Infant with stridor due to vallecular cyst - Anaesthetic management

Sir,

A congenital vallecular cyst is a rare mucous retention cyst arising from the epiglottis or the base of the tongue\(^1,2\) with an incidence of 5.3 cases/10,000 live births.\(^3\) It causes dynamic airway obstruction leading to stridor precipitated by feeding, crying, and induction of anaesthesia.\(^4\) Different techniques have been described in the literature for securing the airway in patients with a vallecular cyst.\(^5\) We hereby present the management of a 3-month-old child with a vallecular cyst for surgical cyst excision.

A 2.8 kg male baby, presented with noisy breathing, feeding difficulty, and failure to gain weight. The child had respiratory distress with chest retractions and peripheral oxygen saturation ($\text{SpO}_2$) of 98% on room air. He was diagnosed with vallecular cysts by neck X-ray of the soft tissue [anteroposterior and lateral view Figure 1] and confirmed by flexible nasopharyngolaryngoscopy which is the gold standard test for diagnosis. The laboratory blood investigations were normal.

The child was optimised before surgery for gross malnutrition by starting on nasogastric feeds for 2 weeks (the child gained 100 g/week), and nebulisation was started. Informed written consent was obtained from the parents and they were explained about the difficulty in securing the airway and the possibility of emergency tracheostomy and post-operative ventilation.

The child fasted for 4 h. Before shifting the child to the operation theatre, a difficult airway cart, emergency tracheostomy team, and emergency drugs were kept ready. Two drops of 1% lignocaine were instilled intranasally, and 1 mL of 1% lignocaine was squirted over the tongue. The child was connected to standard American Society of Anesthesiologists (ASA) monitors. He was induced smoothly with 100% oxygen and step-up sevoflurane induction, and intravenous cannula 24 G was secured. Once respiration was adequate, intravenous (i.v) fentanyl 3 $\mu$g was given. An indigenous nasopharyngeal airway was secured through one nostril, subsequently anaesthesia was maintained through this route.

Plan A was nasal fiberoptic bronchoscopic-guided intubation.\(^6\) The glottis was partially occluded during respiration due to the rapid movement of the cyst during respiration; therefore, manoeuvering the scope through the glottis was difficult.

Plan B was intubation with a video laryngoscope (C-MAC) with a paediatric blade. This also failed to identify the glottic opening because of the heavy nature of the blade and the mass obscuring the glottic view [Figure 2].

A final attempt using conventional Miller blade size 1 by paraglossal approach was attempted. We could...
not visualise the epiglottis because of the mass, but we could visualise a small area presumed to be the glottic opening through which bubbles were coming during the respiratory efforts of the child. We successfully intubated through this area, and a size 3.0-mm ID, uncuffed polyvinyl chloride (PVC) endotracheal tube was fixed to the left side of the angle of the mouth. Throughout this procedure, the patient was anaesthetised with oxygen and sevoflurane through the nasal airway on spontaneous ventilation. After confirming the tube position, inj. atracurium 0.5 mg i.v and inj. dexamethasone 1 mg i.v were given to prevent airway oedema. The anaesthesia was then maintained using oxygen, nitrous oxide mixture (50:50), and sevoflurane with controlled ventilation. The surgery was completed without any complications, and the cyst was removed in toto. The nasogastric (NG) tube was reintroduced for feeding. The child was electively ventilated for 48 h in anticipation of laryngomalacia, fresh wound and airway oedema postoperatively and extubated successfully after 48 h. Immediate follow-up showed a baby with a normal cry, no respiratory distress, or feeding difficulty. The child was discharged home after 2 weeks and advised for follow-up after 1 month.

The anaesthetic concerns are difficult airway due to distorted anatomy, difficulty in maintaining the depth of anaesthesia, risk of rupture of cysts during intubation leading to aspiration and hypoxia and postoperative laryngomalacia.

To conclude, there is no single airway approach that solves every difficult airway. Every difficult airway should be approached individually and management depends on preparedness and awareness among anaesthetists. In our case, we devised our anaesthetic plan carefully before opting for tracheostomy.

**Declaration of patient consent**
The authors certify that they have obtained all appropriate patient consent forms. In the form, the patients’ parents have given their consent for the patients’ images and other clinical information to be reported in the journal. The patient’s parents understand that the patients’ names and initials will not be published and due efforts will be made to conceal their identity, but anonymity cannot be guaranteed.

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There are no conflicts of interest.

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Intravenous paracetamol: Salvage and safety proposition

Sir,

Paracetamol is widely prescribed and recommended for neonates and young infants, primarily for analgesia and pyrexia. [1] Intravenous (IV) preparation is very commonly used in hospital settings, and it is available in India in either 50 ml (few brands) or 100 ml vials containing 1.0% w/v paracetamol. Prescribed doses for IV paracetamol are 7.5 mg/kg or 0.75 ml/kg (<10 kg), 15 mg/kg or 1.5 ml/kg (10-50 kg), 1 gm or 100 ml (>50 kg) to be administered over 15 min. [2] The dose in above vials would suffice its use in adult populations, while in neonates and small children the required volume per dose is way less, leading to reuse from opened vial, wastage, or improper dilution of the drug.

Paracetamol vial requires storage below 30°C, requires protection from light and is meant to be consumed within 30 min of opening the vial. [2,3] Paracetamol is extremely sensitive to oxygen and light. Following degradation, paracetamol is converted to 4-aminophenol, which is quickly converted to the hepatotoxic molecule N-acetyl-p-benzoquinoneimine. [2] Paracetamol, is therefore, synthesised within a tightly controlled target pH range of 5-6 to avoid conversion to 4-aminophenol. Secondly, to avoid chemical oxidation reactions, the IV preparations are packed in hermetically sealed oxygen-impermeable containers which have been bubbled with nitrogen to lessen the amount of oxygen present and filled with a ready-to-use formulation. In addition, to achieve stable aqueous solutions of paracetamol, most IV preparations have added antioxidants (e.g., cysteine) and isotonising or stabilising agents (e.g., mannitol). To minimise the effect on stability of this formulation of paracetamol, the dilution should not be more than 10 times its volume using normal saline or 5% dextrose and the solution should be administered over 15 min within the hour after its preparation. [2]

So, prolonged, and repeated use of a single large vial is not advisable for paediatric group. Our main concern is that due to the impracticability of discarding the large amount of leftover drug after withdrawing a miniscule amount (1.5 ml for a 2 kg child), inappropriate and potentially dangerous practices are prevailing. We conducted a telephonic survey among 10 paediatric anaesthesiologists regarding the paracetamol administration practices and received some particularly concerning responses. This included addition of paracetamol directly to the maintenance IV fluids (generally Ringers lactate or Plasmalyte) leading to inappropriately large dilution and possibility of instability of the drug (due to alteration of pH or dilution of stabilising/antioxidant agents), thereby leading to questionable effectiveness and potential harm. It was also administered directly without dilution by a syringe, which may inadvertently lead to faster injection. The same vial once opened is used multiple times for administration to subsequent cases which may take the whole day. A hypodermic needle used for drawing the drug is...

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