

Abdominal Wall Defects

Bethany J. Slater, MD, MBA,* Ashwin Pimpalwar, MD[†]

**Division of Pediatric Surgery, University of Chicago Medicine, Chicago, IL*

†Division of Pediatric Surgery, Children's Hospital, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

Practice Gaps

Abdominal wall defects are a relatively common congenital anomaly encountered in the pediatric population. These defects include 2 separate pathologies, gastroschisis and omphalocele, with divergent pathophysiologic origins, clinical manifestations, and management strategies. Although the mode and timing of delivery is somewhat controversial, particularly for gastroschisis, most of the evidence supports delivery at a high-volume tertiary care center with immediate access to neonatal and pediatric surgical expertise. Clinicians should be aware of a rare variant of gastroschisis, closing gastroschisis, because early recognition and treatment may affect patient outcomes, as well as complicated gastroschisis and giant omphalocele because of the more challenging surgical considerations.

Abstract

The 2 most common congenital abdominal wall defects are gastroschisis and omphalocele. Both are usually diagnosed prenatally with fetal ultrasonography, and affected patients are treated at a center with access to high-risk obstetric services, neonatology, and pediatric surgery. The main distinguishing features between the 2 are that gastroschisis has no sac and the defect is to the right of the umbilicus, whereas an omphalocele typically has a sac and the defect is at the umbilicus. In addition, patients with an omphalocele have a high prevalence of associated anomalies, whereas those with gastroschisis have a higher likelihood of abnormalities related to the gastrointestinal tract, with the most common being intestinal atresia. As such, the prognosis in patients with omphalocele is primarily affected by the severity and number of other anomalies and the prognosis for gastroschisis is correlated with the amount and function of the bowel. Because of these distinctions, these defects have different management strategies and outcomes. The goal of surgical treatment for both conditions consists of reduction of the abdominal viscera and closure of the abdominal wall defect; primary closure or a variety of staged approaches can be used without injury to the intra-abdominal contents through direct injury or increased intra-abdominal pressure, or abdominal compartment syndrome. Overall, the long-term outcome is generally good. The ability to stratify patients, particularly those with gastroschisis, based on risk factors for higher morbidity would potentially improve counseling and outcomes.

AUTHOR DISCLOSURE Dr Slater is a consultant for Boulder Surgical. Dr Pimpalwar has no financial relationships relevant to this article. This commentary does not contain a discussion of an unapproved/investigative use of a commercial product/device.

Objectives After completing this article, readers should be able to:

1. Distinguish between gastroschisis and omphalocele.
2. Identify the major prenatal ultrasound findings of the congenital abdominal wall defects.
3. Recognize the rare variant of gastroschisis, closing gastroschisis.
4. Describe the management and surgical techniques used for patients with gastroschisis and omphalocele, including giant omphalocele.
5. Recognize the clinical manifestations of abdominal compartment syndrome and its treatment.

INTRODUCTION

The 2 most common congenital abdominal wall defects are gastroschisis (Fig 1A) and omphalocele (Fig 1B). Both are typically diagnosed prenatally using fetal ultrasonography, and affected patients are treated at a center with access to high-risk obstetric services, neonatology, and pediatric surgery. In this review, we discuss the distinguishing features, current management strategies, and outcomes of patients with these defects.

EPIDEMIOLOGY AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

The incidence of congenital abdominal wall defects has been increasing, primarily because of the increased incidence of gastroschisis. (1) Gastroschisis occurs in 1 in approximately 4,000 live births (2) with a male preponderance and has become the most common abdominal wall defect over the past 30 years. (3) A strong association with young maternal age has been noted. The overall incidence of omphalocele is 1 to 2.5 per 5,000 live births. (4)

An omphalocele results from the failure of the bowel loops to return to the abdominal cavity after the physiologic herniation through the umbilical cord that occurs between the 6th and 11th week of development. Several mechanisms have been proposed for the pathogenesis of gastroschisis. One theory is that the defect arises from failure of the umbilical coelom to develop, leading to rupture of the elongating intestine out of the body wall to the right of the umbilicus. An alternative explanation is that the embryonic structures fail to incorporate into the umbilical cord. In addition, experts suggest that several environmental exposures and demographic risk factors contribute to its development.

GASTROSCHISIS

Clinical Aspects

Gastroschisis is usually less than 4 cm in diameter, has no covering membrane or sac, and generally contains only small intestine, potentially with the stomach or gonad. In almost all cases, it is present to the right of the umbilical cord. (5) After birth, the bowel may appear fairly normal or may be thickened, matted, and covered with a fibrinous peel. In contrast to patients with omphaloceles, those with gastroschisis do not typically have associated congenital anomalies but are more likely to have abnormalities of the bowel, including atresias. Many affected patients are born preterm and are often small for gestational age. Those with atresia, perforation, necrosis, or volvulus fall into a separate category called “complicated gastroschisis.”

