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# Study on Dimensions of Nasal Columella to Aid Aesthetic Rhinoplasty

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## Abstract

**Aims:** Thorough knowledge of an Indian nose is vital for performing aesthetic Rhinoplasty. Hence the present study was taken up with the aim to determine dimensions of nasal columella and columellar index of Tamil ethnic group; and also to statistically analyse gender wise difference in findings

**Settings and Design:** The present cross-sectional study, approved by the Institutional Ethics Committee, was done on Tamil speaking medical students of Velammal Medical College, Madurai, Tamil Nadu.

**Methods & Material:** Of total 142 medical student population, 106 Tamil speaking medical students participated. Consenting Tamil speaking students were included. Individuals with noticeable facial disfigurement and with history of previous facial surgery were excluded.

**Statistical Analysis used:** Unpaired t test

**Results:** The present study reports mean values for nasal columella width, length and index as 6.63mm, 13.8mm, and 48.6 for males; 5.61mm, 13.53mm and 41.9 for females; and 6.84mm, 13.65mm and 45 for the whole group.

**Conclusion:** The present study infers that nasal columella width greater than 5.9 mm belongs to male, and lesser than 5.9 mm belongs to a female; and nasal columella index is greater than 48 in males, and lesser than 45 in females. Nasal columella length findings were inconclusive.

**Keywords:** Otolaryngology; Columellar Length; Columellar Width; Columellar Index; Aesthetic Rhinoplasty.

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## Introduction

For aesthetic rhinoplasty, nasal columella is a major component. The columella has anterior lobular portion, the intermediate (or narrower) portion, and the basal (or wider) portion. The columella, ala, and lobule have now been included as an aesthetic complex for evaluation; and their interrelation may affect any nasal tip surgery, a fact that should be considered while planning surgery in that region. Thorough knowledge of an Indian nose is vital for performing aesthetic Rhinoplasty. Hence the present study was taken up with the aim to determine dimensions of nasal columella and columellar index of Tamil ethnic group; and also to

statistically analyse gender wise difference in findings.

Columella is oriented vertically and is primarily responsible for nostril length and nasal tip projection and determines nasal tip size, shape, and nostril configuration. Hence, it is important to understand that individual, racial and ethnic variations within the structural components of the nasal tip are bound to exist. In general, the nose can be described as being platyrrhine (African), mesorrhine (Asian), or leptorrhine (Caucasian). The African and Asian noses do share many common features and can be described as less projected with a shorter columella. A common finding with bilateral cleft lip nose is underprojection and a short columella, wherein,

V-Y advancement technique incision allows the surgeon to ex-pose and augment the nasal tip structures by lengthening the columella [1,2].

## Material & Method

The present cross-sectional study was conducted during the months of January to April 2017. The study was approved by Institutional Ethics Committee and was ethically conducted in accordance with Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was taken from the participants before data collection. 106 (49 males and 57 females) Tamil speaking medical students, 19-21 years of age, participated in the study. Consenting Tamil speaking students were included. Individuals with noticeable facial disfigurement and with history of previous facial surgery were excluded. Sample size was calculated using Sample Size Calculator presented as a public service of Creative Research Systems: Survey software, 'The Survey System'. Sample size was 106 (Confidence Level at 95%, and Confidence Interval of 5) of total 142 students (population).

Participants were positioned as described by Farkas *et al.* [3]. Columellar measurements were taken manually using *Sliding Vernier calliper*. The

Parameters assessed were, Columellar width (CW), Columellar length (CL), and Columellar index (CI). Columella Width was measured at the narrowest point at subnasale and Columellar Length was measured from sub nasale to nasal tip [4]. Columellar index (CI) was calculated using formula  $CI = CW / CL \times 100$ . Statistical evaluation was done using *unpaired t test*. Statistical significance was determined at  $p < 0.05$ .

## Results

Columellar findings were tabulated in a Master-Chart. Statistical values namely, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Standard Error of Mean (SEM), and 95% Confidence interval ( $CI_{.95}$ ) of the difference in mean of male (m) and female (f) participants were estimated using unpaired t test. Intermediate values in calculation were t value, degrees of freedom (df), and standard error of difference (SED). Gender wise differences were significant at  $p < 0.05$  (*with unpaired t test*) in all measured parameters. Table 1 indicates Statistical findings for columellar measurements in males, females and total participants and Table 2 indicates Statistical findings (*with unpaired t test*) on gender wise differences in analysed parameters.

