### A child in shock: carotid blowout syndrome

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A child in shock: carotid blowout syndrome

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Abstract

Paediatricians commonly encounter neck lumps during their routine clinical practice; vascular abnormalities, such as (pseudo)aneurysms, are a rare cause of these. Pseudoaneurysms of the carotid artery in children are usually the result of blunt or penetrating trauma, infection or vasculitis/connective tissue disorders. They can present with a variety of symptoms including neck pain, as a pulsatile neck mass or with compressive symptoms (for example, cranial nerve palsies or dyspnoea). Pseudoaneurysms carry a risk of rupture in which case they are fatal, unless immediate treatment is provided.

We report a 17 month old male child with idiopathic carotid artery blowout syndrome presenting with acute oropharyngeal haemorrhage leading to asystolic cardiac arrest. He was successfully resuscitated and emergency embolisation controlled the bleeding. Despite extensive left hemispheric infarct, he has survived and made a remarkable recovery.

Carotid artery blowout syndrome needs to be recognised as a potential cause of major haemorrhage in childhood. The purpose of this case report is to remind readers of the differential diagnosis and work-up of a child presenting with a neck lump, to highlight important aspects of the acute management of major haemorrhage and massive blood transfusion in paediatrics, to describe the aetiology, presentation and management of carotid artery pseudoaneurysm in children and to discuss long term rehabilitation in patients with consequent neurological sequelae (including the need for input from multiple specialty teams).
Case part 1: antecedent events

A 17m old boy presented to the Emergency Department (ED) with a five day history of neck swelling and fever. He had previously seen the GP who had diagnosed him with mumps. The swelling had progressed, however, so his parents decided to seek further medical attention. On examination in ED, he had a 4 x 4cm fluctuant, non-pulsatile, neck swelling behind his left ear with overlying erythema. His inflammatory markers were raised (WCC 27 and CRP 167) and an ultrasound (without dopplers) confirmed lymphadenitis, with no evidence of suppurative change/necrosis, abscess formation or arterial abnormality. He was admitted to the ward for IV antibiotics, which were stepped down to oral therapy when he had clinically improved the following day.

Commentary: neck lumps

Aetiology

Paediatricians commonly encounter neck lumps during their routine clinical practice. They are usually benign in nature, and may be congenital or of infectious origin – commonly, reactive lymphadenopathy, lymphadenitis or mycobacterial infections. Rarely, they may be due to vascular abnormalities or malignancy [1-5].

Diagnostic work up – history and examination

A systematic approach to neck lumps based on anatomy, the age of the patient as well as the history and clinical features should lead to fewer (unnecessary) investigations and a reduction in parental anxiety. Key features of the clinical history include the duration of symptoms, location of the lump(s), pattern of progression of the swelling, presence of tenderness, local and systemic signs/symptoms and recent exposures/travel. When examining neck lumps, clinicians should take particular attention to their location, size, number, mobility,
presence/absence of tenderness, and the features of the overlying skin. General examination of the child is also essential to look for other features of, for example, malignancy or systemic disease. Vascular abnormalities, such as (pseudo)aneurysms, tend to be pulsatile and may have a bruit on auscultation; systemic examination may reveal evidence of trauma, a connective tissue disorder or vasculitis (indicating the underlying aetiology of the (pseudo)aneurysm). Clues to the diagnosis of a neck lump in a child, from the history and examination, are summarised in Table 1.
Table 1: Diagnostic clues in the history and examination for paediatric neck lumps

