

Pediatric Surgical Pathology of Branchial and Congenital Anomalies of the Head and Neck

15

Marta C. Cohen and Irene Scheimberg

Introduction

Ninety percent of neck masses in children are benign. A large review in the 1980s [1] found that 55% were congenital lesions, 27% were inflammatory lesions, 5% were nonin-flammatory benign masses, 3% were benign neoplasms, and 11% were malignancies. The preoperative diagnosis was correct in 61% of patients. The same percentage of malignancy is reported by others [2], although the percentage varies among countries. The distribution of neck masses in children has been shown to be 45% congenital, 40% inflammatory, 12% benign, and 3% malignant [3].

Branchial Cleft Anomalies

The branchial apparatus consists of four pairs of arches separated by four paired grooves externally and four paired pouches internally. The external grooves are called branchial clefts, and the internal pouches are known as pharyngeal pouches.

Definition: Anamalies may be of the first, second, third, or fourth branchial arches. Branchial anomalies comprise cysts, fistulae, and sinuses and result from incomplete obliteration of the clefts and pouches, and duplication of the first branchial cleft.

Clinical Presentation: (Refer to Chap. 14 for each individual presentation). Branchial cleft anomalies represent the most common congenital lateral neck mass and are second only to thyroglossal cysts when the whole neck is considered [4]. Ninety percent of all branchial cleft cysts and sinuses originate in the second branchial arch.

M. C. Cohen (🖂)

Sheffield Children's NHS FT, Sheffield, UK e-mail: marta.cohen@nhs.net

I. Scheimberg Previous Consultant Pathologist at Bart Health NHS Trust, London, UK *Hereditary/Genetic Factors*: Rare cases are inherited as part of the branchio-oculo-facial syndrome, an autosomal dominant disorder with variant expression [5] due to mutations involving the TFP2A gene.

Classification: Classified according to the branchial cleft involved.

First Branchial Cleft Anomalies: These accounts for around 8–18% [6, 7]; approximately 68% are cysts, 16% are sinuses, and 16% are fistulas.

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Classification: First branchial anomalies are classified in two subgroups. Type 1 defects are duplication anomalies of the membranous external auditory canal and are typically sited medially, inferiorly, or posteriorly to the concha and pinna. Type 2 anomalies are derived from the first branchial cleft and the first and second branchial arches and are thought to represent duplications of the auditory canal and the pinna and present as preauricular, infra-auricular, or postauricular swellings.

Microscopic Features: Type 1 defects are duplication anomalies of the membranous external auditory canal and contain only ectodermal elements. They are often confused on histological examination with epidermoid cysts. The fistula may show associated parotid tissue, and lymphoid tissue is common. Type 2 defects show ectodermal and mesodermal components showing keratinizing squamous epithelium with adnexal structures and cartilage [8]. Figures 15.1a and b. However, it may not be possible to distinguish between type 1 and type 2 lesions [9].

Differential Diagnosis: Type 1 differential diagnosis is epidermoid cyst. Type 2 differential diagnosis are dermoid cysts and cystic sebaceous lymphadenoma of the parotid gland, a tumor rarely found in children [10].

Second Branchial Cleft Anomalies: These are the most frequent anomalies of the branchial clefts accounting for 69–95% of all anomalies [7]. The usual location is in the lateral neck, anterior to the sternocleidomastoid muscle, most present near the angle of the mandible.

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

© Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021

P. Campisi et al. (eds.), Pediatric Head and Neck Textbook, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-59265-3_15

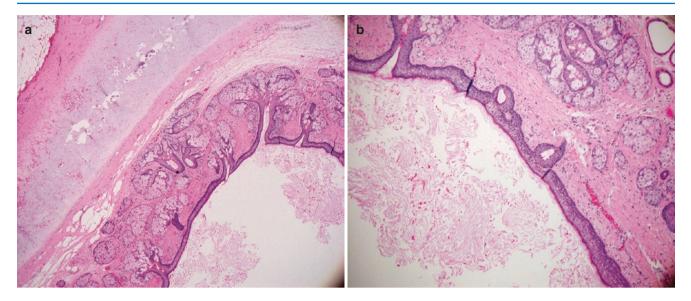


Fig. 15.1 Type 2 first branchial cleft anomaly. Note the presence of ectodermal and mesodermal components, with squamous epithelium, adnexal structures, and cartilage. (a) $H\&E \times 10$; (b) $H\&E \times 20$)

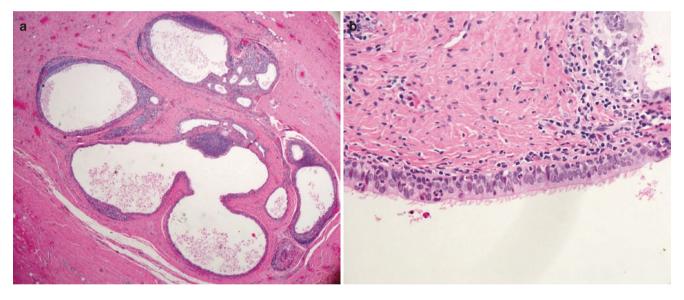


Fig. 15.2 Second branchial cleft anomaly with lymphoid tissue within the wall and lined by respiratory type epithelium. (a) low power view $H\&E \times 4$. (b) higher power $H\&E \times 20$)

Classification: There are four subgroups depending on their location (see Chap. 14).

Microscopic Features: Cysts are three times more common than fistulas. The cysts are lined by squamous epithelium (90%), respiratory type epithelium (8%) or both (2%) [11]. Figures 15.2a and b. The cyst content may be keratin, mucus, or serous material, and it may contain cholesterol or purulent material. There may be fibrosis of the wall due to repeated infections; in these cases, the epithelium may be partially replaced by granulation tissue or fibrosis. The majority show lymphoid tissue with or without germinal centers within the wall. Ectopic salivary gland tissue [12]

and xanthogranulomatous inflammation have been described in adults [13].

Differential Diagnosis: Lateral Thyroglossal Duct Cyst.

Third and Fourth Branchial Pouch Anomalies: These are rare, comprising 3–10% of branchial anomalies [14]. Failure to close the third or fourth branchial pouch results in cysts or sinuses in close proximity or inside the thyroid gland. When present, the sinus tract originates in the pyriform fossa. These remnants tend to occur on the left side. These anomalies may be dangerous in neonates due to rapid enlargement producing respiratory distress due to airway compression [15].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Microscopic Features: Cyst may be lined by squamous or respiratory type epithelium and may show thyroid and thymic tissue [16].

