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Bib 1-1044V2

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VALUE OF  
LAPAROSCOPY IN SURGURY



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Laparoscopy is a valuable diagnostic technique. It permits the definite diagnosis of many abdominal diseases in earlier stages, leading to elimination of many unnecessary laparotomies.

In the field of oncology, laparoscopy helps us in the selection of the operable cases. It facilitates the differentiation between primary and secondary tumours especially in liver carcinoma.

Also, laparoscopy has a good value in the diagnosis of unsettled cases of acute abdomen and the amount of damage in cases of abdominal trauma. In the gynaecological field, it is considered to be a good diagnostic tool in explanation of vague pain of pelvic origin.

In operable cases, laparoscopy will guide the surgeon to deal with the cause directly, decreasing the time, effort and post-operative morbidities.

Due to technical advancement the scope of laparoscopy has increased its capabilities. Many surgical procedures such as biopsy, division of adhesions and removal of a foreign body can be conducted through it. Coloured films and closed circuits television programs become available for laparoscopy which is used in the teaching fields.

this work will give us a look on the history of laparoscopy, its development, the instruments used, its technique, the indications, the contraindications and the complications.

### The History of Laparoscopy:- \*\*\*\*\*

The first attempt to visualize the interior of a body was made in Germany by Bozzani (1805); who visualized the human urethra using candle - light and a tube as endoscope. By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, endoscopic procedures such as cystoscopy, laryngoscopy, oesophagoscopy and laparoscopy were all well established in daily clinical use (Call, 1980)

The first attempt to visualize the peritoneal cavity was made late by Ott (1901), who made a small abdominal wall incision, introduced a speculum, and inspected the peritoneal cavity using a head mirror. In Germany, Kelling (1901) made a more comprehensive demonstration. He inserted a needle into the peritoneal cavity of a living dog, distended it with air, and inspected the peritoneum via another site using a cystoscope. Jacobaeus (1910) applied the same technique to human beings. Orndoff (1920) developed a trocar with a sharp pyramidal tip for a more convenient puncture of the abdominal wall, he also added an automatic valve to the sheath to prevent

an insufflation gas. Kalk (1929) was the first to use a second puncture for liver biopsy procedures.

Veress (1938) described the technique and instruments required to apply electrosurgery via the laparoscope. Veress (1938) introduced his famous pneume-peritoneum needle, and could thus avoid many intraperitoneal injuries. The introduction of quartz's rods to transmit light, in 1952, (Hopkin's and Kapany), revolutionized endoscopy; light sources were no more located at the distal end of a telescope. The risk of the electrical and the thermal burns were no more feared; it also permitted photography.

A dramatic change in endoscopy were introduced by fiber - optics: colored films and closed circuits television programs became available for the endoscopists . ( Quint, 1977).

#### Instruments

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The instruments and sets required for laparoscopy are the telescope, the insufflation set, the light source and cables, the main and secondary trocars and their sheaths, the auxiliary instruments and the handling forceps. The surgeon may be sufficed with a diagnostic laparoscope in non operative procedures, since it

tive telescope, but this will depend on the case. The five m.m. Telescope is sufficient for routine pelvic use, while the ten m.m. is necessary for upper abdominal cancer detection, biopsy procedures, photography and teaching purposes. For these , it was recorded to have more than one type and size of a laparoscope. ( Cali, 1980).

#### The telescope.

The telescope may serve either as pure diagnostic or for both diagnostic and operative purposes. A diagnostic telescope is basically similar to a cystoscope, the difference is in the more light projection and wider angle of view of the telescope. In fact, some institutions are using existing cystoscopes for pure diagnostic laparoscopic procedures but this is rather primitive . Telescopes are available in various sizes, the largest of which is the ten mm . size. Increasing the size is intended for better illumination, wider viewing field, larger image, less distortion and better photographic quality. Larger diameter requires a larger incision, a larger trocar tip and deeper penetration during insertion. According to Cali ( 1980), one should use the smallest size that would achieve the objectives of the procedure .

able, instruments are introduced through a lower right quadrant incision through a second incision. This is not necessary when an operating set is available; as one is able to view and operate through the telescope, utilizing one incision. Since the operative one has the advantage of being formed of two separate channels for vision and introduction of the instruments.

An operating laparoscope is ideal <sup>for</sup> introducing different instruments and resecting biopsy specimens. Introduction of instruments through a second puncture confirms many technical advantages as using the auxiliary instruments. Caution should be present when applying electrocoagulation via an operating telescope, since part of the visual field is obscured by the diathermy instrument, and burns may be produced. ( Cali, 1980 ).

Recently, a laparoscope which has a flexible end became available for use, its end can be rotated ninety degrees in two directions, and can visualize the place by a proximal dial. The scope itself has a focusing dial that enable most endoscopists to do without their eye glasses. More recently, an operating telescope with two channels, through which two forceps may be introduced simultaneously, by Ushida (1981) is now available.

