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Diagnosis and natural history of hemangiomas.

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Mulliken and Young's Vascular Anomalies: Hemangiomas and Malformations

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Diagnosis and Natural History of Hemangiomas

Chapter: Diagnosis and Natural History of Hemangiomas

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And the blots of Nature's hand

Shall not in their issue stand;

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Never mole, hare-lip, nor scar,

Nor mark prodigious, such as are

Despised in nativity,

Shall upon their children be.

Oberon, King of the Fairies Shakespeare, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*

(Act V, Sc. i., 406)

Incidence

Hemangioma is the most common tumor of infancy and childhood (et al., 1983); the incidence is reported to be 1.0–2.6% in Caucasians. Hemangiomas appear during the first to fourth week of life; they are often not discovered until 2–3 months after birth. By age 1 year, 10% of children have a hemangioma (Holmdahl, 1955; Jacobs, 1957; Hoornweg et al., 1986; et al., 1986). The incidence has been reported to be 1.4% in Africa, which is much lower in our Vascular Anomalies Center.

Hemangiomas were initially reported to occur in an equal frequency in males and females; however, this study included few neonates of less than 1,500 g. The incidence of hemangioma was 23% in premature infants who weighed less than 1,500 g (Amir et al., 1986). This was corroborated by an unpublished study which appeared in 30% of premature infants weighing less than 1,000 g. A multivariate regression showed that low birth weight (defined as less than 1,500 g) was a positive family history (Drolet et al., 2008). This analysis showed that the risk of hemangioma increased by 40%. Earlier studies had shown that premature infants have the same frequency of hemangioma as full-term infants. Hemangiomas arising in prematures occur in the same location as tumors in full-term infants. Gutiérrez and colleagues (2008) studied 100 premature infants weighing less than 1,500 g who developed postnatal hemangiomas. In the hemangioma group, they found a high incidence of intracranial hemorrhage, hematoma, ischemic infarction, vasculitis, and chorioamnionitis. These changes in placental circulation could be related to hemangiomas.

A large prospective study from seven U.S. pediatric dermatologists found that hemangiomas were more likely to be female, white, premature, and the product of multiple pregnancies. They also found that maternal age was significantly higher and that the prevalence of hemangiomas was higher in the presence of preeclampsia. The finding that hemangioma occurred more commonly in multiple gestations. There are other compounding factors such as multiple pregnancies, and prematurity is more likely following a cesarean section. Judah Folkman hypothesized that the common pathway for the development of placenta previa, etc.) involves decreased endogenous angiogenesis and requires surveillance.

The female-to-male ratio for hemangioma is 3:1 (Bowers et al., 1986).

misapplication of material in this work. Except where otherwise stated, drug dosages and recommendations are for the non-pregnant adult who is not breastfeeding.

higher (90%) with problematic tumors (Enjolras et al., 1990; Enjolras et al., 1995; Bauland et al., 2010). A higher incidence of prematurity is associated with structural anomalies (Gorlin et al., 1995). Prematures who develop hemangioma is closer to 1:1 (Amir et al., 1995). Preterm infants are more commonly male. There are reports of women who have had transcervical chorionic-villus sampling (Amir et al., 1995; Bauland et al., 2010).

Location

Infantile hemangioma (IH) most commonly arises in the head (25%) and the extremities (15%) (Finn et al., 1983). This region has a tendency for parents to bring a child with a facial hemangioma to the attention of a dermatologist. The distribution and morphologic forms of facial hemangioma are: focal facial lesions (occurring along lines of embryonic prominences), such as frontonasal, maxillary, and mandibular (Finn et al., 1983). Finn et al. (2006) led them to designate eight facial “segments” that they hypothesized that “segmental” hemangiomas are predetermined and have otherwise disappeared.

The term “segmental” is confusing when used in the clinical context. Embryologic texts describe craniofacial development in terms of segments. The word “segmentation” denotes very early patterns in lower life forms, such as annelids and arthropods. In later craniofacial development, the complex interplay of germ layers and neural crest to form the face. Whether “segmental” speculation provides heuristic insights in the absence of known etiopathogenesis at a molecular level, this author prefers the terms *focal* (solitary), *multifocal* (multiple), or *regional* (territorial). Regional terms for facial anatomic regions, that is, frontal, temporal, nasal,

Familial Hemangiomas

Infantile hemangiomas are not considered inheritable. Nevertheless, there is more frequently in fair-skinned families and in those with a prevalence for Mendelian inheritance in a study of monozygotic twins, a family history of hemangioma was elicited in 10% of infants that suggest familial transmission in an autosomal-dominant pattern (Blei et al., 1998). These “familial” hemangiomas are indistinguishable from sporadic cases. In pedigrees there appears to be coexistence of hemangioma and other anomalies in the family, as well as in the same individual. A putative locus was identified (Blei et al., 1999).

Precursor Lesions

Approximately one-third of infantile hemangiomas are present at the natal period. Signs of nascent hemangioma include: erythematous macule, ecchymotic-like mark, and localized telangiectasia, surrounded by

1972) (Figures 4-1, 4-2, 4-3). Ulceration may also be a harbinger of malignancy. Infantile hemangioma can be nearly fully grown at birth and thus confusion with other vascular lesions exhibit some progression and slow regression, just as t

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Figure 4-1

Precursor lesions of hemangioma. A. Newborn male with pinkish-red, dome-shaped tumor with central ulceration. C. Newborn male with pale, well-circumscribed, and slightly raised tumor. D. At 8 months, this deep/superficial hemangioma at age 8 months.

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Figure 4-2

Nascent hemangioma. A. Newborn female with pale patch and vascular lesion is a macular stain. C. At 1.5 months, raised super

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Figure 4-3

Premonitory hemangioma. A. Newborn with large pale patch a the superficial tumor is more obvious and beginning to elevat

Multifocal Hemangiomas (“Hemangiomatosis”)

Eighty percent of infantile hemangiomas are focal, whereas 20 [Museles, 1965](#)). The purported first description of multiple nec remarkable case report of a 6-day-old neonate with 834 lesion 3–4 millimeters (mm), raised, and dome-like. There can also b same infant (Figure [4-4A](#)). These tiny hemangiomas are often j short time, and often blister, blacken, and disappear. The mecl unknown. It is also curious that new, tiny lesions can appear w

Figure 4-4

Multifocal hemangiomas. A. Multiple dome-like lesions and large lesions in female infant with multifocal intrahepatic tumors and a hemangioma (superior-medial segment) in 1-month-old boy.

(Courtesy of Dr. Madina Holmuhamedova)

Multifocal cutaneous hemangiomas often occur with intracranial lesions termed “miliary” or “disseminated hemangiomatosis” (Kundstadter, 1984). Other authors have used the terms “benign” or “diffuse” (Alexander, 1970; Stern et al., 1981). The modifier “diffuse” is inexact because it also has been used to designate intraosseous hemangiomas. “Diffuse” derives from the Latin *diffusus*, past participle of *diffundere*, “to diffuse” or “to spread about.” Thus, “diffuse” more accurately denotes an extensive lesion on the side of the face or neck, a large area of an extremity, or the entire body.

Extracutaneous hemangiomas have been found at autopsy in the spleen, pancreas, gallbladder, liver, thymus, thyroid, gastrointestinal tract, and lungs (Kundstadter, 1933; Andries and Kaump, 1944; Cooper and Boland, 1981; Stern et al., 1981; Balaci et al., 1999). The most common extracutaneous site is the lung (Lopriore and Markhorst, 1999) (Figure 4-4B). In our experience, it is rare. It is not known whether multifocal hemangiomas are the result of multiple primary hemangiomas or whether lesions from one hemangioma can emigrate to another site. Another type of hemangioma, the so-called “angioblastoma” (previously called “angioblasts”) are present in multiple anatomic sites.

It is rare that an infant with visceral hemangiomas does not have cutaneous lesions. In our experience, some infants with multiple cutaneous lesions do not have hepatic lesions. In a study from the University of California at San Francisco (Street Hospital), hepatic lesions were found in 45% of infants with

cutaneous lesions; and 12–14% with one large or three or more small hepatic tumors do not develop congestive cardiac failure. Infantile hemangiomas is a suspect for having visceral tumors, particularly in the liver. They should be screened by ultrasonography (U/S) and/or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In the absence of pharmacologic therapy, infants with multiple cutaneous and/or visceral hemangiomas are often secondary to arteriovenous shunting in the liver. There are several types of infantile hemangiomas of the iris, often involving the eyelid margins and iris. They are considered a vascular lesion of the iris in one or both eyes (Haik et al., 1983). Complications include hyphema, vitreous hemorrhage, and subretinal hemorrhage. They have been confirmed the typical findings of infantile hemangioma in the retina (Chang et al., 1998). Glaucoma is a potential complication (Weiss and Ernest, 1976). Follow-up ocular examination should include direct and indirect ophthalmoscopy. As would be expected, iridal hemangiomas (Ruttum et al., 1999) and respond to corticosteroid therapy (Ruttum et al., 1999).

