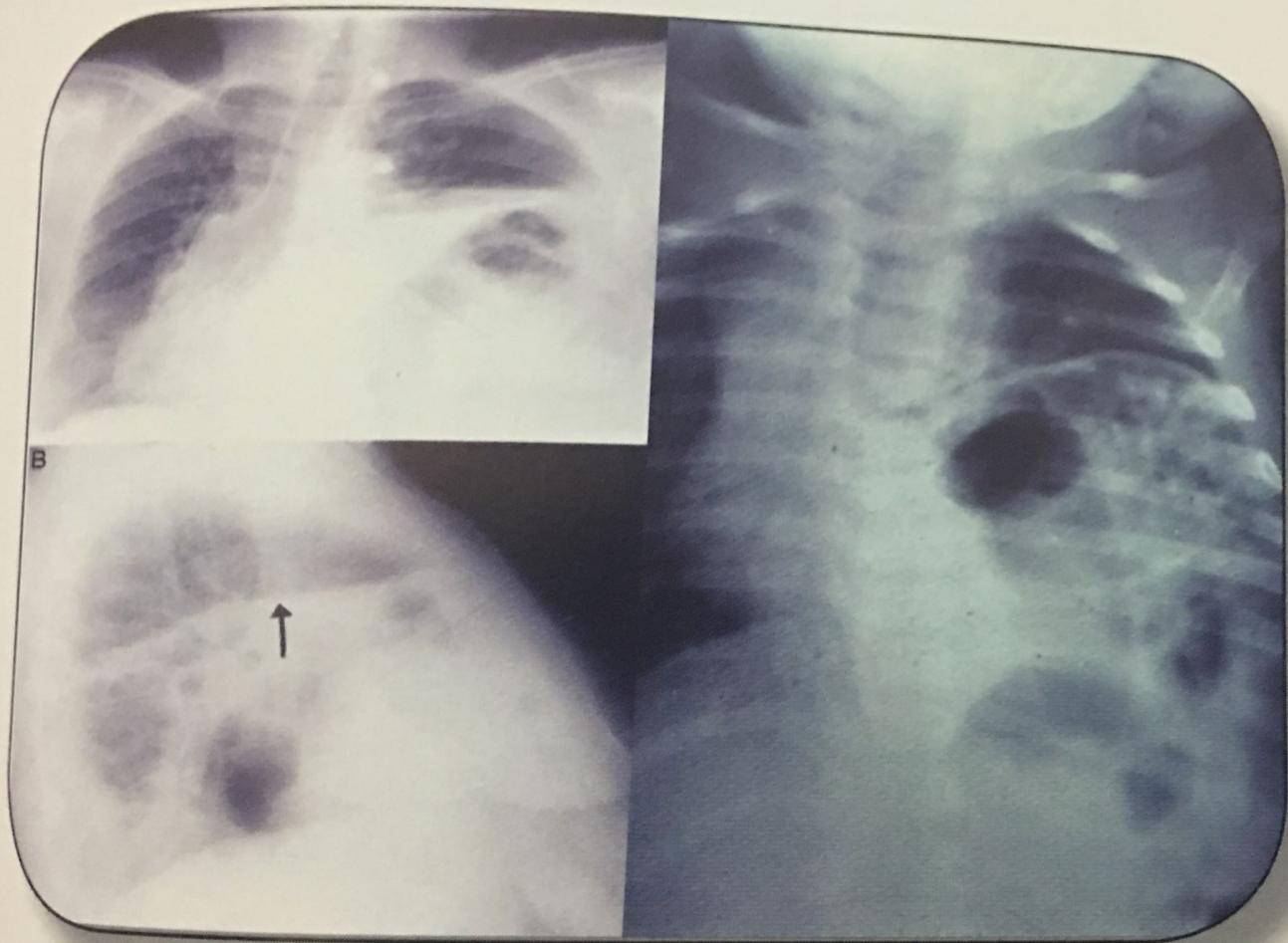
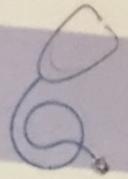
Important Notes For The Resident

Diaphragmatic Hernia

- * The earlier the presentation the poorer the prognosis.
- * Can be diagnosed antenatally.
- * Most of the cases present with respiratory distress at birth.
- * All should have large bore Ng- tube in to stomach to decompress.
- * Principle of gentle ventilation is essential.
- * Careful pre- op stabilization.
 - * Blood gases.
 - * Echocardiogram.
- * Surgery is done through a subcostal approach.
- * Reduction of the herniated bowel and repair the defect.
- * Use of synthetic sheets if the defect is large.
- * The infant should be kept paralyzed and ventilated.
- * Should be weaned in a very slowly from the ventilator.
- * The mortality is directly related to the degree of lung hypoplasia and its associated pulmonary hypertension.

Eventration of the diaphragm (Abnormal elevation of the diaphragm)

Congenital	Muscularization abnormality
Acquired	Lack of diaphragmatic innervation Secondary to phrenic nerve damage
Diagnosis	Fluoroscopy, to demonstrate the paradoxical movement of the diaphragm
Treatment	Repair is necessary if respiratory distress. When a functional deficit. To ensure maximal development of the lungs. The diaphragm to be plicated with non - absorbable sutures



Eventration of the diaphragm

Morgagni Hernia

- * The defect is through the foramen of Morgagni.
- * The defect is situated anteriorly (where the internal mammary and Epigastric vessels traverse the diaphragm.
- * Uncommon and rarely symptomatic in neonates

Presentation

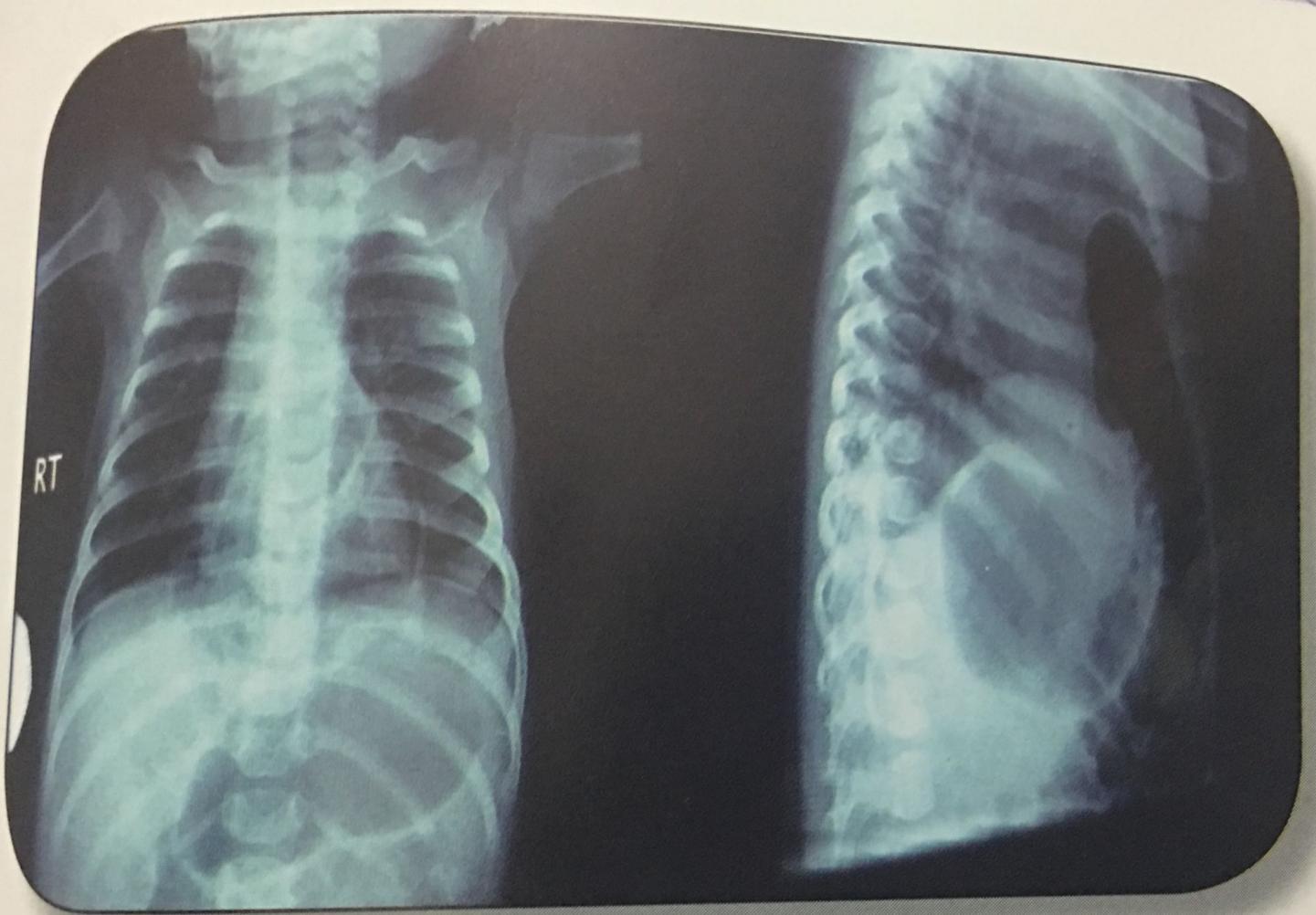
- * An incidental finding of mass or air – fluid level on chest X – ray

Symptoms

- * Episodic coughing
- * Choking
- * Vomiting

Associated anomalies

- * Ectopia cordis
- * Midline abdominal defect
- * Omphalocele
- * Pericardial defect and cardiac anomaly



AP -View

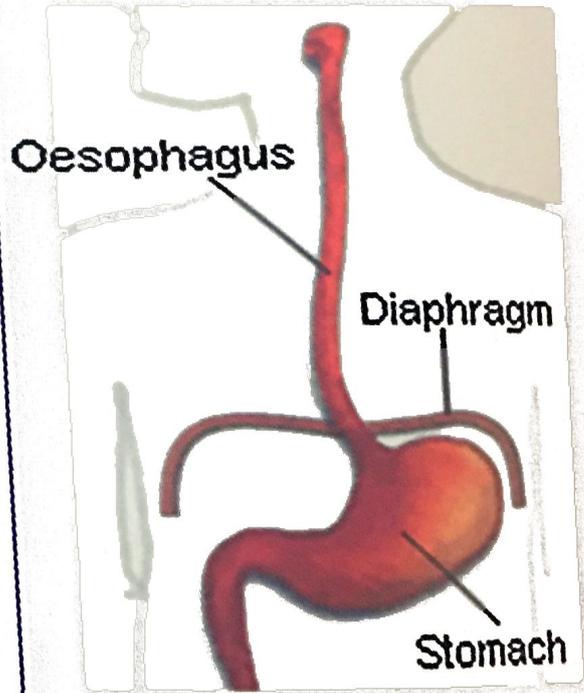
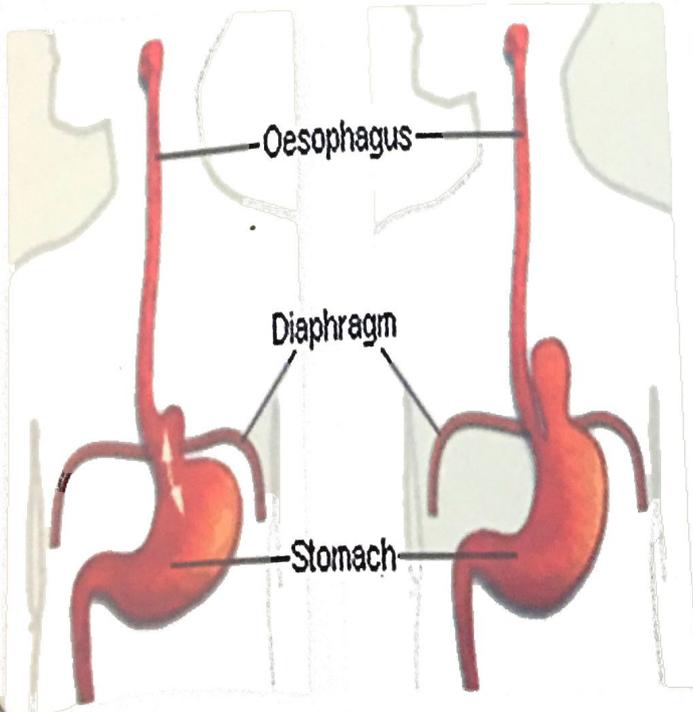
Lateral View

Morgagni Hernia X-ray

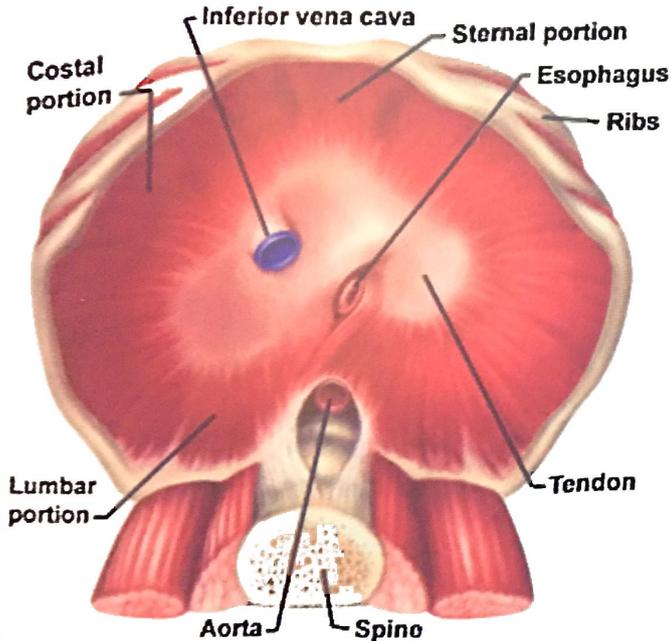
SLIDING HIATUS HERNIA

**ROLLING
(OR PARAOESOPHAGEAL)
HIATUS HERNIA**

**NORMAL OESOPHAGUS
AND STOMACH**



Hiatus Hernia: (a part of the stomach protrudes through the Oesophageal hiatus of the diaphragm in to the chest (14)



Anatomy of the Diaphragm (14)

Competence of the cardia



Depend on

- * Pinchcock – like action of the diaphragm, produced by the winding of the right crus around the oesophagus.
- * The rosette formed by the Longitudinal fold of the lower oesophageal mucosa, enhances the effect of weak muscular contraction at this point.
- * The oblique entrance of the oesophagus in to the cardia forming the acute angle of His.
- * The closing of the distal oesophagus by positive intra- abdominal pressure.



Hiatus Hernia

Sliding hernia

Clinical presentation : * Vomiting

- * gastro- oesophageal reflux
- * peptic oesophagitis
- * anaemia
- * failure to thrive
- * stricture of the oesophagus

Treatment :

* Conservative

* Surgical indication

- * failure of conservative
- * persistent oesophagitis and anaemia
- * persistent failure to thrive
- * intractable vomiting

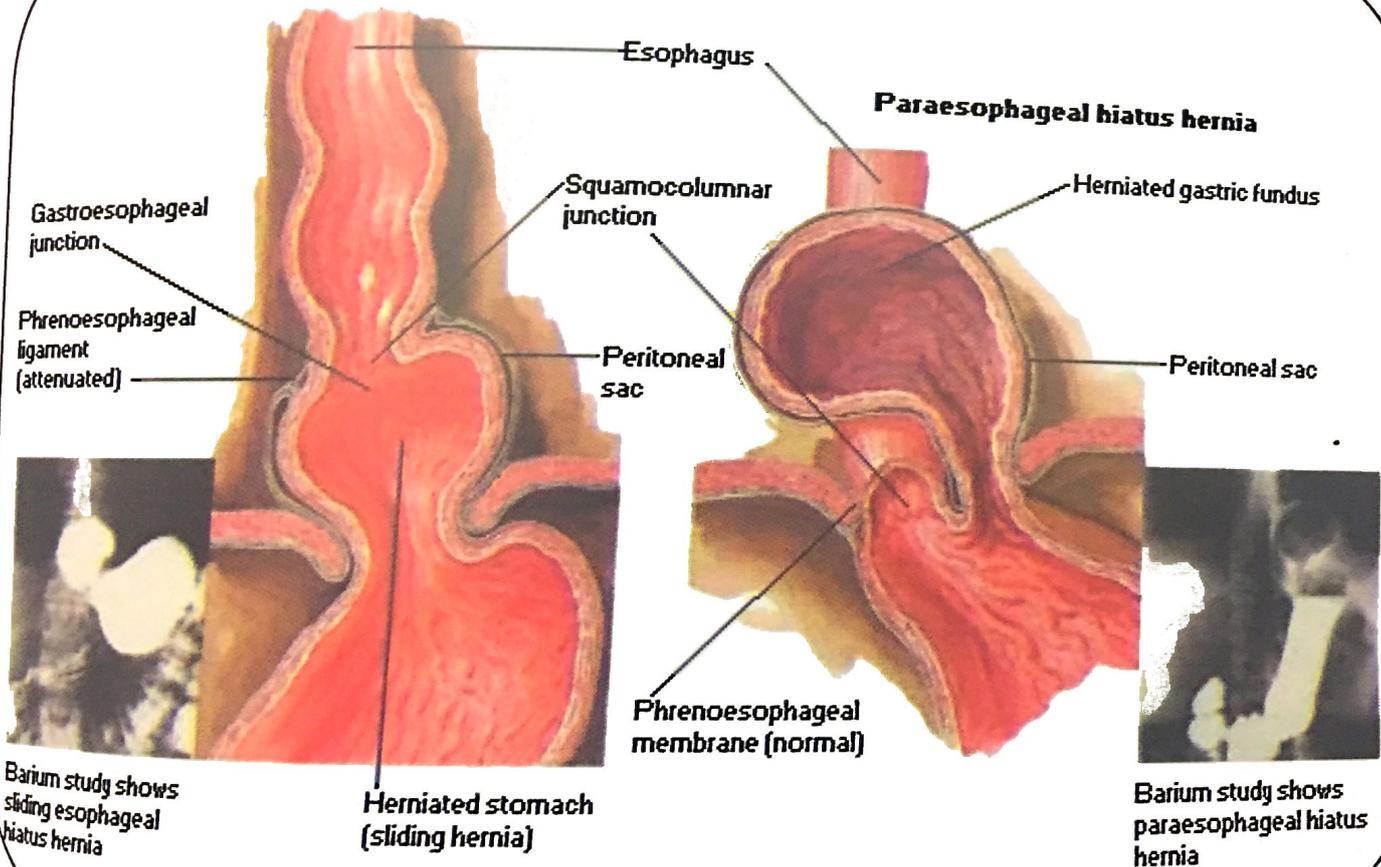
Para – oesophageal hernia

- * oesophagus is of normal length
- * stomach is herniated above the diaphragm
- * vomiting usually occurs

Surgery

- * anti – reflux procedure
- * fundoplication (Nissen fundoplication)

Sliding esophageal hiatus hernia



Barium study shows sliding esophageal hiatus hernia

Barium study shows paraesophageal hiatus hernia

Hiatus Hernia (14)

Important Notes For The Resident

Gastro-oesophageal Reflux

- * Very common.
- * Due to immature gastro-oesophageal sphincter mechanism.
- * Usually functional and improves by 12-15 months.

