



COMMON MANAGEMENT ALGORITHMS IN SURGICAL PRACTICE



“The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read or write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn”

Alvin Eugene Toffler
1970



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ERAS PROTOCOL

Dr Vikram Kate, Dr Likhita Singh

Enhanced Recovery After Surgery (ERAS) is an evidence-based, multimodal perioperative care pathway designed to reduce surgical stress, optimize physiological function, and accelerate postoperative recovery. Originally developed by Henrik Kehlet in the 1990s, ERAS represents a paradigm shift from traditional surgical care to comprehensive, patient-centered management.

Core Principles

ERAS protocols integrate interventions across three key phases:

1. Preoperative Phase

- Patient Education & Counselling: Comprehensive preoperative information to manage expectations and reduce anxiety
- Nutritional Optimization: Avoidance of prolonged fasting; carbohydrate loading 2-3 hours preoperatively
- No Mechanical Bowel Preparation: Except for specific rectal procedures
- Prehabilitation: Optimization of comorbidities and functional capacity
- Venous Thromboembolism Prophylaxis: Early initiation based on risk assessment

2. Intraoperative Phase

- Minimally Invasive Techniques: Laparoscopic/robotic approaches when feasible
- Short-Acting Anesthetics: Regional blocks and neuraxial anesthesia
- Goal-Directed Fluid Therapy: Maintenance of euvolemia and normovolemia
- Normothermia Maintenance: Active patient warming to prevent hypothermia
- Multimodal Analgesia: Opioid-sparing techniques including NSAIDs, local anesthetics, gabapentinoids
- Avoid Routine Drains & NG Tubes: Unless clinically indicated

3. Postoperative Phase

- Early Mobilization: Out of bed within 4-6 hours, ambulation by POD 1
- Early Oral Nutrition: Clear fluids immediately, solid food within 24 hours
- Multimodal Analgesia: Non-opioid-based pain management
- Antiemetic Prophylaxis: For high-risk patients
- Early Catheter Removal: Within 24 hours in most cases
- Daily Discharge Criteria Assessment: Proactive discharge planning

Benefits of ERAS Implementation

- Reduced Length of Stay: Approximately 30-50% reduction (2-3 days shorter)
- Lower Complication Rates: Up to 40% reduction in postoperative complications
- Faster Functional Recovery: Earlier return to baseline activities
- Reduced Opioid Consumption: Multimodal analgesia reduces opioid requirements
- Improved Patient Satisfaction: Enhanced patient experience and outcomes
- Cost-Effectiveness: Reduced hospital costs without increasing readmissions
- No Increase in Readmissions: Evidence shows maintained or improved readmission rates

Keys to Successful Implementation

1. Multidisciplinary Team Approach: Surgeons, anesthesiologists, nurses, physiotherapists, dietitians
2. Protocol Compliance: Higher compliance rates correlate with better outcomes
3. Institutional Support: Leadership buy-in and resource allocation
4. Audit & Feedback Mechanisms: Continuous quality improvement
5. Patient Engagement: Active patient participation in recovery
6. Bundle Implementation: Multiple components together are more effective than single interventions

Take-Home Messages for Surgical Residents

- ✓ ERAS is evidence-based, not just "fast-track" surgery
- ✓ Success requires multidisciplinary collaboration
- ✓ Multiple interventions bundled together are more effective
- ✓ Patient education is a critical component
- ✓ ERAS improves outcomes without compromising safety
- ✓ Implementation requires institutional commitment and continuous audit.

ADAPTED ENHANCED RECOVERY PROTOCOLS IN EMERGENCY ABDOMINAL SURGERY

PRE-OPERATIVE

- Rapid assessment and resuscitation (ABC stabilization)
- Early nutritional screening if possible
- Patient/family communication about expectations
- Fast-track preoperative investigations and consent
- Non opioid multimodal analgesia.
- NG decompression, IV antibiotics, and PPIs

INTRA-OPERATIVE

- Standardized approach—minimally invasive when feasible but tailored to urgency
- Minimize surgical duration and trauma
- Non opioid multimodal analgesia.(Lumbar epidural if no contraindication.
- Goal directed fluid therapy
- IV dexamethasone 4 mg stat.
- Short-acting opioids and anaesthetic agents.
- Intra-op normothermia

POST-OPERATIVE

- IV antibiotics and IV PPIs (converted to oral on the start of enteral feeds)
- IV metoclopramide on POD 0 & 1
- Non opioid multimodal analgesia.(Lumbar epidural bupivacaine infusion, NSAIDs and acetaminophen)
- Early drain removal (NG tube <300ml/24 h, abdominal drain <100ml/24h, urinary catheter - adequate urine output for 24h)
- Early ambulation (mobilize from POD 0)
- Resumption of orals on resolution of ileus.

NECROTISING FASCITIS

Dr. Utpal De

Suspected necrotizing fasciitis

(evaluation of susceptibility factors, medical history, clinical examination)

Skin and soft tissue findings	Systemic findings	Risk factors
(Incidence)	(Incidence)	
Erythema 59%	Fever 77%	Trauma
Swelling and oedema 48%	Tachycardia 41%	Recent surgery
Discoloration 33%	Pain 34%	Skin breach
Tenderness 25%	Tachypnoea 28%	Immunosuppression/ Malignancy
Induration 14%	Hypotension 30%	Obesity
Bulla 9%		Neuropathy
Ecchymosis 8%		Diabetes
Compartment syndrome 4%		
Crepitus 4%		

Finger test

- **Incision:** A small (around 2cm) incision is made through the skin to the deep fascial layer in the suspected infected area.
- **Probing:** A gloved finger gently probes the tissue at the fascial level.
- **Positive Signs:** The test is positive if all three are present:
 - 1) Lack of bleeding: Minimal or no blood from the subcutaneous tissue.
 - 2) Dishwater discharge: A gray, watery, foul-smelling fluid.
 - 3) Friable tissue: The tissue is easily torn or separated with minimal pressure, indicating necrosis (tissue death).

Send for specimen analysis

Polymicrobial (NF I) / Mono-microbial NF II (16S rDNA sequencing > traditional microbial culture)

Signs of Sepsis/ Diagnostic scores (Scores)

1. Laboratory Risk Indicator for Necrotizing Fasciitis (LRINEC) score - <5 (Mild), 6-7 (moderate), > 8 (Severe)
2. Site other than the lower limb, Immunosuppression, Age, Renal impairment, and Inflammatory markers (SIARI) score
3. Laboratory and Anamnestic Risk Indicator for Necrotizing Fasciitis (LARINF) score

Radiology (presence of gas in the fascial plane is a hallmark of NF)

1. X-ray (limited information, nonspecific, not recommended)
2. Doppler ultrasound (fluid accumulation exceeding 2 mm in depth, diagnostic accuracy 72.7%),
3. CT (first choice for emergency screening),
4. MRI (gold standard sensitivity of 90%–100%, specificity of 50%–85%)

Commandment of Management

1. Thorough debridement (Prompt Incision, debridement, and drainage < 24 hours)
 - Methylene blue can be used to mark necrotic tissues
 - Multiple samples for microbiological analysis
2. Broad spectrum antimicrobial therapy
 - Clindamycin+ meropenem+ vancomycin,
 - Piperacillin/ tazobactam+ vancomycin+ clindamycin,
 - Imipenem/ Cilastatin+ vancomycin, and
 - Ceftriaxone+ clindamycin+ vancomycin
3. Aggressive fluid resuscitation
4. Repeated assessment of the patient's condition
5. Adjuvant therapy –
 - Immunotherapy
 - DVT prophylaxis
 - Respiratory physiotherapy
 - Hyperbaric oxygen therapy (HBOT)
6. Comprehensive nutritional support
7. Rehabilitation and psychological therapy

POST OPERATIVE FEVER

Dr. Saugata Samanta

1. Confirm Fever

- Definition: Temp $\geq 38^{\circ}\text{C}$ (100.4°F) on ≥ 2 occasions, or $\geq 39^{\circ}\text{C}$ once.
- 40% of patients develop pyrexia after major surgery - in most cases no cause is found.
- Inflammatory response to surgical trauma may manifest as fever. However in all patients with a pyrexia, a focus of infection should be sought

2. Classify by Timing

Timing after surgery is KEY:

Post-op Day	Likely Cause	Mnemonic
POD 1-2	Wind: Atelectasis, early pneumonia, aspiration	Lung-related
POD 3-5	Water: UTI (catheter)	Urinary tract
POD 5-7	Wound: Surgical site infection (SSI)	Incision
POD 7+	Walking: DVT/PE, thrombophlebitis	Venous
Anytime	Wonder drugs: Drug fever, transfusion reaction, line sepsis	Medications/lines

3. Initial Assessment

- **History:** Surgery type, devices (catheter, lines, drains), medications.
- **Physical exam:** Chest, wound, IV sites, calf tenderness.
- **Review chart:** Anaesthesia record, intra-op events, blood loss, transfusions, temperature chart

4. Investigations (Stepwise)

1. **Basic labs:** CBC, CRP, electrolytes [Test for malaria, dengue or other prevalent causes]
2. **Cultures:** Blood, urine, sputum (before antibiotics).
3. **Imaging:** CXR (if respiratory symptoms or POD 1-2 fever)
US/CT if abscess suspected (esp. POD >5).
4. **Other:** D-dimer, Doppler if suspect DVT/PE.

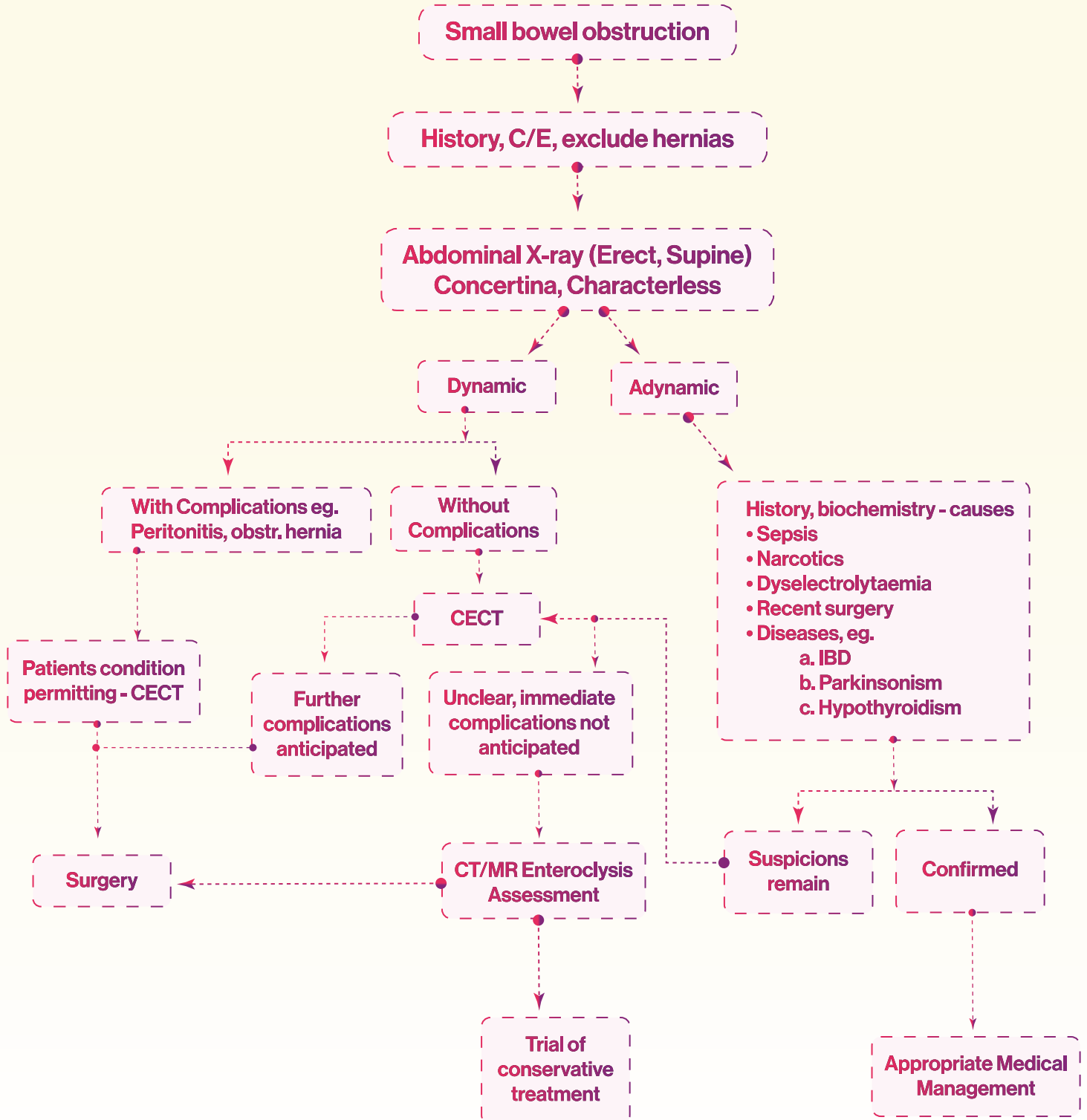
5. Immediate Support

- IV fluids, oxygen if needed.
- Analgesia/antipyretics (Paracetamol) , Physical met
- Remove/replace invasive lines if infection suspected.
- Ensure pulmonary toilet (Incentive spirometry), early ambulation.
- In sepsis with unstable patient /organ dysfunction - consider ICU transfer

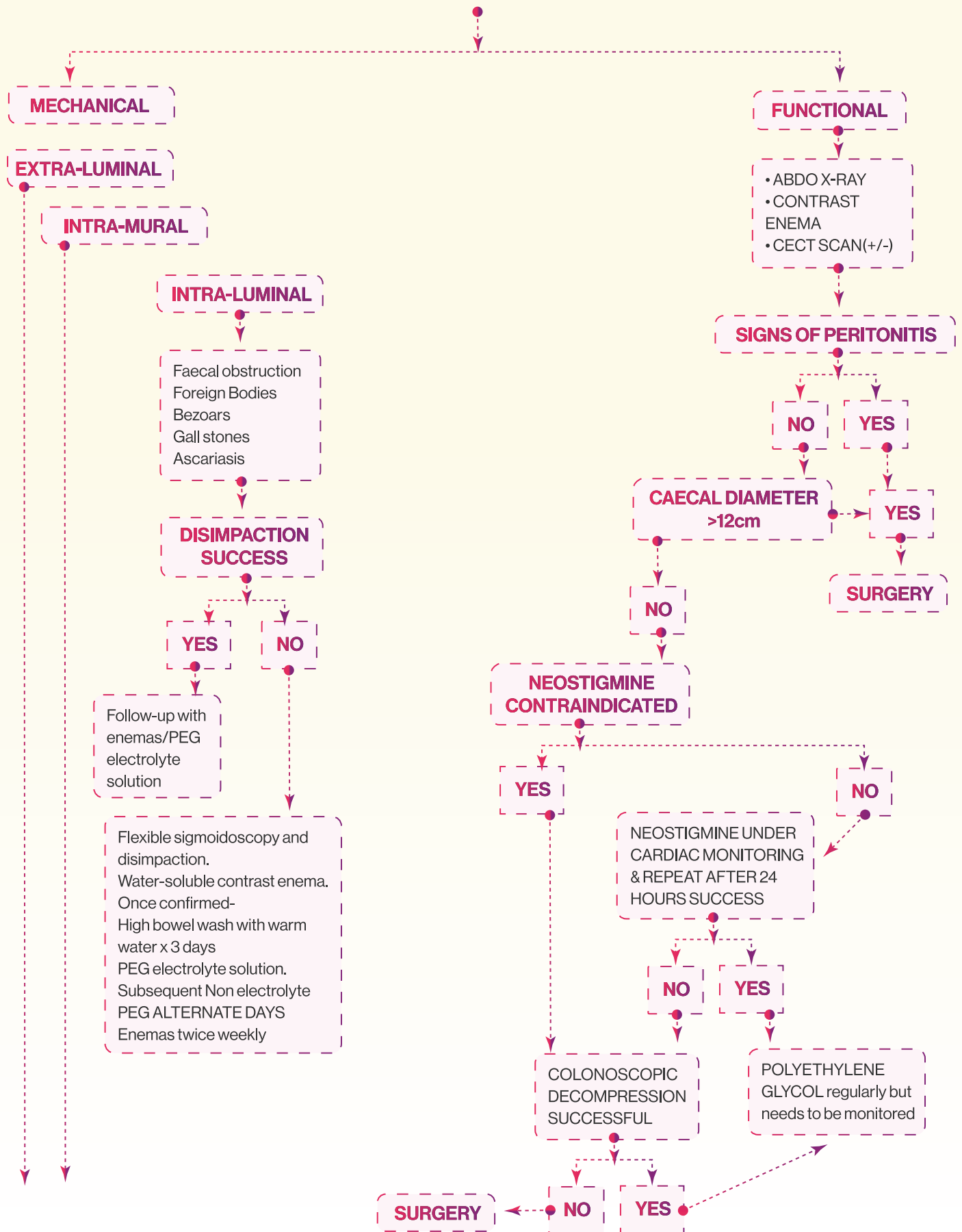
INTESTINAL OBSTRUCTION

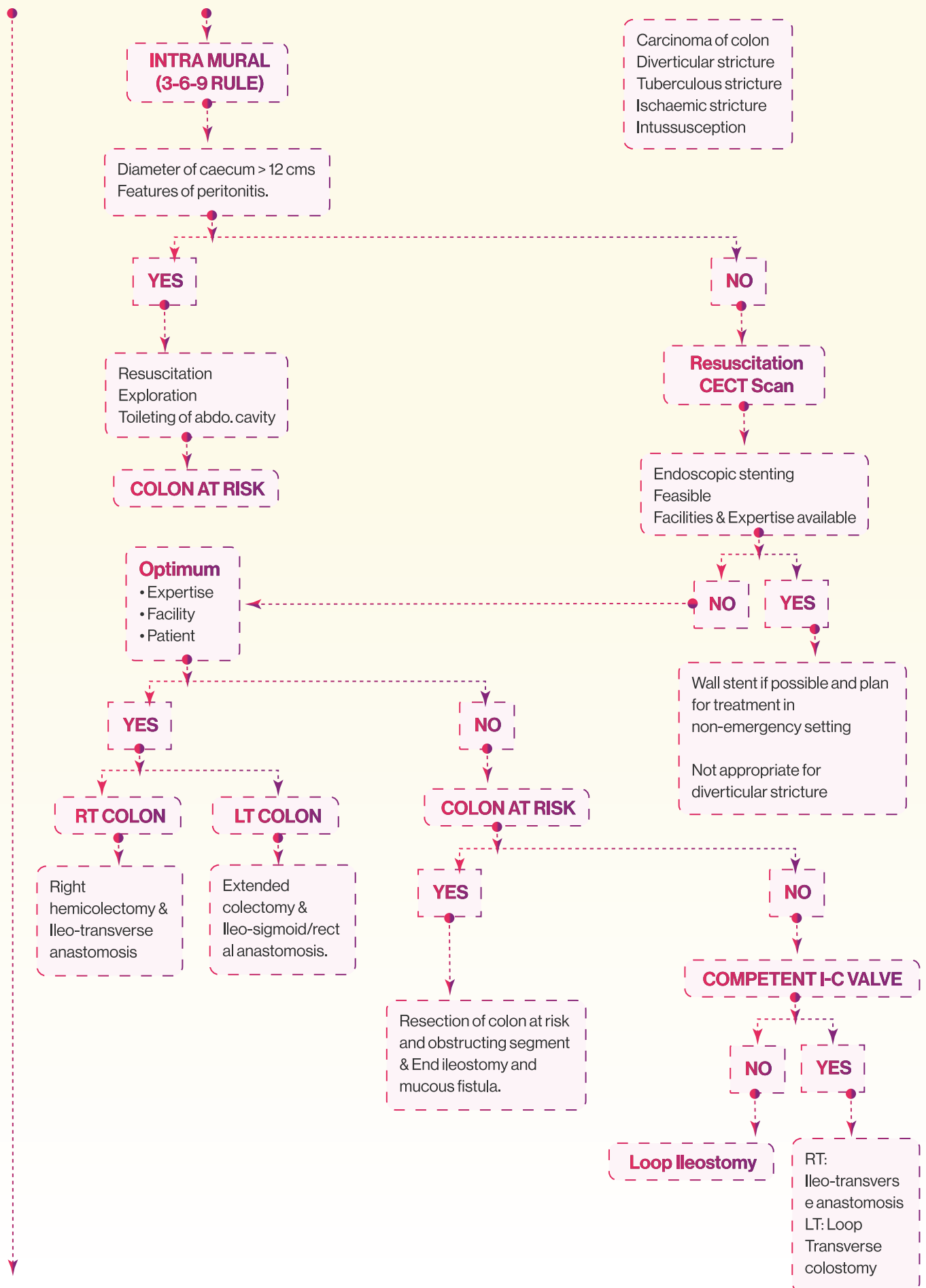
Dr Sanjay De Bakshi

SMALL BOWEL OBSTRUCTION



LARGE BOWEL OBSTRUCTION







ENTEROCUTANEOUS FISTULA

Dr Ramanuj Mukherjee

Diagnosis

- Differentiate between **Enterocutaneous** and **Entero- Atmospheric Fistula**
- Classify wound status (**Deep SSI**)
- Use **Bjork classification** for wound assessment

Assessment

- Assess **hemodynamic parameters**.
- Perform sepsis screening (using **qSOFA** score)
- Initiate **Sepsis-6 Protocol** when indicated

Resuscitation End Points

- Hemodynamic parameters stabilized
- Stable Nutrition status, no dyselectrolytemia.
- Adequate Urine Output
- Serum Lactate and Pro-calcitonin improvement
- Prognostic scoring as applicable

Resuscitation Essentials

- Fluid and Electrolyte management
- Establishment of long term venous access
- Provide critical care support

Wound Management

- Drain Management
- Fistuloclysis
- Sepsis evaluation for Intra-abdominal Collection (CECT)
- Perform minimally invasive drainage of collections

Why is the Fistula not Healing

- **F**oreign Body
- **R**adiation
- **I**nflammation/ Infection (including IBD)
- **E**pithelization
- **N**eoplasm
- **D**istal Obstruction

Radiology

- CECT preferred
- Define **Anatomy of "Leak"**
- Define anatomy of healthy bowel.
- **Abdominal wall assessment** in case of difficult closure

Nutrition

- Calorie estimation taking stress factor into consideration.
- Enteral nutrition preferred over parenteral nutrition.
- TPN complication management • Refeeding Syndrome Management

Novel Therapy

- Drugs: Octreotide
- Vacuum-assisted wound management
- Fistuloclysis

Restoration

- Resection of diseased segment
- Restore anatomical continuity
- Avoid short bowel syndrome

ACUTE UPPER AND LOWER GI BLEEDING

Dr Dipankar Ray

ACUTE UPPER GI BLEEDING

History, physical examination, estimate mild, moderate, severe bleedin

- Syncope, shock, co-morbidities, ongoing brisk bleeding - Admit in ICU
- Resuscitation - wide bore IV access - crystalloids infusion
- Blood - CBC, Clotting, U & E, LFT, cross match

SUSPECTED VARICEAL BLEEDING

- Octreotide bolus / infusion (or Terlipressin)
- PPI infusion, antibiotics beneficial
- Correct coagulopathy (FFP/ Vit K/ platelets if low)
- Urgent Endoscopy once patient stabilized
- Aim for CVP around 4 -8 cm H2O
- EVL for esophageal varices but gastric variceal bleeding is difficult to control
- Cyanoacrylate glue application / sclerotherapy for gastric varices
- Severe exsanguinating bleeding which cannot be controlled endoscopically – consider SBT (Sengstaken – Blakemore Tube) insertion after endotracheal intubation. Initial control is good but recurrent bleeding after deflation in 50%. Repeat endoscopy for control can be tried, but not more than 2 attempts.
- Consider TIPS or emergency porto-systemic shunt with lower esophageal devascularisation.
- Consider Balloon – occluded retrograde transvenous obliteration (BRTO) for gastric variceal uncontrolled bleeding.

SUSPECTED NON VARICEAL UPPER GI BLEEDING

- Mostly peptic ulcers, consider Mallory-Weiss tear, GAVE, GIST, Dieulafoy lesions
- About 80% cases settle spontaneously
- Glasgow-Blatchford score for management decisions like hospital admission, urgency of endoscopy (e.g. – score > 4 needs urgent endoscopy)
- Rockall score post endoscopy for re-bleed risk and mortality prediction
- Forrest classification of ulcers found in endoscopy predict re-bleeding risk
- Resuscitation , iv PPI
- Main treatment endoscopic – options
 - Mechanical method (e. g. Clips) +/- adrenaline injection
 - Thermal coagulation + adrenaline
 - Fibrin or Thrombin + adrenaline

Consider surgery –

- Failed endoscopic control in high risk stigmata (e.g. Forrest 1a lesion)
- Second re-bleed after endoscopic attempts if age < 60 yrs, consider earlier in patients > 60 yrs old.
- Ongoing bleeding after 6 to 8 units blood/PRBC transfusion
- Operation involves over sewing bleeding vessels, vagotomy+ pyloroplasty or partial gastrectomy depending on case.

ACUTE LOWER GI BLEEDING

- Bleeding from intestine below ligaments of Treitz.
- Haematochezia implies lower GI bleeding usually (rarely brisk upper GI bleeding can cause it)
- Similarly up to 35% patients presenting with melaena can have bleeding distal to ligament of Treitz including right colon.

HISTORY, PHYSICAL EXAMINATION, ESTIMATE MILD, MODERATE, SEVERE BLEEDING



- Syncope, shock, co-morbidities, ongoing brisk bleeding ----- Admit in ICU
- Resuscitation ---- wide bore IV access ---- crystalloids infusion
- Blood – CBC, Clotting, U & E, LFT, cross match
- Overall 90% stops spontaneously, 35% need transfusion, 5% urgent surgery

Management

- Severe haematochezia – NG tube and urgent upper GI endoscopy
- Colonoscopy with bowel preparation – investigation of choice – source identified in majority
- May need intestinal lavage with 4 -6 L osmotic laxative through NG tube
- CT angiography or DSA is alternative and often more practical in brisk haemorrhage
- Limited role for pharmacotherapy (tranexamic acid not routinely recommended)
- Endoscopic control in selective cases by clips, adrenaline injection or electro coagulation
- Angiographic coil embolization effective
- Emergency surgery can be tricky if source is not confidently identified pre-operative.
- Keep provision for on table lavage, per-operative colonoscopy.

CORROSIVE INJURIES OF UPPER GI TRACT

Dr. Inian Samaresan

INITIAL ASSESSMENT (ABC)

HISTORY & EXAMINATION

INVESTIGATIONS

- CBC, ELECTROLYTES, ABG
- CHEST X-RAY
- CT SCAN THORAX/ABDOMEN
- CT GRADING OF INJURY
- ENDOSCOPY (<48 hrs)
- ZARGAR GRADING

ZARGAR GRADE

GRADE 0, 1

OBSERVE
SOFT DIET
PPIs

NO LONG
TERM
SEQUELAE

GRADE II_a

NPO
IV FLUIDS
OBSERVE

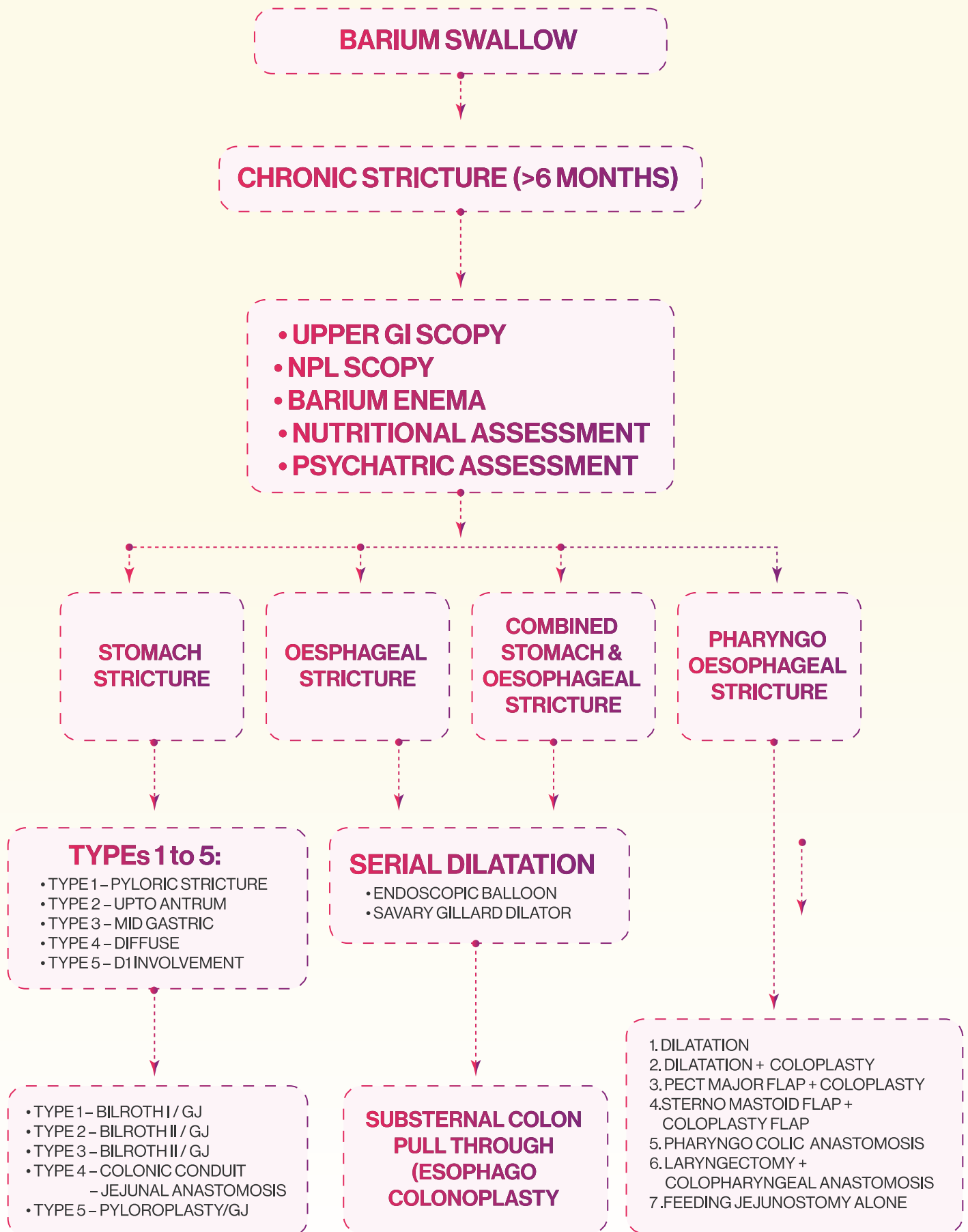
GRADE II_b, III

NPO
IV FLUIDS
FEEDING
JEJUNOSTOMY

BARIUM
SWALLOW

GRADE IV

EMERGENCY
SURGERY



BARRETS OESOPHAGUS

Dr. Satyapriya De Sarkar

Barretts mucosa (Result of profuse GERD)

Endoscopic diagnosis and gradation according to Prague classification based on circumferential (C) and maximum extent (M)

Endoscopic biopsy to grade type of dysplasia

No dysplasia

Surveillance 3 year

Low-grade dysplasia

Repeat Yearly

High-grade dysplasia

3 monthly therapy

Adenocarcinoma

Endoscopic Resection or Surgery

Newer endoscopic technologies helping assess dysplasia

- Narrow Band Imaging (NBI)
- Flexible Spectral Imaging Colour Enhancement (FICE)
- I-Scan

Treatment modalities

Endoscopic

Surgical

Ablation

Resection

- Argon plasma Coagulation
- Multipolar electrocoagulation
- Cryotherapy
- Photodynamic therapy
- Radiofrequency Ablation

Histopathology cannot be assessed

- Endoscopic mucosal resection
- Complete circumferential endoscopic resection
- Endoscopic submucosal dissection

(Histopathological confirmation is precise)

Population-based study of patients with early esophageal adenocarcinoma → Endoscopic therapy is equally effective with surgical resection in longterm survival.

