

**A DISSERTATION ON
“CLINICAL OUTCOME IN ACUTE ADHESIVE SMALL BOWEL
OBSTRUCTION AFTER SURGICAL OR CONSERVATIVE
MANAGEMENT”**

Submitted to

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In partial fulfillment of the regulations
for the awards of the degree of

M.S. DEGREE - GENERAL SURGERY BRANCH – I



GOVERNMENT MOHAN KUMARAMANGALAM

MEDICAL COLLEGE, SALEM

MAY 2020

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ABSTRACT

Introduction and Methods

Acute Small Bowel Obstruction is a surgical emergency that constitutes 20% of the surgical emergencies reported in the west. This present research was to study the clinical outcome in acute adhesive small bowel obstruction after surgical or conservative management. From July 2017 to June 2019, a Prospective Single Center Study was done among 60 patients admitted with an episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction in GMKMC hospital. The following data was collected using a structured questionnaire: age, demographic characteristics, socio economic status, patients complaints and duration of complaints. A detailed general examination was done. Systemic examination and basic investigations were done.

Results

Forty-five patients were managed using surgical methods while fifteen of them were managed through conservative measures. The mean age of the patients in surgery group (n=45) is 50.2 years (S.D=11.78) [range= 28-75 years] while the mean age of the patients in the conservative group (n=15) is 50.73 years (S.D=11.11) [range=37-72 years]. The overall (N=60) mean age was 50.33 years (S.D=11.52) [range=28-75]. Majority of the patients were males (n=42, 70%) while others were females (n=18, 30%). The mean pain score among 60 patients was 4.85 (S.D=2.02) [range=1-10]. All of them had past history of previous surgery. On inspection, abdominal distension with guarding present in 45 of them (75%). CECT showed free fluid in 45 of the patients (75%). Among

60 patients, twenty-six of them were readmitted, of which, ten of them were surgically managed and 16 of them were conservatively managed. The mean duration of hospital stay was 8.75 days (S.D=3.63). The hospital stay was higher in the conservative group with a mean of 14.53 days (S.D=2.29) ranging between 12-18 days while the surgery group had a lower duration of hospital stay of 6.82 days (S.D=0.89) ranging between 6-8 days.

Discussion and Conclusion

Patients with SBO who undergo surgery are at lower risk of recurrence. Patients with SBO who undergo surgery are at lower risk of repeated hospitalisations. The recurrence of symptoms is also lower in the patients who were treated surgically. Patients with three or more of the following criteria (pain duration ≥ 4 days, abdominal guarding, leukocyte ≥ 10900 /l, C-reactive protein ≥ 75 mg/l, free fluid ≥ 500 ml on CT scan, or reduced contrast enhancement on CT scan) should undergo prompt surgical intervention as it allows both obstruction removal and long-term reduction of recurrent SBO episodes. The decision to operate should also take into account the evolution of the clinical status and laboratory values, additional CT findings (e.g., volvulus, transition zone, reduced contrast enhancement, small bowel feces sign), as well as the patient's general condition, comorbidities, and surgical history.

Introduction

Acute Small Bowel Obstruction is a surgical emergency that constitutes 20% of the surgical emergencies reported in the west¹. It is defined as the "functional or mechanical interruption of the normal passage of contents through the gastrointestinal tract". The obstruction may be due to reasons either within the wall or outside the wall or in the lumen. It may be either partial or complete. The characteristic sequel is the accumulation of gas and air in the intestine leading to the swelling of the bowel wall. This culminates in the collection of fluid in the lumen thereby stretching the intestinal wall and jeopardise the perfusion of the wall.

The incidence of small bowel obstruction does not vary with gender and has known to occur around 64 years of age.

In more than 75% of the reported cases, small bowel obstruction is induced by adhesions of previous surgeries²⁻⁶. The procedures that correlates with small bowel obstruction are appendectomy, hysterectomy and colectomy⁷. Other reasons include²⁻⁵;

Neoplasms (5-10%)

Crohn's disease (7%)

Hernia (2%)

Radiation-induced enteritis (1%)

History of foreign body ingestion

prior obstruction of the small bowel

Irradiation

Prior inflammation of the small bowel

Ellis et al in 1999 showed that single previous pelvic or abdominal surgery in 29,970 patients led to a readmission rate of 34.6% with 2.1 times more cases of adhesions in ten years⁸. Other studies report spontaneous small bowel obstruction where no previous history of surgery was reported⁵.

The small bowel obstruction is an emergency with a need for tactical measures to relieve obstruction. It involves evaluation clinically, conduct a battery of biological tests and imaging studies (CT being the preferred mode of imaging).

Conservative management is being followed in a number of patients that includes giving rest to the bowel, decompress using nasogastric tube and provide resuscitation using fluids⁹. Assessment at regular intervals is essential to ensure that the bowel is not undergoing ischemia. Any signs of underlying ischemia should be recognised early and must be addressed using surgical intervention. Urgent surgery is warranted in patients who

show visible signs of clinical weariness or who show signs of strangulation in CT imaging¹⁰⁻¹¹.

A number of patients present with a symptoms where both conservative measures and surgical options are viable. The decision here depends on the discretion of the surgeon. This emphasises the importance of the role of the clinician in the management of small bowel obstruction that also poses a clinical challenge.

The challenges are manifold. The conservative management may result in intraabdominal adhesions which may present with obstruction on a future date. Surgical management may also lead to newer adhesions as is the case with abdominal surgeries¹²⁻¹³.

The risk of recurrence is lower in patients who were treated with surgery which was reported at 42% (Landercasper et al, 1993)¹⁴. Comparatively, the risk is augmented in conservative management. Another study highlighting the correlation between the risk and rate of recurrence reported that the risk of recurrence is positively correlated to the rate of recurrence (Fevang, 2004)¹⁵.

The small bowel obstruction may be due to functional reasons like the bowel wall or the splanchnic nerves dysfunction. It may also be due to mechanical barrier. Sometimes, the large bowel obstruction may mimic

like small bowel obstruction which is referred to as “colonic pseudo-obstruction”. This acute functional dilatation is known as adynamic or paralytic ileus. The symptoms are similar only with the absence of mechanical obstruction. Mechanical obstruction may be luminal, mural or extramural. They can also be classified as;

- a) Proximal (high SBO)
- b) Distal (low SBO)
- c) Closed loop
- d) Open –ended obstruction

In closed loop obstruction, the lumen is occluded on either sides not allowing movement of contents in either direction while in open-ended obstruction, the contents can move in any one direction.

Partial obstruction is where few contents like liquids and gas may pass through the lumen whereas in complete obstruction, all contents are blocked. Simple obstruction doesn't compromise blood supply whereas in

complicated obstruction, the blood flow is cut off and leads to the ischemia, infarction and perforation.

A unique type of intestinal obstruction is intussusception which is due to the telescoping of a segment of a bowel into another. It is prone to happen anywhere distal to the gastric cardia. If the intussusception happens in the retrograde direction, it is known as enteric but can also present in the downward direction. The exact mechanism of colic and enterocolic of intussusception is not clearly known but a presence of an organic lesion, diseased bowel, adjacent area of the normal bowel might act as a starting point for intussusception.

Depending on the process that initiates intussusception, it is classified as;

- a) Idiopathic
- b) Postoperative
- c) Intussusception due to an organic lesion

Meckel's diverticulum may also invaginate into the ileum and then into the colon¹⁶. Another condition is the volvulus which is the axially twisted

portion of the gastrointestinal tract around the mesentery of the colon that may result in varying degrees of luminal obstruction and may lead to severe consequences like blood supply cut off, ischemia, infraction and perforation. Gall stone ileus is a mechanical obstruction due to the passage of gallstones through biliary-enteric fistula from the biliary system. The stones gets impacted in the lumen of the bowel. When Meckel's Diverticulum gets incarcerated in an external hernia, it is called as Littre's hernia.

The present study aimed to compare the outcome of surgical and conservative managements of small bowel obstruction. The rates of recurrence, hospitalisations, duration of hospital stay and the number of patients who were operated post conservative management were compared.

Review of Literature

Intestine is a word derived from the Latin vulgate that denotes being “internal”. True to the name the intestines constitute most of the volume of the organs that are present internally. There are two parts to it: small and large.

The Small Intestine

The food released from the stomach releases into the small intestine as Chyme, where digestion takes place. The term small intestine is the longest part of the intestine (around 10 feet). It derives its name as small intestine from the size of the diameter of the lumen which is only 1 inch. It is not just the length but also a large number of mucosal folds largely increases the surface area of the small intestine which is essential for the meticulous process of digestion of food and absorption of nutrients.

Anatomy of the small intestine (Image 1)

Duodenum

The small intestine is coiled and comprises of three regions namely; duodenum, jejunum and ileum (proximal to distal). The proximal and the shortest region is the duodenum starting at the pyloric sphincter (10-inches). After the pyloric sphincter, the duodenum curves and enters the retroperitoneal space tracing a c-shape around the head of the pancreas. Then it ascends anteriorly and returns to the retroperitoneal cavity to continue as jejunum. The anatomical course of the duodenum leads to four parts;

- a) Superior
- b) Descending
- c) Horizontal
- d) Ascending

There are few anatomically important portions in the duodenum. One such part is the place where there is a transition from anterior portion of

the alimentary canal to the mid-region. This is marked by the presence of ampulla of Vater, also known as the hepatopancreatic ampulla. This region is the confluence of the bile duct and main pancreatic duct that carry bile and pancreatic juices respectively. The opening of the hepatopancreatic ampulla is at the major duodenal papilla which is a tiny volcano shaped structure. It contains a sphincter that is responsible for regulating the flow of pancreatic juice and bile from the ampulla into the duodenum.

Jejunum

It is the next part of the small intestine that extends between ileum and duodenum. it is around 3-feet long and anatomically gets seamlessly extended as the ileum.

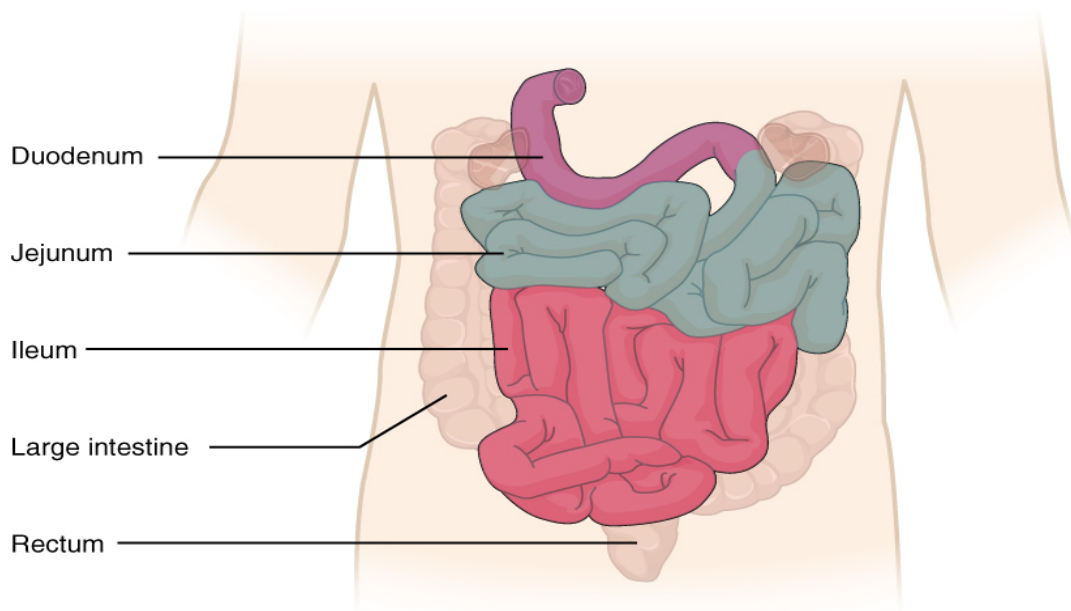


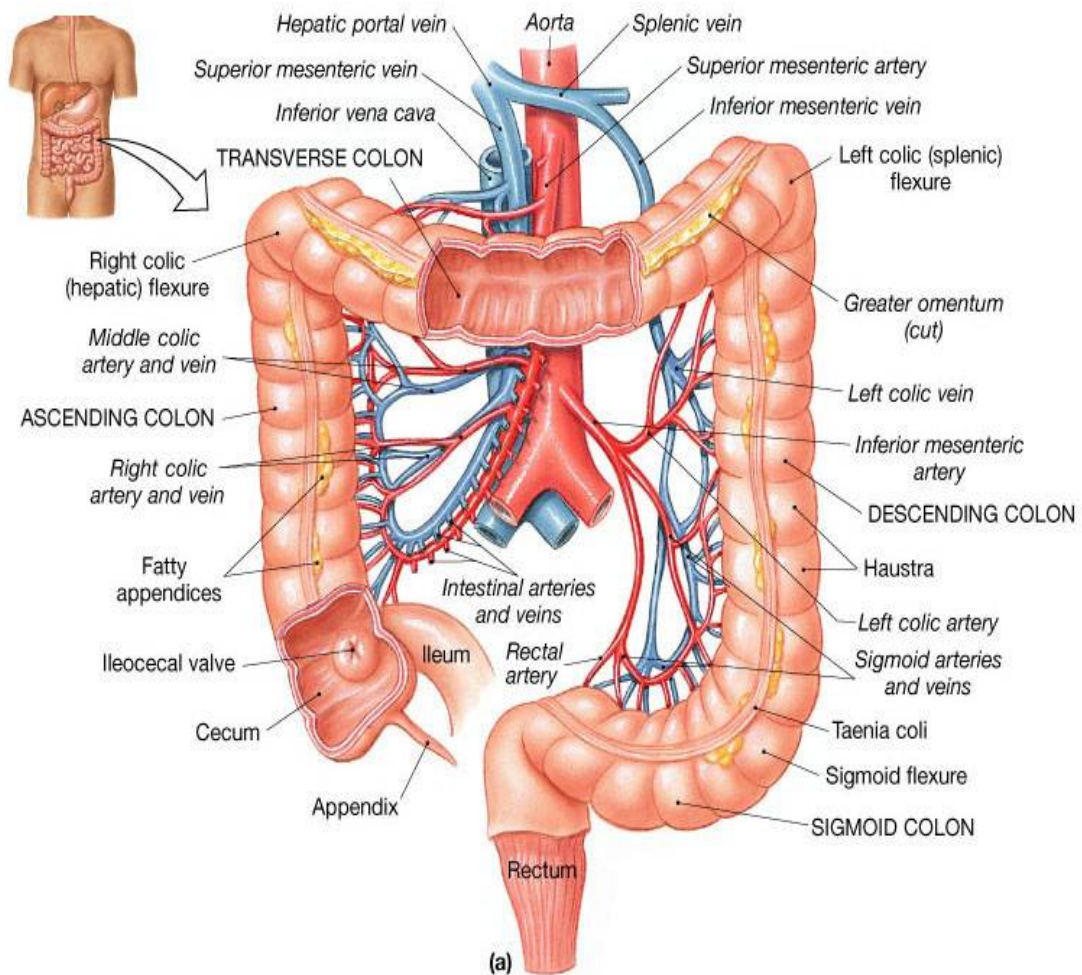
Image 1: Gross anatomy of the small intestine

Ileum

The third and longest part of the small intestine that is around 6-feet in length is the ileum. It has an elaborate vascular structure to support the thick walls and the well-developed mucosal folds. The ileum continues into the caecum, the proximal portion of the large intestine which is demarcated by the ileocecal sphincter or valve. The mesentery holds the jejunum and Ileum to the posterior abdominal wall of the abdominal cavity. The large intestine forms a frame around these three portions of the small intestine.

Nerve and blood supply of the intestines

The extrinsic innervation of the small intestine is provided by the parasympathetic nerve fibres from the vagus nerve and the sympathetic nerve fibres from the thoracic splanchnic nerves. The main arterial supply comes from the superior mesenteric artery. They are accompanied by the veins that run with the arteries and drain into the superior mesenteric vein. The blood rich in nutrients is carried from the small intestine into the liver through the hepatic portal vein.



Histology

The walls of the small intestine is similar to the alimentary canal with different features of the mucosa and sub-mucosa which as well suited for absorption of the nutrients. The absorptive area contains close to 600-fold including villi, circular folds and micro villi. The majority of the absorption occurs in the proximal one-third of the small intestine, therefore this arrangement is more existent in the proximal portion (figure 2).

Circular folds

The mucosa and submucosa contain a deep ridge called plica circulares which is a circular fold beginning from the proximal part of duodenum till the middle of ileum. These folds facilitate absorption of the nutrients. These folds structurally cause the fluid in the intestine swirl in these ridges which gives more time for absorption and mixing.