Diagnosis & Work-up.

- * May will have Hiatus hernia.
- * Common in cerebral palsy & in oesophageal atresia patients.
- * History of vomiting after feeds. Particularly when lying down.
- * Failure to thrive.
- * The infant can tolerate the mixed feed, but vomits the milk.
- * Required barium swallow & PH monitoring for 24 hours.

Management

- * Thickening of feeds.
 - * Sitting upright after feeds.
 - * Surgery is indicated if the conservative measures fail to respond
-

Abdominal Pain

Diagnosis	Visceral Referred	(Heart, Lungs, Spine, Hips & Testes)
Pattern	Visceral Somatic	Generalized Localized
Categories	Acute inflammation Peritonitis Strangulation	Suppuration Intestinal obstruction Intra peritoneal haemorrhage
Causes	Spasm Peritoneal inflammation Ischaemia Malignant infiltration	Distension Irritation Traction → mass attached to the intestine
Systemic	Septicaemia Heart failure Diabetes Sickle cell crises Uraemia	

Abdominal Emergency

Assessment of physical findings

- * It is of greater practical importance to establish whether pain is still present, becoming worse, or subsiding.
- * Referred tenderness: can be elicited by direct palpation over any distended or inflamed loop.
- * Localized tenderness: found in
 - * Excess flatus
 - * Overloaded colon
 - * Hyperplastic lymph nodes
 - * Acute appendicitis
 - * Strangulated gut
- * Guarding: a variable degree of involuntary increased muscle resistance, referred to local peritonitis.
- * Rigidity localized over the obstructed segment of gut indicate gangrene, or perforation, or local peritonitis.
- * Board-like rigidity often found in general peritonitis.

Abdominal Emergency

The cardinal symptoms

- * Pain.
- * Vomiting
- * Diarrhoea
- * All abdominal pain in childhood lasting 3-4 hours or more should be regarded as evidence of a potential abdominal emergency until proven otherwise.
- * Persistent vomiting should raise the possibility of a small bowel obstruction.
- * Diarrhoea lasting more than 24 hours, should suggest the possibility of a pelvic lesion.
- * In proven cases of gastro- enteritis diarrhoea does not preclude the possibility that appendicitis or intussusception may supervene.



Common abdominal emergency in children

Causes

- * Infantile hypertrophic pyloric stenosis (IHPS)
- * Intussusception.
- * Incarcerated inguinal hernia.
- * Intestinal obstruction.
- * Mesenteric lymphadenitis.
- * Acute appendicitis.
- * Urinary tract disorders.

Less common causes

- * Meckel`s diverticulitis.
- * Adhesions.
- * Constipation.
- * Gastroenteritis.

Infantile Hypertrophic Pyloric Stenosis

“IHPS” (hunger pain)

- * Hypertrophy of the circular muscle layer increases the length and the diameter of the pylorus.
- * Boys are affected four times more than girls.
- * Incidence about 3/ 1000 liveborn infants.
- * Unknown aetiology, with strong genetic predisposition.

Symptoms

- * Projectile vomiting, commenced at 2-3 weeks of age.
- * Failure to thrive, including loss of weight.
- * Constipation. (no intake) -

apetite is good

Signs

- * Visible peristaltic waves passing from Lt, to Rt.
- * A palpable tumour “Olive like mass” in the epigastrium or right upper quadrant.

(normally from right to left).

to the right of rectus sheath.

between xiphisternum and umbilicus.

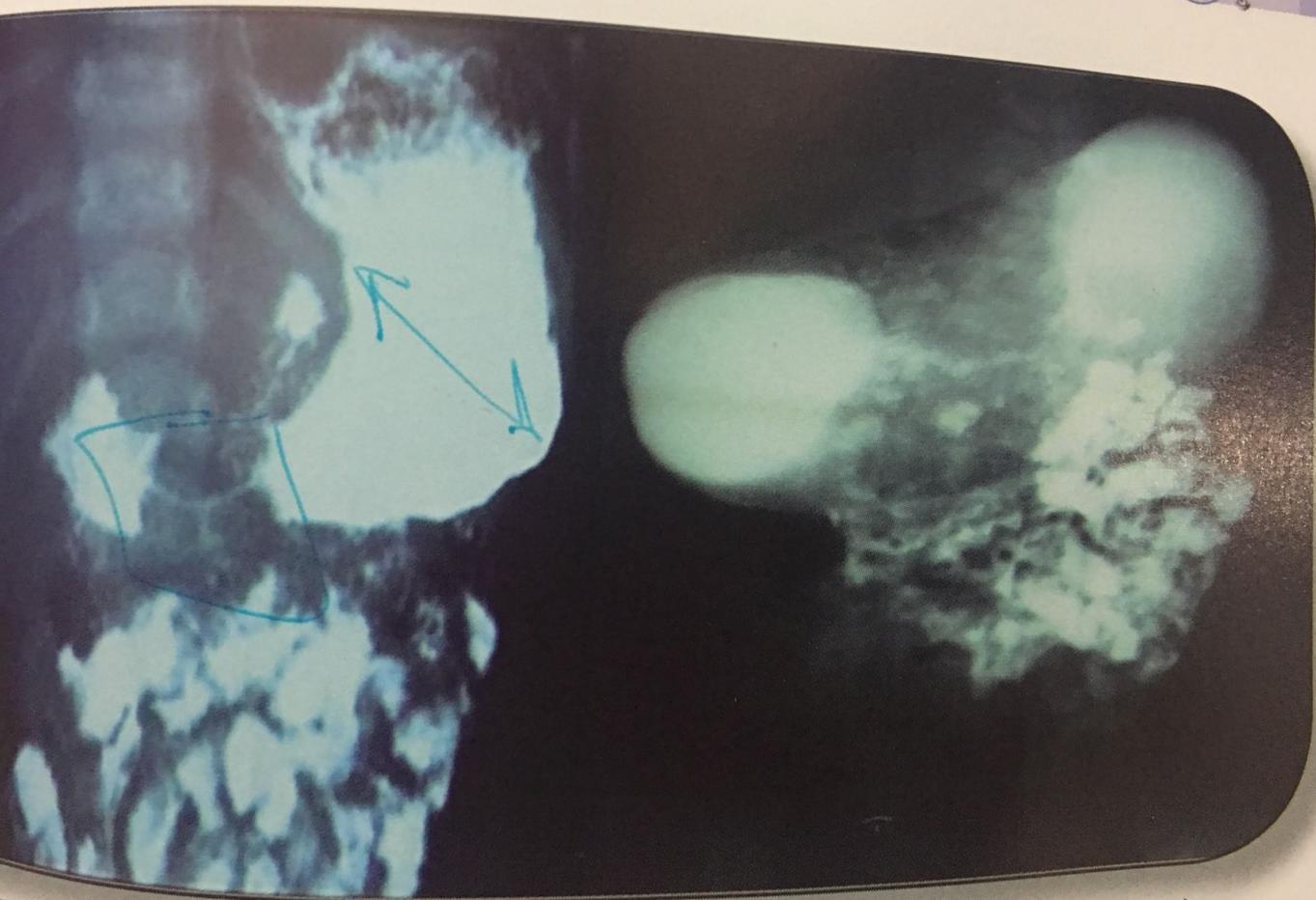
Infantile hypertrophy pyloric stenosis

Progress

- * Crying and restlessness, because of the hunger pain.
- * The ability to feed again immediately after vomiting.
- * The vomitus contains milk with some added gastric mucus and never bile-stained.
- * Coffee grounds, in the vomitus, indicate severe gastritis.
- * Hypochloraemic alkalosis, related to the length of the history.
- * When the stenosis prolonged, the baby becomes weak and dehydrated and metabolic alkalosis.

Diagnosis

- * Feeding test. (palpable mass during feeding).
- * Barium meal, (String sign, dilated stomach, delayed empty.) should be avoided with the availability of ultrasound.
- * Ultrasound. Canal length $> 16\text{mm}$.
 Muscle wall thickness $> 3\text{mm}$.



Barium meal, (String sign, dilated stomach, delayed empty.)



Thickness

length

Ultrasound, Canal length > 16mm.
Muscle wall thickness > 3mm.



Operative finding of IHPS



Pyloromyotomy (Ramstedt's Operation)



Infantile hypertrophy pyloric stenosis

Differential diagnosis

- * Mismanagement of the feeding programme.
- * Gastric outlet obstruction, (malrotation).
- * Gastro-oesophageal reflux.
- * Intracranial condition, (cerebral birth injuries, meningitis).
- * Infections, (septicæmia).

Treatment

- * Fluid and electrolyte disturbances must be corrected.
- * Correct the dehydration.
- * Discontinued oral feeding.
- * Stomach emptied by nasogastric tube.

Surgery

- * Ramstedt's pyloromyotomy, (serosal incision, pyloric muscle widely separated down to submucosa, intact bulging mucosa)



Important Notes For The Resident

Infantile Hypertrophic Pyloric Stenosis

- * Diagnosis & Work-up.
- * History. Clinical examination and feeding test.
- * Ultrasound (for pyloric muscle thickness & canal length).
- * Get the necessary labs and blood gas.

Pre-op.

- * Resuscitate with N/saline & D5% with added KCL.
- * The infant is well hydrated and U&E and blood gases within normal.

Post-op. care.

- * N/gastric tube.
- * Need I.V. fluids .
- * Pyloric regimen.

Intussusception

→ weaning theory
→

- * The invagination of one portion of the intestine into an adjacent segment,
- * Compression of the mesenteric vessels causes a strangulation may progress to gangrene and perforation.
- * Classified according to the site of the inner intussusceptum and outer intussusciens.
- * More than 80% are ileocolic.
- * Boys are more often affected than girls.

Intussusception

Causes

Primary (unknown)

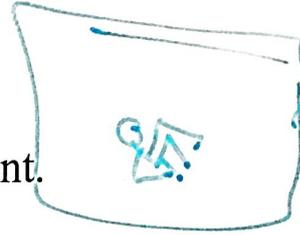
- * Peak incidence is between 5 to 10 months of age.
- * 80% under the age of two years.
- * Peyer's patches, a lymphoid tissue in the distal ileum may be oedematous as the result of virus infection (Resp. & Git. Infection).
- * Weaning may lead to a change in the bowel flora, which produce oedematous peyer's patches.

Secondary

- * 2% of children, secondary to a pathological lead point.
- * More in older children, over the age of 2 years.
- * Such as :
 - * Meckel's diverticulum.
 - * Enteric duplication cyst, sub mucosal cyst.
 - * Mucosal polyp.
 - * Bowel malignancy (Lymphoma)

or peutz-jegher

Intussusception



Symptoms

- * Distressing colicky pain in a previously healthy infant.
- * The pain lasting 2-3 minutes.
- * During the attacks of pain, draws up his knees, relaxing as the spasm eases.
- * Spasm occur in interval of 15 – 20 minutes.
- * Between episodes, the infant appears well.
- * Later vomiting (milk then bile). becomes pale, exhausted and drowsy.
- * Pass a “redcurrant jelly” stool.

Signs

- * Observing the spasm of the pain.
- * Palpable sausage – shaped mass, anywhere around umbilical.
- * Rectal examination reveal blood or feeling the apex .



Intussusception

Diagnosis

- * Plain x-ray shows signs of small bowel obstruction and soft tissue opacity.
- * Confirmed by contrast barium enema, diagnostic (meniscus, coiled-spring) signs.
- * Abdominal ultrasound, showing a mass, diagnostic (kidney – like mass and target) signs.

Management

- * Non- operative reduction.(hydrostatic or pneumatic reduction).
- * Using a barium enema or air at controlled pressure.
- * Reduction monitored by fluoroscopy.
- * Successful reduction can be accepted only if.
 - * Free reflux of barium or air into the small bowel.
 - * Resolution of the symptoms and signs
 - * Disappearance of the abdominal mass by clinical examination and by ultrasound evaluation.



Ultrasound
(Target sign)

Barium enema shows
(Coiled-spring sign)

Intussusception



Intussusception

- * 70% of intussusception can be reduced non-operatively.
- * Recurrent intussusception occurs in up to 10% of cases after non-operative reduction.

Contraindication of the non-operative reduction

- * Signs of peritonitis or perforation.
- * Known pathological lead point.
- * In the presence of shock.

Surgical Treatment

- * If non-operative reduction is contraindicated.
- * In unsuccessful non-operative reduction.
- * If a pathological lead point is suspected.
- * In cases of recurrence after reduction.

Resection and anastomosis

- * Non-viability of the segment.
- * Irreducible intussusception.
- * Presence of a pathological lead point.

Important Notes For The Resident

Intussusception

- * Commonest among plump infants between the age of 4-12 months.
- * A history of upper respiratory tract infection or gastroenteritis.
- * Intermittent colics, and drawing up of the legs.
- * Recurrent vomiting.
- * Bloody mucoid stool (red currant jelly).
- * Baby may become dehydrated and appear acutely ill.

Diagnosis

- * Barium enema.
- * Ultrasound.(Kidney-like mass, Target-like sign).

Management

- * Hydrostatic reduction.
- * Pneumatic reduction.
- * Surgical operation.

Acute appendicitis

- * the commonest abdominal emergency in children.

Pathology

- * Obstructed
 - * by fecolith, parasites or foreign body in the lumen.
 - * Lymphoid tissue, or tumour as obstructed lesion.
- * Non-obstructed: by direct infection from the lumen, or haematogenous.

Course

- * Acute inflamed appendix may resolve.
- * May undergoes gangrene, and perforation.
- * Present as general peritonitis.
- * Formation as localize mass or abscess.

Suspected appendicitis

- * Local tenderness in the RIF.
- * Local peritonitis in the RIF.
- * Generalized peritonitis.
- * Inflammatory mass.
- * Intestinal obstruction.
- * Gastro-enteritis.

Acute appendicitis

Clinical feature

Pain: Typically central, peri-umbilical, which shifts after few hours to RIF, or to the site of the inflamed appendix (pelvic, retrocecal, and retro-ileal).

- * Nausea, vomiting, constipation and diarrhea may occur.
- * Acute appendicitis can coexist with pneumonia, tonsillitis, or generalized lymphadenopathy.
- * Gastroenteritis may occur co-incident with acute appendicitis.

Examination

- * **Pyrexia &** tachycardia suggested an infective cause.
- * The child is reluctant to move or cough that may aggravate the pain.
- * Localised tenderness at RIF,* Muscle irritation (psoas,or obturator sign).
- * Release tenderness, (Rovsing`s sign, Rebound tenderness).
- * Muscle guarding and rigidity over the site of the inflamed appendix.
- * Active observation and repeating abdominal examination, prevents many unnecessary explorations.
- * Rectal examination can be diagnostic.

Acute appendicitis

Investigation

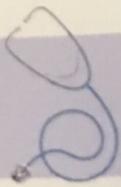
- * Blood count: neutrophil leucocytosis.
- * Abdominal x-ray may show abnormal bowel dilatation, faecolith calcification.
- * Ultrasound: noncompressable tubular mass, free peritoneal fluid, mesenteric thickening, target sign, appendicular mass or frank abscess.
- * CT scanning : selectively used.