Gastroschisis is commonly seen on mid-second trimester fetal ultrasonography with characteristics of a right-sided defect with free-floating bowel in the amniotic cavity. There are a few ultrasonographic findings that raise the concern for intestinal complications; of these intra-abdominal bowel dilation appears to be the most reliable predictor of complex gastroschisis. (6) In addition, elevated α -fetoprotein concentrations in both maternal blood and amniotic fluid have been correlated with gastroschisis.

Closing or closed gastroschisis is a rare variant of complicated gastroschisis in which the defect narrows in utero, resulting in strangulation and subsequent ischemia of the herniated bowel and atresia. The most severe cases can lead to complete loss of the midgut with short gut syndrome (Fig 2) The patient depicted was diagnosed with closing gastroschisis and initially had complete atresia and significant bowel loss (Fig 2A and 2B). After exploration 6 weeks later, the bowel had grown with significant progressive

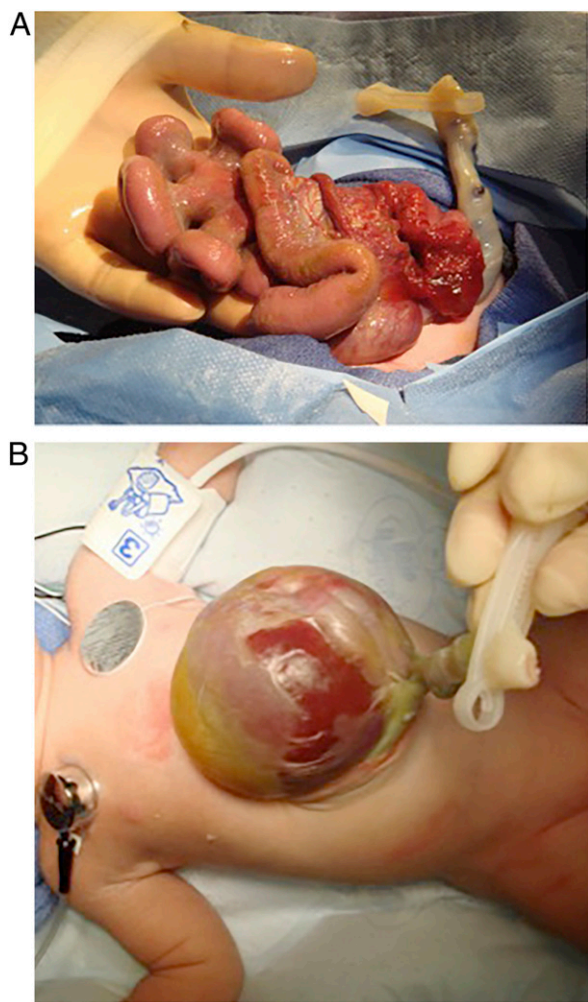


Figure 1. A. Picture of gastroschisis with no sac and the defect to the right of the umbilicus. B. Picture of omphalocele with a sac present and defect at the umbilicus.

development of bowel loops (Fig 2C) and anastomosis and complete closure was achieved. This patient was discharged 9 days later on full feedings. This is one of a series of 5 infants treated at a single referral center for closing gastroschisis (A.P., personal communication, 2016). The defects found in these patients ranged from 0.5 to 2 cm and all tolerated oral intake at discharge, with 3 requiring supplemental nutrition. Affected patients have variable outcomes that depend on the amount of bowel that is viable but resulting in significantly higher morbidity, mortality, and short bowel syndrome rates. If suspected on prenatal imaging, preterm delivery may be indicated.

Management

The optimal mode and timing of delivery for patients with gastroschisis are controversial. Some experts have advocated the use of routine cesarean delivery to avoid injury to the