Neuraxial Hemangioma

Intracranial infantile hemangiomas can occur, particularly with large facial tumors (Billson and Gillam, 1984; Tortori-Donati et al., 1998). The prevalence of infantile hemangiomas at the Vascular Anomalies Center, 15/1,454 (approximately 1%) of infants with facial hemangiomas. The prevalence of infantile hemangiomas in the central nervous system (CNS): intracranial, intraspinal, or both is 1.5%. At our center, the true frequency of neuraxial hemangioma is probably underestimated because many were traced from a cutaneous extracranial or extraspinal tumor. They can occur in the orbit, orbital fissure, foramen rotundum, and hypoglossal canal. They are associated with an accompanying extra-CNS tumor.

Intracranial hemangioma grows in the subarachnoid space and other typical locations are the cavernous sinus and fourth ventricle (Chang et al., 1998; colleagues (2009), none of the neuraxial hemangiomas invade the brain parenchyma. The most common effect. Other findings were hydrocephalus (n=3), thrombosis of the cavernous sinus (n=3), and association (n=3). Two of the intraspinal hemangiomas had an associated intracranial hemangioma (5C, D). Two of the seven patients with intraspinal hemangiomas had an associated intramedullary angiolipofibroma. There is a report of an intracranial hemangioma in a 2-month-old infant; this was ascribed to intratumoral hemangioma.

Figure 4-5

Neuroaxial hemangioma. A. Large upper eyelid hemangioma crossing orbital foramen and extending into left cavernous sinus and continuing along trigeminal nerve to abut ventral surface of brainstem. B. Reticular hemangioma on posterior thorax is “tip of the iceberg”; black arrows indicate intraspinal, extradural tumor posterior to thecal sac; black and red arrows show tumor in prevertebral space.

PHACE(S)-Associated Malformative Anomalies

Geneticists often mistakenly include “hemangioma” on the list of malformative anomalies, a terminologic error. These mislabeled vascular lesions are usually not pathogenically associated with other anomalies (Burns et al., 1991; Hand and Frieden, 2002). Capillary malformations are not pathogenically associated with other anomalies in the genetic literature. Because infantile hemangiomas are sometimes pathogenically associated, in a rare syndrome. Nevertheless, the association of capillary malformations (capillary, lymphatic, venous, and arterial) are not pathogenically associated with other anomalies in a particular disorder.

An International Working Group of geneticists recommended that PHACE(S) be pathogenically related and occurring in non-contiguous anomalies. PHACE(S) is defined as a nonrandom occurrence of several morphologic anomalies that are pathogenically related. PHACE(S) is identified as either a sequence or a syndrome (Cohen, 1997). A sequence is a series of anomalies that are pathogenically related, although the etiology is unknown. Association alerts the clinician to the possibility of other anomalies. As a working criterion, an abnormality must occur in association with other anomalies and be designated as “associated” rather than an aleatory finding.

There are curious, and relatively uncommon, instances where a hemangioma occurs in association with structural anomalies that are not always pathogenically related. For example, a hemangioma in the presence of malformations of the hindbrain

and [colleagues \(1975\)](#) described two patients with coarctation hemangioma and smaller tumors on the lip and chin. [Pascual-anomalies \(including cerebellar malformations\) by angiography](#) [Schneeweiss and coworkers \(1982\)](#) described four cases of facial great vessels. Goh and [Lo \(1993\)](#) proposed the term “3C syndrome: hemangioma, cerebellar hypoplasia, and coarctation of the aorta. Some infants with large facial hemangioma and anomalies of the face syndrome ([Billson and Gillam, 1984](#)) or Wyburn-Mason syndrome.

The association between cerebellar, cerebrovascular, and aortic anomalies until Frieden and colleagues designated the catchy acronym PHACE (Face; arterial abnormalities; cardiac defects and coarctation; and anomalies of the eye) ([et al., 2001](#)). Often these malformations are ipsilateral to the facial hemangioma. 70% of affected patients have only one extracutaneous anomaly. Curiously, females are affected more than males, 9:1; this ratio is similar to the prevalence of hemangioma in association with a structural brain anomaly in a selected population of patients who were referred with problems of the face, which is much lower. In a large, inter-institutional prospective cohort study, PHACE was discovered in 2.3% of children ([Metry et al., 2006](#)). Ascertainment bias in infants with a large cervicofacial hemangioma. Comparison of PHACE with other syndromes revealed no major demographic or perinatal differences ([Metry et al., 2006](#)).

The “many faces of PHACE” are usually recognizable ([Metry et al., 2006](#)). The major and minor diagnostic criteria is available ([Metry et al., 2006](#)). Figure 4-6. PHACE association will receive syndromic status of PHACES.

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Figure 4-6

PHACES association: Clinical spectrum. A. Infant female with dysmorphic face; stenotic left intracranial internal carotid artery; persistent right subclavian artery. B. 3-month-old female given corticosteroid therapy; revealed hypoplastic cerebellar vermis and dysmorphic cerebellum.

facial hemangioma and anisocoria (small right pupil), esotropia, unilateral internal carotid artery and persistent trigeminal artery; echocardiogram with deep right frontal hemangioma presented with seizures and arterial stroke and moyamoya. Fundoscopic examination revealed retinal pigmentation. E. Neonatal female with reticular hemangioma and stenosis of left (contralateral) internal carotid artery. F. 15-year-old male with hemangioma (necessitating tracheostomy) and bilateral congenital raphe and split manubrium.

Posterior Fossa

Dandy-Walker malformation is the most common developmental anomaly of the posterior fossa; others include: subependymal and arachnoidal cysts, cerebellar atrophy, or vermis, corpus callosum, cerebrum, and septum pellucidum malformation, only 10% had a facial hemangioma (Hirsch et al., 2004).

Several cerebral (supratentorial) abnormalities are associated with posterior fossa migration anomalies. Encephalomalacia, microcephaly, and cerebellar atrophy caused by vascular insufficiency *in utero* (Pascual-Castroviejo et al., 2004). Developmental anomalies cannot be ascribed to vascular stenosis or cortical heterotopias (Grosso et al., 2004).

There are several reports documenting intracranial hemangiomas in the anterior, periorbital hemangioma (Poetke et al., 2002; Bhattacharya et al., 2004). Intracranial base and posterior fossa; they seem to have a predisposition to the internal auditory meatus (Tortori-Donati et al., 1999; Judd et al., 2004). As noted above, intracranial hemangiomas extend within the subarachnoid space.

Hemangioma

Facial hemangioma in PHACE manifests at birth as a regional, nodular, plaque-like, pebbly, or reticular. Although the reticular form is the most common, deep and superficial type of hemangioma also can occur (Rosenthal et al., 2004). PHACE association is with tumors in the frontal and temporal regions, the maxillary and mandibular areas. PHACE association may be associated with many as 20–30% with a large, regional facial hemangioma (Metry et al., 2004). If the mandibular areas are involved (“beard distribution”), laryngeal anomalies, and hemangiomas are often ipsilateral to the intracranial and cervical anomalies.

An epidemiologic study showed that these regional facial hemangiomas are associated with gestational age with a higher birth weight, and that there is a higher incidence of PHACE anomalies.

PHACE anomalies also can occur in the absence of a facial hemangioma (Honey et al., 1975; Billson and Gillam, 1984; Vargha et al., 2002). Internal hemangiomas have also been found with PHACE (Metry et al., 2004). PHACE vascular abnormalities have also been found in the upper limb.

Arterial and Cardiac

Angiography and magnetic resonance angiography (MRA) have the most common findings in PHACE association. There are two types that are difficult to differentiate (Heyer et al., 2008). The structural anomalies of the arteries (such as, primitive trigeminal artery, hypoglossal artery, carotid-vertebrobasilar anastomoses, segmental agenesis, hypoplastic vessels (Pascual-Castroviejo, 1978; Pascual-Castroviejo et al., 1996), development of the vertebral arteries and posterior communicating arteries (more than 1% of the population), but the prevalence is 17.4% in PHACE association at the basilar segment (foramen lacerum) of the internal carotid and vertebral arteries (Castroviejo et al., 1996; Aeby et al., 2003; Grosso et al., 2004). Progressive (Oza et al., 2008). These cerebrovascular abnormalities tend to be unilateral, contralateral and bilateral. Serial imaging has documented progressive arterial anomalies, including evidence of worsening stenosis and occlusion of vessels, resembling moyamoya (Burrows et al. 1998; Baccin et al., 2003) proliferative phase of the hemangioma. Neurologic sequelae include stroke, and developmental delay. These ischemic events are usually unilateral. Progressive cerebrovascular stenosis can cause neurologic dysfunction, delay, seizures, stroke, and also late-onset migraine headaches. Progressive narrowing/non-visualization of at least one great cerebral vessel is common; there are rare patients in whom hypoplasia of the aortic arch has been reported to have regressed (Pascual-Castroviejo et al., 2003).

There are also examples of intracranial AVM/AVF with PHACE association, including hemangiomas of the posterior scalp and subglottis, typical intracranial osteodural AVF, likely a separate arteriovenous shunt at T5, and other examples of well-documented cases of pial-dural AVM/AVF and other examples of intracranial (2011). They also noted that the intracranial fast-flow anomalies are common.