Differential diagnosis

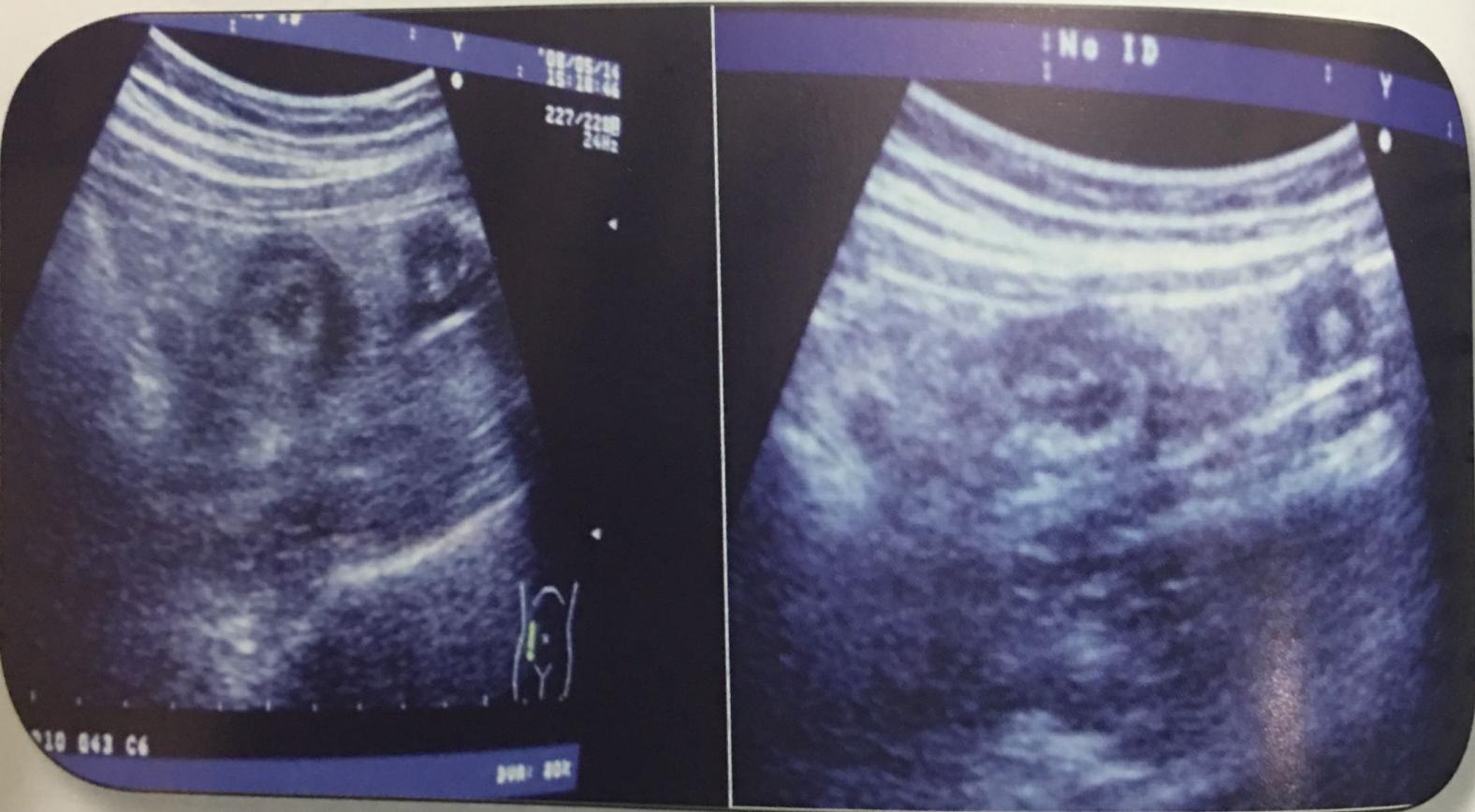
- * Severe non-specific mesenteric lymph adenitis.
- * Primary peritonitis.
- * Meckel`s diverticulitis.
- * Ruptured ovarian cyst in female.
- * Torsion of an ovarian cyst or ovary in female.
- * Torsion of the omentum.
- * Suppurating deep iliac lymph nodes.



Appendicular fecolith as radio-opaque shadow shown outside the course of the ureter. Positively seen at the appendicular specimen.



Paediatric and Neonate Surgery



Target Sign

Localise the fecolith

(Ultrasound for Appendicitis)

Mesenteric lymph adenitis

- ‡ Abdominal pain and fever with upper respiratory tract infection.
- ‡ Abdominal tenderness either centrally or in the RIF.
(shifting tenderness).
- ‡ No sign of localized peritonitis, absence of rigidity.
- ‡ The condition is self limiting, only by symptomatic treatment.
- ‡ The most troublesome condition is the difficulty in distinguishing from acute appendicitis.
- ‡ In severe adenitis in which the distinction can not be made, the only safe course is to explore the appendix.

Important Notes For The Resident

Appendicitis

- * Commonest emergency in paediatric surgery.
- * Periumbilical pain shifting to RIF.
- * Colicky at first changing to continuous pain.
- * Vomiting generally after the pain.
- * Having diarrhea in up to 10% of cases.
- * Examine the throat for tonsillitis or pharyngitis.
- * Localized tenderness at RLQ.
- * Leucocytosis in the CBC lab test.

Plain abdominal x-ray.

- * Might show signs of localized peritonitis(dilated fixed loops).
- * Might shows a calcified fecolith.

Ultrasound.

- * Interloop collection of peritoneal fluid.
- * Non compressable tubular mass with a diameter of 6mm, or more.
- * Frank abscess indicate complicated appendicitis.
- * Appendicular mass.



Important Notes For The Resident

- ‡ It is important to realize that acute appendicitis can coexist with other conditions, so that the finding of pneumonia, tonsillitis or generalized lymphadenopathy should not divert attention from any abdominal signs which may also be present.
- ‡ It is important that any gastroenteritis may occur coincident with intussusception or with acute appendicitis so that even a well-established and undoubted diagnosis of gastroenteritis should be subject to review.
- ‡ When any doubt arises in distinguishing gastroenteritis from an intussusception, early recourse to a diagnostic ultrasound or barium enema is essential.
- ‡ Most cases of intestinal obstruction in older children are due to band or adhesions following a previous abdominal operation, most commonly appendicectomy.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Clinical types

- 1- Ano-rectal bleeding.
- 2- Haemorrhage accompanied by other clinical features.
- 3- Haemorrhage in the neonatal period.
- 4- Massive haematemesis or melaena.

Diagnosis; depends on:

- * The age of the patient.
- * The type and quantity of bleeding.
- * The associated symptoms.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

- * Large or small amount of bleeding, from either end of the GI tract.
- * Small haemorrhage is one of 20ml. or less.
- * Large haemorrhage is one exceeding 200ml.

Ano-Rectal Bleeding

- * Passage of a small volume of blood.
- * Most often in the anal canal.
- * Less common in the rectum.
- * Infrequently in the colon.
- * Blood may pass rapidly through the tract from as high as the small bowel, duodenum, stomach and oesophagus.
- * Precise information as to whether the blood was in streaks on the outside of the stool or mixed.
- * Inspection and digital examination to evaluate the diagnosis.

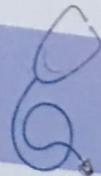
Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Ano-Rectal Bleeding Common Causes

- * Anal fissure.
- * Juvenile polyp.
- * Rectal prolapse
- * Meckel`s diverticulum

Rare Causes

- * Familial polyposis.
- * Haemangiomas.
- * Ulcerative colitis.
- * Multiple polyposis.
- * Malignancy.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Ano-Rectal Bleeding

Types:

- * Fresh blood, the pathology between the anal margin and the lower sigmoid colon.
- * Blood clots or cherry red blood, indicate colonic bleeding.
- * Melaena or altered blood, due to haemorrhage from the GI. tract between the oesophagus and the small bowel.
- * Occult bleeding, Means positive haemoccult stool with recurrent anaemia.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Common Causes

	Newborn	1M-1Yr	1-2Yr	>2Yr
*Upper GI tract	* Hemorrhagic disease * Swallowed maternal blood	* Esophagitis * Gastritis	Peptic ulcer disease	Varices
*Lower GI tract	* Anal fissure * Necrotizing enterocolitis	* Anal fissure (constipation) * Intussusception	* Polyps * Meckel's diverticulum	* Polyps * Inflammatory bowel disease

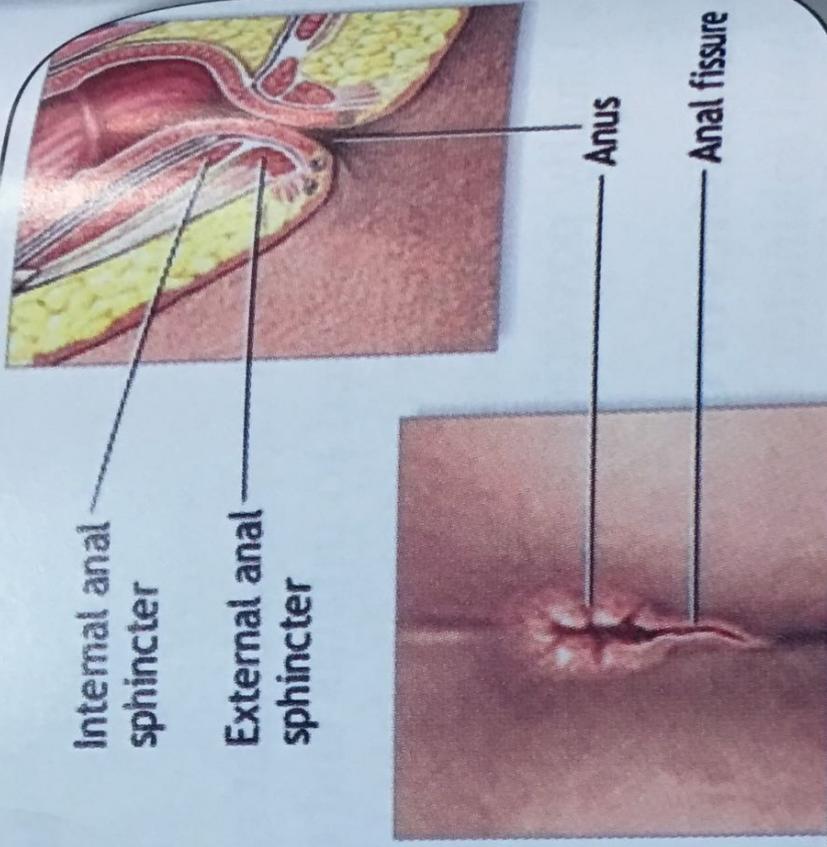
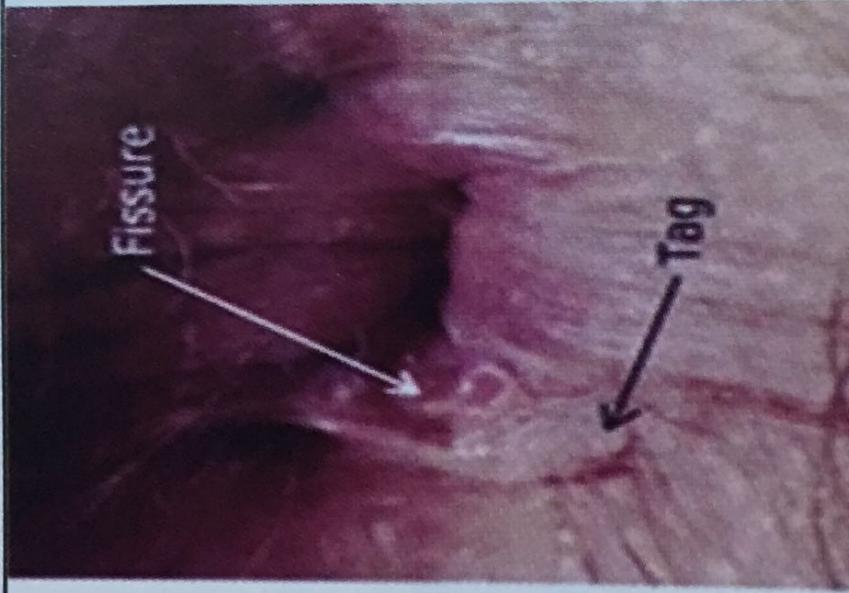
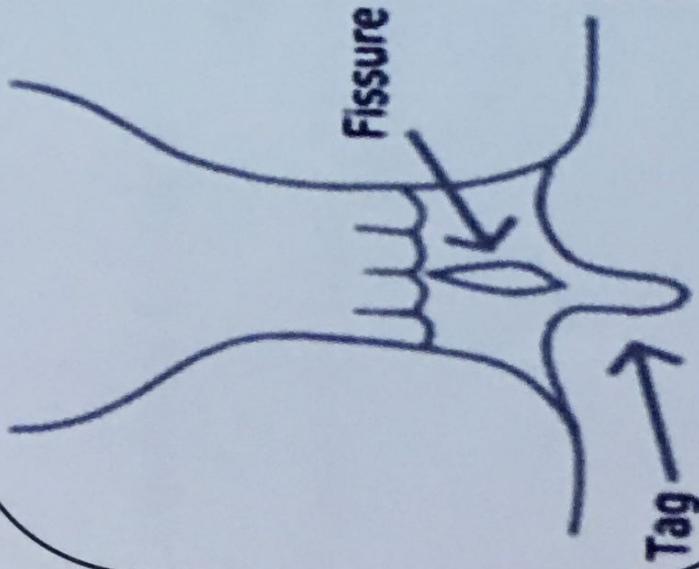
Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Anal Fissures

- * Most common cause of bright red blood in 1-10 year old.
- * Almost confined to infants and toddlers.
- * Few streaks or drops of bright blood on the surface of the stool.
- * Painful defecation (crying on passing motion).
- * Usually posterior position (midline).

Characteristics of chronic fissures

- * Anal sphincter hypertrophy.
- * Chronic ulceration.
- * Sentinel skin tag.
- * Anal papilla.



Anal Fissure (14)

Gastro-Intestinal Bleedin In Children

Anal Fissures

Treatment

- * Must be directed to the underlying constipation.
- * In persistent lateral anal fissures, should rule out,
 - ~* Immuno – deficiency.
 - ~* Inflammatory bowel disease.

Acute fissure

- * Stool softeners.
- * Sitz baths.
- * Gentle dilation.

Chronic fissure

Measures to reduce sphincter tone.

- * Botulinum toxin (Botox).
- * Sphincterotomy.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Common types of polyps

- * Juvenile polyps 80%
- * Lymphoid polyps 15%.
- * Adenomatous polyps 3%.

Juvenile polyps

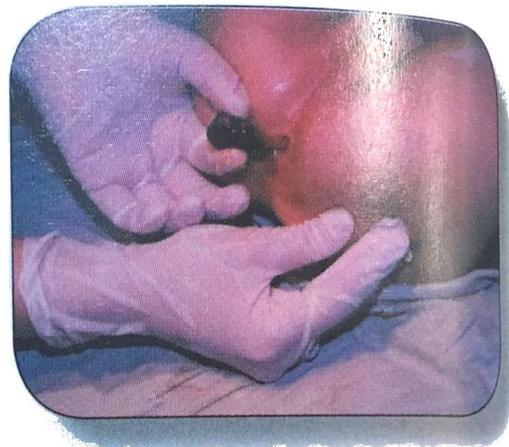
- * Hamartomatous tissue
- * Not premalignant

Presentation

- * Rectal bleeding 93%, bright bleeding , painless & intermittent
- * Blood streaked faeces, at the end of defaecation.

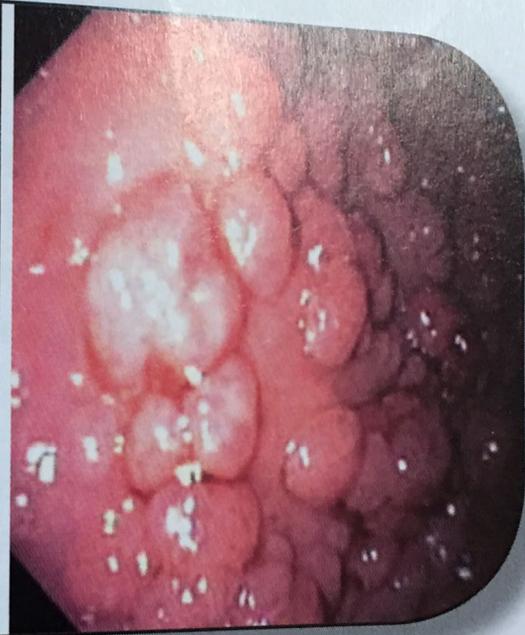
Adenomatous polyps

- * Dysplastic growth.
- * Premalignant.





Juvenile polyp prolapse



Multiple polyposis syndrome



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Multiple polyposis syndrome

- * More than 5 polyps with out family history of polyposis syndrome.
- * Any number of polyps with family history of polyposis syndrome.
- * Familial polyposis coli (multiple adenomatous polyps)
- * carry high risk of malignancy during adult life.

Peutz – Jeghers syndrome

- * Presence of pigmented freckles on the mucocutaneous margins of the lips and the anus.
- * Polyps are found anywhere in the gastro-intestinal tract.
- * Most common in the jejunum.
- * Presented as massive bleeding, or intussusception.
- * The cumulative risk of cancer approaches 70% by age 60.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Rectal prolapse

Predisposing factors

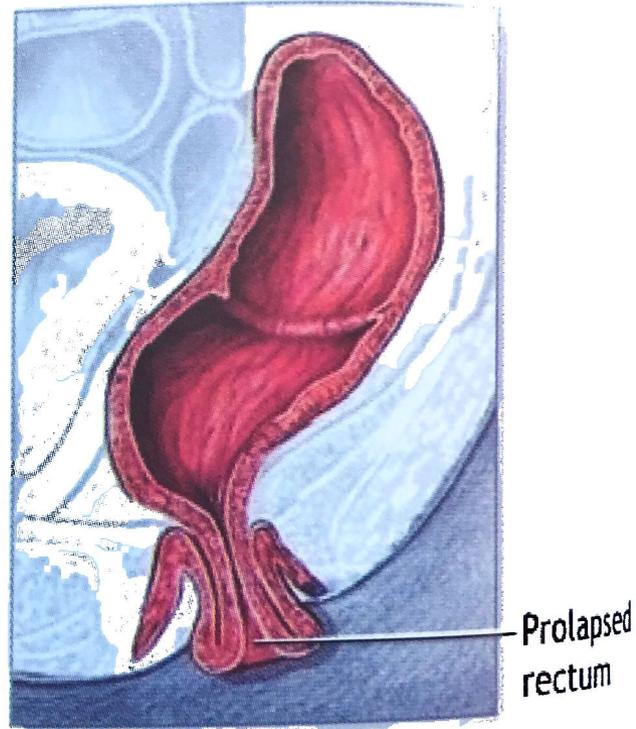
- 1- Straining at stool by a child with constipation.
- 2- Frequent diarrhoea as a part of:
 - * Malabsorption syndrome.
 - * Associated with cystic fibrosis.
 - * Associated coeliac disease.
- 3- Healthy hyperkinetic child because the act, of ill training by prolong the attempts to defecate producing excessive straining with out constipation.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Rectal prolapse

Organic causes

- 1- Paralysis of anal sphincters in myelomeningocele or sacral agenesis.
- 2- Marasmic, undernourished, hypotonic infant.
- 3- Ectopic vesicae, due to separation of symphysis pubic and divarication of pubo-rectalis muscle.
- 4- Can be the presenting sign of cystic fibrosis.