**Table 1:** Statistical findings for columellar measurements

N=106		CW	CL	CI
Male Participants (n = 49)	Mean	6.63 mm	13.8 mm	48.6
	SD	0.73	1.79	6.23
	SEM	0.1	0.26	0.89
Female Participants (n = 57)	Mean	5.61 mm	13.53 mm	41.9
	SD	1.45	3.12	8.18
	SEM	0.19	0.41	1.08
All Participants (n = 106)	Mean	6.84 mm	13.65 mm	45
	SD	1.27	2.59	8.04
	SEM	0.12	0.25	0.78

CW-Columellar width, CL- Columellar length, CI- Columellar index, SD-Standard Deviation, SEM-Standard Error of Mean

**Table 2:** Statistical findings on gender wise differences in analysed parameters

	$CI_{.95}$	t value	DF	SED	p value	Statistical Inference
CW	0.57 to 1.47	4.4607	104	0.228	Less than 0.0001	extremely significant
CL	0.73 to 1.27	0.5334	104	0.505	0.5949	Not Significant
CI	3.8 to 9.5	4.6729	104	1.431	Less than 0.0001	extremely significant

CW-Columellar width, CL- Columellar length, CI- Columellar index, M - Mean, SD - Standard Deviation, SEM - Standard Error of Mean,  $CI_{.95}$ -95% Confidence interval of the difference in mean of male (m) and female (f) participants, SED - Standard Error of Difference

## Discussion

There haven't been studies of similar kind previously. Cho *et al.* reported columellar findings in infants which cannot be compared with the present study [5]. Farkas *et al.* and HeZ *et al.* reported smaller columella in Asians to that of Caucasians [6,7]. Poor development of medial and lateral crura could be the reason for short and narrow columella in Asian populations. Columella strut being one of the commonly performed procedures in Asian rhinoplasty justifies the aforementioned hypothesis [4].

Columellar morphology and orientation must be considered when deciding appropriate surgical procedure for tip refinement and nostril shape augmentation. In rhino-plasty operation, aesthetics and function are objectives; and anatomy determines the operative technique. Changes in columella are performed to increase or decrease nasal tip projection. Columella can be viewed as the center pole of a tent, wherein, height alterations of the center pole results in an increase or decrease in nasal tip projection. Changes in projection, in turn affects nostril shape and orientation [8,9]. Nasal tip and the nostril shape are complex anatomical structures consisting of cartilaginous framework, skin and soft tissue. When preparing for rhinoplasty operations, it is important to consider ethnic and individual variations in the nasal tip, nostril shape, and internal structure. By categorizing nasal tip into its respective subunits, the rhinoplasty surgeon can then formulate a systematic and pragmatic approach to the nasal base, lateral wall, and columella. Altering or augmenting one or all of these is bound to affect nasal tip, shape and orientation of the nostril [1,2].

In Rhinoplasty, post-operative complications result from nasal healing that causes changes in nasal morphology and function [9,10]. The surgeon should anticipate these healing forces and take into account support mechanisms of the nasal tip when planning an optimal approach for the surgery [11].

## Conclusion

The present study infers that nasal columella width greater than 5.9 mm belongs to male, and lesser than 5.9 mm belongs to a female; and nasal columella index is greater than 48 in males, and lesser than 45 in females. Nasal columella length findings were inconclusive. The present study results will help surgeons avoid complications by anticipating healing forces and take into account support

mechanisms of the nasal tip when planning an optimal approach for aesthetic nasal surgeries. The authors of the present study believe that knowledge of columellar morphology of a particular gender, geographical area and ethnic group is important for the surgeon to plan an approach for aesthetic nasal surgeries.

### Key message

Knowledge of Nasal Columellar morphology of a particular gender, geographical area and ethnic group is important for the surgeon to plan an approach for aesthetic nasal surgeries.

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## A Rare Case of Co-Existence of Second Branchial Fistula and Thyroglossal Cyst

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### Abstract

Thyroglossal duct are the most common congenital neck masses followed by branchial cleft anomalies. Thyroglossal duct cysts are 3 times more common than branchial cleft anomalies. It is extremely rare to find the coexistence of the above two anomalies in the same individual which is presented in the case report.

The purpose of this article is to report the simultaneous rare coexistence of 2 congenital cervical anomalies and describe its clinical features and management of such anomalies.

**Keywords:** Simultaneous Branchial Fistula; Thyroglossal Cyst.

### Introduction

Congenital masses of head and neck are one of the commonest swellings in the neck in children. Thyroglossal duct cysts and then branchial cleft anomalies are the most common neck masses. A concurrent presentation of these 2 anomalies has been described in only 2 cases and is described in this case report.