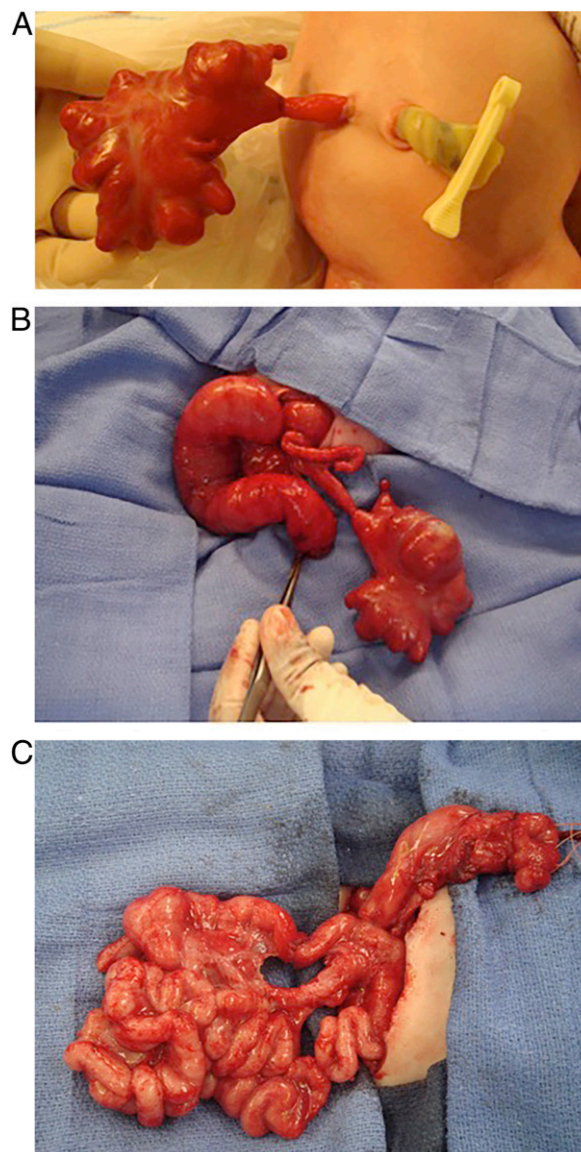


Figure 2. A. Picture of closing gastroschisis with a single strand of tissue (superior mesenteric artery) and complete separation of the midgut (atresia). B. Intraoperative exploration at birth, of the same patient as shown in A, demonstrating complete atresia and bowel loss. C. Same patient 6 weeks later, demonstrating growth of small bowel left in situ.

exposed bowel, but published literature has not shown a difference in outcomes in infants delivered via cesarean versus vaginal delivery. (7) Similarly, certain centers perform early delivery of the fetus to reduce the inflammatory peel on the bowel. However, data have not shown conclusive evidence supporting this view, and the risks associated with prematurity argue against this practice. (8)(9) Thus, the delivery method should be at the discretion of the obstetrician and parents. Most authors and clinicians encourage delivery at a tertiary center with immediate neonatal and pediatric surgery access. (10)(11) The Canadian Pediatric

Surgery Network reviewed data on infants with gastroschisis from 18 pediatric surgical centers and concluded that delivery outside a perinatal center requiring transfer was a significant predictor of complications. (12)

Once the infant is born, fluid resuscitation and gastric decompression should be initiated immediately. Given the significant evaporative and heat loss these patients experience because of the exposed viscera, the bowel must be wrapped in warm, saline-soaked gauze and the lower half of the infant placed in a bowel bag.

The primary goal of surgical repair is to place the intestine back into the abdominal cavity without trauma to the bowel or to avoid increased intra-abdominal pressure. The bowel should be inspected for obstructing bands, matting, perforation, or atresia. Various options for surgical treatment are available, including:

- Primary reduction with surgical fascial closure
- Silo placement with serial reductions and delayed surgical closure of the fascia
- Primary reduction without fascial closure
- Delayed reduction without fascial closure

The last 2 surgical procedures are commonly referred to as “sutureless” closure.

Primary reduction in the operating room involves transport to the operating room, general anesthesia, division of the umbilical vessels and urachus, and suturing of the fascia and skin. Alternatively, surgeons may place a spring-loaded preformed silo into the abdominal defect at the bedside (Fig 3). (13) Serial reductions are then performed daily or twice a day with the aid of gravity until the contents have reached the level of the fascia. This slow reduction allows the bowel edema to be gradually reduced and allows for bowel reduction without increasing intra-abdominal pressure. It is important that the reduction be performed over 3 to 5 days. Any type of surgical closure or sutureless closure can then be done.

Sutureless closure entails covering the abdominal defect with the umbilical cord or synthetic dressing such as a self-adherent foam dressing and allowing closure by secondary intention. We have reported a technique of primary sutureless closure of gastroschisis using negative pressure dressing/wound vacuum (14) (Fig 4). This procedure involves initial placement of a silo with gradual reduction of the intra-abdominal contents. Subsequently, the defect is primarily closed with adhesive tape and wound vacuum. This procedure can be performed at the bedside without anesthesia and without going to the operating room. It has the advantage of gentle silo reduction without increasing the intra-abdominal pressure and causing compartment syndrome. It is also an easily reversible procedure because the adhesive

tape and the wound vacuum can be easily removed if the abdominal pressure rises after closure. A randomized



Figure 3. A. Intraoperative picture of silo being placed. B. Silo placed and held upright for gravity to aid with reduction of bowel.

control study comparing sutureless versus sutured gastroschisis closure found no difference in complications. (15) Advantages of this method include the lack of need for transport, potential avoidance of anesthesia, and improved cosmetic result. Most series report a hernia rate of 60% to 84%, of which most close spontaneously; with the wound vacuum closure, the hernia rate is much lower. (16) Non-absorbable mesh or biosynthetic patches can also be used for closure when primary fascial closure cannot be achieved.

