

It may be **congenital** or **acquired** - with the congenital condition observed in some forms of severe laryngomalacia, especially those with the severe omega shaped supra glottis, which if not carefully surgically treated, can be made worse. As an acquired condition there are several causes as mentioned above, but the end result is still a pathological narrowing of the supraglottic airway.

In terms of time of onset, it may be classified as **acute** or **chronic**, with the former resulting from acute inflammatory events, whilst the latter results from insidious scarring over time.

Acute supraglottic stenosis refers mainly to epiglottitis or supraglottitis secondary to *Haemophilus influenzae* type B (**Figure 2**). It can also occur with caustic or inhaled burn injury. It is managed usually with operative intervention by establishing an artificial airway by endotracheal intubation or via a tracheostomy.



Figure 2. Epiglottitis associated with *Haemophilus influenzae* infection.

It is much less common since the introduction of the *Haemophilus influenzae* type B vaccine, with the prevalence dropping from 40-100 per 100,000 children down to less than 1 per 100,000 in the USA. In Australia, the vaccine was introduced into the routine schedule in 1993, and in 1992, the numbers recorded was 549 cases, a mortality rate of 10-15 cases in children < 6 years old. In 1994, the recorded cases dropped to 39 cases (www.ncirs.edu.au/immunisation/fact-sheets/hib-fact-sheet.pdf). Though there is obvious herd immunity, it is still seen amongst the older patient group (age 40-45 years) who did not receive the vaccination with a prevalence rate 2.5 times the current child rate, and can be responsible for significant morbidity and mortality in this age group. The treatment is with systemic antibiotics and consideration of early intubation if there is severe swelling of the arytenoid and aryepiglottic folds. Once the inflammation is on the improve with a satisfactory air leak, trial decannulation may be considered.

Chronic supraglottic stenosis comes in several forms, and my own experience of twelve paediatric cases and three adult cases, has taught me the need to understand the underlying cause before one is able to treat them appropriately.

Supraglottic stenosis can be associated with laryngotracheal stenosis with multi-level airway lesions involving the glottis, subglottis and the trachea (**Figure 3**). As highlighted by the experience from the Great Ormond Street Hospital for Sick Children ^{2,3}, the use of an internal stent such as a Montgomery tube or an endotracheal tube has been the preferred modality. However, the resulting opening is often one which leaves the internal lumen relatively scarred, a poorer voice outcome, and potentially an airway that still may not generate a decent cough.



Figure 3. Supraglottic stenosis associated with multilevel laryngotracheal stenosis.

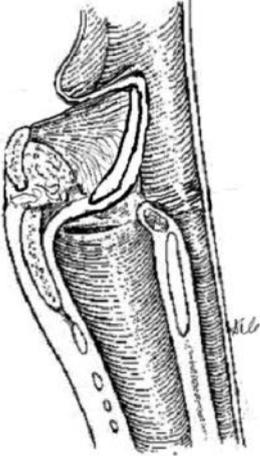


Figure 4. Supraglottic stenosis/collapse from long term tracheostomy and disuse dysfunction of the supraglottis.



Figure 5. Epiglottic repositioning manoeuvre.

an improved airway in an anteroposterior direction, without affecting the lateral aspects of the supra glottis.

The key to this “epiglottic repositioning manoeuvre” is to debulk the tissue anterior to the epiglottis, in the pre-epiglottic space. I tend to detach the epiglottis at the petiole by initially marking the point with a needle, with a second surgeon guiding me endoscopically. This is followed by the use of a scalpel to divide at the epiglottic cartilage until I feel a release of the epiglottis from the petiole (**Figure 5**). We advise placement of at least two permanent sutures between the epiglottic cartilage, a hyaline cartilage that does not ossify, and the thyroid cartilage or hyoid bone. I complete the procedure by leaving a drain, in case of surgical emphysema or bleeding.

Supraglottic stenosis is a feared complication caused by supraglottic surgery for laryngomalacia or recurrent respiratory papillomatosis ⁷. It can also occur with caustic ingestion, epidermolysis bullosa ⁸ (**Figure 6**), road accident trauma ⁹.

The decisions made in this scenario highlights the need to be aware of this complication before surgery is undertaken, during the surgical procedure and at times of failed supraglottoplasty surgery.

The constrictive forces that narrow the supra glottis is usually where mucosal injury has occurred. It highlights a significant factor in mucosal healing. There are inherent genetic and loco regional factors in the mucosa of individuals that is sometimes difficult to ascertain, which determine whether a patient

Supraglottic stenosis/collapse was originally described by Walner and Holinger⁴ (**Figure 4**). It can be difficult to detect and may be a cause of failed decannulation following tracheostomy. We described a procedure of re-positioning the epiglottis, first described by Alarcon and Rutter ⁵. By personal communication, we have used the same technique since 2005 in at least 10 cases to date, and published our initial results ⁶. It is important to realize the mechanism of action of the supraglottic stenosis/collapse, and the factors producing the condition. The surgical management offered



Figure 6. Supraglottic stenosis following surgery to larynx with epidermolysis bullosa.

develops significant scarring following injury. Even though the clinician may attribute the failure of management to the “excessive” degree of mucosal excision, it is inherently the child’s variable healing that determine the condition. In cases like these, it is important to utilise these factors to one’s understanding in the management of the condition, as will be discussed below.

Management

Supraglottic stenosis can be a life threatening issue, and it is important to establish if the severity of the condition, and its progression. In some cases, the degree of stenosis is critical, and either intubating the airway or providing an alternative airway, such as a tracheostomy, to provide a safe airway is required.