### Case Details

A 5 year old male child was brought to ENT OPD by his parents with chief complaints of discharging sinus in the lower part of the neck since past 2 months. Apparently 2 months ago his parents noticed whitish glue like secretions of scanty quantity spontaneously coming from a small punctum in the neck. There was no history of any pain or swelling in the neck. No history of any fever. No history of difficulty in breathing/ swallowing. No history of any painful neck movements. No history

any congenital abnormalities. No significant antenatal or postnatal history.

On examination a pinhole sized opening (Figure 1) was seen on the right side of the neck and was located about 1cm away from the midline and was about 1cm above the medial end right clavicle ant aspect of Rt sternocleidomastoid. Skin around the opening appeared normal with no swelling or redness around it. No discharge was expressed on applying pressure over the tract. Another small 5mm by 1cm suprahyoid cystic swelling was also seen. There was no cervical lymphadenopathy. Examination of Ear, nose and throat was normal.

USG neck - showed a well defined cystic lesion of (6.4 x 6.3 x 4.9mm) seen in suprahyoid region in the midline which moved with deglutition and protrusion of tongue suggestive of infected thyroglossal cyst. MRI neck (Figure 2) T2 Hyperintense cystic lesion noted at the level of foramen caecum. In posterior third of tongue measuring 7.2 x 4mm in size. T1, T2 images showed hypointense tract with external opening just above sternal end of the right clavicle and internally reaching upto the floor of mouth with indistinct

extent which was suggestive of thyroglossal cyst and branchial fistula right side of neck. The final diagnosis was thyroglossal cyst coexisting with branchial fistula on right side of the neck. Patient was taken for Sistrunk's operation with Branchial fistula excision (Figure 3) under GA. Sistrunk's operation was performed during which cystic swelling identified in suprahyoid region along with the tract. Cyst along with the tract dissected upto tongue base and removed.

For branchial fistula, the mouth of the sinus encompassed in the incision with a transverse elliptical incision. Methylene blue dye injected into the fistula tract and it was seen to be extending medially and superiorly. A second incision like a stepladder incision was given 2cm below angle of mandible, rail roading of the tract done. The tract was seen going lateral to the posterior belly of digastric into the tonsillar fossa where it was dissected and ligated.

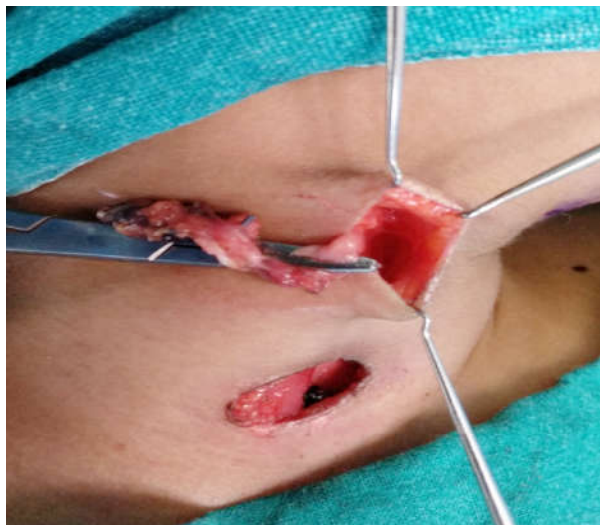


Fig. 1: Dissection of branchial fistula



Fig. 2: Dissection of thyroglossal cyst



Fig. 3: MRI axial image showing the thyroglossal cyst



Fig. 4: MRI image showing the tract of branchial fistula

## Discussion

Ninety percent of neck masses in children are benign of which 55 percent were congenital. Benign neck swellings may be nodal or cystic, lateral or central, inflammatory or congenital. The most common cystic structures are branchial cysts and thyroglossal cysts. These may present as infections or become infected.

During the migration of thyroid primordium to lie anterior to trachea, there is a connection between foramen cecum and thyroid gland which forms the thyroglossal duct. Occasionally, a portion of the thyroglossal duct may remain that forms an enclosed thyroglossal duct cyst or a thyroglossal fistula which has a communication with the surface of the neck.

Branchial abnormalities occur when there is disturbance in the maturation of the branchial apparatus during fetal development. Branchial anomalies account for 20% of all congenital masses in children [1]. During the 5<sup>th</sup> week of intrauterine life second branchial arch grows over the third and fourth branchial clefts which form a cervical sinus. Failure of the cervical sinus to close may therefore potentially communicate with the second branchial pouch (and therefore the tonsil fossa) Branchial fistulae usually present in childhood as a weeping defect along the anterior border of sternocleidomastoid, or occasionally as an acute infection.