Thiersch operation



Rectal Prolapse

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

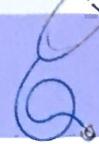
Rectal prolapse

Clinical features

- * The incidence peaks at age 1-3 years.
- * The prolapse rolls out painlessly only during defecation.
- * Usually returns spontaneously.
- * Manual replacement is infrequently required.
- * The prolapsed mucosa, causes bleeding.

Differential diagnosis

- 1- Rectal polyps may prolapse.
- 2- The apex of an intussusception.
- 3- External haemorrhoids.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Rectal prolapse

Treatment

Treating the underlying cause allows conservative management to be successful.

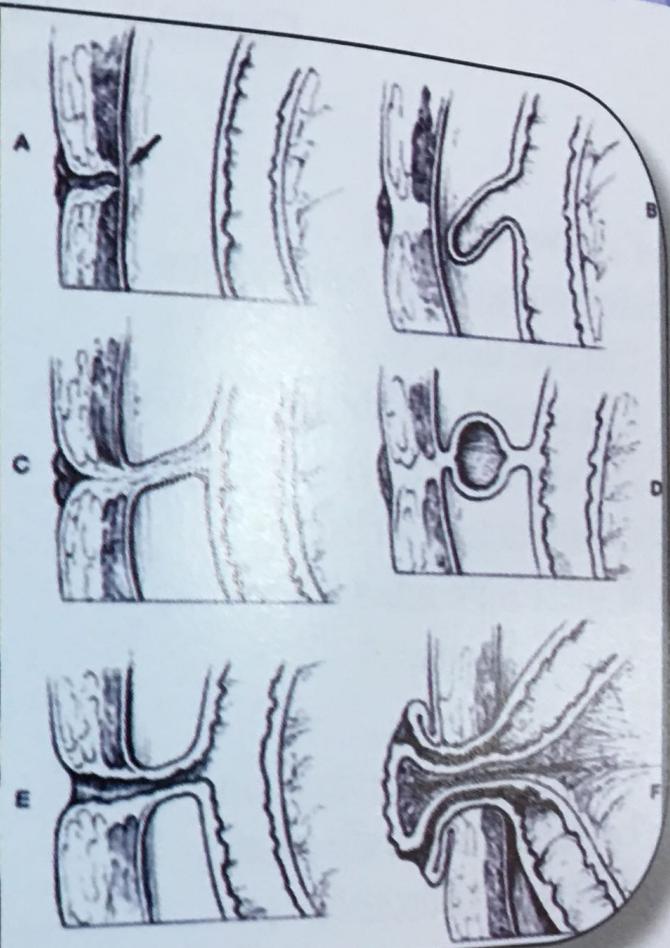
- 1- The stool : Treat the constipation or the malabsorption.
- 2- The seat : Avoid squatting position- (stretching the anal sphincters should be avoided)
- 3- Sedation : Small doses, helpful in toilet training.
- 4- Strapping : Transverse strip to the buttocks.
- 5- Surgical management is usually reserved for failed conservative management and in cases of complicated rectal prolapse (eg, recurrent rectal prolapsed that requires manual reduction, painful prolapse, ulceration, and rectal bleeding).
Surgery by using non- absorbable suture in subcutaneous tissue around the anus (Thiersch operation).



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Meckel's diverticulum

- * It is true diverticulum contains all intestinal layers.
- * Omphalomesenteric (vitelline) duct connects the primitive gut to the yolk sac.
- * Failed regression of the vitelline duct results in various pathological anomalies such as :
 - * Meckel's diverticulum.
 - * Umbilical polyps.
 - * Umbilical fistula.
 - * Umbilical sinus.
 - * Umbilical cyst.
 - * Persistent fibrous band.



Meckel's diverticulum

various anomalies (14)



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Meckel's diverticulum

Associated congenital anomalies

- 1- Cardiac defects.
- 2- Congenital diaphragmatic hernia.
- 3- Duodenal atresia.
- 4- Oesophageal atresia.
- 5- Imperforate anus.
- 6- Gastroschisis.
- 7- Malrotation.
- 8- Omphalocele.
- 9- Hirschsprung's disease.
- 10- Down's syndrome.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Meckel's diverticulum

Rule of 2×7

- * Incidence 2% of the population.
- * Located 2 feet of the ileo-cecal valve.
- * 2 centimeters in diameter.
- * 2 inches in length.
- * 2 times more common in males.
- * Symptomatic before age of 2 years.
- * Contains 2 types of heterotopic tissue, (gastric and pancreatic).

gastric mucosa more common.

- * 10% asymptomatic patients.
- * 50% symptomatic patients.



Meckel's diverticulum Scan -TC99m.
Positive uptake

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding

Meckel's diverticulum

Symptoms related to the pathology with specific age groups.

- * Abdominal pain.
- * Vomiting.
- * Abdominal distention.

Due to :

- * Intestinal obstruction.
- * Intussusception.

Older Infants & Younger Children

- * Painless lower gastro-intestinal bleeding.

Older Children

- * Presented as inflammation diverticulitis like appendicitis.



Meckel's diverticulum



Perforated diverticulum

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Meckel's diverticulum

Treatment

- * Diverticulectomy(wedge resection) with transverse closure of the ileum to maintain luminal patency.
- * Small bowel resection with end to end anastomosis.
- * Incidental appendectomy.

Asymptomatic Meckel's

- * Resection of the incidental meckel's is indicated in children less than 8 years. Because the greater risk of complications.
- * Resection is indicated in patients of any age who have a Meckel's diverticulum containing heterotopic tissue.



Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Haemorrhage in the neonatal period

- 1- Haemorrhagic disease of the newborn. (vit. K def).
(hypoprothrombinaemia and thrombocytopenia)
- 2- Vomiting altered blood (coffee grounds).
 - ✓* Infantile hypertrophic pyloric stenosis.
 - ✓* Gastro-oesophageal reflux, (peptic oesophagitis).
- 3- Ingestion of blood from the birth canal(maternal blood) or ingestion of blood from cracked nipple.
- 4- Dark blood mixed with mucus due to strangulation of the bowel in volvulus neonatorum.
- 5- Rectal bleeding in case of necrotizing enterocolitis.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Haemorrhage accompanied by other clinical features

1- Intussusception.

- * rectal bleeding (red currant jelly).

2- Ulcerative colitis.

- * bloody diarrhoea with mucus.
- * anaemia and weight loss.

3- Bleeding in gastro-enteritis.

- * bloody diarrhoea with dehydration.

4- Familial polyposis.

- * rectal bleeding with anaemia.
- * positive family history
- * muco-cutaneous pigmentation.

Gastro-Intestinal Bleeding In Children

Massive haemorrhage (haematemesis or melaena)

- * Haematemesis from oesophageal varices in portal hypertension.
- * Haemorrhage from a peptic ulcer in Meckel's diverticulum.
- * Necrotizing enterocolitis, present with rectal bleeding with diarrhoea and abdominal distension.
- * Stress ulcer of the duodenum.
as complication of :
 - * burns.
 - * intracranial lesions.
 - * severe toxic infections.



Important Notes For The Resident

- * Special investigation, Barium enema, Proctoscopy or Sigmoidoscopy present difficulties in children.
- * Even the air contrast barium enema, may fail to disclose the common simple juvenile polyp.
- * Ulcerative colitis and multiple polyposis are the only conditions likely to be revealed by a barium enema.
- * General anesthesia is necessary in children for sigmoidoscopy or colonoscopy.
- * The most common presentation of symptomatic Meckel's diverticulum is bleeding.
- * Some cases of Meckel's diverticula are discovered incidentally during surgery for some other disorder.
- * The cumulative risk of cancer in patients with Peutz-Jeghers syndrome approaches 70% by age of 60 years.
An aggressive screening and biopsy program should be undertaken, including annual exam with complete blood count, and abdominal and pelvic ultrasound.



Inguino – Scrotal Anomalies

Embryology

- * The testis is formed in a longitudinal fold high on the posterior abdominal wall at a similar level to the developing kidneys.
- * The testis migrates down the posterior wall towards the deep inguinal ring.
- * The gubernaculum, a condensation of mesenchyme, guides the testis through the layers of the body wall towards the scrotum.
- * The processus vaginalis, a tongue of the peritoneal cavity moved with the migrating testis through the canal.
- * This peritoneal communication, should obliterate and disappear, after birth.

The Groin and Scrotum

Look

- * Always examine the groin on both side and the scrotum.
- * Look for normal scrotal development.
- * Look for a lump and a cough impulse.
- * Look for redness, sinuses or scars.

Feel

- * Examine both testes, epididymi, and cords.
- * Tenderness and induration.
- * Palpate for cough impulse.
- * Can you get above it.
- * Can you feel the testis separate to it.
- * Consistency and transillumination.
- * Relation to the testis (above, below or within).
- * Does it move separately or with the testis.
- * Digital rectal examination.



Complete Right Inguino- Scrotal Hernia



Left Inguino - Scrotal Hernia

Inguinal hernia

- * Lack of obliteration of processus vaginalis accounts for several clinical conditions.
- * Scrotal hernia, completely patent tunica vaginalis.
- * Funicular sac (incomplete), an obliterated segment which intervenes between the sac and the tunica.
- * Bubonocoele sac does not extend beyond the external ring .
- * Hydrocele, collection of fluid, and trickles down a narrow tortuous processus and collects in the tunica, (Flap valve).
- * Encysted hydrocele of the cord, the fluid collects in a loculus of the processus at some point along its course in the spermatic cord.
this loculus usually retains its communication with peritoneum.
- * Combined abnormalities, proximal hernial sac communicating through a narrow track with a distal hydrocele.
- * In girls, the canal of Nuck undergoes the same obliteration of the Processus vaginalis in boys.
- * Very low incidence of intersex problems in girls with inguinal hernia.



Hydrocele

Primary

90% communicate via a patent processus with the peritoneum.

Clinical Painless cyst containing fluid

Transilluminate.

Can get above it, Irreducible

No impulse on coughing, crying or straining.

In Infants

- * Unilateral or bilateral
- * Strong tendency to close and absorb spontaneously. 90%
- * Virtually all will have disappeared by the age of 1 year.

In Older children

- * Diurnal variation in its size.
- * Narrow, tortuous communication with the peritoneal cavity.
- * Rarely disappear spontaneously.
- * Required high ligation of the communicating track.

Secondary due to: Torsion, Infection, and Trauma



Bilateral hernia in infant

Primary Hydrocele



Inguinal hernia

Diagnosis

- * Painless swelling in the inguinal region.
- * Positive impulse on crying, straining or coughing.
- * If no obvious hernial sac (Silk glove sign) sensation of rubbing two pieces of peritoneum indicates thick cord.

Differential diagnosis

- * Hydrocele.
- * Retractable testis.
- * Undescended testis (at SIP).
- * Inguinal lymph nodes.

Inguinal hernia

- * Infantile hernia occur in about 1-2% of births.
- * Incidence 1/ 50 live male births.
- * Inguinal hernia in infants need early referral for surgery because of the high incidence of complications.
- * Almost one third of premature infants weighing less than 1000 g, will develop a hernia, the risk of incarceration very high during the first six month of life.
- * High familial incidence.
- * High incidence in boys.
- * 60% on the right side.
- * 30% on the left side.
- * 10% bilateral.

Content

- * Loops of small bowel
- * Omentum
- * Ovary in girls or fallopian tube.



Obstructed Inguinal Hernia

- * A loop of small bowel becomes trapped in the hernial sac.
- * The obstruction in the sac is almost always at the level of the external ring.
- * Obstructed hernias are usually seen in infant under six months of age.

Clinical

- * The infant cries lustily.
- * Swelling in the groin.
- * Tense, tender extends to the external inguinal ring.
- * No impulse on crying.
- * Progressing to generalize abdominal pain, vomiting and abdominal distension.
- * Intestinal obstruction established later.



Strangulated Inguinal Hernia

U/S for strangulated hernia shows entrapped bowel loops



On exploration shows the strangulated loop of bowel & black testis

Strangulated Inguinal Hernia

Differential diagnosis

- * Encysted hydrocele of the cord.
- * Torsion of an undescended testis.
- * Torsion of a fully descended testis (Testis redux), the cremasteric reflex pulls it into the superficial inguinal pouch and fixed by oedema.
- * Lymph adenitis (Local inguinal abscess).

Effects

- * The testicular vessels can be severely compressed by tense hernia.
15% of baby develop some degree of atrophy.
- * Bowel obstruction and strangulation, progress to gangrene and perforation.
- * In girls the ovary can be trapped and strangulate.



Incarcerated Inguinal Hernia

Management

- * Reduction of the obstructed hernia by “Taxis”

Taxis

- * The tip of the fingers are applied to the fundus of the hernia. while the fingertips of the other hand are cupped at the external ring.
- * Gentle pressure with relaxing the other fingers reciprocally.
- * Taxis is a manipulative trick.
- * not a matter of force, while the infant is taking a bottle of feed, or after a sedative and elevation of the legs.
- * Avoid reduction en- masse

Successful reduction

- * Operation should be performed in 48 hours, to allow oedema of the sac to subside.

Unsuccessful reduction or strangulated hernia.

- * Immediate operation

Operation

- * Herniotomy



Complications of groin hernia repair

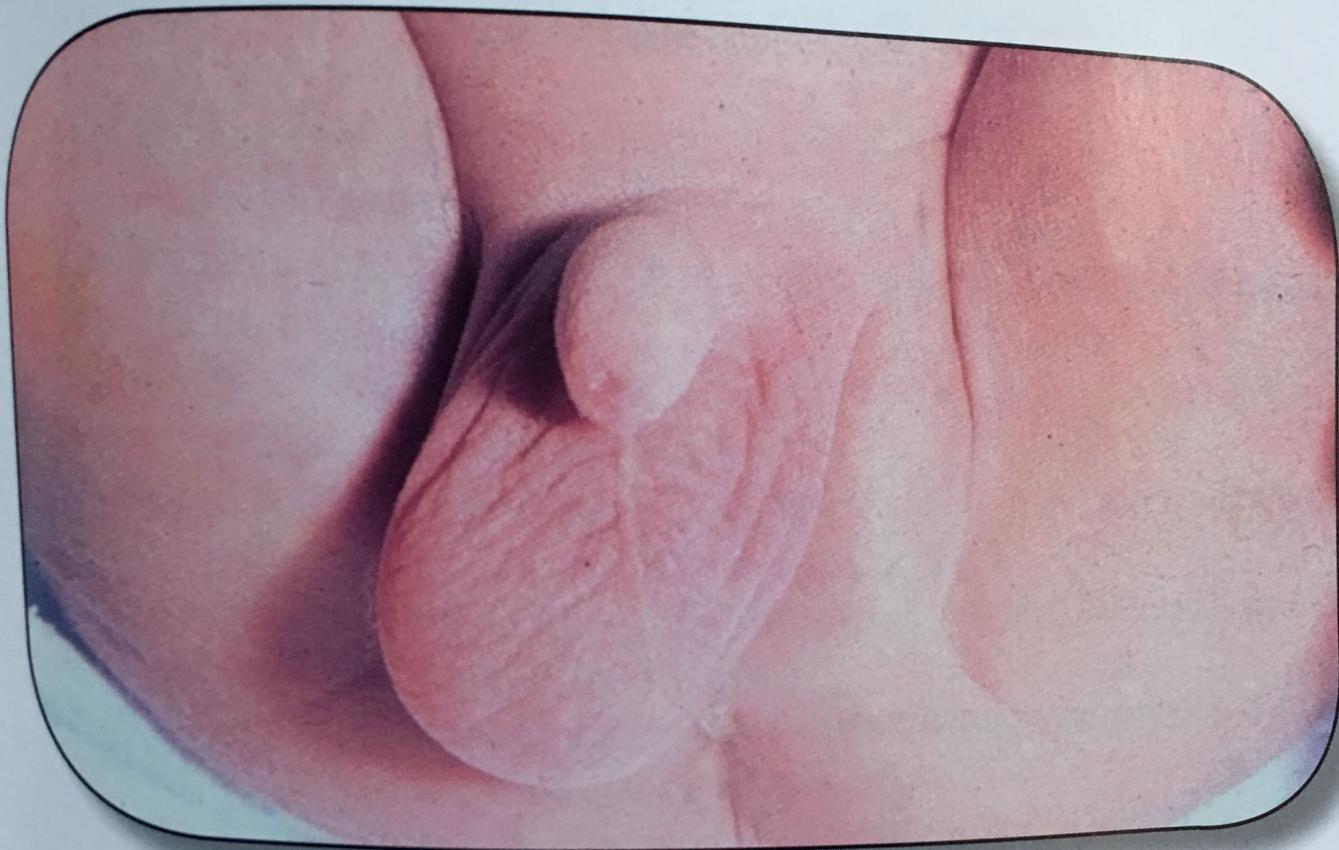
- * Bleeding
- * Infection <1%
- * Injury to cord structures <2%
- * Recurrence 0.5 – 1%
- * Iatrogenic cryptorchidism.