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
<th>Key features in history</th>
<th>Key findings on examination</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Congenital</strong></td>
<td>Present since birth</td>
<td>Location: midline (e.g. thyroglossal duct cyst, dermoid cyst) versus. lateral (e.g. branchial arch cyst, cystic hygroma)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Systemically well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infectious</strong></td>
<td>Fevers</td>
<td>Shotty enlarged lymph nodes (suggests reactive lymphadenopathy)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Local pain</td>
<td>Erythema and tenderness on palpation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acute onset/rapidly enlarging</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Travel, TB contacts</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIV risk factors</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unimmunised (e.g. mumps)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cat scratch (e.g. cat scratch disease)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drinking unpasteurised milk (e.g. toxoplasmosis)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Symptoms suggestive of a local infection (e.g. history of earache, upper respiratory tract infection)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Malignant</strong></td>
<td>Rapidly enlarging</td>
<td>Hard, fixed, rubbery, irregular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enlarge during a course of antibiotic therapy</td>
<td>&gt; 2cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B symptoms (fever, night sweats, weight loss)</td>
<td>Location: supraclavicular/posterior triangle node</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persist for &gt; 6 weeks</td>
<td>Midline thyroid mass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Usually not painful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vascular</strong></td>
<td>History of trauma, connective tissue disorder or vasculitis</td>
<td>Pulsatile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pulsatile mass</td>
<td>Bruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Usually lateral</td>
<td>Features of a connective tissue disorder or vasculitis</td>
</tr>
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</table>
**Diagnostic work up - investigations**

Where further investigation of a neck lump is deemed necessary, the clinician should consider blood tests and/or serology/tumour markers where there is a suspected infective or malignant cause. Ultrasonography (US) tends to be the most common radiological investigation performed as it will differentiate a cystic lesion from a solid one and can help to characterise the neck lump further [6] by determining the size, consistency, shape, vascularity and location of the mass.

Ultrasound has been reported to have 95% sensitivity and 83% specificity in the differentiation between malignant and reactive lymph nodes [7]; malignancy (lymphoma) is more likely with an abnormally shaped, homogeneous, hypoechoic lymph node, compared with a heterogeneous lymph node that retains its normal architecture, with surrounding inflammation and central liquefaction (typical of inflamed/infected lymph nodes) [8].

Computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) can provide more detailed information about the anatomical location, lesion characteristics and surrounding structures [6].

Excisional biopsy is gold standard for histological investigation [9-10]. This is because excisional biopsy removes the entire lymph node and thus usually provides sufficient tissue to allow microscopic examination of all regions of the lymph node [11]. Although fine-needle aspiration biopsy (FNAB) has a well established role in the evaluation of an adult head and neck mass, it remains under-used in children [12]. The reason that it has not been adopted in paediatric practice is in part due to lack of experience in interpreting the cytomorphological features of malignant cells in children and due to concerns regarding the validity of cytology in evaluating lymph nodes in children [13]. A recent systematic review [5] found that overall, FNAB had a specificity of 92%-100% for diagnosing cancer and a sensitivity of 67%-100%.
A large study following this review evaluated 217 children biopsied in a tertiary centre and found that the sensitivity of FNA was 92% with a specificity of 100% [14]. Two cases of lymphoma were missed and misdiagnosed as reactive lymphadenitis. In short, FNAB performs variably in excluding cancer.

Case part 2: resuscitation

Three days following discharge, the young boy re-presented to the same ED as a London Ambulance Service blue call, with bleeding from his mouth ‘like an open tap’. On arrival, he was in severe shock. His airway was patent but he was tachypnoeic with a respiratory rate of 36/min, and tachycardic with a heart rate of 177bpm. His blood pressure and oxygen saturations were unrecordable. He was assessed using a structured ‘Airway, breathing, circulation, disability, exposure (ABCDE)’ approach: the airway was secured shortly after his arrival. There was difficulty obtaining intra-venous access (as he was so shut down peripherally). Intra-osseous access was obtained (twice) but unfortunately failed to allow fluid administration. Eventually, an intra-venous line was cited by the senior registrar, allowing volume resuscitation to be initiated.