About 75% of patients with thyroglossal duct anomalies are diagnosed before 30 years of age, and more than half of these are identified before age 10 years [2]. Patients present commonly with an asymptomatic, cystic neck mass in the midline near the hyoid bone. 66% of the location for the cystic mass is adjacent to the hyoid bone [3,4]. Although both these congenital anomalies occur individually, they are rarely seen coexisting in the same patient [4]. In our case both the anomalies were seen coexisting in the child.

Rarely a low-lying thyroglossal cyst may present as lateral cervical discharge without a palpable mass mimicking a second branchial cleft fistula which can be made out on imaging [5].

Ultrasound scanning is accurate, quick, non – invasive and cost-effective so it is the investigation of choice for diagnosing these above congenital anomalies. Further investigations like CT, MRI and radionuclide scanning should be undertaken to ensure that a normal thyroid gland is present and to know the extent of the cyst and fistula. Fistulae may be investigated with a sinogram.

#### *Pharyngoscopy:*

If needed can be done with careful examination of the tonsil fossa and piriform fossa should be undertaken prior to excision. In our case MRI was useful in confirming the diagnosis of both pathologies.

Surgical excision of the cysts and fistulas are the treatment of choice. Recurrence rates are significantly less after Sistrunk's operation than after simple cyst excision. Surgery should include excision of the hyoid and a cuff of tongue base muscle to prevent recurrence.

A second branchial fistula might require one or more further skin incisions to allow safe dissection to the carotid and extension and dissection upto the tonsil fossa opening.

#### **Conclusion**

Two congenital anomalies thyroglossal duct cyst and branchial cleft fistulae may coexist in a single patient. This case enlightens us that more than one anomaly can be seen in same patient simultaneously. This can be diagnosed by proper investigations and recurrence prevented by doing a proper planned surgery.

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## Abnormal Location of Natural Maxillary Sinus Ostium

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### Abstract

The anatomy of maxillary ostium is highly variable in size, shape and position. The endoscopic sinus surgeons should have detailed knowledge about variations of maxillary sinus opening in any endoscopic sinus surgeries as it is closely related to the orbital floor above, sphenopalatine artery posteriorly and nasolacrimal duct anteriorly.

We report a case of abnormal location of natural maxillary sinus ostium at extreme posterior tip of infundibulum, which was identified during functional endoscopic sinus surgery and managed successfully.

**Keywords:** Maxillary sinus Ostium; sphenopalatine artery.

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### Introduction

Middle meatal antrostomy (MMA) is one of the important steps during functional endoscopic sinus surgery (FESS). The final outcome of surgery is directly related to patency of the maxillary sinus ostia especially in cases of nasal polyp. Identification of maxillary ostium is necessary for performing MMA. Normally, natural ostium of the maxillary sinus drains into the inferior aspect of the infundibulum at a 45-degree angle, and it is found just below the orbital floor in the medial wall of the sinus. It usually lies halfway between the anterior and posterior walls of the sinus 4cms higher from hard palate [1]. Wigand (1994) stated it to be just superior to the midportion of insertion of inferior turbinate (supraturbinal). Kennedy *et al.* found it at the junction of anterior one third and posterior two third of middle turbinate[2]

Here we report a rare case of bilateral nasal polypoidosis with abnormal opening of principle maxillary sinus ostium in extreme posterior tip of ethmoidal infundibulum in leftostio-meatal complex. The principal maxillary sinus ostium in rightostio-

meatal complex was in thenormal anatomical position.

### Case Report

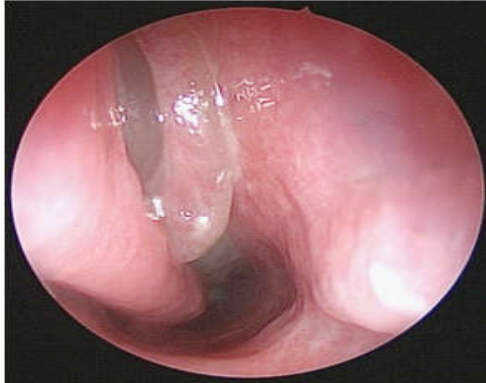
A 18yrs old boy presented in outpatient department with the chief complaints of bilateral nasal obstruction (left > right) since 6 months, bilateral mucoid nasal discharge, scanty, non-foul smelling and intermittent dull aching pain in the left side of nose. There was no history of epistaxis, itching in nose, excessive sneezing, disturbances of smell, headache.