Undescended Testis

Testis not in scrotum

- * **Palpable**
 - Retractile testis
 - Ectopic testis
 - Undescended testis at (SIP)

 - * **Impalpable**
 - Absent testis
 - Dysplastic testis
 - Undescended testis (Intra- abdominal)
-
- * **SIP:** Superficial inguinal pouch
 - * **Anorchia** Absent testis(agenesis)
 - * **Dysplastic** Small and very abnormal testis



Left Undescended Testis



Undescended Testis

Look for

- * Associated hernia.
- * Ectopic testis.
- * Retractable testis.
- * Bilateral arrested descent.
- * Assess general development.
- * Other congenital abnormalities.

Undescended testes

- * Can not be made to reach the bottom of the scrotum.
- * Has been arrested anywhere along its normal pathway of descent.
- * Cryptorchidism: (hidden testis), the testis does not descend into its normal intra scrotal position.
- * 90% unilateral, 10% bilateral.
- * 70% of unilateral, → in the Rt. Side.
- * Incidence in full- term infants, 5% at birth.
2% by 1 year of age.
- * Incidence in premature infants, 25% at birth.
- * Site of the testis: At level of pubic tubercle.
Emergent through the external ring at (SIP).
In the inguinal canal.
In the abdomen.
- * Relatively immobile with short spermatic cord.



Retractile testis

- * Normally descended testis but retracts in to the upper scrotum or groin due to hyper active cremasteric response.
- * Can be manipulate the testis down into the scrotum, where it should lie with out tension or restriction.
- * Second examination a few months later, to confirm it.
- * By increasing age causes the testis to spontaneously reside for longer periods in the scrotal pouch.
- * No further intervention is needed.

Ectopic testis

- * Accounts for about 10% of extrascrotal testes.
- * Descended normally through the inguinal canal but then deviate into unusual sites.
- * Normal size testis, and good length of spermatic cord. with no shortage of vascular length.

Site of the ectopic testis

- * At the superficial inguinal pouch (facial barrier preventing entry of the testis in to the scrotum).
- * Inguino – perineal (extension of the pouch passes behind and lateral to the entrance to the scrotum.
- * Perineal (lying fixed between the scrotum and the anus).
- * At the base of the penis (prepubic).
- * At the thigh (femoral triangle).

Complication of Undescended testis

- * Trauma, high risk by direct violence.
- * Torsion, due to abnormal testis.
- * Tumour: increase in risk than in general population.
- * Poor function (Spermatogenesis).
- * 90% of men achieved fertility if their orchidopexy had been performed before 2 years of age.



Management of undescended testes

Diagnosis

- * Clinical information.
- * Ultrasound, Ct, and MRI.
- * Laparoscopy,

Treatment

- * Orchidopexy is best performed at 6 – 24 months of age.
- * To repair an associated hernia.
- * To improve future fertility.
- * To place the testis in an easily palpable position.
- * To afford cosmetic and psychological benefit.

-
- * 10 – 20% of undescended testes are associated with a clinical Inguinal hernia, the orchidopexy can be done at the same Time however young the child is.



Acute Scrotum

Clinical feature

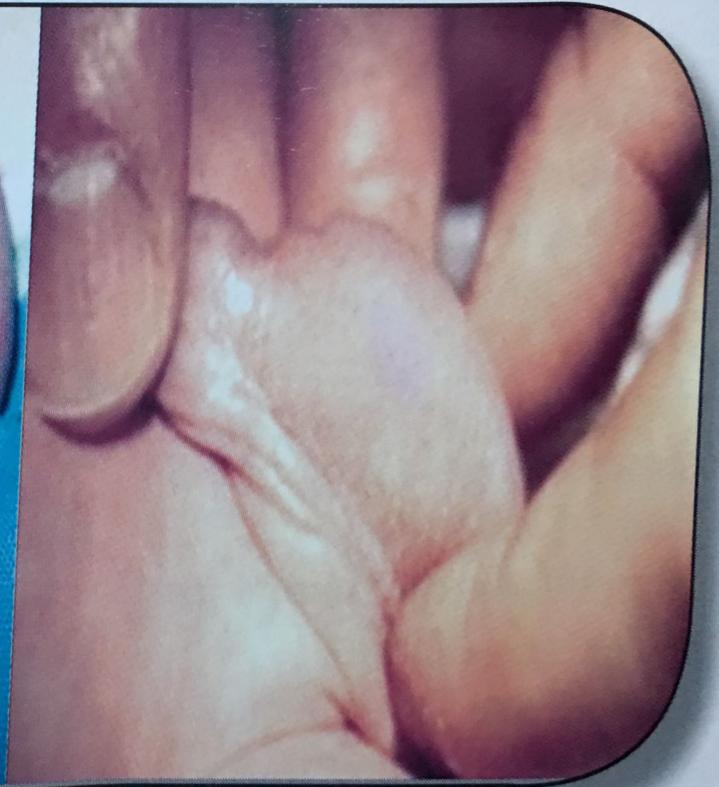
- * Scrotal pain.
- * The child refuse to walk.
- * Abnormal gait with abducted thighs.

Causes

- * Obstructed inguinal hernia.
- * Torsion of the testis.
- * Torsion of one of its appendages” hydatid of Morgagni “
- * Epididymo – orchitis.
- * Idiopathic scrotal oedema.
- * Inguinal lymph adenitis.



Operative finding



Blue dot discoloration in the scrotum

Torsion of the testicular appendages



Testicular Torsion

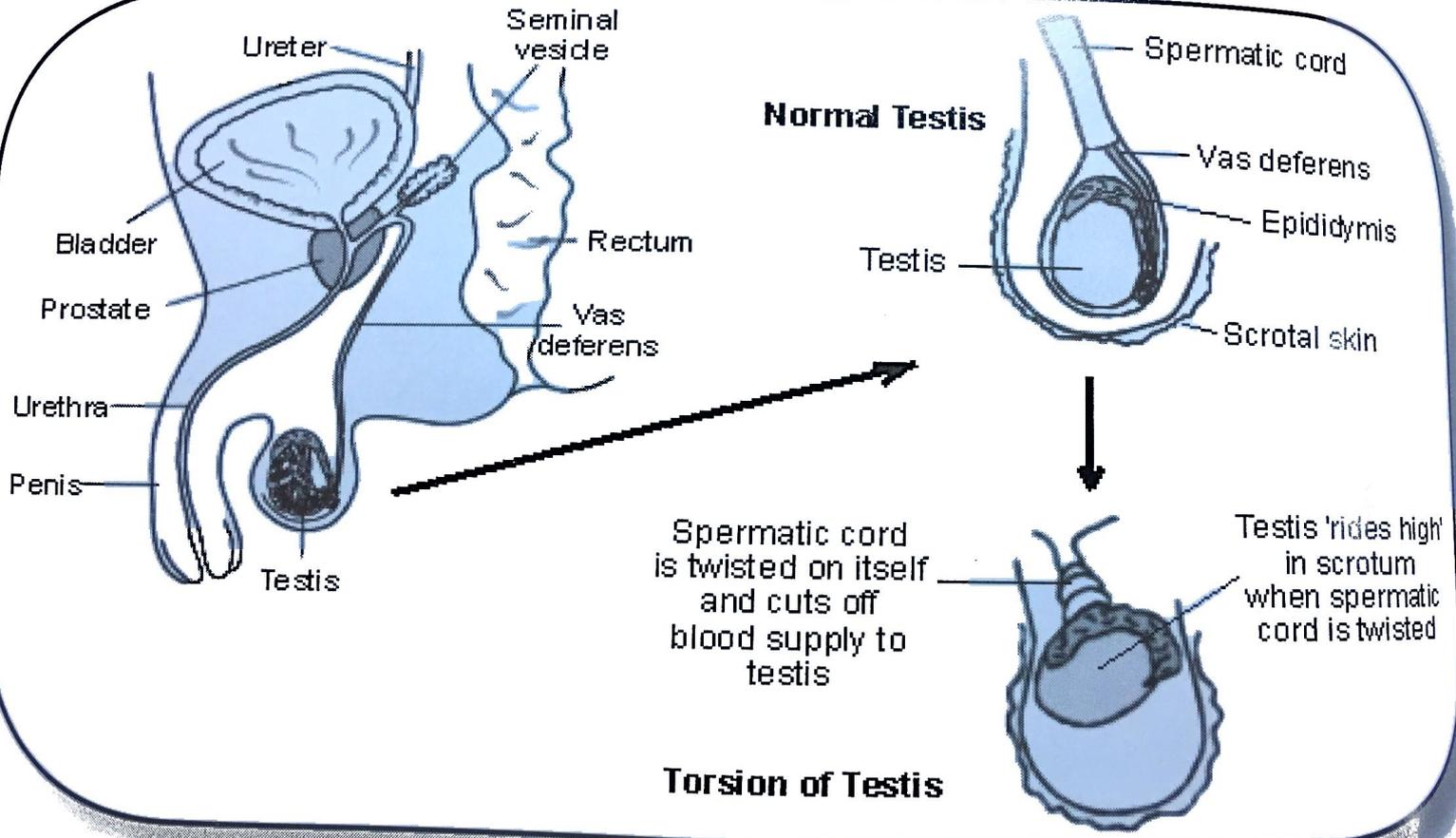
- * Twists upon the spermatic cord,
- * Causing venous congestion and oedema,
- * Leads to arterial obstruction and form gonadal necrosis.
- * Incidence 1/ 4000 male.
- * The commonest cause of an acute scrotum in all age groups.
- * Most cases occur in late childhood or early adolescence.
- * predisposing abnormality is almost always present.

Types

- * Intra tunical (vaginal).
- * Extra tunical (vaginal).

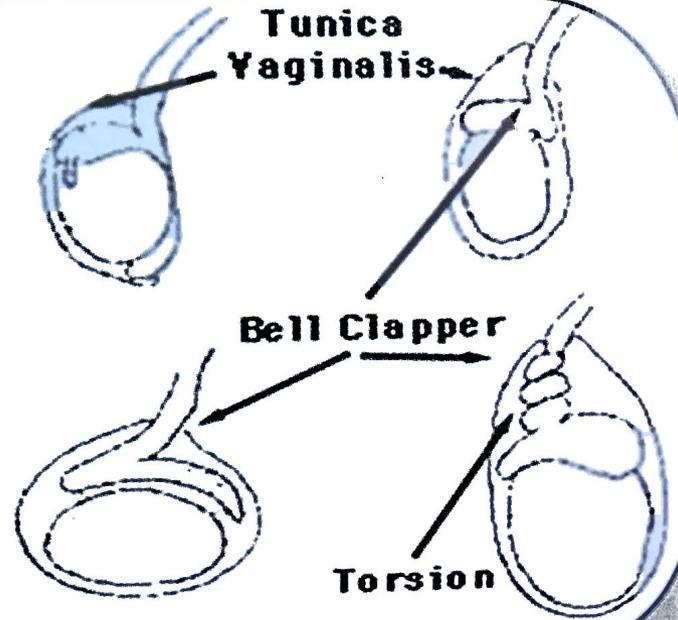
Clinical

- * Sudden onset of pain in the scrotum and lower abdomen.
- * Acute unilateral scrotal swelling.
- * Palpation of the spermatic cord, reveal thickend or twisted.
- * The testis is elevated within the hemiscrotum.



Extra tunical (vaginal) Torsion. (14)

Paediatric and Neonate Surgery



Testicular Torsion
Gangrenous testis
Operative finding

Intra tunical (vaginal)
Torsion (14)

Testicular Torsion

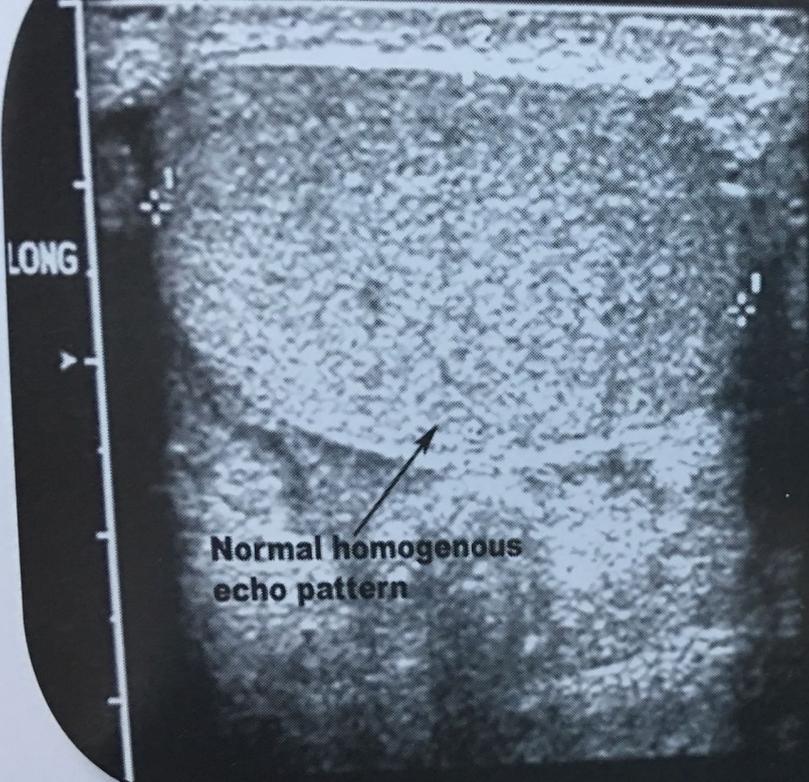
Diagnosis

- * Clinical information.
- * Ultrasonography with color Doppler
- * Nuclear isotope testis scan.

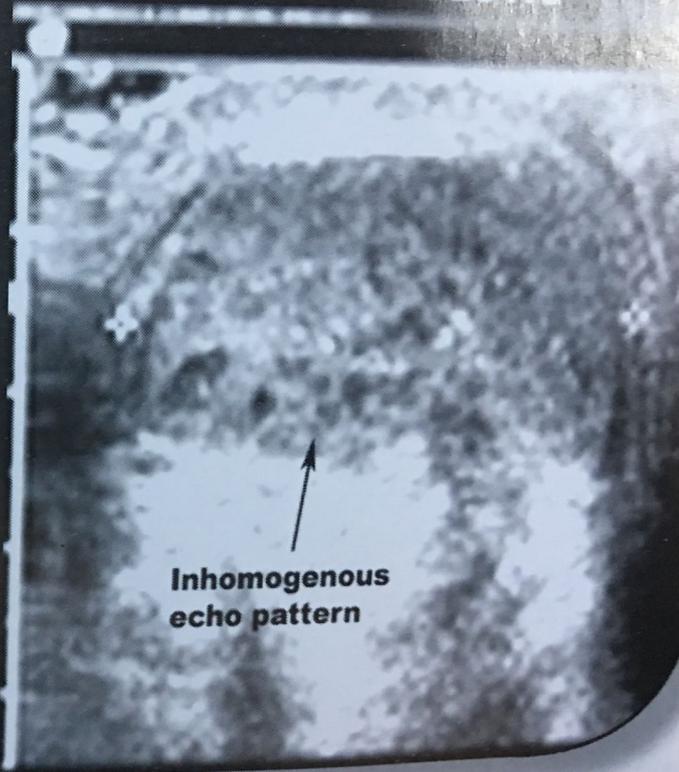
Treatment

- * Urgent treatment, should not be delayed.
- * urgent exploration is required.
- * Always open to doubt.
- * Maximal success rate are obtained when surgery is performed within 10 hours of the incidence.
- * Healthy testis must be fixed to prevent recurrence.
- * The sound testis should also be fixed to prevent torsion.

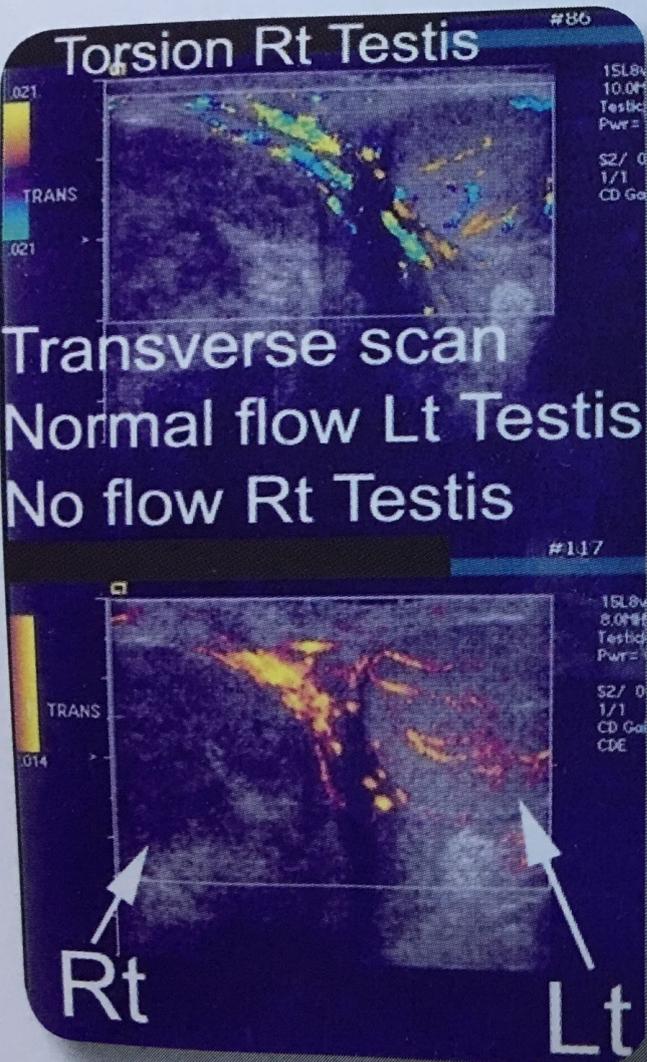
NORMAL TESTIS



TORSION TESTIS



Ultrasound for the testicular torsion



Color Doppler Shows the blood flow



Halo sign

Right testis

Nuclear isotope testis scan
Rt. dark gray area
Represent a testis
With impaired Perfusion.
(It does not take up The isotope)

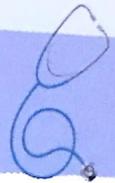
Important Notes For The Resident

Inguinal Hernia

- ※ Diagnosis, work-up and usual labs.
- ※ Pre-op Doppler US of testes if has been obstructed or strangulated.
- ※ pre-op preparation infant need to be stabilized.
- ※ Post-op care, for day care surgery.