Despite this, he deteriorated and went into asystolic cardiac arrest within fifteen minutes of arrival to the ED. He remained in asystolic arrest for sixteen minutes. The team resuscitated him using Advanced Paediatric Life Support (APLS) algorithms. Throughout this time, the bleeding from his mouth could not be controlled so a ‘major haemorrhage’ call was put out. Over the course of the resuscitation, the child lost the equivalent of his entire circulating blood volume and had an ‘un-recordable’ pH for at least sixty-two minutes. Multiple blood products were administered, including packed red cells (1080ml), platelets, fresh frozen plasma, fibrinogen and factor 7. He was also given desmopressin and anti-fibrinolytic therapy (tranexamic acid), before being started on an adrenaline infusion.
There were over twenty professionals involved in this child’s resuscitation, including specialists from a range of backgrounds: paediatrics, anaesthetics, intensive care, gastro-enterology, ear, nose and throat (ENT) and maxillo-facial surgery.

**Commentary: paediatric massive transfusion**

**Definition**

Massive transfusion in paediatrics has been defined by Diab et al. [15] as receiving a packed red blood cell transfusion of 50% of total blood volume (TBV) in 3 hours or 100% of TBV in 24 hours or >10% of TBV per minute. Flowchart 1 summarises key factors to consider when assessing and managing a child presenting in shock secondary to major haemorrhage.
Flowchart 1: Flowchart summarising key points to consider when assessing and managing a child presenting with major haemorrhage [Available as a word file in supplementary file 1].

**Assessment of a child presenting in shock secondary to haemorrhage**

- **C-Seine:** Airway, Breathing, Circulation...
- **Signs suggesting compromise of Circulation:** dyspnoea, altered conscious level, hypotension, increased capillary refill time, reduced urine output, lactic acidosis.
- **Note of caution:** Massive blood loss can be difficult to quantify and paediatric patients can maintain their blood pressure even after loss of 25-40% of blood volume [16].

**Management of major haemorrhage**

- **Overall aim:** To restore circulating blood volume, give blood products in order to maintain haemostasis and to obtain definitive haemostasis [16].
- If blood products are not immediately available, consider giving warmed crystalloid.
- **Note of caution:** In the paediatric trauma setting, increased crystalloid volume replacement has been associated with increased transfusion requirements, coagulopathy (prolonged prothrombin times), and a tendency towards increased mortality and multi-organ failure rates [17].

**Blood product administration**

- Transfuse packed red cells (PRC) in balance with other blood products e.g. fresh frozen plasma (FFP), platelets, coagulation factors and anti-fibrinolytics [16]
- The optimal product ratio is not clear but many adult transfusion protocols suggest a PRC:FFP:platelet ratio of 1:1:1. Fibrinogen and tranexamic acid should also be considered.
- FFP can be difficult to obtain quickly so some guidelines advise replacement of FFP with PRC at a ratio of 2:1 [16].

**Tranexamic acid**

- Inhibits fibrinolysis and is often used to reduce the amount of bleeding in at-risk surgeries. It is suggested that administration of tranexamic acid within 3h of paediatric trauma is likely to be beneficial [19].

**Complications of massive transfusion**

- Transfusion reaction,
- Immunological complications,
- Metabolic problems,
- Circulatory overload,
- Acidosis
- Hypothermia [18]

**Therapeutic targets after massive transfusion (once bleeding is controlled & volume is restored):** Hb 80g/L, fibrinogen >1g/L, PT ratio <1.5, platelet >75 x 10^9/L [16].
Major haemorrhage protocols

Major haemorrhage protocols, such as that published by the paediatric Advanced Life Support Group (updated in 2016), have been developed to guide resuscitation, facilitate communication and prevent coagulopathy in paediatric major haemorrhage. The use of major haemorrhage protocols in adults has resulted in faster delivery of blood products, decreased rates of multi-organ failure and improved 30-day survival [20]. In paediatrics, use of major haemorrhage protocols has been shown to reduce time to transfusion [18]. It also has the potential to prevent excessive use of crystalloid, correct and prevent coagulopathy and minimise the complications of massive transfusion [17]. It must be noted that major haemorrhage protocols are not blood product prescriptions and that decision to administer blood products must remain the choice of the treating clinician, in accordance with the clinical situation.