On anterior rhinoscopy, there was mild deviation of nasal septum to right, and pale polypoidal tissue seen in right middle meatus, arising from right ostiomeatal complex, and on left side, pale polypoidal tissue seen filling the entire nasal cavity, soft in consistency, not bleeding on touch. Nasal patency was decreased on both sides. There was no paranasal sinus tenderness. On posterior rhinoscopy, polypoidal tissue was seen in bilateral posterior

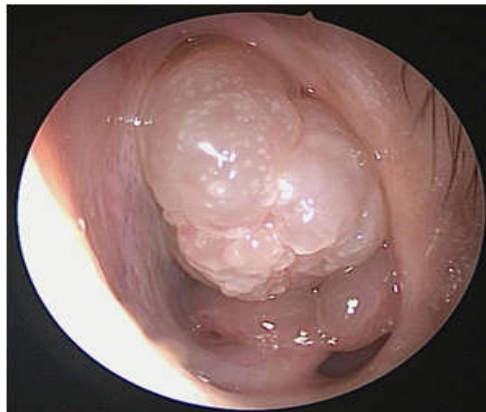


choanae. Anterior rhinoscopy and posterior rhinoscopy findings were confirmed by diagnostic nasal endoscopy (Figure 1 & 2)

Patient had no relief of symptoms with medical treatment for 6 months. A non-contrast computerised tomography (NCCT) of nose and paranasal sinuses was done which was suggestive of B/L panpolyposis. (Figure 3, 4 & 5).



**Fig. 1:** Endoscopic view of right nasal cavity showing polypoidal tissue in the right ostiomeatal complex and DNS to right



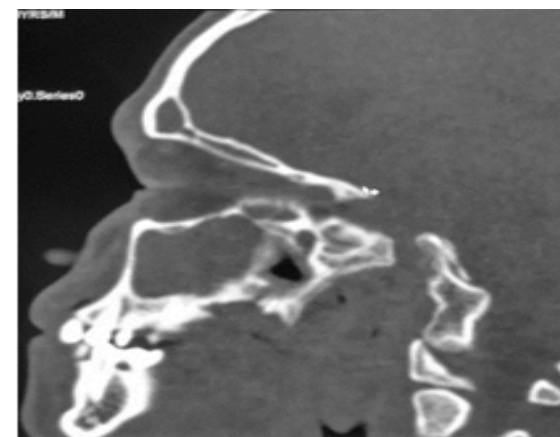
**Fig. 2:** Endoscopic view of left nasal cavity showing polypoidal tissue almost filling the entire nasal cavity



**Fig. 3:** NCCT nose and paranasal sinuses coronal view showing bilateral maxillary sinus, frontal sinus and anterior ethmoids haziness

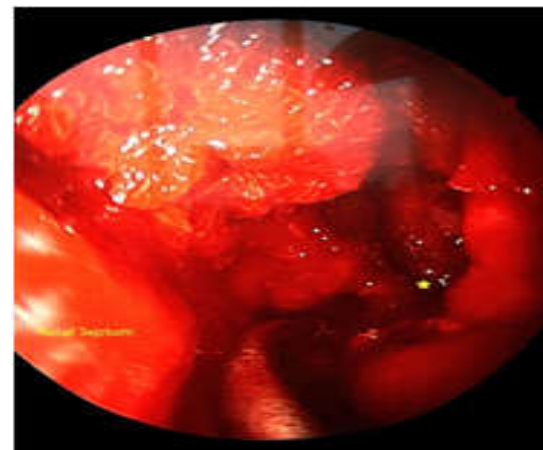


**Fig. 4:** NCCT nose and paranasal sinuses axial view showing bilateral maxillary sinus haziness

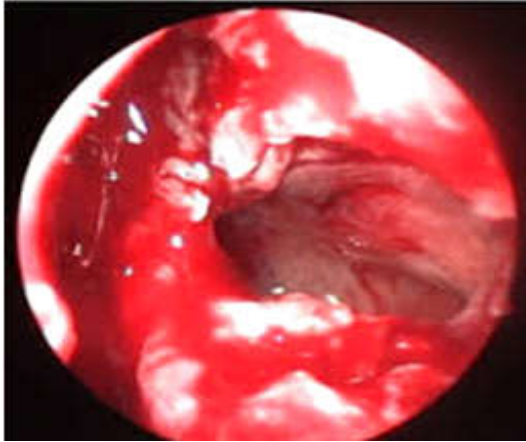


**Fig. 5:** NCCT nose and paranasal sinuses sagittal view showing maxillary sinus haziness

Patient was investigated and planned for FESS. During the FESS surgery, right side was uneventful. On left side, uncinectomy was performed and ethmoid bulla opened. The principle maxillary sinus ostium could not be identified in its normal location and was identified after rigorous effort, at extreme posterior tip of ethmoid infundibulum (Figure 6).