CARCINOMA OESOPHAGUS

Dr Inian Samaresan

Endoscopic biopsy
+
MSI / HER2 / PDL-1

STAGING:

1. CECT/PET CT
2. STAGING LAPAROSCOPY (Adeno ca – GEJ)
3. BRONCHOSCOPY/WASHINGS (SCC-Upper/Mid Thoracic)
4. ENDOSCOPIC USG (Early Cancer)

MULTI DISCIPLINARY TUMOUR BOARD DISCUSSION

MEDICALLY FIT

MEDICALLY UNFIT

CERVICAL
LOCATION
(SCC)

THORACIC / GEJ
TUMOURS
(SCC / ADENO)

PALLIATION / BEST
SUPPORTIVE CARE

DEFINITIVE
CRT

T_{is}

T_{1a}

T_{1b-4a}

T_{4b}

Any T, N
M₁

ENDOSCOPIC
RESECTION +/-
ABLATION

ENDOSCOPIC
RESECTION (or)
ESOPHAGECTOMY

GOOD
PERFORMANCE
STATUS

POOR
PERFORMANCE
STATUS

UPFRONT
SURGERY

T_{1b}, T₂ N₀

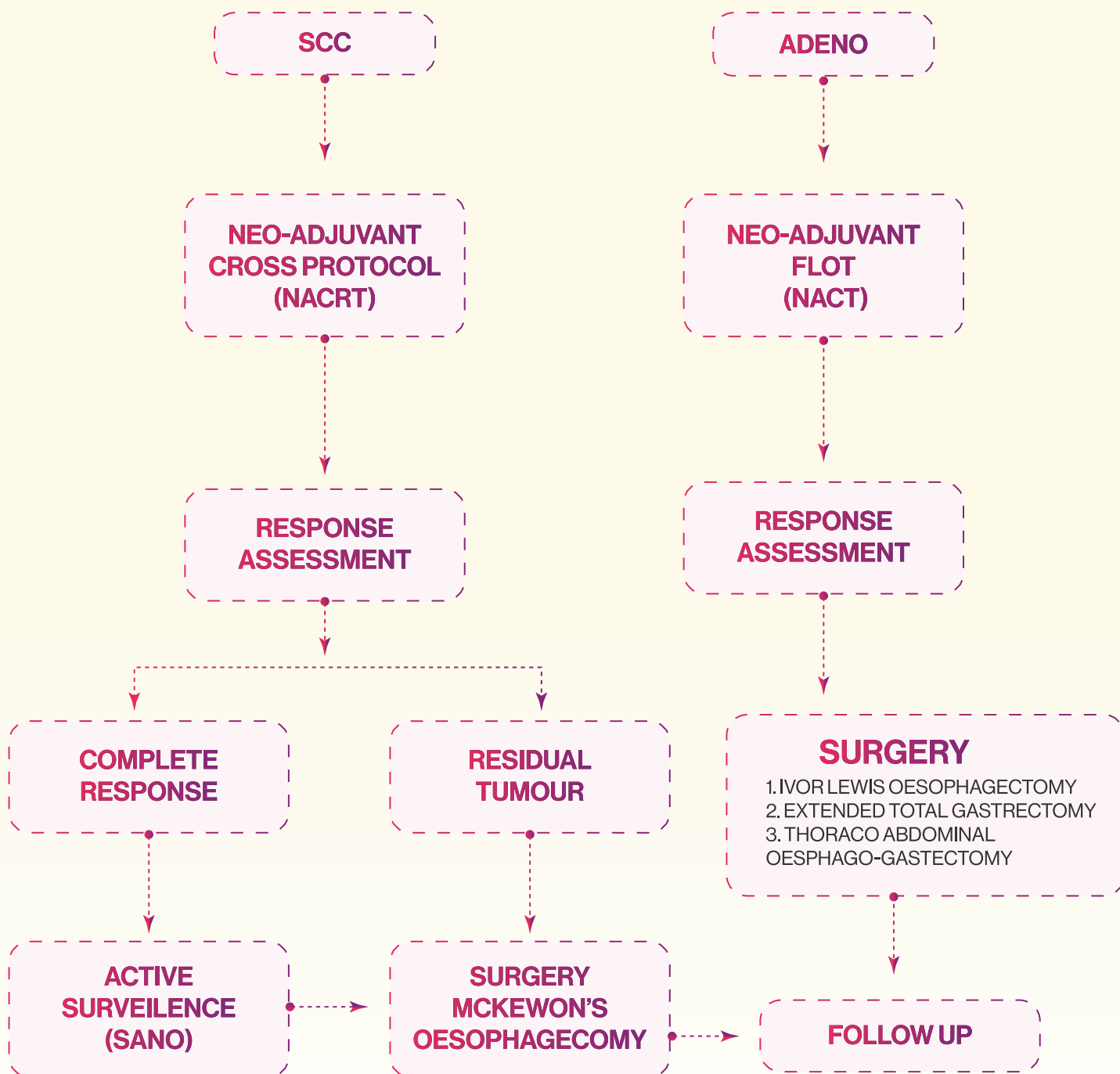
>T₂ or N₊

SYSTEMIC/
IMMUNO
THERAPY

BEST
SUPPORTIVE
CARE

SCC

ADENO



GASTRIC ADENOCARCINOMA

Dr. Manas Roy

Symptoms

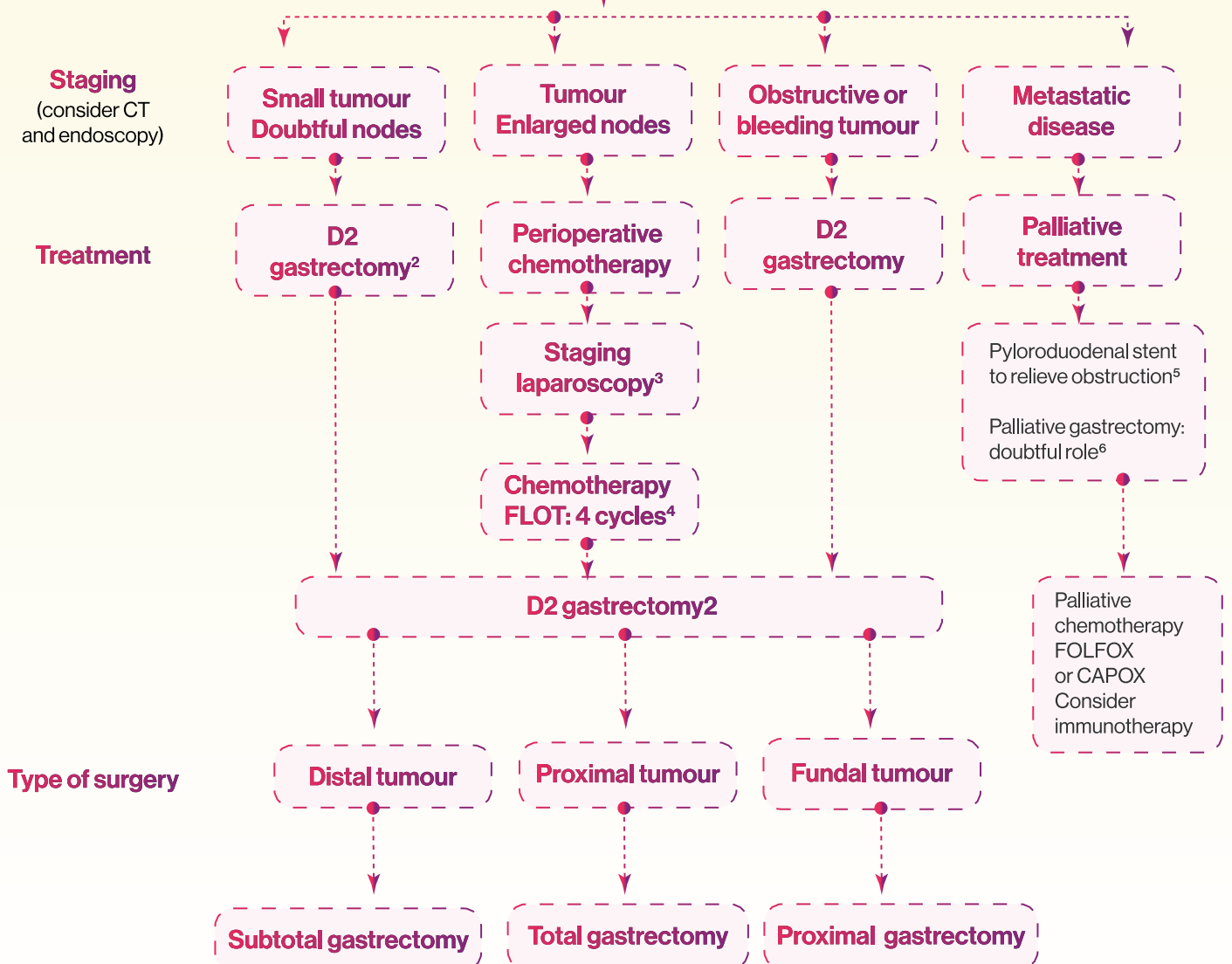
Loss of appetite-weight, early satiety, vomiting, anaemia

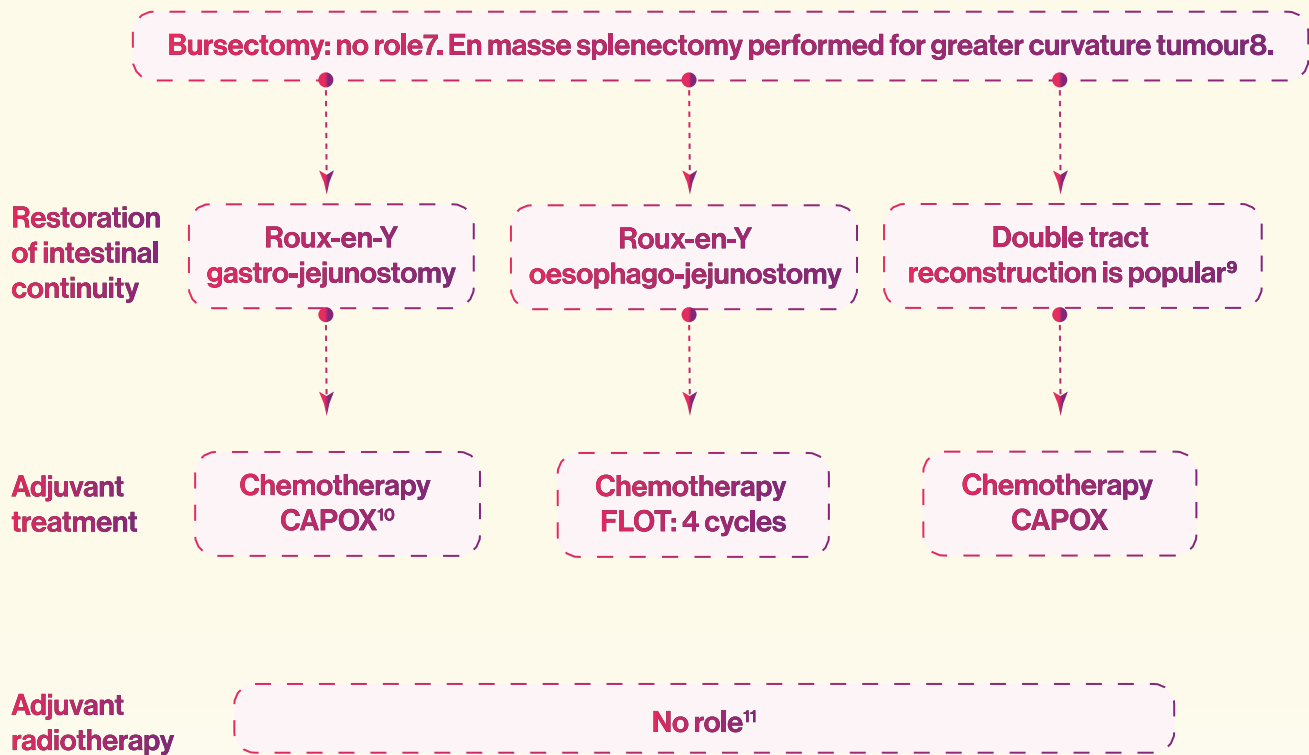
Investigations

Routine bloods, Endoscopy, CT thorax-abdomen-pelvis¹

Endoscopy

Greater/lesser curvature, antrum/body/fundus, appearance of tumour (Bormann), distance from GE junction, obstructive or not





Early gastric cancer, not so common in our country, have been excluded for the sake of clarity.

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(7) Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2018 July;3(7): 460-468. (8) Ann Surg 2017 Feb: 265(2): 277-83

(9) Ann Med Surg (Lond). 2022 May 31;79:103879 (10) Lancet 2012; 379: 315-21 (11) Ann Oncol. 2021 Mar;32(3):368-374

ACUTE APPENDICITIS

Dr Niloy Mandal

Classic clinical presentation

Symptoms

- Periumbilical pain, gradually shifting to right iliac fossa,
- Anorexia
- Diarrhea or constipation

Physical examination

- Fever
- Tachycardia
- Ill looking
- Tenderness in McBurney point
- Rigidity or rebound tenderness- suggestive of appendicular perforation
- Rovsing sign, obturator sign, psoas sign- indicates localized peritonitis, but not diagnostic of acute appendicitis.

Atypical presentation

- Retrocecal appendix may present with flank or back pain or right subcostal area.
- Suprapubic pain (due to inflamed appendiceal tip in pelvis)

DIAGNOSIS(based on symptoms and signs, clinical scoring systems and imaging)

Besides symptoms and signs, several scoring systems are developed, but few are recommended in recent consensus guidelines for regular clinical use- (i) Appendicitis inflammatory response(AIR) score; (ii) Adult appendicitis score(AAS); (iii) Alvarado score. How clinical scoring helps?- (a) By excluding acute appendicitis; (b) Guides which patient needs imaging or surgery; (c) Which patient can be discharged.

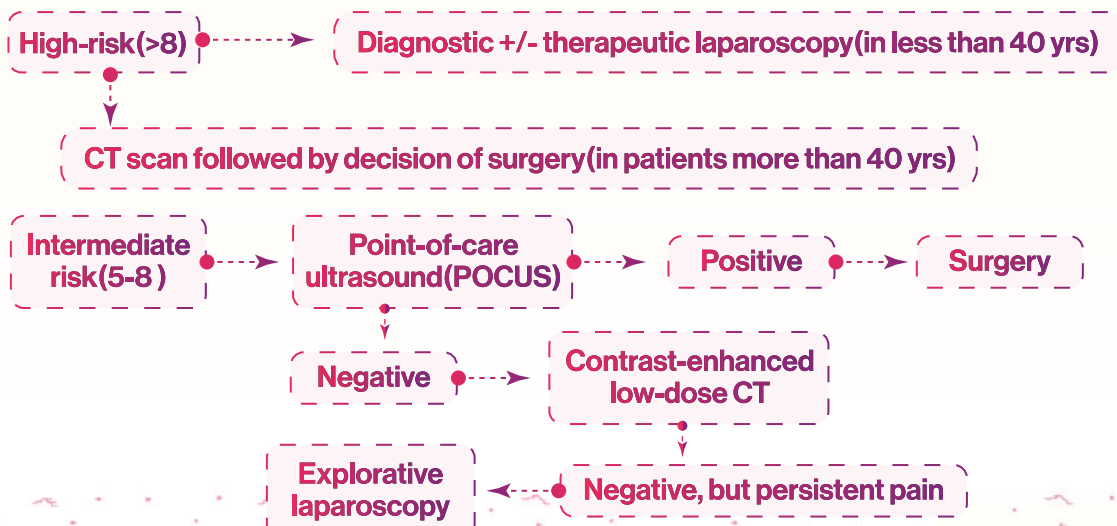
In adult patients-



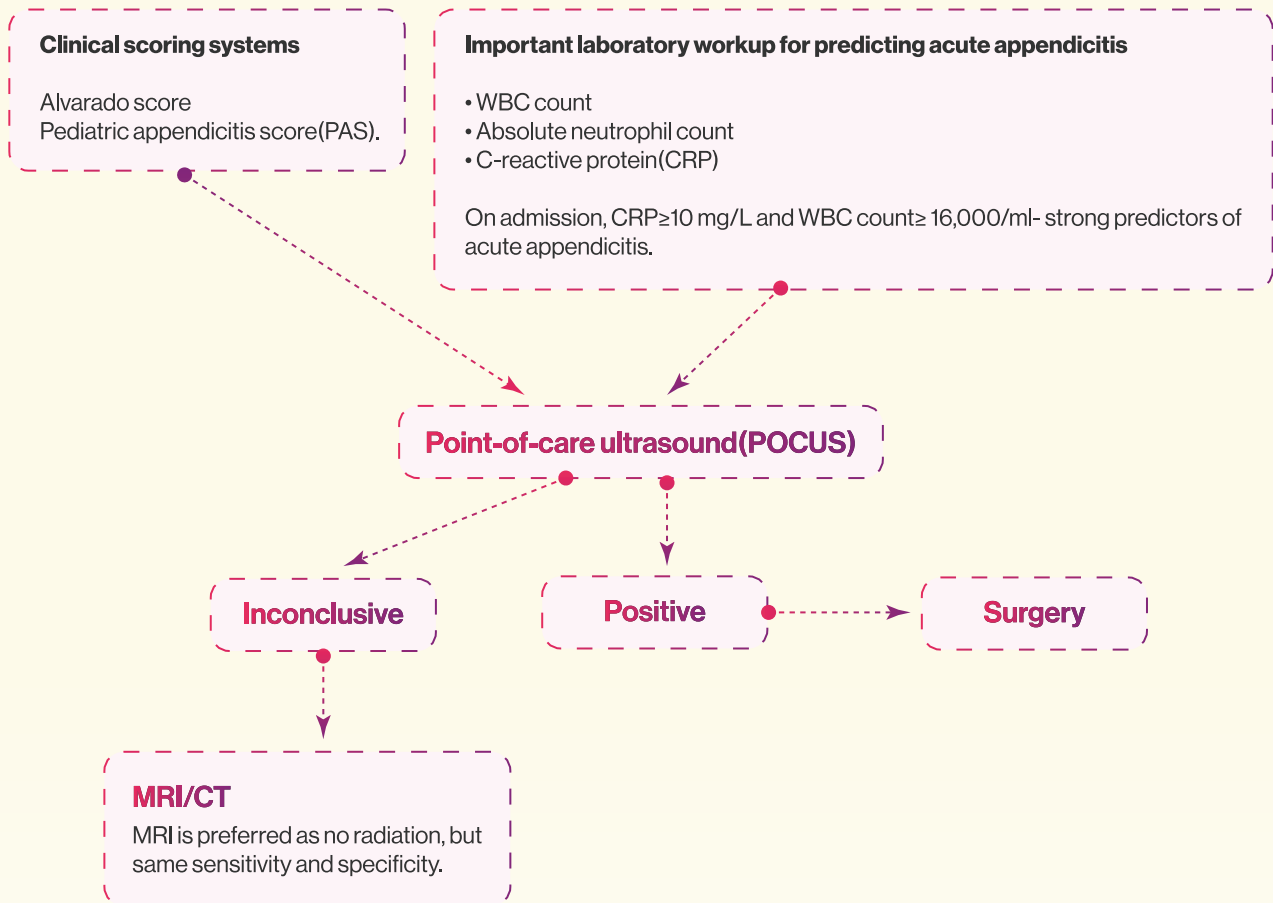
Don't use this score for positive confirmation.

AIR score-

Low-risk(<5)- Patient may discharged;

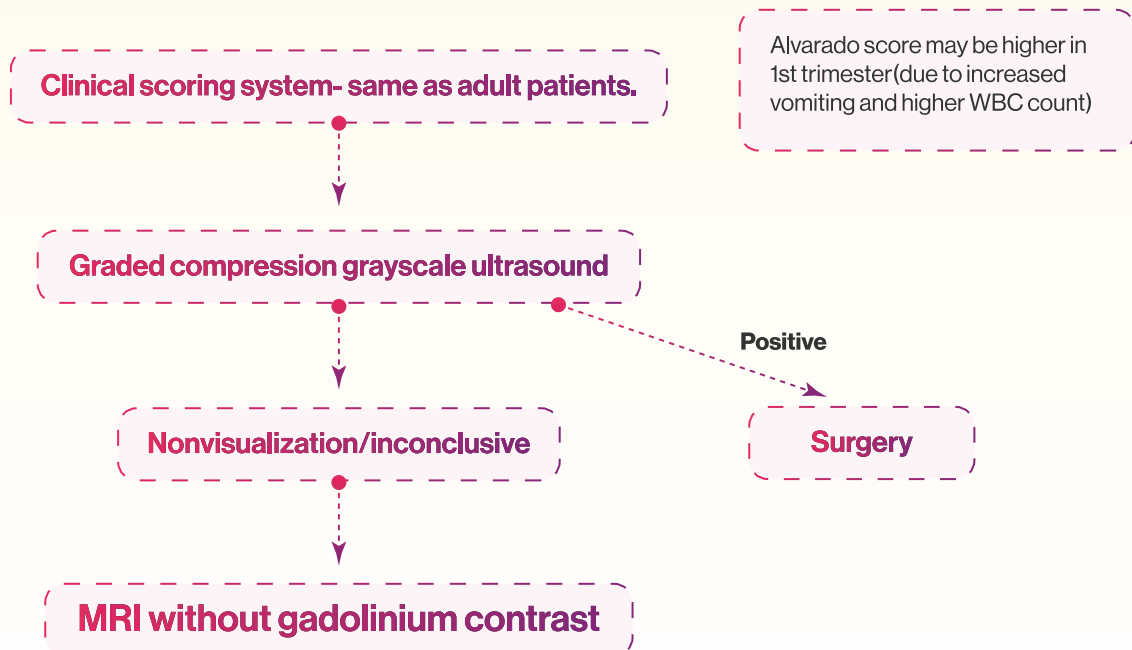


In pediatric patients



In pregnant women

Clinical presentations not always like adult patient(nausea and vomiting may be related to pregnancy, cephalad displacement of appendix due to gravid uterus)



In elderly patients

(1) Classic symptoms and signs of acute appendicitis is not always present



So, high index of suspicion is important for early diagnosis and management

(2) Wide range of differential diagnosis must be kept in mind- acute diverticulitis, complicated UTI, intestinal ischemia, ischemic colitis



Early CT abdomen

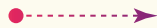
- Routine CT often reduce the delay in diagnosis
- Can differentiate complicated from uncomplicated appendicitis

Early diagnosis and treatment is very important because of higher risk of appendicular perforation and higher morbidity due to presence of comorbidities.

Role of imaging

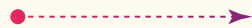
In adult patients

Positive US findings
(enlarged, immobile, noncompressible)



Appendectomy

Nonvisualization or inconclusive
US findings



Acute appendicitis cannot be ruled out



CT findings

diameter more than 7 mm,
thickened and inflamed wall, mural
enhancement



Appendectomy

Contrast enhanced low-dose CT abdomen



In pediatric patients

Point-of-care ultrasound
(POCUS)



Positive



Appendectomy

Inconclusive

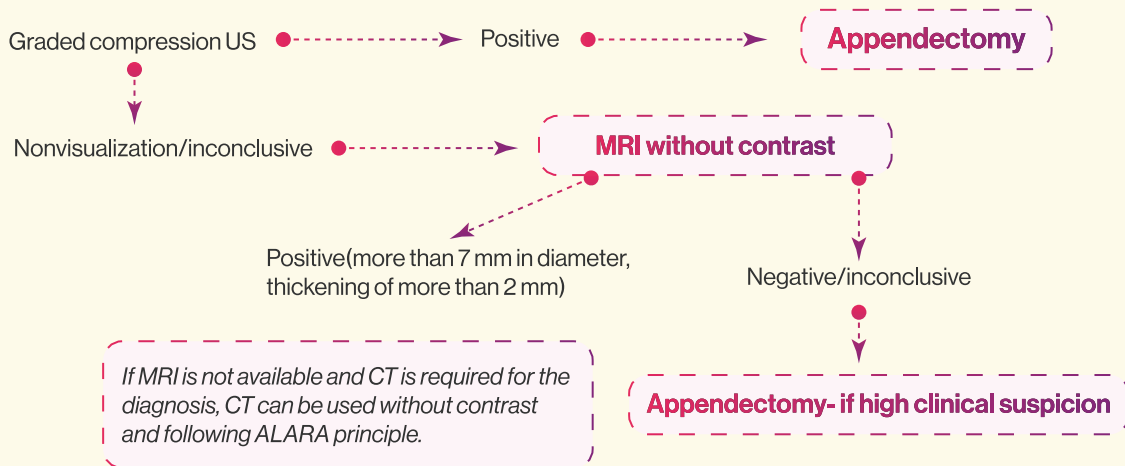


Repeat US
MRI
CT

If MRI is available, it is preferred in children because

No radiation
Can differentiate perforated from non-perforated appendicitis.

In pregnant women



MANAGEMENT

Any role of non-operative management?

-The answer is yes, but **first exclude-** (i) Complicated appendicitis (e.g. gangrenous AA, appendicular abscess, diffuse peritonitis) by imaging; (ii) Presence of appendicolith.

Second, counsel the patient about failure of NOM/recurrence.

Your decision of NOM with antibiotic therapy is likely to be successful if- (a) Lower temperature; (b) Smaller diameter of appendix.

Duration of antibiotic therapy- IV antibiotic for at least 48 hrs then oral antibiotic (total 7-10 days).

Recommended IV antibiotic regime- (a) Ceftriaxone 2g 24 hrly + metronidazole 500 mg 6 hrly; (b) Cefotaxime 2g 8 hrly + metronidazole 500 mg 6 hrly; (c) Ciprofloxacin 400 mg 8 hrly + metronidazole 500 mg 6 hrly. Any of the regimes according to availability or patient compliance.

Surgical management-

Indications- (a) Complicated appendicitis; (b) Patient wants surgery though a candidate for NOM.

Approach- Laparoscopic/open. Laparoscopic appendectomy is recommended for both uncomplicated and complicated appendicitis if expertise and equipments are available. Laparoscopic approach is safe and feasible during pregnancy.

Decision of some crucial Intraoperative steps- (a) During laparoscopic appendectomy in complicated appendicitis, suction aspiration of gross purulence is effective, no extra advantage of peritoneal irrigation; (b) No difference in clinical outcome for different techniques of mesoappendix dissection (e.g. monopolar electrocoagulation, bipolar device, vessel sealer, ultrasound energy devices); (c) For stump closure, endoloop/suture ligation or polymeric clip is recommended. In complicated cases, endostapler may be considered based on surgeon's choice and availability; (c) Stump inversion is not recommended; (d) Intraperitoneal drain is not recommended after appendectomy for complicated appendicitis (no benefit in prevention of development of intra-abdominal abscess).

In uncomplicated appendicitis, preoperative single dose of antibiotic is recommended, postoperative antibiotics are not recommended. It is recommended for complicated AA.

Acute appendicitis with abscess/phlegmon

Diagnosis- CT abdomen with IV contrast.

Treatment of appendicular abscess

IV antibiotics + percutaneous image-guided drainage

If technically not feasible

Laparoscopic/transrectal/transvaginal drainage of abscess

Laparoscopic operative approach may only be considered if advanced laparoscopic expertise is available.

Treatment of periappendiceal phlegmon

IV antibiotic therapy for 4-7 days

Responding to treatment

Not responding to treatment

Imaging to rule out appendicular abscess

Is routine interval appendectomy indicated after conservative management of appendicular abscess or phlegmon?