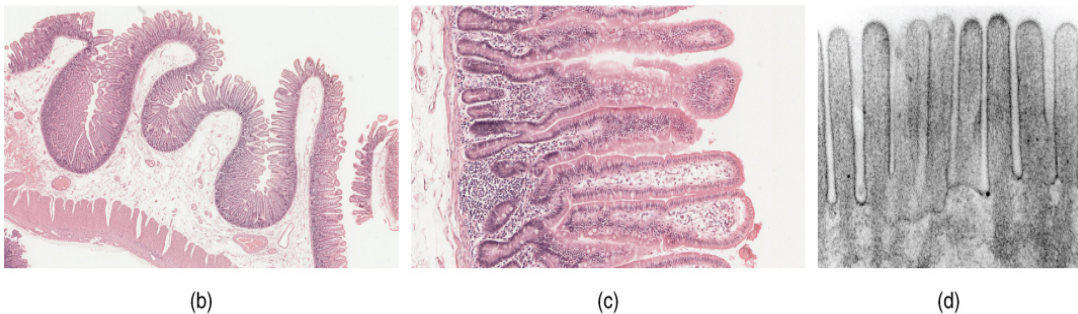
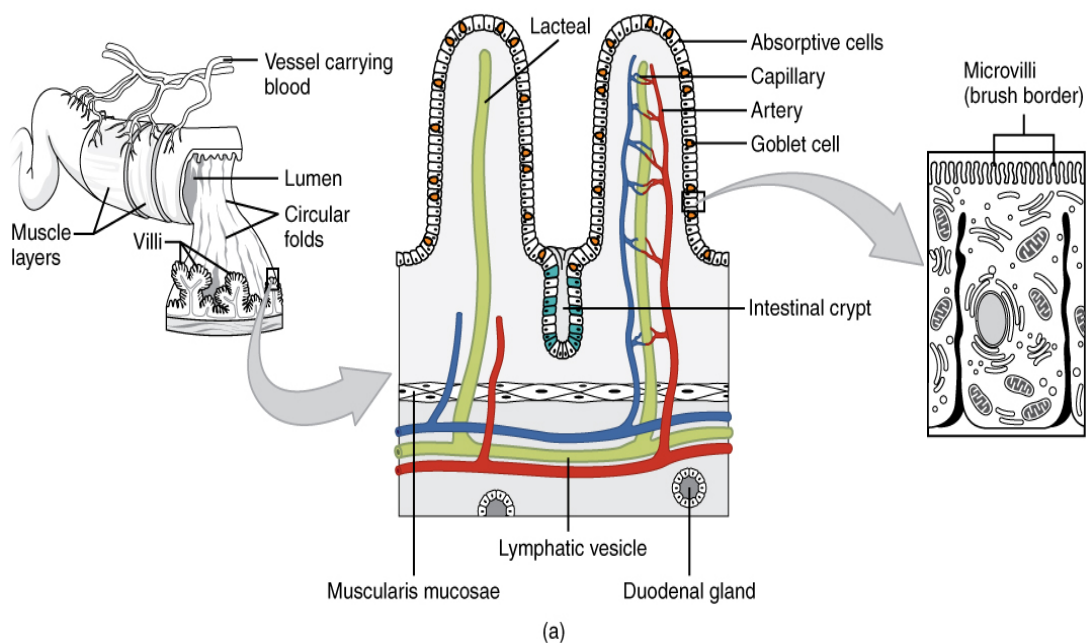


Figure 2: Histology of the Small Intestine. (a) The absorptive surface of the small intestine is vastly enlarged by the presence of circular folds, villi, and microvilli. (b) Micrograph of the circular folds. (c) Micrograph of the villi. (d) Electron micrograph of the microvilli. From left to right, LM x 56, LM x 508, EM x 196,000. (credit b-d:

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Villi

The circular folds are anatomically small hair-like projections (0.5-1 mm long) with high vascularity. This mucosa gives a furry texture that largely increases the surface area of the intestine (there are around 20-40 villi for every square millimeter). The villi is covered by the mucosal epithelium that is rich in absorptive cells. Every villus contains muscle, connective tissue and a capillary bed consisting of one arteriole and one venule. It also contains a lacteal, which is a lymphatic capillary. The carbohydrates and proteins are directly observed into the blood stream whereas the fat is absorbed through the lymphatics.

Microvilli

The smaller sub division of the villi is the microvilli that are approximately 1 micro meter in diameter. They are surface extensions of the plasma membrane of the epithelial cells of the mucosa that are cylindrical and apical. Each cell contains a microfilament that supports the microvillus. Microscopically, the micro villus gives a brush border

appearance. The surface of the membranes contain the digestive enzymes that aid in the absorption of the nutrients. The microvilli of the intestine largely increase the surface area for absorption.

Intestinal Glands

The mucosa between the villi is lined by deep pockets that give way to crypts of lieberkuhn which are tubular interstitial glands (Image 3).

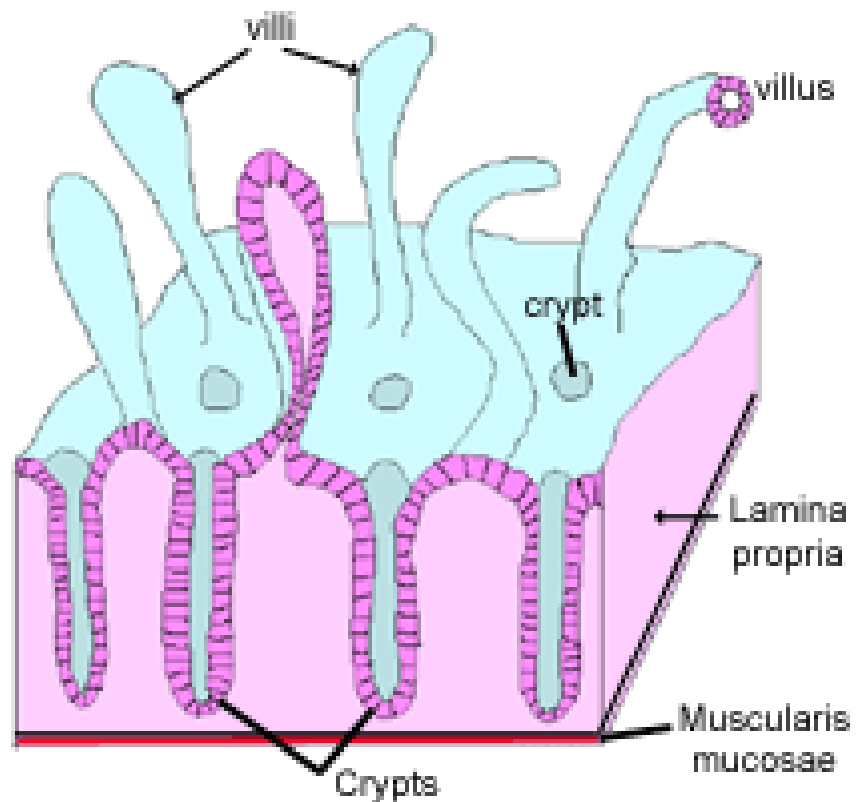


Image 3: Crypts of Leiberkuhn

These crypts produce the intestinal juice which is alkaline in nature mixed with water and mucus. When the small intestine gets distended due to food or chyme, these glands release these fluids to aid absorption. The submucosa contains Brunner's glands which are mucus-secreting duodenal glands. The fluid is rich in bicarbonates and alkaline in nature that acts as a buffer for the acidic chyme from the stomach.

The small intestine mucosa contains a number of cells with different functions. The following table enumerates the role of the different cells of the intestinal mucosa.

Cells of the Small Intestinal Mucosa		
Cell type	Location in the mucosa	Function
Absorptive	Epithelium/intestinal glands	Digestion and absorption of nutrients in chyme
Goblet	Epithelium/intestinal glands	Secretion of mucus
Paneth	Intestinal glands	Secretion of the bactericidal enzyme lysozyme; phagocytosis
G cells	Intestinal glands of duodenum	Secretion of the hormone intestinal gastrin
I cells	Intestinal glands of duodenum	Secretion of the hormone cholecystokinin, which stimulates release of pancreatic juices and bile
K cells	Intestinal glands	Secretion of the hormone glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide, which stimulates the release of insulin
M cells	Intestinal glands of duodenum and jejunum	Secretion of the hormone motilin , which accelerates gastric emptying, stimulates intestinal peristalsis, and stimulates the production of pepsin
S cells	Intestinal glands	Secretion of the hormone secretin

Intestinal MALT

The small intestine mucosa contains MALT in the lamina propria. The small aggregations of these MALT is called as Peyer's patches which are present in the distal ileum which serves to prevent the entry of bacteria from the gut into the blood circulation. The Peyer's patches corresponds

to the strength of the immune system thereby are present more in young people than the elderly.

Mechanical Digestion in the Small Intestine

The digestion in the small intestine is different from the stomach. The intestinal smooth muscles cause both peristalsis and segmentation. The peristalsis is called as migrating motility complexes.

The main function in the stomach is mixing and pushing the chyme into the small intestine whereas in the small intestine, the function is to mix the contents well and break down the food into simpler forms and aid in absorption. Therefore, the segmentation pushes the food back and forth into the segments to help in mixing and enables more contact with the intestinal mucosal wall that enables increased absorption. The rate of segmentation decreases as you descent distally [segmentation rate is 12 times per minute in duodenum whereas in the ileum, it is only 8 times per minute] (Image 4).

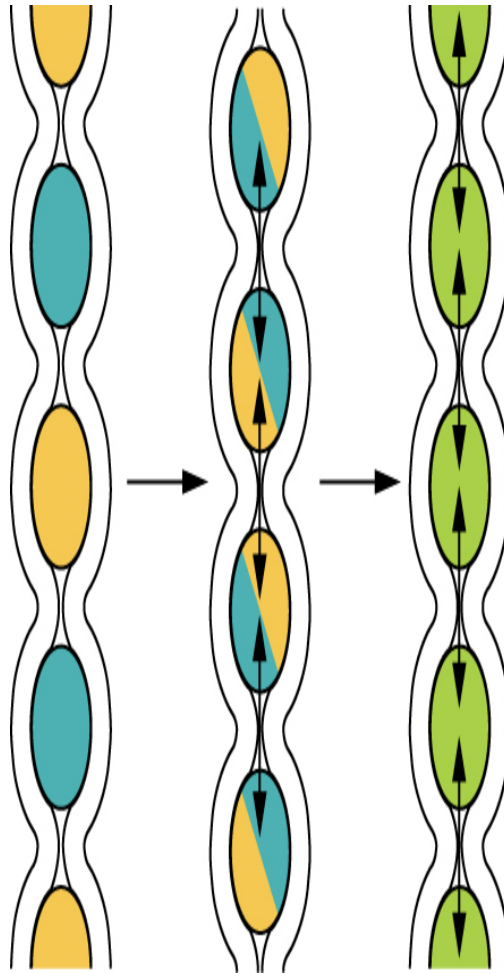


Image 4: Segmentation. Segmentation separates chyme and then pushes it back together, mixing it and providing time for digestion and absorption.

After the mixing, breaking and absorption of the chyme, the segmentation is slowly replaced by the motility. This is orchestrated by the hormone motilin that initiates the migrating motor complex and causes peristalsis. These complexes are progressive in nature. The first complex starts from the proximal part of the duodenum and pushes the chyme downstream. Then the next complex starts further down and pushes the chyme further

ahead. These are continued till the first batch of chyme reaches the distal ileum taking upto two hours and starts all over again.

As the food from the small intestine reaches the ileum, the sphincter that regulates the movement of food from the proximal part of the intestine relaxes to allow the passage of food. This is called as ileocecal sphincter which is usually in the contracted state. When the food enters the stomach, the gastroileal reflex increases the ileal segmentation through a nervous mechanism. Then it releases the hormone gastrin relaxes the sphincter. Once the residue passes, the sphincter closes to avoid backflow of the intestinal contents. Thus, by the end of 3 to 5 hours, the chyme is completely converted into a residue and sent to the large intestine.

Chemical Digestion in the Small Intestine

The three main constituents of the food: carbohydrates, fats and proteins get digested in different ways. The carbohydrates and proteins are partially broken down in the stomach whereas the lipids are largely unbroken and reach the small intestine intact. The majority of the

digestion here therefore focusses on lipids using intestinal and pancreatic juices. The digestion of lipids is enabled by bile and enzyme pancreatic lipase.

The main function of the intestinal juice is to mix with pancreatic juices and provide an adequate medium. Osmosis also facilitates the absorption of water. In addition to the enzymes in the juices, the luminal surfaces also contain enzymes in the microvilli that helps in digestion.

In order to have a concerted and optimal functioning of the small intestine, the food must be slowly released from the stomach into the small intestine or else large volumes may lead to loss of fluid loss into the lumen and thereby lead to low blood volumes. Also the difference in the pH levels between the two parts of the alimentary tract may require rapid adjustment to ensure absorption.

Small bowel Obstruction

The obstruction of the small intestine is known as the small bowel obstruction. They are caused by scar tissue, hernia or cancer. They may

lead to bands of scar called adhesions post a surgical procedure. Sometimes, the bowel gets entrapped in the adhesions leading to obstruction. If the obstruction compromises the blood supply, it may lead to life-threatening situation.

Based on the symptomatology, it can be either simple or strangulated or partial or complete. Not all the cases present with the classical symptoms of nausea, vomiting and abdominal pain and constipation. The abdominal pain associated with the small bowel obstruction is described as crampy and intermittent. The symptoms require immediate attention, failure of which may lead to ischemia, perforation and increased abdominal pain. This explains why early identification and surgical intervention is very important in the management of small bowel obstruction. Other studies show that failure to pass flatus and/or fetus and vomiting to be the most common presenting symptoms. On examination, the abdomen is distended with a predominant distension. Abdominal pain continues to be present in a majority of the patients.

Following are the signs and symptoms of small bowel obstruction;

- 1) Nausea and vomiting in 60-80% of the cases with the vomitus being bilious in nature
- 2) Constipation and absence of flatus in 80-90% of the cases which is typically present later
- 3) Abdominal distension in 60% of the patients
- 4) Fever and tachycardia, when strangulation sets in

The risk factors that correlate with small bowel obstruction are;

- a) Previous abdominal or pelvic surgery
- b) Previous radiation therapy
- c) Ovarian or colonic malignancy
- d) Inflammatory bowel disease

Successful management of small bowel obstruction depends on the etiology, pathophysiology, imaging methods, clinical soundness and good technical skills.

Definition, etiology and classification

It is the failure of progression of contents of the intestine through the small bowel. Depending on the nature, location, severity and etiology, different terms are assigned to describe the bowel obstruction.

The following list enumerates the classification of the small bowel obstruction based on etiology and location;

Adynamic ileus: commonest causes:

- ✓ Generalized peritonitis, e.g. perforated viscous
- ✓ Acute Pancreatitis
- ✓ Electrolyte abnormalities.
- ✓ Postoperative ileus
- ✓ Serious intra-abdominal infection:
 - Acute diverticulitis
 - Acute appendicitis
 - Pelvic inflammatory disease

Mechanical SBO:

Luminal

Gallstone ileus: 1–2% of mechanical obstructions and 25% of obstructions in elderly.

Neoplasm

Bezoar

Mural

Meckel's diverticulum: mechanism of obstruction:

- Volvulus (twist around mesodiverticular or omphalomesenteric band)
- Intussusception (initiated by inverted diverticulum)
- Stenosis from adjacent ileal ulcer

Crohn's disease: mechanism of obstruction:

- Fibrous stricture
- Acute inflammation/phlegmon/abscess

Neoplasm: Leiomyoma is the commonest benign tumor, and carcinoid or adenocarcinoma are the commonest malignant tumors.

Mechanism of obstruction:

- Luminal
- Mural: intussusception

Intussusception:

- Organic lesion: 85–90%
 - Neoplasm: malignant 19–46%
 - Meckel's diverticulum
 - Traumatic hematoma
- Idiopathic, 3.8–12.5%
- Postoperative, 2.5–4% of early postoperative bowel obstruction

Volvulus: 1.7–5.7%

- Primary (in a virgin abdomen): 10–30%

- Secondary (tension band): 70–90%

Radiation enteritis, 0.5–5%: mechanism of obstruction:

- Stricture
- Adhesion

Hematoma

Strictures:

- Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
- Potassium

Extramural

- Adhesion: 50–70%
- Phlegmon/abscess
- Neoplasm: metastatic disease, 4–10% of SBO
- External hernia: Littre's hernia, incarcerated Meckel's

diverticulum in external hernia

Etiology of acute small bowel obstruction

The small bowel obstruction may be due to functional reasons like the bowel wall or the splanchnic nerves dysfunction. It may also be due to mechanical barrier. Sometimes, the large bowel obstruction may mimic like small bowel obstruction which is referred to as “colonic pseudo-obstruction”. This acute functional dilatation is known as adynamic or paralytic ileus. The symptoms are similar only with the absence of mechanical obstruction. Mechanical obstruction may be luminal, mural or extramural. They can also be classified as;

- a) Proximal (high SBO)
- b) Distal (low SBO)
- c) Closed loop
- d) Open –ended obstruction

In closed loop obstruction, the lumen is occluded on either sides not allowing movement of contents in either direction while in open-ended obstruction, the contents can move in any one direction.

Partial obstruction is where few contents like liquids and gas may pass through the lumen whereas in complete obstruction, all contents are blocked. Simple obstruction doesn't compromise blood supply whereas in complicated obstruction, the blood flow is cut off and leads to the ischemia, infarction and perforation.

A unique type of intestinal obstruction is intussusception which is due to the telescoping of a segment of a bowel into another. It is prone to happen anywhere distal to the gastric cardia. If the intussusception happens in the retrograde direction, it is known as enteric but can also present in the downward direction. The exact mechanism of colic and enterocolic of intussusception is not clearly known but a presence of an organic lesion, diseased bowel, adjacent area of the normal bowel might act as a starting point for intussusception.