**Fig. 6:** Intra operative picture showing abnormal position of maxillary sinus opening



**Fig. 7:** Endoscopic picture showing abnormal position of maxillary sinus opening (3<sup>rd</sup> Post operative day)

MMA was performed which was followed by severe haemorrhage due to trauma to branch of sphenopalatine artery as the principle maxillary sinus ostium was located at posterior tip of ethmoid infundibulum. Haemostasis was attained using adrenaline packing and gel foam. Anterior ethmoidectomy, partial middle turbinate reduction and posterior ethmoidectomy was done, entire diseased polypoidal mucosa was removed. Conventional nasal packing was done with soframycin soaked ribbon gauze. Pack was removed after 48 hours, postoperative period was uneventful. (Figure 7) Patient was discharged on 3<sup>rd</sup> day of surgery and is under regular follow up.

## Discussion

The anatomy of maxillary ostium is highly variable in size, shape and position. The primary maxillary ostium may be found at any point along the course of the ethmoid infundibulum. Van Alyea reported the maxillary sinus ostia in the superior third of the infundibulum in 10%, the middle third in 25%, and the inferior third in 65% of cases [3]. Lang et al. (1982) divided ethmoidal infundibulum into four parts by drawing three lines at equal distances. Maxillary sinus ostium located in anterior division in 22% cases, second division in 28% cases, third division in 48% cases and posterior division in 2% cases [4]. Our case falls into the posterior division and hence was rare.

Locating the natural maxillary ostium is paramount to avoid false surgical ostium formation which can lead to mucociliary recirculation and failure of surgery [5]. Maxillary sinus ostium is clearly visible after performing uncinectomy. If maxillary

ostia is not visualised, palpate the lateral wall of nose using maxillary cannula. Cannula should be passed along the superior attachment of inferior turbinate keeping the direction of cannula tip antero inferiorly. While doing this, cannula usually slips into and engages into the natural maxillary ostium. 30°/ 70° endoscope is preferred to visualise the ostium [2].

In some cases of chronic rhinosinusitis, due to pathological inflammation, there will be closure of natural maxillary ostium [6] and accessory maxillary sinus ostium is seen in 30% of patients with chronic rhinosinusitis [7]. So, in cases where natural maxillary sinus ostium is not identified in normal position, accessory ostium needs to be ruled out. The rate of anatomical variations in nasal structures is reported to be between 64.9 and 80% [8].

Middle meatal antrostomy can be done in two ways. One way in posterior direction by resection of posterior fontanelle and another way is in antero-inferior direction by resection of anterior fontanelle. Sphenopalatine artery enters the lateral wall of nose through sphenopalatine foramen posterior to maxillary ostium. Excessive widening of ostium in posterior direction leads to injury to sphenopalatine artery or its branches. Especially in cases where the anatomical location of natural maxillary ostium is in posterior division of infundibulum, chances of injury to sphenopalatine artery or its branches are higher during MMA which happened in our case.

## Conclusion

Although maxillary sinus ostium location in posterior division is rare, its identification is important both preoperatively and intraoperatively, because during MMA in these cases, chances of injury to sphenopalatine artery are high which can lead to severe bleeding.

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## Interesting Case of an Atypical Aural Polyp

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### Abstract

*Objective:* The purpose of this study is to present a plethora of variations in the presentation of glomusjugulare and a review of current understanding of glomustumour. *Method:* A clinical case has been used to demonstrate the history and physical examination in diagnosing the various conditions which can present as a bleeding aural polyp. *Results:* A glomus tumour can present as an aural polyp mimicking squamosal otitis media. Great degree of clinical suspicion and awareness is needed in the diagnosis and management of this condition.

**Keywords:** Aural Polyp; Chronic suppurative Otitis Media; Middle Ear Mass; Glomusjugulare.

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### Introduction

Aural polyp can be a most common presenting feature of CSOM of both mucosal and squamosal type. In squamosal type it is known to cause erosion of vital structures like the facial nerve, inner ear and intra-cranial components developing in response to long standing inflammatory process which results in proliferation of granulation tissue with chronic inflammatory cells. It is usually solitary, polypoidal with reddish surface and often friable. Whereas in mucosal type it is pale, pinkish, non-friable, painless mass.