NOM of appendicular abscess/phlegmon

Recurrent symptoms

Interval appendectomy

No symptoms

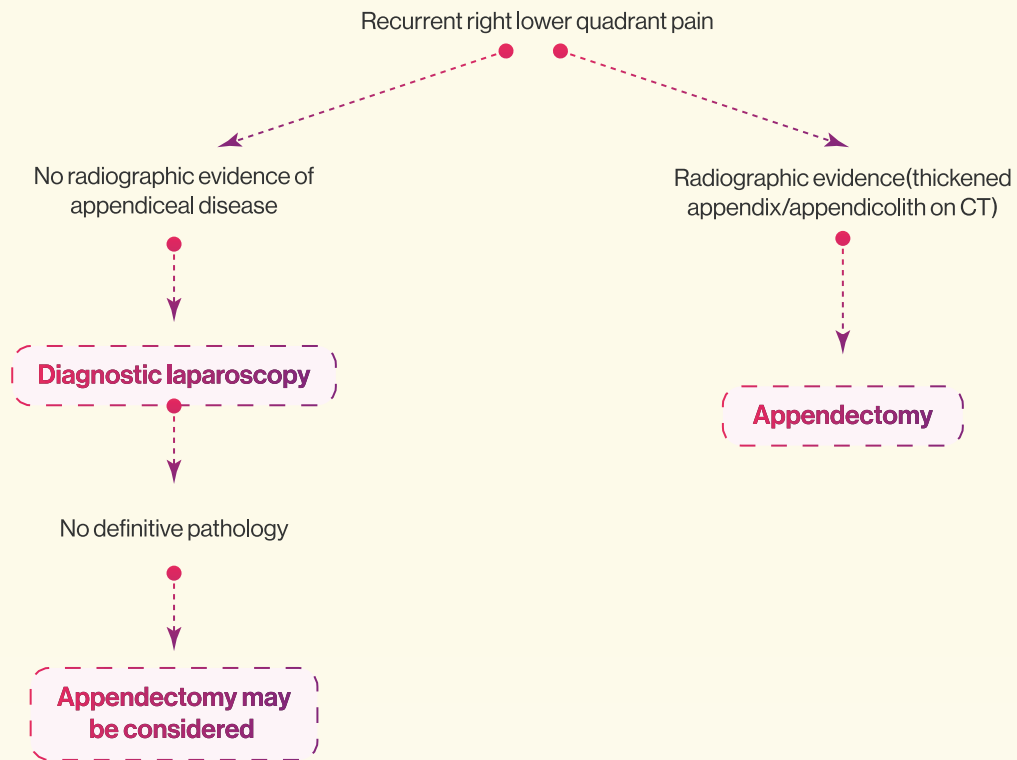
Patient age ≥ 40 yrs

Colonoscopy
Full dose contrast-enhanced CT

Patient age < 40 yrs

No need of any active management

Chronic appendicitis



APPENDICULAR NEOPLASM

Dr Avishek Ganguly

1. Mucinous Neoplasms

• Subtypes: LAMN | HAMN | Mucinous Carcinoma Peritonei

Localized disease:

Previous appendectomy done → Check margin:

- Margin negative → Surveillance
- Margin positive → Caecal cuff resection / Ileocecal resection

Radiological diagnosis → Diagnostic laparoscopy + appendectomy

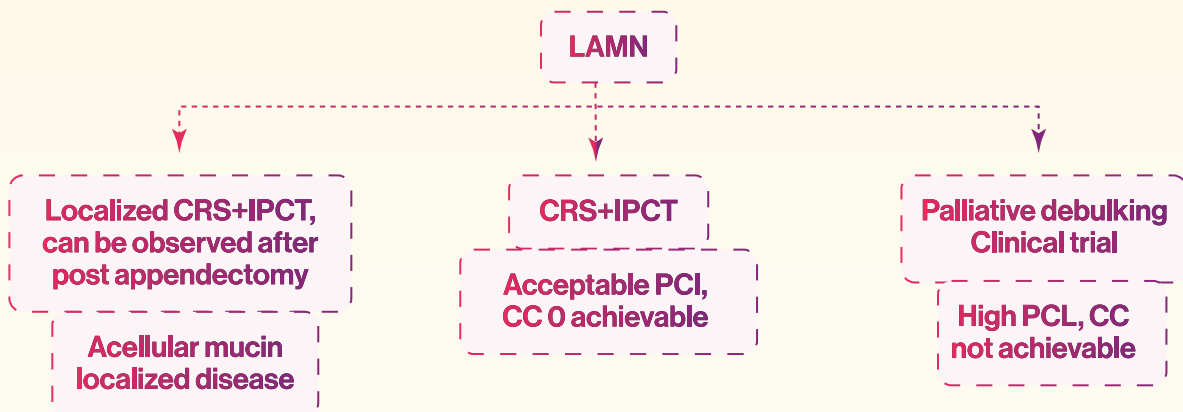
Peritoneum-only disease:

• High-grade carcinoma peritonei/ GCA

Do Biomarker, consider NACT - If good response → CRS + IPCT

When only WDAC, low PCI → Consider upfront CRS + IPCT

• Low-grade appendiceal mucinous neoplasm (LAMN)



2. Appendiceal Adenocarcinoma / Undifferentiated / NOS

- Localized → Right hemicolectomy + Adjuvant FOLFOX / CAPEOX
- Metastatic → Palliative chemotherapy

3. Neuroendocrine Tumor (NET)

- Tumor <1 cm (no invasion) → Simple appendectomy
- Tumor 1–2 cm:
 - No serosal invasion → Simple appendectomy
 - Serosal invasion / mesoappendiceal invasion → Right hemicolectomy
- Tumor >2 cm → Right hemicolectomy

Check for lymph node involvement and grade (G1–G3) – Adjuvant chemo based on these factors

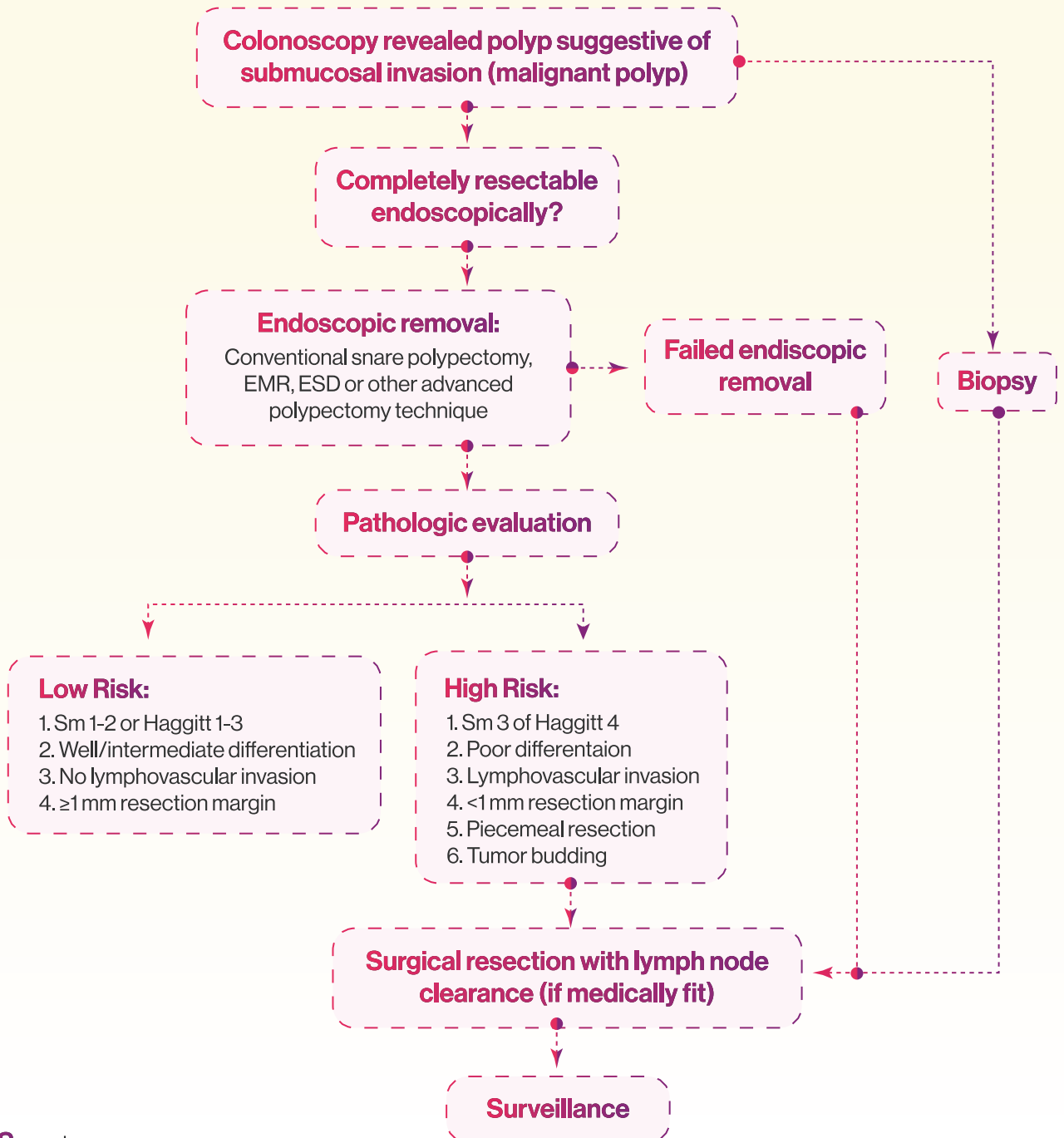
COLON CANCER

Dr Arnab Chakraborty

Diagnostic workup:

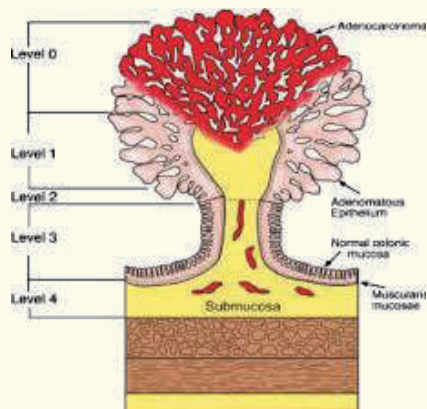
1. Clinical examination (MANDATORY Per rectal examination)
2. Diagnosis: Full-length colonoscopy and biopsy (Full length preferable to rule out synchronous lesion in 3-8 % cases)
3. Staging: Contrast CT abdomen/pelvis/thorax
4. WBPET not advisable for staging in routine cases
5. Serum CEA for prognostication only.

T1 OR SMALLER TUMOR ALGORITHM



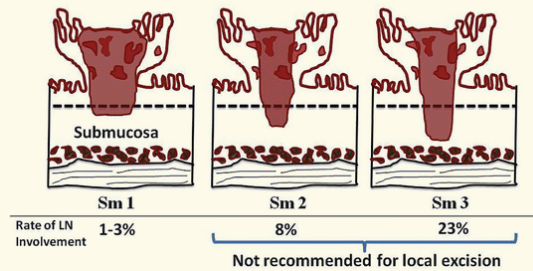
POLYPS can be

1. Pedunculated (Classified as Haggitts classification)
2. Sessile (Classified by Kikuchi classification)



Kikuchi Classification (for T1): Based on Extent of Submucosal Invasion

- Sm 1 = upper third of submucosa
- Sm 2 = middle third of submucosa
- Sm 3 = lower third of submucosa



Any adenocarcinoma involvement of submucosa layer mandates Colectomy with lymph node dissection (Minimum 12 nodes)

BIOPSY:

Colonoscopic biopsy preferred and sent for MSI/MMR testing preferably at first biopsy

BEFORE STARTING TREATMENT:

All Colon Cancer patients should undergo

1. Family h/o FAP/HNPCC/Afap
2. Fertility risk discussion

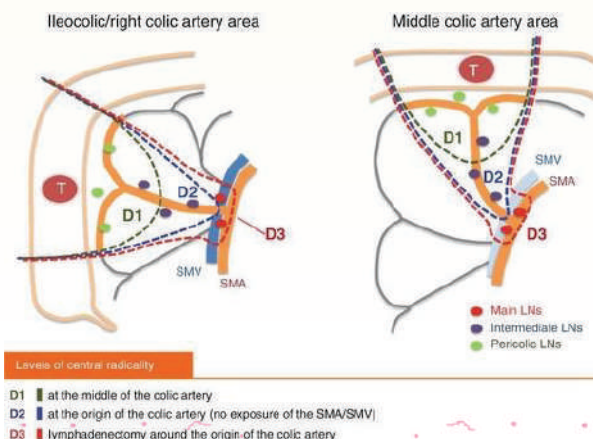
>T1N0 tumours are subjected to Radical colectomy with lymph node dissection

Surgical principles

1. Wide excision of tumour with at least 5 cm segment of colon on both side (Can be more depending on the blood supply)
2. Enblock Colon & Mesocolon resection with LN
3. Minimum 12 LN harvest
4. During procedure, ALWAYS inspect peritoneum and Ovaries in female
5. Enblock resection of adjacent involved organs in T4b disease if feasible
6. Obstructive colon cancers may be operated in one or two stage (Hartmann/Stoma)
7. Colonic stenting in high risk patients (age >70, ASA III/IV)

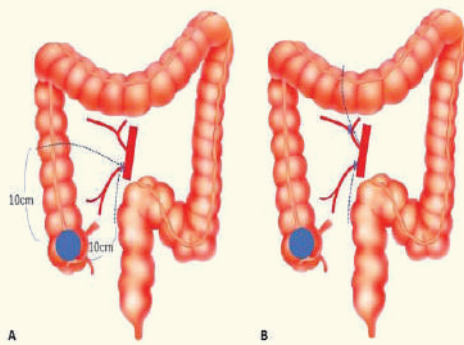
TYPES OF SURGERY & VESSELS INVOLVED ACCORDING TO LOCATION

Right	Hepatic flexure	Transverse	Splenic flexure	Left	Sigmoid
Ileocolic, right colic (if present)	Ileocolic, right colic (if present), middle colic	Middle colic	Middle colic, ascending left colic	Inferior mesenteric + ascending left colic	Inferior mesenteric



BASED ON SINGLE VESSEL

- D1: EPICOLIC NODE DISSECTION
- D2: D1+INTERMEDIATE NODE
- D3: D2 +PRINCIPLE NODE



D3 vs CME

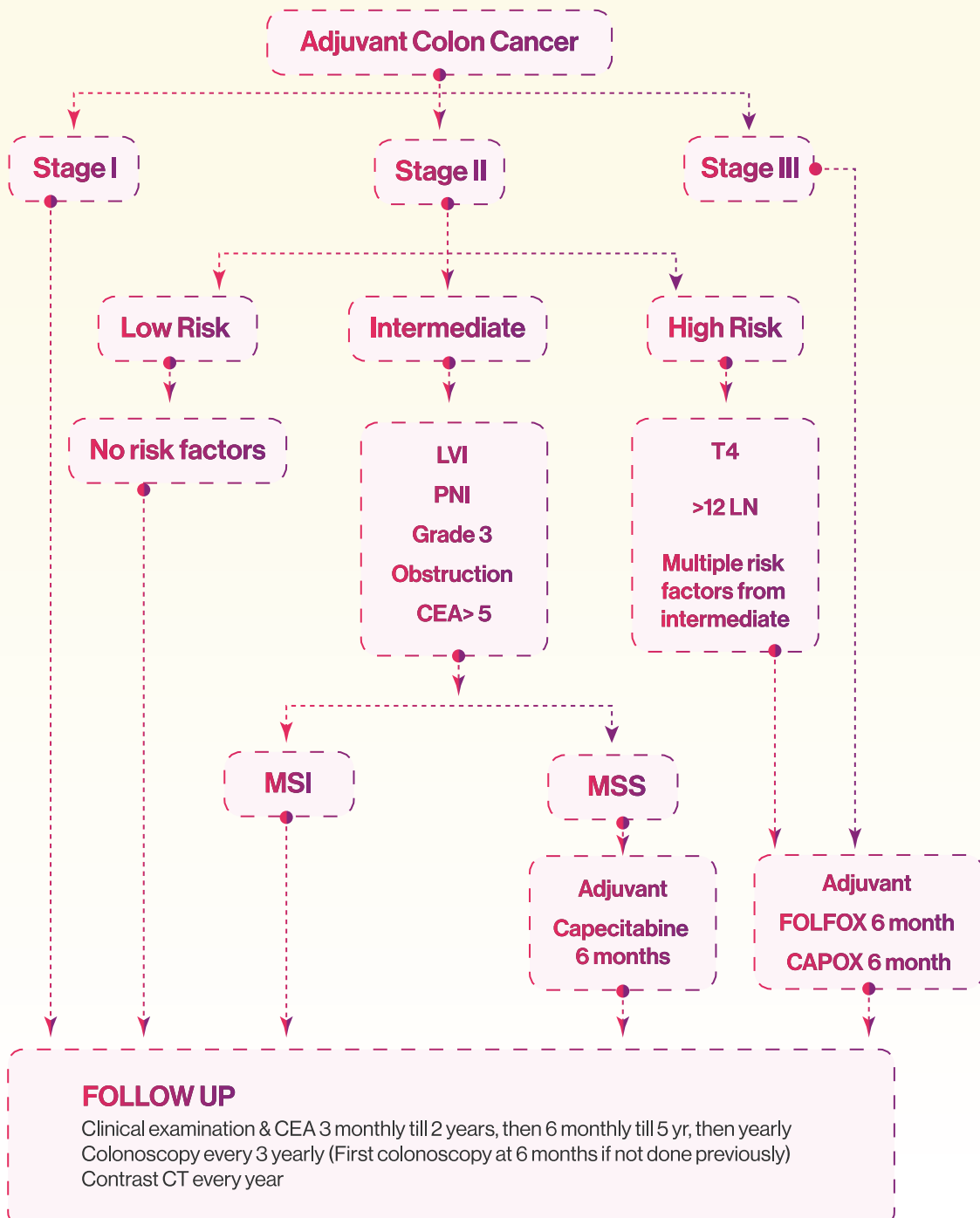
A. D3 COLECTOMY: Smaller area of bowel resected, 10 cm margin

B. CME: Larger area of bowel & mesocolon resected, higher LN dissection

MSI TESTING MANDATORY IN ALL BIOPSY SAMPLES

1. MSH2, MSH6 LOSS: indicates **LYNCH SYNDROME**

2. MLH1, PMS2 LOSS: indicates **BRAF MUTATION** (ANTI BRAF AGENTS CAN BE USED)



RECTAL PROLAPSE

Dr. Udipta Ray

Types:

- 1 Partial (1-4cm, mucosa+submucosa)
- 2 Complete (>4cm, full thickness)

Management of Partial Prolapse:

Infants + Young children

Digital reposition (Taping of buttocks in infants)

If fails

- Thiersch procedure (anal cerclage)
- Submucosal sclerosant injection

Adults

Localised small area

- Submucosal sclerosing Injection
- Partial excision

Circumferential prolapse

Stapled
Haemorrhoidopexy

+ Treatment of cause

- Malnutrition
- Chronic Constipation/diarrhoea
- GI infections, Spina bifida, Cystic fibrosis

- Sphincter atony
- Complete perineal tear

Management of Complete Prolapse:

Acute presentation (incarcerated) in children (rare)

Manual Reduction

- + Treatment of cause (like malnutrition)
- + Evaluation of cause and treatment

Surgical correction in specialised centres

Management of Complete Rectal Prolapse in adults:

Assess (clinical, DRE, history)

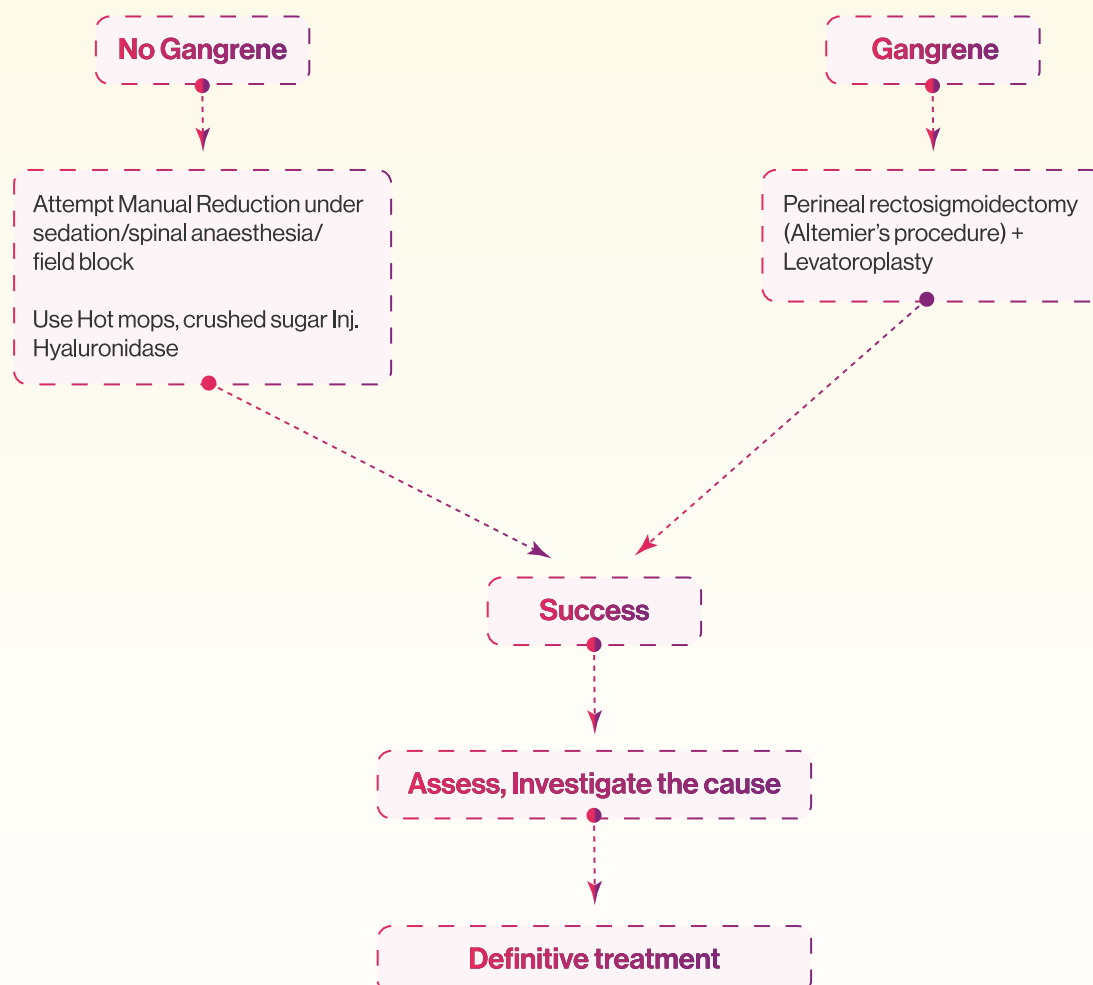
- A) Type & size
- B) Condition of prolapse (gangrenous/irreducible)
- C) Patient status: Age, GC, comorbidities, drugs, mental health
- D) Cause: ulcer, growths
- E) Associated symptoms: severity & duration of constipation, fecal incontinence
- F) Surgical expertise

Investigations (for elective, non-emergent causes)

- i. Colonoscopy
- ii. MR dynamic defecography
- iii. Anorectal manometry

According to presentation

1. Acute irreducible prolapse



2. Reducible prolapse

Patient fit for GA; longer life expectancy



Abdominal surgical procedures (open/Lap/Robotics):

I. Rectopexy

- Mesh (anterior or posterior)
- Suture - Posterior (most common)

II. Resection rectopexy

- For significant prolonged constipation & long redundant sigmoid colon

III. Anterior Resection

Goals of surgery

1. Correct prolapse
2. Correct functional issues: constipation/incontinence
3. Avoid creating new bowel dysfunction

Important adjuncts to surgery

1. Dietary regimen
2. Pelvic floor exercises
3. Biofeedback
4. Follow-up

Very frail, elderly, injury/disease of spinal cord, unfit for GA



Perineal procedures:

i. Anal encirclement

for very frail patients

ii. Altemeier procedure (perineal rectosigmoidectomy)

iii. Perineal stapled prolapse resection

RECTAL CANCER

Dr. Soumen Das

This care pathway is based on NCCN guidelines and recent evidence on Total Neoadjuvant Therapy (TNT).

1. Initial Evaluation & Work-up

- Digital rectal exam, proctoscopy
- Colonoscopy + Biopsy (MMR/MSI)
- Serum CEA
- MRI Pelvis (T, N, CRM, MRF, EMVI)
- CT Thorax/Abdomen ± PET-CT
- Endo-USG if MRI contraindicated
- Stoma therapist consult; fertility counseling

2. Care Pathway (Simplified Flow)

- Diagnosis & Staging →
- T1-T2 N0 → Surgery (TME) → Adjuvant if adverse features
- T3N0 CRM- → Surgery ± Neoadjuvant therapy
- Locally Advanced (T3 CRM+, T4, N+, EMVI+, MRF+) →
 - Total Neoadjuvant Therapy (TNT):
 - Induction Chemo → CRT → TME
 - SCRT (5x5 Gy) → Chemo (FOLFOX/CAPOX) → TME
 - Restaging: MRI + Proctoscopy ± Biopsy
 - If Complete Response → Watch & Wait (OPRA)
 - If Residual Disease → TME Surgery
- Metastatic (oligometastatic, resectable) → Multidisciplinary resection ± systemic therapy

3. Special Considerations

- dMMR / MSI-H: Consider immunotherapy (Dostarlimab)
- Delay after SCRT possible (Stockholm III)
- Adjuvant therapy not mandatory after TNT
- Survivorship care: stoma, rehab, psychosocial support

ACUTE PANCREATITIS

Dr Sukanto Roy

Two of 3 following Criteria:

1) Abdominal pain consistent with disease; 2) Serum Amylase/lipase > 3 times the upper limit of normal; 3) Characteristic findings from abdominal imaging

Initial assessment and Risk stratification:

Ranson's criteria, APACHE II criteria, BISAP score, CT severity index, organ compromise, CRP, BUN, Hematocrit (HCT), SIRS

Findings associated with severe course from initial Assessment

Patient characteristics: Age >55 years, BMI > 30 Kg/m², altered mental status, co-morbid condition

Presence of SIRS

Lab parameters: BUN >20, HCT >44, elevated creatinine

Radiology: pleural effusion, pulmonary infiltrate, multiple or extrapancreatic collection

Mild AP:

IV fluid, NPO, IV analgesic, ± NG suction, start orally after control of pain

Severe AP:

Admit in monitored bed, NPO, IV fluid (**moderately aggressive fluid therapy, Ringer's lactate is the preferred fluid**), Nutritional support, IV analgesic, ± NG tube, ± intubation, 2-4 hourly monitoring and daily basic investigations. **Role of Antibiotic is debatable. ERCP:** is indicated for acute cholangitis and biliary obstruction

Complete recovery

Clinical deterioration

After 4 days, preferably between 6 to 10 days

For biliary AP:

Early cholecystectomy for mild AP, delay for 6-8 weeks for severe AP

Contrast enhanced CT scan

Pancreatic necrosis

Fluid collection:
follow up with
USG/CT scan

Edematous changes

Sterile

Infected

Resolution

Infection

Pseudocyst

Observation

Clinical deterioration

IV antibiotics

Debridement:
Endoscopic,
Laparoscopic,
Open surgery
Minimally invasive procedures are preferred

Drainage:
PCD/ Endoscopic/
Surgery (rarely)

Continue conservative managements

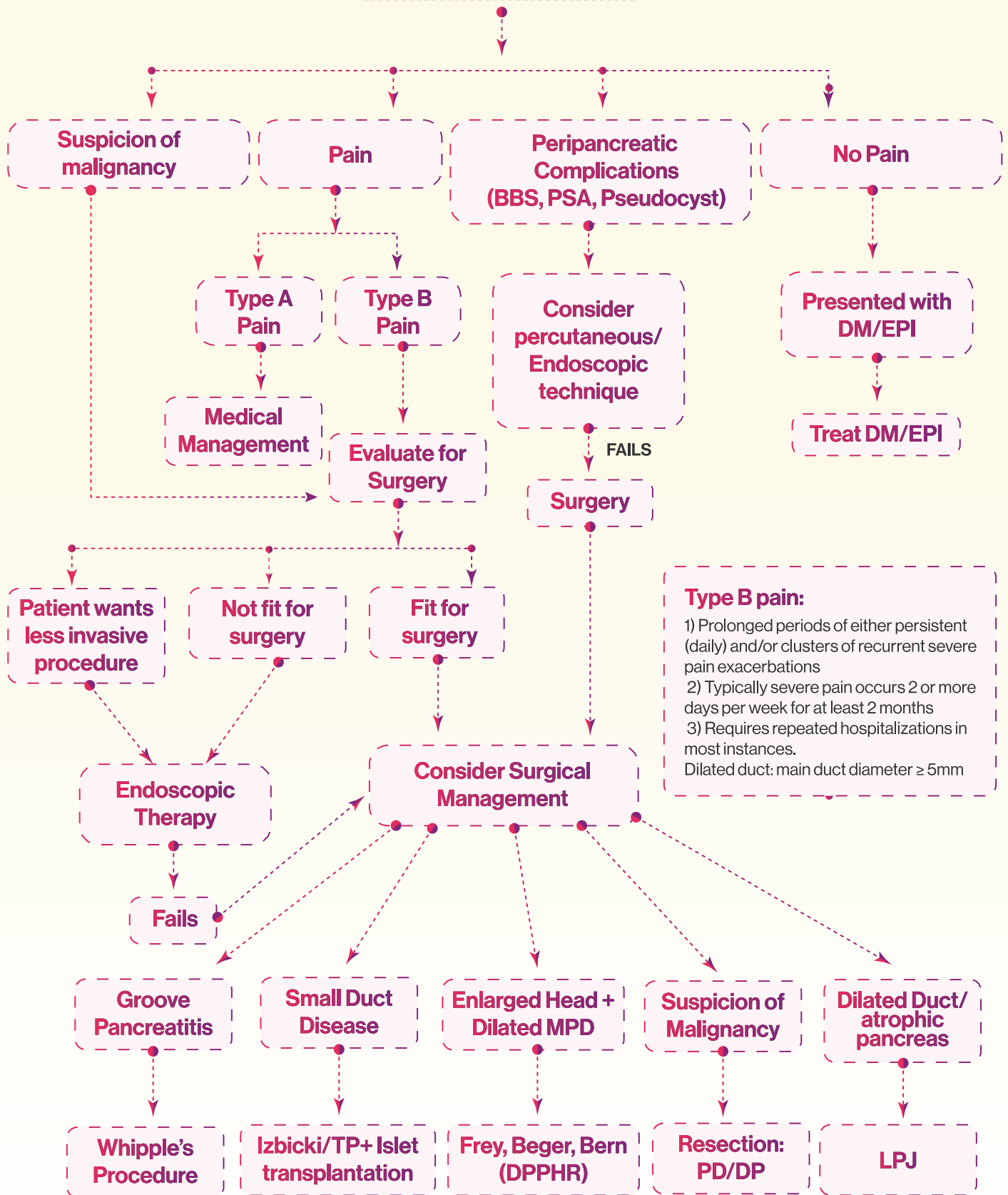
Develops symptoms or pseudocyst-related complications

Abbreviations:

PCD: percutaneous drainage, NPO- Nil per oral, SIRS: systemic inflammatory response syndrome, BUN: blood urea nitrogen, CRP: C reactive protein

CHRONIC PANCREATITIS

Dr Sukanto Roy



Algorithm for the management of chronic pancreatitis. PD: Pancreaticoduodenectomy; DP: distal pancreatectomy; TP: Total pancreatectomy, PSA- Pseudoaneurysm, BBS- Benign biliary stricture, DM- Diabetes mellitus, EPI- Exocrine pancreatic insufficiency

PANCREATIC CANCER

Dr Sanjay Mandal

Jaundice/ Pain abdomen

Work up:

- LFT
- USG w/a
- CA 19-9
- CECT upper abdomen Pancreatic protocol

**Resectable
(R) PDAC**

**Borderline (BR)
Resectable PDAC**

**Locally advanced
(LA) PDAC**

**Metastatic
(M) PDAC**

Upfront Surgery

Consider for preop biliary stenting if:

- Cholangitis
- Coagulopathy
- Poor GC (PS ≥ 2)
- High bilirubin (institutional protocol)

Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy with

- FOLFIRINOX
- Gemcitabine + Nab-Paclitaxel

Prior to starting chemotherapy:

- Biliary drainage (if Bilirubin $>3\text{mg/dl}$)
- Tissue diagnosis (EUS+FNB)

After neoadjuvant chemotherapy

Reassess with CECT or PET-CT or CA 19-9

**If no progression
of disease**

**Surgery (may need
vascular resection)**

**If disease
progression seen**

Palliation

For LA PDAC

- Biliary drainage (if Bil. >3mg/dl)
- Tissue diagnosis

Neoadjuvant chemotherapy (Conversion therapy)

Reassess with CECT or PET-CT or CA 19-9

**Responsive or
non progressive**

Palliation

Consider for surgery +/- vascular resection
(Done in high volume centres/ experience in
vascular resection)

For Metastatic PDAC

Palliation:

- i. Biliary drainage (SEMS placement)
- ii. Pain relief
- iii. Palliative chemotherapy

What's metastatic?