Depending on the process that initiates intussusception, it is classified as;

- a) Idiopathic
- b) Postoperative

c) Intussusception due to an organic lesion

Meckel's diverticulum may also invaginate into the ileum and then into the colon¹⁶. Another condition is the volvulus which is the axially twisted portion of the gastrointestinal tract around the mesentery of the colon that may result in varying degrees of luminal obstruction and may lead to severe consequences like blood supply cut off, ischemia, infraction and perforation. Gall stone ileus is a mechanical obstruction due to the passage of gallstones through biliary-enteric fistula from the biliary system. The stones gets impacted in the lumen of the bowel. When Meckel's Diverticulum gets incarcerated in an external hernia, it is called as Littre's hernia.

Pathophysiology of small bowel obstruction

Any etiological agent causes a similar type of pathologic and physiologic consequences. The manifestations may differ between different degrees of obstruction. The obstruction leads to elevation of the frequency of the migrating motor complexes proximal to the point of obstruction. These contractions lead to severe abdominal cramps. These contractions help to

propel the contents of the lumen forward. When the contents are not emptied, they accumulate leading to abdominal distension which leads to retrograde giant contractions manifesting as vomiting. In adynamic ileus migratory motor complexes (MMC) (contractions initiated in the stomach and proximal SB almost simultaneously and propagate distally to clear the intestine of secretions and debris) and fed contractions (intermittent and irregular contractions that provide mixing and slow distal propulsion) are inhibited.

The increased intraluminal pressure jeopardises the blood supply through the mesenteric veins and completely stops when the pressure equals systolic pressure. This leads to a decrease in the blood flow through the capillaries in the mucosa, leading to rupture and hemorrhagic infiltration.

Any twist to the vessels leads to their occlusion and resulting anoxia of the intestinal epithelium and subsequent necrosis. Continued necrosis may lead to perforation. The necrosis may be due to pressure or ischemia.

When the obstruction is simple, the proximal part of the intestine in the

obstruction is edematous and heavy leading to cyanosis. Further, it may progress to serosal tears.

One of the acute physiologic and pathologic response to small bowel obstruction is the depletion in the volume and electrolyte disturbances. Intestinal contents are locked up in the lumen and the fluid is accumulated in the luminal area leading to volume depletion. Vomiting further causes volume depletion and electrolyte disturbances. The electrolyte disturbance depends on the level of obstruction. Proximal obstruction may lead to accumulation of water in the lumen along with sodium and potassium. Edema of the intestine may cause further sequestration of the contents of the intestine. The protein rich exudate may get accumulated in the peritoneal cavity. As obstruction progresses, the collection of fluid in the peritoneum changes from a clear fluid to a bloody dark exudate. The bacterial flora also undergoes changes as the disease progresses. The fecal type of bacteria increase in the proximal part of the obstruction whereas the distal portion see a drastic change in the bacterial flora¹⁷.

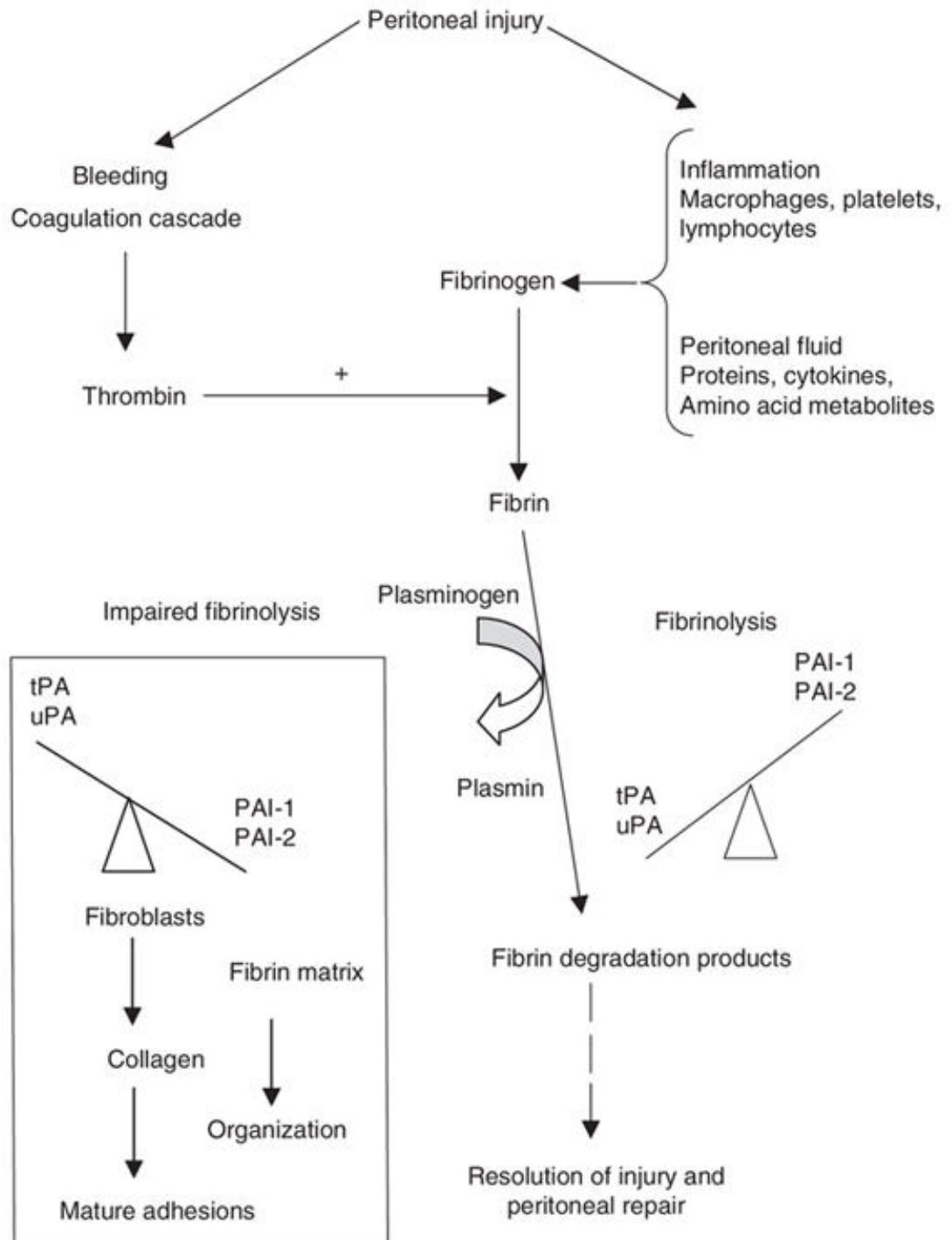
The breakdown of the fluid flora leads to feculent fluid. Finally, when the bowel is strangulated, there is loss of blood in the infarcted bowel, tissue death, translocation of the bacteria and the toxic substances and result in perforation.

Mechanism of Adhesive Obstruction

The fibrinolytic system plays a major role in the healing of the peritoneal wounds and when this system is disrupted, it leads to adhesion formation. The system is balanced by a number of activators and inhibitors. The disruption in this balance leads to the formation of adhesions. The major activators of this system are;

- tissue plasminogen activator (tPA) (most important and accounts for 95% of the plasmin generated)
- urokinase-like plasminogen activator (uPA),

A complex interaction of multiple biochemical factors orchestrate the formation of adhesions through a series of inflammation, repair of tissues, angiogenesis and innervation. Surgical trauma is causative in the formation of adhesions which may be due to cutting, abrasion, ischemia, desiccation and coagulation.



Whatever may be the source of injury, the mechanism remains the same. The injury leads to bleeding and elevated permeability of the vascular system leading to leakages from the injured places. A parallel inflammatory response happens that occurs post-operatively promoting the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, infiltration of inflammatory cells and activation of the complement and coagulation cascades.

Diagnosis of acute small bowel obstruction

The diagnosis of acute small bowel obstruction is straight forward and simple. The clinical features coupled with plain radiograph of the abdomen may point to the diagnosis of small bowel obstruction. In few cases, CT scan and ultrasound may be required. After establishing the diagnosis, the location, Etiology and severity are assessed. The mainstay of diagnosis is to find out if the obstruction is simple or complicated.

The past history of the patient may sometimes point to the Etiology of small bowel obstruction. But when the clinical picture is confusing, the following can be;

a) Meckel's diverticulum

b) Gall stone ileus

c) Neoplasms

The four cardinal symptoms may be present;

1) Pain (colicky)

2) Vomiting

3) Obstipation

4) Distension

Pronounced vomiting is present in high SBO. The contents of the vomit may be bile and improperly ingested food. When the SBO is low, the vomit is feculent. In patients with gall stone ileus, tumbling SBO is seen.

The tumbling nature corresponds to the impaction of stone, release and re-obstruction. In 20-56%, biliary symptoms may be present.

Intussusception may present with intermittent partial bowel obstructive symptoms.

Strangulation and gangrene may not always be clinically evident¹⁸.

Strangulation may be indicated by pain or localised abdominal tenderness, fever, leucocytosis and tachycardia. When these four cardinal signs are not present, the obstruction may be simple. Any simple obstruction showing these classical findings may lead to a diagnosis of strangulation.

Radiological Findings

One of the most simple and valuable diagnostic test is the plain x-ray.

The accuracy being up to 50-60%. Up to 20-30% of the times, the findings are not conclusive while rest of the cases, the x-rays may be normal. In high SBO, late obstruction and closed loop obstruction, the typical signs of air fluid levels may be absent in the dilated intestine proximal to the obstruction. Plain x-rays do not always help in diagnosis of low grade obstruction.

The following figure shows the findings of the x-ray in small bowel obstruction.

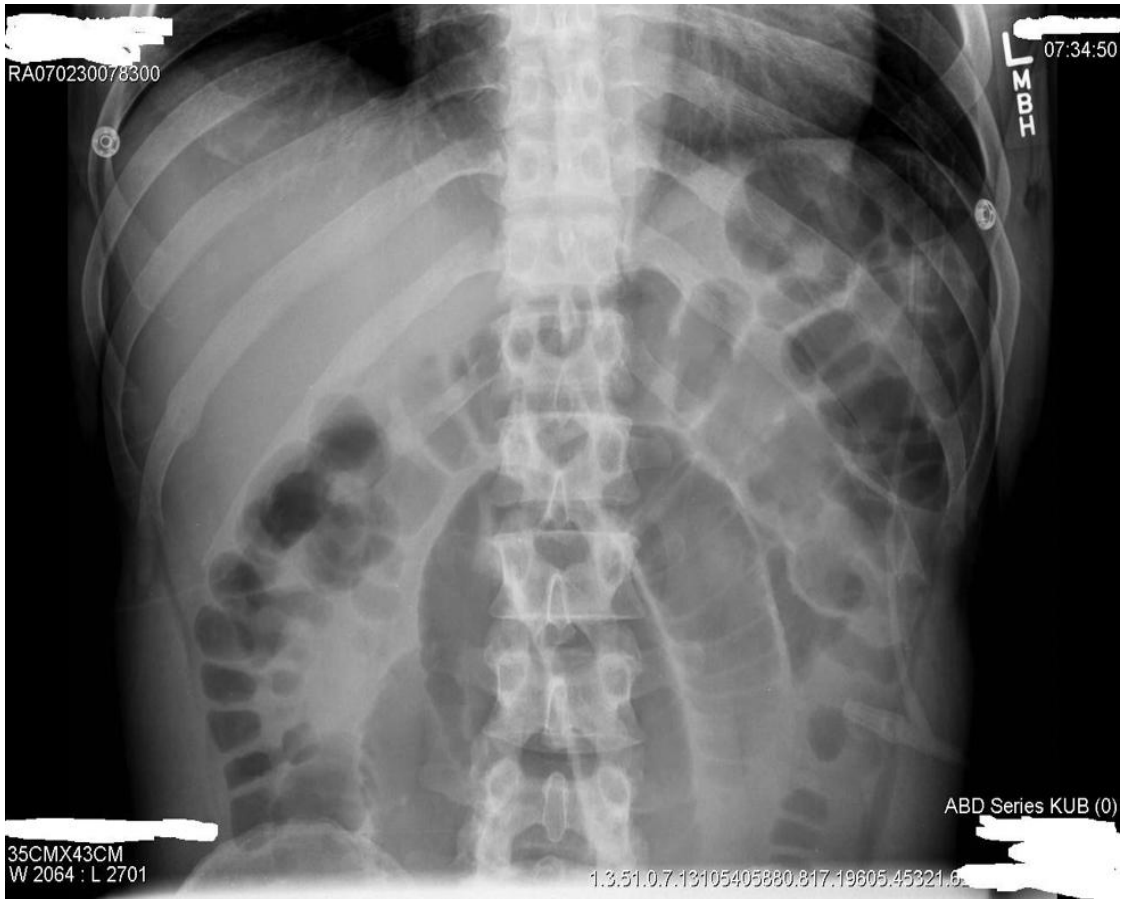
1. Change in intestinal gas patterns, dilated proximal bowel loops, air fluid levels, thickened valvulae conniventes, and little gas in colon
2. Pneumatosis (indicates bowel infarction)
3. Pneumoperitoneum (indicates perforated viscus)
 - a. Right upper quadrant:
 - Hyperlucency of the liver
 - Hepatic edge sign
 - Air (crescent of lucency) under diaphragm on upright film
 - Air between right edge of liver and lateral right diaphragm on left lateral decubitus
 - Fissure for ligamentum teres sign
 - Morrison's pouch sign
 - Pockets of air in anterior upper cavity
 - Triangle sign (small amount of air trapped between three adjoining loops of bowel or two loop a and parietal peritoneum)
 - b. Anterior peritoneal ligament sign:
 - Falciform ligament sign
 - Inverted V-sign (air outlining umbilical ligament)
 - Urachal ligament sign
 - c. Other signs:
 - Rigler's sign (air on both sides of bowel wall)
 - Air silhouetting sub diaphragmatic muscular slips
4. Mega colon
5. Specific types of obstruction:

Gallstone ileus: Rigler criteria: pneumobilia, aberrantly located gallstone, change in position of a previously observed stone, partial or complete SBO. Diagnostic in one third of cases.

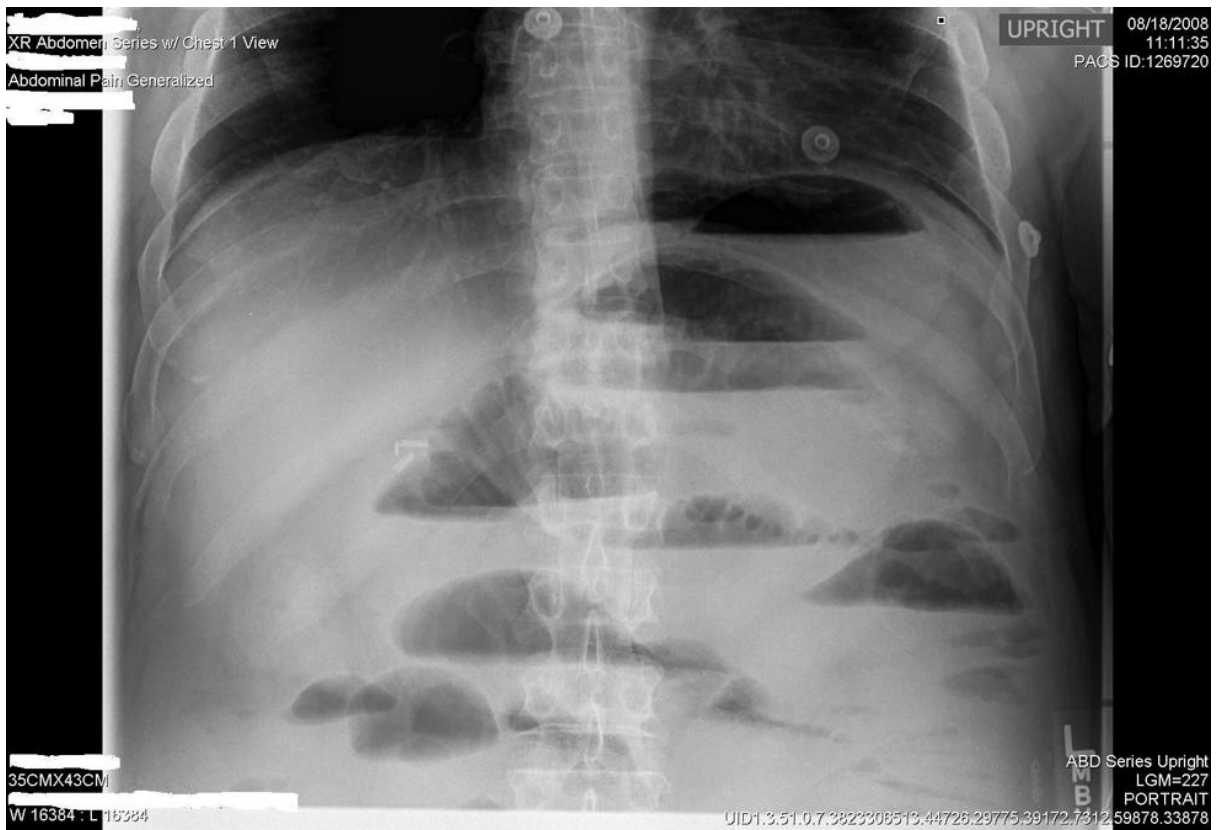
Sigmoid colon volvulus: Bent inner tube sign or inverted U-sign, air fluid ratio 2:1, pair of scales sign i.e. two fluid levels at different levels. Diagnostic in 80% of cases.

Cecal volvulus: Coffee bean sign with point directed towards left upper quadrant. Diagnostic in 50% of cases.