There is a significant association between cholesteatoma and aural polyp arising from attic or postero superior marginal tympanic defects. The incidence of cholesteatoma associated with aural polyp varies from 25 percent to 45 percent (Veitch et al., 1988; Milroy et al., 1989; Rhys Williams et al., 1989; Gliclick et al., 1993). Other causes that may lead to aural polyp are granulomatous diseases like tuberculosis, syphilis, fungal and protozoal infection.

Conditions that may present as an aural polyp through a tympanic membrane perforation are an

enlarging glomusjugulare tumour, middle ear adenoma and facial nerve neurinoma (Okabe et al., 1992).

### Case History

A 48 year old female patient presented with right ear discharge and reduced hearing since 1 year. She also complained of pain and fullness over the right ear since 1 month. Ear discharge was mucoid initially then became purulent, foul smelling and occasionally blood tinged since 2 months. Pain was gradual in onset diffuse dull aching over mastoid region.

There was no history of ringing sensation, giddiness/vertigo or nystagmus. She did not give any history of lower cranial nerve involvement like facial weakness, hoarseness of voice.

Endocrinal symptoms were absent. She took treatment from a local doctor with no relief and later was referred to our centre. On examination we found out a painless non pulsatile pale pink mass with mucoid discharge in the right ear which did not bleed

on touch and could be probed all around, tympanic Membrane could not be visualised Tuning fork tests showed Right sided moderate degree conductive hearing loss.

No abnormality was seen in Left ear clinically.

There was no nystagmus. On siegalization no blanching was seen over the mass and no signs of lower cranial nerve involvement.

Nose and Throat were clinically normal.

Routine haematological investigations were normal.

On Pure tone audiometry, right side showed moderate degree conductive hearing loss of 45 dB

X-ray mastoid schullers view showed bilaterally sclerosed mastoid.

Multi detector computed tomography (MDCT) done at another centre suggested Right Oto-Mastoiditis with Aural polyp

Suspecting a polyp Biopsy was done under local anaesthesia. However it was associated with moderate amount of bleeding, giving the first signs of possibility of a vascular mass.

24 hr urine VMA level was in the normal range (3-4 mg/day) However HPR report showed features suggestive of cholesteatoma rather than a paraganglioma.

High resolution computed tomography was done which showed a minimally enhancing soft tissue lesion measuring 1.4cm X .5 cm in right ear canal. Erosion of anterior wall of bony canal was noted measuring 5.0 mm. Opacification of middle air space was noted. Final impression was Right Otomastoiditis and Aural polyp.

Surgical excision of mass was planned.

Patient was taken under GA with oral intubation.

Postaural incision was taken.

Periosteum elevated

Meatotomy was done and pale greyish mass was visualised in EAC. Osteomeatal Flap was elevated. Posterior Bony Meatal wall was intact except posterosuperior and attic regions. Mass was seen completely occupying the middle ear and obliterating tympanic cavity. Mastoid was opened.

Sclerotic bone was encountered however no evidence of cholesteatoma, granulations tissue was seen. We delineated the extent of mass in all directions by curetting and dissection (Figure 1).

Soft tissue mass was dissected away from aditus ad antrum, attic & promontory with side knife and

cotton balls. Tumour was excised in toto. (Figure 2).

Malleus and Incus were absent.

Graft was placed and myringostapediopexy repair was done.

Bleeding was controlled with gelfoam and medicated ribbon gauze.

Hence a mass of 1.2 cm X 0.5 cm was removed in toto successfully (Figure 3). Blood loss was about 100 ml. Final Histopathological report showed capillaries blending with the glomus cells, suggesting a diagnosis of glomus tumour (Figure 4). Post-operative follow-up of the patient at 1 year has shown no recurrence.



Fig. 1: Soft tissue mass being dissected



Fig. 2: Tumour excised in toto



Fig. 3: Mass of 1.2cm \*0.5cm removed in toto

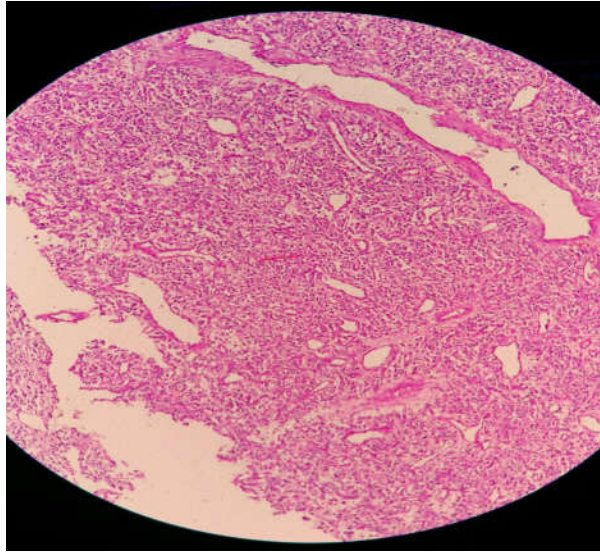


Fig. 4: Hpr shows capillaries blending with glomus cells

## Discussion

The description and term glomusjugularis is credited to Guild, who, in 1941 described existence of glomus body in the ear. Rosenwasser in 1945, was the first to attempt radical removal of a glomus-tumour [8].