- i. Distant organ metastasis (like liver, lung etc)
- ii. Para-aortic LN
- iii. Extra abdominal LN
- iv. Omentum
- v. Ascites

CYSTIC NEOPLASM OF PANCREAS

Dr Supriyo Ghatak

Prevalence: ~10%

Increased incidental detection due to improved CT/MRI

80% of incidentally detected cysts are Branched duct IPMN

Cyst fluid analysis of different markers are not always definitive (Risk: needle tract seeding)

Commonest Differential diagnosis: **Pseudocyst of pancreas**

Few Other Differentials:

- Congenital cyst/ simple cyst
- Cystic NET
- Cystic adeno Carcinoma
- Lymphangioma
- Duodenal diverticulum

CYSTIC LESION IN THE PANCREAS

- History of pain suggestive of Acute pancreatitis/ Chronic Pancreatitis
- History of trauma
- Cyst Fluid amylase > 6000 U/ml
- Viscosity < 1.6
- CEA can be high
- No mucin

Consider **Pseudocyst**

- History of jaundice, weight loss, anorexia.
- High serum CA 19-9

Consider **Adeno carcinoma**

- Hormonal symptoms
- Enhancing on arterial phase
- Increased serum Chromogranin A

Consider **NET**

- Air inside the cystic lesion
- Endoscopic visualization of diverticulum

Consider **duodenal diverticulum**

Contrast enhanced CECT or **MRI** abdomen
(EUS, Contrast EUS, FNA needed in some cases when the diagnosis is not reached with CT or MRI)

Well defined, Solid with cystic tumour

Solid Pseudopapillary tumour

Resection, if fit

Multicystic, lobulated, each cyst <20mm,
central scar, no communication with PD
No mucin, CEA, Lipase not elevated

Serous cystadenoma

If asymptomatic Observe

No communication with PD
Cyst fluid:
Mucin +
Viscosity >1.6
Lipase <6000 U/ml
CEA > 192 ng/ml

Mucinous Cystic Neoplasm

Symptomatic or > 4cm, risk factors
like mural nodule : Resect

(Ovarian like stroma on biopsy
characteristic)

cyst >5 mm that communicates with MPD: **BD-IPMN**
segmental or diffuse dilation of the MPD of >5 mm
without other causes of MPD obstruction: **MD-IPMN**
Combination of both: **Mixed IPMN**
Mucin+
CEA > 192 ng/ml
KRAS mutated
GNAS wild

IPMN

High risk stigmata (Any one) : Resect if fit
(1) obstructive jaundice in a patient with cystic lesion of the head of the pancreas,
(2) an enhancing mural nodule ≥ 5 mm or solid component,
(3) main pancreatic duct ≥ 10 mm
(4) suspicious or positive results of cytology

Worrisome features
(1) acute pancreatitis,
(2) increased serum level of CA19-9,
(3) new onset or acute exacerbation of DM within the past year,
(4) cyst ≥ 30 mm,
(5) enhancing mural nodule < 5 mm,
(6) thickened/ enhancing cyst walls,
(7) MPD ≥ 5 mm and < 10 mm,
(8) abrupt change in calibre of pancreatic duct with distal pancreatic atrophy,
(9) lymphadenopathy
(10) cystic growth rate: 2.5 mm/year or more

Resect:

- if young and fit
- Multiple worrisome features
- Multiple acute pancreatitis attacks

Operative principles:

- If the suspicion of invasive carcinoma is high: Open/ lap/ robotic radical pancreatectomy with lymphadenectomy
- If suspicion of invasive carcinoma is low, organ preserving pancreatectomy
- Frozen section (IPMN): if margin shows high grade dysplasia or invasive carcinoma further resection including total pancreatectomy may be needed

Surveillance and follow up:

- 6 months to 1 year interval till patient is unfit to undergo surgery

CHOLEDOCHOLITHIASIS

Dr Arkaprovo Ray

CBD stone suspected

Ultrasound scanning (USS) and LFTs

Low likelihood of CBDS (normal results)

Intermediate likelihood of CBDS

(eg. CBD dilatation with normal LFTs OR abnormal LFTs with normal calibre biliary system)

High likelihood of CBDS

(e.g. CBD stone positively identified on USS; features of cholangitis; pain, duct dilatation and jaundice in patient with history of gallstones)

Consider alternative diagnosis

Persisting suspicion of CBDS

MRCP or EUS

(unless proceeding directly to cholecystectomy with Intraoperative cholangiography or Laparoscopic ultrasound)

Further imaging is not routinely required but CT is advised if differential diagnosis includes operable malignancy

Not suggesting of CBDS

Suggestive of CBDS

Proceed to ERCP or surgical extraction.

Consider percutaneous radiological techniques if CBDS cannot be extracted with surgery or ERCP

CBDS: Common bile duct stones. ERCP: endoscopic retrograde cholangiopancreatography; EUS: endoscopic ultrasound; IOC: intraoperative cholangiography; LFT: liver function test; LUS: laparoscopic ultrasound; MRCP: magnetic resonance cholangiopancreatography; USS: ultrasound scanning.

BILE DUCT INJURY

Dr. Shibajyoti Ghosh

Prevention is better than cure

- Follow principles of safe cholecystectomy
- **Informed consent** in patient's vernacular
- Cholelithiasis = Benign disease → Postponing surgery does not harm patient
- Hostile Abdomen/Difficult calot's →
 - Partial Cholecystectomy
 - Cholecystostomy
 - Do nothing – Swallow your pride

Intraoperative Detection

Bile seen in operative field:

- Greenish Bile- Gall Bladder
- Golden Bile- Liver/CHD/CBD/Proximal ducts

Immediate Steps

- Identify level and type of injury
- Assess availability of expert help and logistics

Expert Help + Logistic Support Available?

Yes

- Lateral Tear/ Transection without segment loss → Primary repair +/- T-Tube/Stent
- Segment Loss → Roux-en-Y-Hepaticojejunostomy

No

- Lateral Tear/ Transection without segment loss →
 - ⊗ Distal Injury: Repair over T-tube/stent
 - ⊗ Proximal injury: Place drain and refer
- Segment Loss → Place drain and refer

Post-operative Detection

BILOMA

- Stable: CECT/USG whole abdomen → Percutaneous Drainage
- Unstable: Exploratory laparotomy followed by peritoneal lavage and drain placement

JAUNDICE

- MRCP to delineate level of stricture
- If complete cutoff- Plan delayed repair (>6 weeks)
- Retained stone in CBD- ERCP + stone extraction + stenting

BILIARY PERITONITIS

- CECET whole abdomen → Exploratory laparotomy followed by peritoneal lavage and drain placement
- Rule out other organ injury (Duodenum/Transverse Colon/Small gut)

Documentation

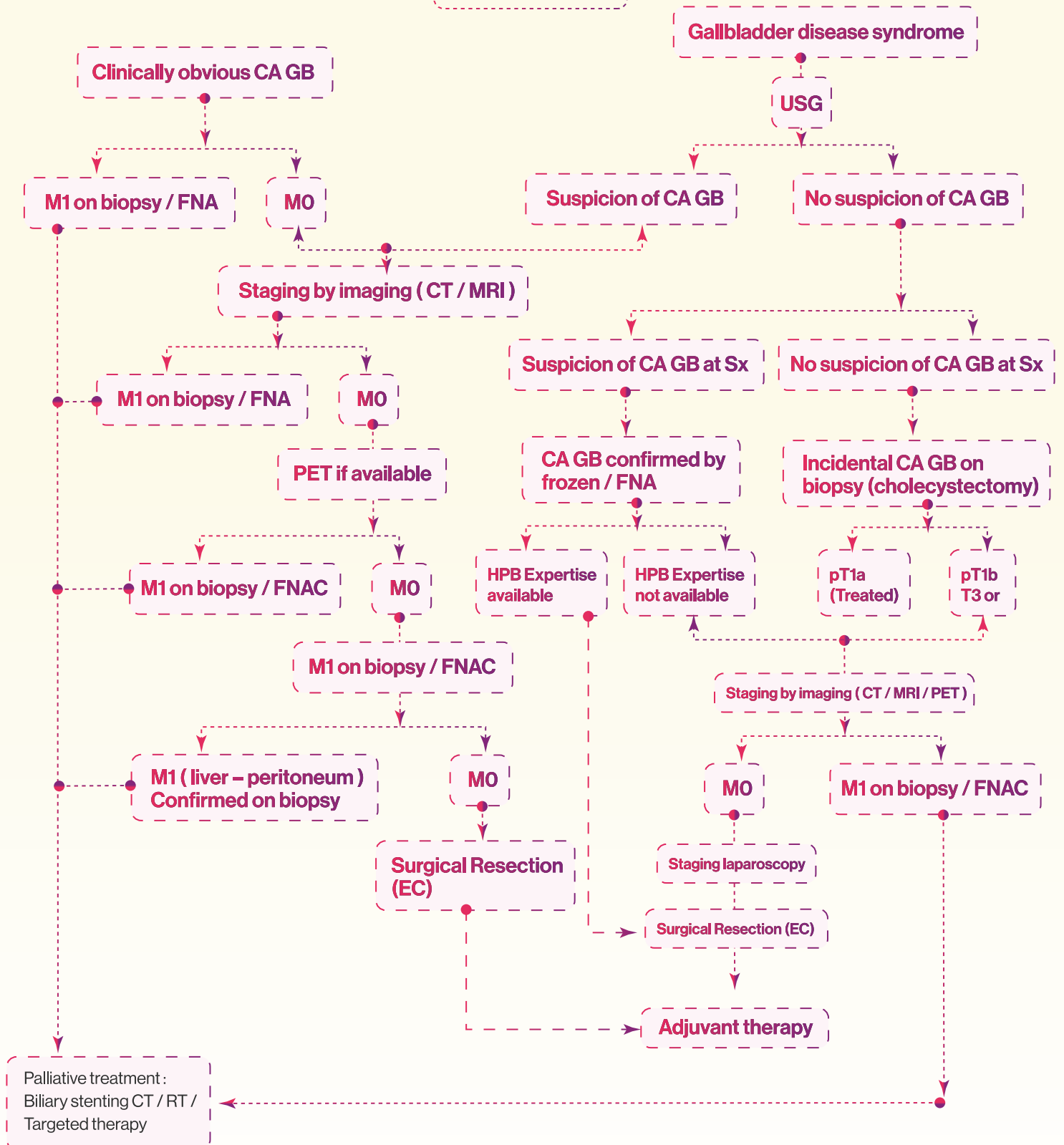
- Record details of injury/obtain HPE report to rule out malignancy
- Inform and obtain signature from patient's close relatives
- Timely referral to specialized units

PREVENTS MEDICOLEGAL ISSUES

'WHEN IN DOUBT- DRAIN AND REFER'

CARCINOMA GB

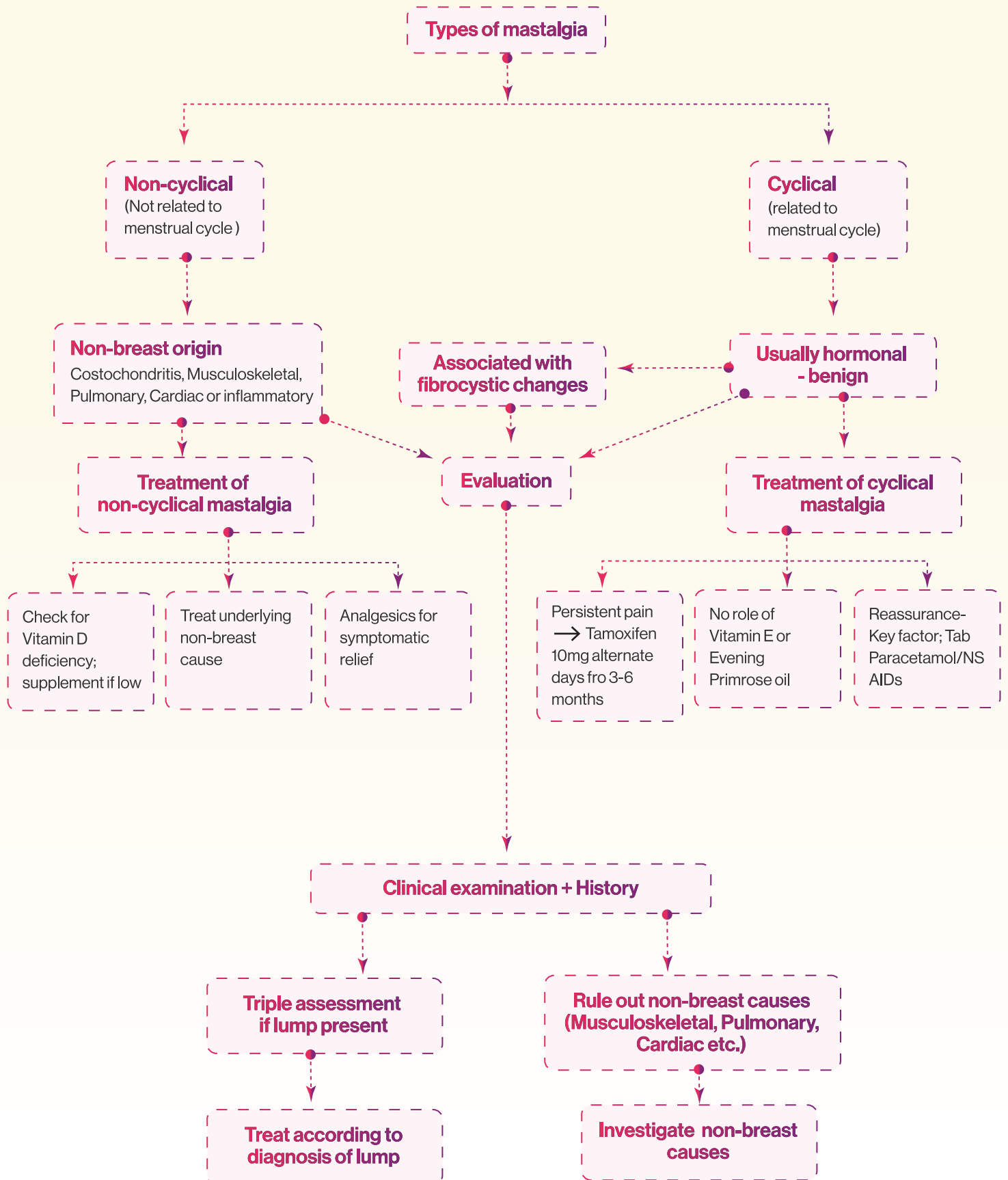
Dr Ramdip Ray



Thickwalled gallbladders are often a diagnostic challenge. Even high quality cross sectional imaging may not reliably differentiate cancer from chronic cholecystitis or xantho-granulomatous cholecystitis. To minimize the chances of radical surgery in benign conditions the Lucknow approach (V K Kapoor et al) has been adopted by some centres. An anticipatory extended cholecystectomy (AEC), for doubtful thick walled gallbladders involves removal of GB with a 2-cm wedge of liver, which is then subjected to frozen section histological examination. The addition of lymphadenectomy in cases which turn out to be malignant completes the procedure for CA GB, but avoids the morbidity of lymphadenectomy in an undeserving patient.

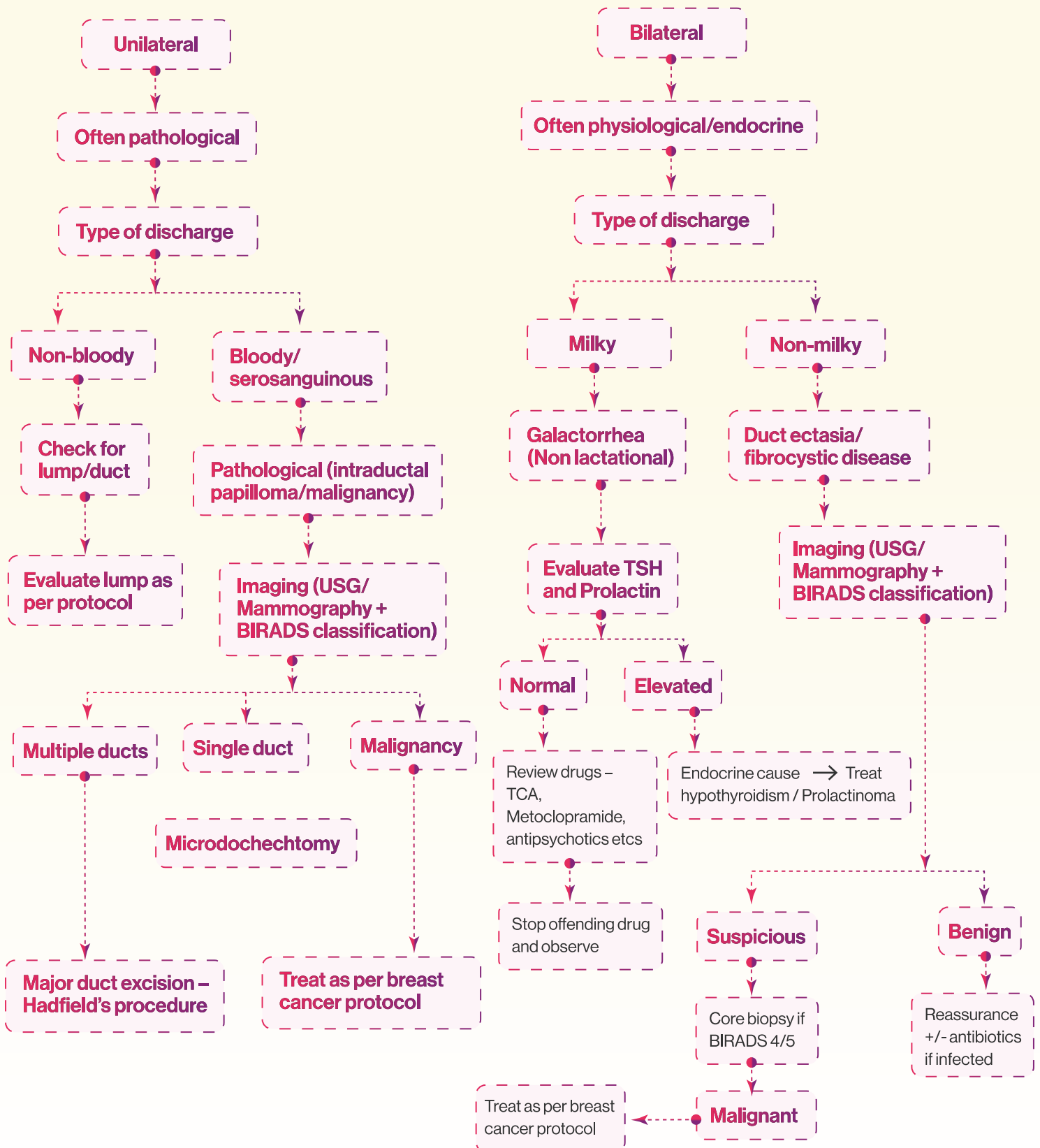
MASTALGIA

Dr Diptendra K. Sarkar, Dr Srija Basu, Dr Ronit Roy



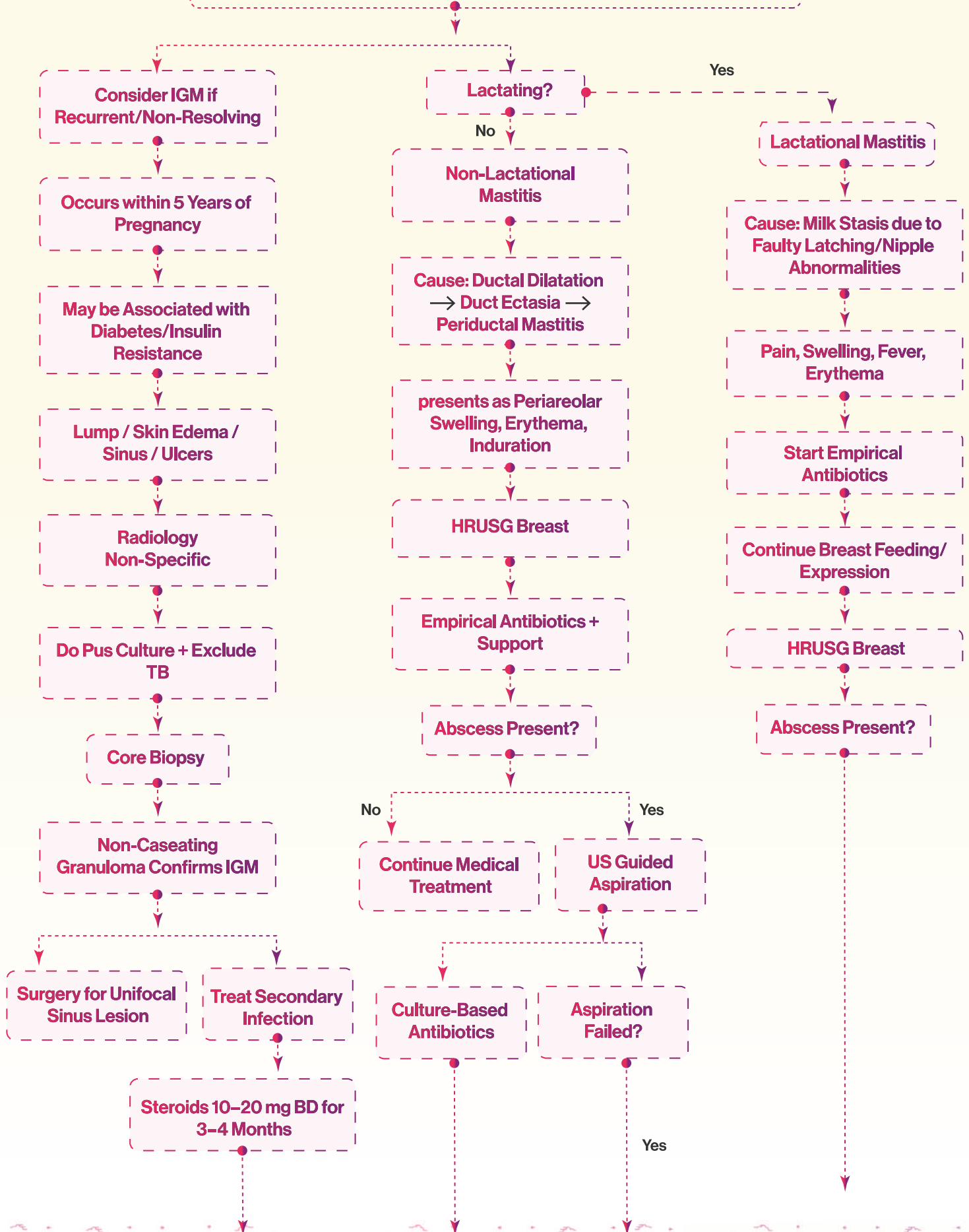
NIPPLE DISCHARGE

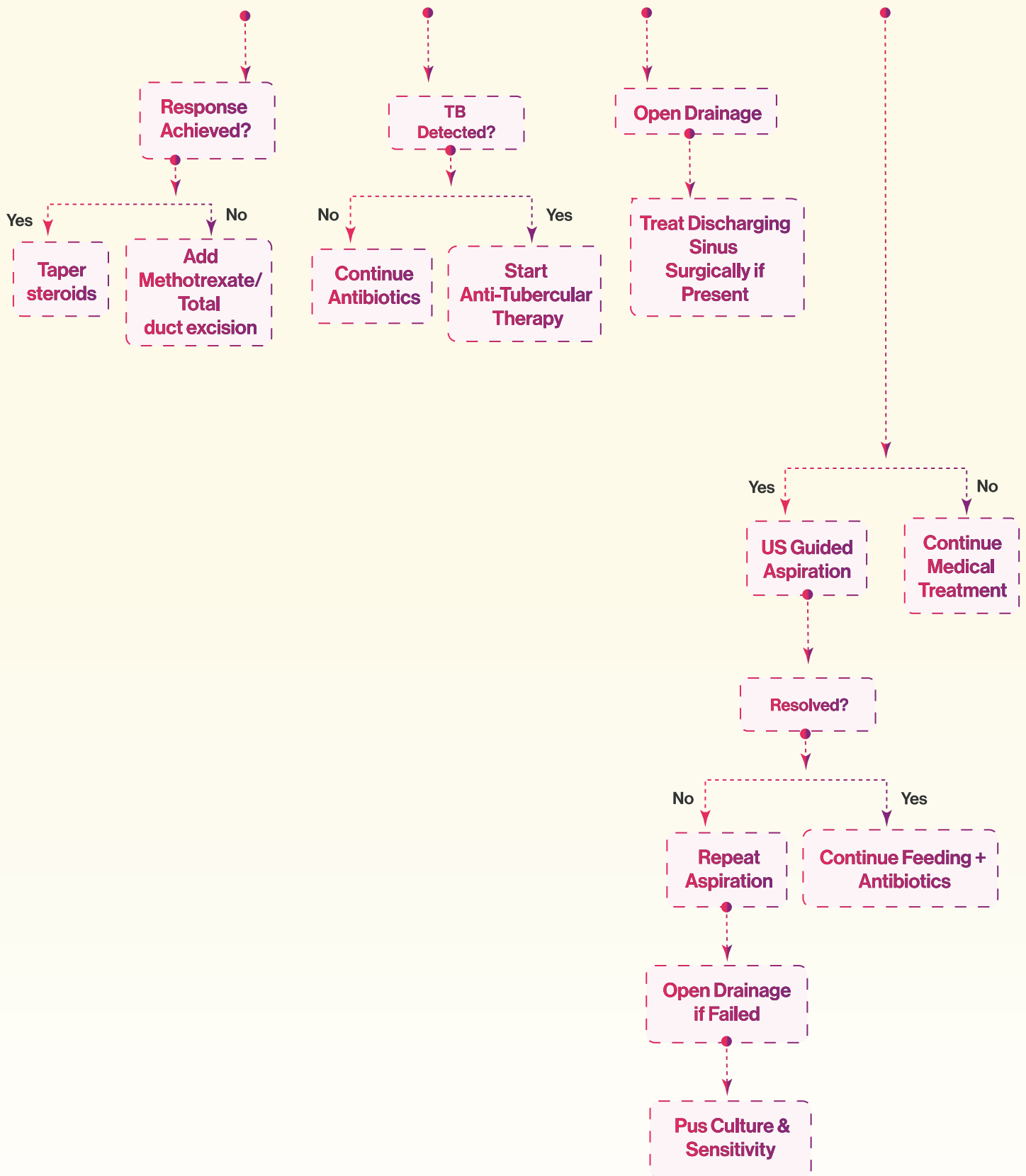
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MASTITIS