Case part 3: initial diagnosis and outcome

Following return of spontaneous circulation, the child underwent an emergency gastro-intestinal endoscopy whilst still in the resuscitation room in ED. Although a clot was found in the fundus of the stomach, no gastro-intestinal source of the bleeding was seen. The bleeding appeared to be coming from his oropharynx. The presumed bleeding point was packed using adrenaline-soaked gauze by the ENT surgeons, but this only partially controlled bleeding.

The child was therefore transferred to a tertiary centre, with a physician from the Children’s Acute Ambulance Service (CATS) manually holding adrenaline-soaked gauze in the child’s mouth throughout the ambulance journey. On arrival, the child underwent an emergency angiography, which revealed active extravasation from a pseudoaneurysm of the left cervical internal carotid artery (ICA) [figure 1A]. The extravasation was stopped with trans-arterial coil embolisation of the left ICA. The external carotid artery was deliberately maintained
patent to maintain maximal collateral potential to the distal carotid territory from its branches.

A final angiography demonstrated occluded left ICA flow [figure 1B]. Supplementary injection of a liquid embolic into the coils mass, though considered, was rejected on the basis of the additional risk of distal embolisation through the coil mass. There was no further bleeding overnight. Computed tomography (CT) of the brain the following morning showed extensive infarction in the left cerebral hemisphere [figure 2B] and recanalization of the previously occluded left ICA [figure 2A] through (and distal to) the coil mass, although no further extravasation. Catheter angiography also confirmed this situation and, having already placed coils to the origin of the ICA, a balloon occlusion of the common carotid artery was necessary to ensure permanent closure of the ruptured segment. This inevitably closed the external carotid artery also. The procedure performed to re-occlude the vessel with a detachable balloon placed proximally is shown in figure 3A. Final contralateral ICA contrast injection demonstrated good cross-flow to the left hemisphere [figure 3B]. This reassured the interventional radiologists that collaterals would be supporting the entire cranial circulation.

Commentary: pseudo-aneurysm

A pseudoaneurysm occurs when there is a breach to the vessel wall, such that blood leaks through the wall but is contained by the adventitia or surrounding perivascular soft tissue [21]. This finding distinguishes it from a true aneurysm, in which the arterial wall is intact but expanded [22-23].

Presentation

Pseudoaneurysms of the neck arteries are rare in the paediatric age group – few reports are found in the literature [24-31]. Children with carotid artery pseudoaneurysms can present with a range of complaints, including a pulsatile neck mass [32] or thromboembolic episodes
[26]. A cervical mass can compress the upper airways leading to dyspnoea [33-34] or nerves leading to focal palsies [31], dysphagia or Horner’s syndrome [4].

Carotid artery (pseudo)aneurysms carry a risk of rupture (known as carotid blowout syndrome) and bleeding, which can be further contained by the neck tissues or rarely into the oropharyngeal tract [24, 35-36]. In the rare event of carotid artery blowout, bleeding can be fatal unless immediate treatment is instigated.

**Aetiology**

Pseudoaneurysms of the carotid artery in children are usually the result of blunt or penetrating trauma [23], infection or vasculitis/connective tissue disorders [24-26]. This child’s carotid artery rupture was initially suspected to be secondary to an invasive, infective lymphadenitis (given the antecedent history of lymphadenitis) but a repeat ultrasound of the neck at the tertiary centre did not reveal any enlarged or necrotic lymph nodes. Retrospective review of his initial ultrasound (when he presented with lymphadenitis) did not reveal any evidence of arterial abnormality. There was never any positive microbiology isolated, though a naso-pharyngeal aspirate was positive for adenovirus. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the cardiovascular system did not reveal any evidence of large vessel vasculitis and the coronary arteries looked normal. No clear pathogenic DNA connective tissue disorder variants were detected and a skin biopsy showed normal collagen. A full haematology work-up was also normal. This child’s ICA pseudoaneurysm was most likely to be idiopathic, although the treating team still suspect an inflammatory contributing component.