Glomus tumour term has been used to refer to paraganglioma of head and neck region since a long time. They are a group of cells associated with vascular and neuronal adventitia found throughout the body. They originate from neural crest cells and are related to autonomic nervous system. When they arise near adventitia of jugular bulb they are termed glomus jugulare, along course of Jacobson nerve and involving promontory they are termed glomus tympanicum along the vagus nerve, glomus vagale. They may also be termed as paraganglioma along with the region they occur, for example tympanojugular-paraganglioma [1-4].

Glomus tumours are benign, hyper vascular-tumours with a prolonged insidious growth. They have an estimated incidence of one per 1.3 million population with 1-5% of cases turning out to be malignant. Glomus tumours of ear happen to be second most common neurotological tumour after acoustic neuromas [1-3].

They occur four to six times more commonly in females than in males, with a peak age of presentation after 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> decade of life. A left-sided preponderance is also reported [2-4]. They may be sporadic or familial. Familial cases appear at a younger age group [3].

Around 25%-35% of paragangliomas may be associated with recognized genetic defects, most of which are due to hereditary transmission.

Most common symptoms are conductive hearing loss, pulsatile tinnitus, otalgia, lower cranial nerve palsies [3-7]. Very rarely it may extend into ear canal and present as a polyp and can be associated with otorrhoea due to secondary infections as in our case [3]. It may be associated with Aquino's sign and Brown's sign. On examination, the hallmark of a jugulotympanicglomus tumour is a reddish-blue mass seen posterosuperiorly behind the tympanic membrane and is called the rising sun sign. None of these signs were elicited in our case.

Fisch classification and glasscock and Jackson classification are popular available classifications. According to glasscock-Jackson classification our case was type 4 tumour i.e. tumour spreading into external auditory canal [1,9].

Histologically the glomus tumour may consist of type I or chief cells with cytoplasmic granules containing catecholamine's and type II or Schwann like satellite cells. They are arranged in classic zellballen (cellball) configuration consisting of chief cells surrounded by fibrovascular stroma with thin walled capillaries and sustentacular cells. Sometimes the mass may be covered with squamous epithelium giving false impression of cholesteatoma as it happened in our case [3,10].

Secretion of catecholamine's (functional tumours) leading to endocrinal symptoms may occur in 1%-3% of cases.

HRCT is very valuable in diagnosis showing the location, extent or bony erosions of jugulotympanicglomustumours. MRI is better for delineating the tumor edges. However both may not reveal the nature of mass. Angiography can help in knowing the feeding vessel of the tumour [3,10]. Due to financial constraints MRI and angiography could not be done in this patient.

Several middle ear pathologies can extend into external auditory canal e.g., cholesteatomas, glomus tumours, meningioma, squamous cell carcinoma, tuberculosis, mucosal adenoma, encephalocele etc. [10]. They should be included in the differential diagnosis of polyps in the EAC. Although these lesions have very rare occurrence and many surgeons believe them to be anecdotal. Our case study reveals an aural polyp with otitis media like presenting features turning out to be a glomus tumour in final histopathological diagnosis. This is alarming as an unsuspecting clinician may misdiagnose the case.

HRCT is very commonly used in the workup of the patients but it gives very few clues about the nature of mass. MRI is not routinely used in otitis media patients although it may help in diagnosis of glomus tumour more effectively. Clinical presentation and examination findings are main pointers in the diagnosis of cholesteatomatous otitis media. They may be commonly associated with polyp growth. However the results of our present study reveals that a glomus tumour may masquerade as an aural polyp with otitis media. High degree of clinical suspicion and awareness is needed for appropriate management of such cases [8-10].

### Conclusion

Aural polyp is one of the common presentation in otologic disease. Whenever we come across an atypical aural polyp, all the various conditions should be considered with high degree of suspicion so as not to miss the diagnosis.

Tympanic jugular glomus tumours can present as an aural polyp with otitis media. HRCT may not be able to generate enough evidence in diagnosing them, and biopsy can be hazardous. Great degree of clinical suspicion and awareness is needed for appropriate management and diagnosis of these cases.

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