Differential Diagnosis: Cysts arising from thymic or parathyroid rests, which are not connected to the pyriform sinus.

Congenital Midline Cervical Cleft: Rare congenital anomaly considered to be due to impaired fusion of the distal branchial arches in the midline. The cleft may extend from the submental region to the suprasternal notch [17].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Microscopic Features: The sinus tract is lined by respiratory type epithelium and seromucinous glands. The skin over the tract shows parakeratosis and absent adnexal structures. Bundles of striated muscle are seen in the dermis [18].

Cervical Thymic Remnants and Cysts

Definition: The thymic primordia originate in the third branchial pouches at the end of the fourth week. The bilateral thymic primordia elongate and descend along the thymopharyngeal tracts until the fusion in the midline at the eighth week, continuing to migrate down into the superior mediastinum [19]. Cervical thymic cysts are thought to arise from remnants of the thymopharyngeal duct that fail to involute.

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Macroscopical Features: Ectopic cervical thymus presents as a soft and well encapsulated mass. Thymic cyst may present as a sinus tract or cystic structure and are more common [20].

Microscopic Features: Ectopic cervical thymus may show normal thymus tissue, atrophic thymus, or giant cell reaction with cholesterol clefts [21]. Cysts are lined by stratified squamous, columnar, or cuboidal epithelium with or without secondary changes (granulation tissue, fibrosis, and cholesterol clefts). The wall shows thymic tissue with lymphoid component and Hassall's corpuscles [20]. Parathyroid tissue may be found embedded within ectopic thymus tissue and in the wall of thymic cysts [22].

Thyroglossal Duct Cyst

Definition: Thyroglossal duct cysts are the most frequent congenital abnormality in children accounting for 70–75% of midline neck swelling in children [23]. The thyroid primordium develops at the end of the fourth week of gestation as a small solid mass of endoderm proliferating at the foramen cecum, which lies at the junction of the anterior two thirds and posterior third of the tongue. The thyroid primordium descends ventral to the developing hyoid bone and laryngeal cartilages maintaining its attachment to the foramen cecum via the thyroglossal duct. The thyroid reaches its

final position at the seventh week of gestation and the thyroglossal duct normally involutes between the seventh and tenth week of gestation [24].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Classification: According to location (a) intralingual, (b) suprahyoid or submental, (c) thyrohyoid, and (d) suprasternal.

Macroscopic Features: A long duct-like structure is generally submitted for examination, usually attached to a portion of the hyoid bone. Ideally, the duct should be bisected longitudinally still attached to the hyoid bone (which needs to undergo decalcification) to see the relationship between them. Cysts may measure up to 10 cm, although generally are less than 3 cm in diameter.

Microscopic Features: The lining of the duct may be squamous or respiratory type epithelium, sometimes with salivary or thyroid gland tissue in the wall. Lymphoid tissue may be identified. Stratified squamous epithelium tends to be closer to the foramen cecum, and thyroid acinar epithelium tends to be proximal to the thyroid gland. The lining may be replaced by inflammatory granulation tissue and fibrosis if there has been infection. The incidence of finding thyroid tissue is up to 40% when serial sections are done [25]. Figure 15.3.

Histological examination of the decalcified hyoid bone may show the tract extending into the bone. Rare cases of papillary thyroid carcinoma developing in the wall of a thyroglosal duct cyst have been reported [26].

Differential Diagnosis: Branchial cleft cyst, as the epithelial lining can be identical and lymphoid tissue may be present in a thyroglossal duct cyst. Clinicopathological correlation regarding the site and the relationship to the hyoid bone is significant for the diagnosis.

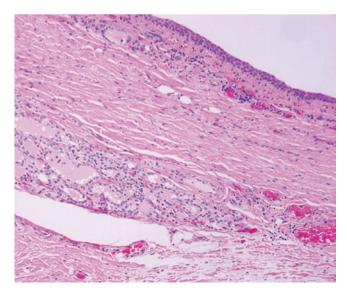


Fig. 15.3 Thyroglossal duct lined by epithelium and with presence of thyroid follicles in the wall (H&E \times 20)

Foregut (Enteric) Duplication Cysts (Floor of the Mouth Developmental Cyst)

Definition: Foregut duplication cysts (FDCs) are uncommon developmental lesions, which arise from the embryonic foregut, which gives rise to the pharynx, lower respiratory tract, and upper gastrointestinal tract [27, 28]. FDCs are regarded as choristomas and are thought to arise from persisting heterotopic rests.

In the tongue, they are believed to arise from endodermal cells that become trapped during the fusion process [29].

Based on their epithelial type and other features, foregut duplication cysts may resemble airway, esophagus, or small intestine. Therefore, the term foregut duplication cyst includes bronchogenic cyst, esophageal duplication cyst, and enteric duplication cyst [27, 28, 30].

Clinical Presentation: They are most frequently seen in the thorax or abdomen but most uncommon in the head and neck. They may arise in the oral cavity including the tongue, oropharynx, supraglottis, intra- or extralaryngeal, anterior midline, supralateral neck, or paraspinally [28, 31]. The Foregut cysts can present shortly after birth and can even be detected antenatally [32]. Although most present asymptomatically, the specific location may cause respiratory and/or feeding difficulties [33].

Macroscopic Features: Foregut cysts present as thinwalled cysts with serous or mucoid fluid content. A large study on head-and-neck FGCs in children identified an average size of 1.4 cm, with a range of 0.5–8.5 cm [27].

Microscopic Features: Histologically, foregut cysts are lined by epithelium, which can be a mixture of squamous epithelium, ciliated respiratory epithelium, and/or gastrointestinal-type epithelium. Variable amounts of parietal cells may be seen [33, 34]. Smooth muscle is usually identified surrounding the cyst. Figures 15.4a and b. Those cysts that are lined by ciliated respiratory-type epithelium and include seromucinous respiratory glands are classified as *bronchogenic cysts*. The cyst wall contains smooth muscle, but cartilage is rarely seen in cervical bronchogenic cysts. Lymphoid tissue when present is scanty and focal [34, 35].