**Investigations**

The diagnosis of pseudoaneurysms can be made with doppler ultrasonography (US), CT Angiography (CTA), MRI and catheter angiography [24]. A pseudoaneurysm has a range of
ultrasound appearances dependent upon the state of thrombosis within it. If there is extraluminal flow within the sac, the diagnosis can be easily made on colour doppler flow imaging. However, if the sac is occluded with variably echogenic thrombotic material, confusion with other neck masses is possible. Although doppler US can confirm a mass to be of vascular origin and allow blood-flow assessment [37], CTA is the preferred modality since it provides information about the structure and status of surrounding vessels (including intracranial circulation) [31]. MRI and MR angiography may add value by helping to visualise both the pseudoaneurysm and the surrounding tissue and also evaluate the distal organ (i.e. the brain) [4]. Digital subtraction catheter angiography will define the anatomy of the pseudoaneurysm and importantly assess for collateral circulation [25, 32] and can be combined with endovascular treatment, as in our case.

Management of pseudoaneurysm

The best treatment modality for pseudoaneurysm will depend on the morphology of the pseudoaneurysm, its location, the age of the patient, physician preference, available resources, and, most importantly, the status of collateral circulation to brain [10].

Conservative management with close long-term follow-up should be reserved for small, stable pseudoaneurysms [35]; discussions should be had in each individual case to determine whether an anti-thrombotic agent should be considered. Invasive management options include endovascular repair [38] – constructive with covered stenting favourable in the absence of infection or deconstructive by occluding the damaged vessel segment, if felt to be adequate collaterals. Alternatively, surgical repair can be ligation of the carotid artery with or without bypass procedure and/or arterial reconstruction [24, 30, 34, 36]. Perioperative stroke and cranial nerve injuries are recognised serious complications from invasive carotid artery repair [24, 39]. In our case, emergency carotid sacrifice was felt to be the only viable option.
in such an extreme situation in a small child. Parent vessel sacrifice is often preferred in paediatric patients, due to generally reliable collateralisation of distal vascular territories and also small vessel size, often considered too small to safely deliver conventional stents and with additional requirement of antiplatelet therapy in the setting of haemorrhage. Surgical arterial bypass is challenging particularly in haemodynamically unstable patients.

**Case part 4: progress on intensive care and in the community**

Following the child’s second procedure in the angiography suite, he went to intensive care where he spent twenty days in total. He was paralysed, sedated and required inotropic support and further blood products. He was intubated and ventilated for twelve days and cooled therapeutically for six days.

Whilst recovering in intensive care, the child underwent decompressive hemi-craniootomy (with bolt insertion) for management of cerebral oedema and midline shift - to prevent herniation [figure 2C].

Following extubation, the child had minimal right sided motor function. He received intensive input from multiple therapy teams including physiotherapy, speech and language and occupational therapy. Twelve months after the acute event, the child has shown significant improvement in his right sided function with less right sided arm neglect. He is able to lift his right hand but cannot use his fingers yet. He has started to take small unsteady steps with support, and a few steps unsupported. There is a left-hand preference for feeding, scribbling and playing. He demonstrates good comprehension and has passed his audiology and vision checks. The speech and language team believe that he is making good progress with his speech, although perhaps not as rapidly as a ‘typically’ developing child. He has approximately twenty words in total and points to indicate his needs. He is sociable and interactive.
This child also suffered from very poor sleep in the period following his intensive care admission and required melatonin. The family were also referred to a local psychologist to provide post-traumatic support.

Commentary: childhood stroke and rehabilitation

Mechanism of left-sided infarct

There are multiple potential mechanisms underlying this child’s stroke. These include an embolus from the carotid pseudoaneurysm [40-41] or a combination of the severe hypotension and impaired flow in the left ICA during the haemorrhage and resuscitation period. It is unclear the extent to which endovascular occlusion contributed to the extent of the infarction, possibly relatively little, but it is clear that without adequate early control of active extravasation from the carotid blow-out, the situation was not survivable.