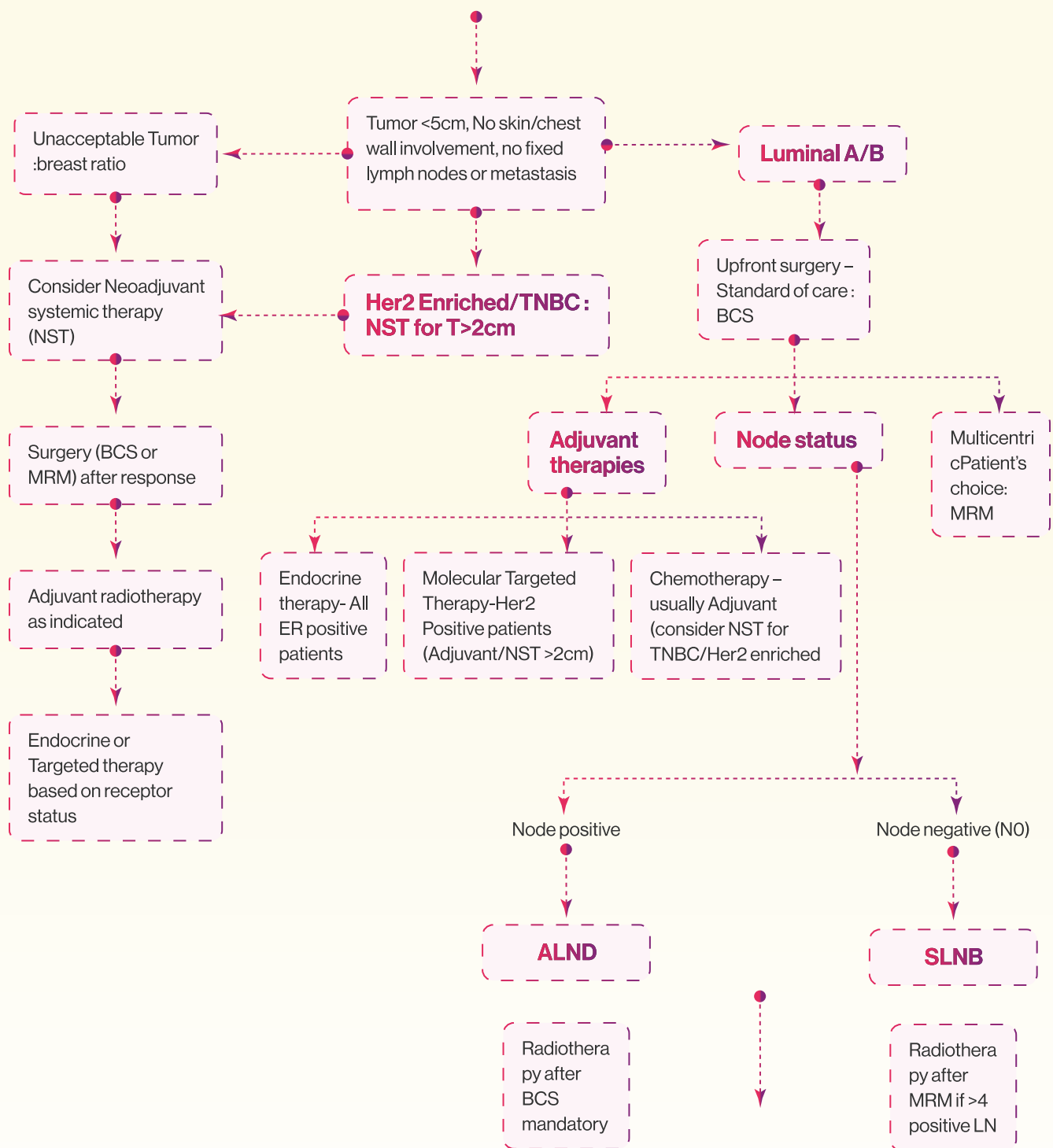
Dr Diptendra K. Sarkar, Dr Srija Basu, Dr Ronit Roy





EARLY BREAST CARCINOMA

Dr Diptendra K. Sarkar, Dr Srijia Basu, Dr Ronit Roy



LOCALLY ADVANCED BREAST CARCINOMA

Dr Sanjit Agrawal

LABC (non metastatic - T3N1, any T +N2 or N3, T4 + any N)

Mammogram+USG, Core biopsy (skin biopsy if needed in inflammatory cancer), staging (PETCT + MRI brain- in HER2+ and TNBC)

Upfront surgery

Very old age or multiple comorbidities who are unfit for chemotherapy, selected T3N1 cases with luminal A (low Ki67)

NACT

NAET

unfit for chemotherapy but inoperable at present

LUMINAL HER2 NEG

4 cycles of ddEC- 4 cycles ddT
Or
3 weekly EC -T / 6 cycles TC (C/I for anthracyclines)

TNBC

Paclitaxel-carboplatin weekly for 8 cycles- 4 cycles EC + Pembrolizumab 3 weekly (7-8 cycles neoadjuvant, 9 more cycles in adjuvant setting)

If Pembrolizumab not affordable:

Age <50 years: 4 cycles ddEC- 8 cycles Pacli-Carbo

Age >50years: 8 cycles of ddEC-ddT

HER2 POSITIVE

TCHP (high nodal burden, intra tumoral heterogeneity- add anthracycline)
EC-TH (not affordable for pertuzumab)

Mastectomy+/- reconstruction or BCS (T3 with good response, Select T4 with focal skin involvement)
Axillary staging – SLNB/ALND

Adjuvant RT to chest wall/Breast + tumour boost + Nodal basin

HT for 10 years (AI in postmenopausal, Tamoxifen+/- OFS (residual node positive) in Premenopausal)+ Bisphosphonates + CDK 4/6 I (residual N2 or residual N1+ G3/T3), Olaparib in non PCR+BRCA positive+ CPS-EG score >=3

Maintenance trastu +/- Pertu
TDM1 in Non PCR
+HT in HR positive

Capecitabine in non PCR,
Olaparib in non PCR +BRCA
positive

Abbreviations:

- ddEC- Dose-dense Epirubicin and Cyclophosphamide
- ddT- Dose-dense Taxane
- TCHP- Docetaxel (Taxotere), Carboplatin, Trastuzumab (Herceptin), Pertuzumab
- EC-TH- Epirubicin, Cyclophosphamide followed by Taxane and Herceptin

DIFFERENTIATED THYROID CANCER

Dr Ramanuj Mukherjee

Initial Clinical Evaluation

- Thyroid Nodule Detected on Neck US, assess risk.
- FNA of nodule based on ATA criteria
- Avoid FNA for sub-centimeter nodules, unless high risk features present

Pre-Op Diagnostic Workup (R7-R10)

- Neck US for gland and nodes mandatory
- CT/MRI only for suspected invasion
- Somatic Mutation testing should not guide surgical extent.
- Routine pre-op Tg screening not recommended.

Active Surveillance (R11 - R14)

- Must be considered for ≤ 1 cm intrathyroidal PTC without LN involvement or ETE
- Monitor with US every 6-12 months
- Shift to surgery, in case of new growth, new nodes, or if favored by Patients.

ATA 2025 Risk Stratification (R28)

- Integrates pathology, AJCC staging, post-op US status, and Tg trends.
- Classified as Low, Intermediate Low, Intermediate High, High Risk
- Molecule markers may be used, not mandatory

Standardized Histopathology Reporting (R27)

- Document tumor size, margins, number and extent of vascular invasion, LN count and size, extranodal extension and histological variant
- Standardized reporting helps estimate recurrent risk

Initial Surgical Management (R15 - R17)

- Must be considered for ≤ 1 cm intrathyroidal PTC without LN involvement or ETE
- Monitor with US every 6-12 months
- Shift to surgery, in case of new growth, new nodes, or if favored by the patient.

RAI in Low Risk Category (32A)

- Routine RAI not recommended
- If used -> low dose (30 - 50 mCi)
- **Goal:** Remnant Control

RAI in Intermediate Risk Category (32B)

- Selective RAI use depending in nodal burden, ETE, histology.
- Dose: 30 - 100 mCi
- Acts as remnant ablation \pm adjuvant therapy

RAI in High Risk and Metastatic Disease (R32 C-D)

- RAI recommended
- High Risk Dose: 100 - 150 mCi
- Distant Metastases: 100 - 200 mCi or dosimetry based

Early Response Assessment (R29)

- Classify response as Excellent, Indeterminate, Biochemical Incomplete or Structural Incomplete.
- Category determines TSH targets and follow up frequency

Post Therapy Imaging and Safety (R36 - R40)

- Assess disease extent by post-therapy WBS
- Use SPECT-CT for improved localization.
- Counsel regarding radiation safety, possible salivary gland injury, and its prevention.

Preparing for RAI (R34 - R35)

- TSH elevation via withdrawal or rhTSH stimulation.
- Low Iodine Diet 1-2 weeks prior therapy.
- Ensure medication, and rule out pregnancy if indicated

TSH Management in Follow-Up (R45-R46)

- High-risk/ Incomplete response: maintain TSH <0.1 mIU/L
- Intermediate: 0.1 - 0.5 mIU/L
- Excellent Response/ Low Risk: low normal TSH range.
- Adjust suppression to balance recurrence risk vs. adverse effects

Tg and TgAb Surveillance (R47)

- Measure Tg and TgAb every 6 - 12 months initially.
- Use trends instead of isolated values.
- Tg levels to be interpreted as per TSH level and response category.
- Tg ↑ or TgAb ↑ : evaluated using imaging

Imaging Strategy (R49 - R50)

- Neck US based on recurrence risk and Tg/TgAb trend.
- Selective diagnostic RAI: for intermediate to high risk or rising Tg.
- SPECT - CT for localization.
- FDG-PET/CT: in Tg-positive, iodine negative cases or aggressive pathology.

RAI-Refractory DTC (R59)

DTC is RAIr if:

- No RAI uptake at first t/t
- Loss of uptake upon later therapy.
- Mixed Uptake pattern with structural progression
- Disease progression, despite adequate RAI dose
Further RAI to be avoided.

Persistent/ Recurrent Disease Management (R51 + R52-R58)

- Assess resectability, iodine avidity, and Tg kinetics.
- Surgery preferred for accessible lesions, RAI if avid.
- Non-avid or unresectable lesions: evaluate for RAIr

Special Population and Survivorship (R80-R84)

- Pregnancy: Avoid RAI: surgery only in progressive disease in second trimester.
- Clinical Support, Counselling and Monitoring for long term side-effects of Thyroidectomy.
- Survivorship care to address, mental health, financial strain, and QoL.
- Allow Clinical trial in advanced disease.

Local T/t of Metastatic Disease (R76 - R79)

- Isolated, symptomatic mets: Surgery, Thermal Ablation or SBRT
- Bone Directed Agents for Bone mets (denosumab, bisphosphonates)
- Brain mets may require Surgery or SRS with / without systemic therapy (as required).
- For Symptom control, local therapy preferred.

Systemic Therapy in RAIr DTC (R61 - R75)

- Lenvatinib: first line agent for progressive RAIr; sorafenib as alternative.
- Targeted therapy for RET, NTRK, BRAF, ALK mutations
- Redifferentiation therapy to restore RAI uptake selectively.
- Systemic therapy decisions to be personalised in multidisciplinary setting.

HYPERTHYROIDISM AND GRAVES DISEASE

Dr Sujoy Ghosh

**SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS
OF HYPERTHYROIDISM
(PALPITATIONS,
TREMORS, WEIGHT LOSS)**

**LOW TSH WITH ELEVATED
FT4 AND TOTAL T3**

**ISOLATED T3 ELEVATION WITH
LOW TSH WITH NORMAL
OR LOW T4**

**RADIOIODINE UPTAKE SCAN
OR TECHNETIUM SCAN**

**LOW UPTAKE:
THYROIDITIS
EXOGENOUS
THYROID
HORMONE**

**SYMPTOMATIC
TREATMENT**

**INCREASED
UPTAKE**

**HOMOGENOUS
UPTAKE**

**TRAB (FOR
DIAGNOSIS AND
PROGNOSIS)**

**HETEROGENOUS
UPTAKE**

**TOXIC ADENOMA
OR MULTINODULAR GOITRE**

**RAI OR SURGERY
(DEPENDING ON
SIZE, AGE AND
PATIENT
PREFERENCE)**

**HIGH TSH AND
HIGH FT4**

**RESISTANCE TO
THYROID HORMONE
OR TSHOMA**

**SYMPTOMATIC
TREATMENT
FOR RTH**

**SURGERY
FOR TSHOMA**

THIONAMIDES

**INITIAL THERPAY
FOR CONTROL FOR
HYPERTHYROIDISM**

**S/E: RASH,
TRANSAMNITIS**

RAI

**RELAPSED GD,
PERMANENT CURE OF
GRAVES DISEASE**

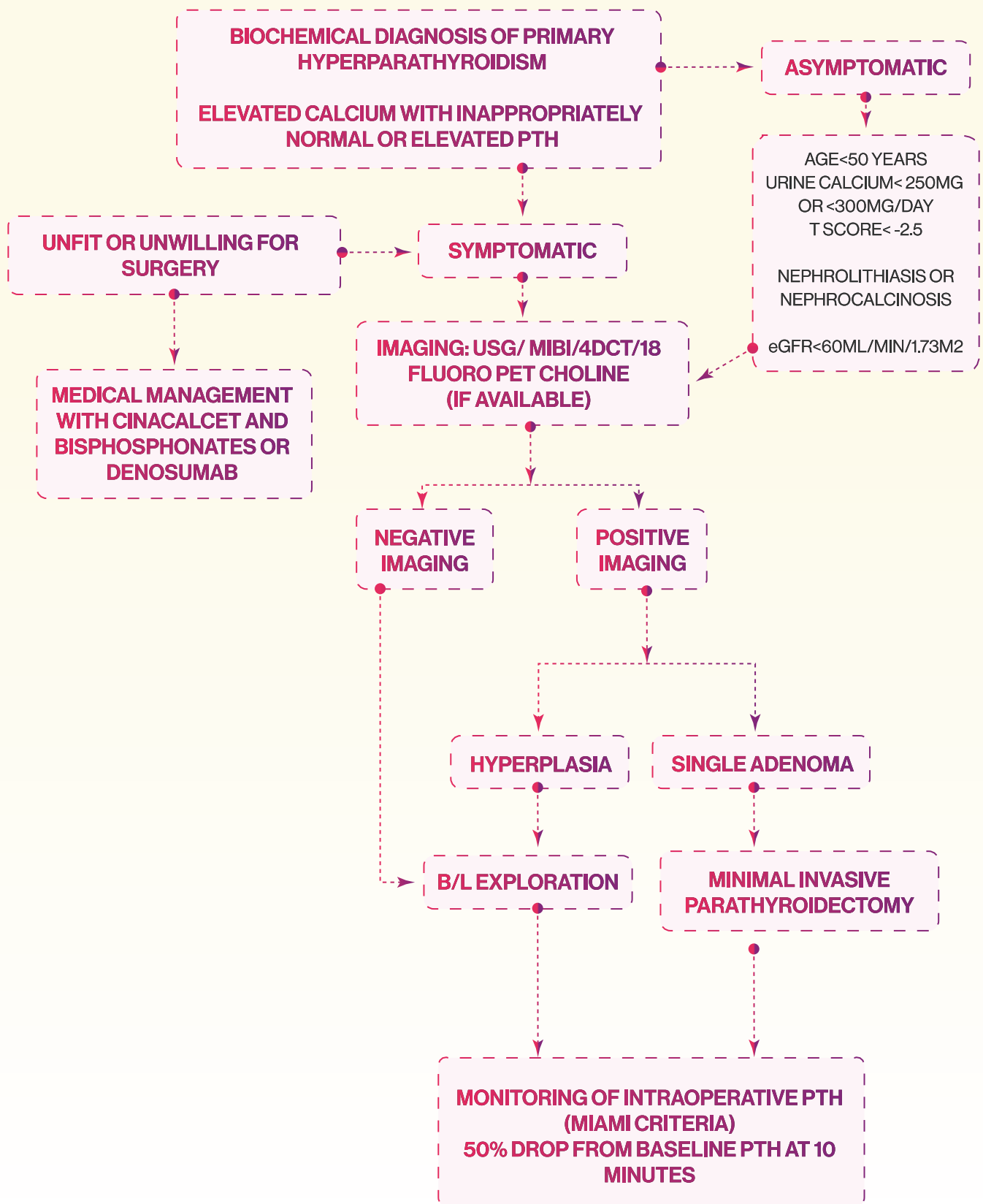
**C/I IN PREGNANCY,
ACTIVE TED**

SURGERY:

**LARGE GOITRE WITH
COMPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS,
SUSPECTED NODULES,
GRAVES AND TED RELAPSE**

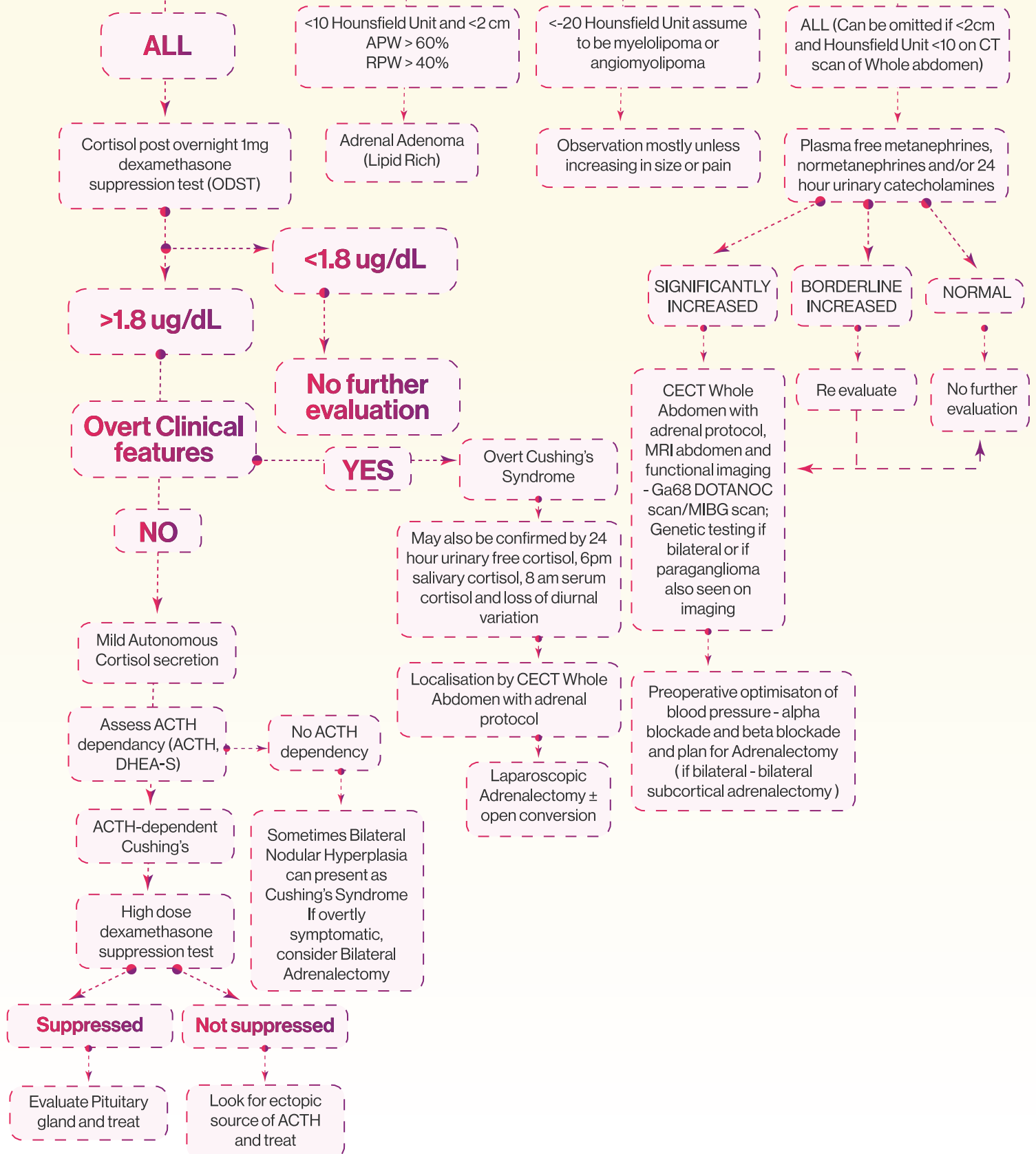
HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

Dr Sujoy Ghosh

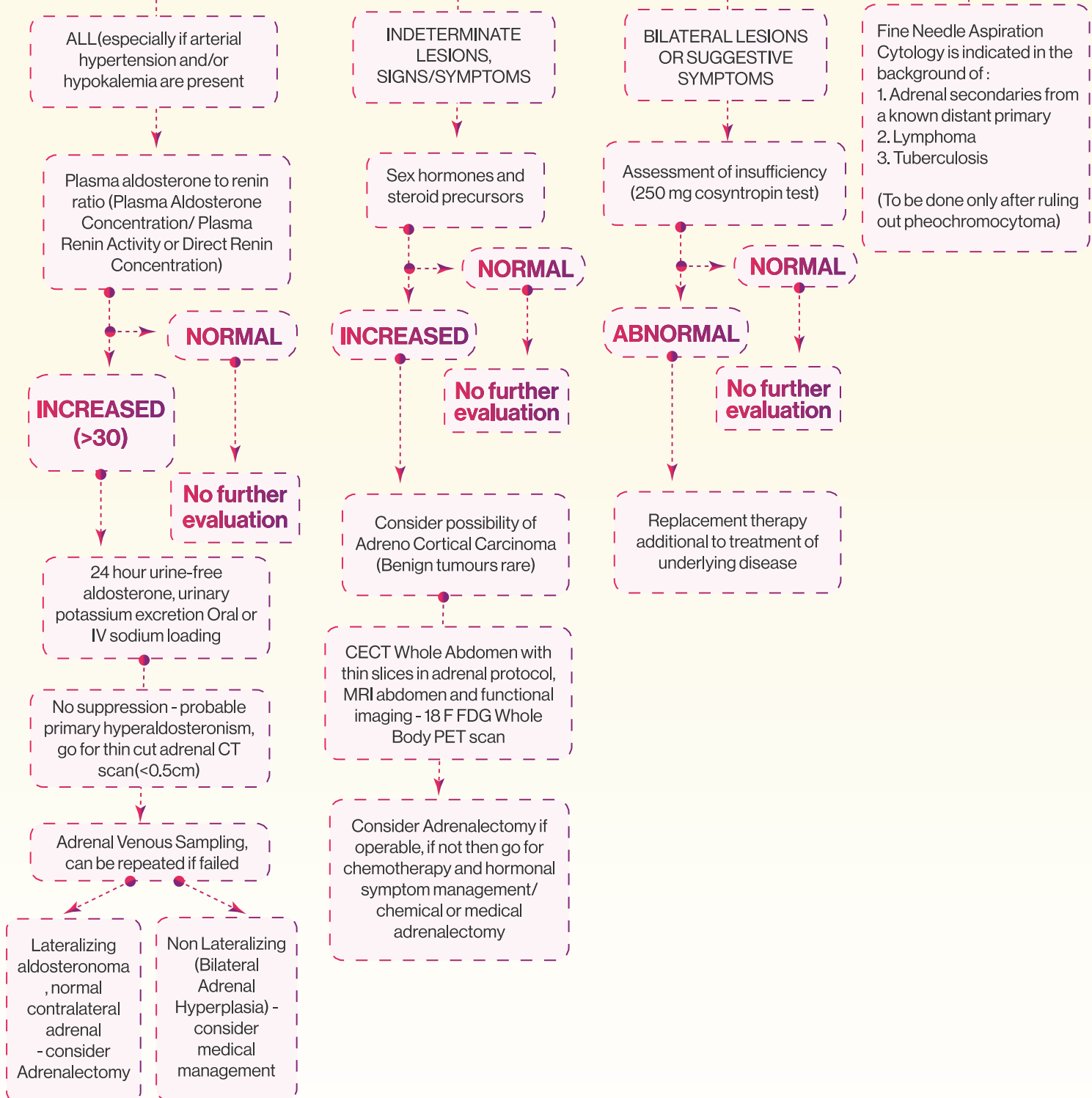


ADRENAL INCIDENTALOMA

Dr Dhritiman Maitra



ADRENAL INCIDENTALOMA (CONTD.)



ACUTE LIMB ISCHEMIA

LIMB AND USUALLY ALSO A LIFE THREATENING EMERGENCY

Dr Krishnendu Mukherjee

ATLS protocol must be followed in trauma
isolated limb fractures are dealt with after other injuries are excluded

CAUSES:

- Acute Arterial thrombosis (usually in the backdrop of atherosclerotic disease)
- Embolism (AF or the source of the embolus must be detectable)
- Vasculitic thrombosis
- Trauma including iatrogenic

PRESENTATION:

- Sudden onset monoparesis
- Tingling numbness
- Pain
(in variable combination)

Despite the teaching of 5Ps, it is crucial to remember that pain may be absent.

IN ANY SYMPTOMATIC LIMB WITH OR WITHOUT TRAUMA, DISTAL PULSES MUST BE ALWAYS EXAMINED.
Absent distal pulses and temperature difference are the most consistent signs of ALI.

HANDHELD DOPPLER

GRADE 1 Severity:

Arterial signals are absent or dampened in HHD, no discoloration, patchy sensori-motor deficits.

**Endovascular options
(thrombolysis)**

GRADE 2 Severity:

No Arterial signals, Venous hum present, discoloration present but blanches on pressure, dusky toes may be present. Some sensori-motor signs present.

Urgent surgery
(thrombectomy with or without by-pass, embolectomy, arterial repairs)

GRADE 3 Severity:

No signals, fixed discoloration, no motor function and sensation.

**Do not attempt re-vasc,
counsel for primary
amputation.**

INITIAL MANAGEMENT:

Hydration, Oxygen, Unfractionated Heparin intravenous bolus (usually 10,000 U initially) if not contraindicated, analgesics, antibiotics, oral anti-platelet, keeping NPO.

Routine blood work (including Group & Save, Renal function, LDH, CPK), ECG & Echocardiogram, CXR should be done along with an USG mapping of the contralateral GSV.

A CT or MR Angiogram from Abdominal Aorta to pedal run-off or a direct DSA is the best investigation. A Duplex imaging is used only if any form of Angiogram is not possible.

In isolated limb trauma, eg a # lower humerus, a post-TKR ischemia, a direct local exploration of the artery is permissible if Angiogram is not possible; however availability of an autogenous vein should be confirmed pre-operatively.

Post-op Heparin should be continued and oral Vit-K antagonists started.

DOACs have better evidence in Venous thrombosis.

The limb should be kept in 0 degree, elevation or depression does not help. Rarely, a patient may need a Fasciotomy; at least 2 incisions are needed.

CHRONIC LIMB ISCHEMIA

Dr. Krishnendu Mukherjee

Patient Presentation

- Assess symptoms:
 - Claudication? (usually calf > thigh/buttock; never foot; not at rest)
 - Rest pain in foot/toes? (continuous, worse at night → Critical Limb Ischemia)
 - Ischemic ulcers or dry gangrene?
 - Consider mimics: spinal claudication; rare- venous claudication.

Determine Limb Involved

Lower limb symptoms → suspect CLI

Upper limb symptoms → consider arterial Thoracic Outlet Syndrome

Consider Etiology

Common: Atherosclerotic PAD

Uncommon: TAO (<40 yrs; now seen in women), vasculitis (e.g., Takayasu), popliteal

Initial Diagnostic Testing

Check ABI with handheld Doppler

If elderly/diabetic → ABI may be erroneous → **Use TBI (Toe brachial index)**

- CLI likely if pedal pulses absent
- Duplex: limited use unless angiography not feasible
- Specialist centers: IVUS if standard angiograms not possible

Decide Management Strategy

Is ABI ≥ 0.6 –0.7 and symptoms mild OR severe systemic disease?