Differential Diagnosis: Ranula, lymphangioma, hemangioma, thyroglossal cyst, and dermoid cyst [33, 36, 37]. Foregut cysts are distinguished from a teratoma by lack of tissues other than the ones mentioned; from a dermoid cyst by the lack of skin appendages; from a branchial cleft cyst by the presence of smooth muscle, seromucous glands, scanty lymphoid tissue, and cartilage if present and from a thyroglossal duct cyst by the presence of smooth muscle and the absence of thyroid tissue [38].

Cervical Chondrocutaneous Remnant

Definition: Congenital benign small neck masses similar to preauricular tags but located in the lateral neck. They are probably remnants of the first or second branchial arch [39] and are generally unilateral. They are always present at birth. They are also referred to as cervical skin tag, accessory tragus, or cervical auricle.

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14

Hereditary/Genetic Features: Frequently associated with other anomalies, may be part of the branchio-ocular-facial syndrome.

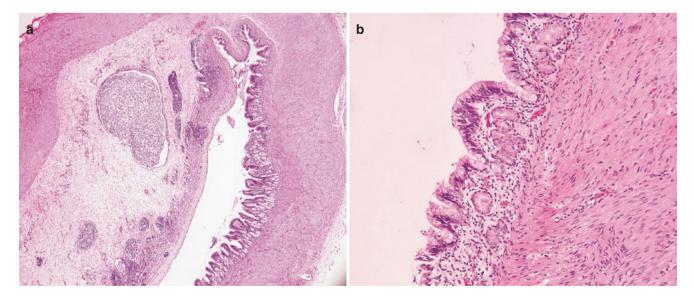


Fig. 15.4 (a) Enteric duplication cyst lined by colonic type mucosa and with presence of submucosa and muscularis propria (H&E \times 4). (b) Higher magnification shows colonic type mucosa with presence of goblet cells (H&E \times 20)

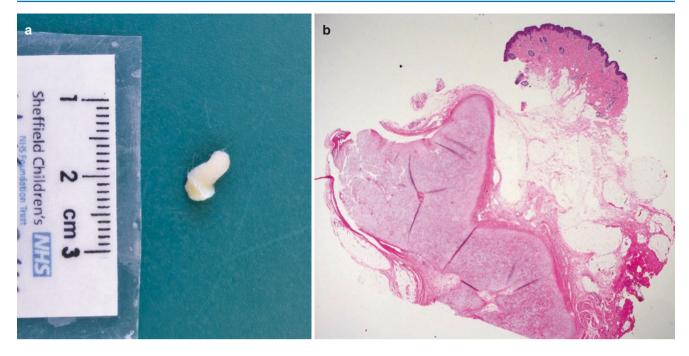


Fig. 15.5 (a) Chondrocutaneous remnant in the neck, covered by normal looking skin. (b) the histology shows a central core of cartilaginous tissue ($H\&E \times 4$)

Macroscopy: Small pedunculated mass covered by skin with a central cartilage core. Figure 15.5a.

Microscopy: Normal skin over a cartilage core which may be hyaline or elastic in type. Figure 15.5b.

Heterotopic Salivary Glands

Definition: Salivary gland tissue outside the major or minor salivary glands. Thought to arise as a consequence of a defective closure of the precervical sinus of His within the branchial apparatus followed by abnormal differentiation of cells into salivary glandular structures within the ectodermal lining of the sinus [40].

Clinical Presentation: Typically present at birth or in childhood as a draining sinus and/or an asymptomatic nodule in the neck along the lower anterior sternocleidomastoid muscle [41].

Microscopy: Duct lined by pseudostratified columnar epithelium with adjacent lobules of serous, mucinous, or seromucinous salivary gland tissue embedded in connective subcutaneous tissue. Benign and malignant tumors arising from cervical heterotopic salivary glands have been reported in children including Warthin's tumor, pleomorphic adenoma, and mucoepidermoid carcinoma [42].

Nasolabial Cysts

Definition: Benign nonodontogenic cyst in the anterior maxillary region. Considered to be a remnant of the embryonic nasolacrimal duct or the lower anterior portion of the mature duct [43].

Clinical Presentation: The cyst presents near the base of the nostril or in the superior aspect of the upper lip and is generally unilateral. Unusual in children, more common in black females.

Microscopy: Cyst lined by respiratory type, squamous or simple cuboidal epithelium, or a combination of these.

Dermoid Cyst

Definition: Dermoid cysts are developmental malformations lined by orthokeratinized squamous epithelium and contains adnexal structures (hair follicles, sebaceous glands, eccrine glands) in the cyst wall. The lumen contains variable amount of keratinous material [28, 44].

Clinical Presentations: Approximately 7% of all dermoid cysts occur in the head and neck region [44]. In this area, they more commonly arise in the midline of the floor of the mouth and as a midline nasal mass [44, 45]. A study investigating 49

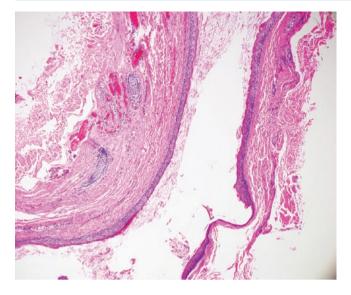


Fig. 15.6 Dermoid cyst lined by orthokeratinized squamous epithelium and showing keratinous debris in the lumen and adnexal glands in the wall (H&E \times 10)

dermoid cysts in the head and neck region (Pryor [46]) identified 22 months as the median age for presentation. The most common location of dermoid cysts were orbit (61%), neck (18%), scalp and forehead (10%), nasal (6%), and ear (4%).

Macroscopic Features: The average size of the cysts is 1 cm in diameter [46]. They show a smooth external surface and keratinous content.

Microscopic Features: The cysts are lined by keratinized epithelium with adnexal structures in the wall. Figure 15.6.

Differential Diagnosis: Epidermal inclusion cyst, branchial cleft cyst [28].

Cystic and Mature Teratoma

Definition: Neoplasms derived from multipotential cells that contain elements of all three blastodermic layers (ectoderm, endoderm, and mesoderm), with tissues foreign to the site of origin [28]. However, in recent decades, this definition has become less stringent with the acceptance of examples that are composed of bidermal components [47].

Head and neck teratomas account for 2–3% of all pediatric teratomas [47, 48]. In this area, the common sites of origin include the anterior or lateral neck (where the thyroid may be involved), oropharynx (where the tumor may protrude from the mouth), nasopharynx, orbit, and paranasal sinuses [47, 49].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Classification/Subtypes of the Condition: Teratomas are usually histologically benign (although they may lead to death due to severe respiratory compromise). However, they may harbor malignant components and have an aggressive biological behavior. *Macroscopic Features*: Cystic or partially solid tumors with a diameter between 3 and 11 cm [28, 47]. The tumor is usually well demarcated, and the solid component may include osseous and/or cartilaginous components.