Supraglottic stenosis occurs when the forces that hold the airway open is insufficient for the forces closing the airway, at the supraglottic level. It needs to be diagnosed, and in cases of supraglottic stenosis/collapse, it is readily missed by the laryngoscopist who stents the airway with the laryngoscope while the patient is under general anaesthesia. I mention the need for “diagnosis directed laryngoscopy”. In the assessment, using a flexible bronchoscopy via the nasal passage in a patient spontaneously breathing in a supine position, the critically narrowed area is examined, whether it be at the petiole, or higher up in the supra glottis. Occasionally, a form of laryngomalacia is discovered, as seen in arytenoid prolapse following cricotracheal resection.

Scar bands may need to be released, and the supraglottis needs to function. Dis-use dysfunction of the supra glottis is seen in those tracheotomised, when airway is bypassing the glottis and supraglottis. The laryngeal muscles that provide tension that open the supraglottis are absent. The use of a stenting device is important in the initial reconstruction, whether it be a Montgomery stent, an endotracheal tube or the newer laryngotracheal moulds championed by Phillippe Monnier. Once the stent is removed, the patient needs to return to normal laryngeal function as soon as possible, allowing the tissues and muscles that dilate the supra glottis to function during respiration, deglutition and cough. The sensory mucosa of the area needs to be protected from ongoing inflammation, and it is necessary to minimise gastrointestinal refluxate and other inflammatory factors from preventing satisfactory healing. It is also important to understand the role of intra-lesional or systemic steroids, anti-biotic and anti fungal therapies, and adjuvant therapies such as mitomycin C and cidofovir, which may help minimise the recurrence of the underlying fibrosis or infective agents.

When dealing with the supraglottis, it is important to make sure to minimise the inflammation. The inflamed larynx pre-operatively is more likely to lead to failed surgery ⁵, and the following factors are said to be important in patient selection.

They include:

- 1) infection of the airway with either methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*;
- 2) excessive use of high dose steroids - which can adversely affect healing;
- 3) co-morbidities such as prematurity, long term ventilation, gastrointestinal disease, feeding disorders, neurologic impairment;
- 4) eosinophilic oesophagitis - as confirm on pre-operative oesophageal biopsies;

- 5) hidden airway lesions such as a type one laryngeal cleft, bilateral or unilateral vocal fold motion impairment, severe obstructive sleep apnoea, posterior glottic stenosis.

Surgical techniques to avoid supraglottic stenosis

In addition to optimising the laryngeal tissues prior to surgery, the techniques available to the practising surgeon need to be individualised to the case in hand.

1) Practise gentle mucosal handling –

- a) When dealing with laryngomalacia and its various forms, it is becoming more apparent that the inflammation from using a CO₂ Laser can be unpredictable, making this tool less utilised for supraglottoplasty (**Figure 7**).
- b) There are also studies demonstrating the value of “unilateral” versus “bilateral” supraglottoplasty, confirming the long-term efficacy of the former procedure in managing severe laryngomalacia.

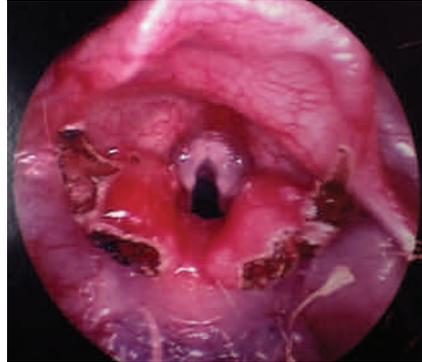


Figure 7. Laser surgery for laryngomalacia

- c) Using sharp instruments, gentle division of the short aryepiglottic folds, or limited excision of the prolapsing supra-arytenoid tissues are important lessons we provide our colleagues and ourselves.
- d) Use of topical epinephrine or adrenaline to minimise bleeding, leaving sufficient mucosal coverage over excised areas and minimising exposed cartilage or perichondrium, hence minimising granulation formation

2) Change the vector of forces - The vector of forces involved in supraglottic stenosis may be also treated by:

- i) Using noninvasive CPAP therapy ⁷ - nasal CPAP is becoming a frequently used tool in major Children’s Hospital institution with an excellent temporising factor until the developing child’s airway is sufficiently enlarged;
- ii) Creating fibrotic scars that pull away the mucosa – as described by Zalzal ¹⁰ - Dividing the tissues external to the laryngeal introits may force the mucosa to evert outwards, using the natural scarring effects to maintain the laryngeal latency;
- iii) Balloon dilate, inject with intralesional steroids, or apply mitomycin C, an anti-fibroblastic agent, usually at doses of 0.4-0.5 mg/ml for a period of at least 4- 5 minutes, to achieve the effective dose to work for at least 30 days, to counteract the 18-21 days it takes for normal respiratory mucosa to re-epithelise;
- iv) Prolonged use of a Montgomery stent ^{2,3} has been useful in cases with generalised laryngotracheal stenosis, leaving a healed lumen above the vocal cords once the primary pathology is resolved
- v) Epiglottic repositioning manoeuvre ^{5,6} as described above.

Conclusions

It is imperative that the paediatric otolaryngologist who treats children with all forms of airway narrowing, whether it be laryngomalacia or airway trauma, understand the pathophysiology of this condition. It should not be feared, but so long as one is aware of this possibility, and the forces that produce this condition, one can avoid making things worse by ignoring the co-morbidities that allows the patient's own inherent mucosal healing from developing supraglottic stenosis. When one has to tackle this condition, it is important to change the vector of forces that produce the condition in the first place from recurring. Be aware, be conservative but tackle the condition in a firm manner with the understanding of the underlying cause.

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