→ **Conservative therapy**

- Medications: Rivaroxaban 2.5 mg BID + Aspirin 75 mg + Cilostazol 50–100 mg + high-dose statin
- Encourage walking, exercises
- Diabetic foot evaluation; avoid barefoot walking

Else (ABI < 0.6, rest pain, ulcers, gangrene, severe claudication)

→ **Revascularization indicated**

Choose Revascularization Method

• **Endovascular (Angioplasty):**

- Usually via contralateral groin
- Use Drug-Coated Balloons (DCB) to reduce restenosis
- Avoid stents except in external iliac artery or complications (e.g., dissection)

• **Surgical Bypass:**

- Below knee → autogenous vein
- Femoro-popliteal → vein or ePTFE graft
- Supra-inguinal (e.g., aorto-bifemoral, axillo-bifemoral) → ring-reinforced grafts

Post-Procedure Care

- Continue antiplatelet + adjunct medications
 - Provide fungal prophylaxis (important for procedures involving grafts/stents)

VARICOSE VEINS AND CHRONIC VENOUS INSUFFICIENCY

Dr. Krishnendu Mukherjee

CEAP classification

Clinical

Etiology

Anatomy

Pathology

C1-
Reticular
veins

Primary

GSV

Secondary

SSV

Reflux

C2-
Varicose
veins

Others

Obstructive

C3-
edema

C4-
Pigmentation

C5-
Dry ulcers

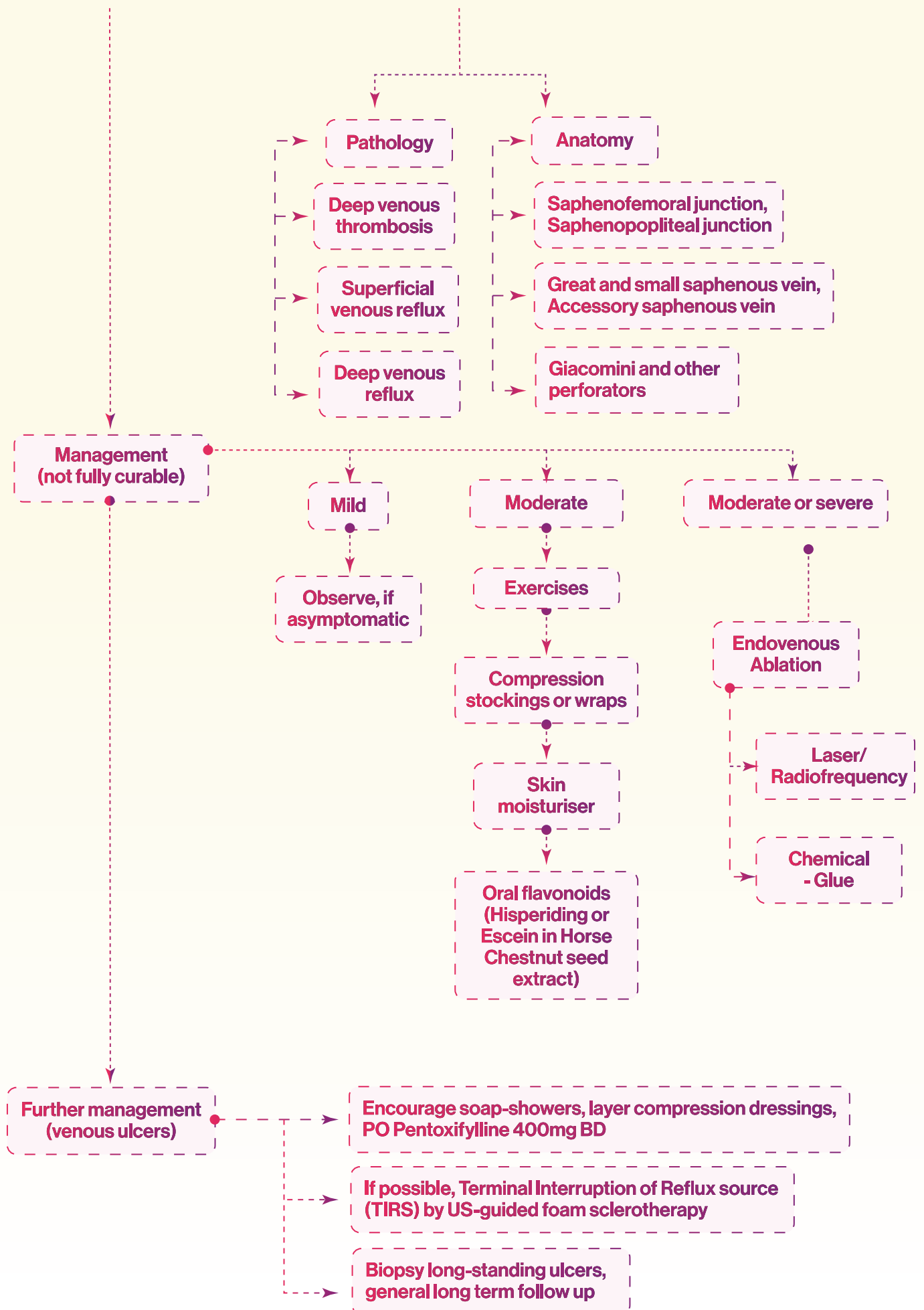
C6- Active
ulcers

Chronic
Venous insufficiency

Assessment

Clinical – Trendelenburg test

Imaging- Detailed Duplex scan
(supine + standing, post calf-exercise)



DEEP VEIN THROMBOSIS

Dr Krishnendu Mukherjee

Prophylaxis should be considered for every bed-ridden patient.

Surgical Risk Factors

- Any operation under GA over 60 minutes
- Abdominal/pelvic operations
- Hip & knee operations

Pharmaco-prophylaxis

- LMWH,UFH,Fondaparinux
- Use one molecule and gain experience with it eg Enoxaparin 40-60mg Inj Subcut

Patient related risk factors

HIGH RISK

- Prior h/o DVT or family history
- Malignancy
- Stroke
- Any degree of HF
- COPD

MODERATE RISK

- Age,
- Obesity
- Varicose Veins
- OCP
- Pregnancy

Mechanical prophylaxis

Effective but less than Pharmaco-prophylaxis

- Pneumatic Compression Device (PCD),
- Calf-pumps
- Elastic Compression Stockings, (ECS), PCD is superior

If in doubt, at least use a PCD; if not available, use an ECS.

BUT, DVT Prophylaxis must be a part of the check list. Prophylaxis should begin before the induction of Anesthesia, if GA is used.

DIAGNOSIS & TREATMENT (OPD)

**Swollen leg. Pain may be absent.
Unlike Cellulitis, limb is not warm.**

USG WITH DOPPLER

Infra Inguinal

Check if provoked or unprovoked?

Supra inguinal.

Infra-inguinal minimally symptomatic DVT can be managed as an out-patient.
Oral DOACs eg Rivaroxaban 30mg daily
Basic screen of malignancy if unprovoked,
Routine blood tests with P-time, D-Dimer.
Specialist referral

Supra-inguinal DVT or very symptomatic with massive swelling, color change or blisters
Hospitalise, bolus I/V UFH 10,000 U and infusion eg 500 U/hr, monitor APTT 6 hrly OR oral DOAC
Urgent specialist referral
Baseline ABG, CXR, ECG, ECHO.

IPD Diagnosis & Treatment

- In the in-patient or post-operative setting DVT can be notoriously silent.
- D-Dimer does not help in diagnosis.
- Maintain high index of suspicion
- Low grade fever, unexplained tachycardia, short spelling of breathlessness.
- Duplex imaging is the preferred method though small calf clots may be missed, but these do not usually caused fatal VTE.

Ask - Can we anti-coagulate?

- Yes : Start Heparin as above & follow the Supra-inguinal protocol
- No : Arrange for Retrievable IVC Filter; remove in 4-6 weeks.

INITIAL ASSESSMENT OF POLYTRAUMA PATIENT

Dr. Shamita Chatterjee

Preparation
Primary Survey
Resuscitation Adjuncts
Reevaluation

Detailed Secondary Survey
Reevaluation
Adjuncts

Reevaluation
Definitive Care

Primary Survey

Airway with c-spine protection
Breathing and ventilation
Circulation with hemorrhage control
Disability: Neurological status
Exposure / Environmental control

Quick Assessment in 10 Seconds

Ask the patient his or her name
Ask the patient what happened

Appropriate Response Confirms

A Patent airway
B Sufficient air reserve to permit speech
C Sufficient perfusion
D Clear sensorium

A

Start high flow (10-15l/min) supplemental oxygen through mask
Attach monitors
Open mouth to look for obstruction (secretions, blood, foreign body, broken teeth / dentures etc.)
Suction, if necessary
Decision as to whether to intervene

A

Chin lift, Jaw thrust, No head tilt
Inline immobilisation of cervical spine
Adjuncts –
OPA (Do not use in patient with intact gag reflex)
NPA (Do not use in midface #, suspected basilar skull #)

A

When to intervene?

Impending airway compromise (Airway problem)
Need for ventilation (Breathing problem)
Inability to protect the airway (Disability problem)

S&S of Airway Compromise

Noisy breathing
Change in voice / hoarseness
Agitation (hypoxia) or Obtundation (hypercarbia)
Dyspnea, retractions and use of accessory muscles
Abnormal breathing pattern
Tachypnea
Low oxygen saturation (late sign)
Cyanosis (hypoxia)

Definitive Airway

Definition
A tube placed in the trachea
Cuff inflated below the vocal cords
Tube connected to some form of oxygen-enriched source
Airway secured in place with tape

Definitive Airway

Examples
Endotracheal airway
Surgical cricothyroidotomy
Tracheostomy
(LMA is a supraglottic airway and not a definitive airway)

B

Assess and ensure adequate oxygenation and ventilation
Check –
Respiratory rate
Asymmetrical chest wall movements
Decreased / absent breath sounds
Oxygen saturation

Ref: Chest Trauma algorithm for assessment

C

Assess for organ perfusion
Level of consciousness
Skin color and temperature
Pulse rate and character

C

2 large bore canula >18G
Warm, isotonic fluid - RL / NS – 1l
Reassess and decide on further fluid
Early blood requisition
Monitor urine output
NO colloids / vasopressors in acute setting

C Hemorrhage from?

1 on the floor (External) → Ca
 4 more – Thoracic cavity →
 Ref: Chest Trauma algorithm
 Abdominal cavity →
 Ref: Abdominal trauma algorithm
 Pelvis → Pelvic binder
 Long bones — Splint

Ca Hemorrhage control

Pressure
 Pack
 Tourniquet (note time of application)
 Pelvic binder
 EFAST

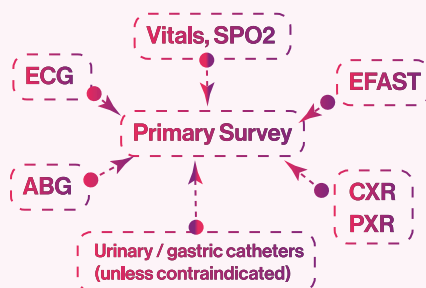
D

Baseline neurologic evaluation
 Glasgow Coma Scale score
 If GCS<8, secure the airway
 Observe for neurologic deterioration
 Pupillary response
 Intoxication – don't get biased
 Ref: Head Trauma Initial Management Algorithm

E

Completely undress the patient
 Prevent hypothermia
 Logroll if necessary
 Look for missed injuries

Adjuncts to Primary Survey



Secondary Survey

When?
 After -
 Primary survey is completed
 ABCDEs are reassessed
 Vital functions are returning to normal

Components of Secondary Survey

History
 Physical exam: Head to toe, front to back
 Complete neurologic exam
 Special diagnostic tests
 Reevaluation

Transfer When should the transfer occur?

As soon as possible after stabilizing measures are completed
 Airway and ventilatory control
 Hemorrhage control
 Don't delay transfer for additional investigations.

Before Transfer don't forget

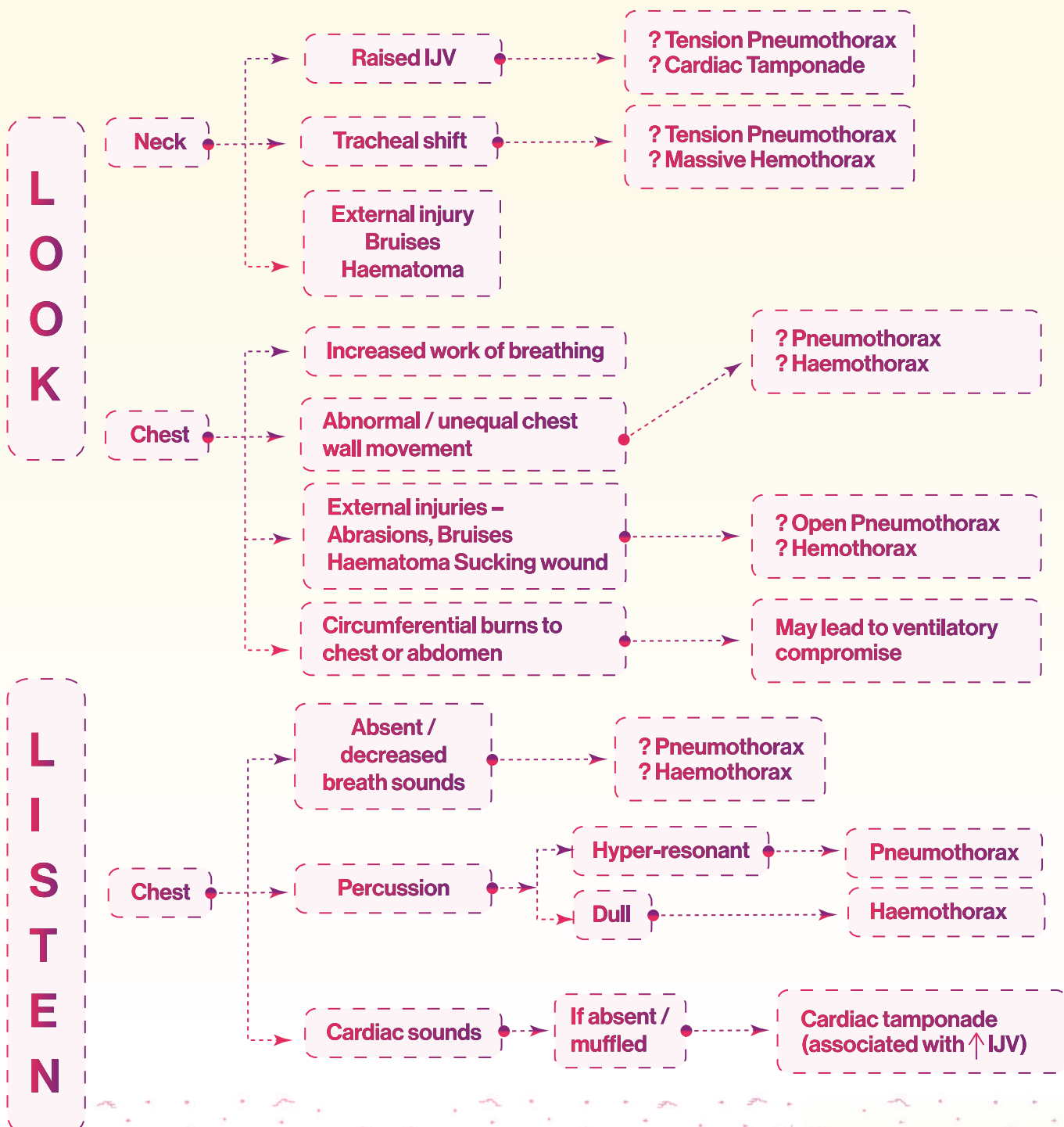
Analgesia with careful patient monitoring
 Antibiotic
 Tetanus prophylaxis
 Provide copies of investigations done
 Documentation

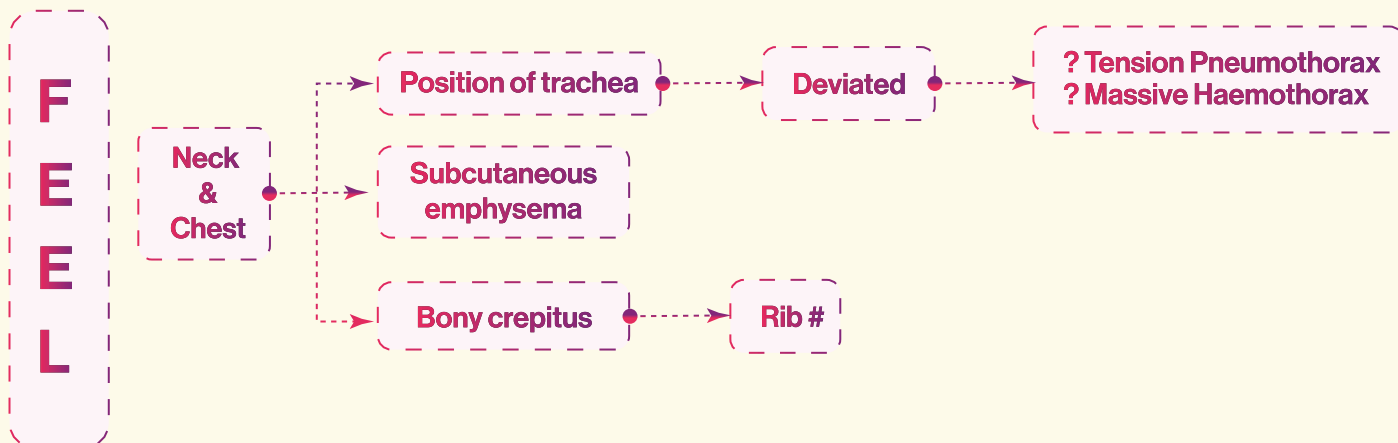
CHEST TRAUMA

Dr Shamita Chatterjee

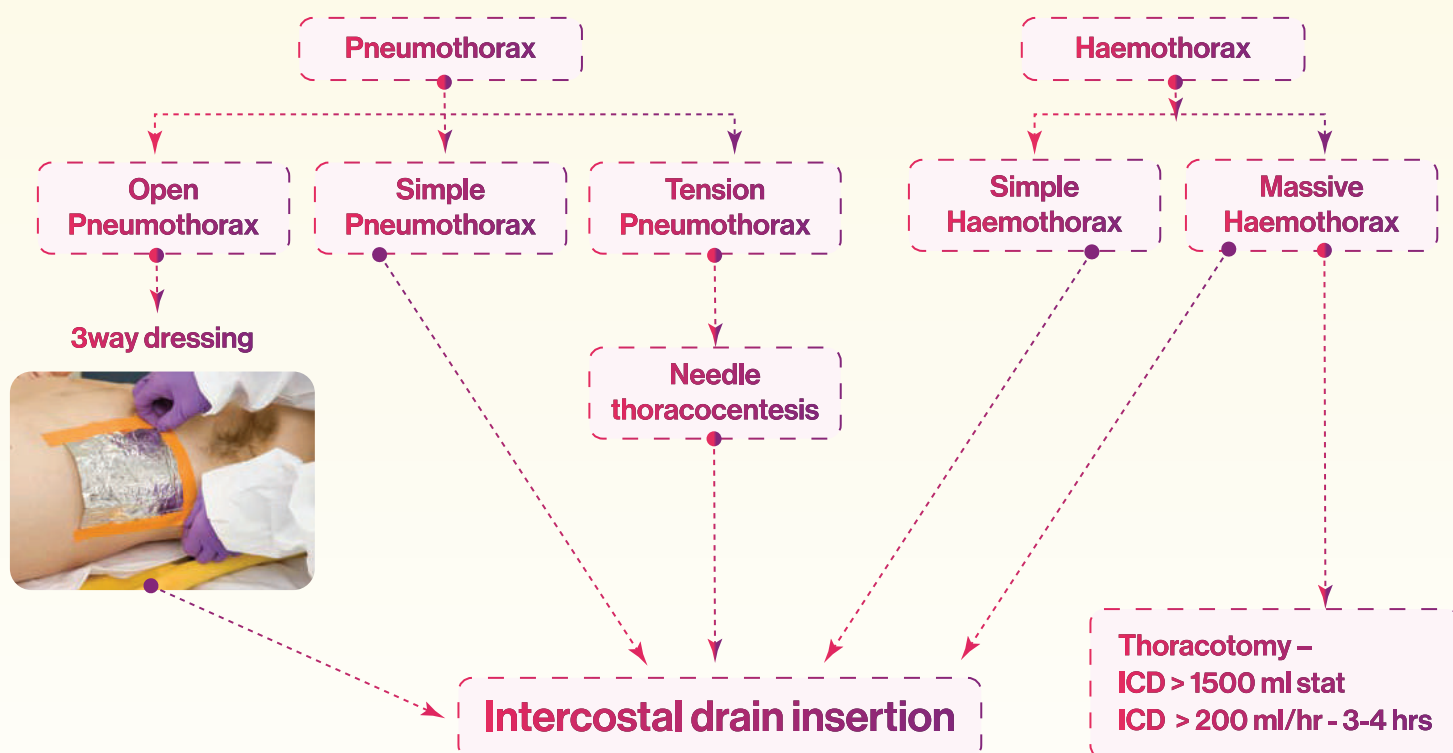
Patient of Trauma

- ✓ Initial assessment & resuscitation as per ATLS protocol
- ✓ If history is suggestive of blunt or penetrating chest trauma
- ✓ Clinical examination





Investigations ✓ Chest Xray ✓ EFAST	TENSION PNEUMOTHORAX IS A CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS. INVESTIGATIONS WILL LEAD TO WASTAGE OF TIME. MAY COST THE PATIENT HIS LIFE.
--	--



Chest trauma

- ✓ Significant cause of mortality.
- ✓ Many of these deaths can be prevented with prompt diagnosis and simple interventions.
- ✓ <10% of **blunt chest injuries** require operative intervention.
- ✓ Only **15% to 30% of penetrating chest injuries** require operative intervention.
- ✓ An intercostal drain insertion may be the **only** thoracic intervention required to prevent these mortalities.

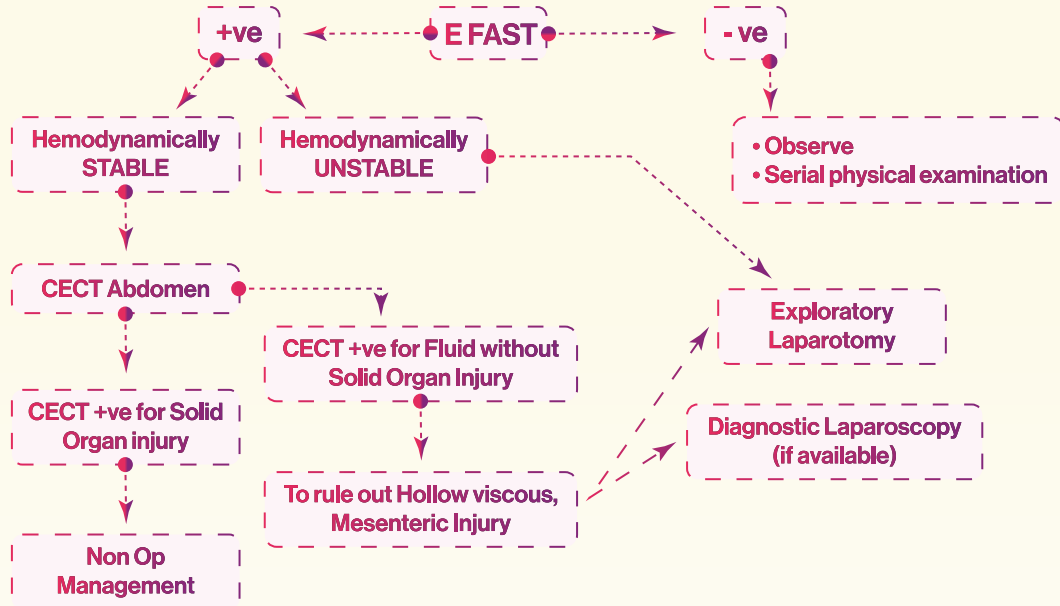
ABDOMINAL TRAUMA

Dr Shamita Chatterjee

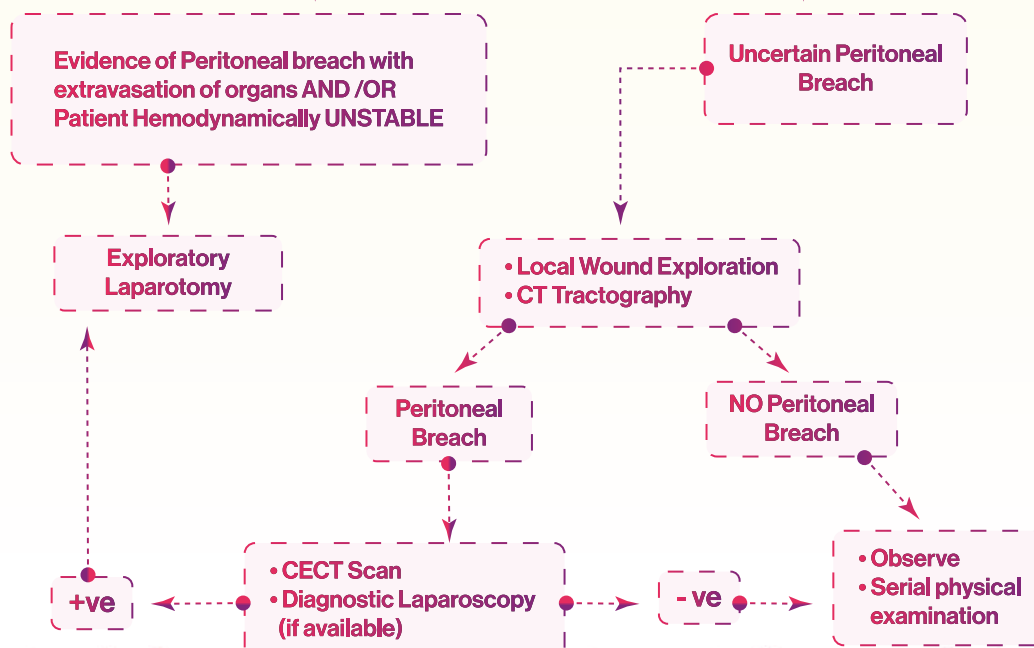
Patient of Trauma

- Initial assessment & resuscitation as per ATLS protocol
- If history and clinical examination is suggestive of blunt or penetrating abdominal trauma

Blunt Abdominal Trauma



Penetrating Abdominal Trauma



HEAD TRAUMA - INITIAL MANAGEMENT OUTLINE

Dr Shamita Chatterjee

PATIENT OF TRAUMA

Initial assessment & resuscitation as per ATLS protocol

If mechanism of injury and clinical examination is suggestive of head trauma

➔ Primary brain injury has already occurred.

Goal of treatment - Avoid secondary brain injury

Avoid hypoxia
Avoid hypotension

Neurosurgical
opinion / referral

Airway & Breathing

(to prevent hypoxia)

- 10-15L/min O₂
- SPO₂ > 98% desirable
- GCS < 8 ➔ Secure airway

Circulation

(to prevent hypotension)

• Fluids

- Isotonic (RL/NS)
- Avoid 5% Dextrose / DNS

• Target Systolic BP

- Age 50-69 >100 mm Hg
- Age 15-49 or >70years - >110mm Hg

* Rule out hypotension due to other sources of haemorrhage (Chest, abdomen, pelvis, long bones, external bleeding).

* Brain injury itself usually does not cause hypotension.

Clinical evaluation

- GCS
- Pupils
- Evidence of base of skull fracture

Base of skull fracture

- Otorrhoea, Rhinorrhoea (Blood / CSF)
- Raccoon eyes
- Battle sign

* Avoid Ryles tube in presence of base of skull fracture.

Severity of Head Trauma	GCS Score
Mild	13-15
Moderate	9-12
Severe	3-8



Raccoon eyes



Battle sign

Glasgow Coma Scale

Scale	Score
Eye Opening (E)	
Spontaneous	4
To sound	3
To pressure	2
None	1
Nontestable	NT
Verbal Response (V)	
Oriented	5
Confused	4
Words	3
Sounds	2
None	1
Nontestable	NT
Best Motor Response (M)	
Obeys commands	6
Localizing	5
Normal flexion	4
Abnormal flexion	3
Extension	2
None	1
Nontestable	NT

Medications

• Mannitol

- Only after ruling out EDH
- Do not give mannitol in patients with hypotension

• Antiseizure

- Indication - Depressed skull fracture, SDH, EDH, Intracerebral haemorrhage, seizure within 24hrs of injury
- Prophylaxis - if GCS<8 and penetrating TBI

• Avoid long-acting paralytic agents

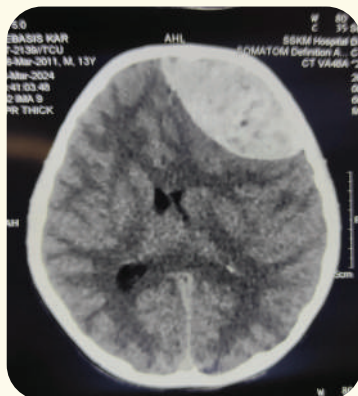
NCCT Scan of Brain

(Not indicated for all head trauma patients)

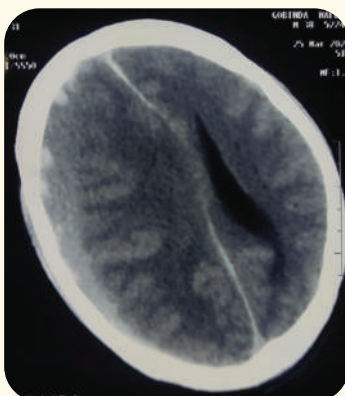
Indications

- All moderate and severe head trauma patient
- Mild head trauma patient with GCS score < 15 even after two hours of injury
- Vomiting (> 2 episodes)
- Signs of base of skull fracture
- Open skull fracture
- Neurological deficit
- Extremes of age
- Retrograde amnesia
- Severe headache

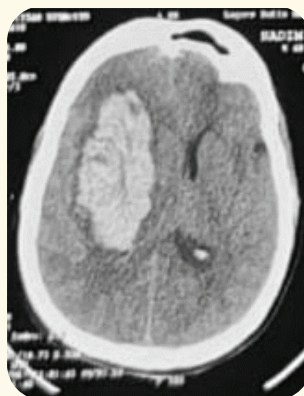
Neurosurgical
opinion / referral



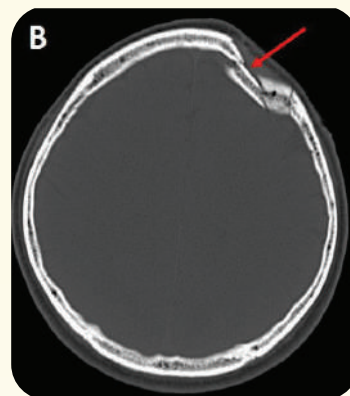
Extradural haematoma



Subdural haematoma
with midline shift



Intraparenchymal
bleed



Depressed
skull fracture

MALDESCENDED TESTIS

Dr Sukumar Maiti

Mal-descended Testis may be

• **Cryptorchidism (Undescended)**
testis arrested along normal line of descent.