Figure: X-ray findings of small bowel obstruction







In some clinical conditions, intraluminal contrast studies are done: enteroclysis, barium enema and small bowel follow-through in the following conditions;

- a) When the clinical features are confusing
- b) Plain x-ray is inconclusive
- c) Non-operative management doesn't elicit adequate response

This test is especially required in conservative management;

- a) postoperative or adynamic ileus, partial SBO, malignant SBO (carcinomatosis, intraabdominal recurrent or metastatic cancer)

- b) Radiation enteritis, recurrent adhesive SBO, and SBO in Crohn's disease. Small bowel follow-through (SBFT) differentiates adynamic ileus from mechanical SBO.

In adynamic ileus, the oral contrast moves towards the colon in four to six hours whereas in mechanical small bowel obstruction, the contrast shows signs of dilatation and stops at the site of obstruction within an hour. The carcinomatosis shows multiple sites of obstruction with pooling of contrasts.

In gall stone ileus, the contrast shows a filling defect whereas a beak-like point of obstruction suggests intussusception. Small bowel enema (enteroclysis) is the infusion of barium that aids in observing the mucosal pattern, motility and distensibility of the bowel loops closely. This is better than the small bowel follow-through and is helpful in the diagnosis of tumors, intussusception, strictures, radiation enteritis and Crohn's disease.

An appearance of a “stretched spring” with intervening thick rings against fine rings nearby shows vascular compromise in the diagnosis of intussusception. Enteroclysis may point to the nature of the intussusception; whether it is benign or malignant. Benign is longer and permanent while malignant is short and transient. In radiation enteritis, there is a combination of thickened valvulae conniventes mucosal folds measuring greater than 2 mm, mural thickening (wall thickness greater than 2 mm when adjacent bowel loops are parallel for at least 4 cm under compression).

Some of the following findings may be found;

- a) Single or multiple stenosis of different lengths
- b) stenosis at site or origin of sinus or fistula
- c) adhesions (as evidenced by constant angulation of bowel loops and relative fixity within the pelvis)

The barium will be pooled in the form of barium-filled with matting loops of the terminal ileum. The individual loops or mucosal folds are not clearly seen. Whereas in Crohn’s disease, a combination of features are

seen: sinuses, stenoses, fistulae, discrete fissure ulcers, thickened valculaeconniventes, skip lesions, cobblestoning and asymmetrical involvement.

Barium enema is not really sensitive for the diagnosis of small bowel obstruction. Distal SBO mimics like large bowel obstruction. Gastrografin or Barium is used in LBO for differentiating mechanical obstruction from pseudo-obstruction, confirm the presence of intussusception, volvulus and also find out the site of obstruction (Stage C).

Ultrasonography

It is an important diagnostic tool for evaluating acute abdomen. It can be used for the following;

- a) Gallstone ileus
- b) Intussusception
- c) Pelvic disease,
- d) Gallbladder disease
- e) Aid in the exclusion of SBO

Ultrasound shows the diseased gall bladder, gas in the gall bladder and/or bile ducts in gallstone ileus. There can also be fluid in the bowels which points to the stone in the intestine. The presence or absence of stones in the gall bladder acts as an important feature for planning management.

In intussusception, target sign will be present which a mass with a sonolucent rim around it is predominantly. This sonolucense is mainly due to the edema of the bowel and a very significant hyper echoic center (due to the compressed center of intussusception).

Ultrasound is very efficient in differentiating mechanical SBO from the paralytic ileus by the presence of peristalsis in the former. The location of the obstruction can be determined using ultrasound. When no apparent cause can be established, the obstruction is attributed to adhesions.

Computed Tomography (CT scan)

It is currently emerging as a useful tool in the treatment protocol of the bowel obstruction^{19,20}.

Following are the features of CT scan in SBO;

- a) Confirmation of the diagnosis
- b) Differentiate between mechanical and functional obstruction
- c) Find out the cause and site of the obstruction
- d) Differentiate between simple and complicated SBO

CT scan helps in making early decisions about the management of SBO and prevent unnecessary delay. False positives in CT scan may lead to difficulties in interpreting. In around 18% of the cases, it is difficult to identify the location and identify the obstruction.

Figure 1. Small bowel obstruction, CT with intravenous and enteric contrast

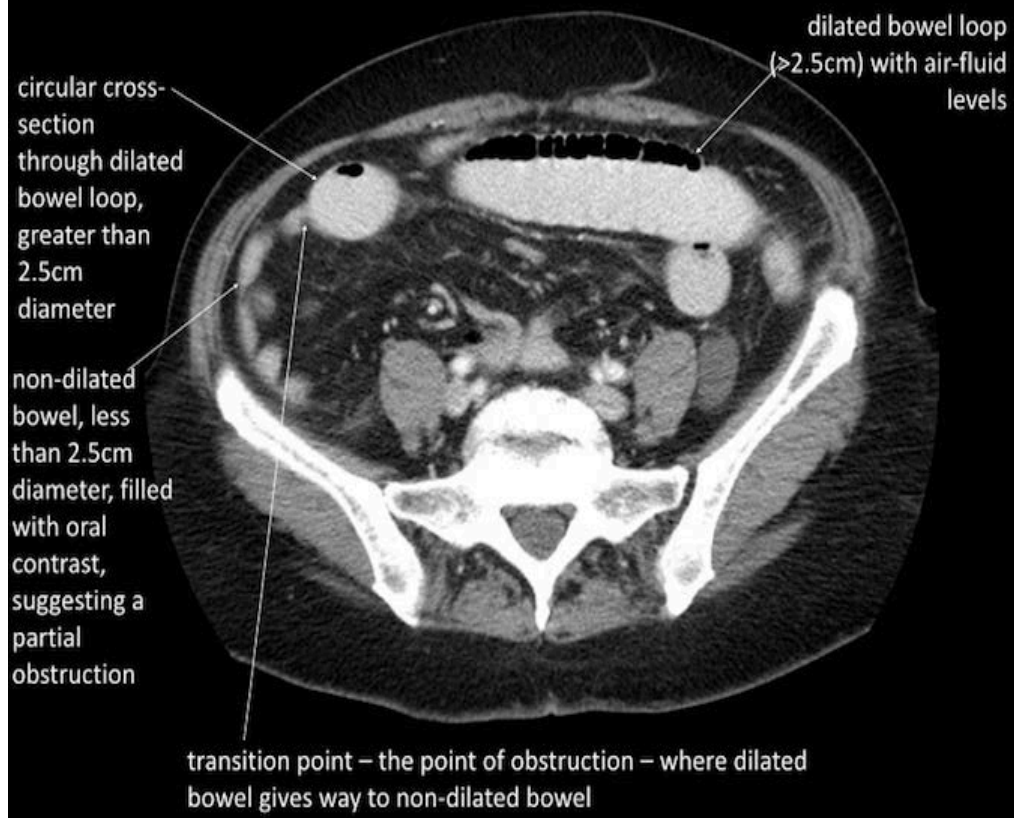


Figure 2. Small bowel obstruction, CT with intravenous contrast only. Without orally administered contrast, fluid and air within the small bowel provide inherent contrast. IV contrast assists in recognition of bowel viability.

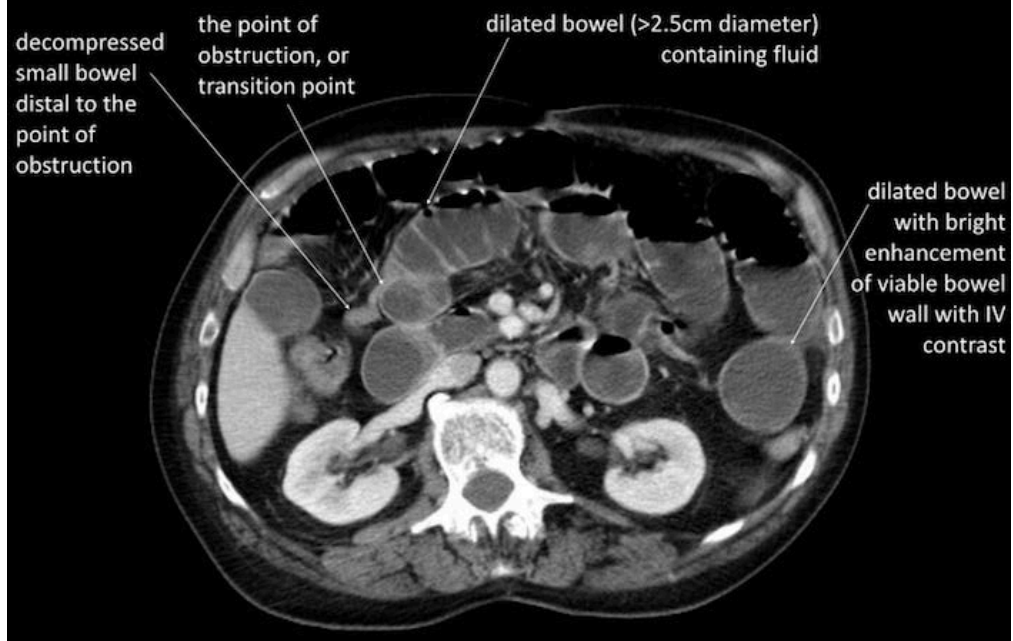
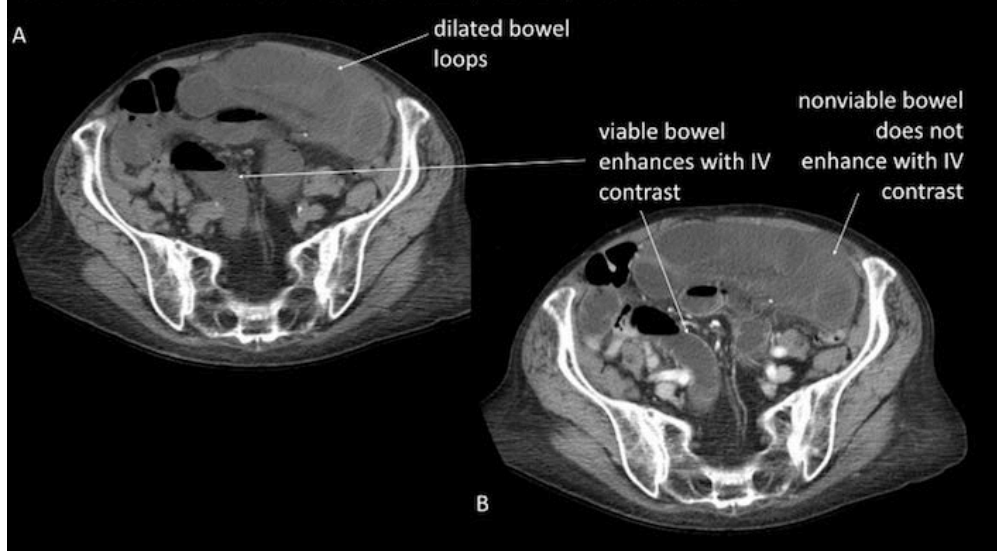


Figure 3. Small bowel obstruction, CT without contrast, followed by intravenous contrast only. A, in the absence of any contrast agents, dilated loops of bowel are visible, exceeding 2.5cm in diameter. B, with the addition of intravenous contrast, viable bowel wall enhances with contrast, while a nonviable segment does not enhance (compare with non-contrast image, A). Surgery confirmed bowel necrosis from a closed loop obstruction, resulting from adhesions.



The following figure shows the CT findings in SBO;

Severity:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is 85–95% accurate in diagnosis of complete SBO
Simple SBO:	
Open ended:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marked discrepancy in calibre of proximal and distal bowel
Closed loop:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fixed U-shaped or radial distribution of fluid filled bowel loops with the stretched and prominent mesenteric vessels converging towards point of torsion. • Whirl sign: tightly twisted mesentery around a collapsed segment of bowel • Beak sign: fusiform tapering of afferent and efferent limbs of bowel leading into site of obstruction. • Triangular, round or oval loops due to two adjacent collapsed loops despite proximally dilated loops
Intussusception:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anatomic segment involved • Tumor mass as lead point • Three concentric circles indicating segment of bowel invaginated into another • In intussuscepted MD, fat density (mesenteric fat at tip of MD) in Small Bowel lumen surrounded by edematous thickened bowel wall.
Complicated SBO:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Circumferential bowel wall thickening (> 3 mm) • Focal bowel dilatation • Increased attenuation of mesenteric fat • Target or halo sign: concentric ring of high and low attenuation of bowel wall • Pneumatosis intestinalis • Changes in the mesentery: increased haziness, blurring of vessels, and obliteration of fat due to hemorrhage • Ascites, or localized fluid collection with air bubbles (abscess) • Pneumoperitoneum
Etiology:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adhesive obstruction: diagnosis based on not finding any other cause of obstruction

- Gall stone ileus: air in biliary tree, contracted GB, air in GB, intraluminal calculus in SB, fluid filled bowel loops
- Obstruction due to carcinomatosis: mass or bowel wall thickening along serosa of bowel at the transition zone
- Crohn's disease: inflammatory mesenteric mass or discrete loculated fluid collection
- Mural hematoma: Focal mass and depending on age of hematoma; density similar to circulating blood (early lesion), high density mass, or decreased density as clot lyses.
- Sigmoid volvulus: whirl sign
- Acute cholecystitis: enlarged thick walled gallbladder
- Pancreatitis: swelling and fluid around pancreas
- Mesenteric ischemia: thickened bowel wall, focal dilatation, pneumatosis
- Acute diverticulitis: Thickened wall, mesenteric fat streaking, fluid collection, ascites
- Acute appendicitis: inflammatory changes in fat around appendix; arrowhead sign

Figure: CT findings in SBO

Treatment of acute small bowel obstruction

Successful management depends on the following three steps;

- a) Resuscitation
- b) Investigation
- c) Definitive therapy

The initial management of small bowel obstruction focusses on aggressive intravenous therapy and correcting electrolyte imbalances.

The fluid resuscitation may be monitored using a Foley's catheter, Central Venous Catheter and Swan Ganz catheter. Blood tests are used to find out;

- a) Electrolyte imbalances
- b) Leucocyte count
- c) Liver function
- d) Amylase levels
- e) Acidosis
- f) Anemia
- g) Bleeding tendency

There are no studies that say that long intestinal tube is better than nasogastric tubes for decompression in small bowel obstruction.

Plain x-rays are taken initially and if required, contrast studies are done. The CT scan is becoming an increasingly reliable tool^{19,20}.

But a repeated clinical examination of the patient is very essential for management. When there is incarceration of external hernia, emergent surgery is required after relying on clinical and radiological diagnosis (if it shows strangulation, perforation and gangrene). If not indicated, conservative management with continuous monitoring can be used as a mode of treatment and a concrete decision be taken later on.

The following figures show the treatment strategies of the acute small bowel obstruction.

Adhesive obstruction	
Partial SBO:	Nonoperative management for 24–48 hrs; if no improvement, SBFT or CT to increase accuracy of diagnosis; laparotomy if radiologic evidence of high grade obstruction, or if clinical, laboratory, or radiologic evidence of strangulation.
Complete SBO:	Early laparotomy
Neoplasm	
Primary:	Resection
Secondary:	Depending on clinical presentation: laparotomy with limited resection, bypass, gastrostomy, tube jejunostomy or percutaneous gastrostomy
Crohn's disease	
Bowel resection	Patients with first time presentation or in the presence of a perforation, phlegmon, or multiple strictures in close proximity.
Stricturoplasty	In cases of fibrotic stricture, in the absence of a phlegmon, perforation, or fistula, in patients with previous bowel resections, multiple short strictures, strictures in skip lesions well proximal to resection margin in patients undergoing bowel resection, and duodenal strictures.
Gallstone ileus	
Relief of SBO only	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enterolithotomy: milk stone proximally and extract through an enterotomy • Manual propulsion of stone into colon to be passed rectally • Enterolithotomy and enterectomy if there is bowel perforation.
Relief of SBO, cholecystectomy, division of fistula, and common bile duct exploration	
Choice based on general condition of patient, extent of inflammation in RUQ, presence bowel perforation.	
Radiation enteritis	Bypass or resection depending on operative findings and extent of bowel involvement