Impact of childhood stroke

A stroke during childhood disrupts the brain’s development and affects emerging neural networks. The clinical sequelae of paediatric stroke is highly variable and is influenced by many factors, such as the characteristics of the lesion, the child’s age, developmental level and cognitive abilities. Long term neurological impairment, including motor, cognitive and language deficits, have been reported in 50 to 60 per cent of children after childhood stroke [42-43]. Childhood stroke can cause impairment in already established skills and disrupt the development of emerging skills. The spectrum of difficulties experienced after either an ischaemic or haemorrhagic stroke is broad, with reported deficits in all domains of the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) framework [44].

The psychosocial impact of stroke on children has also been recognised; predictors of poor outcome include older age at onset, acute neurological impairment, pre-stroke social
problems and poorer parental mental health status [45]. This suggests that support for whole
families, as was offered in our case, may improve the child's long-term outcome. The Stroke
Association have published a very useful factsheet on Childhood Stroke [46], which explains
the causes, treatment, and impact strokes can have on children and family. The factsheet also
lists other sources of help and support, such as the Stroke Association and the Children’s
Brain Injury Trust. Intact psychosocial function is critical to many aspects of long-term
adjustment including mental health, quality of life, academic progress, employment and
functioning within the community [45].

Rehabilitation

A multi-disciplinary rehabilitation team (MDT) helps to ensure best possible neuro-motor
recovery after a stroke in children [47]. The rehabilitation must be adapted to the child, his or
her age, and the age at which the stroke occurred. The recently published RCPCH Childhood
Stroke Guideline (2017) [48] makes evidence-based recommendations on planning discharge
and rehabilitation after stroke. An assessment of a child’s functions should be made within 72
hours of the stroke (or as soon as the child is medically stable) [49]. Early liaison with
community-based MDT members (medical, nursing and allied health professionals including
education staff, occupational therapists, physiotherapists, orthoptists, psychologists, speech
and language therapists) is encouraged, to start planning discharge and rehabilitation.
Baseline assessments should be undertaken before initiating any intervention. There is a lack
of strong evidence to guide the optimal rehabilitation approach and long-term care of these
children. An individualised approach is therefore indicated and priorities/needs may change
as a child progresses through life [48-49].

Evidence from adult stroke suggests that intensive neuro-rehabilitation improves the rate of
recovery and outcome within the first six months after stroke [50-51] but the optimal dosage
and timing of specific therapies is an emerging area of research. Chen et al. [42] found that in a mixed population of children with acquired brain injury who were admitted for rehabilitation, larger improvements in self-care, mobility and cognition were found in those who started at lower baselines and received more occupational therapy, physical therapy and speech and language therapy. Although there are defined targets for the amount of time that should be spent on rehabilitation (per day) in adults, in children, tolerance varies according to various factors such as developmental age, fatigue and behaviour [48]. Motor interventions should be focussed on functional goals and time since stroke should not be a barrier for the consideration of intensive training [48].

Effect on staff morale

The entire treating (resuscitation) team were informed of the patient’s outcome by the team leader. This was felt to have a positive effect on staff morale, especially considering the gravity of the situation. The parents have since written a blog about their journey, which can be found at: https://monkey-on-the-road.com/.

Conclusion

The unusual presentation of carotid artery pseudo-aneurysm should serve to expand the differential diagnosis for the paediatric clinician. Although carotid artery pseudoaneurysm is an uncommon pathology in the paediatric population, it is essential for the paediatric clinician to maintain a high index of suspicion, both in the presence and absence of trauma. Paediatric clinicians should familiarise themselves with their local major haemorrhage protocol, ensuring that paediatric specific guidance is in place. Securing the airway and maintaining perfusion are key aspects of management of a child with haemorrhage who has become haemodynamically unstable. We would also advocate for being cautious in making decisions to cease resuscitation based purely on numbers: this child survived despite 16 minutes of
asystolic arrest and 62 minutes of having an ‘unrecordable’ pH. His recovery is in keeping with his neuroimaging at the time of his initial presentation. It is important to be mindful of the psychological impact that witnessing haemorrhagic induced cardiac arrest can have on parents and staff, and to be aware of the support services that are available. We hope that this article will facilitate a better understanding of this topic and aid physicians in early recognition and acute and long-term multi-disciplinary management of affected children and their parents.

