CASE REPORT

Surgical resection of type II rectal prolapse in a cow

Biswadeep Jena^{1*}, Nileshkumar Pagrut², Abhishek Painuli³

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Veterinary Surgery and Radiology; ²Assistant Professor, Department of Veterinary Pathology; ³Assistant Professor, Department of Veterinary Surgery and Radiology; M.J.F. College of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Rajasthan University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Rajasthan, India – 303702.

Abstract

* Corresponding author:

Biswadeep Jena E-mail: biswadeep44@gmail.com

Received: 06/09/2013 Revised: 19/12/2013 Accepted: 22/12/2013 Type – II prolapsed rectum is protrusion of one or more layers of the rectum through the anus. Stairstep amputation and subsequent anastomosis of severely devitalized Type – II prolapsed rectal mass was performed with a slight deviation from already established methodology where instead of inserting traditional crosspin fixation with two hypodermic needles, two strong catgut threads were passed through the prolapsed mass in order to stabilize the prolapsed rectum during the suturing procedure. Surgery was performed under Caudal Epidural Anesthesia where a mixture of xylazine hydrochloride and lidocaine was used to achieve longer duration of anesthesia and analgesia.

Keywords: Stairstep amputation, rectal amputation, rectal prolapsed, type II rectal prolapsed, caudal epidural anesthesia.

Introduction

Rectal prolapse is a protrusion of one or more layers of the rectum through the anus (Ettinger and Feldman, 1995). It is subdivided into either complete or incomplete rectal prolapse, depending on whether it involves all layers of the rectum or just the rectal mucosa (Anderson and Miesner, 2008). It is the most common surgical affection involving the rectum of cattle. The condition may be a result of prolonged tenesmus or increased intra-abdominal pressure due to bloat, trauma, colitis, proctitis, diarrhea, act of parturition, dystocia, intestinal parasitism, tail docking. Other causes of straining include intestinal neoplasia, foreign bodies, perineal hernia, constipation, congenital defects, lower urinary tract and prostatic diseases (Levine, 1978; Turner, 1980; Rick, 1989; Welker, 1991; Andrews and Jones, 1992; Tyagi and Singh, 1993; Johnston, 1985; Sherding, 1996; Shakespeare, 2000; Thomas et al., 2003; Kumar et al., 2004; Marjani et al., 2009).

Prolapse of bowel or mucosa through the anus of the animal has been categorized into four types. In a type I rectal prolapse, only the rectal mucosa and submucosa project through the anus. A type II lesion represents a complete prolapse of the full thickness of all or part of the rectal ampulla. Type I and II prolapses are the most common. In a type III prolapse, a variable amount of small colon intussuscepts into the rectum in addition to a type II prolapse. In a type IV prolapse, the peritoneal rectum and a variable length of the small colon form intussusceptions through the anus (Turner, 1980; Turner, 1987; O'Conner, 2005).

History and Clinical Observations

A 9 years old non-descriptive cow in good health weighing about 400 kg was showing sign of recurrent cervico-vaginal prolapse since last 3 months following calving. Hitherto the prolapsed mass was reduced and retained by application of Bühner sutures for 2 - 3 times with courses of antibiotics and progesterone injections. But due to constant irritation and straining, this time there was cervicovaginal prolapse accompanied with rectal prolapse (Fig. 1). The religious constraints of the owner prevented the cow to be disposed off for slaughter. Therefore, the animal was presented to Teaching Veterinary Clinical Complex (T.V.C.C.) of M.J.F. College of Veterinary and Animal Science, RAJUVAS, Chomu, Rajasthan on 26th June 2013 and as per the owner's request the cow was approached for necessary surgical interventions.

Clinically, a rectal prolapse appears as a pink to red rosette-like structure protruding from the anus. Initial examination of the cow revealed cervico-vaginal prolapse and rectal prolapse with severe oedema and partial necrosis of the exposed tissues. Approximately 12 cm long Type II prolapse of the rectal tissue, with the mucosal and submucosal layers severely soiled, traumatized and edematous, was confirmed. The anal sphincter tonicity was extremely poor, and the muscles of the tail were flaccid.