Extracranial vascular anomalies in PHACE association include anomalies of the carotid branches (Burrows et al., 1998); aberrant subclavian artery; coarctation of the ductus arteriosus, septal defects, aortic valvular stenosis, pulmonary artery anomalies (1982; Vaillant et al., 1988); and dilatation of the carotid siphon. The facial hemangioma and the side of the aortic arch anomaly are the most common vascular malformation (Metry et al., 2001). Coarctation of the aorta and shoulder. Aortic aneurysms found in PHACE association occur in the innominate artery, both with and without predisposing aortic arch anomalies, particularly aortic aneurysm, can evolve.

Eye

Ocular abnormalities of PHACES include microphthalmia, iridodysplasia, glaucoma, lens coloboma, persistent papillary membranes, congenital optic nerve hypoplasia or atrophy, and excavated optic disc anomalies (Coats et al., 1999; Metry et al., 2001; Lasky et al., 2004) (Figure 1). An anomaly of the optic disc; it is usually unilateral, or it can be bilateral. It is characterized by a glial tuft, retinal vessels that exit in a radial fashion from an encephalic site on the globe), and variable peripapillary pigmentation. It is not progressive (idiopathic) or in association with other disorders, for example

anomalies (e.g., basal encephalocele, pituitary dwarfism, and al., 1998), moyamoya disease (Massaro et al., 1998; Lenhart et al., 1998), and other types) (Brodsky et al., 1999). Abnormal development of the intracranial thread that ties morning glory fundus to these various conditions may also be part of the PHACE spectrum.

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Figure 4-7

PHACE association: Ocular anomalies. A. 5-year-old girl with right eye anomaly (eccentric location of the pupil) giving a coloboma-like appearance and dilatation/ectasia of the left internal carotid artery; dysmorphic cerebellum. B. Ophthalmological findings reported by Lasky et al. (2004). C. 2-year-old girl with occipital scalp hemangioma. Normal MRI/MRA. Exotropia and nystagmus present. D. “morning glory disc” O.S. (Left) Funnel-shaped excavation of the optic disc—dysplastic optic disc—noticeable for peripheral displacement of the optic disc and vessels emanating from disc. Yellowish central glial tuft pulls temporal vessels. E. O.D.

Sternum

The original acronymic designation PHACE did not include exomphalos. However, craniofacial and cervical hemangioma can be associated with exomphalos (Hersh et al., 1985; Igarashi et al., 1985; Gorlin et al., 1994). Some of the most common sternal cleft involves the manubrium (Figure 4-8). The letter S was added to make PHACES (Metry et al., 2001). Sternal clefts, *diastasis recti*, other rare midline abdominal anomalies in the PHACE spectrum, aortic arch anomalies and in the absence of a facial hemangioma are also part of the PHACES spectrum (Figure 4-8).

Figure 4-8

Extra-craniofacial PHACES. A. Infant girl with focal sternal defect. Sagittal MRI revealed fusiform aneurysm in ascending and tra

PHACES Diagnostic Evaluation and Management

An infant with an extensive temporal-frontal or lower facial hemangioma should be evaluated for possible PHACE association. An echocardiogram should be indicated for possible aortic arch abnormalities. Ultrasonography, MRI/MRA of the brain, head, neck, and chest is needed to demonstrate diffuse periorbital hemangioma in order to rule-out retrobulbar anomalies, including intracranial hemangioma (Judd et al., 2006). CT angiography is fast and can be done without sedation, but its use in radiologic studies is debatable. In some centers, imaging is done in other units, general anesthetic is recommended prior to age 3. Ophthalmologic consultation is also indicated to rule out ocular anomalies with cerebral/extracranial vascular anomalies or intracranial vascular disorders is indicated if MRI reveals evidence of intracranial vascular anomalies or neurologic sequelae.

Children who have suffered an acute ischemic stroke have been evaluated (Judd et al., 2006). It is unclear whether an asymptomatic infant with anomalous hemangioma should be prophylactically anticoagulated (with low molecular weight heparin) if there are cerebral vascular anomalies and until it is certain that the hemangioma does not change on the initial examination in a child with obvious PHACE.

Neurologic symptoms of cerebrovascular involvement can present in a child who has had an imperceptible involuted hemangioma of the forehead.

Figure 4-9

PHACES association: Late presentation. A. Female infant with cleft lip and palate; treated successfully with systemic corticosteroid. 1 year later. She presented with migraine headaches and a transient ischemic attack of the right middle cerebral artery and left moyamoya. “Pial synangiosis” done promptly; treated with antiplatelets. B. Bilateral cleft lip and palate, cleft hemispheres, persistent tortuosity of intracranial vessels, and moyamoya.

PHACES Association-Plus

PHACES is a useful acronymic mnemonic. More initials might be on the spectrum, such as lingual thyroid ([Metry, 2001](#)); ager (2006); and hypopituitarism due to partially empty sella turcica.

There are also rare cases of hemangioma arising along the late lip/palate ([Lo et al., 1994](#); [Williams et al., 1997](#); [Sarifakiouglu et al., 2003](#)) and median mandibular cleft ([Morioka et al., 2003](#)). It is appealing to think of these as lines of fusion; Virchow called these “fissural angiomas.” More penetration of the ectodermal envelope (merging).

Figure 4-10

Cleft lip and hemangioma: Association or coincidence? A. Bilateral cleft lip and palate with vermilion hemangioma on left incomplete side. (Courtesy of Dr. Fernando Ortiz-Monasterio) B. Bilateral cleft lip and palate with vermilion hemangioma on left incomplete side.

Associated Ventral-Caudal Anomalies

Focal hemangioma located over the cervical or thoracic spine is associated with structural defects, and usually imaging is not necessary. In contrast, hemangiomas located in the thoracic, lumbosacral, or perineal regions, may be associated with structural defects. The concurrence of hemangioma and ventral-caudal structural defects is the counterpart of PHACE association (Mulliken et al., 2007b). Also, hemangiomas are common; however, solitary and raised tumors occur as well. A hemangioma in the area of a lumbar hemangioma. Hemangioma is one of several anomalies associated with spinal dysraphism, for example, lipoma and lipomeningocele. A hemangioma can extend to involve an intraspinal lipoma or extraspinal lipoma. Paraparesis. Signs and symptoms of spinal dysraphism may not be apparent at birth. Paralysis of the lower extremities, muscular atrophy, and incontinence may prevent permanent neurologic sequelae. Ultrasonography (US) is the first imaging modality in the first 6 months because of incomplete ossification of the posterior spine. MRI (with contrast) and lumbosacral MRI (and sedation) is necessary after that age. If there is a suspicion for tethering, MRI is mandatory. MRI (with contrast), plus MRA and other vascular anomalies.

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Figure 4-11

Hemangioma and associated ventral-caudal anomalies. A. Retrospective review of a 10-year-old child with a pebbly lumbar tumor with acrochordon and meningocele. C. Child with a hemangioma in the lower limb with imperforate anus, duplex left kidney, and tethered cord.

(Courtesy of Dr. Steven J. Fishman)

Perineal hemangioma can also be associated with urogenital anomalies, including imperforate anus (often with fistula), renal anomalies, bladder anomalies, and genital anomalies.

absence of the labia minora), and hypospadias (Goldberg et al., 2007b; Mulliken et al., 2007b; Kircher et al., 2010); perhaps these correlations are part of the PHACE association. We also described an infant with a large reticular hemangioma, dilatation of the common iliac artery with a large limb, and cardiac overload (Mulliken et al., 2007b).

The acronyms PELVIS (Girard et al., 2006) and SACRAL (Stockman et al., 2006) describe the similarities between hemangioma with ventral-caudal anomalies and associated structural anomalies, incorrectly labeled a “syndrome” and, as in many acronyms, it is necessary as a mnemonic aid, LUMBAR is the most inclusive: *l* for *l*umbar myelopathy, *b*ony deformities, *a*norectal malformations and *a*ssociated anomalies. The *u* also denotes the likelihood of ulcerations in this setting.

This same combination of congenital abnormalities (in the absence of a neural tube defect) is called the *septum malformation sequence* (Wheeler and Weaver, 2001). The first few weeks of development there is incomplete breakdown of the caudal region of the embryo.

Pathogenesis of Hemangioma and Associated Structural Anomalies

The concurrence of infantile hemangioma and malformative anomalies suggests a common pathogenesis. Perhaps these associations represent a common mesodermal development and angioblastic tissue (Hersh et al., 2007) and neural crest cells give rise to the cellular components of infantile hemangioma and associated structural anomalies, including smooth muscle cells, as well as most connective tissues in the body. The pathogenesis of infantile hemangioma and associated structural anomalies may be due to a mesenchymal progenitor cell in one or more patterning genes, and subsequent alterations in morphogenetic instructions.

The structural anomalies that occur in PHACES and ventral-caudal anomalies have a preponderance of females (over 90%) suggests an X-linked disorder. Some males would survive, depending on the mutation in their genome. Males with PHACE association do not have more severe anomalies. A hypothesis was provided by Levin and Kaler (2007), who analyzed a family with PHACES (determined that an unaffected mother had skewed X-inactivation of a mutation), whereas her daughter with PHACES showed a random X-inactivation (the mutated X chromosome). Nevertheless, molecular and genetic studies are needed to determine the pathogenesis of sporadic infantile hemangioma. Solving the riddle of the pathogenesis of infantile hemangioma and associated malformations is the investigation of mechanisms that cause the rare associated malformations.