Abdominal compartment syndrome can be a complication after reduction of the bowel. Intra-abdominal pressures greater than 15 to 20 mm Hg indicate compartment syndrome. This pressure can be determined with the use of intragastric or intravesical catheters. Concerning signs also include increased peak or mean inspiratory pressures, need for vasopressor support, or metabolic acidosis. Immediate decompressive laparotomy or release of the closure with silo placement should be undertaken if abdominal compartment

syndrome is suspected. Given this complication, the approach for the type of closure must be decided based on conditions such as prematurity, abdominal domain, and degree of respiratory distress.

For patients with gastroschisis and an associated atresia or perforation, the management is more complex. Care of these infants must be individualized based on their gestational age, weight, and clinical status as well as the length and condition of the bowel. The possible techniques include primary anastomosis with closure if the bowel is in good condition; creation of stomas with closure; or reduction of unrepaired bowel into the abdomen with closure and repeat surgery for establishment of bowel continuity in the future.

Postoperatively, it is common to have delayed recovery of bowel function as a result of abnormal intestinal motility, which is frequently observed in these patients. During this period of dysmotility, gastric decompression and parenteral nutrition should be provided until enteral feedings are

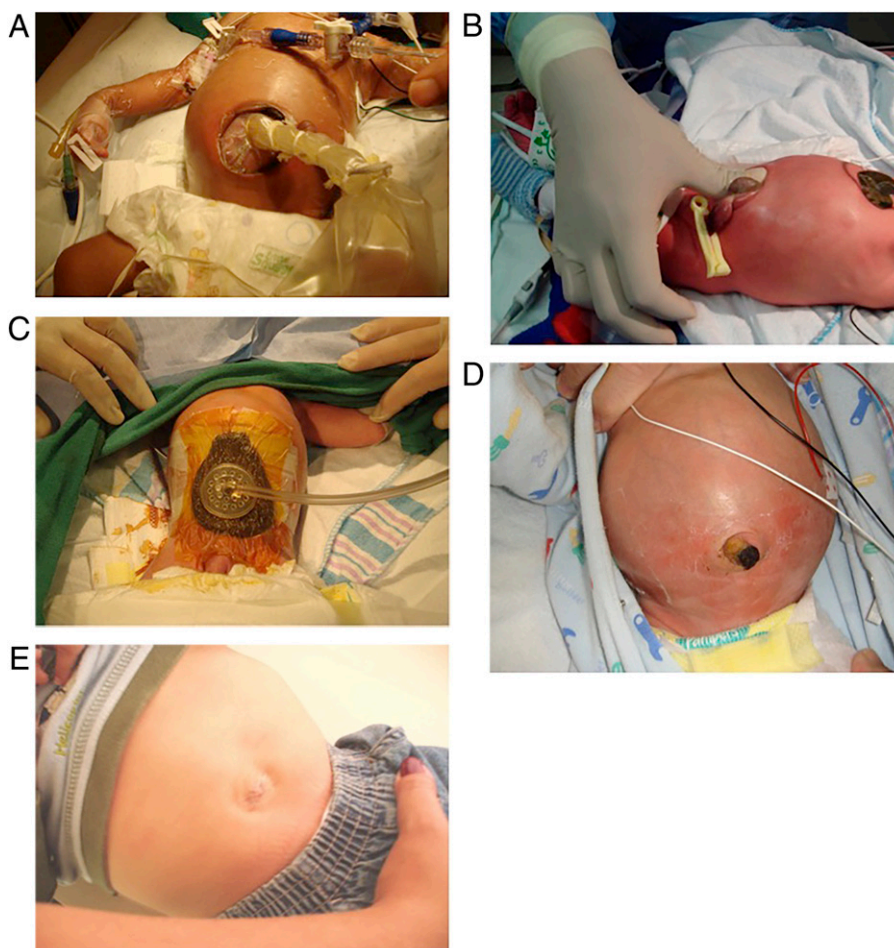


Figure 4. A. Picture demonstrating serial reductions with umbilical ties until at the level of the fascia. B. Complete reduction of gastroschisis. C. Adhesive tape and wound vacuum applied to gastroschisis. D. Picture after wound vacuum removed, demonstrating closure. E. Picture of abdomen 6 weeks after surgery.

started. If bowel improvement is not observed after 4 to 6 weeks, imaging studies can be performed to evaluate for the presence of an intestinal atresia which is often difficult to visualize because of matted bowel.

Prognosis

Long-term outcomes and survival of patients with gastroschisis are generally excellent, with survival rates greater than 90% in large series. (17)(18) Outcomes are poorer in patients with an associated finding such as atresia, perforation, necrosis, or volvulus. (19) However, a single-center study focusing on quality of life using a validated survey demonstrated high average quality of life scores that were independent of severity, after the age of 2 years, which were comparable to published outcomes of healthy children. (20) Potential long-term issues that can be seen in these patients include cholestasis, recurrent, nonspecific abdominal pain, bowel obstruction, and need for scar revision.