Treatment and Discussion

Before initiation of surgical intervention, caudal epidural anaesthesia was performed to reduce straining. Instead of traditional low dose epidural anaesthesia i.e., 2% lidocaine at a dose rate of 0.2 mg/kg (1 ml/100 kg); Xylazine in combination with lidocaine was given to achieve a longer lasting anaesthetic effect. The dose of the Xylazine in this mixture was at the rate of 0.03-0.05 mg/kg made up to 5 ml with 2% lidocaine (in this case 1ml of Xylaxin®, Indian Immunologicals Ltd and 4 ml of Xylocaine®, Astra Zeneca). Onset of anaesthesia was within five minutes and the duration of anaesthesia lasted up to six hours. The use of Xylazine as an epidural anaesthetic not only gives longer anaesthesia, but also gives mild to moderate sedation of the animal as well as mild ataxia with an increased risk of recumbency, decreased ruminal motility and bradycardia (Beltman et al., 2010).

After proper cleaning with luke warm 2% potassium permanganate solution and liberal lubrication, with acriflavine – glycerine - lidocaine jelly (Astra Zeneca), both the prolapsed tissues were reduced manually and held in position for 20 minutes. Thereafter the animal was administered with Streptomycin + Penicillin (10 gram of Dicrysticin – DS®, Zydus AHL) intramuscularly and a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (15 ml of Meloxicam®, Intas Pharmaceuticals) intramuscularly. By the following morning only the rectum had prolapsed again. Although the animal was straining continuously, there was no prolapse of vagina and cervix.

In addition to vascular compromise resulting from constriction due to tight anal sphincter, the prolapsed rectum was further subjected to soiling, contamination and trauma. Hence resection of the prolapsed mass was advised as it was heavily devitalized and too much tissue was involved to allow manual reduction and subsequent retention. Although several techniques of prolapsed rectum amputation have been described and accepted like submucosal resection (Johnson, 1943), rectal ring method, stair step amputation (Welker and Modransky, 1992; Freeman, 1999; Fubini and Duchrame, 2004; Weaver et al., 2005), delorme's operation (Delorme, 1900; Monson et al., 1986; Abulafi et al., 1990; Christiansen and Kirkegaard, 1981) and popular transabdominal procedures namely Ivalon® sponge (Morgan, et al., 1972; Penfold and Hawley, 1972), Marlex® mesh (Keighley, et al., 1983), Ripstein (Ripstein, 1972),

perineal surgical repair (Nay and Blair, 1972), prophylactic colcopexy (Popovitch *et al.*, 1994; Sherding, 1996) and extended abdominal rectopexy (Mann and Hoffman, 1988). But in this clinical case it was a unanimous decision to perform stair step amputation and anastomosis because the tendency for stricture formation was to keep minimal.

Before commencement of surgery, aforementioned anesthetic protocol was repeated. The rectum was pulled posteriorly as much as possible followed by putting plastic syringe casing/tubing (with the nozzle removed) into lumen of rectum. Instead of inserting traditional crosspin fixation with two hypodermic needles; two strong catgut threads (Ethicon® chromic catgut no. 2) were passed through the prolapsed mass and tubing close to the anal opening, one vertically and the other horizontally, to stabilize the prolapsed rectum during suturing procedure. A full thickness circumferential incision was made just distal to the catgut sutures. Approximately a fifth of the prolapsed tissue resected and anastomosed circumference was sequentially. The rectal arteries and veins were clamped with hemostats and tied off as they were found. After complete circumferential resection, the two catgut threads were cut in the centre and pulled them out a little through the lumen and thus four interrupted pieces of catgut passing through the full thickness rectal wall were obtained. Interspaced mucosal edges, between four interrupted pieces of catgut, were then apposed in a simple-continuous pattern with 2/0 chromic catgut (Ethicon®) around the circumference.

Normal saline (3 litres) and Ringer's Lactate (3 litres) were injected intravenously during the operation. Haemostyptic Adrenochrome Monosemi Carbazone (5ml of Adchrome[®], G. Loucatos & Co. intramuscular) was administered perioperatively to minimize hemorrhage. Streptomycin + Penicillin (5 gram of Dicrysticin – DS®, Zydus AHL intramuscular) was given twice daily for a period of 6 days intramuscularly. Meloxicam 10ml (Meloxicam®, Intas Pharmaceuticals) intramuscular was given once daily for a period of 3 days. The site was applied with fly repellent preparations and kept under a cloth cover. The animal was kept on an inclined platform with the hindquarters elevated in order to reduce pressure on the suture line from the risk of straining. Anal area was lubricated with lidocaine jelly mixed in an antibiotic ointment namely Sofradex® cream (framycetin sulphate 1% w/w, dexamethasone acetate 0.1 % w/w, Sanofi Aventis). The patient was kept on easily digestible green fodder. Careful digital removal of faeces from rectum was also tried.