Undescended Testis

- ※ If it is associated with inguinal hernia orchidopexy can be performed at the same time of herniotomy even in the newborn.
- ※ Retractable testis, : If the testis could be brought down in to the scrotum and stays there does not need surgery.
- ※ Palpable undescended testis is treated by orchidopexy.
- ※ Non-palpable testis should have laparoscopic exploration.



Abdominal Masses In Children

Clinical diagnosis

Information : Site

Size

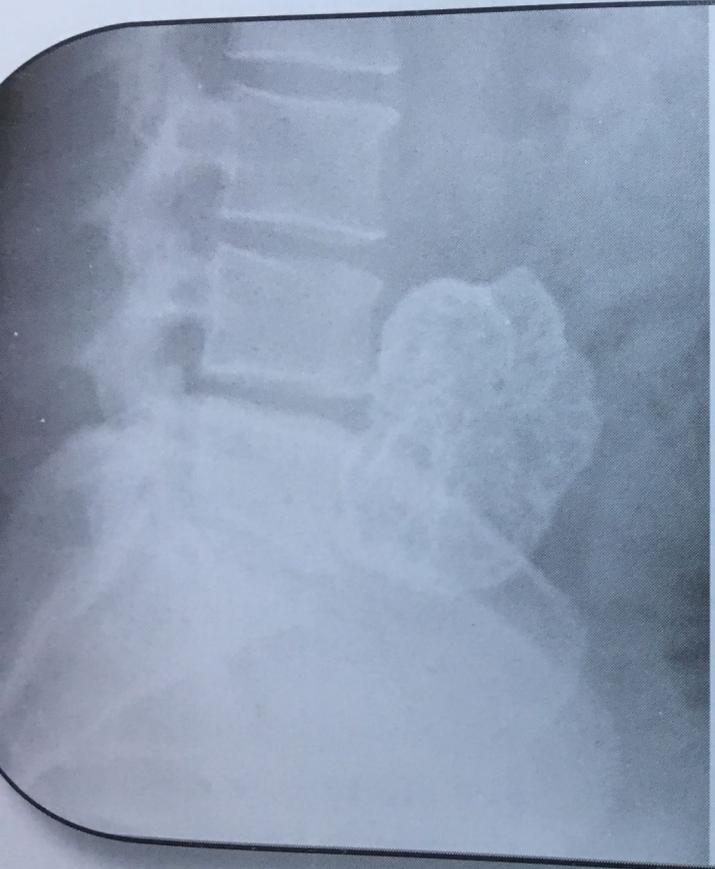
Consistency

Mobility

- 1- The probable organ of origin.
- 2- The age of the patient.
- 3- The length of the history.
- 4- The type of symptoms.

The commonest abdominal masses in children.

- * The liver (below the costal margin until the 3-4 years).
- * Faecal impaction.
- * Full bladder.



Faecal impaction

Abdominal Masses In Children

Palpable Mass – Related to GIT.

- 1- Appendicular mass.
- 2- Congenital hypertrophic pyloric stenosis.
- 3- Intussusception sausage shaped mass.
- 4- Volvulus, tense loop of bowel.
- 5- Entrogenous cyst, type of duplication.
- 6- Intestinal lymphoma.
- 7- Crohn`s disease.

Lower abdominal mass in girls.

- 1- Imperforate hymen. (Hydrocolpos, Haemocolpos)
- 2- Ovarian cyst.
- 3- Ovarian tumor.



Hydrocolpos X-ray

Soft tissue mass raise from pelvis



Imperforate hymen

Abdominal Masses In Children

Right subcostal – Related to the liver.

- 1- Hepatomegaly (Cirrhosis) – (Hepatitis).
- 2- Biliary atresia.
- 3- Choledochal cyst.
- 4- Hydatid cyst.
- 5- Hepatoblastoma.

Left subcostal – Related to the spleen.

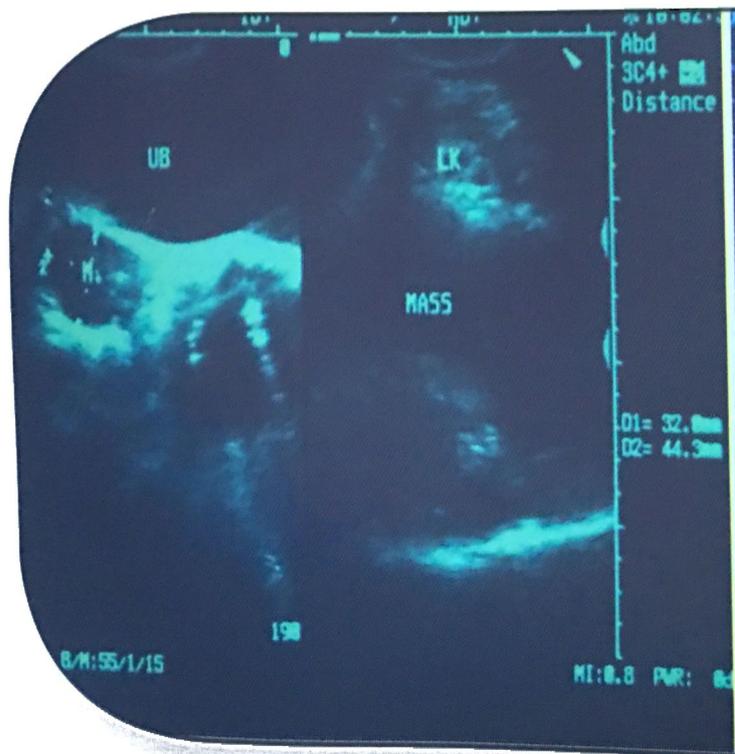
- 1- Splenomegaly.
- 2- Hydatid cyst.

Mass in the loin – Related to GU system.

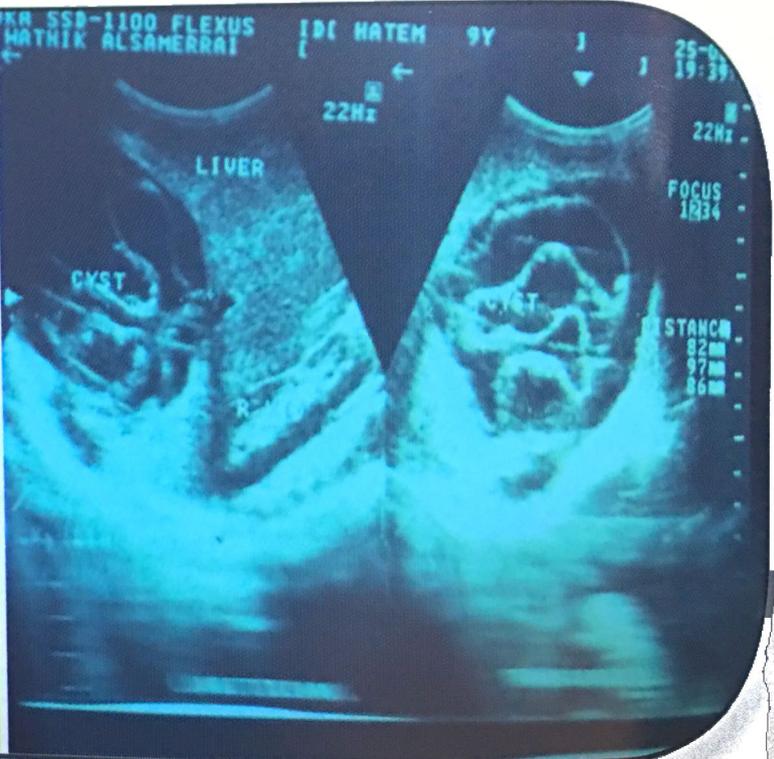
- 1- Wilms' tumour.(Nephroblastoma)
- 2- Hydronephrosis.
- 3- Multicystic kidney.

Others.

- 1- Neuroblastoma.
- 2- Retroperitoneum teratomas.



U / S, abdominal mass (Lymphoma)



U / S Hydatid cyst in the liver



Mesenteric mass as shown by barium U/S, Abdominal mass Omental Cyst

Abdominal Masses In Children

Clinical Feature and Imaging.

- * The mass itself is usually the presenting feature.
- * Typically is discovered by the mother while drying the child's abdomen after a bath.
- * Palpation should be restricted to the minimum to reduce the risk of metastasis.
- * Plain film of the abdomen may show calcification within the soft tissue mass, displacement of bowel loops.
- * Ultrasound, is useful in identifying hydronephrosis and other cystic, multilocular cysts or solid mass and where it's originated.
- * Intravenous pyelography, useful in demonstrating the calyceal distortion and the function in the contralateral kidney.
- * Barium study, useful when the mass originated in the GIT.
- * C.T (Computed Tomography) shows the extension of the mass.
- * MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging) shows the extension of the tumor such as spinal canal or the metastasis to the intra- vascular.
- * Bone scan to diagnose the bone metastasis.



Abdominal Masses In Children

Nephroblastoma (Wilms Tumour)

- * Originates from the primitive embryonic cells.
- * Pathologically contains renal tissue with various degrees of differentiation.
- * Produces a mixed histological picture of epithelial structures.
- * Resembling tubules and a variety of mesenchymal tissues.
- * Affects about 1 in 10,000 live births.
- * 60% present before the age of three years.
- * 10% tumours are bilateral.
- * 90% presented as abdominal mass.
- * Diagnosis can be confirmed by Ultrasound and CT scan.
- * 40% have metastatic spread at presentation but do not prevent cure.
- * Treatment is with nephrectomy and postoperative chemotherapy and radiotherapy
- * Stage 1 (localized to kidney) has 3 years survival of >90% and cure rate is 90%.
- * Stage 4 (haematogenous spread) has 3 years survival less than 30%.



Children's Oncology Group (COG) Staging System Wilms Tumor

Stage I: The tumor was contained within one kidney and was completely removed by Surgery, the renal capsule was not broken during surgery.

Stage II: The tumor has grown beyond the kidney, but it was completely removed by Surgery without any apparent cancer left behind. Lymph nodes do not contain Tumor.

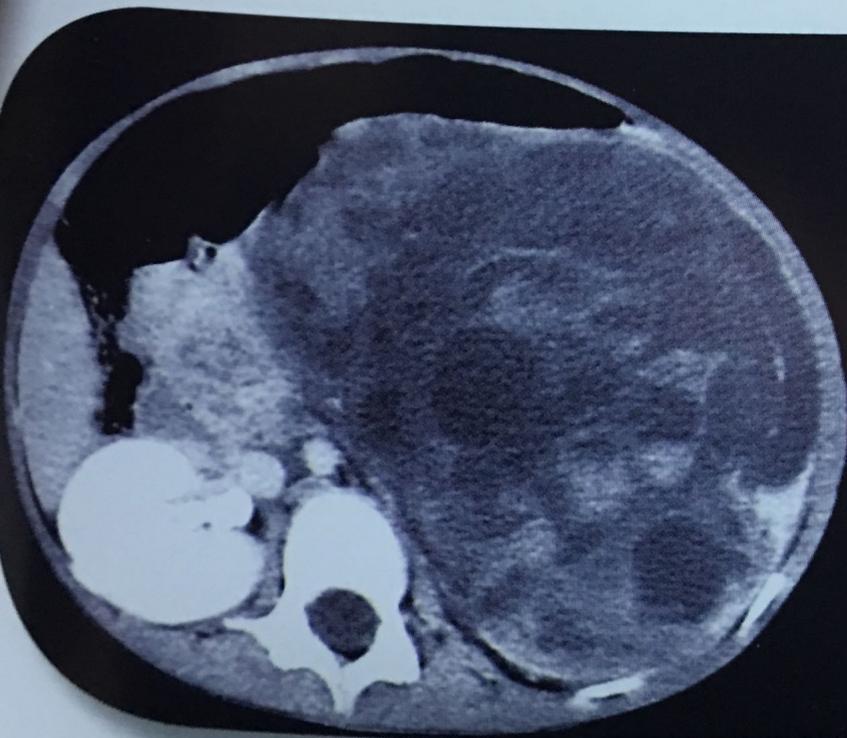
Stage III: Wilms tumors that may not have been completely removed. the cancer remaining after surgery is limited to the abdomen.

One or more of the following features.

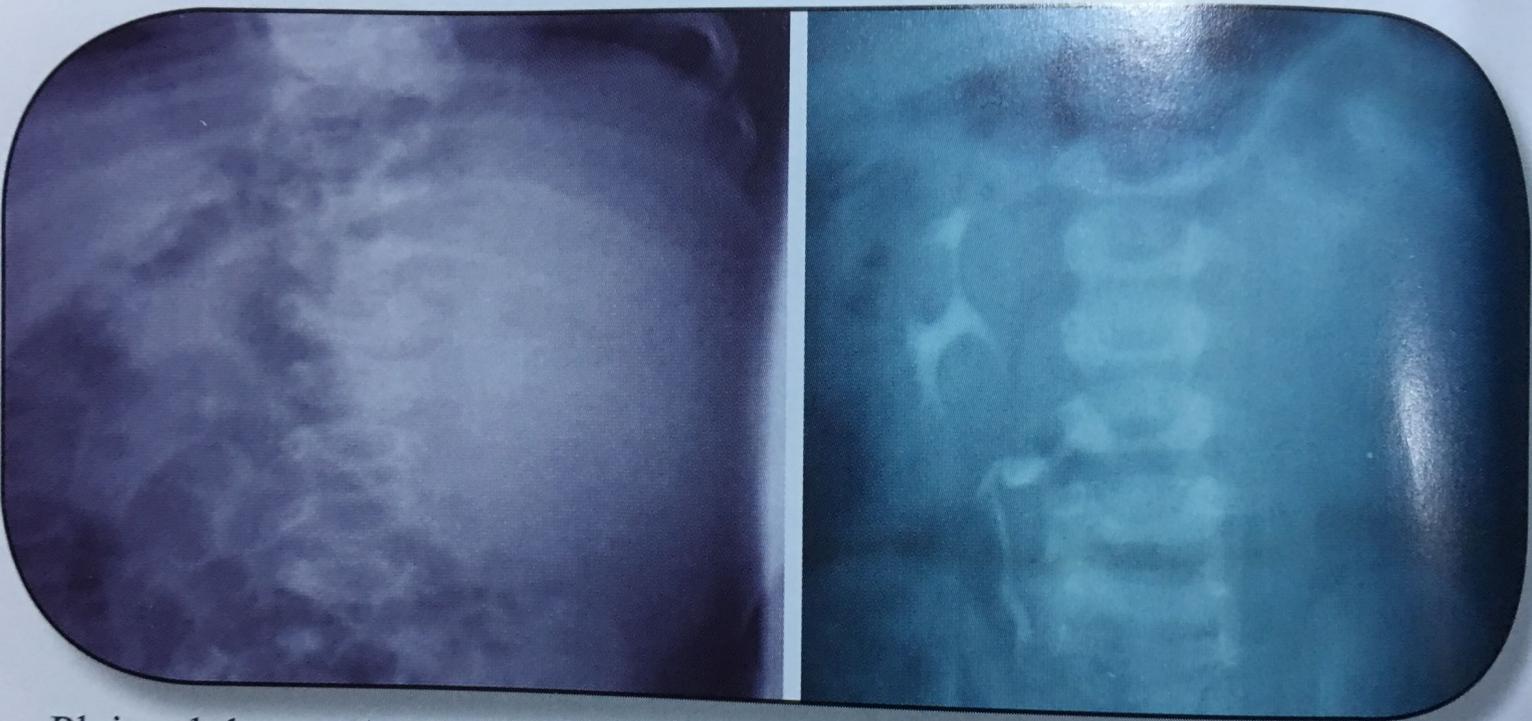
- * The cancer has spread to lymph nodes in the abdomen or pelvis.
- * The cancer has invaded nearby vital structures.
- * Deposits of tumor are found along the lining of the abdominal space.
- * Cancer cells are found at the edge of the sample removed by surgery.
- * The cancer spilled into the abdominal space before or during surgery.
- * The tumor was removed in more than one piece.

Stage IV: The cancer has spread through the blood to organs away from the kidneys such as the lungs, liver, brain, bone, or to lymph nodes far away from the kidneys.

Stage V: Tumors are found in both kidneys at diagnosis.