OMPHALOCELE

Clinical Aspects

Omphalocele is a large defect, usually greater than 4 cm, covered by an amniotic membrane, which contains intestines and other abdominal organs including the liver and often the spleen and gonad. (5) Patients with an omphalocele often have other congenital anomalies, chromosomal abnormalities, or syndromes. In addition, omphaloceles can be combined with pentalogy of Cantrell, cloacal exstrophy, and the rare omphalocele, exstrophy of the bladder, imperforate anus, and spinal anomaly (OEIS) complex.

Infants with an omphalocele are typically diagnosed prenatally. The fetal ultrasound characteristics include a contained herniation in a membranous sac. Additional associated anomalies may also be identified on prenatal ultrasonography; however, up to one-third of patients with isolated defects are found to have other abnormalities postnatally.

A giant omphalocele contains liver and has a defect of at least 5 to 10 cm in diameter. In addition to an underdeveloped abdominal wall cavity, these patients commonly have pulmonary hypoplasia as well. Giant omphaloceles are associated with a high morbidity and mortality rate. The operative treatment for these patients is also challenging. (21)

Management

Most patients with an omphalocele are born at term gestational age. Some experts advocate for cesarean delivery if there is an extra-abdominal liver to avoid hepatic injury

during a vaginal delivery. However, neither type of delivery has been shown to be superior.

Initial management involves obtaining intravenous access and initiating fluid resuscitation as well as gastric decompression with a naso- or orogastric tube. An assessment of the neonate's cardiopulmonary system and complete evaluation for associated anomalies is mandatory. As such, an echocardiography and abdominal ultrasonography should be performed. In addition, a blood glucose level should be checked because hypoglycemia may be an indication of Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, which occurs in 12% of patients with an omphalocele.

The management approach for infants with an omphalocele depends on the defect size, birth gestational age and

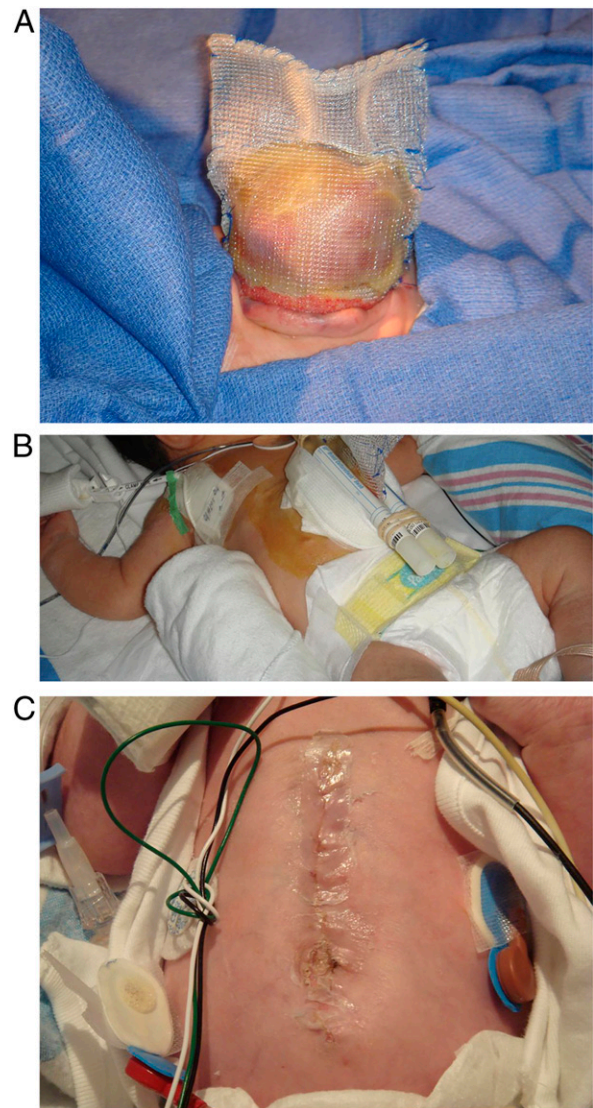


Figure 5. A. Primary closure of a large omphalocele with placement of mesh. B. Reduction of contents. C. Complete closure in 5 days.