Veterinary Clinical Science | October-December, 2013 | Vol 1 | Issue 1 | Pages 19-23 ©2013 Jakraya Publications (P) Ltd



Fig 1: Rectal prolapse (Type II) together with cervico-vaginal prolapse and continuous abdominal straining on the first day.

Fig 2: Moment after Stair-step amputation of prolapsed rectal mass.



Fig 3: Resected prolapsed rectum

The cow had an uneventful recovery with normal appetite and defecation during an observation period of 40 days post-operation.

The Stair step rectal prolapse amputation was performed as described in the horse by Freeman, 1999 and in the cattle by Welker and Modransky, 1992; Fubini and Duchrame, 2004; Weaver, Steiner and St Jean, 2005 i.e., resecting 1/5th of the diameter of the compromised tissue at a time, directly followed by anastomosis of the resected portion. But instead of crosspin fixation with two hypodermic needles, as described in aforementioned established methodology, we had used two strong catgut threads crossing each other at 90° in order to stabilize the prolapsed mass during suturing. This procedure was lengthy owing to the presence of numerous large rectal and anal vessels that required ligation. Although electro-coagulation might have hastened the procedure but the diameters of most of the vessels were too large for electrocoagulation. Immediate resection of all tissues followed by ligation of vessels may have shortened surgical time. This option was not pursued, as the vessels tended to retract cranially and searching for them after resection would most likely have prolonged the surgical time rather than shortened it.

Submucosal resection (Johnson, 1943) is the preferred technique if the prolapsed mucosa is necrotic, ulcerated, or traumatized, but the underlying tissue is healthy. Therefore it could not be considered for

References

- Abulafi AM, Sherman IW, Fiddian RV and Rothwell-Jackson RL (1990). Délorme's operation for rectal prolapse. *Annals of The Royal College of Surgeons of England*, 72(6):382-385.
- Anderson DE and Miesner MD (2008). Rectal prolapse. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Food Animal Practice, 24: 403-408.
- Andrews NJ and Jones DJ (1992). ABC of colorectal diseases. Rectal prolapse and associated conditions. *British Medical Journal*, 305: 243-246.
- Beltman ME, Self I and Duane M (2010). The use of epidurals in cattle. *Irish Veterinary Journal*, 63(1): 51-54.
- Christiansen J, Kirkegaard P (1981). Delorme's operation for complete rectal prolapse. *British Journal of Surgery*, 68: 537-538.
- Delorme R (1900). Sur le traitement des prolapsus du rectum totaux par l'excision de la muquese rectale au rectal-colique. *Bulletin Et Memoires De La Societe Des Chirurgiens De Paris*, 26: 498-499.
- Ettinger SJ and Feldman EC (1995). Textbook of Veterinary Internal Medicine (Vol-II), 4th ed., *W. B. Saunders, Philadelphia.* pp. 1403-1404.

correction of prolapsed organ due to the presence of devitalized tissue not only at the exposed portion but also the underlying tissue. Delorme's operation (Delorme, 1900; Christiansen and Kirkegaard, 1981; Monson et al., 1986; Abulafi et al., 1990) also could not be considered for correction of prolapsed mass because it involves stripping of exposed mucosa only and residual mass is reduced in to a doughnut shaped mass by insertion of placating suture. But in this clinical case all the layers of the prolapsed rectum was compromised severely, therefore rendered unfit for retention. Rest of the approaches is difficult due to involvement of major abdominal procedures. At the time of initial examination of the cow, when the poor tail and anal tone were noted, these deficits were assumed to be the result of the immobilizing agents. While the exact cause of the neurological deficit to the anus and caudal rectum and resulting rectal prolapse is not clear. Most mammals have increased plasma oestrogen and/or relaxin concentrations for a few weeks preceding parturition, and this was considered to be a factor that might have contributed to the amplification of pelvic muscle and ligament laxity, resulting in the rectal prolapse (Jainudeen and Hafez, 2000). Increased intra-abdominal pressure brought about by the rapidly expanding uterus, rather than endocrine factors, are thus more likely to have precipitated the prolapse through the compromised anal sphincter.