Microscopic Features: Mature and immature derivative elements of two or three germinal layers are identified. The solid areas may include neutral tissue, pigmented retinal cells, skin and skin adnexal elements, smooth muscle, glands, cartilage, bone, gastric, and pancreatic tissue. In cystic teratomas, epithelial lining is seen covering the inner aspect of the cyst's wall. The tumor should be extensively sampled in order to exclude the presence of malignant elements. Although unusual, malignant extragonadal teratomas have been described [50]. Among malignant extragonadal germ cell tumors, Yolk sac tumor is the leading histologic type, occurring most commonly in association with a teratoma and rarely alone [50]. Figures 15.7a and b.

Differential Diagnosis: This includes salivary gland anlage tumor (see below) and dermoid cysts. Also, nasopharyngeal teratomas with neuroglial tissue and intracranial component need to be differentiated from an encephalocele.

Congenital Fibrosarcoma (CFS)

Definition: CFS is a mesenchymal neoplasia that affects infants and children younger than 2 years of age; they have a relatively good prognosis and rarely metastasizes. CFS characteristically harbors an ETV6-NTRK3 gene fusion in addition to extra copies of chromosomes [51–54]. It represents 5%–10% of sarcomas in this age group [54]. Congenital/infantile fibrosarcoma more commonly involves lower extremities and is not frequent in the head and neck region, corresponding to < 1% of fibrosarcomas [55–57].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Hereditary/Genetic Features: CIF characteristically harbors a chromosomal translocation t(12;15)(p13;q25), which gives rise to an ETV6-NTRK3 gene fusion [51, 52, 58, 59]. Recently, a case of recurrent was found to be negative for the ETV6-NTRK3 translocation but harboring a somatic t(2;15) (2p21;15q25) translocation resulting in the novel fusion of EML4 with NTRK3 [54].

Macroscopic Features: Nonencapsulated tumor with poorly defined margins and a fleshy cut surface.

Microscopic Features: CFS shows moderate cellularity, with round and spindle-shaped cells that adopt a herringbone pattern. The tumor has a primitive appearance and shows scattered inflammatory cells, areas of necrosis, and other showing hemangiopericytoma-like features [52]. Figure 15.8.

Immunohistochemistry/Molecular Diagnostic Features: CFS expresses vimentin. It is negative for pancytokeratin, desmin, smooth muscle actin, MyoD1, CD31, neuron spe-

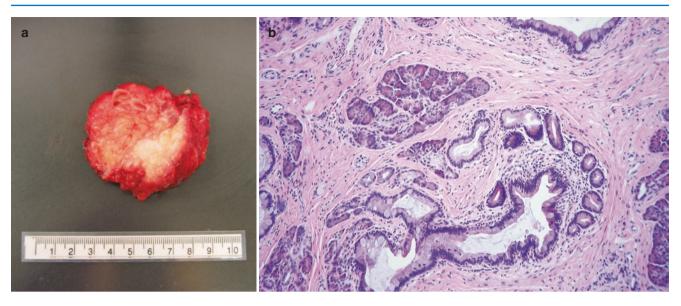


Fig. 15.7 (a) Gross appearance of a 6×3 cm solid mass in the neck; (b) the histology shows colonic and pancreatic derivatives (H&E \times 20)

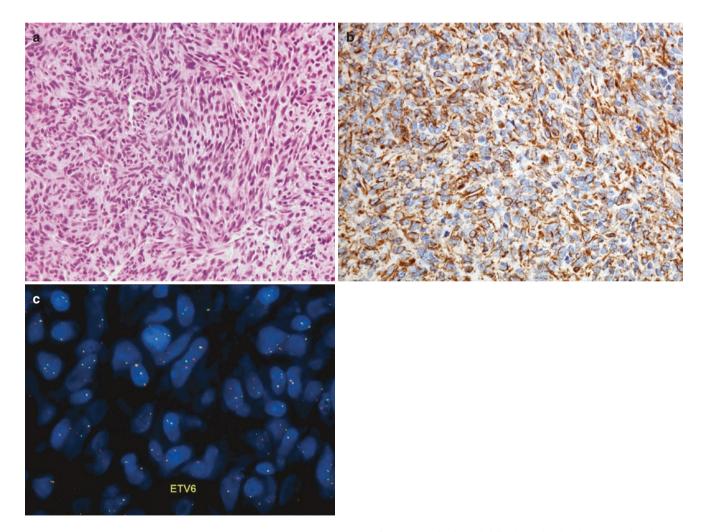


Fig. 15.8 (a) Congenital fibrosarcoma with round and spindle-shaped cells, mitotic figures, and scattered inflammatory cells (H&E \times 40). (b) membranous vimentin expression (Vim immunohistochemistry \times 20).

(c) fluorescence in situ hybridization using break-apart probes demonstrating a translocation of the ${\rm ETV6}$

Fig. 15.9 (a) Neck nodule measuring $3 \text{ cm} \times 2 \text{ cm}$, covered by normal looking skin. (b) the histology shows a spindle cell lesion, with a bland appearance and a herring-bone pattern. COL1A1-PDGFB fusion gene

cific enolase, S100, synaptophysin, CD56, and other mesenchymal or epithelial markers [60]. Proliferative index assessed with Ki 67 (MIB-1) is low. Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) using break-apart probes to detect a translocation of the ETV6 and/or NTRK3 genes is routinely used to confirm diagnosis of congenital fibrosarcoma [58]. associated gocele at *Macro* oid pedu 1–2 cm [*Micro*

Differential Diagnosis: CIF scan mimic vascular lesions and can be clinically masquerade as hemangioma or a vascular malformation [61]. Infantile myofibromatosis, especially in its solitary form, should be considered in the differential diagnosis of CIF [62]. Rare cases of congenital dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP) have been described [63, 64]. DFSP is a cutaneous fibrohistiocytic tumor of intermediate malignancy, which presents a COL1A1-PDGFB fusion gene (detected in > 90% of cases) [65]. Figure 15.9a–c.

Rhabdomyomatous Mesenchymal Hamartoma

Figure 15.8c.