weight, and the existence of associated anomalies. In a stable patient with a small defect, primary repair with surgical closure may be possible. The sac may be removed or inverted before fascial closure. If the sac is adherent to the liver, some defects may need to be left in place to avoid liver injury and hemorrhage. However, more commonly, because of the size of the defect, loss of domain of the peritoneal cavity, or instability of the infant, primary closure is not possible, and various techniques are used for coverage and closure. Staged or delayed closure (Fig 5 and Fig 6) of the defect is typically used. Eschoratic therapy, sometimes referred to as the “paint and wait” technique, is often used, in which a topical agent, most commonly silver sulfadiazine, is applied to the sac daily. It creates a gradual eschar with subsequent epithelialization, leaving a ventral hernia. This process takes weeks to months to complete and may be combined with compressive dressings once the sac is thick enough to slowly reduce the contents into the abdomen. Later closure may involve mobilization of skin flaps, component separation, (22) use of tissue expanders, (23) or a patch. (24) A recent report describes a series of patients using a serial taping method to gradually reduce the abdominal contents. (25) With all of these techniques, it is important to avoid kinking of the hepatic veins that may occur with reduction of the liver. This can lead to a metabolic acidosis and may require reoperation to reorient the position of the liver. Another potential complication that can arise either before primary repair or while undergoing topical therapy before the eschar has completely formed is rupture of the sac. A range of methods can be used to manage a ruptured sac, depending on the size of the tear and status of the infant, and includes suture repair, skin closure, and placement of a patch.

Prognosis

The main determinant of prognosis for infants with an omphalocele is the association with structural or chromosomal anomalies that may occur in as many as 80% of affected patients. Major cardiac anomalies are seen in approximately one-third of patients with omphaloceles. Survival rates range from 70% to 95%, with most of the mortality arising from associated anomalies. (26)(27) In addition, a number of long-term medical problems have been found in patients with large omphaloceles, including gastroesophageal reflux disease, pulmonary insufficiency, asthma, and feeding difficulties. (28)(29) Patients with giant omphaloceles have increased morbidity because of an increased visceroperitoneal disproportion leading to prolonged mechanical ventilation and a longer hospital stay.



Figure 6. Delayed closure technique used for a large omphalocele after painting with silver sulfadiazine demonstrating complete epithelialization after 8 months.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Future goals in the care of patients with gastroschisis are mostly directed toward preventing damage to the exposed bowel as a result of amniotic fluid. Amniotic fluid exchange, (30)(31)(32) nitric oxide, (33) diuretics, (34) and fetoscopic surgery (35)(36)(37) have been tried in animal models with limited success. The other areas of focus include the timing of delivery and the role of intra-abdominal bowel dilation, as discussed herein.

American Board of Pediatrics Neonatal-Perinatal Content Specification

- Know the morphogenesis of the GI tract and factors that lead to congenital malformations.

References

1. Laughon M, Meyer R, Bose C, et al. Rising birth prevalence of gastroschisis. *J Perinatol.* 2003;23(4):291-293
2. Baird PA, MacDonald EC. An epidemiologic study of congenital malformations of the anterior abdominal wall in more than half a million consecutive live births. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1981;33(3):470-478
3. Baerg J, Kaban G, Tonita J, Pahwa P, Reid D. Gastroschisis: a sixteen-year review. *J Pediatr Surg.* 2003;38(5):771-774
4. Christison-Lagay ER, Kelleher CM, Langer JC. Neonatal abdominal wall defects. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2011;16(3):164-172