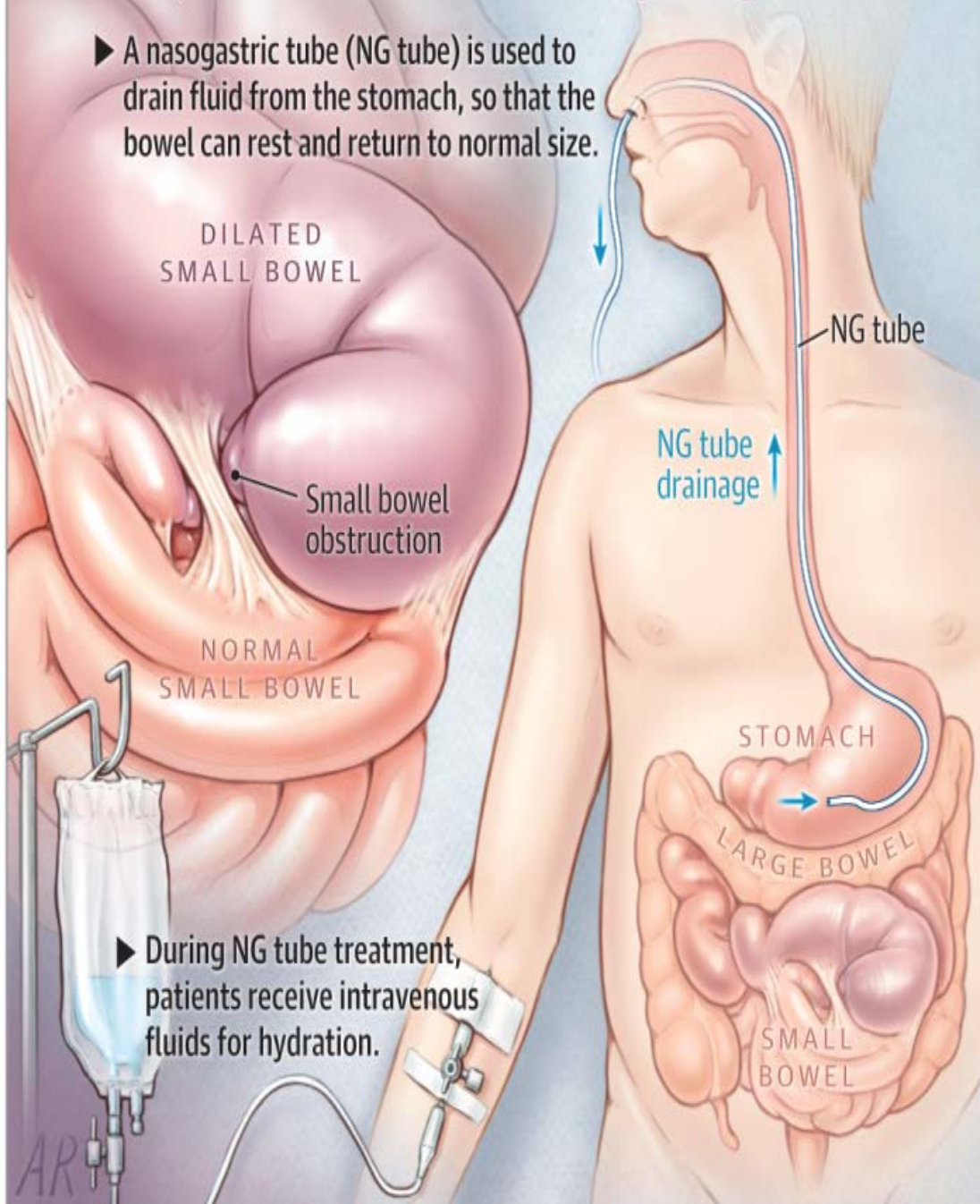
Meckel's diverticulum	Diverticulectomy with or without bowel resection depending on state of the diverticulum and adjacent ileum.
Intussusception	
Enteric	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bowel resection if bowel is compromised, leading point is a primary malignant tumor, and if reduction is not successful • Reduction with or without resection depending on presence of a lead point segmental resection
Ileocolic, colic	Resection
Bezoars	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enterotomy, extraction • Fragmentation and propulsion into cecum
NSAID-stricture	Bowel resection, stricturoplasty, balloon dilation

Figure: Treatment strategies of small bowel obstruction

Treatment of Small Bowel Obstruction

A small bowel obstruction is a blockage in the small bowel that prevents normal flow of contents through the digestive tract.

- ▶ A nasogastric tube (NG tube) is used to drain fluid from the stomach, so that the bowel can rest and return to normal size.



The management of adhesive small bowel obstruction using oral water soluble contrast²⁹

Gastrografin transit time may allow for the selection of appropriate patients for non operative management. Some studies have shown when the contrast does not reach the colon after a designated time it indicates complete intestinal obstruction that is unlikely to resolve with conservative treatment. When the contrast does reach the large bowel, it indicates partial obstruction and patients are likely to respond to conservative treatment. Other studies have suggested that the administration of water soluble contrast is therapeutic in resolving the obstruction.

The appearance of watersoluble contrast in the colon on an abdominal X ray within 24 hours of its administration predicts resolution of an adhesive small bowel obstruction with a pooled sensitivity of 0.97, specificity of 0.96. The area under the curve of the summary ROC curve is 0.98. Six randomised studies dealing with the therapeutic role of gastrografin were included in the review, water soluble contrast did not reduce the need for surgical intervention (OR 0.81, $p = 0.3$). Meta analysis of four of the included studies showed that water soluble contrast did reduce hospital stay compared with placebo (WMD= 1.83) $P < 0.001$.

Materials and Methods

Aim of the study:

To study the clinical outcome in acute adhesive small bowel obstruction after surgical or conservative management

Objectives:

1. To frame the criteria for surgical management of adhesive small bowel obstruction
2. To evaluate the recurrent abdominal symptoms in surgical and conservative management of adhesive small bowel obstruction

Study design

Prospective Single Center Study

Place of study

GMKMC hospital

Study period

July 2017 to June 2019

Study population & Sampling Methodology

All patients admitted with an episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction in GMKMC hospital

This study includes 60 patients who are with episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction

Inclusion criteria:

All patients with an episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction irrespective of age and sex

Exclusion criteria:

1. Large bowel obstruction
2. incarcerated abdominal wall hernia
3. Early post-operative SBO [within 1 month]
4. Inflammatory bowel disease
5. Radiation induced intestinal fibrosis
6. Peritoneal carcinomatosis

Methodology

The material for the study was taken from the cases admitted in the surgical ward of the Department of General Surgery, GMK Medical College & Hospital, who presented with episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction

The following data was collected using a structured questionnaire: age, demographic characteristics, socio economic status, patients

complaints and duration of complaints. A detailed general examination was done. Systemic examination and basic investigations were done.

The following data was extracted from the patient's history, clinical examination, operative notes and during follow up:

1. patient selection
2. Abdominal pain and history of guarding
3. Laboratory findings
4. Free fluid/reduced contrast enhancement in CT scan
5. Previous history of surgery
6. Operative/non-operative
7. Duration of stay in the hospital.
8. Recurrent abdominal symptoms during subsequent follow-up

The decision for operative/non operative was decided based on history of abdominal pain/guarding and lab investigations/CECT abdomen findings

Patient selected for non-operative management was given iv antibiotics, nasogastric tube, analgesics, oral contrast agent and followed up for recurrent abdominal symptoms

Patient who are selected for operative procedures were subjected to emergency laparotomy with adhesiolysis with or without resection anastomosis of bowel and followed up for recurrent abdominal symptoms

Follow up

Patients were followed every three months in first year, then every six months next year, then annually.

Investigations

The study requires the following investigations to be conducted on patients

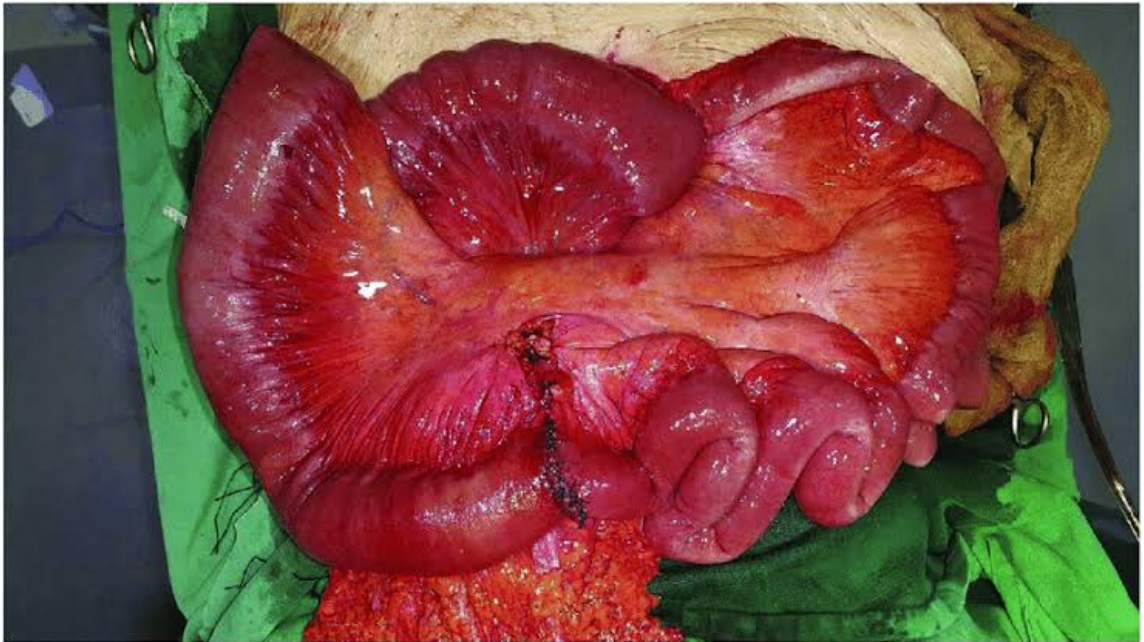
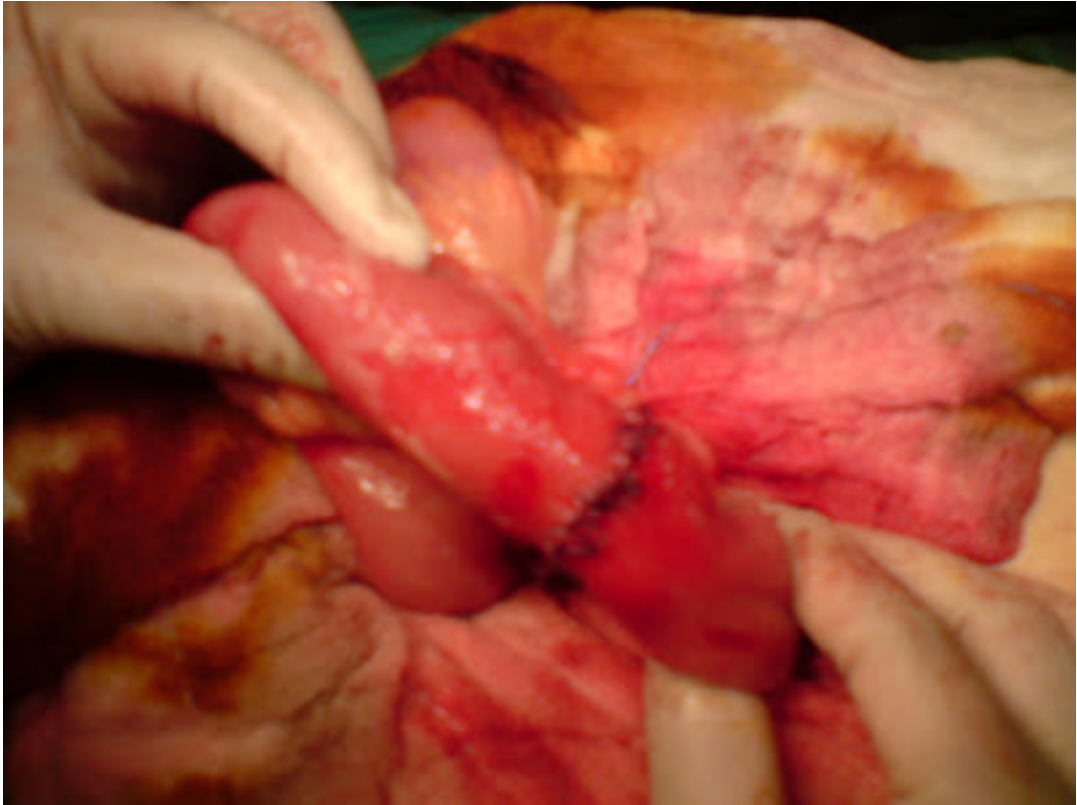
- a. TLC
- b. CRP
- c. CECT ABDOMEN /PELVIS

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed according to history, clinical examination and investigation. Data were entered in excel sheet and analyzed using SPSS v23. Frequencies and percentage analysis were done. Cross tabulation and Chi-square analyses were done to find the relationship and association between various variables.

Images from the surgical procedure done





Results

A prospective single centre study to evaluate the clinical outcome in acute adhesive small bowel obstruction after surgical or conservative management among 60 patients who are with episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction revealed the following results. Forty-five patients were managed using surgical methods while fifteen of them were managed through conservative measures. The mean age of the patients in surgery group (n=45) is 50.2 years (S.D=11.78) [range= 28-75 years] while the mean age of the patients in the conservative group (n=15) is 50.73 years (S.D=11.11) [range=37-72 years]. The overall (N=60) mean age was 50.33 years (S.D=11.52) [range=28-75]. Majority of the patients were males (n=42, 70%) while others were females (n=18, 30%). The mean pain score among 60 patients was 4.85 (S.D=2.02) [range=1-10]. All of them had past history of previous surgery.

On inspection, abdominal distension with guarding present in 45 of them (75%). CECT showed free fluid in 45 of the patients (75%). Among 60 patients, twenty-six of them were readmitted, of which, ten of them were surgically managed and 16 of them were conservatively managed. The mean duration of hospital stay was 8.75 days (S.D=3.63). The hospital stay was higher in the conservative group with a mean of 14.53 days (S.D=2.29) ranging between 12-18 days while the surgery group had a

lower duration of hospital stay of 6.82 days (S.D=0.89) ranging between 6-8 days.

Distribution of patients

Out of 60 patients, 45 of them were surgically managed while of them conservatively managed. The following figure shows the distribution of the patients.

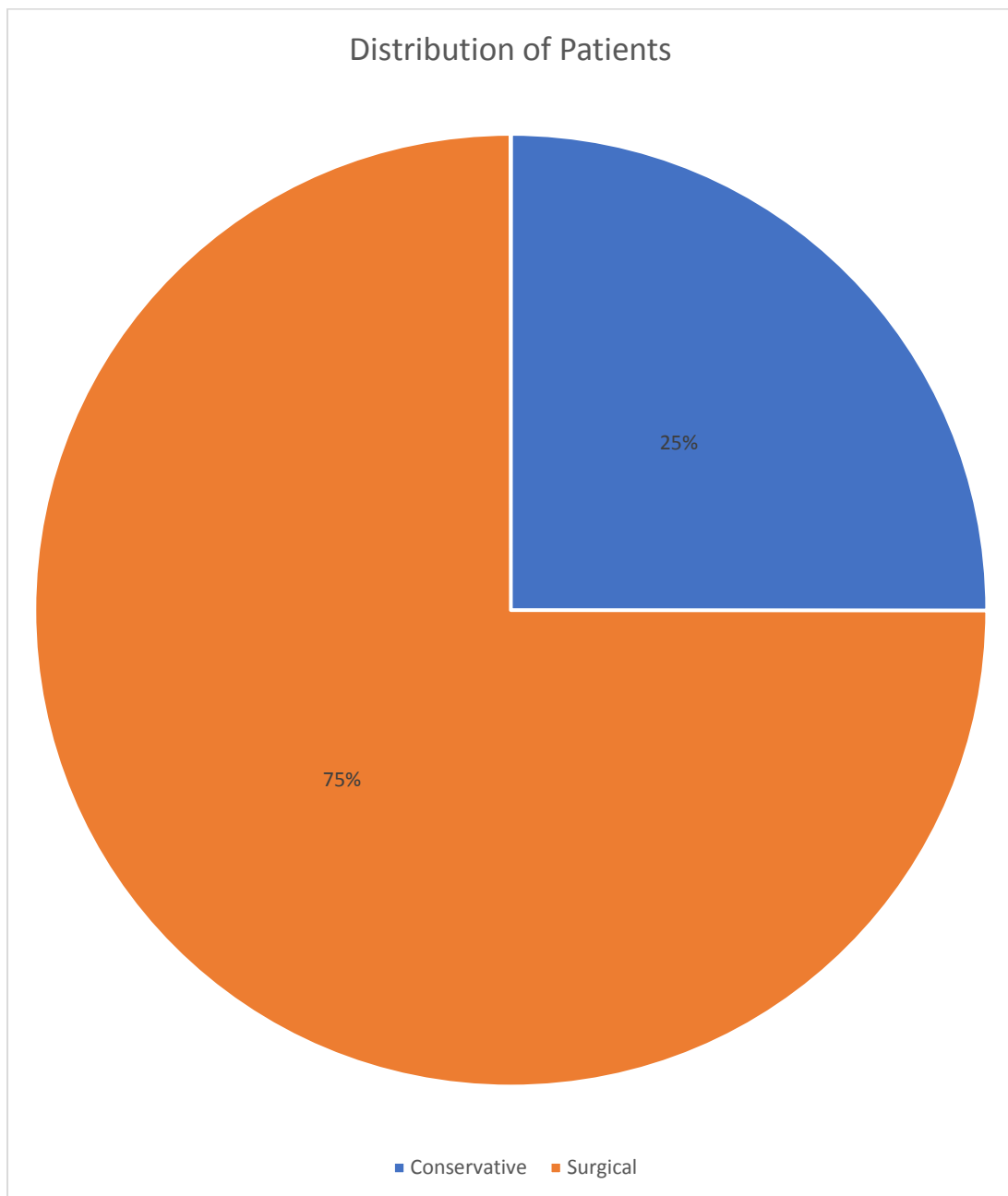


Figure 1: Distribution of Patients

Age of the participants

The following figure and tables show the age distribution of the participants. The mean age of the patients in surgery group (n=45) is 50.2 years (S.D=11.78) [range=28-75 years] while the mean age of the patients in the conservative group (n=15) is 50.73 years (S.D=11.11) [range=37-72 years]. The overall (N=60) mean age was 50.33 years (S.D=11.52) [range=28-75].