Definition: Rare congenital rare tumor-like lesion, which occurs in the skin of newborns or infants, principally of the face and neck [66]. Isolated case reports have been described in unusual sites, including oral cavity, vagina, the digit, or the anal region [67–69].

Clinical Presentation: Refer to Chap. 14.

Hereditary/Genetic Features: A proportion of the few rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartomas described

associated with a hemangioma [70] or a nasofrontal meningocele and dermoid cyst in the same area [71].

was demonstrated, confirming the diagnosis of dermatofibrosarcoma

Macroscopic Features: Dome-shaped papule or a polypoid pedunculated lesion ranging from few millimeters to 1-2 cm [72].

Microscopic Features: The tumor presents randomly oriented mature striated muscle tissue with haphazardly associated adipose tissue, blood vessels, pilosebaceous units, and peripheral nerves [66, 69].

Differential Diagnosis: This includes superficial lipomatous nevus, fibrous hamartoma of infancy, neuromuscular choristoma (benign Triton tumor), rhabdomyoma, and cutaneous embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma [72].

Salivary Anlage Tumor

Definition: Hamartomatous tumor arising from the seromucinous glands of the nasal cavity [73].

Clinical Presentation: Nasal airway obstruction in the neonatal period, although the diagnosis may be delayed until 2–3 months of age. Babies may present with respiratory distress, nasal airway obstruction, stridor, and poor feeding. This tumor is more common in male babies and is often attached by a small pedicle to the posterior septum or the posterior nasopharyngeal wall [74].

Macroscopy: Polypoid to pedunculated, wellcircumscribed mass with a smooth surface up to 4 cm in maximum dimension with a firm and tan cut section [75].

protuberans

Cut section may also show a hemorrhagic cystic appearance with gelatinous yellowish material in the cystic foci [74].

Microscopy: The surface is lined by non-keratinizing squamous epithelium with an underlying fibromyxoid stroma composed of spindle cells with variable cellularity. Embedded in this stroma toward the periphery of the lesion, there are squamous islands and duct-like structures, some arising from the surface epithelium [75, 76]. In the center, there are mesenchymal-appearing nodules composed of short fascicles or ovoid to spindle-shaped cells with no atypia. Some nodules are discrete, while others tend to blend into each other [74]. There may be foci of necrosis with cystic degeneration.

Immunohistochemistry: The epithelial structures are positive for cytokeratins and EMA and the solid stromal nodules are positive for vimentin, SMA, and cytokeratin.

Differential Diagnosis: Nasopharyngeal dermoids and teratomas ("hairy polyps") are more frequent in females. Malignant tumors in the neonatal nasopharynx are extremely rare. Heterotopic neuroglial tissue in the neonate has been reported [74].

Congenital Granular Cell Tumor (CGCT)

Definition: Benign tumor of uncertain origin affecting the gingival mucosa of neonates [77]. CGCT has also been described in the literature as congenital epulis, granular cell rhabdomyoma, congenital myoblastoma, or Neumann's tumor [77]. CGST is a rare lesion, with an incidence of just 0.0006% [78].

Clinical Presentation: See Chap. 14.

Hereditary/Genetic Features: CGCT has a higher incidence in females. It is not known an association with congenital anomalies. However, isolated cases have been reported to be associated with neurofibromatosis, polydac-tyly, binder syndrome, congenital goiter [79], and bilateral transverse facial cleft [80].

Macroscopic Features: Smooth-surfaced, wide-based polypoid nodule, usually single (90%), ranging in size from several millimeters to several centimeters [77]. Tumors measuring up to 9 cm have been described [81].

Microscopic Features: The tumor is well circumscribed and displays nests and ribbons of tightly packed, homogeneous, polygonal to slightly spindled cells with an eosinophilic and granular cytoplasm and single basophilic nucleus (granular cells), scattered amidst connective tissue and fibroblasts. Figure 15.10. The tumor is covered by mucosa lined by squamous epithelium [82]. Occasional CGCT may demonstrate unusual features, such as fibrosis and spindle cell proliferation, which may result during trauma or spontaneous regression of the lesion [82].

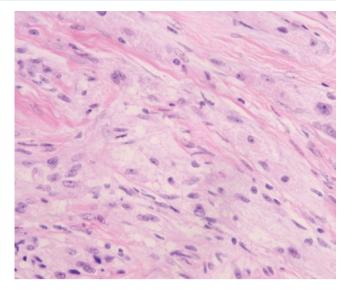


Fig. 15.10 Polygonal cells with an eosinophilic and granular cytoplasm and single basophilic nucleus in a congenital granular cell tumor $(H\&E \times 20)$

Immunohistochemistry Features: CGCT expresses vimentin and neuron-specific enolase [82]. It is characteristically negative for S100 protein, NGFR/p75, and inhibin-alpha, which helps differential diagnosis with the adult type granular cell tumor, which affects internal organs, is of neural origin, and not congenital [51, 83]. CGCT also lacks immunoreactivity for CD31, CD34, CD68, laminin, chromogranin, keratins, desmin, calponin, and smooth muscle actin [82].

Differential Diagnosis: This includes melanotic neuroectodermal tumor of infancy, hemangioma, fibroma, embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma, granuloma, malignant granular cell myoblastoma (adult type granular cell tumor), chondrogenic, osteogenic sarcoma, and schwannoma [83, 84].

Anomalies of the Skin with Histopathlogical Relevance

Cutis Hyperelastic (Ehlers-Danlos Syndrome-EDS)

Definition: Hereditary disorder of the connective tissue, characterized by hyperextensible skin, joint hypermobility; and varying degrees of vessel and tissue fragility [85].

Clinical Presentation: See Chap. 14.

Hereditary/Genetic Features: EDS types I, II, and III are the most common forms, with an autosomal dominant mode of inheritance. Specific mutations in pro-alpha-1 collagen chains have been described for EDS I and II. Instead, type III has more than one mutations involved [86]. The other less frequent types of EDS can have an autosomal dominant or recessive trait.