5. Klein MD. In: J L Grosfeld et al, eds. *Congenital Defects of the Abdominal Wall*. 6th ed. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier Saunders; 2012;1157–1171
6. Oakes MC, Porto M, Chung JH. Advances in prenatal and perinatal diagnosis and management of gastroschisis. *Semin Pediatr Surg*. 2018;27(5):289–299
7. Segel SY, Marder SJ, Parry S, Macones GA. Fetal abdominal wall defects and mode of delivery: a systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2001;98(5 pt 1):867–873
8. Landisch RM, Yin Z, Christensen M, Szabo A, Wagner AJ. Outcomes of gastroschisis early delivery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2017;52(12):1962–1971
9. Nasr A, Wayne C, Bass J, Ryan G, Langer JC; Canadian Pediatric Surgery Network. Effect of delivery approach on outcomes in fetuses with gastroschisis. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2013;48(11):2251–2255
10. Skarsgard ED, Claydon J, Bouchard S, et al; Canadian Pediatric Surgical Network. Canadian Pediatric Surgical Network: a population-based pediatric surgery network and database for analyzing surgical birth defects—the first 100 cases of gastroschisis. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2008;43(1):30–34, discussion 34
11. Taylor JS, Shew SB. Impact of societal factors and health care delivery systems on gastroschisis outcomes. *Semin Pediatr Surg*. 2018;27(5):316–320
12. Nasr A, Langer JC; Canadian Paediatric Surgery Network. Influence of location of delivery on outcome in neonates with gastroschisis. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2012;47(11):2022–2025
13. Pastor AC, Phillips JD, Fenton SJ, et al. Routine use of a SILASTIC spring-loaded silo for infants with gastroschisis: a multicenter randomized controlled trial. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2008;43(10):1807–1812
14. Hassan SF, Pimpalwar A. Primary suture-less closure of gastroschisis using negative pressure dressing (wound vacuum). *Eur J Pediatr Surg*. 2011;21(5):287–291
15. Bruzoni M, Jaramillo JD, Dunlap JL, et al. Sutureless vs sutured gastroschisis closure: a prospective randomized controlled trial. *J Am Coll Surg*. 2017;224(6):1091–1096 e1
16. Islam S. Advances in surgery for abdominal wall defects: gastroschisis and omphalocele. *Clin Perinatol*. 2012;39(2):375–386
17. Youssef F, Cheong LH, Emil S; Canadian Pediatric Surgery Network (CAPSNet). Gastroschisis outcomes in North America: a comparison of Canada and the United States. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2016;51(6):891–895
18. Emil S, Canvasser N, Chen T, Friedrich E, Su W. Contemporary 2-year outcomes of complex gastroschisis. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2012;47(8):1521–1528
19. Davis RP, Treadwell MC, Drongowski RA, Teitelbaum DH, Mychaliska GB. Risk stratification in gastroschisis: can prenatal evaluation or early postnatal factors predict outcome? *Pediatr Surg Int*. 2009;25(4):319–325
20. Carpenter JL, Wiebe TL, Cass DL, Olutoye OO, Lee TC. Assessing quality of life in pediatric gastroschisis patients using the Pediatric Quality of Life Inventory survey: An institutional study. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2016;51(5):726–729
21. Bauman B, Stephens D, Gershon H, et al. Management of giant omphaloceles: a systematic review of methods of staged surgical vs. nonoperative delayed closure. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2016;51(10):1725–1730
22. van Eijck FC, de Blaauw I, Bleichrodt RP, et al. Closure of giant omphaloceles by the abdominal wall component separation technique in infants. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2008;43(1):246–250
23. De Ugarte DA, Asch MJ, Hedrick MH, Atkinson JB. The use of tissue expanders in the closure of a giant omphalocele. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2004;39(4):613–615
24. Siy RW, Pferdehirt RE, Izaddoost SA. Non-crosslinked porcine acellular dermal matrix in pediatric abdominal wall reconstruction: a case series. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2017;52(4):639–643
25. Kogut KA, Fiore NF. Nonoperative management of giant omphalocele leading to early fascial closure. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2018;53(12):2404–2408
26. Marshall J, Salemi JL, Tanner JP, et al; National Birth Defects Prevention Network. Prevalence, correlates, and outcomes of omphalocele in the United States, 1995–2005. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2015;126(2):284–293
27. Mabogunje OA, Mahour GH. Omphalocele and gastroschisis: trends in survival across two decades. *Am J Surg*. 1984;148(5):679–686
28. Koivusalo A, Rintala R, Lindahl H. Gastroesophageal reflux in children with a congenital abdominal wall defect. *J Pediatr Surg*. 1999;34(7):1127–1129
29. Gamba P, Midrio P. Abdominal wall defects: prenatal diagnosis, newborn management, and long-term outcomes. *Semin Pediatr Surg*. 2014;23(5):283–290
30. Dommergues M, Ansker Y, Aubry MC, et al. Serial transabdominal amniocentesis in the management of gastroschisis with severe oligohydramnios. *J Pediatr Surg*. 1996;31(9):1297–1299
31. Aktuğ T, Demir N, Akgür FM, Olguner M. Pretreatment of gastroschisis with transabdominal amniotic fluid exchange. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1998;91(5 Pt 2):821–823
32. Luton D, de Lagausie P, Guibourdenche J, et al. Effect of amniocentesis on the outcome of prenatally diagnosed gastroschisis. *Fetal Diagn Ther*. 1999;14(3):152–155
33. Gonçalves FL, Bueno MP, Schmidt AF, Figueira RL, Sbragia L. Treatment of bowel in experimental gastroschisis with a nitric oxide donor. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2015;212(3):383.e1–383.e7
34. Hagguder G, Olguner M, Gürel D, Akgür FM, Flake AW. Induction of fetal diuresis with intraamniotic furosemide injection reduces intestinal damage in a rat model of gastroschisis. *Eur J Pediatr Surg*. 2011;21(3):183–187
35. Kohl T, Tchatcheva K, Stressig R, Gembruch U, Kahl P. Is there a therapeutic role for fetoscopic surgery in the prenatal treatment of gastroschisis? a feasibility study in sheep. *Surg Endosc*. 2009;23(7):1499–1505
36. Bergholz R, Krebs T, Wenke K, et al. Fetoscopic management of gastroschisis in a lamb model. *Surg Endosc*. 2012;26(5):1412–1416
37. Stephenson JT, Pichakron KO, Vu L, et al. In utero repair of gastroschisis in the sheep (*Ovis aries*) model. *J Pediatr Surg*. 2010;45(1):65–69

NeoReviews Quiz

Individual CME quizzes are available via the blue CME link in the Table of Contents of any issue. To learn how to claim MOC points, go to: <http://www.aappublications.org/content/moc-credit>.