The insufflation set :-  
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For insufflation of the peritoneal cavity, a special needle is introduced through the abdominal wall, then the selected gas is pumped in through a flexible tube. Most insufflators utilize a

Several needles are available for insufflation, for example, the Verres needle, Touhey needle, a plastic Rochester catheter and the spinal needle. The Verres needle is the most commonly used, while the spinal, being long, is reserved for the obese patients. The Verres needle consists of a blunt cannula surrounded by a sharper outer one. There is a spring that pushes the inner cannula beyond the outer one as the latter pierces the tough abdominal fascia. It protects the viscera against injury. The internal diameter of the needle should not exceed 16 gauge to prevent too rapid insufflation. (Cali, 1980 )-

The insufflator consists of three parts, the regulator, the pressure gauge and the flow ball. The regulator controls the flow of the gas at a rate of one litre per minute. A meter to measure the volume of insufflated gas guards against overinsufflation. The pressure gauge indicates actual pressure within the peritoneum. The flow ball indicates patency of the system.

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A pyramidal - tipped trocar with a valve is used to prevent gas leakage. Such a valve is of two types , The trumpet type which is manual and more popular which is used to remove large resected specimens, and the automatic flap types. Most trocar sleeves are made of fiberglass to reduce electrical conductivity, others are made of metal which are used only when electrocoagulation source is of low voltage and high ampere type . Recently metal sleeves are totally insulated.

**The Light source and the cables:**

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Some manufacturers integrate the fiber bundles of the telescope and cord. the standard light bulb produced 150 watts. Special 1000 watts bulbs and xenon light sources project more intense light, which is required when cinematography is performed and teaching sidearms are used.

**The Auxiliary instruments:**

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Secondary trocars and their sleeves are available, with or without valves, in six and four mm . Sizes. The pyramidal tip is recommended.

Auxiliary instruments include a blunt probe for palpating or displacing viscera, a grasping forceps, an electrified

Scissors, a biopsy forceps and a suction probe. Unipolar electro-surgical instruments should always be available or bipolar with low voltage current.

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Endoscopes are devices for visualization of the interior of body cavities. Direct view endoscopes, like the speculum has no optical elements interposed between the tissue and the viewer. The angle of view is limited by the ratio of the luminal diameter to the length of the scope. Indirect view endoscopes, as the laparoscope, were developed to widen the view angle i.e. the field. This was achieved by interposition of optical elements to transfer the image. In the past, indirect view endoscopes had an objective lens to form the image at the distal end, and an ocular lens to see the image at the proximal end. In between, a group of lenses transferred the image as a whole, with some correction of the optical distortion.

Scopes may have a direct viewing end with an arc of view of 30 degrees, or a foreoblique end with an arc of view of 135 degrees.

The latter enables one to look out forwards and obliquely with a wider field of vision.

Present-day commercial endoscopes suffer from attenuation of transmitted light; it was estimated that 20-50% of the projected light energy is lost during transmission through a two meters long optic fiber. Another peculiar character about optic fibers is that they are selective as different wave lengths are concerned; they favour the red zone of the spectrum more than the blue. Lens relay endoscopes are thus more faithful than fiberoptic ones, since the former reproduce the entire spectrum, giving sharper and a higher image ( Quint, 1977 ).

Laparoscopy requires the utmost cooperation between the surgeon and anaesthetist; it entails the use of gas to create pneumoperitoneum, and the anaesthetist should be aware of the consequences of gas absorption. Anaesthesia should provide amnesia, adequate analgesia and relaxation. The anaesthetic technique should allow rapid recovery. The procedure is frequently conducted on an outpatient basis. The complications of anaesthesia include cardiac arrhythmias, gas embolism, pneumothorax, pneumo-mediastinum, hypotension, hypertension, hypercarbia, hypoxia, gastro-intestinal injuries and electrical accidents.

Any of the anaesthetic techniques available may be employed in a laparoscopic procedure. Thus, general anaesthesia, regional anaesthesia or local analgesia may be used. The superiority of one modality over the others has not yet been established. It is preferable to use general anaesthesia when the patient is anxious, the surgeon is less experienced. Patients who have severe cardiac or pulmonary diseases are submitted to regional or local anaesthesia.

Regional anaesthesia is contraindicated in the presence

voikemia, history of neurologic disorders or allergic reactions to local anaesthetic drugs. Like general anaesthesia , it is not suitable for patients with pulmonary diseases because the block may be so high to interrupt respiration. To perform regional anaesthesia, one should master the epidural technique. In non operating room settings, the surgeon is left with local analgesia to use, however resuscitation equipments should be available for use. Local analgesia is contra-indicated when there is intraperitoneal adhesions and when an operative procedure is to be performed through the laparoscope .

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## Technique.

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Starting to do laparoscopy, the operator should confine to diagnostic objectives and straight forward cases until he develops sufficient experience to carry out operative procedures. The procedure should be conducted in a well equipped theatre, facilities for laparotomy should be available as laparoscopic findings may indicate urgent or elective laparotomy or complications.

The patient should be suitably positioned. A return electrode should be placed beneath the patient's buttocks whether or not the planned procedure entails the use of diathermy. The abdomen is then cleaned with an acceptable solution as iodine solution. The preparation is carried out from the costal margins downwards to the thighs and between the midaxillary lines. Cotton swabs may be needed to clean the umbilicus in patients with poor hygiene. Draping then follows, using single or multiple drapes, made of linen or paper plastic. A small laparotomy sheet with a central hole, large enough to expose the umbilical area, is convenient.