CT scan for huge Wilms tumour crossing the midline

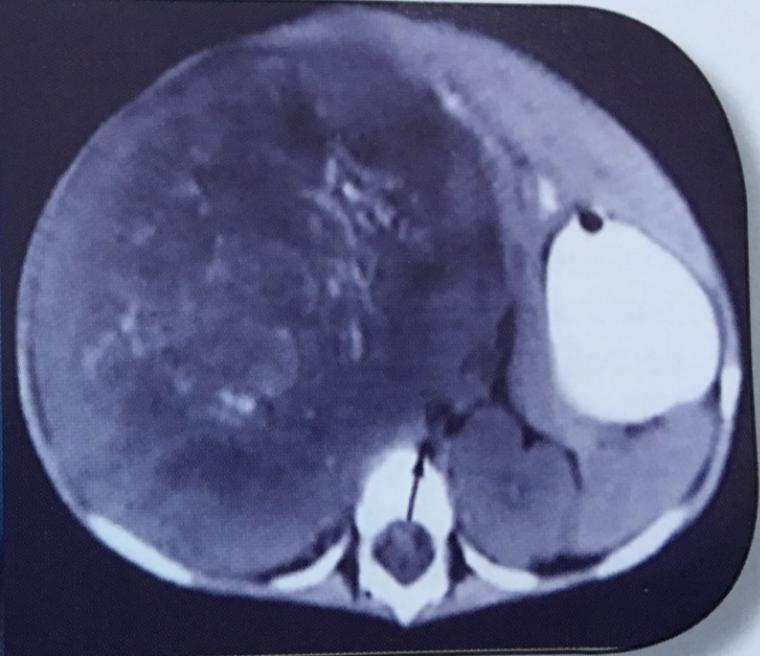


Plain abdomen (soft tissue mass)
Retroperitoneal displaced the bowel

IVP, distortion left kidney
(Wilms Tumour)



Operative Specimen



CT Scan

Nephroblastoma (Wilms Tumour)

Abdominal Masses In Children

Neuroblastoma

- * Arises from neural crest tissue – usually adrenal medulla or sympathetic ganglia.
- * The most highly malignant of infancy and early childhood.
- * Show a range of malignancy from benign ganglioneuroma to malignant neuroblastoma.
- * 75% are abdominal.
- * Affects about 1 in 8 000 live births.
- * Usually occur in first five years of life.
- * Clinical presentation depends on site of tumour and presence of metastases.
- * Bone and pulmonary metastases are relatively common.

International Neuroblastoma Staging System (INSS)

- 1- On one side of the body,
 - * All visible tumor is totally removed by surgery.
 - * Lymph nodes out side the tumor are free.
- 2A- On one side of the body.
 - * Not all the visible tumor can be removed.
 - * Lymph nodes out side the tumor are free.
- 2B- On one side of the body.
 - * May or may not be able to be totally removed.
 - * Lymph nodes out side the tumor are involved.
 - * Other sides of the body or elsewhere are free.
- 3- The cancer has not spread to distant parts of the body.
One of the following is true.
 - 1- Can not be completely removed, crossed the midline.
 - 2- It has spread to lymph nodes on the other side of the body.
 - 3- Tumor is in the middle of the body and growing toward both sides directly or by spreading to lymph nodes.
- 4- Spread to distant site, lymph nodes, bone, liver, skin, bone marrow.
- 4S- (Special neuroblastoma)
 - * Child younger than 18 months old.
 - * On one side of the body.
 - * May spread to lymph node on the same side of the body.
 - * Spread to the liver, skin and or the bone marrow.



CT scan

Positive bone scan

Neuroblastoma



Abdominal Masses In Children

Neuroblastoma

- * **Symptoms** often due to metastases, such as pallor and weight loss.
- * 30% presented as abdominal mass.
- * 90% have increased urinary VMA and MHMA.
- * Plain abdominal x- ray often shows diffused speckled calcification.

- * **Diagnosis** can be confirmed by ultrasound and CT scan.
- * **Treatment** with surgery and post-operative radiotherapy.
- * **Prognosis** is best in children presenting before 2 years of age.
- * Stage 1 (localised) has 3 years survival of > 90%.
- * Stage 4 (haematogenous spread) has 3 years survival less than 30%.

Abdominal Masses In Children

Facts about hydronephrosis

- * It is four to five times more common in males than females.
- * It can occur in one or both kidneys.
- * Most mild cases and even some moderate case may resolve on their own.
- * More severe cases may require surgery.

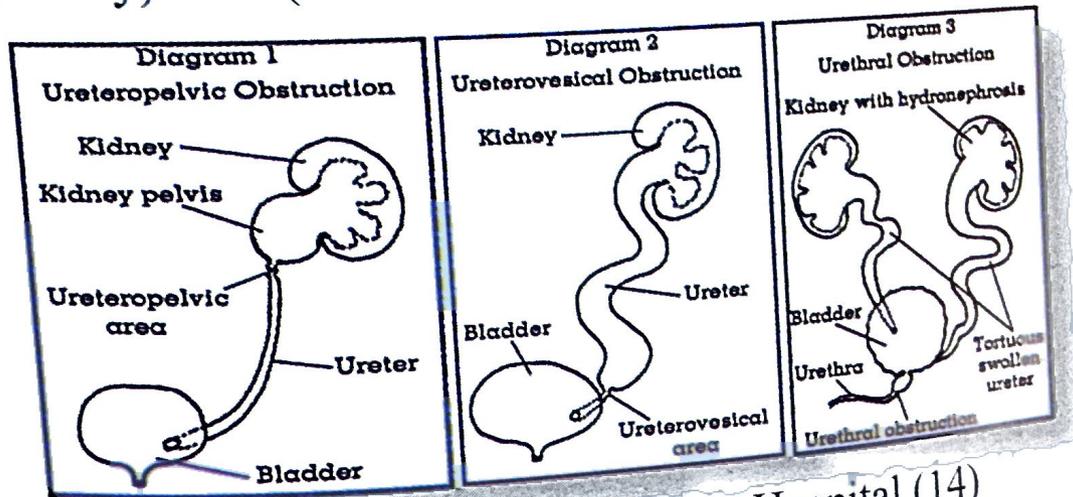
Common conditions responsible for hydronephrosis

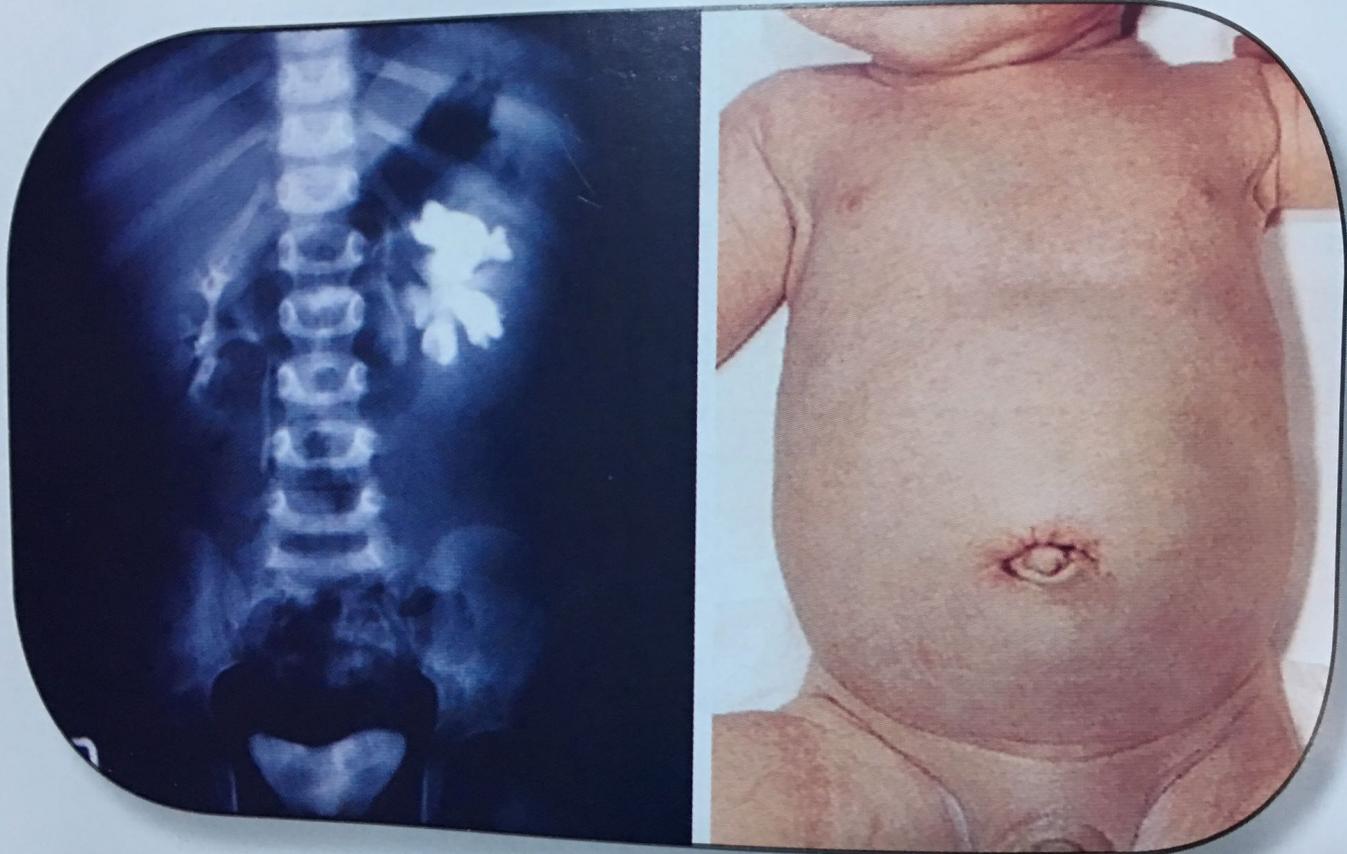
- * Uretero-pelvic junction obstruction (obstruction where kidney and ureter meet).
- * Vesico-ureteral reflux (backwash of urine).
- * Posterior urethral valves (abnormal flaps of tissue in the urethra).
- * Ectopic ureter (abnormal opening of ureter).
- * Ureterocele (a cystic or balloon-like end of the ureter that obstruct the ureter).

Abdominal Masses In Children

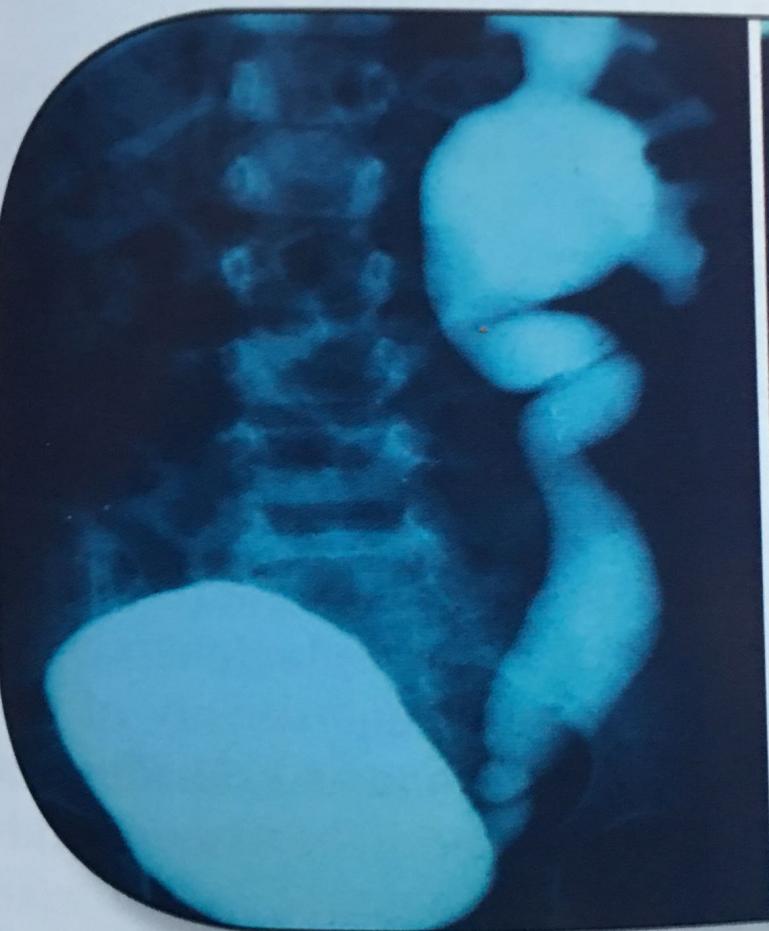
Diagnosis of hydronephrosis

- * Voiding cystourethrogram (VCUG)
- * Renal ultrasound (RUS)
- * Intravenous pyelogram (IVP)
- * A renal (kidney) scan (MAG 3 ,DTPA , DMSA)





Left Hydronephrosis



Left hydronephrosis



Bilateral hydronephrosis

Important Notes For The Resident

- * The patients age one of the most important factors that help the potential etiology of an abdominal mass.
- * The length of time since the mass was found.
- * The rapidity of growth.
- * The sign of gastrointestinal or genitourinary obstruction.
- * The presence of constitutional symptoms such as pallor, anorexia, fever or weight loss.
- * The solid masses and fluid- filled cysts are typically dull to percussion
- * The presence of guarding or tenderness indicate of an inflammatory process.
- * The plain abdominal x-ray, may help the location and density of the mass, presence of air-fluid level, absence of air in the rectum and calcification.
- * The sonography can identify the organ of origin, type of the tissue (solid versus cystic).
- * More specific anatomical information can be obtained by CT & MRI.

Head and neck lumps

Anterior Midline

- * Thyroid
- * Thyroid associated lumps
 - * Ectopic thyroid
 - * Thyroglossal cyst
- * Plunging ranula

Anterior Triangle

- * Dermoid cyst
- * Branchial cyst / Sinus.
- * Carotid aneurysm

Posterior Triangle

- * Lymph nodes

Supra clavicular fossa

- * Innominate or subclavian aneurysms
- * Lymph nodes (Virchow's node)

Submandibular area

- * Submandibular salivary gland

Parotid area

- * Parotid gland

Others

- * Cystic hygroma
- * Extra angular dermoid
- * Buccal cysts and sublingual ranula



Examination of a lump

Look (7XS)

- * Site, Position
- * Size, in two direction
- * Shape
- * Surface, scar, sinuses,
- * Surrounding, regional lymph nodes
- * Skin, colour at rest and with pressure
- * Shine a light, translucency

Feel (5XT)

- * Tenderness
- * Temperature
- * Texture, smooth, rough, hard, soft, rubbery, spongy
- * To press on it, Pulsatile, compressible, thrill.
- * To feel its edge, discrete, ill defined, to get above/ below/ beside it.

Move (3XD)

- * Does the lump move spontaneously with respiration.
- * Does the skin move over the lump
- * Does the lump move over the underlying structures.

Listen

- * Bruit



Sublingual Ranula



Plunging Ranula (14)

Thyroid Swellings

Neonatal goiter (Cretinism)

- * Generalized enlargement of the thyroid.
- * Mother`s ingestion of preparations containing iodine, thiouracil, on treating the hyperthyroidism can block fetal thyroid hormone synthesis.
- * The baby may be born with evidence of hypothyroidism and goiter.
- * Can cause respiratory distress, and /or obstruction.
- * Small dose of thyroxin may required.
- * In a few cases with large goiters causing compression an emergency surgical split and / or tracheostomy is required.

Thyroglossal Duct Cyst

- * A thyroglossal duct cyst is a fluid-filled sac located at the midline of the neck.
- * These cysts most commonly occur in children before the age of 5.
- * A small, round mass in the front of the neck is the classic presentation.
- * These cysts are usually filled with mucous.
- * Occasionally, they appear after an upper respiratory tract infection when they become enlarged and painful.
- * If infected, redness and sometimes drainage of mucous from the cyst may occur through the skin.



causes a thyroglossal duct cyst

- * A thyroglossal duct cyst is a congenital defect, which means that it was present from birth.
- * When the thyroid gland forms during fetal development, it begins at the base of the tongue and moves down the neck through a canal called the thyroglossal duct.
- * As the thyroid gland and thyroglossal duct develop, they travel around the hyoid bone.
- * After the thyroid gland reaches its final location in the neck, the thyroglossal duct usually disappears.
- * Occasionally, if portions of the thyroglossal duct remain along any point of the migration, a cyst may form.



Thyroglossal duct cysts

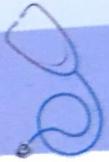
- * Are remnants of the embryonic thyroglossal duct that may occur anywhere from the base of the tongue to the thyroid gland.
- * The majority, are found at the level of the thyrohyoid membrane, under the deep cervical fascia.

Clinical features

- * Midline lesion arising anywhere along the path of the duct.
- * Painless, fluctuant, movable mass.
- * They are midline or just off the midline.
- * Move up and down upon swallowing and on Protrusion of the tongue.
- * Fistula will occasionally develop.

Differential diagnosis

- * Thyroid neoplasm (Teratoma , MEN- 2). Lipoma
- * Dermoid cyst Ectopic thyroid
- * Submental lymph node Sebaceous cyst



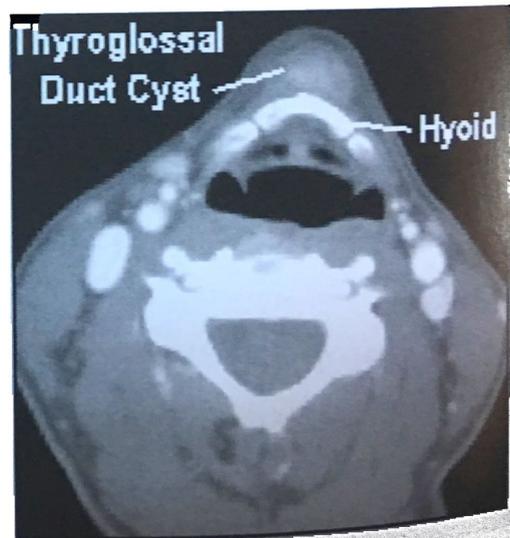
How is the thyroglossal duct cyst diagnosed

Diagnosis Made by physical examination.