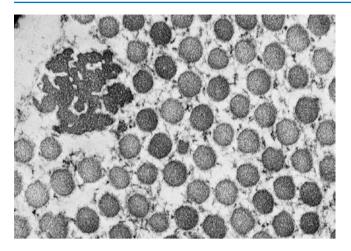


Fig. 15.11 Four year-old patient presenting with atrophic scars and hypermobile joints typical of classical Ehlers-Danlos syndrome. The electron microscopy shows numerous fibrous collagen fibrils (up to 450 nm diameter) present in transverse sectional orientation (also known as collagen flowers or spiral collagen). (Magnification 20,000x). Photo kindly provided by Bart E Wagner, Chief BMS. Sheffield Teaching Hospitals. UK

Classification/Subtypes: Based on the clinical presentation and genetic features, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome has been classified in more than 10 subtypes. The main forms are classical, hypermobile, vascular, kyphoscoliotic A/B, arthrochalasis A/B, and dermatosparaxis types.

Macroscopic Features: Not relevant.

Microscopic Features: The skin may be normal or show dermal thinning (most common in type IV). Electron microscopy is helpful to demonstrate abnormalities in the collagen bundles. Figure 15.11.

Multiple Lentigines (Leopard Syndrome)

Definition: Rare syndrome characterized by the presence of L: lentigines, E: electrocardiographic conduction defects, O: ocular hypertelorism; P: pulmonary stenosis; A: abnormalities of the genitalia; R: retardation of growth, and D: deafness. Not all these manifestations are present in every case [87].

Clinical Presentation: See Chap. 14.

Hereditary Features: Familial incidence with a dominant trait.

Macroscopic Features: Dark-brown skin flat macules.

Microscopic Features: Moderate elongation of rete ridges of the skin with increased number of melanocytes in the basal cell layer and an increase amount of melanin in both the melanocytes and the basal keratinocytes, and melanophages in the upper dermis [87].

Differential Diagnosis: Mainly with Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, lentiginosis profuse, speckled lentiginous nevus, and Carney complex.

References

- Torsiglieri AJ Jr, Tom LW, Ross AJ 3rd, Wetmore RF, Handler SD, Potsic WP. Pediatric neck masses: guidelines for evaluation. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 1988 Dec;16(3):199–210.
- Goins MR, Beasley MS. Pediatric neck masses. Oral Maxillofac Surg Clin North Am. 2012 Aug;24(3):457–68.
- Balikci HH, Gurdal MM, Ozkul MH, Karakas M, Uvacin O, Kara N, Alp A, Ozbay I. Neck masses: diagnostic analysis of 630 cases in Turkish population. Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol. 2013 Nov;270(11):2953–8.
- Prosser JD, Myer CM 3rd. Branchial cleft anomalies and thymic cysts. Otolaryngol Clin N Am. 2015 Feb;48(1):1–14.
- Milunsky JM, Maher TM, Zhao G, et al. Genotype-phenotype analysis of the branchio-oculo-facial syndrome. Am J Med Genet A. 2011 Jan;155A(1):22–32.
- Olson KD, Maragos NE, Weiland L. First branchial cleft anomalies. Laryngoscope. 1980;90:423–43.
- Schroeder JW Jr, Mohyuddin N, Maddalozzo J. Branchial anomalies in the pediatric population. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2007 Aug;137(2):289–95.
- Triglia JM, Nicollas R, Ducroz V, Koltai PJ, Garabedian EN. First branchial cleft anomalies: a study of 39 cases and a review of the literature. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 1998 Mar;124(3):291–5.
- 9. Belenky WM, Medina JE. First branchial cleft anomalies. Laryngoscope. 1980 Jan;90(1):28–39.
- Rawlinson NJ, Almarzooqi S, Nicol K. Sebaceous lymphadenoma of the parotid gland in a 13-year-old girl: a case report. Head Neck Pathol. 2010 Jun;4(2):144–7.
- Bhaksar SN, Bernei JL. Histogenesis of branchial cysts: a report of 468 cases. Am J Pathol. 1959;35:407–23.
- Gallego Aranda I, Lassaletta Atienza L, López-Ríos Moreno F, García Alvarez G, Alvarez-Vicent JJ, Martínez-Tello FJ. Branchial cysts with heterotopic salivary tissue in the upper third of the neck. Acta Otorrinolaringol Esp. 2000 Nov–Dec;51(8):755–8.
- Sarioglu S, Unlu M, Adali Y, Erdag TK, Men S. Branchial cleft cyst with xanthogranulomatous inflammation. Head Neck Pathol. 2012 Mar;6(1):146–9.
- M L, Kay S, Emil S, Flageole H, Nguyen LT, Tewfik TL, Oudjhane K, Laberge JM. Ten years of experience with third and fourth branchial remnants. J Pediatr Surg. 2002 May;37(5):685–90.
- Chin AC, Radhakrishnan J, Slatton D, Geissler G. Congenital cysts of the third and fourth pharyngeal pouches or pyriform sinus cysts. J Pediatr Surg. 2000 Aug;35(8):1252–5.
- Mouri N, Muraji T, Nishijima E, Tsugawa C. Reappraisal of lateral cervical cysts in neonates: pyriform sinus cysts as an anatomybased nomenclature. J Pediatr Surg. 1998;33(7):1141–4.
- Achard S, Leroy X, Fayoux P. Congenital midline cervical cleft: a retrospective case series of 8 children. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2016;81:60–4.
- Sinopidis X, Kourea HP, Panagidis A, Alexopoulos V, Tzifas S, Dimitriou G, Georgiou G. Congenital midline cervical cleft: diagnosis, pathologic findings, and early stage treatment. Case Rep Pediatr. 2012;2012:951040.
- Farley AM, Morris Lucy X, et al. Dynamics of thymus organogenesis and colonization in early human development. Development. 2013;140:2015–6.
- Khariwala SS, Nicollas R, Triglia JM, et al. Cervical presentations of thymic anomalies in children. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2004;68:909–14.
- Bale P, Sotelo-Avila C. Maldescent of the thymus: 34 necropsy and 10 surgical cases, including 7 thymuses medial to the mandible. Pediatr Pathol. 1993;13:181–90.