	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	50.73 years	11.11	37-72
Surgery (n=45)	50.2 years	11.78	28-75

Table 1: Age of the participants in surgery group

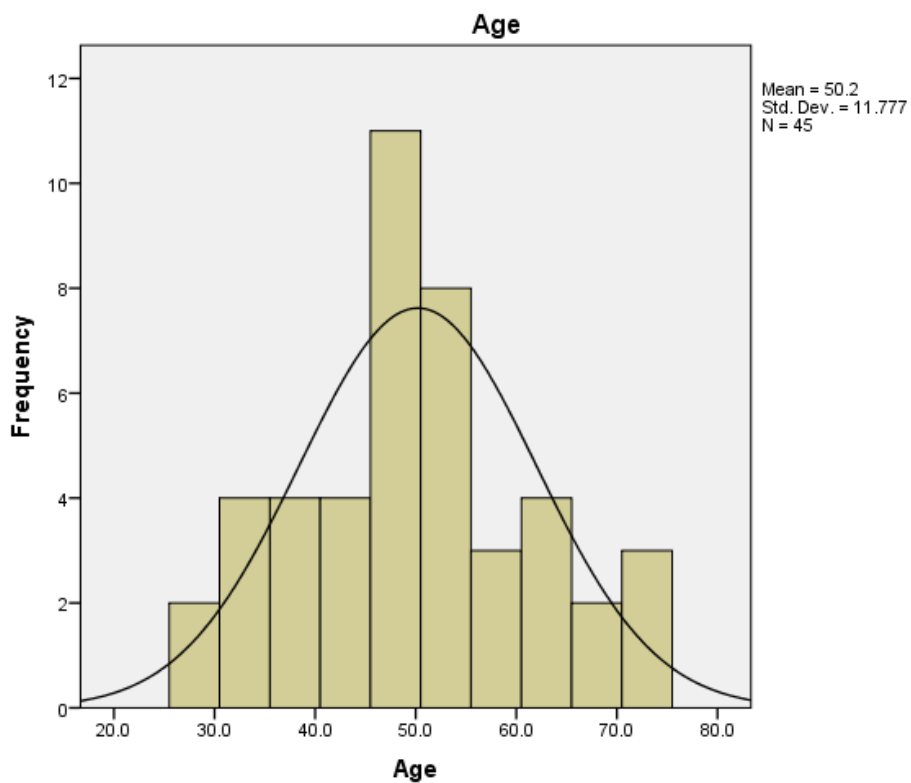


Figure 2: Age of the surgery group

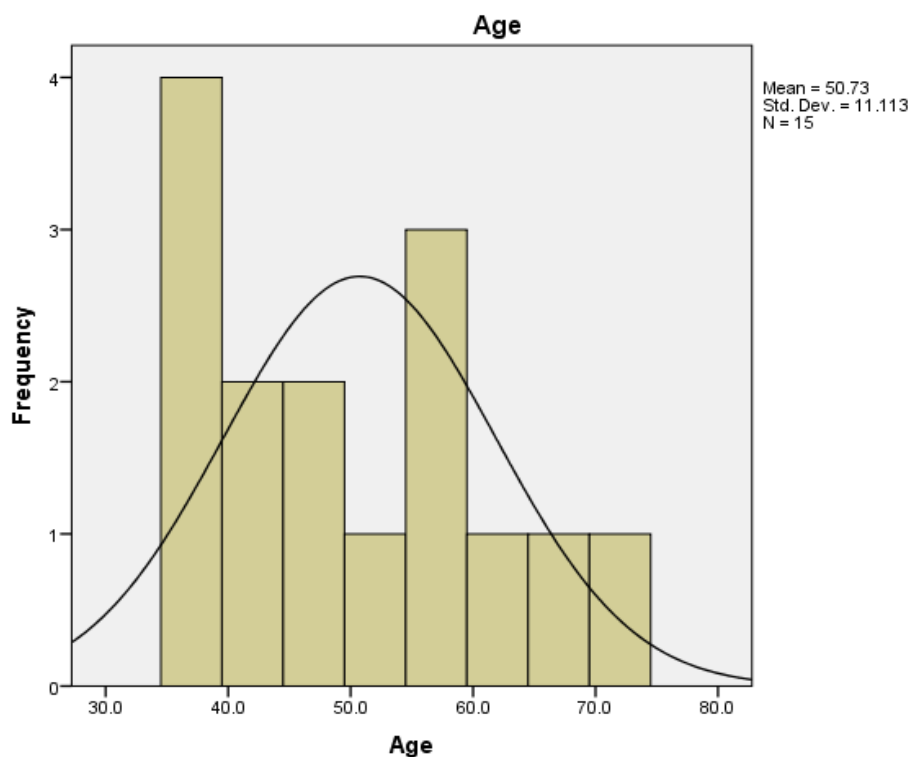


Figure 3: Age of the conservative group

Gender of the participants

The following figure and tables show the gender distribution of the participants. Majority of the patients were males (n=42, 70%) while others were females (n=18, 30%).

	Male (n, %)	Female (n, %)
Conservative (n=15)	7 (46.7%)	8 (53.3%)
Surgery (n=45)	35 (77.8%)	10 (22.2%)

Table 2: Gender of the participants

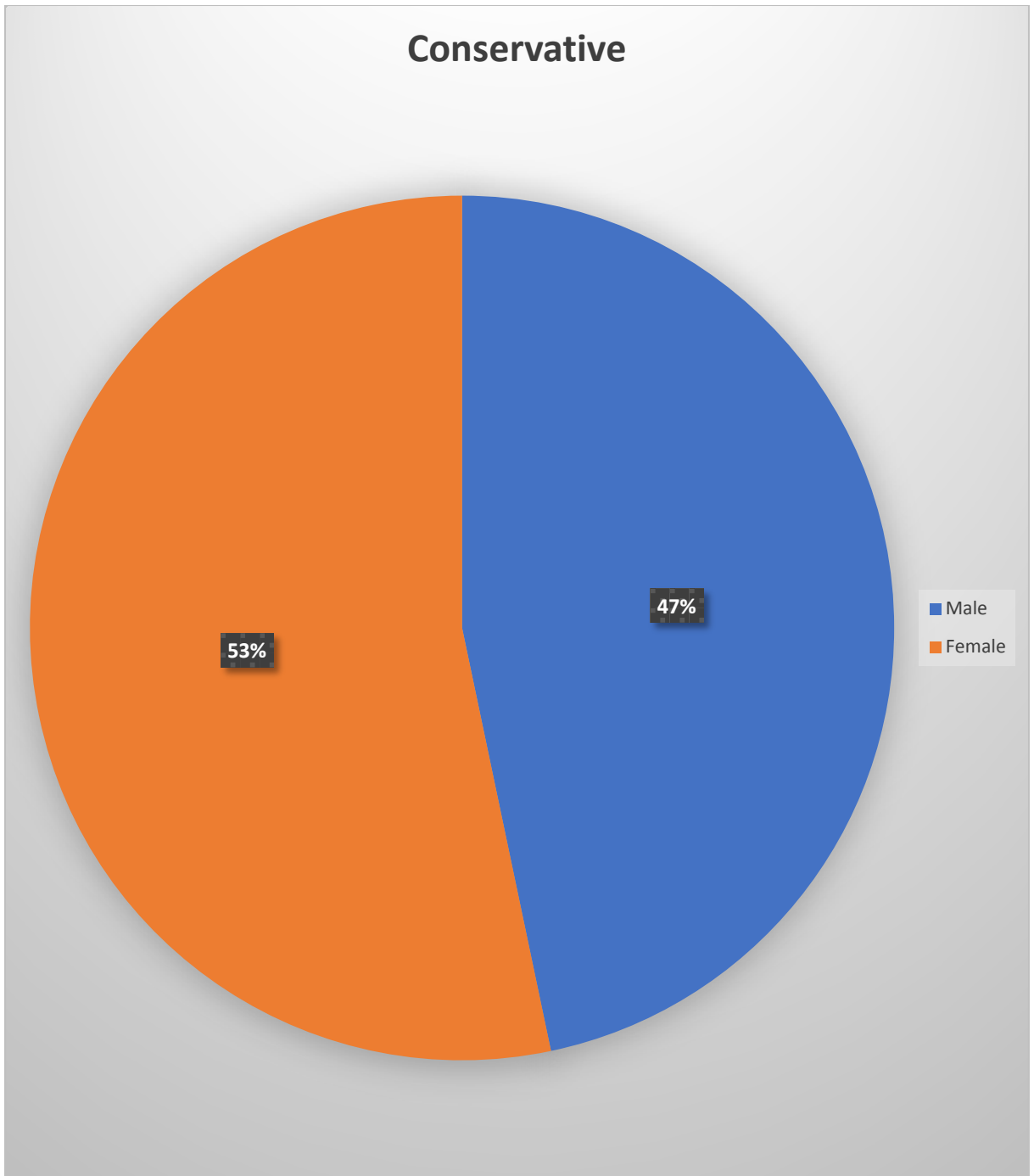


Figure 4: Gender of the conservative group

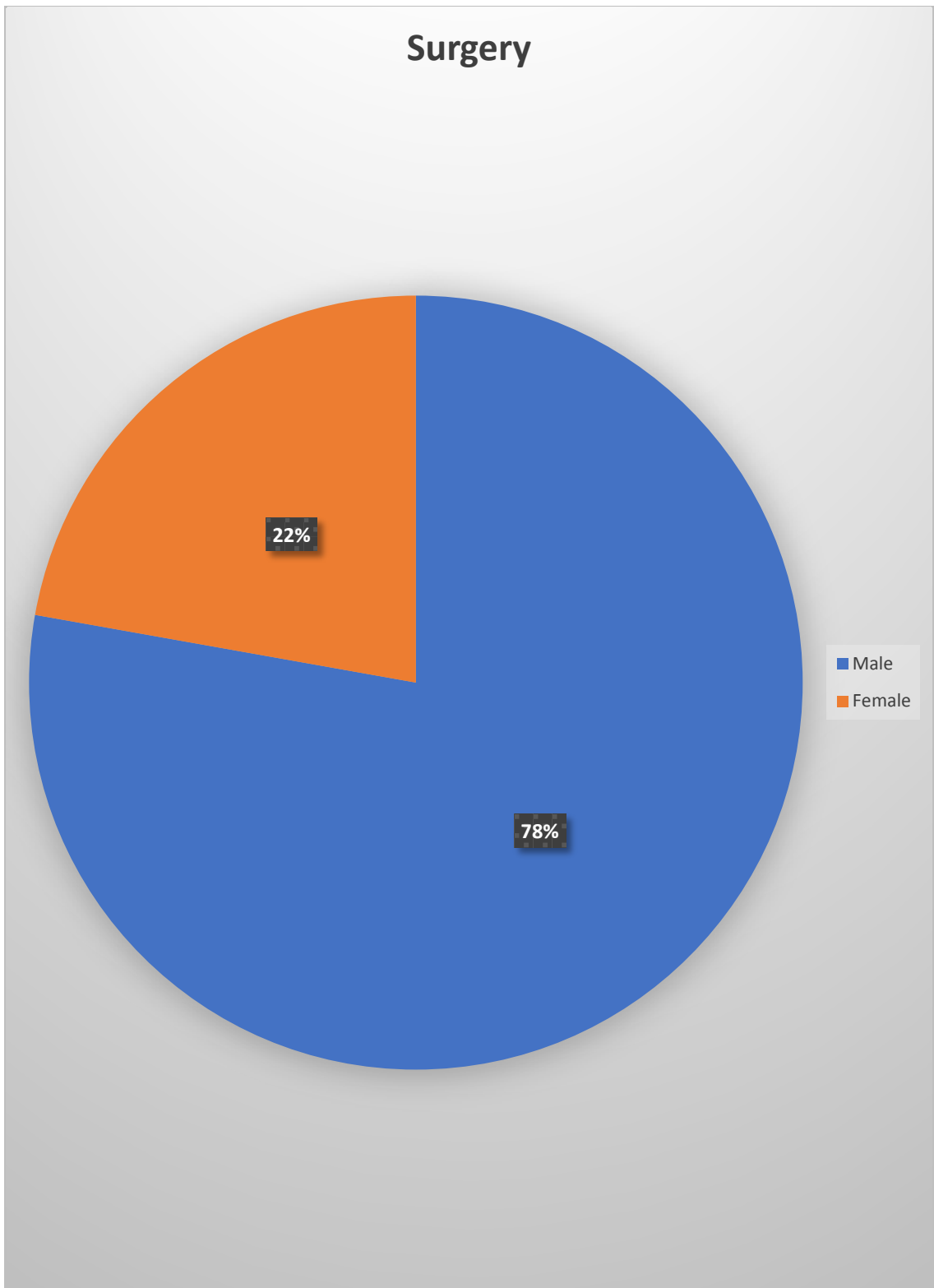


Figure 5: Gender of the surgery group

Duration of Abdominal Pain

The following tables and figures show the duration of abdominal pain among the conservative and surgery group. The mean duration of pain was higher in the surgery group.

	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	2.2 days	0.86	1-3 days
Surgery (n=45)	5.7 days	1.43	4-10

Table 3: Duration of abdominal pain

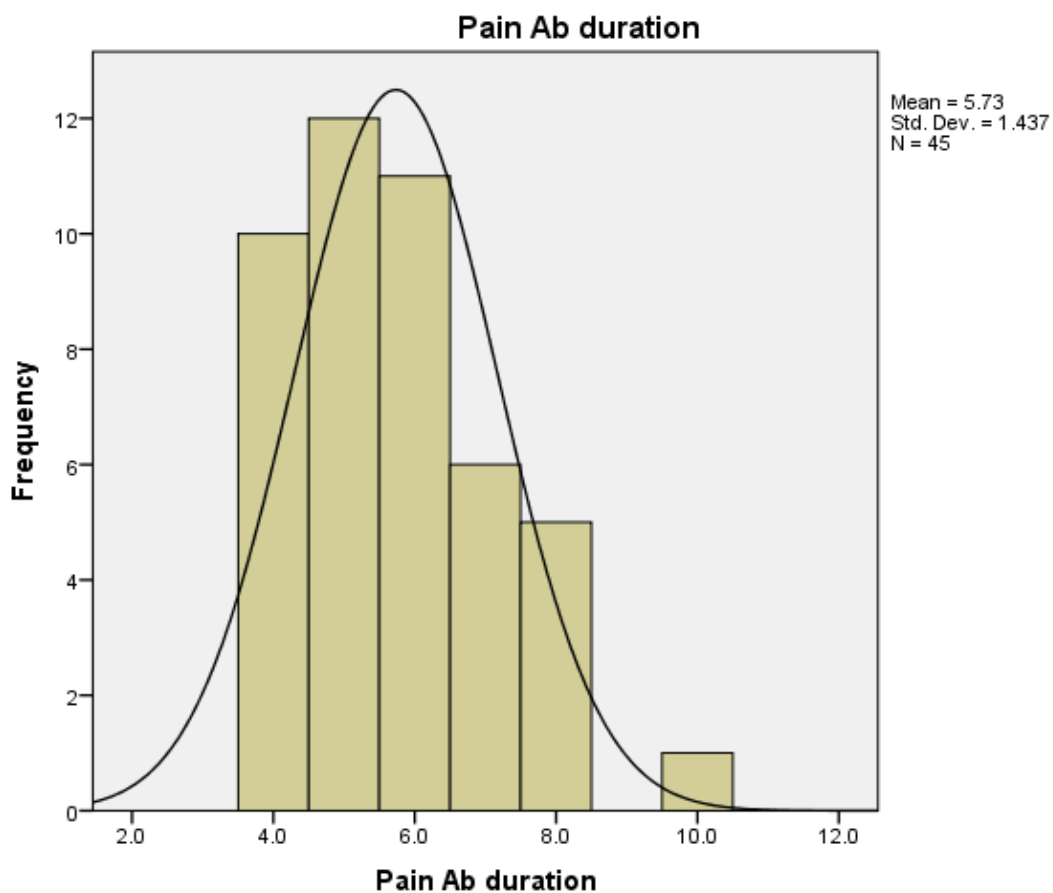


Figure 6: Duration of abdominal pain (Surgery Group)

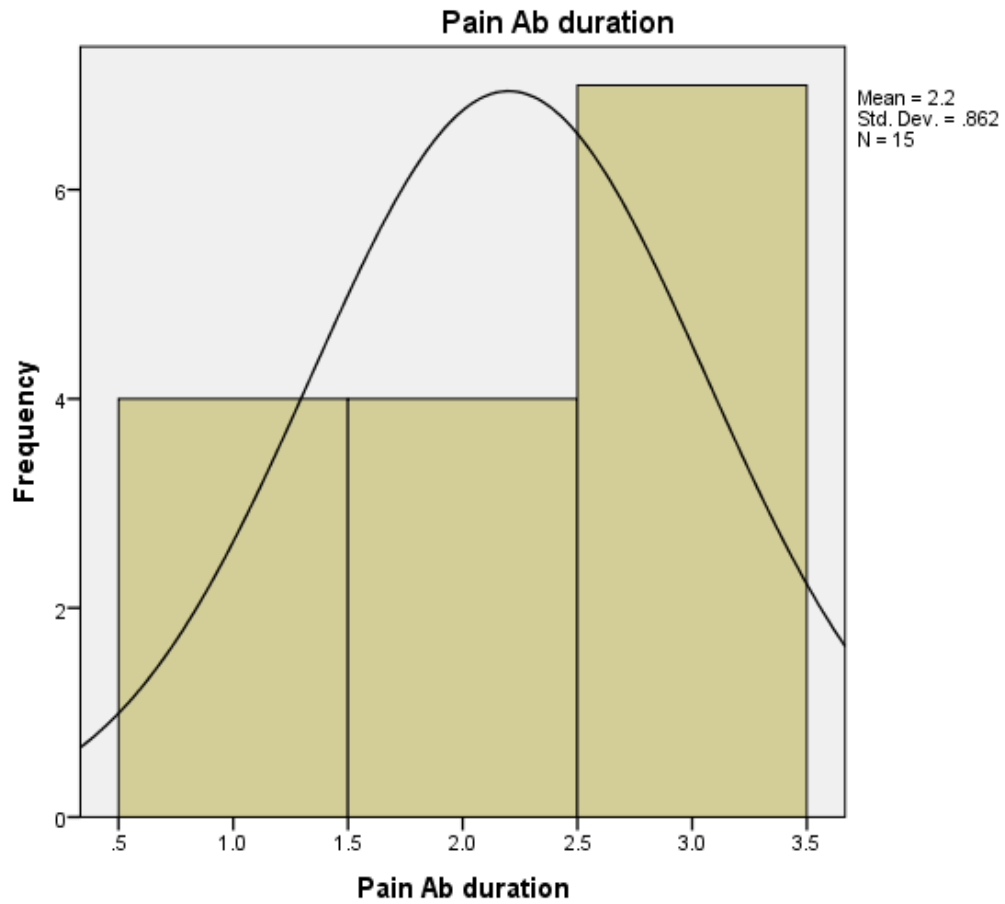


Figure 7: Duration of abdominal pain (Conservative Group)

Pulse rate of the participants

The following table and figures show the pulse rate of the participants.