(Protrusion of the tongue causes it to move up & down)

Ultrasound Examination will help to confirm the presence of the cyst. It is important to determine if the thyroid gland is located in its normal position.

CT Scan On occasion if necessary

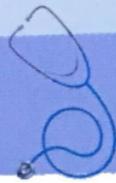




Thyroglossal abscess



Thyroglossal cyst



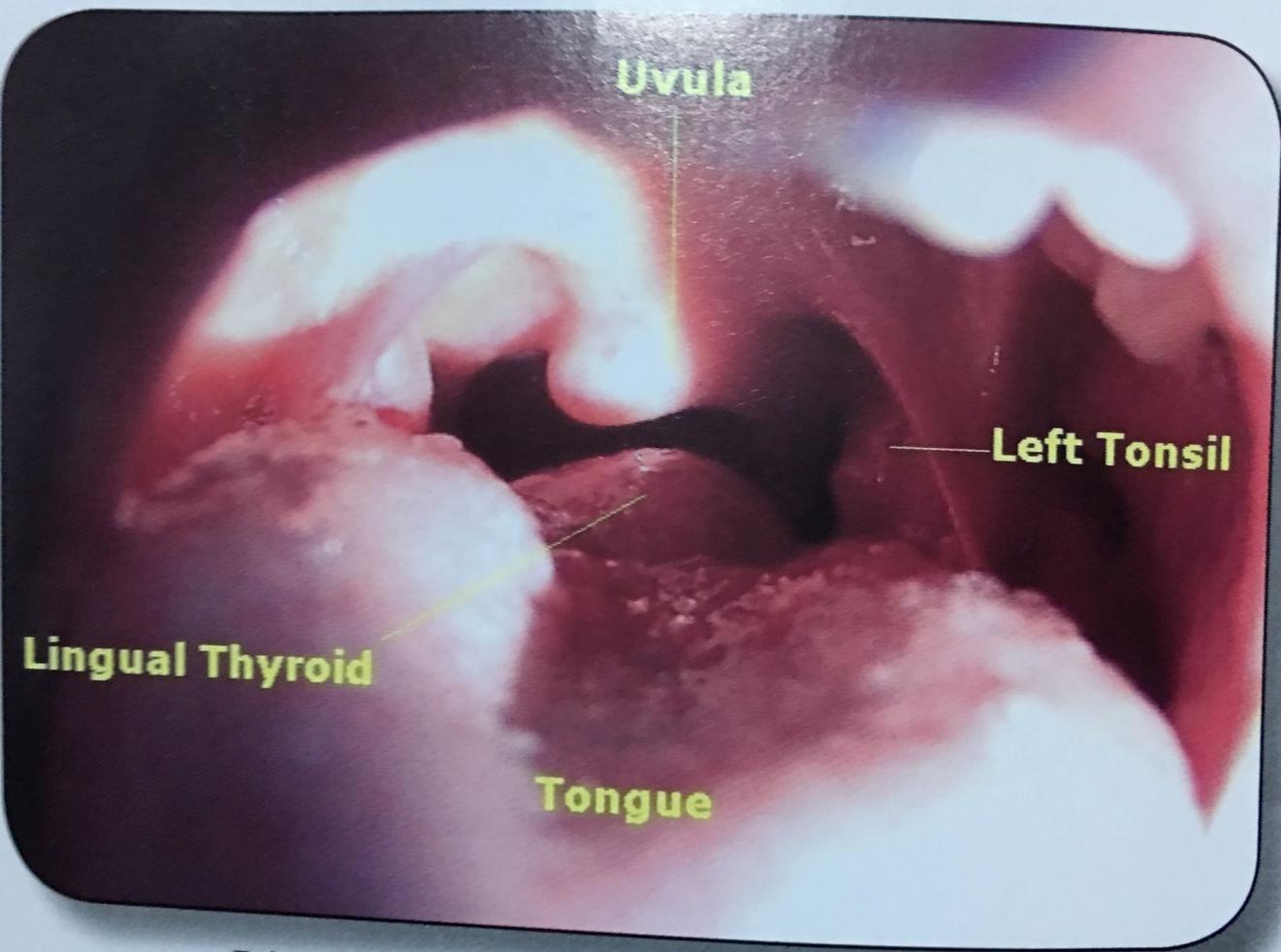
How are the thyroglossal duct cyst managed

- * If the cyst is infected, an antibiotic may be given to treat the infection.
- * Surgical drainage of the infected cyst is required if the infection is severe with abscess formation.
- * Following resolution of infection the definitive treatment is required
- * Thyroglossal duct cyst is surgical removal.
- * This surgery is called the **Sistrunk** procedure and includes removal of the cyst and the mid-portion of the hyoid bone, because of its intimate association with the thyroglossal duct, may contain remnants of the duct.
- * If the hyoid bone is not surgically removed, there is a greater chance for recurrence of the thyroglossal cyst .

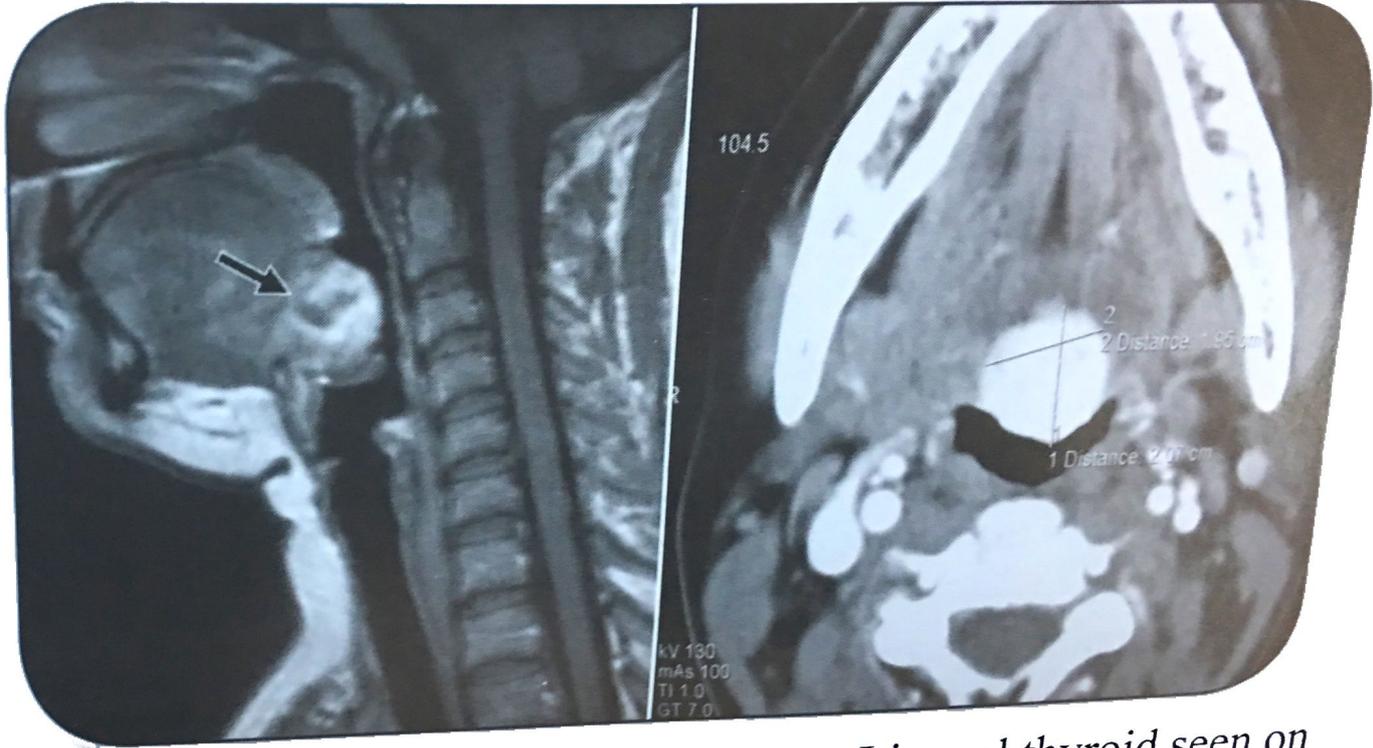


Lingual thyroid or ectopic thyroid

- * The thyroid gland originates in the back of the tongue and migrates to the front of the neck.
- * If it fail to migrate properly, it can remain high in the neck or even in the back of the tongue.
- * The thyroid gland can also migrate too far into the mediastinum , called a substernal thyroid.
- * Lingual thyroid are four times more common in female.
- * They are asymptomatic, midline nodules in the posterior aspect of the tongue.
- * They are usually less than a centimeter in size but can reach more than 4 cm.
- * Large lesions can interfere with swallowing and breathing.



Lingual thyroid (14) ENT, Houston



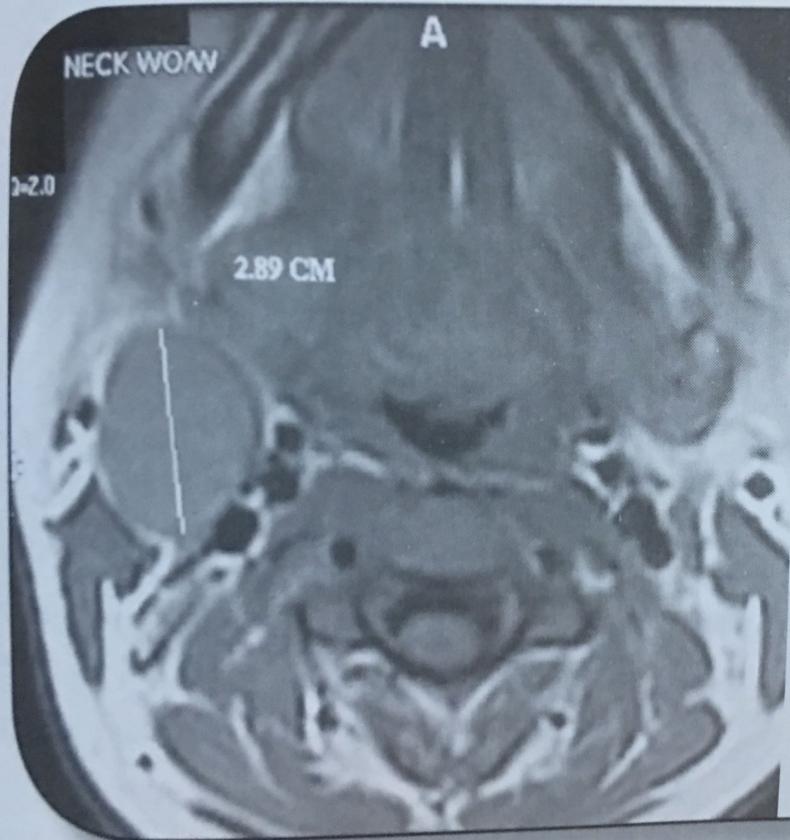
Sagittal reconstruction of CT scan of the neck, showing The lingual thyroid at the base Of the tongue.

Lingual thyroid seen on axial CT scan of the neck (14)

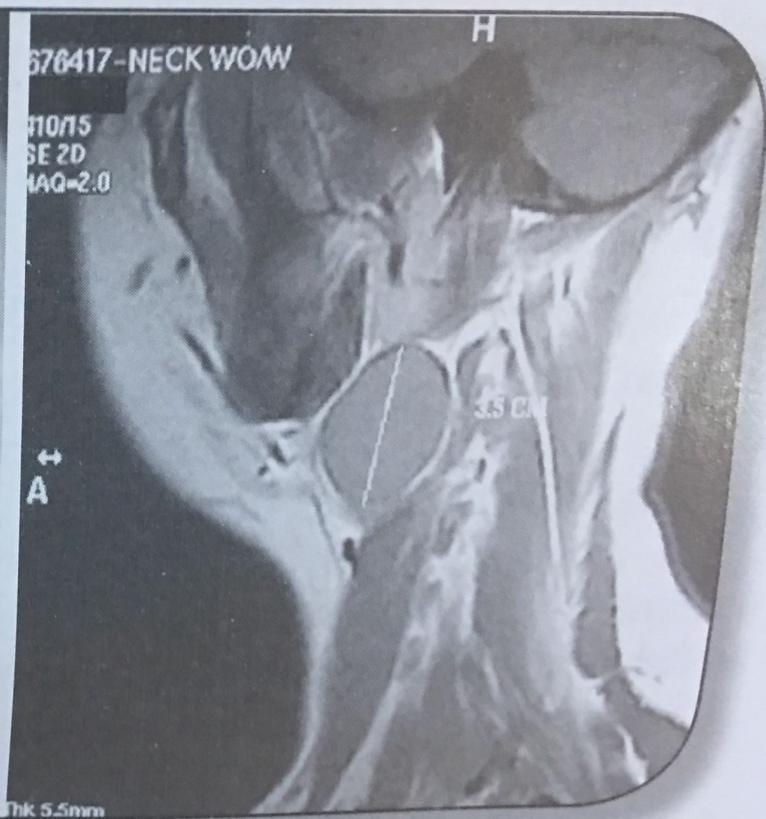
Branchial Cyst

- * Presents as a solitary painless mass in the neck.
- * A congenital lesion formed by incomplete involution of branchial cleft structures during embryonic development.
- * Branchial cleft cysts are smooth, not tender and fluctuant.
- * Tender mass if secondarily inflamed.
- * They usually grow in the carotid triangle.
- * Approximately 10% are bilateral.
- * These cysts contain thick yellowish creamy fluid.
- * They get infected and require drainage.
- * The treatment of branchial cleft cysts is surgical.
- * The recurrence rate is less than 7%.





Branchial cleft cyst
axial MRI projection



Branchial cleft cyst
sagittal MRI projection

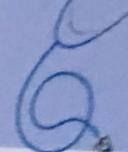
Branchial Sinuses

- * Arising from the second branchial cleft.
- * More common than fistula.
- * Mucoid or purulent discharge.
- * opening at the skin over the anterior border of the sternomastoid.

Branchial Fistula

- * One end open into the tonsillar fossa, and the other in the skin over the anterior border of the lower third of the sternomastoid muscle.
- * The track usually passes between the internal and external carotid arteries.
- * Should be surgically excised.





Lymphatic Malformation Cystic Hygroma

Lymphangioma

- * These are hamartomas of the lymph sacs.
- * The hygroma is a multicystic, ill- defined, fluctuant mass of lymphatic cysts.
- * The cysts are of all sizes contain crystal – clear fluid.
- * Some contain cavernous haemangiomatous vessels.

Presentation & effect

depends on their site and size in the floor of the mouth or peripharyngeal area (endanger the airway, and cause dysphagia) sudden increase in size causing an emergency.

Treatment

- * Surgical excision
- * Incomplete removal because the absence of the capsule.

Cystic hygroma (Lymphangioma)

- * Lymphatic sacs that fail to communicate with the peripheral draining channels.
- * The cyst may be unilocular or multilocular and of variable size.
- * Combined as lymphatico- venous malformation.
- * May increase in size suddenly due to infection or haemorrhage.
- * Spontaneous shrinkage may occur.

The site may occur

- * In the neck 70%
- * Axillary region 20%
- * Superior mediastinum
- * Mesentery
- * Retroperitoneum
- * Pelvis and groin



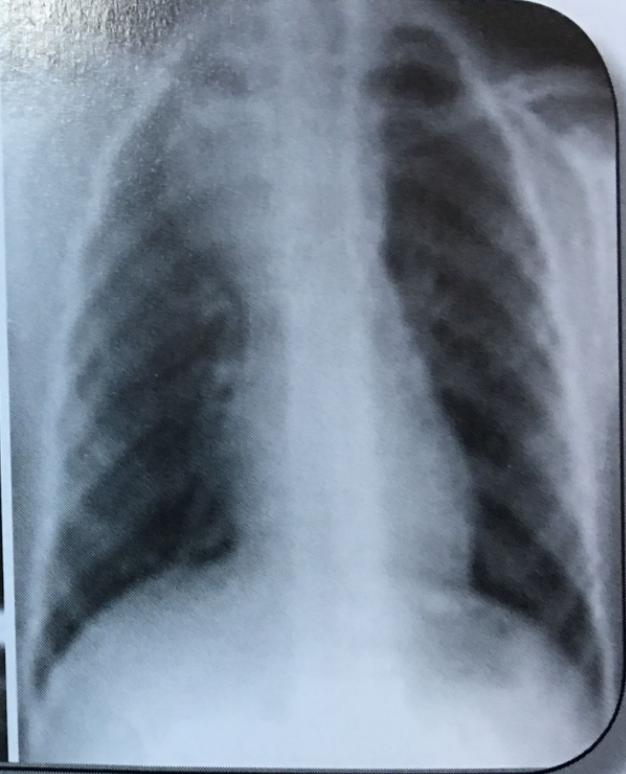
Cystic Hygroma
Lymphangioma



Cystic Hygroma
Lymphangioma



Neck CT Scan



Chest x-ray

Cystic Hygroma (Lymphangioma)

Important Notes For The Resident

- * Most normal children have palpable cervical lymph nodes.
- * The cervical lymph node is considered enlarged if it measures more than 10 mm at its longest diameter.
- * Palpable supra- clavicular nodes are always considered abnormal.
- * The resident should bring the specimen in saline to the pathologist immediately after removal.
- * Formalin fixation made impossible to the number of studies for lymphoma, for evaluation including chromosome translocation studies and immunoperoxidase staining.
- * The ectopic thyroid tissue identified within the thyroglossal duct remnant in about 25 – 35% of cases.
- * Papillary adenocarcinoma has been described in up to 10% of patients undergoing thyroglossal duct excision in adulthood.
- * Malignant degeneration has been reported in branchial cleft remnants persisting to adulthood.