- 22. Berenos-Riley L, Manni JJ, Coronel C, De Wilde PC. Thymic cyst in the neck. Acta Otolaryngol. 2005;125:108–12; Daneshbod Y, Banani a, Kumar PV. Aberrant thymus and parathyroid gland presenting as a recurrent lateral neck mass: a case report. Ear Nose Throat J 2006;85:452–453.
- Allard RH. The thyroglossal cyst. Head Neck Surg 1982:5:134– 146; Hsieh YY1, Hsueh S, Hsueh C, Lin JN, Luo CC, Lai JY, Huang CS. Pathological analysis of congenital cervical cysts in children: 20 years of experience at Chang Gung Memorial Hospital. Chang Gung Med J. 2003 Feb;26(2):107–13.
- Chou J, Walters A, Hage R, Zurada A, Michalak M, Tubbs RS, Loukas M. Thyroglossal duct cysts: anatomy, embryology and treatment. Surg Radiol Anat. 2013 Dec;35(10):875–81.
- Solomon JR, Rangecroft L. Thyroglossal-duct lesions in childhood. J Pediatr Surg. 1984 Oct;19(5):555–61.
- Tahir A, Sankar V, Makura Z. Thyroglossal duct cyst carcinoma in child. J Surg Case Rep. 2015 Apr 15;2015(4):pii: rjv042.
- Kieran SM, Robson CD, Nose V, Rahbar R. Foregut duplication cysts in the head and neck. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2010;136(8):789–2.
- McPartland J, Skálová A, Shukla R, Kodet R. Head and neck. In: Cohen MC, Scheimber I, editors. Essentials of surgical pediatric pathology. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2014.
- Hambarde S, Bendre P, Taide D. Foregut duplication cyst presenting as lingual swelling: case report and review of literature. National Journal of Maxillofacial Surgery. 2011;2(1):2–5.
- Iyer CP, Mahour GH. Duplication of the alimentary tract in infants and children. J Pediatr Surg. 1995;30(9):1267–70.
- Mattingly JK, Arganbright JM, Lovell MA, Chan KH. Cervical bronchogenic cysts: case report and review of the literature. Am J Otolaryngol. 2014 Sep–Oct;35(5):655–7.
- Kong K, Walker P, Cassey J, O'Callaghan S. Foregut duplication cyst arising in the floor of mouth. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2004;68:827–30.
- Eaton D, Billings K, Timmons Ch. Congenital foregut duplication cysts of the anterior tongue Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 2001;127(12):1484–1487.
- K P, Pujary P, Shetty R, Hazarika P, Rao L. Congenital cervical bronchogenic cyst. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2001;57:145–8.
- Mehta RP, Faquin WC, Cunningham MJ. Cervical bronchogenic cysts: a consideration in the differential diagnosis of pediatric cervical cystic masses. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2004;68:563–8.
- Lister J, Zachary RB. Cystic duplications in the tongue. J Pediatr Surg. 1968;3:491–3.
- Mirchandani R, Sciubba J, Gloster ES. Congenital oral cyst with heterotopic gastrointestinal and respiratory mucosa. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 1989;113:1301–2.
- Luna MA, Pfaltz M. Cysts of the neck, unknown primary tumor, and neck dissection. In: Gnepp DR, editor. Diagnostic surgical pathology of the head and neck. 2nd ed: Saunders Elsevier. p. 839–81.
- Begovic N, Simic R, Vlahovic A, Kravljanac D, Djuricic S, Mijovic T. Cervical chondrocutaneous branchial remnants – report of 17 cases. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2014;78:1961–4.
- Lassaletta-Atienza L, Lopez-Rios F, Martin G, et al. Salivary gland heterotopia in the lower neck: a report of five cases. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 1998;43:153–61.
- Haemel A, Gnepp DR, Carlsten J, Robinson-Bostom L. Heterotopic salivary gland tissue in the neck. J Am Acad Dermatol. 2008;58:251–6.
- Daniel E, WF MG Sr. Neck masses secondary to heterotopic salivary gland tissue: a 25-year experience. Am J Otolaryngol. 2005;26:96–100.

- Choi JH, Cho JH, Kang HJ, Chae SW, Lee SH, Hwang SJ, Lee HM. Nasolabial cyst: a retrospective analysis of 18 cases. Ear Nose Throat J. 2002;81:94–6.
- 44. Neville BW, Damm DD, Allen CM, Bouquot JE. Developmental cysts. In: Oral and maxillofacial pathology. 2nd edition. Neville BW, Damm DD, Allen CM. Bouquot JE (Eds). Philadelphia, PA: Saunders 2002:2–48.
- Hanikieri M, Waterhouse N, Kirkpatrick N, et al. The management of midline transcranial nasal dermoid sinus cyts. Br J Plast Surg. 2005;58:1043–50.
- Pryor SG, Lewis GE, Weaver AL, Orvidas LJ. Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2005;132:938–42.
- Tapper D, Lack EE. Teratomas in infancy and childhood. A 54-year experience at the Children's hospital medical Center. Ann Surg. 1983;198:398–409.
- Parajuli R, Thapa S, Maharjan S. Mature nasopharyngeal Teratoma in a child. Case Rep Otolaryngol. 2015;2015:515474.
- Coppit GL III, Perkins JA, Manning SC. Nasopharyngeal teratomas and dermoids: a review of the literature and case series. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2000;52(3):219–27.
- Roy M, Agarwal S, Gupta A, Bakhshi S, Bhalla AS. Extragonadal yolk sac tumor of the head and neck region: a report of two cases. J Cancer Res Ther. 2015;11(4):1000–2.
- Coffin CM, Cajaiba M, Vates JMM, Alaggio R. Soft-tissue tumors in young patients. In: Cohen MC, Scheimber I, editors. Essentials of surgical pediatric pathology. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2014.
- Coffin CM, Alaggio R. Fibroblastic and myofibroblastic tumors in children and adolescents. Pediatr Dev Pathol. 2012;15(1):127–80.
- 53. Sheng WQ, Hisaoka M, Okamoto S, et al. Congenital-infantile fibrosarcoma. A clinicopathologic study of 10 cases and molecular detection of WTV6-NTRK3 fusion transcripts using paraffin embedded tissues. Am J Clin Pathol. 2001;115:348–55.
- 54. Tannenbaum-Dvir S, Glade Bender JL, Church AJ, et al. Characterization of a novel fusion gene EML4-NTRK3 in a case of recurrent congenital fibrosarcoma. Cold Spring Harb Mol Case Stud. 1:a000471.
- Ud Din N, Minhas K, Shamim MS, Mushtaq N, Fadoo Z. Congenital (infantile) Fibrosarcoma of the scalp: a case series and review of literature. Childs Nerv Syst. 2015;3(11):2145–9.
- Bellfield EJ, Beets-Shay L. Congenital infantile fibrosarcoma of the lip. Pediatr Dermatol. 2014;31(1):88–9.
- 57. Geramizadeh B, Khademi B, Karimi M, Shekarkhar G. Infantile fibrosarcoma of ethmoid sinus, misdiagnosed as an adenoid in a 5-year-old child. J Oral Maxillofac Pathol. 2015;19(2):271.
- Bourgeois JM, Knezevich SR, Mathers JA, Sorensen PH. Molecular detection of the ETV6-NTRK3 gene fusion differentiates congenital fibrosarcoma from other childhood spindle cell tumors. Am J Surg Pathol. 2000;24:937–46.
- 59. Sheng WQ, Hisaoka M, Okamoto S, et al. Congenital-infantile fibrosarcoma. A clinicaopathologic study of 10 cases and molecular detection of WTV6-NTRK3 fusion transcripts using paraffin embedded tissues. Am J Clin Pathol. 2001;115:348–55.
- Coffin CM, Jaszcz W, O'shea PA, Dehner LP. So-called congenitalinfantile fibrosarcoma: does it exist and what is it? Pediatr Pathol. 1994;14:133–50.
- Hu Z, Chou PM, Jennings LJ, Arva NC. Infantile fibrosarcomaa clinical and histologic mimicker of vascular malformations: case report and review of the literature. Pediatr Dev Pathol. 2013;16(5):357–63.
- 62. Alaggio R, Barisani D, Ninfo V, Rosolen A, Coffin CM. Morphologic overlap between infantile Myofibromatosis and infantile Fibrosarcoma: a pitfall in diagnosis. Pediatr Dev Pathol. 2008;11(5):355–62.