The Proliferating Phase

Infantile hemangioma's hallmark is rapid neonatal growth. The pathogenesis of infantile hemangioma is supported by observations and studies of cellular turnover (Mulliken and Gahl, 2001) and immunohistochemical analysis of tissue specimens (Takahashi et al., 2001). The pathogenesis of infantile hemangioma is variable; diverse forms are also seen in multifocal

appearance (Figure 4-12A). If the tumor arises in the superficial elevated surface and a vivid crimson color. Many superficial hemangiomas are 1–2 centimeters (cm) in diameter (Figure 4-12B). In general, the area of transformation” (Mulliken, 1991). Once the territory of a superficial hemangioma causes the tumor to protrude and present with a red, often circular, raised surface, a hallmark of the combined (deep and superficial), as well as the color change from the tumor.

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Figure 4-12

Fallacy of old term “capillary-cavernous” hemangioma. A. “Strawberry” hemangioma configuration. Same histopathologic pattern whether tumor in superficial or deep dermis. B. Superficial hemangioma. C. Deep hemangioma. D. Combined superficial-deep hemangioma.

Entirely superficial lesions are diffuse, slightly raised, with a pebbled surface. They can be continued growth at the periphery, while the central area may involute. The form of reticular hemangioma remains flat (macular); however, it may become raised within the involved area. Parents often comment that their child has a “strawberry” hemangioma in the early morning. This observation is ascribed to increased vascularity.

Deep hemangioma proliferates in the lower dermis, subcutis, and muscle. It is normally normal or slightly bluish in color (Figure 4-12C). The covering skin is normal. Telangiectatic vessels. Deep hemangioma often grows unnoticed until it becomes a proliferative pattern in both the superficial and deep dermis, as well as the subcutis. A “cavernous” hemangioma (Figure 4-12D). Histologic examination of hemangiomas shows that the proliferative endothelial pattern is the same in all particular tumor (Mulliken and Glowacki, 1982). Thus, the terms “superficial hemangioma), “cavernous” (denoting deep hemangioma), and “combined” can be discarded (Mulliken and Glowacki, 1982).

There are few indicators that predict the eventual volume of a hemangioma. The outcome of involution. The apogee of growth is around 6–7 months of age. A large prospective cohort study showed that most hemangiomas involute by 12 months (Chang et al., 2008). Therefore, a young infant with emerging hemangioma should be followed up.

tumor's growth, anticipate complications, and consider treatment to stabilize earlier. It has been written that deep hemangiomas have a higher risk of bleeding; furthermore, deep lesions seem to regress more slowly (Nakayama et al, 2004). The difficulty in monitoring the life cycle of a deep hemangioma is more easily appreciated than diminishing volume.

There is a small subset of errant hemangiomas that continue to grow (Figure 4-13 A–C). It is traditionally believed that an involuted hemangioma leaves behind fibrous tissue and a few residual vessels. A rare example of recrudescence is shown in Figure 4-13D.

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Figure 4-13

Atypical life cycle of infantile hemangioma. A. 6-year-old girl with a large hemangioma on the right leg, partially resected. Histopathologic diagnosis: “hemangioma.” B. 6-year-old girl with a large hemangioma on the right leg, resected with microvascular particles and Gelfoam; resected again at age 11 years. Histopathologic diagnosis: “hemangioma.” C. 4-year-old girl with evidence of fast-flow. GLUT1 positive; MIB-1 positive. D. 12-year-old (premenstrual) girl with involuted right leg hemangioma; telangiectatic residuum began growing again. Histopathology: multilaminated basement membranes, and GLUT1 positive.

Differential Diagnosis

Clinical history is foremost in differentiating infantile hemangioma from other vascular lesions. A premonitory cutaneous sign at birth or the tumor appears postnatally, usually within the first year of life, that of the infant. In contrast, a vascular malformation, whether capillary or venous, is present at birth in the child. The color of a vascular birthmark also helps in establishing the diagnosis. A capillary hemangioma has a scarlet color that gradually deepens during the first year. Vascular malformations are usually present at birth, whether there are arterial, venous, capillary, or lymphatic components.

While palpating a vascular anomaly, it is helpful to imagine what a hemangioma feels like; it is a dense cellular tumor that is completely emptied of blood with compression, unlike a flat capillary malformation. In contrast, a venous malformation is soft, easily compressible, and has a sparse parenchyma. Palpation of thrombi or phleboliths can help identify these malformations, arteriovenous anomalies, and infantile hemangiomas and venous malformations.

In most instances, hemangiomas can be differentiated from vascular malformations using various diagnostic techniques (Finn et al., 1983; Mulliken, 1984). An accurate diagnosis can be made using photographs, and physical examination should permit proper classification. A handheld (continuous wave) Doppler unit demonstrates the type of flow, and a rechargeable instrument is very useful, particularly in the diagnosis of a radiologic assessment. If the diagnosis remains unclear, further imaging is the next step, followed, if necessary, by magnetic resonance imaging. Although it appears to be a harmless lesion, the physician can usually make a diagnosis within 2–3 weeks. Usually parents accept an explanation of the most likely diagnosis. Clearly, this kind of consultative plan requires an understanding of the disease. An accurate diagnosis is forthcoming.

There are two axioms that help to distinguish infantile hemangiomas from vascular malformations.

Not All Hemangiomas Look Like Strawberries

The diagnosis of hemangioma is usually possible based on a physical examination and palpation. Nevertheless, hemangiomas appear in a wide variety of forms. A raised tumor with a variable deep component. Less common is a flat capillary malformation. The size can be variable, from pinpoint tumors to large nodules. Deep lesions are usually easily diagnosed by pattern recognition. Some of hemangiomas are

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Figure 4-14

Axiom I: Not all hemangiomas look like strawberries. A. 4-month-old infant on left cheek with indistinct border. Lesion stopped growing by 1 year of age. “Arrested” infantile hemangioma. B. Raised hemangioma left cheek. Mucosa limits elevation of tumor. C. 2-year-old girl with vascular malformation. Fast-flow suggested AVM. Skin overlying lesion. Histopathology: tightly packed capillary-like vessels, plump endothelial cells. Infantile hemangioma.

Deep Hemangioma

The skin can be normal overlying a deep hemangioma in subcutaneous tissue and a few telangiectasia. A fibrofatty feel on palpation and the deep hemangioma can be confused with other vascular lesions in the differential diagnosis (Figure 4-15). Hemangioma is the most common vascular malformation (50%), followed in frequency by pleomorphic adenoma (29%) (Welch, 1986). Malignant epithelial tumors of the parotid are uncommon in childhood (Lack and Upton, 1988).

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Figure 4-15

Deep hemangiomas. A. 2-year-old girl with spheroidal tumor on right lower neck diagnosed as angular dermoid cyst; fast-flow noted by Doppler ultrasound. B. 2-year-old girl with spheroidal tumor on right lower neck confirmed Dx: Infantile hemangioma. C. 5-month-old female infant with telangiectasia or tiny circular red spot usually confirmed by duplex ultrasonography needed.

Lymphatic anomalies are not always obvious at birth; they can be diagnosed later. Lymphatic lesions are either cystic and soft or tense; they can be firm. Lymphatic anomalies may have an overlying capillary stain; telangiectasia.

A handheld (continuous wave) Doppler unit usually confirms the diagnosis. Duplex ultrasonography or MRI (with gadolinium) will precisely define the lesion. In cases of diagnostic ambiguity, consider fine needle biopsy, under fluoroscopic guidance.

Arrested Hemangioma

Hidano and Nakajima (1972) described two infants who presented with arrested hemangiomas.

hemangioma; however, only “telangiectases” developed, and called “port-wine like” and “telangiectatic” (Martínez-Pérez et al., 1995) these lesions. An inchoate hemangioma presents as a flat, telangiectatic lesion with a predilection for the lower body and lower limbs; there may be lesions elsewhere (Figure 4-16). Often the central area of an arrested hemangioma at the periphery and coalesce. These stunted hemangiomas tend to imitate an infantile hemangioma that appear postnatally and exhibit a preponderance as the more typical infantile hemangioma.

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Figure 4-16

Arrested hemangiomas. A. Infant born with pale patch and central area that evolve and began fading before 1 year. B. Neonate with “telangiectatic” hemangioma that never progressed. C. 2-month-old girl born with pink patch that failed to evolve further and slowly regressed. She also had 3 other lesions. D. 10-month-old infant with stunted hemangioma on calf and multiple intra-

Most arrested hemangiomas look reticular but not all reticular hemangiomas are arrested.

Reticular Hemangioma

Infantile hemangioma can infiltrate the dermis, staining and spreading (“port-wine stain”) (Martínez-Pérez et al., 1995). This variant typically lacks the few signs of rapid growth, further adding to possible confusion. A reticular hemangiomatous stain is inhomogeneous and network-like (usually with a variegated color, and irregular margins; often there are large dark areas).

These lesions have also been called “telangiectatic” (hemangioma) and are histopathologically a telangiectasia. The adjective “reticular” refers to the network-like appearance (Mulliken et al., 2007b). The term originates from the Latin *reticulum*. *Dictionary* (27th edition) defines reticular as “a fine network formed by branching vessels or fibers.”