**Multiple choice questions**

The most common aetiology of neck lumps in children are:

A: congenital and infectious
B: malignancy
C: vascular abnormalities
D: trauma

Answer: A

In an unstable child suffering from major haemorrhage, the first priority is:

A: to stop the bleeding
B: to secure the cervical spine and airway
C: to obtain IV access and volume resuscitate
D: to take a thorough history and examine the child

Answer B

Stroke in childhood can impact:

A: motor function only
B: motor, cognitive and language development
C: none of the above
D: language development only

Answer B

Pseudoaneurysms in children are most commonly caused by:

A: trauma, infection or vasculitis/connective tissue disorders
B: malignancy
C: congenital abnormalities
D: iatrogenic
Answer A
References


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Figure legends

**Figure 1:** Angiography of left carotid artery showing a rupture of the left cervical carotid artery (A) with active extravasation of contrast (arrow) and (B) with stasis post emergency coil embolisation.

**Figure 2:** (A) Coronal reconstruction of CT angiogram demonstrating perfusion of the cervical internal carotid artery through the coil mass (white arrow) (B) CT study showing progress to complete left middle cerebral artery territory infarction requiring decompressive floating craniotomy (C).

**Figure 3:** Repeat embolisation of left internal carotid artery with detachable balloon (A - black arrow) and frontal project of left vertebral contrast injection showing excellent filling of the left middle cerebral artery territory through large posterior communicating artery after left internal carotid artery sacrifice (B – black arrows).
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108x60mm (300 x 300 DPI)
Repeat embolisation of left internal carotid artery with detachable balloon (A - black arrow) and frontal projection of left vertebral contrast injection showing excellent filling of the left middle cerebral artery territory through large posterior communicating artery after left internal carotid artery sacrifice (B – black arrows).
Assessment of a child presenting in shock secondary to haemorrhage

[C-Spine] Airway, Breathing, Circulation...

Signs suggesting compromise of Circulation: dyspnoea, altered conscious level, hypotension, increased capillary refill time, reduced urine output, lactic acidosis.

Note of caution: Massive blood loss can be difficult to quantify and paediatric patients can maintain their blood pressure even after loss of 25-40% of blood volume [16].

Management of major haemorrhage

Overall aim: To restore circulating blood volume, to give blood products in order to maintain haemostasis and to obtain definitive haemostasis [16].

If blood products are not immediately available, consider giving warmed crystalloid.

Note of caution: in the paediatric trauma setting, increased crystalloid volume replacement has been associate with increased transfusion requirements, coagulopathy (prolonged prothrombin times), and a tendency towards increased mortality and multi-organ failure rates [17].

Blood product administration

- Transfuse packed red cells (PRC) in balance with other blood products e.g. fresh frozen plasma (FFP), platelets, coagulation factors, fibriogen and anti-fibrinolytics [16]

- The optimal product ratio is not clear but many adult transfusion protocols suggest a PRC:FFP:platelet ratio of 1:1:1.

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Tranexamic acid

Inhibits fibrinolysis and is often used to reduce the amount of bleeding in at-risk surgeries. It is suggested that administration of tranexamic acid within 3h of paediatric trauma is likely to be beneficial [19].

Complications of massive transfusion

- Transfusion reaction,
- Immunological complications,
- Metabolic problems
- Circulatory overload,

Therapeutic targets after massive transfusion (once bleeding is controlled & volume restored): Hb 80g/L, fibrinogen >1g/L, PT ratio <1.5, platelet >75x10^9/L [16].