- 63. Posso-De Los Rios CJ, Lara-Corrales I, Ho N. Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans in pediatric patients: a report of 17 cases. J Cutan Med Surg. 2014;18(3):180–5.
- 64. Makino M, Sasaoka S, Nakanishi G, Makino E, Fujimoto W. Congenital atrophic dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans detected by COL1A1-PDGFB rearrangement. Diagn Pathol. 2016;11:24.
- Llombart B, Serra-Guillén C, Monteagudo C, López Guerrero JA, Sanmartín O. Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans: a comprehensive review and update on diagnosis and management. Semin Diagn Pathol. 2013;30:13–28.
- 66. Read RW, Burnstine M, Rowland JM, Zamir E, Rao NA. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma of the eyelid: report of a case and literature review. Ophthalmology. 2001;108(4):798–804.
- Brinster NK, Farmer ER. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma presenting on a digit. J Cutan Pathol. 2009;36(1):61–3.
- Rosenberg AS, Kirk J, Morgan MB. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma: an unusual dermal entity with a report of two cases and a review of the literature. J Cutan Pathol. 2002;29(4):238–43.
- 69. Longo F, Musumeci G, Amore F, Motta F, Magro G. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma (RMH) of the anal region: an unusual location for such a rare lesion. Journal of Histology & Histopathology 2014; ISSN 2055-091X | volume 1 | Article 8.
- Scrivener Y, Petiau P, Rodier-Bruant C, Cribier B, Heid E, Grosshans E. Perianal striated muscle hamartoma associated with hemangioma. Pediatr Dermatol. 1998;15:274–6A.
- Takeyama J, Hayashi T, Sanada T, Shimanuki Y, Saito M, Shirane R. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma associated with nasofrontal meningocele and dermoid cyst. J Cutan Pathol. 2005;32:310–3.
- Rodrigues FA, de Paula Carneiro Cysneiros MA, Rodrigues Júnior R, Masashi Sugita D. Rhabdomyomatous mesenchymal hamartoma: a case report. J Bras Patol Med Lab. 2014;50(2):165–6.
- Dehner LP, Valbuena L. Perez-Ataide a et al. salivary gland anlage tumor "congenital pleomorphic adenoma". A clinicopathologic, immunohistochemical and ultrastructural study of nine cases. Am J Surg Pathol. 1994 Jan;18(1):25–36.
- Herrmann BW, Dehner LP, Lieu JEC. Congenital salivary gland anlage tumor: a case series and review of the literature. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2005;69(2):149–56.

- Cohen EG, Yoder M, Thomas RM, Salerno D, Isaacson G. Congenital salivary gland anlage tumor of the nasopharynx. Pediatrics. 2003;112:e66–9.
- Antunes MB, Javia LR, Ransom ER, Kazahaya K. Salivary anlage tumor of the nasopharynx: a case report and review of the literature. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol Extra. 2011;6(2):69–71.
- Yuwanati M, Mhaske S, Mhask A. Congenital granular cell tumor a rare entity. Journal of Neonatal Surgery. 2015;4(2):17.
- Bosanquet D, Roblin GCGCL. A case report and estimation of incidence. Int J Otolaryngol. 2009;31:198–9.
- Godra A, D'Cruz CA, Labat MF, Isaacson G. Pathologic quiz case: a newborn with a midline buccal mucosa mass. Congenital gingival granular cell tumor (congenital epulis). Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2004 May;128:585–6.
- Su JM, Wang JM, Gu WZ. Congenital granular cell tumour in a newborn: a case report and literature review in China. HK J Paediatr. 2010;15:165–9.
- Eghbalian F, Monsef A. Congenital epulis in the newborn, review of the literature and a case report. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol. 2009;31(3):198–9.
- Conrad R, Perez MCN. Congenital granular cell epulis. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2014;138:128–31.
- Kumar R, Jaiswal S, Singhal A, Garg R. Congenital granular cell lesion: a rare tumor of new born. Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Pathology : JOMFP. 2013;17(3):440–2.
- Zerener T, Sencimen M, Altun C, Altug HA. Congenital granular cell tumor in newborn. European Journal of Dentistry. 2013;7(4):497–9.
- Proske S, Hartschuh W, Enk A, Hausser I. Ehlers-Danlos syndrome – 20 year's experience with diagnosis and classification. at the university skin clinic of HeidelbergJ Dtsch Dermatol Ges. 2006 Apr;4(4):308–18.
- 86. Johnson BL, Yan AC. Congenital diseases (Genodermatoses). In: Elder DE, Elenitsas R, Johnson BL, Murphy GF, Xu X, editors. Lever's histopathology of the skin. 10th ed: Chapter 6. Wolters Kluwer Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2009. p. 133–67.
- 87. Kovarik CL, Spielvogel RL, Kantor GR. Pigmentary disorders of the skin. In: Elder DE, Elenitsas R, Johnson BL, Murphy GF, Xu X, editors. Lever's histopathology of the skin. 10th ed: Chapter 27. Wolters Kluwer Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2009. p. 689–97.