Reticular hemangioma is a variation of infantile hemangioma; it is CD31 (endothelial protein-1) positive. Reticular hemangioma phenotype presents as a localized macular lesion, usually in a limb, that fails to grow and regress. Not all reticular hemangiomas are “arrested.” At the opposite extreme, extensive reticular hemangioma occurs in PHACE association (Figure 4-17A) or in the lower trunk (Figure 4-17B). Reticular hemangioma in an extremity can be a localized pattern (Figure 4-17C). Extensive (regional) reticular hemangioma

become raised. The plantar or palmar surfaces remain macula proximally, the tumor exhibits the characteristic network-like capillary malformation, cutis marmorata telangiectatica congenita (CMTC), and the limb can also be accompanied by the more typical forms of PHACE association), gastrointestinal hemangiomas, and tiny r have been reported with reticular hemangioma in the upper extrem

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Figure 4-17

Reticular hemangiomas. A. Female infant with left facial reticular hemangioma and PHACE association. B. 2-month-old female with reticular hemangioma on the back with tethered spinal cord, imperforate anus, omphalocele and cutaneous capillary malformation. C. 10-month-old girl with reticular hemangioma on the back postnatally and darkened over ensuing months. D. Diffuse reticular hemangioma on the back with fast-flow resulted in cardiac overload with a minor contribution by the tumor; this demonstrates enlarged right common iliac artery with multiple aneurysms at the distal extremity.

Reticular hemangiomas often progress to acral, proximal, and distal forms (e.g., PHACE and anomalies); these tend to be deep and recalcitrant to the usual treatment, and sometimes skin grafting may be necessary. Fast-flow through the tumor can cause cardiac overload. In one such infant, embolization was necessary. Limb amputation was eventually necessary because of extensive necrosis (Cronin et al., 2007b). Microscopy showed infiltrative growth of deep tissues, including bone (Cronin et al., 2007b).

Reticular hemangioma sometimes regresses rapidly, but usually leaves a residual localized form of the tumor. Axial overgrowth of the limb is possible and may persist following involution.

Reticular hemangioma over the thoracic spine is another, albeit rare, form (Cronin et al., 2007b). The tumor may cause compressor myelopathy (Cronin et al., 2007b).

Not All Strawberries Are Hemangiomas

Tumors

Other vascular tumors of infancy can masquerade as common tufted angioma, and various types of hemangioendothelioma, nasal glioma, juvenile xanthogranuloma, infantile myofibroma (Friedman *et al.*, 1995), cutaneous lymphoid hyperplasia, solitary (“self-healing”) angiofibroma, giant cell angioblastoma, and pilomatrixoma (Friedman *et al.*, 1995) have been misdiagnosed and mistreated as infantile hemangioma (Friedman *et al.*, 1995) (ready to burst), purple-red with radial vessels, and firm to palpation. Other tumors that can be mistaken for hemangioma include rhabdomyosarcoma, extraskeletal osteosarcoma, metastatic neuroblastoma (Hassanein *et al.*, 2010) (Figure 4-20), and lipoblastoma of the forehead that was initially misdiagnosed as hemangioma (Burnett *et al.*, 2007) (Figure 4-21). It is mandatory if there is any inconsistency in the findings or any suspicion of a tumor on physical examination, or radiologic imaging.

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Figure 4-18

Axiom II: Not all strawberries are hemangiomas. Multiple vascular lesions on the trunk and extremities. Curiously, only one tiny lesion grew on the face (unspecified type, GLUT1 negative).

Figure 4-19

Benign lesions. A. Congenital ovoid mass at nasal root. Dx: nasal dermoid. B. 10-month-old boy born with dark purple lesion right cheek. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. MIB1 30%. C. 10-month-old girl with firm, yellow-pink, dome-shaped lesion on forehead. Histopathologic Dx: juvenile xanthogranuloma. D. 7-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. E. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. F. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. G. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. H. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. I. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. J. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. K. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. L. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. M. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. N. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. O. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. P. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. Q. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. R. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. S. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. T. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. U. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. V. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. W. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. X. 5-year-old boy born with depressed, purple lumbar stain; parents noted lesion at birth. Ultrasound and ultrasonography. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. Y. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock that arose at 4 months. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma. Z. 10-month-old boy with lobulated vascular lesion right cheek, unchanged over time. Histopathologic Dx: infantile hemangioma.

(Courtesy of Dr. Arin K. Greene)

Figure 4-20

Malignant tumors. A. Frontal tumor appeared at 2 months of age. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. (Courtesy of Dr. Chantal van der Horst) B. 3-week-old male with intravascular coagulopathy. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. C. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. D. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. E. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. F. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. G. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. H. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. I. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. J. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. K. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. L. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. M. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. N. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. O. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. P. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. Q. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. R. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. S. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. T. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. U. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. V. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. W. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. X. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. Y. 10-month-old girl with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma. Z. 10-month-old boy with purple raised lesion on buttock and two subcutaneous lumbar masses. Histopathologic Dx: infantile fibrosarcoma.

Figure 4-21

Cutaneous leukemia. A. Glabellar mass appeared at 6 months, leukemic infiltrate in muscle. B. 6-month-old child with swollen skin; lesion slightly firm. Biopsy Dx: precursor B-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia.

(Courtesy of Dr. Trevor J. McGill)

Pyogenic Granuloma

This common fruit-like cutaneous vascular tumor can be confused with other vascular lesions. Unfortunately, pathologists have muddied the term “pyogenic granuloma.” A better term would be “lobular capillary hemangioma.” It occurs in infants and children, at a mean age 6.7 years; 12% occur in the first year of life. In children, which are more common in females, pyogenic granulomas in the head and neck region (Patrice et al., 1991). Usually there is no history of trauma or a clear cause; they arise *sui generis*; however, they often appear in a preexisting cavity, such as the eyelids, or extremities. Less frequently, pyogenic granuloma occurs on the face (Patrice et al., 1980). Typically they appear suddenly and grow rapidly. They are often pedicled. The typical pyogenic granuloma is small (average 0.5 cm) and arises from the epidermis. Epithelium sloughs, followed by crusting and by sloughing of the crust. Recurrent episodes initiate visits to the local emergency room or the physician. Treatment by pressure or cauterization. Frequently the child arrives with an ulcerated presentation prompted Thomson to call this entity “Band-Aid granuloma.” Histopathologic examination. Ultrasonography demonstrates a characteristic vascular pattern.

Figure 4-22

Pyogenic granuloma. A. Pedunculated lesion. B. Dome-like lesion. C. Lesions continued to appear until age 6 months. Several lesions excised. D. GLUT1 immunonegative capillaries in edematous stroma with no recurrence at age 19 years. E. 10-year-old girl born with capillary malformation-like lesions appeared at age 1.5 years. Doppler and MRI reveal

Not all pyogenic granulomas ulcerate; some remain sessile, circumscribed (Figure 22B). This papular form can be mistaken for a small infantile hemangioma. There are rare cases of multiple congenital pyogenic granulomas. Multiple congenital pyogenic lesions vary in size; often they are excised. Nevertheless, they have a limited life span and gradually regress in childhood. Multiple pyogenic granuloma-like lesions can also occur. Multiple pyogenic granulomas are GLUT1 negative, whereas multiple, telangiectatic lesions are GLUT1 positive. Multiple pyogenic lesions (“satellites”) can also appear in the

The cause of pyogenic granuloma is unknown. Although they are often considered to be induced by infection, nor are they granulomatous by histologic criteria. The vascular lesions in bacillary angiomatosis and in verruga peruana are induced by *B. burgdorferi*. Nevertheless, immunohistochemical and molecular profiling of these lesions show the protein or DNA sequences of *B. quintana* or *B. henselae* (Leung et al., 2000).

Vascular Malformations

Capillary, venous, and arterial malformations can be confused with hemangiomas at birth and commensurate growth, plus the findings by observation. Hemangioma and AVM are warm on palpation. Hemangioma and AVM may not. AVM in an infant typically presents as telangiectasia or a lesion that is expanding during the first year, forming a tumor-like mass, so-called infantile AVM. In some cases, imaging procedures such as ultrasonic study and MRI. In some cases, imaging reveals lesions, such as Stage I AVM, AVM-like anomalies in Bannayan-Rupprecht-Happle syndrome. Biopsy may be necessary.

Figure 4-23

Vascular malformations. A. Vascular birthmark on philtrum; no capillary malformation. B. Purple vascular lesion of lower eyelid misinterpreted as “hemangioma.” Dx: venous malformation. C exhibited postnatal nodular expansion. MRI and angiography embolization. D. 5-month-old girl born with purple, enlarged lesion. Angiography, interpreted as “hemangioma” because lesions did not enhance and interpreted to be AVM.

Proliferating Phase Complications

Ulceration

Superficial hemangiomas, those proliferating just beneath the epidermal crusting and dark discoloration are the immediate heralds of ulceration. [Liu and colleagues \(2010\)](#) have shown that an earlier whitish discoloration (seen in younger) is a sign of impending ulceration, rather than an aug

The frequency of ulceration was 16% in a large multicenter prospective study. Ulceration commonly occurs around 4–6 months, at the height of the proliferative phase. For example, ulceration was documented in 59% of patients with lower labial and anogenital hemangioma and post-auricular sulcus. If the tumor grows in the form of hills and valleys, observations suggest that localized trauma, friction, and maceration are common in any tense superficial tumor (Figure 4-24A, B, C). Congenital ulceration (Figure 6-15).