1. A woman presents for antenatal ultrasonography at 20 weeks' gestation. The fetus is noted to have probable gastroschisis. Which of the following statements concerning gastroschisis is correct?
 - A. It is more common in girls.
 - B. It usually presents with an intact peritoneal sac at this gestational age.
 - C. The defect typically occurs to the left of the umbilicus.
 - D. The incidence is approximately 1 in 4,000 live births and has become the most common abdominal wall defect.
 - E. In the current era, it is almost always associated with either marijuana or heavy tobacco use during the first trimester.
2. A female neonate with gastroschisis is born after the mother has preterm labor at 29 weeks' gestation. Which of the following is most likely to be seen in a neonate with gastroschisis?
 - A. Large for gestational age.
 - B. Congenital anomalies of the heart and brain.
 - C. A defect that is almost always larger than 10 cm.
 - D. Abnormalities of the bowel such as an atresia.
 - E. Vocal cord paralysis.
3. Your team is planning the delivery and postdelivery care for a patient with gastroschisis. Which of the following practices is an appropriate component of the routine care for gastroschisis?
 - A. Cesarean delivery, regardless of labor status.
 - B. Delivery before 32 weeks of gestation.
 - C. Avoidance of nasogastric tube insertion.
 - D. Immediate nasal continuous positive airway pressure administration.
 - E. Placement of the bowel in warm, saline-soaked gauze and the lower half of the body in a bowel bag.
4. A woman undergoes antenatal ultrasound evaluation and the fetus is noted to have omphalocele. Which of the following statements concerning omphalocele is correct?
 - A. The defect is usually greater than 4 cm and covered by an amniotic membrane.
 - B. It is almost always an isolated defect, with no other anomalies present.
 - C. A "giant" omphalocele refers to the condition in which the entire intestinal tract is located outside the body.
 - D. It is associated with high rates of very preterm birth.
 - E. There is definitive evidence that cesarean delivery improves outcomes for both the mother and neonate.
5. An infant born at term gestational age has been treated in the NICU for gastroschisis for several weeks. The patient has been able to work up to full enteral feedings. Arrangements are being made for transition to the home. Which of the following is the main determinant of prognosis?
 - A. Race/ethnicity.
 - B. Presence of structural or chromosomal anomaly.
 - C. Presence or absence of intraventricular hemorrhage.
 - D. Sex.
 - E. Receipt of antenatal or postnatal steroids.

REQUIREMENTS: Learners can take *NeoReviews* quizzes and claim credit online only at: <http://neoreviews.org/>.

To successfully complete 2020 *NeoReviews* articles for *AMA PRA Category 1 Credit™*, learners must demonstrate a minimum performance level of 60% or higher on this assessment. If you score less than 60% on the assessment, you will be given additional opportunities to answer questions until an overall 60% or greater score is achieved.

This journal-based CME activity is available through Dec. 31, 2022, however, credit will be recorded in the year in which the learner completes the quiz.



2020 *NeoReviews* is approved for a total of 10 Maintenance of Certification (MOC) Part 2 credits by the American Board of Pediatrics (ABP) through the AAP MOC Portfolio Program. *NeoReviews* subscribers can claim up to 10 ABP MOC Part 2 points upon passing 10 quizzes (and claiming full credit for each quiz) per year. Subscribers can start claiming MOC credits as early as May 2020. To learn how to claim MOC points, go to: <https://www.aappublications.org/content/moc-credit>.

Abdominal Wall Defects
Bethany J. Slater and Ashwin Pimpalwar
NeoReviews 2020;21:e383
DOI: 10.1542/neo.21-6-e383

Updated Information & Services	including high resolution figures, can be found at: http://neoreviews.aappublications.org/content/21/6/e383
References	This article cites 36 articles, 0 of which you can access for free at: http://neoreviews.aappublications.org/content/21/6/e383.full#ref-list-1
Subspecialty Collections	This article, along with others on similar topics, appears in the following collection(s): Pediatric Drug Labeling Update http://classic.neoreviews.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/pediatric_drug_labeling_update
Permissions & Licensing	Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at: https://shop.aap.org/licensing-permissions/
Reprints	Information about ordering reprints can be found online: http://classic.neoreviews.aappublications.org/content/reprints



Abdominal Wall Defects
Bethany J. Slater and Ashwin Pimpalwar
NeoReviews 2020;21:e383
DOI: 10.1542/neo.21-6-e383

The online version of this article, along with updated information and services, is located on the World Wide Web at:
<http://neoreviews.aappublications.org/content/21/6/e383>

Neoreviews is the official journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics. A monthly publication, it has been published continuously since 2000. Neoreviews is owned, published, and trademarked by the American Academy of Pediatrics, 141 Northwest Point Boulevard, Elk Grove Village, Illinois, 60007. Copyright © 2020 by the American Academy of Pediatrics. All rights reserved. Online ISSN: 1526-9906.

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN[®]