• Ectopic Testis:

arrested outside line of normal descent. Testis crossed through superficial inguinal ring and followed the course of hoods of gubernaculum to sites other than the ipsilateral scrotum

Cryptorchidism (Undescended Testis)

- Unilateral Rt 57%, Lt 44%, Bilateral 12%
- Palpable/Impalpable
- Associated clinical hernia 65%

Undescended Testis needs treatment

to avoid Complications – torsion, tumour, atrophy & infertility

Ask parents to ensure whether it is a

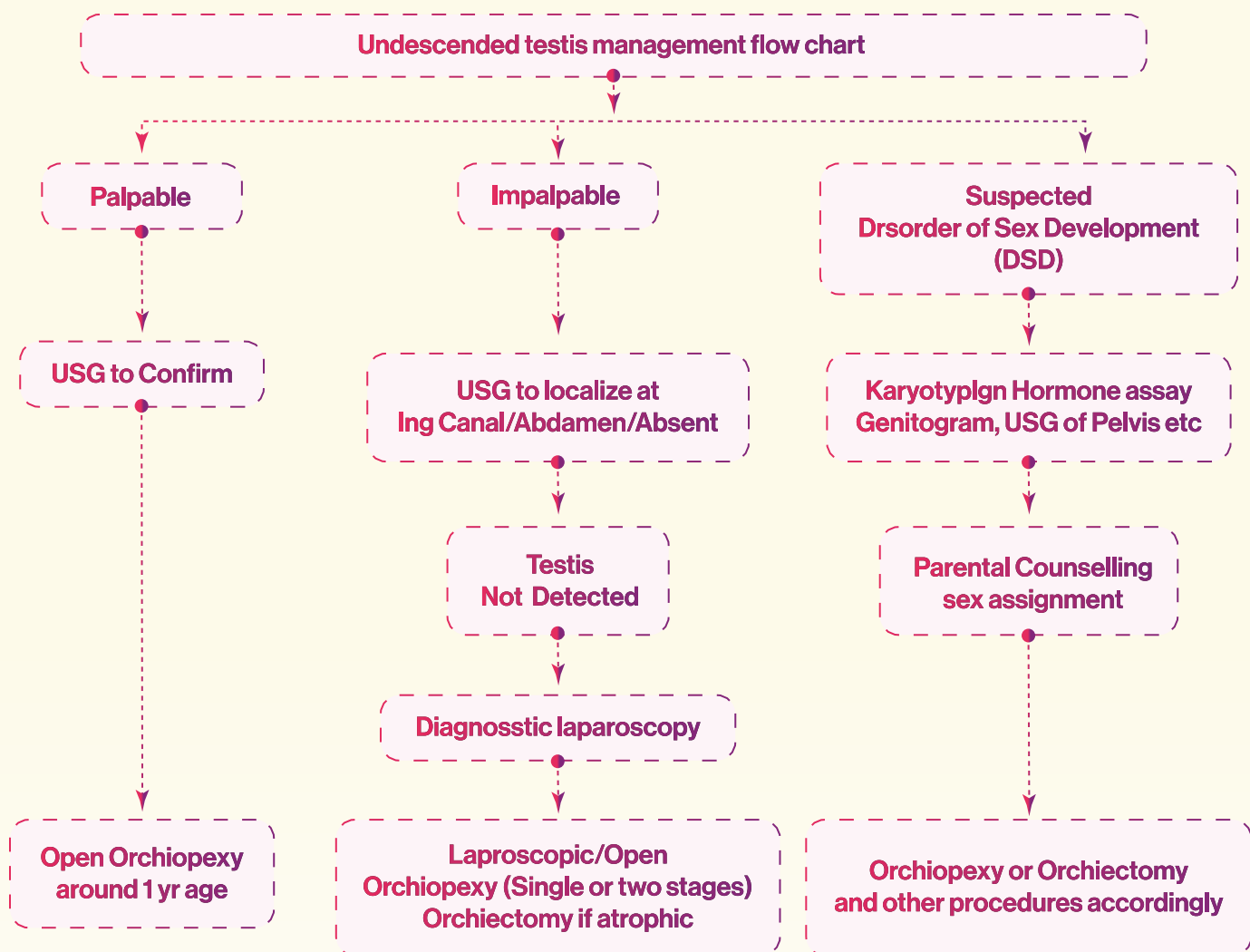
1. True Cryptorchism (Hidden Testis) - the testis is not found since birth or
2. Blighted (Lost) Testis - testis was there in scrotum at birth but disappeared after an acute event (Pain, swelling, redness) which is suggestive of torsion testis.

Records during Examination

1. Scrotum is poorly developed on the affected side when associated with cryptorchism
2. If Scrotum on the affected side looks normal as on the normally descended side, blighted testis may be suspected.
3. Expansile impulse on crying at groin indicates hernia associated with undescended testis.
4. Testis may be
 - (a) **Palpable** within the inguinal canal
 - (b) **Impalpable** – testis is not palpable elsewhere
 - (c) **Retractile** – testis is palpable at lower part of inguinal canal and can be pulled to scrotum, where it stays for some time
 - (d) **Palpable outside the inguinal canal or scrotum** i.e. at ectopic sites – Superficial inguinal pouch, femoral, perineal, suprapubic region, opposite scrotal sac (crossed ectopia).
5. **Ambiguous genitalia and Disorder of Sex Development (DSD)** suspected in case of Bilateral undescended testis and unilateral undescended testis with hypospadias.

Investigations for localisation

1. **ULTRASONOGRAPHY** (Groins & Pelvis) – gives an idea on location of the testis and its size as well as presence of hernia
2. **DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPY** combining with therapeutic steps for UDT
3. **SPECIAL SITUATION WHEN DSD SUSPECTED** – Karyotyping for sex chromosomes, Hormonal assays (Testosterone, LH, FSH), Genitogram, USG of pelvis for any presence of Mullerian system (Uterus/Ovary etc.)



Timing of operation – Guiding Principle

1. Diagnosis made at birth, reconfirmed at 6 months. Orchiopexy planned between 6 months – 12 months
2. Undescended testis with clinical inguinal hernia - needs early surgery before waiting for 6 months due to the risk of obstructed hernia which may endanger the spermatic cord and the testis
3. Undescended Testis with late presentation in adult-options are Orchiectomy/Orchiopexy if done, regular follow up examination of the testis is needed to detect malignancy if any.

Some Remembrances

1. Operation should be undertaken at a centre with paediatric surgery and paediatric anaesthesia facilities are present
2. Processus vaginalis remains patent with all cases of inguinal undescended testis
3. For Ectopic Testis - Orchiopexy within scrotum is easier because of long length of the spermatic cord.
4. Retractable testis needs consideration for operation around 7yrs if it is not stable within scrotum.

TESTICULAR PAIN

Dr Debanshu Sarkar, Dr Krishnendu Maiti, Dr Souvik Chatterjee

Step 1- Presentation

Patient with acute onset scrotal or testicular pain +/- swelling

Step 2 – Initial assessment

- Assess vitals → rule out systemic illness or sepsis

Obtain focused history:

- Onset (<5hours → torsion likely)
- Associated symptoms (nausea/vomiting → torsion)
- Urinary symptoms (dysuria → Epididymitis)
- History of trauma, sexual activity, or systemic disease

Step 3- Physical examination

- Inspect scrotum for swelling, erythema, abnormal testicular position
- Palpate testis and epididymis:
 - Diffuse testicular tenderness → Torsion
 - Localised epididymal tenderness → Epididymitis
 - Tender superior-pole nodule → Torsion of appendix testis
- Assess cremasteric reflex (absent → Torsion; present → Epididymitis)
- Check Prehn's sign (pain not relieved in torsion, relieved in epididymitis)
- Examine for inguinal hernia or trauma

Step 4 – Investigations (of diagnosis uncertain)

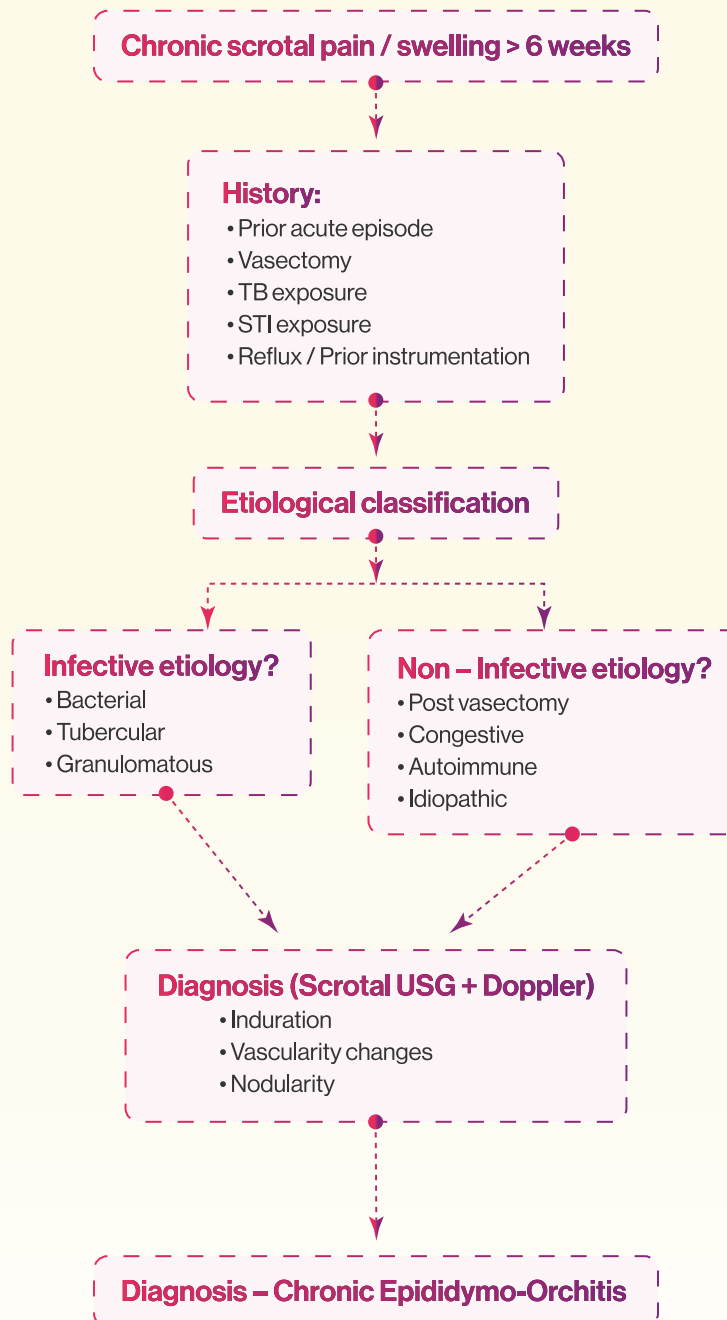
- Colour Doppler ultrasonography (to assess blood flow)
- Urinalysis (Pyuria → epididymitis)
- CBC/CRP (infection markers)

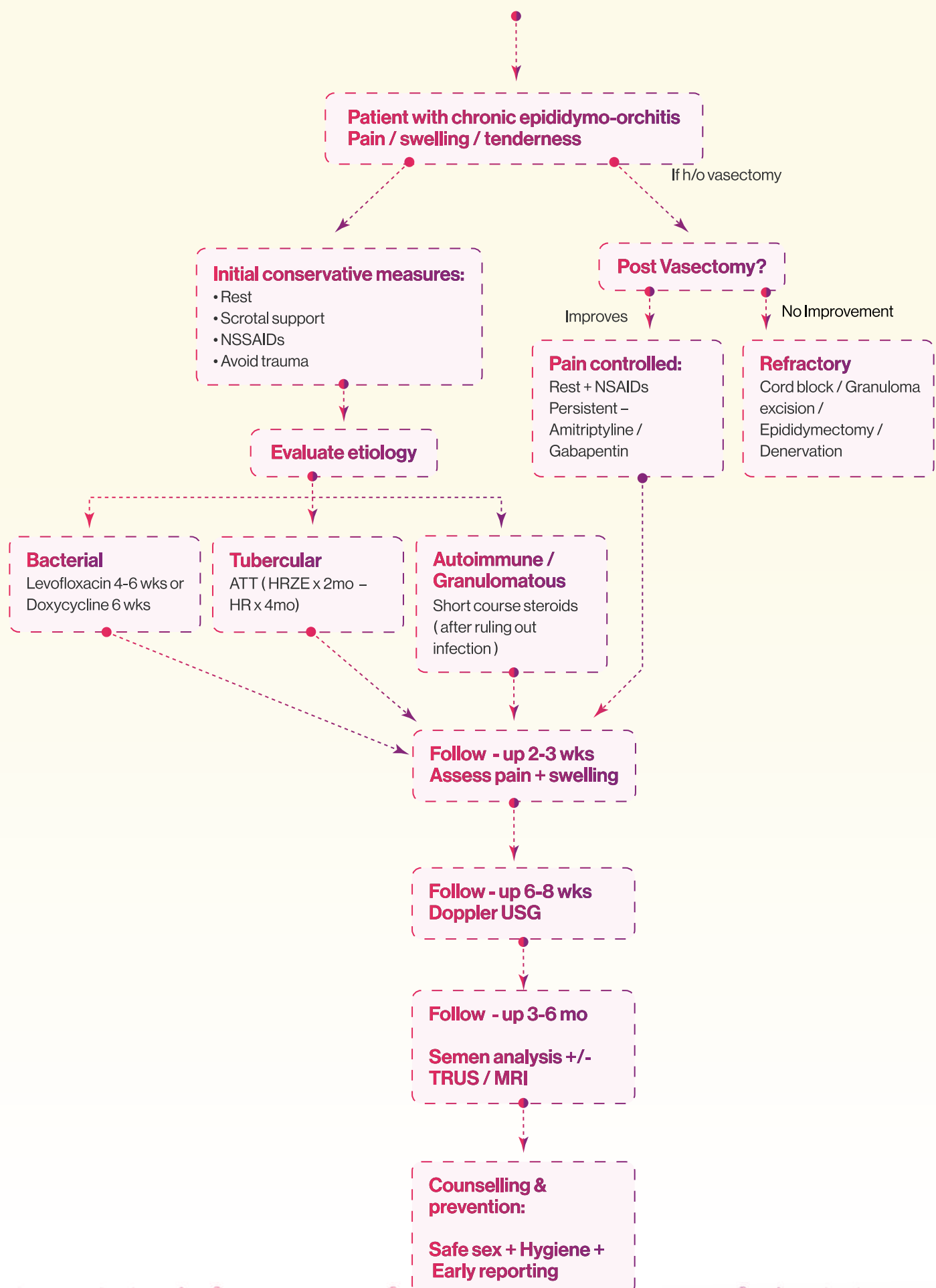
Step 5 – Management according to diagnosis

- If torsion strongly suspected → DO NOT DELAY IMAGING → Immediate surgical exploration
- If epididymitis suspected → Empirical antibiotics, scrotal support, analgesics
- If torsion of appendix testis → Conservative management with analgesics

CHRONIC EPIDIDYMO-ORCHITIS

Dr Debanshu Sarkar, Dr Krishnendu Maiti, Dr Souvik Chatterjee





APPROACH TO MALE LUTS AND PROSTATOMEGALY

Dr Debanshu Sarkar, Dr Krishnendu Maiti, Dr Souvik Chatterjee

ASSESSMENT

Male LUTS

History
Symptom score questionnaire
Uroflowmetry
DRE
Urinalysis
USG KUBP + PVRU
Serum PSA

Abnormal DRE
High PSA
Clinical Suspicion
of Ca Prostate

Prostatomegaly + / -
Significant PVR

Significant PVR
Clinical suspicion of
neurological disease

TRUS guided biopsy

Negative

Positive

Urology consultation for
management of Ca Prostate

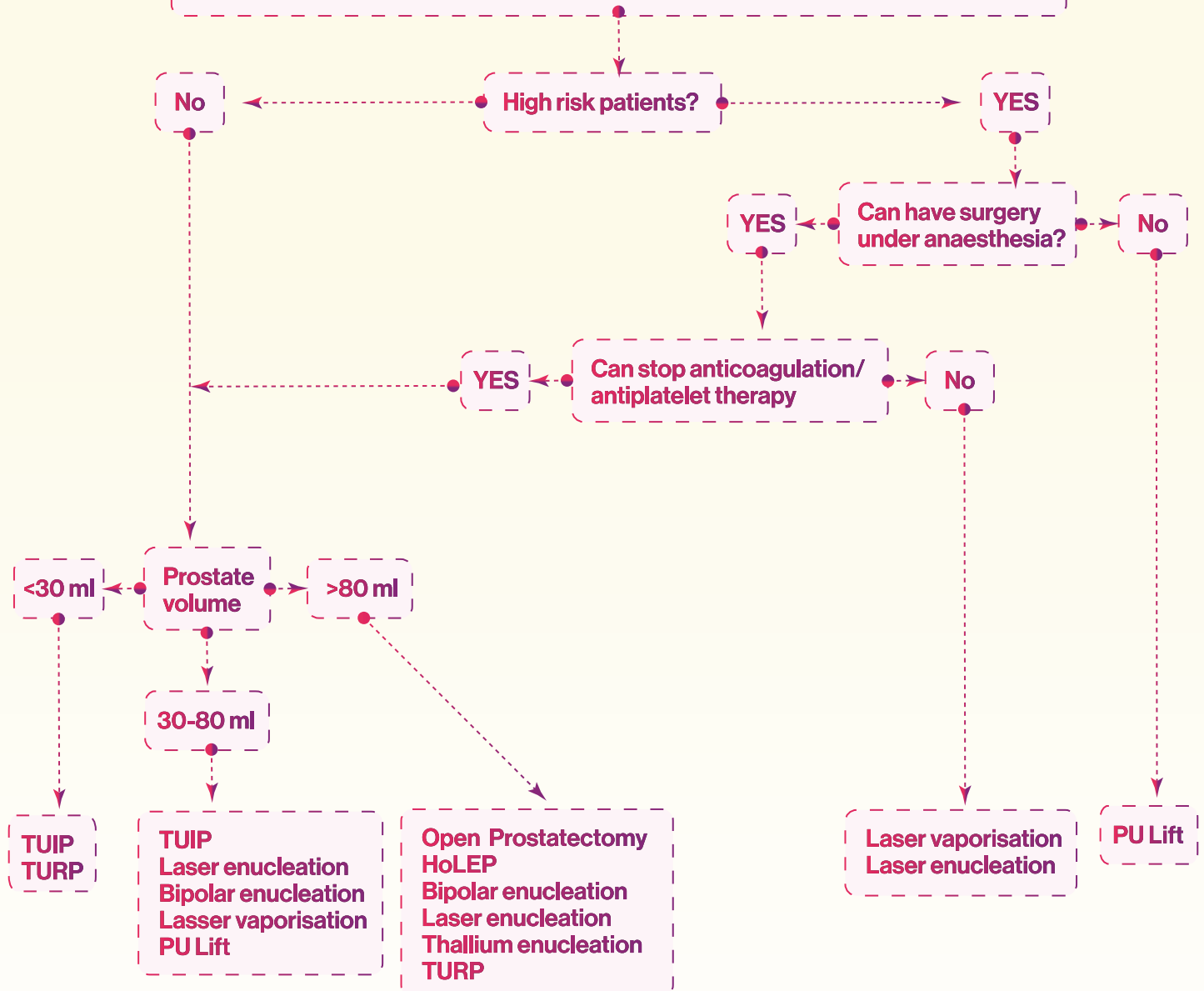
Medical or surgical
management as follows

Neurology consultation for
management of cause

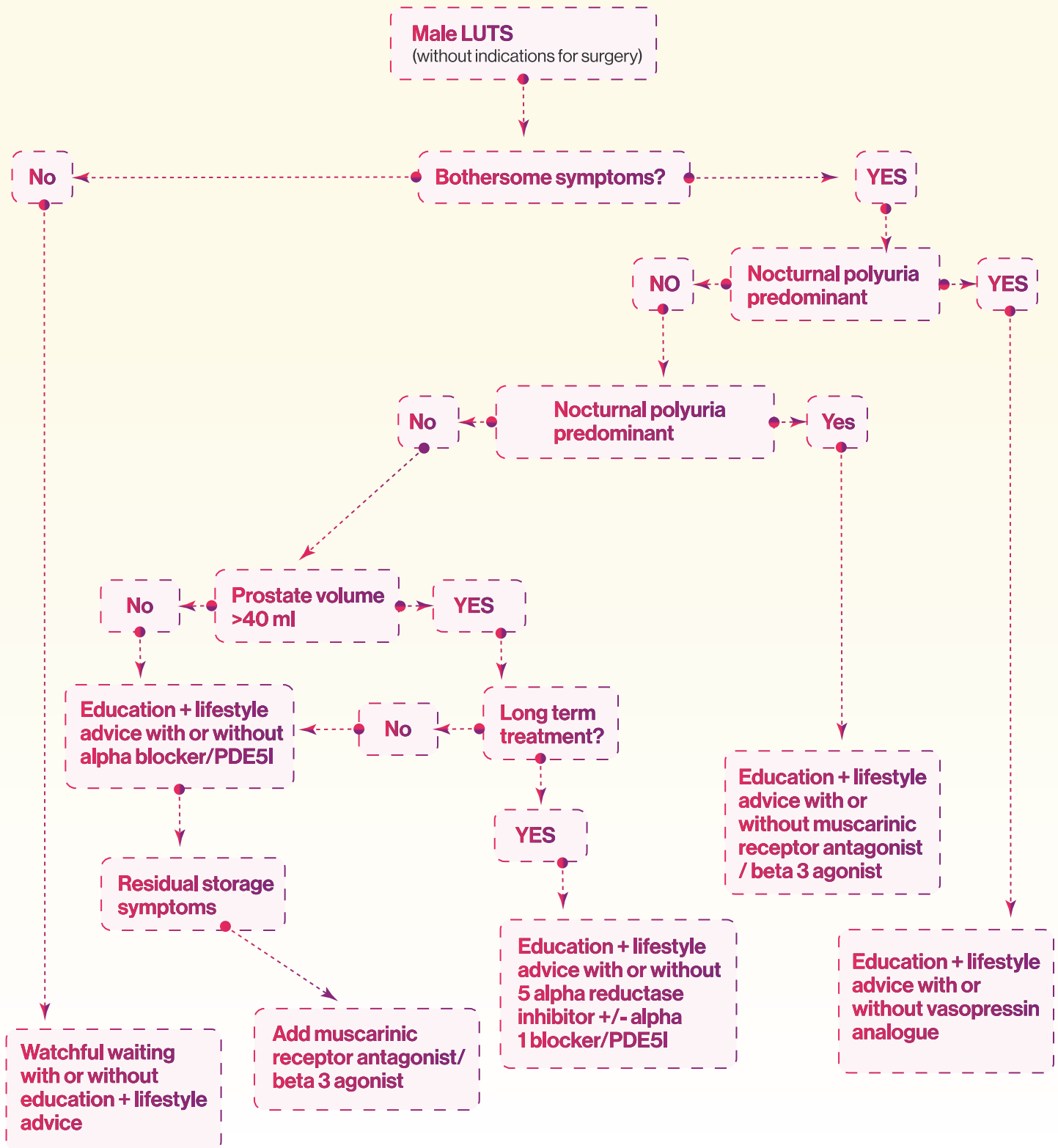
SURGICAL MANAGEMENT

MALE LUTS

With absolute indications for surgery or non-responders to medical management or those who do not want medical treatment but request active treatment



MEDICAL MANAGEMENT



RENAL CELL CARCINOMA

Dr Debanshu Sarkar, Dr Krishnendu Maiti, Dr Souvik Chatterjee

History

- Patients may present incidentally during imaging for other causes or with symptomatic disease (e.g., flank pain, hematuria, palpable mass)
- Systemic symptoms such as fever, weight loss, fatigue, or paraneoplastic manifestations (e.g., anemia, hypercalcemia) may also occur.

Diagnosis

Laboratory Investigations

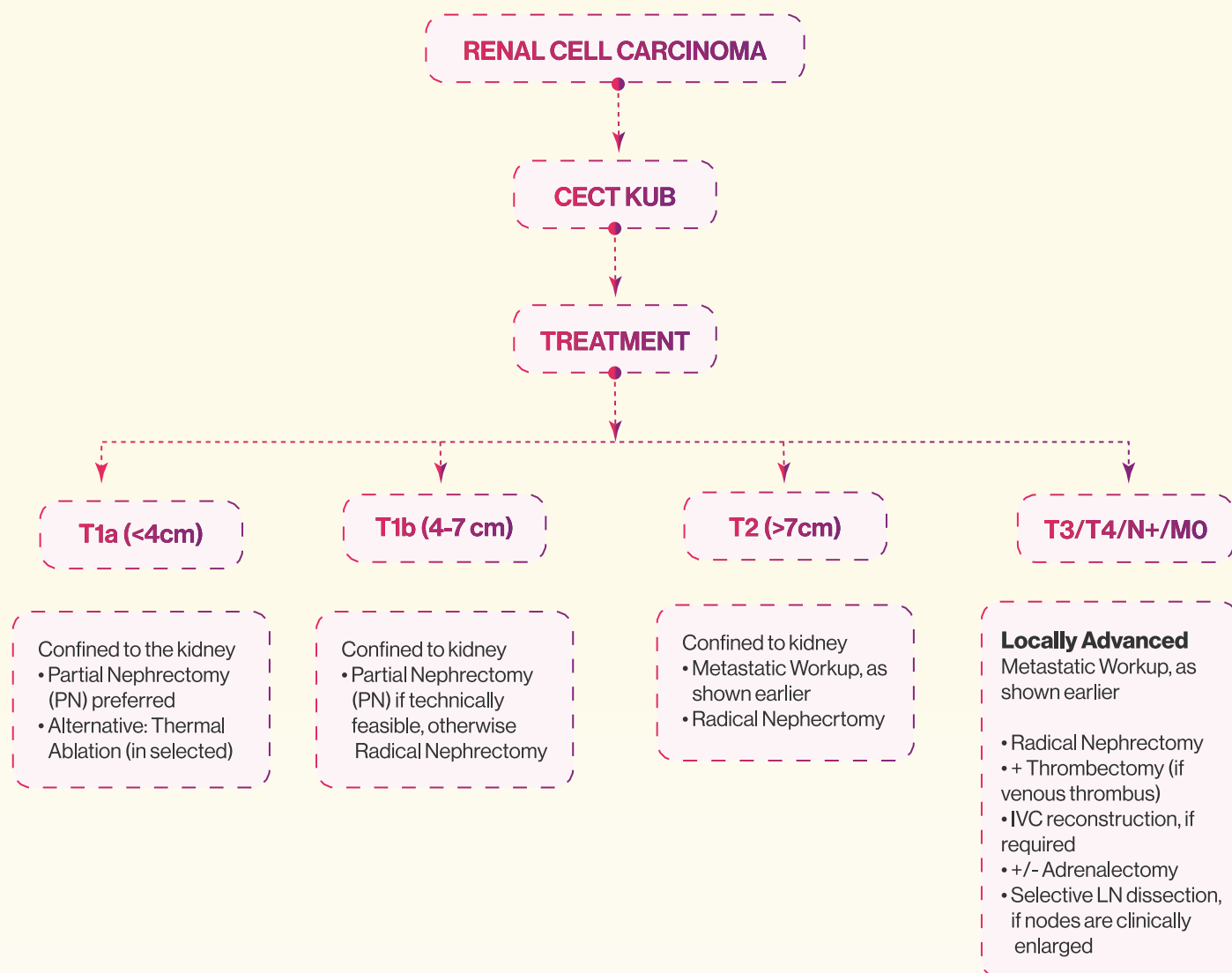
- CBC - to assess for anemia or polycythemia
- KFT, LFT, BUN/Creatinine - to evaluate renal and hepatic function
- LDH - used as a prognostic marker
- Urinalysis - may show microscopic or gross hematuria

Imaging Studies

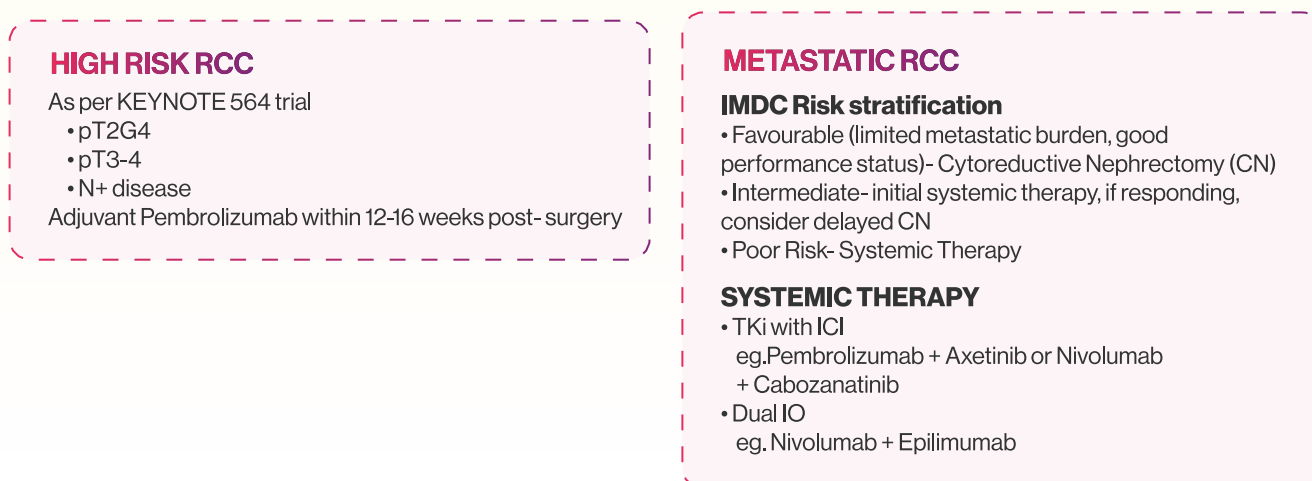
- **CECT KUB**- Primary imaging modality
 - Diagnostic clue: >15 Hounsfield Unit (HU) with early wash out of contrast in solid renal tumour before and after contrast administration (if Cr <1.5)
- **MRI KUB/ Multiparametric MRI (mpMRI)**
 - Provides clue for complex renal cysts. May be done in deranged KFT
 - provides **Clear Cell Likelihood Score (ccS)** – useful for predicting clear cell RCC in cT1 lesions

Metastatic Work-Up

- HRCT Thorax - for lung metastasis evaluation
- CECT Whole Abdomen & Pelvis - for local extension or visceral metastases
- FDG PET/CT- optional; low sensitivity and specificity, hence not routinely recommended



ADJUVANT THERAPY



TESTICULAR TUMOUR

Dr Kalyan Sarkar

THE SOLID TESTICULAR MASS

History
Physical examination
Testicular ultrasound
AFP
Beta hCG
LDH
Blood Chemistry

CT SCAN whole abdomen with contrast or MRI whole abdomen with and without contrast

DISCUSS
Radical inguinal orchiectomy
Sperm banking if indicated
Testicular prosthesis
Exploration of contralateral testicle
Implications on endocrine function and fertility

RADICAL INGUINAL ORCHIECTOMY

Pure seminoma

STAGING/
MARKERS

Non seminomatous germ cell tumour (NSGCT)

Stromal cell testicular tumour

As per type

ST 1 PURE SEMINOMA

ADVANCED SEMINOMA

ACTIVE SURVEILLANCE

SINGLE AGENT CARBOPLATIN

RADIO THERAPY
CHEMOTHERAPY
RPLND

ST 1 NSGCT

CHEMOTHERAPY
RPLND
SURVEILLANCE

ST 2, 3, 4 NSGCT WITH RISK CATEGORISATION

CHEMOTHERAPY
RPLND
SALVAGE CHEMOTHERAPY/
SURGERY

PENILE LESION

Dr Kalyan Kumar Sarkar

A SUSPICIOUS PENILE LESION

1. INITIAL EVALUATION

• History & Physical Examination

- Lesion assessment (size, site, ulceration, fixation)
- Palpate inguinal nodes (mobile vs. fixed, unilateral/bilateral)

• Biopsy of primary lesion

- Incisional or excisional biopsy for histologic diagnosis

• Pathology:

- SCC type and grade (well, moderate, poor)
- Depth of invasion
- Lymphovascular invasion (LVI)

• Staging workup

- MRI pelvis/penis for local extent
- CT abdomen/pelvis ± chest for nodal/metastatic disease

2. TUMOR STAGING (AJCC 8th Edition)

Tis

Carcinoma in situ (PeIN)

T1a

Invades subepithelial tissue, no LVI, not high grade

T1b

Invades subepithelial tissue, with LVI or high grade

T2

Invades corpus spongiosum

T3

Invades corpus cavernosum

T4

Invades adjacent structures (prostate, scrotum, etc.)