Figure 4-24

Proliferative phase complication: Ulceration. A. Ulcerated deep right lower limb with perianal ulceration. C. Superficial ulcerated hemangioma with ulcerative necrosis of auricle and lower lip.

Once it was believed that ulceration was secondary to infection bacterial colonization of an ulcerated wound. A retrospective study of polymicrobial cultures, either aerobic or anaerobic or mixed or uncommon; the usual offenders are *Pseudomonas* and *Staph. c* hemangioma progresses to extensive necrosis and destruction ear (Figure 24-D). Thomson (1979) called these aggressive lesions large recalcitrant ulcerations characterize reticular hemangioma. Ulcerated hemangiomas often bleed, but this is usually minor

Ulcerated hemangioma is notoriously slow to heal, despite all infant is irritable and unable to feed and to sleep. Nor do the p shown to be increased in the proliferative phase (Jang et al., 20 the ulcerated area is exposed to air or physical contact.

Mechanism

The cause of ulceration is not precisely known. The old speculation breakdown and ulceration—either as the result of microvascular supply.” Another possible explanation is that the loss of normal changes in the overlying epidermis (Beilenberg et al., 1999) pr

Bleeding

In 1940, Kasabach and Merritt described thrombocytopenic pu

with a rapidly enlarging “giant capillary hemangioma” of the l years, the double-eponym “Kasabach-Merritt syndrome” was variety of vascular anomalies. By the end of the last century, it cause coagulopathy. Primary platelet-trapping is almost exclus tumors, kaposiform hemangioendothelioma (KHE) and tufted [Sarkar et al., 1997](#)). These vascular tumors that cause the Kasak

Spontaneous bleeding from a punctate area in florid superficial episodic bleeding can frighten the parents and can be an anno hemangioma also bleeds, but usually more slowly.

Obstruction

Visual

Amblyopia is defined as poor vision in an eye in which there is in failure of normal development of binocular cortical cells. Ar the incidence is reported to be 43–60% ([Haik et al., 1979](#)). Ther and strabismic. The best-known is deprivational amblyopia (c vision ([Robb, 1977](#); [Stigmar et al., 1978](#); [Thomson et al., 1979](#); F weeks, will diminish input to the immature developing occipit periods of obstruction are even more injurious (Figure 4-25). I anisometropia (asymmetrical refractive error), secondary to p difference in refraction of 2 diopters or more is significant eno astigmatic and sometimes myopic ([Robb, 1977](#); [Haik et al., 197 cornea. Hemangioma exerts pressure on the globe in a directio the tumor predicts the axis of greatest corneal curvature \(\[Robb astigmatism, probably because lesions in this location often h by pressure on the equator of the globe \\(due to blepharoptosi Strabismus \\(misalignment of the eyes\\) is an uncommon ophth Strabismus is usually secondary to ambyopia, but paralysis \\(s be a primary cause of amblyopia \\(\\[Stigmar et al., 1978\\]\\(#\\)\\).\]\(#\)](#)

Figure 4-25

Proliferative phase complication: Ocular obstruction. A. Newborn with a large, raised, red, and vascularized lesion of the supraorbital area and upper eyelid. C. By day 14, stain darker and more extensive. B. By day 14, the lesion has enlarged and the orbital hemangioma obscures visual field.

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Figure 4-26

Proliferative phase complication: Corneal deformation. 3-month-old infant with a large, raised, red, and vascularized lesion of the supraorbital area and upper eyelid causing corneal deformation and astigmatism (2.5 diopters); she is at risk for amblyopia.

Retrobulbar hemangioma usually does not cause astigmatism globe (usually proptosis or dystopia), ocular muscular imbalance. Epiphora and recurrent conjunctivitis is another relatively frequent complication. Hemangiomas can cause a significant obstruction of the nasolacrimal drainage system.

Ultrasonography is useful in determining the anatomic extent extraconal, or intraconal (Bowman et al., 2004). It can be accompanied by MRI if there is concern about possible intraorbital extension. In MRI, include attention to the brain, looking for possible PHACE cerebellar malformations intracranially.

Every child with a periocular hemangioma should be refracted. The upper eyelid or supraorbital area, frequent periodic refractive error. The lower cheek should also be followed closely, although lesions in this area are less common. This is because the lower eyelid lies slightly below the cornea, and the globe tends to rotate upward during sleep—babies' usual mode. Newborns should be evaluated by an ophthalmologist. Rarely, a large hemangioma can cause amblyopia or strabismic vision. One possible mechanism is that the tumor elevates with supine positioning of the baby. Even when infants are propped up, they may raise the head to look over a malar tumor.

Absence of an asymmetrical refractive error is a favorable prognostic sign in a child with a periocular hemangioma (Robb, 1977). Late residual complications of periorbital hemangioma include ptosis, blepharoptosis, and even optic atrophy (Stigmar et al., 1978).

Airway

Proliferative phase hemangioma could possibly block the nasal passage, especially if a nasal cannula or CPAP is used. In clinical practice, this is an extremely rare occurrence. The child adapts and learns to breathe through the oral passage. It has a tendency to recur. A large hemangioma can destroy the lower lateral cartilages. This is a common complication. The cartilage is distorted, when exposed during resection of the tumor.

More insidious and life-threatening is hemangiomatous proliferation of the subglottic area. It is asymptomatic at birth, but within 6–8 weeks they slowly develop. Symptoms are noticeable during feeding, crying, or upper respiratory tract infections. The condition usually resolves within 12 months; the mean age is 3.6 months (Shikhani et al., 1986). Often, the condition is misdiagnosed as protracted laryngotracheitis or recurrent laryngitis. Approximately one-half of infants with subglottic hemangioma have a cutaneous lesion in the facial area (Ferguson and Flake, 1961). Thus, the absence of cutaneous lesions does not indicate the presence of, or early involution in the cutaneous lesion (e.g., softening and a change in color). A large hemangioma is slowly narrowing the airway. The term “beard” is used to describe a hemangioma can be associated with subglottic hemangioma (Ferguson and Flake, 1961). It is inappropriate since most hemangiomas occur in little girls.

Any infant who is suspected of having subglottic hemangioma should be evaluated. If the infant does not permit full visualization of the subglottis. General anesthesia and rigid bronchoscopy. The typical finding is a localized, smooth, compressible lesion. There are a few telangiectatic vessels in the submucosa. Subglottic

stain subglottis and trachea in the absence of mucosal elevation, epiglottic folds, and piriform fossae. Extension into the hypopharynx. Hemangioma can also be circumferential and can encroach on the airway also may be compromised due to extrinsic compression. This should be indicated whenever there is circumferential narrowing.

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Figure 4-27

Proliferative phase complication: Airway obstruction. A. Localized unilateral tumor more commonly seen on left side. (Courtesy of Dr. Reza Rahbar) subglottic hemangioma with 95% narrowed airway.

(Courtesy of Dr. Reza Rahbar)

Hemangioma in the postcricoid region of the hypopharynx is rare. Symptoms or obstructive symptoms can be subtle and appear late; these infants are often asymptomatic (Awwad and Mortelliti, 2006). If the infant is straining, flexible laryngoscopy of the postcricoid region. Postcricoid lesions are less easily visualized than subglottic lesions. Anesthetic (Awwad and Mortelliti, 2006).

Auditory

Obstruction of the external auditory canal, unilateral or bilateral, can result in hearing loss. The parotid gland (Figure 4-28A). Narrowing of the canal can result in hearing loss. This is relieved with regression of the hemangioma. This should not occur until the first year, when auditory conduction is necessary for normal development.

Figure 4-28

Proliferative phase complication: Skeletal distortion. A. Deep p
narrowing of external auditory canal. B. Prominent ear second
hemangioma causing orbital elevation (maxillary overgrowth)

It is curious that facial nerve palsy is almost never seen, given
hemangiomas have a predilection to invade nerves. In our uni
with a parotid hemangioma. This was likely caused by a separ
nerve in the temporal bone, that is, in the internal auditory car
[Judd and coworkers \(2007\)](#).

Skeletal Distortion

Infantile hemangioma rarely affects nearby bone. A minor def
include deviation of the nasal pyramid caused by a tumor of th
large scalp lesion ([Boyd et al., 1984](#)). Extensive intra- and extra
cavity ([Williams, 1979](#); [Boyd et al., 1984](#)), just as in experiment
typically overgrows in the presence of a large parotid hemangi
causes the ear to protrude (Figure [4-28B](#)). Malar enlargement
also cause elevation of the ipsilateral orbit (Figure [4-28C](#)). Bor
hypervascularity. Localized hemangioma in a limb does not ca
Nevertheless, a minor limb length discrepancy can occur with
[2007a](#)).