- Freeman DE (1999). Rectum and anus. In Auer J A, Stick, J.A. (Eds) Equine surgery, 2nd edn., *WB Saunders, Philadelphia*. pp. 286–293.
- Fubini S and Duchrame N (2004). Farm Animal Surgery, 1st edn., *Elsevier, USA. pp.* 258 262.
- Jainudeen MR and Hafez ESE (2000). Gestation, prenatal physiology and parturition. In Hafez, E.S.E., Hafez, B. (eds) Reproduction in farm animals, 7th edn., *Lippincott Williams and Wilkins, New York.* pp. 140–155.
- Johnson H (1943). Submucous resection, surgical resection prolapse of the rectum. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 102: 113-115.
- Johnston DE (1985). Surgical diseases-rectum and anus. In Slatter: Text Book of Small Animal Surgery, 3rd edn., W. B. Saunders, Philedelphia. pp. 770-794.
- Keighley MR, Fielding JW, Alexander-Williams J (1983). Results of Marlex mesh abdominal rectopexy for rectal prolapse in 100 consecutive patients. *British Journal of Surgery*, 70(4): 229-232.
- Kumar MJM, Nagarajan P, Venkatesan R and Juyal RC (2004). Rectal prolapse associated with an unusual combination of pinworms and Citrobacter species

Veterinary Clinical Science | October-December, 2013 | Vol 1 | Issue 1 | Pages 19-23 ©2013 Jakraya Publications (P) Ltd infection in FVB mice colony. *Scandinavian Journal* of Laboratory Animal Science, 31: 221-223.

- Levine SB (1978). Surgical treatment of recurrent rectal prolapse in a horse. *Journal of Equine Medicine and Surgery*, 2: 248.
- Mann CV, Hoffman C (1988). Complete rectal prolapsed: the anatomical and functional results of treatment by an extended abdominal rectopexy. *British Journal of Surgery*, 75(1): 34–37.
- Marjani M, Selk GM and Moosakhani F (2009). Rectal prolapse secondary to antibiotic-associated colitis in a dog. *Clinical Pathology*, 18: 473-475.
- Monson JR, Jones NA, Vowden P, Brennan TG (1986). Delorme's operation. The first choice in complete rectal prolapse? *Annals of the Royal College of Surgeons of England*, 68(3): 143-146.
- Morgan CN, Porter NH, Klugman DJ (1972). Ivalon (polyvinyl alcohol) sponge in the repair of complete rectal prolapse. *British Journal of Surgery*, 59(11): 841-846.
- Nay HR, Blair CR (1972). Perineal surgical repair of rectal prolapse. American Journal of Surgery, 123: 577-579.
- O'Connor JJ (2005). Dollar's Veterinary Surgery, 4th ed, CBS Publication, New Delhi. pp. 631-633.
- Penfold JC, Hawley PR (1972). Experiences of Ivalonsponge implant for complete rectal prolapse at St. Mark's Hospital, 1960-70. British Journal of Surgery, 59(11): 846-848.
- Popovitch CA, Holt D and Bright R (1994). Colopexy as a treatment for rectal prolapse in dogs and cats. a retrospective study of 14 cases. *Veterinary Surgery*, 23: 115-118.
- Rick MC (1989). Management of rectal injuries. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Equine Practice, 5: 407.

- Ripstein CB (1972). Procidentia, definitive corrective surgery. *Diseases of the Colon and Rectum*, 15(5): 334-336.
- Shakespeare A (2000). Intussusception as a complication of rectal prolapse replacement in a ewe. *Veterinary Record*, 147: 78-79.
- Sherding RG (1996). Diseases of colon, rectum and anus. In Todd. R. Tams: Handbook of Small Animal Gastroenterology. W. B. Saunders, Philedelphia. pp. 362-363.
- Thomas DL, Waldron DF, Lowe GD, Morrical DG, Meyer HH, High RA, Berger YM, Clevenger DD, Fogle GE, Gottfredson RG, Loerch SC, McClure KE, Willingham TD, Zartman DL, and Zelinsky RD (2003). Length of docked tail and the incidence of rectal prolapse in lambs. *Journal of Animal Science*, 81(11): 2725-1732.
- Turner TA (1987). Rectal prolapse. In Robinson NE, editor. Current Therapy in Equine Medicine, 2nd ed, *Philadelphia, WB Saunders*.
- Turner TA and Fessler JF (1980). Rectal prolapse in the horse. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 177: 1028.
- Tyagi RPS and Singh J (1993). Ruminant Surgery, 1st edn, CBS Publishers and Distributers, Delhi. pp. 221.
- Weaver D, Steiner A and St Jean G (2005). Bovine Surgery and Lameness, 2nd ed, *Blackwell publishing*, pp. 135-137.
- Welker B and Modransky P (1991). Rectal prolapse in food animals, part I. cause and conservative management.*Compendium on Continuing Education* for the Practising Veterinarian, 13: 1869-1884.
- Welker B and Modransky P (1992). Rectal prolapse in food animals, part II. Surgical options. Compendium on Continuing Education for the Practising Veterinarian, 14: 554-558.