	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	87.29/min	22.73	74-140/min
Surgery (n=45)	98.27/ min	13.82	74-140/min

Table 4: Pulse rate of the participants

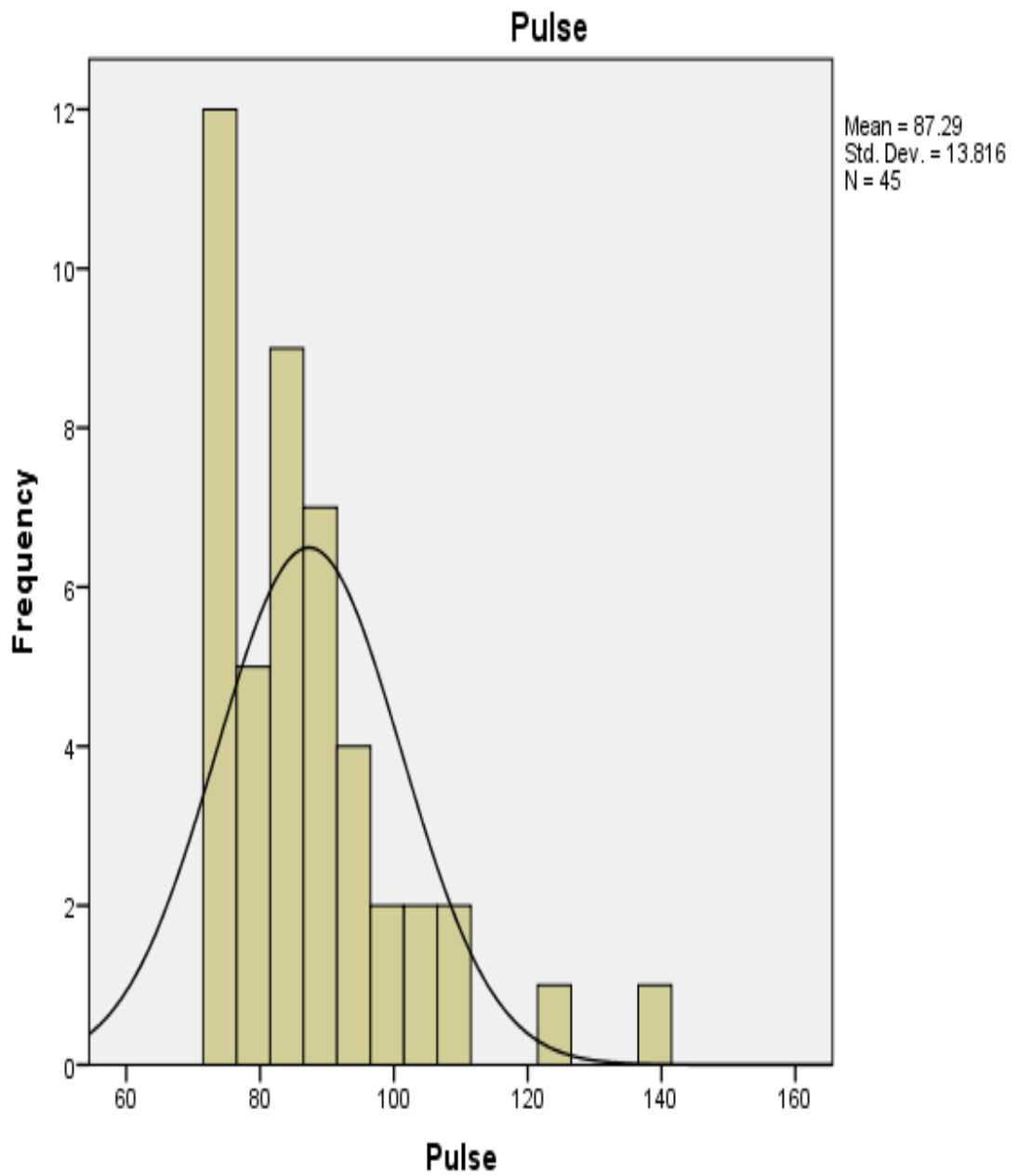


Figure 8:Pulse rate of the participants (Conservative Group)

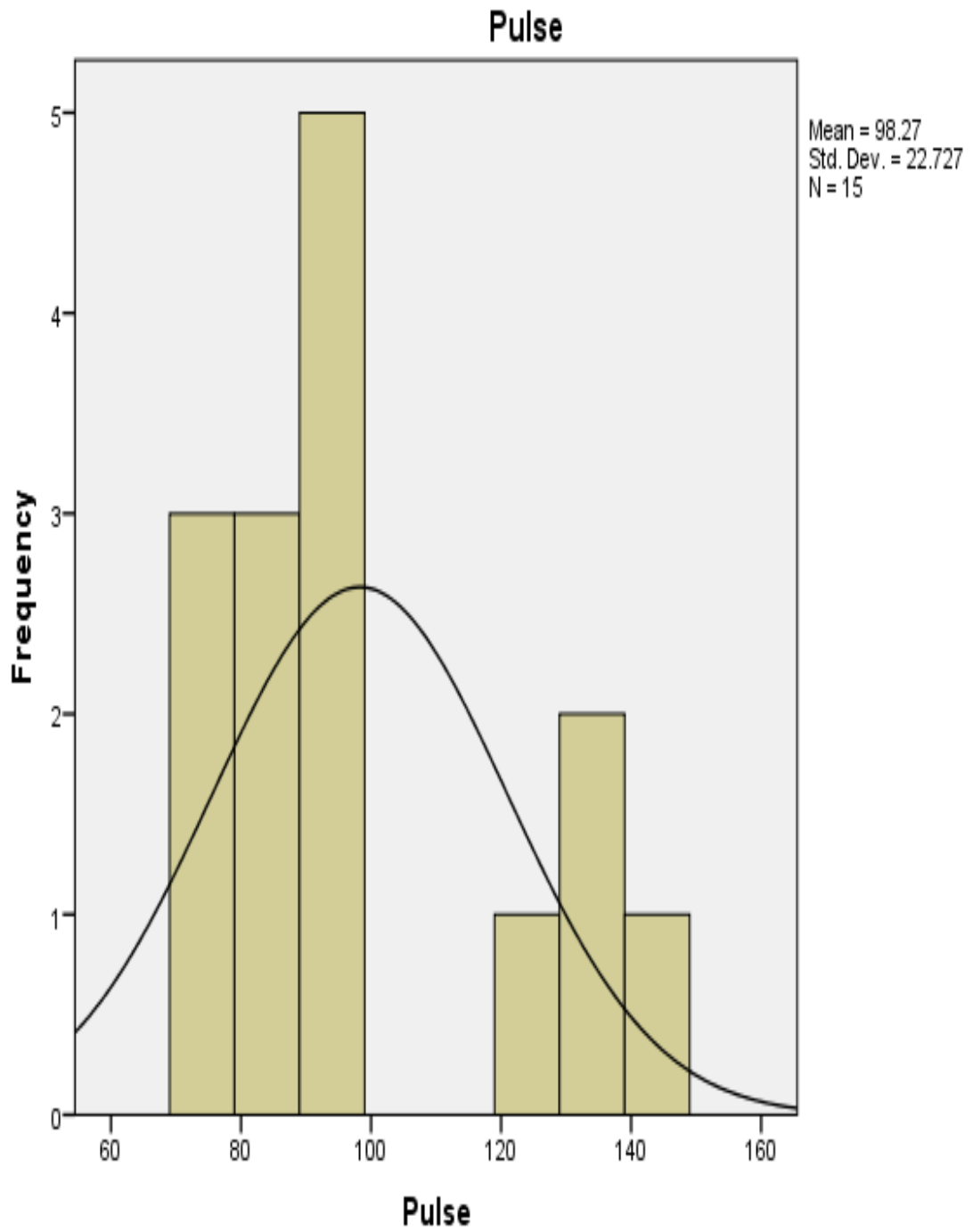


Figure 9: Pulse rate of the participants (Surgery Group)

Laboratory Findings

The following table show the total count and CRP levels in both the groups.

TC	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	7120	1592	4800-11500
Surgery (n=45)	15400	1999.38	11200-21000
CRP	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	49.07	9.37	37-67
Surgery (n=45)	86.489	5.8	77-97

Table 5: Laboratory findings of the participants

Duration of hospital stay

The following tables and figures show the duration of hospital stay in the two groups.

The hospital stay was higher in the conservative group with a mean of 14.53 days (S.D=2.29) ranging between 12-18 days while the surgery group had a lower duration of hospital stay of 6.82 days (S.D=0.89) ranging between 6-8 days.

	Mean	S.D	Range
Conservative (n=15)	14.53 days	2.29	12-18
Surgery (n=45)	6.82 days	0.89	6-8

Table 6: Duration of hospital stay

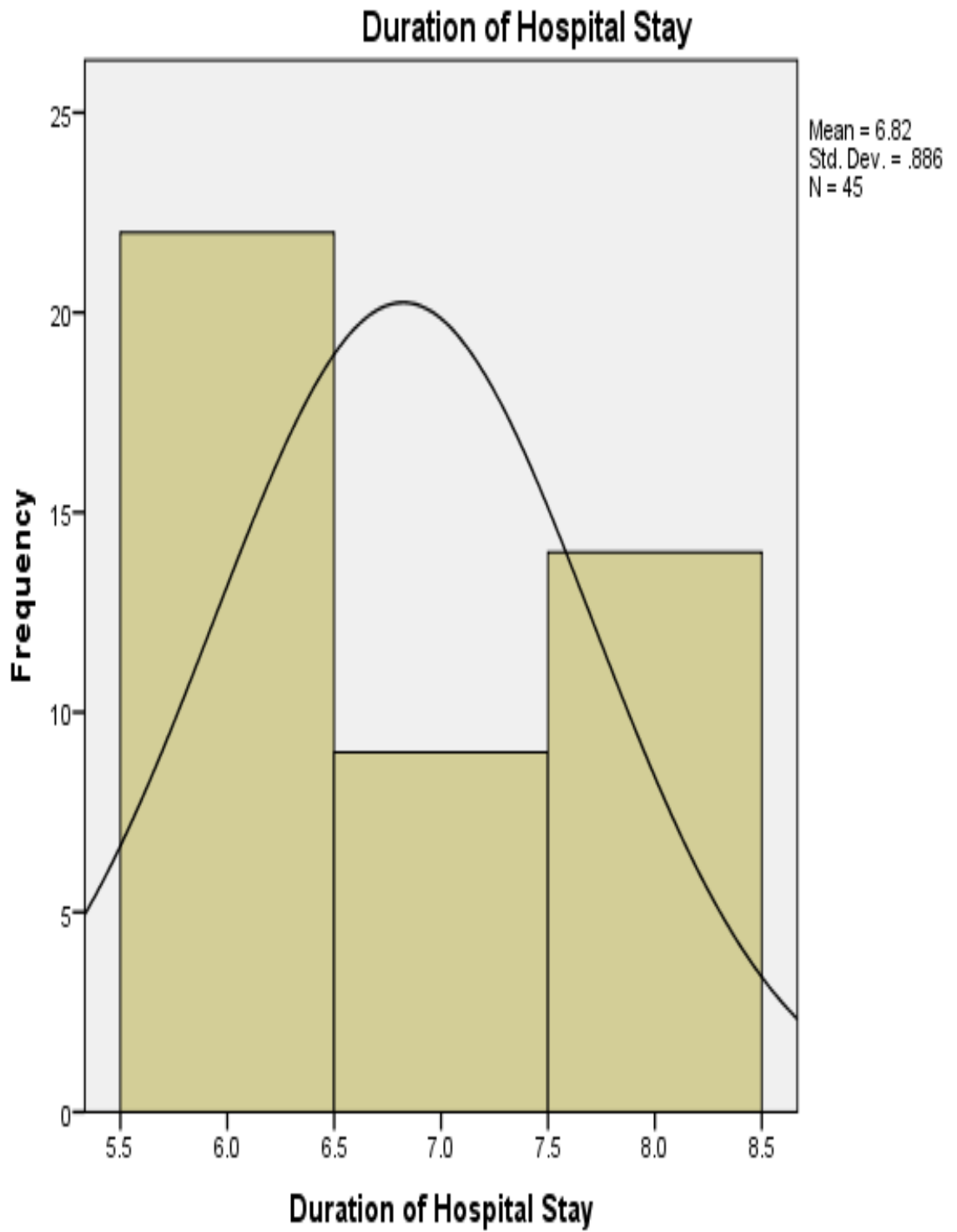


Figure 10: Duration of hospital stay (Surgery Group)

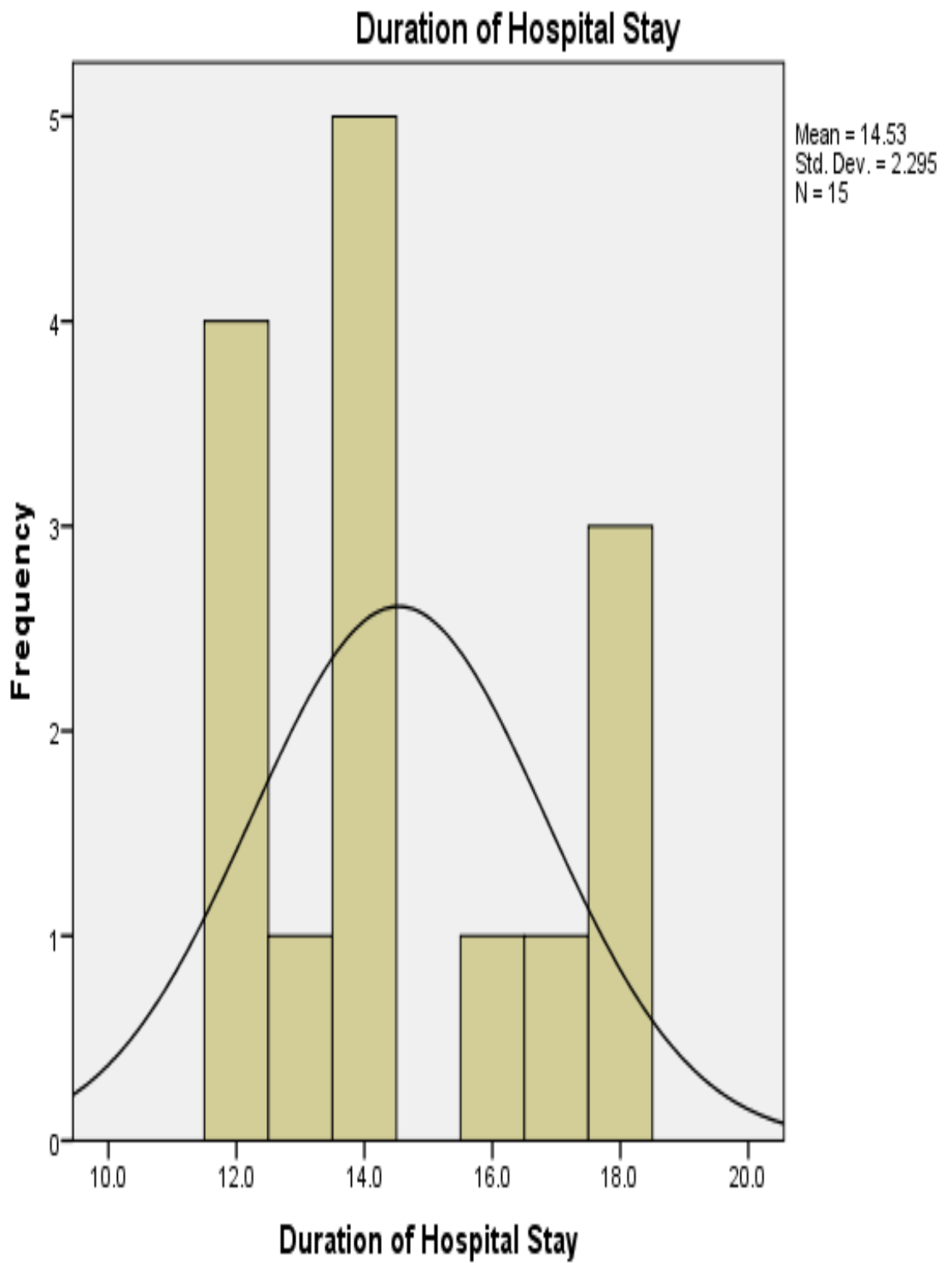


Figure 11: Duration of hospital stay (Conservative Group)

History of Previous Abdominal Surgery

The following tables shows the history of previous surgery in the two groups.