Cardiac Overload

An extensive infantile hemangioma can divert enough blood t
cardiac failure. This scenario most commonly occurs with mul
multiple cutaneous tumors. The infant typically presents in the
cardiac overload ([Boon et al., 1996](#)). The cutaneous lesions are
they can also have the other typical morphologic features of sc
intrahepatic hemangiomas are discussed in Chapter [5](#); diagno

In rare instances, a large infantile hemangioma, whatever the l
cardiac output. Perhaps the most common site is the parotid g
of 100 parotid hemangiomas ([Greene et al., 2004](#)). Cardiac dec
infantile hemangioma involving an extremity; the large tortuou
AVM ([Mulliken et al., 2007b](#)).

Fetal (congenital) hemangiomas, either cutaneous or solitary in location, can be associated with cardiac failure at birth (*vide infra*).

Hypothyroidism

Type 3 iodothyronine deiodinase (D3) is normally present in the placenta, converting triiodothyronine to biologically inactive metabolites. Placental D3 is a source of thyroid hormones. The finding of severe hypothyroidism in an infant with a large hemangioma is associated with the tumor (Huang et al., 2000). Elevated D3 has also been found in the placenta and also in a 21-year-old female with hepatic hemangioendothelioma. Large hemangiomas degrade the thyroid hormones at rates that exceed the rate of synthesis.

TSH levels should be checked in an infant with a large hemangioma before starting thyroid hormone therapy. This “consumptive hypothyroidism” should be promptly treated. TSH levels rise as points are lost for each month in which an infant with hypothyroidism is not treated.

Newborn serum TSH screening is useful in the differential diagnosis of hypothyroidism. In an infant with hemangioma could also indicate coincidental, congenital hypothyroidism. In such an infant, the TSH level promptly falls to normal level following treatment.

The Involuting Phase

Hemangioma’s growth stabilizes by the end of the first year of life. The growth then regresses as the child, followed thereafter by slow regression. Nevertheless, the growth cycle. Some hemangiomas continue to grow beyond age 1 year, with a proliferating and involuting phases (Brandling-Bennett et al., 2000) in the life cycle of a hemangioma. Gradually, apoptosis begins to predominate over proliferation. The central region of a superficial hemangioma can appear to regress first, with the periphery of the lesion. Histologically, proliferation and involuting phases are characterized by thymidine uptake into endothelial DNA (Mulliken and Glowacki, 1998) have demonstrated diminishing cellular turnover until a point where regression begins (Razon et al., 1998).

One of the first signs of regression is fading of the shiny crimson color. The lesion then assumes a mottled, grayish mantle, and on close examination, the skin becomes slightly wrinkled. Bleeding and ulceration often begin centrally and spread, in a centrifugal fashion, toward the periphery.

Whereas a young, tense hemangioma is often tender to the touch, the involuting hemangioma seems less painful and that their child is not bothered by the lesion. and strains, the hemangioma does not swell up the way it once did. The lesion is no longer compressible with a handheld Doppler probe, as initially described by Bingham (1938). The Doppler signal disappears in involuting phase in some children; it persists longer in many children. The involuting phase extends from 1 year until 5 to 7 years of age.

Two examples of regression are shown in Figure 4-29. Clinical regression occurs in over 50% of children by age 5 years and in over 70% of children by age 10 years. In the remaining children until age 10–12 (Lister, 1938; Pratt, 1953; Siu et al., 1998).

298 hemangiomas, 80% of lesions that had not completely involuted, as opposed to 38% “imperfect” results for lesions that had involuted, regardless of sex, race, site, size, nascent presence at birth, duration of growth, or site of involution (Bowers et al., 1960; Finn et al., 1983). There is a linear relationship between the age of regression and the size of the tumor, with larger tumors regressing more slowly than smaller tumors. Our experience (Finn et al., 1983) and that of our coworkers (1960), that the rate and completeness of resolution of a hemangioma is directly correlated between the final result of regression and the age at which regression begins.

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Figure 4-29

Involuting-involved phases. A. 4-month-old girl with superficial hemangioma on the forehead. B. Accelerated regression underway at age 1.5 years. C. Minor cutaneous hemangioma on the cheek relatively unchanged at age 2 years. D. Some regression of the forehead lesion complete at age 14 years. Nasal deviation barely noticeable with regression.

The clock of regression begins ticking as hemangioma's growth ceases. The rate of regression on a similar time schedule for both deep and superficial tumors. The rate of regression in low-birth-weight prematures follows the same time course as in term infants. The duration of proliferation in a premature infant is determined by the gestational age at birth. Cutaneous lesions of multiple hemangiomatosis usually involute by age 2 years.

It is also commonly observed that involution proceeds more slowly in deep lesions (Bowers et al., 1960). At the cellular level, all infantile hemangiomas, whether superficial or deep, involute are often seen in the same microscopic field; however, the rate of regression varies by anatomic region. A likely explanation is that hemangiomas deposit more fibrofatty tissue during regression. This variable rate of regression and persistent “tumor.”

Although uncommon, an infantile hemangioma can have a protracted course. In some cases, pharmacologic therapy may have to be continued indefinitely. If there are no signs of regression, the tumor should be excised. Histopathologic

reveal features characteristic of a much earlier stage in hemangioma.

The Involuted Phase

Nearly normal skin is restored in approximately 50% of children. There is skin atrophy, telangiectatic vessels, and slightly pale skin. A crepe-like texture and the destruction of elastic fibers (*anetoderma*). This is a sharply demarcated, superficial, bossed tumor. Extra skin after expansion. Involuted tumors often have residual purplish drainage. In the involuted phase, this area will become a pale or discolored patch of scar. Involution without intervening ulceration. Another curious observation is adolescent acne in skin of an involuted hemangioma.

Protuberant hemangioma of any size is more likely to result in residual (subcutaneous) hemangiomas may well regress totally, leaving elastic fibers are relatively undisturbed.

In general, it is difficult to accurately foretell the outcome in terms of residual fat (Figure 4-30). Hemangioma in certain anatomic locations may regress. Tumor in the scalp can expand or destroy hair follicles. It is common with a supraorbital hemangioma. Periorbital hemangioma causes imbalance of the extraocular muscles. Nasal hemangioma splays the nostril producing spherical enlargement of the tip. Labial hemangioma causes vermilion-cutaneous junction, and pale discoloration of the vermillion. Behind dark blue veins, fine telangiectasias, and sometimes a rare instances of recurring, deep, well-localized ulcerations years later on an extremity.

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Figure 4-30

Involuting-involuted phases. A. Regressing deep parotid hemangioma with expanded skin. See proliferative phase, Figure 4-28A. B. Involved

minor crepey skin. See proliferative phase Figure 4-12B. C. Involved telangiectasias remain; prominent ear secondary to retroauricular intracranial vascular anomalies. See proliferative phase Figure 4-11 years. Note pigmented, atrophic skin, nasal deviation, and ectopic ear. D. Multiple thoracic hemangiomas regressed at age 5 years, leaving scars. E. Involved reticular hemangioma, age 13 years. Foot/toes slightly enlarged. F. Involved reticular hemangioma, age 13 years. Foot/toes slightly enlarged. G. Involved reticular hemangioma, age 13 years. Foot/toes slightly enlarged. See proliferative phase Figure 4-17C.

Fetal (Congenital) Hemangiomas

There are neonatal vascular tumors that do not follow the expected course of a hemangioma. These tumors are distinguished as fully grown at birth (Boon et al., 1996). Congenital hemangioma can also be called infantile hemangioma. A defining feature of congenital tumors is that they do not exhibit regression within the first year of life, whereas others do not regress at all. These are designated by acronyms: RICH, *rapidly involuting congenital hemangioma*. Both forms of congenital hemangiomas have a 1:1 sex ratio postnatally. RICH's clock runs fast and stops, whereas NICH's (fetal) hemangioma occur in a 1:1 sex ratio, just as the common infantile hemangioma.

Rapidly Involuting Congenital Hemangioma (RICH)

Accelerated regression of a large “strawberry nevus” was probably the subject of a seminal paper on the natural history of hemangioma. Two other authors (Boon et al., 1996) but the significance of this unusual behavior was underappreciated until they highlighted five tumors, all located in the extremities, as curious (Boon et al., 1995). The following year, the vascular anomalies teams in the United States introduced the term “congenital hemangioma” to designate the type that exhibits accelerated regression (Boon et al., 1996).

Increasing use of prenatal ultrasonography has generated several reports of fetal hemangiomas (Treadwell et al., 1993; Maynor et al., 1995). Often the tumor is first detected in a 12-week fetus (Boon et al., 1996). Doppler study demonstrates increased vascularity. Shunting in a large fetal vascular tumor can cause hydrops fetalis. A case described by Daniel and Cassady (1968) was retroperitoneal. The following ultrasonic literature describe a large single tumor in the scalp (Boon et al., 1996; Khoury, 1994). These lesions have often been confused with other types of congenital lesions. An occipital “hemangioma” was detected in a 14-week fetus and caused hydrops fetalis. An intrahepatic fetal hemangioma can also cause hydrops fetalis. Some congenital vascular tumors either regressed rapidly during early infancy (Boon et al., 1995; Viora et al., 2000), were excised in early infancy (Treadwell et al., 1995; Boulot et al., 1996; Carlotti et al., 2000), or, less commonly, regressed slowly (Boon et al., 1998; Shiraishi et al., 2000). Based on careful examination of the natural history, the term “hemangioma” or “hemangioendothelioma,” are examples of congenital hemangiomas.