3. MANAGEMENT OF PRIMARY TUMOR

Stage & Recommended Local Treatment

Tis / Ta / T1a

Organ-preserving therapy:

- Topical 5-FU or imiquimod (for PeIN)
- Laser ablation (CO₂, Nd:YAG)
- Wide local excision with reconstruction
- Glansectomy for localized lesions

T1b / T2 (glans or distal shaft)

- Partial penectomy with ≥1–2 cm margin
- Consider glansectomy for glans-confined

T2

- Organ-preserving if negative deep margins

T3 / T4

- Total penectomy ± perineal urethrostomy
- For locally advanced: consider neoadjuvant chemotherapy before surgery

4 & 5 MANAGEMENT OF INGUINAL AND PELVIC LYMPH NODES

4A. MANAGEMENT OF INGUINAL LYMPH NODES CLINICALLY NODE-NEGATIVE

A. Clinically Node-Negative (cN0)

Risk stratify based on primary tumor:

- Low risk: Tis, Ta, T1a (G1-2, no LVI) → Surveillance
- Intermediate/High risk: ≥T1b or LVI/grade 3 → Invasive nodal staging

Nodal staging options:

- Dynamic sentinel node biopsy (DSNB)
- Modified inguinal lymph node dissection (ILND)

4B. MANAGEMENT OF INGUINAL LYMPH NODES CLINICALLY NODE-POSITIVE

B. Clinically Node-Positive (cN1-3)

Mobile unilateral node (cN1):

- Radical ILND on involved side
- Contralateral DSNB or modified ILND

Bilateral or fixed nodes (cN2-3):

- Neoadjuvant chemotherapy (TIP regimen: paclitaxel + ifosfamide + cisplatin, 4 cycles)
- If response → Bilateral radical ILND ± pelvic dissection
- If no response → Palliative systemic therapy or radiotherapy

5. MANAGEMENT OF PELVIC LYMPH NODES

Perform pelvic lymph node dissection if:

- ≥2 positive inguinal nodes on one side
- Extracapsular spread
- Large fixed nodes after chemo response

6. SYSTEMIC THERAPY

- **Neoadjuvant** (bulky N2-3)
- TIP (Paclitaxel, Ifosfamide, Cisplatin) × 4 cycles
- **Adjuvant** (after resection, high risk)
- Consider adjuvant chemo if extranodal extension
- **Metastatic / Recurrent**
- TIP or Cisplatin + 5-FU ± taxane Checkpoint inhibitors (PD-1 inhibitors) if PD-L1+ or MSI-H

7. FOLLOW-UP PROTOCOL

Time since treatment	Frequency	Focus
0-2 years	Every 3-6 months	Physical exam, node palpation, recurrence check
3-5 years	Every 6-12 months	Exam ± imaging if indicated

8. SUPPORTIVE & REHABILITATIVE CARE

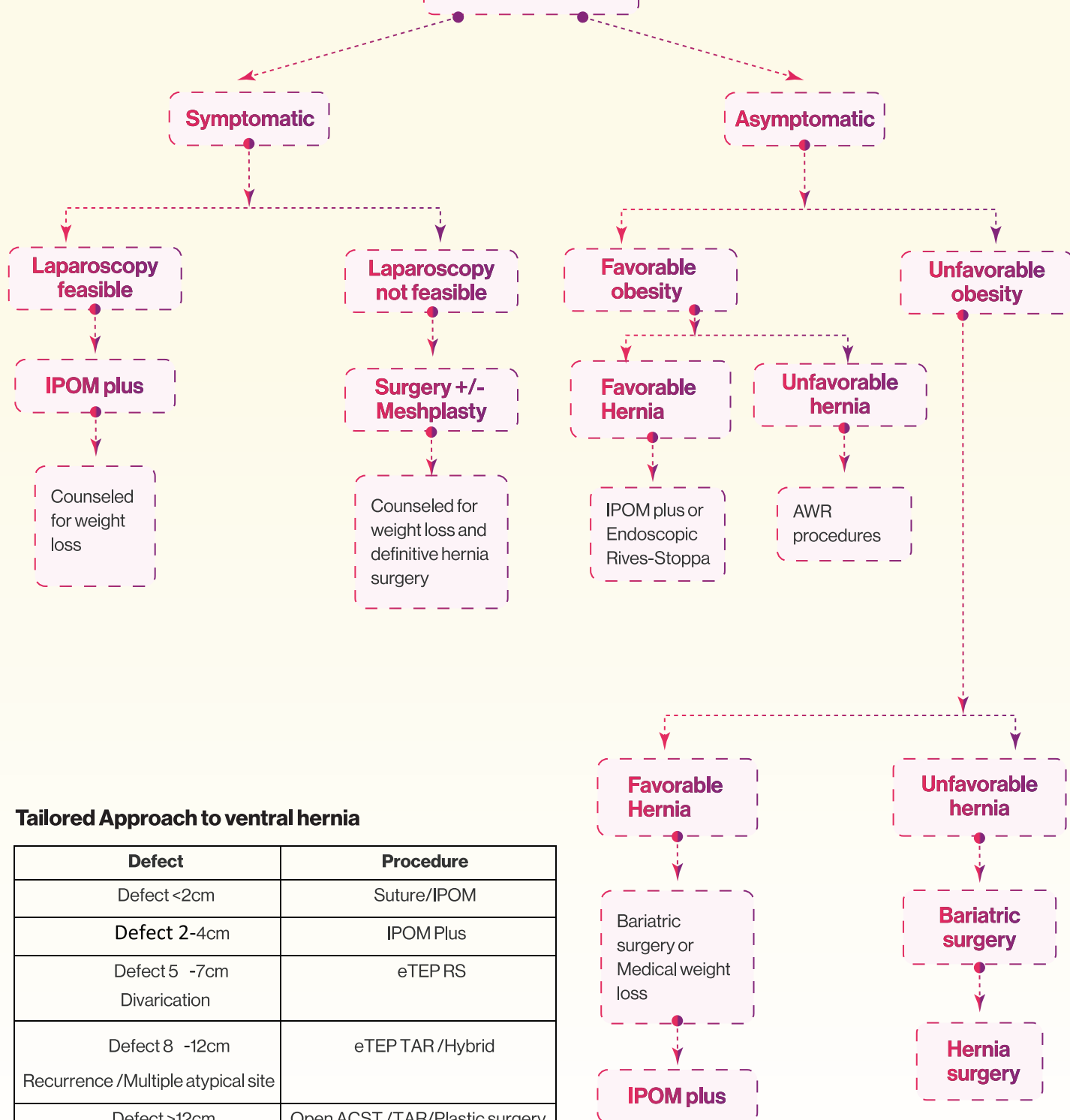
- Psychological and sexual counseling
- Penile prosthesis or reconstruction options post-treatment
- Stoma and wound care for penectomy or urethrostomy patients

BASED ON EAU NCCN GUIDELINES 2025

VENTRAL HERNIA

Dr Sarfaraz Jalil Baig

HERNIA IN OBESE



Tailored Approach to ventral hernia

Defect	Procedure
Defect <2cm	Suture/IPOM
Defect 2-4cm	IPOM Plus
Defect 5 -7cm Divarication	eTEP RS
Defect 8 -12cm Recurrence /Multiple atypical site	eTEP TAR /Hybrid
Defect >12cm Loss of Domain Adverse room factors Previous mesh	Open ACST /TAR/Plastic surgery

GROIN HERNIA

Dr Sumanta Dey

1. Indirect
2. Direct
3. Pantaloon's
4. Femoral
5. Obturator

Diagnosis

- Clinical +/- USG
- Sometimes CT/MRI

**Incarcerated
Strangulated
Obstructed**

Symptomatic

Asymptomatic

**Consider
watchful waiting**

Yes

No

Elective Surgery

Emergency Surgery

Laparo-endoscopic
repair - TAPP
Open Repair
+/- Mesh

**Primary
Unilateral**

**Primary
Bilateral**

Recurrent

Lichtenstein (Open)
or
Laparo-endoscopic
mesh repair
(TAPP/TEP)

Laparo-endoscopic
mesh repair
(TAPP/TEP)

**After Anterior
(Open) approach**

**After Posterior
(Laparoscopic) approach**

Laparo-endoscopic
mesh repair
(TAPP/TEP)

Lichtenstein (Open)
repair

ORAL CAVITY CANCERS

Dr Saurav Kumar Ghosh

Presentation:

Gross appearance – ulcer/exophytic/ulcero-proliferative/infiltrative (plaque like)
Non-healing/Pain+/-/slow growing/traumatic bleeds/**indurated** base/involves skin
(advanced)/cervical lymphadenopathy/dysarthria or swallowing difficulty with tongue lesions/loose teeth.
Associated History -Tobacco use, alcohol use, pre-existing white patch, sharp tooth, dental caries,
If lesion persists **3 weeks** after correction of any obvious inciting cause, **advise biopsy** (punch/incision).

Biopsy proven squamous CA of oral mucosa: Determine T, N & M stage clinic-radiologically

Staging:

1. CECT scan of PNS & neck (Puffed cheek technique, close cuts to be taken parallel to palate)
 - I. Posteriorly situated lesions
 - II. Restricted mouth opening/
 - III. Uncooperative
 - IV. Infiltrative lesions:
2. USG neck: If only neck evaluation is needed: (bulky or short neck, indeterminate node)
3. For metastases: CXR – as lung is commonest site of distal mets.
CECT scan Thorax : For T4 lesion/multiple or bulky neck nodes/lung symptoms

For tongue lesions CEMRI better

M-0: Treat with curative intent

M-1 disease : Palliative chemotherapy/RT

Tx of Primary T 1-4A (resectable):

Surgery is preferred treatment. 3-dimensional wide excision of primary, with 1 cm gross margins on all sides. Radical radiation is also an option

Buccal mucosa

Skin is close, may need excision. Assess pliability

Tongue

If crossing midline, temp tracheostomy. Also for lower alveolus

Lower Alveolus

If very superficial-marginal mandibulectomy, for advanced lesions-segmental resection

Lips

Up to 1/3rd of lower & 1/4th of upper lip-primary closure

Palate

Infra-structure maxillectomy

- a. Primary is T4B of AJCC 8th classification
- b. Tongue lesion with extensive involvement of base of tongue
- c. Buccal primary with skin involvement up to zygoma
- d. Lower limit of skin involvement (oedema) up to hyoid
- e. RMT lesion with ITF involved above mandibular notch

Unresectable

For exophytic T1 or early T2 lesion of hard palate or lip/commissure, **Radical Radiation** may be preferred over surgery: gives equivalent oncological results (less morbid/more cosmetic).

Tx of Neck nodes: Surgery is preferred

N-0 (clinic-radiological)

Primary not crossing midline –

Ipsilateral Supra-omohoid neck dissection (levels 1 to 3)

N 1, N2 and resectable N3

Primary not crossing midline–

Ipsilateral MRND Type 3 if small volume disease
Ipsilateral MRND Type 2 if PMMC flap recon
Ipsilateral RND/MRND (any type) if bulky nodes involve Spinal Accessory nerve/ IJV

Unresectable N3

Involves Carotid Art /
Prevertebral fascia

Palliative chemotherapy/RT

Adjuvant therapy after surgery (based on H/P report)

Adjuvant radiation:

T3, T4, primary
N2, N3 neck, and some N1 also.
Close margins (< than 5 mm),

Adjuvant chemo-radiation

Gross residual disease (R-2 resection)
Extra-nodal extension

Reconstruction of primary:

1. Buccal mucosa: Defect < 2 cm, primary closure. For larger defects, STSG or tongue/nasolabial flap, Free Radial artery forearm flap

2. Tongue : Very small excisions : Defect may be left raw to granulate. For 20- 40 % volume loss – primary rotational closure of remnant tongue. 50% or more loss – replacement by Free Radial or Free Antero-Lat Thigh (ALT) or Free Rectus Abdo Muscle flap (RAM) are ideal, or pedicled PMMC flap if microvascular recon not available.

3. Lower alveolus : Segmental excisions may be fixed by Titanium recon plates, or with rib grafts, or Free Fibular osteo-cutaneous flaps (ideal), especially for middle third defects of mandible. PMMC flap is a simpler and good option for recon but won't allow future dental implants.

4. Lip : Abbe or Abbe-Estlander flap, Karapandzic flap for bigger defects

Metastatic disease: Has poor outcome.

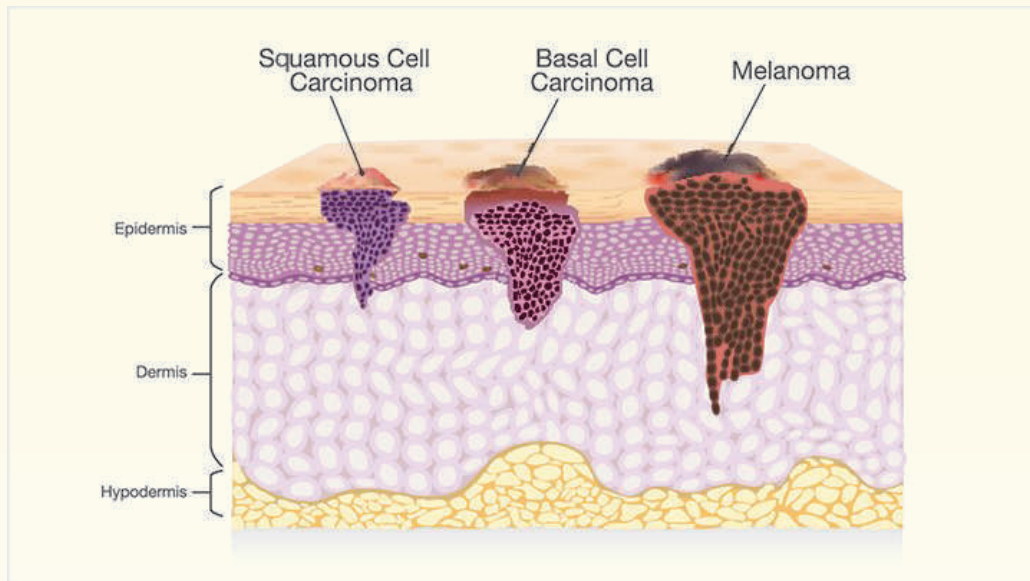
- Palliative chemotherapy +/- targeted therapy
- Palliative Radiation for pain relief/bleeding
- Tracheostomy: Relieve airway obstruction or protect airway from bleeding

SKIN TUMOURS

Dr Madhumita Mukhopadhyay

The skin is the body's largest organ. It protects against heat, sunlight, injury, and infection. Skin tumours develop as a result of proliferation of a single or multiple components of the skin. Skin tumors are classified by their origin, most commonly using the World Health Organization (WHO) system, which divides them into categories such as keratinocytic/ epidermal, melanocytic, adnexal (skin appendage), hematolymphoid, and soft tissue tumors. This classification can also be broken down into malignant or benign.

Fig 1



The skin has several layers (**Fig 1**), but the two main layers are the epidermis (upper or outer layer) and the dermis (lower or inner layer). Skin cancer begins in the epidermis, which is made up of three kinds of cells (squamous cells, basal cells and melanocytes). Clinical confirmation can be done with a skin biopsy. A shave or punch biopsy is typically sufficient for most nonmelanoma skin cancers, provided it reaches an adequate depth to analyze the tissue pattern and possible perineural invasion. For melanoma, however, complete excisional removal is recommended.

For benign tumors, management is usually for cosmetic reasons and more often than not, diagnosis is made on excision biopsy. For skin malignancies, general management includes surgical removal (wide excision or Mohs), **radiation therapy**, **cryotherapy** and **topical treatments** for superficial tumors. For advanced, systemic treatments such as **chemotherapy**, **immunotherapy**, or **targeted therapy** may be used. The specific treatment depends on the type, stage, and location of the tumor.

Standard surgical excision

For basal cell carcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma, surgery is thought to be the most effective treatment. Wide excision with adequate margin is recommended followed by primary closure, skin grafting or flap cover. Merkel cell carcinoma is a rare and aggressive skin cancer that requires a wider margin of excision. Surgery is especially indicated for lesions close to vital structures involving bone and recurrent cases.

Mohs surgery

More tissue preservation is possible with this technique. Thin layers of tissue are taken only from those areas with positive tumor margins. Due to this the final wound size is much less and the cosmetic outcome is much better. Chemotherapy is often combined with Mohs surgery.

Malignant Melanoma

For early stage melanomas treatment is surgery in the form of wide local excision with sentinel lymph node biopsy, elective node dissection, or both. Skin grafting or tissue transfers may be needed if primary closure cannot be done. SLNB is indicated if the primary tumor has thickness greater than 1mm. If regional lymph nodes are enlarged FNAC should be done for confirmation. If positive then regional block dissection should be done. Block dissection should also be done if SLNB shows metastasis in case of non palpable lymph nodes. For metastasis treatment is by chemotherapy and immunotherapy.

Tumor thickness	Recommended margins
In situ	0.5 – 1 cm
≤ 1 mm	1 cm
1 – 2 mm	1 – 2 cm
2 – 4 mm	2 cm
≥ 4 mm	2 cm

NECK NODE WITH UNKNOWN PRIMARY

Dr Parthasarathi Ghosh

History & Physical Examination

- a. Complete History including Family History
- b. Complete Physical examination: Breasts, Skin, Nodal Levels, Pelvic/genital, Rectum
- c. Special attention: cranial nerves and skin in head/neck
- d. Flexible endoscopes / mirrors

Laboratory Tests

- a. CBC, basic biochemistry (LFTs, RFT, albumin, calcium, LDH)
- b. PSA in men (if prostate cancer suspected).
- c. AFP & beta-HCG (to rule out GCT)
- d. TSH (if prior head/neck radiation)

Pathological Confirmation & Initial Triage

- a. Tissue Acquisition: Generous biopsy sample (Core / Incisional / Excisional. Avoid FNA if possible.)
- b. On-site Triage of the biopsy
 - i. Specimen adequacy (ROSE)
 - ii. Save parts of the biopsy for ancillary testing: Flow cytometry, ICC, molecular studies
- c. Initial classification
 - i. Microscopy classification: Adenocarcinoma, SCC, Neuroendocrine etc.
 - ii. IHC panels: CK7, CK20, TTF-1, CDX-2, ER/PR

Search for Occult Primary Site

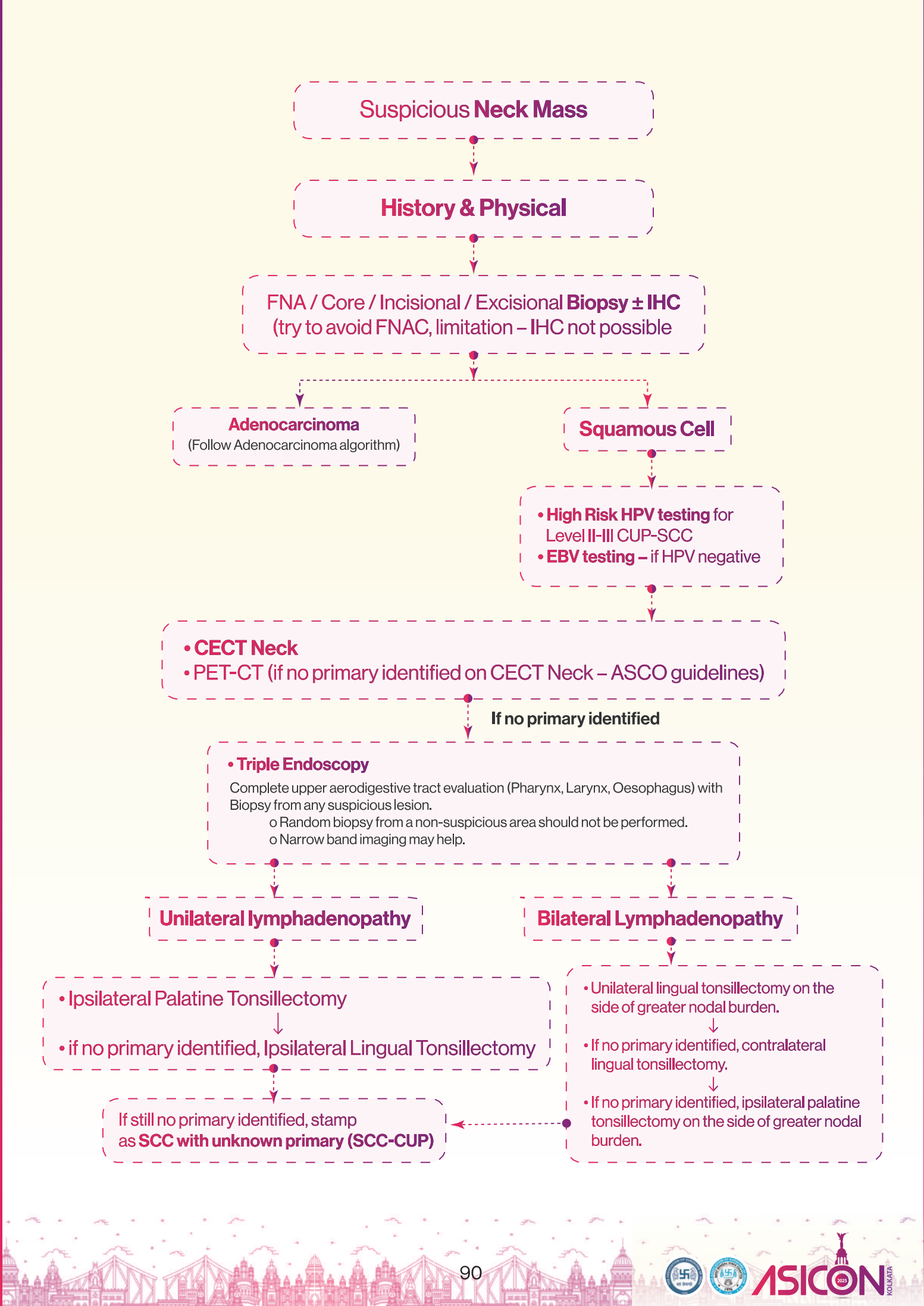
- a. Imaging
 - i. CECT (neck, chest, abdomen, pelvis)
 - ii. MRI for soft tissue definition and skull base invasion
 - iii. FDG-PET/CT for detection of primary and staging.
- b. Endoscopic evaluation
 - i. ENT Panendoscopy: Nasopharyngolaryngoscopy, biopsies
 - ii. Bilateral tonsillectomy for HPV positive cancers
 - iii. TORS for base of tongue tissue removal.

Advanced Pathological & Molecular Characterization

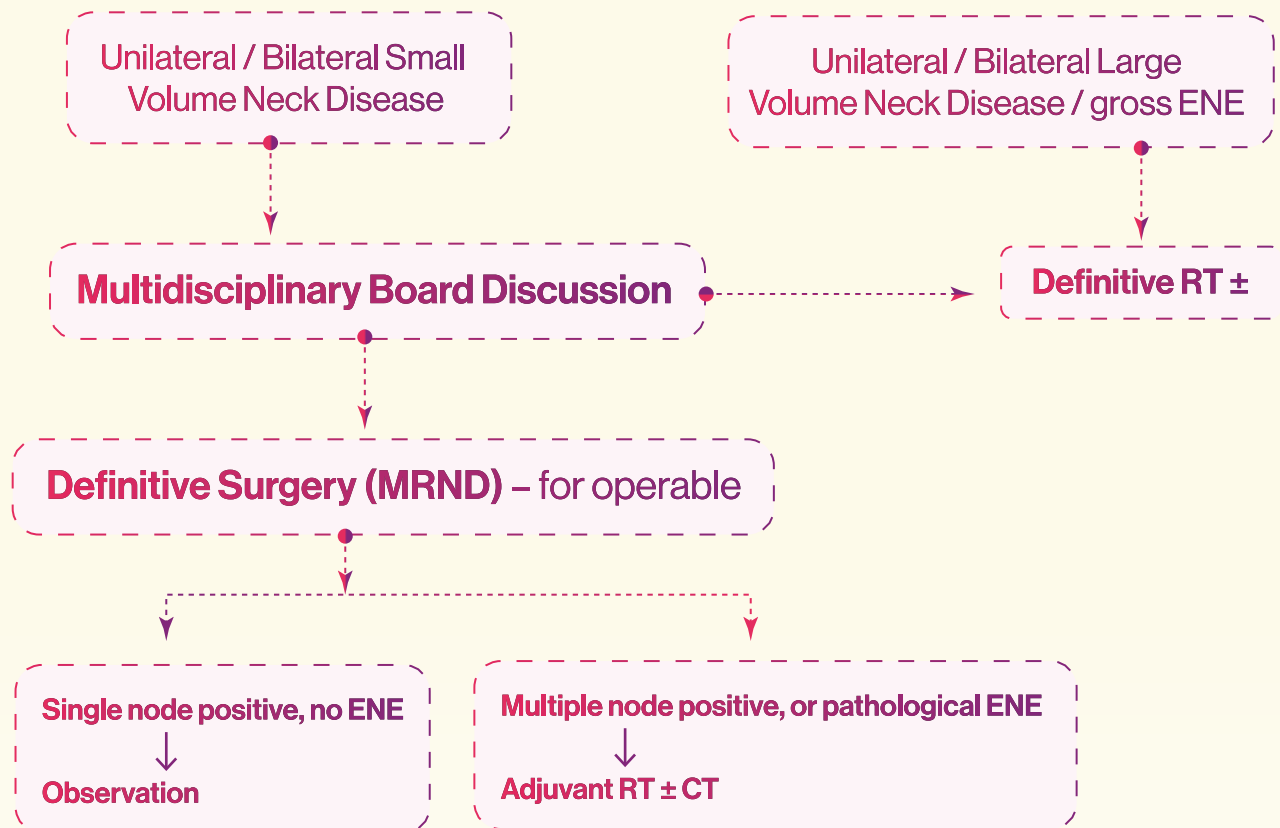
- a. Specific subtyping
 - i. HPV/p16 positivity – oropharyngeal classification
 - ii. EBV positivity – Nasopharyngeal classification
- b. Molecular studies
 - i. Gene expression profiling (95% diagnostic accuracy)
 - ii. NGS for actionable genetic alterations

TNM Staging and Prognosis

- a. T category: T0 (no evidence of primary)
- b. N category: based on size and ENE as per oral cancer staging.
- c. M category: M0 or M1
- d. Stage Grouping
 - i. Stage III: T0N1M0
 - ii. Stage IVA: T0N2M0
 - iii. Stage IVB: T0N3M0
 - iv. Stage IVC: M1
- e. Prognostic Factors
 - i. Histology
 - ii. TNM stage
 - iii. HPV / EBV status



SCC-CUP



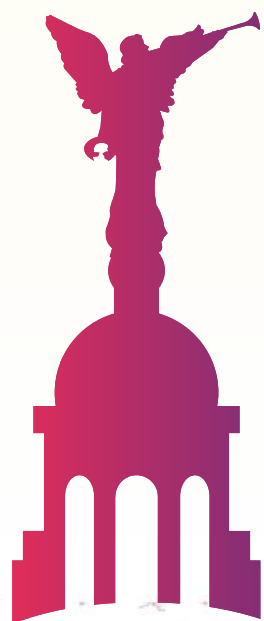
The Editorial Team



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