History of Previous Surgery (Surgery Group)	Frequency	Percent
Appendicectomy	6	13.3
Emergency Laparotomy for Perforation	1	2.2
Hysterectomy	3	6.7
Laparotomy - obstruction	9	19.8
Laparotomy - adhesiolysis	2	4.4
Laparotomy - perforation	8	17.6
Laparotomy - tumour excision	6	13.3
LSCS	4	8.9
Umbilical hernia repair	6	13.3
Total	45	100.0

Table 7: History of Previous Surgery (Surgery Group)

History of Previous Surgery (Conservative Group)	Frequency	Percent
Appendicectomy	1	6.7
Hysterectomy	5	33.3
Laparotomy - obstruction	2	13.3
Laparotomy - perforation	2	13.3
Laparotomy- adhesiolysis	1	6.7
LSCS	4	26.7
Total	15	100.0

Table 8: History of Previous Surgery (Conservative Group)

CECT Findings

The findings from CECT showed free fluid in the patients of the both group.

Plain X-ray and USG

All the patients showed MAF-SB.

Palpation

The patients in the surgery group showed guarding on palpation.

Readmission

Out of 45 patients in the surgery group, 16 (35.2%) of them were readmitted between 10 to 24 months compared to conservative group; 10 (67%) of them were readmitted between 6 to 14 months.

Readmission Management

The following table shows the readmission management among the two groups. Out of 10 patients in the conservative group, eight of them were managed surgically. In the surgery group, only two of them were managed operatively.

	Conservative	Surgery
Conservative (n=10)	2	8
Surgery (n=16)	14	2

Table 9: Readmission management

Discussion

A prospective single centre study to evaluate the clinical outcome in acute adhesive small bowel obstruction after surgical or conservative management among 60 patients who are with episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction revealed the following results. Forty-five patients were managed using surgical methods while fifteen of them were managed through conservative measures. The mean age of the patients in surgery group (n=45) is 50.2 years (S.D=11.78) [range= 28-75 years] while the mean age of the patients in the conservative group (n=15) is 50.73 years (S.D=11.11) [range=37-72 years]. The overall (N=60) mean age was 50.33 years (S.D=11.52) [range=28-75]. Majority of the patients were males (n=42, 70%) while others were females (n=18, 30%). The mean pain score among 60 patients was 4.85 (S.D=2.02) [range=1-10]. All of them had past history of previous surgery. On inspection, all of them had abdominal distension with guarding present in 45 of them (75%). CECT showed free fluid in 45 of the patients (75%). Among 60 patients, twenty-six of them were readmitted, of which, ten of them were surgically

managed and 16 of them were conservatively managed. The mean duration of hospital stay was 8.75 days (S.D=3.63). The hospital stay was higher in the conservative group with a mean of 14.53 days (S.D=2.29) ranging between 12-18 days while the surgery group had a lower duration of hospital stay of 6.82 days (S.D=0.89) ranging between 6-8 days.

The present study compared the outcomes of treatment between conservative and surgical management of the patients with acute small bowel obstruction. The patients treated with surgery require lesser rehospitalisation and less likely to suffer from the everyday symptoms at home. Surgery for small bowel obstruction does not necessarily reduce the recurrence of small bowel obstruction.

The results from the study are similar to that of Landercasper et al where a rehospitalisation rates were statistically significant ($p < 0.005$) and different between conservative (38%) and surgical management groups (21%)¹⁴. The study reported operation rates of a new episode of small bowel obstruction of 17% in conservative compared to 10% in surgical management groups with p-value < 0.005 . One of the reasons why

Landercasper et al reported a larger rate of recurrence may be attributed to the inclusion of patients by malignancy and inflammatory bowel disease.

Fevang et al said that surgery reduces the rate of recurrence with a relative risk of 0.55, 95% CI, 0.35-0.86¹⁵. The study also concluded that risk of managing operatively for a new case of small bowel obstruction is the same irrespective of the initial management choice with a relative risk of 0.79; 95%CI, 0.39-1.59.

The results from this study related to the morbidity of the patients with small bowel obstruction is in concert with previous studies^{14,21-24}. The post-operative mortality is not consistent in the studies as different factors attributed to the mortality rates. The present study is similar to the previous studies^{4,22,23}. The modality of treatment has no effect on the mortality rate of the patients.

The recurrence of symptoms were higher in the patients who were treated conservatively. This warrants an important clinical decision whether to manage conservatively or operatively.

Considering the risk-benefit analysis, the benefits of surgical management are higher with better relief of symptoms and lower recurrence rates. But with advanced age and other comorbidities, surgical management poses a question whether it is as effective than conservative management²⁵. This calls for the customisation of treatment based on sound clinical decision based on the various parameters like the general condition of the patient, clinical signs and symptoms, etc. The decision can be arrived by combining the severity score of SBO²¹ and the APACHE II scores²⁶ that indicate the medical condition of the patient.

Surgical management is known to decrease the morbidity of the patient^{24,27}. But no specific studies show the difference between early surgical management and surgery after 24-hours. Considering this, any patient with SBO can be conservatively managed within the first 24 hours and can be decided to operate after observation for 24 hours. When there are no signs of severity, conservative management can be attempted. When there is no recovery within 24 hours, an oral water-soluble contrast test can be done and taken up for surgery²⁸.

Conclusion

A prospective single centre study to evaluate the clinical outcome in acute adhesive small bowel obstruction after surgical or conservative management among 60 patients who are with episode of adhesive small bowel obstruction revealed the following results. Forty-five patients were managed using surgical methods while fifteen of them were managed through conservative measures. Following conclusions were drawn;

- 1) Patients with SBO who undergo surgery are at lower risk of recurrence
- 2) Patients with SBO who undergo surgery are at lower risk of repeated hospitalisations.
- 3) The recurrence of symptoms are also lower in the patients who were treated surgically.
- 4) Based on the above findings, following recommendations can be made;
 - a) patients with three or more of the following criteria (pain duration ≥ 4 days, abdominal guarding, leukocyte $\geq 10 \times 10^9/l$,

C-reactive protein ≥ 75 mg/l, free fluid ≥ 500 ml on CT scan, or reduced contrast enhancement on CT scan) should undergo prompt surgical intervention as it allows both obstruction removal and long-term reduction of recurrent SBO episodes.

- b) The decision to operate should also take into account the evolution of the clinical status and laboratory values, additional CT findings (e.g., volvulus, transition zone, reduced contrast enhancement), as well as the patient's general condition, comorbidities, and surgical history.

Limitations

The study had the following limitations;

Selection bias: as the patients were selected by the investigator and assigned to the groups. A randomised control trial would have been a better design for studies like this. But this again has the disadvantage of unethically exposing the patient to surgical procedures where a conservative management would have been enough and vice versa. Also, all the decisions need to be done rapidly to ensure the safety of the patient than considering the effectiveness of the design.

The patients who were managed conservatively had lower severity scores which may have affected the comparison between the two groups

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PATIENT CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE:

“CLINICAL OUTCOME IN ACUTE ADHESIVE SMALL BOWEL OBSTRUCTION AFTER SURGICAL OR CONSERVATIVE MANAGEMENT” IN GMKMCH, SALEM

Department of General surgery, GMKMCH

PARTICIPANT NAME :

AGE :

SEX:

I.P. NO :

I confirm that I have understood the purpose of surgical/invasive procedure for the above study. I have the opportunity to ask the question and all my questions and doubts have been answered to my satisfaction.

I have been explained about the possible complications that may occur during and after medical/ surgical procedure. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

I understand that investigator, regulatory authorities and the ethics committee will not need my permission to look at my health records both in respect to the current study and any further research that may be conducted in relation to it, even if I withdraw from the study. I understand that my identity will not be revealed in any information released to third parties or published, unless as required under the law. I agree not to restrict the use of any data or results that arise from the study.

I hereby consent to participate in this study for various surgical/invasive procedures and their outcomes.

Time :

Date :

Signature / Thumb Impression Of Patient

Place :

Patient's name:

Signature of the investigator: _____

“CLINICAL OUTCOME IN ACUTE ADHESIVE SMALL BOWEL OBSTRUCTION AFTER SURGICAL OR CONSERVATIVE MANAGEMENT” IN GMKMCH,SALEM

PROFORMA

A.

Name:

Address:

Age/sex:

RELIGION:

O.PNo:

IP No:

D.O.A:

TIME & DATE OF OPERATION:

D.O.D:

B. CHIEF COMPLAINTS:

Duration of symptoms:

C.PAST HISTORY:

1. DM : Yes/ No
2. TB : Yes/ No
3. EPILEPSY
4. MALARIA
5. PREVIOUS SURGERY
6. JAUNDICE
7. CIRRHOSIS

D.PERSONAL HISTORY:

SMOKER

ALCOHOLIC

E.INITIAL ASSESSMENT OF PATIENT

1.Vitals:

PR :

BP :

RR :

Temperature :

2.GENERAL SIGNS:

Pallor

Tongue

Skin

Icterus

Cyanosis

Lymphadenopathy:

K.SYSTEMIC EXAMINATION:

CVS

RS

CNS

Abdomen:

EXTERNAL GENITALIA:

PER RECTAL EXAMINATION

CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS

INVESTIGATIONS

A. HB%

B. TOTAL LEUKOCYTE COUNT

C. C REACTIVE PROTEIN

D. PCV

E. HBSAG

HIV

F. ECG

G. URINE:

Macro

Micro

Albumin

Sugar

H. BLOOD:

RBS

BLOOD UREA

SER.CREATININE

I. CHEST X RAY PA VIEW

J. X-RAY ABDOMEN ERECT

K. ABDOMEN & PELVIS USG :

L. CECT ABDOMEN

IF OPERATED

PRE-OPERATIVE DIAGNOSIS

OPERATIVE PROCEDURE:

ANESTHESIA:

INCISION:

SURGICAL PROCEDURE:

INTRAOPERATIVE FINDINGS

FOLLOW UP RECURRENT ABDOMINAL SYMPTOMS

IF CONSERVATIVE

DURATION OF HOSPITAL STAY

ANY COMPLICATIONS

FOLLOW UP RECURRENT ABDOMINAL SYMPTOMS

1.selection of the patient

for conservative

for operative

2.recurrence of abdominal symptoms in conservative

3.recurrence of abdominal symptoms in operative

4.duration of hospital stay in conservative

5.duration of hospital stay in operative

MASTER CHART

Sl nos	I.P. No.	Name	Age (y)	Sex	Pain Abd (d)	Past history- Previous surgery	Pulse /Min	Inspection Dist	Palpation Guarding / Rigidity	TC	CRP	Plain X-ray abd or USG	CECT Abdomen & Pelvis	Operative Procedure	Duration of hospital stay	Readmission within(mon)	READMISSION MANAGEMENT
1	2758	Magendran	46	M	4	Emergency Laparotomy for Perforation	90	+	G	12300	82	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	18	conservative
2	2701	Gomathi	37	F	1	LSCS	84	+	-	11500	44	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	12	-	-
3	5174	Rajendran	50	M	4	laparotomy-perforation	96	+	G	13500	95	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
4	2394	Radha	36	F	5	appendicectomy	82	+	G	15400	83	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	22	Surgery
5	2732	Mariyappan	50	M	6	laparotomy - perforation	74	+	G	14600	94	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
6	6752	Nagesh	28	M	4	appendicectomy	88	+	G	16500	79	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
7	3354	Mala	34	F	8	LSCS	76	+	G	13400	84	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
8	4375	Raghu	30	M	6	appendicectomy	96	+	G	12500	79	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
9	2965	Thiyagarajan	33	M	7	laparotomy for perforation	84	+	G	14500	93	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	14	conservative
10	10122	Kishore	48	M	5	laparotomy - adhesiolysis	78	+	G	21000	95	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	10	conservative
11	5396	Kalavathi	55	F	2	hysterectomy	132	+	-	8500	56	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	14	6	conservative
12	3571	Kuppan	66	M	5	laparotomy for obstruction	140	+	G	16700	84	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-

13	3468	Narendran	40	M	6	laparotomy - adhesiolysis	89	+	G	15500	88	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
14	3504	Kuppusamy	39	M	3	laparotomy - perforation	90	+	-	7500	47	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	18	-	-
15	3022	Sengodan	31	M	8	appendicectomy	76	+	G	14500	92	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
16	2903	Thulasingham	74	M	7	laparotomy - tumour excision	92	+	G	16300	85	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	18	conservative
17	2732	Pandurangan	64	M	6	laparotomy - obstruction	78	+	G	14500	90	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
18	5306	Anjalai	53	F	8	hysterectomy	74	+	G	16300	78	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
19	5174	Karupannan	55	M	5	laparotomy - obstruction	96	+	G	15400	97	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
20	4121	Mariyammal	50	F	8	umbilical hernia repair	84	+	G	16500	84	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	18	Conservative
21	4167	Kaiser	44	M	3	laparotomy - obstruction	74	+	-	7500	67	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	18	10	conservative
22	8287	Arumugam	48	M	4	umbilical hernia repair	76	+	G	16500	86	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
23	5590	Sampath	42	M	5	laparotomy - perforation	82	+	G	15400	78	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	10	conservative
24	2811	Sekhar	69	M	6	laparotomy - tumour excision	82	+	G	17300	91	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
25	10632	Ramaiyya	40	M	6	umbilical hernia repair	76	+	G	12400	87	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	17	-
26	4407	Saroja	58	F	3	hysterectomy	126	+	-	4800	53	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	18	10	Surgery

27	3184	Senthil kumar	45	M	10	laparotomy - perforation	98	+	G	12600	95	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	16	conservative
28	2869	Aravindan	44	M	6	laparotomy for obstruction	102	+	G	13600	83	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
29	3438	Mohammad	34	M	5	appendicectomy	108	+	G	17500	82	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
30	5923	Kannammal	47	F	5	LSCS	78	+	G	14400	90	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	24	Surgery
31	4567	Singaram	53	M	7	laparotomy-obstruction	90	+	G	13400	86	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
32	4389	Ruthramoorthy	48	M	4	umbilical hernia repair	84	+	G	16500	79	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
33	2567	Kunjammal	49	F	3	hysterectomy	96	+	-	8400	37	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	14	-	-
34	8726	Pavayee	43	F	1	LSCS	82	+	-	6700	48	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	12	8	Surgery
35	3657	Pandiyan	57	M	6	Laparotomy - obstruction	74	+	G	14300	90	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
36	4412	Ganesan	59	M	5	laparotomy - tumour excision	88	+	G	17400	92	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	18	
37	3321	Manoj	53	M	8	umbilical hernia repair	76	+	G	18700	87	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
38	5278	Lakshmi	49	F	2	LSCS	96	+	-	6500	44	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	14	8	surgery
39	9871	Jaya	60	F	4	hysterectomy	84	+	G	17400	85	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
40	3345	Navaneethan	73	M	7	laparotomy - tumour excision	78	+	G	13500	88	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
41	3256	Chandra	38	F	1	LSCS	132	+	-	6500	42	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	12	8	surgery
42	5647	Kaliyappan	52	M	2	laparotomy-adhesiolysis	140	+	-	7600	56	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	16	11	surgery
43	1654	Duraisamy	75	M	5	laparotomy - tumour excision	89	+	G	14400	78	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
44	1872	Bharathi	48	F	4	LSCS	90	+	G	15600	91	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	18	conservative
45	2453	Shanmugam	54	M	6	laparotomy-perforation	76	+	G	17500	97	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	16	conservative
46	6477	Moorthi	72	M	3	laparotomy - obstruction	92	+	-	6500	64	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	14	-	-
47	8865	Gengammal	63	M	2	hysterectomy	78	+	-	5400	38	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	17	14	surgery
48	2347	Kumar	55	M	3	laparotomy - perforation	74	+	-	7300	47	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	12	12	surgery

49	8543	Palaniyammal	68	F	1	hysterectomy	96	+	-	6400	56	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	13	-	-
50	4652	Sudhakaran	62	M	6	laparotomy - obstruction	84	+	G	17600	81	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	14	conservative
51	1234	Raji	53	M	7	laparotomy - perforation	74	+	G	13600	79	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	16	conservative
52	9064	Govindharaj	44	F	4	umbilical hernia repair	76	+	G	15500	87	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-
53	8012	sarulatha	48	F	5	LSCS	82	+	G	11200	93	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	18	conservative
54	7406	karthikeyan	39	M	3	appendicectomy	82	+	-	5700	37	MAF-SB	-	Conservative	14	9	surgery
55	5540	Thiruselvam	62	M	6	laparotomy - tumour excision	76	+	G	15600	89	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
56	8471	Karpagaperumal	51	M	4	laparotomy - obstruction	126	+	G	16000	83	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	-	-
57	6609	Kasiyappan	49	M	5	laparotomy - perforation	98	+	G	13000	79	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	22	conservative
58	3078	Dhanarajan	38	M	7	appendicectomy	102	+	G	17200	85	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	8	-	-
59	5125	Karpagam	52	F	5	hysterectomy	108	+	G	14500	92	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	6	18	conservative
60	9341	Sivalingam	63	M	4	Lapaotomy - obstruction	78	+	G	18500	77	MAF-SB	Free fluid+	Surgery	7	-	-