RICH reaches its greatest size during the final weeks of the third trimester prior to delivery. At birth, RICH presents as a solitary tumor with a raised grey or violaceous mass with ectatic, radial veins, central

31 and **4-32**). There may be central ulceration, scar, or nodular brown, corrugated patch. Initially there is fast-flow, but the typical variant is likely the result of rapid regression toward the end of lesions are also uncommon (Figure **4-33 C, D**). There are rare (**34**). RICH has a predilection for the craniofacial region and low diagnosis for a solitary hepatic lesion (see Chapter 5). Being in rare instances, infantile hemangioma can be protrusive in a ne

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Figure 4-31

Rapidly involuting congenital hemangioma (RICH). A. Newborn causing cardiac overload. Note pale halo. B. Age 6 weeks, after regression by age 6 months. D. Newborn boy with vascular tumor. Residual cutaneous laxity at age 1.5 years.

Figure 4-32

Plaque-like RICH. A. 2-month-old with a slightly raised, violaceous plaque at birth. B. Accelerated regression at 6 months of age. C. Atrophy at age 4 years; residual ectatic veins.

Figure 4-33

RICH variations. A. Purple-brown plaque with central veins. B. Deep posterior cervical congenital tumor. D. Rapid regression

Figure 4-34

Multiple RICH. A. Newborn with congenital vascular tumors of diagnosis. B. Accelerated regression at one year. Note more co

Figure 4-35

Congenital or infantile hemangioma? A. Newborn with raised, in temple. No subsequent rapid growth. B. Ulceration at 7 mon resected at age 2 years. Histopathology: GLUT1 negative.

There are two complications with RICH, although both are unc (Figure 4-36). Fast-flow can cause sufficient shunting in a cutai congestive heart failure. There are documented examples of re sometimes the excised tumor is mistaken for an AVM (Price et 50,000 platelets/ μ L (sometimes lower) can be caused by a larg thrombocytopenia also can occur in an infant in response to a thrombocytopenic coagulopathy was considered to be a comp labeled “Kasabach-Merritt phenomenon” (KMP). There are ol radiation therapy and resection (Inglefield et al., 1961; Hill and described to “liberate” platelets from “hemangioma,” and the 1961). In our original description of RICH (Boon et al., 1996), w

to describe minor thrombocytopenia in two patients. The hemocoagulopathy, that is, low platelets, low fibrinogen and elevated PT, has not been observed with thrombocytopenic RICH. Platelets (Rogers 2008) (Figure 4-36).

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Figure 4-36

Complications of RICH. A. Neonate with vascular tumor right lower extremity and high output congestive cardiac failure. Dx: RICH confirmed by 2 months, normal platelet count and cardiac function. C. Tu

Ultrasonography with color Doppler, MRI/MRA, and angiography are common in infantile hemangioma that evolves postnatally (Rogers 2008) in that RICH does not exhibit the same homogenous enhancement. Angiography may demonstrate calcifications, focal aneurysms, and cardiac overload. Thrombi with focal calcifications can also be seen. Thrombo-embolus originating in a RICH in the lower extremity

A large RICH, particularly one with thrombocytopenia, can be confused with hemangioendothelioma, tufted angioma, infantile myofibrosarcoma. In any question about the diagnosis by history, physical examination,

The defining clinical feature is accelerated regression. This becomes obvious within a few weeks after birth. Rapid involution is usually seen in skin, dermal and subcutaneous atrophy, prominent veins, and Doppler examination for several years. In an adolescent, prominent residuum of a RICH in the lower limb. Curiously, very little subcutaneous regressing infantile hemangioma that often changes to fat during

Rapidly Involuting Fetal Hemangioma (RIFH)

In rare instances, the typical cutaneous findings of end-stage RICH, such as cyanosis, are seen at birth. The logical deduction is that this is indeed RICH. Indeed, prenatal monitoring can show regression prior to delivery. A tumor that was discovered at 20 weeks gestation and disappeared by 30 weeks gestation (halo) (Ozcan, 2010). These tumors cannot be called RICH because

accurate term is *rapidly involuting fetal hemangioma* (RIFH) (F

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Figure 4-37

Rapidly involuting fetal hemangioma (RIFH). 1. 5-year-old girl
Color gradually faded; however, atrophic skin remains unchar
unsuccessful.

Non-Involuting Congenital Hemangioma (NICH)

The second subgroup of congenital vascular tumor has many o
RICH, is a solitary tumor. The anatomic distribution is similar
NICH has a predisposition for the suboccipital neck, mandibul
2001). Just as in RICH, there is no female preponderance. NICH
had been mistaken for common infantile hemangioma or was
a well-circumscribed lesion, averaging 5–6 cm in diameter, the
typical NICH is slightly bossed or plaque-like, with a pink, blue
coarse telangiectasia, pale rim, and areas of intermingled pallor
reflect microscopic dermal arteriovenous shunting (steal phen
noted. By history, the lesion grows proportionately to the child
shoulder. Expansion in adolescent years can occur in this loca
excrescences (Figure 4-39). Fast-flow flow in NICH is easily do
imaging and angiographic features of NICH, like RICH, are alm
hemangioma. NICH often is mistaken for a small AVM. By angi
arterial feeders, and dilated veins, but without the early venou

Figure 4-38

Non-involuting congenital hemangioma (NICH). A. 10-year-old telangiectasia and pale halo. B. 6-year-old female with congen tumor with central telangiectasias. D. Abdominal tumor with co

Figure 4-39

RICH transformation to NICH with late expansion. A. 16-year-old began to expand during early teen years. Arteriographic study and especially occipital arteries with shunting to large venous lesion that regressed by age 1 year leaving a minor stain. Expansion polypoid lesions. MRI and partial excision confirmed Dx: NICH

Missing Links

The growth curves for the fetal, two forms of congenital hemangioma. Figure 4-40. RIFH runs its course during the second and third curve has the same configuration as that of IH, but accelerated to the left. The NICH curve remains flat after birth and into childhood.

stage, unable to undergo regression.

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Figure 4-40

Growth curves for fetal, congenital, and infantile hemangioma

RICH and NICH are similar in appearance, location, size, and other features with infantile hemangioma. Neither type of congenital hemangioma (Berenguer et al. 2003), a standard marker for infantile hemangioma. These congenital vascular lesions are variations on a spectrum. Notwithstanding GLUT1 immunonegativity in fetal hemangioma, it is possible that these three clinically disparate tumors have a common

Speculation that fetal and infantile hemangiomas share a common link. One such missing link is the coexistence of RICH or NICH in a child (Mulliken and Enjolras, 2004) (Figure 4-41A). Nevertheless, because infantile hemangioma is so common, whereas RICH is rare, clinical examples of RICH that initially regress, then stop regressing, and are transformed into its counterpart NICH (Mulliken and Enjolras, 2004) are a late stage of RICH. Further evidence for this hypothesis includes the lack of blood flow by ultrasonography, and characteristic histologic features (Mulliken and Enjolras, 2004). The histologic features and pathogenesis of infantile hemangioma are presented in Chapter 3.

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Figure 4-41

Links between congenital hemangioma and infantile hemangioma and NICH on chest. B. RICH on ankle at birth (regarding Figure 4-41C). C. NICH-like appearance at age 3 years: pale macule with no flow by Doppler examination.

(Courtesy of Dr. Odile Enjolras)

Some clinical investigators are “lumpers,” whereas others are “splitters.” In the case of fetal and infantile (postnatal) vascular tumors, for the time being, accurate prognosis and appropriate therapy can be given (regarding infantile hemangioma), whatever their possible pathogenic relationship.

Possible Linkage to Chorangoma

We described a boy born with multifocal RICH in which one of the lesions was in the umbilical cord. The case suggested a possible biological connection involving the terminal placental villi (Mulliken et al., 2007a). We have described the counterpart of fetal hemangioma, that is, cutaneous and solitary infantile hemangioma. The discovery, imaging characteristics, natural history, and histopathology of these tumors are single, some are diffuse. The male-to-female ratio is 1:1. Ultrasonography has shown that chorangioma appears early in pregnancy and decreases in size near term. This is the same prenatal pattern of imaging of chorangioma sometimes shows calcifications; initially, it is hyperechoic near term (Zalel et al., 2002). These same rheologic features and findings are seen in infantile hemangiomas.

Chorangioma shares many histopathologic features with cutaneous infantile hemangioma. Surprisingly, chorangiomas are GLUT1 immunopositive (Drutman et al., 2002). Visceral hemangomas occurring in association with 10% of chorangiomas (Shturman-Ellstein et al., 1978). These are either solitary cutaneous infantile hemangiomas; most are infantile hemangiomas, but some are clearly multiple hepatic hemangiomas, possible intrahepatic RICH, multiple infantile hemangiomas (Meirowitz et al., 2000). Analysis of 12 reported cases of combined cutaneous and hepatic lesions (RICH) showed an equal sex ratio with solitary cutaneous/hepatic lesions (RICH) and multiple cutaneous/hepatic lesions (infantile hemangiomas) (Meirowitz et al., 2000).

Similarities between chorangioma, RICH/NICH, and infantile hemangioma suggest the pathogenesis of infantile vascular tumors. Nevertheless, we

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